

FIRST-TIME FATHERS' PERCEPTIONS
OF PARENTHOOD

By

SARAH ISABELLE JENNINGS

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Thesis Approved:

Frances Stromberg

Thesis Adviser

Judith a. Powell

Althea Wright

Norman D. Curhan

Dean of the Graduate College

1029395

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A major and neglected study of parenting involves men's experiences after the birth of a first child, or men's entrance to parenthood. There has always been a great deal of literature on how to cope with the advent of a new baby in the family, but most of it is addressed to the mother: her needs, her behavior, her treatment, her attitudes (U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1973). On reviewing the psychological literature, Phillips and Anzalone (1978, p. vii) state, "It appears that the American male's parental role is almost limited to pregnancy, paying bills nine months later, and then magically appearing again as a role model for adolescent boys." The early stages of parenthood for men have traditionally been overlooked.

Historically, the only research which has concerned fathers has emphasized the crisis aspect of parenting. Review of the literature discloses titles like "Fatherhood as a Precipitant of Mental Illness" (Wainwright, 1966), "Paranoid Psychoses Associated with Impending or Newly Established Fatherhood" (Retterstol, 1968), and "The Husband's Role in Psychiatric Illness Associated with Childbearing" (Kaplan and Blackman, 1969). These studies describe men who have had especially difficult experiences after the birth of the first child. Parenthood as a crisis event has been reported by 83 percent of LeMasters' couples (LeMasters, 1957) and 53 percent of Dyer's couples (Dyer, 1963). Some

studies conclude that parenthood is not a particularly upsetting event. Hobbs (1968, p. 417) observes that "not one of 53 fathers would use the phrase 'extensive or severe' crisis to describe his first experience with parenthood." Russell (1974) reports that fatherhood is only a slight or moderate crisis event for 272 first-time fathers. Regardless of the degree of crisis fathers experience with the birth of the first child, there definitely are areas in which fathers experience difficulty in adjustment.

One aspect of adjustment for the beginning father is his changing relationship with his wife. This change has been viewed as problematic because of the shift from a marital dyad to a familial triad. Simmel's theory (Wente and Crockenberg, 1976) suggests that the addition of a third party to a dyadic relationship frequently is a disruption of the affection and intimacy already established. Rapoport and Rapoport (1968, p. 29) propose the idea that around each major transition point in family life (among them the birth of a first child) is a period of "critical flux" within the individuals themselves and in their interpersonal relationships.

Besides the changes in the husband-wife relationship, there are other areas of adjustment for the first-time father. Many aspects have been suggested, but research is inconclusive as to what degree men are bothered by these various aspects of parenting. Hobbs and Wimbish (1977, p. 687) state, "Future researchers may profitably focus their efforts on specifying the most difficult dimensions of beginning parenting." The extent to which fathers are specifically bothered by perceived changes needs to be determined. Furthermore, research on the

change in the husband-wife relationship as it compares to the total adjustment difficulty deserves to be given considerable attention.

Purpose and Objectives of Study

The purposes of this study are to assess first-time fathers' perceptions toward parenthood and perceptions of possible changes in husband-wife relationships. The objectives of this study are:

1. To determine if there is a difference between the first-time fathers' expressed degree of happiness as a parent and selected personal variables.
2. To determine if there is a difference between the perceived degree of change in routine and selected personal variables.
3. To determine if there is a difference between the first-time fathers' expressed degree of marital happiness and selected personal variables.
4. To determine if there is a difference between the fathers' degree of happiness as a parent and degree of happiness with the marital relationship.
5. To determine if there is a difference between the first-time fathers' change in marital satisfaction and selected personal variables.
6. To determine if there is a difference between the first-time father's happiness as a parent and the change in marital satisfaction.
7. To make recommendations for further research based upon the findings of this study.

Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses are postulated for this research.

They are:

Hypothesis I:

There is no significant difference between the first-time fathers' expressed degree of happiness as a parent and selected personal variables.

Hypothesis II:

There is no significant difference between the perceived degree of change in routine according to selected personal variables.

Hypothesis III:

There is no significant difference between the first-time fathers' expressed degree of marital happiness and selected personal variables.

Hypothesis IV:

There is no significant difference between the first-time fathers' degree of happiness as a parent and the degree of marital happiness.

Hypothesis V:

There is no significant difference between the first-time fathers' change in marital satisfaction and selected personal variables.

Hypothesis VI:

There is no significant difference between the first-time fathers' satisfaction as a parent and change in satisfaction with the marital relationship.

Definitions

The following terms have specific meaning as applied to this study.

They are:

1. Neonate--"a newly born infant" (New Gould Medical Dictionary, 1955, p. 783).
2. Perinatology--"special category of medicine caring for fetus from 28 weeks of gestation to infant four weeks of age, i.e., end of neonatal period" (Phillips and Anzalone, 1978, p. 150).
3. Primiparous--"a woman who has given birth to her first child" (Phillips and Anzalone, 1978, p. 150).
4. Attachment--"a unique relationship between two people that is specific and endures through time" (Klaus and Kennel, 1976, p. 2). Indicators of this attachment include fondling, cuddling, and prolonged gazing--behaviors that serve both to maintain contact and exhibit affection toward a particular individual.

Assumptions

It is assumed that the respondents are truthful in completing the inventory.

Limitations

The conclusions of this study are limited to the 44 fathers questioned in the interviews since the sample is purposive in type.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

In considering first-time fathers' perceptions of parenthood, researchers reached various conclusions. The topics considered to be relevant to this area of study were: the prospective father, father-newborn involvement, parenthood education, transition to fatherhood, and marital adjustment after the birth of the child.

The Prospective Father

The prospective father's role varied a great deal from society to society. Since some primitive people felt that both the mother and father were responsible for fetal development, the father in these societies observed the same restrictions on food or activity as the mother (Mead and Newton, 1967). Papalia and Olds (1975) reported:

The Ifugao tribe in the Phillipines did not allow a man to cut or kill anything during his wife's pregnancy, and the Lepchar father or Sikkham in the Himalayas took part, with his wife, in a ceremonial cleansing during the fifth month of her pregnancy. In the United States, the traditional role of the prospective father was one of supporting and protecting his wife, but one in which he was relatively uninvolved with the pregnancy (p. 133).

More recently, however, the rapid increase in childbirth education classes involved many more prospective fathers with the physiological and psychological aspects of pregnancy.

The role of the father during the childbirth differed greatly among various cultures. The Kuratchi father of the Pacific Islands stopped

work, refrained from lifting any heavy object or touching any sharp instrument, and remained in seclusion until after the child was born (Blackwood, as cited in Papalia and Olds, 1975). One of the rituals that expectant fathers practiced in primitive cultures

. . . was the ritual 'couvade' in which the expectant father actually went to bed and pretended to be in labor at or about the same time the woman was laboring. He seemed to experience the same sensations which women described as the birth experience in that culture. The anthropologist Sir Edward Tylor named their ritual couvade in 1865 by taking the term from the French verb 'couvrir', to brood or hatch. Some anthropologists explained couvade as an attempt by the father to declare his importance in parenting, whereas others believed the ritual permitted the father to express his conflicting emotions regarding the birth and his fatherhood (Phillips and Anzalone, 1978, p. 2).

Regardless of the reason for the ritual, it allowed primitive fathers to be actively involved in birth for centuries.

In the past, in this country, childbirth usually occurred at home with the assistance of a midwife, female relative, or the family physician. The father could choose to wait in the house with male friends or to go about his business until the announcement of the birth of the baby. But when childbirth moved to the hospital, the father was displaced because he was viewed as a possible source of contamination. In an effort to reduce infections in the delivery unit, all visitors were excluded. The father could no longer remain with his wife in labor; he was relegated to a waiting room. After the baby was born, he could see his child only by peering through the glass window of the nursery.

In 1970, a court case was brought by a young father who wanted to stay with his wife throughout her labor and delivery in a Chicago hospital (Olds and Witt, 1970). This case dramatized the changing mores in our country related to the father's role during childbirth. With the

growing popularity of prepared childbirth classes that included fathers, more and more men found that they did, indeed, have a valuable role during childbirth.

Father-Newborn Involvement

Fathers reported themselves to be profoundly affected by the birth of their infants, and to experience the development of an affectionate bond. Numerous obstetricians noted the powerful impact that the newborn had upon the father and the intense involvement that fathers had in their child's birth and in their newborn baby (Stender, as cited in Greenburg and Morris, 1974). Hospital procedures could be important in hindering or enhancing the father's engrossment in his newborn by either allowing or prohibiting the father to hold the infant.

If the father was offered the infant (immediate contact with the newborn), a strong bond could be established. "This bond of the father to the newborn was described as engrossment--absorption, preoccupation, and interest" (Greenburg and Morris, 1974, p. 528). Several specific aspects of the father's developing bond to his newborn were identified, ranging from his attraction to the infant, his perception of the newborn as "perfect," to extreme elation and an increased sense of self-esteem.

Findings from animal research indicated that early contact between a father and his infant seemed to encourage paternal behavior. Laboratory research with rats showed that male mice and rats developed maternal-like behavior when exposed to infant mice and rats. Research with primates showed that after 15 minutes in contact with one-month old rhesus monkeys, eight out of 15 preadolescent male monkeys exhibit maternal behavior. Redican and Mitchell (1973) had adult male rhesus

monkeys in individual laboratory cages actually rear baby monkeys in the absence of their mothers. This animal research seemed to indicate that newborns had a strong impact on males. If exposure to the newborn was increased, they would become more involved in newborn care.

Many hospitals were changing their visiting policies to give fathers more contact with their newborn infants. Parke and Sawin (1977) believed that the father must have an extensive early exposure to the infant in the hospital where the parent-infant bond was initially formed. This was important to the father's interest in the child and to the development of kinds of skills that the mother learned.

Parke and Sawin (1976, p. 366) observed parents in three different situations: "the mother or father alone with the infant at two to four days of age and the father, mother, and infant together in the mother's hospital room (i.e., triadic interaction)." The most striking finding was that these studies did not reveal any significant behavioral differences between fathers alone with their infants and mothers alone with their infants.

In the triadic situation the father tended to hold the infant nearly twice as much as the mother, vocalized more, touched the infant slightly more, and smiled at the infant significantly less than the mother. The father clearly played the more active role when both parents were present in contrast to the cultural stereotype of the father as a passive participant. In fact, in this triadic interaction the mother's overall interaction declined (Parke and Sawin, 1976, p. 368).

It should be noted that all but one of the fathers studied had attended labor and birth, and this could be expected to produce an unusual degree of father-to-infant attachment.

In a more stringent test of father-infant involvement, Parke and O'Leary (1976) reported very similar results. The design of their study

was similar to that of Parke and Sawin; however, in the second study there was little or no participation in labor and birth. Despite these social and institutional differences, the fathers again played the more active and dominant role with increased holding, vocalizing, and touching. The authors reviewed their findings as indicating that the father was much more interested in and responsive toward his infant than United States culture acknowledged.

In an interesting and significant observation of fathers, Lind (1976) noted that paternal caregiving in the first three months of life was greatly increased when the father was asked to undress his infant twice and to establish eye-to-eye contact with him or her for one hour during the first three days of life. On the basis of this evidence, it was believed that an essential principle of attachment was that there was a sensitive period in the first minutes and hours after an infant's birth which is optimal for parent-infant attachment.

In review, it was shown that fathers were becoming more involved with the pregnancy of their wives and the birth of their children. Such participation could influence the father's reaction to parenting and could possibly have a relationship to his attachment and interaction with the neonate. Childbirth education classes were usually available to men to help them understand this phase of family life. The next question would be: What happened to the father after the baby and mother came home from the hospital? Was he prepared for the mechanics and emotional realities of parenting?

Parenthood Education for Males

Society did not prepare men for parenting. During a boy's childhood

there was no emphasis on learning father functions, except for the role of provider (Colman and Colman, 1971). "Boys were infrequent babysitters and rare participants in Child Development and Family Life Education classes" (Wente and Crockenberg, 1976, p. 352). Thus, it was likely that men had little basis for developing realistic expectations about parenthood.

In the state of Washington, community colleges and vocational-technical institutions provided a unique education program for new parents of infants. Primarily, the goals of the program were to help parents promote their infant's cognitive and language development, to help them gain confidence in their parenting roles; and to enable them to become better managers of family resources (Charnley and Myre, 1977). Seattle Community College offered a Saturday morning class especially for fathers and their babies with a male instructor.

Many of the father's interests were similar to those of mothers, but they were also concerned about providing enough time in their schedules to be with their babies. They often discussed their wives' need for personal fulfillment and how families could adapt to changing attitudes about men's and women's roles. The reason most often given by fathers for attending the class was to obtain information on child development and childrearing (Charnley and Myre, 1977, p. 21).

Fathers often selected safety and accident prevention as topics of high interest to them which could indicate that many men view themselves in the role of family protector.

All major adult roles had a history of anticipatory training (Rossi, 1968). Advance thought was given to the marital role during the engagement period, to the parental role during pregnancy, and to the occupational role during the last stages of highly vocationally oriented schooling or on-the-job apprenticeship. A good deal of preparatory

adjustment was possible during the engagement period and job-training stage. There was a firm reality base in these two states because the actual marital partners could interact and the job could be defined to a certain degree. This was not possible as the expectant parent anticipated his new role. "Fantasy was not corrected by the reality of a specific individual child until the birth of a child" (Rossi, 1968, p. 30). Preparation was limited to reading, consultation with friends and parents, discussions between husband and wife, and a minor nesting phase in which a place and the equipment for a baby was prepared in the household.

After the parental role was assumed, there was no gradual taking on of responsibility as in the case of a professional work role. The new parents started out immediately on 24-hour duty, with responsibility for a fragile and mysterious infant totally dependent on their care. The abruptness with which a new parent undertakes his new position required a rapid adaptation.

Transition to Fatherhood

What was involved in this adaptation for men? Hobbs and Wimbish (1977) listed the following items as the 10 most bothersome phases of adjustment:

- Interruption of routine habits of sleeping, going places, etc.
- Having to change plans we had before the baby's birth
- Decreased sexual responsiveness of spouse
- Increased money problems
- Decreased contact with friends
- Spouse showing too little attention to me
- Reduced feelings of privacy
- Interference from in-laws
- Doubting my worth as a parent
- Spouse showing too much attention to baby (p. 682).

It should be noted that this study replicated, using black parents, two earlier studies of the amount of difficulty reported by white parents in adjusting to their first infant. Mothers reported significantly more difficulty than fathers in adjusting to their infants, as had been found earlier with white parents. Mean difficulty scores were slightly higher for black parents than for white parents.

Of 15 potential predictor variables, post-birth marital satisfaction, age of self, whether pregnancy was planned and/or desired, and preference for sex of baby was associated with fathers' adjustment to their first child (Hobbs and Wimbish, 1977, p. 683).

In a study of the first year of fatherhood by David Knox and Richard C. Gilman (1974), the fathers' evaluation of parenthood was generally very favorable, despite the minimal preparation of respondents. Marital, parental, and in-law relationships were either not affected or improved. "Personal dissatisfaction with parenthood was associated with a complaining wife, a reduction in social time with the wife, and the evaluation of the marriage as worse (Knox and Gilman, 1974, p. 34). These data suggested that males adapted to fatherhood with relative ease independent of any formal preparation and that their reaction was closely influenced by the adaptation of the wife. This information should be repeated with caution since only one-fourth of those who were mailed a questionnaire completed and returned the questionnaire. "The nonrespondents could tend to view the variable under consideration with a negative perspective (Russell, 1974, p. 301).

In a later study, two means by which the husband could cope with the early months of fatherhood were investigated. "Typical complaints of fathers were in reference to financial strain, social restrictions, jealousy, interruptions, and exhaustion. Two avenues of coping with

these frustrations were fantasy and holidays" (Knox and Gilman, 1976, p. 135). Fantasy was explained as thinking back to the "good old pre-baby days." Holidays were in reference to the reestablishment of courtship behavior with the wife by seeing a movie, going out to eat, or taking a drive--without the baby. Of these two alternative coping mechanisms, their data suggested that only holidays had positive consequences for the father, baby, and the marriage. Fantasy was not a successful means of coping.

In a study of men's perinatal experiences, two major interpretations were drawn concerning postpartum adjustment.

Effective adjustment was related to fathers developing some kind of coherent role (a pattern of behavior that met their needs and the needs of their wives and babies) rather than any particular role. Those men appearing to have little difficulty adjusting were seen as adopting one of two roles: breadwinner or non-traditional father (Fein, 1976, p. 341).

Men in the breadwinner role tended to see themselves as responsible for providing financially for their families while their wives stayed home to care for the infant. These fathers were slightly involved in the daily care of their babies, and looked forward to being able to share interests and activities with their children. Important to the adjustment of these men was the support of their wives.

Men in the non-traditional role saw themselves as deeply involved in the daily care of their babies and split most infant tasks with their wives. Most of these men managed to arrange their schedules before the births so that they could spend much time at home in the postpartum weeks. Almost all of their wives wanted to combine mothering with work in the paid labor force or work toward professional degrees several months postpartum. Common to men in the non-traditional role was the

explicit recognition that pregnancy, birth and child rearing could be two person experiences that men and women could share.

The other men in the study were seen as having relatively more difficulty adjusting to life with their wives and babies than the "breadwinners" or the non-traditional fathers. Men in these families seemed generally unsure of how much they wanted to be involved with their infants as non-traditional fathers and how much they wanted to adopt breadwinner roles. Often their wives appeared to share this unsureness, wanting on the one-hand, to be principal and full time caretakers of their babies, and on the other, to share childcare fully with their husbands.

The Husband-Wife Relationship

"The transition to parenthood ushered in a whole new interpersonal situation for the couple" (Murrell and Stachowiak, 1965, p. 13). "The arrival of the child destroyed the two-person pattern of interaction, forcing the couple to reorganize their routines into a triangular arrangement" (Benson, 1968, p. 140). Simmel's theory of dyadic relationships suggested that the critical consequence of this shift was a disruption of the affection and intimacy already established in the dyadic relationship (Levine, as cited in Wente and Crockenberg, 1974).

Clearly the mother and father had needs and desires as a couple that the baby interrupted. Sex was frequently mentioned as one of these needs, but time for talk, for sharing, and for mutual nurturance was similarly at a premium. In addition, there was reason to think that the father would suffer most from this disruption. A three person unit typically invited two people to oppose the third person in desires. And in most families, it was the mother who became most involved in the baby's life, with the father in danger of feeling an intruder (Wente and Crockenberg, 1976, p. 351).

The changes in the husband-wife relationship were associated with some of the difficulty in the transition to fatherhood. Hobbs (1968) reported relationships between difficulty of transition and marital adjustment scores that were considerably higher for fathers than mothers. Similarly, Russell (1974, p. 297) indicated that "the best predictor of the husband's crisis response to his first child was his perceived marital adjustment after the birth."

Conceiving the baby after marriage rather than before apparently made parenting less stressful. "Making a shared, conscious choice could be seen as a form of public commitment which could function to reduce dissonance about the baby" (Russell, 1974, p. 300). Planning the baby's conception required effective communication, an attribute of marital adjustment.

In an exploratory clinical study, David Gangsei (1977) identified four tasks in the transition to fatherhood. Reestablishment of a relationship to the wife incorporating the new family circumstances was one of these tasks. Subtasks included establishing a coparenting relationship, accepting the wife's relationship with the baby, and reestablishing some dyadic involvement without the baby.

One factor which seemed to create difficulty in establishing a coparenting relationship was disagreement over the division of work and responsibility for the baby. Deutscher (1970), in a study of 10 primiparous couples before and after the birth of their first child, pointed to the necessity of an "alliance of pregnancy" between men and women. In the months before birth there was a rehearsal aspect to life, with each spouse trying on his or her own and the other's parenting style. The development of a mutuality of expectations between the man

and his wife by defining roles added stability to the coparenting relationship. Fein (1976, p. 344) stated that "effective postpartum adjustment in men was related to their developing some kind of coherent role (a pattern of behavior that met their needs and the needs of their wives and babies) rather than any particular role."

"It seems reasonable to suggest that in this stressful transition period men's anxiety and dependency needs might be expected to be greater than during periods of relative stability" (Gangsei, 1977, p. 205). Three out of the four men in Gangsei's clinical study felt dependent and anxious and experienced alienation from their wives. At the very moment their own needs were heightened, they also experienced their wives as more needy and less emotionally supportive.

Two men recalled how their wives' sense of self-confidence, level-headedness, and warmth had been important to them, and reported confusion and resentment that these things had changed. Further, there were instances of jealousy over the wife's attention to the baby at the expense of time to relate to the husband (Gangsei, 1977, p. 205).

One apparent outcome of these conflicts was that the men's involvement with their babies assumed a character of competition rather than cooperation with their wives. This in turn further alienated the spouses from one another.

Essentially, a pattern developed in which conflicts over unmet needs contributed to resentment and unwillingness to compromise on role issues, which produced further alienation between the spouses and less inclination to support each other's needs (Gangsei, 1977, p. 206).

Reestablishing some dyadic involvement without the baby facilitated the recovery of a positive husband-wife relationship. "Continued social life was found to have desirable consequences as a coping mechanism" (Knox and Gilman, 1976, p. 141). The importance of holidays could be

seen in that babies had the capacity to interrupt those patterns of marital interaction that were essential to keep positive feelings flowing in a relationship.

There seemed to be four activities in Gangsei's (1977) study that facilitated the recovery of a dyadic relationship: sharing activities, loving, fighting, and talking. Sharing activities involved the conscious effort to spend time together without the baby. Sex was an important sign of renewed husband-wife contact. Fighting either led to further alienation or to serious reflection on what was happening and to some efforts to improve things. Couples who were able to talk about the tensions and pleasures experienced seemed to feel closer to each other. The babies' demand on time and energy left couples feeling they hardly had time for each other. It would seem that discussion of the problems of new parenthood in the prenatal period, and a concerted effort to set aside time to deal with each other after the baby arrived were important goals for couples negotiating this transition.

CHAPTER III

METHOD AND PROCEDURE

The purpose of this study was to compare first-time fathers' perceptions of feelings toward parenthood and perceptions of possible change in the husband-wife relationship. This chapter includes a description of the type of research, the fathers who participated in the research, description of the research instrument, methods of data collection, and information regarding the analysis of data.

Type of Research

"A descriptive study describes and interprets what is. It is concerned with relationships that exist, opinions that are held, processes that are going on, effects that are evident, or trends that are developing" (Best, 1977, p. 116). Because this paper deals with the differences between variables, the testing of hypotheses, and the ultimate goal of development of generalizations, the descriptive type of research was selected. The data gathering instrument requests the respondents to answer questions, rate feelings, and list responses. Further elaboration on this instrument will follow.

Selection of Subjects

The 44 subjects in this study were first-time fathers whose children ranged in age from seven weeks to 15 months. The names of possible

participants were acquired through two local obstetricians. The following criteria guided the formation of the sample body. No illegitimate births were considered and all cases of neonatal deaths were deleted from the sample wherever this information was known. All fathers considered for the study were American citizens. The sample was purposive in type.

Research Instrument

At a home appointment, fathers were given the inventory (Appendix A). The first half of the instrument requests information on certain background variables (refer to Appendix B). The items concerning background information were designed by Dr. David C. Knox and Dr. Richard C. Gilman (1974) in their research with fathers (also with the assistance of Charles Garrison, Yoon Kim, Paul Tschetter, and Buford Rheas). The author entitled the instrument Father's Perceptions of Parenting Inventory.

The fathers were asked for an estimate of change in routines experienced on a four point scale ranging from 1 = no change to 4 = bothered extensively. The last five items deal with change in the husband-wife relationship. This portion of the instrument was developed by Arel S. Wente and Susan Crockenberg (1967). (Refer to item numbers 21 to 28 in Appendix A.)

Collection of Data

Fifty-two fathers of infants born to patients of two Stillwater obstetricians between September, 1977, and December, 1978, were contacted by telephone. A description of the study was presented to them with an

invitation to participate. The researcher then made an appointment with those fathers who were willing to become a part of the study. She presented the instrument to the respondent at the arranged time. The father was asked to refrain from conferring with his wife to assure that his feelings were being measured.

Inventories were mailed to those men who were willing to participate but were not able to schedule an appointment. The importance of answering questions independently of the wife was also emphasized to these subjects (Appendix C). Nineteen of the mailed questionnaires were returned.

Analysis of Data

Frequencies and percentages were used to analyze the various background characteristics of the respondents (Items 1 to 19). The responses to one open-ended question (Item 20) regarding the rewarding aspects of parenting were listed (Appendix D) since they did not lend themselves to further classification or analysis. Frequency and percentage were also used to determine the respondents' perceptions of those factors which caused the greatest amount of adjustment difficulty (responses to Item 22, Appendix E).

Scores were obtained for two sections of the instrument in order to measure the father's change in routine and his marital happiness.

A weighting system was used to determine the extent to which fathers were bothered by different changes in their environment since the birth of the baby (Item 22). The not at all response was assigned a value of one, the response of a little was given a value of two, quite a bit--three, and extensively--four. The question concerning the father's

perceptions of how much change in routine they experienced since the birth of the baby (Item 21) was given similar treatment. The response of none was assigned a value of one, slight--two, moderate--three, and extensive--four. A total score was computed by adding the subscores assigned to each of the responses of the 18 items. A frequency and distribution chart was graphed where the range and median were determined. Those scores below the median were classified as "least change of routine." Scores above the median reflected "most change in routine."

A similar technique was used to arrive at the "marital happiness" score. For Item 24 (as presented in instrument, Appendix A), extremely happy was assigned a value of one, very happy--two, happy--three, somewhat unhappy--four, and extremely unhappy--five. There were five items measured in Item 25. A value was assigned to each of the five responses. Each of the five values were added and the sum was divided by five to give an average score for marital interaction. Items 26 to 28 were rated on a one to five scale. The "marital happiness" score was computed by adding each of the five subscores. A scoring key for this portion of the questionnaire is presented in Appendix F. A frequency and distribution chart was graphed where the range and median were determined. Those scores below the median reflected a greater degree of marital happiness while those above the median were classified as experiencing less marital satisfaction.

The chi-square test was used to examine the hypotheses that:

- (1) there is no significant difference between the father's degree of happiness as a parent and his degree of happiness with his marriage,

- (2) there is no significant difference between the father's change in marital satisfaction and selected personal variables,
- (3) there is no significant difference between the father's degree of happiness as a parent and the degree of marital satisfaction.

The other hypotheses had such evenly distributed responses that inspection of the data sufficed. Chi-square tests were not necessary.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Background Characteristics

A detailed description of the 44 subjects who participated in this study is presented in Table I. The ages of the fathers ranged from 18 to 37 years while the ages of the infants ranged from seven weeks to 60 weeks. Fifty-five percent of the infants were males and 45 percent were females.

All of the respondents and their spouses had graduated from high school. Eighty percent of the fathers had education beyond the high school level. Twenty-seven percent had bachelor's degrees, nine percent had master's degrees, 11 percent were veterinary medicine students, and 11 percent had doctoral degrees. Seventy-seven percent of the mothers had education beyond the high school level. Twenty-five percent had bachelor's degrees, 16 percent had master's degrees, and five percent had doctoral degrees.

Occupations of both the respondents and their spouses are listed in Appendix G. All of the fathers were gainfully employed. Seventy percent of the mothers worked outside the home after the birth of the baby. Eighty-six percent of the mothers were employed previous to the pregnancy.

Almost one-third (32 percent) of the pregnancies were unplanned but

TABLE I
BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS

Variable	Classification	Number	Percent
Age of Father	18-21 Years	7	16.0
	22-23 Years	6	14.0
	24-25 Years	9	20.0
	26-27 Years	8	18.0
	28-30 Years	6	14.0
	31-37 Years	8	18.0
Age of Infant	7-15 Weeks	10	23.0
	16-18 Weeks	10	23.0
	20-22 Weeks	8	18.0
	24-30 Weeks	7	16.0
	32-60 Weeks	9	20.0
Sex of Infant	Male	24	55.0
	Female	20	45.0
Father's Highest Level of Education	High School	9	20.5
	One to Four Years of College	9	20.5
	Bachelor's Degree	7	15.9
	Bachelor's Degree + Graduate Credit	5	11.4
	Master's Degree	4	9.0
	Veterinary Medicine Students	5	11.4
	Ph.D.	5	11.4

TABLE I (Continued)

Variable	Classification	Number	Percent
Mother's Highest Level of Education	High School	10	22.7
	One to Four Years of College	14	31.8
	Bachelor's Degree	7	15.9
	Bachelor's Degree + Graduate Credit	4	9.1
	Master's Degree	7	15.9
	Ph.D.	2	4.6
Employment Status of Wife Previous to Pregnancy	Employed	38	86.0
	Unemployed	6	14.0
Employment Status of Wife After Birth of Child	Employed	31	70.0
	Unemployed	13	30.0
Status of Pregnancy	Planned	30	68.0
	Unplanned	14	32.0
Father's Participation in Parenthood Classes Before Child's Birth	Yes	24	55.0
	No	19	43.0
	Not Available	1	2.0
Couples' Attendance at Natural Childbirth or Lamaze Classes	Yes	36	82.0
	No	8	18.0
Experience in Feeding or Changing Diapers of Another Person's Baby Before Birth of Own Child	Yes	23	52.0
	No	21	48.0

TABLE I (Continued)

Variable	Classification	Number	Percent
Conversation with Male About how He Played with, Talked to, Fed, Enjoyed or Did Not Enjoy Babies Before Birth of Own Child	No	10	22.7
	Occasionally	24	54.6
	Several Times	10	22.7
Help with Infant upon Arrival Home from Hospital	Yes	33	75.0
	No	11	25.0
Length of Time Person Helped on Systematic Basis After Child Came Home from Hospital	Less than 1 Week	11	33.0
	1 Week	14	42.0
	2 Weeks	5	15.0
	More than 2 Weeks	3	9.0
Number of Times Father Fed Infant in One Week Period	0-3 Times	11	25.0
	4-7 Times	15	34.0
	8 or More Times	18	41.0
Number of Times Father Changed Infant's Diapers in One Week Period	0-4 Times	10	23.0
	5-10 Times	18	77.0

all of the fathers desired the child by the time of birth. Eighty-two percent of the men (with their spouses) attended natural childbirth or Lamaze classes. Ninety-one percent of the men were present at their child's birth. Over half of the men had participated in parenthood classes (including experiences such as units of work in high school homemaking classes, college course work, short courses offered by community agencies, church, extension, etc.).

Over half (52 percent) of the men had experience in feeding or changing the diapers of someone else's baby before the birth of their own child. Twenty-three percent of the males had never conversed with another male about playing with, talking to, feeding, enjoying or not enjoying babies before the birth of the respondent's child. Of those men who had conversations on this subject, 74 percent reported that the talk was primarily positive while 26 percent indicated the talk was equally positive and negative. None of them stated that the conversation was fundamentally negative.

Approximately 45 percent of the fathers chose "male" as the desired sex of the infant before the birth of the child. Over 45 percent of the respondents stated they "really didn't care" when asked about the preference for sex of the child. The remaining nine percent wanted a girl.

Six of the fathers who chose "male" as the desired sex of the infant got females. One of these men stated that he "really" preferred a male. This subject experienced a great deal of adjustment difficulty to parenting and also was experiencing less satisfaction with his marriage. The other five respondents who had a preference for a male child and got a female showed little adjustment difficulty. Two of the men

who preferred females before the birth got males. These respondents were happy as parents and were satisfied with their marriage. However, one of these men was experiencing upheaval as far as change of routine was concerned.

There was a diversified response as to how active the fathers were in caretaking responsibilities. Since many of the mothers breastfed, the figures concerning the father's participation in feeding may not accurately reflect the actual opportunity of the father to be able to share responsibility in this aspect of caretaking. The estimated number of feedings in a period of one week varied from 0 to 20 times. The number of times fathers changed diapers in a one-week period ranged from 0 to 28 times.

The most rewarding aspects of "fathering" are listed in Appendix D. The most frequently mentioned responses include: watching the baby's growth and development, having a sense of responsibility--being needed, playing with the baby, teaching the infant, enjoying laughter and smiles of the infant, strengthening the relationship with the wife, watching the child learn, and seeing the baby's birth.

Additional expenses were bothersome to nearly four out of five fathers. The men were also having trouble adjusting to less time to devote to the husband-wife relationship. The wife having less time for the husband bothered 73 percent of the men while 73 percent of the subjects were also bothered by the baby's crying. Seven out of 10 men were having difficulty adjusting to being tied down. A frequency and percentage table of other bothersome aspects of parenting for the respondents is located in Appendix E.

Examination of Hypotheses

Hypothesis I. There is no significant difference between the first-time fathers' expressed degree of happiness as a parent and selected personal variables.

Only two of the 44 fathers described themselves as "unhappy." By inspection of the data (Appendix H), it was concluded that a significantly greater number of fathers considered themselves happy as parents. This difference was recorded for each group. When the responses were examined more closely, there were no significant differences between responses "extremely happy" as opposed to "very happy" and "happy" according to: age of father, age of infant, education of father, education of mother, planned versus unplanned pregnancy, and participation in feeding and diapering.

In comparing expressed degrees of happiness (extremely happy versus very happy and happy combined) by sex of infant a statistical difference was found ($\chi^2 = 12$). The researcher believes, however, that this reflects semantic variation and not variation in emotion.

Hypothesis II. There is no significant difference between the change of routines fathers experienced upon entrance to parenthood and selected personal variables.

The conclusion was made that no significant differences exist between fathers' perceptions of marital happiness and selected personal variables (age of father, age of infant, sex of infant, father's educational level, mother's educational level, planned versus unplanned pregnancy, and participation in feeding and diapering the infant) (see

Appendix I). An examination of the data revealed very similar frequencies for each group of subjects.

Hypothesis III. There is no significant difference between the fathers' perceptions of marital happiness and selected personal variables.

Again, by inspection of the data (Appendix J), it was concluded there were no significant differences between fathers' perceptions of marital happiness and selected personal variables (age of father, age of infant, sex of infant, father's educational level, mother's educational level, mother's employment status, planned versus unplanned pregnancy, and participation in feeding and diapering). There were similar frequencies for each group of subjects.

Hypothesis IV. There is no significant difference between the fathers' perceptions of marital happiness and the degree of happiness as a parent.

The chi-square value indicated that there was a significant difference between fathers' perceptions of marital happiness and the degree of happiness as a father. Those fathers who were extremely happy with their marriages were more likely to experience a greater degree of happiness as parents (Appendix K), $\chi^2 = 8.64$, $p < .01$.

Hypothesis V. There is no significant difference between the first-time fathers' change in marital satisfaction and selected personal variables.

Chi-square tests showed no significant differences between change in marital satisfaction and selected personal variables (age of father, age of infant, father's educational level, mother's educational level,

mother's employment status after birth, status of pregnancy, participation in feeding, and participation in diapering (Appendix L).

Hypothesis VI. There is no significant difference between the fathers' perceptions of change in marital satisfaction and happiness as a father.

A chi-square test showed that there was a significant difference ($\chi^2 = 5.16, p < .05$) between the fathers' perceptions of change in marital happiness and happiness as a father. Those men who were extremely happy as parents experienced a more positive change in marital satisfaction (Appendix M).

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purposes of this study were to assess first-time fathers' perceptions toward parenthood and perceptions of possible changes in the husband-wife relationships. The subjects of this study were 44 first-time fathers whose children were no older than 15 months in age and no younger than seven weeks. The names of 52 possible participants were acquired through two obstetricians at Stillwater, Oklahoma.

The instrument used was, for the most part, a fixed-alternative inventory. The portion of the inventory dealing with background characteristics of the respondents was designed by Dr. David C. Knox and Dr. Richard C. Gilman (1976). The last half of the inventory was developed by Arel S. Wente and Susan Crockenberg (1976). The author entitled the instrument Fathers' Perceptions of Parenting Inventory.

The data were examined to determine the aspects of parenting which were most rewarding to fathers. Scores were obtained to measure areas of adjustment difficulty for the fathers and to determine the degree of marital happiness.

Results and Conclusions

The most frequently stated responses of fathers' perceptions of the

most rewarding aspects of parenting include: watching the child's growth and development, having a sense of responsibility, being needed, anticipation of new abilities and activities of the infant, teaching the infant, observing the smiles and laughs of the baby, and feeling closer to the wife.

Factors which bothered the fathers most were: additional expenses, husband and wife having less time for each other, baby's crying, being tied down to home, house messier than before, missing sleep, and not enough time for family.

The transition to fatherhood caused moderate to very much change in the men's lives, but it was not considered to be critical.

The following null hypotheses were shown to be correct:

- (1) There is no significant difference between fathers' expressed degree of happiness as a parent and the following: age of father, age of the infant, father's educational level, mother's educational level, planned versus unplanned pregnancy, participation in feeding and diapering. Forty-two of the 44 fathers described themselves as being happy in the role of parent. Closer examination comparing various degrees of happiness (extremely happy versus very happy and happy combined) resulted in no significant differences.
- (2) There is no significant difference between the degree of the perceived change in routine since the birth of the baby and the following: age of subject, age of infant, father's educational level, mother's educational level, planned versus unplanned pregnancy, participation in feeding, and participation in diapering.

- (3) There is no significant difference in the father's expressed degree of marital happiness and the following: age of father, age of infant, sex of infant, father's educational level, mother's educational level, mother's employment status, planned versus unplanned pregnancy, participation in feeding, and participation in diapering.
- (4) There is no significant difference in the father's change in marital satisfaction since the birth of the baby and the following: age of father, age of infant, father's educational level, mother's educational level, mother's current employment status, status of pregnancy, participation in feeding, and participation in diapering.

There was a significant difference between the father's degree of happiness as a parent and the degree of marital happiness. Those men who experienced the greatest satisfaction as parents also experienced greater satisfaction with their marriage. According to Russell (1974), the best predictor of the husband's crisis response was his perceived marital adjustment after the birth.

There was also a significant difference between the father's happiness as a parent and the change in marital satisfaction. The men who were extremely happy as parents were more likely to have a more satisfying marriage than before the birth of the child.

One factor which was of great concern to fathers was the additional expense incurred by a new family member. Even though the majority of mothers were employed outside the home, financial burdens were great to many of these men.

The absence of results concerning four of the main hypotheses of this study points to the discrepancy between the results of LeMasters (1957) and Dyer (1963) who reported extensive adjustment difficulty, and Hobbs (1965, 1968) and Wente and Crockenberg (1976) who reported slight adjustment difficulty. The current data supports Hobbs and Wente and Crockenberg and indicates that most fathers see their adjustment as minimal. However, there was a great range in response as to how difficult the adjustment had been.

It is possible that fathers in this sample were not yet able to admit to difficult times. It might be that only in retrospect (when the children are three years or older) fathers could recognize strong feelings about adjustment to parenthood.

Recommendations for Further Study

As a result of this study, the writer presents the following suggestions for further investigation:

1. A random sample be used to insure a more valid assessment.
2. Discussion of the subjects' responses upon their completion of the inventory.
3. Reverse the order of Items 11 and 12 in the instrument.
4. Ask the respondents if the mother is breastfeeding. (Number 20 asks the subject how many times he has fed the baby in the past week. It is not reasonable to draw any conclusions about this facet of caretaking without knowing if the mother is breastfeeding.)
5. Further investigation into the rewarding aspects of parenting for men.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

INSTRUMENT

Father's Perceptions of Parenting Inventory

Each father has a different experience in being a parent. This questionnaire is to find out how you feel about being a father and how you feel that parenthood has affected your relationship with your wife. Please answer as honestly as you can and feel free to elaborate anywhere you wish. It is very important that you answer these questions independently of your wife so we can be sure that the views are yours alone.

1. When were you born? _____
2. How old is your baby? _____
3. Sex of baby () Boy
 () Girl
4. Educational level completed by you and your spouse.
Self _____
Spouse _____
5. What are the current occupations of the adults in your household?
Describe fully.
Self _____
Spouse _____
6. When your wife got pregnant, was she working? _____
7. Was this baby planned in the sense that both you and your wife wanted to become parents at the time of conception?

() Planned
() Unplanned
8. If you checked "unplanned" in the previous question, by the time of birth did you want this baby to be born?

() Definitely not
() Mostly no
() Mostly yes
() Definitely yes

9. Did you participate in any Parenthood classes before the baby was born? (Classes include experiences such as units of work in high school homemaking classes, college course work, short courses offered by community agencies, church, extension, etc.)
- Yes
 No
 Not available
10. Did you and your wife attend natural childbirth or Lamaze classes before the baby was born?
- Yes
 No
11. Were you present when your child was born?
- Yes
 No
12. Did you ever feed or change the diapers of someone else's baby before your baby was born?
- Yes
 No
13. Did any male (father, brother, or friend) ever talk with you about how he played with, talked to, fed, enjoyed or did not enjoy babies before your baby was born?
- No
 Occasionally
 Several times
14. Was this talk primarily
- Negative
 Positive
 Equally positive and negative
 Answered "No" for No. 13
15. Before your baby was born, what sex child did you want?
- Really wanted a boy
 Preferred a boy
 Really didn't care
 Preferred a girl
 Really only wanted a girl
16. Did you and your wife have anyone to help with the baby when he/she came home from the hospital?
- Yes
 No

17. How long did this person help on a systematic basis after your child came home from the hospital?

- () Less than one week
 () One week
 () Two weeks
 () Three weeks
 () More than three weeks

18. During the last week, how many times have you fed the baby?

_____ times

19. During the last week, how many times have you changed the baby's diapers?

_____ times

20. What have been the most rewarding aspects of parenting for you?

- A. _____
 B. _____
 C. _____
 D. _____
 E. _____
 F. _____
 G. _____
 H. _____
 I. _____
 J. _____

21. How much change in routines have you experienced since your baby was born?

none slight moderate extensive

22. Specifically, how much have you been bothered by the following:

a. baby's crying

not at all a little quite a bit extensively

b. missing sleep

not at all a little quite a bit extensively

- c. not enough time for job (studies)
 not at all a little quite a bit extensively
- d. not enough time for family
 not at all a little quite a bit extensively
- e. wife has less time for me
 not at all a little quite a bit extensively
- f. being tied down to home
 not at all a little quite a bit extensively
- g. having to change long-range plans
 not at all a little quite a bit extensively
- h. additional expenses
 not at all a little quite a bit extensively
- i. wife and I have less time for each other
 not at all a little quite a bit extensively
- j. less income from wife not working
 not at all a little quite a bit extensively
- k. lack of knowledge about parenting
 not at all a little quite a bit extensively
- l. changing diapers
 not at all a little quite a bit extensively
- m. feeding the baby
 not at all a little quite a bit extensively
- n. visits from relatives and friends
 not at all a little quite a bit extensively
- o. having to do more cooking or housework
 not at all a little quite a bit extensively

28. To what extent does your child/children contribute to your having too little time with your wife?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all	very little	some	a lot	major contribution

APPENDIX B

BACKGROUND VARIABLES

Selected Background Variables

- A. Age of subject
- B. Age of infant
- C. Sex of infant
- D. Education of subject
- E. Occupation of subject
- F. Occupation of spouse
- G. Employment status of spouse at conception
- H. Planned versus unplanned pregnancy
- I. Expressed desire for infant at time of birth
- J. Participation in education for parenthood
- K. Participation in childbirth education classes (natural or Lamaze)
- L. Expressed preference for sex of child
- M. Presence in delivery room at time of birth
- N. Experience with other infants
- O. Conversations with other males regarding infant care
- P. Availability of help during neonatal period
- Q. Reported care of infant

APPENDIX C

NOTE SENT WITH MAILED QUESTIONNAIRE

Note Sent with Mailed Questionnaire

Each father has a different experience in being a parent. This questionnaire is to find out how you feel about being a father and how you feel parenthood has affected your relationship with your wife. Please answer as honestly as you can and feel free to elaborate anywhere you wish. It is very important that you answer these questions independently of your wife so we can be sure that the views are yours alone.

Thank you for your cooperation.

APPENDIX D

THE MOST REWARDING ASPECTS OF PARENTING
AS REPORTED BY FATHERS

TABLE II
RANK ORDER OF MOST REWARDING ASPECTS OF PARENTING
AS REPORTED BY FATHERS

1. Watching the child's growth and development
2. Having a sense of responsibility, being needed
3. Anticipation of new activities and abilities; watching the baby learn
4. Teaching him/her things
5. Playing with the baby
6. Feeling closer to my wife
7. Watching the baby laugh and smile
8. Watching the birth; sharing the pregnancy
9. Fulfilling the desire to have a child
10. Having more in common with friends
11. Showing him/her off
12. Loving and sharing
13. Seeing wife's fulfillment of being a mother
14. Sense of pride
15. Direction or reason for life
16. Feeding and caring for the baby
17. Having the baby "talk" to me
18. Seeing myself in him/her
19. Having someone to carry on the family name
20. Having a healthy baby
21. Exchanging ideas and concepts with my parents
22. Trying to be unselfish with my time
23. Raising a child is a vicarious childhood for myself

TABLE II (Continued)

-
24. Taking him/her places
 25. Bringing the baby home from the hospital
 26. Being supportive
 27. His/her responsiveness to me and vice versa
 28. Watching the baby take its first step
 29. Having a constant reminder that my actions are being mimicked which helps me to become a better person myself
 30. Having a "real" family
-

APPENDIX E

FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF
ADJUSTMENT DIFFICULTY TO PARENTING

TABLE III
 FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF
 ADJUSTMENT DIFFICULTY TO PARENTING*

Description	No.	Percentage
Additional expenses	35	79
Wife and I have less time for each other	34	77
Wife has less time for me	32	73
Baby's crying	32	73
Being tied down to home	31	70
House messier than before	27	61
Missing sleep	26	59
Not enough time for family	25	57
Lack of knowledge about parenting	24	55
Having to change long-range plans	23	52
Not enough time for job (studies)	22	50
Change in relationship with wife	22	50
Changing diapers	15	34
Having to do more cooking or housework	14	32
Less income from wife not working	13	30
Visits from relatives and friends	11	25
Feeding the baby	6	14

*Subjects could check more than one item. Therefore, the percentages do not equal 100.

APPENDIX F

KEY FOR MARITAL HAPPINESS SCORE

Key for Marital Happiness Score

24. Extremely Unhappy = 5
 Somewhat Unhappy = 4
 Happy = 3
 Very Happy = 2
 Extremely Happy = 1

25.	Never	Less than Once a Month	Once or Twice a Month	Once or Twice a Week	Once a Day	More Often
a. Have a stimulating exchange of ideas	5	4	3	2	1	0
b. Laugh together	5	4	3	2	1	0
c. Calmly discuss something	5	4	3	2	1	0
d. Work together on a project	5	4	3	2	1	0
e. An angry exchange of words	0	1	2	3	4	5

26. Much More Satisfying = 1
 Somewhat More Satisfying = 2
 No Change = 3
 Somewhat Less Satisfying = 4
 Much Less Satisfying = 5

27. Never = 1
 Infrequently = 2
 Sometimes = 3
 Frequently = 4
 Very Frequently = 5

28. Not at All = 1
 Very Little = 2
 Some = 3
 A Lot = 4
 Major Contribution = 5

APPENDIX G

OCCUPATIONS OF THE FATHERS AND MOTHERS

TABLE IV
OCCUPATIONS OF THE FATHERS AND MOTHERS

Description	No.
<u>Fathers' Occupations:</u>	
Factory Worker	7
Student (University)	4
Veterinarian Student	4
Professor	4
Teacher	3
Manager	3
Salesman	2
Carpenter	2
Construction	1
Banker	1
Teacher/Pastor	1
Sportscaster/Disc Jockey	1
Principal	1
Physicist	1
Athletic Scholarship/Stock Clerk	1
U.S. Postal Mail Carrier	1
Electrical Lineman	1
Draftsman	1
Police Officer	1
Coach/Teacher	1
Advertising	1

TABLE IV (Continued)

Description	No.
Maintenance Man	1
Storekeeper	1
<u>Mothers' Occupations:</u>	
Housewife	13
Teacher	7
Secretary	4
Nurse	3
Cashier	2
Bookkeeper	1
Professor	1
Lawyer	1
Speech Pathologist	1
Documents Examiner	1
Avon Representative	1
Receptionist	1
Public Information Officer	1
Financial Assistant	1
Photo Setter	1
Inspector at Factory	1
Student	1
Day Care Center Worker	1
Department Manager at Grocery	1
Accountant	1

APPENDIX H

FATHER'S EXPRESSED DEGREE OF HAPPINESS
ACCORDING TO SELECTED PERSONAL
VARIABLES

TABLE V

FATHER'S EXPRESSED DEGREE OF HAPPINESS AS A PARENT
ACCORDING TO SELECTED PERSONAL VARIABLES

Variable	Degree of Happiness				
	Extremely Unhappy	Somewhat Unhappy	Happy	Very Happy	Extremely Happy
Age of Subject					
18-21 Years				2	5
22-23 Years				2	4
24-25 Years	1		1	1	6
26-27 Years			2	2	4
28-30 Years					6
31-37 Years	1		2	1	4
Age of Infant					
7-15 Weeks	1		2	2	5
16-18 Weeks			2	2	6
20-22 Weeks			1	1	6
24-30 Weeks				1	6
32-60 Weeks	1			2	6
Sex of Infant					
Male			1	1	22
Female	2		4	7	7
Father's Educational Level					
High School			2	2	14
Bachelor's Degree			3	4	5
Graduate Degree	2			1	11
Mother's Educational Level					
High School	1		1	4	18
Bachelor's Degree			3	3	5
Graduate Degree	1		1		7
Status of Pregnancy					
Planned	2		4	4	20
Unplanned			1	3	10
Participation in Feeding					
0-3 Times	1		1	3	6
4-7 Times			3	2	10
8 or More	1		1	3	13

TABLE V (Continued)

Variable	Degree of Happiness				
	Extremely Unhappy	Somewhat Unhappy	Happy	Very Happy	Extremely Happy
Participation in Diapering					
0-4 Times			2	1	8
5-10 Times	1		3	5	10
12-28 Times	1			2	11

APPENDIX I

PERCEIVED DEGREE OF CHANGE IN ROUTINE
AS EXPRESSED BY SCORE

TABLE VI

PERCEIVED DEGREE OF CHANGE IN ROUTINE AS DESCRIBED BY SCORE*

Variable	Score	
	21-31 Median and Below	32-45 Above Median
Age of Subject		
18-25 Years	12	10
26-37 Years	12	10
Age of Infant		
7-18 Weeks	12	8
20-60 Weeks	12	12
Sex of Infant		
Male	14	10
Female	10	10
Father's Educational Level		
High School	10	8
Bachelor's Degree	5	7
Graduate Degree	9	5
Mother's Educational Level		
High School	15	9
Bachelor's Degree	4	7
Graduate Degree	5	4
Status of Pregnancy		
Planned	17	13
Unplanned	7	7
Participation in Feeding		
0-3 Times	6	5
4-7 Times	8	7
8 or More	10	8
Participation in Diapering		
0-4 Times	7	4
5-10 Times	10	9
12-28 Times	7	7

*Low Scores = Least Perceived Change; High Scores = Greatest Perceived Change.

APPENDIX J

FATHER'S EXPRESSED DEGREE OF MARITAL
HAPPINESS ACCORDING TO SELECTED
PERSONAL VARIABLES

TABLE VII

FATHER'S EXPRESSED DEGREE OF MARITAL HAPPINESS
ACCORDING TO SELECTED PERSONAL VARIABLES*

Variable	Score	
	6.0-11.4 Median and Below	11.5-16.9 Above Median
Age of Father		
18-25 Years	12	10
26-37 Years	11	11
Age of Infant		
7-18 Weeks	7	13
20-60 Weeks	16	8
Sex of Infant		
Male	15	9
Female	8	12
Father's Educational Level		
High School	12	6
Bachelor's Degree	4	8
Graduate Degree	7	7
Mother's Educational Level		
High School	16	8
Bachelor's Degree	2	9
Graduate Degree	5	4
Mother's Employment Status		
Employed Outside Home	15	15
Works at Home	8	6
Status of Pregnancy		
Planned	14	16
Unplanned	9	5
Participation in Feeding		
0-3 Times	4	7
4-7 Times	7	8
8 or More	12	6
Participation in Diapering		
0-4 Times	3	8
5-10 Times	11	8
12-28 Times	9	5

*Low scores reflect greatest amount of satisfaction. High scores reflect least amount of satisfaction.

APPENDIX K

DEGREE OF HAPPINESS AS FATHER AS COMPARED
TO MARITAL HAPPINESS

TABLE VIII
 DEGREE OF HAPPINESS AS FATHER AS COMPARED TO MARITAL HAPPINESS

Variable	Marital Happiness Score*	
	6.0-11.4	11.5-16.9
Extremely Happy as Parent	19	10
Less than Extremely Happy as Parent	4	11

$$\chi^2 = 8.64.$$

$$p < .01.$$

*6.0-11.4 = more marital satisfaction; 11.5-16.9 = less marital satisfaction.

APPENDIX L

CHANGE IN MARITAL SATISFACTION ACCORDING TO
SELECTED PERSONAL VARIABLES

TABLE IX
CHANGE IN MARITAL SATISFACTION ACCORDING TO
SELECTED PERSONAL VARIABLES

Variable	More Satisfying	No Change-Less Satisfying	χ^2
Age of Father			
18-25 Years	17	5	1.61
26-37 Years	12	10	
Age of Infant			
7-22 Weeks	16	12	1.66
24-60 Weeks	13	3	
Father's Educational Level			
High School-Bachelor's Degree	22	8	.07
Graduate Work	7	7	
Mother's Educational Level			
High School-Bachelor's Degree	22	9	.55
Graduate Work	7	6	
Mother's Current Employment Status			
Employed Outside Home	21	9	.45
Housewife	7	6	
Status of Pregnancy			
Planned	19	11	.03
Unplanned	10	4	
Participation in Feeding			
0-7 Times per Week	14	12	2.90
8 or More Times	15	3	
Participation in Diapering			
0-10 Times per Week	18	12	.75
12 or More Times	11	3	

APPENDIX M

HAPPINESS AS FATHER VERSUS CHANGE IN
MARITAL SATISFACTION

TABLE X
 HAPPINESS AS FATHER VERSUS CHANGE IN MARITAL SATISFACTION

Variable	Change in Marital Satisfaction*	
	6.0-11.4	11.5-16.9
Less than Extremely Happy as Parent	6	9
Extremely Happy as Parent	23	6

$$\chi^2 = 5.16.$$

$$p < .05.$$

*6.0-11.4 = more marital satisfaction; 11.5-16.9 = less marital satisfaction.

VITA²

Sarah Isabelle Jennings

Candidate for the Degree of

Master of Science

Thesis: FIRST-TIME FATHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF PARENTHOOD

Major Field: Family Relations and Child Development

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Miami, Oklahoma, October 8, 1949, the daughter of Sam and Isabelle Houston.

Education: Graduated from Pryor High School, Pryor, Oklahoma, in May, 1967; attended Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma, from 1967 to December, 1969, and from June, 1970, to January, 1972; attended Merrill Palmer Institute from January, 1970, to May, 1970; received a Bachelor of Science degree in Home Economics from Oklahoma State University in 1972; attended Central State University, Edmond, Oklahoma, in 1973; completed requirements for the Master of Science degree in Family Relations and Child Development at Oklahoma State University in May, 1979.

Professional Experience: Elementary school teacher, Midwest City, Oklahoma, February, 1972, through May, 1974; elementary school teacher, Bixby, Oklahoma, September, 1974, through May, 1977; graduate teaching assistant, University Children's Center, Oklahoma State University, August, 1977, through May, 1978; Co-Lead Teacher, Pre-School East, Oklahoma State University, January, 1979, through May, 1979.

Professional Organizations: Phi Kappa Phi, Omicron Nu.