

PARENTAL PREFERENCE IN RELATION TO  
VOCATIONAL CHOICE, SELF-CONCEPT  
AND LEADERSHIP

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

#### Purpose

Identification is defined by Mead (1934, p. 30) as "taking the role of the other." He refers to a method of transmitting appropriate age-sex behavior from parent or parent surrogate, to child. The parent serves as a role model to the child. The process assumes the presence of a parent or parent figure, and a basic motivation on the part of the child to become like that parent.

Identification is not limited to the transmission of specific behaviors, but includes the acquisition of parental attitudes and value patterns (Aldous and Kell, 1961). Hence a boy may learn not only how to change a tire on an automobile, but also that such behavior is "man's work," appropriate for his father and himself, but inappropriate for his mother or sister.

Customarily, research in the area of parent-child relationship has focused on the mother (Nash, 1965). The father's role has been generally overlooked in the literature. Eron, Banta and Walder (1961), in a review of the literature, indicated there were fifteen times as many studies on mothers as fathers. Such research as is available indicates fathers have important effects on children (Benson, 1968). For instance, a 1960 study (Becker) points to a large number of behavioral problems that stem from father-child relationships.

Identification, or parental preference, is difficult to assess. The literature indicates that identification with both parents is important and has far reaching effects on the adult behaviors and attitudes of the child. The adult behaviors that this study is concerned with are vocational choice, self-concept and leadership qualities.

Vocational choice seems to be affected inasmuch as individuals who have experienced unsatisfactory interpersonal relationships with parents have higher vocational aspirations (Dynes, Clarke and Dinitz, 1956). A person's self-concept is not static, it is in a state of constant change. These changes occur much more rapidly in childhood when parental identification also is of prime importance (Carroll, 1959). Many of the qualities associated with positive parental identification are also those associated with leaders (Stogdill, 1948). These include good personal and social adjustment, initiative, responsibility, and active participation in activities.

The purpose of this research was to determine the relationship between parental preference and (1) vocational choice, (2) self-concept, and (3) leadership qualities. A number of background variables will also be examined.

The specific hypotheses which were examined include the following:

1. There is no significant difference between daughters who have a strong preference for their fathers and daughters who have a strong preference for their mothers with respect to their choice of person oriented or non-person oriented occupations or to professional or non-professional occupations.

2. There is no significant relationship between mother preference scores and father preference scores and (1) vocational choice, (2) self-concept, and (3) leadership qualities.

3. There is no significant relationship between mother preference scores and father preference scores and (1) age, (2) sex, (3) ordinal position, (4) social class, (5) closeness to father or mother, (6) educational level of parents, (7) type of discipline received, (8) perceived amount of love and warmth received from parents, (9) educational goals, and (10) person or non-person orientation of parent's occupation.



## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

#### Parental Preference

Parental preference or identification is a term that is difficult to define. Aldous and Kell (1961) suggest the identification is the process by which children acquire their parents' attitudes, values, and behavior patterns. Benson (1968, p. 167) defines sexualization, an important component of identification, as a process by which "boys learn to assume masculine roles and girls learn feminine counterparts." Parsons (1958) further defines identification as the internalization of reciprocal role relationships, not merely an assumption of "personality traits."

#### Effects of Strong and Weak Identification

The effects of poor identification are numerous even though information on identification is limited. Poor sex-role identification is linked with homosexuality (Nash and Hayes, 1965; Biller, 1968), delinquency (Warren, 1957), behavioral problems (Palmer, 1960), poor peer relationships (Lynn and Sawrey, 1959), immaturity and poor sexual adjustment (Winch, 1950), and neurotic dependence on the mother (Levy, 1943; McKeown and Lhyatte, 1954), schizophrenia and stuttering (Medinnus, 1967). Sopchak (1952) indicated from his research that for both men

and women, the failure to identify with the father is more closely related to tendencies toward abnormality than failure to identify with the mother. Okstrovsky (1959) encouraged increased male participation in child rearing. He warned that inadequate male influence involves the danger of limiting and inhibiting the child's emotional growth.

In contrast, strong sex-role identification is related to academic skills (Shaw and White, 1965), good reading skills (Mercer, 1969), positive personality characteristics such as leadership, friendship and the ability to face problems (Gray, 1957), peer acceptance (Gray, 1959; Helper, 1955), emotional stability and adjustment (Mussen, 1961). Sons reared in homes where the father is warm and affectionate show strong masculine interests (Mussen, 1961; Biller and Borstelmann, 1967). Because boys are more easily influenced by parents than are girls (Walters and Stinnett, 1971) and are more susceptible to parental deprivation (Sears, 1951), it can be concluded that a weak father may have a greater effect on boys than on girls. Benson (1968) asserts that a child should be adequately exposed to male as well as female influence.

### Theory of Identification

The most common theory of identification states that the father is the masculine model for his son and the mother is the feminine model for her daughter. There is evidence that male children identify with a masculine stereotype rather than the way individual fathers carry out the role (Lynn, 1962), but fathers are still the foremost model for their sons. A girl's femininity is further defined by the way her father treats her. Fathers serve as their daughter's primary male love

object which later leads to a normal heterosexual love relationship with a male peer (Leonard, 1966).

There is evidence to support modeling theory. McCandless (1961) points out that the child will most readily prefer the parent of the same sex, if that parent is reasonably self confident about his or her own sexual identity.

#### Factors Influencing Identification

The importance of warm, satisfying family relationships as a factor influencing identification with parents is suggested by many studies. Authorities agree that identification occurs most readily with a rewarding, affectionate father (Mowrer, 1950; Stokes, 1954; Payne and Mussen, 1956; Kagan, 1961; Mussen and Distler, 1959). A study by Greenstein (1966) indicates strong father identification is fostered by warmth, and Hoffman (1961) includes parental dominance as a factor in strong father identification. Hetherington and Frankie (1967) indicate that girls are more dependent on warmth for this identification and that boys are more dependent on dominance. Biller's study (1968) points out that parental dominance is related to masculine self-concept. Leighton (1971) describes normal families as being father dominant while mother dominant families seem to be the families who seek counseling for the emotional problems of the child. Hoffman (1961) and Mussen and Distler (1960) both indicate warmth and dominance coexisting to foster sex-role identification.

Bronfenbrenner (1961) found in his research that the variables of parental affection and parental authority have different effects on the development of responsibility in sons and daughters. With boys, it was

the absence of either variable that had ill effects, with girls an overdose of either impaired dependability.

There is evidence from the literature that the different occupations which the parents are involved in may account at least to some degree for differing attitudes in child rearing which, in turn, affects parent-child identification. Aberle and Naegle (1952) indicate that middle class fathers have some expectations for their children and that they are concerned about the future of their sons. There seems to be a trend in that, with the higher education of the parent, the more freedom they allow their children. A study by Pearlin and Kohn (1966) indicates that parents who work with things value obedience highly and place less importance on self-control. Just the reverse is indicated for men who deal with ideas. Those who work with people fall in the middle; they place equal importance on both values.

Although there have been radical changes in American family life over the last several years, the family remains the most significant part of a child's social network (Clark and Sommers, 1961). A child imitates a parent's pattern of behavior and learns to adjust to life as the parent has adjusted (Koppitz, 1957). Effects of parent-child relations are strong and continue their influence over many years. Memories of parental behavior seem to relate to academic achievement in college (Cross and Allen, 1969). Granlund and Knowles (1969) found underachievers had significantly lower masculine identification than did the so-called achievers. What a child learns from his parents is indelible, but the values, in transmission may be transformed to something different from what the father had intended (Inkeles, 1963; Elder, 1964).

The pre-school period is the most critical for identification with the father and permanent deficiencies may result if he is not present during that time (Nash, 1965). Biller (1968) also noted that if a father is ineffectual, young boys have as much trouble developing a masculine self-image as if he were absent.

The father appears to be more important for a daughter's sexualization than the mother is for the son's. Mothers seem to have relatively little influence on boys' male-female preferences but the father's personality and behavior seem to be important factors in their daughters' desire to be feminine. Boys move away from a parental preference for their mother toward a preference for their father but girls often identify with their fathers as much as their mothers (Osgood, Suci, and Tannebaum, 1957). Kell and Aldous (1960) indicate boys are more likely than girls to have child-rearing values similar to their mothers, yet boys perceive themselves to be more like their fathers and girls perceive themselves to be more like their mothers (Gray and Klaus, 1956; Kagan, Hosken and Watson, 1961).

Parental effectiveness can be improved by agreement between the parents (Rau, 1960). Benson (1968) indicates that a child in America will identify with both parents to some extent. It helps if parents are similar to one another in basic values and orientations and if they can cooperate closely with one another in their dealing with the children. Winch (1962) indicates that the greater number of roles relating the child to his parent, the stronger the child's identification with that parent will be. From the studies cited it can be concluded that it is more useful to know the quality of identification or parental preference than the quantity.

## Vocational Choice

Walters and Stinnett (1971) found in a review of the literature that considerably less research had been done in the area relating mobility aspirations (the desire to move upward in regard to one's vocation) of children to parent-child relationships than relating parent-child relationships to occupational choice of children. The investigators found that research indicates that parent-child relationships do influence the occupational choice of children.

To aspire beyond one's present station in life is an important American norm, but not all people have such aspirations (Rushing, 1964). The lack of upward mobility aspirations could present problems for those who do not possess them, because in the United States upward mobility is an established value (Merton, 1957). The large proportion of vertical shifts which have occurred in the American social structure can be explained by such variables as differential classes, birth rates, technological change, and immigration (Kahl, 1957). Differences in aspirations seem to stem from values specific to different status positions (Sewell, 1957). In other words, the middle class is more likely to instill the values of achievement and ambition in their children than are the working and lower classes (Rushing, 1964). The fact that adolescents are likely to possess mobility aspirations to the extent that parents encourage educational and occupational ambitions is pointed out by such authors as Kahl (1953), Floud, et al. (1956), and Bordua (1960). The influence of the adolescent peer group is also important. Lower class adolescents are oriented upward because of their contact with middle class peers who pass on their own so called

"middle-class values" to them (Beilen, 1956; Wilson, 1959; and Turner, 1960).

However, different aspiration levels do not necessarily stem from the influence of different normative environments. Such adolescents could have similar exposure but have vastly different acceptance of values and norms. Dynes, Clarke and Dinitz (1956) report that individuals with high occupational aspirations are more likely to have experienced unsatisfactory interpersonal relations with parents than were students with lower levels of aspirations. Rushing (1964) found that only in the case of the female is the unsatisfactory relationship-aspiration hypothesis supported and then the association is restricted to father-daughter relationships.

Green and Parker (1965) investigated Roe's theory of vocational choices, which states that if a child experiences positive, loving parents, he will choose a person-oriented occupation. Conversely, if a child is subjected to rejecting parents he will select non-person oriented occupations. They noted that five previous studies (Grigg, 1959; Hagen, 1960; Utton, 1962; Switzer, et al., 1962; and Roe and Siegelman, 1962) had failed to support the theory. Green and Parker (1965) felt this was due to the retrospective recall of college students. The critical area of the parent-child relationship is the one perceived by the child, not the parent, so seventh graders were chosen as subjects on the basis of criteria listed by other investigators (Hall, 1963; Ginzberg, 1952; and O'Hara, 1959). Some support of Roe's theory was found with the seventh grade sample. Boys tended toward person-oriented occupations when they perceived positive parental influences. Girls tended to select a non-person oriented occupation

when experiencing negative father-daughter relationships. Fathers' influence on daughters' occupational choice is apparently stronger than that of their mothers'.

Strahl (1967) indicated that occupational choice is strongly affected by identification with parents. Ego involvement in occupational choice is affected by identification with both parents for males. However, ego involvement in occupational choice for females was not found to be related to parent identification. It can be seen in the literature that the indication is children who experience warm, open parent-child relationships tended to choose person oriented occupations rather than non-person oriented occupations.

Porter (1967) felt that the effect of growing up in a one parent home might be related to the vocational choice of the child. Her study failed to reveal any significant difference between person and non-person occupational orientation between intact homes and father-absent homes with the mother remaining.

There is a trend for college girls to show more varied adult aspirations and to plan for gainful employment for some portion of their lives (Simpson, 1961). The pattern of women working has traditionally been along feminine lines (McNally, 1968) but the proportion of career women with long term commitments to their professional field and even the rarer woman who specializes in a traditional, predominately male profession such as medicine or law, is increasing (Oppenheimer, 1968; Rossi, 1965). A review of the literature shows a variety of variables which could affect this increase, several of which are related to identification with parents. Families with conflicted relationships seem to have some effect on women's occupational choices (Johnson,



1963; Rossi, 1967; White, 1959). Homes are less conventional (Seward, 1945) and often working mothers provide models for their daughters (Almquist and Angrist, 1971). Zissis (1962) indicates that women who select occupations requiring graduate education see themselves as competitive, aggressive, and managerial as contrasted with the marriage-bound women who see themselves as more docile, self-effacing and cooperative. There is some indication that career-oriented women are more capable academically than non-career oriented women, at least as measured by grades (Davis, 1966; Korn, 1967). Angrist (1970) found as women continued their education, they increased graduate school plans, became more decided about occupational choices and became more career salient. A study by Angrist in 1972 indicated that twenty-two percent of the women studied developed career aspirations during college.

### Self-Concept

In a review of the literature related to the development of self-concept, two approaches emerge. Definitions evolve and methods of measuring self-concept develop from these two theories of self-concept.

One theory views the self as an object and the other sees self as a process (Ramsey, 1973). Hall (1957) defines these two approaches thusly:

Self-as-object may be defined simply as the total aggregate of attitudes, judgments, and values which an individual holds with respect to his behavior, his ability, his body, his worth as a person, in short, how he perceives and evaluates himself. Self-as-process is defined in terms of activities such as thinking and perceiving and coping with the environment; ego is another term used to describe this same construct (p. 142).

There seem to be numerous definitions of self-concept. Baldwin (1965) describes self-concept as "a picture of the person himself, as he sees himself" (p. 123). Sullivan (1953) describes the development of self-concept as the apex or culmination of all social and personal experiences the child has had. Over all, self-concept is described by McCandless (1961) as an "algebraic total." In other words, considering the many facets which make up the self, if the individual regards more areas as good rather than bad, positive self-concept is inferred.

Self-concept seems to relate directly to the personal adjustment of the person involved. The more inaccurate and faulty a person's perception of his environment is, the more inaccurate and faulty his perception of himself will be (Chodorkoff, 1954). He also indicates that the person's personal adjustment will be more inadequate. Calvin and Hotlzman (1953) relate poor insight directly to maladjustment. Likewise, Engle (1956) found a high correlation between positive self-concept and good adjustment. People with good self-concepts seem to be more honest with themselves than people with poor self-concepts and they appear less defensive (McCandless, 1961).

Self-concept can be divided into three parts. These are:

1. perceived self--the way the person sees himself
2. ideal self--the way the person wants to be
3. real self--the way the person really is (Walton, 1965).

Self-concept is subject to constant change. At no point in a person's life is self-concept so completely formed that it is no longer changing. It is continuously being modified as the result of constant interaction with the environment. These changes occur to a much smaller degree during adult years than during childhood (Carroll, 1959).

## Leadership

Leadership, as a particular situation, has been described as depending not only upon the qualities possessed by the individual leader, but also upon the circumstances in which the group and its leader are functioning. Brown (1933) states that the person who becomes a leader does so not only by virtue of his own qualities but also because of the characteristics which the group and the situation demand.

Ross and Hendry (1957) defined three methods of becoming a leader. First, a person who achieved pre-eminence by an unique attainment; second, a person who obtained official leadership status by appointment or election; third, a person who has emerged as a leader from a given situation. Qualities customarily associated with leaders are confidence, good personal and social adjustment, dominance, extroversion, responsibility, initiative, above average intelligence, ability to express themselves well, a neat personal appearance, and active participation in activities (Stogdill, 1948). Leaders were also found to be more liberal in their social attitudes, be younger, and have superior vocabulary and scholarship (Hunter and Jordon, 1939).

## CHAPTER III

### PROCEDURE

#### Selection of Subjects

The sample of 197 students included the students enrolled in FRCD 3142 at Oklahoma State University for the spring, 1974 semester. The sample was approximately one-fourth males and three-fourths females, in the 18 to 24 age range.

#### Administration of Instruments

The instruments were given to the subjects during their regularly scheduled class period. It was requested in advance that only those students who had been reared by two parent families participate in the study. The researcher was available at all times during the administration of the instrument to answer any questions.

#### Background Information

Background information was obtained from a questionnaire (see Appendix A) designed to answer the following questions: (1) age, (2) sex, (3) ordinal position, (4) social class, (5) presence or absence of father during childhood, (6) closeness to father and mother, (7) educational level of parents, (8) type of discipline received, (9) perceived amount of love and warmth received from parents, and (10) educational

goals of subject (Wright, 1972). The McGuire-White Index of Social Status (Short Form, 1955) was used to determine socio economic status.

#### Measurement of Variables

The Leadership and Activity Inventory (adapted from Dales and Walters, 1969) was designed to include information about (1) extra-curricular activities in high school or college, (2) the degree of participation in activities and leadership roles accepted in organizations, (3) the means of financing their education, (4) the number of schools the respondent attended, (5) the subject's attitude toward his present education, and (6) the employment status of the subject (see Appendix B). A weighting scale was used to determine the leadership score for each respondent (see Appendix B).

The Tennessee Self Concept Scale (Fitts, 1964) was used to determine a score for self-concept. The instrument consists of 100 items which the respondent is asked to mark on a scale of one to five, ranging from completely true to completely false. The resulting score reflected the individual's perceived self-concept.

Data for the parental preference or identification aspect were taken from an instrument being developed by another graduate student to determine mother preference and father preference (Herde, 1974) (see Appendix C). The instruments were given at the same time to the same sample.

Vocational choice was determined by questions included in the background information. Questions concerning the subject's perception of his chosen occupation with regard to person or non-person orientation were also included. The McGuire-White categories of occupations

were considered while determining the category of vocational ambition for each respondent.

### Analysis of Data

The data were analyzed by using percentages and frequencies of all information. An item analysis, utilizing chi square, was used to determine the items on the Tennessee Self Concept Scale which significantly discriminate at the .05 level between the high and low quartiles of the sample.

Kruskal-Wallis one way analysis of variance was used to compare the following variables with mother preference scores and father preference scores: (1) vocational ambitions, (2) age, (3) ordinal position, (4) social class, (5) educational level of mother and father, (6) closeness to father and mother, (7) type of discipline received, (8) love from mother and father, and (9) educational goals of subject.

The Mann-Whitney U test was used to compare the following variables with father preference and mother preference: (1) vocational choice, (2) self-concept, (3) leadership scores, (4) sex, (5) person or non-person orientation of subject's father's vocation, and (6) person or non-person orientation of subject's mother's vocation.

## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS

#### Description of the Subjects

##### Background Information

Of the 197 subjects who participated in this study, the majority were in the 20 or under age category (62.24%) and were female (78.35%). The highest percentage of the sample were second children (39.80%) with 32.14% being eldest children. The majority of the subjects were in the upper middle class (58.67%) as measured by the McGuire-White Index of Social Status (Short Form, 1955). Of the 24 students who had experienced father or mother absence, the majority (83.33%) had experienced father absence for a period of one to two years (62.50%) after the subject was 14 years of age (47.83%). The majority of the subjects' parents (fathers 57.44% and mothers 78.57%) did not have college degrees. A detailed description of the subjects is presented in Table I. The total number of subjects presented in the table does not always total 197 because of rejects by the computer or failure on the part of the subject to answer the question.

TABLE I  
BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SUBJECTS

Description	Number	Percent
<u>Age</u>		
20 or under	122	62.24
21-24	70	35.71
25 and over	4	2.04
<u>Sex</u>		
Male	42	21.65
Female	152	78.35
<u>Ordinal position</u>		
Oldest child	63	32.14
Second child	78	39.80
Third child	34	17.35
Fourth or fifth child	18	9.18
Sixth child or over	3	1.53
<u>Socio-economic status</u>		
Lower-lower class	0	0.00
Upper-lower class	15	7.65
Lower-middle class	52	26.53
Upper-middle class	115	58.67
Upper class	14	7.14
<u>Father's education</u>		
Less than high school	25	12.82
High school	45	23.08
1-3 years college	42	21.54
College graduate	50	25.64
Over four years of college	33	16.92
<u>Mother's education</u>		
Less than high school	9	4.59
High school	90	45.92
1-3 years college	55	28.06
College graduate	25	12.76
Over four years of college	17	8.67



TABLE I (Continued)

Description	Number	Percent
<u>Parent absence from home</u>		
Father	20	83.33
Mother	4	16.67
<u>Length of absence</u>		
Less than 1 year	1	4.17
1 to 2 years	15	62.50
3 to 5 years	5	20.83
6 to 9 years	1	4.17
10 years and over	2	8.33
<u>Age of child during absence</u>		
1 to 3 years	6	26.09
4 to 6 years	3	13.04
7 to 10 years	3	13.04
11 to 13 years	0	0.00
14 and over	11	47.83

#### Family Relationships Information

In addition to the background information, the questionnaire also contained items which described the subjects' perceptions of their family relationships (Table II). The results of the findings are summarized below. The greatest proportion of the students (32.29%) reported their discipline to have come equally from their mothers and fathers. With regard to the type of discipline received from their parents, 41.33% report that it was average, rather than restrictive or permissive. The majority (68.37%) reported that both mothers and

TABLE II  
SUBJECTS' RATINGS OF THEIR FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS

Description	Number	Percent
<u>Source of discipline</u>		
Father	22	11.46
Father with help from mother	39	20.31
Father and mother equally	62	32.29
Mother with help from father	57	29.69
Mother	12	6.25
<u>Type of discipline</u>		
Permissive	49	25.00
Average	81	41.33
Restrictive	66	34.67
<u>Most influencing parent</u>		
Mother and father equally	134	68.37
Mother	47	23.98
Father	15	7.65
<u>Closeness with father</u>		
Above average	75	38.46
Average	94	48.21
Below average	26	13.33
<u>Closeness with mother</u>		
Above average	114	58.76
Average	74	38.14
Below average	6	3.09
<u>Ratings of warmth and love from mother</u>		
Much	172	89.58
Average	16	8.33
Little	4	2.08
<u>Ratings of warmth and love from father</u>		
Much	156	79.19
Average	35	17.77
Little	6	3.05

fathers had equal influence in determining the kind of person they are. More students (48.21%) reported being average in closeness to their parents and above average (58.76%) in closeness to their mothers. A majority of the sample reported that they had received much love and warmth from their mothers (89.58%) and fathers (79.19%) rather than an average amount or little love and warmth.

#### Item Analysis of Tennessee Self Concept Scale

A chi-square test was used to determine which items on the Tennessee Self Concept Scale were discriminating between high and low self-concepts, that is, which items elicited significantly different responses from those subjects whose total scores fell in the lower quartile from those whose total scores fell in the upper quartile. Of the 100 items initially included on the Tennessee Self Concept Scale 68 of the items were found to be significantly discriminating at the .05 level or beyond. The items which did not significantly discriminate at the .05 level were then eliminated from the self-concept score for analysis of the data. The results of the item analysis are presented in Table III.

TABLE III  
ITEM ANALYSIS OF SELF-CONCEPT SCORE  
UTILIZING CHI SQUARE

Item	df	$\chi^2$	p
1. I have a healthy body.	2	9.79	.01
2. I like to look nice and neat all the time.	4	19.08	.001
3. I am an attractive person.	3	16.05	.001
4. I am full of aches and pains.	3	28.29	.001
5. I consider myself a sloppy person.	4	23.54	.001
6. I am a sick person.	5	28.94	.001
7. I am neither too fat nor too thin.	3	26.32	.001
8. I am neither too tall nor too short.	4	23.42	.001
9. I like my looks just the way they are.	3	25.47	.001
10. I don't feel as well as I should.	3	21.25	.001
11. I would like to change some parts of my body.	3	22.58	.001
12. I should have more sex appeal.	5	31.69	.001
13. I take good care of myself physically.	3	21.82	.001
14. I feel good most of the time.	5	28.98	.001
15. I try to be careful about my appearance.	5	6.42	n.s.
16. I do poorly in sports and games.	5	9.69	n.s.
17. I often act like I am "all thumbs."	5	24.13	.001
18. I am a poor sleeper.	4	11.01	.05
19. I am a decent sort of person.	5	17.24	.01
20. I am a religious person.	5	22.25	.001
21. I am an honest person.	4	14.73	.001
22. I am a moral failure.	5	13.14	.05

TABLE III (Continued)

Item	df	$\chi^2$	p
23. I am a bad person.	5	39.62	.001
24. I am a morally weak person.	5	20.05	.001
25. I am satisfied with my moral behavior.	4	17.21	.01
26. I am as religious as I want to be.	4	27.48	.001
27. I am satisfied with my relationship to God.	4	17.00	.01
28. I wish I could be more trustworthy.	3	16.04	.001
29. I ought to go to church more.	5	35.11	.001
30. I shouldn't tell so many lies.	5	22.70	.001
31. I am true to my religion in my everyday life.	4	12.75	.01
32. I do what is right most of the time.	4	12.66	.01
33. I try to change when I know I'm doing things that are wrong.	4	5.38	n.s.
34. I sometimes use unfair means to get ahead.	5	5.46	n.s.
35. I sometimes do very bad things.	4	29.15	.001
36. I have trouble doing the things that are right.	4	29.19	.001
37. I am a cheerful person.	5	16.17	.01
38. I have a lot of self-control.	4	13.39	.01
39. I am a calm and easy going person.	5	6.23	n.s.
40. I am a hateful person.	5	10.88	.05
41. I am a nobody.	4	17.39	.01
42. I am losing my mind.	4	11.81	.05
43. I am satisfied to be just what I am.	5	8.08	n.s.

TABLE III (Continued)

Item	df	$\chi^2$	p
44. I am as smart as I want to be.	4	18.27	.001
45. I am just as nice as I should be.	5	11.29	.05
46. I am not the person I would like to be.	4	27.00	.001
47. I despise myself.	5	16.90	.01
48. I wish I didn't give up as easily as I do.	5	7.63	n.s.
49. I can always take care of myself in any situation.	5	12.54	.05
50. I solve my problems quite easily.	5	12.86	.05
51. I take the blame for things without getting mad.	3	14.44	.01
52. I change my mind a lot.	5	14.34	.01
53. I do things without thinking about them first.	4	21.53	.001
54. I try to run away from my problems.	4	6.35	n.s.
55. I have a family that would always help me in any kind of trouble.	4	13.04	.01
56. I am an important person to my friends and family.	5	10.10	n.s.
57. I am a member of a happy family.	5	20.94	.001
58. I am not loved by my family.	4	18.87	n.s.
59. My friends have no confidence in me.	3	11.78	.01
60. I feel that my family doesn't trust me.	4	19.21	.001
61. I am satisfied with my family relationships.	4	2.98	n.s.
62. I treat my parents as well as I should.	4	3.27	n.s.
63. I understand my family as well as I should.	5	29.50	.001

TABLE III (Continued)

Item	df	$\chi^2$	p
64. I am too sensitive to things my family say.	5	8.04	n.s.
65. I should trust my family more.	4	7.52	n.s.
66. I should love my family more.	4	8.05	n.s.
67. I try to play fair with my friends and family.	4	2.79	n.s.
68. I do my share of work at home.	4	8.08	n.s.
69. I take a real interest in my family.	4	7.75	n.s.
70. I quarrel with my family.	4	15.44	.01
71. I give in to my parents.	3	17.25	.001
72. I do not act like my family thinks I should.	4	2.46	n.s.
73. I am a friendly person.	4	7.05	n.s.
74. I am popular with women.	5	11.70	.05
75. I am popular with men.	5	11.67	.05
76. I am mad at the whole world.	2	12.34	.01
77. I am not interested in what other people do.	3	26.26	.001
78. I am hard to be friendly with.	4	8.76	n.s.
79. I am as sociable as I want to be.	4	6.77	n.s.
80. I am satisfied with the way I treat other people.	5	16.19	.01
81. I try to please others, but I don't overdo it.	4	21.40	.001
82. I should be more polite to others.	5	8.73	n.s.
83. I am no good at all from a social standpoint.	4	6.74	n.s.

TABLE III (Continued)

Item	df	$\chi^2$	p
84. I ought to get along better with other people.	4	7.17	n.s.
85. I try to understand the other fellow's point of view.	5	5.62	n.s.
86. I see good points in all the people I meet.	4	28.14	.001
87. I get along well with other people.	4	2.71	.001
88. I do not feel at ease with other people.	4	6.64	n.s.
89. I do not forgive others easily.	4	25.35	.001
90. I find it hard to talk to strangers.	4	7.96	n.s.
91. I do not always tell the truth.	4	7.34	n.s.
92. Once in a while I think of things too bad to talk about.	4	20.66	.001
93. I get angry sometimes.	3	9.22	.05
94. Sometimes, when I am not feeling well, I am cross.	4	4.31	n.s.
95. I do not like everyone I know.	4	28.30	.001
96. I gossip a little at times.	4	10.74	.05
97. Once in a while, I laugh at a dirty joke.	5	6.34	n.s.
98. At times I feel like swearing.	4	11.22	.05
99. I would rather win than lose in a game.	5	1.92	n.s.
100. Once in a while I put off until tomorrow what I ought to do today.	4	15.31	.01



### Percentages for Vocational Information

The subjects responded to questions concerning their vocational ambitions on the Background Information Questionnaire. The largest proportion (50.00%) had moderate rather than high or low vocational ambitions. The majority (59.49%) had chosen occupations that required more than one year of graduate study. The majority (52.06%) of subjects hoped to attain four years of college while 28.87% hoped to attain more than one year of graduate study. The largest percentage of the sample (89.18%) indicated their vocation was person oriented rather than non-person oriented, their fathers' occupation was person oriented (69.90%), and that their mothers' occupation was person oriented (88.14%). The results of the vocational questions are listed in Table IV.

### Examination of Hypotheses and

#### Discussion of Results

The Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance was used to examine mother preference scores and father preference scores in terms of: (1) closeness to father, (2) closeness to mother, (3) educational level of father, (4) educational level of mother, (5) type of discipline, (6) love from mother, (7) love from father, and (8) educational goals of subject, controlling for sex in all cases. The Kruskal-Wallis analysis of variance was also used to examine mother preference score and father preference score derived from the Parental Preference Test (Heide, 1974) in terms of age, ordinal position, and socio-economic status without controlling for sex. Vocational ambition was also

TABLE IV  
SUBJECTS' RATINGS OF VOCATIONAL INFORMATION

Description	Number	Percent
<u>Vocational ambitions</u>		
High	30	15.31
Moderate	98	50.00
Low moderate	65	33.16
Low	3	1.53
<u>Education required</u>		
Less than 4 years	26	13.33
Four years college	116	59.59
One year graduate work	13	6.67
More than 1 year graduate work	40	20.51
<u>Education desired</u>		
Less than 4 years	17	8.76
Four years college	101	52.06
One year graduate work	20	10.31
More than 1 year graduate work	56	28.87
<u>Subjects' occupation</u>		
Person oriented	173	89.18
Non-person oriented	16	8.25
Undecided	5	2.58
<u>Fathers' occupation</u>		
Person oriented	137	69.90
Non-person oriented	59	30.10
<u>Mothers' occupation</u>		
Person oriented	171	88.14
Non-person oriented	23	11.86

compared with parental preference by the Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance.

The variables which were found to reflect statistically significant differences were then subjected to a Mann-Whitney U test to determine those particular relationships between categories within the variables which accounted for the significance revealed by the Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance.

The Mann-Whitney U test was used to compare mother preference scores and father preference scores with: (1) person or non-person orientation of subject's vocational choice, (2) person or non-person orientation of father's occupation, (3) person or non-person orientation of mother's occupation, (4) self-concept scores, (5) leadership scores, and (6) sex.

Hypothesis A. There is no significant difference in father preference scores of the subjects classified according to age.

When the Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance was used to examine this hypothesis, an H score of 9.99 indicated a significant difference at the .01 level, as shown in Table V.

A Mann-Whitney U test indicated that there was a significant difference between father preference scores classified according to age. The 21 to 24 age group had significantly higher father preference scores than did the 20 or under age group ( $U = 2.46, p = .01$ ). Significantly higher father preference scores were also obtained by the 25 and over age group when compared to the 20 or under age group ( $U = 2.19, p = .05$ ).

TABLE V  
 KRUSKAL-WALLIS ANALYSIS OF PARENTAL PREFERENCE  
 SCORES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO SELECTED  
 BACKGROUND VARIABLES

Background Variable	Parental Preference Scores					
	Father Preference			Mother Preference		
	df	H	p	df	H	p
Age	2	9.99	.01	2	9.82	.01
Ordinal position	4	6.89	n.s.	4	6.75	n.s.
Socio-economic status	3	5.59	n.s.	3	5.25	n.s.

Hypothesis B. There is no significant difference in mother preference scores of the subjects classified according to age.

A Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance was used to examine this hypothesis. An H score of 9.82 yielded a significant difference at the .01 level.

Significant differences were also observed in the mother preference scores. The 20 or under age group had significantly higher scores than the 21 to 24 age group ( $U = 2.44, p = .01$ ) and the 25 or over age group ( $U = 2.16, p = .05$ ).

Ordinal position and socio-economic status were not found to be significantly related to mother preference scores or father preference scores (Table V). This could have been due to the homogeneity of the sample with respect to these variables (Table I).

The background variables which were not found to be significantly related to the mother preference scores or the father preference scores included:

1. Educational level of mother
2. Type of discipline received
3. Love and warmth from mother
4. Educational goals of subject.

Hypothesis C. There is no significant difference in father preference scores classified according to closeness to father for males or females.

The Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance yielded an H score of 28.87 indicating a significant difference at the .001 level for father preference scores of females (Table VI).

When the Mann-Whitney U test was utilized, females who rated closeness to father above average had significantly higher father preference scores than those who rated closeness to father average ( $U = 3.94, p = .001$ ), or below average ( $U = 4.46, p = .001$ ). Those subjects who rated closeness to father average had significantly higher father preference scores than those who rated closeness to father below average ( $U = 2.84, p = .01$ ).

Hypothesis D. There is no significant difference in mother preference scores classified according to closeness to father for males or females.

Using the Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance, an H score of 28.71 was obtained for mother preference scores of females, indicating a significant difference at the .001 level.

TABLE VI

KRUSKAL-WALLIS ANALYSIS OF PARENTAL PREFERENCE SCORES  
CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO SELECTED BACKGROUND  
VARIABLES, CONTROLLED FOR SEX

Background Variable	Parental Preference Scores											
	<u>Father Preference</u>			<u>Father Preference</u>			<u>Mother Preference</u>			<u>Mother Preference</u>		
	df	<u>Males</u> H	p	df	<u>Females</u> H	p	df	<u>Males</u> H	p	df	<u>Females</u> H	p
Closeness to father	2	4.75	n.s.	2	28.87	.001	2	3.71	n.s.	2	28.71	.001
Closeness to mother	2	5.10	n.s.	2	3.19	n.s.	2	6.44	.05	2	3.09	n.s.
Educational level of father	4	4.90	n.s.	4	10.56	.05	4	5.44	n.s.	4	9.75	.05
Educational level of mother	4	6.16	n.s.	4	5.18	n.s.	4	6.51	n.s.	4	4.84	n.s.
Type of discipline	4	1.85	n.s.	4	4.32	n.s.	4	1.52	n.s.	4	4.79	n.s.
Love from mother	1	0.12	n.s.	2	0.14	n.s.	1	0.19	n.s.	2	0.14	n.s.
Love from father	1	1.17	n.s.	2	18.98	.001	1	1.10	n.s.	2	18.18	.001
Vocational ambition	3	5.96	n.s.	3	7.90	.05	3	6.55	n.s.	3	7.07	n.s.
Educational goals of subject	3	2.14	n.s.	3	1.10	n.s.	3	2.56	n.s.	3	1.34	n.s.

Significant differences were observed between mother preference scores for females when the Mann-Whitney U test was utilized. Those subjects who rated closeness to father below average had significantly higher mother preference scores than those who rated closeness to father average ( $U = 2.96$ ,  $p = .01$ ) or above average ( $U = 4.47$ ,  $p = .001$ ). Also, the females who rated closeness to father average had significantly higher mother preference scores than those females who rated closeness to father above average ( $U = 3.86$ ,  $p = .001$ ).

Neither mother preference scores nor father preference scores were related to responses of males when classified according to closeness to father. The Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance was utilized in this analysis.

Hypothesis E. There is no significant difference in mother preference scores classified according to closeness to mother for males or females.

Using the Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance, an H score of 6.44 was obtained for mother preference scores of males indicating a significant difference at the .05 level.

When the Mann-Whitney U test was utilized, males who rated closeness to mother above average had significantly higher mother preference scores than those who rated closeness with mother average ( $U = 2.52$ ,  $p = .01$ ) or below average ( $U = 5.00$ ,  $p = .001$ ).

Closeness to mother was not significantly related to mother preference scores for males, father preference scores for males, or father preference scores for females.

Hypothesis F. There is no significant difference in father preference scores classified according to the educational level of father for males or females.

As shown in Table VI, an H score of 10.56 for father preference scores of females was obtained when the Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance was used to examine differences in father preference scores for males and females, according to the educational level of fathers. The difference was significant at the .05 level.

When the Mann-Whitney U test was utilized, females whose fathers had over four years of college had significantly higher father preference scores than females whose fathers had less than high school educations (U = 3.04, p = .01), high school educations (U = 2.25, p = .05), one to three years of college (U = 2.07, p = .05) and four years of college (U = 2.30, p = .05).

Hypothesis G. There is no significant difference in mother preference scores classified according to the educational level of father for males or females.

The Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance yielded an H score of 9.75 for females, indicating a significant difference at the .05 level for mother preference scores classified according to the educational level of fathers.

Females whose fathers had over four years of college had significantly lower mother preference scores than females whose fathers had less than high school educations (U = 2.90, p = .01), high school educations (U = 2.22, p = .05), one to three years of college (U =



1.95,  $p = .05$ ), and four years of college ( $U = 2.31$ ,  $p = .05$ ).

Neither mother preference scores nor father preference scores were found to be significantly related to fathers' level of education for the males responding.

Hypothesis H. There is no significant difference in father preference scores classified according to love and warmth from father for males or females.

In order to determine if there was a significant relationship between father preference scores for females, according to love from father, a Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance was applied. An H score of 18.98 indicated a significant difference at the .001 level.

When the Mann-Whitney U test was utilized to determine the relationships which accounted for the significance, it was determined that females who rated love of father much had significantly higher father preference scores than those who rated love of father average ( $U = 3.67$ ,  $p = .001$ ) or little ( $U = 2.67$ ,  $p = .01$ ).

Hypothesis I. There is no significant difference in mother preference scores classified according to love and warmth from father for males or females.

Using the Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance, an H score of 18.18 was obtained for mother preference scores of females. This indicated a significant difference at the .001 level.

When the Mann-Whitney U test was utilized, females who rated love from father little had significantly higher mother preference scores than those who rated love from father much ( $U = 2.68$ ,  $p = .01$ ) or

average ( $U = 3.50, p = .001$ ).

Neither father preference scores nor mother preference scores indicated a significant relationship with love from father for males. A Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance was utilized for these analyses.

Hypothesis J. There is no significant difference in father preference scores compared to vocational ambitions for males or females.

Using the Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance to examine this hypothesis, an H score of 7.90 resulted for females. It is significant to the .05 level.

When a Mann-Whitney U test was applied to determine the particular relationships between categories responsible for the significant difference, it was determined that females with low vocational ambitions had higher father preference scores than females who had high vocational ambitions ( $U = 5.00, p = .001$ ), moderate vocational ambitions ( $U = 1.95, p = .05$ ) or low moderate vocational ambitions ( $U = 2.07, p = .05$ ).

Father preference scores for males, mother preference scores for females, nor mother preference scores for males were significantly related to vocational ambitions. The Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance was utilized for these analyses.

The following variables were not found to be significantly related to mother preference scores or father preference scores utilizing the Mann-Whitney U test:

1. Person or non-person orientation of subject's mother's vocation.
2. Person or non-person orientation of subject's proposed

vocation.

3. Leadership scores.
4. Self-concept scores.

Hypothesis K. There is no significant difference in father preference scores classified according to person or non-person orientation of father's vocation for males or females.

A Z score of 2.73 was obtained by the Mann-Whitney U test for father preference scores of females. A significant difference at the .01 level was observed. Females whose fathers have non-person oriented vocations have higher father preference scores than females whose fathers have person oriented vocations.

Hypothesis L. There is no significant difference in mother preference scores classified according to person or non-person orientation of the father's vocation for males or females.

The Mann-Whitney U test indicated a score of 2.84 for mother preference scores of females. A significant difference at the .01 level was observed. Females whose fathers have non-person oriented vocations have higher mother preference scores than females whose fathers have person-oriented vocations.

There was no significant difference in mother preference scores or father preference scores for males when compared to person or non-person orientation of the father's vocation. The Mann-Whitney U test was utilized for these analyses, as summarized in Table VII.

TABLE VII  
 MANN-WHITNEY U TEST OF PARENTAL PREFERENCE SCORES  
 CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO PERSON OR NON-PERSON  
 ORIENTATION OF FATHERS' VOCATIONS

Description	Non-Person Number	Person Number	Z	p
<u>Father preference</u>				
Males	12	31	0.48	n.s.
Females	46	106	2.73	.01
<u>Mother preference</u>				
Males	12	31	1.13	n.s.
Females	46	106	2.84	.01

Hypothesis M. There is no significant difference in father preference scores classified according to sex of subject.

The Mann-Whitney U test was utilized for this analysis. A Z score of 5.41 was obtained indicating a significant difference at the .001 level. Males have higher father preference scores than females.

Hypothesis N. There is no significant difference in mother preference scores classified according to sex of subjects.

The Mann-Whitney U test yielded a Z score of 5.43 indicating a significant difference at the .001 level. Males also have higher mother preference scores than females (see Table VIII).

TABLE VIII

MANN-WHITNEY U TEST OF PARENTAL PREFERENCE  
SCORES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO SEX

Description	Number	Z	p
<u>Father preference</u>			
Males	43	5.41	.001
Females	153		
<u>Mother preference</u>			
Males	43	5.43	.001
Females	153		

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY

The purpose of this research was to examine the relationship between parental preference and vocational choice, self-concept and leadership qualities. The study included 197 students enrolled in the marriage class at Oklahoma State University for the spring, 1974 semester.

A questionnaire was developed to obtain information concerning background information, leadership qualities and vocational ambitions. The Tennessee Self Concept Scale (Fitts, 1964) was used to determine self-concept and the Parental Preference Test (Herde, 1974) yielded a measure of mother preference and father preference for each respondent.

Frequencies and percentages were obtained for all information. The Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance and the Mann-Whitney U Test were utilized in examining the hypotheses.

Parental preference of the father or the mother was found to be significantly related to:

1. Age. The 21 to 24 age group had significantly higher father preference scores than did the 20 or under age group. The 25 or over age group had significantly higher father preference scores than did the 20 or under age group.

The 20 or under age group had significantly higher mother preference scores than did the 21 to 24 age group or the 25 or over age group.

2. Closeness of father. Females who related closeness to father above average had significantly higher father preference scores than females who rated closeness to father average or below average.

Females who rated closeness to father below average had significantly higher mother preference scores than those who rated closeness to father average or above average.

3. Closeness of mother. Males who rated closeness of mother above average had significantly higher mother preference scores than those who rated closeness of mother average or below average.

4. Educational level of father. Females whose fathers had over four years of college had significantly higher father preference scores than females whose fathers had less than high school educations, high school educations, one to three years of college and four years of college.

Females whose fathers had over four years of college had significantly lower mother preference scores than females whose fathers had less than high school educations, one to three years of college, and four years of college.

5. Love from father. Females who rated love from father much had significantly higher father preference scores than those who rated love from father average or little.

Females who rated love from father little had significantly higher mother preference scores than those who rated love from father much or average.

6. Vocational ambition. Females with low vocational ambitions had significantly higher father preference scores than those who had vocational ambition, moderate vocational ambitions or low moderate

vocational ambitions.

7. Person or non-person orientation of father's vocation.

Females whose fathers have non-person oriented vocations have higher father preference scores than females whose fathers have person oriented vocations.

Females whose fathers have non-person oriented vocations have higher mother preference scores than females whose fathers have person oriented vocations.

8. Sex of the subject. Males have higher father preference scores than females. Males have higher mother preference scores than females.

The subjects who participated in this study had a very positive regard for their families. The majority felt an above average or average closeness to both parents and perceived much love and warmth from both parents. Greenstein (1966) indicates that strong father identification is fostered by warmth. This was again upheld in the present study for father-daughter relationships. It is possible also that as young people mature, they perceive their relationships with their parents to be closer and warmer. The much publicized discord of the times was not reflected in this sample.

Dynes, Clarke and Dinitz (1956) indicated that individuals with high occupational aspirations are more likely to have experienced unsatisfactory interpersonal relations with parents than were individuals who had lower levels of aspirations. This research affirms the research of Rushing (1964) which indicated that the unsatisfactory relationship-aspiration hypothesis was supported but restricted to father-daughter relationships.



It is hypothesized that parents have higher expectations for eldest children. The fact that the greatest proportion of this sample were not first born children is a possible explanation for the moderate rather than high or low vocational goals. Since the family relationships appear to be sound, this sample apparently does not feel the need to compensate for poor family relationships with high vocational ambitions.

The educational level of the parents of the subjects was, on the average, much lower than that of the subjects themselves. This again appears to be a reflection of the times.

Implications for further research include further work in trying to develop a reliable parental preference instrument. As had been stated earlier, there is a continuing need for more research concerning father-child relationships.

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APPENDIX A  
INFORMATION SHEET



11. Which of the following indicates the degree of closeness of your relationship with your mother during childhood?
- 1. Above average
  - 2. Average
  - 3. Below average
12. Which parent had the greatest influence in determining the kind of person you are?
- 1. Mother and father equally
  - 2. Mother
  - 3. Father
13. In my family, the discipline I received was mainly from:
- 1. My father
  - 2. My father with some help from my mother
  - 3. Equally my father and my mother
  - 4. My mother with some help from my father
  - 5. My mother
14. Check the one which most nearly describes the type of discipline you received from your parents.
- 1. Very permissive
  - 2. Permissive
  - 3. Average
  - 4. Strict
  - 5. Very Strict
15. If your father or mother have been absent from the home for prolonged periods (over a year) indicate which one \_\_\_\_\_, the length of absence \_\_\_\_\_, and your age at the time of absence: \_\_\_\_\_ (If both, indicate separately.)
16. How would you rate the love and warmth your mother has felt for you?
- 1. Much
  - 2. Average
  - 3. Little
17. How would you rate the love and warmth your father has felt for you?
- 1. Much
  - 2. Average
  - 3. Little
18. Describe your vocational ambitions.
19. How much education is required?
- 1. Less than 4 years college
  - 2. 4 years college
  - 3. 1 year graduate work
  - 4. More than one year graduate work

20. How much education do you hope to attain?
- 1. Less than 4 years college
  - 2. 4 years college
  - 3. 1 year graduate work
  - 4. More than one year graduate work
21. What vocational advancement do you hope to attain in 10-12 years?
22. Is your vocational ambition person oriented or non-person oriented?
23. Is your father's vocation person oriented or non-person oriented?
24. Is your mother's vocation person oriented or non-person oriented?

APPENDIX B

LEADERSHIP AND ACTIVITY INVENTORY

Oklahoma State University  
Division of Home Economics

Department of Family Relations  
and Child Development-

LEADERSHIP AND ACTIVITY INVENTORY

ACTIVITY	PARTICIPATE			HOLD OFFICE
	3* DAILY	2 WEEKLY	1 MONTHLY	4 Name Your Duty
1. Student Association	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. Class Officer	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. Departmental Organiza- tions	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. Honor Society	_____	_____	_____	_____
5. Sports	_____	_____	_____	_____
6. Band	_____	_____	_____	_____
7. Church groups	_____	_____	_____	_____
8. Choral group	_____	_____	_____	_____
9. Dramatics	_____	_____	_____	_____
10. Living group	_____	_____	_____	_____
11. Student Senate	_____	_____	_____	_____
12. Student Newspaper	_____	_____	_____	_____
13. Intermurals	_____	_____	_____	_____
14. Political Organizations	_____	_____	_____	_____
15. Others (please list)	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____				committee
_____				member = 2
_____				

\*The numbers indicate the weighting scale used to determine the leadership score.

2. If you have some special talent that you use in performing for pay or in talent programs, explain. \_\_\_\_\_

3. Do you have a job for which you are paid? Yes \_\_\_ No \_\_\_  
 If so, what do you do? \_\_\_\_\_  
 For whom do you work? \_\_\_\_\_

4. How are you paying for your college education?

Family help _____	Work _____ 3
Scholarship _____ 2	Savings _____
Loan _____ 1	

5. Did you ever attend a nursery school? Yes \_\_\_ No \_\_\_  
 A kindergarten Yes \_\_\_ No \_\_\_  
 How many different elementary schools did you attend? \_\_\_\_\_  
 How many different schools did you attend from the seventh grade to twelfth grade? \_\_\_\_\_

6. What did you do with your time in high school after school until dark? Check each one.

<u>Activity</u>	2 <u>Usually</u>	1 <u>Seldom</u>	<u>Never</u>
*Work at home	_____	_____	_____
*Work away from home	_____	_____	_____
Loaf	_____	_____	_____
*Read	_____	_____	_____
*Do Homework	_____	_____	_____
Watch T. V.	_____	_____	_____
Listen to radio, records	_____	_____	_____
Ride around in car	_____	_____	_____
*Participate in group sport	_____	_____	_____
Fish	_____	_____	_____
Other	_____	_____	_____
If other, explain			

7. Do you believe that you will finish college? Yes \_\_\_ No \_\_\_

Explain. \_\_\_\_\_

8. Do you take special care to see that your class work is neat when handed in? Yes 1 No \_\_\_\_\_

9. Do you find the further you progress in school, you like most subjects less? Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No 1

Explain. \_\_\_\_\_



10. When you get a grade with which you are dissatisfied, how hard do you work to improve?

Not at all \_\_\_\_\_

A little \_\_\_\_\_ 1

Fairly hard \_\_\_\_\_ 2

Very hard \_\_\_\_\_ 3

11. How often do you read a book just for fun?

Never \_\_\_\_\_

Once a month \_\_\_\_\_

Once a year \_\_\_\_\_

Once a week \_\_\_\_\_

12. Do you think anyone who really wants to go to college can go?

Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_

Explain \_\_\_\_\_

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APPENDIX C

PARENTAL PREFERENCE TEST

## PARENTAL PREFERENCE TEST

1. You are going on a picnic. You would prefer to go with your (M) (F).
2. You have just read a book. You prefer to discuss it with your (M) (F).
3. You have won a trip to Europe. The rules say that you may take only one parent. You will take your (M) (F).
4. You would rather go bicycle riding with your (M) (F).
5. You would prefer to go to a circus with your (M) (F).
6. You have just received a speeding ticket and must borrow money to pay it. You would prefer to borrow this money from your (M) (F).
7. You have the money to pay the speeding ticket, but you would tell your (M) (F) about it first.
8. You have been accused of cheating and the authorities say that one parent must be informed. You will tell your (M) (F).
9. You would prefer to work in the garden with your (M) (F).
10. You are getting married and have only one dime with which to call your (M) (F).
11. You would prefer to clean the basement with your (M) (F).
12. You would prefer to go to a movie with your (M) (F).
13. As a result of premarital intercourse, a pregnancy has occurred. You would first tell your (M) (F).
14. You have had an argument with a friend. You would prefer to have your (M) (F) help settle this.
15. You would prefer to play cards with your (M) (F) as your partner.
16. You have one ticket for graduation. You would ask your (M) (F) to attend.
17. You have just learned that you have a very serious illness. You would want your (M) (F) to know first.
18. You prefer to attend a funeral of a family friend with your (M) (F).

19. You have some new clothes and you are anxious to see if your (M) (F) approves of your purchase.
20. You prefer to cook at a cookout with your (M) (F).
21. Your friend has been killed in an accident and you feel a need to talk about it. You would prefer to talk with your (M) (F).
22. You are choosing a college and you prefer to ask your (M) (F) for help in making your decision.
23. You are going on your first airplane ride and you are quite frightened. You prefer to have your (M) (F) with you.
24. Your parents are separated this Christmas. You would rather spend Christmas with your (M) (F).
25. You have just been arrested for possession of marijuana. You prefer to call your (M) (F) first.
26. You have been elected to a club office. You would want your (M) (F) to know first.
27. You have flunked out of school. You prefer to explain this to your (M) (F).
28. You have a difficult school assignment. You would go to your (M) (F) for help.
29. You are changing your religion from that of your parents. You will tell (M) (F) first.
30. You can't decide which job to take. You prefer to discuss this with your (M) (F).
31. You have just had the most memorable moment of your life occur. You prefer to share it with your (M) (F).
32. You would prefer to go swimming with your (M) (F) .
33. Your parents are getting a divorce. You prefer to live with your (M) (F).
34. You would rather go skiing with your (M) (F).
35. You are going on a historical tour. You prefer to go with your (M) (F).
36. You wish that your parent meet with your favorite instructor. You would rather this parent be your (M) (F).
37. You prefer to plan a budget with your (M) (F).

38. You would prefer to dine in an expensive restaurant with your  
(M) (F).
39. You would prefer to work on a hobby with your (M) (F).
40. You would prefer to design a house with your (M) (F).
41. You are learning to drive a car. You prefer that your (M) (F)  
teach you.
42. You have a question about sex. You would go to your (M) (F)  
for an answer.
43. You would prefer to go for a walk in the country with your  
(M) (F).
44. You would rather attend a political debate with your (M) (F).
45. You have planned a surprise for a family member. You prefer to  
share this secret with your (M) (F).
46. You have just heard a joke. You would rather tell your (M) (F).
47. You have a splinter in your toe that you can't reach. You would  
rather ask your (M) (F) to remove it.
48. You prefer that your (M) (F) help you choose a pet.
49. You would prefer to go out for a coke or coffee with your (M) (F).
50. You would prefer to go shopping with your (M) (F).

Please check one.

Compared with most men, your father is

\_\_\_\_\_ very masculine  
 \_\_\_\_\_ masculine  
 \_\_\_\_\_ not very masculine

Compared with most women, your mother is

\_\_\_\_\_ very feminine  
 \_\_\_\_\_ feminine  
 \_\_\_\_\_ not very feminine

VITA

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