

AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

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Title: Fathers' Perceptions of Their Role and Interest in

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The major purposes of this study were to describe paternal attitudes toward fathering and parent education and to then explore the relationships among these attitudes and interests. Specifically, the study attempted to relate traditional/developmental attitudes of fathers to: (1) expressed interests in knowing more about child rearing; (2) willingness to participate in learning opportunities and (3) preferred methods of study. The study also investigated the relationships among selected demographic data and the variables represented in the major purpose.

Subjects for the study were 57 fathers, all of whom had at least one child enrolled in one of three preschool programs located in Corvallis, Oregon. Data from these subjects consisted of responses to a series of three questionnaires: (1) Attitudes Toward Fathering Scale (Bigner, 1977); (2) Child Rearing Learning Interest Scale (Hawkins, 1974) and (3) a personal data questionnaire.

Descriptive analyses of paternal attitudes toward fathering and parent education revealed that the fathers were highly developmental in their attitudes toward their role, expressed high interest in wanting to learn more about child rearing and willingness to participate in specific learning experiences, and had particular preferences for methods of study. Fathers in this study not only expressed a high degree of interest in wanting to learn more about child rearing and had preferences for particular methods of study, but they also expressed varying degrees of interest and a variety of preferred methods for various child rearing areas. These results are essentially in agreement with those of earlier studies.

In order to describe more fully the relationship between attitudes toward fathering and interest in parent education correlation coefficients were established between traditional/developmental attitudes, learning interest and willingness to participate. The only significant relationship to appear was that between interest and willingness to participate ($r = .40$; $p \leq .001$). Those fathers reporting a high degree of interest tended also to report being very willing to participate in parent education activities. Investigation of the possible relationships existing between selected demographic variables and attitudes toward fathering, interest in parent education and willingness to participate in parent education also revealed only one significant relationship (traditional/developmental attitudes with race). This finding is somewhat suspect because of the high degree of homogeneity of the sample.

In order to explore in more detail the relationship between traditional/developmental attitudes toward fathering and interest in parent education three null hypotheses were developed. It was hypothesized that traditional/developmental attitudes were not related to:

- (1) degree of interest in wanting to know more about child rearing;
- (2) willingness to participate in learning experiences and (3) preferences for particular methods of study. In each case, none of the statistical results showed significance at the .05 level. On this basis none of the null hypotheses could be rejected. Varying degrees of a traditional/developmental orientation toward the role of the father appears to make little difference in attitudes toward parent education.

Implications for parent educators were discussed, as were limitations of the study and suggestions for further research.

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Interest in Parent Education

by

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FATHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR ROLE AND INTEREST IN PARENT EDUCATION

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In our society, indeed in all societies (Rosaldo, 1974), the parent most responsible for the care of young children has been the mother. She has always nurtured her children and exercised discipline over them. She has always involved herself deeply in their socialization, in seeing to it that they grow up more or less adjusted to the requirements of society. However, with the increased trend for the contemporary mother to leave the domestic scene for responsibilities in the work-a-day world (Van Dueson and Sheldon, 1976), more and more fathers and mothers are beginning to rethink societal concepts as well as their own feelings about themselves and their relationships with their families and children. These fathers, as men and as parents, are reaching out for more human relationships, wanting to relate to other men, women and children with warmth, sensitivity, emotions and honesty. Relationships between men and young children, long ignored and abused are being rediscovered today, "often with a richness born of exile, and by men who are coming home to themselves and to their loved ones" (Fein, 1974). This current trend towards the equality of the sexes is rapidly doing away with the external view of authority and aloofness that used to dominate the fathering role in the past. With these changes the relationships between husbands and wives, indeed all men and women, are changing from patriarchal to egalitarian (Young and Willmot, 1973). Where it was once the husband who went out to work

and the wife who stayed at home, both are now more likely to work and both are free to pursue leisure and duties at home.

Because of such changes, terms such as "fathering, fatherhood, and parenting" have emerged alongside "mothering" in the literature of child development and the behavioral sciences. Increasingly both laymen and academicians are showing an interest in the father and his role. This interest has led to much research on the father in several areas of family and child development. Most notable are the studies on attachment (Lamb, 1976), father absence (Herzog and Sudia, 1973), sex role development (Lynn, 1974), moral development (Hoffman, 1970), intellectual development (Jordan, et al., 1975). There have been few studies, however, which have looked at the attitudes of fathers with young children concerning their role as a parent; moreover, there have been almost no studies devoted to analyzing the attitudes fathers hold toward parent education.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to explore the relationships among attitudes of fathers toward their role and their interest in parent education. More specifically, the study attempted to relate attitudes of fathers in terms of self-reported agreement with traditional or developmental child rearing practices to (1) their expressed interest in knowing more about child rearing, (2) their willingness to participate in specific learning opportunities and (3) their preference for particular teaching methods generally utilized in parent education efforts.

Three hypotheses were generated to investigate these relationships:

- I. Traditional/Developmental attitudes of fathers are not related to degree of interest in obtaining more knowledge of child rearing.
- II. Traditional/Developmental attitudes of fathers are not related to willingness to participate in specific learning opportunities.
- III. Traditional/Developmental attitudes of fathers are not related to preferences for particular types of learning activities.

A second related purpose was to provide broadly based descriptive analyses involving the relationships of demographic data to the variables represented in the questionnaires, as well as the interrelationships among questionnaire responses.

Definition of Terms

Attitudes Toward Father Role:

Traditional and developmental attitudes toward the role of the father were defined by summed responses to the 36 Likert-type scale items on Bigner's (1977) Attitude Toward Fathering Scale.

Interest in Parent Education:

Interest in parent education was defined by responses to a three part questionnaire dealing with (1) interest in wanting to learn more about child rearing, (2) willingness to participate in specific learning opportunities and (3) preferred methods of study. In each of these three areas the responses were directed toward 19 child rearing areas

which had been selected on the basis of appearing in the literature.

1. Degree of interest in obtaining more knowledge was measured by responses along a four-point continuum from "not interested" to "very interested."
2. Willingness to participate was measured by a simple indication of "yes" or "no" across all 19 child rearing areas.
3. Preferred methods of study were determined by choosing one method from a list of nine for each of the 19 child rearing areas.

Justification

Research and theorizing on parental attitudes and child behavior has been a major concern of psychologists and social scientists for many years. Although labeled as "parental attitudes," the research has consistently neglected the father.

However, the increasing interest in the role of the father necessitates inquiry into fathers' own attitudes about themselves and their role. Two areas of consideration are especially relevant to this study--direct studies of fathers and the inclusion of fathers in parent education.

It is becoming increasingly clear, through the research efforts of those aware of and interested in fatherhood, that fathers do indeed play as crucial a role in child and family development, yet perhaps a qualitatively different role, as does the mother (Lamb, 1976). Continued study of the role of the father must, while breaking with tradition, go directly to the father for a deeper and greater understanding of the role he plays. Specifically, this research would entail direct interviews, observations and experimental studies of

fathers in both controlled and naturalistic environments. Research in these areas would offer several advantages. First, it will help provide a direction for further study and theorizing on the role of the father; second, it will provide a chance for the evaluation of social changes and their effects both individually and collectively on fathers; and third, it will also help identify crucial variables and relationships which might not have otherwise been noted or recognized.

Research studies of the attitudes of fathers, in a more practical sense, is needed to better understand and prepare fathers for their role in child care and socialization. When viewed in the context of a learning process, fathers as well as mothers must be culturally and intellectually prepared for the role they will play. Traditionally, the largest proportion of parents reached by parent education has been mothers (Croake and Glover, 1977). American males, on the other hand, have been slighted when it comes to learning and being encouraged to learn their parental roles (Brenton, 1966). However, factors such as the increased trend toward higher father involvement and the fact that more and more fathers are obtaining custody of their children in divorce proceedings, may necessitate the need for fathers to become involved in parent education programs. A better understanding of father attitudes with respect to interests, time factors, and other problems, will allow parent educators to plan their programs to meet the needs of fathers as well as those of mothers.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

For the purpose of clarity, this review has been divided into four sections. Section one will review role theory as it relates to the father's role. Section two will review the history and status of information on fathers and father attitudes. Section three will review the major studies of fathers' attitudes and section four will review fathers' involvement in parent education.

Theoretical Perspectives

The various and complicated components of a social system are commonly called roles. However, there is little agreement as to what in actuality constitutes a role. The most common definition of role is that it is "the set of prescriptions defining what the behavior of a position member should be" (Biddle and Thomas, 1966). Any position (teacher, parent, administrator, school board member, etc.) being occupied by an individual will have certain expectations and prescriptions of what is to be appropriate behavior. This behavior is influenced by the demands, rules, and behavior set forth by others, by the sanctions applied for non-conforming behavior, by the number of positions an individual holds and by the individual's own understanding of and reaction to all these factors (Biddle and Thomas, 1966).

Role theory from the structural view defines a role as those parts of a culture linked to a given status and therefore focuses its attention on norms, sanctions and positions (Nye, 1976). Within the

family there are several positions--husband, wife, father, mother--each associated with many roles. Nye (1976) has delineated eight family roles: provider, housekeeper, child care, child socialization, sexual, recreational, therapeutic and kinship. Traditionally, mothers have been assigned the housekeeper, child care and sexual roles; fathers have been assigned the provider role and both mothers and fathers the kinship and socialization roles. Recently, the norms, sanctions and enactment of these roles have been changing. For example, wives now have a tendency to share the provider role with their husbands and husbands a tendency to share the child care and socialization roles with their wives (Lynn, 1974; Owen, 1975; Gecas, 1976 and Bigner, 1977).

Combining the above definitions of role and position it appears to be quite clear that a man occupying the position of father will be beset with numerous cultural and personal role expectations and prescriptions as to what constitutes appropriate behavior. Any shift toward more involvement of fathers in the child care and child socialization roles would, therefore, necessarily include a change not only in the behaviors, attitudes, and values being prescribed by a culture, but (and perhaps more significantly) in the degree to which fathers adopt these changes for themselves.

A historical perspective of the role of the father including the research status of fathers and a review of studies on fathers' attitudes, does indeed suggest such a shift taking place both culturally and personally.

However, because research into the role of the father, especially father attitudes, has only recently been attempted with any seriousness it remains to be seen how these changes may affect the role performance of the father. One possible effect, however, and the major concern of this study, may be an increased tendency of fathers to seek assistance in understanding their role and improving their role performance.

History and Research Status of Fathers

History:

Historical information on fathers is at best limited. Early records on family life in general are few, and contain even fewer references to fathers.¹ Some information has been obtained through such sources as diaries, newspaper articles, letters, songs, etc. However, very often this information is biased and may or may not be representative. In spite of these deficiencies the historical roots of today's American father can be traced to the most powerful patriarchs known to man: the early Greeks, Hebrews and Romans (Lynn, 1974). In these early cultures one finds tremendous power vested in the father. This power, although derived from different sources, carried with it many similarities as well as differences.

For example, Greek, Hebrew and early Roman fathers held tremendous power over the lives of their wives, children, and slaves.

¹For recent historical accounts of family life see Aries, 1962; Demos, 1970; Hunt, 1970.

Typical of this power was his right to arrange marriages, sell or transfer family members to another family; and, even as in the early Hebrew family, religiously sacrifice children.

Records from the middle ages begin showing evidence of a declining patriarchal power structure. The fathers of the Anglo-Saxons and Germanic tribes were less powerful than the fathers mentioned above; although, when compared to present day standards the Anglo-Saxon father still held enormous power. However, this power had clear limitations to it. He still held power over life and death at the birth of a child, but once food had touched the infant's lips the father was obligated to admit the child to membership and to kin of both mother and father. Other restrictions placed upon the father would not allow him to sell his child into slavery after age seven and younger children could only be sold out of necessity (Lynn, 1974).

The arrival of the eighteenth century carried with it a fundamental transformation which was to form the basis for our modern conception of family life. Especially in French society, families began to withdraw from public interaction and sought privacy in their own home. Children were no longer thought of as contributing to the welfare of the family, rather the family was thought of as contributing to the welfare of the children. It was at this time that love of a parent for a child took on a new quality. Records of fathers' correspondence at this time began showing positive references to their children and concern for their health and education (Lynn, 1974).

Much of these patterns of paternal authority and responsibility carried over into the colonial times in our own culture. Fathers'

authority was recognized by both civil law and religious teaching. Calvinists doctrine specified that those men failing to use their authority were "monsters" and as such the Lord commands they be put to death. As severe as the law and teaching were in calling for paternal authority, it was, however, balanced by a call to "fatherly" love.

From the period of the Civil War until the middle of the twentieth century, despite occasional resurgence of power, one finds a gradual diminishing of the authority and status previously afforded to the father. Partial explanation for this can be found in the fact that during those one hundred years (1850-1950) American society was at war. Descriptions of the role of the father during this time readily show a decline in paternal power; and yet as the family unit became more nuclear and less extended, the responsibilities of the father increased (Brenton, 1966).

Other social, political and economic forces were also contributing to the changing role of the father. Industrialization meant a separation of work from home. Fathers, mothers and children were all working away from each other and for long periods of time. In addition, the introduction of child labor laws and compulsory education meant greater economic responsibilities for the father and less control over his wife. The primary responsibility of the father, as seen through the writings of that time, was that of "economic provider" (Sunley, 1955), even if it meant doing so at the expense of the family. Continuing on in this changing pattern of paternal authority, status and responsibility, the role of today's father, as

seen through writings and research, is one of reaching back into the family (Owen, 1975).

Research Status:

Although throughout history there have been continuous changes in the conception of family roles and functions, including a present day trend for more active involvement of fathers in child rearing, very little research attention has been focused upon the father. It has been only the last five or ten years that researchers have begun serious investigations of the fathering role rather than the intermittent attention which has plagued the past. A two-fold explanation will help see why fathers have been so earnestly ignored.

First, cultural prescriptions of the role of the father, while keeping him out of the home, have moreover, kept him out of research as well. American society, since the early twentieth century, has downplayed the role of the father. Josselyn (1956), like Mead (1949), came to the conclusion that our western society tends to see fatherhood as social obligation rather than as a trait having biological roots and psychological satisfaction. Brenton (1966) points out this social obligation and the attitudes surrounding it.

"Countless books, magazine articles, speeches by child care specialists, parent training manuals and pronouncements by psychologists tell him of his responsibilities and make him feel guilty--or, more likely, spur his wife on to make him feel guilty--about not meeting them adequately. Advice and criticism have been coming in thickly and heavily for the past decade or so. It seems there's little he does or can do right. If he moves his family from the city to the suburb, he's placing them in a "Manless" environment. If he concentrates on being a pal to his son, he's evading his role as an authority figure. If he has a nurturing bent, some of the psychiatrists call him a motherly father. If

he doesn't do any nurturing to speak of, he's accused of distancing himself from his children. If he's the sole disciplinarian he takes on, in his youngsters eyes, the image of an orge. If he's well off and gives his children all the material advantages he didn't have, he's spoiling them, leaving them unprepared for life's hard knocks. If he's well off but does not spoil them the way other fathers do he gains the reputation of a latter-day Scrooge." (pg. 120-121)

The second reason for this lack of research attention is that American society is epitomized as "Mother Centered" in it's philosophy of child care (Nash, 1965), and it appears that psychologists and sociologists have adopted this cultural philosophy. As a result the majority of researchers have perceived the father as unimportant in child rearing, and it is reflected in their writing. LeMasters, (1974), reports several startling facts:

"It is in the field studies of American parents that the omission of fathers is most glaring. Sears, for example, in interviewing 379 'parents' did not find it necessary to include one father. Miller and Swanson had 582 mothers but no fathers. Blood and Wolfe talked with 909 mothers but excluded fathers from the sample. In a study of divorced parents Good located 425 mothers but did not attempt to locate any fathers. In the Handbook of Socialization Theory and Research there are only five specific references to fathers in 1,140 pages of text."

It appears that the traditional assignment, until recently, of the child rearing task to the mother in Western Culture, has led to the assumption that because the mother spent the most time with the child and was chiefly responsible for the child's physical care she was inevitably the most important person in that child's life.

While it may be true that mothers play a unique role, there is no evidence supporting the conclusion that she is the only important aspect of a child's life. Lamb (1976) presents several reasons why

the argument is unconvincing. First, the extent of interaction between a mother and her young children is exaggerated. Research on mother-child interaction notes that even when the mother is in the same room as the child, interaction is at most infrequent (Clarke-Stewart, 1973). Second, empirical and theoretical considerations indicate that quantity of time spent together is a poor predictor of the quality of a relationship. Evidence for this may be found in the fact that extended daily separations, such as those found in day care arrangements, do not appear to disrupt mother-infant attachment (Lamb, 1976). There is, therefore, no theoretical reason why the daily separations of a working father should be any more disruptive, providing the father spends some time with the infant.

As mentioned earlier, there is an increasing interest in the role of the father (Benson, 1968; Biller and Meridith, 1974; Dodson, 1974; Lamb, 1975, 1976; Lynn, 1974). Several factors have played an important role in the development of this interest. First, because society and researchers have so strongly stressed the role of the mother in the development of the child, many researchers have been led to ask--"Is it indeed true that the father is an almost irrelevant entity in the infants world?" (Lamb, 1976). A second factor relates to the ever-changing environment of the American family. The family environment, indeed the whole social environment, wherein children are being raised, is drastically different from years past (Bronfenbrenner, 1973). Behavioral scientists have been forced to consider the possible consequences of such a rapidly changing child rearing scene. This has led to an all new interest in the role of the father. Thirdly, the

changing conceptions of the abilities and characteristics of the young infant have influenced researchers to question whether or not the world of the infant is in fact much more complex. Once thought to be nothing but "a passive blob confronted with the task of making sense out of sensory chaos" (Goldberg, 1977), the newborn infant is now thought to be an active and capable partner in social interaction. Therefore, it is conceivable that infants may become attached to fathers as well as mothers (Lamb, 1976).

As the afore-mentioned changing role conceptions and the developing interest in the father indicates we are beginning to see more and more quality empirical studies concerned with the father. Researchers have for some time have been concerned with the role of the father in sex role development (Biller, 1971; Lynn, 1974, 1976); moral development (Hoffman, 1970) and have also been concerned with the effects of father absence on various developmental traits (Biller, 1970, 1971; Hoffman, 1971; Herzog and Sudia, 1973; Lynn, 1974). Fathers have been found to play an important role in each of these areas. More recently, fathers have also been found to play important roles in intellectual development (Radin, 1973; Jordan, 1975; Blanchard and Biller, 1971; Lynn, 1974; Lamb, 1976). In addition, comparisons of the paternal and maternal roles have led researchers to theorize a qualitative difference defining each role (Parsons and Bales, 1955; Lamb, 1976; Nye, 1976; Parke and Sawin, 1977). Further research, especially in the attitudes of fathers themselves concerning their role and child rearing, is needed to clarify and make understandable these differences.

Major Studies on Father Attitudes

Although the growth of studies directed entirely towards the father is increasing rapidly, the significance of paternity to the father and his attitudes concerning his own role have received relatively little attention. This fact, however, is not really surprising in light of the social climate under which previous research on parents has been conducted. "While it is usually held that motherhood is important in confirming both the woman's femininity and her effectiveness as a person," says L. Toconis (1969), "sexual prowess rather than paternity is often assumed to fulfill this function for the man; indeed as Mead pointed out, it is not all societies which even recognize the fact of physical paternity." Toconis further reports, while quoting from Benedick, "that we have rarely stopped to analyze the psychodynamic factors involved in fatherhood. . .the man's compelling desire to become a father and survive in his child."

Studies on Child Rearing Practices and Parental Attitudes:

Some information on fathers' attitudes has, however, been gathered through the inclusion of fathers in studies of child rearing practices and parental attitudes (Radke, 1946; Sears, Maccoby and Levin, 1957; Littman, 1957; Sears, Rau and Alpert, 1966; Eron, et al., 1961; Stoltz, 1967; Baumrind, 1971; Emmerich, 1969; Nye, 1976). For the most part the information on fathers gained from these studies was obtained from either a few questions asked directly of the father or more likely from a few questions asked of the mother about the father. Whether or not

the researcher used fathers in their studies, two things must be kept in mind when reviewing these studies. First, the primary focus is on the mother and not on the father and second, the primary focus is not on defining and describing attitudes towards parental roles but rather on relating attitudes to certain developmental traits in children.

Radke (1946) interviewed both parents in a study of parental authority patterns. Fathers reported taking more responsibility for discipline than their own fathers had; however, the children reported the mother rather than the father to be the more influential authority in their lives. Littman (1957) using a questionnaire given to both parents found fathers to be less permissive of aggression than mothers and to have less "chore expectations" for their children. Interestingly enough, there was also found to be agreement among parents that the father should not be the exclusive punishing agent in the family. Sears, Maccoby and Levin (1957), while interviewing mothers, asked them a few questions about the role of the father. Although making relatively little use of the data in the final analysis, the most significant finding was that the effectiveness of spanking as a disciplinary measure was more successful if the father was reported by the mother to be warm in his relations with the children. In all three of these studies, fathers' attitudes were reported as both relevant and important to the welfare of the family.

Eron, et al., (1961) in a comparative study of mothers' and fathers' child rearing practices and their relation to child aggression found the responses of the parents to be of such difference that they could not be substituted for one another. Further analysis

revealed high correlations on personal variables (e.g., residential mobility, parental aspirations for child, parental disharmony) but rather low correlations for variables dealing with the child's behavior or the parent's interaction with the child (e.g., punishment for dependency, approval of home aggression). It appears that mothers and fathers observe, sanction and report children's behavior from different vantage points. Eron et al., suggest that, theoretically speaking, the combined scores of both parents may provide the most meaningful data. They conclude by suggesting that more studies attempt to understand the attitudes and practices of the father as well as the mother and that efforts be made to understand the effects of the interaction between all family members.

One such study has attempted to do just that. Although specifically interested in what influences parent behavior, rather than the effects of parent behavior, Stoltz (1967) interviewed both mothers and fathers. Upon analysis of the interview material Stoltz defined eight categories of influences. These were: Values for Parenthood; Values for Child Rearing; Instrumental Beliefs; Descriptive Beliefs; Family Members; Behavior Settings; Previous Experience; and Communication Sources. Responses of mothers and fathers were compared and any similarities or differences were noted.

What did the fathers report? Analysis of the data on values for parenthood finds parents being influenced by many "shoulds" and "oughts" related to their parental role. The values mentioned fell into eight categories--to educate, to provide emotional security, to control, to nurture, to use community resources, to provide economic

support, to rear well and to learn about child rearing. Fathers emphasized the influence of their values for parenthood significantly more than mothers. This was especially true of values for education, for providing emotional security, for controlling permissively and for providing nurturance. These results suggest a trend toward the expansion of the role of the father, as viewed by himself, into areas previously thought of as the domain of the mother.

Not only do parents hold certain values for parenthood, but they also hold certain values which relate more specifically to child rearing. Stoltz was able to categorize some 3,000 basic values mentioned by the parents into eleven categories: Moral, family, egoistic, interpersonal, emotional security, education, orderly living, biological, play, economic, and general. The three most important categories mentioned were moral, family and egoistic. Fathers were found to stress moral values first, as did mothers, with egoistic values second and family values third. Mothers had family second and egoistic third. Fathers were also found to place greater emphasis upon these values than were the mothers.

While it was found that fathers placed greater emphasis overall on the influences of his values for parenthood and child rearing, mothers and fathers differed very little in their emphasis upon instrumental beliefs. Instrumental beliefs are those beliefs which assert some relation existing between an act and a value. For example, "Going to nursery school makes children more independent." The reported instrumental beliefs parallel the categories of values for child rearing.

However, the major emphasis was upon biological, moral and emotional security values. Differences were quite small, yet fathers tended to emphasize beliefs relating to moral, economic and egoistic values. Fathers were also found to place greater stress on beliefs that school, television and neighborhood influences the behavior of their children. Descriptive beliefs are those which assign an attribute to a person or event. For example, "Children like to play!" Fathers were also found to be influenced by descriptive beliefs more than mothers were. The fathers most influenced by both instrumental and descriptive beliefs were those with less education and of lower social position. This suggests that these fathers have very strongly held beliefs most likely acquired through experience. It further suggests that social class may be an important factor in fathers' attitudes.

The next influential factor on parents was that of the family itself. Child rearing is a two-way affair. Although mothers and fathers differ in their emphasis of the influences of family members, it is clear that each member of the family influences each other member. It was found that each parent feels that their spouse influences themselves more than they influence their spouse. However, fathers are more conscious of the mothers influence, and the most influential factor for the father was her competence. These results are further evidence for the continued study of both parents.

Previous experience will also affect a parent's child rearing practices. Fathers were found to be much more influenced by their own fathers and mothers. It was also found that fathers lay greater

stress on other childhood experiences, all the while emphasizing that their children should not have these same experiences.

The last category found to influence parent behavior was that of "communication sources"--friends, lectures, doctors, parent educators, books, etc. In general, fathers were found to lay less stress upon the influential aspect of the communication sources. There were, however, several fathers who sought after much help from such sources. These fathers, called "high seekers" by Stoltz, tended to be young fathers with their first child.

The results of the Stoltz study are of considerable importance in the understanding of the attitudes of fathers. It appears that fathers, in their child rearing practices, subscribe to and are influenced by their values and beliefs at least as much as mothers are. Fathers appear to lay greater stress on the idealistic, whereas mothers lay greater stress upon the practical. Most likely this is a reflection of the lack of practical experience the fathers have had in comparison to the mothers. As fathers enter the realm of the home and family life, and mothers enter the realm of work, it may be that a more realistic and positive child rearing effort on the part of both parents will develop.

Gecas (1976), as part of a larger study on family roles (Nye, 1976) analyzed questionnaire data with respect to the family roles most closely connected with parenthood: "Child Care" and "Child Socialization." Gecas specifically wanted to find out "how mothers and fathers negotiated the socialization and child care roles, within the normative system which they perceive and help define, how they

evaluate their performance of these roles and how they describe the conflicts, strains and satisfaction they experience within these roles."

Fathers reported egalitarian norms for the socialization roles, but were more inclined to see the child care role as the responsibility of his spouse. Further analysis of the data revealed a slightly greater expectation for the father to discipline children, to teach them responsibility, and to provide physical protection. This tendency was reported by both mothers and fathers. Fathers' reports of the enactment of these roles, although still quite egalitarian, showed mothers with more involvement. This was especially true for the child care role. Thus while parents say each role should be performed by both, the wife ends up performing a larger share.

Both mothers and fathers rated their competence in each role quite favorably. Over two-thirds of the fathers rated themselves as either "extremely effective" or "quite effective" in the socialization role. The same held true for the child care role with ratings even higher. Although fathers see themselves as competent in each role; they, nevertheless, have some doubts. Forty-six percent of the fathers reported they worry to some extent about their performance in child socialization and twenty-four percent said they worry about their performance in child care.

These and other studies of child rearing practices (Emmerich, 1969; Baumrind, 1971), plus the growing body of knowledge suggesting that fathers play a unique role in the child's cognitive, social and

emotional development consistently show fathers as having important, and relevant beliefs, values and ideas about themselves and their families in relation to their paternity.

Studies of Fathers' Attitudes:

There are only a few studies, directed entirely to fathers, which have attempted to describe the father's own perceptions of his role. One of the first such studies was that of Gardner (1943). Through the use of interviews with 300 fathers she attempted to construct a picture of the attitudes and activities of the "average" American father. She included in her study questions relating to their share in routine care activities, their attitudes toward their own fathers, their attitudes concerning their own effectiveness, their attitudes toward the care that mothers give their children and their attitudes toward the children.

A surprising sixty percent of the fathers reported taking part in routine care of young children. They mentioned participation most often in feeding and amusing the child, including seventy-eight percent of the fathers who reported playing with their child.

The fathers in the study were asked what they felt were the strong and weak points of their own fathers. Weak points were most often described as defects in the nature of discipline used and in a lack of companionship and interest shown by their fathers. Strong points were most often described as good teaching of character traits and good discipline. A comparison of the statements made for each point found the weak points to be much longer in length, using more detail and

they seemed much more attached to some specific memory. The strong points were usually shorter and more general. Gardner concluded from this that those fathers who were hoping their weak points would soon be forgotten were only hoping in vain.

When asked about their attitudes toward themselves, the fathers most often mentioned weak points in areas of a lack of companionship, and the nature of discipline. The next largest category for weak points was that of poor teaching of characteristics. On the other hand, the most often mentioned strong points were in the areas of teaching character traits and offering companionship and affection. Other strong points mentioned dealt with good provision for the welfare of the family, including a good home, money, and education. The fact that these fathers considered lack of companionship a defect thirty-two percent of the time and as a strong point twenty-nine percent, indicates they were becoming alert and conscious of a need to participate in the emotional and social life of their children.

When asked what they felt was the chief criticism of the mothers' care of the children fifty-eight percent of the fathers stated some disapproval. Of those offering criticisms, thirty-seven percent felt the mothers were too easy and too lenient in discipline and twenty-seven percent felt that mothers spoiled, pampered and waited on children too much.

The attitudes of the fathers toward the children appeared very wholesome. Ninety-nine percent of the fathers wanted children and, while seventy-five percent were satisfied with the number they then had, twenty-four percent desired more children. A sex preference was

shown by thirty-nine percent of the fathers with more than a two-to-one preference for boys. One out of four fathers reported dreaming of a future profession for his children. They also felt that having children made their marriages happier often citing such reasons as giving them something to work for and to be proud of, as uniting the family, as satisfying a natural desire and as making life more interesting.

In response to questions on guidance during early childhood, fathers reported punishing children with such techniques as deprivation, physical methods and verbal methods. Punishment was left up to the father in eleven percent of the cases and occasionally to him in eighteen percent of the cases. Fathers reported agreeing with the mother on ways of bringing up the children in sixty-one percent of the cases and nine percent of the fathers reported being the sole confidant for the child's problems.

It was Gardner's final impression that although fathers were making a very real contribution to the childhood of their children, they were actually giving little conscious thought to their role.

Elder (1949) in a study of 32 fathers introduced the concepts of the "Traditional" and the "Developmental" types of fatherhood. Traditional fathers were defined as nonparticipating and authoritarian, whereas developmental fathers were defined as active in all aspects of child rearing and as emphasizing training for self-reliance, emotional well-being and relating well to the children. Developmental fathers showed a tendency toward more participation in father-child activities and mentioned more often participating in homemaking activities

(yardwork, doing the dishes, etc.) with their child. Differences between traditional and developmental fathers also showed developmental fathers reflecting upon attitudes and relationships rather than upon activities in and of themselves.

When asked about the satisfactions and dissatisfactions of being a father, about a third of the fathers mentioned companionship with their children as the greatest satisfaction. Nearly a third also reported that providing for the family was their greatest satisfaction. There was a slight tendency for traditional fathers to cite providing as their greatest satisfaction derived from being a father. Somewhat contrary to the findings of Gardner (1943) over half of the fathers in Elder's study did not mention any specific dissatisfactions arising from the fathering role. For those who did answer, discipline was the major dissatisfaction and it was only traditional fathers who answered such.

Slightly more than half of the fathers felt themselves more important for their sons, a third mentioned being equally important for sons and daughters, and a few mentioned being more important for their daughters. A third of the fathers reported trying to be like their own fathers, a third tried to be different and another third tried to be better. Elder reported that there was a slight tendency for the developmental fathers to have rejected the paternal pattern set by their father. Interestingly enough, twice as many fathers said they were trying to be like their mothers, than said they were trying to be like their fathers. This, perhaps, reflects the influence time may have on

a relationship, as mothers spent more time with their children than did fathers. The implication is for researchers to look not only at same-sex relations, but cross-sex as well.

Although Elder saw the current trend at that time as being in the direction of the developmental father and advocated further studies be made, especially with reference to geographical, social, educational and religious differences, it wasn't until three years later that the next significant study of the father appeared. Tasch (1952) using a flexible interview method with eighty-five fathers, attempted to provide a functional approach to the paternal role. As found in previous studies the fathers in Tasch's study reported significant pleasure simply from having children and being in the position of child rearer. They also mentioned deriving pleasure from the companionship in the father-child relationship. The most notable dissatisfactions reported were difficulty in knowing how to play with daughters, the child's poor health and inconveniences attendant upon having children (i.e., loss of sleep, noise, being interrupted, etc.).

Over three-fourths of the fathers mentioned having a part in activities relating to the daily routine of child care (washing, safety, etc.); the intellectual development of their children (telling stories, reading books, answering questions, etc.); the motor development of their children (rough and tumble play, sports, games, etc.); in the recreational activities (going to the zoo, park, etc.); and in socialization activities (teaching right from wrong, respect for other others, self-control, etc.). With the exception of two areas the extent to which these activities were performed with boys or girls

was approximately the same. In daily routine care and safety fathers reported participating more often with girls and in the development of motor abilities they reported participating more often with boys. These differences were only evident, however, after the preschool years. These findings support the claim that parents may treat children differently on the basis of sex and specifically support the stereotype of females as "fragile" and boys as "tough."

Supporting the earlier study of Gardner (1943) the majority of the fathers reported that both parents were responsible for the disciplining of the children. The nature of disciplinary action, as in previous studies, fell around three categories: physical, verbal, and withholding pleasures or attention.

These findings, supporting those of Gardner and Elder, suggest the role of the father to be quite an active one, with fathers taking part not only in daily routine care, but also in developmental activities as well. Furthermore, the majority of fathers report fatherhood to be quite pleasurable and consider child rearing as part of the requirements of their role. The fact that fathers thought so highly of companionship lends further support to the conclusion that fathers are conscious of their need to be a part of their child's social and emotional development.

Toconis (1969) reports on an unpublished interview study he conducted in 1967, with 40 fathers of five year old boys and 40 fathers of five year old girls. Again the fathers predominant attitude was one of enjoyment and acceptance. Fathers reported pleasure, happiness and pride in their fatherhood and viewed parenthood as a normal and

acceptable responsibility. Fathers reported having a large interest in their child's development and they reported spending more time with their children than they felt their fathers had spent with them. As in previous studies, fathers reported frequent participation in care-taking activities, recreation activities, responsibility activities, discipline and decision-making.

Maxwell (1976) in keeping with the spirit of the Bicentennial, interviewed 30 of what he called "The Keeping Fathers of America." These were the middle aged, middle income fathers who through their experience were felt to be representative of the position and role of "Father" in American society. What Maxwell found were fathers who overwhelming and in no uncertain terms reported great responsibility in the role of the father. Without apology the majority of the fathers reported the primary responsibility as being to provide for the family. Although this appears at first to reverse the trend toward the developmental father, careful examination of what is meant by "provider" shows this not to be the case. The role of provider has been expanded to include not only economics, but reaching out to and affecting the lives and behavior of children, resolving conflicts and providing guidance in spiritual, moral, and social development.

Fathers were quite aware of the effects the blending of the sex roles were having on fatherhood. They see the sex-related "absolute-ness" of fatherhood disappearing and therefore perceived less differentiation between mothers and fathers. Fathers mentioned difficulties involved in fatherhood as most often in the areas of communication and not knowing what to do. Fathers reported finding it very difficult to

be open in their communication with their spouse so that the children receive consistent rather than conflicting messages. These fathers reported feeling obligated to control their family in the sense of guidance, but they reported not knowing how to do it. The greatest satisfaction, in contrast to those of early studies, appeared to be indirect. The fathers referred most often to the accomplishments and developmental growth of their children as good and desirable for the children themselves. Their chief satisfactions came from seeing the children do well. These fathers appear very much in the progressive steps of developmental fatherhood.

Unlike earlier reports (Elder, 1949; Nye, 1976; Mannino, 1968) of a significant difference in reported attitudes and actual behavior, Bigner (1977) reports a positive association between fathers' attitudes and behaviors. That is, as attitudes became more developmental in nature, there was a related increase in reported father-child activities. Perhaps this finding is an indication of the extent to which fathers are participating in child care tasks and are moving toward being the affectionate and nurturant parent they wish to be.

Further evidence for the current trend toward increased father involvement both attitudinally and personally comes from Sawin (1977). In a study of 25 fathers of three month old infants Sawin reports the most commonly noted function of a father with young children was to be the recognizer of the child's emotional well being. Other functions mentioned by the fathers were to be a companion and a friend, to act as provider, disciplinarian, teacher and model for the child.

Fathers and Parent Education

Parent education, defined as the purposive learning activity of parents who are attempting to effect change in their parental role performance with the purpose of encouraging the development of competence in themselves and their children (Brim, 1959; Croake and Glover, 1977), has historically neglected the father. Instead the primary focus of most programs has been to provide the mother with the necessary skills for effective parenting in order to benefit the children. A brief analysis of several studies and research reviews on the effects of parent education shows this mother-bias. Well over one-half and in some cases over three-fourths of the research and programs mentioned utilized mothers only--while very few utilized fathers. Where fathers were utilized hardly a word was mentioned about them (Shipiro, 1956; Hereford, 1962; Croake and Glover, 1977; Stevens, 1978). In addition, in most cases authors have used the word parent(s) even when only mothers were the parent(s) referred to in the study, clearly leaving the impression the same results are applicable to fathers as well as mothers. There has been, however, no confirmation of this assumption in the research and is primarily due to a lack of encouragement and participation of fathers in parent education.

Explanations for fathers having been excluded from most educational programs are both theoretical and practical. Theoretically speaking, fathers have not been included in formal parent education for the same reasons they have been excluded from other forms of family life and research, namely (1) cultural prescriptions have tended to view

the father and his role as unimportant and (2) child care has been viewed as exclusively the duty of the mother. There has, therefore, until recently been no real need for nor effort made toward including the father in education for child rearing. There is however, a more practical and perhaps a more satisfactory explanation for the absence of fathers. Necessary and everyday administrative factors such as the time of day (i.e., are meetings held during the day when fathers are unavailable due to work conflicts or held at night); frequency and length of meetings (i.e., enough to hold fathers interest or too many which may become a burden for the father); the topics to be covered (i.e., how much of the program even includes or is geared to the fathers influence and role); whether or not to have children present during the meeting or baby-sitting (i.e., how many families can afford to pay for baby-sitting services or can afford only one parent to attend the meeting leaving the other parent to stay at home); and efforts made to include the father (i.e., are fathers encouraged to attend) have all helped in different ways to exclude the father (Brim, 1959; Pickarts and Fargo, 1968).

In spite of the fact that fathers are poorly educated for their role there are currently several changes taking place within society (e.g., men being encouraged to include fatherhood in their major life goals, an increase in single fatherhood, and more developmental attitudes toward fathering) and academic circles (e.g., research into the role of the father in child development and family functioning), which suggests fathers no longer be excluded from formal educational programs (Pickarts and Fargo, 1968; Price-Bonham and Skeen, 1979). Even within

parent education a major shift from a focus on adjustment of children to the building of family strengths (Buckland, 1972) suggests fathers not be ignored. These changes, along with several other trends, can be summarized under three major reasons for educating fathers within parent education: (1) to meet the needs of fathers; (2) to transfer information from research to application; and (3) to provide for the total family.

Parent Education Will Meet The Needs of Fathers:

The first and perhaps the most important reason for including fathers in parent education will be to simply meet their expressed need for and interest in education for child rearing. Two questions immediately arise: (1) Do fathers indeed express an interest in parent education? and (2) What other consciously or unconsciously expressed attitudes and/or feelings are there which may suggest a need for father education?

To date only one published report has attempted to determine the attitudes of fathers concerning parent education. Hawkins (1974) interviewed 108 urban fathers of first grade children in an effort to determine their "degree of interest in learning more about child rearing." Contrary to the previous view of the father as uninterested, yet consistent with the modern trend toward a more developmental attitude toward fathering, respondent fathers expressed a very high degree of learning interest in most of the 19 child rearing areas listed on the questionnaire. Those areas which were of great interest were "Helping your child become independent", "Your child at school",

and "Your child's relationship at home." Those of least interest were "Work", "Clothing and grooming", and "special times for your child."

A second part of the study considered the fathers' "Willingness to participate in child rearing opportunities" with each father being asked to respond either positively or negatively to each of the 19 areas of child rearing. The fathers responded overwhelmingly (84%) in favor of participating in some learning opportunities.

Although fathers were very interested in learning more about child rearing and were quite willing to participate in opportunities to do so, a majority of the fathers indicated a lack of knowledge of institutional sources for information on child rearing. It was therefore suggested that child rearing as a specific discipline become a regular part of programs and services offered by adult educational agencies and specific attempts be made to reach the father.

On the one hand, a great deal of interest reported by fathers may, indeed, suggest a more concerted effort be made to reach the father and include him in education for child rearing. However, on the other hand, it may make very little difference as to whether or not a father expresses a desire to learn more about child rearing, because, as parent educators are quick to point out, a lack of interest in no way signifies a lack of need for parent education (Brim, 1959). It is unrealistic to assume that a lack of interest signifies that all is well with the father or within the family. Therefore, additional attitudes and/or feelings which may suggest fathers want or need parent education must be considered.

Particularly relevant to the need for fathers in parent education is the ever-changing shift from traditional to more developmental attitudes toward fathering (both by society and fathers themselves) as was previously described. Increasing beliefs that the fathers role is important, along with increased participation by the father in family and parent-child activities (Bigner, 1977), increasing large numbers of fathers electing single fatherhood and the fact that developmental fathers tend to reject the parental pattern set by their own father (Elder, 1969), suggests fathers are much more interested in their role and may consider ways of improving their role performance. In addition, fathering is seen as a learned process by many fathers and as such requires a conscious effort be made to maintain growth and progress during this process.

Fathers, although developmental in attitude, nevertheless report several frustrations and anxieties associated with fatherhood which also suggests a need for parent education. In an interview study of 160 fathers, conducted to investigate their participation in and attitudes toward the father role, Price-Bonham and Skeen (1979), report fathers expressing several frustrations associated with their role. Fathers reported their having children resulted in a) "realizing fatherhood was a much bigger role than expected," b) "making life financially harder and/or at least a hinderance," c) "it interfered with other life goals," d) "it did help to settle him down," and e) "it increased incentive to succeed."

When asked "What is the worst thing about fatherhood?", fathers reported a) having too much responsibility and b) problems with discipline.

These frustrations and problems, along with others reported earlier by Elder (1949), Nash (1965), Stoltz (1967), Toconis (1969), and Brenton (1966), suggest the need for educational programs to assist fathers in order to give them a sense of their role in the family and aid them in performing that role more adequately.

Increase the Transfer of Information from Research to Application:

Once it has been determined that fathers have an interest in or a need for parent education it must then be decided what information must be included within such a program.

Fortunately, during the last ten years much information and knowledge about fathers has been gleaned from theory and research into the role he plays in child development and family functioning. Several significant associations and variables have emerged with the tentative conclusion that the role of the father is indeed much more complex and important than previously assumed. For example, one of the most widely studied and significant factors to emerge in the literature has been that of paternal nurturance and warmth. Investigations of this variable have shown positive and significant relationships to exist with a child's sex-role development (Johnson, 1963; Lamb, 1976); moral development (Hoffman, 1970); and intellectual development (Radin, 1973; Jordan, 1975; Lynn, 1974; and Lamb, 1976). Conversely, research into paternal deprivation has also exhibited evidence of the influence a

father has in a child's emotional, social and intellectual well-being (Biller, 1974). It is this information, along with other information on child rearing and all its implications, which must somehow reach the father and which provides the second reason for including fathers within parent education: to increase and aid in the transfer of information from research to application with the expressed purpose of increasing role competence.

The mere imparting of information to parents, however, will not insure role competence, for unlike other areas of education, the field of parent education is concerned primarily with concepts, ideas and attitudes (Hereford, 1963). The most appropriate goal for parent education is, in fact, that of attitudinal change, which leads to behavioral change. New information is important, though, for several studies have shown the interrelatedness of the acquisition of knowledge (by participation in parent education) with changes in attitudes and behaviors (Hedrick, 1934; Katz, 1960; Hereford, 1963; Endres and Evans, 1968; Kelman, 1974). For example, Kelman (1974) has noted that a person's attitudes toward some object are formed during the course of their interaction with that object (direct interaction) or during interaction with information about the object (indirect interaction). Exposure to new information (especially if the information is sufficiently discrepant with pre-existing attitudes and knowledge) gradually erodes away the forces toward stability and may lead to attitudinal change. These concepts, although expressed differently, provided the basis for a study of parent education and parental attitudes.

Hereford (1963) was specifically interested in group discussion (parent education) as a means of changing parental attitudes. Group discussion, as a method of achieving this goal, was chosen because it allowed both indirect and direct interactions with new ideas, concepts and attitudes concerning child rearing. Parents in this program were able to acquire new knowledge as well as interact with it through discussion.

Hereford developed a one semester program for four separate groups of parents. Group 1 (experimental) consisted of parents participating in a six week series of group discussions. Group 2 (control) consisted of parents attending six two-hour lectures. Group 3 (control) consisted of parents who had registered for an education program but did not attend and group 4 (control) consisted of randomly drawn names from school files. A parent attitude survey (with 5 point Likert-type scale) and a home interview were used to assess changes in parental attitudes in the areas of confidence, causation, acceptance, mutual trust and mutual understanding. Analysis of covariance revealed attitudes in the experimental group had changed significantly more than in the other groups. Attitudes were changed as a result of exposure to an educational program.

Parent Education Will Provide for the Family:

As researchers, educators, policy advisors, and therapists are concerning themselves with how fathers behave toward their children and the effects thereof, it must not be forgotten that fathers are part of a much larger social network--the family. The father's role is in fact, defined by his position within the family (Broderick, 1977).

However much we may like to think of the family system as being simply a summation of several dyadic relationships (i.e., mother-child; father-child; mother-father, etc.) it is in reality a complex web of numerous reciprocal relationships, each operating at least partially in relation to every family member and the society from which it comes. It would, therefore, be a grave injustice to try and help the father outside of this system and an even further injustice to try and help the family without some consideration of the father. For example, we now know that both parents contribute to the psychological development of their children yet it is unlikely that their contributions are independent of each other. Still there is much research in parental roles which points toward a qualitative difference between mothers and fathers (Parsons and Bales, 1955; Lamb, 1976). Continued research is necessary to see just how interrelated, yet different, the roles are. For parent education the immediate problem is to help each parent discover his or her role, and then to provide supports within the family grouping.

The importance of the family grouping, and by inference the father as well, has been demonstrated by research into the effect upon children of hostile parental attitudes, extensive family disharmony, child abuse, and loss of a parent (Bronfenbrenner, 1973; Coopersmith, 1967; Lamb, 1976 and Wyer, 1965). In summing up the available information Lamb (1976) reports a recent longitudinal study which shows, "The best adjusted adults were those who in childhood had warm relationships with effective mothers and fathers, in the context of a happy home." In addition, after a thorough review of the available

research on fathers, Lamb concluded that it is absolutely necessary for research and society to pay careful attention to the role of the father, for "All the evidence we have suggests that child rearing is most enjoyable, most enriching and most successful when it is performed jointly by two parents in the context of a secure marital relationship."

The immediate implication for parent education is that any program which tends to exclude the father (or the mother) is simply satisfying only part of the need and will not be able to reach its full potential toward building successful families.

Summary

A review of the research on child rearing practices and parental attitudes shows an overwhelming concern with the contributions of mothers to the exclusion of fathers. Whereas fathers have been thought to be unimportant in child rearing and inaccessible for research, new evidence repudiates these claims.

However, in at least two areas--paternal attitudes and parent education--information remains sketchy and inadequately represented. In the review presented above, of those studies which have addressed themselves at least partially to the attitudes of fathers, a broad outline or model of paternal attitudes begins to emerge. It appears that paternal attitudes have a tendency to cluster around five major attitudinal areas: Fatherhood in general, Self as Father, Father-Mother Interaction, Fathers and Children, and Supports for Fathers. In addition, a consistent trend of paternal attitude changes from

traditional to developmental appears throughout all areas. A summary of the major findings with respect to each area is presented below. It is hoped that this information and any additional information gained from this study will be of help in clarifying father attitudes, identifying new areas of research and in helping to bring fathers into parent education.

Fatherhood:

Although having lost much of its status and authority in society as a whole, fatherhood is afforded much respect by fathers themselves. They report fatherhood to be both a natural feeling and a learned process. Fathers have a tendency to consider the major responsibility of the father as "providing for his family"; however, the definition of "provider" has now expanded to include more interpersonal and intrapersonal duties. For example, fathers tend to view parenthood as a joint affair with each parent having responsibilities in all areas of child rearing. Thus discipline is reported to be the responsibility of both parents.

Fathers are also reporting an increased participation in routine care activities and are reporting wanting, and strongly believing, that fathers should be a part of a child's social and emotional development. Much of this "developmental" trend (Elder, 1949) is, however, found in attitudes rather than behavior, for mothers are reported to be doing more of the work. But even this is apparently changing. There is some

evidence to support the view that developmental attitudes leads to an increase in participation (Bigner, 1977). Further research should help clarify this relationship.

Self as Father:

Fathers have a tendency to report their competence in the father role somewhat high, even though they also report having many doubts and worries about their performance. It appears fathers have a tendency to report ideals rather than actual enactment. Fathers also reported being influenced more by their values and beliefs than anything else. This again reflects a tendency for fathers to view ideals rather than more practical considerations (Stoltz, 1967). This is an area where much research is needed.

Fathers report deriving great pleasure and satisfaction from the fathering role. These feelings of satisfaction are reported as early as the birth of the first child (Greenberg and Morris, 1974; and Fein, 1976). Satisfactions differ from father to father; however, when grouped together they show a "developmental" trend. Earlier reports show fathers deriving satisfaction mostly in very direct ways (i.e., being a good provider, teaching children, etc.); however, fathers now report deriving satisfaction in more indirect ways (i.e., from watching children develop, feeling proud of them, etc.). Overall fathers appear quite satisfied in their role and are increasingly becoming involved in the nurturance and development of their children. Further research must consider the effects of these attitudes upon child rearing practices and upon the child.

Father-Mother Interaction:

Perhaps no area shows as much promise for providing meaningful data as that of the interaction of fathers and mothers. Their child rearing practices and attitudes have been found to be very different from each other, yet together provide a more complete view of the effects of parents on children (Eron et al., 1961). Fathers view mothers as influencing their behavior more than mothers see the fathers influencing their behavior. The most influential aspect of the mother appears to be her competence. This suggests the possibility of what has been called "second order effects" (Lamb, 1976). Even though fathers view mothers as being quite competent there are some criticisms. These usually come in terms of "not being strict enough" or spoiling the child."

Fathers and Children:

Fathers' views of children appear to be quite positive. A majority of fathers wanted children and some fathers reported wanting more. There appears to be a sex preference for boys, in both attitudes and behavior. Fathers of daughters often reported not knowing how "to play with a daughter"; however, this was more frequent in earlier studies. The lack of such attitudes in later studies may suggest fathers no longer see this as a problem. Further research is needed to clarify the differences between fathers of girls and fathers of boys. Fathers reported goals for their children most often in terms of independence, education and self control. Studies prior to the sixties also show

fathers listing obedience as a priority. There was a tendency for the "developmental" fathers to be more concerned with teaching self-reliance, independence and consideration for others. Fathers' attitudes toward their children show a longing for more nurturance and effective relations with them.

Supports for Fathers:

The first and perhaps only "real" experience at being a parent comes from observations of one's own parents. Fathers reported being highly influenced by their own parents, especially fathers, and many report trying to be like them. There was a tendency for the developmental fathers to reject the pattern set by their own fathers. However, the weak points fathers saw in their own fathers also showed up as weak points in themselves, suggesting that one's faults are not soon forgotten and are passed on from generation to generation.

Although fathers previously have reported having little use for nor time for other support systems, there is now a slight tendency for fathers to be very interested in outside influences, including parent education (Hawkins, 1974). Along with fathers expressed interest in parent education there are several unexpressed reasons for assuming an interest or need exists. These include the change toward more developmental attitudes and the frustration and anxieties reported by fathers (Price-Bonham and Skeen, 1979). Reasons for including fathers in parent education are drawn from research showing the importance of meeting the needs of fathers, the importance of information in changing parental attitudes and behavior and the importance of providing

for the whole family in order to insure competence in themselves and their children. The fact however, that so few studies have even considered fathers' attitudes toward parent education and other outside influences, warrants further study of the problem.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

Data for the study were collected from a total of fifty-seven fathers, all of whom had at least one preschool age child. The data included fathers responses to two questionnaires: (1) An Attitude Toward Fathering Scale used to assess traditional or developmental attitudes; and (2) A Child Rearing Learning Interest Scale used to assess (a) interest in knowing more about child rearing, (b) willingness to participate in specific learning opportunities and (c) preferred methods of study. In addition, a Personal Data Questionnaire was used to collect information on basic demographic characteristics.

For all segments of the data descriptive statistics, including frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviations were computed. Where appropriate, correlation coefficients and tests of significance of difference were also used.

Subjects

The fifty-seven fathers who served as subjects for this study were drawn from a group of ninety-five fathers who had at least one child enrolled in one of three preschool programs located in Corvallis, Oregon. Two of the three programs were child development laboratories run through the Family Life Department of Oregon State University and the third program was a privately owned, non-profit organization operating through a local church. These programs were chosen on the basis of similarity in program operation and philosophy; that is,

they were developmentally oriented, conducted in a two and one-half hour program and encouraged parent participation through parent meetings, parent conferences and visitation. Every father received a letter of introduction explaining the study and requesting his participation by filling out the questionnaires and returning them to the preschool. The total of 57 fathers represented a 60% response rate.

Background data on the subjects are summarized in Appendix A. Those data reflect the following general characteristics of the sample. The mean age was 34 years (range 25 - 49 years); and a majority were caucasian (81%); married (95%); employed full time (88%); had a combined income, that is, both father and mother, of over \$20,000 a year (53%); and were highly educated (79% having a college or graduate degree). They spent most of their lives in small to medium sized towns (54%) and have only been living at their present address for less than four years (73%). A majority of them (63%) had been in their current marital situation less than ten years; however, there was a range from one to twenty-five years. The fathers were quite well balanced for composition of family (25% were fathers of girls, 21% of boys and 54% mixed) and sex of child in preschool program (54% had a boy in the program, 46% had a girl). For 58% of the fathers the child enrolled in the program was their first child, for 29% it was their second child, and for 13% it was their third or greater child.

Instruments

Attitudes Toward Fathering Scale: The Attitudes Toward Fathering Scale (ATFS), developed by Bigner (1977), was used to measure a traditional or developmental orientation toward the fatherhood role. The five point Likert-type scale consisted of 36 statements on fathering of which 18 measured traditional attitudes and 18 measured developmental attitudes. Fathers were requested to respond to each statement in terms of the degree to which they agree or disagree with that statement. The scoring procedure ran on a continuum with strongly agree equal to five points and strongly disagree equal to one point for the developmental items, while the reverse was true for the traditional items, that is, strongly agree equals one point and strongly disagree equals five points. This scoring thus allowed for higher scores to indicate a developmental orientation and lower scores to indicate a traditional orientation toward the fatherhood role. A total score on the scale could range from a low of 36 to a high of 180. Content validity for the scale was established by a panel of child development and family relations experts with results showing a $+ .84$ Spearman rank correlation coefficient of agreement among raters (Bigner, 1977). Reliability for the scale was determined by the test-retest method (two week interval) with results showing a $+ .81$ reliability coefficient (Bigner, 1977).

Child Rearing Learning Interest Scale: The Child Rearing Learning Interest Scale (CRLIS), developed by Hawkins (1974), was used to assess a fathers interest in knowing more about child rearing, his

willingness to participate in parent education to fulfill a learning interest, and the method(s) of study most often preferred by a father. The scale consisted of three parts. Part one consisted of a four point Likert-type questionnaire with 19 items. Each item described an area of concern for parents as they raise their children. These areas included such concerns as "helping your child become independent, your child at school, your child's relationships at home, your own feelings as a parent, learning what to expect of a child" and many more. Fathers were requested to respond to each item indicating whether they were "not interested, a little interested, quite interested, or very interested" in knowing more about that item. Items were scored from zero to three, with "not interested" receiving zero points and "very interested" receiving three points. Therefore, a total score could range from a low of zero to a high of 57 with higher scores indicating more interest. Part two consisted of fathers responding to the question "Would you be willing to participate in a specific learning experience designed to fulfill your interest in knowing more about child rearing?" Each father was asked to indicate with a yes or no his willingness to participate in learning opportunities for each of the 19 items listed in part one. Taken all together the responses gave an indication of the general willingness of fathers to participate in parent education. Part three consisted of fathers responding to the question "Which method of study would you prefer the specific learning opportunities to consist of?" Each father was asked to indicate one method (from a list of nine) for each of the 19 child rearing interest areas.

Content validity for the scale was established by processing the items first through a panel of experts in parent education and then through a panel of Extension experts in Child Development (Hawkins, 1974). Scale items were chosen according to the following criteria: the item should be (1) well represented in the literature of parent education, (2) of potential help to a parent in accomplishing the developmental tasks of child rearing and (3) related to helping a parent in the rearing of a child in the first grade. This yielded a scale with 20 items. Reliability for the scale was determined by the test-retest method (five week interval). After dropping one item, results showed a +.95 prediction of reliability using the Spearman-Brown Prophecy formula (Hawkins, 1974).

Procedure

Subjects for this study were the fathers of children enrolled in three separate preschool programs. All contacts with the subjects were made by the head teachers of the programs involved. A packet containing letters explaining the study and requesting the subjects participation; the Personal Data Questionnaire; the Attitudes Toward Fathering Scale; and the Child Rearing Learning Interest Scale was sent home with every family (Appendix B). Fathers were requested to fill out the questionnaires completely and return them to a box centrally located at the school. Every set of questionnaires returned was given a number to insure anonymity for the subjects. After a period of two weeks the head teachers were asked to place a reminder

on the parents bulletin board and encourage directly every father (or his wife) to return the questionnaires. All subjects were thanked in advance for their participation.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Data for the present study consisted of the responses of 57 fathers to an Attitude Toward Fathering Scale and a three part questionnaire which yielded information on three dimensions of parent education, that is, interest in wanting to know more about child rearing, willingness to participate in specific learning opportunities and preferred methods of study. Additional responses provided information on pertinent demographic variables.

Because of the descriptive nature of the study, and the fact that the questionnaires are relatively new and as yet untested, a summary of the overall performance of the group on the questionnaires, as well as a delineation of the interrelatedness among questionnaire variables was mandated. Because of the relative importance of investigating these relationships this information will be presented prior to the presentation of the results of the tests of hypotheses.

Exploratory Analysis

Attitudes Toward Fathering: The Attitudes Toward Fathering Scale (ATFS; Bigner, 1977) was used to measure the subject's traditional and developmental attitudes toward fathering. The scoring procedures for the scale are such that lower scores reflect more traditional attitudes toward fatherhood and higher scores reflect more developmental views. Possible scores on this scale could range from a low of 36 to a high of 180.

The distribution characteristics for fathers in this study, reported in Table 1, reflect a group score somewhat skewed toward the higher end of an expected normal distribution. The range of scores here is quite similar to the range found in Bigner's earlier work (94 - 156 vs. 90 - 149) as is the mean value (125.32 vs. 121.20). No standard deviation computation was reported in his study.

Table 1. Range, Mean and Standard Deviation for the ATFS.

Range	Possible Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
94-156	36-180	125.32	11.70

Overall, the attitudes toward fathering scores in this study were very similar to those reported by Bigner (1977), with both distributions skewed toward the developmental end of the scoring continuum.

Attitudes Toward Parent Education: The Child Rearing Learning Interest Scale (CRLIS) developed by Hawkins (1974), was used to measure fathers attitudes toward parent education. The scale consisted of three separate sections, each section designed to focus in on a different aspect of parent education. Section one, the Learning Interest Scale, determined the degree of interest a father had in wanting to know more about child rearing; section two, the Participation Scale, determined a father's willingness to participate in specific learning experiences designed to meet the interest shown in section one; and section three, the Preferred Methods Scale, determined the methods of study fathers most often preferred to use in parent

education. In each of the above sections, fathers responded to the initial question across 19 items or areas of child rearing.

LEARNING INTEREST SCALE: The Learning Interest Scale, a four point Likert-type scale (0 - 3), yielded information as to how interested the fathers were in wanting to know more about child rearing. Scores on the scale could range from a low of zero to a high of 57, with lower scores indicating less interest on the part of the father. The range, mean and standard deviation for the fathers scores on the Learning Interest Scale are reported in Table 2.

Table 2. Range, Mean and Standard Deviation for Scores on Section I of CRLIS: Learning Interest Scale

Range	Possible Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
0-57	0-57	41.50	11.72

These figures reflect that, as a group, these fathers were highly interested in wanting to know more about child rearing as evidenced by a mean score of 41.5 out of a possible high of 57.

Table 3. was prepared to show the absolute frequencies and resulting percentages for the Learning Interest Scale across each of the 19 items comprising the scale.

 Insert Table 3. about here

These data again reflect, in a more discrete manner, the high degree of learning interest held by these fathers. A total of 81% of the responses were in the categories of "quite interested" (37%) or

Table 3. Absolute Frequency Distribution and Resulting Percentages for Individual Items on the Learning Interest Scale.

Response	<u>Scale Items</u> ^a																			<u>Totals</u>		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	Total	Possible Total	%
Not Interested	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	4	4	3	1	3	2	6	2	6	4	6	2	58	1083	5
A Little Interested	4	2	1	2	3	2	10	14	14	3	4	12	5	6	7	15	10	14	2	130	1083	12
Quite Interested	16	22	17	8	19	15	29	27	20	8	21	21	33	26	26	21	28	29	19	405	1083	37
Very Interested	34	30	36	44	32	37	15	11	18	43	30	20	17	19	22	14	13	7	33	475	1083	44
Missing Cases	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	2	1	1	15	1083	2

a For description of Scale Items see Appendix B: Child Rearing Learning Interest Scale.

"very interested" (44%). Areas in which the fathers indicated most interest were "Safety for your child" (#4) and "Your child's health" (#10). For these areas, a total of 44 fathers or 77% and 43 fathers or 75% respectively, responded "very interested." Conversely, the areas receiving the least interest were "Helping the child relate to people of different races and cultures" (#14); "How to answer a child's questions about religion" (#16) and "Clothing and grooming" (#18).

PARTICIPATION SCALE: The second part of the Child Rearing Learning Interest Scale was used to measure a father's willingness to participate in specific learning experiences. Fathers responded to the 19 child rearing areas by marking "Yes, I would be willing" or "No, I would not be willing" to participate. Scores in this section could range from a low of zero to a high of 19, with higher scores indicating more willingness to participate. The range, mean and standard deviation for the Participation Scale are reported in Table 4.

Table 4. Range, Mean and Standard Deviation for Participation Scale

Range	Possible Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
0-19	0-19	12.53	5.83

These figures reflect that, as a group, these fathers were very willing to participate in specific learning experiences.

A summary of the frequency of "yes/no" responses for each of the 19 scale items is presented in Table 5.

 Insert Table 5. about here

These figures again reflect a high degree of interest on the part of these fathers for participating in parent education. Lack of interest in participation was noticeable for only three scale items: "Own feelings as a parent" (#9); "How to answer a child's questions about religion" (#16) and "Clothing and grooming" (#18).

PREFERRED METHODS SCALE: Section three of the Child Rearing Learning Interest Scale consisted of fathers choosing one preferred method of study (from a list of nine) for each of the 19 child rearing interest areas. Frequency tabulations provided the basis for a rank ordering of preferred methods. These rank orders for the nine methods of study are listed in Table 6.

 Insert Table 6. about here

The learning methods receiving the largest number of preference selections by the fathers were: "Books, study at home"; "personal conferences with teacher or specialists"; "talks or lectures"; "parent discussion groups" and "organized groups with father and child." Those receiving the fewest number of preference selections were: "Magazine and newspaper reading"; "Attending classes"; "Lessons on television" and "Correspondence."

The rank orders for the methods of study were determined by the total number of times each method of study was selected, across all 19

Table 5. Absolute Frequency Distribution for Individual Items on Section II of CRLIS: Participation Scale.

Scale Items	Response		
	Yes	No	Missing Cases
1. Helping your child become independent	48	9	
2. Your child at school	47	10	
3. Your child's relationships at home	40	17	
4. Safety for your child	41	16	
5. Guidance and discipline	39	18	
6. Your child's ability to get along with people	47	10	
7. Learning what to expect of a child	38	19	
8. Sexual development	33	24	
9. Your own feelings as a parent	27	30	
10. Your child's health	42	15	
11. Helping your child develop reading and speech at home	46	11	
12. Encouraging the development of music, art and dancing	38	18	1
13. Your child's play	38	18	1
14. Helping the child relate to people of different races and cultures	37	20	
15. Growth of the child's whole body	38	18	1
16. How to answer a child's questions about religion	26	30	1
17. Work	30	24	3
18. Clothing and grooming	21	35	1
19. Special times for your child	38	18	1
Totals	714	360	9
Possible Totals	1083	1083	
Percentage	66	34	

Table 6. Rank Order of Methods of Study Preferred by Fathers.

Response #	Method of Study	Rank Order	# of Times Selected	% ^a
4	Books, study at home	1	196	18.10
1	Personal conferences w/ teacher or specialists	2	194	17.91
3	Talks or lectures	3	184	16.98
2	Parent discussion groups	4	151	13.94
8	Organized groups w/father & child	5	104	9.60
5	Magazine & newspaper reading	6	59	5.44
6	Attend classes	7	40	3.69
9	Lessons on T.V.	8	31	2.86
7	Correspondence	9	4	.36
	No Method Selected		120	11.08

^a Number of possible selections; 19 x 57 subjects = 1,083.

items in the CRLIS. A breakdown of the total frequency of selections of each of the nine methods of study for all 19 of these items is presented in Table 7.

 Insert Table 7. about here

Table 7. clarifies the source of the cumulative frequencies, which were used to identify the most preferred and least preferred methods of study. However, another perspective of the preference for methods of study can be gained by reading the table in rows, that is, from left to right and observing the relationships of preferred methods of study selected for each individual item. For example, with item #1 (Helping your child become independent) the highest number of selections appears for method #2 (Parent discussion groups). Likewise, for item #9 (Your own feelings as a parent) the highest number of selections also appears for method #2 (Parent discussion groups). In other words, it appears that these fathers would prefer to learn more about helping their child become independent and about their own feelings as a parent through parent discussion groups. In order to reflect these relationships more clearly Table 8. was generated. In this table each CRLIS item is linked with the method of study most often selected by the fathers.

 Insert Table 8. about here

Table 7. Frequency Distributions for Methods of Study Selected for Items on the CRLIS.

CRLIS Items	Methods of Study ^a									Total Responses
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
1. Helping your child become independent	12	14	11	5	3		1	7	1	54
2. Your child at school	43	1	2	2	1	2	1	2		54
3. Your child's relationships at home	3	17	10	12	3	2		6		53
4. Safety for your child	2	3	17	16	4	2		2	5	51
5. Guidance & discipline	8	9	13	9	3	3		6		51
6. Your child's ability to get along with people	21	4	6	5	3	3		10	1	53
7. Learning what to expect of a child	8	12	8	15	2	1		2	1	49
8. Sexual development	4	5	16	18	3	2		3		51
9. Your own feelings as a parent	5	24	5	7	3			2	1	47
10. Your child's health	12	1	19	13	1	3			2	51
11. Helping your child develop reading & speech at home	25	2	4	10	2	2		5	2	52
12. Encouraging the development of music, art & dancing	8	4	6	7	3	7		10	6	51
13. Your child's play	13	5	8	4	4	2	1	13		50
14. Helping the child relate to people of different races & cultures	5	9	10	8	5		1	9	5	52
15. Growth of the child's whole body	8	2	15	13	5	6		2		51
16. How to answer a child's questions about religion	5	8	12	12	3	1		1		48
17. Work	6	9	8	11	3	3		6	2	48
18. Clothing & grooming	2	11	7	14	5			4	4	47
19. Special times for your child	4	11	7	9	3	1		14	1	50
Totals	194	151	184	196	59	40	4	104	31	963

^a For description of Methods of Study see Appendix B: Child Rearing Learning Interest Scale.

Table 8. Absolute Frequency for the Preferred Methods of Study for Each Item on the CRLIS.

CRLIS Items	<u>Methods of Study</u>									Total Responses
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
1. Helping your child become independent	14									54
2. Your child at school	43									54
3. Your child's relationships at home	17									53
4. Safety for your child		17								51
5. Guidance & discipline		13								51
6. Your child's ability to get along with people	21									53
7. Learning what to expect of a child			15							49
8. Sexual development			18							51
9. Your own feelings as a parent	24									47
10. Your child's health		19								51
11. Helping your child develop reading & speech at home	25									52
12. Encouraging the development of music, art & dancing							10			51
13. Your child's play	13						13			50
14. Helping the child relate to people of different races & cultures		10								52
15. Growth of the child's whole body		15								51
16. How to answer a child's questions about religion			18							48
17. Work			11							48
18. Clothing & Grooming			14							47
19. Special times for your child							14			50

Inspection of this table reveals that overall methods #3 (Talks or lectures) and #4 (Books, study at home) were selected as the most preferred methods of study, each being chosen for 5 of the 19 CRLIS items. Conversely, four of the methods (Magazine and newspaper reading, Attend classes, Correspondence, and Lessons on television) never appeared as the most preferred method. It is particularly interesting to note that for two CRLIS items (#2, "Your child at school" and #9, "Your own feelings as a parent") more than 50% of the fathers selected a single learning method: personal conference with teacher and parent discussion group, respectively.

Because several of the methods of study were similar in operation and because groups were to be formed for further analyses using chi square, the nine methods of study were classified into three groupings. Group one was designated "One-on-one or small group interaction", and included three methods: "Personal conference with teacher or specialists", "Parent discussion groups" and "Organized groups with father and child." Group two was designated "Formal classroom" and included two methods: "Talks or lectures" and "Attend classes." Group three was designated "Self-study" and included four methods: "Books, study at home", "Magazines and newspaper reading", "Correspondence" and "Lesson on television." These three groups, arranged by frequency of mention, percentage of mentions and resulting rank order are listed in Table 9.

Table 9. Absolute Frequency Distribution and Rank Order for Three Groups of Preferred Methods of Study.

Group	Summed Frequency of Responses	Percentage of Responses	Rank
One on one or small group interaction	449	47	1
Self-study	290	30	2
Formal Classroom	224	23	3

The group designated "One-on-one or small group interaction" was ranked first, "Self-study" second and "Formal classroom" third.

Table 10. was prepared in order to allow for the comparison of each of these groups with the individual 19 child rearing interest areas.

Insert Table 10. about here

In only seven areas ("Helping your child become independent"; "Your child at school"; "Your child's ability to get along with people"; "Your own feelings as a parent"; "Helping the child develop reading and speech at home"; "Your child's play"; "Special times for your child" did any one group receive a majority of the responses and in all seven of the areas that group was "One-on-one or small group interaction".

Interrelationships of Fathers Attitudes and Parent Education: The use of the exploratory type of research design has been suggested to be most appropriate when there is incomplete knowledge of a subject

Table 10. Frequency Distribution and Resulting Percentages for Three Groups of Preferred Methods of Study for the Nineteen Items on the CRLIS.

CRLIS Items	Total Responses	<u>Group 1</u>		<u>Group 2</u>		<u>Group 3</u>	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
1. Helping your child become independent	54	33	61	11	20	10	19
2. Your child at school	54	46	85	4	7	4	7
3. Your child's relationships at home	53	26	49	12	23	15	28
4. Safety for your child	51	7	14	19	37	25	49
5. Guidance & discipline	51	23	45	16	31	12	24
6. Your child's ability to get along with people	53	35	66	9	17	9	17
7. Learning what to expect of a child	49	22	45	9	18	18	37
8. Sexual development	51	12	21	18	35	21	41
9. Your own feelings as a parent	47	31	66	5	11	11	23
10. Your child's health	51	13	25	22	43	16	32
11. Helping your child develop reading & speech at home	52	32	62	6	11	14	27
12. Encouraging the development of music, art & dancing	51	22	43	13	25	16	32
13. Your child's play	50	31	62	10	20	9	18
14. Helping the child relate to people of different races & cultures	52	23	44	10	19	19	37
15. Growth of the child's whole body	51	12	23	21	41	18	36
16. How to answer a child's questions about religion	48	14	29	13	27	21	44
17. Work	48	21	44	11	23	16	33
18. Clothing & grooming	47	17	36	7	15	23	49
19. Special times for your child	50	29	58	8	16	13	26

and when it is "necessary to obtain experience that will be helpful in formulating relevant hypotheses for more definite investigation (Selting, et al., 1959). Because there is a dearth of knowledge regarding the relationship between fathers' attitudes toward their role and their interest in parent education, correlational analyses were used to investigate the possibility of such a relationship for these subjects. Intercorrelations for fathers' attitudes, degree of learning interest and willingness to participate are presented in Table 11.

Table 11. Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficients for ATFS and Two Sections of the CRLIS.

Scales	<u>Scales</u>		
	Attitudes Toward Fathering Scale	Learning Interest Scale	Participation Scale
Attitudes Toward Fathering Scale	1.00		
Learning Interest Scale	.09	1.00	
Participation Scale	.04	.40***	1.00

*** = significant at .001 level

Traditional/Developmental scores (as measured by the ATFS) were not significantly related to either interest in wanting to know more about child rearing or willingness to participate in specific learning opportunities. However, further inspection of the table reveals a significant relationship between interest in wanting to know more about child rearing and willingness to participate. This low, but

significant relationship, ($r = .40$; $p \leq .001$) reflects a degree of consistency in the fathers' responses; that is, the fathers indicate not only an interest in learning more about child rearing practices but also declare a willingness to participate in such learning activities.

Interrelationships of ATFS, CRLIS and Selected Demographic Variables:

The investigation of possible relationships existing between performance on the questionnaires and selected demographic variables is of prime importance because of the exploratory nature of this study.

The analysis of variance was used to explore these relationships and a summary of these tests is provided in Table 12.

Insert Table 12. about here

Only one significant relationship, that is, between Traditional/Developmental attitudes toward fathering and Race ($F = 3.93$; $p \leq .01$) emerged. Several other trends toward significance, however, were found for: Traditional/Developmental attitudes toward fathering with composition of family, type of area lived and age of father; Interest in knowing more about child rearing with position of child and composition of family. Overall, these analyses document no outstanding influence of demographic variables on any of the fathers' attitudes or interest in parent education as measured in this study. Even the one significant finding with respect to race is somewhat suspect and could be considered spurious in view of the high degree of homogeneity (81% caucasian) of the sample.

Table 12. Analysis of Variance Test Results for ATFS, CRLIS and Selected Demographic Variables.

Scale	<u>Selected Demographic Variables</u>									
	Position of Child	Composition of Family	Age of Father	Length of Marital Status	Race	Income Total	Type of Area Lived In	Education Level	Sex of Child	Age of Child
ATFS	.76	1.67 ^t	2.91 ^t	.30	3.93**	.66	1.90 ^t	.18	.04	1.61
CRLIS: Learning Interest	1.75 ^t	.29	.44	.23	.27	.34	1.02	1.08	.12	2.17 ^t
CRLIS: Participation	2.84 ^t	2.54 ^t	1.60	.57	.22	.91	.84	1.24	.44	1.20

** Significant at .01 level.

^t Trend toward significance at .10 level.

Tests of Hypotheses

A major consideration regarding the tests of hypotheses was the traditional/developmental classification of subject scores on the Attitudes Toward Fathering Scale. Where appropriate two classification schemes were used. In the first scheme the median score was used as the cutting point and in the second scheme the top 28% and the bottom 28% of the scores in the overall distribution were isolated for classification as developmental or traditional, respectively.

It should be noted again, that the distribution of scores on the ATFS were skewed toward the developmental end of the scale. This raises the question as to whether or not the classification of scores into two groups would be valid and the validity of such a classification rests heavily on whether or not significant differences exist between the groups as classified. The substantiation of existing differences appears in Appendix C, where results of t-tests are presented.

Hypothesis I

Hypothesis I: Traditional/Developmental attitudes of fathers are not related to degree of interest in obtaining more knowledge of child rearing.

Responses on section one of the CRLIS, that is, the Learning Interest Scale, were totaled on all 19 items for each individual. This method yielded a composite score reflecting each individual's general level of interest in learning more about the aspects of child rearing listed. These composite scores were then grouped according to the traditional/developmental classifications of the fathers and

compared for significance of difference by use of the t-test. The results of these t-tests between traditional/developmental attitudes toward fathering and interest in child rearing are summarized in Table 13.

Table 13. Summary of Means, Standard Deviations, and t-values for T/D Classification and Learning Interest, Using Two Classification Schemes.

Classification	Group	N	Mean	S.D.	t-value ^a
T/D Classified	Below Median	29	41.17	10.74	
Using Median					.21
As Cutoff	Above Median	28	41.82	12.85	
T/D Classified	Bottom 28%	17	38.35	12.16	
Using Extreme					.70
(28%) Cutoff	Top 28%	16	41.25	11.70	

^a No t-values significant at the .05 level.

In neither classification scheme were the t-values significant. These non-significant t-values reflect the fact that fathers classified as traditional or developmental expressed no differences in their degree of interest in wanting to know more about child rearing. On the basis of these results the null hypothesis could not be rejected for these subjects. There appears to be, therefore, no basis for assuming that a particular orientation toward fathering is related to interest in wanting to know more about child rearing.

Hypothesis II

Hypothesis II: Traditional/Developmental attitudes of fathers are not related to willingness to participate in specific learning opportunities.

Willingness to participate in specific learning opportunities (section two of the CRLIS) was measured by simple "yes" or "no" responses on the part of the father. Frequency tabulations for each of the 19 CRLIS items were completed; however, the binomial nature of the original data suggested that correlational analysis for the group as a whole was perhaps the most appropriate way to investigate the relationship hypothesized. The analysis thus computed yielded a correlation coefficient ($r = .04$) which was not significant. On this basis, the null hypothesis could not be rejected for these fathers. There appears to be, therefore, no basis for assuming that fathers' attitudes, as classified here, are related to their expressed willingness to participate in parent education activities related to selected child rearing topics.

Hypothesis III

Hypothesis III: Traditional/Developmental attitudes of fathers are not related to preferences for particular types of learning activities.

Fathers' responses on section three of the CRLIS, Preferred Method Scale, required a preference for a particular method (out of a list of nine methods) in relation to each of the nineteen CRLIS items. After combining the nine methods of study into three groupings, that is, "One on one or small group interaction", "Formal classroom", and "Self-study," the responses were then tested according to group classification and traditional/developmental classification of the father. This procedure yielded nineteen 2×3 frequency distribution tables and allowed for a χ^2 test of significance. The results of these χ^2 tests are summarized in Table 14.

 Insert Table 14. about here

None of the χ^2 values were found to be significant at the .05 level. On the basis of these results the null hypothesis could not be rejected. This finding indicates that orientation toward the fathering role is not related to preferences for particular learning methods for these 19 child rearing interest areas.

Table 14. Chi Square Item Analysis for Traditional/Developmental Classifications and Preferred Methods of Study for the Nineteen Items on the CRLIS.

CRLIS Items	<u>χ^2 Value*</u>	
	Use of Median Cutoff Point	Use of Extreme (28%) Cutoff Point
1. Helping your child become independent	1.89	2.23
2. Your child at school	1.28	3.33
3. Your child's relationships at home	.91	.97
4. Safety for your child	.22	1.27
5. Guidance and discipline	.96	2.23
6. Your child's ability to get along with people	4.34 ^t	.19
7. Learning what to expect of a child	2.44	1.68
8. Sexual development	1.43	.68
9. Your own feelings as a parent	2.74	3.48 ^t
10. Your child's health	1.24	.83
11. Helping your child develop reading and speech at home	3.45 ^t	1.15
12. Encouraging the development of music, art and dancing	.90	.25
13. Your child's play	2.52	1.44
14. Helping the child relate to people of different races and cultures	5.68 ^t	2.33
15. Growth of the child's whole body	.58	.26
16. How to answer a child's questions about religion	.33	.96
17. Work	2.50	1.78
18. Clothing and grooming	.40	.64
19. Special times for your child	2.16	2.15

* No χ^2 values significant at .05 level.

^t Trend toward significance at .10 level.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

The major purposes of this study were to describe paternal attitudes toward fathering and parent education and to then explore the relationships among these attitudes and interests. A second purpose focused on an analysis of the relationships among selected demographic variables and the variables represented in the major purpose.

Subjects for the study were 57 fathers, all of whom had at least one child enrolled in one of three preschool programs located in Corvallis, Oregon. Data from these subjects consisted of responses to a series of three questionnaires: (1) Attitudes Toward Fathering Scale (Bigner, 1977); (2) Child Rearing Learning Interest Scale (Hawkins, 1974) and (3) a personal data questionnaire.

Descriptive analyses of paternal attitudes toward fathering and parent education focused on frequency distributions, percentages and mean values. For this sample, it can be said that fathers expressed: (1) highly developmental attitudes toward their role; (2) a high degree of interest in wanting to know more about child rearing; (3) a high degree of willingness to participate in specific learning opportunities and (4) preferences for particular methods of study. Overall, the results of this study seem to be reflective of current societal trends toward developmental attitudes among fathers (Bigner, 1977) and are consistent with recent research showing a tendency for fathers to be interested in outside influences, including parent education, aimed

at building successful families (Buckland, 1972) and increasing the effectiveness of role performance (Hawkins, 1974). Furthermore, these findings strongly suggest that these fathers are conscious of the role they play in relation to their children and are receptive to interacting in situations which may affect their performance in that role.

Summary of Fathers' Role Attitudes

Fathers' attitudes toward their role were highly developmental in nature. This suggests that these fathers are more democratic in relating to their children; more concerned with the emotional well-being of their child and more likely to reflect upon attitudes and relationships (Bigner, 1977).

These results are essentially in agreement with those of Bigner (1977) as neither study has subjects falling in what would be considered the traditional end of the scale. Future research should attempt to include subjects who score more toward the lower or traditional end of the scale.

Summary of Attitudes Toward Parent Education

Attitudes toward parent education were evaluated from responses to three scales representing: (1) interest in wanting to know more about child rearing; (2) willingness to participate in specific learning opportunities and (3) preferred methods of study.

As a group, these fathers expressed a high degree of interest in wanting to learn more about child rearing and expressed varying degrees of interest in relation to individual child rearing topics (Table 3).

They expressed the most interest in learning about safety for their child, the health of their child, their child's ability to get along with people, their child's relationships at home, helping their child become independent and special times for their child. Conversely, they were least interested in learning about answering a child's questions about religion, clothing and grooming, sexual development, their own feelings as a parent, work, and helping their child relate to people of different races and cultures. At this point, information is lacking on the reasons for this lack of interest. For example, is it related to pure disinterest, some perceptions of the father's role not measured in this study or a feeling of enough knowledge already in the area. At any rate, this information is extremely similar to the findings of Hawkins (1974) in his original use of the CRLIS, except for the relatively high degree of interest in safety, health and special times. The emergence of these three new areas may be the result of having nearly 60% of the fathers in this study responding in terms of their first child or a result of fathers increased involvement in the child care role (Nye, 1976). Future research could focus more intense interest on clarifying the relationship between degree of interest in child rearing areas and background characteristics of the father.

The fact that fathers expressed varying degrees of interest depending upon the topic under discussion has important implications for parent education as well. This degree of diversity in interest among topics warrants full consideration by the individual parent educator, for previous lack of participation by fathers may be a

result of having topics that are of no interest to them. It is recommended that, specific information regarding interests be collected for each proposed study group prior to the construction of a study plan in order to insure that the topics covered are indeed the topics of interest to the group members.

Fathers also expressed a high degree of willingness to participate in specific learning opportunities. In fact, on only three of the 19 child rearing areas listed in the questionnaire, were the fathers unwilling to participate in a learning experience. It is significant to note that these three areas, where fathers were unwilling to participate, were also three of the areas receiving the least amount of interest. This congruence suggested the possibility of a positive relationship between degree of interest and willingness to participate.

This relationship was indeed substantiated in a correlational analysis ($r = .40$; $p \leq .001$), however, it is beyond the scope of this study to be able to answer the much larger question involving whether or not the father actually participates in a parent education program. It is entirely possible that statements of willingness to participate do not reflect the actual degree of participation to come. Further research is needed to investigate the relationship between statements of willingness and actual participation. There may be other factors (for example, time factors, availability of baby-sitting services, etc.) which affect the fathers' ability to participate more than just his willingness to participate.

Not only were fathers interested in learning more about child rearing and willing to participate in learning opportunities, but

they expressed particular preferences for differing methods or techniques for the learning opportunities. The methods of study chosen more frequently were: books, study at home; personal conferences with teacher or specialist; talks or lectures and parent discussion groups. Those chosen considerably less frequently were: lessons on t.v. and correspondence courses. These results are generally consistent with Hawkins (1974) earlier work.

When the methods of study were grouped by similarity in operation, even more pronounced preferences appeared. Fathers preferred, by far, those methods falling under the category of "One-on-one or small group interaction", followed by those of "Self-study" and "Formal classroom." When comparing these groups to child rearing interest areas, fathers showed again a clear preference for the "One-on-one or small group interaction" methods.

One additional, interesting observation regarding the choice of methods emerges when one views the descriptive analyses reported in Table 8. These data document that fathers do select different methods of study in relation to different child rearing topics. This in itself is not surprising; however, at first glance some of the pairings are. For example, the preference of "Books, study at home" in relation to "Sexual development" and "How to answer a child's questions about religion" seems inconsistent with their overall preference for "One-on-one or small group interaction". It is somewhat logical to assume that in areas such as these they would naturally seek the "guidance" type of interaction for more information. One possible explanation for their choice is that, in these somewhat sensitive areas, they want to

read, become more knowledgeable and perhaps generally become more at ease with the topic before they face a personal or group discussion on the topic. In a sense, reading becomes a first step and may later be followed by a preference for one-on-one or small group discussion. Educational level supports notion that they could gain from reading.

This line of reasoning introduces another level of possible "interaction" variables, that is, the fathers' feeling of competence, to be considered with choice of methods of study and, as mentioned earlier, indications of interest in various child rearing topics. By implication, it may be that a parent's choice of methods of study depends upon their feeling of competence in the specific area under consideration. The possibility of this interaction suggests that future research investigate more thoroughly, interaction among variables. One is reminded of Brim's earlier quote, "... further research [in this area] will be much more powerful if it includes in its design a consideration on the possible effects of interaction of factors" (Brim, 1959; pg. 121). This type of research will need to take place before specific recommendations for parent education can be made; however, a general recommendation would be to match area of study with a method of study since we do seem to see a relation between these variables.

Interrelationships

In order to describe more clearly the possible relationship existing between attitudes toward fathering and interest in parent education correlation coefficients were established between traditional/developmental attitudes, learning interests and willingness to participate.

The only significant relationship to appear was that between interest and willingness to participate. Those fathers reporting a high degree of interest tended also to be very willing to participate in parent education activities. This indicates, contrary to the basic stereotype of the uninterested father, that fathers are interested in their role and are willing to participate in activities designed to enhance role performance. Indirectly, the relationship also suggests high validity for the father's responses in that expressions of interest in parent education should be followed by (coupled with) indications of willingness to participate in those activities.

Because of the exploratory nature of the study it was important to look at possible relationships between the major variables of the study and selected demographic variables. In an analysis of variance performed on these variables only one significant relationship was found, although several trends toward significance were noted. The one significant relationship was found for traditional/developmental attitudes toward fathering and race, however, this finding is somewhat suspect because of the high degree of homogeneity of the sample. Further research could attempt to investigate this relationship in more detail with a more equal distribution of subjects from various ethnic backgrounds.

Tests of Hypotheses

In order to explore more fully the relationship between traditional/developmental attitudes toward fathering and interest in parent education three null hypotheses were developed. It was hypothesized

that traditional/developmental attitudes toward the fathering role were not related to: (1) degree of interest in wanting to know more about child rearing; (2) willingness to participate in learning opportunities and (3) preferences for particular methods of study. Application of t-tests, pearson product moment correlation coefficients and chi square tests of significance of difference, respectively, were used to test each of these hypotheses. In addition, two schemes for classifying subjects as either traditional or developmental were used.

In each case, none of the statistical results showed significance at the .05 level. On the basis of these results none of the null hypotheses could be rejected. There appears to be, therefore, no basis to assume that differences in attitudes toward the fathering role would bias a father toward greater or lesser interest in wanting to know more about child rearing, nor would it bias a father toward greater or lesser interest in participating in parent education. In relation to hypothesis #3 differing attitudes toward the fathering role also do not appear to bias a father toward one particular method of study over another. Varying degrees of a traditional or developmental orientation toward the role of the father appears to make little difference in attitudes toward parent education. Fathers are reporting high degrees of interest in parent education and thus every effort should be made to include them, regardless of personal orientation to their role.

Summary of Implications for Parent Educators

1. Assess specific interest areas prior to construction of a study plan in order to insure that topics covered are of interest to participants.
2. Assess additional factors (time commitments, availability of baby-sitting services, etc.) which may make participation difficult.
3. Assess preferred methods of study in relation to the topics to be discussed and plan accordingly.
4. Provide reading material for participants prior to presentation of the topic in order to allow participants the opportunity to become familiar with and feel more comfortable with the topic.
5. Parent educators should make every effort to assess fathers' feelings of competence in relation to various areas of child rearing.

Limitations of the Study

1. Subjects for the study were not selected on the basis of random sampling and only limited heterogeneity was achieved.
2. The level of sophistication of the instruments was not very high due to the newness of the measures and lack of refinement in the scales.

Suggestions for Future Research

1. Obtain, through random sampling, a larger and more heterogeneous sample, which would allow greater analysis possibilities and greater generalizability of findings.
2. Conduct more research to investigate child rearing interests of fathers and the relationships of these interests to background characteristics of the fathers.
3. Conduct more research involving the relationship of methods of study preferred and interest areas to allow for a better blending of program and participant.
4. Conduct more research to investigate the relationship between preferred methods of study and willingness to participate in order to better blend the program and the participant.
5. Investigate the relationship between indications of willingness to participate and actual participation.
6. Investigate the effects of various parent education programs on fathers' attitudes toward their role.
7. Investigate the similarities and differences of fathers' role attitudes and mothers' perceptions of the fathering role.
8. Investigate the similarities and differences of both fathers' and mothers' attitudes toward parent education.

9. Research attempting to focus on fathers' attitudes should make every effort to include single fathers having custody of young children as a part of the sample. This would allow for a contrast of the perceptions of the fathering role in single parent and intact families.

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APPENDIX A

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF SUBJECTS

Demographic Characteristics of Subjects

Characteristic	N	% of Total	Range	Mean
<u>Age of Father</u>	<u>56</u>		25-49	34.13
25-32	21	38		
31-37	26	46		
38-49	9	17		
<u>Race of Father</u>	<u>57</u>			
Asian	5	9		
Chicano	4	7		
Caucasian	46	81		
Other	2	3		
<u>Income Total</u>	<u>55</u>			
Less than 9,999	6	11		
10,000-19,999	20	36		
20,000-29,999	19	35		
More than 30,000	10	18		
<u>Employment Status</u>	<u>56</u>			
Full Time	49	88		
Part Time	3	5		
Unemployed	4	7		
<u>Composition of Family</u>	<u>57</u>			
All boys	12	21		
All girls	14	25		
Mixed	31	54		
<u>Number of Years at Present Address</u>	<u>57</u>		1-12 yr	3.4 yr
0-1 yr	17	30		
2-4 yr	25	43		
5-9 yr	13	23		
10 or more yr	2	4		
<u>Type of Area Lived in Most of Life</u>	<u>57</u>			
Farm or rural	3	5		
Pop. less than 10,000	3	5		
Pop. 10,000-50,000	31	5		
Pop. over 50,000	19	35		
Other	1	1		

Demographic Characteristics of Subjects (continued)

Characteristic	N	% of Total	Range	Mean
<u>Marital Status</u>	<u>57</u>			
Married	54	94		
Marriage type relation	1	2		
Divorced or separated	2	4		
<u>Length of Marital Status</u>	<u>57</u>		1-25 yr	9.8 yr
Less than 5 yr	4	7		
5-10 yr	32	56		
10-15 yr	19	33		
More than 15 yr	2	4		
<u>Education</u>	<u>57</u>			
High school graduate	2	3		
Some college	10	18		
College graduate	15	26		
Graduate Degree	30	53		
<u>Age of Child in Program</u>	<u>57</u>		3-5 yr	50 mo
3 yr (36 mo)	5	9		
3 $\frac{1}{2}$ yr (42 mo)	6	11		
4 yr (48 mo)	23	39		
4 $\frac{1}{2}$ yr (54 mo)	4	8		
5 yr (60 mo)	19	33		
<u>Sex of Child in Program</u>	<u>57</u>			
Boys	31	54		
Girls	26	46		
<u>Ordinal Position of Child In Program</u>	<u>55</u>			
1st born	32	58		
2nd born	16	29		
3rd born	6	11		
4th born	1	2		

APPENDIX B

LETTERS OF EXPLANATION OF RESEARCH STUDY;

PERSONAL DATA QUESTIONNAIRE;

CHILD REARING LEARNING INTEREST SCALE;

&

ATTITUDES TOWARD FATHERING SCALE

May 1979

Dear

Parents have a wide range of attitudes concerning child rearing and children. I am conducting a study to learn something about these attitudes. In particular, I am interested in fathers and their attitudes toward fathering. I feel this study is especially important since there is not much research in this area.

To help me accomplish this task, I am asking several fathers to fill out two short questionnaires. Your participation would be greatly appreciated. All responses will remain totally anonymous and there is no way any information can be traced back to you personally once the questionnaires have been completed and returned.

In completing these questionnaires please answer each question in relation to your preschool age child. Please answer honestly, expressing your true feelings. There are no right or wrong answers to the questions. You can contribute most to the success of the study if you take care not to exaggerate or understate your true attitudes. The questionnaires will take approximately twenty (20) minutes to complete. Please return them within one week to the box located near the parent's bulletin board. In addition, if you would like a copy of an abstract of the study fill out the information at the bottom of this page and just drop it in the box separately from the envelope with the questionnaires.

This study has been reviewed and approved by the Oregon State University committee which evaluates research involving human subjects. If you have any questions or would like to further discuss any aspect of the study please feel free to call or make arrangements to meet. I thank you in advance for your time and participation.

Sincerely,

Brent Van Elswyk, Director
Grant Avenue Preschool

School of
Home Economics



Corvallis, Oregon 97331 (503) 754-3551

I am writing to introduce Mr. Brent VanElswyk, a graduate student in the Family Life Department. Brent intends to finish his M.S. degree this summer and the request we are presenting to you in this letter is crucial to his thesis research.

For some time, Brent has been interested in the role of the father in child rearing and last year while working as a graduate assistant in our Child Development Laboratories his ideas focused on a specific project. We are now asking for your cooperation in completing the questionnaire attached. Our pretests indicate that the time involved is approximately 20 minutes.

Generally, the research information in this area is sparse and we will appreciate very much your help in contributing to this attempt to "close some of the gaps". We will, of course, be pleased to share the results of the study if you are interested. Simply check the box below, sign, and return under separate cover. We will mail you an abstract of the study next Fall term.

Sincerely,

Redacted for Privacy

J. Philip O'Neill, Director
Child Development Labs

dln

enc.

☐

I wish to be informed of the results of Brent VanElswyk's study.

Name _____

Address _____



Dear Parents,

In completing these questionnaires, please answer each question in relation to your own preschool-age child. Please answer the questions honestly, expressing your true feelings. There are no right or wrong answers. You can contribute most to the success of the study if you take care not to exaggerate or understate your true attitudes.

To ensure confidentiality, your questionnaire may be sealed in the envelope provided and returned at either Orchard Street or Park Terrace Child Development Laboratory.

The study has been reviewed and approved by the OSU Committee which evaluates research involving human subjects. If you have any questions or would like to further discuss any aspect of the study, please feel free to call and/or make arrangements to meet. I thank you in advance for your participation.

Sincerely,

Redacted for Privacy

Brent VanElswyk
Graduate Student
Family Life Department

d1m

PERSONAL DATA QUESTIONNAIRE

ENVIRONMENTAL HISTORY

1. How old are your children? Girls _____
Boys _____
2. What is your sex? Female _____ Male _____
3. What is your current marital status? Married _____; Living in marriage-type relationship
relationship _____; Separated _____; Divorced _____; Widowed _____; Single _____.
How long? _____
4. How many brothers and sisters did you have in your family? _____
5. How many were older than you? _____
6. Which do you consider yourself? (please circle)
a. Indian c. Black e. White
b. Asian d. Chicano f. Other: _____
7. What is your date of birth? Month _____ Day _____ Year _____
8. What best describes your family's income for the past year?
Check one number for father and one number for mother.

	<u>Father</u>	<u>Mother</u>
a. None	_____	_____
b. Less than \$4,999	_____	_____
c. \$5,000 to \$9,999	_____	_____
d. \$10,000 to \$14,999	_____	_____
e. \$15,000 to \$19,999	_____	_____
f. Over \$20,000	_____	_____
g. Over \$30,000	_____	_____
9. Are you employed full time _____; part time _____; or not at all _____?
10. If employed, what is your present job? Please give brief description:

11. How long have you been living at your present address? _____ years
12. How many times have you moved in the last five years? _____
13. Where have you lived most of your life? Please check only one.

a. On a farm or rural area	_____
b. In a small town (less than 5,000)	_____
c. In a large town (less than 10,000)	_____
d. In a small city (less than 50,000)	_____
e. In a large city (over 50,000)	_____
f. Other: _____	
14. How many others live with you (other than children and parents)? _____
15. How many rooms in your house not including hallways, bathrooms, porches, closets or storage areas? _____
16. Schooling completed: Please check only one answer.

_____ a. 8th grade or less	_____ d. Some college
_____ b. Some high school	_____ e. College graduate
_____ c. High school graduate	_____ f. Graduate degree

CHILD REARING LEARNING INTEREST SCALE

LEARNING INTERESTS SCALE

Section I: Learning Interests

Listed below are several areas of child rearing which may be of interest to you. Please indicate your degree of interest in wanting to know more about each area by circling the one response which more closely describes your interest:

- 0 = Not Interested
 1 = A little Interested
 2 = Quite Interested
 3 = Very Interested

	<u>not</u>	<u>little</u>	<u>quite</u>	<u>very</u>
1. Helping your child become independent	0	1	2	3
2. Your child at school	0	1	2	3
3. Your child's relationships at home	0	1	2	3
4. Safety for your child	0	1	2	3
5. Guidance and discipline	0	1	2	3
6. Your child's ability to get along with people	0	1	2	3
7. Learning what to expect of a child	0	1	2	3
8. Sexual development	0	1	2	3
9. Your own feelings as a parent	0	1	2	3
10. Your child's health	0	1	2	3
11. Helping the child develop reading and speech at home	0	1	2	3
12. Encouraging the development of music, art, and dancing	0	1	2	3
13. Your child's play	0	1	2	3
14. Helping the child relate to people of different races and cultures	0	1	2	3
15. Growth of the child's whole body	0	1	2	3
16. How to answer a child's questions about religion	0	1	2	3
17. Work	0	1	2	3
18. Clothing and grooming	0	1	2	3
19. Special times for your child	0	1	2	3

Section II: Participation

For each of the nineteen child rearing areas please answer the following question by marking either "yes" or "no": Would you be willing to participate in a specific learning experience designed to fulfill your interest in knowing more about . . . ?

	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>
1. Helping your child become independent	_____	_____
2. Your child at school	_____	_____
3. Your child's relationships at home	_____	_____
4. Safety for your child	_____	_____
5. Guidance and discipline	_____	_____
6. Your child's ability to get along with people	_____	_____
7. Learning what to expect of a child	_____	_____
8. Sexual development	_____	_____
9. Your own feelings as a parent	_____	_____
10. Your child's health	_____	_____
11. Helping your child develop reading and speech at home	_____	_____
12. Encouraging the development of music, art and dancing	_____	_____
13. Your child's play	_____	_____
14. Helping the child relate to people of different races and cultures	_____	_____
15. Growth of the child's whole body	_____	_____
16. How to answer a child's questions about religion	_____	_____
17. Work	_____	_____
18. Clothing and grooming	_____	_____
19. Special times for your child	_____	_____

Section III: Methods of Study

There are several ways of learning more about child rearing. Please indicate in the column at the far right the one method of the nine listed below that you would prefer for each of the nineteen interest areas.

1. Personal conferences with teacher or specialist	6. Attend classes	
2. Parent discussion groups	7. Correspondence	
3. Talks or lectures	8. Organized groups with father and child	
4. Books, study at home	9. Lessons on television	
5. Magazine and newspaper reading		
		<u>Method</u>
1. Helping your child become independent		_____
2. Your child at school		_____
3. Your child's relationships at home		_____
4. Safety for your child		_____
5. Guidance and discipline		_____
6. Your child's ability to get along with people		_____
7. Learning what to expect of a child		_____
8. Sexual development		_____
9. Your own feelings as a parent		_____
10. Your child's health		_____
11. Helping your child develop reading and speech at home		_____
12. Encouraging the development of music, art and dancing		_____
13. Your child's play		_____
14. Helping your child relate to people of different races and cultures		_____
15. Growth of the child's whole body		_____
16. How to answer a child's questions about religion		_____
17. Work		_____
18. Clothing and grooming		_____
19. Special times for your child		_____

ATTITUDES TOWARD FATHERING SCALE

Instructions: The following statements describe feelings about attitudes toward the fatherhood role. Please indicate the degree of your reaction to these statements by circling one response that is listed below each statement.

SA = Strongly Agree; A = Agree; U = Undecided; D = Disagree; SD = Strongly Disagree

1. Discipline of children should be mainly the father's responsibility.
SA A U D SD
2. Children should have the feeling that their father knows most everything.
SA A U D SD
3. Children should be allowed to get dirty sometimes.
SA A U D SD
4. Firm and strict discipline in childhood creates a strong character later in life.
SA A U D SD
5. Children should not be expected to obey rules and commands without being given reasons for them.
SA A U D SD
6. A father should allow his children to decide what they will be when they grow up without trying to influence their decision.
SA A U D SD
7. Preschool-age children need fathers more than school-age children.
SA A U D SD
8. Children should never be forced to eat anything against their will.
SA A U D SD
9. Children need some of their natural meanness taken out of them.
SA A U D SD
10. Children who repeatedly disobey their fathers should be spanked.
SA A U D SD
11. Fathers need to "get away" from their children and be alone sometimes.
SA A U D SD
12. Children should be permitted to play with whomever they please.
SA A U D SD
13. Fathers should spend more time with their sons than daughters to shape their son's masculine development.
SA A U D SD
14. Sometimes a father dislikes the way his children behave.
SA A U D SD
15. Children have a right to make a harmless mess just for the fun of it.
SA A U D SD

16. The main responsibility of the father is being the provider for the family.
SA A U D SD
17. The reason for much of the youth problem today (drugs, disrespect, etc.) is because more mothers are working outside the home.
SA A U D SD
18. In raising children one's feelings are a better guide than carefully planned rules.
SA A U D SD
19. Children should be permitted to have secrets from their parents.
SA A U D SD
20. It is possible to show too much physical affection to children.
SA A U D SD
21. A family is not complete or really happy unless there are children in the home.
SA A U D SD
22. My children's friends are always welcome in our home.
SA A U D SD
23. A father should never "give in" to his child.
SA A U D SD
24. Children should obey their fathers because they are their fathers.
SA A U D SD
25. Fathers should not tease their children.
SA A U D SD
26. A child's freedom should be restricted in danger situations only.
SA A U D SD
27. Mothers should receive their life satisfaction from raising their children and being a homemaker.
SA A U D SD
28. Adults should step in to solve quarrels and disagreements between children.
SA A U D SD
29. Early weaning and toilet training is important in preparing children for life.
SA A U D SD
30. Children should be permitted to do as they wish with their own toys.
SA A U D SD
31. It is unwise for a father to admit his mistakes to his child.
SA A U D SD
32. Fathers should help in homemaking chores (cooking, dishes, etc.).
SA A U D SD

33. Children should be allowed to openly disagree with their parents.

SA	A	U	D	SD
----	---	---	---	----

34. A child should be permitted to spend his money as he wishes.

SA	A	U	D	SD
----	---	---	---	----

35. Children's whims should always be repressed.

SA	A	U	D	SD
----	---	---	---	----

36. A father should always take time to listen to his child.

SA	A	U	D	SD
----	---	---	---	----

APPENDIX C

SUMMARY OF MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS AND t -VALUES
FOR T/D CLASSIFICATION USING TWO CLASSIFICATION SCHEMES

Summary of Means, Standard Deviations and t-values
For T/D Classification Using Two Classification Schemes

Classification	Group	N	Mean	S.D.	t-value
Median Cutoff	Below	29	116.59	6.85	8.85****
	Above	28	134.36	8.27	
Extreme Cutoff	Below	17	112.76	6.42	11.74****
	Above	16	139.88	6.85	

**** Significant at the .0001 level.