AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

Noël Annette Furneaux for the degree of Master of Science in Human Development and Family Studies presented on July 13, 1982.

Title: Parental Attitudes Toward Fathering and Fathers' Involvement with Infants

Abstract approved: Redacted for Privacy

Dr. Alan Sugawara

The present study examined fathers' and mothers' attitudes toward fathering and fathers' involvement with their infant sons and daughters. Subjects included 42 pairs of parents with infants from upper and middle socioeconomic class families. All subjects were of the Caucasian race. The Attitudes Toward Fathering Scale and the Father Behavioral Self-Report Questionnaire were used to assess the subjects' attitudes toward fathering and the degree of fathers' involvement in infant caretaking, respectively. A variety of statistics, including the analysis of variance, Scheffe' Test, Sign Test, and Chi-Square Test, were used in data analyses.

When fathers were divided into developmental and less developmental fathering types, results revealed that fathers with sons, regardless of fathering type, were generally more involved with their infants than were fathers with daughters. However, developmental fathers with daughters were generally more involved with their infants than were less developmental fathers with daughters. Furthermore, less developmental fathers with sons were
generally more involved with their infants than were less developmental fathers with daughters.

When father and mother pairs were divided into developmental, discrepant, and less developmental family groups, results revealed that fathers with sons, regardless of family group, were generally more involved with their infants than were fathers with daughters. In addition, fathers in developmental families tended to be more involved with their infants than were fathers from discrepant families, followed by fathers in less developmental families. However, while fathers with daughters upheld this pattern of father involvement, fathers with sons did not. Fathers with sons in discrepant families tended to be more involved with their infants than were fathers from developmental families, followed by fathers in less developmental families. Finally, fathers with sons in discrepant families were generally more involved with their infants than were fathers with daughters in discrepant families.

Findings obtained in this study were discussed on the basis of previous theory and research. Generally, the results indicated that fathers are involved in caring for their infants. Their attitudes toward fathering are related to their involvement in child care. Furthermore, within families, both fathers' and mothers' attitudes toward fathering are important in understanding fathers' involvement in infant caretaking. Finally, the sex of the infant must be considered in understanding the relationship between fathers' and mothers' attitudes toward fathering and fathers' involvement in infant caretaking.
Parental Attitudes Toward Fathering and Fathers' Involvement with Infants

by

Noël Annette Furneaux

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Parental Attitudes Toward Fathering 
and Fathers' Involvement with Infants

I. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Recently, investigators of parent-child relationships have become interested in the father and his role in child development (Belsky, 1981; Lamb, 1976a, 1978). This current interest in fathering has been due to alterations in cultural and social norms that have led to changes in the structure of the American family (Bigner, 1977; Bronfenbrenner, 1973; Gearing, 1978; Parke & Sawin, 1976). The rising divorce rate, increases in the number of single parents, women in the labor force, and changing sex roles have all contributed to fluctuations in family structure. These have affected the father's role within the family. Moreover, changing assumptions, values, and attitudes regarding children and their needs have made their impact on the roles mothers and fathers play within their families (Lamb, 1979). In the past, researchers and theorists have considered fathers to play a secondary role in the socialization of their children, especially infants (Kotelchuck, 1976; Lamb, 1976a). More recently, however, a few researchers (Lamb, 1976a; Parke, 1979) have begun to provide us with information about the importance of fathers in the lives of young children.

Despite the paucity of information on fathering during infancy, researchers have illuminated several aspects of the father-infant relationship. These investigations have focused their attention upon studying fathers' nurturant behaviors (Mackay & Day, 1979; Swain & Parke, 1979), social and play behaviors (Lamb, 1976b, 1977a, 1977b, 1978; Rebelsky & Hanks, 1971), sensitivity to infant cues...
(Sawin & Parke, 1979), attachment (Greenberg & Morris, 1974; Lamb, 1977a, 1977b; Spelke, Zelazo, Kagen & Kotelchuck, 1973), interaction with infants of both sexes (Belsky, 1979a; Pederson & Robson, 1969; Parke & O'Leary, 1976), and involvement in child care (Clarke-Stewart, 1978; Kotelchuck, 1976; Redina & Dickerscheid, 1976). In general, the literature suggests that fathers influence their children in many areas, including social, emotional, cognitive, creative, and sex-role development (Bigner, 1977; Lamb, 1976a; Lynn, 1974; Parke, 1979).

Although studies have confirmed that fathers are salient individuals throughout children's lives, the scope of this information is limited. As yet, little is known about fathers' attitudes toward fathering, especially during infancy. The study of attitudes is especially important due to its relationship to behavior. Indeed, an individual's attitudes toward the parenting role and how the role should be conducted are considered to be important antecedents of an individual's enactment of that role (Bigner, 1977). Rokeach (1968) defined an attitude as:

>a relatively enduring organization of interrelated beliefs that describe, evaluate, and advocate action with respect to an object or situation, with each belief having cognitive, affective and behavioral components (p. 457).

Therefore, according to this definition, attitudes do have a behavioral component. Acknowledgement of this fact has important implications for the study of fathering, particularly in the examination of the congruency between fathers' attitudes toward fathering and fathers' involvement in children's lives.

Researchers have noted the presence of two types of fathering attitudes: developmental and traditional (Bigner, 1977; Elder, 1949).
Developmental fathering emphasizes a democratic approach toward fathering, focusing on the teaching of self-reliance and autonomy among children and centering on the development of the affective and nurturant components of the father-child relationship (Bigner, 1977). In contrast, traditional fathering emphasizes nonparticipation, authoritarianism, discipline, and power of fathers in the father-child relationship (Bigner, 1977). Consequently, fathers who maintain developmental attitudes toward fathering are more likely to be involved in the rearing of their children than are traditional fathers.

On the basis of past research, it appears that fathers believe that they should participate in infant caretaking. For example, Cordell, Parke, and Sawin (1980) found that 100 percent of the fathers they interviewed felt they should participate in routine care of their infants. Although this study does shed some light on fathers' attitudes toward child care, the researchers neglected to investigate whether or not the fathers did actually participate in infant caretaking. Moreover, due to the use of an interview approach to gather data for this study, subjects' responses during the interview may have been markedly influenced by social convention.

It should also be noted that fathers are not the only ones who believe they should participate in infant caretaking. A group of non-fathers were found to maintain such an attitude as well. In a study of unmarried college students, McIntire, Nass, and Battistone (1974) found that 93.5 percent of their subjects believed that fathers should participate in infant caretaking.
In light of these findings, additional investigation on fathers' actual participation in infant caretaking seems warranted.

In reviewing the research on father involvement in caretaking, Tasch (1952) found that fathers saw themselves as active participants in child care. In fact, over three-fourths of the fathers reported helping in routine caretaking. However, due to changing sex-role attitudes and behaviors, fathers' views of themselves and their behaviors today may be quite different from those of fathers 30 years ago. What previous fathers viewed as active participation in caretaking may possibly be dissimilar to the views of present-day fathers.

More recently, Redina and Dickerscheid (1976) examined fathers' involvement in the care of their firstborn infants, using observations and interviews to gather their data. On the basis of their findings, these researchers concluded that there was no significant difference between fathers' reported caretaking activities during interviews and their observed caretaking involvement.

Apparently, fathers are interested in and involved with their infants. However, whether fathers show preferential treatment of their sons over their daughters has not been clearly delineated. The literature on fathers' involvement and interaction with children of both sexes indicates discrepant findings. Several studies indicate that there are no significant differences for various types of fathers' involvement with male or female infants (Belsky, 1979a; Field, 1978; Lamb, 1977a; Pederson & Robson, 1969; Redina & Dickerscheid, 1978). However, several studies are available reporting a tendency for fathers to involve themselves in caretaking and
interactions more often with their sons than with their daughters (Lamb, 1977b; Parke & O'Leary, 1976; Pederson & Robson, 1969; Rebelsky & Hanks, 1971; Redina & Dickerscheid, 1978). In addition, there are a few studies available which indicate fathers significantly prefer more involvement with their sons than with their daughters. These studies reveal that fathers are more involved in the play behaviors (Kotelchuck, 1976; Spelke et al., 1973), vocalizations (Spelke et al., 1973), stimulation, and positive affection (Belsky, 1979a) with their sons. Because of these discrepant findings, it would be important to consider the variable of sex of infant in a study of fathers' involvement in infant caretaking.

Although researchers have studied fathers' attitudes toward fathering and fathers' involvement in caretaking separately, little empirical investigation has been done examining the relationship between these two variables. One recent exception is the study by Bigner (1977) among fathers of preschool children. Utilizing the Attitudes Toward Fathering Scale (ATFS) and the Father-Child Activity Scale (FCAS), results revealed low but positive and significant relationships between fathers' attitudes toward fathering and their involvement in a variety of child-care activities. This is in contrast to earlier studies (Elder, 1949; Mannino, Kisielewski, Kimbro & Morgenstern, 1968) which reported no significant relationship between fathers' behaviors and fathers' attitudes. Furthermore, in Bigner's (1977) study when subjects' scores on both the ATFS and FCAS were compared, taking into consideration the sex of child variable, no significant differences were found for subjects' total scores on each scale. However, when items in each of the scales were analyzed
for sex differences, several significant results related to fathers' attitudes and activities were obtained. While this study used preschool children as subjects, results suggest that the variable of sex of child be considered in a study of fathers' attitudes toward fathering as well as involvement in caretaking.

From the review of research summarized thus far, it appears that fathers do believe they should participate in infant and child care. Furthermore, fathers do in part participate in the caretaking of their children. However, with the exception of the studies by Bigner (1977), Elder (1949), and Mannino et al. (1968) which indicate contradictory results, researchers have not clearly delineated the relationship between fathers' attitudes toward fathering and their involvement in infant caretaking. Therefore, an examination of this relationship among fathers with infants would seem appropriate at this time. On the basis of past theory and research it is expected that fathers with developmental attitudes toward fathering will be more involved in the caretaking of their infants than will fathers with traditional attitudes toward fathering.

In attempting to understand the relationship between fathers' attitudes toward fathering and their involvement in infant caretaking, mothers' attitudes toward the fathering role must also be taken into account. Presently, no study was found comparing fathers' and mothers' attitudes toward fathering and its relationship to fathers' involvement in infant caretaking. Studies are available, however, comparing fathers' and mothers' attitudes toward child rearing. Of those that have been conducted, some reveal differences between fathers' and mothers' attitudes (Eron, Banta, Walder &
Laulicht, 1961; Friedman, 1964), while others reveal similarities between them (Baumrind, 1971; Bonner, 1978; Clarke-Stewart, 1978; Dielman, Barton & Cattell, 1977; Putney & Middleton, 1960). In addition, Belsky's (1979b) and Russell's (1978) findings suggest that mothers' attitudes may influence fathers' involvement. Furthermore, a few studies are available examining parental attitudes toward child rearing, and parents' child-rearing behavior (Baumrind, 1971; Dielman et al., 1977; Tulkin & Cohler, 1973; Zunich, 1971). On the basis of these indirectly related studies, therefore, it seems worthwhile to pursue a study focused upon the relationship between fathers' and mothers' attitudes toward fathering and fathers' involvement in infant caretaking.

As alluded to by "attitudinal theorists" (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1972; Kelman, 1974), an individual's attitudes towards one's role within the family is related to another family member's attitudes towards that role. Furthermore, an individual's attitudes toward one's role and another family member's attitudes toward that role are both related to the performance of one's role within the family. In addition to this theoretical idea, previous research on fathers' attitudes toward fathering and their involvement in infant caretaking, and indirectly related studies on the relationship between mothers' attitudes and fathers' involvement in infant caretaking suggests the following expectations: Families in which both fathers and mothers are developmental in their fathering attitudes will have fathers who are more involved in infant caretaking than are fathers in families where both parents are traditional. Where a discrepancy occurs between mothers' and fathers' attitudes toward
fathering (one traditional and the other developmental), we would expect fathers' involvement in infant caretaking to fall within the mid-range. The reason for this expectation is due to the conflict that would occur within families where there is a discrepancy between mothers' and fathers' attitudes toward the fathering role (Eversoll, 1979). This conflict might impede the fathers' involvement in infant caretaking.

Finally, the variable of sex of infant would be an additional important variable to consider in understanding the relationship between fathers' and mothers' attitudes toward fathering and fathers' involvement in infant caretaking. This is so because of the discrepant findings obtained regarding sex differences in fathers' attitudes with preschool children as well as their involvement in infant caretaking.
Subjects

Subjects included 42 pairs of parents (fathers and mothers) who volunteered for this study. A majority (n = 28) of them were enrolled in parent education classes offered by a community college in central Oregon, a university child development facility, and a community women and infant care program. Others (n = 14) were contacted during their visit to a physician's office or at home by phone through personal references. These parents had infants ranging in ages from 1 to 16 months (M = 8.38 months). They included 20 male and 22 female infants. Approximately 55 percent of the parents were first-time parents, while 45 percent had one to three additional children in the family.

The age range of fathers in the sample was 24 to 44 years (M = 31.44 years), while the age range of mothers was 23 to 41 years (M = 29.42 years). All parents were Caucasian and were married. They came predominantly from the upper-middle (Class I-Major Professionals = 50 percent) and middle (Class II-Lesser Professionals = 30 percent) classes as determined by Hollingshead's (1957) Two Factor Index of Social Position, based on fathers' education and occupation. Of the mothers, 69 percent were homemakers, 16.7 percent were professionals, 9.5 percent were clerical workers, and 4.8 percent were students. Fathers reported spending an average of 47.67 hours per week at their jobs, while mothers reported spending an average of 68.74 hours per week at their jobs.
Instruments

The Attitudes Toward Fathering Scale (ATFS: Bigner, 1977) was used to assess subjects' attitudes toward fathering (see Appendix A). The ATFS consists of 36 Likert-type items, 18 of which measure developmental attitudes toward fathering and 18 of which measure traditional attitudes. A few minor modifications were made in the instrument to make data obtained with this scale relevant to a study of fathers with infants. Subjects' responses to each item in the scale range on a 5-point scale from strongly agree to strongly disagree. On developmental attitude items a response of strongly agree is equal to 5 points, while strongly disagree is equal to 1 point. However, for traditional attitude items the scoring is reversed. The range of possible scores on the ATFS is 36 to 180, with higher scores representing more developmental attitudes toward fathering and lower scores representing more traditional attitudes.

Subjects' scores were also used to identify both developmental and traditional attitudes toward fathering groups. Subjects obtaining scores of 90 or above have been identified as possessing developmental attitudes toward fathering, while subjects with scores of 89 or below have been identified as possessing traditional attitudes toward fathering (Bigner, 1977). However, since subjects in this study obtained more developmental than traditional attitudes toward fathering scores (fathers: $R = 89$ to 153, $M = 128.60$; mothers: $R = 102$ to 158, $M = 132.79$), a different scoring procedure had to be used in identifying the different attitudes toward fathering types and family groups for this study. Type I fathers
were identified as developmental fathers and included those fathers who scored 130 or more points on the ATFS. This group consisted of 21 fathers with 11 male and 10 female infants. Type II fathers were identified as less developmental fathers and included those who scored below 130 points on the ATFS. This group consisted of 21 fathers with 9 male and 12 female infants.

In addition, fathers' and mothers' ATFS scores were used to identify different attitudes toward fathering family groups. Group I consisted of 12 pairs of parents in which both fathers and mothers scored 130 or above on the ATFS. This group was known as the developmental family group and included 7 male and 5 female infants. Group II consisted of 19 pairs of parents in which one of each pair of parents had an ATFS score of 130 or above and the other had an ATFS score of below 130. This group was known as the discrepant family group and included 6 male and 13 female infants. Group III consisted of 11 pairs of parents in which both fathers and mothers scored below 130 on the ATFS. This group was known as the less developmental family group and included 7 male and 4 female infants.

Separate chi-square analyses of different attitudes toward fathering types and family groups revealed no significant differences between them with respect to fathers' and mothers' education, occupation, socioeconomic status, age, and infant's age.

Content validity for the ATFS was established by a panel of child development and family relations experts who ranked each item in the scale according to its degree of traditionalism. This procedure yielded a .84 Spearman rank-order correlation coefficient.
of agreement among the raters (Bigner, 1977). A test-retest reliability study with fathers of preschool children, using a 2-week time interval between testings, yielded a reliability coefficient of .81 for the ATFS (Bigner, 1977). In addition, a similar test-retest reliability study using eight fathers and mothers with infants from this study yielded Pearson product-moment correlation of .70 and .97, respectively.

The Father Behavioral Self-Report Questionnaire (FBSR), designed for this study, was used to assess fathers' degree of involvement in infant caretaking (see Appendix A). The FBSR consisted of items representing a variety of ways previous research (Bigner, 1977; Clarke-Stewart, 1978; Redina & Dickerscheid, 1976; Russell, 1978) and a sample of fathers (n = 11) had identified as representing fathers' involvement in infant caretaking. These included fathers' involvement in routine infant caretaking (e.g., putting the infant to bed, feeding, changing diapers, changing clothes, bathing the infant, putting the infant down for a nap, and attending to the infant at night when he/she cries); playing with the infant (e.g., with or without toys); and various other types of interactions (e.g., talking, reading, soothing, strolling, and spending time alone with the infant). Also asked for was the amount of hours and minutes fathers spent in interacting (e.g., attending to, talking, playing, etc.) with their infants per day. In administering the FBSR, subjects were asked to indicate the number of times they generally engage in activities found in the FBSR with their infants within a 2-week period.
In constructing the FBSR, previously published research on fathers' involvement with their infants was reviewed and items used in these studies were combined to develop the FBSR. After evaluating this list of combined items, the researcher also included additional items that appeared important which previous research did not consider. A group (n = 8) of child development and family relations experts also reviewed the list and suggested additional items. A pilot study was then conducted with a sample of fathers (n = 11) to review the items found in the FBSR for understanding and information as to whether the list of items did provide a realistic view of fathers' involvement in infant caretaking. This sample of fathers completed the FBSR and identified a few additional items to be included in the FBSR, in a space provided in the questionnaire.

An additional validity study was also conducted using subjects in the present study. Both fathers and mothers in the present study were asked to complete the FBSR. Mothers' scores of their spouses' involvement in infant caretaking were then used as a validity check for fathers' reported involvement in infant caretaking. Table 1 summarizes the means, standard error, and t-values associated with the differences between fathers' reported involvement in infant caretaking and their spouses' (mothers') assessment for all items found in the FBSR. As indicated, one t-value obtained reached statistical significance (p < .05). This difference was related to fathers' reported involvement in attending to the infant at night when he/she cries. Fathers reported significantly more involvement than their spouses (mothers) reported fathers did. Because of this significant difference, analyses of data in the "Results" section
Table 1. Means, standard errors, and t-values associated with fathers' and mothers' reported involvement with their infants on the FBSR.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FBSR Item</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Father (M)</th>
<th>Mother (M)</th>
<th>S_e</th>
<th>t-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Putting to bed</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>.39</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feeding</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>5.15</td>
<td>5.44</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>-.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changing diapers</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>15.55</td>
<td>13.29</td>
<td>1.89</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changing clothes</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>6.60</td>
<td>6.14</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talking</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>109.51</td>
<td>72.33</td>
<td>28.19</td>
<td>1.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Play with toys</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>19.66</td>
<td>15.24</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Play without toys</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>28.37</td>
<td>23.42</td>
<td>5.05</td>
<td>.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>-.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bathing</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>.49</td>
<td>-1.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nap</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>4.88</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attending to infant</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>1.91</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>2.12*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alone with infant</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>9.12</td>
<td>5.49</td>
<td>2.24</td>
<td>1.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soothing</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>14.81</td>
<td>10.36</td>
<td>2.39</td>
<td>1.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strolling</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time interacting</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>111.02</td>
<td>117.57</td>
<td>10.82</td>
<td>-.61</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* t = 2.02, df = 41, p < .05

a The difference in the number of parents related to individual FBSR items indicates that some subjects did not complete certain items of the instrument.
will include separate analyses of fathers' and mothers' scores related to this item. On all other items in the FBSR related to fathers' involvement with their infants, fathers' reported involvement will be used in data analyses, since no significant differences were found between fathers' and mothers' scores.

In attempting to establish some measure of reliability for the FBSR, eight fathers in the present study were asked to complete the instrument twice, with a 2-week time interval between testings.

Table 2 presents the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients obtained for a test-retest reliability estimate of the FBSR. High-level reliability coefficients ranging from .80 to .97 were obtained for FBSR items feeding, changing diapers, talking, reading, spending time alone with the infant, soothing, strolling, and time spent interacting with their infants per day. Medium-level coefficients ranging from .66 to .70 were obtained for FBSR items putting the infant to bed, changing clothes, putting the infant down for a nap, and attending to the infant at night when he/she cries. Very low-level reliability coefficients, ranging from -.21 to .54, however, were obtained for FBSR items playing with toys, playing without toys, and bathing. All high- and medium-level coefficients obtained were significant at the p < .05 or below.

**Procedures**

In conducting this research project, mothers primarily were the individuals to whom the instruments were given or contacted for participation in this study. Prior to distributing the instruments
Table 2. Test-retest reliability coefficients (Pearson product-moment) for the FBSR with eight fathers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FBSR Item</th>
<th>r</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Putting to bed</td>
<td>.70*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feeding</td>
<td>.85**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changing diapers</td>
<td>.89**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changing clothes</td>
<td>.66*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talking</td>
<td>.97**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Playing with toys</td>
<td>-.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Playing without toys</td>
<td>.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>.83**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bathing</td>
<td>.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nap</td>
<td>.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attending to infant</td>
<td>.77*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alone with infant</td>
<td>.91**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soothing</td>
<td>.86**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strolling</td>
<td>.92**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time interacting</td>
<td>.88**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**p < .01
*p < .05
to these subjects, they were briefly informed as to the nature of the study. Subjects enrolled in the parent education classes at the community college were introduced to the study during one of their classes. Those associated with the university child development facility were informed of the study as they brought their preschool children to school, while those associated with the community women and infant care program were contacted during one of their clinic days. A nurse at the physician's office was used to inform interested patients about this study, while those subjects obtained through personal references were contacted via phone by the researcher.

Those subjects who indicated interest in participating in this study were given two packets containing the instruments, one for each parent. The materials in both the fathers' and mothers' packets included: (1) a letter to the participants, describing the research project and asking them for their cooperation, (2) a sheet asking for the participants' background information, (3) the ATFS, and (4) the FBSR. Fathers were asked to complete the ATFS and the FBSR in terms of their own attitudes toward fathering and their involvement in infant caretaking, respectively. However, mothers were instructed to complete the ATFS and FBSR in terms of how they felt the fathering role should be and what they felt their spouses' (fathers') involvement in infant caretaking was, respectively.

The packets of instruments were taken home by the subjects, and instructions were given indicating that fathers and mothers complete the instruments separately (i.e., without consulting each other).
A self-addressed stamped envelope was provided for subjects to return the completed instruments. In all, 110 pairs of packets containing the instruments were distributed to possible subjects. Of that amount, 64 were returned, indicating a 58.18 percent return rate.
III. RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to examine both fathers' and mothers' attitudes toward fathering, and fathers' involvement in infant caretaking. More specifically, the following hypotheses were tested in this study.

Hypothesis I: Developmental fathers (Type I) will be significantly more involved in infant caretaking than will less developmental fathers (Type II).

Hypothesis II: Fathers in the developmental family group (Group I) will be significantly more involved in infant caretaking than will fathers in the discrepant family group (Group II), followed by fathers in the less developmental family group (Group III).

The variable of sex of infant was included in the test of hypotheses, due to questions raised in research regarding fathers' involvement in caring for male and female infants. Hypothesis I was tested using a 2 (fathering type) X 2 (sex of infant) analysis of variance design. Hypothesis II was tested using a 3 (family group) X 2 (sex of infant) analysis of variance design.

**Hypothesis I**

Results of the 2 (fathering type) X 2 (sex of infant) analysis of variance applied to the data related to Hypothesis I on the 15 fathers' involvement with their infants variables revealed only two significant findings. Table 3 summarizes the means associated with each fathers' involvement with their infants variable by fathering type and sex of infant. One of the significant findings obtained was related to the main effect of sex of
infant, $F(1, 40) = 5.88, p < .02$, on the variable, fathers feeding their infants. Fathers fed their sons ($M = 7.53$) significantly more often than fathers fed their daughters ($M = 3.09$).

The second significant finding obtained had to do with the interaction effect of fathering type and sex of infant, $F(1, 41) = 4.59, p < .04$, on the variable, putting the infant down for a nap. Post hoc analyses using the Scheffe' test (Kerlinger, 1973) revealed no significant differences between the groups. However, exploration of the means found in Table 3 and presentation of these results in Figure 1 reveal the following trends. Type I (developmental) fathers with daughters had a higher mean score, putting their infants down for a nap ($M = 6.70$), than did Type I fathers with sons ($M = 3.36$). On the other hand, the opposite was evident for Type II (less developmental) fathers. Type II fathers with sons had a higher mean score, putting their infants down for a nap ($M = 6.67$), that did Type II fathers with daughters ($M = 3.42$).

As indicated in the "Methods" section of this thesis, a significant difference was found between mothers' and fathers' perceptions of fathers' involvement with their infants related to the variable, attending to the infant at night when he/she cries. Because of this significant difference, analyses of data related to this variable was carried out separately for mothers' and fathers' perceptions. Results revealed no significant main or interaction effects for fathering type and sex of infant on this variable.
Table 3. Means associated with fathers' involvement with their infants by fathering type, sex of infant, and their interactions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Fathering Type</th>
<th>Sex of Infant</th>
<th>Fathering Type x Sex of Infant</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Type I (Develop.)</td>
<td>Type II (Less Develop.)</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Putting to bed</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feeding (n = 41)</td>
<td>5.40</td>
<td>4.90</td>
<td>[7.53]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changing diapers</td>
<td>16.48</td>
<td>14.62</td>
<td>15.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changing clothes</td>
<td>8.24</td>
<td>4.95</td>
<td>6.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talking (n = 39)</td>
<td>123.58</td>
<td>96.15</td>
<td>152.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Play with toys</td>
<td>16.57</td>
<td>22.62</td>
<td>22.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Play without toys</td>
<td>26.38</td>
<td>29.19</td>
<td>34.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td>1.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bathing</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>1.81</td>
<td>2.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Down for a nap</td>
<td>4.95</td>
<td>4.81</td>
<td>4.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attending to infant</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>1.95</td>
<td>2.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alone with infant</td>
<td>7.81</td>
<td>10.43</td>
<td>11.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strolling</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>2.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time Interacting (minutes)</td>
<td>120.24</td>
<td>101.81</td>
<td>110.75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05
Figure 1. Mean scores for fathers' putting their infants down for a nap by father type X sex of infant.
Additional Analyses Related to Hypothesis I

In order to further illuminate the results obtained related to Hypothesis I, additional analyses of the mean fathers' involvement with their infants scores found in Table 3 were undertaken. More specifically, comparison of the means related to each fathers' involvement variable for fathering type, sex of infant, and fathering type X sex of infant groups were analyzed using the Sign Test (Runyon & Harber, 1980). Results revealed significant differences in fathers' involvement with their infants between male and female infants in general (p < .05); between male and female infants with Type II (less developmental) fathers (p < .01); and between female infants with Type I (developmental) and Type II (less developmental) fathers (p < .01). These findings indicated that fathers were more involved (higher mean scores) with their sons on 12 of the 15 FBSR variables (80 percent) than fathers were involved with their daughters. In addition, less developmental fathers with sons were more involved with their infants on 14 of the 15 FBSR variables (93 percent) than less developmental fathers with daughters. Furthermore, developmental fathers with daughters were more involved with their infants on 12 of the 15 variables (80 percent) than less developmental fathers with daughters.

Hypothesis II

Results of the 3 (family group) X 2 (sex of infant) analyses of variance applied to the data related to Hypothesis II on the 15 fathers' involvement with their infants variables revealed only
six significant findings. Three of these significant findings were related to the main effects of family group and sex of infant.

Table 4 summarizes the means associated with each fathers' involvement with their infants variable by family group and sex of infant. A significant main effect for family group, $F(2, 41) = 4.47, p < .02$, was obtained on the variable, changing the infants' clothes. Post hoc analyses using the Scheffe' test revealed no significant differences between the groups. However, exploration of the means associated with this variable in Table 4 revealed a trend indicating that fathers in Family Group I (developmental) had a higher mean changing their infants' clothes score ($M = 10.58$) than did fathers in Family Group II (discrepant) ($M = 5.42$), followed by fathers in Family Group III (less developmental) ($M = 4.27$).

In addition, two significant main effects for sex of infant were obtained on the variables fathers' feeding their infants, $F(1, 40) = 5.12, p < .03$, and fathers' talking to their infants, $F(1, 38) = 4.17, p < .05$. As summarized in Table 4, fathers fed their sons ($M = 7.53$) significantly more often than fathers fed their daughters ($M = 3.09$). Furthermore, fathers talked to their sons ($M = 152.85$) significantly more often than fathers talked with their daughters ($M = 63.89$).

Aside from these significant main effects, three additional family group X sex of infant interaction effects were obtained. Table 5 summarizes the means associated with fathers' involvement with their infants by family group in interaction with sex of infant. One significant interaction effect was found on the variable, fathers' putting their infants down for a nap, $F(2, 41) = 5.63$,
Table 4. Means associated with fathers' involvement with their infants by family group and sex of infant.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Family Group</th>
<th>Sex of Infant</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group I (Developmental)</td>
<td>Group II (Discrepant)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Putting to bed</td>
<td>5.75</td>
<td>3.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feeding (n = 41)</td>
<td>5.58</td>
<td>4.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changing diapers</td>
<td>20.33</td>
<td>14.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changing clothes</td>
<td>10.58</td>
<td>5.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talking (n = 39)</td>
<td>142.18</td>
<td>109.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Play with toys</td>
<td>19.83</td>
<td>18.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Play without toys</td>
<td>26.33</td>
<td>29.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bathing</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>1.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Down for nap</td>
<td>5.50</td>
<td>4.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attending to infant</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>2.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alone with infant</td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td>12.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soothing</td>
<td>18.50</td>
<td>16.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strolling</td>
<td>5.25</td>
<td>3.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time Interacting (minutes)</td>
<td>118.75</td>
<td>123.32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05
Table 5. Means associated with fathers' involvement with their infants by family group X sex of infant.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Group I (Developmental)</th>
<th>Group II (Discrepant)</th>
<th>Group III (Less Developmental)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Putting to bed</td>
<td>4.86</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>4.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feeding (n = 41)</td>
<td>6.57</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>7.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changing diapers</td>
<td>17.43</td>
<td>24.40</td>
<td>20.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changing clothes</td>
<td>8.43</td>
<td>13.60</td>
<td>6.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talking (n = 39)</td>
<td>124.86</td>
<td>172.50</td>
<td>256.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Play with toys</td>
<td>20.29</td>
<td>19.20</td>
<td>16.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Play without toys</td>
<td>23.14</td>
<td>30.80</td>
<td>47.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>2.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bathing</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>2.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Down for a nap</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>10.00</td>
<td>5.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attending to infant</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>3.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alone with infant</td>
<td>5.71</td>
<td>11.20</td>
<td>26.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soothing</td>
<td>18.57</td>
<td>18.40</td>
<td>27.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strolling</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>9.80</td>
<td>4.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time Interacting</td>
<td>117.86</td>
<td>120.00</td>
<td>155.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05
Post hoc analyses using the Scheffe' test revealed no significant differences between groups. However, exploration of means found in Table 5 and presentation of these results in Figure 2 revealed the following trends. Fathers with daughters in Family Group I (developmental) has a higher mean putting their daughters down for a nap ($M = 10.00$) score than fathers with daughters in Family Group II (discrepant) ($M = 3.92$), followed by fathers with daughters in Family Group III (less developmental) ($M = 1.75$). Conversely, fathers with sons in Family Group III (less developmental) had a higher mean putting their sons down for a nap score ($M = 6.57$), than fathers with sons in Family Group II (discrepant) ($M = 5.83$), followed by fathers with sons in Family Group I (developmental) ($M = 2.29$).

A second significant interaction effect was obtained on the variable, fathers' spending time alone with their infants, $F(2, 41) = 3.29, p < .05$. Post hoc analyses using the Scheffe' test again revealed no significant differences between the groups. Exploration of the means in Table 5 and presentation of these results in Figure 3 revealed the following trends. Fathers with daughters in Family Group I (developmental) had a higher mean spending time alone with their daughters ($M = 11.20$) score than fathers with daughters in Family Group II (discrepant) ($M = 5.62$), followed by fathers with daughters in Family Group III (less developmental) ($M = 5.00$). Interestingly, however, fathers with sons in Family Group II (discrepant) had a higher mean spending time alone with their sons ($M = 26.67$) than fathers with sons in Family Group I (developmental) ($M = 5.71$), followed by fathers with
Figure 2. Mean scores for fathers' putting their infants down for naps by family group X sex of infant.
Figure 3. Mean scores for fathers' spending time alone with infants by family groups X sex of infant.
sons in Family Group III (less developmental) \((M = 4.86)\). The extremely high mean score of fathers with sons in Family Group II was due to the score of one father whose involvement score was extremely high. The elimination of this father's score from the sample reduced the mean to 12.20, which is still relatively high in comparison to the mean scores of other groups.

Finally, a third significant interaction effect was obtained on the variable, fathers' strolling with their infants, \(F(2, 41) = 3.37, p < .05\). Post hoc analyses using the Scheffe' again revealed no significant differences between the groups. Exploration of the means on Table 5 and presentation of these results in Figure 4 revealed the following trends. Fathers with daughters in Family Group I (developmental) had a higher mean taking their daughters strolling \((M = 9.80)\) score than fathers with daughters in Family Group II (less developmental) \((M = 2.75)\), followed by fathers with daughters in Family Group II (discrepant) \((M = 2.54)\). In contrast, fathers with sons in Family Group II (discrepant) had a higher taking their sons strolling \((M = 4.83)\) score than fathers with sons in Family Group I (developmental) \((M = 2.00)\), followed by fathers with sons in Family Group III (less developmental) \((M = 1.43)\).

As indicated in the "Methods" section of this thesis, the significant difference found between mothers' and fathers' perceptions of fathers' involvement with their infants related to the variable, attending to the infant at night when he/she cries, indicated a need to analyze mothers' and fathers' perceptions separately. Results revealed no significant main or interaction effects for family group and sex of infant on this variable.
Figure 4. Mean scores for fathers' taking their infants strolling by family group X sex of infant.
Additional Analyses Related to Hypothesis II

In order to further illuminate the results obtained related to Hypothesis II, additional analyses of the mean fathers' involvement with their infants scores found in Tables 4 and 5 were undertaken. More specifically, comparison of the means related to each fathers' involvement variable for family group, sex of infant, and family group X sex of infant categories were analyzed, using the Sign Test (Runyon & Haber, 1980). Results of the analyses of means in Table 4 revealed significant differences in fathers' involvement with their infants between Family Group I (developmental) and Family Group III (less developmental) \((p < .05)\) and male and female infants \((p < .05)\). These findings indicated that fathers from developmental families were more involved (higher mean scores) with their infants on 12 of the 15 FBSR variables (80 percent) than fathers from less developmental families. In addition, fathers with sons were more involved with their infants on 12 of the 15 FBSR variables (80 percent) than fathers with daughters.

Results of the analyses of means in Table 5 also revealed additional significant findings. Fathers with sons in Family Group II (discrepant) were more involved with their infants on 14 of the 15 FBSR variables (93 percent) than fathers with daughters in this group \((p < .01)\). In addition, fathers with sons in Family Group II (discrepant) were more involved with their infants on 12 of the 15 FBSR variables (80 percent) than fathers with sons in Family Group I (developmental) \((p < .05)\). Still also,
fathers with daughters in Family Group I (developmental) were more involved with their infants on 13 of the 15 FBSR variables (87 percent) than fathers with daughters in Family Group II (discrepant) \( (p<.01) \), and fathers with daughters in Family Group III (less developmental) \( (p<.01) \).

**Summary of Results**

Significant results (including ANOVA and additional analyses) obtained under Hypothesis I (fathering type X sex of infant) were further organized for presentation in Table 6. Exploration of these results suggested the following trends regarding fathers' involvement with their infants.

1. Fathers with sons, regardless of fathering type, were generally more involved with their infants than were fathers with daughters.

2. Developmental (Type I) fathers with daughters were generally more involved with their infants than were less developmental (Type II) fathers with daughters.

3. Less developmental (Type II) fathers with sons were generally more involved with their infants than less developmental (Type II) fathers with daughters.

4. The finding that developmental (Type I) fathers with daughters were more involved with their infants than developmental (Type I) fathers with sons was not as significant as the others, since it related to only one father involvement variable, namely, putting the infant down for a nap.
Table 6. Summary of significant results obtained under Hypothesis I (fathering type X sex of infant).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FBSR Variables</th>
<th>Level of Involvement</th>
<th>High (More)</th>
<th>Low (Less)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) Feeding</td>
<td></td>
<td>Fathers/Males</td>
<td>Fathers/Females</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80% of FBSR variables</td>
<td></td>
<td>Fathers/Males</td>
<td>Fathers/Females</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) 80% of FBSR variables</td>
<td></td>
<td>Type I/Females</td>
<td>Type II/Females</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) Nap</td>
<td></td>
<td>Type II/Males</td>
<td>Type II/Females</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>93% of FBSR variables</td>
<td></td>
<td>Type II/Males</td>
<td>Type II/Females</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) Nap</td>
<td></td>
<td>Type I/Females</td>
<td>Type I/Males</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Significant results (including ANOVA and additional analyses) obtained under Hypothesis II (family group X sex of infant) were also organized for presentation in Table 7. Exploration of these results suggest the following trends regarding fathers' involvement with their infants.

(1) Fathers with sons, regardless of family group, were generally more involved with their infants than fathers with daughters.

(2) Fathers in developmental (Group I) families were generally more involved with their infants than fathers in less developmental (Group III) families. No statement of trend could be made at this time when comparing fathers across all family groups, since the significant difference found between these groups was related to only 1 of the 15 father involvement variables, namely, changing infants' clothes.

(3) Fathers with daughters in developmental (Group I) families were generally more involved with their infants than fathers with daughters in discrepant (Group II) and less developmental (Group III) families. However, the difference in fathers' involvement with their infants between fathers with daughters in discrepant (Group II) and less developmental (Group III) families was not clear-cut.

(4) Fathers with sons in discrepant (Group II) families were generally more involved with their infants than fathers with sons in developmental (Group I) families. No statement of trend could be made at this time when comparing fathers with sons across all family groups, since the significant differences found between these
Table 7. Summary of significant results obtained under Hypothesis II (family group \( \times \) sex of infant).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FBSR Variable</th>
<th>Level of Involvement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High (More)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Feeding</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1) Talking</td>
<td>Fathers/Males</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fathers/Males</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80% of FBSR variables</td>
<td>Fathers/Males</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Changing clothes</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) 80% of FBSR variables</td>
<td>Group I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Females</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nap</td>
<td>Group I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alone with infant</td>
<td>Group I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Males</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nap</td>
<td>Group III</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) Alone with infant</td>
<td>Group II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strolling</td>
<td>Group II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80% of FBSR variables</td>
<td>Group II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) 93% of FBSR variables</td>
<td>Group II/Males</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
groups were related to only 3 of the 15 father involvement variables (i.e., nap, alone with infant, and strolling), which provided inconsistent results.

(5) Fathers with sons in discrepant (Group II) families were generally more involved with their infants than fathers with daughters in discrepant (Group II) families.
IV. DISCUSSION

This study examined the relationship between fathers' and mothers' attitudes toward fathering and fathers' involvement in infant caretaking of their sons and daughters. In order to examine this relationship, two major hypotheses were tested.

**Hypothesis I**

On the basis of previous theory and research, it was expected that developmental (Type I) fathers would be significantly more involved in infant caretaking than less developmental (Type II) fathers. However, results obtained provided only partial support for this hypothesis. The variable of sex of infant emerged as crucial in understanding the results obtained.

First, fathers with sons, regardless of fathering type, were generally more involved with their infants than fathers with daughters. This finding, therefore, supports the few previous research findings which indicate the presence of sex differences in fathers' involvement in infant caretaking. In general, these previous studies indicate a trend toward fathers' preferential treatment of their sons than their daughters. For example, even before birth, fathers express a desire for sons than daughters (Hoffman, 1977). In addition, fathers apparently engage in more interactions with their sons than with their daughters (Kotelchuck, 1976; Lamb, 1977b; Parke & O'Leary, 1976). Most notable is the finding that fathers vocalize more with their infant sons than with their daughters (Lamb, 1977b; Rebelsky & Hanks, 1971; Selke et al.,
Moreover, these vocalizations seem to increase as their sons grow older (Lamb, 1977b).

A number of explanations can be given for fathers' greater involvement with their infant sons than with their daughters. The fact that fathers and sons are of the same sex already suggests that fathers are more knowledgeable about the male than the female role in society, thus may lead them to feel more comfortable in interacting with their sons rather than their daughters. Furthermore, research in the area of sex-role socialization suggests that fathers are generally more concerned than mothers, with proper sex-role acquisition, particularly for sons (Aberle & Naegele, 1952; Goodenough, 1957; Lansky, 1967; Tasch, 1952). For example, following birth, fathers often describe their children in sex stereotypic terms (Rubin, Provenzano & Luria, 1974). Infant sons are described as "strong and hardy," while daughters are described as "little and pretty." Fathers' greater involvement with their sons than with their daughters, therefore, may also be due to their concern for their sons' proper gender identity (Lamb, 1977b, 1977c).

Second, developmental (Type I) fathers with daughters were generally more involved with their infants than were less developmental (Type II) fathers with daughters. This finding was expected on the basis of previous theory and research. Developmental fathering has been characterized as involving more nurturant fathering attitudes and behaviors than has less developmental (more traditional) fathering. This involves a genuine concern among fathers for their children's social, emotional, and physical well-being (Bigner, 1977; Elder, 1949). Previous research has indicated
fathers' nurturance to be an important variable related to fathers' involvement in child care. In one particular study (Russell, 1978), fathers who were considered more nurturant were found to score higher on father involvement with their children measures than were fathers who were considered less nurturant.

Finally, less developmental (Type II) fathers with sons were generally more involved with their infants than were less developmental (Type II) fathers with daughters. This finding again reflects the greater father involvement with their infant sons than daughters, which was previously discussed. However, this finding specifically deals with fathers who were less developmental (more traditional) in their attitudes toward fathering. Fathers who assume a more traditional role in relationship to their infants are more likely to maintain a conventional view of their fathering role. Conventional fathers would more likely be concerned with the sex-role socialization of their children than would less conventional fathers, especially in relationship to their sons. Therefore, it seems reasonable that the present study found less developmental fathers with sons were more involved with their infants than were less developmental fathers with daughters.

**Hypothesis II**

On the basis of previous theory and research, it was expected that fathers in developmental (Group I) families would be significantly more involved in infant caretaking than would fathers in discrepant (Group II) families, followed by fathers in less
developmental (Group III) families. However, results obtained provided only partial support for this hypothesis. Again, the variable of sex of infant emerged as crucial in understanding the results obtained.

First, fathers with sons, regardless of family group, were generally more involved with their infants than were fathers with daughters. This finding is similar to the one obtained under Hypothesis I. The explanation of this finding was previously discussed. However, the strength of this finding is further illustrated here by virtue of the fact that such a finding was obtained even when considering the variable of family group.

Second, fathers in developmental (Group I) families were generally more involved with their infants than were fathers in less developmental (Group III) families. This finding appears reasonable in light of what characterizes developmental (Group I) families, both fathers and mothers perceive the father's role in infant caretaking as an affectionate and nurturant one (Bigner, 1977). This would be less so in less developmental (Group III) families. The fact that fathers and mothers in developmental (Group I) families perceive the father's role in infant caretaking as a more nurturant one, therefore, suggests that fathers in these families would be more involved in infant caretaking than would fathers in less developmental (Group III) families. This would be so, since added to the father's perception of his fathering role as a nurturant one, mothers in such families also perceive the fathering role as nurturant, thus may likely encourage fathers to actively involve themselves in infant caretaking.
At this point, however, it should be indicated that no statement of trend could be made from the results when comparing fathers across all family groups (e.g., Group I-Developmental vs. Group II-Discrepant vs. Groups III-Less Developmental), since the significant difference between them was related to only 1 of the 15 father involvement variables, namely, changing the infants' clothes. Despite the minor nature of this finding, however, it did support the hypothesis in this thesis. Fathers in developmental (Group I) families were more involved in changing their infants' clothes than were fathers in discrepant (Group II) families, followed by fathers in less developmental (Group III) families.

In order to clarify the difference in fathers' involvement with their infants across all family groups, additional analyses associated with these groups found in Table 4 were undertaken. Mean fathers' involvement scores for each FBSR variable associated with the family groups were ranked from 1 to 3, with 1 representing the highest and 3 representing the lowest mean fathers' involvement score. The sum of the number of FBSR variables at each ranking for each family group was calculated and then analyzed, using the chi-square technique. Table 8 summarizes the sum of the FBSR variables at each ranking for each family group. Results revealed that fathers in developmental (Group I) families had the largest number of FBSR variables (8 of 15) at the highest (1) ranking, while fathers in discrepant (Group II) families had the largest number of FBSR variables (6 of 15) at the second (2) ranking. Fathers in less developmental (Group III) families, however, had the largest number of FBSR variables (10 of 15) at the lowest (3) ranking. The
Table 8. Sum of FBSR variables at each ranking for all family groups.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ranking</th>
<th>I (Developmental)</th>
<th>II (Discrepant)</th>
<th>III (Less Develop.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: $\chi^2 = 13.2$, df = 4, $p < .02$
chi-square value of 13.2 calculated in this analysis was significant at the \( p < 0.2 \) level. These findings provided general support for the hypothesis that fathers in development (Group I) families are more involved in infant caretaking than are fathers in discrepant (Group II) families, followed by fathers in less developmental (Group III) families.

The interesting point to be noted regarding the finding above, however, is the fact that the magnitude of fathers' involvement in infant caretaking among fathers from discrepant (Group II) families was between those of fathers from developmental (Group I) and less developmental (Group III) families. This finding suggests that the attitudes toward fathering among both fathers and mothers within family situations may influence fathers' involvement with their children. This concern was recently alluded to by some researchers (Belsky, 1981; Lewis & Weinraub, 1976; Parke, Power & Gottman, 1979), who speculated on the influence of the marital relationship on parent-child interactions. Parke et al. (1979) suggested that the marital relationship may affect the child-rearing attitudes and behaviors of parents. Parents who share similar beliefs and attitudes about child rearing are not likely to experience conflict in child rearing as are parents who maintain discrepant views. Therefore, within family situations in which both fathers and mothers have developmental attitudes toward fathering, it would be likely that fathers in such families would be actively involved in infant caretaking. Conversely, in families in which both fathers and mothers have less developmental (or more traditional) attitudes toward fathering, it would be less likely that fathers in such
families would be as actively involved in infant caretaking. However, in families in which a discrepancy in attitudes toward fathering exists, with one parent developmental and the other less developmental (or more traditional), some participation of fathers in infant caretaking may occur due to the developmental fathering attitudes of one parent. This participation, however, would be less than in families in which both parents were developmental, due to the less developmental (more traditional) fathering attitudes of one parent. The findings obtained in this study provided some support for this proposition.

Caution must be made, however, in acceptance of the results just summarized, without consideration of the sex of infant variable. As indicated earlier, the variable of sex of infant emerged as crucial in understanding the results obtained. Fathers with daughters in developmental (Group I) families were found to be generally more involved with their infants than were fathers with daughters in discrepant (Group II) families and in less developmental (Group III) families. However, the difference in fathers' involvement with their infants between fathers with daughters in discrepant (Group II) and in less development (Group III) was not clear-cut.

These findings for fathers with infant daughters were in contrast to those obtained for fathers with infant sons. Among fathers with infant sons, fathers in discrepant (Group II) families were generally more involved with their infants than fathers in developmental (Group I) families. No statement of trend could be
made when comparing fathers with sons across all family groups, since significant differences found between them were related to only 3 of the 15 father involvement variables, which provide inconsistent results.

In order to clarify this sex difference in fathers' involvement with their infants among fathers in different family groups, additional analyses of the mean father involvement scores for all FBSR variables associated with these groups found in Table 5 were undertaken. Mean father involvement scores for each FBSR variable associated with each family group X sex of infant category were ranked from 1 to 3, with 1 representing the highest and 3 representing the lowest mean father involvement score. The sum of the number of FBSR variables at each ranking for each family group X sex of infant category was calculated then analyzed, using the chi-square technique. Table 9 summarizes the sum of the FBSR variables at each ranking for all family group X sex of infant categories. Results revealed that among fathers with daughters, fathers in developmental (Group I) families had the largest number of FBSR variables (13 of 15) at the highest (1) ranking, while fathers in discrepant (Group II) families had the largest number of FBSR variables (9 of 15) at the second (2) ranking. Fathers with daughters in less developmental (Group III) families, however, had the largest number of FBSR variables (8 of 15) at the lowest (3) ranking. The chi-square value of 26.2 calculated for this analysis was significant at the p < .01 level. Findings for fathers with daughters, therefore, did support the hypothesis that fathers in developmental (Group I) families would be more involved with
Table 9. Sum of FBSR variables at each ranking for all family groups by sex of infant categories.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Family Group</th>
<th>I (Developmental)</th>
<th>II (Discrepant)</th>
<th>III (Less Develop.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ranking</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females/Daughters</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Note: $X^2 = 2.62, df = 4, p &lt; .01$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males/Sons</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Note: $X^2 = 20.0, df = 4, p &lt; .01$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
infants that would fathers in discrepant (Group II) families, followed by fathers in less developmental (Group III) families.

For fathers with sons, however, the results were quite different. As summarized in Table 9, among fathers with sons, fathers in discrepant (Group II) families had the largest number of FBSR variables (9 of 15) at the highest (1) ranking, while fathers in developmental (Group I) families had the largest number of FBSR variables (9 of 15) at the second (2) ranking. Fathers with sons in less developmental (Group III) families, however, had the largest number of FBSR variables (10 of 15) at the lowest (3) ranking. The chi-square value of 20.0 calculated for this analysis was significant at the \( p < .01 \) level. Thus, findings for boys did not support the hypothesis of this study. Fathers with sons in discrepant (Group II) families appeared more involved with their infants than fathers with sons in developmental (Group I) families, followed by fathers with sons in less developmental (Group III) families.

The finding of sex difference in fathers' involvement with their infants, when comparing all family groups, at the onset appeared quite intriguing. Among boys and girls, fathers from less developmental (Group III) families were the least involved in infant caretaking than were fathers in developmental (Group I) or discrepant (Group II) families. This finding is understandable in light of the fact that fathers and mothers in less developmental (Group III) families perceive the fathering role as less nurturant than fathers and mothers in either developmental (Group I) or discrepant (Group II) families. In families where both parents perceive the father's
role in infant caretaking as less nurturant, it is less likely that fathers in such families would be actively involved in infant caretaking.

However, the finding that among girls, fathers from developmental (Group I) families were more involved with their infants than were fathers in discrepant (Group II) families, while among boys, fathers from discrepant (Group II) families were more involved with their infants than were fathers from developmental (Group I) families, is a puzzling one. For girls, the finding obtained is understandable. In families where both fathers and mothers perceive the father's role in infant caretaking as a nurturant one, it is likely that such fathers would be more involved in infant caretaking than would fathers in families in which a discrepancy exists between fathers and mothers in their perceptions of the fathering role. For boys, however, the fact that fathers from discrepant (Group II) families were more involved in infant caretaking than were fathers from developmental (Group I) families is difficult to understand.

In an attempt at understanding the finding related to boys, the attitudes toward fathering of both fathers and mothers in discrepant and developmental families were explored. This exploration, however, revealed no significant pattern of attitudes, aside from that which was expected. Both fathers and mothers in developmental families had generally more developmental attitudes toward fathering than did fathers and mothers in discrepant families. Furthermore, fathers and mothers within both developmental and discrepant families did not markedly differ from each other. On the basis of these
findings, we would have expected fathers with sons in developmental families to be more involved with their infants than would fathers with sons in discrepant families. However, as was noted, the converse was found in this study. Perhaps the lower developmental fathering attitudes of fathers and mothers in discrepant families reflects a more traditional view of the father's role in the family. These traditional attitudes may in part involve a concern for proper sex-role socialization, especially for sons. Thus, fathers with sons in discrepant families would be more involved with their infant sons than would fathers in developmental families, due to the greater concern placed on proper sex-role socialization of their sons.

Finally, the present study also revealed that fathers with sons in discrepant (Group II) families were generally more involved with their infants than were fathers with daughters in discrepant (Group II) families. This finding once again reflects the greater father involvement with their infant sons than with daughters, which was pointed to several times before. However, this finding specifically deals with fathers from discrepant families. As explained previously, fathers and mothers in discrepant families had lower developmental fathering attitudes than did fathers and mothers in developmental families. As such, fathers and mothers in discrepant families are generally more traditional in their attitudes toward fathering than are developmental families. More traditional attitudes toward fathering involve a concern with proper sex-role socialization of children, particularly sons. Therefore, it is
understandable why fathers in discrepant families were more involved with their infant sons than with their daughters.

It should be noted, however, that exploration of the fathering attitudes of fathers and mothers in discrepant families provided alternative explanations for the present finding. The fathering attitudes of fathers and mothers in discrepant families with infant sons indicated that half of the fathers in these families had higher developmental fathering attitudes than did mothers, while in the remaining half, mothers had higher developmental fathering attitudes than did fathers. In discrepant families with infant daughters, however, approximately three-fourths of the mothers in that family group had higher developmental fathering attitudes than did fathers, while only one-fourth of the fathers had higher developmental fathering attitudes than did mothers. Therefore, these findings indicate that in discrepant families with infant sons, a larger proportion of fathers had higher developmental fathering attitudes than did mothers in comparison to fathers in discrepant families with daughters. On the basis of this finding, it seems reasonable why fathers with sons in discrepant families were more involved with their infants than were fathers with daughters in discrepant families.

Caution must be made, however, regarding this latter explanation, since a major limitation involving sample size was encountered in this study. The number of discrepant families with sons included only 6 families, while the number of discrepant families with daughters included 13 families. The small, as well as unequal,
sample sizes used in this analysis, therefore, may have produced the spurious results.

General Summary

As a result of this study, aside from the ideas raised in discussion related to specific findings obtained, one can generally conclude that fathers are involved in caring for their infants in a variety of ways. Furthermore, their attitudes toward the fathering role is related to their involvement in child care. Still also, in order to understand the involvement of fathers in child care, the attitudes of mothers toward the fathering role cannot be overlooked. As Belsky (1981) aptly speculated, the importance of the marital and parent-infant relationship must be examined in the study of parent-infant relationships. Finally, the variable of sex of infant appeared to be significant in understanding the relationship between fathers' and mothers' attitudes toward fathering and fathers' involvement in infant caretaking. It is important, therefore, for future research studies to consider these variables in combination with each other for an understanding of fathers' involvement in infant caretaking.

Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

Despite the fact that a number of interesting results were obtained in this study, caution must be made in the acceptance and generalization of them to the larger population, due to a variety
of limitations encountered. These limitations and suggestions to future research are summarized below.

**Nature of Sample**

The subjects used in this study were relatively homogeneous in nature. All were of the Caucasian race, came primarily from the upper and middle socioeconomic classes, and had college degrees. Many of the parents were enrolled in parent education programs offered by a community college in the vicinity. It was not unusual, therefore, that the attitudes of fathers and mothers toward fathering on the ATFS in this sample were skewed toward the developmental end of the scale. No fathers or mothers were present with extremely traditional fathering attitudes. Consequently, the homogeneity of this sample may not have allowed for a "true" test of the hypothesis specified, as a more heterogeneous sample might have. Therefore, future studies could be conducted with a more heterogeneous group of subjects, with a wider variety of fathering attitudes.

**Sample Size**

The size of the sample used in this study was relatively small ($n = 42$ married couples with infants). As such, it provided a very limited view of the fathers' and mothers' attitudes toward fathering. Generalization of the results obtained, therefore, was very limited. Furthermore, the small sample used did pose problems in statistical analysis of data, particularly when considering the large number of variables that were included in the analyses. On the one hand, use of a small sample that was relatively homogeneous
in nature may not have permitted detection of significant results where a larger, more heterogeneous sample might have. On the other hand, the significant differences that were obtained may have been due to Type I errors because of the large number of variables included in the analyses.

Although some significant findings were obtained associated with the data, when the Scheffe' test was applied in the post hoc analyses, no significant differences between the groups were found. This lack of significant difference may have been due to the level at which the $F$-values generated were significant. A number of the $F$-values generated through application of the ANOVA in data analysis were significant only at the $p = .05$ level. This, combined with the high power of the Scheffe' test, may have accounted for the lack of significant findings. Use of a large, more heterogeneous sample in future studies, therefore, may help to alleviate this problem.

**Attitudes Toward Fathering Scale (ATFS)**

The ATFS was designed to distinguish between individuals who were developmental and traditional in their attitudes toward fathering. The subjects in this study tended to have more developmental than traditional attitudes toward fathering. This finding is consistent with those obtained in previous studies (Bigner, 1977; Van Elswyk, 1980) using the ATFS. While this finding may have been due to the nature of the sample used in this and other studies (i.e., university-oriented families), it may also have been due to a significant limitation in the ATFS. Developmental fathers are individuals who are nurturant in their attitudes toward fathering.
They are deeply concerned with the positive development of their children. When subjects are asked to rate their attitudes toward fathering, what father would say he is not developmental? To do so would mean that he is not a nurturant father concerned about his children. Future studies, therefore, might center upon a refinement of the ATFS, to obtain a more accurate picture of developmental and traditional fathers.

Father Behavioral Self-Report Questionnaire (FBSR)

A number of content and concurrent validity studies have been conducted for the FBSR. These were described previously in the "Methods" section of this section. The results of the concurrent validity study did reveal a significant difference between mothers' and fathers' FBSR scores on one variable associated with "attending to the infant at night." Although this represents only 1 of the 15 variables found in the FBSR, such a finding does raise questions about the validity of the FBSR. The most crucial of these questions has to do with whether a self-report measure can provide a researcher with an accurate picture of fathers' involvement with their infants. Additional validity studies could be conducted in future research for the FBSR. For example, to obtain further assessments of fathers' involvement with their infants, direct observations of fathers, as well as information about their involvement with their infants, might prove beneficial. In addition, a variety of construct validity studies involving group differentiation, experimental manipulations, and correlations with other pertinent personality variables could be conducted.
Some information regarding the stability of the FBSR are also present for the FBSR. While test-retest reliability coefficients for 11 of the 15 variables found in the FBSR, ranging from $r = .66$ to $.97$, were significant at the $p < .05$ or below, 4 of them, ranging from $r = -.21$ to $.54$, were not significant at the $p < .05$ level. These non-significant reliability coefficients were associated with the FBSR variables: playing with toys, playing without toys, bathing the infant, and putting the infant down for a nap. Due to the relative instability of these four FBSR variables, results obtained in this study associated with these variables are highly suspect. These findings, therefore, suggest that additional reliability studies be conducted for the FBSR.

Finally, it should be noted that the subjects of this study were asked to complete the FBSR at home. Although directions were specified, indicating that mothers and fathers complete their questionnaires separately, there was no way of checking whether these directions were followed. If collaboration between mothers and fathers did occur when completing the questionnaires, then this collaboration would have markedly influenced the validity and reliability of the results obtained. Future studies might find a way of eliminating this problem.

**Control of Variables**

Despite the fact that a number of attempts were made to control for pertinent variables that might influence the results of this study, additional important variables were left uncontrolled. For example, the number of male and female infants that were associated with the fathers and mothers used in this study were not equal in
number. This imbalance may have influenced the results obtained and may have been crucial in light of the significant sex of infant effects that were found regarding fathers' involvement with their infants.

In addition, other background variables that may prove important in understanding fathers' involvement with their infants were left uncontrolled. These included information on the subjects' family backgrounds, sibling composition within the families, and other family experiences. Future studies might wish to explore the impact of these variables on fathers' involvement with their infants.
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APPENDIX A
June 1981

Dear Fathers,

I am conducting a study on the types of activities fathers engage in with their infants. I am also interested in parents' attitudes about fathering. Parents have a wide range of attitudes regarding child rearing and children. I would like to learn more about parental attitudes toward fathering. I am conducting this study for my thesis.

I am asking several parents to fill out two short questionnaires. Your participation would be greatly appreciated. All responses will remain totally anonymous and there is no way information can be traced back to you once the completed questionnaires have been returned.

In completing these questionnaires, please answer each question in relation to your infant. With regard to the father activity questionnaire, please estimate the number of times you generally engage in the activities within a two week period. This is any two week period which generally reflects your family's typical routine. You can contribute most to the success of this study if you take care not to exaggerate or understate the number of times you generally engage in the activities. In completing the attitude questionnaire, please respond to each item in terms of how you feel the fathering role should be. Please answer honestly, expressing your true feelings. In filling out the questionnaire, please do not collaborate with your wife in your responses.

The questionnaires should take approximately ten (10) to fifteen (15) minutes to complete. Please return the completed questionnaires together with your wife's completed copy in the self addressed stamped envelope provided, within a week.

If you have any questions or concerns, please feel free to contact me at the Family Life Department office, O.S.U., 754-4765. I appreciate your participation. Thank you.

Sincerely,

Redacted for Privacy

Noël Furneaux
Graduate Student
Family Life
June 1981

Dear Mothers,

I am conducting a study on the types of activities fathers engage in with their infants. I am also interested in parents' attitudes about fathering. Parents have a wide range of attitudes regarding child rearing and children. I would like to learn more about parental attitudes toward fathering. I am conducting this study for my thesis.

I am asking several parents to fill out two short questionnaires. Your participation would be greatly appreciated. All responses will remain totally anonymous and there is no way information can be traced back to you once the completed questionnaires have been returned.

In completing these questionnaires, please answer each question in relation to your infant. With regard to the father activity questionnaire, please estimate the number of times your husband generally engages in the activities within a two week period. This is any two week period which generally reflects your family's typical routine. You can contribute most to the success of this study if you take care not to exaggerate or understate the number of times your husband generally engages in the activities. In completing the attitude questionnaire, please respond to each item in terms of how you feel the fathering role should be. Please answer honestly, expressing your true feelings. In filling out the questionnaires, please do not collaborate with your husband in your responses.

The questionnaires should take approximately ten (10) to fifteen (15) minutes to complete. Please return the completed questionnaires together with your husband's completed copy in the self addressed stamped envelope provided, within a week.

If you have any questions or concerns, please feel free to contact me at the Family Life Department office, O.S.U., 754-4765. I appreciate your participation. Thank you.

Sincerely,

Redacted for Privacy

Noel Furneaux
Graduate Student
Family Life
BACKGROUND INFORMATION
(FATHER'S)

Please answer the following questions by circling the appropriate response, or by filling in the blank.

1. Your birthdate: ______________________

2. Your current occupation: ______________________

3. How many hours per week do you spend with your job? ______

4. Your education:
   a. High school
   b. B.A. or B.S.
   c. M.A. or M.S.
   d. Ph.D.
   e. M.D., D.M.D., or J.D.
   f. Other

5. Which do you consider yourself?
   a. Indian
   b. Asian
   c. Black
   d. Chicano
   e. White
   f. Other: __________

6. Sex of infant: male female

7. Birthdate of infant: ______________________

8. Sex and birthdate of other children in your family:

   ______________________________________

   ______________________________________

   ______________________________________

9. What is your current marital status?
   a. Married
   b. Living in marriage-type relationship
   c. Separated
   d. Divorced
   e. Widowed
   f. Single
BACKGROUND INFORMATION
(MOTHER'S)

Please answer the following questions by circling the appropriate response, or by filling in the blank.

1. Your birthdate: ____________________

2. Your current occupation: ____________________

3. How many hours per week do you spend with your job? ______

4. Your education:
   a. High school
   b. B.A. or B.S.
   c. M.A. or M.S.
   d. Ph.D.
   e. M.D., D.M.D., or J.D.
   f. Other

5. Which do you consider yourself?
   a. Indian
   b. Asian
   c. Black
   d. Chicano
   e. White
   f. Other: ___________

6. Sex of infant: male female

7. Birthdate of infant: ____________________

8. Sex and birthdate of other children in your family:
   __________________________________________
   __________________________________________
   __________________________________________

9. What is your current marital status?
   a. Married
   b. Living in marriage-type relationship
   c. Separated
   d. Divorced
   e. Widowed
   f. Single
FATHER ACTIVITY QUESTIONNAIRE

Please estimate the approximate number of times you generally engage in the following activities with your infant within a two week period.

1. Put the infant to bed: _______

2. Fed the infant: _______
   a. Is the infant exclusively breastfed? _______
   b. Is the infant breastfed occasionally? _______
   c. Is the infant presently not breastfed? _______

3. Changed diapers: _______

4. Changed the infant's clothes: _______

5. Talked to the infant: _______

6. Played with the infant with toys: _______

7. Played with the infant without toys: _______

8. Read stories to the infant: _______

9. Gave the infant a bath: _______

10. Put the infant down for a nap: _______

11. Attended to the infant at night when he/she cries: _______

12. Spent time alone with the infant (without other family members present): _______

13. Soothed the infant (i.e. held or rocked): _______

14. Strolling with the infant: _______

15. How many minutes _______ or hours _______ do you spend interacting (i.e. attending to, talking, disciplining, etc.) with him/her per day?

Please describe any other activities you might engage in with your infant that are not included on this list.
FATHER ACTIVITY QUESTIONNAIRE

Please estimate the approximate number of times your husband engage in the following activities with your infant within a two week period.

1. Put the infant to bed: _______

2. Fed the infant: _______
   a. Is the infant exclusively breastfed? _______
   b. Is the infant breastfed occasionally? _______
   c. Is the infant presently not breastfed? _______

3. Changed diapers: _______

4. Changed the infant's clothes: _______

5. Talked to the infant: _______

6. Played with the infant with toys: _______

7. Played with the infant without toys: _______

8. Read stories to the infant: _______

9. Gave the infant a bath: _______

10. Put the infant down for a nap: _______

11. Attended to the infant at night when he/she cries: _______

12. Spent time alone with the infant (without other family members present): _______

13. Soothed the infant (i.e. held or rocked): _______

14. Strolling with the infant: _______

15. How many minutes _______ or hours _______ do you spend interacting (i.e. attending to, talking, disciplining, etc.) with him/her per day?

Please describe any other activities you might engage in with your infant that are not included on this list.
Directions: 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 next to 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. Young 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 the 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. 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
Directions: The following statements describe feelings about attitudes toward the fatherhood role. Please indicate the degree of your reaction to these statements in terms of how you feel the fathering role should be, by circling one response that is listed next to 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. Young 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 the 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. 

18. In raising children one's feelings are a better guide than carefully planned rules. 

19. Children should be permitted to have secrets from their parents. 

20. It is possible to show too much physical affection to children. 

21. A family is not complete or really happy unless there are children in the home. 

22. Children's friends are always welcome in our home. 

23. A father should never "give in" to his child. 

24. Children should obey their fathers because they are their fathers. 

25. Fathers should not tease their children. 

26. A child's freedom should be restricted in danger situations. 

27. Mothers should receive their life satisfaction from raising their children and being a homemaker. 

28. Adults should step in to solve quarrels and disagreements between children. 

29. Early weaning and toilet training is important in preparing children for life. 

30. Children should be permitted to do as they wish with their own toys. 

31. It is unwise for a father to admit his mistakes to his child. 

32. Fathers should help in homemaking chores (cooking, dishes, etc.). 

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

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

35. Children's whims should always be repressed. 

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