

ATTITUDES OF OKLAHOMA JAYCEES TOWARD
THE FATHER ROLE

By

SARAH LEE HELM ANDERSON

Bachelor of Science
Oklahoma State University
Stillwater, Oklahoma
1970

Master of Science
Oklahoma State University
Stillwater, Oklahoma
1974

Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate College
of the Oklahoma State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the Degree of
DOCTOR OF EDUCATION
July, 1982



DEDICATION

To all of the Jaycee families around the world, who give their best to make the world a better place and truly believe that the best work of life is service to humanity.

ATTITUDES OF OKLAHOMA JAYCEES TOWARD
THE FATHER ROLE

Thesis Approved:

Judith A. Powell

Thesis Adviser

Thomas Adams

Frances Stromberg

Atthea Wright

Norman N. Durbin

Dean of the Graduate College

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This study was undertaken in an effort to expand the current knowledge about young men's attitudes toward the role of the father. My reasons for choosing this topic of study and my desire to use the Jaycees as the research population were twofold. First, as a student of Family Relations and Child Development, I was interested in parent-child interaction, and there was very little information available on young men's attitudes toward their family work--especially child rearing. Secondly, being a part of a Jaycee family, I have become particularly concerned about the demands of Jaycees on the family organization and especially the father-child relationship. I have found that being married to an active Jaycee requires much patience, understanding, love, and a profound belief in the principles and ideals of the Jaycee organization. I have felt that the Jaycee organization is of tremendous benefit to young men, but that it might do more to strengthen the family life of its members--especially in this time of rapid change, mobility, and stress. I therefore hoped to be able to provide the Jaycees with information which would be of use in developing additional Family Life Development programs.

I wish to express sincere appreciation to the United States Jaycees, especially to past-President Gib Garrow, and to the many Oklahoma Jaycees who participated in the study. Most sincere thanks go to Oklahoma President Tripp Haggard, for allowing me to present the research proposal at Summer Board of Directors Meeting, and to all of the local

chapter presidents who helped in the study: Bill Williamson of Ada, Les Courtney of Blackwell, Terry Lee of Durant, Eddy Holden of N.W. Grant County, Barney Barnwell of Ponca City, Rick Bohls of S.E. Tulsa, Benny Matthews of Stillwater, James Scinta of Bartlesville, Mike Lewis of Duncan, Daniel Martinez of Guymon, and Rick Fisher of Okeene.

I wish to express my most heartfelt appreciation to Dr. Judith A. Powell, who served as my dissertation adviser, role model, and friend throughout the project. Appreciation is also expressed to Dr. Frances Stromberg for her faith in me; to Dr. Althea Wright for her support; and to Dr. Thomas Karman, who served as chairman of my doctoral committee.

I especially would like to thank my family and friends for their encouragement and support as I undertook this lengthy project. Without their love and affection the project and doctoral studies would never have been completed. Most of all, I appreciate the many sacrifices, continuous patience, and steadfast support and encouragement of my Jaycee and husband, Steve, and my two beautiful daughters, Stephanie Elin and Shara Noel.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter	Page
INTRODUCTION	1
MANUSCRIPT FOR PUBLICATION	2
Abstract	3
Introduction	4
Review of Literature	7
Purpose and Procedures	9
The Sample	11
Results and Discussion	13
Analysis of Data	13
Jaycee Attitudes Toward the Five Sub-role Dimensions	14
Attitudes of Fathers and Non-fathers Toward the Five Sub-role Dimensions	16
Variables Related to the Attitudes of Young Fathers Toward the Five Sub-role Dimensions	17
Societal Model Sub-role Dimension	17
Recreational Sub-role Dimension	21
Nurturing Sub-role Dimension	24
Provider Sub-role Dimension	26
Problem Solver Sub-role Dimension	26
Conclusions, Recommendations and Limitations	28
Limitations	34
Reference Notes	36
References	37
Footnotes	44
Tables	48
Figure Captions	83
Figures	83
APPENDICES	85
APPENDIX A - LITERATURE REVIEW	86
APPENDIX B - BACKGROUND INFORMATION ON JAYCEE ORGANIZATION	144
APPENDIX C - METHODS AND PROCEDURES FOR OPINIONNAIRE DEVELOPMENT	150
APPENDIX D - QUESTIONNAIRE	160
APPENDIX E - CORRESPONDENCE AND SAMPLING PROCEDURES	170
APPENDIX F - SUPPLEMENTARY STATISTICAL ANALYSIS	190

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Demographic Data for Fathers, Non-fathers, and All Jaycees	48
2. Analysis of Variance of Jaycee Scores on the Five Sub-role Dimensions of Fathering	51
3. The Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Differences in Mean Scores of Jaycees on the Five Sub-role Dimensions of Fathering	52
4. Fathers and Non-fathers Mean Scores on the Five Sub-role Dimensions of Fathering	53
5. Analysis of Variance for Fathers and Non-fathers on the Providing Sub-role Dimension of Fathering	54
6. Analysis of Variance for Fathers and Non-fathers on Nurturing Sub-role Dimension of Fathering	55
7. Analysis of Variance for Fathers and Non-fathers on the Recreational Sub-role Dimensions of Fathering	56
8. Analysis of Variance for Fathers and Non-fathers on the Problem Solving Sub-role Dimensions of Fathering	57
9. Analysis of Variance for Fathers and Non-fathers on the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering	58
10. Analysis of Variance for Fathers on the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Social Status Rank	59
11. Mean Scores of Fathers Toward the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Selecting Variables	60
12. The Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Differences in Mean Scores on the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Social Status Rank	62
13. Analysis of Variance for Fathers on the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Degree of Involvement Outside the Home	63

Table	Page
14. The Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Differences in Mean Scores on the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Degree of Involvement Outside the Home	64
15. Analysis of Variance for Fathers on the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Occupational Involvement	65
16. Analysis of Variance for Fathers on the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Degree of Civic Involvement	66
17. The Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Differences in Mean Scores on the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Degree of Civic Involvement	67
18. Analysis of Variance for Fathers on the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Age of the Oldest Child	68
19. The Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Differences in Mean Scores on the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Age of the Oldest Child	69
20. Analysis of Variance for Fathers on the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Preparation for Birth	70
21. The Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Differences in Mean Scores on the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Preparation for Birth	71
22. Comparison of the Present Study and Eversoll's (1979b) Study of Attitudes Toward the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of Age	72
23. Analysis of Variance for Fathers on the Recreational Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Preparation for Birth	73
24. The Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Differences in Mean Scores on the Recreational Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Preparation for Birth	74
25. The Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Differences in Mean Scores on the Recreational Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Degree of Occupational Involvement	75
26. Analysis of Variance for Fathers on the Nurturing Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Degree of Occupational Involvement	76

Table	Page
27. Analysis of Variance for Fathers on the Provider Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Preparation for Birth	77
28. The Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Differences in Mean Scores on the Provider Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Preparaton for Birth	78
29. The Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Differences in Mean Scores on the Provider Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Social Status	79
30. Analysis of Variance for Fathers on the Problem Solving Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Marital Status	80
31. The Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Differences in Mean Scores on the Problem Solving Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Marital Status	81
32. Means, Standard Deviations, and Coefficients of Variations for the Five Sub-role Dimensions of Fathering for Fathers, Non-fathers, and Jaycees	191
33. Means for Fathers on the Recreational Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Selected Variables	192
34. Mean Scores for Fathers on the Nurturing Dimension of Fathering	193
35. Means for Fathers on the Providing Dimension of Fathering	194
36. Mean Scores of Fathers Toward the Problem Solving Dimension of Fathering by Selected Variables	195
37. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Age	196
38. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Marital Status	197
39. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Attendance at Birth	198
40. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Sex of Children	199
41. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Number of Children	200

Table	Page
42. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Wife's Education	201
43. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Occupation . . .	202
44. Analysis of Variance for Fathers on the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Educational Level . .	203
45. The Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Differences in Mean Scores on the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Educational Level	204
46. Analysis of Variance for Fathers on the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Wife's Occupation . .	205
47. The Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Differences in Mean Scores on the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Wife's Occupation	206
48. The Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Differences in Mean Scores on the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Degree of Occupational Involvement	207
49. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering Educational Level	208
50. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Wife's Occupation	209
51. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Recreational Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Age of Father	210
52. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Recreational Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Social Status Rank	211
53. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Recreational Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Degree of Involvement	212
54. The Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Differences in Mean Scores on the Nurturing Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Degree of Occupational Involvement	213
55. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Recreational Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Marital Status	214

Table	Page
56. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Recreational Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Sex of Children	215
57. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Recreational Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Number of Children	216
58. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Recreational Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Age of Oldest Child	217
59. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Recreational Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Attendance at Birth	218
60. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Recreational Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Degree of Civic Involvement	219
61. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Recreational Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Degree of Occupational Involvement	220
62. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Nurturing Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Age of Father	221
63. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Nurturing Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Social Status Rank	222
64. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Nurturing Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Degree of Involvement	223
65. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Nurturing Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Marital Status	224
66. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Nurturing Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Age of Oldest Child	225
67. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Nurturing Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Age of Father	226
68. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Nurturing Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Number of Children	227
69. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Nurturing Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Attendance at Birth	228

Table	Page
70. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Nurturing Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Degree of Occupational Involvement	229
71. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Nurturing Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Degree of Civic Involvement	230
72. The Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Differences in Mean Scores on the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Degree of Civic Involvement	231
73. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Provider Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Age of Father	232
74. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Provider Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Social Status Rank	233
75. The Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Differences in Mean Scores on the Provider Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Social Status	234
76. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Provider Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Degree of Involvement	235
77. The Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Differences in Mean Scores on the Provider Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Degree of Involvement Outside the Home	236
78. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Provider Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Marital Status	237
79. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Provider Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Sex of Children	238
80. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Provider Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Number of Children	239
81. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Provider Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Age of Oldest Child	240
82. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Provider Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Attendance at Birth	241
83. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Provider Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Degree of Civic Involvement	242

Table	Page
84. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Provider Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Degree of Occupational Involvement	243
85. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Provider Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Wife's Educational Level	244
86. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Provider Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Educational Level	245
87. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Provider Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Occupation	246
88. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Provider Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Wife's Occupation	247
89. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Provider Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Income	248
90. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Problem Solving Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Age of Father	249
91. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Problem Solving Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Social Status Rank	250
92. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Problem Solving Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Degree of Involvement	251
93. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Problem Solving Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Sex of Children	252
94. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Problem Solving Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Number of Children	253
95. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Problem Solving Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Age of Oldest Child	254
96. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Problem Solving Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Attendance at Birth	255
97. Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the Problem Solving Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Preparation for Birth	256

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. Distribution of Jaycee Chapters Across the State of Oklahoma	83
2. Means and Coefficients of Variation for the Five Sub-role Dimensions of Fathering for Oklahoma Jaycees	84

INTRODUCTION

The body of this dissertation consists of a complete manuscript for publication, "Attitudes of Oklahoma Jaycees Toward the Father Role." The manuscript was based on results of the dissertation research of Sarah Lee Anderson and was coauthored by Judith A. Powell, dissertation adviser to the first author.

Materials which, according to the Oklahoma State University thesis format, are usually included in the main text, such as the literature review, are included in the appendices. Also included in the appendices are letters, copies of instruments used in the research, and other supplemental materials.

Attitudes of Oklahoma Jaycees Toward
the Father Role

Sarah Lee Anderson and Judith A. Powell

Oklahoma State University

This article is based on the doctoral dissertation research of the first author, conducted under the direction of the second author. Requests for reprints should be sent to the first author, Department of Family Relations and Child Development, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma 74078.

Abstract

Attitudes of 117 Oklahoma Jaycees toward five dimensions of the father role were explored through use of the Father Role Opinionnaire. Jaycees were found to score higher on the Societal Model, the Recreational, and the Nurturing Sub-role Dimensions than on the Providing and Problem Solving Sub-role Dimensions. Further, they scored higher on the Providing Sub-role Dimension than on the Problem Solving Sub-role Dimension. There were no significant differences in fathers' and non-fathers' scores on the five sub-role dimensions. For fathers, significant differences were found for the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension by social status, degree of involvement outside the home, age of the oldest child, and preparation for birth. Marital status was a significant source of variation for fathers' attitudes toward the Problem Solver Sub-role Dimension. Whether or not the father was involved in some type of birth preparation was a significant source of variation in fathers' attitudes toward the Nurturing, the Recreational, and the Providing Sub-role Dimensions.

Attitudes of Oklahoma Jaycees Toward the Father Role

Introduction

For the first time in history, research is clearly indicating the importance of the father and his impact on the development of his children. At the same time, women are expecting that husbands and fathers take on new and expanded roles within the family; and societal and economic conditions are placing greater pressures on the father as he strives to fulfill his traditional roles as provider, protector, and decision-maker of the family. Moreover, there are now demands on him to be a "volunteer" as the New Federalism concept calls for a decrease in government involvement in the lives of individuals and families and volunteerism is emphasized as a way to help to meet individual and community needs.

How do young men at the early stages of family life, just beginning to work their way up the career ladder and active in volunteer civic groups, feel about their multiple roles, particularly their role as a father? Traditionally, it has been assumed that fathers played no role in and had no interest in child rearing; whereas, in actuality, it is not known what fathers thought about their role (Nash, 1976). In order to determine what young, civic-minded men believe about their role as a father, the Oklahoma Jaycees were chosen as a sample in this study.

The Jaycees¹ is a civic service organization for young men between the ages of 18 and 36. The Jaycee movement is committed to the idea

that young men will be the leaders of tomorrow. If they are to be effective leaders, they must gain practical experience through civic work and broad community efforts to supplement their work in their given profession or job (Moffat, Note 1).

The Jaycee concept places "equal emphasis on Individual Development, Chapter Management, and Community Development so that we can effectively 'Develop the Whole Man thru the Whole Chapter'" (Chapter President's Management Handbook, 1977-78, p. 6). The Jaycees offer young men a variety of leadership opportunities through planning, participation, and evaluation of community projects. The Jaycee Creed² provides a better understanding of the Jaycee Organization and of the men who become Jaycees:

WE BELIEVE:

That faith in God gives meaning
and purpose to human life;
That the brotherhood of man
transcends the sovereignty of nations;
That economic justice can best be won
by free men through free enterprise;
That government should be of laws
rather than of men;
That earth's great treasure lies
in human personality;
And that service to humanity is
the best work of life.

Although its primary purpose is the development of young men as future leaders, participation in the Jaycee organization is not limited

to young men, as men who have officially "exhausted" at age 36 often remain active. In addition, the Jayceettes involves the wives of Jaycees and other young women between the ages of 18 and 36 in the Jaycee organization (Moffat, Note 1). (Additional information concerning the Jaycee organization can be found in Appendix B.)

The Jaycees were chosen as the sample for this study because of the current emphasis on volunteerism and because this group has traditionally been active in community, state, and national service projects; and because its members are in the early stages of family and career life. In addition, it is from the ranks of the Jaycees that many of the leaders of our country emerge. Past and present Jaycee members include such leaders as former-President Richard M. Nixon, Arizona Senator Barry Goldwater, Oklahoma Governor George Nigh, and past Oklahoma governor and current Senator David Boren. It is these young men, these Jaycees, who are and will be in positions of leadership. It is these individuals who will be a driving force in the future of our nation and will have a direct role in establishing the public policies of the future.

Review of Literature

Although there has been an appreciation for fathering and much activity relating to the father role during the last decade, major studies dealing with child rearing practices, techniques, and attitudes have, in general, ignored the father or, at best, asked for the mother's opinion about father (Miller & Swanson, 1958; Sears, Maccoby, & Levin, 1957; Nash, 1965; Kagan, 1964; Sunley, 1968; Green, 1976; Lamb, 1976; Levine, 1977; Honig, 1980; Blood & Wolfe, 1960). Benson (1968), in a comprehensive review of literature on fatherhood, concluded that the role of the father has been largely neglected in social research. In

the past decade, research in the area of fathering has increased. Researchers have begun to ask questions about the importance of the father and have concluded that the father does have a considerable impact (Walters & Stinnett, 1971; Lamb, 1976, Bigner, 1970; Lynn, 1974; Honig, 1980) on the development of the child.

Studies have indicated that the father has an impact on the child's cognitive development and achievement (McAdoo, 1979; Epstein & Radin, 1975; Cross & Allen, 1967; Teahan, 1963), on sex role development (Green, 1976; Biller, 1974; Johnson, 1963; Grief, 1980; Russell, 1978; Lamb, 1979), and on the development of prosocial behaviors (Rutherford & Mussen, 1968; Hoffman, 1975; Stevens & Matthews, 1978). Research has also focused on father as he compares with mother in interaction with children and has concluded that father is just as involved as mother (Parke & O'Leary, 1976; Parke & Sawin, 1981), and that father, too, feels a strong bond of affection toward his children (Parke & Sawin, 1976; Greenberg & Morris, 1974).

Although father appears to be equally involved, he does appear to interact with his children in qualitatively different ways than mother (Lamb, 1976, 1979; Honig, 1979; Friendlander, Jacobs, Davis, & Wetstone, 1972; Kotelchuck, 1976), thus leading to the conclusion that father may be equally, if differently, as important to the development of the child as mother. Traditionally, it has been suggested that infants were monotropic and attached only to a single caregiver--the mother (Bowlby, 1962); recent research, however, has indicated that infants do attach to father as well as to mother (Kotelchuck, 1972; Lester, Kotelchuck, Spelke, Sellers, & Klein, 1974; Ross, Kagan, Zelazo, & Kotelchuck, 1975; Spelke, Zelazo, Kagan, and Kotelchuck, 1978).

Traditionally, the father has been viewed as the provider and protector of the family and merely as an indirect influence upon the child through his influence and support of mother (Bowlby, 1962). As societal conditions have changed, changes in the father's role, expectations of fathers, and attitudes toward fathering have also occurred (Duvall, 1977). Goezen and Chinn (1975) believe that the role of the father is in a state of flux and cannot be described in definitive terms; whereas, Eversoll (1979a, 1979b) sees fathering not as a uni-dimensional role but as a multi-dimensional one.

In the past decade, although more emphasis has been placed on the role of the father and his importance in the life of his children, neither the quality nor the quantity of father-child interaction has received adequate study (Lamb, 1976; Bigner, 1970). There is little or no information concerning what factors influence young men's attitudes toward the father's role in child rearing. The lack of evidence relating to factors which influence men, both fathers and potential fathers, in their attitudes toward the role of the father raises several important questions which need to be investigated.

Purpose and Procedures

The primary purpose of this study was to contribute to the literature concerning the nature of young men's attitudes toward the father role. The study was designed (a) to gain insight into the attitudes of young civic-minded men, both fathers and potential fathers, toward the father role; (b) to determine if fathers and non-fathers differ in their attitudes toward fathering; and (c) to investigate the influences of specific variables on young fathers' attitudes toward the father role.

The Father Role Opinionnaire (Eversoll, Note 2) was used to tap the

respondents' attitudes toward the role of the father. For the purposes of this study, attitudes toward fathering are defined as scores on the Father Role Opinionnaire. The Father Role Opinionnaire yields scores on five sub-role dimensions:

Nurturing Sub-role Dimension - the expected father role behaviors related to providing for the emotional needs and the physical-care needs of the child.

Problem Solving Sub-role Dimension - the expected father role behaviors related to providing solutions for problems the family members may encounter.

Providing Sub-role Dimension - the expected father role behaviors related to earning income for the family unit.

Societal Model Sub-role Dimension - the expected father role behaviors related to developing a child's sense of commitment beyond the family unit to the community at large.

Recreational Sub-role Dimension - the expected father role behaviors related to providing for family members' leisure-time activities. (Eversoll, 1979b, p. 505).

The type of research employed for this study was that identified by Kerlinger (1973) as survey research. In survey research, samples chosen from populations are studied to discover the relative incidence, distribution, and interrelations of psychological and sociological variables. The present study was designed to assess the differences in young community leaders' attitudes toward the five dimensions of the father role, to determine if fathers and non-fathers differ in their attitudes, and to determine if attitudes of fathers who are young community leaders are influenced by selected variables.

Three null hypotheses were formulated to guide the study. On the basis of the literature, several alternative hypotheses were predicted. First, because of their participation in a voluntary civic group which emphasizes the development of the individual through service to the community, it is reasonable to expect that Jaycees would score significantly higher on the Societal Model sub-role dimension. In addition, the Jaycee organization emphasizes family activities as a tool for strengthening family life. This emphasis could possibly lead to higher scores on the Recreational sub-role dimension.

Second, there is some evidence that the number (Aberle & Naegele, 1952; Pederson & Robson, 1969; Parke & O'Leary, 1976; Crase, Clark, & Pease, 1980; Bigner, 1977); age (Emmerich, 1962; Bigner, 1977; Crase, Clark, & Pease, 1980); and sex of the children (Aberle & Naegele, 1952; Kohn, 1959; Emmerich, 1962; Goodenough, 1957; Rothbart & Maccoby, 1966; Bronfenbrenner, 1968; Pederson and Robson, 1969; Walters & Stinnett, 1971; Weinraub & Frankel, 1977; Brody & Axelrod, 1978); the father's preparation for and attendance at birth (Fein, 1976; Greenberg & Morris, 1974; DeGarmo, 1978); the father's age (Crase, Clark, & Pease, 1980; Eversoll, 1979b); social status, occupation, education, and income level (Davis & Havighurst, 1946; Duvall, 1946; Aberle & Naegele, 1952; Miller and Swanson, 1958; Sears, Maccoby, & Levin, 1957; Bronfenbrenner, 1968; Kohn, 1959; Walters & Stinnett, 1971; Gecas and Nye, 1974) influence fathering behavior. If these factors influence behavior, it is reasonable to assume that attitudes will also be influenced.

Furthermore, it would seem reasonable to expect fathers and non-fathers to differ in their attitudes because of life experiences which fathers have encountered as they interact with their children. However,

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY
LIBRARY - CIRCULATION
STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74078-0375

JUL 1

The following book is being held for you at
Circulation Desk on the first floor of the Library
until 5:00 P.M. JUL 26 1994.

155.7 R878L THE LIMITS OF FAMILY INFLUENCE

Shelley

Please bring this card with you when you pick up
book. If you no longer need this book please
us at 744-6812.

ry
State University
r, OK 74078-0375

CAMPUS MAIL

KAY MURPHY
334 HEW

6150

the research base is insufficient to allow for confident prediction of these hypotheses.

The Sample

The Oklahoma Jaycees were first contacted about participating in the research study and agreed that the Oklahoma Jaycees could be used as a sample. Contact with the United States Jaycees was then made. The project was explained in detail and a copy of the research proposal and instruments were provided for the U.S. Jaycees. The U.S. Jaycees agreed to cooperate and lend support to the study.

A short presentation was given at the Local Presidents' Council meeting at the Oklahoma Jaycee Summer Board of Directors' Meeting in Shawnee, Oklahoma, in which the project was explained to the local chapter presidents and their cooperation and support was requested. The local presidents were asked to distribute the questionnaire to their local Jaycee members at a regular monthly meeting, to have the members complete the questionnaire at the meeting, to collect the questionnaires, and to return them in the postage-paid envelope which was provided. All of the 18 chapter presidents in attendance at the Local President's Council meeting were given the opportunity to participate in the study. All of the chapters present, except one, agreed to participate. A letter explaining the study and questionnaires were distributed at that time to the local presidents. Additional chapters not present at the Summer Board meeting were contacted by telephone. Each chapter contacted agreed to participate and questionnaires were mailed. The 37 chapter presidents present at Summer Board or contacted by telephone who agreed to participate were included in the first mailing. Each chapter in the first mailing received a reminder post card approximately 46 weeks after the initial contact.

Due to the small number of returned questionnaires nine additional chapters were contacted. All of the chapter presidents contacted agreed to participate and questionnaires were mailed. Numerous telephone contacts were made with each chapter of the 46 chapter presidents. Additional reminders were sent out by the Oklahoma Jaycee president in the Oklahoma Jaycee newsletter, The Warpath, and in his weekly newsletter. The Oklahoma Jaycees further agreed that each chapter could receive points in the area of Family Life Development for participating in the research study. Chapters were notified of this in the final telephone contacts.

The final research sample consisted of 117 Jaycees from eleven Jaycee Chapters across the State of Oklahoma, as shown in Figure 1. The Jaycees participating in the study were members of local chapters in various sized communities, ranging from very small farming communities in the western part of the state to the metropolitan area of Tulsa in the east.

Insert Figure 1 about here

The respondents ranged from 18 to 41 years of age ($\bar{X} = 29.3$), 96.5% were white; 35.7% were single and 64.3% were married; 54.9% were fathers and 45.1% were not fathers. In general, the sample was judged to be middle class, based on a combination of educational, occupational, and income variables.³ Demographic description of the sample is found in Table 1.

Insert Table 1 about here

Results and Discussions

Analysis of Data

Responses to the items on the instruments were coded and data were keypunched onto computer cards. The Statistical Analysis System (Helwig & Council, 1979) was used for analysis of the data. The probability level of .05 was accepted as the criterion for significance. Frequency tables were prepared in order that the characteristics of the sample might be reported. Means, standard deviations, and coefficients of variation were computed for each of the five sub-role dimensions for all Jaycees and for the fathers only. By selected variables, means for each of the five sub-role dimensions were computed for the fathers.

One-way analysis of variance, using the General Linear Models Program, was used to test for significance of difference of means in all analyses of items where there were two or more categories of response. In some cases where there was a need to determine which means were significantly different, Duncan's Multiple Range Test was used.

Jaycee Attitudes Toward the Five

Sub-role Dimensions

A comparison of means revealed that Jaycees scored higher on the Societal Model, Recreational, and Nurturing sub-role dimensions than on the Providing and Problem Solving sub-role dimensions, and they scored higher on the Providing sub-role than on the Problem Solving sub-role dimension. Further, as indicated by the coefficients of variation, responses to the Societal Model, Recreational, and Nurturing dimensions were more consistent than on the Providing and Problem Solving dimensions. The mean scores and the coefficients of variation are shown in Figure 2.

Insert Figure 2 about here

Results of the one-way analysis of variance indicated that a significant difference ($F = 128.40$, $p < .0001$) existed among the five sub-role dimensions (Table 2).⁴ The Duncan's Multiple Range Test confirmed that the Jaycees scores on the Societal Model, the Nurturing, and the Recreational dimensions were significantly different from the means on the Providing dimension; and scores on the Providing dimension were significantly different from scores on the Problem Solving dimension (Table 3). Examination of the mean scores indicated that the Societal Model, the Nurturing, and the Recreational dimension scores were higher than the mean scores on the Providing dimension. The mean scores on the Providing dimension were higher than the scores on the Problem Solving dimension.

Insert Tables 2 and 3 about here

The higher mean scores on the Societal Model and the Recreational dimensions were consistent with expectations, but the high mean on the Nurturing dimension was not expected. The items relating to the Nurturing dimension involve meeting both the physical and emotional needs of the child. Items used to tap the Nurturing dimension were:

1. A father should always be interested in listening to children's ideas and concerns about life.
2. A father should be involved in the routine health care of the children (doctor and dental check-ups, etc.).
3. A father should help care for the children when they are ill.

4. A father should take an active part in the nutritional provisions for the family by being involved in the meal preparations so that these physical needs are met.

5. A father should be involved in the care and feeding of the children when they are infants.

6. A father should accept a child's negative emotions (i.e., anger) as well as the positive emotions (i.e., happiness).

These particular items relate to both instrumental nurturing, or, the day-to-day physical care and home management needs, and expressive, or emotional, nurturing of the child. Some of the young men (16.81%) indicated that they worked more than 60 hours a week, were involved in three or more civic organizations (21.55%), and spent ten or more hours per week in civic and community activities (25.00%). If these young men are this involved in activities outside of the home, one might ask when they are going to find the time and the energy to provide for instrumental nurturing, let alone the expressive nurturing of their children? The awareness of changing societal attitudes and expectations for fathers, coupled with expectations of wives that fathers be more involved with the day-to-day care and nurturing of children may provide explanations for the responses related to the importance of instrumental and expressive nurturing.

Attitudes of Fathers and Non-fathers

Toward the Five Sub-role Dimensions

As reflected in Table 4, mean scores of fathers and non-fathers on the five sub-role dimensions were very similar. Non-fathers do tend to have higher mean scores on all of the dimensions than do fathers. Analysis of variance indicated, however, that there were no significant

differences in fathers' and non-fathers' attitudes toward the five sub-role dimensions (Tables 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9).

Insert Tables 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9 about here

It is puzzling that the experience of fatherhood appeared to have no effect on responses of the current sample. One possible explanation for this outcome may be the homogeneity of the sample: they are all young men, under 41; they are all actively involved in civic and community affairs, as evidenced by their belonging to and involvement in civic organizations; most have at least some college or vocational training (73.91%); most are employed in "white collar" jobs (76.52%); and most would appear to be "climbing the career ladder," as evidenced by the number of hours they spend at work (65.49% work 50 or more hours per week). Another explanation may be that the very active civic-minded father actually spends little time in quality fathering; consequently, his attitudes are similar to the non-father. A final possibility lies in the fact that although the fathers' attitudes may be similar to non-fathers', their behaviors do not reflect their attitudes.

Variables Related to the Attitudes of Young

Fathers Toward the Five Sub-role Dimensions

One of the goals of the study was to investigate whether selected demographic factors were significant sources of variation in fathers' attitudes toward the father role. The sample for this part of the study were the 62 fathers. Their scores for the five sub-role dimensions were compared on the basis of age; social status; degree of involvement outside the home; number, age, and sex of children; and preparation for and attendance at birth.

Societal model sub-role dimension. Analysis of variance indicated significant differences in fathers' attitudes toward the Societal Model dimension by social status ($F = 4.06, 3 \text{ df}, p < .01$), by degree of involvement outside the home⁵ ($F = 5.24, 2 \text{ df}, p < .008$), by age of the oldest child ($F = 2.74, 3 \text{ df}, p < .05$), and by preparation for birth ($F = 7.57, 1 \text{ df}, p < .008$). No significant differences were found by age of the father, marital status, sex of children, number of children, or attendance at birth. (Statistical information for these non-significant variables can be found in Appendix F.)

The Societal Model sub-role dimension taps the attitudes the respondent has toward developing a sense of commitment in the child toward the community at large. It is not surprising that this sample of young fathers, who are actively involved in community affairs, felt this to be an important part of the father's role. However, there were significant differences ($F = 4.06, 3 \text{ df}, p < .01$) in this dimension on the basis of social status (Table 10).

Insert Table 10 about here

Examination of the means indicated that as the social status rank increased, so did the Societal Model mean score (Table 11). The Duncan's Multiple Range Test indicated that the means scores of those fathers who were in the social status rank of upper middle, white collar and blue collar had mean scores which were significantly different from those of the fathers in the lower class social status rank (Table 12). Caution should be used in interpreting these results due to the small number in the lower social status rank. It is a commonly held belief

that the middle classes can be distinguished from the working and lower class by their civic involvement; therefore, it is not surprising that the upper middle and white collar social status ranks had higher scores than did those in the lower social status rank. The fact that the working or blue collar social status rank fathers also scored high in this area is probably explained by the particular sample of actively involved civic volunteers. The Jaycees is an organization which is designed to develop the individual through active community involvement and is generally considered by its members to be an upwardly mobile group (Garrow, Note 3). The fathers in this sample are very likely to be in the process of moving up the social status ladder.

Insert Tables 11 and 12 about here

The degree of involvement of the father in activities outside the home was also a significant source of variation in fathers' attitudes toward their role as a Societal Model (Table 13). Examination of the means indicated that as degree of involvement outside the home increased so did the means scores toward the Societal Model dimension (Table 11). The Duncan's Multiple Range Test indicated that those fathers with a high degree of involvement outside the home had mean scores which were significantly different from those fathers who had a moderate or low degree of involvement outside the home (Table 14). This finding is not surprising, as one would expect that fathers who are actively involved in their occupations and communities would see this as an important part of their role as fathers.

Insert Tables 13 and 14 about here

Further analysis of the individual items used to determine degree of involvement indicated that both the degree of involvement in the occupational activities (Table 15) ($F = 3.39, 2 \text{ df}, p < .04$) and degree of civic involvement⁶ ($F = 3.74, 2 \text{ df}, p < .03$) were significant sources of variation in the fathers' responses (Table 16). An examination of the means (Table 11) indicated that as the father's involvement in occupation and civic affairs increased, so did his attitudes toward his role as a societal model. Duncan's Multiple Range Test indicated that the mean scores on occupational involvement were not significantly different, but the mean scores on civic involvement were significantly different (Table 17). An examination of the means indicated that those fathers who had a high degree of involvement in civic affairs had higher scores than did those who were less involved in civic affairs.

Insert Tables 15, 16, and 17 about here

An additional source of variation in attitudes toward the Societal Model sub-role was age of the oldest child (Table 18). A comparison of the means indicated that as the child progressed from infancy to school age the mean scores increased and then leveled off at adolescence (Table 11). The Duncan's Multiple Range Test confirmed that fathers of preschoolers, schoolagers, and adolescents had scores significantly different from fathers of infants (Table 19).

Insert Tables 18 and 19 about here

As children become older, fathers appear to be more concerned with providing a societal model. An infant can have little understanding of the world outside the family, but as the child grows older his awareness will increase. It is at this time that fathers are more concerned with this aspect of parenting than at other times. The reason for the leveling off of mean scores at adolescence is probably explained by the small number of fathers who had children at this stage of development ($n = 7$), as Eversoll (1979b) found that fathers of college-aged sons scored significantly higher on this sub-role than did their sons.

A final source of variation in attitudes toward the Societal Model dimension was preparation for childbirth (Table 20). Mean scores of fathers who indicated that they had been involved in some type of childbirth preparation prior to the birth of their children were higher than were the mean scores of those fathers who had not engaged in any type of birth preparation (Table 11). The Duncan's Multiple Range Test indicated that the mean scores of the prepared and non-prepared fathers were significantly different (Table 21).

Insert Tables 20 and 21 about here

In a two-generational study of fathers and college-aged sons, Eversoll (1979b) found that fathers and sons differed significantly in their attitudes toward the Societal Model sub-role dimension. She cautioned that this might be a life-cycle effect and that sons would be

more similar to their fathers as they reached middle age. It was therefore expected that age would be a significant source of variation in fathers' attitudes toward the Societal Model dimension. Although the younger fathers did tend to have lower mean scores than did the older fathers (Table 11), no significant differences were found. Table 22 contains the mean scores for the current study and for Eversoll's two-generation study. The means of the youngest fathers in this study and Eversoll's college juniors and seniors were similar, and the means for the older fathers in both studies were higher. The lack of differences in the current study may be due to the low number of fathers in the 24-and-under age category ($n = 4$) and to the fact that all of the respondents felt this to be an important aspect of the father role.

Insert Table 22 about here

Recreational sub-role dimension. Analysis of variance revealed that preparation for birth was the only significant source of variation in fathers' attitudes toward the Recreational sub-role dimension ($F = 6.35, 1 \text{ df}, p < .01$) as shown in Table 23. No significant differences were found in attitudes toward the Recreational dimension by age of the father, social status, degree of involvement outside the home, marital status, sex of the children, number of children, age of the oldest child, or attendance at birth. (Statistical tables and means scores for these variables are found in Appendix F.)

Insert Table 23 about here

Means of fathers who indicated they had been involved in some type

of birth preparation ($\bar{X} = 24.02$, $n = 43$) were higher than those who indicated no involvement in birth preparation ($\bar{X} = 21.73$, $n = 15$). The Duncan's Multiple Range test indicated that the mean scores were significantly different (Table 24).

Insert Table 24 about here

The fact that involvement in activities outside the home was not a significant source of variation in this aspect of fathering is rather puzzling. One would expect that the father who is very involved at work and in civic activities would have little time to provide for the leisure time activities of his family. Further analysis of the degree of civic involvement and the degree of occupational involvement revealed that degree of civic involvement was not a significant source of variation in attitudes. There was, however, an apparent, though non-significant, trend for occupational involvement to influence attitudes ($F = 2.95$, 2 df, $p < .06$). A comparison of the mean scores for occupational involvement revealed that if the father were moderately involved in work, he scored higher on the Recreational sub-role. The Duncan's Multiple Range Test indicated that the means were significantly different, as shown in Table 25. Again, we are left with the question of how can a father who is spending 45-60 hours per week at work find time to provide for the recreational and leisure activities of his family? Examination of the items used to tap this dimension suggest some possible conclusions. Items which were used to determine attitudes toward the Recreational sub-role dimension were:

1. A father should find time each day for some leisure time.

2. A father should set aside time so an annual family vacation can be taken.

3. A father should be willing to sacrifice so children have the opportunity for recreational participation.

4. A father should find adequate and appropriate recreation for the family members.

5. A father should foster a child's physical development by providing recreational activities.

6. A father should keep physically fit, so he can participate in the children's physical recreational activities.

Insert Table 25 about here

These items seem to involve more of a financial commitment which would allow the family to have the finances needed to pursue recreational and leisure time activities and a commitment to find the time for his own individual leisure time activities. Those fathers who are highly involved in their work, spending over 60 hours per week in occupational activities, and fathers who are low in work involvement, spending less than 45 hours per week at work, have very similar mean scores. Their scores are lower than those with a moderate amount of work involvement. A moderate amount of work involvement may allow the father to be able to both provide the financial means for his family to enjoy leisure and recreational activities and also allow for him to have the time for leisure activities. The fact that men who score low in occupational involvement score low in the Recreational sub-role may be due to the fact that their work does not provide the financial means to enjoy

leisure and recreational pursuits even if they have the time available. The father who is highly involved at work, spending over 60 hours per week, may not have the time to provide for his own or his family's leisure even though he may have the money to do so.

However, it must be remembered that all of the Jaycees, both the fathers and the non-fathers, saw this aspect of fathering as an important part of their role. Even though their work and civic involvement may at times interfere with their own pursuit of leisure or with actually spending time with their families at play, they still believe this to be an important aspect of their role. This problem may be solved in part for this particular sample because of the Jaycee's commitment to their family and by the fact that Jaycee chapters often plan family oriented projects and socials. The Jaycee may be spending part of his civic involvement time also involved with his family.

Nurturing sub-role dimension. Preparation for birth was the only significant source of variation ($F = 9.47, 1 \text{ df}, p < .003$) in fathers' attitudes toward the Nurturing dimension (Table 26). No significant difference was found in attitudes toward Nurturing by age of the father, social status rank, degree of involvement outside the home, marital status, sex of children, number of children, or attendance at birth. (Statistical tables for these non-significant variables can be found in Appendix F.)

Insert Table 26 about here

The majority of the fathers in this study were involved in some type of birth preparation (74.14%, $n = 43$), and approximately half of

the fathers were actually in attendance at the birth (49.15%, $n = 29$) of one of their children. The fact that fathers who had been involved in some type of birth preparation scored higher on the Nurturing sub-role is not surprising, as evidence exists which indicates that involvement in the pregnancy leads to higher involvement following birth (Stephen, 1982). Watkins states that

The father most helpful with child care was the one who accompanied his wife to the obstetrician's office, read material on the birth and development of children, went shopping with his wife for things for the baby and expressed positive feelings about the upcoming birth. (Stephen, 1982, p. 88)

The fact that these fathers were, for the most part, involved in birth preparation may also help to explain their overall concern with nurturing of their children.

The evidence relating to attendance at birth is inconclusive as to the long-term effects on fathering behavior and attitudes. The studies which have been concerned with this variable find that men who do not attend birth are very similar to those who do attend birth (DeGarmo, 1978; Greenberg & Morris, 1974; Fein, 1976). The findings in this study support the idea that it is not the father's actual presence in the delivery room which affects his attitudes, but his involvement and attitudes prior to the birth.

Provider sub-role dimension. Again, analysis indicated that preparation for birth ($F = 4.34$, 1 df, $p < .04$) was the only significant source variation in fathers' attitudes toward the Provider sub-role dimension (Table 27). Examination of the means indicates that fathers who prepare for birth have a higher means score ($\bar{X} = 19.67$) than fathers

who do not prepare for birth ($\bar{X} = 17.73$). The Duncan's Multiple Range Test indicated that the mean scores were significantly different (Table 28).

Insert Tables 27 and 28 about here

No significant differences were found in attitudes toward the Providing dimension by age of the father, social status, degree of involvement outside the home, marital status, sex of children, number of children, age of children, or attendance at birth. (Statistical tables for these non-significant variables can be found in Appendix F.)

Problem solving sub-role dimension. Analysis of variance indicated that marital status was the only significant source of variation in attitudes toward the Problem Solver sub-role dimension of fathering ($F = 4.46$, 1 df, $p < .04$) as shown in Table 29. No difference was found by age of the father, social status, degree of involvement, sex of children, number of children, age of oldest child, attendance at birth, or preparation for birth. (Statistical tables for these non-significant findings can be found in Appendix F.)

Insert Table 29 about here

The mean scores of the single fathers ($\bar{X} = 18.63$, $N = 8$) were higher than the mean scores of the married fathers ($\bar{X} = 16.5$, $N = 57$). The Duncan's Multiple Range Test indicated that the mean scores were significantly different (Table 30).

Insert Table 30 about here

The Problem Solver dimension was measured by the following items:

1. If the child is having difficulty getting along with a group of peers, a father should talk to the child's playmates and solve the problem.
2. A father should solve the children's problems concerning work tasks.
3. A father should decide what action should be taken when there is a disagreement between family members.
4. A father should step in to solve the child's problem if there is trouble with a teacher at school.
5. A father should be the one who makes the final decisions on what is appropriate personal attire for his children to wear.
6. A father should decide where the family will live.

The few single fathers in this study may have seen themselves as providing solutions to their children's problems more than the married fathers. Indeed, they may be called upon, by both their children and their ex-spouses, more often to play this role. This may also be due to differences in father availability and father involvement, since the children are more likely to reside with someone other than the father.⁷ Alternatively, these single fathers may believe that they would take on this role if they had the opportunity to be involved in their children's day-to-day lives. However, a study with a more equal number of single and married fathers would be necessary in order to test these hypotheses.

Conclusions, Recommendations, and Limitations

Survey research was utilized to assess the differences in young

community leaders' attitudes toward five dimensions of the father role. The attitudes of 117 Oklahoma Jaycees toward the Nurturing sub-role dimension, the Providing sub-role dimension, the Problem Solving sub-role dimension, the Recreational sub-role dimension, and the Societal Model sub-role dimension of fathering were explored through the use of the Father Role Opinionnaire (Eversoll, Note 2). The attitudes of fathers and non-fathers toward the five dimensions were compared. And, the influence of selected variables on the attitudes of fathers toward the five dimensions of the father role were investigated.

The results of the study must be considered to be biased due to the way the sample was selected and the difficulties which arose in sample selection. The choice of the Jaycees as a population is biased in itself as it is a group of young men who have chosen to belong to a young men's civic group. Further, the local chapter president was contacted to distribute and return questionnaires. Whether or not he followed through with the commitment he made resulted in a second bias. Finally, only those local members who were actually in attendance on the night the questionnaires were completed resulted in an additional bias. However, these problems were recognized and since the purpose was to consider the attitudes of young men who were committed to their communities and who were engaged in some degree of volunteer involvement, the sample was purposefully chosen in the manner described.

Furthermore, because Jaycees could be considered to be a group with a high level of social consciousness, they may be more inclined to make "socially desirable" responses. It is not known to what extent the respondents actually behave in accordance with the responses given.

Results indicated that the Jaycees scored significantly higher on

the Societal Model, the Recreational, and the Nurturing sub-role dimensions than on the Providing and Problem Solving dimensions. Further, they scored significantly higher on the Providing dimension than on the Problem Solving dimension. The higher mean scores on the Societal Model and Recreational dimensions were consistent with expectations since the sample consisted of members of a voluntary civic group which emphasizes the development of the individual through service to his community and family activities as a tool for strengthening family life. The high mean scores on the Nurturing dimension, however, were unexpected. The items which were used to tap the Nurturing dimension related to both instrumental and expressive nurturing of children. If the young man believes that he should be involved in both the instrumental and expressive aspects of nurturing, should maintain a relatively high level of commitment to his community, and should plan and provide for the recreational needs of the family, in addition to his traditional role as a provider, when and how will he find the time and the energy to do so?

The scores of the fathers and non-fathers were very similar on all of the five sub-role dimensions, and no significant differences were found. This finding was rather puzzling as one would expect "fathering experience" to influence attitudes toward the father role.

The second part of the study was designed to investigate the influence of selected variables on fathers' attitudes toward the father role. The fathers' scores on the five sub-role dimensions were compared on the basis of age; social status; degree of involvement outside the home; number, age, and sex of children; and preparation for and attendance at birth.

For fathers, significant differences were found for the Societal

Model sub-role dimension by social status, degree of involvement outside the home, age of the oldest child, and preparation for birth. Examination of the mean scores indicated that as the social status rank of the father increased, so did his Societal Model mean score.

The degree of involvement in activities outside the home also influenced the fathers' attitudes toward the Societal Model role. As the degree of involvement outside the home increased, so did the mean scores toward the Societal Model dimension. Further analysis of occupational involvement and civic involvement indicated that both of these variables were significant sources of variation in attitudes toward the Societal Model dimension.

The fathers' attitudes toward the Societal Model sub-role were also influenced by the age of their children. As the oldest child progressed from infancy to school age the mean scores on the Societal Model dimension increased. This finding is consistent with Eversoll's (1979b) finding that middle aged fathers score higher on the Societal Model sub-role than to their college-aged sons.

A final source of variation in attitudes toward the Societal Model sub-role was preparation for birth, with those fathers who had been involved in some type of birth preparation scoring significantly higher than those fathers who had not been involved in any type of birth preparation. Whether or not the father was involved in some type of birth preparation was also a significant source of variation in fathers' attitudes toward the Nurturing, the Recreational, and the Providing sub-role dimensions of fathering. Those fathers who had been involved in some type of birth preparation scored higher on the Nurturing, the Recreational, and the Providing sub-role dimensions of fathering than did

those fathers who had not been involved in any type of birth preparation. The fact that fathers who had been involved in preparation for birth score higher is not surprising, as evidence exists that involvement in the pregnancy leads to higher involvement following birth (Stephen, 1982).

Marital status was the only significant source of variation for fathers' attitudes toward the Problem Solver sub-role dimension. The mean scores of single fathers were significantly higher than were the mean scores of married fathers.

It is not known to what extent the young men's beliefs are reflected in their behavior, but it would seem that role conflict would be inevitable if they attempt to fulfill all that they state they believe. This particular sample appears to be a conscientious group--caring about their work, their communities, and their families. But at the same time they appear to be able to make commitments and not follow through without obvious signs of guilt or stress as evidenced by their agreeing to participate in the study, stating repeatedly that they would get the questionnaires distributed and returned, but failing to follow through. This particular group of young men are likely to face demands for occupational and family work involvement as well as demands for community and civic activities. Marks (1977) argues, in a discussion of multiple role and role strain, that the more committed one is to a role, the less likely it is that role expectations will be experienced as excessive demands on energy. He contends that whereas time is not an expandable resource, energy is. He believes that both the use and supply of energy are governed by commitment. It would appear that this particular group of community involved young fathers and potential

fathers are highly committed to their occupations and careers, to their civic involvement and activities, and to their families. It has been proposed that individuals must allocate their time among role alternatives (Becker, 1965; Goode, 1960) and that how one uses his time is guided by his role hierarchy (Goode, 1960; Secord & Backman, 1974). It may be that these young men are able to put commitments, possibly even expected roles, on "hold".

Although no work specific to young men's volunteer time was found, Clark, Nye, and Gecas (1978) concluded that the effects of the husband's work time on marital role performance depends upon the role priorities and expectations of both the husband the wife. Other studies, however, indicate that there are finite limits as to how much time and energy a man can devote to his career before his family relationships suffer (Bailyn, 1971; Mortimer, Hall, & Hill, 1978; Poloma & Garland, 1971; Rapoport & Rapoport, 1972). If work time has an impact on family work and relationships, it is feasible to expect that volunteer time will also influence family work and relationships.

Clark, Nye, and Gecas (1978) found that the husbands' extended work involvement produced dissatisfaction among the wives only if there was a discrepancy between the husbands' and the wives' priorities and expectations. Will active involvement in the community, in addition to work, also lead to dissatisfaction? For this particular sample, priorities and expectations of husbands and wives may be similar since Jaycee wives are often involved in community and civic activities themselves as they work side-by-side with their Jaycee husbands and in the Jaycettes; but what about other families in which the wife is not involved in community oriented affairs? What types of demands and conflict will evolve as a

result of only one party of the marital dyad being involved in active "volunteerism"?

Further instruments need to be developed to investigate the role of the father more precisely. Investigation is needed not only of attitudes that individuals hold toward the father role, but also the actual behaviors in which fathers engage. With the increase of dual-career families and changes in expectations that wives have for their husband/father, more work needs to be done in the area of the "over-burdened" father. While men have not traditionally been socialized to take on the tasks of homemaking and child rearing, they are increasingly being called upon to do so. Concurrently, economic conditions are placing more stress on men as they try to provide for their families or deal with the fact that their income is insufficient to meet their families' needs. It has been noted that as men begin to invest in children and families, as well as in their work, that they will find what women have found--that they have only a finite amount of energy available (Bailyn, 1978; Levine, 1977; Rapoport & Rapoport, 1977, 1965). Research on working mothers indicates that when work time increases, mothers tend to reduce their participation in non-family activities (Nye, 1963). If young men and fathers are called upon to take on a greater role within the family by their wives, to increase their work load in order to provide financial support and career advancement, and to increase their volunteer time, in what aspects of their lives will they reduce participation? If the society expects men to pick up this additional role as a volunteer, they will need additional support from peers, family, and work.

In order to help men adjust to changing societal conditions,

increased pressures, and new expectations, additional research and educational materials are needed. Further study needs to be done in order to determine what young men believe their role should be, what men actually do in their fathering role, what their wives expect of them, and how their wives perceive the family work of their husbands.

Limitations

A problem of instrumentation surfaces when doing research with fathers, as available instruments on parenting have primarily been designed for use with mothers. Although the Father Role Opinionnaire (Eversoll, Note 2) was developed to tap the respondents' perceptions for father behavior, it does have some limitations. The respondents were asked to indicate their agreement or disagreement with the item on a five point scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Although they may strongly agree that the father should have some role in the dimension, the response does not indicate whether or not he feels that it is primarily his duty or the mother's. The items would give more precise and clear information if the respondent was asked to indicate whether the task should be handled solely by the mother, primarily by the mother with some help from father, by both the mother and father equally, primarily by the father with some help from the mother, or solely by the father. In addition, fathers need to be asked to indicate to what extent they engage in given behaviors.

Further, the dimensions seem to be highly related. Correlational analysis was utilized to determine if the five sub-role dimensions were related. Results indicate that there are considerable relationships among the dimensions as indicated in Table 31. These results indicate that the dimensions are not separate entities but overlap a great deal.

Insert Table 31 about here

Some items relating to the Nurturing sub-role dimension appear to be especially problematic in that the items which could be defined as relating to the physical or instrumental needs of the child, could also be classified as homemaking tasks, i.e., planning and preparing meals. The items related to the Problem Solving dimension might be incorporated into what Nye (1974) called the Therapeutic role. Nye (1974) defines the therapeutic role as "assistance that one provides to another in the solution of any problem which may be bothering that person" (p. 239). This role is the one in which a family member aids others in dealing with concrete or emotional problems. As child rearing practices have shifted from authoritarian to more democratic methods, the role of problem solving may be better defined as therapeutic. It may be that in today's families, parents are more facilitators of solutions to problems than actual problem solvers.

Reference Notes

1. Moffat, S. R., Oklahoma Jaycee President, 1977-1978. Personal communication, December 8, 1980.
2. Eversoll, D. Methods and procedures for opionnaire development. Unpublished paper, 1979.
3. Garrow, G. United States Jaycee President, 1980-1981. Personal communication, May 15, 1982.

References

- Aberle, D. F., & Naegele, K. D. Middle class father's occupational role and attitudes toward children. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1952, 22, 366-378.
- Bailyn, L. Career and family orientations of husbands and wives in relation to family happiness. In A. Theodore (Ed.), The professional woman. Cambridge, Ma.: Schenckman, 1971.
- Becker, G. A theory of the allocation of time. The Economic Journal, 1965, 75, 494-517.
- Benson, Leonard. Fatherhood: A sociological perspective. New York: Random House, 1968.
- Bigner, J. J. Fathering: research and practical implications. The Family Coordinator, 1970, 19, 357-362.
- Bigner, J. J. Attitudes toward fathering and father-child activity. Home Economics Research Journal, 1977, 6, 98-106.
- Biller, H. B. Paternal deprivation. Lexington, Ma.: Heath, 1974.
- Blood, R. O., Jr., & Wolfe, D. M. Husbands and wives: The dynamics of married living. New York: The Free Press, 1960.
- Bowlby, John. Maternal care and mental health. New York: Schocken Books, 1962. (Originally published in The Bulletin of the World Health Organization. Geneva: World Health Organization, 1951.)
- Brody, S., & Axelrod, S. Mothers, fathers and children: Explorations in the formation of character in the first seven years. New York: International Universities Press, Inc., 1978.

- Bronfenbrenner U. The changing American child--a speculative analysis. In E. D. Evans (Ed.), Children: Readings in behavior and development. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1968.
- Chapter president's management handbook, 1977-78. The U.S. Jaycees Management Development Series. (Available from U.S. Jaycees, National Headquarters, P. O. Box 7, Tulsa, Oklahoma 74102.)
- Clark, R. A., Nye, F. I., & Gecas, V. Work involvement and marital role performance. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1978, 40, 9-21.
- Cruse, S. J., Clark, S., & Pease, D. Assessment of child-rearing behaviors of midwestern rural parents. Home Economics Research Journal, 1980, 9, 163-172.
- Cross, H. J., & Allen, J. Relationship between memories of parental behavior and academic achievement motivation. Proceedings of the 77th Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, 1967, 4, 285-286.
- Davis, A., & Havighurst, R. Social class and color differences in child rearing. American Sociological Review, 1946, 11, 698-710.
- DeGarmo, E. Fathers' and mothers' feelings about sharing the childbirth experience. In L. K. McNall & J. T. Galeener (Eds.), Current practice in obstetric and gynecologic nursing (Vol. 2). St. Louis: The C. V. Mosby Co., 1978.
- Duvall, E. M. Conceptions of parenthood. American Journal of Sociology, 1946, 52, 193-203.
- Duvall, E. M. Family development (5th ed.). Philadelphia: Lippincott Co., 1977.
- Emmerich, W. Variations in the parent role as a function of the parents' sex and the child's sex and age. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 1962, 8, 3-11.

- Epstein, A. S., & Radin, N. Motivational components related to father behavior and cognitive functioning in preschoolers. Child Development, 1975, 46 (4), 831-839.
- Eversoll, D. The changing father role: Implications for parent education programs for today's youth. Adolescence, 1979, 14 (55), 535-544. (a)
- Eversoll, D. A two generational view of fathering. The Family Coordinator, 1979, 28 (4), 503-508. (b)
- Fein, R. A. Men's entrance to parenthood. The Family Coordinator, 1976, 25 (4), 341-348.
- Friendlander, B., Jacobs, A. C., Davis, V. B., & Wetstone, H. S. Time-sampling analysis of infants' natural language environments in the home. Child Development, 1972, 43, 730-740.
- Gecas, V., & Nye, F. I. Sex and class differences in parent-child interaction: A test of Kohn's hypotheses. Journal of Marriage and Family, 1974, 36, 742-749.
- Goezen, J. L., & Chinn, P. L. Review of Maternal and Child Nursing. St. Louis: The C. V. Mosby Co., 1975.
- Goode, W. A theory of role strain. American Sociological Review, 1960, 25, 483-496.
- Goodenough, F. W. Parental identification in young children. Genetic Psychology Monographs, 1957, 55, 287-323.
- Green, M. Fathering. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1976.
- Greenberg, M., & Morris, N. Engrossment: The newborn's impact upon the father. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1974, 44, 520-531.
- Greif, E. Sex differences in parent-child conversations, 1980. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 147 337)

- Helwig, J. T., & Council, K. A. (Eds.). SAS user's guide, 1979 edition. Cary, N.C.: SAS Institute, Inc., 1979.
- Hoffman, L. Altruistic behavior and the parent-child relationship. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1975, 31, 937-943.
- Honig, A. S. The importance of fathering. Dimensions, 1980, 9, 33-38.
- Honig, A. S. A review of recent infancy research. The American Montessori Society Bulletin, 1979, 17, 3-4.
- Johnson, M. M. Sex role learning in the nuclear family. Child Development, 1963, 34, 319-333.
- Kagan, J. American longitudinal research on psychological development. Child Development, 1964, 35, 1-32.
- Kerlinger, F. N. Foundations of behavior research (2nd Ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1973.
- Kohn, M. L. Social class and parental values. American Journal of Sociology, 1959, 64 (4), 337-351.
- Kotelchuck, M. The nature of the child's tie to his father. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Harvard University, 1972.
- Kotelchuck, M. The infant's relationship to the father: Experimental evidence. In M. E. Lamb (Ed.), The role of the father in child development. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1976.
- Lamb, M. E. The role of the father in child development. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1976.
- Lamb, M. E. Paternal influences and the father's role: A personal perspective. American Psychologist, 1979, 34, 938-943.
- Lester, B. M., Kotelchuck, M., Spelke, E., Sellers, J. J., & Klein, R. E. Separation protest in guatemalan infants: Cross-cultural and cognitive findings. Developmental Psychology, 1974, 10, 79-85.

- Levine, J. A. Who will raise the children: New options for fathers (and mothers). New York: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1977.
- Lynn, D. B. The father: His role in child development. Monterey, Ca.: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company, 1974.
- Marks, S. R. Multiple roles and role strain: Some notes on human energy, time, and commitment. American Sociological Review, 1977, 42, 921-936.
- McAdoo, J. L. Father-child interaction patterns and self-esteem in black preschool children. Young Children, 1979, 34, 46-53.
- Miller, D. R., & Swanson, G. E. The changing american parent. New York: Wiley, 1958.
- Mortimer, J., Hall, R., & Hill, R. Husbands' occupational attributes as constraints on wives' employment. Sociology of Work and Occupations, 1978, 5, 285-313.
- Nash, J. The father in contemporary culture and current psychological literature. Child Development, 1965, 37, 261-297.
- Nash, J. Historical and social changes in the perception of the role of the father. In M. E. Lamb (Ed.), The role of the father in child development. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1976.
- Nye, F. I. Recreation and community. In F.I. Nye & L. Hoffman (Eds.), The employed mother in America. Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1963.
- Nye, F. I. Emerging and declining family roles. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1974, 36, 238-245.
- Parke, R. D., & O'Leary, S. E. Family interaction in the newborn period: Some findings, some observations, and some unresolved issues. In K. Riegel & J. A. Meacham (Eds.), The developing individual in a changing world: Social and environmental issues (Vol. 2). The Hague: Mouton, 1976.

- Parke, R. D., & Sawin, D. B. Father-infant interaction in the newborn period: A re-evaluation of some current myths. In E. M. Hetherington & R. D. Parke (Eds.), Contemporary readings in child psychology (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1981.
- Parke, R. D., & Sawin, D. B. The father's role in infancy: A re-evaluation. The Family Coordinator, 1976, 25 (4), 365-371.
- Pederson, F. A., & Robson, K. S. Father participation in infancy. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1969, 39 (3), 466-472.
- Poloma, M. M., & Garland, T. N. The myth of the egalitarian family. In A. Theodore (Ed.), The professional woman. Cambridge, Ma.: Schenckman, 1971.
- Rapoport, R., & Rapoport, R. Dual-career families re-examined: New integrations of work and family. New York: Harper and Row, 1977.
- Rapoport, R., & Rapoport, R. The dual career family: A variant pattern and social change. In C. Safillos-Rothschild (Ed.), Toward a sociology of women. Lexington, Ma.: Xerox, 1972.
- Rapoport, R., & Rapoport, R. Work and family in contemporary society. American Sociological Review, 1965, 30, 381-394.
- Ross, G., Kagan, J., Zelazo, P., & Kotelchuck, M. Separation protest in infants in home and laboratory. Developmental Psychology, 1975, 11, 256-257.
- Rothbart, M. K., & Maccoby, E. E. Parents' differential reactions to sons and daughters. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1966, 4 (3), 237-243.
- Russell, G. The father's role and its relation to masculinity, femininity, and androgyny. Child Development, 1978, 49, 1174-1181.
- Rutherford, E., & Mussen, P. Generosity in nursery school boys. Child Development, 1968, 39, 755-765.

- Sears, R. R., Maccoby, E. E., & Levine, H. Patterns of child rearing. Evanston, Il.: Row Peterson, 1957.
- Secord, P., & Backman, C. Social Psychology (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill, 1974.
- Spelke, E., Zelazo, P., Kagan, J., & Kotelchuck, M. Father interaction and separation protest. Developmental Psychology, 1978, 9, 83-90.
- Stephen, B. Fathers who are good at mothering. Redbook, May 1982, pp. 81-88.
- Stevens, J. H., Jr., & Matthews, M. (Eds.). Mother/child, father/child relationships. Washington, D. C.: NAEYC, 1978.
- Sunley, R. Early nineteenth century American literature on child rearing. In E. D. Evans (Ed.), Children: Readings in behavior and development. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1968.
- Tasch, R. J. The role of the father in the family. Journal of Experimental Education, 1952, 20, 319-336.
- Teahan, J. E. Parental attitudes and college success. Journal of Educational Psychology, 1963, 54, 104-109.
- Walters, J., & Stinnet, N. Parent-child relationships: A decade of research. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1971, 33, 70-111.
- Weinraub, M., & Frankel, J. Sex differences in parent-infant interaction during free play, departure, and separation. Child Development, 1977, 48 (4), 1240-1249.

Footnotes

¹For more complete background on the Jaycee Organization see Herndon, Booton. The Jaycee Story: Young Men Can Change the World. Tulsa, Okla.: U.S. Jaycees, 1971.

²The Jaycee Creed was first written in 1946 by Bill Brownfield. In 1951, the line which confirms the Jaycees' belief in God was added. The Jaycee Creed was officially adopted by the United States Jaycees in 1947.

³Traditional methods of determining social status utilizing the husband's educational level, the husband's occupation, and amount and source of the husband's income, appear to be rather artificial and simplistic in today's economic world and dual career families. Therefore, five measures of socioeconomic status were taken: husband's education, husband's occupation, wife's education, wife's occupation, and total family income. These were coded on a six point scale as follows:

Education: 1 = less than 8th grade

2 = 8th to 11th grade

3 = High school graduate

4 = 1 to 3 years of college or post-secondary
vocational training

5 = College graduate

6 = Graduate degree

Occupation: 1 = Unskilled laborer

2 = Service work, operative, skilled laborer, craftsman

3 = Farmer/rancher or full time homemaker

4 = Salesman, clerical, foreman

5 = Manager, businessman, proprietor in small to
average business

6 = Professional, proprietor in large business, top
executive of large corporation or business

Income:

1 = Under \$12,000

2 = \$12,000 to \$17,999

3 = \$18,000 to \$23,999

4 = \$24,000 to \$29,999

5 = \$30,000 to \$35,999

6 = \$36,000 or more

The five scales for married men were combined and cumulatively averaged. For non-married men, the three scales were averaged. The following codes were used for each of the averaged scores:

Lower class:	1.00 to 2.25
Blue collar or working class:	2.26 to 3.50
White collar or lower middle:	3.51 to 4.75
Upper middle or above:	4.76 to 6.00

⁴For this analysis, the assumption of independence is not met. Further assumptions, which may not have been met are that the items used to determine the scores were equal and measured each dimension in exactly the same way.

⁵Degree of involvement outside the home was determined by combining the occupational involvement (low = 45 hours or less, moderate = 46 to 60 hours, high = 60 or more hours per week at work) with the civic involvement. This resulted in scores ranging from 2 to 6. Those with a score of 3 or less were classified as low involvement, those with a score

of 4 were classified as moderate involvement, and those with a score of 5 or 6 were classified as high involvement.

⁶Degree of civic involvement was determined by adding the degree of civic activity the individual indicated for each civic group to which he belonged to the number of civic groups which he indicated he belonged to. The scores for degree of civic involvement ranged from 2 to 23. This raw score was then divided by the number of civic groups to which the individual belonged. Number of civic groups ranged from 1 to 7. The resulting scores ranged from 1.50 to 8.00. The classifications of high, moderate, or lower civic involvement were as follows:

High civic involvement = 1.5 to 1.9

Moderate civic involvement = 2.0 to 3.9

High civic involvement = 2.0 to 8.0

The raw data asked the respondent to indicate his degree of involvement in each civic activity by the following:

Community involvement is defined as the amount of time spent with significant persons, groups, and organizations outside the nuclear family. Community involvement is a continuous variable ranging from no time to a great deal of time. Please list the groups or organizations to which you belong, how long you have been a member, and rate your degree of involvement using the following scale:

1 - Inactive member. Pay dues, but do not participate in a regular basis.

2 - Semi-active member. Participate in some but not all of the meetings and projects.

- 3 - Active member. Attend most meetings and work on many of the projects; sometimes serve as a project chairman or a minor officer.
- 4 - Very active member. Attend almost all meetings, work on almost all projects, serve as a major officer or chairman.
- 5 - Extremely active member. In addition to being very active at the local level, participate in state and/or national levels by attending meetings, serving as state or national officer or chairman.

⁷Most of the fathers were the natural father of the children they listed. However, one of the children was a foster child and the children were listed as stepchildren. Nineteen fathers reported that they were the father or father-figure to children who did not reside with them.

Table 1
Demographic Data for Fathers, Non-fathers, and All Jaycees

Characteristics	Fathers		Non-fathers		All Jaycees	
	N = 62*	%	N = 51*	%	N = 117*	%
Ethnic Group						
White	61	93.85	52	100.00	110	96.49
Black	2	3.08	0		2	1.75
Hispanic	1	1.54	0		1	.88
Other	1	1.54	0		1	.88
Age						
24 and under	5	7.58	22	40.00	24	20.51
25 - 34	46	69.70	29	52.73	74	63.25
35 and older	15	22.78	4	7.28	19	16.81
Education						
8th to 11th grade	1	1.54	2	3.77	3	2.60
High school graduate	20	30.77	8	15.90	27	23.48
Some college of post-secondary vocational training	12	18.46	15	28.30	25	21.74
College graduate	27	41.54	23	43.40	50	43.48
Graduate degree	5	7.69	5	9.43	10	8.70
Occupation						
Unskilled laborer	1	1.56	2	3.70	2	1.74
Service/operative/skilled labor/craftsman	10	15.63	12	22.22	22	19.13
Farmer/rancher/homemaker	2	3.13	1	1.85	3	2.61
Sales/clerical/foreman	10	15.63	5	9.26	14	12.17
Manager/business/small business proprietor	26	40.63	19	35.19	44	38.26
Professional/executive/large business proprietor	15	23.44	14	25.93	29	25.22
Hours per week at home						
45 or less	1	9.68	25	45.46	34	30.09
46 - 60	29	62.90	22	40.00	60	53.10
Over 60	11	17.74	8	14.55	19	16.81
Marital status						
Single, never married	2	3.13	31	57.41	32	27.83
Single following death or divorce	5	7.81	4	7.41	9	7.83
Combined Single	7	10.94	35	64.82	41	35.66
Married, first time	48	75.00	14	31.48	64	55.56
Remarried	9	14.06	2	3.70	10	8.70
Combined Married	57	89.06	19	34.18	74	64.35
Wife employed						
Yes	32	56.14	15	78.95	15	62.16
No	25	43.86	4	21.05	4	37.8

Table 1 (Continued)

Characteristics	Fathers		Non-fathers		All Jaycees	
	N = 62*	%	N = 51*	%	N = 117*	%
Wife's occupation						
Unskilled laborer	2	3.51	0		2	2.70
Service/operative/skilled labor/craftsman	7	12.28	1	5.26	8	10.81
Farmer/rancher/homemaker	26	45.61	4	21.05	29	39.19
Sales/clerical/foreman	6	10.53	6	31.58	12	16.22
Manager/business/small business proprietor	9	15.79	4	21.05	18	17.57
Professional/executive/large business proprietor	7	12.28	4	21.05	10	13.51
Wife's education						
8th to 11th grade	3	5.26	0		3	4.05
High school graduate	18	31.58	2	10.53	20	27.03
Some college of post-secondary vocational training	23	40.35	7	36.84	29	39.19
College graduate	10	17.54	7	36.84	17	22.97
Graduate degree	3	5.26	3	15.79	5	6.76
Total family income						
Under \$11,999	2	3.23	9	17.31	11	9.82
\$12,000 to \$17,999	5	8.07	9	17.31	14	12.50
\$18,000 to \$23,999	10	16.13	11	21.15	21	18.75
\$24,000 to \$29,999	17	27.42	7	13.46	23	20.54
\$30,000 to \$35,999	9	14.52	6	11.54	15	13.39
Over \$36,000	19	30.65	10	19.23	28	35.00
Social Status ¹						
Lower class	5	7.58	5	9.09	8	6.84
Working class	15	22.73	11	20.00	26	22.22
Lower middle class	28	42.42	24	43.64	50	42.74
Upper middle	18	27.27	15	27.27	33	28.21
Number of civic groups						
One	32	49.23	33	60.00	61	52.59
Two	17	26.15	13	23.64	31	25.86
Three	7	10.77	7	12.73	14	12.04
Four	4	6.15	0		4	3.45
Five	2	3.08	0		2	1.72
Six	0		1	1.82	1	.86
Seven	3	4.66	1	1.82	4	3.45
Degree of civic involvement						
Low	12	18.18	13	23.64	21	17.95
Moderate	37	56.06	26	47.27	63	53.85
High	17	25.76	16	29.09	33	28.21

Table 1 (Continued)

Characteristics	Fathers		Non-fathers		All Jaycees	
	N = 62*	%	N = 51*	%	N = 117*	%
Hours per week devoted to civic activities						
5 or less	32	60.38	0		62	54.87
6 to 10	13	24.53	51	100.00	51	45.13
11 to 20	5	9.43				
Over 21	3	5.66				
Degree of involvement outside the home both in civic and work activities						
Low	16	24.24				
Moderate	31	46.97				
High	19	28.79				
Do you have children or do you serve as the father figure to a child?						
Yes	62	100.00				
No	0					
Present at birth of child						
Yes	29	49.15				
No	30	50.85				
Preparation for birth						
Yes	43	74.14				
No	15	25.86				
Sex of children						
All males	19	32.77				
All females	11	18.97				
Both males and females	28	48.28				
Age of oldest child						
Infant	18	27.27				
Preschooler	17	25.76				
Schoolager	24	36.36				
Adolescent	7	10.61				
Number of children						
One	16	27.59				
Two	31	53.45				
Three to Five	11	18.97				
Future children						
Yes			44	88.00		
No			6	12.00		

*Variations in total N due to missing data.

Table 2
Analysis of Variance of Jaycee Scores
on the Five Sub-role Dimensions
of Fathering

Source	DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Group ^a	4	48.77.8330	128.40	.0001

^aGroup = the five sub-role dimensions: Societal Model, Nurturing, Recreational, Providing, Problem Solving.

Table 3
 The Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Differences
 in Mean Scores of Jaycees on the Five
 Sub-role Dimensions of Fathering

Group	N	Mean	Grouping ^a
Societal model	115	24.4621	A
Nurturing	115	23.8261	A
Recreational	115	23.6000	A
Providing	115	19.5740	B
Problem Solving	115	16.9740	C

Note. $p < .05$, $df = 570$, $MS = 9.49699$

^aMeans with same letter are not significantly different.

Table 4
Fathers' and Non-fathers' Means Scores on the
Five Sub-role Dimensions of Fathering

Dimension	Fathers	Non-fathers
	\bar{X}	\bar{X}
Providing	19.26	20.12
Nurturing	23.69	24.00
Recreational	23.45	23.88
Problem Solving	16.86	17.24
Societal Model	24.42	24.60

Table 5
Analysis of Variance for Fathers and Non-fathers
on the Providing Sub-role Dimension
of Fathering

Source	DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Child	1	20.56	1.93	.17

Table 6
Analysis of Variance for Fathers and Non-fathers
on the Nurturing Sub-role Dimension
of Fathering

Source	DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Child	1	2.60	.26	.61

Table 7
Analysis of Variance for Fathers and Non-fathers
on the Recreational Sub-role Dimension
of Fathering

Source	DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Child	1	5.08	.59	.44

Table 8
Analysis of Variance for Fathers and Non-fathers
on the Problem Solving Sub-role Dimension
of Fathering

Source	DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Child	1	4.11	.44	.51

Table 9
Analysis of Variance for Fathers and Non-fathers
on the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension
of Fathering

Source	DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Child	1	.90	.09	.76

Table 10
Analysis of Variance for Fathers on the Societal
Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
by Social Status Rank

Sum of squares	F value	p
126.6398	4.06	.01

Note. df = 3, n = 65

Table 11
 Means Scores of Fathers Toward the Societal Model
 Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
 by Selected Variables

Variable	N	Mean
Age of father		
24 and under	4	21.50
25 to 34	46	24.37
35 and older	15	24.80
Social status rank		
Lower class	4	19.25
Blue-collar	15	24.07
White-collar	28	24.39
Upper middle	18	25.44
Educational level		
Less than 8th grade	0	
8th to 11th grade	1	21.00
High school graduate	20	23.40
1-3 years college or post-secondary vocational training	11	23.18
College graduate	27	25.56
Graduate degree	5	24.80
Degree of involvement outside the home		
Low involvement	15	22.47
Moderate involvement	31	24.24
High involvement	19	26.05
Degree of involvement in occupation		
Low	15	22.33
Moderate	39	24.85
High	11	25.00

Table 11 (Continued)

Variable	N	Mean
Degree of involvement in civic activities		
Low	11	22.27
Moderate	37	24.22
High	17	25.76
Marital status		
Single	7	24.13
Married	57	24.32
Preparation for birth		
Yes	43	24.07
No	15	22.33
Attendance at Birth		
Yes	29	24.24
No	30	24.47
Age of oldest child		
Infant	17	22.47
Preschooler	17	24.24
Schoolager	24	25.42
Adolescent	7	25.00
Sex of Children		
Males only	19	25.00
Females only	11	25.2727
Both males and females	28	24.1786
Number of children		
1	16	25.6875
2	31	24.4194
3 - 5	11	23.8182

Table 12
 The Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Differences in Mean Scores
 on the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
 by Social Status Rank

Social status rank	N	Mean	Grouping ^a
Upper middle	18	25.44	A
White collar	28	24.39	A
Blue collar	15	24.06	A
Lower class	4	19.25	B

Note. df = 61, p .05

^aMeans with the same letter are not significantly different.

Table 13
Analysis of Variance for Fathers on the Societal
Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by
Degree of Involvement Outside Home

Sum of squares	F value	p
110.0558	.24	.008

Note. df = 2, n = 65

Table 14
The Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Differences in Mean Scores
on the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
by Degree of Involvement Outside the Home

Degree of involvement	N	Mean	Grouping ^a
High	19	26.05	A
Moderate	31	24.10	B
Low	15	22.47	B

^aMeans with the same letter are not significantly different.

Table 15
Analysis of Variance for Fathers on the Societal
Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
by Occupation Involvement

Sum of squares	<u>F</u> value	<u>p</u>
75.04	3.39	.04

Note. df = 2, n = 65

Table 16
Analysis of Variance for Fathers on the Societal
Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by
Degree of Civic Involvement

Sum of squares	<u>F</u> value	<u>p</u>
81.94	3.74	.03

Note. df = 2, n = 65

Table 17

The Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Differences in Mean Scores
on the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
by Degree of Civic Involvement

Civic involvement	N	Mean	Grouping ^a
High	17	25.76	A
Moderate	37	24.22	A B
Low	11	22.27	B

Note. df = 62, n = 65, p .05

^aMeans with the same letter are not significantly different.

Table 18
Analysis of Variance for Fathers on the Societal
Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by
Age of the Oldest Child

Sum of squares	<u>F</u> value	<u>p</u>
90.3187	2.74	.05

Note. df = 3, n = 65

Table 19
 The Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Differences in Mean Scores
 on the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
 by Age of the Oldest Child

Age of oldest child	N	Mean	Grouping ^a
Schoolager	24	25.42	A
Adolescent	7	25.00	A B
Preschooler	17	24.24	A B
Infant	17	22.47	B

Note. df = 62, p .05, n =

^aMeans with the same letter are not significantly different.

Table 20
Analysis of Variance for Fathers on the Societal
Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by
Preparation for Birth

Sum of squares	F value	p
83.2725	7.57	.008

Note. df = 1, n = 58

Table 21
The Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Differences in Mean Scores
on the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
by Preparation for Birth

Preparation for birth	N	Mean	Grouping ^a
Yes	45	25.07	A
No	15	22.33	B

Note. df = 56, $p < .05$, n = 58

^aMeans with the same letter are not significantly different.

Table 22
 Comparison of the Present Study and Eversoll's (1979b) Study
 of Attitudes Toward the Societal Model
 Sub-role Dimension by Age

Present study	\bar{X}	Eversoll's study	\bar{X}
Fathers 24 and under	21.50	College-aged sons	22.72
Fathers 25 to 34	24.37		
Fathers 35 and older	24.80	Middle-aged fathers	24.27

Table 23
Analysis of Variance for Fathers on the Recreational
Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by
Preparation for Birth

Sum of squares	F value	p
51.31	6.35	.01

Note. df = 1, n = 58

Table 24

The Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Differences in Mean Scores
on the Recreational Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
by Preparation for Birth

Preparation for birth	N	Mean	Grouping ^a
Yes	43	24.02	A
No	15	21.73	B

Note. df = 56, $p < .05$, n = 58

^aMeans with the same letter are not significantly different.

Table 25
 The Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Differences in Mean Scores
 on the Recreational Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by
 Degree of Occupational Involvement

Occupational involvement	N	Mean	Grouping ^a
Moderate	39	24.13	A
High	11	22.45	A B
Low	15	22.13	B

Note. df = 62, $p < .05$, n = 65

^aMeans with the same letter are not significantly different.

Table 26
Analysis of Variance for Fathers on the Nurturing
Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by
Preparation for Birth

Sum of squares	<u>F</u> value	<u>p</u>
117.5464	9.47	.003

Note. df = 1, n = 58

Table 27
Analysis of Variance for Fathers on the Provider
Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by
Preparation for Birth

Sum of squares	<u>F</u> value	<u>p</u>
41.90	4.34	.04

Note. df = 1, n = 58

Table 28
 The Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Differences in Mean Scores
 on the Provider Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
 by Preparation for Birth

Preparation for birth	N	Mean	Grouping ^a
Yes	43	19.67	A
No	15	17.73	B

Note. df = 56, $p < .05$, n = 58

^aMeans with the same letter are not significantly different.

Table 29
Analysis of Variance for Fathers on the Problem Solving
Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by Marital Status

Sum of squares	Mean Square	<u>F</u> value	<u>p</u>
31.4178	31.4178	4.46	.04

Note. df = 1, n = 65

Table 30
The Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Differences in Mean Scores
on the Problem Solving Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
by Marital Status

Marital status	N	Mean	Grouping ^a
Single	8	18.63	A
Married	57	16.51	B

^aMeans with the same letter are not significantly different.

Table 31

Level of Significance and Coefficients of Variation Zero-order Correlations,
Means, Standard Deviations of the Five Sub-role
Dimensions of Fathering for All Jaycees

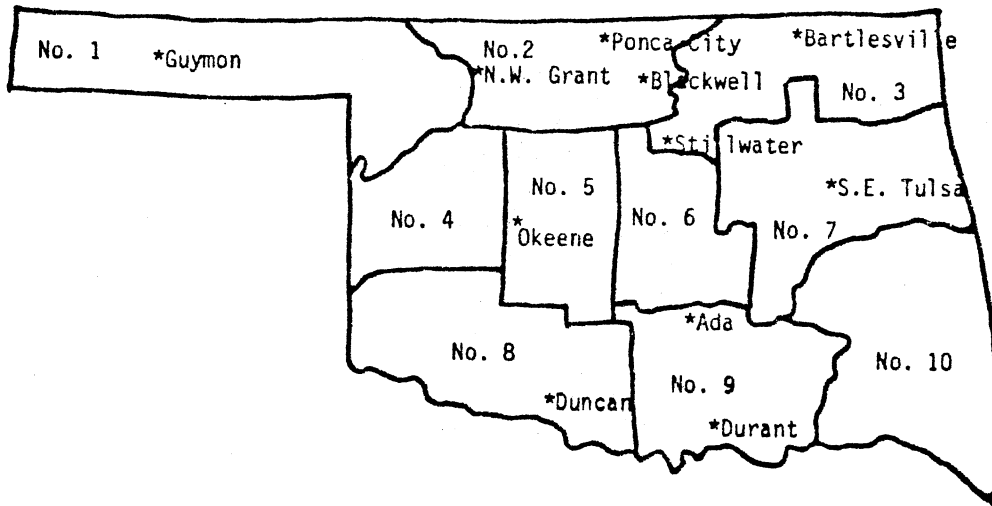
Variable	Nurturing	Providing	Societal model	Recreational	Problem solver
Nurturing		.19926 .03	.59757 .0001	.58384 .0001	.07397 .43
Providing			.44713 .0001	.33135 .0003	.46471 .0001
Societal model				.57872 .0001	.27107 .0034
Recreational					.29275 .0075
Problem solving					
Mean	23.83	19.57	24.43	23.60	16.97
Standard deviation	3.10	3.27	3.07	2.92	3.04
Coefficient of variation	13.02	16.71	12.57	12.36	17.91

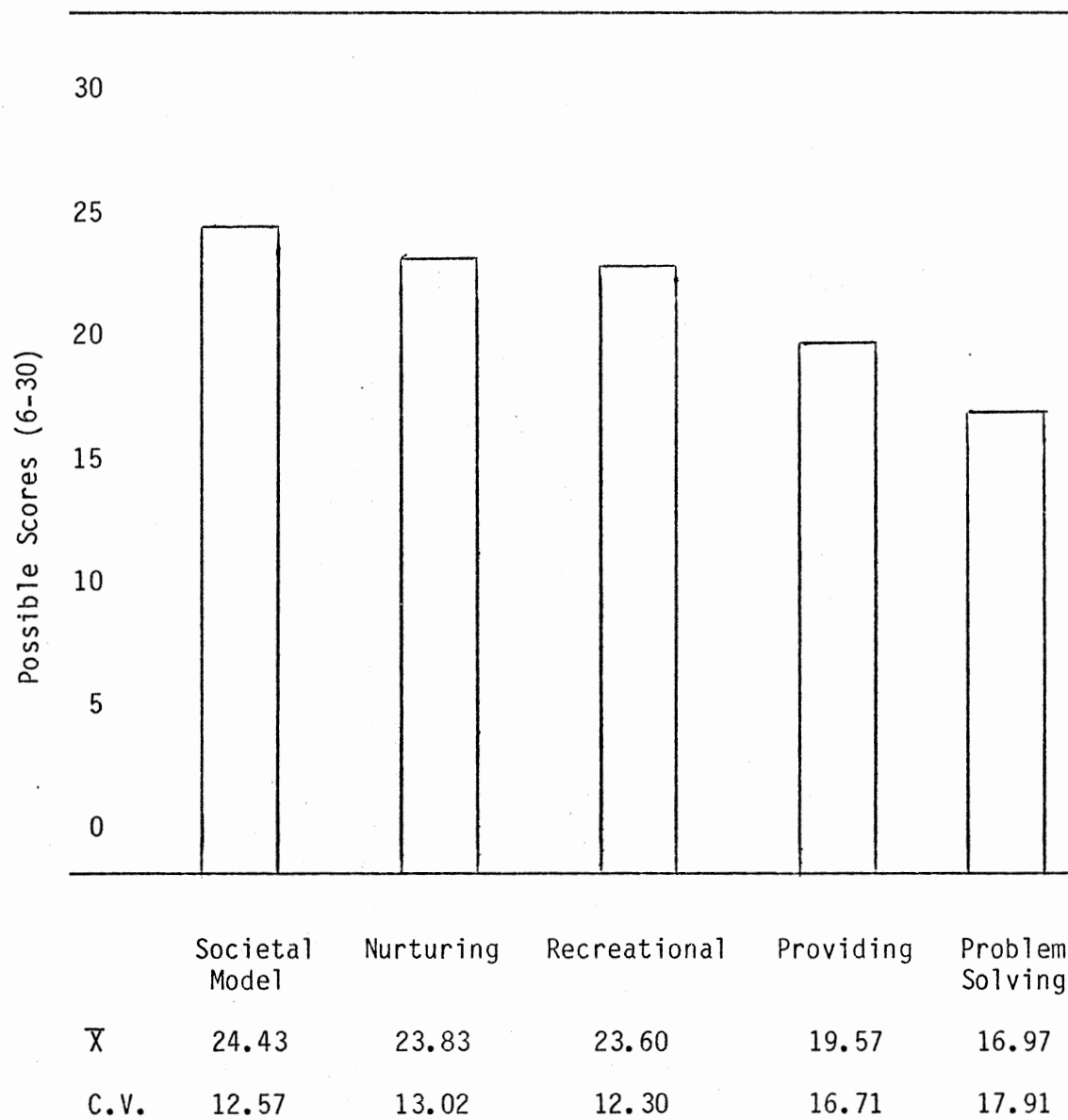
Note. N = 115.

Figure Captions

Figure 1. Distribution of Jaycee chapters across the state of Oklahoma.

Figure 2. Means and coefficients of variation for the five sub-role dimensions of fathering for Oklahoma Jaycees.





APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

LITERATURE REVIEW

Literature Review

The present research is an attempt to expand current knowledge concerning the nature of civic-minded young men's attitudes toward the father role. The father's role in child rearing has received inadequate attention in the literature (Benson, 1968; Sunley, 1968; Bigner, 1970; Lynn, 1974; Lamb, 1976; Levine, 1977). Not only has the father for the most part been ignored, but the studies concerning the father have been limited in scope (Nash, 1965; Bigner, 1970; Levine, 1977). As research on fathering has proliferated in the past decade, the importance of the father's role within the family and of fathering per se has become more and more evident (Walters and Stinnett, 1971; Lamb, 1976; Levine, 1977; Honig, 1980); however, there is still a dearth of information concerning factors which influence young men's attitudes toward the paternal role in child rearing.

Two broad areas of literature have a bearing on this work: the importance of the father in child rearing and factors which influence the father in his fathering role. The literature related to the increasing interest in the role of the father, a brief overview of how the father has been viewed, and the impact of the father on child development will be presented first. This will be followed by a discussion of role theory as the theoretical base underlying the present study. And then the literature related to selected factors which may influence the father in his fathering role will be reviewed. Specifically, the review includes:

- I. The Father's Role in Child Rearing
 - A. Increasing Interest in the Role of the Father
 - B. Fathering: Past, Present, and Future
 - C. The Importance of the Paternal Role
 1. Fathering and Cognitive Achievement
 2. Fathering and Sex-Role Development
 3. Fathering and Social Behavior
 4. Father Absence
- II. Theoretical Orientation: Role Theory
- III. Factors Influencing the Father in his Fathering Role
 - A. Number and Ordinal Position of Children
 - B. Age of Children
 - C. Sex of Children
 - D. Preparation for and Presence at Child Birth
 - E. Degree of Involvement Outside the Home
 - F. Age of the Father
 - G. Social Status

The Father's Role in Child Rearing

Research on fatherhood has been limited due to the greater emphasis in America on the role of the mother in child rearing and much of the research on parent-child relationships has ignored the father (Miller and Swanson, 1958; Sears, Maccoby, and Levin, 1957; Blood and Wolfe, 1960; Benson, 1968; Cohen and Campos, 1974). A review of the literature shows that social scientists have asked few questions about fathers and children; that research has proceeded to confirm popular assumptions about parents and children with little or no questioning of the basic, underlying assumptions concerning male and female roles within the

family; and that research which has considered the father, has relied upon mother's interpretations of paternal child rearing practices. The majority of the literature concerned with parent-child relations is in actuality concerned with mother-child relations (Nash, 1965; Kagan, 1964; Sunley, 1968; Green, 1976; Lamb, 1976; Levine, 1977; Young and Hamilton, 1978; Honig, 1980).

In the past decade research in the area of fathering has increased and researchers have begun to ask questions about the importance of the father. Recent research indicates that the impact of the father is of considerable significance (Walters and Stinnett, 1971; Lynn, 1974; Walters and Walters, 1980, Lamb, 1976; Honig, 1980). As research on fathering has increased, it has become evident that father does play an important role. Bigner (1970) concludes that the father's importance is being more commonly accepted, but what behaviors make him significant is virtually unknown.

It was observed by Margaret Mead that father is a "biological necessity but a social accident" (Honig, 1980, p. 33). This statement represents a pervasive belief in our society

that men and women are biologically destined to play not only different but mutually exclusive roles as parents; that an inherent nurturing ability disposes women to be more interested in and able to care for children than are men; and that for their well-being, children need mothers in a way that they do not need fathers. (Levine, 1977, p. 1)

Increasing Interest in the Role of the Father

During the last decade, research on fathering has increased (Lynn, 1974; Lamb, 1976; Honig, 1980). Lamb (1976) identified three reasons

for the increasing interest in the role of the father. First, "the focus on the mother-infant relationship was so unbalanced that several researchers were led to ask: Is it indeed true that the father is an almost irrelevant entity in the infant's social world?" Secondly, as the family in contemporary American society began to disintegrate, social scientists began to consider the consequences upon both the parents and the child. The relationship most often disrupted was that of the father and the child, and researchers found themselves knowing little about its importance or its nature. And thirdly, as evidence mounted that infants are active participants in social interaction, social scientists began to question whether the infant's social world might be far more complex than previously assumed. If so, then perhaps "infants form affective relationships to persons other than their mothers!" If infants are socially involved with individuals other than their mothers, then the father might possibly be more important than previously assumed (Lamb, 1976, pp. 1-2).

Fathering: Past, Present, and Future

Sunley (1968), in a review of early nineteenth century literature on child rearing, finds that the role of the father received little attention. The father is seen as being absorbed in his work, as spending very little time at home, and as chief administrator of corporal punishment. Historically, in our culture, "if a man has protected and provided economic support for his family, he has been judged a good father. In today's society, however, protection can be granted by agencies outside the home and "it is obviously possible to replace father's material support and make the mother-headed family economically stable" (Green, 1976, p. 37).

It has been assumed that fathers played no role in and had no interest in child rearing, whereas, in actuality it is not known what fathers thought about their role since very little information about past paternal attitudes and behaviors exists against which change may be measured. Since there is a lack of reliable records of past child rearing practices of fathers and since the historical factors which have led to present perceptions of the paternal role in child rearing are not readily documented, a good deal of conjecture must be utilized to describe how men feel about their role in child rearing. "Even today, attitudes toward fathers are often inferred rather than documented by direct study" (Nash, 1976, p. 67).

According to Pleck (1979) there are three general value perspectives evident on men's family work (i.e., housework and child care) in previous literature. The three perspectives, which form an historical sequence, include: (a) the traditional perspective, in which men have relatively little responsibility for family work; (b) the exploitation perspective, in which men's low level of family work is seen as causing negative consequences for women and as being unlikely to change; and (c) the changing roles perspective, which recognizes that men currently perform little work, but are viewed as beginning to change and thus to enlarge their family work role to compliment their traditional primary role in paid work.

Traditionally, the father has been viewed as the provider and the protector of the family and merely as an indirect influence upon the child through his influence and support of mother (Bowlby, 1962; Bigner, 1970). Father's traditional role as a parent as been aptly described as follows:

Because the father knew what the child should become he did not seek to understand the child as an individual; he prescribed the activities which were for the child's good, and he placed emphasis on giving things to and doing things for the child. He was interested in the child's accepting and attaining goals established exclusively by the father, and he found satisfaction in the child's owing him a debt which could be best repaid by obedience and by bringing honor to the family. (Waller and Hill, 1951, p. 411)

As societal conditions have changed, changes in the father's role, expectations of fathers, and attitudes toward fathering have also occurred (Duvall, 1977). These changing societal conditions have stripped the father of this traditional role. The father is no longer viewed as the supreme power in the family; his rights are no longer equated with justice; and he no longer is considered the sole guardian of the child (Green, 1976). As society has shifted from a simple agrarian society to a complex industrial nation, conceptions of fatherhood have changed. Changing roles in modern society have created changes in father's role, in expectations of fathers, and in attitudes toward fathering (Shostak, 1975; Brenton, 1975; Bigner, 1970; Levine, 1977).

As traditional attitudes toward child rearing eroded, a new conception of parenthood developed. Duvall (1946) and Elder (1949) identified this new conception of parenthood as "developmental." Brenton (1975) contends that this shift in attitude has expanded father's duties and at the same time diminished his rights. Not only is the role of father unclear, there is no generally accepted view as to what is expected of fathers. This new "developmental" view of the father has been described by one of Elder's research subjects:

A good father is interested in what his child does, helps his child to be interested in what the father does, and wants to help the child attain his goals. (Waller and Hill, 1951, p. 415)

Nash (1976) believes that there "has been a widespread reappraisal of the male role in childrearing" (p. 74). Studies have shown that father is important to the child's cognitive achievement (McAdoo, 1979; Epstein and Radin, 1975; Cross and Allen, 1967; Teahan, 1963), sex-role development (Green, 1976; Biller, 1974; Johnson, 1963; Greif, 1980; Russell, 1978; Lamb, 1979) and prosocial behavior (Rutherford and Mussen, 1968; Hoffman, 1975; Stevens and Matthews, 1978); that fathers are as involved with their infants as mothers (Parke and O'Leary, 1976; Parke and Sawin, 1981); that fathers report close affectionate ties with their children (Parke and Sawin, 1976; Greenberg and Morris, 1974); that fathers interact in qualitatively different ways than do mothers (Lamb, 1976, 1979; Honig, 1979; Friendlander, Jacobs, Davis, and Wetstone, 1972; Kotelchuck, 1976); and that children do form attachments to their fathers (Kotelchuck, 1972; Lester, Kotelchuck, Spelke, Sellers, and Klein, 1974; Ross, Kagan, Zelazo, and Kotelchuck, 1975; Spelke, Zelazo, Kagan, and Kotelchuck, 1978) and not just to the mother as Bowlby (1962) suggested. It is not that Bowlby denied the presence of father, but simply relegated his role to that of breadwinner and emotional support for the mother. Bowlby's classic work very possibly set the stage for erroneous assumptions about the importance of the father and consequently little interest or concern in his role was shown by social scientists.

Bronfenbrenner (1968) speculated that the father is becoming

increasingly more affectionate and less authoritarian. If his speculations are correct, then paternal role differentiation is changing with fathers yielding parental authority to mothers and taking on some of the traditional aspects of the maternal role, such as nurturance and affection.

Goezen and Chinn (1975) believe that the role of the father is in a state of flux and cannot be described in definitive terms. Furthermore, the attitude changes which are presently occurring in regard to the paternal role are a positive action on society's part to permit men to behave freely, with dignity and respect, rather than forgetting, ignoring or maligning them.

Eversoll (1979a, 1979b) sees fathering not as a uni-dimensional role, but as multi-dimensional. Following a review of the literature which revealed that there was not an instrument which measured the perspective of the male parent, Eversoll developed the Father Role Opinionnaire (1979c) which is designed to tap the expectations that individuals have toward five sub-role dimensions of the father role: Nurturing, Problem Solver, Provider, Societal Model, and Recreational.

Utilizing the Father Role Opinionnaire (Eversoll, 1979c), attitudes of college males and females toward the father role were compared (Eversoll, 1979a). Results indicate that males and females are not significantly different on the sub-role of "societal model" and "recreational," but that females place more emphasis on "nurturing" and less on "problem solver" and "provider" than do males. This finding would seem to indicate that there are considerable differences in contemporary male and female attitudes which could lead to conflict between future parents.

In a follow-up study, Eversoll (1979b) compared the attitudes of

college-aged males with the attitudes of their parents. Results indicate a significant generational difference in attitudes of parents and sons toward the father role. Sons scored higher than both parents on the "nurturing" and "recreational" sub-role dimensions and lower on "providing" and "societal model." Both fathers and sons had higher expectations toward "problem solving" than did mothers.

Eversoll concludes that the college-aged sons' attitudes toward the fathering dimensions may lead to changes in father behavior (1979b) and that sons' attitudes "indicate a significant trend away from a traditional expectation pattern for the younger generation of males;" however, the changes in college-aged males' attitudes are less rapid than are those of college females (1979a, p. 542).

Brenton (1975) suggests that societal changes in role expectations have resulted in considerable stress for the father as he is unclear of what is expected of him; that no matter what father does, he is criticized for it; and that the advice that father receives is often contradictory. The role of fatherhood encompasses many demands and expectations, but "fatherhood in America is accorded little respect" (Brenton, 1975, p. 181).

Shostak (1975) suggests that the middle-aged, blue-collar worker is caught in the middle of changing role expectations. Traditionally he has been expected to offer little friendship to his wife, little ecstasy as a lover, little intimacy as a father, and little support to his own aging parents. Current cultural changes in role expectations have undermined his understanding of what is expected of him and he is "caught between his own outmoded role definition and the redefinition put to him in the 1970's" (Shostak, 1975, p. 85).

Even if men to seek to "rediscover their caring selves through close and more satisfying relationships with young children," the pressures against them are considerable as "American society presents few models of nurturant manhood" (Fein, 1974, p. 56). The traditional image of father is no longer totally acceptable, but men are confused as to what their role is, what is expected of them, and how to go about changing.

Goezen and Chinn (1975) identify several psychological and sociological trends which account for changing attitudes toward the role of the father:

Current values regarding the necessity for awareness of human attributes, e.g., recognition of the uniqueness of individuals, their right to succeed on their own terms, respect for a male's right to openly demonstrate tenderness and compassion and express his love for his children with behavior that was previously acceptable for mothers only; exposure, by means of the mass media and physical mobility of populations, to a variety of cultural and social differences among other peoples; change from a predominantly rural to urban family setting, which may result in the father spending less time with his children, not being self-employed, belonging to a variety of social groups (which place increased demands on the roles he must assume), and relinquishing of family functions to outside groups; loss, in some cultures and socioeconomic groups, of the extended family; gainful employment of women; development of the democratic family in which the responsibility and authority for family decisions are now linked more directly to

the earning power and education of a particular parent than to his (or her) sex; behavioral expectations children place on their parents and freer participation of children in the decision-making process. (pp. 43-44)

DuBrin (1976) agrees that a new ideal version of the American father-husband-career person is emerging. This "new husband is a semi-liberated, transitional male of today who attempts to juggle the demands of his wife, children and career to the satisfaction of all three (and himself)" (p. x). The "new husband" voluntarily chooses to play an active role in the home and regards child rearing "as a source of pleasure, some frustration, and challenge to be shared on an approximately equal basis with their wives" (p. 36).

The Importance of the Paternal Role

Almost without exception most theorists, whatever their orientation, have assumed that the mother-infant relationship is unique and vastly more important than any contemporaneous, or indeed any subsequent, relationship" (Lamb, 1976, p. 2). However, the role of the father and the importance of the father has become evident as research in this area has increased (Honig, 1980; Walters and Stinnett, 1971; Lamb, 1976; Lynn, 1974). "Research has shown that the father's greatest impact on his children occurs primarily in those areas involving psychosexual, personality, social, and intellectual development" (Bigner, 1970, p. 361).

Walters and Stinnett (1971), in a review of research concerned with parent child relationships, conclude that the "impact of fathers is of considerable significance" (p. 101). Nash (1965) concludes that our neglect of the paternal role may have distorted our understanding of the

dynamics of development and may have adversely affected the way in which males are reared.

In a review of the literature concerning the nature and importance of father-infant relationships, Lamb and Lamb (1976) conclude that "far from being irrelevant or insignificant, fathers are salient figures in the lives of their infants from early in life. In addition, they interact with their infants in a unique and qualitatively differential manner" than do mothers (p. 383).

Clarke-Stewart (1978) contends that the supposition by researchers that mothers and fathers influence the development of their children differently is unsupported. She has found that the presence of fathers during mother-child interaction has a significant influence on mothers, that mothers talk to, respond to, and play with their children less when father is present. Furthermore, in answer to the question, "Do children prefer fathers to mothers?" Clarke-Stewart concludes "that it is not fathers, per se, that children prefer, but the type of play fathers typically engage in . . . the physical and physically stimulating, rough-and-tumble, non-intellectual nature of paternal play" (1978, p. 475). Her conclusion is further supported by Lamb's research (1977).

However, the importance of the father and the influence of the father on the child's development cannot be overlooked whether it is direct or indirect; as the nature of a child's relationship to his father is of importance not only in terms of his present security but also in terms of his later outlook on life (Bach, 1964).

Fathering and cognitive achievement. Research findings, utilizing a variety of techniques and approaches, are consistent enough to justify the conclusion that father has a direct, as well as indirect, influence

on the child's development from the earliest years (Lamb, 1976; Lynn, 1974; Pilling and Pringle, 1978). It appears that the father-child interactions affect the intellectual functioning of the child from a very early age, but the impact of his behavior varies with the sex of the child (Pilling and Pringle, 1978; Honig, 1980) and also by social class (Honig, 1980).

At the very minimum "father" is related to cognitive development (Radin, 1973). Father and mother appear to contribute to their children's cognitive development in differential ways; and the contribution that father makes to infant cognitive development comes from the quality of his play. Father is not just a substitute for mother, but makes his own unique contribution to the child's development (Parke and Sawin, 1977).

In a decade review of research relating to parent-child relationships, Walters and Stinnett (1971) conclude that a warm, accepting, understanding, and autonomy-granting parent-child relationship is positively related to academic achievement, leadership, and creativity in children. Children who are high academic achievers tend to have parents who value and encourage academic achievement.

Epstein and Radin (1975) found that interpersonal and task motivation were related to observed paternal behavior and cognitive functioning in four-year-old white children. For boys, motivation was an intervening variable between paternal behavior and the sons' intellectual performance. The nurturance of middle- and working-class fathers enhanced motivation, which in turn positively affected cognitive functioning. In the lower classes, paternal restrictiveness inhibited motivation, which in turn, inhibited intellectual functioning. Although

the fathers' behavior affected the daughters' task and interpersonal motivation, this impact did not influence their performance of intellectual tasks.

Lynn (1974) concludes that the cognitive development of the child is due to an interaction of biology, society, and family influences. The father does have an impact on his child's scholastic aptitude, style of thinking, achievement motivation, level of achievement, vocational choice, creativity, and moral development. However, the impact of the father on the cognitive development of the child varies at the different stages of development and may not be the same for both sons and daughters (Lynn, 1974; Pilling and Pringle, 1978; Honig, 1980). Radin (1976) concurs that the overall conclusion one reaches is that the father has a significant impact on his child's mental development. The father's influence is both direct and indirect and is the result of many and diverse channels

through his genetic background, his manifest behavior with his offspring, the attitudes he holds about himself and his children, the behavior he models, his position in the family system, the material resources he is able to supply for his children, the influence he exerts on his wife's behavior, his ethnic heritage, and the vision he holds for his children.

(p. 270)

Fathering and sex-role development. The literature indicates that father has a significant impact on the sex-role development of his children. Although the child comes into contact with many masculine models, the father will most likely exert a prominent influence on the lives of his own children (Benson, 1968). The father's function of providing a

model of masculinity for his son has received considerable attention from researchers; however, the role of the father in sex-role development of his daughter has received inadequate attention.

Sex-role identification theories indicate that the most obvious pattern is for the father to be the model of masculinity for the son and the mother to be the model of femininity for the daughter. However, it has been found that there are many factors involved in the process of identification (Mowrer, 1950; Stoke, 1950; Payne and Mussen, 1956; Kagan, 1958; Mussen and Distler, 1960). Although a distinction between identification with the masculine role and identification with one's father has been made, Benson (1968) has pointed out that the identification with one's father inevitably conditions a son's sex-role identification.

Payne and Mussen (1956) reported that adolescent boys who are strongly identified with their fathers are more likely to view the father as rewarding and nurturant. Children will identify with the parent which they consider to be the most powerful (Hetherington and Brackbill, 1963). Slater (1961) reports that a combination of firm discipline and nurturance is most conducive to identification. This is supported by Mussen and Distler (1960) who find that kindergarten boys identify most intensively with fathers who are viewed as powerful sources of both reward and punishment. This is further confirmed by Mussen and Rutherford (1963).

Benson (1968) concludes that children will identify with the same-sex parent if the parent feels reasonably self-confident about his or her own sexual identity. He also suggests that if the father plays a central role in the family, the son tends to identify with him strongly.

Mussen and Distler (1960) conclude that the degree of the son's masculinity is related to the frequency and the intensity of his contacts with his father and to the father's participation in child rearing.

Green (1976) suggests that the father's character, the success he has in his personal life, his relationship with the mother, and his affection for his son, form the foundation for his son's acceptance of being a male and his later acceptance of his adult roles as father and husband. In a review of ideas and findings from various disciplines, Biller and Weiss (1970) conclude that the father is also of great significance in the process of his daughter's feminine identification and personality adjustment, and that his influence on his daughter is expressed in both direct and indirect ways.

Father appears to be as important to the daughter's adequate sex-role development as he is to the son's sex-role development (Honig, 1980). Johnson (1963) found that growing up with a good relationship with a nurturing and admiring father was related to college-age girls' positive relationships with young men. Green (1976) states that "a young girl learns how to be a female from her similarly shaped mother. But she will learn how to be a girl who likes men, or does not trust or feel affection for men by the way she responds to her father" (p. 165).

Fathering and social behavior. Rising crime rates, increased vandalism, and increased delinquency at younger ages has led to increased interest in the area of prosocial behaviors such as empathy, altruism, helpfulness, and generosity (Honig, 1980). The literature related to juvenile delinquency and parent-child relationships emphasizes the lack of discipline, the inconsistency of discipline, and the lack of warm, loving relationships between the parents and the delinquent child (Walters and Stinnett, 1971).

The father appears to have a strong influence on anti-social behaviors. Delinquents describe their father as higher in punitiveness and lower in love and nurturance than do non-delinquents (Graff, 1968); fathers appear to sanction delinquency by inconsistent discipline and by serving as models of anti-social behavior (Gallenkamp, 1968); and delinquents hold more negative attitudes towards parents, especially fathers, than do non-delinquents (Andry, 1960; Medinnus, 1965; Allen and Sanhu, 1967).

Rutherford and Mussen (1968) found that preschool boys, who were described as being the most generous, more frequently described their fathers as warm and nurturant and as models of compassion, sympathy, and generosity. Feshbach (1973) found a relationship between high paternal affection and high maternal child-centeredness and the generosity of middle-class six- and eight-year-old boys. High aggression in boys has been related to fathers who are controlling, unaffectionate, authoritarian, rejecting, and less likely to trust their sons (Feshbach, 1973; Stevens and Matthews, 1978).

Mussen and Eisenberg-Berg (1977), in a review of literature related to the development of prosocial behavior in children, conclude that parental modeling of prosocial behaviors and parental nurturance are effective in strengthening the predisposition of prosocial behavior in children. Hoffman (1975) found that boys who were rated by their peers as helpful and considerate, had fathers who ranked altruism high in their own values. Lynn (1974) also concludes that generosity, altruism, and trust are related to father-child interaction, paternal attitudes, and paternal behaviors.

The evidence points to the conclusion that father affection is the

most important parental influence on a boy's relationships with peers (Hoffman, 1961; Leiderman, 1959). Hoffman (1961) found that a son's warm companionship with his father is conducive to good peer adjustment. It may be that this companionship provides the son with a model for interaction with others. Benson (1968) suggests that the father may be of great importance in determining his son's acceptance in the peer group because he promotes masculine habits which may either foster or interfere with the son's acceptance by peers.

Boys who are rated high in acceptance by their peers are found to be strongly identified with the appropriate sex role (Gray, 1957). Boys who conspicuously model themselves after their fathers are more likely to be rated high in social acceptance and adjustment in high school (Helper, 1955). And similarly, boys who perceive themselves to be more like their fathers than their mothers are found to be more favorably regarded by peers (Gray, 1959). The importance of the father to his son has been emphasized by Lynn and Sawrey's (1959) findings which indicate that father-absent boys show deficiencies in peer adjustments.

Father absence. A great deal of the literature related to fathering has concentrated on the absent father. Comparisons of children from father-absent and father-present homes have indicated that the father's influence on his child's development and adjustment is of considerable importance. Limited research has been undertaken in an attempt to determine the effects of father absence upon children, especially boys. The literature indicates that problems with psychosocial and emotional functioning are more common in father-absent children. Father absence has been shown to be negatively related to cognitive competence, sex-role development, moral development, and social adjustment (Herzog and

Sudia, 1973; Honig, 1977; Lynn, 1974; Lamb, 1976). In general, the findings reveal that the mother's attitude is significant in determining how the child is affected by separation from the father. The wife's reaction to her husband's departure and the reasons why he is gone may influence the child more than the mere fact that he is no longer present in the home (Benson, 1968).

The absence of the father not only affects the behavior of the child directly, but it also influences the mother's behavior in that it tends to make her more over-protective leading to indirect effects (Bronfenbrenner, 1968). Bach (1964) concludes that children who are separated from their father have an effeminized fantasy picture of their father which is related to their mother's attitudes toward her absent husband, and which she communicates to the children. Several investigators have reported that boys from father-absent homes are more dependent and more willing to accept authority from others than are boys from intact homes (Bach, 1964; Stolz, 1954; Lynn and Sawrey, 1959; Bronfenbrenner, 1961; Bronfenbrenner, 1968).

The specific reason for the father's absence is an influencing factor in the effects of father absence upon the child. Bernard (1956) concludes that the entrance of a new parent has more adverse effects after the original parent's death than after divorce. Conversely, Illsley and Thompson (1961) find that the death of the father has little adverse effect upon the child, whereas his absence due to separation or divorce is more detrimental.

Another important factor in the absence of the father and its effect upon the child has to do with the age of the child at the time of the father's absence. Biller (1968) suggests that father absence

beginning prior to age four has a more retarding effect on the development of the masculine sex-role orientation than does father-absence beginning after age four. Blaine (1963) found that one of the most important and traumatic periods to lose a parent is between the ages of three and six. This conclusion is in agreement with Sutton-Smith, Rosenberg, and Landry (1968) who find that father-absence has a depressive effect throughout life, but the greatest effects occur during the early and middle childhood years.

A study by Pedersen (1966) of the relationship between father-absence and emotional disturbance in male military dependents indicates that a significant relationship between father-absence and emotional disturbance exists. Siegman (1966) examined the hypothesis that father-absence during early childhood is related to anti-social behavior. The father-absence group obtained significantly higher anti-social behavior scale scores than did the father-present group. A more feminine orientation was indicated in boys from father-absent homes, but as the boys grew older they tended to react to their feminine identification with exaggerated masculinity.

Griggs (1968) finds that culturally disadvantaged Negro adolescent girls without a father seem to accept the condition of father-absence remarkably well. The father-absent girls do not date less frequently or have more negative attitudes toward marriage than the father-present girls. Furthermore, these girls tend to identify the major role of the father as that of provider and hold significantly lower levels of educational and vocational aspirations.

Walters and Stinnet (1971) conclude that even though more research on the effects of father absence is needed, it is evident that the

reason for the father's absence, the mother's reaction to the father's absence, the age of the child at the time of the father's absence and the length of the father's absence all play a role in the effects of his absence upon the child. The impact that father absence has on the child must be assessed in terms of total family functioning (Honig, 1980). Furthermore, studies concerned with father absence deal almost exclusively with the effects on the child, especially the male child, and little or no attention has been given to the effects of father absence upon the father.

Theoretical Orientation: Role Theory

The theoretical base underlying the present study is essentially role theory as it reflects the "position" or "status" of an individual, the father, and the "role," the expected behaviors, which an individual plays. Role theory conceptualizes the behavior of an individual in terms of his role performance. This implies that a role is a major link between the individual's behavior and his social structure (Truzzi, 1971). Contributions from diverse sources have enriched role theory, and at the same time led to a lack of conceptual consistency. The antecedents of role theory lie in both psychology and sociology with role being regarded as the largest possible unit of study within psychology and the smallest possible unit of study in sociology. Role theory may be more nearly defined as a conceptual framework, as it lacks consensus on the nature of its concepts. It does, however, provide an approach to the understanding and analysis of social behavior which is missing from many other theories (Deutsch and Krauss, 1965).

A person's status or position is characterized "in terms of a set of rights and obligations that regulate his interaction with persons of

other statuses" (Deutsch and Krauss, 1965, p. 174) or as "a location in a social structure which is associated with a set of social norms" (Bates, 1956, p. 314). A position may be "ascribed," allocated on the basis of what a person is, such as sex, age, or religion; or it may be "achieved," allocated on the basis of what an individual can do. Every individual occupies several statuses or positions within a number of "status systems" and all societies contain a large number of status systems. A status system is like a "multidimensional map which locates different statuses in relation to one another and shows how they are interconnected" (Deutsch and Krauss, 1965, p. 174).

It is theoretically possible, by enumerating all of a person's positions, to locate an individual with respect to the status systems of his society. For example, a man may occupy the positions of father, husband, son, worker, civic club member, church deacon, and mayor concurrently. All of an individual's concurrent positions or statuses is his "status set" (Deutsch and Krauss, 1965).

The distinction between role and status was proposed by Ralph Linton, who "conceptualized a status as a collection of rights and duties and a role as the dynamic aspects of a status" (Truzzi, 1971, p. 90). Bates (1956) defines a role as "a part of a social position consisting of a more or less integrated or related subset of social norms which is distinguishable from other sets of norms forming the same position" (p. 314). Each position or status is associated with a set of culturally specific norms or expectations. "These expectations specify the behaviors which an occupant of that position may appropriately initiate toward an occupant of some other position and, conversely, those behaviors which an occupant of the other position may appropriately initiate toward the first" (Deutsch and Krauss, 1956, p. 175).

A further distinction must be made in regards to the concept of role. A role may be "universalistic," or culturally defined with widespread agreement as to expected behavior, or it may be "particularistic," or governed by personal or uniquely individual expectations. For example, when the position and role of "father" is considered one finds universalistic expectations of an individual in this position and role, such as the obligation of providing economic support for children while the mother provides nurturance. However, particularistic expectations in a given situation may differ with the father being expected to provide for nurturance while the mother provides the economic support for the child. For most positions a range of role behavior is acceptable, but the further one moves away from the norm the less acceptable his behavior is deemed by society. A given culture or society dispenses positive sanctions or rewards to those who enact prescribed roles in what is deemed an appropriate manner, and negative sanctions or punishments to those who deviate or fall short of cultural expectations (Deutsch and Krauss, 1965). For example, in our culture it has traditionally been expected that the father provide financial support for the child. If the father fails to do so he is punished by his social system--through disapproval, ostracism, or legal sanctions. If he does provide economic support, he has been deemed a "good" father by the culture.

Since an individual's status set involves many and often conflicting expectations, he may find himself in "role conflict." Role conflict, a situation in which one occupies "positions with incompatible role requirements" may result from two positions which demand more of a scarce resource than the individual can give (such as time); from two

positions which make conflicting demands on the individual's loyalties (such as family and work); or from two positions which have conflicting values (such as when a father finds his views of parenting in conflict with those of his wife), and finally some positions are incompatible simply because the culture so defines them (such as in the case of incest taboos) (Deutsch and Krauss, 1965, p. 177). An individual's "role set," all of a person's concurrent roles, may result in role conflict just as does his status set. For example, a father may feel pressure from his peers to behave in an authoritarian way toward his children and his wife may expect him to be more permissive in regards to his children. The degree of role conflict varies in severity as a function of the degree of incompatibility in role prescriptions and, secondly, in the degree to which their prescriptions are enforced (Deutsch and Krauss, 1965).

As cultural and traditional expectations of the role of the father in child rearing change, men may find themselves in role conflict. Recent research has speculated that cultural expectations toward the father are in a state of flux and thus the role or expected behaviors of the position of father are unclear (Goezen and Chinn, 1975; Eversoll, 1979a, 1979b; Fein, 1974). The attitudes that young men hold toward the role of the father in child rearing will give us a better conceptualization of changes which are occurring and whether young men are in a state of role conflict regarding the position of father. If the attitudes and expectations that men hold for the role of the father are very different from those expected of them by society, role conflict may result.

Factors Influencing the Father in His Fathering Role

Although there is an increasing recognition of the importance of

the father in the development of his children, there is still little or no information concerning what factors influence young men in their attitudes toward the father's role in child rearing. It is difficult to discern from a review of the literature what methods, techniques, practices, or attitudes relating to child rearing that men have held in the past, or hold today, as the bulk of the literature has sampled from mothers. Mothers, rather than fathers, have been asked to identify what fathers do, what they believe, and what attitudes they hold.

A review of the literature relating to attitudes toward fathering revealed that little or no work has been done in comparing the attitudes of fathers and non-fathers toward child rearing. However, several studies have looked at the influence of various factors on fathering. Those areas which seem most relevant are: number and ordinal position of children, age of the children, sex of the children, preparation for and attendance at child birth, degree of involvement outside the home in non-family activities, age of the father, and social status.

Number and Ordinal Position of Children

Aberle and Naegele (1952) find that more concern is expressed if the firstborn is a male than if the firstborn is a female or with subsequent male children. Schacter (1959) finds that the firstborn child receives more attention, more "psychological" discipline and also is more anxious and dependent. The later-born children are seen as more aggressive and self-confident. Pederson and Robson (1969) conclude that the fathers are highly involved with their firstborn child, but also noted that there is a degree of variability in the degree of involvement.

Parke and O'Leary (1976) find that the father is a very active

participant in father-infant interaction. Both mothers and fathers are more likely to hold the firstborn in their arms and later-born on their laps, parents are more likely to walk the firstborn if it is a boy, and fathers touch firstborns more than later-borns. They conclude that "sex and ordinal position are important modifying variables in early parent-infant interaction" (p. 663).

Cruse, Clark, and Pease (1980) report that rural parents "see themselves as more involved with first born children" (p. 169). Fathers and mothers differ in the type of activities they engage in with the child. "Fathers tend to offer suggestions for activities, to facilitate the child's problem solving, and to participate in play with their children," whereas mother's behavior emphasizes the helping aspect (p. 169). This is consistent with Lamb's (1976) finding that mother-child interaction is characterized by caretaking and father-child interaction is characterized by play.

Bigner (1977) finds a low positive, but significant, association between the father's attitude toward fathering and the ordinal position of the child. The findings indicate that fathers become more developmental in their attitudes toward fathering with second- and third-born children. This suggests that as fathers gain experience, as they function in their role with the firstborn, their attitudes become more realistic and less rigid than were their expectations with their firstborn child. However, as the number of children increases, the father's score on the activity scale decreased. Comparisons of responses by ordinal position of the child showed different results. "These trends suggest that changes toward less activity and attitudes that were more developmental in character occurred as additional children became introduced into the family unit" (p. 105).

Conversely, in a decade review of the literature, Walters and Stinnett (1971) conclude that

the literature indicates that parental responses to children are a function of the ordinal position of the child and the size of the family. These findings suggest that parents tend to be more supportive of, and also tend to exert more pressure for achievement upon first-born children. An increase in parental authoritarianism and a decrease in parent-child communication as size of family increased was observed. (p. 94-95)

Cruse, Clark, and Pease (1980) also find that "fathers seem to be more involved when there are fewer children" (p. 170), were more likely to set and enforce limits as the number of children increased, and were quicker to respond to expressions of need as the number of children increased.

Age of Children

Emmerich (1962) reports that "parental nurturance-restriction varied in a cyclical fashion as a function of the child's age, especially toward sons" (p. 11). Bigner (1977), in a study of attitudes toward fathering, found that the father's attitudes did not change as the age of the preschool child increased. Bigner does find that the estimated amount of interaction time fathers spent with their three-, four-, and five-year-old children increased as the children grew older.

In examining variations in responses as a function of increase in age of the child, it is apparent that the changing nature of children induced comparable changes in responses of the fathers . . . The responses of fathers of the younger children were more traditional in nature while those of older children showed a more developmental orientation. (Bigner, 1977, p. 104)

Cruse, Clark, and Pease (1980) find that the age of the child is related to the father's consistency in setting and enforcing limits. As the age of the child increased, the fathers reported that they set and enforced limits more often and were more likely to use reasoning as a guidance technique.

The fathers in Bigner's (1977) study report that as the child increases in age, their demonstrations of physical affection decrease. This was further confirmed by Cruse, Clark, and Pease (1980), who report that parents, both mothers and fathers, express less intimacy as the child grows older. This may be due to parental perceptions that older children need less intimate physical contact than do younger children; or that older children resist such displays of affection. Cruse, Clark, and Pease (1980) conclude that the age of the child and the age of the parent is related to parental behaviors more than any other demographic variable studied.

Sex of Children

Aberle and Naegele (1952) assumed, and their data confirmed, that fathers' orientations toward their sons and daughters differed. Fathers expected that their sons would ultimately occupy middle-class occupational positions and that their daughters would not. The fathers more frequently expressed concern about boys and the emotional strength of their concerns was considerably stronger with regard to boys than girls. Behaviors which were negatively evaluated in boys include:

lack of responsibility and initiative, inadequate performance in school, insufficiently aggressive or excessively passive behavior, athletic inadequacies, over-conformity, excitability, excessive tearfulness, and the like, possible involvement in homosexual play, and "childish" behavior. (p. 194)

These behaviors explain the difference in concern with boys and girls. The satisfactions fathers expressed concerning daughters deal with being "'nice,' 'sweet,' pretty, affectionate, and well-liked" (p. 194).

Kohn (1959) found that fathers were similar to mothers in their values, but were less likely to value happiness for their daughters. In general, Kohn does not find that fathers are significantly more likely to choose a characteristic for boys than they are for girls. He explains that this may possibly be due to small sample size, as it contradicts the findings of Aberle and Naegele (1952), who offer much evidence for the belief "that fathers' attitudes toward their sons' behavior are different from those toward their daughters'" (p. 196).

Emmerich (1962) investigated variations in the parent role associated with the parent's sex, the child's sex, and the child's age. He concludes that parents exert more power toward their same-sex children than toward their opposite-sex children. He also finds that parental nurturance-restriction varies in a cyclical fashion as a function of age, especially toward boys.

Fathers report that they have different expectations for sons and daughters and that they participate in different activities with their sons than with their daughters (Aberle and Naegele, 1952; Tasch, 1952). Goodenough (1957) reports that mothers are less concerned with appropriate sex-typing than are fathers. The fathers report that they are actively involved in implementing sex-typing of their children. Emmerich (1962) finds a marked trend for fathers to exert more power toward their sons than toward their daughters. Rothbart and Maccoby (1966) report that when the direction of differences for all scales are considered, a general trend emerges: parents are more permissive toward

the opposite-sex child's voice. They conclude that the sex of the parent is a better predictor of his differential response to sons and daughters than is a sex-role stereotype.

Bronfenbrenner (1968) concludes that parental behavior is different for each sex, with girls being exposed to more affection and less punishment than boys, but at the same time are subjected to more "love-oriented" discipline which encourages internalized controls. Although girls are found to be more obedient, cooperative, and better socialized than boys, they also tend to be more anxious, timid, dependent, and sensitive to rejection. Data indicates that it is primarily mothers who employ "love-oriented" techniques of discipline and fathers who rely on physical punishment. Parents tend to be more active, firm, and demanding with the child of the same sex, more lenient with the child of the opposite sex. The tendency to be especially warm and solicitous with girls is more pronounced among fathers, and they are the parents most likely to treat children of the two sexes differently.

Pederson and Robson (1969) found that fathers were significantly more concerned about the well-being of female infants than male infants. This may reflect a cultural stereotype that males should be tougher and more hardy at an early age or it may be that fathers are simply more unsure with female infants. The authors further report that "caretaking, investment, and stimulation level of play are positively correlated to attachment for boys. Irritability level is negatively correlated for boys and apprehensive over well-being is negatively correlated for girls" (p. 470). Pederson and Robson suggest that there may be entirely different attachment systems in operation for boys and girls.

Walters and Stinnett (1971) conclude that "mothers and fathers have

a very different impact on their sons and daughters and that the intensity of their influence varies throughout the period of childhood and adolescence" (p. 70). Furthermore, the research indicates that the attitudes and behavior of parents varies according to both sex of the parent and sex of the child.

Weinraub and Frankel (1977) find that fathers interact differently with their eighteen-month-old sons and daughters during free play, that fathers and mothers have different patterns of free play interaction, that fathers differ from mothers in their style of departure, and that infants respond differently to the absence of father than to that of mother.

Bigner (1977) reports that there are no significant differences on either Attitude or Activity Scale Scores as a function of the child's sex, but an item analysis revealed differences in fathers' responses and attitudes toward fathering by sex of the child. Although the differences were not significant, the "cross-sex patterns of response may indicate that fathers' expectations, values, and attitudes are expressed in different terms for sons and daughters" (p. 105).

Brody and Axelrod (1978), in a longitudinal study of character development, find that the attitudes and behaviors of the mothers and fathers are consistent over time. Furthermore, there are significant differences in the attitudes and behaviors of fathers toward sons and daughters, with sons being "favored in all ways" (p. 550).

Cruse, Clark, and Pease (1980), in a study of child rearing practices of rural parents, report that parental behaviors do not seem to be related to the sex of the child. It may be that farm families hold fewer stereotypes about roles and relationships than do urban parents who are respondents in most research studies.

Preparation for and Attendance at Birth

Fein (1976) interviewed men, who attended childbirth classes, before and after the birth of their first child. He concludes 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" (p. 344). He finds that those who appear to adjust with the least difficulty adopt either the role of "breadwinner" or the role of "non-traditional father." Those men having difficulty adjusting seemed to be unsure of which role to adopt; and their wives were also seen as being unsure of the role they wished their husbands to follow. Fein furthermore finds that the relationships the men developed with their infants did not appear to affect their adjustments to family life during the postpartum period.

Wente and Crockenberg (1976) conclude that lack of knowledge about parenting is predictive of high adjustment difficulty following the birth of the first child and that participation in Lamaze classes does not result in an easier adjustment to fatherhood. This result may be due to the fact that a high proportion of the fathers not attending classes were also present at birth; or it could be that Lamaze prepares for birth, but does not help in preparing for parenthood following the birth.

Fein (1976) finds that men who have had more experience in caring for children expected, prior to birth, to be more involved in caretaking than men who have had less experience; and these men are more involved following the birth. The men's postpartum adjustment was related to four factors: "health of the baby, negotiating processes and coherence

of roles in a relationship, family support, and work support" (Fein, 1976, p. 346). Fein's data indicates that a simple relationship between presence at birth and involvement with the infant is unlikely as there was considerable variation in the degree of involvement of all men who were present at birth.

Greenberg and Morris (1974), in a study of the father's reaction to their new born infant, find that there is not a highly significant difference between those fathers who were present as opposed to those who did not witness the birth. However, their observations indicate that there may be a "qualitative difference in the degree of engrossment in the two groups of fathers based on the degree of contact with their newborn" (p. 527). The authors find that "fathers develop a feeling of preoccupation, absorption, and interest in their newborn. The father is gripped and held by this particular feeling and has a desire to look at, hold, and touch the infant" (p. 526). Their findings indicate that the father's early contact with his newborn may be a significant factor in the release of engrossment.

DeGarmo (1978) contrasted fathers who chose to participate with those who chose not to be present at delivery of their child. She attempted to delineate characteristics of fathers who chose to be present at birth and of those who chose not to be present. She also attempted to determine factors which motivate the father in his decision to either participate or not participate in the birth process. The findings indicate that there was a high degree of similarity between the two groups in terms of age, race, marital status, ordinal position, experience with children, and experience as a hospital patient. The only significant differences found were in educational level, with

fathers viewing birth more highly educated, and in feelings of comfort-ability in the hospital. In addition, most of the fathers made their decision about attending or not attending birth before they arrived at the hospital. "The main difference between the two groups in motivation for being present during childbirth was in the area of preparation for childbirth" (p. 169), with those who attended having had some type of birth preparation.

Degree of Involvement Outside the Home

For the purposes of this study, involvement outside the home includes time spent in or directly related to one's occupation and time spent in or involved in civic and community affairs. Occupation is defined as a "social role performed by adult members of society that directly and/or indirectly yields social and financial consequence and that constitutes a major focus in the life of an adult" (Hall, 1975, p. 6). Civic involvement is defined as the amount of time spent by an adult member of society in a volunteer role for the purpose of serving one's community and/or fellow men.

A review of the literature revealed no work directly related to the influence of community or civic involvement and parenting attitudes or behaviors of young men. Furthermore, the work relating to the influence of one's occupation and parenting attitudes is closely related to the influence of social status. This literature is reviewed in a later section, "Social Status."

It has been proposed that since families must obtain resources from the economy through occupational roles, that the characteristics and demands of the occupation may influence internal family relations and interactions (Aldous, 1969; Rapoport and Rapoport, 1965, 1974; Aldous,

Osmond, and Hicks, 1979; Clark, Nye, and Gecas, 1978; Kanter, 1977, Hood and Golden, 1979; Scanzoni, 1970). However, in the case of employed husbands and fathers the impact of work time on family interaction has been relatively neglected, even though the extent of time spent at work directly influences that father's opportunities to participate in domestic roles (Clark, Nye, and Gecas, 1978).

Lynn (1974) believes that the nature of the father's work is partially responsible for eroding the father's position within the family. The number of working hours for the middle-and upper-class (the executive-professional) man has increased and "he is frequently active in civic affairs, from a genuine sense of responsibility"; and although the number of hours per week for the working man (the skilled and unskilled laborer) has decreased, economic conditions often force him into dual jobs, "moonlighting," or overtime. While he is less likely to be involved in civic activities, he traditionally has been allowed a "night out with 'the boys'" (p. 7).

Several studies indicate that men who invest in children, as well as in their work, will find what women have found--that they have only a finite amount of energy available and that energy that goes into child care is diverted from work or oneself, or one's marriage (Bailyn, 1978; Levine, 1976; Rapoport and Rapoport, 1976, 1978). Marks (1977) argues, in a discussion of multiple roles and role strain, that the more committed one is to a role, the less likely it is that role expectations will be experienced as excessive demands on energy. Whereas time is a non-expandable resource, energy is not. Both the use and supply of energy are governed by commitment.

In order to investigate the relationships of husbands' work time

and marital role participation more fully, a theory of role competition was developed and predictions drawn from it were tested. The theory proposes that individuals must allocate their time among role alternatives (Becker, 1965; Goode, 1960). This allocation of time is guided by the individual's role hierarchy. In effect, roles compete for scarce time (Goode, 1960; Secord and Backman, 1974). Clark, Nye, and Gecas (1978) propose that the more time a husband spends in work, the less time he will allocate to other marital roles; and secondly, that the greater the husband's work time the less competent he will be at each marital role. Four marital roles identified by Nye (1974) were studied: the housekeeper role, the recreation role (organizing and providing for joint leisure activities), the sexual role, and the therapeutic role (providing sympathy, understanding, and personal support for one's spouse). The results indicate that the husbands' work time does not significantly decrease their participation in the housekeeper and therapeutic roles, nor their competence in the housekeeper, therapeutic, sexual, and recreational roles. Only husbands' sharing of the recreational role was significantly reduced by their work time. They conclude that the effects of husbands' work time on marital role performance depends upon the role priorities and expectations of husbands and wives.

An understanding of how time spent at work influences a man's family depends considerably on assumptions made about the relationships between time, energy, and commitment. Clark, Nye, and Gecas (1978) found that there was little relationship between the hours spent at work and the wife's marital satisfaction. They explain their findings by stating that the same husbands who work long hours are also likely to place a high priority on marital roles--these men were sufficiently

committed to both marital and occupational roles to find the time and the energy for both of the roles. However, other studies indicate that there are finite limits as to how much time and energy a man can devote to his career before his family relationships suffer (Bailyn, 1971; Mortimer, Hall, and Hill, 1978; Poloma and Garland, 1971; Rapoport and Rapoport, 1972).

Kanter (1977) notes that little research has been done to examine the effects of work scheduling on families. Hood and Golden (1979) point out that studies dealing with how the timing of work and the amount of time spent at work relate to the quality of family life generally consider how family interaction or role performance is affected by shift assignment, how participation in family activities is affected by the amount of time allocated to work, or how the allocation of energy among work and family roles are affected by work-family priorities and the role demands. Hood and Golden (1979) conclude that the "literature leaves little room for doubt that work scheduling has an impact on men's family relationships, but understanding how it is related is more problematic" (p. 576).

As Hood and Golden (1979) point out, the ideals and values that men hold about work-family priorities are not often actualized because of the conflicting expectations and pressures which are placed upon them. Furthermore, if men espouse to take on new roles within the family, they find little support for such behavior from either friends or families of origin (Berger, 1979). We live in a culture which socializes men to view work in a stereotypical way: men work and women run the home (Rapoport and Rapoport, 1977).

Although no work relating to men's involvement in civic affairs

and their parenting behavior was found, it would seem logical that men who are highly committed to community involvement will face the same role conflicts as they do with work and family roles. The addition of a civic role to the work and family roles of men will undoubtedly lead to additional role conflict and strain.

Age of the Father

Bigner (1977) reports that the age of the father is not associated with the degree of father-child activity or with the father's attitude toward fathering. He did find, however, that the amount of time the father estimated he spent in interaction with his child was positively associated with the age of the father. Bigner explains this in terms of the older fathers' lessened occupational pressures resulting in more time to devote to the child and the family.

Conversely, Crase, Clark, and Pease (1980) conclude that age of the child and age of the parent are "the most salient variables associated with the parenting process" for their sample of rural parents (p. 171). They report that parental expressions of intimacy (hugs, kisses) are negatively associated with parental age. As the father's age increases he is less likely to express physical affection for his child. This finding may be due to parental perceptions of older children needing less physical affection or that older children may resist such displays of affection.

Eversoll (1979b) in a cross-generational study of 221 young adult college males and their parents found significant differences in attitudes toward four of five dimensions of the father position. The college age sons expected fathers to be more "nurturing" and "recreational" and less active on the "providing" and "societal model" dimensions than

did their fathers. Only in the area of "problem solving" did fathers and sons not differ significantly, both expecting the father to fill this role. Eversoll also reports that there is "greater variability in the scores of the younger generation and therefore perhaps greater confusion in expectation within this group" (p. 506). She suggests that these changes in attitudes may be due to the upward mobility of the sons, to a life cycle effect, to a change in expectations, or to age.

Social Status

Anderson (1936), in a study for the 1930 White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, found that child rearing practices were related to social class. In the mid-1940's, Davis and Havighurst (1946) compared the socialization practices of upper-middle and upper-lower class families. Through interviews with mothers they attempted to determine differences in timing, pace, and methods of early cultural training. They concluded that lower-class families were more permissive than the middle-class families. In addition, the mothers reported that middle-class fathers spent more time with their children and were more involved in educational activities with their children than the lower-class fathers.

Ericson (1946) concurs with Davis and Havighurst that lower-class parents are more permissive than middle-class parents. Middle-class families viewed early assumption of responsibility and conformity to the group as more important than did lower-class families.

Duvall (1946) finds that lower-classes are more traditional in their parenting conceptions than are those of higher status. She suggests that these traditional conceptions may be explained by the fact that lower-classes are struggling for respectability, and, therefore,

place pressure on their children to conform to traditional societal expectations. The higher status families were more developmental in their conceptions of parenting.

Aberle and Naegele (1952) interviewed both middle-class mothers and fathers to determine if there was a relationship between the father's occupation and his views toward socialization of his children. Specifically they attempted to determine if there was a relationship between the father's occupational satisfactions and strains and his behavior toward his family. Findings indicate that the fathers saw little or no connection between their job situation and their behavior at home; nor could fathers see a relationship between behaviors and attitudes at home and those on the job. However, the fathers negatively evaluated traits, especially in their sons, which would interfere in a middle-class occupation in later adult life. Aberle and Naegele conclude that even though the father attempts to leave his job behind, he in fact "represents the occupational world to his family and evaluates his children in terms of his occupational role" (p. 192).

Miller and Swanson (1958) contend that the basic life values are determined by one's occupation, and that these values will determine how children are reared. They identified two types of middle-class parents: the Entrepreneurial, who stress self-control, and the Bureaucratic, who stress getting along with others. Their study of the early child rearing practices of 575 Detroit mothers indicated a modest amount of support for their thesis.

Sears, Maccoby, and Levin (1956), in a study of child rearing practices, conclude that the middle classes are more permissive than the lower classes. However, Littman, Moore, and Pierce-Jones (1957)

interviewed both mothers and fathers to determine if there were differences in child rearing practices between social classes by sex of parent. Their results "point quite clearly to the absence of any general or profound differences in socialization practices as a function of social class" (pp. 701-702).

Bronfenbrenner (1968) contends that a general change in child rearing patterns occurred following World War II. Middle-class parents shifted from the rigid discipline of the 1920's and 1930's to a more developmental point of view which allows greater tolerance of the child's impulses, more expression of affection, and greater reliance on "psychological" or love-oriented methods of discipline. This shift narrowed the distance between the middle and lower classes and brought the middle class to a position of higher general permissiveness. The reason for the shift is unclear, but the "advice of experts like Dr. Spock and the increased affluence of the middle class have been cited as relevant factors" (Reiss, 1971, p. 277).

White (1957) also hypothesizes that "child-rearing practices have changed since earlier studies were made" (p. 705) and that these changes are due to a difference in middle-and working-class reference groups. Evidence supports his hypothesis. Middle-class parents mention more sources of information and refer to specific experts; whereas the working class seems to rely more on their own inclinations and upbringing.

Kohn (1959) concludes that "middle-class parents (fathers as well as mothers) are more likely to ascribe predominate importance to the child's acting on the basis of internal standards of conduct, working-class parents to the child's compliance with parents' authority" (p. 341). A broadly common, but not identical, set of values are shared by

working- and middle-class parents. There appears to be a close relationship between the values of working-class parents and their actual situation, and between the middle-class situation and their values. The values that seem important but problematic (difficult to achieve) in either situation are the ones most likely to be accorded high priority. For the middle class these values center around internalized standards of conduct; in the working class values which center around qualities that assure respectability are accorded high priority (Kohn, 1959).

Walters and Stinnett (1971), in a decade review of research, conclude that "basic differences exist in parent-child relationships according to social class which reflect different living conditions" (p. 95). In general, middle-class parents are less likely to use physical punishment than lower-class parents; middle-class parents are more supportive and controlling than lower-class parents; and middle-class parents are less likely to show differential treatment of male and female children.

Gecas and Nye (1974) retested Kohn's (1959) hypothesis that white-collar parents stress internal standards of conduct and, therefore, discipline children on the basis of their interpretation of the motives behind the act; whereas, blue-collar parents are more concerned with the consequences of the child's behavior. Results indicate support for the hypothesis using a sample of 210 couples.

The literature seems to indicate that there is a relationship between attitudes toward child rearing and social class, and that there has been a shift or reversal in attitudes by social class since the Second World War. It appears that middle class parents are more permissive, developmental, child-centered, love-oriented, and concerned with

internal standards of conduct or self-control. The lower-class or working parents are seen as more restrictive, traditional, parent-centered, power-oriented, and concerned with compliance to authority and respectability. Many of the studies found in the literature are limited as they interviewed only the mother and not the father in determining attitudes; and the attitudes and values that parents hold were for the most part inferred from the practices they reported rather than direct questioning as to what parental attitudes and values were.

References

- Aberle, D. F., & Naegele, K. D. Middle class father's occupational role and attitudes toward children. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1952, 22, 366-378.
- Aldous, J. Occupational characteristics and males' role performance in the family. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1969, 31, 707-712.
- Aldous, J., Osmond, M. W., & Hicks, M. W. Men's work and men's families. In W. R. Burr, R. Hill, F. I. Nye, & I. L. Reiss (Eds.), Contemporary theories about the family: Research based theories (Vol. 1). New York: The Free Press, 1979.
- Allen, D. E., & Sanhu, H. S. Alienation, hedonism, and life-vision of delinquents. Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology and Police Science, 1967, 58, 325-329.
- Anderson, J. E. The young child in the home. White House Conference on Child Health and Protection. New York: Appleton-Century, 1936.
- Andry, R. Delinquency and parental pathology. London: Methuen, 1960.
- Bach, G. R. Father-fantasies and father-typing in father separated children. In C. B. Stendler (Ed.), Readings in child behavior and development. New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World, 1964.
- Bailyn, L. Career and family orientations of husbands and wives in relation to family happiness. In A. Theodore (Ed.), The professional woman. Cambridge, Ma.: Schenckman, 1971.
- Bates, F. L. Position, role, and status: A reformation of concepts. Social Forces, 1956, 34, 313-321.

- Becker, G. A theory of the allocation of time. The Economic Journal, 1965, 75, 494-517.
- Benson, Leonard. Fatherhood: A sociological perspective. New York: Random House, 1968.
- Berger, M. Men's new family roles--some implications for therapists. The Family Coordinator, 1979, 28, 638-646.
- Bernard, Jessie. Remarriage. New York: The Dryden Press, 1956.
- Bigner, J. J. Fathering: Research and practical implications. The Family Coordinator, 1970, 19, 357-362.
- Bigner, J. J. Attitudes toward fathering and father-child activity. Home Economics Research Journal, 1977, 6, 98-106.
- Biller, H. B. A note on father absence and masculine development in lower class negro and white boys. Child Development, 1968, 39, 1003-1006.
- Biller, H. B. Paternal deprivation. Lexington, Ma.: Heath, 1974.
- Biller, H. B., & Weiss, S. D. The father-daughter relationship and the personality development of the female. The Journal of Genetic Psychology, 1970, 116, 79-93.
- Blaine, G. G. The children of divorce. The Atlantic Monthly, March, 1963, 98-101.
- Blood, R. O., Jr., & Wolfe, D. M. Husbands and wives: The dynamics of married living. New York: The Free Press, 1960.
- Bowlby, John. Maternal care and mental health. New York: Schocken Books, 1962. (Originally published in The Bulletin of the World Health Organization. Geneva: World Health Organization, 1951.)

- Brenton, Myron. The paradox of the contemporary American father: Every day is mother's day. In J. W. Petras (Ed.), Sex: Male. Gender: Masculine. Port Washington, NY: Alfred Publishing Co., Inc., 1975.
- Brody, S., & Axelrod, S. Mothers, fathers and children: Explorations in the formation of character in the first seven years. New York: International Universities Press, Inc., 1978.
- Bronfenbrenner, U. Some familial antecedents of responsibility and leadership. In L. Petrullo & B. Bass (Eds.), Leadership and interpersonal behavior. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1961.
- Bronfenbrenner U. The changing American child--a speculative analysis. In E. D. Evans (Ed.), Children: Readings in behavior and development. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1968.
- Clark, R. A., Nye, F. I., & Gecas, V. Work involvement and marital role performance. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1978, 40, 9-21.
- Clark-Stewart, K. A. And Daddy makes three: the Father's impact on mother and young child. Child Development, 1978, 49, 466-478.
- Cohen, L. J., & Campos, J. J. Father, mother, and stranger as elicitors of attachment behaviors in infancy. Developmental Psychology, 1974, 10, 146-154.
- Cruse, S. J., Clark, S., & Pease, D. Assessment of child-rearing behaviors of midwestern rural parents. Home Economics Research Journal, 1980, 9, 163-172.
- Cross, H. J., & Allen, J. Relationship between memories of parental behavior and academic achievement motivation. Proceedings of the 77th Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, 1967, 4, 285-286.

- Davis, A., & Havighurst, R. Social class and color differences in child rearing. American Sociological Review, 1946, 11, 698-710.
- DeGarmo, E. Fathers' and mothers' feelings about sharing the childbirth experience. In L. K. McNall & J. T. Galeener (Eds.), Current practice in obstetric and gynecologic nursing (Vol. 2). St. Louis: The C. V. Mosby Co., 1978.
- DuBrin, A. J. The new husbands and how to become one. Chicago: Nelson, Hall, 1976.
- Deutsch, M., & Krauss, R. M. Theories in social psychology. New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1965.
- Duvall, E. M. Conceptions of parenthood. American Journal of Sociology, 1946, 52, 193-203.
- Duvall, E. M. Family development (5th ed.). Philadelphia: Lippincott Co., 1977.
- Elder, R. A. Traditional and developmental conceptions of fatherhood. Marriage and Family Living, 1949, 11, 98-100, 106.
- Emmerich, W. Variations in the parent role as a function of the parents' sex and the child's sex and age. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 1962, 8, 3-11.
- Epstein, A. S., & Radin, N. Motivational components related to father behavior and cognitive functioning in preschoolers. Child Development, 1975, 46 (4), 831-839.
- Ericson, M. C. Child-rearing and social status. American Journal of Sociology, 1946, 52, 190-192.
- Eversoll, D. The changing father role: Implications for parent education programs for today's youth. Adolescence, 1979, 14 (55), 535-544. (a)

- Eversoll, D. A two generational view of fathering. The Family Coordinator, 1979, 28 (4), 503-508. (b)
- Eversoll, D. Methods and procedures for opinionnaire development. Unpublished paper, 1979. (c)
- Fein, R. A. Men and young children. In J. H. Pleck & J. Sawyer (Eds.), Men and masculinity. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1974.
- Fein, R. A. Men's entrance to parenthood. The Family Coordinator, 1976, 25 (4), 341-348.
- Feshback, N. The relationship of child rearing factors to children's aggression, empathy, and related positive and negative social behaviors. Paper presented at the NATO Conference on the Determinants and Origins of Aggressive Behavior, Monte Carlo, Monaco, July, 1973.
- Friendlander, B., Jacobs, A. C., Davis, V. B., & Wetstone, H. S. Time-sampling analysis of infants' natural language environments in the home. Child Development, 1972, 43, 730-740.
- Gallenkamp, C. R., Jr. Parents and their delinquent sons. Dissertation Abstracts, 1968, 29, 3085.
- Gecas, V., & Nye, F. I. Sex and class differences in parent-child interaction: A test of Kohn's hypotheses. Journal of Marriage and Family, 1974, 36, 742-749.
- Goezen, J. L., & Chinn, P. L. Review of maternal and child nursing. St. Louis: The C. V. Mosby Co., 1975.
- Goode, W. A theory of role strain. American Sociological Review, 1960, 25, 483-496.

- Goodenough, F. W. Parental identification in young children. Genetic Psychology Monographs, 1957, 55, 287-323.
- Graff, R. L. Identification as related to perceived parental attitudes and powerlessness in delinquents and normals. Dissertation Abstracts, 1968, 29, 369.
- Gray, S. W. Masculinity-femininity in relation to anxiety and social acceptance. Child Development, 1957, 28, 203-214.
- Gray, S. W. Perceived similarity to parents and adjustment. Child Development, 1959, 30, 91-107.
- Green, M. Fathering. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1976.
- Greenberg, M., & Morris, N. Engrossment: The newborn's impact upon the father. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1974, 44, 520-531.
- Greif, E. Sex differences in parent-child conversations, 1980. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 147 337)
- Griggs, S. A. A study of the life plans of culturally disadvantaged negro adolescent girls with father-absence in the home. Dissertation Abstracts, 1968, 28, 4950.
- Hall, R. H. Occupations in the social structure (2nd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1975.
- Helper, M. M. Learning theory and the self-concept. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1955, 51, 184-194.
- Hetherington, E. M., & Brackbill, Y. Etiology and covariation of obstinacy, orderliness, and parsimony in young children. Child Development, 1963, 34, 919-943.
- Herzog, E., & Sudia, C. Children in fatherless families. In B. M. Caldwell & H. N. Ricciuti (Eds.), Review of child development research (Vol. 3). Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1973.

- Hoffman, L. Altruistic behavior and the parent-child relationship. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1975, 31, 937-943.
- Hoffman, L. W. The father's role in the family and child's peer group adjustment. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 1961, 7, 97-105.
- Honig, A. S. Fathering: A bibliography. Urbana, Ill., 1977. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 142293)
- Honig, A. S. The importance of fathering. Dimensions, 1980, 9, 33-38.
- Honig, A. S. A review of recent infancy research. The American Montessori Society Bulletin, 1979, 17, 3-4.
- Hood, J., & Golden, S. Beating time/making time: The impact of work scheduling on men's family roles. The Family Coordinator, 1979, 28, 575-582.
- Illsley, R., & Thompson, B. Women from broken homes. Sociological Review, 1961, 9, 27-54.
- Johnson, M. M. Sex role learning in the nuclear family. Child Development, 1963, 34, 319-333.
- Kagan, J. The concept of identification. Psychological Review, 1958, 65, 296-305.
- Kagan, J. American longitudinal research on psychological development. Child Development, 1964, 35, 1-32.
- Kanter, R. Work and family in the United States: Review and agenda for action. New York: Russell Sage, 1977.
- Kohn, M. L. Social class and parental values. American Journal of Sociology, 1959, 64 (4), 337-351.
- Kotelchuck, M. The nature of the child's tie to his father. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Harvard University, 1972.

- Kotelchuck, M. The infant's relationship to the father: Experimental evidence. In M. E. Lamb (Ed.), The role of the father in child development. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1976.
- Lamb, M. E. The role of the father in child development. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1976.
- Lamb, M. E. The role of the father: An overview. In M. E. Lamb (Ed.), The role of the father in child development. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1977.
- Lamb, M. E. Paternal influences and the father's role: A personal perspective. American Psychologist, 1979, 34, 938-943.
- Lamb, M. E., & Lamb, J. The nature and importance of the father-infant relationship. The Family Coordinator, 1976, 25, 397-386.
- Leidermann. Effect of parental relationships and child-training practices on boys' interaction with peers. Acta Psychologica, 1959, 15, 469-470.
- Lester, B. M., Kotelchuck, M., Spelke, E., Sellers, J. J., & Klein, R. E. Separation protest in Guatemalan infants: Cross-cultural and cognitive findings. Developmental Psychology, 1974, 10, 79-85.
- Levine, J. A. Who will raise the children: New options for fathers (and mothers). New York: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1977.
- Littman, R. A., Moore, R. C. A., & Pierce-Jones, J. Social class differences in child rearing: A third community for comparison with Chicago and Newton. American Sociological Review, 1957, 22 (6), 694-704.
- Lynn, D. B. The process of learning parental and sex-role identification. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1966, 28, 466-470.

- Lynn, D. B. The father: His role in child development. Monterey, Ca.: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company, 1974.
- Lynn, D. B. & Sawrey, W. L. The effects of father absence on Norwegian boys and girls. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1959, 59, 258-262.
- Marks, S. R. Multiple roles and role strain: Some notes on human energy, time, and commitment. American Sociological Review, 1977, 42, 921-936.
- McAdoo, J. L. Father-child interaction patterns and self-esteem in black preschool children. Young Children, 1979, 34, 46-53.
- Medinnus, G. R. Delinquents' perceptions of their parents. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1965, 29, 592-593.
- Miller, D. R., & Swanson, G. E. The changing american parent. New York: Wiley, 1958.
- Mortimer, J., Hall, R., & Hill, R. Husbands' occupational attributes as constraints on wives' employment. Sociology of Work and Occupations, 1978, 5, 285-313.
- Mowrer, O. H. Identification: A link between learning and theory and psychotherapy. In O. H. Mowrer (Ed.), Learning theory and personality dynamics: Selected papers. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1950.
- Mussen, P. H., & Distler, L. Child-rearing antecedents of masculine identification in kindergarten boys. Child Development, 1960, 31, 89-100.
- Mussen, P., & Eisenberg-Berg, N. Roots of caring, sharing, and helping. San Francisco: W. H. Freeman, 1977.
- Mussen, P., & Rutherford, E. Parent-child relations and parental personality in relation to young children's sex role preferences. Child Development, 1968, 34, 589-607.

- Nash, J. The father in contemporary culture and current psychological literature. Child Development, 1965, 37, 261-297.
- Nash, J. Historical and social changes in the perception of the role of the father. In M. E. Lamb (Ed.), The role of the father in child development. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1976.
- Nye, F. I. Emerging and declining family roles. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1974, 36, 238-245.
- Parke, R. D., & O'Leary, S. E. Family interaction in the newborn period: Some findings, some observations, and some unresolved issues. In K. Riegel & J. A. Meacham (Eds.), The developing individual in a changing world: Social and environmental issues (Vol. 2). The Hague: Mouton, 1976.
- Parke, R. D., & Sawin, D. B. Father-infant interaction in the newborn period: A re-evaluation of some current myths. In E. M. Hetherington & R. D. Parke (Eds.), Contemporary readings in child psychology (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1981.
- Parke, R. D., & Sawin, D. B. The father's role in infancy: A re-evaluation. The Family Coordinator, 1976, 25 (4), 365-371.
- Parke, R. D., & Sawin, D. B. Fathering: It's a major role. Psychology Today, November, 1977, pp. 109-112.
- Payne, D. E., & Mussen, P. H. Parent-child relations and father identification among adolescent boys. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1956, 52, 358-362.
- Pederson, F. A. Relationships between father-absence and emotional disturbance in male military dependents. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 1966, 12, 321-331.
- Pederson, F. A., & Robson, K. S. Father participation in infancy. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1969, 39 (3), 466-472.

- Pilling, D., & Pringle, M. K. Controversial issues in child development. New York: Schocken Books, 1978.
- Pleck, J. H. Men's family work: Three perspectives and some new data. The Family Coordinator, 1979, 28 (4), 481-488.
- Poloma, M. M., & Garland, T. N. The myth of the egalitarian family. In A. Theodore (Ed.), The professional woman. Cambridge, Ma.: Schenckman, 1971.
- Radin, N. Observed paternal behaviors as antecedents of intellectual functioning in young boys. Developmental Psychology, 1973, 8, 369-376.
- Radin, N. The role of the father in cognitive, academic, and intellectual development. In M. E. Lamb (Ed.), The father's role in child-development. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1976.
- Rapoport, R., & Rapoport, R. Dual-career families re-examined: New integrations of work and family. New York: Harper and Row, 1977.
- Rapoport, R., & Rapoport, R. The dual career family: A variant pattern and social change. In C. Safilios-Rothschild (Ed.), Toward a sociology of women. Lexington, Ma.: Xerox, 1972.
- Rapoport, R., & Rapoport, R. N. Fathers, mothers and society: Toward new alliances. New York: Basic Books, 1977.
- Rapoport, R., & Rapoport, R. Work and family in contemporary society. American Sociological Review, 1965, 30, 381-394.
- Reiss, I. The family system in America. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1971.
- Ross, G., Kagan, J., Zelazo, P., & Kotelchuck, M. Separation protest in infants in home and laboratory. Developmental Psychology, 1975, 11, 256-257.

- Rothbart, M. K., & Maccoby, E. E. Parents' differential reactions to sons and daughters. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1966, 4 (3), 237-243.
- Russell, G. The father's role and its relation to masculinity, femininity, and androgyny. Child Development, 1978, 49, 1174-1181.
- Rutherford, E., & Mussen, P. Generosity in nursery school boys. Child Development, 1968, 39, 755-765.
- Scanzoni, J. Resolution of occupational-conjugal role conflict in clergy marriages. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1965, 27, 396-402.
- Sears, R. R., Maccoby, E. E., & Levine, H. Patterns of child rearing. Evanston, Il.: Row Peterson, 1957.
- Secord, P., & Backman, C. Social psychology (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill, 1974.
- Shostak, A. B. Middle-aged working class Americans at home: Changing expectations of manhood. In J. W. Petras (Ed.), Sex: Male/ Gender: Masculine. Port Washington, NY: Alfred Publishing Co., Inc., 1975.
- Sieglman, A. W. Father absence during early childhood and antisocial behavior. Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 1966, 71, 71-74.
- Slater, P. W. Parental role differentiation. American Journal of Sociology, 1961, 67, 296-308.
- Spelke, E., Zelazo, P., Kagan, J., & Kotelchuck, M. Father interaction and separation protest. Developmental Psychology, 1978, 9, 83-90.
- Stevens, J. H., Jr., & Matthews, M. (Eds.). Mother/child, father/child relationships. Washington, D. C.: NAEYC, 1978.
- Stoke, S. M. An inquiry into the concept of identification. Journal of Genetic Psychology, 1950, 71, 163-189.

- Stolz, L. M., & Collaborators. Father relations of war-born children. Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1954.
- Sunley, R. Early nineteenth century American literature on child rearing. In E. D. Evans (Ed.), Children: Readings in behavior and development. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1968.
- Sutton-Smith, B., Rosenberg, B. G., & Landry, F. Father absence effects in families of different sibling compositions. Child Development, 1968, 39, 1213-1221.
- Tasch, R. J. The role of the father in the family. Journal of Experimental Education, 1952, 20, 319-336.
- Teahan, J. E. Parental attitudes and college success. Journal of Educational Psychology, 1963, 54, 104-109.
- Truzzi, M. (Ed.). Sociology: The classic statements. New York: Random House, 1971.
- Waller, W., & Hill, R. The family: A dynamic interpretation (Rev. ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1951.
- Walters, J., & Stinnet, N. Parent-child relationships: A decade of research. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1971, 33, 70-111.
- Walters, J., & Walters, L. H. Parent-child relationships: A review, 1970-1979. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1980, 42, 807-822.
- Weinraub, M. Fatherhood: The myth of the second-class parent. In J. H. Stevens, Jr., & M. Matthews (Eds.), Mother/child, father/child relationships. Washington, D. C.: NAEYC, 1978, 109-133.
- Weinraub, M., & Frankel, J. Sex differences in parent-infant interaction during free play, departure, and separation. Child Development, 1977, 48 (4), 1240-1249.

Wente, A. S., & Crockenberg, S. B. Transition to fatherhood: Lamaze preparation, adjustment difficulty and the husband-wife relationship. The Family Coordinator, 1976, 25, 351-357.

White, M. S. Social class, child-rearing practices, and child behavior. American Sociological Review, 1957, 22, 704-712.

APPENDIX B

BACKGROUND INFORMATION ON JAYCEE ORGANIZATION

Background Information on Jaycee Organization¹

The Jaycees is a civic service organization for young men between the ages of 18 and 36. The Jaycee organization was founded in St. Louis, Missouri, on October 13, 1915, as the Young Men's Progressive Civic Association (YMPCA). In 1918, the YMPCA became the Junior Citizens, but the ranks of the Junior Citizens was nearly depleted during World War I. Following the war, the membership began to seek a greater voice in the affairs of their communities and they began to contact young men's groups in other cities for the purpose of attaining this end. Giessenbier, the first president, and Howard, a millionaire industrialist who had offered support of the organization, believed that the time for reorganization had arrived and, consequently, after much work and many contacts, the United States Junior Chamber of Commerce (JCC) was born at a caucus in St. Louis on January 21, 1920. Common references to the members of the "JC's" eventually gave birth to the national name, "The U.S. Jaycees". In 1966, the name was officially changed from Junior Chamber of Commerce to Jaycees (Herndon, 1971).

The Jaycee movement is committed to the idea that young men will be the leaders of tomorrow. If they are to be effective leaders, they must gain practical experience through civic work and broad community efforts to supplement their work in their given profession or job (Moffat, 1980).

The total Jaycee Concept places "equal emphasis on Individual Development, Chapter Management, and Community Development so that we can effectively 'Develop the Whole Man thru the Whole Chapter'" (Chapter

President's Management Handbook, 1977-78, p. 6). The area of Individual Development offers programs such as Family Life Development, Speak-Up, Personal Financial Planning; the area of Chapter Management aims to develop management skills through various offices, Chairman Planning Guides, and year-end books; the area of Community Development utilizes community service projects to offer skills in planning, implementing, and evaluating the project.

The Jaycees offer young men: (a) a voice in community affairs; (b) a practical leadership development course not available at any college or university in the world; (c) a chance to participate in community improvement; (d) responsibility resulting from committee membership, chairmanships, offices, etc., resulting in the development of ability to make decisions, and to accept leadership responsibility easily; (e) speaking ability through participation; and (f) a host of friends and acquaintances with many of the community and state civic, business, and political leaders (Moffat, 1980). The Jaycee Creed provides a better understanding of the Jaycee Organization and of the men who become Jaycees.

WE BELIEVE:

That faith in God gives meaning
and purpose to human life;

That the brotherhood of man
transcends the sovereignty of nations;

That economic justice can best be won
by free men through free enterprise;

That government should be of laws
rather than of men;

That earth's great treasure lies

in human personality;
And that service to humanity is
the best work of life.²

Although its primary purpose is the development of young men as future leaders, participation in the Jaycee organization is not limited to young men, as men who have officially "exhausted" at age 36 often remain active. In addition, the Jaycee Auxiliary, or Jayceettes, involves the wives of Jaycees and other young women between the ages of 18 and 36 in the Jaycee organization. Jaycee involvement is dependent upon the interest, enthusiasm, and ability of the individual. Jaycees are offered activity through local membership, state meetings and projects; National meetings, projects, and programs; and International affiliations and programs (Moffat, 1980).

References

Herndon, B. The Jaycee Story: Young Men Can Change the World. Tulsa, Okla.: U.S. Jaycees, 1971.

Moffat, S. R., 1977-78 Oklahoma Jaycee President. Personal communication, December 7, 1980.

Chapter President's Management Handbook, 1977-78. The U.S. Jaycees Management Development Series. Available from U.S. Jaycees, National Headquarters, P. O. Box 7, Tulsa, OK 74102.

Footnotes

¹For more complete background information on the Jaycee Organization see Herndon, Booton, The Jaycee Story: Young Men Can Change the World (Tulsa, Okla.: U.S. Jaycees, 1971).

²The Jaycee Creed was first written in 1946 by Bill Brownfield. In 1951, the line which confirms the Jaycees' belief in God was added. The Jaycee Creed was officially adopted by the U.S. Jaycees in 1947.

APPENDIX C

METHODS AND PROCEDURES FOR
OPINIONNAIRE DEVELOPMENT

Methods and Procedures for
Opinionnaire Development

Instrumentation

Eversoll Father Role Opinionnaire (FRO)

A review of the literature revealed that there was no instrument developed that was directed at measuring the male-parent perspective as a separate entity. The instruments appear only to incorporate the male insofar as he would be considered in the general pattern of parent attitudes. Because of this researcher's interest in determining areas of difference in perceptions for the father behavior specifically, the Father Role Opinionnaire (FRO) was developed to tap this source of information.

During the fall semester of 1974, the researcher compiled a list of 85 items that were proposed to measure parent behavior in five sub-role dimensions of the father role. Based on research conclusions from the review of literature in the area of family roles, the following five sub-role dimensions of the parent role were delineated for investigation: (a) nurturing, (b) problem solver, (c) provider, (d) societal model, and (e) recreational.

In establishing the validity of a test instrument, four main types of validity are important to consider: (a) content validity, (b) predictive validity, (c) concurrent validity, and (d) construct validity. Ary, Jacobs, and Razavieh (1972) define content validity as "the degree

to which a test samples the area which is to be measured" (p. 191). These authors note that both face validity and sampling validity are important concerns in establishing content validity.

The content dimension of face validity was established for the FRO by submitting the list of these original 85 items to five professionals in the Department of Human Development and the Family for their judgments. Each individual was asked to categorize each of the 85 items into the five categories of the sub-role dimensions or to mark the item with a designation that indicated that the item could not be classified into any one of these five categories. Only items on which all five judges agreed on categorization were kept in the inventory list, and these 53 items were then reduced to 50 so that each of the five sub-role dimensions would be represented by an equal number of items. The sub-role categorization process also helped establish the dimension of content validity referred to as sampling validity in that all five areas of sub-role dimension concern were represented, and in the final instrument each area was represented equally.

It should be noted that the problem-solving sub-role dimension represents an aspect of parent behavior in which the parent participates in the decision-making process from a dominant rather than democratic base. This sub-role evolved because problem-solving items in which the parent facilitated the solution, instead of making the decision, were judged by some of the expert judges as also being nurturing items rather than purely problem-solving items. Because the historical picture of the father role often includes a very strong emphasis on the authority dimension of his behavior, the decision was made to let the problem-solving dimension remain authoritarian in basis so that the strength of

this component could be analyzed across two generations--parent and child. It therefore was renamed "problem solver" rather than "problem solving" to more accurately label the sub-role behavior described by this scale.

The FRO items are designed to be scored with the Likert scaling technique. There is an assigned value of 5 for the "strongly agree" position, 4 for the "agree," 3 for the "undecided," 2 for the "disagree," and 1 for the "strongly disagree" response. The result of the FRO scoring thus produces five sub-total scores (one for each sub-role dimension) and one overall total.

The first-draft 50-item FRO was administered to this researcher's sections of Marriage and Family Relationships (HDF 380) during the spring semester of 1975. The results were used for discussion purposes during the unit on parenting to stimulate interest in the importance of the father in the parenting process. The sample of 49 males who participated in this in-class project, plus 20 sets of their parents contacted by mail, were utilized as a pilot sample to statistically test the FRO instrument for reliability and for discriminatory power of the items.

By using separate analyses for the three sub-samples (sons, $n = 49$; fathers, $n = 20$; and mothers, $n = 20$), a frequency run was conducted which produced means and standard deviations for each of the 50 items. Because the Likert-type scoring produced a possible range of scores from one to five, it was decided that any item with a mean score of above "four" or below "two" would not be an item that was discriminating at a level high enough to warrant inclusion in the final instrument. Based on this criterion, any item in which the mean in all three groups (sons,

fathers, and mothers) was above four or below two was therefore eliminated. The only exception to this procedure was the inclusion of one item on the "nurturing" sub-role dimension which had a mean above the four-value cutting point. This item was included to allow for a final FRO form that would have six items representing each of the five sub-role dimensions. This retained item appears as N#3 on the final FRO instrument (see Appendix A). The items were also examined to determine if there were any abnormalities in responses such as non-answered items, more than one answer given for an item, or comments of clarification by the respondents. No abnormalities of this nature were revealed as being a problem factor for any of the items.

The items that met the examination criteria were retained for the final FRO instrument. This resultant form is composed of 30 items divided into five sub-role dimensions of six items each. The five sub-role dimensions are: (a) nurturing, (b) problem solver, (c) provider, (d) societal model, and (e) recreational. The scoring from this form produces a total 30-item score range of 30-150, and five sub-total scores each with a score range of 6-30. The higher scores on all dimensions indicate expectations for higher levels of father involvement on that particular aspect.

When all items of an instrument are constructed so agreement or disagreement indicates a particular expectation, a respondent may get in a habit of marking in a set manner. As a safeguard against this response set, one item in each of the five sub-role categories is stated in a reverse score format that agreement means "less" not "more" father involvement in these items (i.e., "strongly agree" = 1 and "strongly disagree" = 5). These five items were recoded in the scoring process to

give the higher value to the response that indicates more father involvement.

Because the FRO instrument is made up of 30 items divided into five sub-role categories, there are six possible totals produced by the instrument (i.e., nurturing sub-total, problem solver sub-total, provider sub-total, societal model sub-total, recreational sub-total, and an overall total score). Therefore, the next step in the pilot study analysis of this instrument was to check for item to sub-total score correlations and sub-total to total score correlations. A separate Pearson product-moment correlation analysis was conducted for the three pilot study groups (sons, $n = 49$; fathers, $n = 20$; and mothers, $n = 20$). An item to sub-total analysis revealed that each sub-total item significantly correlated with its respective sub-total score at the .05 level of significance for at least two of the pilot study groups (sons, fathers, and mothers). The FRO five sub-total score-to-total-score analyses each resulted in Pearson r values which were significant at the .01 level for all three pilot sample groups.

A split-sample test of reliability was conducted in which each of the three pilot study samples of sons, fathers, and mothers was randomly divided. This was accomplished by assigning each subject a number and using a table of random numbers to split the total pilot-study sample of 89 into two groups. This procedure was done separately for each group so that the end result was two samples ($n = 44$ and $n = 45$), each representing approximately half of the sons, fathers, and mothers. These two groups were then compared on each of the 30 FRO items by using the Chi Square procedure of analysis. Each item of the FRO could take a value of one to five (strongly disagree to strongly agree) and these responses

were compared for each item to examine the pattern of response for the two groups. This 30-item χ^2 analysis produced no significant differences between the two split-sample groups when using a .01 level of confidence. The results from this procedure thus indicated a high degree of reliability when split-sample procedures were used.

A test of reliability of the reduced 30-item FRO instrument was also conducted by using a split-half-test procedure. Each of the six items representing each of the five sub-role dimensions of "nurturing," "problem solver," "provider," "societal model," and "recreational" aspects were assigned a number and again by using a table of random numbers, three items from each of the five sub-role dimensions were selected out. Since the FRO instrument is composed of five sub-totals, it was important that each half include an equal number of items from each of these five sub-role dimensions (nurturing, problem solver, provider, societal model, and recreational).

This split-half-test procedure produced two 15-item halves. The sub-total scores of these two halves could therefore be compared by using the total pilot sample of 89 subjects (sons, fathers, and mothers). The Pearson r values for the sub-totals from the two halves on "nurturing," "problem solver," "provider," "societal model," and "recreational" sub-role dimensions were .9534, .9374, .9416, .9564, and .9708, respectively. All values were significant at the .001 level of significance. The FRO total scores of these halves were also analyzed and the split-half test totals produced a Pearson r value of .9810 with significance at the .001 level. The results of this split-half-test analysis thus indicated a high degree of reliability for the FRO instrument when tested by this procedure.

EVERSOLL

Father Role Opinionnaire

F-R-0

Instructions

On the following pages are a number of statements regarding the father role. Indicate your agreement or disagreement with each statement in the following manner on the answer sheet:

Strongly Disagree (SD)-----Blacken space (1)

Disagree (D)-----Blacken space (2)

Undecided (U)-----Blacken space (3)

Agree (A)-----Blacken space (4)

Strongly Agree (SA)-----Blacken space (5)

For example, if you strongly agree (SA) with the following statement, you would mark it in this way:

"Parenting is a big responsibility." = Blacken space (5)

Make a decision on as many items as possible and use the undecided for marking only those items to which your opinion is truly borderline.

This survey is concerned only with the attitudes and opinions that you have about parenting--there are no "right" or "wrong" answers. Work just as rapidly as you can, as it is your first impression that is of interest in this study. There is no time limit, but remember to respond to every statement.

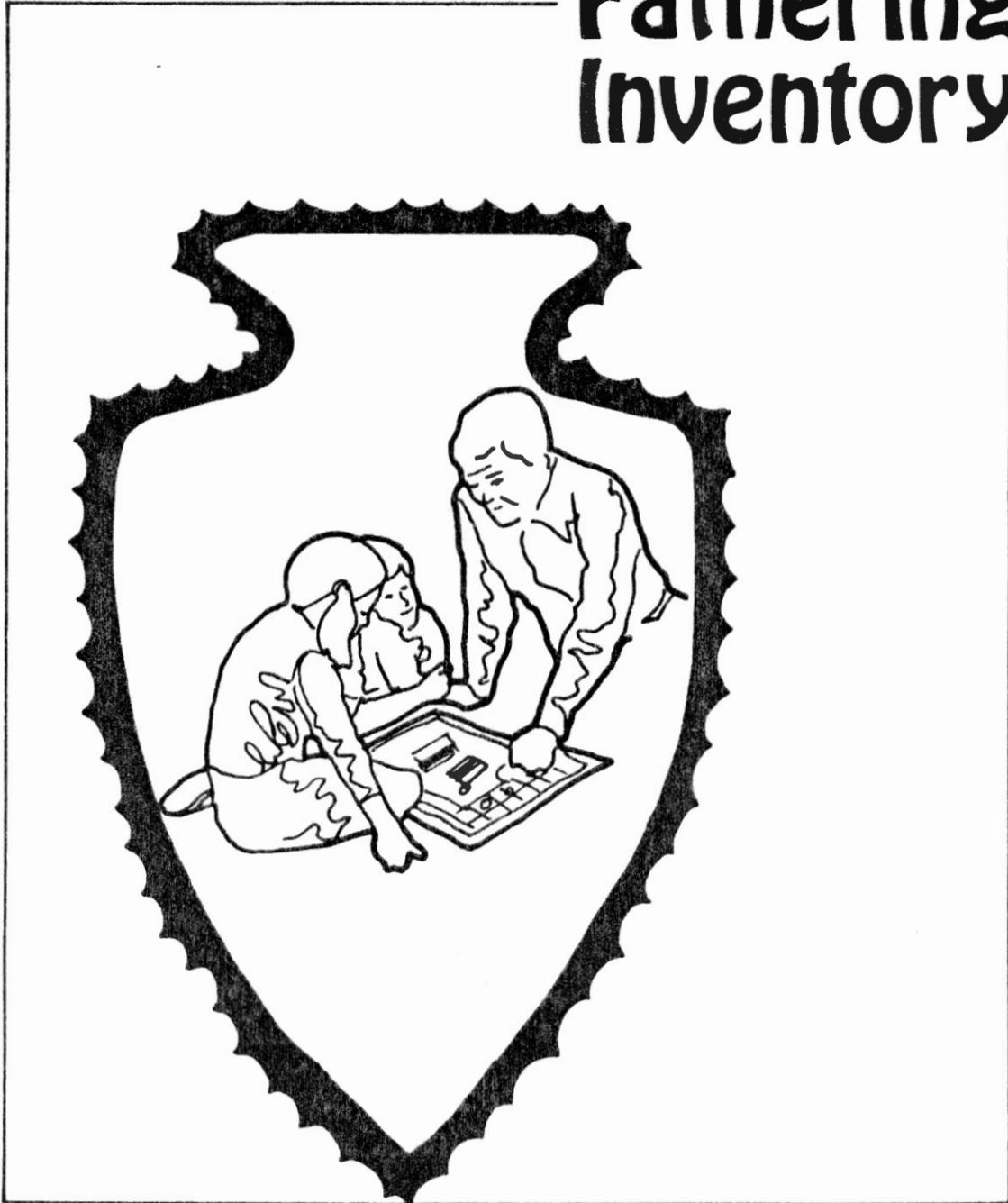
- SM 1. A father should establish rules and regulations so that the child learns to live within limits necessary for group living.
- PS 2. If a child is having difficulty getting along with a group of peers, a father should talk to the child's playmates and solve the problem.
- N 3. A father should always be interested in listening to children's ideas and concerns about life.
- R 4. A father should find time each day for some leisure time.
- P * 5. A father should not be primarily concerned with the income earning role.
- SM 6. A father should take an active part in activities which are aimed at community improvement for future generations.
- N 7. A father should be involved in the routine health care of the children (doctor and dental check-ups, etc.).
- P 8. If there is a conflict between a father's family role and his occupational role, the occupational role should take precedence.
- PS 9. A father should solve the children's problems concerning work tasks.
- R * 10. A father should not set aside time so an annual family vacation can be taken.
- P 11. If a father's job requires a move so a promotion may be gained, this move should always be made if it improves the family's financial standing.

- PS 12. A father should decide what action should be taken when there is a disagreement between family members.
- SM * 13. A father should not take an active part in community school concerns.
- N 14. A father should help care for the children when they are ill.
- R 15. A father should be willing to sacrifice so children have the opportunity for recreational participation.

APPENDIX D

QUESTIONNAIRE

Fathering Inventory



FATHERING INVENTORY

Part I. Father Role Opinionnaire

Following are a number of statements regarding the father role. Indicate your agreement or disagreement with each statement in the following manner:

Strongly Disagree (SD)-----Circle 1
 Disagree (D)-----Circle 2
 Undecided (U)-----Circle 3
 Agree (A)-----Circle 4
 Strongly Agree (SA)-----Circle 5

For example--If you strongly agree (SA) with the following statement you would mark it in this way:

"Parenting is a big responsibility." -- Circle ⑤

Make a decision on as many items as possible and use the undecided for marking only those items to which your opinion is truly borderline. This survey is concerned only with the attitudes and opinions that you have about parenting--there are no "right" or "wrong" answers. Work just as rapidly as you can, as it is your first impression that is of interest in this study. There is no time limit, but remember to respond to every statement.

	strongly disagree	disagree	undecided	agree	strongly agree
1. A father should establish rules and regulations so that the child learns to live within limits necessary for group living.	1	2	3	4	5
2. If the child is having difficulty getting along with a group of peers, a father should talk to the child's playmates and solve the problem.	1	2	3	4	5
3. A father should always be interested in listening to children's ideas and concerns about life.	1	2	3	4	5
4. A father should find time each day for some leisure time.	1	2	3	4	5
5. A father should not be primarily concerned with the income earning role.	1	2	3	4	5
6. A father should take an active part in activities which are aimed at community improvement for future generations.	1	2	3	4	5
7. A father should be involved in the routine health care of the children (doctor and dental check-ups, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5

96. In your opinion, what are the most important responsibilities, or duties of a father?

97. In your opinion, what are the greatest joys or satisfactions one achieves from being a father?

Part III. Family Life Projects

98. What kinds of family life projects does your chapter run in relation to holidays? (Christmas, 4th of July, etc.)

99. Are families involved in these projects?

1. Yes
 2. No

If yes, give specific examples: _____

100. What kind of socials does your chapter have? (specific example) _____

101. Are socials for Jaycees only, Jaycees and wives, or entire family? _____

102. Are children involved in family life projects?

1. Yes
 2. No

If yes, how? _____

54. Were you involved in any type of preparation for child birth (classes, reading books, etc.) prior to the birth of any of your children?

- ___ 1. Yes
___ 2. No

55. Please complete the following information about your children or children to whom you serve as the father figure.

Sex	Birthdate	Relationship to you	Does this child reside in your household? (Yes or No)

Following is a list of traits which different people value or desire in children and other adults. Different traits may be desired in males and females. Using the numbers 1 through 5, please rank the five traits you feel are most important and that you would try to develop in your sons and the five traits you feel are most important and would try to develop in your daughters. Use 1 as the most important trait, 2 as the next most important trait, and so forth.

Trait	Daughters	Sons
Obedience	56.	76.
Conformity	57.	77.
Self-control	58.	78.
Creativity	59.	79.
Honest/Trustworthy	60.	80.
Happiness	61.	81.
Individuality	62.	82.
Intelligence	63.	83.
Cleanliness	64.	84.
Self-reliance	65.	85.
Dependable/Reliable	66.	86.
Helpful	67.	87.
Attractiveness	68.	88.
Capable/Competent	69.	89.
Dominance	70.	90.
Assertiveness	71.	91.
Independence	72.	92.
Other (specify)	73.	93.
Other (specify)	74.	94.
Other (specify)	75.	95.

- 4 - Very active member. Attend almost all meetings, work on almost all projects, serve as a major officer or chairman.
- 5. Extremely active member. In addition to being very active at the local level, participate at state and/or national levels by attending meetings, serving as state or national officer or chairman.

		Degree of participation:				
		inactive	semi-active	active	very active	extremely active
48.	Organizations to which I belong:	Number of years member:				
	_____	1	2	3	4	5
	_____	1	2	3	4	5
	_____	1	2	3	4	5
	_____	1	2	3	4	5
	_____	1	2	3	4	5
	_____	1	2	3	4	5

49. Different individuals participate in civic groups and organizations for a variety of reasons. Why do you participate in the Jaycee organization? Please rank your reasons for participating in order of priority. Use 1 for the most important or primary reason for participating, use 2 for the second most important reason, and so forth. Place a zero (0) by those items which have no bearing on your participation.

- _____ Individual growth and development
- _____ Professional advantages and business contacts
- _____ Obligation to serve my community
- _____ Social and recreational benefits
- _____ Other (specify) _____
- _____ Other (specify) _____

50. Approximately how many total hours per week do you devote to civic and community activities? _____

51. Do you have children?

- _____ 1. Yes
- _____ 2. No

52. If no, do you plan to have children in the future?

- _____ 1. Yes
- _____ 2. No

53. Were you present (in the delivery room) during the birth (actual delivery) of any of your children?

- _____ 1. Yes
- _____ 2. No

43. How many sisters do you have? _____
44. Which child were you (birth order)? (Circle)
- 1st 2nd 3rd 4th 5th 6th 7th 8th 9th Other (specify) _____
45. Did your father or a father-figure reside in your home during most of your childhood years?
- ____ 1. Yes
 ____ 2. No

Different families utilize different styles of parenting or different modes of parental control. Three such styles of parenting include (1) the authoritarian, (2) the authoritative, and (3) the permissive. These styles of parenting are defined as follows:

Authoritarian - the parents' word is law, not to be questioned, and misconduct is punished. Authoritarian parents seem aloof from their children, afraid to show affection or give praise.

Authoritative - the parents in this category are similar in some ways to authoritarian parents, in that they set limits and enforce rules, but they are also willing to listen receptively to the child's requests and questions. Family rule is more democratic than dictatorial.

Permissive - the parents make few demands on their children, hiding any impatience they feel; discipline is lax, and anarchy frequently reigns.

46. Which of the following most nearly describes the type of parenting style or mode of parental control which was used in the family in which you were reared?
- ____ 1. Permissive
 ____ 2. Authoritative
 ____ 3. Authoritarian
47. Which of the following most nearly describes the type of parenting style or mode of parental control you use, or think you would use, as a father?
- ____ 1. Permissive
 ____ 2. Authoritative
 ____ 3. Authoritarian

Community involvement is defined as the amount of time spent with significant persons, groups, and organizations outside the nuclear family. Community involvement is a continuous variable, ranging from no time to a great deal of time. Please list the groups or organizations to which you belong, how long you have been a member, and rate your degree of involvement using the following scale:

- 1 - Inactive member. Pay dues, but do not participate on a regular basis.
- 2 - Semi-active member. Participate in some but not all of the meetings and projects.
- 3 - Active member. Attend most meetings and work on many of the projects; sometimes serve as a project chairman or a minor officer.

35. Which of the following best describes your primary occupation?
- 1. Unskilled laborer
 - 2. Service worker, operative, skilled laborer, craftsman
 - 3. Farmer-Rancher or full time homemaker
 - 4. Salesman, clerical, foreman
 - 5. Manager, businessman, proprietor in small to average business
 - 6. Professional, proprietor of large business, or top executive in large corporation or business
36. Approximately how many hours per week do you devote to your career or occupation? (Include commuting time, hours spent in work preparation at home, and hours spent in school which are directly related to career and/or occupation.) _____
37. What is your current marital status?
- 1. Single, never married
 - 2. Single following divorce, separation or death of spouse
 - 3. Married, first time
 - 4. Remarried following divorce, separation or death of spouse
 - 5. Other (specify) _____
38. If you are married, does your wife work outside the home?
- 1. Yes
 - 2. No
39. If you are married, which of the following best describes your wife's occupation?
- 1. Unskilled laborer
 - 2. Service worker, operative, skilled laborer, craftsman
 - 3. Farmer-rancher or full time homemaker
 - 4. Salesman, clerical, foreman
 - 5. Manager, business woman, proprietor in small to average business
 - 6. Professional, proprietor of large business, or top executive in a large corporation or business
40. If you are married, what is the highest grade your wife completed in school?
- 1. Less than 8th grade
 - 2. 8 - 11th grade
 - 3. High School graduate
 - 4. 1 - 3 years of college or post-secondary vocational training
 - 5. College graduate
 - 6. Graduate degree
41. What is your total family income?
- 1. Under \$11,999
 - 2. \$12,000 to \$17,999
 - 3. \$18,000 to \$23,999
 - 4. \$24,000 to \$29,999
 - 5. \$30,000 to \$35,999
 - 6. \$36,000 or more
42. How many brothers do you have? _____

	strongly disagree	disagree	undecided	agree	strongly agree
24. A father should participate in charity fund drives which benefit those less fortunate.	1	2	3	4	5
25. A father should be the primary wage earner when the children are of grade school age.	1	2	3	4	5
26. A father should keep physically fit so he can participate in the children's physical recreational activities.	1	2	3	4	5
27. A father should decide where the family will live.	1	2	3	4	5
28. A father should volunteer for community projects and be willing to take a stand in controversial issues related to this volunteer work.	1	2	3	4	5
29. A father should accept a child's negative emotions (i.e. anger) as well as the positive emotions (i.e. happiness).	1	2	3	4	5
30. A father should participate in continuing education programs which improve his financial opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5

Part II. Please complete the following questions about yourself.

31. In what community do you live? _____

32. What is your birthdate: _____
month day year

33. What is your ethnic background?

- _____ 1. White
- _____ 2. Black
- _____ 3. Hispanic
- _____ 4. American Indian
- _____ 5. Oriental
- _____ 6. Other (specify) _____

34. In school, what is the highest grade you completed?

- _____ 1. Less than 8th grade
- _____ 2. 8 - 11th grade
- _____ 3. High school graduate
- _____ 4. 1 - 3 years of college or post-secondary vocational training
- _____ 5. College graduate
- _____ 6. Graduate degree

	strongly disagree	disagree	undecided	agree	strongly agree
8. If there is a conflict between a father's family role and his occupational role, the occupational role should take precedence.	1	2	3	4	5
9. A father should solve the children's problems concerning work tasks.	1	2	3	4	5
10. A father should not set aside time so an annual family vacation can be taken.	1	2	3	4	5
11. If a father's job requires a move so a promotion may be gained, this move should always be made if it improves the family's financial standing.	1	2	3	4	5
12. A father should decide what action should be taken when there is a disagreement between family members.	1	2	3	4	5
13. A father should not take an active part in community school concerns.	1	2	3	4	5
14. A father should help care for the children when they are ill.	1	2	3	4	5
15. A father should be willing to sacrifice so children have the opportunity for recreational participation.	1	2	3	4	5
16. A father should not step-in to solve the child's problem if there is trouble with a teacher at school.	1	2	3	4	5
17. A father should take an active part in the nutritional provisions for the family by being involved in the meal preparations so that these physical needs are met.	1	2	3	4	5
18. A father should always vote in local, state, and national elections.	1	2	3	4	5
19. A father should be the primary wage earner when the children are of infant and preschool age.	1	2	3	4	5
20. A father should find adequate and appropriate recreation for the family members.	1	2	3	4	5
21. A father should be the one who makes the final decisions on what is appropriate personal attire for his children to wear.	1	2	3	4	5
22. A father should foster a child's physical development by providing recreational activities.	1	2	3	4	5
23. A father should not be involved in the care and feeding of the children when they are infants.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX E

CORRESPONDENCE AND SAMPLING PROCEDURES

January 30, 1981

Sarah Anderson
Dept. of Family Relations
Oklahoma State
Stillwater, OK 74074

Dear Ms. Anderson:

I am writing in response to your inquiry of January 28. The instrument you refer to is under copyright, but I would agree to its use under the following guidelines.

1. I request that the statistical results of the data gained by the use of the Eversoll Father Role Opinionnaire be shared with me so further analysis could be done to assess the usefulness of the instrument for further family research.
2. I request that any publications resulting from your study would properly credit the authorship of the instrument.

If you are interested in using the instrument, within this context, would you please sign this agreement letter and return the original to me. I will then forward the necessary background information describing the instrument's development and a copy of the opinionnaire.

Good luck with your research endeavor.

Sincerely,

Deanna Baxter Eversoll
Assistant Professor
Human Development and the Family
527B Nebraska Hall
University of Nebraska-Lincoln
Lincoln, NE 68588

I agree to the aforementioned conditions for the use of the Eversoll Father Role Opinionnaire.

Signature

Date

rr

Sampling Procedures

The Oklahoma Jaycees were first contacted about participating in the research study in 1978; Oklahoma Jaycee president, Stan Moffat, agreed at that time for the Oklahoma Jaycees to be used as a sample. Preliminary work was then completed. On June 11, 1981, contact with the United States Jaycees was made, and U.S. Jaycee president, Gib Garrow, agreed to lend support to the study. On June 29, 1981, the researcher and her adviser visited with Mark Eversoll, director of the Family Life Development Programs, at the U.S. Jaycee headquarters in Tulsa. The project was explained in detail and a copy of the research proposal and instruments were provided for the U.S. Jaycees. In June, 1981, the new Oklahoma Jaycee president, Tripp Haggard, was contacted. He agreed that the researcher could give a short presentation at the Local Presidents' Council meeting at the Summer Board of Directors' Meeting in Shawnee on August 14-15, 1981.

Those chapters in attendance at Summer Board were given the opportunity to participate in the study. All of the chapters present, except one, agreed to participate. A letter explaining the study and questionnaires were distributed at that time to the local presidents. Additional chapters not present at the Summer Board meeting were contacted by telephone during August, 1981. Each chapter contacted agreed to participate and questionnaires were mailed by September 1, 1981. Those chapters present at Summer Board or contacted during August were included in the first mailing. Each chapter in the first mailing received a reminder post card mailed on October 10, 1982.

Due to a lack of participation, a second group of chapters were contacted. All of the chapters contacted agreed to participate and

questionnaires were mailed. Several telephone contacts were made to each chapter as indicated in the following summary. Additional reminders were sent out by the Oklahoma Jaycee president in the Warpath and his weekly newsletter. Due to lack of participation, the Oklahoma Jaycees agreed that each chapter could receive points in the area of Family Life Development for participating. Chapters were notified of this in the telephone contacts made during December, 1981.

First Mailing: Personal Contacts

The following chapters were called on the dates indicated in an attempt to get questionnaires completed and returned. Chapters are numbered in order to protect the anonymity of respondents.

<u>Chapter</u>	<u>Date</u>	<u>Response</u>
1	11/1/81	Have been passed out, but not returned by members.
	3/15/82	Will have board fill them out and return by 11/5. Questionnaires received.
2	12/1/81	Will check on them.
	3/15/82	Questionnaires not received.
3*	11/1/81	Left message with wife.
	12/1/81	Left message with wife. Returned call and indicated he would get them mailed.
	3/15/82	Questionnaires received.
4	11/1/81	Chapter struggling, will try to get them sent back.
	3/15/82	Questionnaires not received.
5*	11/1/81	Did not receive questionnaires from person who picked them up at Summer Board. Asked that new questionnaires be mailed. Fifty new questionnaires were mailed on 11/19.
	1/12/82	Said he gave them to Vice President, would check on them and get them returned.
	1/29/82	Left message.
	3/15/82	Questionnaires not received.
6*	11/1/81	Chapter not willing to participate, but will fill out his and return.
	3/15/81	Questionnaires not received.
7	11/1/81	Message with wife.
	11/1/81	Returned call; will complete on 11/16.
	12/1/81	Will check on them.
	3/15/82	Questionnaires received.
8*	11/1/81	Message with wife.
	12/1/81	Message with wife, did not return collect call.
	3/15/82	Questionnaires not received.
9*	11/1/81	Left message; did not return call.
	12/1/81	Left message.
	3/15/81	Questionnaires not received.

<u>Chapter</u>	<u>Date</u>	<u>Response</u>
10*	11/1/81 12/1/81 12/3/81 3/15/82	Left message, call not returned. Left message, call not returned. Will try to return. Questionnaires not received.
11	11/1/81 3/15/82	Probably not return. Questionnaires not received.
12	11/1/81 12/1/81 3/15/82	Had forgotten, but will do. Left message; call not returned. Questionnaires not received.
13*	10/15/82 11/1/82 3/15/82	Called after receiving post card that the person who picked up the questionnaires had not delivered them to him. New questionnaires were mailed. Will send back 11/10. Questionnaires received.
14	9/1/82	No chapter.
15*	11/1/81 12/1/81 3/15/82	Left message. Left message; not returned. Questionnaires not received.
16*	11/1/81 12/1/81 3/15/82	Has misplaced questionnaires, new questionnaires sent. Will try to return. Questionnaires received.
17*	11/1/81 12/1/81 3/15/82	Will send back 11/16. Left message. Questionnaires not received.
18*	3/15/82	Questionnaires received.
19*	11/1/81	Telephone disconnected, no new listing.
20*	11/1/81 12/1/81 3/15/82	Message with wife, call not returned. Message with wife, call not returned. Questionnaires not received.
21	11/1/81 11/15/81	Left message with wife. Blank questionnaires returned.
22	11/1/81 12/1/81 3/15/82	Will send back what he has next week. Will try to find and return. Questionnaires not received.
23	11/1/81	Will do when they begin meeting again in December.

<u>Chapter</u>	<u>Date</u>	<u>Response</u>
	12/1/81	Message with wife, call returned, will mail them back.
	3/15/81	Questionnaires not received.
24	11/3/81	Will send back what he can.
	12/8/81	Will mail this week.
	3/15/82	Questionnaires not received.
25	11/1/81	Will do tonight and return.
	12/8/81	Will mail this week.
	3/15/82	Questionnaires not received.
26	11/1/81	Left message, call not returned.
	12/8/81	Have misplaced completed ones, will find and return.
	3/15/82	Questionnaires not received.
27	11/1/81	Will meet 11/5, complete at meeting, and return.
	12/8/81	Were mailed on 11/20 or 23.
	3/15/82	Questionnaires not received.
28*	11/1/81	Will send what he has.
	12/8/81	Will check on them tonight.
	3/15/81	Questionnaires not received.
29	11/1/81	Chapter not meeting, but will return blank questionnaires.
	12/1/81	Blank questionnaires returned.
30*	11/1/81	This turned out to be the chapter at the State Prison. No further contacts were made as the penal and other institutional chapters were not included in the sample.
31*	11/1/81	Will do next week and return.
	12/8/81	Left message with wife.
	3/15/82	Questionnaires not received.
32*	11/1/81	Left message, call not returned.
	12/1/81	Will check with Vice President and get them returned.
	3/15/82	Questionnaires not received.
33	11/1/81	Have been mailed.
	3/15/82	Questionnaires not received.
34	12/1/81	Chapter will not participate as they are too personal.
	3/15/82	Questionnaires not received.

<u>Chapter</u>	<u>Date</u>	<u>Response</u>
35	11/1/81	Will try to remember.
	12/1/81	Will try to remember.
	3/15/82	Questionnaires not received.
36	11/1/81	Internal Vice President was to have mailed, they were completed.
	3/15/82	Questionnaires not received.
37*	11/1/81	Will send what he has.
	3/15/82	Questionnaires not received.

*These chapter presidents agreed to participate at Summer Board in Shawnee in August when I gave a presentation at Local President's Council meeting. Other presidents were called and agreed to participate and questionnaires were mailed by September 1, 1981.

**The November 1, 1981, calls were made during the first week of November.

**The December 1, 1981, calls were made during the first week of December.

March 15, 1982, was the deadline.

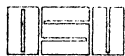
All of these chapters were mailed a reminder post card on October 1, 1981.

Second Mailing: Personal Contacts

Due to lack of participation, a second group of chapters were contacted. These chapters were as follows:

<u>Chapter</u>	<u>Date</u>	<u>Response</u>
38	10/10/81	Yes, we will participate. Questionnaires were mailed on 10/15/81.
	12/1/81	Not able to make contact.
	3/15/82	Questionnaires not received.
39	11/1/81	Yes, we will participate. Questionnaires mailed on 11/5/81.
	12/1/81	Have been passed out, will check on them.
	3/15/82	Questionnaires received.
40	11/1/81	Will participate. Questionnaires mailed 11/5.
	12/1/81	Will try to do next week.
	3/15/82	Questionnaires received.
41	11/1/81	Yes, we will participate. Questionnaires mailed 11/5.
	12/1/81	Have been mailed.
	3/15/82	Questionnaires received.

<u>Chapter</u>	<u>Date</u>	<u>Response</u>
42	11/1/81	Yes, we will participate. Questionnaires mailed 11/5.
	12/1/81	Left message with wife, call not returned.
	3/15/81	Questionnaires not received.
43	11/1/81	Yes, we will participate. Questionnaires mailed 11/5.
	12/1/81	Will do and return.
	3/15/81	Questionnaires not received.
44	11/1/81	Yes, we will participate. Questionnaires mailed 11/5.
	12/1/81	Questionnaires were returned.
	3/15/81	Questionnaires received.
45	11/1/81	Yes, we will participate. Questionnaires mailed 11/5.
	12/1/81	Unable to reach.
	3/15/81	Questionnaires not received.
46	11/1/81	Yes, we will participate. Questionnaires mailed 11/5.
	12/1/81	Unable to contact.
	3/15/81	Questionnaires not received.



Oklahoma State University

DEPARTMENT OF FAMILY RELATIONS
AND CHILD DEVELOPMENT

STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74074
241 HOME ECONOMICS WEST
(405) 624-5057

June 11, 1981

President Gib Garrow
United States Jaycees
War Memorial Headquarters
Tulsa, Oklahoma

Dear President Garrow:

As a candidate for the degree of Doctor of Education, I am in the process of completing a doctoral dissertation project. This project involves research in the area of young men's attitudes toward the role of the father. I hope to use the Oklahoma Jaycees as the population for this study.

My reasons for choosing this topic of study and my desire to use the Jaycees as the research population are twofold. First, as a student of Family Relations and Child Development, I am interested in parent-child interaction, and there is very little research information available on young men's attitudes toward their family work--especially child rearing.

Secondly, being a part of a Jaycee family, I have become particularly concerned about the demands of Jaycees on the family organization and especially the father-child relationship. I have found that being married to an active Jaycee requires much patience, understanding, love, and a profound belief in the principles and ideals of the Jaycee organization. I have felt that the Jaycee organization is of great benefit to young men, but that it might do more to strengthen the family life of its members--especially in this time of rapid change, movility, and stress.

Traditionally, our culture has socialized its children to believe that men work and women run the home. Male children learn that a man's identity is based on his work and he is valued in terms of how successful he is in that work. As more and more women enter the labor force, their expectations toward their husband's family work roles change. Societal changes in role expectations have resulted in considerable stress for the father, as he is often unclear as to what is expected of him.

The Jaycee organization has expressed concern about the family life of its members and has developed Family Life Programs to aid the Jaycee family in discovering ways to spend quality time together, to aid in opening communication lines between family members, and to aid in the enrichment of family life. As the dual-employed family has become the modal type, new programs need to be developed to help Jaycees meet the new stresses and demands placed on the father in the family.

President Gib Garrow
June 11, 1981
Page 2

The major goal of the Family Life Development programs has been to strengthen the life of the Jaycee family through an educational process. In today's society men are caught between changing societal expectations and have no models or support groups to aid them in their struggle to meet the changing demands and expectations of their wives and families. The Jaycee organization can provide a valuable service to its members by providing education for parenthood--especially education for fatherhood; by providing support groups, and by providing a program in which open, honest communication can occur between husbands and wives concerning parenting.

In order to develop effective parent education programs, it is necessary to know the attitudes that individuals have about their parent roles. Literature relating to women's attitudes toward family work exists, but there is little or no information relating to the attitudes that young men hold toward family work--especially the parent role. The primary purpose of the research study I plan to conduct is to provide information about the attitudes that young men hold toward the father role.

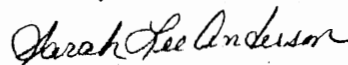
This information will be of great benefit in developing programs in which men and women can freely discuss their feelings about child rearing, their spouses' feelings about child rearing responsibilities, and what society expects of them in their role as parents. The Jaycee organization can help to provide this type of parent education program through its Family Life Development program.

I would appreciate very much the cooperation and support of the United States Jaycees as I undertake this research project. I will be more than happy to share the results with the Jaycee organization and to will be happy to use the results of this research to work with the Jaycees in developing new Family Life Development programs.

Enclosed you will find a modified form of the reserach proposal submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate College of the Oklahoma State University. The proposal contains a brief introduction, a description of the purposes and objectives, a discussion of the research design, and the instrument which will be used to collect the data.

Thank you.

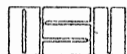
Sincerely,



Sarah Lee Anderson

Enclosures

cc: Oklahoma Jaycee President



Oklahoma State University

DEPARTMENT OF FAMILY RELATIONS
AND CHILD DEVELOPMENT

STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74074
241 HOME ECONOMICS WEST
(405) 624-5057

July 24, 1981

President Tripp Haggard
Oklahoma Jaycees Headquarters
P.O. Box 6555
Moore, OK 73060

Dear President Haggard:

I am writing to express my appreciation for your support and cooperation with Sarah Anderson's research project for her Ed.D. degree, "Young Men's Attitudes Toward the Father's Role." We feel that the results of Sarah's research will be helpful to the Jaycees in developing your excellent Family Life Programs. We can assure you that results of the research will be available to the Jaycees immediately following the completion of the project.

Thank you so much for your help and support of this project. Please let me know if you have questions or need further information at any time during the research phase of the project.

Sincerely,

Judith A. Powell, Ed.D.
Associate Professor
Family Relations and Child Development
Advisor to Sarah Anderson

ps



Oklahoma State University

DEPARTMENT OF FAMILY RELATIONS
AND CHILD DEVELOPMENT

STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74074
241 HOME ECONOMICS WLS1
(405) 624-5057

August 14, 1981

Dear Jaycee:

As a candidate for the degree of Doctor of Education, I am in the process of completing a doctoral dissertation project. This project involves research in the area of young men's attitudes toward the role of the father. I wish to express my sincere appreciation to you for your cooperation and assistance in conducting this study.

My reasons for choosing this topic of study and my desire to use the Jaycees as the research population are twofold. First, as a student of Family Relations and Child Development, I am interested in parent-child interaction, and there is very little research information available on young men's attitudes toward their family work--especially child rearing.

Secondly, being a part of a Jaycee family, I have become particularly concerned about the demands of Jaycees on the family organization and especially the father-child relationship. I have found that being married to an active Jaycee requires much patience, understanding, love, and a profound belief in the principles and ideals of the Jaycee organization. I have felt that the Jaycee organization is of great benefit to young men, but that it might do more to strengthen the family life of its members--especially in this time of rapid change, mobility, and stress.

Traditionally, our culture has socialized its children to believe that men work and women run the home. Male children learn that a man's identity is based on his work and he is valued in terms of how successful he is in that work. As more and more women enter the labor force, their expectations toward their husband's family work roles change. Societal changes in role expectations have resulted in considerable stress for the father, as he is often unclear as to what is expected of him.

The Jaycee organization has expressed concern about the family life of its members and has developed Family Life Programs to aid the Jaycee family in discovering ways to spend quality time together, to aid in opening communication lines between family members, and to aid in the enrichment of family life. As the dual-employed family has become the modal type, new programs need to be developed to help Jaycees meet the new stresses and demands placed on the father in the family.

August 14, 1981
Page 2

The major goal in the Family Life Development programs has been to strengthen the life of the Jaycee family through an educational process. In today's society men are caught between changing societal expectations and have no models or support groups to aid them in their struggle to meet the changing demands and expectations of their wives and families. The Jaycee organization can provide a valuable service to its members by providing education for parenthood--especially for fatherhood; by providing support groups; and by providing a program in which open, honest communication can occur between husbands and wives concerning parenting.

In order to develop effective parent education programs, it is necessary to know the attitudes that individuals have about their parent roles. Literature relating to women's attitudes toward family work exists, but there is little or no information relating to the attitudes that young men hold toward family work--especially the parent role. The primary purpose of the research study I plan to conduct is to provide information about the attitudes that young men hold toward the father role.

This information will be of great benefit in developing programs in which men and women can freely discuss their feelings about child rearing, their spouses' feelings about child rearing responsibilities, and what society expects of them in their role as parents. The Jaycee organization can help to provide this type of parent education program through its Family Life Development program.

I have discussed this study with both the United States Jaycees and with the Oklahoma Jaycees and have received their approval, support, and assistance in designing the study. The results of the study will be shared with the Jaycee organization and I have agreed to work with the Jaycees in developing new Family Life Development programs.

Enclosed you will find the "Fathering Inventory" which is to be completed at a local Jaycee meeting. It will take approximately 20 minutes for your members to complete the questionnaire. Please assure your members that the information asked for will be completely anonymous and urge them to give complete and honest responses. The inventory contains the Father Role Opinionnaire which is designed to assess attitudes that young men hold toward the father role. It is not designed to determine what men do, but what they believe the father's role involves. The inventory also asks for background information concerning the respondent which will be used in analyzing the data. In addition, there are several items which were requested by the Jaycee organization. These items will be of benefit to the Jaycees in evaluating their Family Life Development programs.

Also enclosed is an information sheet which I would like for you to complete and return with the questionnaires. This information will be used in determining statistical treatment.

Please return both the completed questionnaires, the unused questionnaires, and the information sheet in the enclosed addressed, postage paid envelope. The questionnaires need to be returned to me by October 1, 1981.

Again, thank you very much for your cooperation and assistance in this study. If you have any questions, please feel free to call me collect at 405-377-5464.

Sincerely,

Sarah Lee Anderson
Sarah Lee Anderson

Enclosures

FATHERING INVENTORY INFORMATION SHEET

NAME OF CHAPTER _____

LOCAL PRESIDENT _____

ADDRESS _____

TELEPHONE _____

NUMBER OF MEMBERS IN CHAPTER _____

NUMBER OF MEMBERS PRESENT AT MEETING AT WHICH
QUESTIONNAIRES COMPLETED _____

NUMBER OF COMPLETED QUESTIONNAIRES RETURNED _____

DATE OF MEETING AT WHICH QUESTIONNAIRES COMPLETED _____

WHAT REGION IS YOUR CHAPTER IN? _____

WHAT IS YOUR CHAPTER'S POPULATION DIVISION? _____

COMMENTS:

Please return this sheet with both the completed and unused questionnaires in the enclosed envelope by October 1, 1981, to:

Sarah Lee Anderson
HEW 336
Department of Family Relations
and Child Development
Oklahoma State University
Stillwater, Oklahoma 74078

Thank you.

Reminder post card sent to chapters in first mailing:

October 10, 1981

Dear Jaycee,

I wish to thank you for your cooperation in the project I am conducting related to Young Men's Attitudes Toward Fathering.

I also wish to let you know that we are beginning the data analysis phase of the project. If you have not returned your chapter's questionnaires, please do so as soon as possible. Responses from your chapter are essential to the success of the project.

When the study is completed, I will be sending copies of the results to both the Oklahoma and the U.S. Jaycees. I will also make copies available to you upon request.

If you have any questions regarding the study or the questionnaires, please feel free to contact me. You may call me collect at 405-377-5464. Thank you.

Sarah Lee Anderson



Oklahoma State University

DEPARTMENT OF FAMILY RELATIONS
AND CHILD DEVELOPMENT

STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74074
241 HOME ECONOMICS WEST
(405) 624-5057

November 5, 1981

President Tripp Haggart
Oklahoma Jaycees
Box 6555
Moore, OK 73153

Dear President Tripp,

I am having a little difficulty getting the Jaycee's to return the questionnaires relating to young men's attitudes toward the father role. I would appreciate it very much if you would put a note in the Warpath encouraging all of the Jaycees, the fathers and the non-fathers, the married and the single, to complete and return the questionnaires.

As you know, I need this in order to complete my dissertation and, therefore, to graduate. But more importantly for you, this information should be of great importance to the Jaycee organization as they plan and develop family life projects. I have agreed to work with the U.S. and the Oklahoma Jaycees in developing programs, but we need the raw data to know where to begin and how to best meet their needs. Also, to the best of my knowledge, there has been no work done looking especially at what men believe about their parent roles. Therefore, this could be a landmark study which would benefit not only Jaycees but all young men and their families.

I appreciate your help and cooperation in this project. If I can be of assistance to you or the Jaycees, please let me know.

Also, would you please send me a copy of the article you print so I can have it for my study. Thank you.

Sincerely,

Sarah Anderson

Sarah Anderson

jj

Reminder notice in Oklahoma Jaycee president's newsletter:

S T A T E Q U E S T I O N N A I R E S

IMPORTANT: Many of you local presidents were mailed questionnaires relating to young men's attitudes toward the father role. I am encouraging all of the Jaycees, the fathers and the non-fathers, the married and the single, to complete and return the questionnaires.

This information is being gathered by Mrs. Sarah Anderson, Dept. of Family Relations and Child Development, Oklahoma State University, for use by the United States and Oklahoma Jaycees in the formulation of Family Life programs. To the best of my knowledge, there has been no work done looking especially at what men believe about their parent roles. Therefore, this could be a landmark study which would benefit not only Jaycees but all young men and their families. Please be a part and mail your questionnaires to the address included in the survey packet.



Taken from Tripp's Tell-A-Gram, #13, 11-13-81, President Tripp Haggart, Oklahoma Jaycees.

APPENDIX F

SUPPLEMENTARY STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Table 32
Means, Standard Deviations, and Coefficients of Variations
for the Five Sub-role Dimensions of Fathering
for Fathers, Non-fathers, and Jaycees

Dimension	Fathers n = 62	Non-fathers n = 50	Jaycees n = 115
Nurturing			
Mean	23.69	24.00	23.83
S.D.	3.71	2.26	3.10
C.V.	15.65	9.41	13.02
Providing			
Mean	19.26	20.12	19.57
S.D.	3.06	3.50	3.27
C.V.	15.87	17.41	16.71
Societal model			
Mean	24.42	24.60	24.43
S.D.	3.48	2.52	3.07
C.V.	14.24	10.23	12.57
Recreational			
Mean	23.45	23.88	23.60
S.D.	3.16	2.66	2.92
C.V.	13.46	10.95	12.36
Problem Solving			
Mean	16.85	17.24	16.97
S.D.	2.72	3.41	3.04
C.V.	16.15	19.80	17.91

Table 33
Means for Fathers on the Recreational Sub-role
Dimension of Fathering by Selected Variables

Variable	N	Mean
Age of Father		
24 and under	4	22.75
25 - 34	46	23.57
35 and older	15	23.00
Social status rank		
Lower class	4	20.75
Blue collar	15	23.67
White collar	28	23.11
Upper middle	18	24.17
Degree of involvement		
Low	15	22.40
Moderate	31	23.87
High	19	23.37
Marital Status		
Single	8	23.63
Married	57	23.35
Preparation for birth		
Yes	43	24.02
No	15	21.73
Attendance at birth		
Yes	29	23.31
No	30	23.47
Age of oldest child		
Infant	17	22.47
Preschooler	17	23.47
Schoolager	24	23.92
Adolescent	7	23.57
Number of children		
1	16	24.38
2	31	23.71
3 - 5	11	22.55
Sex of children		
Males only	19	23.63
Females only	11	24.36
Both males and females	28	23.43

Table 34
 Mean Scores for Fathers on the Nurturing
 Dimension of Fathering

Variable	N	Mean
Age of Father		
24 and under	4	23.25
25 - 34	46	23.78
35 and older	15	23.53
Social status rank		
Lower class	4	20.50
Blue collar	15	23.87
White collar	28	23.79
Upper middle	18	24.11
Degree of involvement		
Low	15	22.33
Moderate	31	23.84
High	19	24.53
Marital Status		
Single	8	23.50
Married	57	23.72
Preparation for birth		
Yes	43	24.65
No	15	21.40
Attendance at birth		
Yes	29	24.24
No	30	23.37
Age of oldest child		
Infant	17	23.29
Preschooler	17	22.94
Schoolager	24	24.75
Adolescent	7	22.86
Number of children		
1	16	24.81
2	31	23.90
3 - 5	11	22.64
Sex of children		
Males only	19	24.11
Females only	11	25.82
Both males and females	28	23.04

Table 35
Means for Fathers on the Providing
Dimension of Fathering

Variable	N	Mean
Age of Father		
24 and under	4	17.75
25 - 34	46	19.15
35 and older	15	19.53
Social status rank		
Lower class	4	16.00
Blue collar	15	19.27
White collar	28	19.50
Upper middle	18	19.22
Degree of involvement outside the home		
Low	15	17.60
Moderate	31	19.71
High	19	19.47
Marital Status		
Single	8	19.25
Married	57	19.14
Preparation for birth		
Yes	43	19.67
No	15	17.73
Attendance at birth		
Yes	29	19.17
No	30	19.33
Age of oldest child		
Infant	17	18.42
Preschooler	17	19.24
Schoolager	24	19.71
Adolescent	7	18.86
Number of children		
1	16	19.25
2	31	19.32
3 - 5	11	19.82
Sex of children		
Males only	19	19.47
Females only	11	18.82
Both males an females	28	19.57

Table 36
 Mean Scores of Fathers Toward the Problem
 Solving Dimension of Fathering
 by Selected Variables

Variable	N	Mean
Age of Father		
24 and under	4	17.25
25 - 34	46	16.72
35 and older	15	16.80
Social status rank		
Lower class	4	17.25
Blue collar	15	17.53
White collar	28	16.75
Upper middle	18	16.06
Degree of involvement		
Low	15	16.40
Moderate	31	16.61
High	19	17.32
Marital Status		
Single	8	18.63
Married	57	16.51
Preparation for birth		
Yes	43	16.98
No	15	16.20
Attendance at birth		
Yes	29	16.31
No	30	17.30
Age of oldest child		
Infant	17	16.41
Preschooler	17	17.35
Schoolager	24	16.71
Adolescent	7	16.43
Number of children		
1	16	17.00
2	31	16.35
3 - 5	11	18.27
Sex of children		
Males only	19	16.58
Females only	11	16.36
Both males an females	28	17.32

Table 37
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of
Fathering by Age

Sum of squares	<u>F</u> value	<u>p</u>
35.3288	1.51	.23

Note. df = 2

Table 38
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of
Fathering by Marital Status

Sum of squares	<u>F</u> value	<u>p</u>
.2554	0.02	.88

Note. df = 1

Table 39
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of
Fathering by Attendance at Birth

Sum of squares	<u>F</u> value	<u>p</u>
.7484	0.06	.81

Note. df = 1

Table 40
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of
Fathering by Sex of Children

Sum of squares	<u>F</u> value	<u>p</u>
12.8145	0.62	.54

Note. df = 1

Table 41
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of
Fathering by Number of Children

Sum of squares	<u>F</u> value	<u>p</u>
26.4812	1.31	.28

Note. df = 2

Table 42
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of
Fathering by Wife's Education

Sum of squares	<u>F</u> value	<u>p</u>
29.3713	0.72	.58

Note. df = 4

Table 43
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of
Fathering by Occupation

Sum of squares	<u>F</u> value	<u>p</u>
53.7375	1.08	.38

Note. df = 5

Table 44
Analysis of Variance for Fathers on the Societal
Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
by Educational Level

Sum of squares	<u>F</u> value	<u>p</u>
84.53	1.87	.13

Note. df = 4, n = 64

Table 45
 The Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Differences in Mean Scores
 on the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
 by Educational Level

Educational level	N	Mean	Grouping ^a
College graduate	27	25.56	A
Graduate degree	5	24.80	A B
High school graduate	20	23.40	B
Some college or post-secondary vocational training	11	23.18	B
8th to 11th grade	1	21.00	B

Note. df = 59, p .05, n = 64

^aMeans with the same letter are not significantly different.

Table 46
Analysis of Variance for Fathers on the Societal
Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
by Wife's Occupation

Sum of Squares	<u>F</u> Value	<u>p</u>
100.69	2.24	.06

Note. df = 5, n = 57

Table 47

The Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Differences in Mean Scores
on the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
by Wife's Occupation

Wife's occupation	N	Mean	Grouping ^a
Manager, businesswoman, proprietor, in small to average business	9	26.11	A
Professional, proprietor in large large business, or top execu- tive in large corporation or business	7	26.29	A B
Salesman, clerical, foreman	6	24.67	A B
Fulltime homemaker, farmer, rancher	26	24.27	A B
Service worker, operative, crafts- man, skilled laborer	7	21.86	B
Unskilled laborer	2	21.00	B

Note. df = 51, p .05, n = 57

^aMeans with the same letter are not significantly different.

Table 48
 The Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Differences in Mean Scores
 on the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
 by Degree of Occupational Involvement

Degree of emotional involvement	N	Mean	Grouping ^a
High	11	25.00	A
Moderate	39	24.85	A
Low	15	22.33	A

Note. $df = 2$, $p < .05$, $n =$

^aMeans with the same letter are not significantly different.

Table 49
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of
Fathering by Educational Level

Sum of squares	<u>F</u> value	<u>p</u>
84.5345	1.87	.13

Note. df = 4

Table 50
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of
Fathering by Wife's Occupation

Sum of squares	<u>F</u> value	<u>p</u>
100.6925	2.24	.06

Note. df = 5

Table 51
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Recreational Sub-role Dimension of
Fathering by Age of Father

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
2	5.3303	.27	.77

Table 52
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Recreational Sub-role Dimension of
Fathering by Social Status Rank

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
3	42.1227	1.46	.23

Table 53
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Recreational Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
by Degree of Involvement

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
2	21.1227	1.12	.33

Table 54

The Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Differences in Mean Scores
on the Nurturing Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by
Degree of Occupational Involvement

Occupational involvement	N	Mean	Grouping ^a
Moderate	39	24.46	A
High	11	23.09	A B
Low	15	22.13	B

Note. df = 62, $p < .05$, n = 65

^aMeans with the same letter are not significantly different.

Table 55
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Recreational Sub-role Dimension of
Fathering by Marital Status

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
1	.5272	.05	.82

Table 56
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Recreational Sub-role Dimension of
Fathering by Sex of Children

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
2	6.9522	.40	.67

Table 57
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Recreational Sub-role Dimension of
Fathering by Number of Children

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
2	21.9115	1.29	.28

Table 58
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Recreational Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
by Age of Oldest Child

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
3	21.3664	.72	.55

Table 59
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Recreational Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
by Attendance at Birth

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
1	.3603	.03	.85

Table 60
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Recreational Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
by Degree of Civic Involvement

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
2	5.2999	.26	.77

Table 61
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Recreational Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
by Degree of Occupational Involvement

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
2	54.5650	2.95	.06

Table 62
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Nurturing Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
by Age of Father

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
2	1.5367	.06	.9451

Table 63
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Nurturing Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
by Social Status Rank

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
3	44.6208	1.14	.3423

Table 64
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Nurturing Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
by Degree of Involvement

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
2	41.5824	1.61	.2088

Table 65
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Nurturing Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
by Marital Status

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
1	.3374	.03	.8744

Table 66
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Nurturing Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
by Age of Oldest Child

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
3	44.0184	1.12	.3488

Table 67
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Nurturing Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
by Age of Father

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
2	62.1788	2.62	.0870

Table 68
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Nurturing Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
by Number of Children

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
2	30.8763	1.24	.2968

Table 69
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Nurturing Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
by Attendance at Birth

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
1	11.2823	.80	.3756

Table 70
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Nurturing Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
by Degree of Occupational Involvement

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
2	63.5114	2.52	.09

Table 71
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Nurturing Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
by Degree of Civic Involvement

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
2	47.7866	1.86	.16

Table 72
 The Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Differences in Mean Scores
 on the Societal Model Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
 by Degree of Civic Involvement

Degree of civic involvement	N	Mean	Grouping ^a
High	17	25.76	A
Moderate	37	24.22	A B
Low	11	22.27	B

Note. df = , $p < .05$, n = .

^aMeans with the same letter are not significantly different.

Table 73
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Provider Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
by Age of Father

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
2	10.0434	.53	.5886

Table 74
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Provider Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
by Social Status Rank

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
3	43.4171	1.61	.1954

Table 75
 The Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Differences in Mean Scores
 on the Provider Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
 by Social Status

Social status rank	N	Mean	Grouping ^a
Lower middle	28	19.50	A
Working class	15	19.27	A B
Upper middle	18	19.22	A B
Lower class	4	16.00	B

Note. df = 61, $p < .05$, n = 65

^aMeans with the same letter are not significantly different.

Table 76
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Provider Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
by Degree of Involvement

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
2	47.7376	2.72	.0740

Table 77

The Duncan's Multiple Range Test for Differences in Mean Scores
on the Provider Sub-role Dimension of Fathering by
Degree of Involvement Outside the Home

Degree of involvement	N	Mean	Grouping ^a
High	31	19.71	A
Moderate	19	19.47	A B
Low	15	17.60	B

Note. df = 62, $p < .05$, n = 65

^aMeans with the same letter are not significantly different.

Table 78
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Provider Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
by Marital Status

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
1	.0843	.01	.9248

Table 79
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Provider Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
by Sex of Children

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
2	4.6490	.25	.7789

Table 80
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Provider Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
by Number of Children

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
2	2.4688	.13	.8760

Table 81
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Provider Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
by Age of Oldest Child

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
3	17.4696	.62	.6100

Table 82
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Provider Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
by Attendance at Birth

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
1	.3818	.04	.8451

Table 83
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Provider Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
by Degree of Civic Involvement

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
2	34.3098	1.91	.16

Table 84

Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Provider Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
by Degree of Occupational Involvement

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
2	17.3464	.94	.40

Table 85
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Provider Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
by Wife's Educational Level

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
4	76.0429	2.37	.06

Table 86
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Provider Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
by Educational Level

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
4	31.8784	.87	.49

Table 87
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Provider Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
by Occupation

DF	SS	F	p
5	17.1844	.38	.86

Table 88
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Provider Sub-role Dimension of Fathering
by Wife's Occupation

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
5	13.4535	.29	.92

Table 89
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Provider Sub-role Dimension of
Fathering by Income

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
5	4.0484	.09	.99

Table 90
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Problem Solving Sub-role Dimension of
Fathering by Age of Father

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
2	1.0624	.07	.9330

Table 91
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Problem Solving Sub-role Dimension of
Fathering by Social Status Rank

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
3	18.6807	.84	.4798

Table 92
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Problem Solving Sub-role Dimension of
Fathering by Degree of Involvement

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
2	8.4784	.56	.5725

Table 93
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Problem Solving Sub-role Dimension of
Fathering by Sex of Children

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
2	10.0951	.66	.5214

Table 94
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Problem Solving Sub-role Dimension of
Fathering by Number of Children

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
2	301007	2.06	.1368

Table 95
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Problem Solving Sub-role Dimension of
Fathering by Age of Oldest Child

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
3	8.8658	.39	.7662

Table 96
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Problem Solving Sub-role Dimension of
Fathering by Attendance at Birth

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
1	14.4423	1.91	.1721

Table 97
Analysis of Variance for Fathers' Scores on the
Problem Solving Sub-role Dimension of
Fathering by Preparation for Birth

DF	SS	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
1	6.7095	.84	.3623

VITA²

Sarah Lee Helm Anderson

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Thesis: ATTITUDES OF OKLAHOMA JAYCEES TOWARD THE FATHER ROLE

Major Field: Higher Education

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Joplin, Missouri, October 12, 1948, the daughter of Mr. and Mrs. Herby C. Helm, Jr. Reared in Seneca, Missouri. Married Steve Anderson, July 25, 1970. Became the mother of Stephanie Elin, December 7, 1972, and Shara Noel, July 3, 1978.

Education: Graduated from Seneca High School, Seneca, Missouri, in May, 1966; received an Associate of Arts degree from Northeastern Oklahoma A & M Junior College, Miami, Oklahoma, in May, 1968; received a Bachelor of Science degree in Home Economics Education from Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma, in May, 1970; received a Master of Science degree in Home Economics from Oklahoma State University with a major in Early Childhood Education in May, 1974; completed the requirements for the Doctor of Education degree in Higher Education at Oklahoma State University in July, 1982.

Professional Experience: Vocational Home Economics Teacher, Will Rogers Junior High School, Miami, Oklahoma, 1970-1972; Graduate Research Assistant, Department of Family Relations and Child Development, Oklahoma State University, 1973-1974; Graduate Teaching Assistant, Department of Family Relations and Child Development, Oklahoma State University, 1974-1978; Teaching Associate, 1978-1982.

Professional Affiliations: Phi Upsilon Omicron, Omicron Nu, Phi Theta Kappa, Order of Freyja, American Home Economics Association, Oklahoma Home Economics Association, National Council on Family Relations, Southern Association on Children Under Six.