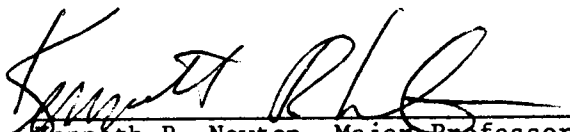
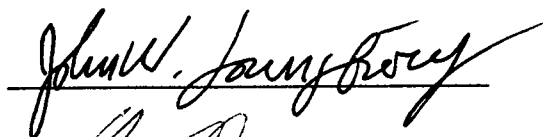


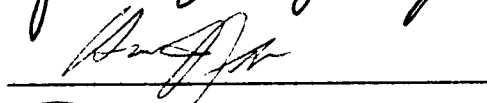
To the Graduate Council:

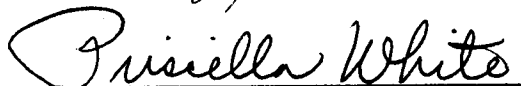
I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Barbara Jean Lyons Hines entitled "The Relationship Between Nurturance, Parenting Attitudes and Behaviors, and Marital Adjustment in Black Fathers." I have examined the final copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Psychology.


Kenneth R. Newton, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation
and recommend its acceptance:







Accepted for the Council:


Vice Provost
and Dean of The Graduate School

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN NURTURANCE,
PARENTING ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIORS,
AND MARITAL ADJUSTMENT IN BLACK FATHERS

A Dissertation
Presented for the
Doctor of Philosophy
Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Barbara Jean Lyons Hines

December 1989

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

First I wish to give thanks to God for his many blessings over the course of this project. He was a source of strength during the most trying times.

I wish to express my sincere gratitude to the members of my doctoral committee--the Chair, Dr. Ken Newton, Dr. John Lounsbury, Dr. Harold Fine, and Dr. Priscilla White and the Department of Psychology for their support and patience in the completion of my doctoral research. I am very grateful to Ken for agreeing to chair my committee and for extending a kind word of support and encouragement during the final stages of this project.

Throughout this project several individuals have made generous and invaluable contributions of their time and expertise. To John Lounsbury, I am particularly grateful for his guidance, support, and optimism. His input early on in the formulation of this study was instrumental in my continuing my graduate studies.

I wish to give tribute to my parents, Frank and Clara Evans, my grandmother, Cornelia Lyons, my mother-and-father-in-law, Allen and Alice Hines, and other family members for their tireless support and prayers. Thanks goes to Angela, Kirby, Jacqueline and Yvette for their hands on help in recording the data.

A special note of appreciation goes to Kemp and Michelle Lee for their enthusiastic assistance in collecting the data.

I owe a debt of gratitude to Dr. Christine Fitch who was always there when I needed a shoulder to lean on and helped me to refocus on my goal and to get back on track.

To my comrade-in-arms, Joselyn Pope, it was comforting to be able to share with someone who is also experiencing the ups and downs of completing a dissertation. Thanks for the inspiration.

To Dr. Julie Williams, thank you for your gracious hospitality and encouragement.

Mr. and Mrs. James Stephens, Jr., I can never repay you for the help and love you gave and continue to give me and my family. May God ever bless you.

To my church family at Cornerstone Missionary Baptist Church and the members of Eastern Star Baptist Church who participated in the study, I extend to you a heartfilled thanks. Rev. Middlebrook and the members of Canaan Missionary Baptist Church, you will always have a place in my heart and thank you for caring.

The faculty and staff of the Psychology Department, East Carolina University, your support and belief in me, and desire for my success, were fuel to my self-esteem and determination.

I would like to thank Don Broad, who expertly served as my statistical consultant, for providing guidance in programming my data for analysis. His cordial, soft-spoken manner made it a pleasure to work with him.

Now I wish to give special acknowledgment to my husband and research assistant, Larry Hines, Ph.D., and my daughter Kara. To them I owe an unpayable debt. They have endured with me over the past years in my pursuit of this educational goal. I am most thankful to Larry for standing by me, providing the emotional support, sharing his knowledge and critiques. Larry, you have contributed much to my personal and

professional growth. To Kara, at the age of 7 you have exhibited a level of understanding and sensitivity that was at times surprising yet endearing. Thank you.

ABSTRACT

In this study, Black fathers were questioned about their self-perceptions, childrearing attitudes and behaviors and level of marital adjustment. The objective of the study was to investigate differences among Black fathers in the nurturant-expressive dimension of parent-child relations and their attitudes and behaviors regarding childrearing and marital quality.

Seventy subjects completed paper and pencil questionnaires, a check list and a Q-sort method questionnaire in the privacy of their home.

The major results indicated that the sample was homogenous where subjects described themselves as being very nurturant and having good marital relationships. The subjects also were similar in their childrearing attitudes and practices. The childrearing variables: openness of expression, emphasis on achievement, parental worry, supervision of child, open expression of affect, encouraging independence, enjoyment of the parental role, rationale guidance of child and trust child were most frequently endorsed by the fathers who described themselves as nurturant. It was concluded that marital quality is a valid factor to evaluate in determining the level of paternal effectiveness. The author proposed a relationship between nurturance and childrearing attitudes and behaviors and marital quality and childrearing attitudes and behaviors which was supported.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER	PAGE
I. INTRODUCTION AND OBJECTIVE OF STUDY	1
II. LITERATURE REVIEW	11
Indirect Paternal Effects	16
Black Families	20
Childrearing	48
III. METHOD AND PROCEDURES	58
Subjects	58
Instruments	67
Procedure	70
Data Analysis	71
IV. RESULTS	72
Nurturance Scales	72
Child-Rearing Practices Report (CRPR)	75
Paternal Involvement	81
Marital Adjustment	92
Summary of Results	132
V. DISCUSSION	135
Hypothesis 1	136
Hypothesis 2	141
Hypothesis 3	145
Hypothesis 4	151
Methodological Concerns	156
Future Research	158
Implications	159
LIST OF REFERENCES	163
APPENDIX	172
VITA	197

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	PAGE
1. Frequency Distribution, Relative Frequency Percentage, Means and Standard Deviation of Sample by Demographic Characteristics	59
2. Frequency Distribution and Relative Frequency Percentage of Subjects on Nurturance	73
3. Frequency Distribution and Relative Frequency Percentage of Subjects on Nurturant Parent	74
4. Relative Frequency Percentage of Subjects on Child-Rearing Practices Report (CRPR) Subscales	76
5. Means for Nurturance Groups on Subscales in Childrearing (CRPR) and Levels of Significance as Determined by One-Way Anova	78
6. Means for Nurturing Parent Groups on Subscales in Childrearing (CRPR) and Levels of Significance as Determined by One-Way Anova	79
7. Correlation of Nurturance (NUR) and Nurturing Parent (NP) With Child-Rearing Practices Report (CRPR) Subscales	80
8. Relative Frequency Percentage of Subjects on Parenting Tasks	82
9. One-Way Anova on Nurturance Groups With Parenting Tasks	84
10. One-Way Anova on Nurturing Parent With Parenting Tasks	85
11. Correlations of Nurturance (NUR) and Nurturing Parent (NP) With Parenting Tasks	86
12. Relative Frequency Percentage of Subjects on Father's Caring/Attention Items	88
13. One-Way Anova on Nurturance Groups With Father's Caring/Attention	89
14. One-Way Anova on Nurturing Parent Groups With Father's Caring/Attention	90
15. Correlation of Nurturance (NUR) and Nurturing Parent (NP) With Father's Caring/Attention	91
16. Relative Frequency Percentage of Subjects on Marital Adjustment	93

TABLE	PAGE
17. Summary of Results on <u>t</u> Tests on Dyadic Consensus Subscale	95
18. Correlation of Dyadic Consensus Subscale With Parenting Tasks	96
19. Summary of <u>t</u> Tests Results on Dyadic Consensus Subscale Groups With Father's Caring/Attention	97
20. Correlation of Dyadic Consensus Subscale With Father's Caring/Attention	98
21. Summary of <u>t</u> Tests Results on Dyadic Satisfaction Subscale Groups With Parenting Tasks	100
22. Correlation of Dyadic Satisfaction Subscale With Parenting Tasks	101
23. Summary of <u>t</u> Tests on Dyadic Satisfaction Subscale With Father's Caring/Attention	102
24. Correlation of Dyadic Satisfaction Subscale With Father's Caring/Attention	103
25. Summary of <u>t</u> Tests Results on Dyadic Cohesion Subscale Groups With Parenting Tasks	104
26. Correlation of Dyadic Cohesion Subscale With Parenting Tasks	106
27. Summary of <u>t</u> Tests Results on Dyadic Cohesion With Father's Caring/Attention	107
28. Correlation of Dyadic Cohesion Subscale With Father's Caring/Attention	108
29. Summary of <u>t</u> Tests Results on Affective Expression Subscale Groups With Parenting Tasks	109
30. Correlation of Affective Expression Subscale With Parenting Tasks	111
31. Summary of <u>t</u> Tests Results on Affective Expression Subscale With Father's Caring/Attention	112
32. Correlation of Affective Expression With Father's Caring/Attention	113
33. Summary of <u>t</u> Tests Results on Dyadic Adjustment Score Groups With Parenting Tasks	114

TABLE	PAGE
34. Correlation of Dyadic Adjstment Score With Parenting Tasks	115
35. Summary of <u>t</u> Tests Results on Dyadic Adjustment Score With Father's Caring/Attention	116
36. Correlation of Dyadic Adjustment Score With Father's Caring/ Attention	118
37. Summary of <u>t</u> Tests Results on Dyadic Consensus Subscale Groups With Child-Rearing Practices Report (CRPR) Subscales	119
38. Correlation of Dyadic Consensus Subscale With Child-Rearing Practices Report (CRPR) Subscales	121
39. Summary of Results of <u>t</u> Tests on Dyadic Satisfaction Subscale Groups With Child-Rearing Practices Report (CRPR) Subscales	122
40. Correlation of Dyadic Satisfaction Subscale With Child-Rearing Practices Report (CRPR) Subscales	123
41. Summary of <u>t</u> Tests Results on Dyadic Cohesion Subscale Groups With Child-Rearing Practices Report (CRPR) Subscales	125
42. Correlation of Dyadic Cohesion Subscale With Child-Rearing Practices Report (CRPR) Subscales	126
43. Summary of <u>t</u> Tests Results on Affective Expression Subscale Groups With Child-Rearing Practices Report (CRPR) Subscales	128
44. Correlation of Affective Expression Subscales With Child-Rearing Practices Report (CRPR) Subscales	130
45. Summary of <u>t</u> Tests Results on Dyadic Adjustment Score Groups With Child-Rearing Practices Report (CRPR) Subscales	131
46. Correlation of Dyadic Adjustment Score With Child-Rearing Practices Report (CRPR) Subscales	133

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND OBJECTIVE OF STUDY

The role of the father in child development has in the past been a subject of little concern among social scientists and even among the general public. In our society, where child care is considered the natural responsibility of the mother, the father likely was a topic of discussion only when he failed in his role as material provider and/or social model for his children. However, during the previous decade there was an upsurge, both socially and scientifically, in the interest of the influence of fathers on child development.

Lamb (1976) presented three reasons for the increase in attention. First, given the obvious unbalanced focus on the mother/infant relationship in comparison to consideration of the father, researchers began to question if indeed it is valid that the father is an almost irrelevant figure in the infant's social world.

Second, the increased interest in fathers in their role within the family relates to the disintegration of the prototypical nuclear family in our society today. The family is generally viewed as the primary system responsible for socialization. However, the family system as a medium of socialization has been subjected to severe assault in recent years. There are an increasing number of marriages ending in divorce; more and more children are being raised in single-parent families; children are becoming increasingly peer oriented; and increasingly children are raised by substitute caretakers rather than parents (Lamb, 1976). Divorce and father absence and detachment because of work

demands are factors identified by Lynn (1974) as contributing to undermining the father's role. In addition, Lynn points to the rapid growth of knowledge and the resultant changes in the culture, i.e., with significant advances in technology come a concomitant revolution of values and the changing nature of sex roles. Davids (1972) attributed the "...awakening of scientific interest in the content of fatherhood" to a decrease in the sole importance of the father's contribution as a breadwinner in the more affluent countries of the West.

Third, extensive evidence has been gathered suggesting that the infant is actually capable of playing a more active role, and that its sensory competence should not be underestimated. This fact has led social scientists to question whether the infant's social world is more complex than has been theorized. Perhaps then the infant forms affective relationships to persons other than the mother (Lamb, 1976). Observational studies of mother-infant and father-infant interactions have shown that infants form attachments to both parents, even when the fathers spend a limited amount of time with them (Kotelchuck, 1976).

One of the factors often studied in parent-child relationships is the love-hostility dimension. The exact terminology used by one investigator to another to describe this dimension may vary, e.g., "warmth-hostility" (Martin, 1975), "acceptance-rejection" (Schaefer, 1959), "loving-rejecting" (Conger, 1971). The "love" end of the dimension generally reflects positive characteristics such as accepting, affectionate, approving, understanding, child-centered, frequent use of explanations, positive response to dependency behavior, high use of reason in discipline, high use of praise in discipline, and low use of

physical punishment (Becker, 1964). A review of the research literature revealed that paternal influence is commonly studied in reference to its impact upon specific areas of development such as sex-role orientation (particularly in reference to the father-son relationship), intellectual functioning, cognitive development, academic performance, moral development, identity, and psychosocial development. The finding of research studies in these areas indicate that a strong, clear manifestation of parental love has been identified as being significantly related to adaptive developmental outcomes (Biller, 1971b; Baumrind, 1967; Hetherington, 1976, 1971; Kagan, 1958; Lamb, 1982; McAdoo, 1986; Mussen & Distler, 1960; Parke, 1979; Pederson, 1966; Pruett, 1987; Radin 1976, 1981).

In discussions of parent-child relations, a concept often used to collectively describe the developmentally enhancing characteristics of parental behaviors mentioned above is nurturance. This concept is frequently used in the literature to designate a broad variety of behaviors, both verbal and nonverbal. For example, Parke (1967) defined nurturance as "...positive and encouraging comments indicating approval of the child's efforts. The experimenter also offered help and gave assistance whenever asked" (p. 1104). Other researchers have used subjects' ratings or responses to factor analytically developed interview or questionnaires items designed to measure nurturance. For example, to obtain a measurement of paternal nurturance, Reuter and Biller (1973) instructed subjects to rate items selected from Schaefer's (1965a, 1965b) Parent Perception Questionnaire on a 5-point scale ranging from very seldom (1) to very frequently (5). The nurturance

items were:

(a) believed in showing his love for me; (b) understood my problems and worries and helped me with them; (c) hugged and kissed me good night when I was small; (d) was able to make me feel better when I was upset; and (b) gave me a lot of care and attention (p. 339).

In an observational study of the relationship between paternal nurturance and the intellectual functioning of four-year-old boys, Radin (1972) saw nurturance, "or warmth...as responding to the child as an active, thinking feeling human being" (p. 355). Nurturance was assessed in terms of the number of father-son interactions that fell into 17 predetermined categories of behavior that formed a "nurturant cluster." The 17 categories of behavior were characterized along three dimensions which included use of reinforcement, consulting with the child, and sensitivity to his needs.

As the previous studies demonstrated, the operational definition of the concept of nurturance was inherently formulated by the items selected and analyzed to measure it.

Although there are variations among investigators in what is referred to in delineating nurturance, there are themes common to each of the characterizations. The elements of active interaction, child-focused receptivity and responsiveness, encourage, and verbal and nonverbal affective expression are among the recurrent themes encountered in the literature.

Diana Baumrind (1967), in her classic study of childrearing practices, gave a definition of nurturance that encompasses these

elements and may have served as a prototype for subsequent references.

According to Baumrind:

The term nurturance is used to refer to the caretaking functions of the parent; that is, to those parental acts and attitudes that express love and are directed at guaranteeing the child's physical and emotional well-being. Nurturance is expressed by warmth and involvement. By warmth is meant the parent's personal love and compassion for the child expressed by means of sensory stimulation, verbal approval, and tenderness of expression and touch. By involvement is meant pride and pleasure in the child's accomplishments manifested by words of praise and interest, and conscientious protection of the child's welfare (p. 57).

The variations and limitations in the definition of the concept of nurturance have been noted by some researchers. In his overview of paternal effects on child development, Lamb (1981) pointed out that concepts such as nurturance [among others] are currently "too vague, nonspecific, and subjective to be of predictive utility" in our quest to understand the nature of family interactions (p. 26). Fogel, Melson, and Mistry (1986) pointed out that the literature on child care lacks a standard definition of the concept of nurturance. In responses to this deficit in the research literature, Fogel et al. constructed a general definition of nurturance which will now be discussed.

Fogel et al. make a distinction between the concepts of altruism and empathy which are usually thought to be components of nurturance. If parenting is considered to be exemplary of nurturing behavior, we

realize that in actual situations parents do not always respond altruistically or emphatically to their children. There may be parental variable and/or situational variables that may prohibit the display of appropriate parental behavior. In other instances, the parents may perceive the child's need, be able to meet the child's need, and still withhold actions. Fogel et al. offered the following explanation:

Parents often deliberately withhold their resources in order to encourage the child to develop on his/her own, or to encourage independence. Parents may create a situation in which they will provide only part of what the child needs, and allow the child to complete the action on his own (p. 55).

The type of parental behavior described above can be further analyzed in terms of empathy. Presumably, the parents can empathize with the child's immediate needs and with the parent's preconceived ideas of the child's future potential (e.g., as more self-governing, more competent, etc.). Fogel et al. argue that the distinction between the current states and future states of the child is the essence of the concept of nurturance. Therefore, "nurturance is the provision of guidance, protection and care for the purpose of fostering developmental change congruent with the expected potential for change of the object of nurturance" (p. 55). Thinking of "fostering developmental change" in general terms broadens the use of nurturance to include individual of all ages, animals, inanimate objects, and other kinds of human endeavors such as works of art, literature, hobbies, and personal growth and developmental (e.g., career achievement, spiritual growth, etc.). The intention to foster developmental change can be directed to oneself as

well.

Fogel et al.'s definition of nurturance allows for a four-dimensional model of nurturance. In addition to a "subjective" intention to foster development being directable to a variety of objects, the definition allows for individual variation in the expression of nurturant feelings, in the motivation to nurture, and in the individual's awareness of their own or another's need to be nurtured. "The expression of nurturance refers to the behavioral style with which the desire to foster development is expressed" (p. 57). In studies of childrearing practices, it is the expressive or performance component of nurturance that is usually assessed. An investigation of the relationship of the nurturant-expressive role to paternal behavior is one of the objectives of this study.

Although the nurturant dimension is one of the most frequently investigated aspects of parenting behavior, a review of the literature reveals that Blacks and other minority families receive little attention from social researchers. Further, while there is increasing research on the impact fathers have on children and family life, there are comparatively fewer studies of Black fathers and even fewer studies of Black fathers in two-parent homes.

The legacy of social science research on the Black family is one of pathology. Unfortunately, the majority of the research on Black fathers has been directed to deficiencies in the performance of his parenting role. Social scientists have been vulnerable to the myths and stereotypes that are pervasive in our culture regarding the Black family in general and the Black male in particular. Themes that are common in

the literature regarding the Black family include paternal absenteeism, a matriarchal family structure, and inadequacy of the father in his role as provider among others. A more extended discussion of the above issues will be presented in the following chapter.

McAdoo (1986) advised the research community that if researchers are embarking on a new road in empirical research to embellish our understanding of family interaction and socialization processes and patterns by including the father, then "we need to find ways of evaluating Black fathers and their families in a less ethnocentrically biased way" (p. 118). The definition of nurturance offered by Fogel et al. may allow the research community to view the Black family and Black fathers in particular, in a different light. If parenting is considered an example of nurturing behavior; and if nurturance is broadly thought of in term of the goal of fostering developmental change, then more attention may be given to the factors that lead to positive developmental outcomes of parent-child relations. Rather than evaluating Black families in comparison to white middle class socialization practices and values, Black family relations may be reassessed as a cultural variation of the family processes characteristic of the major society. In reality, numerous Black families have fostered the development of children who reach their potential in terms of expected social and psychological tasks (e.g., have made successful adaptation vocationally, interpersonally and emotionally).

In line with the observations previously discussed, the following questions may be raised. Are Black fathers similar to other fathers in

the socialization of their children? What is the Black father's attitude toward childrearing? Is the nurturant-expressive role a significant role for the Black father? Is there a relationship between the adequacy of the performance of the provider role and the nurturant-expressive role? In the investigator's view, in order to answer these questions and numerous others, it is crucial to conduct more research to understand the patterns of attitudes, behaviors, and beliefs common to Black fathers in the parenting and socialization of their children. One approach in this direction is for researchers to give more attention to intact Black families and the father's parenting role. It is an objective which this project sought, in part, to address.

A third component of this project is to investigate the association between marital quality and parenting attitudes and behaviors. Walters and Walters (1980) have concluded that the emerging trend in the research literature is on the reciprocal effects of relationships between parents and children. The focus of parent-child research has shifted from a unidirectional model which sees the relationship going from parent to child toward a triadic (mother-father-child) or quadradic (mother-father-sibling-child) relationship model which emphasize the reciprocity of influence (Walters & Walters, 1980).

Social scientists recognize the multiplicity of influences on the developing child and have come to respect that many influences are manifested indirectly through familial subsystems. Several studies confirm that fathers have significant indirect effects on their children's development through the father's impact on their wives

(Belsky, 1981; Lewis & Weinraub, 1976; Parke, Power, & Gottman, 1979).

Does the quality of marriage influence parenting characteristics? A discussion of indirect influences will be presented in the following chapter.

In summary, the objective of the current study was to investigate differences among Black fathers in the nurturant-expressive dimension of parent-child relations and their attitudes and behaviors regarding childrearing and marital quality.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Theories concerning the role of fathers in child development have helped somewhat to bridge the gap in the research literature on paternal influences. Before proceeding to a discussion of Black fathers and childrearing in Black families, a brief overview of various theoretical positions will be presented.

The father's role in child development has been discussed theoretically from the psychoanalytic and social learning theory points of view predominantly in terms of the concept of identification. According to Stokes (1950) "as adults, our relations with the opposite sex, our attitude toward our children, our persistence in traditional ways; all these stem from the identifications which we made as young children" (p. 163). Two of the most influential theories in the role of the father in child development are Freud's theory of identification and Parsons' sociological theory of identification. The aspect of Freud's theory that pertains to the father centers around the resolution of the oedipal conflict. The boy is motivated to identify with the father out of fear of the father's aggression (castration anxiety) and the girl out of her fear of the loss of the mother's love. The identification with the father is crucial for the boy's sex-role adoption and also proceeds the formation of the superego, which is a prerequisite for the development of morality and moral behavior (Freud, 1909, 1923, 1924).

Stokes (1950) proposed an alternative to the Oedipus complex explanation as the determiner of identification. His explanation consisted of nine complex, interacting factors which are found in

varying degrees in the lives of children, account for difference in the degree of identification, are equally applicable to both sexes, explain differences between emotional and behavioral identification, are practically applicable and subject to empirical verification. Two of the factors he hypothesized that the identification process is influenced by, which are particularly relevant to this study, are "the degree of affection accorded to the child by the person with whom identification is attempted" and "the extent to which the child's needs are gratified by the person with whom identification is attempted" (p. 186).

Sanford (1955) in his analysis of the concept of identification pointed out that one of the defining characteristics of the identificatory response is the motive for the imitative behavior. One such motive, which is derived from psychoanalytic theory, is to reduce anxiety over anticipated aggression from a model. Kagan (1958) suggested that an individual is also motivated to identify with a model to "experience or obtain positive goal [affective] states which he perceives that the model commands...the motivation to command or experience desired goal states of a model is solvent in the development and maintenance of an identification" (p. 298).

Two important goal states, for the child especially, are (a) a feeling of mastery and (b) love and affection. Payne and Mussen (1956) provide some empirical support for the view that the child identifies with the parent he perceives as being more powerful and possessing important sources of gratification. In their study of "actual similarities" between adolescent boys and their father, Payne and Mussen

found the following:

...boys are more likely to identify with fathers whom they perceive as rewarding, gratifying, understanding, and warm than with fathers who are not perceived in their ways. If the son's perceptions are in fact determined by the father's behavior toward him, it may be inferred that fathers who are the source of many rewards and who have established sound psychological relationships with their sons facilitate the boys' identification with them (p. 360).

Stokes and Payne and Mussen offered theoretical and empirical support, respectively, for the hypothesis that one of the important conditions for identification is a warm, affectionate relationship with the person to be identified with.

During the period in which Freud places the oedipal conflict, Parsons suggests that the mother-child subsystem is expanded to include the father. Before this stage, Parsons argued, the mother plays both an expressive (nurturant, empathic) and an instrumental (competence, achievement focused) function in relation to the child. Hereafter, however, the father is established as the primary representative of the instrumental role, and the mother plays a more restricted expressive role (Parsons and Bales, 1955).

According to Parsons' formulation, the father is seen by the child as representing an executive action-oriented approach to the world. He is the primary link between the wider social system and the family system. Thus, the father would be the parent who introduces the child to the sex-role prescriptions of the wider world, encourages the

acquisition of the competences necessary for adaptation to the world, and represents and communicates the values and moralities of the social system (Parsons and Bales, 1955).

Meerloo (1968) in a discussion of the psychological role of the father also felt that it is the father who is the "bridge" to the outside world. He further identified the father as the first person to break the symbiotic mother-child relationship and the child transfers feelings of gratification, relatedness, dependency, etc. from the mother to the father. This new interaction becomes the model for many future social relationships.

Bandura and Huston (1961) have described identification as a process of incidental learning. In an experimental situation, preschoolers were exposed to either a "nurturant" or "nonnurturant" model during a play session. Subjects who experienced the nurturant condition (i.e., model responded readily to the child's request for aid and attention, and in other ways fostered a consistently warm, and rewarding interaction) displayed imitative incidental learning to a greater extent than did the subjects who experienced the relatively cold and distant interaction with the nonnurturant model. Bandura and Huston concluded that "nurturance not only facilitates imitation of the specific behavior displayed by a model but also increases the probability of responses of a whole response class (for example, verbal behavior)" (p. 316).

The findings of a later study by Mussen and Parker (1965) were consistent with the conclusion of Bandura and Huston. In their study of maternal nurturance and incidental imitative learning of five or six-year-old girls, Mussen and Parker found that the girls with

nurturant mothers showed significantly more incidental imitative learning of the mother's behavior than the girls with nonnurturant mothers.

Observational learning (modeling) is seen as the crucial process in the sex-role development of the young child, and thus the importance of the father's role in the development of the son's masculinity is underscored (Lamb, 1981).

Lamb (1982) in his discussion of paternal influences on early socio-emotional development reiterates that observational studies have demonstrated convincingly that "...infants form attachments to both of their parents by the middle of the first year of life, even when their mothers are primary caretakers and their fathers spend relatively little time with them" (p. 185).

Mothers and fathers directly influence their children's socio-emotional development as they are the major sources of stimulation and the primary models of socially approved behavior for their young children to emulate. Furthermore, they exhibit different interactional styles. "Fathers are noted for their playfulness--more particularly their penchant for robust, physically stimulating play--whereas mothers are characteristically associated with caretaking and more conventional 'containing' modes of play" (p. 186). Secondly, fathers affect socio-emotional development in terms of the security of the infant-father attachment relationships. Secure attachment are facilitated by interactions with an adult who is sensitive and responsive to the signals and needs of the infant (Lamb, 1982).

Fathers also indirectly affect their children's socio-emotional development by their influences on their wives. Research by Pedersen, Yarrow, Anderson and Cain (1979a), Parke (1979), and Lewis and Weinraub (1976) provide support for the following conclusion:

When the relationship between the parents are warm, fathers provide the emotional support which facilitates the formation of secure and stimulating infant-mother relationships and so they indirectly contribute to healthy socio-emotional development (Lamb, 1982, p. 187).

Indirect Paternal Effects

Research on father-child interactions has provided needed information on how various paternal characteristics directly influence developmental outcomes. The father-child dyad, however, is just one subsystem of the child's social network. Within the nuclear family, a child has a relationship with the mother as well, and the parents have a relationship with each other that interfaces the parent-child relationship. The parent-child subsystems and parent-parent subsystem operate interdependently to bring about indirect influences on development. For example, the parent-parent relationship can have an effect upon the mother's behavior toward the child even when the father is absent. The influences within the child's social network are multidirectional. The child's family likely includes the parent-sibling and sibling-sibling subsystems as well as the child-parent and parent-parent subsystem. In addition, the adults within the nuclear family perform two subsystem relationships--husband-wife and mother-father. The spousal role may affect the performance of their

parental role (Pedersen, 1981).

In an early discussion of the importance of mother-infant attachment, Bowlby (1951) described how a father may indirectly affect his child's development. According to Bowlby, by fulfilling his provider role, the father frees the mother to devote herself totally to the care of her children. By providing emotional support, he helps to create and maintain a harmonious environment in which the child can thrive.

A number of studies have reported findings that provide confirmation of the significance of emotional support from the husband to enhancing the mother's sense of well being and parental competence. Successful adaptation to pregnancy (Shereshefsky & Yarrow, 1973), reduced need for pain-relieving medication during labor and delivery (Henneborn & Cogan, 1975), and successful breast-feeding (Switzky, Vietze, & Switzky, 1979) have been positively associated with emotional support from the husband. In an investigation of the relationship between maternal involvement and responsivity to the child and the mother's perception of how much support she received from the father, Feiring's (1975) results corroborated the findings of other studies. A strong positive association was found between maternal ratings of support from the father and ratings of maternal involvement and responsivity to the child.

The link between marital support and maternal competence was also supported by the data reported by Price (1977). Based upon her investigation of mothers and their infants through the first month, she concluded "that the mother's ability to enjoy her infant, and regard it

with affection may be in part a function of the quality of her relationship with her husband" (p. 7).

There has been less empirical investigation on whether the father benefits from emotional support from his wife in maintaining an effective parenting role. Examination of the studies by Dickie, Schuurman, & Schang (1980), Fein (1976) and Zaslow, Pedersen, Kramer, and Cain (1981) revealed that an emotionally supportive relationship is beneficial to both mothers and fathers. Research by Pedersen, Anderson, and Cain (1980) suggests that when the parents have a warm and positive relationship, they are more nurturant and responsive toward their infants.

Belsky (1979, 1981) proposed a conceptual model of familial influences which highlights the linkages connecting three aspects of the family system. He stressed familial roles and relationships rather than individual family members. In his integrative model, he focused on three components of the family system: (a) the marital relationship, (b) parenting, and (c) infant development. His organizational scheme reflects the bidirectional and circular pathways of influence within the family and the complexity of family functioning. Within the family system, the three components form junctures such that "parenting affects and is affected by the infant, who both influences and is influenced by the marital relationship, which in turn both affects and is affected by parenting" (Belsky, 1981, p. 7). The circular influences depicted in the model may be interpreted to illustrate that "what transpires between husband and wife might affect a parent's caregiving attitudes and/or behavior, which in turn could influence the infant's functioning, which,

coming full circle, might affect the marital relationship" (Belsky, 1981, p. 6). The marital relations/parenting interface will be the focus of discussion in this project.

Various approaches have been used to investigate the ways in which the marriage influences parenting. Studies of mother-father-infant interaction in triadic situations that take place either in the home or a structured laboratory setting have afforded the additional opportunity of considering the influential dynamics of the husband-wife relationship (Pedersen, Yarrow, Anderson, & Cain, 1979). In general, studies indicate that the presence of one parent lowers the rate of interaction between the other parent and child (Lamb, 1976; Belsky, 1979; Clark-Stewart, 1978; Pedersen, Anderson, & Cain, 1980). Specifically, Pedersen, Yarrow, et al. found that when there was active communication between the parents, parenting behavior requiring greater-focused attention was inhibited. The one exception to this overall pattern occurred when the baby was being fed by bottle or nursing. It was suggested that nursing quiets the externally-oriented activity of the baby in such a way that this juncture of parent-infant and husband-wife behavior may enhance communication between the parents during these times.

A question to be addressed eventually is whether marital and parental interactions support or conflict with one another. Implication may be drawn from the descriptive findings discussed above. Findings of a study by Belsky (1979) gives some indication of the compatibility of the spousal and parental role when the content of the husband-wife verbal exchanges were differentiated. The pattern of correlations

obtained indicated that "husbands and wives who engaged in conversations regarding topics not related to the baby were relatively unlikely to be actively engaged in parenting" (p. 753). Belsky also found correlational data which suggests that wives may be more influential in fostering their husbands parenting behavior than vice versa. Wives who engaged in frequent conversations about their babies had husbands who were rated high in intensity of positive affection and on cognitive stimulation during interactions with their 15-month-old infant. The frequency with which husbands talked about the baby did not significantly influence the wives' pattern of mothering.

Goldberg and Easterbrooks (1984) investigated the associations among marital quality, parenting attitudes and behavior, and toddler development. Fathers and mothers who scored high on marital adjustment and marital harmony reported less parental aggravation than other parents. The expression of warmth and encouragement of independence was associated with mothers' high marital adjustment scores. Marital harmony correlated significantly with paternal emotional support of the child and tended to be associated with a better quality of assistance given by the father during a problem-solving task. In addition, parents who perceived the toddler to be an interference in their marriage and life-style reported poorer marital adjustment. Regarding toddler development, analysis of the data provided support for a positive link between good marital functioning and optimal developmental outcomes.

Black Families

Although numerous studies have addressed the importance of the father's role in the socialization of the child, the literature is still

remiss in its attention to the Black male in his fathering role in intact families. As has been pointed out by Cazenane (1979) "more than any other figure, the Black father...qualifies as the phantom of American family studies" (p. 585). Almost exclusive emphasis has been given to "father absence" and "matriarchy" among the Black lower and under classes when they have been studied.

In view of the sparsity of research on the Black father, discussion of the research on the Black family will be included. Many of the research questions and findings on the Black father are interwoven in the research on the Black family.

Historically, the Black father had little power or means by which to provide for and protect his family. Specifically, in the institution of slavery the Black male's fathering role was mainly that of procreation and the privilege of participating in the familial relationships was tenuous as the possibility of being separated from his family was quite high. Additionally, in many instances the "honorable" institution of marriage was not allowed or recognized among the slave population. All in all, conceptually the "master" was the "powerful father."

One of the most deleterious theoretical concepts to the image of the Black family in general and to the Black male specifically is that of the matriarchal family structure. E. Franklin Frazier (1939) is identified as being the first to suggest that because of the system of slavery and the subjugated position of the male then and in modern society, the female was the only source of continuity within the family and had to take the dominant role in the Black family. Burgess and

Lockee (1945) expressed similar views regarding the matriarchal structure of Black families:

Under slavery the mother remained the important figure in the family. The affectionate relations of mother and child developed deep and permanent attachment. Frequently, also, the father was a member of the family group, but often the relationship was casual and easily broken.... Then, too, Negro husbands were sold more often. These and other factors contributed to the development of a matricentric form of the family during slavery (p. 146).

For those who hold to the theme of the absent Black father and matriarchal family structure, the era of slavery has been identified as being the point in time of dissolution of the Black family. However, several authors have presented empirical evidence that two-headed household characterized Black families shortly before the end of slavery and shortly afterwards. In an investigation of U.S. Census and Freedman Bureau data for the years 1850 to 1880 in thirteen American cities, Gutman (1976) found that 70 to 90 percent of the families had fathers present in the home.

A more focused census review was conducted by Furstenburg (1975) who found that in the city of Philadelphia, the Black family structural pattern was not significantly different from Irish, German, and white American households.

Today, the subdominance of the Black father to the mother is attributed to his limited ability to contribute economically to the resources of the family. The Black female has a slight advantage over

the Black male in obtaining steady employment and thereby has more control of economic resources. Therein lies her leverage in the family. Reportedly, in the circumstances described above, distance may come between husband and wife, with the husband being more likely to become involved with peers, at the expense of the family (Tenhouten, 1970).

In 1965 a document was presented by a division of the Department of Labor, entitled The Negro Family--The Case for National Action. This document, better known as the "Moynihan Report," concluded that the Black family is characterized by broken homes, female-dominance, a high rate of illegitimacy and delinquency. Moynihan implies that emasculation and family disorganization are basic weaknesses in the Black community and that the Black family's unfavorable position is self-perpetuating "by its own internal dynamics of family role deviancy" (Tenhouten, 1970, p. 147).

Staples (1971) stated that Fraziers' successors such as Rainwater (1966b), Clark (1965) and Moynihan (1965) attributed many of the problems the Black community faces to the fact that many Black Americans are born out of female-headed households. Further, he noted that Moynihan, in particular, attempted to illustrate that the absence of the father figure in the Black family would lead to a number of disorders in the next generation of Black children. Moynihan is quoted as saying:

...the circumstances of the Negro American community in recent years probably have been getting worse, not better.... The fundamental problem, in which this is most clearly the case, is that of family structure.... So long as this situation persists, the cycle of poverty and disadvantage will

continue to repeat itself.... [T]he present tangle of pathology is capable of perpetuating itself without assistance from the white world (Moynihan 1965, p. 1, 47).

The thesis of a deviant family structure, specifically female-headed households and absent fathers, has been the major focus of research on the Black father and the Black family. The issue of female dominance has been investigated in terms of conjugal power relationship within the family. Most of the studies on the Black family have been oriented to the lower-class population and have employed the father-absent versus father-present research design. Generally, the studies on Black fathers are concerned with intellectual ability and achievement, sex role identification, problem behavior, and emotional adjustment.

Mackie et al. (1974), Collier et al. (1973) and Wasserman (1969) in their investigations of intellectual achievement compared subjects from father-present homes with subjects from father-absent homes. They found no significant difference in mental abilities, intellectual achievement, or school performance between subjects. Their findings did not support the thesis that father absence negatively influences child development. The subjects in each of the three studies were from lower-class families. A shortcoming of research in this area is the lack of comparative studies with middle-class families and those even higher on the socioeconomic ladder.

Biller (1968) compared masculine development in lower-class Black and white boys, again using the father-present versus father-absent design with lower-class subjects. The findings of his study suggest

that father absence and family background influence the underlying sex-role orientation more than other overt aspects of masculinity. He commented that a young boy appears to have more difficulty developing a masculine self-concept in families where little value is given to being male and being masculine, and in families where the father is ineffectual or absent.

Badaines (1976) was concerned with identification, imitation, and sex-role preference in Black and Chicano boys. Using the father-present versus father-absent design, he concluded that seven-year-old boys demonstrate a preference for the masculine role, but that paternal absence has a detrimental effect on its development. Badaines' findings lend support to Biller's explanation that sex-role orientation was more affected by father absence than was sex-role adoption because of the ameliorative effect of peer influence on the latter.

Rubin (1974), in his examination of self-attitudes (self-concept) among boys and girls from father-present and father-absent families, found no significant differences in any measure of self-concept comparing boys from homes having no adult males with girls from similar homes and boys and girls from homes with adult male figures. He did find some support for the hypothesis that increased family interaction results in better self-attitudes. Rubin accounted for the lack of difference in self-attitude between father-present males and those with no male adults in the home in terms of the latter may identify with models outside the home such as street acquaintances, models in the classroom or from one's own mother. Contrarily, the adult male living in the home may be a poor model in view of his own reduced status.

Parker and Kleiner (1969) investigated the question of whether "the deviant role performance of the Negro family can be explained as a painful adjustment to social conditions of discrimination and a high probability of failure, as against the view that it represents a normative conformity, to a subculturally distinct family situation" (p. 501). Under the assumption that a normative subculture of deviance does not exist in the Black family, there should not be status-linked differences in family norms and deviances from middle-class standards would be accompanied by feelings of psychological stress. Parker and Kleiner found that deviance in the family role performance of Black males was related to generalized feelings of failure and hopelessness in the Black male. The social-psychological factors that were assumed to be stress-provoking were: awareness of where one is in terms of social status, appraisal of one's accomplishments, discrepancies between one's accomplishments and aspirations, and one's appraisal of the probability of reaching valued goals. Conclusively, it may be assumed that given these findings, the deviant family role performance of the Black male is not normative as he experiences feelings of failure and hopelessness in his perceptions of the discrepancies in his performance.

Implicit within this study is the assumption that middle-class standards are the ideal mode of social existence and that Blacks have internalized these standards although they have not been given equal opportunity to actualize them. Some researchers have begun to question the effect such a bias may have on presenting objective and less-value-ridden research on the Black family (McAdoo, 1979, 1981; Peters, 1981).

Schulz (1969a) described three types of Black fathers among ten lower-class families. Five of the families were father-absent; the remaining five were "complete." Through the means of participant observation and open-ended interviews, Schulz assessed the role played by the father in each household. That is, the degree of marginality or lack of family involvement by the father and the mode which the father used to legitimize his authority.

The first type of father described is the so-called "indiscreet free-man." He characteristically divides his loyalties between his legitimate family and one or more "illegitimate" families. He is openly boastful of his infidelity and provides more economic resources to his "outside" family than his legitimate wife and children. The father's flagrant infidelity lies at the base of the family conflict. The "indiscreet" father had least control and authority in the family. Second, the "discreet free-man's" extramarital affairs are a secondary concern. His indiscretions are known to his wife and family, but he maintains a comfortable relationship with his family as he covers up or minimizes his activities with other women. He legitimizes his authority within the household on the basis of being warm and companionable with his children. They are or had been adequate providers and are respected for their manipulative strategies in coping with the environment such as gambling. Lastly, the monogamous type of father is proud of his fidelity. His home and family are his major concern. He typically has a good relationship with his children and high status in the family regardless of his ability to earn a living. The monogamous father tends to legitimize his authority on his ability as a provider and being an

adequate model for respectable behavior.

Schulz concluded from his observation of the internal dynamics of the families that the father's status in the family depends upon his earning capacity and willingness to share the resources with his family, the degree to which he adhered to the norms of a monogamous marriage, his ability to cope with the harsh realities of life in the ghetto, and his capacity to be a companion to his children.

One of the few studies done on middle-class Black families that focused upon the role of the father as an economic provider and its effects on father-family interactions was presented by Cazanave (1979). He was concerned with the respondents' perceptions of what is expected of them as fathers, their feelings about the father role and what it consists of, and their reported behavior in that role. The data suggests that the provider role is salient only when the respondents were asked "as a father...who am I?" or when the provider role was specifically included in a forced choice listing of masculine roles. The respondents appeared to have a more utilitarian view of the provider role. It was viewed as a means to an end, to effectively carry out the husband and father role. In addition, an equalitarian, expressive, familial relationship was preferred by the respondents. This represents a shift from the patriarchal family relationships of their fathers. The findings suggest that the fathering role is more complex and that the provider role may have been overemphasized. In fact, the security and ample resources which the job provided facilitated father-child interaction within the home.

Further research is needed on Black fathers in less secure job situations (i.e., the blue collar work), the Black professional and other jobs where there is generally more mobility. Further delineation of the relationship between occupational ambition and successful fathering in mobile, professional Black fathers is needed.

Father absence or presence per se was found to be nondiscriminating of the socially mobile group from the low-mobile group in a study by Moulton (1971). The incidence of father absence was slightly higher for the mobile group. In assessing the role of the parents in providing the kind of model which promotes upward mobility in their children, Moulton noted that the degree of influence a father has is determined by the extent to which the son regards the father as successful and worthy of emulation. It was found that among the mobile males there was more of a reported attempt to model after their fathers than among those in the low-mobile group. Of particular interest is the tendency of the mobile males to emulate their fathers' ideals and values rather than their overt behavior. The findings here do not lend support to the Moynihan thesis of the damaging influence of the female-malinant family structure. Interestingly, the mobile males tended to report a relatively unaffectionate relationship with the mother. The relationship appeared to be characterized by mutual respect (Moulton, 1971). The reported lack of a more expressive role by the mother of the mobile group raises interesting questions for further research on the mother-son relationship in the father-absent home. It is evident that additional attention must be given to factors influencing socialization other than mother-father dominance.

More research on the expressive dimensions of parenting and provider roles in families where both parents work and on the expressive role of the mother in father-absent households is needed. In addition, the method of participant observation provides data on an actual as opposed to reported behavior.

Scanzoni (1971) used the term "parental functionality" to describe his model of role relationship within the family. Specifically, "what the parent does for the child precedes and substantially influences identification by the child with the parent" (p. 60). Therefore, according to Scanzoni, we should begin by looking at in what manner did the parents function to provide the child with the necessary resources to fulfill societal expectations in terms of socioeconomic and conjugal roles. He summarized his findings as follows:

1. The majority of male and female respondents perceived that both their fathers and mothers provided the kinds of resources, rewards, and benefits that would enable them to begin to conform to dominant economic and conjugal patterns.

2. These resources took the form of pertinent values and norms, plus appropriate behaviors including economic help. Resources were focused on attainment of educational, occupational, and marital goals.

3. Their parents provided both expressive or person-oriented support, as well as instrumental or goal-oriented direction. There was some indication that mothers were more active in the former sphere, fathers in the latter.

4. ...Respondents' parents, in brief, give evidence of being just as aware of the 'achievement demands' of modern society, and just as active as whites in trying to prepare their children to meet these demands.

5. Respondents who came from middle-class backgrounds seem to have been exposed to greater levels of resources than those coming from working-class backgrounds, and those from 'whole' families seem to have been relatively more advantaged than those from 'other' types of families.

6. Nevertheless, class background seems to be more significant than family composition in explaining differences in levels of resources received. More specifically, the education of fathers and mothers seems to exert the most powerful and most direct influence on resources provided to children (pp. 97-98).

The controversy regarding the nature of the spousal relationship in Black families was addressed by Willie and Greenblatt (1978). They presented a review of four "classic" studies of power relationships in Black families which shows that Moynihan's thesis is inaccurate and in addition illustrated productive methodologies for social science research which focuses on Black families. The authors comment that the "Moynihan Report" is a good example of the tendency of the majority population to project solution to social problems onto the Black community which are their values without understanding that experiences and conditions for Blacks may be different.

The first study cited by Willie and Greenblatt is the Middleton and Putney (1960) study in which equal numbers of both Black and white families of the middle and working classes participated. Decision-making on questionnaires was required of the spouses separately and jointly. The stimulating overall finding in this study is that 17 of the 20 Black families made joint decisions that were classified as equalitarian. When the spouses differed, the husband tended to win about as often as did the wife in a large majority of the Black families. The findings show that proportionately more Black families were equalitarian than white families. Additionally, in terms of social class, middle-class Blacks were more equalitarian in family decision-making than any of the other race-class groups studied.

Mack (1978) conducted a similar study with a larger sample in which the couples participated in three additional tasks: a bargaining task, mutual rating of which spouse was the dominant partner in the marriage, and discussion of a specific topic for five minutes. Mack concluded that social class difference was more influential than racial differences in the issue of who dominates in marital relationships. She additionally pointed out that "marital dominance is not a trait but a context-dependent function of the relationship between two marriage partners" (p. 148).

In an even larger study by Tenhouten (1970) with Black and white families from both the lower and higher socioeconomic levels, it was found that Blacks were significantly higher on the measure of male dominance than whites for each of the nine items of the male dominance ideology scale. The Black lower socio-economic group was highest on the

measure of male dominance ideology.

Children were asked to rank their parents in terms of who dominates the decision-making process. Tenhouten found that white families in the lower socioeconomic bracket were most likely to be father-dominated, whereas the remaining groups were most likely to be autonomic or equalitarian. He concluded that these findings negate Moynihan's thesis that lower socioeconomic Black families are matriarchies.

From the case studies of Black families by Willie (1976), it has been shown that patterns of power relationships between middle-and working-class Black spouses were predominantly equalitarian. Also, among working-class Blacks it was revealed that ..."cooperation for survival is so basic in Black working-class families that the relationship between husband and wife takes on an equalitarian character...." (p. 63).

Willie and Greenblatt summarized their review by reiterating that "Black families do not constitute a monolithic pattern of familial relationships" (p. 693). As the studies indicate, Black families vary according to social class. Further, research must be responsive to variety of life patterns and recognize that "there is no one best family structure for all people in all situations" (p. 693).

Additional research is needed to investigate the nature of equalitarian practices or other relationships and family interactions within the black community.

Acknowledgement is also given to the field study by Liebow (1967) entitled Tally's Corner, considered by some as a landmark endeavor in the field of family studies (Staples, 1969). Liebow used the

participant-observer approach to examine the various family and kinship roles played by the lower-class Black males in a certain area of Washington, D.C. Liebow provides descriptions of how these men carry out their roles as father, husband, lover, friend, etc., as well as making informative analysis of their role behavior. For example, he observed that fathers who live with their children are less affectionate and interacted less with their own children than fathers separated from their families. In fact, "the men are frequently more affectionate toward other men's children than toward their own" (p. 79). He explains this behavior in the following manner:

Where the father lives with his own children, his occasional touch or other tender gesture is dwarfed by his unmet obligations. No matter how much he does it is not enough. But where the man lives with children not his own, every gentleness and show of concern and affection redounds to his public and private credit; everything is profit. For him, living with children is not, as it is for the father, charged with failure and guilt. Since his own and others' expectations of him as father are minimal, he is free to enter into a close relationship with the children without fear of failure and uninhibited by guilt (p. 87).

Staples (1971) in his theoretical and methodological assessment of the research on the Black family noted the culture versus class dichotomy is often used in analyzing Black family life. The Black family may be portrayed as a subculture, different from other lower-class groups with distinct ways of acting, thinking and believing,

whose historical experience is often considered as the basic cause of the development of a Black, lower-class culture.

Social class when used as the causal variable for Black family behavior inevitably leads to the conceptualization of the Black family as a slight variant of the lower-class white family. On the whole, culture or class is used to explain Black family disorganization (Staples, 1971).

The majority of research on Black family patterns has been based upon preconceived notion of the pathological nature and deviant malfunctioning of the family. Often these preconceived ideas are derived from the use of the white, middle-class models as an evaluative measure for families who are subject to a completely different set of social forces which determine their structure and dynamics.

Staples (1971) advocates that a more objective approach must be used in evaluating Black family life and come to accept the fact that the Black family cannot be explained by use of normative social science models. He further admonished that the continued application of white middle-class norms to studying Black family life will perpetuate the definition of the Black family as a deviant unit that sustains the conditions of its oppression. More specific to the role of the Black male in this "deviant family unit," the lack of an objective approach has also contributed to the sometime inaccurate portrayal of the "Black male in a matriarchal family." The use of the white middle-class model thus assumes that the values of the Black male are congruent with those of middle-class white America. In doing so the Black male is not recognized as having a different value system but is evaluated in terms

of how well he is able to execute the middle-class standards. In other words, from such a biased point of view, any variation in the Black male's role as a father depicted from middle-class norms, he can only be viewed as ineffective, distant, and as an insignificant member of the family. Social scientists of both races are guilty of perpetuating the pathological view of the Black male and of Black family life.

Staples noted that research on the Black family has focused on its structural aspects, not its interactional dynamics. In addition, most research on the Black family has been restricted to certain geographical areas of the country and it may be difficult to generalize the findings on Black families in one area of the country to all Blacks.

The pattern of Black family life among the middle-class has been somewhat neglected in research. To discover the economic variables that impinge on Black family life, a productive approach would be to investigate variations within the Black community. This would allow us to isolate socioeconomic factors related to features of the Black family and to analyze the role of culture in patterning Black family behavior.

Lieberman (1973) reviews aspects of the old model of the Black family and presents a new concept for the emerging model of the Black family.

The old acculturation model, originated by Frazier, explained the nature of Black families by use of such concepts as the institution of slavery, family disorganization, and urbanization. The central concept here is the belief of the acquisition of the dominant culture's norms and values by Blacks. The "ethnocentrism" of this model was reflected through focalization on such symptoms as family breakdown and

disorganization, illegitimacy, matriarchy, low male aspiration and the idea that there was a monolithic Black family. These myths have been challenged in past research and current census data (Lieberman, 1973).

Two new views offer alternative interpretations of the myths of the acculturation model. One such view is that issues such as promiscuity, illegitimacy and desertion by the father have been misinterpreted as problems among lower-class families, whereas these behavior patterns are solutions to problems faced by the lower class in many spheres of life.

A second alternative view proposes that the myths obscure the strengths of Black families. Robert Hill (1971) identified five characteristics that have been functional for the survival, advancement and stability of Black families: adaptability of family roles, strong kinship bonds, strong work orientation, strong religious orientation and strong achievement orientation (p. 37).

To move to a more viable sociology of the Black family we need to clear away the stereotypic myths of Black families, to identify the norms and values involved in families' interaction processes, styles of interaction, and qualities of personal relationships unique to the Black family. In essence, we as yet "have not penetrated the interior of the Black family" (Staples, 1971, p. 127).

What is needed is a new central explanatory concept and clarification of the relationship between the values and concepts of the researcher and the values of those he studied. Four conceptual views which vary in degree from the old model can be identified: (1) rejection of the stereotypes of the old model but retaining the acculturational explanation developed by Frazier, (2) deemphasis on

acculturation by emphasizing opportunities, (3) deemphasis or avoidance of causal explanations, and (4) internal colonialism (Lieberman, 1973).

The first view is held by Billingsley (1968) who emphasized those factors which enable Blacks to respond to opportunities. His concept of "screens of opportunities" is presented at four levels:

(1) the strength of the family's values, economic footing, religious convictions, and education, (2) the individual's talents and personality, (3) the leaders, influentials, and institutions in the Negro community, and (4) the white society's economic, health, educational, and political opportunities (Lieberman, 1973, p. 14).

Billingsley's conceptual frame is reminiscent of the five areas of strength identified by Hill (1971). However, it also tends to be somewhat idealistic as the opportunities of white society are not readily accessible to the Black man.

Willie (1970) emphasizes the opportunity structure and deemphasizes the family disorganization idea. This approach corresponds with the second view listed above. According to Willie, whites, generally, have had more access to the opportunities of institutional change. He acknowledges that poverty among both whites and non-whites may be a perpetuation of personal and family-related deficiencies as well as patterns of institutional organization. However, he feels that the "institutional arrangements and patterns of social organization are likely to be more powerful explanations of the presence of poverty among non-white than among white people in the United States" (Lieberman, 1973, p. 14).

Thirdly, Staples (1971) avoids or deemphasizes causal explanations linking family and achievement. He views such ideas as African origin, alienation, or economic deprivation as unimportant and argues that "black family culture and social achievement are largely independent of one another" (p. 134). Yet this contrasts with his view of the necessity of studying family interaction processes and discovering how the processes relate to the forces that made them.

The fourth conceptual view that may provide a new direction for analysis is internal colonialism and nationalism. Blauner (1969) cites four basic components of the colonization process:

(1) it begins with entry by force, (2) the colonizers destroy the values and life pattern of the colony, (3) the outsiders manage and manipulate the colonials, and (4) a policy of racism is practiced in which the indigenous people are defined as inferior biologically, needing control, and justly subject to economic manipulation by the dominant power (Lieberman, 1973, p. 15).

The similarity of this process to the Black experience in America is evident, ours being an "internal colonization." It is pointed out by Tabb (1971) that in order for the colonial analogy to hold it must be shown that there are two distinct and separate groups of a superior-inferior status relationship including both (1) economic control and exploitation, and (2) political dependence and subjection (Lieberman, 1973, p. 15).

The growth of Black cultural nationalism gives relevance to the concept of a new emerging model of the Black family. From the

developments of the Black Muslims, the Montgomery bus strike, the civil rights movement, etc., a new school of Afro-American research began to emerge, as well as a growing pride in one's cultural heritage (Lieberman, 1973).

However, this new model will not be sufficient to cover the diversity of changing life-styles and identity of the Black community. It is crucial that a new concept be found to guide the research of the emerging model as it carries with it certain value premises. Many criticisms have been leveled against the ethnocentrism of the acculturation approach and a new value-free model is advocated.

Lieberman, however, wisely points out that such a value-free stance is not possible in many areas of study involving human culture and conduct. He proposes a more direct approach to the value problem via the idea of relativism.

Certain essential issues will have to be confronted upon recognizing the emergent school as relativistic. These are listed by Lieberman:

(1) What are the central value orientation of Afro-Americans as an ethnic group.

(2) Can the model of the ethnic group rest solely, or even largely, on strengths when all human social systems have numerous weaknesses?

(3) In practicing relativism, how does one interpret and present an ethnic group in which contradictory values may exist? (p. 16).

Thus, the relativistic approach requires identification of the values of the Afro-American ethnic group. However, the existing literature only portrays the old negative Black racial values. This trend is felt to be a reflection of the sociological dogma which holds that Blacks lack any distinctive nationality characteristics derived from Africa. Lieberman stated that "the denial of the existence of Black ethnic culture is a form of neo-racism...and it is closely related to the middle-class ethnocentrism about the family...." (p. 17).

Lieberman views Afro-American culture as in the process of being defined, a definition that will result from the synthesis orientation of the ghetto population, Black intellectuals and political leaders.

In the cultural relativistic approach the Black family is viewed as being somewhat culturally independent of the prevailing culture and culturally functional. The focus of this approach is upon cultural strengths rather than weaknesses.

The proponents of the cultural relativistic approach maintain that the Black American family has retained much of its African heritage. Support for this contention is founded on the work of Melville Herskovits (1966), an anthropologist. Herskovits was one of the first to recognize similarities between African cultural patterns and those of African descendants in the United States, the West Indies, and Brazil. According to Herskovits, authentic African patterns are reflected in language, music, art, house structure, dance, traditional religion and healing practices. Herskovits became an ally for those in support of the cultural relativistic approach. As stated by Mathis (1978):

One of his major contributions was to present a conceptualization of family life in traditional African societies which showed its unity, stability, and security. To many students of the Black family, Herskovits' research raises the possibility that other aspects of 'Africana' might influence the nature of the Black family in the United States (p. 671).

Contemporary researchers have been influenced by Herskovits' work. Young (1970) found among Southern rural Black families the retention of African forms, particularly in interpersonal behavior and deep-level communication. Blassingames (1972) attested to the creation of new cultural forms unique to Black Americans, such as non-Western religious practices, which Frazier (1957b) also noted.

However, the work being conducted by Nobles (1975) on African orientations in American families is the most important research which speaks to a clarification of these issues. Building upon the work of Herskovits, Noble holds that the kinship pattern characterized by the extended families found in the Black community was derived from African culture (Mathis, 1978).

Nobles (1974) has contended "that the Black community is primarily oriented toward extended families, in that most Black family structures involve a system of kinship ties" (p. 672). The extensive presence of extended families is taken as another distinguishing cultural pattern which points out differences between whites and Blacks. However, the prevalence of such familial characteristics in the Black community has not yet been sufficiently determined (Mathis, 1978).

It has been proposed that the extended family is partly a strategy for meeting physical, emotional and economic needs of Black families that involves a reciprocal network of sharing resources to counter the lack of economic resources (Mathis, 1978).

However, there are certain problems associated with the African orientation. First it would be a difficult task to account for the fact that Black Americans came from an immense number of African societies. There was also during the time of the slave trade different marital and family customs among these societies such as monogamy, polygamy, as well as endogamy and exogamy. Secondly, it must be kept in mind that although cultures can be isolated from one another, they can nonetheless share similar marital and family customs. Finally, the prevalence of kinship ties among lower-income families may be a functional "adaptive behavior." In any case, further study of the cultural relativity perspective is needed before a definite cultural origin can be identified.

Nobles (1978) proposes a theoretical and empirical framework of "Africanity" for the study of Black family life which he views as a beginning attempt to break away from research dominated by values and norms of the white society. He contends that Black culture is an admixture of African ideology operating in another cultural context which is primarily defined by the philosophy of the Anglo-American community. That is, "the Black family system should be thought of as African in 'nature' and American in 'nurture'" (p. 685). Nobles further explained:

...it is the combined 'continuation' of an intrinsic African (black) value system and its reaction to the cultural imperatives of the wider American cultural milieu which determines the special features observable in black family life. The observable outcomes, therefore, must be interpreted in terms of: (1) the African nature or basis for 'behavior,' and (2) the American conditions which influence the development and/or expression of such behavior. This point is extremely important because it defines the model as an interactive model.

Thus, in defining the Black family consideration must be given to the interaction of African values and customs and the forces in American society that shape the development and/or expression of behavior in the Black family.

In summary, the research literature traditionally defined Black family life in negativistic, problem-laden, pathological terms. Yet, such an orientation is consistent with the legacy of white-dominated research which employs white standards as the interpretive framework for investigating a group which is distinctly different in culture and climate. Such an approach has been called into question and thereby the complex nature of the phenomena and inability of the traditional research models to accurately assess the reality of Black family life is recognized. Nobles (1978) reiterated a position taken by Clark (1972): "...one's ability to understand black reality is limited if the 'interpretive framework' for the analyses of that reality is based on assumptions associated with non-black reality" (p. 679).

Nobles (1978) pointed out that in order to free oneself from this legacy, one has to adopt a framework which will be in accord with the sociopolitical and psychocultural reality of Black people.

The ramifications of these comments are personally provocative when we consider that the Black family has been portrayed in this negativistic, problematic frame of reference by both white and non-white researchers.

Nobles describes three critical points which are operative in the network of scientific inquiry. These are the people's: (1) world view; (2) set of normative assumptions; and (3) frame of reference. He defines them in the following manner:

In addition to answering specific questions such as who are we? where did we come from? etc., a world view also defines what people believe to be their 'nature' and the way in which they believe the world should operate. Growing out of their world view, the normative assumptions of a people summarize their perceptions of the nature of the 'good life' and the political, economic, and cultural forms and/or processes necessary for the realization of that life. A people's frame of reference, which is more directly related to academic disciplines and scientific inquiry, serves as the 'lens' through which people perceive the experiential world. It particularly determines the formation of major concepts, propositions and theories appropriate to the examination of reality. In fact, it prescribes the assumptions and issues which will be considered as 'legitimate' areas of study, as

well as how they should be studied (p. 682).

Nobles expounded upon these three concepts by introducing the concept of "transubstantiation." According to Nobles, the people's belief system reveals their cultural picture, and in so doing, reflects their world view, normative assumptions, and frame of reference. Therefore, it is through accurate understanding of a particular group's belief system that the social scientist is able to accurately interpret the "outcome" of that particular group's human processes. However, if the belief system of one culture as seen and defined by the people of that culture is translated or transformed into the belief system of another culture, then an act of transubstantiation has occurred. Nobles explained:

The failure of black social scientists to recognize and respect our own culture substance has not only caused us to commit the same 'transubstantive error' as our white counterparts, it has also led to a condition wherein our thinking has been defined by the cultural substance of white reality. It seems evident that, in the future, an accurate representation of black reality is dependent upon the black social scientist's realization that science in its true meaning is simply an amplification and specification of the common sense (that which represents the set or sets of systematic and cumulative ideas, beliefs and knowledge) of a people. Common sense, therefore, constitutes the basis upon which science is, or ought to be, built (p. 683).

Marie Peters (1981) noted in her historical account on parenting in Black families with young children that today many social scientists are moving beyond the comparative, pathological approach of the sixties and early seventies and are beginning to study Black families from a perspective that recognizes the cultural variation, functionality, and validity of Black family life-styles (p. 211). Research has progressed from (1) descriptive approach of the environmental pressures, demands, and constraints in which Blacks lived, to (2) a comparative deficit approach which viewed Blacks as "culturally" deprived and viewed differences between Blacks and whites as deficits, and (3) within the last decade to an ecological approach.

Concomitant with ecologically oriented research is comparative relevant approaches which focuses on process and an empirical investigation which attempts to link parental behaviors with child outcomes. Differences in behavior are observed but attempts are made to avoid ethnocentric judgements (Peters, 1981).

In a recent writing Nobles (1981) alerted us, however, that although much research has been on Black parent-child relationships "the legacy of white-dominated research...has prevented us from understanding the nature of African-American family life" (p. 78).

If one conceptualizes of the family unit as one of the major modalities in the socialization process, then it seems essential that we also investigate the variables operating within the intact Black family that facilitates an adaptive socialization. Such knowledge would be quite useful to understanding the dynamics of the Black family.

Childrearing

One approach often used by researchers to identify unique ethnic patterns of childrearing is to compare data on families from different ethnic backgrounds and social classes. That is, data comparisons have been made between lower-class Black families and middle-class white families (Lewis, 1975; Radin and Kamii, 1965; Walters and Stinnett, 1971). Such comparisons have been made even though social class has been identified as a major moderating variable of parental behavior. Geismar and Gerhart (1968) studied the influence of social class on family functioning among Black, white and Puerto Rican families. From their analysis of ethnic group differences on family functioning, it was found that ethnic group membership is not a decisive factor. They concluded:

...in most strata of the social status hierarchy, Negroes are not functioning differently at a significant level from Puerto Ricans and whites...the quality of family life, patterns of child socialization, economic functioning, personal and social deviancy, etc. were similarly distributed among the ethnic groups in most class strata and differed radically only between class levels (p. 487).

Several studies have been conducted which have begun to address the need for additional research to gain useful information about the childrearing practices of Black mothers and fathers.

Bartz and Levine (1979) conducted a descriptive comparative analysis of the childrearing attitudes of lower working-class Black, Anglo, and Chicano mothers and fathers relative to seven qualities of

childrearing: control, support, permissiveness, strictness, equalitarianism, accelerated development and use of time. The effect of social class was indirectly controlled by having subjects who were drawn from a relatively homogenous population with respect to social class.

In terms of the parental expectation that a child should assume responsibility and control over body functions and feelings at an early age, Bartz and Levine found that Black parents expected their children to assume early responsibility for their behavior more than did Anglo parents. Chicano parents were similar to Black parents and different from Anglo parents.

Relatively recently researchers have described the Black family as equalitarian (Hill, 1972; Lewis, 1975; Rubin, 1978; Staples, 1976; Tenhouten, 1970) rather than matriarchal. The implication may be drawn that more equalitarian relationships exist between all members of the family. Bartz and Levine found support for this implication as the parents of all three ethnic groups supported equalitarian parent-child relationships "emphasizing respect for children's ideas and the right of children to have input into family decisions" (p. 74). Further analysis revealed that Chicano parents were least supportive of equalitarian relationships. However, the higher the level of education the greater the belief in equalitarianism especially for Chicano families. Black mothers expressed more equalitarian attitudes toward their children than Black fathers who expected their children to accept their dictates unquestioningly. Black fathers have been found to be more strict and arbitrary in the setting of rules than Anglo or Chicano fathers (Durrett, O'Bryant, & Pennebaker, 1975). Staples (1976) countered this

finding by postulating that some Black children are raised in an "anxiety-free" environment where physical punishment is used more than verbal punishment and affectionate parent-child interactions serve as a counterbalance.

In terms of exhibiting supportive behavior (i.e. saying nice things, offering help when needed, teaching a child what he wants to learn), Black parents indicated significantly more emotional support of their children than Chicano parents who were similar to Anglo parents on this variable.

Although all parents in the study indicated using controlling behaviors including expecting a child to do his/her best, expecting good school performance and being strict about expected behaviors, Black parents used controlling behaviors to a greater extent. The same pattern was seen regarding the casual use of time factor. All parents generally agreed that a child should use his/her time wisely. Black parent appeared to be "expecially conscious of the child's need to put forth even greater effort than Anglo children to achieve in our society" (p. 714).

The data of Bartz and Levine do not support the position that in lower-class families childrearing is the domain of the mother. Within all ethnic groups both parents have similar expectations of their children and both parents were involved in the supportive and controlling components of parenting.

Bartz and Levine cautioned readers that ethnic differences do not reflect opposite orientation toward childrearing, but different emphasis placed on certain attitudes and practices. In addition, the differences

between ethnic groups should be interpreted within a cultural context. The specific socialization practices that are beneficial and functional to a child's development may differ from one socialcultural context to another.

Based upon their findings, Bartz and Levine made the following conclusion:

The combination of high support, high control, open communication and demands for maturity exhibited by these Black families is very consistent with the authoritative parental role described by Baumrind (1968, p. 718).

In a study of the patterns of parental authority and their effects on the behavior of preschoolers, Baumrind (1972) observed that many of the Black preschoolers exhibited "remarkable qualities of competence that had not been noted or not attributed to the socialization practices of their parents" (p. 261). She sought to study the childrearing practices of these Black families that produced girls who were notably independent and assertive. She analyzed the data of 16 Black families separately from the data of the larger sample. She felt the pattern of parental variables displayed by the Black parents may be evaluated in terms of white middle-class norms and therefore deemed deficient.

Baumrind found that over 50% of the girls had parents whose childrearing practices placed them in the Authoritarian-Rejecting pattern. In comparing Black and white girls, it was indicated that an authoritarian upbringing has differential effects. The authoritarian-rejecting parenting style of these Black parents as defined by white norms would be considered nonconductive to the

development of social competence. However, for Black girls, it was beneficial. Compared to white girls, Black daughters of authoritarian parents were significantly more domineering, independent and somewhat more resistive.

To explain the differential effect of authoritarian parenting, Baumrind proposed that the parenting style of Black families may be characterized as authoritarian, but the practices do not meet the criterion of the authoritarian syndrome (Adorno et al., 1950). That is, the Black parents may have placed a high premium upon obedience and respect for authority but did not manifest such traits as "dogmatic and intolerant attitudes, emotional coldness, motivated by repressed anger and a sense of impotence" (p. 265). Further, the Black parents scored lower on paternal rejection and higher on discouraging infantile dependency. Rather than rejecting the child, their childrearing practices were aimed at developing self-sufficiency. In this respect, the authoritarian practices of the Black parents may be perceived as nurturance rather than rejection. Therefore, in the Black authoritarian home the daughter's dominant, independent behavior is not met with paternal rejection. Also Baumrind suggested that the fathers capacity to be nurturant as well as authoritarian, the equalitarian relationship between the parents and the mother's active role in decision making contributed to the differential effects of authoritarian parenting in Black versus white families.

Focusing exclusively on fathers, Price-Bonham and Skeen (1976) surveyed 60 Black and 100 white fathers in order to investigate the differences and similarities in their attitudes toward the father role.

The similarities and differences were expected to have implications for parent education.

Their analyses of attitudes and participation in the father role revealed that Black fathers and white fathers did not differ in the types of disciplinary techniques employed, held similar views on the importance of being liked, respected and obeyed by their children. Both groups of fathers also gave similar rankings of the most positive and most negative aspects of being a father. The analysis also revealed that Black fathers:

1. viewed themselves as less strict than the white fathers
2. ignored their child(ren) less often than the white fathers
3. talked with their child(ren) less often than the white fathers
4. felt it was more important their child(ren) 'be like me' than the white fathers (Price-Bonham & Skeen, 1976, p. 55).

Data comparisons within social classes (upper class, middle class, and lower class) revealed significant differences between Black and white fathers by social class. The greatest differences between the two groups occurred within the lower class. The fathers in this category expressed significantly different parenting attitudes on 14 items of the "Father Interview Scales" compared to 6 and 5 items by the fathers in the middle class and upper class, respectively. Among the middle class and upper class, the fathers differed with respect to characteristics of the present family and characteristics of the family of orientation such as number of children, age of respondent, years married, number of

status. In comparison, the Black and white fathers in the lower class also exhibited significant differences in childrearing practices such as the use of discipline and being a model for their children. For example, physical discipline was reportedly used more often by the Black fathers in this sample.

Data of the entire sample indicated that Black and white fathers are similar in attitudes and participation in the father role. Based on their findings, Price-Bonham and Skeen concluded that the fathers of both races need "early and continuous education, role models, and practice in order to give them a sense of their role in the family" (p. 59). Among the recommendations offered by the authors for establishing parent education programs were that fathers need education regarding alternative methods of discipline and that the area of focus may be different for Black fathers and white fathers. That is, according to Price-Bonham and Skeen:

...white men are more instrumental and need to learn to enjoy their children more and express nurturance and affection to their children. In contrast...black men are more expressive toward their children and need role models and education which would emphasize more facets of the instrumental role (including vocational aspirations) (p. 57).

The upsurge in the research on fathers has expanded our perspective on the role he plays in the rearing of children. The earlier image of the father as a distant figure whose major contribution to the family was that of breadwinner is now replaced by a view of the father as an active member of the family system who can and often desires to be

directly involved in the rearing of his child(ren). There is now general agreement within the research community that beginning very early in life, the pattern of father-child interactions has direct influence upon the child's cognitive, social, and emotional development. In addition, fathers can indirectly influence their children via the quality of the relationship he has with the mother. Studies have shown that positive marital relations facilitates the mother's sense of competence in caretaking activities and responsive to her baby. Good marital adjustment also benefits the father by creating a home atmosphere that encourages him to be involved in the rearing of his child(ren) and allows him to interact effectively.

Nurturance is one pattern of parent-child interactions that has received much attention from researchers. Nurturant parent-child interactions in which the father and/or mother is warm, responsive to the child's needs, and communicates acceptance both verbally and nonverbally have been associated with adaptive cognitive, social, and emotional development in children. However, the definition of nurturance has varied from researcher to researcher thereby contributing to the vagueness of the concept which limits its predictive usefulness. One approach to this problem would be to establish a general, broad definition of nurturance. Fogel's et al. (1986) definition of nurturance as "fostering developmental change" would include a wide spectrum of individuals and behavior. If parenting is seen as an example of nurturing behavior, and the goal of parenting would be to foster developmental changes, then more investigations of father-child relations can be directed to factors that lead to positive developmental

In such studies, Black fathers from intact homes have been reported to perform the role of parent effectively and to nurture their children into adulthood (Schulz, 1969; Staples, 1970a, 1970b). The majority of the father-child interactions have been observed to be warm, loving, and supportive (McAdoo, 1979, 1986). In addition, Black fathers have been found to have attitudes and to employ parental practices that are similar to those used by fathers of other ethnic groups (Price-Bonham & Skeen, 1976; Bartz & Levine, 1979).

Although the body of research continues to grow on father-child relationships, studies on the parenting styles of fathers of various ethnic backgrounds such as Black fathers, are comparatively fewer in number. Earlier studies have tended to focus on Black fathers as the absent figure in the parental dyad and to have methodological problems. For example, many studies obtained information relative to the father-child relationship from wives/mothers. More studies are needed on Black fathers in two-parent homes where the father is assessed directly in order to gain more information regarding his attitudes about childrearing and patterns of parent-child interactions.

Based on the discussion in the chapter above, the following hypotheses will be tested.

1. There will be no significant difference between Black fathers with high and low scores on nurturance with regard to their childrearing practices and attitudes.
2. There will be no significant difference between Black

to parental involvement scores.

3. There will be no significant difference between Black fathers with high or low scores on marital adjustment with regard to parental involvement scores.
4. There will be no significant difference between Black fathers who score high or low scores on marital adjustment with regard to their childrearing practices and attitudes.

CHAPTER III

METHOD AND PROCEDURES

Black fathers of two-parent families in Nash, Edgecombe, and Pitt County of eastern North Carolina comprised the sample. Questionnaires and self-report instruments were used to collect the desired data.

Subjects

The 70 subjects in this study were Black fathers of two-parent families with children living in the home. The subjects were all volunteers from civic groups, churches, individual referrals, businesses, and other organizations. The complete sample was treated as one group. Table 1 summarizes the demographic characteristics of the sample. The average age of the subjects was 37.9 years. Their ages ranged from 22 to 64, with 64.3% of the subjects being between the ages of 30 and 45. Approximately 78% of the families had three children, while the remaining 22% had four or more children. The age of the children ranged from 6 months to 40 years. Only 7.1% of the fathers reported having stepchildren. The percentage of fathers working outside of the home was 95.7%, with the average number of hours worked being 42.5. The educational level of the sample ranged from grade school level to doctoral degree, with 71.5% of the fathers having between a high school education and a four-year college degree. Further analysis revealed that 40% of the fathers had at least a high school diploma, vocational training or some college, 18.6% had associate degrees, 20% had at least a four-year college degree or some graduate school, and 15.7% had professional degrees. Of the fathers employed 71.4% were white collar workers (see Table 1 for

Table 1

Frequency Distribution, Relative Frequency Percentage, Means and Standard Deviation of Sample by Demographic Characteristics

Demographic Characteristics	Frequency	Relative Frequency %	Mean	SD
<u>Age</u>				
20-24	2	2.9	37.9	8.26
25-29	8	11.4		
30-34	15	21.4		
35-39	22	31.4		
40-44	8	11.4		
45-49	9	12.9		
50-54	2	2.9		
55-59	3	4.3		
60-64	1	1.4		
<u>Spouse's Age</u>				
20-24	1	1.4	35.8	8.04
25-29	10	14.3		
30-34	22	31.4		
35-39	17	24.3		
40-44	8	11.4		
45-49	1	1.4		
50-54	3	4.3		
55-59	2	2.9		
60-64	1	1.4		

Table 1 (Continued)

Demographic Characteristics	Frequency	Relative Frequency %	Mean	SD
Missing	5	7.1		
<u>Number of Children in the Family</u>				
1	16	24.0		
2	26	39.0		
3	10	15.0		
4+	15	22.0		
<u>Employment Outside the Home</u>				
Yes	67	95.7		
No	3	4.3		
<u>Hours Employed</u>				
0-10	3	4.3	42.5	13.02
11-20	1	1.4		
21-30	0	0		
31-40	43	62.3		
41-50	10	14.5		
51-60	7	10.2		
60-70	5	7.3		
Missing	1	Missing		

Table 1 (Continued)

Demographic Characteristics	Frequency	Relative Frequency %	Mean	SD
<u>Education</u>				
Grade Level	1	1.4		
No High School Diploma	3	4.3		
High School Graduate	10	14.3		
Vocational Training	6	8.6		
Some College	12	17.1		
Associate Degree	13	18.6		
Four-Year College Degree	9	12.9		
Some Graduate School	5	7.1		
Masters Degree	6	8.6		
Medical Degree	1	1.4		
Doctorate Degree	4	5.7		
<u>Occupations</u>				
Industrial-Production Worker	10	14.3		
Managerial-Administration	14	20.0		
Self-Employed	1	1.4		
Teacher-Professor	2	2.9		
Physical/Occupational Therapist	1	1.4		
Physician	1	1.4		
Dentist	1	1.4		
Secretarial/Clerical	2	2.9		

Table 1 (Continued)

Demographic Characteristics	Frequency	Relative Frequency %	Mean	SD
Police Officer/Security	2	2.9		
Pastor	1	1.4		
Military	2	2.9		
Custodian	2	2.9		
Coach	1	1.4		
Counselor/Social Worker	3	4.3		
Food Service	1	1.4		
Mechanic	2	2.9		
Postal Worker	2	2.9		
Insurance Agent	1	1.4		
Systems Programmer	2	2.9		
Salesman	1	1.4		
Engineer	3	4.3		
Machinist	1	1.4		
Inspector	2	2.9		
Service Occupation	1	1.4		
Chemical Processor	5	7.1		
Electrician	1	1.4		
Missing	5	7.1		
<u>Vocational Categories</u>				
White Collar	50	71.4		

Table 1 (Continued)

Demographic Characteristics	Frequency	Relative Frequency %	Mean	SD
Blue Collar	15	21.5		
No Response	5	7.1		
<u>Income</u>				
Less Than 9,999	4	5.7		
10,000-14,999	7	10.0		
15,000-19,999	14	20.0		
20,000-24,999	9	12.9		
25,000-29,999	10	14.3		
30,000-34,999	9	12.9		
35,000-39,999	4	5.7		
40,000-44,999	2	2.9		
45,000 and Greater	9	12.9		
No Response	2	2.9		
<u>Spouse Employment Outside The Home</u>				
Yes	59	84.3		
No	11	15.7		
<u>Spouse Hours Employed</u>				
0-10	11	15.7	34.1	16.07
11-20	2	2.9		

Table 1 (Continued)

Demographic Characteristics	Frequency	Relative Frequency %	Mean	SD
21-30	0	0		
31-40	48	68.5		
41-50	6	8.6		
51-60	3	4.3		
<u>Spouse Education</u>				
Grade level	2	2.9		
No High School Diploma	1	1.4		
High School Graduate	17	24.3		
Vocational Training	5	7.1		
Some College	18	25.7		
Associate Degree	4	5.7		
Four-Year College Degree	11	15.7		
Some Graduate School	3	4.3		
Masters Degree	7	10.0		
Medical Degree	0	0		
Doctorate Degree	1	1.4		
No Response	1	1.4		
<u>Spouse Occupations</u>				
Industrial-Production Worker	9	12.9		
Managerial-Administration	2	2.9		

Table 1 (Continued)

Demographic Characteristics	Frequency	Relative Frequency %	Mean	SD
Unemployed	1	1.4		
Self-Employed	1	1.4		
Nursing	5	7.1		
Teacher-Professor	7	10.0		
Physical/Occupational Therapist	1	1.4		
Physician	1	1.4		
Secretarial/Clerical	9	12.9		
Childcare Worker	1	1.4		
Domestic/Housewife	1	1.4		
Banking/Credit	1	1.4		
Counselor/Social Worker	4	5.7		
Food Service	3	4.3		
Insurance Agent	1	1.4		
Salesperson	2	2.9		
Machinist	2	2.9		
Inspector	2	2.9		
Service Occupation	1	1.4		
Chemical Processor	1	1.4		
Buyer/Merchandiser	2	2.9		
Glass Maker	1	1.4		
No Response	12	17.1		

Table 1 (Continued)

Demographic Characteristics	Frequency	Relative Frequency %	Mean	SD
<u>Spouse Vocational Categories</u>				
White Collar	30	42.9		
Blue Collar	28	40.0		
No Response	12	17.1		
<u>Spouse Income</u>				
Less Than 9,999	12	17.1		
10,000-14,999	13	18.6		
15,000-19,999	9	12.9		
20,000-24,999	10	14.3		
25,000-29,999	8	11.4		
30,000-34,999	4	5.7		
35,000-39,999	0	0		
40,00-44,999	1	1.4		
45,000 and Greater	1	1.4		
No Response	12	17.1		

occupational categories). Approximately 51.4% of the fathers earned incomes of \$25,000 or more.

The average age of the spouses of the subjects was 35.8 years. Their ages ranged from 23 to 62, with 81.4% of them between the ages of 25 and 44. Approximately 84.3% of the spouses were working outside of the home. The average number of hours worked is 34.1. The educational level of the spouses were similar to that of the fathers, ranging from grade school level to doctoral degree. Approximately 78.5% of the spouses had between a high school education and a four-year college degree. Table 1 reveals that 57.1% of the spouses had at least a high school diploma, vocational training or some college, 5.7% had associate degrees, 15.7% had at least a four-year college degree or some graduate school and 11.4% had professional degrees. Further analysis of their occupational status indicate that 42.9% were employed in white collar jobs. Table 1 also reveals that on an average, the spouse earned less than their husbands, with only 19.9% (compared to 51.4% of the husbands) of them earning \$25,000 or more.

Instruments

The Child-Rearing Practices Report (CRPR, Block, 1965) is a ninety-one-item, self-descriptive, Q-sort instrument used to measure parental childrearing attitudes and practices. The Q-sort format for administration, using a forced-choice, seven-step distribution of responses ranging from most descriptive which was given a point value of seven to most undescriptive which was given a point value of one, was selected by Block in order to minimize response set, e.g., acquiescence, social desirability, and differential use of misrepresentation of oneself.

The Q-sort format also minimized the individual's defensiveness by the use of items stated in relatively neutral terms. Thirdly, this method is an ipsative procedure, and, as such, the item pool is suitable for parents of different economic levels, educational backgrounds, and from different subgroups or cultures. Finally, a Q-sort format for administration was selected because it has proven to be a stimulating and ego-involving method of collecting data because it allows the person to actively sort the cards (move them about) and readily express their degree of endorsement or rejection (Block, 1968).

The CRPR is composed of 91 socialization-relevant items to be Q-sorted by the respondent according to detailed instructions into seven categories with 13 items placed in each category. The items tap a wide range of parenting orientations and are appropriate for administration to parents heterogeneous with respect to educational level, socioeconomic status, ethnic background, and ages. Items comprising the CRPR can be grouped into scales including Encouraging openness to experiences, Emphasis on achievement, Authoritarian control, Affective quality of parent-child relationship, Encouraging individuation, Suppression of aggression, Tolerance for expression of affect, Control by anxiety induction, Control by guilt induction, Emphasis on early training, etc. All 21 scales have been developed using factor analytic methods (See Appendix).

The thirty-two-item Dyadic Adjustment Scale developed by Spanier (1976) has proven to be a valid and hugely reliable measure of marital quality. The overall measure of marital adjustment identifies four empirically varified dimension of dyadic adjustment such as dyadic

satisfaction, dyadic cohesion, dyadic consensus, and dyadic affection. The items are set up on a six-point scale (0-5), giving a range of frequency, e.g., all the time to never or range of agreement, e.g., always agree to always disagree. The Dyadic Adjustment Scale was selected for the following reasons: (1) it has proven to be a highly reliable index of marital quality, (2) it is a short self-report scale, and (3) it can be completed independently by husbands and wives, yielding a single score for each member of the couple. This score reflects the husband's or wife's individual perception of the quality of their marital relationship.

The Paternal Involvement Questionnaire used in this study is a modified, condensation of the Father-Child Study II Questionnaire (Radin, 1982). This nineteen-item questionnaire includes statements which assess: (a) overall levels of father involvement, (b) the father's degree of participation in child-care tasks, (c) the father's level of participation in socialization tasks, and (d) the father's overall availability to his child or children. This instrument was selected because it provides a broad assessment of the father's involvement in child care, as well as individual index score of the father's perception of his involvement in child care. The Paternal Involvement Questionnaire would provide specific information regarding the father's childrearing behavior.

The Adjective Checklist (Gough & Heilbrun, 1983) is a 300-item list of adjectives from which the subject checked the adjectives they considered self-descriptive. The adjective checklist (ACL) was selected because it is a widely used and easily administered instrument that includes a Nurturance scale and Nurturing Parent Scale. The ACL's Nurturance scale has been found to correlate with attitudes of nurturance

and display of nurturance toward children.

A Background Information form was also used to obtain demographic information such as age, education, occupation, spouse's education, etc., and family composition.

Procedure

The subjects were recruited from civic groups, churches, individual referrals, businesses and other organizations. The investigator made brief recruiting visits to the individuals' homes as well as to various churches, community groups, and other organizations.

Initially, each subject was given two Information and Consent Forms to be signed prior to completing the questionnaires. One consent form was returned with the packet of information to be kept on record by the project director and the other consent form was retained by the subject. Also during the initial contact phase, the project director answered questions posed by the subjects.

Those individuals who agreed to participate in the study were given a large envelope that contained the following questionnaires: (a) Child-Rearing Practices Report, (b) Dyadic Adjustment Scale, (c) Parental Involvement Questionnaire, (d) Adjective Checklist and (e) Background Information form. Envelopes were distributed to the subjects at the contact site or were delivered to their home. Participants were asked to complete the questionnaire and forms at their convenience in their home, and they were instructed that the research assistant would retrieve the packet(s) at a previously designated time and place two days after the receipt of the packet by the subject. Completion of the packet took approximately 2 to 2 1/2 hours. The research assistant retrieved the

packet(s), and upon receipt of the completed packet(s), removed the signed Information and Consent Form to be kept on record by the project director. The data was collected over a two-month period.

Consideration was given to the fact that the nature of the topic may be potentially anxiety arousing. The following precautions were taken to minimize any potential risks to the subjects: (1) As desired by the subject, the investigator was available to explore expectations and concerns about the study as well as to answer questions about the research instruments used. (2) The investigator was also available to provide feedback as requested by the subjects(s) concerning the subject's participation and additional information about the research as that information became available. None of the subjects were found to be at risk.

Data Analysis

All measures were handscored and then coded into a computer. Frequencies, means, and standard deviations were computed for all variables. Student's t tests were run with Nurturance scores as the independent variable and Paternal Involvement scores, Dyadic Adjustment scores, and Child-Rearing Practices Report scores as the dependent variables. Relationships were tested by Pearson product-moment correlations. One-way analysis of variance was calculated to test the differences between the groups.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Nurturance Scales

The Adjective Checklist provided a measure of self-concept of the subjects using six clinical scales. The Nurturance (NUR) and Nurturing Parent (NP) scales were used in this study to assess the degree to which the subjects perceived themselves as nurturant. With respect to nurturance, the subjects were divided into three groups, high, medium and low. Table 2 and Table 3 present the subjects in terms of high, medium and low performance on NUR and NP of the Adjective Checklist (ACL), respectively. Table 2 reveals that the subjects' scores on NUR ranged from 13 to 75. Table 3 shows that their scores on NP were less widely distributed with a range of 29 to 73. The subjects' scores were grouped into the following categories: high 59-75; medium 55-58 and low 13-54. On NUR, the majority of the subjects (35.7%) fell within the medium group. Of the remaining subjects, 32.9% fell within the low group and 31.4% fell within the high group on this variable. The mean score achieved on NUR was 55.3, with a standard deviation of 9.25.

On the Nurturing Parent scale (NP), 50% of the subjects in the sample fell within the high group. Of the remaining subjects, 21.4% and 28.6% fell within the medium and low groups, respectively. The mean score achieved on NP was 56.9, with a standard deviation of 7.58. In comparing the standard deviation scores on NUR and NP, the scores suggest that there is less variability among the subjects on NP.

Table 2

Frequency Distribution and Relative Frequency Percentage of Subjects on Nurturance

Groups	Raw Scores	Frequency	Relative Frequency %
High	75	1	1.4
	70	1	1.4
	68	1	1.4
	66	2	2.9
	65	2	2.9
	64	4	5.7
	63	1	1.4
	62	3	4.3
	61	4	5.7
	60	1	1.4
	59	2	2.9
Medium	58	7	10.0
	57	10	14.3
	56	1	1.4
	55	7	10.0
Low	52	4	5.7
	51	2	2.9
	50	2	2.9
	49	3	4.3
	48	1	1.4
	46	2	2.9
	45	1	1.4
	43	1	1.4
	41	2	2.9
	39	1	1.4
	36	1	1.4
	32	1	1.4
	13	1	1.4
Total		70	100.0
Mean		55.3	
SD		9.25	

Table 3

Frequency Distribution and Relative Frequency Percentage of Subjects on Nurturant Parent

Groups	Raw Scores	Frequency	Relative Frequency %
High	73	2	2.9
	68	1	1.4
	67	2	2.9
	65	3	4.3
	64	4	5.7
	63	1	1.4
	62	6	8.6
	61	5	7.1
	60	2	2.9
	59	9	12.9
Medium	58	2	2.9
	57	2	2.9
	56	9	12.9
	55	2	2.9
Low	54	1	1.4
	53	2	2.9
	52	4	5.7
	51	2	2.9
	50	1	1.4
	49	1	1.4
	48	1	1.4
	47	3	4.3
	45	1	1.4
	43	1	1.4
	41	1	1.4
	39	1	1.4
	29	1	1.4
Total		70	100.0
Mean		56.9	
SD		7.58	

Child-Rearing Practices Report (CRPR)

The Child-Rearing Practices Report (CRPR, Block 1965) provided a measure of parental childrearing attitudes and values using twenty-three subscales. For the purpose of this study, sixteen of the subscales were selected to assess the childrearing practice of the participants. The sixteen subscales and their maximum possible scores are as follows: openness to expression (28), emphasis on achievement (42), parental worry (14), authoritarian control (63), supervision of child (14), negative affect toward child (21), open expression of affect (42), encouraging independence (49), enjoyment of parental role (21), rational guiding of child (21), control by guilt induction (21), orientation to non-punitive punishment (14), spouse involvement (7), trust of child (7), use of teasing and ridicule (7), and maternal authority (7).

The subjects' performance on the above mentioned variables were categorized into high, medium and low groups with respect to nurturance. Table 4 reveals that the subjects' responses were skewed on all of the CRPR subscales, except control by guilt induction (CNTGLT) and orientation toward nonpunitive punishment (NONPUN). The results indicate that 58.2 to 92.5% of the subjects fell in the high group on the following subscales: Openness of expression (OPENEX), emphasis on achievement (ACHIEV), parental worry (WORRY), supervision of child (SUPERV), open expression of affect (EXPRES), encourage independence (ENCIND), enjoyment of parental role (ENJOYS), rational guidance of the child (RATINL), and trust of child (TRUST). On the other hand, the percentage of subjects falling in the low group ranged from 68.7 to 97% on the following subscales: authoritarian control (CNTRL), negative

Table 4

Relative Frequency Percentage of Subjects on Child-Rearing Practices Report (CRPR) Subscales

CRPR Subscales	Relative Frequency Percentage		
	Low	Mean	High
Openness of Expression	14.9	1.5	83.6
Emphasis on Achievement	6.0	4.5	89.5
Parental Worry	23.9	16.4	59.7
Authoritarian Control	80.6	7.5	11.9
Supervision of Child	28.4	13.4	58.2
Negative Affect Toward Child	97.0	1.5	1.5
Open Expression of Affect	6.0	1.5	92.5
Encouraging Independence	22.4	6.0	71.6
Enjoyment of Parental Role	26.9	9.0	64.1
Rational Guidance of Child	7.5	4.5	88.0
Control By Guilt Induction	43.3	10.4	46.3
Orientation to Non-Punitive Punishment	40.3	22.4	37.3
Spouse Involvement	82.1	14.9	3.0
Trust Child	14.9	10.5	74.6
Use of Teasing and Ridicule	68.7	11.9	19.4
Maternal Authority	79.1	13.4	7.5

affect toward the child (NEGAFF), spouse involvement (SPINT), use of teasing and ridicule (TEASD), and maternal authority (MAUTHR). There was a more even distribution of the subjects on the CNTGLT subscale with 43.3% falling in the low groups 10.4% in the medium group and 46.3% in the high group. A similar distribution was found on the NONPUN subscale, 40.3% fell in the high group, 22.4% in the medium group and 37.3% fell in the high group (see Table 4).

Tables 5 and 6 show the mean scores for the high and low groups on the sixteen subscales of the CRPR. A one-way ANOVA was performed to determine the areas of significance. Table 5 reveals that there is no significant difference between the means of the high and low groups on the CRPR subscales with respect to NUR. Table 6 reveals, however, the one-way ANOVA performed on the CRPR subscales and NP yielded a significant finding. The difference between the means of the high and low groups on the control by guilt induction (CNTGLT) subscale is significant at the $p < .05$ level. A F-ratio of 3.42 was obtained. A second subscale approached significance. Table 6 indicates that the difference between the means of the high and low groups on the authoritarian control (CNTRL) subscale with respect to NP is significant at the $p = .05$ level. A F-ratio of 2.94 was obtained.

Pearson product-moment correlations was performed to assess the notion that there is a relationship between nurturance and attitudes toward childrearing practices. Table 7 reveals that there is a significant relationship between nurturance and only three of the CRPR subscales. A negative correlation of $r = -.20$ was obtained between the parental worry (WORRY) subscale of the CRPR and NUR, which is

Table 5

Means for Nurturance Groups on Subscales in Childrearing (CRPR) and Levels of Significance as Determined by One-Way Anova

CRPR Subscales (Maximum Score)	Mean		SS	F- Ratio	F- Probability
	High	Low			
Openness of Expression (28)	19.95	19.72	909.16	.07	.94
Emphasis on Achievement (42)	29.33	30.36	1234.63	.44	.64
Parental Worry (14)	9.76	9.45	706.72	.08	.92
Authoritarian Control (63)	26.66	28.59	2804.75	.50	.61
Supervision of Child (14)	9.33	8.90	541.19	.13	.88
Negative Affect Toward Child (21)	5.28	6.22	368.03	.90	.41
Open Expression of Affect (42)	33.76	32.13	1964.72	.89	.42
Encouraging Independence (49)	31.04	31.18	1830.87	.01	.99
Enjoyment of Parental Role (21)	13.85	12.63	519.67	1.17	.32
Rational Guidance of Child (21)	16.38	15.68	625.79	.43	.66
Control by Guilt Induction (21)	11.04	12.86	1102.51	1.17	.32
Orientation to Non-Punitive Punishment (14)	8.04	7.81	454.87	.15	.86
Spouse Involvement (7)	2.14	2.13	110.99	.85	.43
Trust Child (7)	6.00	5.63	196.75	2.42	.10
Use of Teasing and Ridicule (7)	3.09	2.50	197.64	.63	.53
Maternal Authority (7)	2.14	2.59	160.69	.78	.46

Table 6

Means for Nurturing Parent Groups on Subscales in Childrearing (CRPR)
and Levels of Significance as Determined by One-Way Anova

CRPR Subscales (Maximum Score)	Mean		SS	F- Ratio	F- Probability
	High	Low			
Openness of Expression (28)	13.12	12.95	909.16	.10	.91
Emphasis on Achievement (42)	29.15	30.85	1234.63	1.52	.23
Parental Worry (14)	9.33	9.90	706.71	.19	.83
Authoritarian Control (63)	26.45	26.65	2804.75	2.94	.60
Supervision of Child (14)	8.90	9.85	541.19	.82	.44
Negative Affect Toward Child (21)	5.09	6.25	368.01	2.27	.11
Open Expression of Affect (42)	32.57	32.20	1964.72	.04	.96
Encouraging Independence (49)	31.33	31.65	1830.87	.78	.46
Enjoyment of Parental Role (21)	14.09	12.55	519.67	2.26	.11
Rational Guidance of Child (21)	16.30	15.50	625.79	.66	.52
Control by Guilt Induction (21)	11.21	12.05	1102.51	3.42	.04
Orientation to Non-Punitive Punishment (14)	7.93	7.65	454.87	.92	.40
Spouse Involvement (7)	2.18	1.90	110.99	.91	.41
Trust Child (7)	5.72	5.20	196.75	.63	.54
Use of Teasing and Ridicule (7)	3.12	2.65	197.64	1.68	.19
Maternal Authority (7)	2.15	2.45	160.69	.23	.80

Table 7

Correlation of Nurturance (NUR) and Nurturing Parent (NP) With
Child-Rearing Practices Report (CRPR) Subscales

CRPR Subscales	Correlations		Significance	
	NUR	NP	NUR	NP
Openness of Expression (28)	-.01	-.01	.47	.48
Emphasis on Achievement (42)	-.13	-.12	.14	.17
Parental Worry (14)	-.20	-.23	.05	.03
Authoritarian Control (63)	-.02	-.05	.43	.33
Supervision of Child (14)	-.02	-.17	.44	.08
Negative Affect Toward Child (21)	-.09	-.15	.23	.12
Open Expression of Affect (42)	.07	.12	.30	.16
Encouraging Independence (49)	-.03	.001	.42	.50
Enjoyment of Parental Role (21)	.20	.32	.05	.004
Rational Guidance of Child (21)	.15	-.16	.11	.10
Control by Guilt Induction (21)	-.13	-.16	.15	.10
Orientation to Non-Punitive Punishment (14)	.12	.05	.18	.34
Spouse Involvement (7)	-.04	-.002	.37	.50
Trust Child (7)	-.01	.06	.46	.32
Use of Teasing and Ridicule (7)	.13	.13	.15	.14
Maternal Authority (7)	-.26	-.22	.02	.04

significant at the $p=.05$ level. A negative correlation of $r = -.23$ was also obtained between WORRY and NP, which is significant at the $p<.05$ level. Secondly, a correlation of $r = -.20$ and $r=.32$ was obtained between the enjoyment of parental role (ENJOYS) subscale and NUR and NP, which are significant at the $p=.05$ and $p=.004$ levels, respectively. Thirdly, Table 7 reveals that negative correlations exist between the maternal authority subscale (MAUTHR) and NUR and NP with $r = -.26$ and $r = -.22$, which are significant at the $p<.05$ and $p<.05$ levels, respectively.

Paternal Involvement

The Parental Involvement Questionnaire provided a measure of the father's involvement in child care as well as an index of his perception of his involvement in the care of his children. The father's level of involvement was assessed in two areas: (a) participation in parenting tasks involving child care and (b) expression of caring and attention. A parenting task index (PATASIND) and the father caring and attention index (FACAATIN) was created to measure the overall behavioral response of the fathers in each of these areas. A summary score of all the items subsumed under each category formed an index score. The subjects' performance in the above areas was categorized into three groups (high, medium and low) with respect to nurturance (NUR and NP).

Parenting Tasks

Table 8 reveals that the majority of the fathers fell in either the medium or high group on all parenting tasks, except bathing and dressing the children (BATH) and putting them to bed (PUTBED). On BATH, 41.8% of

Table 8

Relative Frequency Percentage of Subjects on Parenting Tasks

Parenting Tasks	Relative Frequency Percentage		
	Low	Mean	High
Involved with Caring for Child	2.9	32.9	64.2
Feeding Child	11.6	53.6	34.8
Having Sole Responsibility	15.9	44.9	39.1
Punishing Child	8.7	50.7	40.6
Setting Limits	2.9	41.4	55.7
Helping Child With Personal Problems	6.0	35.8	58.2
Bathing and Dressing Child	41.8	37.3	20.9
Putting Child to Bed	23.9	41.8	34.3
Help Child Learn	4.6	35.4	60.0
Parenting Task Index	-	38.6	61.4

the fathers fell in the low group, 37.3% in the medium group, and 20.9% in the high group. A similar distribution was found on PUTBED, 23.9% fell in the low group, 41.8% in the medium group, and 34.3% fell in the high group. These findings suggest that the fathers are or perceive themselves to be highly involved in the care of their children.

A one-way ANOVA was performed to determine whether the means of the groups were significantly different. Table 9 reveals that there was no significant difference between the means of the high and low groups on the index of overall parenting behavior (PATASIND) with respect to NUR. Analysis of the individual items that comprised PATASIND also revealed no significant difference between the means of the high and low groups on those items with respect to NUR. A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was performed to assess whether there is a relationship between PATASIND and NUR. Table 11 reveals that a correlation coefficient of $r=.10$ was obtained, which suggests that no significant relationship ($p>.05$) exists between these two variables.

Table 10 reveals the results of the one-way ANOVA performed on nurturant parent (NP) with respect to the parenting task index (PATASIND). A F-ratio of .31 was obtained between these two variables which suggests that there is no significant difference between the means of the high and low groups ($p=.74$). Table 11 reveals the results of a Pearson product-moment correlation performed on PATASIND with respect to NP. A correlation coefficient of $r=.08$ was obtained which indicates that no significant relationship exists between PATASIND and NP.

Table 9

One-Way Anova on Nurturance Groups With Parenting Tasks

Parenting Tasks (Maximum Score)	Mean		SS	F- Ratio	F- Probability
	High	Low			
Involved With Caring for Child (5)	4.64	4.43	20.56	2.23	.12
Feeding Child (3)	2.27	2.27	28.29	.24	.79
Having Sole Responsibility (3)	2.23	2.35	34.29	.57	.57
Punishing Child (3)	2.38	2.30	26.96	.15	.86
Setting Limits (3)	2.59	2.52	21.44	.23	.80
Helping Child With Personal Problems (3)	2.62	2.43	24.72	.50	.61
Bathing and Dressing Child (3)	1.95	1.86	39.07	1.62	.21
Putting Child to Bed (3)	2.36	1.95	38.27	1.97	.15
Help Child Learn (3)	2.71	2.48	22.06	1.16	.32
Parenting Task Index (24)	18.77	17.48	873.84	1.49	.23

Table 10

One-Way Anova on Nurturing Parent With Parenting Tasks

Parenting Tasks (Maximum Score)	Mean		SS	F- Ratio	F- Probability
	High	Low			
Involved With Caring for Child (5)	4.77	4.40	20.9	3.37	.04
Feeding Child (3)	2.23	2.25	28.29	.01	.99
Having Sole Responsibility (3)	2.18	2.30	34.29	.21	.81
Punishing Child (3)	2.29	2.10	26.99	3.81	.03
Setting Limits (3)	2.54	2.50	21.44	.04	.96
Helping Child With Personal Problems (3)	2.59	2.32	24.72	1.58	.21
Bathing and Dressing Child (3)	1.88	1.60	39.07	.88	.42
Putting Child to Bed (3)	2.21	1.85	38.27	1.62	.21
Help Child Learn (3)	2.66	2.53	22.06	1.31	.28
Parenting Task Index (24)	17.91	17.20	873.84	.31	.74

Table 11

Correlations of Nurturance (NUR) and Nurturing Parent (NP) With Parenting Tasks

Parenting Tasks	Correlations		Significance Level	
	NUR	NP	NUR	NP
Involved With Caring for Child	.22	.22	.04	.03
Feeding Child	-.08	-.06	.26	.30
Having Sole Responsibility	-.17	-.16	.08	.10
Punishing Child	.11	.16	.18	.10
Setting Limits	.13	.11	.15	.19
Helping Child With Personal Problems	.12	.18	.17	.08
Bathing and Dressing Child	.03	.09	.39	.22
Putting Child to Bed	.29	.24	.009	.02
Help Child Learn	-.08	-.01	.27	.48
Parenting Task Index	.10	.08	.21	.26

Father's Caring and Attention

Table 12 indicates that there was a small amount of variability among the fathers on the caring/attention items. The findings reveal that the majority (52.2 to 91.2%) of the fathers fell in the high group on all the items, except the item assessing how the father feels about the amount of household chores he performs (FEELABHH). Analysis indicate that on FEELABHH, there was a more even distribution of the fathers, with 25.7% falling in the low group, 38.6% in the medium group and 35.7% falling in the high group. The results in Table 12 suggest that this sample is quite homogeneous and perceives themselves to be very involved in the care and attention of their children.

Table 13 reveals that the one-way ANOVA performed found no significant difference between the means of the high and low groups on father's caring and attention index score (FACAATIN) with respect to NUR. However, a Pearson product-moment correlation was performed on these two variables which yielded a correlation of $r=.23$ which is significant at the $p<.05$ level (see Table 15).

With respect to NP, Table 14 reveals the one-way ANOVA yielded no significant differences between the means of the high and low groups on the items measuring father's caring and attention behavior as well as on the overall father caring and attention index (FACAATIN). Table 15 reveals that the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient obtained between NP and FACAATIN was $r=.03$ which is not significant, indicating that no significant relationship exists between these two variables.

Table 12

Relative Frequency Percentage of Subjects on Father's Caring/Attention Items

Father's Caring/Attention	Relative Frequency Percentage		
	Low	Mean	High
Feelings About Involvement in Childrearing	5.7	28.6	65.7
Frequency of Household Chores Done Index	-	22.9	77.1
Feelings About Amount of Household Chores Done	25.7	38.6	35.7
Father Shows Love Physically or Verbally	1.4	18.6	80.0
Father Concerned About Child's Problems	-	8.8	91.2
Father Helps With Problems	-	16.2	83.8
Father Makes Child Feel Better	-	44.3	55.7
Father Hugs and Kisses Child	14.5	33.3	52.2
Father Gives a Lot of Care and Attention	4.3	30.4	65.3
Father Caring/Attention Index	-	11.4	88.6

Table 13

One-Way Anova on Nurturance Groups With Father's Caring/Attention

Father's Caring/Attention (Maximum Score)	Mean		SS	F- Ratio	F- Probability
	High	Low			
Feelings About Involvement in Childrearing (5)	4.50	4.57	35.14	.22	.80
Frequency of Household Chores Done Index (27)	21.00	20.48	736.80	.79	.46
Feelings About Amount of Household Chores Done (5)	4.00	3.91	45.49	1.72	.19
Father Shows Love Physically or Verbally (3)	2.77	2.83	13.76	.14	.87
Father Concerned About Child's Problems (3)	2.91	2.91	5.47	.01	.10
Father Helps With Problems (3)	2.86	2.81	9.22	.11	.90
Father Makes Child Feel Better (3)	2.68	2.35	17.27	3.24	.05
Father Hugs and Kisses Child (3)	2.67	2.22	36.20	2.54	.09
Father Gives a Lot of Care and Attention (3)	2.64	2.52	22.43	.40	.67
Father's Caring/Attention Index (55)	16.41	15.26	361.20	1.44	.24

Table 14

One-Way Anova on Nurturing Parent Groups With Father's Caring/Attention

Father's Caring/Attention (Maximum Score)	Mean		SS	F- Ratio	F- Probability
	High	Low			
Feelings About Involvement in Childrearing (5)	4.60	4.55	35.14	.06	.95
Frequency of Household Chores Done Index (27)	20.86	20.20	736.80	.83	.44
Feelings About Amount of Household Chores Done (5)	4.11	3.90	45.49	.92	.41
Father Shows Love Physically or Verbally (3)	2.77	2.75	13.79	.32	.73
Father Concerned About Child's Problems (3)	2.91	2.95	5.47	.33	.72
Father Helps With Problems (3)	2.89	2.78	9.22	.60	.55
Father Makes Child Feel Better (3)	2.66	2.35	17.27	2.58	.08
Father Hugs and Kisses Child (3)	2.53	2.25	36.20	1.51	.23
Father Gives a Lot of Care and Attention (3)	1.00	1.00	0.00	.00	.00
Father's Caring/Attention Index (55)	6.17	5.70	323.77	.38	.68

Table 15

Correlation of Nurturance (NUR) and Nurturing Parent (NP) With Father's Caring/Attention

Father's Caring/Attention	Correlations		Significance Level	
	NUR	NP	NUR	NP
Feelings About Involvement in Childrearing	-.05	.01	.35	.45
Frequency of Household Chores Done Index	-.06	.02	.32	.50
Feelings About Amount of Household Chores Done	.08	.12	.27	.17
Father Shows Love Physically or Verbally	-.05	-.11	.33	.18
Father Concerned About Child's Problems	-.009	.02	.47	.45
Father Helps With Problems	.03	.10	.40	.22
Father Makes Child Feel Better	.23	.19	.03	.06
Father Hugs and Kisses Child	.26	.21	.01	.05
Father Gives a Lot of Care and Attention	.12	-	.16	-
Father's Caring/Attention Index	.23	.03	.03	.40

Marital Adjustment

The Dyadic Adjustment Scale provided a measure of the father's perception of the adjustment of his marital relationship. The four subscales of this measure (a) dyadic consensus (DCSUB), (b) dyadic satisfaction (DSS), dyadic cohesion (DCOS), and affectional expression (AES), along with an index of overall dyadic adjustment (DAS) was used to assess the relationship between marital adjustment and paternal involvement. The subjects' performance on the above mentioned subscales and index was categorized into three groups, high, medium, and low with respect to NUR and NP.

Table 16 reveals that 40% of the father's described their marital relationships as low on dyadic consensus (DCSUB). The DCSUB subscale data indicate that 41.4% of the fathers fell in the medium group, with the remaining 18.6% falling in the high group on dyadic consensus.

Concerning the dyadic satisfaction subscale (DSS), 14.3% of the fathers described their marital relationship as low in dyadic satisfaction (see Table 16). Table 16 also indicates that 55.7% of the fathers fell in the medium range on marital satisfaction while the remaining 30% fell in the high group. These findings suggest that the majority of the fathers described their marital relationships as being medium to high on satisfaction.

In terms of dyadic cohesion (DCOS), 51.4% of the fathers characterized their marital relationship as being high in this area of marital adjustment. Of the remaining subjects, 31.5% fell in the medium range on marital satisfaction while 17.1% viewed their relationship as being low on dyadic cohesion (DCOS).

Table 16

Relative Frequency Percentage of Subjects on Marital Adjustment

Marital Adjustment Scales	Relative Frequency Percentage		
	Low	Mean	High
Dyadic Consensus	40.0	41.4	18.6
Dyadic Satisfaction	14.3	55.7	30.0
Dyadic Cohesion	17.1	31.5	51.4
Affectional Expression	11.4	54.3	34.3
Dyadic Adjustment	27.1	45.8	27.1

Findings on the affective expression subscale (AES) indicate that 34.3% of the fathers characterized their marital relationship as being high on affectional expression (see Table 16). The results also reveal that 54.3% described their relationship as falling in the medium range, and the remaining 11.4% fell in the low range on affectional expression.

In terms of overall dyadic adjustment (DAS), the majority of the fathers (45.8%) characterized their marriage as being in the medium range. Table 16 reveals that the remaining 54.2% of the subjects were equally divided (27.1%) into the low and high groups.

Marital Adjustment and Paternal Involvement

Dyadic Consensus Subscale (DCSUB). Table 17 reveals that with respect to dyadic consensus (DCSUB), there is no significant difference between the means of the high and low groups on the overall parenting task index (PATASIND). Table 18 presents the results of a Pearson product-moment correlation performed on dyadic consensus (DCSUB) and parenting behaviors. The findings suggest that there is no significant relationship between DCSUB and the overall parenting task index (PATASIND).

Table 19 presents the findings regarding the relationship between dyadic consensus (DCSUB) and father's caring and attention which suggest that the high and low groups did not differ significantly on these variables. Table 20 presents the results of the Pearson product-moment correlation. In looking at the father caring and attention behaviors collectively, the findings suggest that there is no significant relationship between dyadic consensus and the overall index of father's caring and attention behaviors (FACAATIN).

Table 17

Summary of Results of t Tests on Dyadic Consensus Subscale

Parenting Tasks (Maximum Score)	Mean		SD		<u>t</u> Value	2-Tail Probability
	High	Low	High	Low		
Involved With Caring for Child (5)	4.71	4.51	.46	.61	-1.55	.13
Feeding Child (3)	2.24	2.23	.65	.65	-0.04	.97
Having Sole Responsibility (3)	2.24	2.23	.70	.73	-0.04	.97
Punishing Child (3)	2.47	2.15	.56	.66	-2.30	.02
Setting Limits (3)	2.63	2.43	.60	.50	-1.51	.13
Helping Child With Personal Problems (3)	2.59	2.45	.61	.62	-0.89	.38
Bathing and Dressing Child (3)	1.73	1.85	.80	.74	0.67	.51
Putting Child to Bed (3)	2.24	1.97	.75	.76	-1.47	.15
Help Child Learn (3)	2.63	2.48	.61	.57	-0.96	.34
Parenting Task Index (24)	18.11	17.34	3.41	3.71	-0.91	.37

Table 18

Correlation of Dyadic Consensus Subscale With Parenting Tasks

Parenting Tasks	Correlation	Significance Level
Involved With Caring for Child	.33	.002
Feeding Child	.14	.13
Having Sole Responsibility	.01	.46
Punishing Child	.13	.14
Setting Limits	.25	.02
Helping Child With Personal Problems	.12	.17
Bathing and Dressing Child	-.13	.14
Putting Child to Bed	.15	.12
Help Child Learn	.02	.44
Parenting Task Index	.14	.12

Table 19

Summary of *t* Tests Results on Dyadic Consensus Subscale Groups With
Father's Caring/Attention

Father's Caring/Attention (Maximum Score)	Mean		SD		<i>t</i> Value	2-Tail Probability
	High	Low	High	Low		
Feelings About Involvement in Childrearing (5)	4.74	4.00	.51	.85	-2.06	.04
Frequency of Household Chores Done Index (27)	20.89	19.91	2.98	3.50	-1.25	.22
Feelings About Amount of Household Chores Done (5)	4.26	3.91	.82	.78	-1.79	.08
Father Shows Love Physically or Verbally (3)	2.77	2.80	.43	.47	0.27	.79
Father Concerned About Child's Problems (3)	2.89	2.94	.32	.24	0.77	.44
Father Helps With Problems (3)	2.87	2.79	.32	.42	-1.09	.28
Father Makes Child Feel Better (3)	2.66	2.46	.48	.51	-1.69	.10
Father Hugs and Kisses Child (3)	2.51	2.24	.61	.82	-1.61	.11
Father Gives a Lot of Care and Attention (3)	2.65	2.57	.54	.61	-0.54	.59
Father's Caring/Attention Index (55)	16.29	15.31	2.01	2.47	-1.80	.08

Table 20

Correlation of Dyadic Consensus Subscale With Father's Caring/Attention

Father's Caring/Attention	Correlation	Significance Level
Feelings About Involvement in Childrearing	.34	.002
Frequency of Household Chores Done Index	.19	.05
Feelings About Amount of Household Chores Done	.28	.01
Father Shows Love Physically or Verbally	.02	.45
Father Concerned About Child's Problems	-.01	.46
Father Helps With Problems Problems	.16	.09
Father Makes Child Feel Better	.29	.01
Father Hugs and Kisses Child	.29	.01
Father Gives a Lot of Care and Attention	-	-
Father's Caring/Attention Index	.18	.07

Dyadic Satisfaction Subscale (DSS). Table 21 presents the results of the t test on dyadic satisfaction (DSS) and parenting behavior. The table indicates that the high and low groups do not differ significantly on the index of overall parenting behavior (PATASIND) with respect to dyadic satisfaction. Table 22 presents the results of the Pearson product-moment correlations performed to assess the notion that a relationship exists between dyadic satisfaction and parenting behavior. Contrary to the t test results, a correlation coefficient of $r=.25$ was obtained between DSS and PATASIND which is significant at the $p<.05$ level and is suggestive of a significant relationship between these two variables.

Concerning dyadic satisfaction (DSS) and its relation to father's caring and attention (FACAATIN), Table 23 reveals that the high and low group did not differ significantly on these variables.

Contrary to the t test results, however, correlational results indicate that there is a significant relationship between dyadic satisfaction and other aspects of father's caring and attention (see Table 24). A correlation coefficient significant at the $p<.05$ was found to exist between dyadic satisfaction and the father's overall capacity to care for and attend to their children (FACAATIN).

Dyadic Cohesion Subscales (DCOS). The t -test results presented in Table 25 indicate that there is no significant difference between the means of the high and low groups on the parenting task index (PATASIND) with respect to DCOS. A t value of -1.83 was obtained which is significant only at the $p=.07$ level. Although these findings are not significant, they suggest that the difference between the subjects who

Table 21

Summary of *t* Tests Results on Dyadic Satisfaction Subscale Groups With Parenting Tasks

Parenting Tasks (Maximum Score)	Mean		SD		<i>t</i> Value	2-Tail Probability
	High	Low	High	Low		
Involved With Caring for Child (5)	4.76	4.47	.43	.61	-2.31	.02
Feeding Child (3)	2.21	2.25	.65	.65	0.24	.81
Having Sole Responsibility (3)	2.26	2.20	.71	.72	-0.38	.71
Punishing Child (3)	2.33	2.31	.65	.62	-0.18	.86
Setting Limits (3)	2.59	2.47	.56	.56	-0.87	.39
Helping Child With Personal Problems (3)	2.52	2.53	.67	.56	0.09	.93
Bathing and Dressing Child (3)	1.85	1.74	.83	.71	-0.60	.55
Putting Child to Bed (3)	2.33	1.88	.65	.81	-2.52	.01
Child Learn (3)	2.65	2.47	.61	.5	-1.20	.23
Parenting Task Index (24)	18.18	17.31	3.44	3.66	-1.02	.31

Table 22

Correlation of Dyadic Satisfaction Subscale With Parenting Tasks

Parenting Tasks	Correlation	Significance Level
Involved With Caring for Child	.45	.0001
Feeding Child	.17	.09
Having Sole Responsibility	.12	.17
Punishing Child	.15	.10
Setting Limits	.16	.10
Helping Child With Personal Problems	.19	.06
Bathing and Dressing Child	-.01	.48
Putting Child to Bed	.22	.04
Help Child Learn	.10	.23
Parenting Task Index	.25	.02

Table 23

Summary of *t* Tests on Dyadic Satisfaction Subscale With Father's Caring/Attention

Father's Caring/Attention (Maximum Score)	Mean		SD		<i>t</i> Value	2-Tail Probability
	High	Low	High	Low		
Feelings About Involvement in Childrearing (5)	4.82	4.33	.39	.86	-3.04	.003
Frequency of Household Chores Done Index (27)	19.97	20.81	3.34	3.20	1.07	.29
Feelings About Amount of Household Chores Done (5)	4.15	4.03	.86	.77	-0.61	.54
Father Shows Love Physically or Verbally (3)	2.77	2.81	.50	.40	0.38	.71
Father Concerned About Child's Problems (3)	2.91	2.91	.29	.28	0.07	.94
Father Helps With Problems (3)	2.88	2.79	.33	.41	-0.98	.33
Father Makes Child Feel Better (3)	2.65	2.47	.49	.51	-1.47	.15
Father Hugs and Kisses Child (3)	2.85	2.28	.67	.78	-1.18	.24
Father Gives a Lot of Care and Attention (3)	2.70	2.53	.53	.61	-1.23	.22
Father's Caring/Attention Index (55)	16.15	15.47	2.186	2.37	1.24	.22

Table 24

Correlation of Dyadic Satisfaction Subscale With Father's
Caring/Attention

Father's Caring/Attention	Correlation	Significance Level
Feelings About Involvement in Childrearing	.34	.002
Frequency of Household Chores Done Index	.19	.05
Feelings About Amount of Household Chores Done	.28	.01
Father Shows Love Physically or Verbally	.15	.10
Father Concerned About Child's Problems	-.08	.25
Father Helps With Problems	.22	.03
Father Makes Child Feel Better	.25	.02
Father Hugs and Kisses Child	.25	.02
Father Gives a Lot of Care and Attention	-	-
Father's Caring/Attention Index	.22	.03

Table 25

Summary of t Tests Results on Dyadic Cohesion Subscale Groups With Parenting Tasks

Parenting Tasks (Maximum Score)	Mean		SD		$\bar{t}$ Value	2-Tail Probability
	High	Low	High	Low		
Involved With Caring for Child (5)	4.7	4.5	.48	.61	-0.82	.41
Feeding Child (3)	2.33	2.12	.59	.70	-1.37	.17
Having Sole Responsibility (3)	2.23	2.24	.65	.78	0.04	.97
Punishing Child (3)	2.42	2.21	.55	.70	-1.36	.18
Setting Limits (3)	2.50	2.56	.61	.50	0.44	.66
Helping Child With Personal Problems (3)	2.57	2.47	.61	.62	-0.68	.50
Bathing and Dressing Child (3)	1.85	1.72	.85	.69	-0.73	.47
Putting Child to Bed (3)	2.34	1.84	.69	.77	2.82	.01
Help Child Learn (3)	2.54	2.57	.66	.50	0.16	.87
Parenting Task Index (24)	18.47	16.94	3.53	3.47	-1.82	.07

were high and low on PATASIND in regard to DCOS is approaching significance. A Pearson product-moment correlation was performed to test the notion that there is a relationship between the two variables. A correlation coefficient of $r=.33$ was obtained which is significant at the $p<.01$ level (see Table 26). Contrary to the t test, these findings are suggestive of a significant relationship between DCOS and PATASIND.

Table 27 presents the results of the t test involving dyadic cohesion (DCOS) and father caring and attention variables. These findings indicate that with regard to DCOS, the high and low groups differed significantly on the overall index of father's caring and attention - FACAATIN (t value of -3.00 , $p<.01$). These results are suggestive of a significant relationship between dyadic cohesion and overall father caring and attention. Table 28 presents results of the Pearson product-moment correlations performed on these two variables. A significant relationship was found between DCOS and FACAATIN ($r=.26$, $p<.05$). The findings indicate a positive relationship and suggest that as dyadic cohesion increases between the father and his spouse, the more likely the father is to show more caring and attention toward his children.

Affective Expression Subscale (AES). Table 29 presents the t test results which suggest that there is a significant relationship between AES and overall parenting task behavior (PATASIND). A t value of -2.33 was obtained which is significant at the $p<.05$ level. Consistent with these findings is the result of a Pearson product-moment correlation that was performed on these two variables. A correlation coefficient of $r=.31$ was obtained which is significant at the $p<.01$ level (see Table

Table 26

Correlation of Dyadic Cohesion Subscale With Parenting Tasks

CRPR Subscales	Correlation	Significance Level
Involved With Caring for Child	.21	.04
Feeding Child	.14	.13
Having Sole Responsibility	.15	.11
Punishing Child	.22	.03
Setting Limits	.09	.23
Helping Child With Personal Problems	.20	.05
Bathing and Dressing Child	.07	.28
Putting Child to Bed	.33	.003
Help Child Learn	.06	.32
Parenting Task Index	.33	.003

Table 27

Summary of *t* Tests Results on Dyadic Cohesion With Father's Caring/Attention

Father's Caring/Attention (Maximum Score)	Mean		SD		<i>t</i> Value	2-Tail Probability
	High	Low	High	Low		
Feelings About Involvement in Childrearing (5)	4.61	4.53	.60	.83	-0.48	.64
Frequency of Household Chores Done Index (27)	21.19	19.56	3.34	3.02	-2.15	.04
Feelings About Amount of Household Chores Done (5)	4.19	3.97	.86	.76	-1.16	.25
Father Shows Love Physically or Verbally (3)	2.89	2.68	.32	.54	-2.03	.05
Father Concerned About Child's Problems (3)	2.89	2.94	.32	.25	0.70	.49
Father Helps With Problems (3)	2.86	2.81	.35	.40	-0.54	.59
Father Makes Child Feel Better (3)	2.69	2.41	.47	.50	-2.45	.02
Father Hugs and Kisses Child (3)	2.58	2.15	.60	.80	-2.55	.02
Father Gives a Lot of Care and Attention (3)	2.71	2.50	.52	.62	-1.57	.12
Father's Caring/Attention Index (55)	16.56	15.00	1.78	2.51	-3.00	.004

Table 28

Correlation of Dyadic Cohesion Subscale With Father's Caring/Attention

Father's Caring/Attention	Correlation	Significance Level
Feelings About Involvement in Childrearing	.22	.03
Frequency of Household Chores Done Index	.35	.002
Feelings About Amount of Household Chores Done	.25	.02
Father Shows Love Physically or Verbally	.18	.07
Father Concerned About Child's Problems	-.04	.38
Father Helps With Problems	.16	.10
Father Makes Child Feel Better	.29	.01
Father Hugs and Kisses Child	.33	.003
Father Gives a Lot of Care and Attention	-	-
Father's Caring/Attention Index	.26	.01

Table 29

Summary of t Tests Results on Affective Expression Subscale Groups With Parenting Tasks

Parenting Tasks (Maximum Score)	Mean		SD		t Value	2-Tail Probability
	High	Low	High	Low		
Involved With Caring for Child (5)	4.77	4.49	.43	.60	-2.25	.03
Feeding Child (3)	2.35	2.13	.61	.67	-1.44	.15
Having Sole Responsibility (3)	2.35	2.13	.71	.70	-1.31	.20
Punishing Child (3)	2.45	2.21	.57	.66	-1.60	.11
Setting Limits (3)	2.68	2.41	.54	.55	-2.04	.05
Helping Child With Personal Problems (3)	2.70	2.39	.54	.64	-2.20	.03
Bathing and Dressing Child (3)	1.65	1.92	.76	.77	1.45	.15
Putting Child to Bed (3)	2.16	2.05	.78	.75	-0.56	.58
Help Child Learn (3)	2.55	2.55	.62	.56	0.07	.94
Parenting Task Index (24)	13.81	16.87	3.12	3.69	-2.33	.02

30).

Table 31 presents the results of the t test between affective expression (AES) and father's caring and attention behavior. With regard to affective expression, the high and low group differed significantly on the overall index of father's care and attention behavior--FACAATIN (t value of -3.15, $p=.002$). Contrary to the t test findings, the correlational data (Table 32) did not support the notion that a significant relationship exists between affective expression and the father's caring and attention index, an overall measure of caring and attention behavior. A correlation coefficient of $r=.18$ was obtained, significant at the $p>.05$ level, suggesting, however, that there is a trend toward a relationship between these two variables.

Dyadic Adjustment Score (DAS). The results of the analysis of the parenting task index (PATASIND) and the overall dyadic adjustment score are also presented by Table 33. The t test results indicate that the subjects who were high and low on overall dyadic adjustment (DAS) did not differ significantly with regard to the parenting task index (PATASIND). Contrary to these findings, Table 34 presents the results of a Pearson product-moment correlation on DAS and PATASIND which suggest that there is a significant relationship between these two variables. A correlation coefficient of $r=.30$ was obtained which is significant at the $p<.01$ level. These findings suggest that there is a significant relationship between DAS and PATASIND.

Table 35 presents the results of the t test performed on the overall index of dyadic adjustment (DAS) and the father's caring and attention behavior. The findings indicate that with regard to DAS, the

Table 30

Correlation of Affective Expression Subscale With Parenting Tasks

CRPR Subscales	Correlation	Significance Level
Involved With Caring for Child	.25	.02
Feeding Child	.18	.07
Having Sole Responsibility	.18	.06
Punishing Child	.11	.20
Setting Limits	.28	.01
Helping Child With Personal Problems	.18	.07
Bathing and Dressing Child	-.19	.06
Putting Child to Bed	.08	.27
Help Child Learn	.10	.23
Parenting Task Index	.31	.01

Table 31

Summary of *t* Tests Results on Affective Expression Subscale With Father's Caring/Attention

Father's Caring/Attention (Maximum Score)	Mean		SD		<i>t</i> Value	2-Tail Probability
	High	Low	High	Low		
Feelings About Involvement in Childrearing (5)	4.55	4.59	.85	.60	.02	.81
Frequency of Household Chores Done Index (27)	21.58	19.46	2.84	3.32	-2.83	.01
Feelings About Amount of Household Chores Done (5)	4.23	3.97	.76	.84	-1.29	.20
Father Shows Love Physically or Verbally (3)	2.90	2.69	.30	.52	-2.00	.05
Father Concerned About Child's Problems (3)	2.97	2.87	1.80	.35	-1.49	.14
Father Helps With Problems (3)	2.94	2.76	.25	.44	-2.02	.06
Father Makes Child Feel Better (3)	2.68	2.46	.48	.51	-1.82	.07
Father Hugs and Kisses Child (3)	2.58	2.21	.57	.81	-2.15	.04
Father Gives a Lot of Care and Attention (3)	2.83	2.44	.38	.64	-3.01	.004
Father's Caring/Attention Index (55)	16.71	15.08	1.64	2.49	-3.15	.002

Table 32

Correlation of Affective Expression With Father's Caring/Attention

Father's Caring/Attention	Correlation	Significance Level
Feelings About Involvement in Childrearing	.05	.35
Frequency of Household Chores Done Index	.32	.003
Feelings About Amount of Household Chores Done	.14	.13
Father Shows Love Physically or Verbally	.06	.32
Father Concerned About Child's Problems	.06	.30
Father Helps With Problems	.20	.05
Father Makes Child Feel Better	.15	.10
Father Hugs and Kisses Child	.20	.05
Father Gives a Lot of Care and Attention	-	-
Father's Caring/Attention Index	.18	.07

Table 33

Summary of t Tests Results on Dyadic Adjustment Score Groups With Parenting Tasks

Parenting Tasks (Maximum Score)	Mean		SD		t Value	2-Tail Probability
	High	Low	High	Low		
Involved With Caring for Child (5)	4.74	.49	.44	.61	-2.01	.05
Feeding Child (3)	2.26	2.21	.66	.64	-0.33	.74
Having Sole Responsibility (3)	2.21	2.26	.69	.74	0.30	.77
Punishing Child (3)	2.40	2.24	.60	.65	-1.09	.28
Setting Limits (3)	2.60	2.46	.60	.51	-1.07	.29
Helping Child With Personal Problems (3)	2.56	2.48	.61	.62	-0.49	.62
Bathing and Dressing Child (3)	1.74	1.85	.83	.71	0.60	.55
Putting Child to Bed (3)	2.18	2.03	.76	.77	0.78	.44
Help Child Learn (3)	2.61	2.50	.61	.57	-0.73	.47
Parenting Task Index (24)	18.14	17.31	3.40	3.72	-0.97	.33

Table 34

Correlation of Dyadic Adjustment Score With Parenting Tasks

CRPR Subscales	Correlation	Significance Level
Involved With Caring for Child	.40	.0001
Feeding Child	.17	.09
Having Sole Responsibility	.12	.17
Punishing Child	.20	.05
Setting Limits	.24	.02
Helping Child With Personal Problems	.21	.04
Bathing and Dressing Child	-.07	.29
Putting Child to Bed	.26	.02
Help Child Learn	.06	.32
Parenting Task Index	.30	.01

Table 35

Summary of *t* Tests Results on Dyadic Adjustment Score With Father's Caring/Attention

Father's Caring/Attention (Maximum Score)	Mean		SD		<i>t</i> Value	2-Tail Probability
	High	Low	High	Low		
Feelings About Involvement in Childrearing (5)	4.71	4.43	.52	.85	-1.70	.09
Frequency of Household Chores Done Index (27)	21.06	19.73	3.04	3.40	-1.71	.09
Feelings About Amount of Household Chores Done (5)	4.23	3.94	.84	.77	-1.48	.14
Father Shows Love Physically or Verbally (3)	2.77	2.80	.43	.47	0.27	.79
Father Concerned About Child's Problems (3)	2.89	2.94	.32	.24	0.77	.44
Father Helps With Problems (3)	2.86	2.82	.36	.37	-0.43	.67
Father Makes Child Feel Better (3)	2.66	2.46	.48	.51	-1.69	.10
Father Hugs and Kisses Child (3)	2.51	2.24	.61	.82	-1.61	.11
Father Gives a Lot of Care and Attention (3)	2.71	2.51	.52	.61	-1.39	.17
Father's Caring/Attention Index (55)	16.31	15.29	2.06	2.42	-1.92	.06

high and low groups did not differ significantly on any of the behaviors subsumed under the category of father's caring and attention behavior. Although not significant at the $p < .05$ level, the relationship between overall dyadic adjustment and the overall caring and attention index warrants attention. A t value of -1.92 was obtained which is significant at the $p > .05$ level. These findings suggest that there is a trend toward a relationship between these two variables. Table 36 presents the Pearson product-moment correlation results which provides support for the notion that such a relationship exists. A correlation coefficient of $r = .25$, significant at the $p < .05$ level, was obtained. These findings suggest that fathers who report being high on overall dyadic adjustment, also are high on overall caring and attention behavior directed toward their children.

At this point, the results from the analysis of the relationship between marital adjustment and childrearing practices and attitudes will be presented. The subscales of the Dyadic Adjustment Scale and the total DAS score was used to assess marital adjustment. The subjects' responses were categorized into high and low groups with respect to this variable. Concerning childrearing attitudes and values, the CRPR subscales discussed earlier were also used here. Student's t tests were performed to determine whether the high and low groups differ significantly on CRPR subscales with respect to marital adjustment.

Marital Adjustment and Childrearing Practices and Attitudes

Dyadic Consensus Subscale (DCSUB). Table 37 presents the results of the t test performed on the Child-Rearing Practices Report (CRPR) subscales with respect to dyadic consensus (DCSUB). The findings

Table 36

Correlation of Dyadic Adjustment Score With Father's Caring/Attention

Father's Caring/Attention	Correlation	Significance Level
Feelings About Involvement in Childrearing	.32	.003
Frequency of Household Chores Done Index	.28	.01
Feelings About Amount of Household Chores Done	.29	.01
Father Shows Love Physically or Verbally	.10	.21
Father Concerned About Child's Problems	-.04	.38
Father Helps With Problems	.22	.04
Father Makes Child Feel Better	.33	.003
Father Hugs and Kisses Child	.33	.003
Father Gives a Lot of Care and Attention	-	-
Father's Caring/Attention Index	.25	.02

Table 37

Summary of t Tests Results on Dyadic Consensus Subscale Groups With
Child-Rearing Practices Report (CRPR) Subscales

CRPR Subscales (Maximum Score)	Mean		SD		t Value	2-Tail Probability
	High	Low	High	Low		
Openness of Expression (28)	19.37	20.05	4.12	3.31	0.75	.46
Emphasis on Achievement (42)	29.50	30.60	4.91	3.69	1.04	.30
Parental Worry (14)	9.53	9.51	3.61	2.98	-0.02	.98
Authoritarian Control (63)	28.69	26.40	6.58	6.35	-1.45	.15
Supervision of Child (14)	9.94	8.45	2.82	2.74	-2.17	.03
Negative Affect Toward Child (21)	6.06	5.37	2.43	2.76	-1.20	.23
Open Expression of Affect (42)	31.75	33.14	6.53	4.23	1.04	.30
Encouraging Independence (49)	30.22	31.80	5.95	4.52	1.23	.22
Enjoyment of Parental Role (21)	13.91	12.89	2.72	2.84	-1.50	.14
Rational Guidance of Child (21)	15.97	15.77	3.39	2.81	-0.26	.80
Control by Guilt Induction (21)	12.31	12.00	3.83	4.36	-0.31	.76
Orientation to Non-Punitive Punishment (14)	8.56	7.57	2.24	2.88	-1.56	.12
Spouse Involvement (7)	2.09	1.89	1.38	1.23	-0.65	.52
Trust Child (7)	5.28	5.69	1.92	1.53	0.96	.34
Use of Teasing and Ridicule (7)	2.59	2.94	1.74	1.73	0.82	.41
Maternal Authority (7)	2.50	2.03	1.81	1.27	-1.24	.22

suggest that the high and low groups significantly differ on only one subscale, the subscale that measures the father's attitude toward supervising his children (SUPERV). A t value of -2.17 was obtained which is significant at the $p < .05$ level. Table 38 presents the results of a Pearson product-moment correlation which are consistent with the t test results. A correlation coefficient of $r = .24$ was obtained between DCSUB and SUPERV which is significant at the $p < .05$ level. These findings suggest that there is a significant relationship between DCSUB and SUPERV. Overall, the high and low group did not differ significantly when looking at childrearing practices and attitudes collectively.

Dyadic Satisfaction Subscale (DSS). The t test results presented by Table 39 suggests that the high and low groups differ significantly on the CRPR subscale which measures the father's attitude toward encouraging independence (ENCIND) with respect to DSS. A t value of 2.12 was obtained which is significant at the $p < .05$ level. These findings suggest that there is a significant relationship between DSS and ENCIND. Contrary to these findings are the results presented by Table 40 which reveals the results of the Pearson product-moment correlation performed on DSS and the CRPR subscales. A negative correlation coefficient of $r = -.15$ was obtained which is not significant at the $p < .05$ level. As with DCSUB, the findings indicate that in terms of overall childrearing practices and attitudes, the high and low groups did not differ significantly with respect to DSS.

Table 40 also reveals that a significant relationship exists between DSS and the father's attitude toward using teasing and ridicule

Table 38

Correlation of Dyadic Consensus Subscale With Child-Rearing Practices
Report (CRPR) Subscales

CRPR Subscales	Correlation	Significance Level
Openness of Expression	-.18	.07
Emphasis on Achievement	-.12	.18
Parental Worry	-.06	.31
Authoritarian Control	.18	.08
Supervision of Child	.24	.02
Negative Affect Toward Child	.07	.27
Open Expression of Affect	-.17	.08
Encouraging Independence	-.09	.23
Enjoyment of Parental Role	.14	.13
Rational Guidance of Child	.02	.45
Control by Guilt Induction	.10	.21
Orientation to Non-Punitive Punishment	.14	.12
Spouse Involvement	-.09	.25
Trust Child	-.07	.30
Use of Teasing and Ridicule	-.06	.33
Maternal Authority	.19	.06

Table 39

Summary of Results of *t* Tests on Dyadic Satisfaction Subscale Groups With
Child-Rearing Practices Report (CRPR) Subscales

CRPR Subscales (Maximum Score)	Mean		SD		<i>t</i> Value	2-Tail Probability
	High	Low	High	Low		
Openness of Expression (28)	19.44	19.54	3.77	3.71	-0.43	.67
Emphasis on Achievement (42)	29.50	30.60	4.44	4.21	1.04	.30
Parental Worry (14)	9.84	9.22	3.37	3.20	-0.77	.45
Authoritarian Control (63)	28.72	26.37	6.42	6.50	-1.49	.14
Supervision of Child (14)	9.56	8.80	3.03	2.70	-1.30	.28
Negative Affect Toward Child (21)	5.28	6.09	2.22	2.45	1.40	.12
Open Expression of Affect (42)	32.94	32.06	5.22	5.70	-0.66	.51
Encouraging Independence (49)	29.66	32.31	5.63	4.64	2.12	.04
Enjoyment of Parental Role (21)	13.63	13.14	2.89	2.75	-0.70	.49
Rational Guidance of Child (21)	15.66	16.06	3.25	2.95	0.53	.60
Control by Guilt Induction (21)	11.84	12.43	3.56	4.55	0.58	.56
Orientation to Non-Punitive Punishment (14)	8.09	8.00	2.41	2.84	-0.14	.89
Spouse Involvement (7)	1.94	2.03	1.19	1.40	0.29	.78
Trust Child (7)	5.44	5.54	1.65	1.82	0.25	.81
Use of Teasing and Ridicule (7)	2.41	3.11	1.41	1.94	1.70	.10
Maternal Authority (7)	1.97	2.51	1.20	1.81	1.44	.15

Table 40

Correlation of Dyadic Satisfaction Subscale With Child-Rearing Practices Report (CRPR) Subscales

CRPR Subscales	Correlation	Significance Level
Openness of Expression	-.06	.32
Emphasis on Achievement	-.22	.04
Parental Worry	-.16	.10
Authoritarian Control	.14	.14
Supervision of Child	.11	.18
Negative Affect Toward Child	-.03	.40
Open Expression of Affect	-.06	.30
Encouraging Independence	-.15	.11
Enjoyment of Parental Role	.18	.08
Rational Guidance of Child	-.06	.29
Control by Guilt Induction	.03	.40
Orientation to Non-Punitive Punishment	-.01	.46
Spouse Involvement	.001	.50
Trust Child	-.05	.35
Use of Teasing and Ridicule	-.25	.02
Maternal Authority	-.11	.18

in interacting with his children (TEASD). A correlation coefficient of $-.25$ was obtained which is significant at the $p < .05$ level. These findings suggest that a significant negative relationship exists between DSS and TEASD. The t test performed on these variables did not support the notion that such a relationship exists. A significant relationship also exists between DSS and the father's emphasis on achievement (ACHIEV), with a correlation coefficient of $r = -.22$ which is significant at the $p < .05$ level. Another relationship to note is the relationship between DSS and the CRPR subscale that measure the father's enjoyment of his parental role (ENJOYS). Table 39 reveals that the high and low groups did not differ significantly on ENJOYS with regard to DSS. A Pearson product-moment correlation performed on these two variables, however, yielded a coefficient of $r = .18$ which is significant at the $p > .05$ level (see Table 41). Although the correlation between DSS and ENJOYS is not at a significant level, the correlation is approaching significance which suggests that there is a trend toward a relationship between these two variables.

Dyadic Cohesion Subscale (DCOS). Table 41 presents the results of the t test performed on DCOS and the CRPR subscales. These findings indicate that the high and low groups differ significantly on the subscale that measures the father's emphasis on achievement (ACHIEV). A t value of 2.24 was obtained which is significant at the $p < .05$ level. A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient of $r = -.21$ was obtained which is significant at the $p = .01$ level (see Table 42). These findings are consistent with the t test results and are indicative of a significant relationship between DCOS and ACHIEV. Consistent with

Table 41

Summary of t Tests Results on Dyadic Cohesion Subscale Groups With
Child-Rearing Practices Report (CRPR) Subscales

CRPR Subscales (Maximum Score)	Mean		SD		<u>t</u> Value	2-Tail Probability
	High	Low	High	Low		
Openness of Expression (28)	20.61	18.88	3.69	3.58	-1.94	.06
Emphasis on Achievement (42)	28.91	31.21	4.69	3.65	2.24	.03
Parental Worry (14)	9.73	9.32	3.35	3.24	-0.50	.62
Authoritarian Control (63)	27.73	27.26	7.51	5.49	-0.29	.77
Supervision of Child (14)	9.39	8.94	2.81	2.94	-0.64	.52
Negative Affect Toward Child (21)	5.52	5.88	2.39	2.35	0.63	.53
Open Expression of Affect (42)	32.39	32.56	6.46	4.37	0.12	.90
Encouraging Independence (49)	31.55	30.56	5.79	4.74	-0.76	.45
Enjoyment of Parental Role (21)	14.03	12.47	2.65	2.84	-1.93	.06
Rational Guidance of Child (21)	16.09	15.65	2.94	3.24	-0.59	.56
Control by Guilt Induction (21)	11.88	12.41	4.31	3.91	0.53	.60
Orientation to Non-Punitive Punishment (14)	8.64	7.47	2.37	2.77	-1.85	.07
Spouse Involvement (7)	2.00	1.97	1.29	1.31	-0.09	.93
Trust Child (7)	5.21	5.76	2.01	1.37	1.32	.19
Use of Teasing and Ridicule (7)	2.76	2.79	1.54	1.92	0.09	.93
Maternal Authority (7)	1.97	2.53	1.29	1.76	1.48	.14

Table 42

Correlation of Dyadic Cohesion Subscale With Child-Rearing Practices
Report (CRPR) Subscales

CRPR Subscales	Correlation	Significance Level
Openness of Expression	.01	.20
Emphasis on Achievement	-.21	.01
Parental Worry	-.10	.21
Authoritarian Control	.11	.19
Supervision of Child	.11	.20
Negative Affect Toward Child	-.15	.11
Open Expression of Affect	-.08	.27
Encouraging Independence	.04	.36
Enjoyment of Parental Role	.18	.07
Rational Guidance of Child	.07	.30
Control by Guilt Induction	.03	.42
Orientation to Non-Punitive Punishment	.22	.04
Spouse Involvement	.06	.31
Trust Child	-.11	.20
Use of Teasing and Ridicule	-.03	.41
Maternal Authority	-.13	.14

previous findings regarding marital adjustment scales, the high and low groups did not differ significantly on overall childrearing practices and attitudes with regard to DCOS.

Table 41 reveals that on the following CRPR subscales: (a) openness of expression (OPENEX), (b) enjoyment of parental role (ENJOYS), and (c) orientation toward nonpunitive punishment (NONPUN), the high and low groups are approaching significant difference with respect to DCOS. The t value obtained between DCOS and OPENEX was -1.94 , significant at the $p > .05$ level; between DCOS and ENJOYS the t value was -1.93 , significant at the $p > .05$ level; and between DCOS and NONPUN was -1.85 , significant at the $p > .05$ level. Although these t values were not at the $p < .05$ level, the finding suggests that a relationship between DCOS and OPENEX, ENJOYS, and NONPUN is approaching significance. Table 42 presents results that are consistent with the notion that a relationship exists between DCOS and NONPUN and between DCOS and ENJOYS. A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient of $r = .22$ was obtained between DCOS and NONPUN which is significant at the $p < .05$ level. A correlation coefficient of $r = .18$ was obtained between DCOS and ENOYS which is significant at the $p > .05$ level. Although the latter correlation is not significant at the $p < .05$ level, the data suggests that there is a trend toward a relationship between these two variables.

Affective Expression Subscale (AES) The t test results presented by Table 43 indicate that the subjects who were high and low on AES differ with regard to ACHIEV and SUPERV. A t value of 2.76 was obtained between AES and ACHIEV which is significant at the $p < .01$ level. With

Table 43

Summary of t Tests Results on Affective Expression Subscale Groups With
Child-Rearing Practices Report (CRPR) Subscales

CRPR Subscales (Maximum Score)	Mean		SD		t Value	2-Tail Probability
	High	Low	High	Low		
Openness of Expression (28)	19.79	19.68	4.13	3.42	-0.12	.91
Emphasis on Achievement (42)	28.48	31.29	4.27	4.01	2.76	.01
Parental Worry (14)	8.89	10.00	3.66	2.90	1.38	.17
Authoritarian Control (63)	28.48	26.74	5.94	6.91	-1.09	.28
Supervision of Child (14)	10.07	8.47	2.46	2.98	-2.33	.02
Negative Affect Toward Child (21)	5.69	5.71	2.51	2.28	0.04	.97
Open Expression of Affect (42)	31.93	32.89	6.26	4.80	0.71	.48
Encouraging Independence (49)	31.03	31.05	4.88	5.61	0.01	.99
Enjoyment of Parental Role (21)	13.83	13.03	3.06	2.58	-1.16	.25
Rational Guidance of Child (21)	16.17	15.63	3.40	2.83	-0.71	.48
Control by Guilt Induction (21)	12.52	11.87	3.78	4.34	-0.64	.52
Orientation to Non-Punitive Punishment (14)	8.24	7.89	2.55	2.71	-0.53	.60
Spouse Involvement (7)	2.00	1.97	1.36	1.26	-0.08	.94
Trust Child (7)	5.52	5.47	1.99	1.52	-0.10	.92
Use of Teasing and Ridicule (7)	2.57	2.92	1.57	1.85	0.78	.44
Maternal Authority (7)	2.38	2.16	1.78	1.39	-0.57	.57

regard to the relationship between AES and SUPERV, a t value of -2.33 was obtained which is significant at the $p < .05$ level. These findings indicate that there were significant relationship between AES, and ACHIEV and SUPERV. However, given that only two out of the sixteen subscales revealed a significant difference between the high and low group with respect to AES, the notion that individuals high or low on marital adjustment are significantly different in their childrearing practices and attitudes is not supported.

Table 44 presents the results of the Pearson product-moment correlation performed on these data. A correlation coefficient of $r = -.21$ and $r = .20$ was obtained between AES and ACHIEV and AES and SUPERV, respectively, which were significant at the $p < .05$ and $p < .01$ level, respectively. These findings are consistent with the t test results that suggest that there is a significant relationship between these variables. Table 44 reveals a third correlation to note, AES and parental worry (WORRY). A correlation coefficient of $r = -.23$ was obtained between the latter two variables which is negatively significant at the $p < .05$ level. These findings are inconsistent with the t test performed (see Table 43).

Dyadic Adjustment Score (DAS). Table 45 reveals that the t test was not significant at the $p < .05$ level, indicating that the high and low groups were not different with respect to the CRPR subscales. Although no significant relationships were identified, there were some findings that indicate there are trends toward significance (see Table 45).

Contrary to the t test results, the results of the Pearson product-moment correlation performed support the notion that there is a

Table 44

Correlation of Affective Expression Subscales With Child-Rearing Practices Report (CRPR) Subscales

CRPR Subscales	Correlation	Significance Level
Openness of Expression	.02	.44
Emphasis on Achievement	-.21	.05
Parental Worry	-.23	.03
Authoritarian Control	.06	.31
Supervision of Child	.30	.01
Negative Affect Toward Child	-.04	.38
Open Expression of Affect	-.12	.16
Encouraging Independence	-.05	.33
Enjoyment of Parental Role	.13	.15
Rational Guidance of Child	-.01	.46
Control by Guilt Induction	.04	.39
Orientation to Non-Punitive Punishment	-.03	.42
Spouse Involvement	.01	.47
Trust Child	-.04	.38
Use of Teasing and Ridicule	-.12	.18
Maternal Authority	.10	.21

Table 45

Summary of *t* Tests Results on Dyadic Adjustment Score Groups With
Child-Rearing Practices Report (CRPR) Subscales

CRPR Subscales (Maximum Score)	Mean		SD		<i>t</i> Value	2-Tail Probability
	High	Low	High	Low		
Openness of Expression (28)	19.56	19.89	4.05	3.43	0.35	.73
Emphasis on Achievement (42)	29.03	31.03	4.88	3.56	1.93	.06
Parental Worry (14)	9.63	9.43	3.65	2.93	-0.24	.81
Authoritarian Control (63)	28.41	26.66	6.27	6.72	-1.10	.28
Supervision of Child (14)	9.84	8.54	2.77	2.84	-1.89	.06
Negative Affect Toward Child (21)	5.91	5.51	2.53	2.22	-0.68	.50
Open Expression of Affect (42)	31.75	33.14	6.49	4.29	1.04	.30
Encouraging Independence (49)	29.88	32.11	5.64	4.73	1.77	.08
Enjoyment of Parental Role (21)	13.50	13.26	2.91	2.75	-0.35	.73
Rational Guidance of Child (21)	15.53	16.17	3.21	2.97	0.85	.40
Control by Guilt Induction (21)	12.41	11.91	3.78	4.39	-0.49	.63
Orientation to Non Punitive Punishment (14)	8.44	7.69	2.42	2.78	-1.17	.25
Spouse Involvement (7)	2.09	1.89	1.33	1.28	-0.65	.52
Trust Child (7)	5.44	5.54	1.87	1.62	0.25	.81
Use of Teasing and Ridicule (7)	2.47	3.06	1.55	1.86	1.40	.17
Maternal Authority (7)	2.22	2.29	1.74	1.41	0.17	.86

significant relationship between DAS and ACHIEV and SUPERV. A correlation coefficient of $r = -.23$ was obtained between DAS and ACHIEV, and a coefficient of $r = .23$ was obtained between DAS and SUPERV which were both significant at the $p < .05$ level.

Table 45 reveals that the high and low groups did not significantly differ on the ENJOY subscale with regard to DAS. A t value of -0.35 was obtained which is only significant at the $p = .73$ level. Contrary to these findings are the results presented by Table 46 which supports the notion that a significant relationship exists between these two variables. A correlation coefficient of $r = .20$ was obtained which is significant at the $p < .05$ level.

Summary of Results

Returning to the original hypotheses of this study, the following conclusion can be made:

Hypothesis 1, that there will be no difference between individuals with high and low scores on items measuring childrearing practice and attitudes with regard to nurturance, is not rejected at the $p < .05$ level.

Hypothesis 2, that there will be no difference between individuals with high and low scores on items measuring parental involvement with regard to nurturance, is not rejected at the $p < .05$ level.

Hypothesis 3, that there will be no difference between individuals with high and low scores on marital adjustment scales with regard to items measuring parental involvement, is not rejected at the $p < .05$ level.

Hypothesis 4, that there will be no difference between individuals with high and low scores on marital adjustment scales with regard to

Table 46

Correlation of Dyadic Adjustment Score With Child-Rearing Practices
Report (CRPR) Subscales

CRPR Subscales	Correlation	Significance Level
Openness of Expression	-.08	.27
Emphasis on Achievement	-.23	.03
Parental Worry	-.14	.12
Authoritarian Control	.17	.08
Supervision of Child	.23	.03
Negative Affect Toward Child	-.03	.42
Open Expression of Affect	-.14	.13
Encouraging Independence	-.11	.18
Enjoyment of Parental Role	.20	.05
Rational Guidance of Child	.0004	.50
Control by Guilt Induction	.06	.31
Orientation to Non-Punitive Punishment	.15	.11
Spouse Involvement	-.04	.37
Trust Child	-.07	.29
Use of Teasing and Ridicule	-.14	.13
Maternal Authority	.01	.47

items measuring childrearing practice and attitudes, is not rejected at the $p < .05$ level.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The purpose of the present study was to determine if Black fathers who were different on nurturance also differed in childrearing practices and attitudes, and marital adjustment.

The Adjective Checklist (ACL) provided two self-descriptive measures of nurturance. The Nurturance Scale (NUR) of the ACL has been defined to characterize individuals who "engage in behaviors that provide material or emotional benefit to others" (Gough & Heilburn, 1983, p. 10). High scorers on the second measure of nurturance, Nurturing Parent (NP), "seek to sustain relationships and to foster feelings of courtesy and respect between parents and child,...in fact, between any two persons" (p. 22). The NP scale is derived from the Transactional Analysis (TA) theory of Eric Berne (1961). Berne identified three primary ego states (parental, adult, and child) which he theorized are present in any interpersonal encounter. The parent ego state has two components, control and nurturance. The nurturing parent ego state, which is the focus of this study, is reflected behaviorally whenever one person consoles, comforts or cares for another person (Hamachek, 1987). It has been described as "...the part of you that cares deeply for a loved one or admonishes a child for not looking both ways before crossing the street (Hamachek, 1987, p. 31).

The characteristics assessed by the NUR and NP scales of the ACL are compatible with the conceptualization of nurturance as "fostering developmental change" discussed earlier. Nurturing parental behavior

and attitudes and parental involvement have been associated with positive developmental outcomes (Parke, 1967; Baumrind, 1967; Herrington, 1972; Radin, 1972; Biller, 1971; Clark-Stewart, 1978). In addition, studies have supported the hypothesis that a more satisfying marital relationship has an enhancing effect on parent-child interactions (Belsky, 1979, 1981; Feiring, 1975; Dickie et al., 1980).

The percentage breakdown of the sample population into groups according to levels of nurturance presents evidence to support the notion that some individuals are more nurturant in their behavior and activities than others. This study also presents other evidence to support the idea that variability in nurturance is related to individual differences in childrearing practices and level of paternal involvement.

This discussion will present descriptive findings to explain the variability among the subjects in this study. The evidence will be presented with regard to each hypothesis proposed.

Hypothesis 1

In terms of childrearing practices and attitudes, it was hypothesized that subjects high on nurturance (NUR) will not differ from subjects low on nurturance. The findings indicate that although the father varied in their level of nurturant behavior, they held similar attitudes and practices regarding childrearing. As a group, these fathers reportedly rear their children in a similar manner. Yet they differ in the frequency and manner in which they express nurturant behavior. While one father may be very involved in child care, encourages his child(ren) to discuss their problems, hugs and kisses his child(ren) often, another father may differ in that he occasionally

expresses physical affection toward his children. Or as a third possibility, a father may not be very involved in child care because of the time constraints of his job but looks forward to helping put his children to bed and reading to them. A fourth consideration is that the age of the child(ren) likely influences the type of nurturant behavior a father will express. As children get older, the kinds of interactions parents have with their child(ren) change. For example, an adolescent is not in need of child care, may be embarrassed by overt expression of affection, etc., whereas a toddler thrives on such interaction. Therefore fathers with older children will express nurturance differently from fathers with younger children. The variations in the level of nurturant behavior exhibited by the fathers in this sample, may not only be reflective of personality differences, but situational factors such as work schedule, age of children, etc.

Significant relationships were noted between NUR and the following subscales of the CRPR: (a) parental worry (WORRY), (b) enjoyment of parental role (ENJOYS), and (c) maternal authority (MAUTHR). An inference from these findings is that fathers who were high on NUR were less likely to endorse items such as "I worry about the bad and sad things that can happen to a child as he grows up." The data indicated that there is an inverse relationship between NUR and WORRY. In other words, fathers who view themselves as nurturant are less likely to worry about their child's well-being without probable cause. Their active involvement and knowledge about their child may serve to increase their feelings of confidence in their child being able to adapt and cope with their environment. Another inference from these results, with respect

to ENJOYS, is that fathers who are high on NUR tend to enjoy their role as a parent. They endorse more often such items as "I find some of my greatest satisfactions in my child." As the father's level of nurturance increases, so does his satisfaction in parenting and spending time with his children. A third inference from the correlation data is that fathers who are low on NUR tend to view childrearing and decisions about childrearing as the responsibility of the mother. These fathers more often endorsed the item "I think it is best if the mother, rather than the father, is the one with most authority over the children." The relationship between NUR and maternal authority is negative, suggesting that fathers who view themselves as nurturant tend to assume a more active role in childrearing, therefore sharing the responsibility of the childrearing with their spouses.

The fathers who do not perceive themselves to be nurturant and/or do not engage in nurturant-expressive interaction with their children, may view such behaviors as being feminine characteristics. Given such an attitude, they may assume that it is the natural responsibility of the mother to rear the children. Further, the low nurturant father may not have experienced nurturant parent-child interaction in his upbringing and may not feel comfortable behaving nurturantly or he may not know how to be more expressive. If so, the father may restrict his behavior to the traditional role of provider which may be less anxiety-provoking and leave the childrearing to the mother.

With respect to NP, the second measure of nurturance, the high and low groups differed significantly from one another in their use of guilt to control their children (CNTGLT). The data supports a trend that

fathers who are low on NP tend to use guilt more frequently to control their children than fathers who are high on NP. Given this assumption, it is likely that fathers who were low on NP in this study often endorsed the item, "I control my child by warning him about the bad things that can happen to him." The distinction made between highly nurturant and low nurturant fathers in their use of guilt induction raises the issue of the nature of the parent-child relationship. The developmentally enhancing influence of a nurturing parent-child relationship has been noted by a number of researchers (Baumrind, 1967; Parke, 1979; Payne and Mussen, 1956; Radin, 1976). The negative relationship found between nurturance and CNTGLT in this study suggests that the frequent use of guilt is incompatible with establishing a nurturing relationship. Rather than providing a developmentally enhancing environment, fathers low on nurturance who use guilt induction are likely to create feelings of guilt and apprehension in their children. In addition, the negative impact of the guilt induction approach is likely to be bi-directional, in that the child may be hesitant to approach the father for fear of violating some rule. Therefore, the likelihood of nurturant-expressive interactions are decreased. A guilt-ridden child also has difficulty mastering some of the important developmental tasks such as achieving autonomy, self-esteem, initiative and developing interpersonal maturity. A trend was also indicated which suggests that fathers who are highly nurturant differ in terms of their use of authoritarian control in childrearing. The correlational findings indicate that a negative relationship existed between authoritarian control and nurturance. Fathers who are highly

nurturant are less likely to use an authoritarian approach to childrearing.

Exhorting unquestioned parental authority is indeed an effective technique to control a child's behavior. For many fathers (and mothers) the hallmark of their effectiveness as parents is to have children who are obedient and well behaved. Fathers who have this narrow conception of childrearing may feel that cuddling a child or being very involved with them may encourage the child to be less constrained and obedient or such interactions may be viewed as "spoiling" the child.

In summary, a possible inference is that fathers who are low on the nurturant-expressive dimension of childrearing are not knowledgeable of the detrimental effects of the predominant use of guilt induction and authoritarian control upon a child's future socioemotional development. Such a parenting style has been associated with overanxious and/or inhibited behavior patterns as well as repressed aggression in children. If a lack of knowledge of alternative parenting styles is a main contributor to the excessive use of authoritarian control, the need for parent education is implied.

A significant relationship also existed between parental worry (WORRY), enjoyment of parental role (ENJOY), and nurturance (NP). As pointed out earlier, these two variables were also significantly correlated with nurturance (NUR). Similar inferences may be drawn from these findings, however, there are differences between NP and NUR that warrant attention.

The NUR and NP scales measure different aspects of nurturance. The NP scale measures nurturance in terms of sustaining relationships and

fostering respect between the parent and the child, whereas the NUR scale measures nurturance in terms of providing material and emotional benefits. The NP scale goes beyond measuring parental role behavior and taps into the interpersonal dynamics of the parent-child relationship. The different expressions of nurturance are likely to be reflected in various approaches to childrearing by the fathers. For example, the variable of control by guilt induction (CNTGLT) significantly distinguished the fathers who were low on nurturance (NP) from the fathers who were high on nurturance (NP). However, the NUR scale did not reveal this distinction.

Hypothesis 2

With regard to paternal involvement, it was hypothesized that fathers who were high on nurturance (NUR and NP) would not differ significantly from fathers with low nurturance scores. Attention will be directed first to the NUR measure of nurturance. In this study, paternal involvement was assessed in two areas: (a) participation in parenting tasks involving child care, and (b) expression of caring and attention. The fathers did not differ significantly from each other in the reported frequency of participation in tasks such as feeding the child, having sole responsibility for the child, setting limits, helping the child with personal problems, bathing and dressing the child, putting the child to bed, and helping the child to learn. The lack of significant variance between the groups suggests that the fathers in this study were similar in their views regarding how often or how much they are involved in child care. Empirical investigations of the spousal relationship of Black couples suggest that they are equalitarian

in nature (Bartz & Levine, 1978; Middleton & Putney, 1960). The sharing of responsibility by the husband and wife likely includes child care tasks and may be a partial explanation for the lack of difference between groups in the area of parenting tasks.

Nurturance may not have been a distinguishing characteristic in this particular aspect of childrearing due to the nature of the parenting tasks specified. Such activities as feeding the child, having sole responsibility for the child, setting limits, bathing and dressing the child, and putting the child to bed can be performed quite adequately by a father and yet lack the expression of warmth and responsivity that is highly associated with nurturant behavior. Although paternal involvement is a positive indication of nurturance, we should be alert to the affective atmosphere in which these tasks are performed as well as the frequency of such behaviors. Attending to a child's custodial needs day-to-day is basic for survival. However, homes which are characterized by warmth, sensitivity, acceptance and encourage autonomy, are more conducive to the future development of children to their potential.

Although the fathers did not differ in their rate of reported participation in child care, their perception of their overall level of involvement in child care is significantly related to nurturance. Such a finding is consistent with the general assumption that being involved in the care of your child is a characteristic of a "good father." It is not surprising then that the fathers in this study who viewed themselves as nurturant would also report being often involved in the day-to-day task of child care.

The very significant relationship between nurturance and the specific parenting tasks of putting a child to bed is unexpected. However, this finding may be explained in the context of the instrumental role of the father. In his role as major provider, the father is usually away from the home most of the day. The task of putting his child to bed at the end of the day is one activity that lends the opportunity for father and child to engage in one-to-one interactions. Research findings indicate that the parenting behavior of one parent decreases when the other parent is present (Belsky, 1979). Bedtime may be a time when paternal nurturant behavior is enhanced. It is activity that affords the opportunity for affectionate physical contact (e.g. tucking the covers around the child, kissing or patting the child "good night") or an opportunity to attend to their physical needs (i.e. getting the child a last sip of water). Bedtime can also be a time when the father can engage in an activity that will foster his child's cognitive-intellectual development such as reading a story to the child.

Significant differences between the high and low groups were obtained on the second measure of nurturance (NP) and certain parenting tasks. The fathers differed in the assessment of their overall level of involvement in child care and more specifically, how frequently he punished the child. These results support the position that nurturant parenting includes positive expressions of love and caring, and negative expression of nurturance such as admonishing a child for behavior that is not conducive to their future development. The differences exhibited between the groups in terms of paternal involvement and on the NP scale

may again be due to the somewhat different orientation of the two scales. The fathers who were high in nurturance (NP) may have differed from the father low on NP by endorsing more often that they help their child(ren) with personal problems and help their child(ren) to learn. These activities may have been more sensitive to the measure of nurturance (NP) in terms of sustaining relationship and fostering respect between the parent and the child and thus distinguishes the fathers by their level of nurturant behavior.

The second area of paternal involvement measured in this study was the frequency of the father's expressions of caring and attention toward his child. Fathers who scored high on nurturance (NUR) differed from fathers who scored low on nurturance in terms of how often he consoles his child. Although significant difference between the groups was not obtained on the second measure of nurturance (NP), a trend in the direction of group difference is suggested.

Further, a significant positive relationship was obtained between both measures of nurturance and how often the father reported hugging and kissing his child (FHUGKISS). A very significant relationship also was obtained between NUR and the father's reported frequency of making his child feel better (FMKFEBET). A borderline significant correlation was obtained between this variable and the NP measure of nurturance. These findings suggest that fathers who perceive themselves to be quite nurturant are more likely to physically express their love and affection toward their child(ren) and to console them than fathers who are low on nurturance. Further, the significantly positive relationship between these variables (i.e. FHUGKISS and FMKFEBET) and nurturance is

consistent with other research that defines nurturance in terms of observable expressions of affection and caring (Reutter & Biller, 1973; Baumrind, 1967).

Hypothesis 3

Research findings have supported the hypothesis that the quality of marriage influences parenting characteristics (Belsky, 1979, 1981; Pedersen, Anderson & Cain, 1980). It was hypothesized that there would be no significant difference between fathers who scored high or low on marital adjustment in their degree of parental involvement.

The Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) by Spanier (1976) measures marital or dyadic adjustment in terms of four components: (a) dyadic satisfaction, (b) dyadic cohesion, (c) affectional expression, and (d) dyadic consensus. Marital adjustment, an indicator of overall marital quality, is defined by Spanier as an "ever-changing process" in the degree of satisfaction, cohesion, affectional expression and consensus perceived by the individuals in the dyadic relationship. The associations between marital quality and parental involvement will be discussed in terms of the four components of marital adjustment and the overall dyadic adjustment score (DAS) as they relate to the two areas of parental involvement: participation in parenting tasks and expressions of caring and attention.

The level of overall marital adjustment (DAS) was not found to distinguish the fathers in regard to their degree of participation in parenting tasks and their expression of caring, attentive behavior toward their child(ren). The homogeneity of this sample is again reflected in the similarity among the fathers in paternal involvement

and the overall quality of their marriages.

However, when marital quality was examined more closely in terms of the various components of marital adjustment (i.e. consensus, satisfaction cohesion, and affective expression) some differences were obtained between the groups. The influence of marital quality upon parenting was strongly suggested by the many significant relationships found between various types of paternal behavior and the four components of marital adjustment.

With respect to marital consensus and parenting tasks, fathers in the high and low groups differed only on the parenting task that measured the father's involvement in punishing his children. It may be inferred that husbands who view themselves and their wives as often being capable of coming to an agreement on matters of importance to the functioning of their relationship, are more likely to be involved in disciplining their children. Specifically, in a harmonious marital relationship it is likely that the husband and wife are also able to discuss and agree upon the degree of participation by each party in childrearing issues such as disciplining of their children.

The fact that the groups differed solely on the variable measuring the father's involvement in punishing the child(ren) is of interest. One possible explanation is based in earlier findings of this study. First, low nurturant fathers indicated in their responses that it is best if the mother has authority over the children. Second, low nurturant fathers spend less time discussing parenting issues. Although not presented as a formal hypothesis, the relationship between marital adjustment and nurturance was investigated statistically. Third, the

correlational findings indicated that the higher the level of marital adjustment the more nurturant the father reported to be. Therefore, fathers low in marital adjustment, specifically, low marital consensus, are likely low in nurturance and hold the attitude that the mother should play the predominant role in the rearing of children. The inference that may then be drawn is that low consensus fathers feel that punishing the child(ren) is the mother's responsibility and therefore would be less involved in this task. Furthermore, fathers low in consensus, who hold such a narrow perception of parenting, are less likely to see a need to discuss parenting issues, further decreasing the likelihood of establishing a consensual marital relationship.

Marital consensus was found to have an enhancing effect upon other aspects of paternal behavior. For example, the more fathers perceived themselves and their wives as being able to agree upon important familial/marital issues, the more they engaged in attentive, caring behavior such as hugging and kissing their child(ren), consoling them, etc. The positive influence of an amiable marital relationship was shown not only to enhance overtly nurturant paternal behavior, but the fathers participation in household chores was also facilitated. In a consensual spousal relationship the father may achieve a feeling of importance as his ideas, opinions, etc. are recognized and accepted by the family. Such acceptance may serve to validate his feelings of self-worth thus raising his level of self-esteem. The more confident the father feels in his role as husband/father the more he is likely to participate in the various tasks of family life.

Another explanation for these findings is that the psychological factors contributing to the father having a close, caring relationship with his wife may also be manifested in his behavior toward his children. In other words, fathers high on marital consensus may have an overall good ability to form adaptive relationships with a variety of individuals.

The natural assumption can be made that if spouses are able to come to mutual agreement upon matters important to the well-being of their relationship and the functioning of the family, then they are likely to feel satisfied with their marital relationship. In accordance with this assumption, the fathers in this study perceived their marriages to be satisfying. These fathers were very involved in parenting tasks and they were caring and attentive to their child(ren). A satisfying spousal relationship may free the father of emotional energy that he can invest to build or strengthen the father-child relationship. The father also may be motivated to participate in child care activities as a means of acknowledging to his wife his appreciation for the satisfaction he derives from their relationship. Whatever the motive, the father's increased caretaking behavior will be a direct positive influence upon the quality of his relationship with his children and be an indirect positive influence upon his marital relationship.

Togetherness and sharing may epitomize our concept of marriage. Having the capacity to share one's thoughts, hopes, fears, etc. as well as spending time together in various activities are felt to be essential qualities for building intimate relationships. These qualities, which were assessed on the Dyadic Cohesion Subscale, were found to be common

in the marital relationships of the fathers in this study.

Concurrently, a significant degree of involvement in parenting tasks and expressively nurturant behavior was also reported by the sample. These findings continue to support the hypothesis that marital quality influences parenting behavior. The pattern of relating that is characteristic of the marital subsystem is also likely to characterize the parent-child subsystem. In other words, fathers who are able to establish a close, involved relationship with their wives are predisposed to build a cohesive relationship with their child(ren).

Although a cohesive marital relationship was not a factor that distinguished the groups in terms of their participation in various parenting tasks, the sample significantly differed in terms of attentive, caring behavior. Fathers whose responses indicated that they often spend time with their wives talking or engaging in other activities were also more likely to openly express their love and caring for their child(ren). The multifaceted influence of marital quality is also reflected by the fact that the fathers who perceived their marital relationship to be cohesive reported being satisfied with their active involvement in household chores as well.

The findings on the Father's Caring and Attention variables lend strong support to the notion that there is a link between marital quality and parenting behavior. A possible reason for the highly significant association between the various components of marital adjustment and the father's caring and attentive behaviors may be in the nature of the items themselves. Most of the items of the Father's Caring and Attention questionnaire and many of the items of the Dyadic

Adjustment Scale can be more clearly identified as measures of behavioral expressions of nurturance. For example, hugs and kisses are common behavioral expressions of affection which a father may demonstrate to his wife or his child(ren).

The strongest indication of a link between marital quality and parenting behavior was revealed on the affective expression component of marital adjustment. Although the items on the Dyadic Adjustment Scale that measure affective expression are limited in scope (i.e. focused on agreement regarding sexual relations and showing love), this component of marital adjustment yielded the greatest degree of distinction between fathers who are high and low on marital adjustment in terms of parenting tasks and the fathers attentive, caring behavior. The findings indicated that fathers with marital relationships that are characterized by open expressions of affection participate in various parenting tasks from basic child care to more expressively nurturant behaviors such as consoling the child(ren) or hugging and kissing them more often than fathers who did not characterize their spousal relationship in this manner. The findings are consistent with other research findings which suggest that good marital relationships facilitate active, nurturant involvement in parenting by the father (Pederson, Anderson & Cain, 1980; Belsky, 1981; Goldberg & Easterbrook, 1984).

The findings from this study indicated that fathers who perceived their marriage to be overall satisfying, cohesive and characterized by expressions of affection are more likely to feel good about his involvement in caring for his children and household chores, to show love and affection physically and verbally to his children, to help his

children with personal problems and to make them feel better when they are distressed. Overwhelmingly, these findings support the notion that the better the father's level of marital adjustment the more he is likely to be attentive to his children and to be demonstratively caring. Further, it is also likely that a positive, supportive spousal relationship and a nurturant parent-child relationship are reciprocally enhancing.

Hypothesis 4

In terms of childrearing practices and attitudes, it was hypothesized that fathers high on marital adjustment would not differ from fathers who were low on marital adjustment in childrearing practices and attitudes. A number of studies have demonstrated that the dynamics of the husband-wife relationship influences parenting behavior (Belsky, 1979, 1981; Clarke-Stewart, 1978).

The t test results of the four components of marital adjustment revealed little variability between fathers in the high and low groups with regard to childrearing practices. The small amount of inter-group variability suggests that the sample was homogeneous in nature. Only a few childrearing variables were shown to distinguish the high and low groups on each of the four components of marital adjustment. These findings will now be addressed.

Statistical analyses provided consistent support for the finding that fathers who characterized their marriages as being high on spousal consensus viewed supervision of the child as being a significant aspect of childrearing. It may be conjectured that spouses who have a high degree of marital consensus regularly monitor the thoughts, feelings,

and actions of one another in order to maintain that level of mutual agreement in their relationship. Conceivably, this style of interaction is also exhibited in the father's parental role as well. Therefore, he would monitor the thoughts, feelings, behaviors, and whereabouts of his child in order to maintain a level of parenting effectiveness he believes is appropriate.

Paternal supervision may be viewed as an expression of nurturance. Fathers who assume responsibility for knowing the whereabouts of their children, who they usually associate with, etc. are behaving in a manner consistent with the goal of fostering future development. Children whose parents monitor their activities, friends, and express interest in their concerns and problems are likely to feel secure and valued. The importance of parental supervision (or monitoring) can be discerned from another perspective. Studies of family factors that are associated with delinquency have identified a lack of parental monitoring as being significantly associated with delinquency and differentiating moderate from repeat offenders (Patterson & Stouthamer-Loeber, 1984). Children who have a feeling of self-worth and view their home environment as stable and dependable, may in turn behave in a mature, responsible manner. The need for parental monitoring may be lessened enough to allow the parents more opportunities for husband-wife interactions which may facilitate cohesiveness, satisfaction, etc. in their marital relationship.

The fathers in the high and low groups on marital satisfaction differed significantly with regard to encouraging independence in their children. Fathers in the high group reportedly respect the opinions of

their children, encourages them to make decisions for themselves, and teaches their children to be responsible for their behavior. However, within the context of less optimal marital relations, paternal behavior may not facilitate the development of autonomy. Research findings have indicated that marital conflict has a more harmful impact on the socioemotional development of the child than the structural composition of the home (Rutter, 1979).

How often a couple spends time together in various activities, such as exchanging ideas, laughing or working on a project, etc. is an important and valid indication of the quality of their marital relationship. In regard to dyadic cohesiveness, the high and low groups differed significantly in their attitudes concerning how much achievement should be emphasized in rearing children. The groups were also distinguished, although not to a significant degree, by their attitudes in reference to encouraging openness of expression, having a non-punitive orientation to punishment, and whether the father reported enjoying the parental role. It may be inferred that fathers who often spend time with their wives, sharing ideas, experiences, and various tasks would interact in a similar manner with their children. When fathers express an interest in sharing in the concerns, interests, and activities of his children, it encourages them to express their ideas, to talk about their troubles, and to question things. Effective parenting clearly involves spending time with the children not only to attend to their custodial needs, but also to engage in mutually pleasurable and developmentally enhancing activities as well. As the findings suggest, fathers who were high on dyadic cohesiveness reported

enjoying the parental role more often than fathers who are low on this variable. The association between marital cohesiveness and childrearing practices that emphasized achievement and a non-punitive orientation to punishment may be explained in terms of the amiable atmosphere that exists within the family and the father's nurturant traits. A nurturant father who values cohesiveness within his family may be less inclined to be punitive in disciplining his children. Such fathers may be more likely to use positive approaches to influence his children such as emphasizing achievement. However, correlational data indicated that the relationship between emphasis on achievement and the cohesiveness components of marital adjustment is negative. The unexpected inverse relationship found between achievement and dyadic cohesion may also be explained in terms of the father's tendency to be nurturing. Perhaps the items of the achievement subscale are worded in such a manner that the behaviors described may have been interpreted by the father to be more anxiety-provoking than developmentally enhancing. Fathers who value close, satisfying, and affectionate familial relationships are less likely to encourage their children to engage in activities he feels will be more detrimental than helpful to them.

The affective expression component of marital adjustment assessed in this study included agreement between the partners on how affection is demonstrated and whether there were problems in the couple's sexual relationship. On this subscale the groups differed very significantly on the childrearing variables' emphasis on achievement and supervision of the child. Inferences previously discussed in regard to dyadic consensus and dyadic cohesion and the latter variables are also

applicable in this instance.

Contrary to what may have been expected, fathers who were high on affective expression in their marital relationship did not differ from fathers who reported that this was a problematic aspect of their marriage on openingly expressing affect toward their children. The lack of differentiation may be explained in terms of the instrument used to assess affective expression in the marital relationship. The Dyadic Adjustment Scale assesses affective expression in terms of "showing love" and "being too tired for sex" in a yes or no forced choice format. Perhaps a broader assessment of various behavioral expressions of affection (i.e. hugging, kissing, holding, etc.) which would be appropriate in interaction with children, would have yielded different results.

An overall measure of marital quality was obtained by combining the scores of the four components of marital adjustment to obtain a dyadic adjustment score (DAS). The t test results of overall marital adjustment with regard to childrearing practices and attitudes yielded no significant differences between the groups. However, a trend toward a significant difference between the high and low groups on marital adjustment was seen on the following variables: (a) emphasis on achievement, (b) supervision of the child, and (c) encouragement of independence. The use of a larger sample may have produced greater distinction between the groups in terms of overall dyadic adjustment.

Although the sample as a whole held similar views regarding childrearing practices and attitudes, the variables supervision of the child, emphasis on achievement, and encouragement of independence

surfaced repeatedly as factors which significantly distinguished the fathers in relation to the various components of marital adjustment. The findings of this investigation suggest that evaluating the various aspects of marital adjustment may be more informative in distinguishing paternal childrearing attitudes and practices than assessing the influence of marital adjustment on parenting based upon a global dyadic adjustment score.

Methodological Concerns

The accuracy and utility of the research findings are directly related to the reliability and validity of the research design. The instruments chosen for this study have limitations that may have negatively affected the reliability of the findings. The limitations of self-report instruments including the tendency to respond in a socially desirable manner, selective or faulty memory and idiosyncratic interpretation of direction were likely operable in this study. The Q-sort format for administration of the Child-rearing Practices Report was selected to minimize response set, subject defensiveness and because it has proven to be appropriate for use across different cultures. However, the Q-sort format is a cognitive task requiring focused attention for a sustained period of time. Those subjects who were less ego-involved in the task may have had difficulty focusing their attention long enough to evaluate each of the statements as instructed. It is possible that such individuals may have arbitrarily or randomly distributed the statements into the seven descriptive categories. Another instrument that raised some concerns was the Dyadic Adjustment Scale. The Affective Expression subscale was quite vague and

limited in its assessment of affective expression. The subscale did not allow for a more comprehensive evaluation of the subjects' affective expressions, thus limiting the information necessary to assess the role that affective expression plays in overall marital adjustment and its relationship to childrearing.

The generality of the findings is limited due to the characteristics of the participants used in the study. The majority of the subjects were well educated, employed, once married fathers who tended to be active in the church. Given that different social and cultural groups vary in parenting styles, the lack of diversity among the sample may have limited the variability among subjects' level of nurturance. Generalizing these results beyond such a population would likely lead to erroneous conclusions. The relatively small sample also contributed to a restricted range of scores.

Further, in this study data was obtained from fathers directly regarding their parenting role. Recognizing the reciprocity of influence within familial subsystems, the lack of data from the spouse does not provide information regarding the mother's perception of the father in his parenting role, nor information regarding the mother's perception of the level of marital adjustment. Having this additional information would provide a more thorough analysis of the father's role in parenting as well as the relationship between marital adjustment and parenting. An interview with both the father and mother may have better lend itself to obtaining information that would allow cross-validation regarding the father's role.

Future Research

In order to further enlighten our understanding of the nature of father-child interactions within the Black family, more studies are needed. In particular, there is a need for descriptive studies that focus on identifying the adaptive patterns of parent-child interactions in functional families. Such studies may serve to disspell some of the myths regarding the Black family which have been the predominate focus of earlier studies.

Investigations employing more than one method of data collection would likely provide a more valid assessment of paternal behavior and family interaction patterns. For example, in addition to directly assessing the family via interviews and paper-pencil tests, the research design could also include direct observations of father-child(ren) interactions as well as observation of the family functioning as a unit. Video recording of such interactions would provide potentially permanent records which would allow researchers to study interaction patterns in more detail in terms of the frequency of verbalizations, the type of verbalizations (i.e. praise, scolding, giving directions, inquiring, etc.) and emotional tone of verbalizations. The patterns of who initiates contact and how often between parent and child(ren) may also be studied. Observations should be made of parent-child interactions in a variety of situations to ascertain the consistency of nurturant paternal behavior across various parenting tasks.

Recognizing the multidirectional influence of family subsystems, obtaining information from the mother regarding her role in the family and her perception of the father's participation, etc. in childrearing

would be advisable. In situations where appropriate, investigators may also obtain data regarding paternal behavior from the child(ren) in the family as well. Such information would serve to validate responses given by the father as well as provide the researcher with a more comprehensive assessment of the family system.

Future studies are also needed to investigate the differential influence of age and sex of the child(ren) upon paternal behavior. Longitudinal studies of intact families across social classes would shed some additional light on the diversity of parenting styles and the changes that occur in parental behavior and patterns of parent-child interaction as the child(ren) progress developmentally from infancy to adulthood.

In addition to assessing the paternal role in terms of attitude and specific behavior, attention should also be given to understanding what the father perceives as his role or his definition of fatherhood, his expectations, and what factors he feels places constraints upon his ability to execute his role effectively.

Implications

The quality of parenting has been unquestioningly accepted as having a significant impact on child development. Research that further explores parental attitudes and behaviors as it relates to the quality of parenting and subsequently child developmental outcomes adds to the fund of information available to the research and applied community. In general, this study contributes to the overall pool of knowledge in the area of parenting and specifically to the pool of information regarding the parenting style of Black fathers. In addition, there are some

implications from the findings that deserve mentioning.

Within the research literature nurturance has been identified as a crucial component of effective parenting. Traditionally, the nurturant-expressive role has been associated with the mother who was primarily responsible for providing physical care and open expressions of love to the child. This study pointed out that the Black fathers who described themselves as nurturant also engaged in child care activities as well as share in household chores. In addition, the fathers acknowledged a style of parent-child interactions that is characterized by warmth, attentiveness, and physical expressions of caring. These findings indicate that in addition to performing the traditional instrumental role of providing for the financial needs of the family, these fathers were also nurturant and expressive in their parenting behavior. The nurturant-instrumental dichotomization of parental roles may have, unfortunately, helped to shape the perception of researchers, theorists, and practitioners to view fathers as distant and uninvolved in the everyday activities associated with childrearing. The notion of the dysfunctional Black family, which has predominated social science research, may have accentuated this perception in reference to Black fathers. Perhaps by broadening the definition of nurturance to mean behaviors that foster future development, the father's instrumental role can also be viewed as nurturant behavior. Providing food, clothing, shelter, education, and other financial needs are obviously necessary to fostering a child's future development. Defining nurturance in this more inclusive manner diminishes the distinctions made between the maternal and paternal role and helps to erode the stereotypic view of

fathers as being uninvolved. Subsequently, social scientists and practitioners can devote their attentions to describing and analyzing the multifacted nature of family functioning and come to have an increasing appreciation for the diversity and richness of the paternal role.

There are other implications that may be drawn from the findings of the study which are directly applicable to the clinical setting. First, the success of any therapeutic intervention depends upon the quality of the therapeutic alliance established between the therapist and client. Given the predominantly negative portrayal of Black fathers--in the literature and in the culture--as being absent or passively involved in the family, a practitioner may have preconceived ideas regarding the workability of Black fathers in treatment. The findings of this investigation offer practitioners an alternate, positive perspective on the Black father and his parenting role. Specifically, Black fathers in this study were found to be warm, caring and affectionate in their interactions with there child(ren) as well as being actively involved in a variety of parenting tasks. Further, the fathers acknowledged childrearing attitudes and behaviors that are consistent with the ideal and standards of the major society (e.g. emphasizing achievement, encouraging independence, believing children need supervision, etc.). It is likely a practitioner has a value system that incorporates these attitudes and therefore would find it easier to establish rapport and a good working relationship with a client who has ideals similar to his own.

Furthermore, as the predictive utility of nurturance improves, practitioners will have a valuable criterion for assessing an individual's capacity for forming and maintaining adaptive relationships within the family unit. Once such information is obtained, it may be used in formulating treatment plans and evaluating prognosis.

Second, the increasing recognition of the reciprocity of influence of familial subsystems has caused researchers to investigate the association between marital quality and parenting attitudes and behaviors. The findings of this study supported the notion of this link. In particular, it was found that frequent involvement in various parenting tasks and nurturant parenting attitudes and behaviors were common to the fathers who perceived their marital relationship as good. These findings also suggest that it may be therapeutically beneficial for marriage and family therapists and other clinical practitioners to evaluate the level of marital adjustment as a component in assessing paternal effectiveness and overall family functioning. The marital characteristics of cohesion, consensus, open expression of affect, and satisfaction are variables a practitioner may assess in determining the level of marital adjustment. If applicable, a practitioner may then focus on developing or strengthening these marital qualities as a means of indirectly enhancing the parental role.

LIST OF REFERENCES

LIST OF REFERENCES

- Adorno, T., Frenkel-Brunsurk, E., Levinson, D. & Sanford, R. (1950). The authoritarian personality. New York: Harper.
- Badaines, J. (1976). Identification, imitation, and sex-role preferences in father-present and father-absent Black and Chicano boys. The Journal of Psychology, 92, 15-24.
- Bandura, A. & Huston, A. (1961). Identification as a process of incidental learning. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 63, 311-318.
- Bartz, K. & Levine, E. (1978, November). Childrearing by Black parents: A description and comparison to Anglo and Chicano parents. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 40(4), 709-719.
- Baumrind, D. (1967). Childcare practices anteceding three patterns of preschool behavior. Genetic Psychology Monograph, 75, 43-88.
- Baumrind, D. (1968, Fall). Authoritarian vs. authoritative control. Adolescence, 3, 255-272.
- Baumrind, D. (1972). An exploratory study of socialization effects on Black children: Some black-white comparisons. Child Development, 43, 261-267.
- Becker, W. (1964). Consequences of different kinds of parental discipline. In M. L. Hoffman & L. W. Hoffman (Eds.), Review of child development: Vol. I (pp. 169-208). New York: Russell Sage Foundation.
- Belsky, J. (1979, November). The interrelation of parental and spousal behavior during infancy in traditional nuclear families: An exploratory analysis. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 41(4), 749-755.
- Belsky, J. (1981). Early human experience: A family perspective. Developmental Psychology, 17, 3-19.
- Biller, H. (1968). A note on father absence and masculine development in lower-class Negro and white boys. Child Development, 39, 1003-1006.
- Biller, H. (1971b). Father, child and sex role. Lexington, MA: Heath.
- Billingsley (1968). Black families in white America. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Blassingame, J. (1972). The slave community: Plantation life in the antebellum south. New York: Oxford University Press.

- Blauner, R. (1969, Spring). Internal colonialism and ghetto revolt. Social Problems, 16, 393-408.
- Block, J. (1965). The Child-rearing Practices Report (CRPR): A set of Q items for the description of parental socialization attitudes and values. Berkeley: Institute of Human Development, University of California (In mimeo).
- Bowlby, J. (1951). Maternal care and mental health. Geneva: WHO.
- Burgess, E. & Locke, H. (1945). The family. New York: American Book Company.
- Cazenave, N. (1979). Middle-income Black fathers: An analysis of the provider role. Family Coordinator, 28, 583-593.
- Clark, K. (1965). Dark ghetto. New York: Harper & Row.
- Clark-Stewart, K. (1978). And daddy makes three: The father's impact on mother and young child. Child Development, 49, 466-478.
- Collier, L., Mitchell, L., Sandidge, V. & Smith, R. (1973). The effects of the father-absent home on "lower class" Black adolescents. Educational Question, 17(1), 11-14.
- Conger, J. (1971). A world they never knew: The family and social change. Daedalus, 1105-1138.
- Davids, L. (1972). Research article: Fatherhood and comparative social research. International Journal of Comparative Sociology, 13, 217-222.
- Dickie, J., Schuurman, S., & Schang, B. (1980, September). Mothers, fathers and infants--What makes the triad work? Paper presented at the meeting of the American Psychological Association, Montreal, Canada.
- Durrett, M., O'Bryant, S., & Pennebaker, J. (1975, June). Child-rearing reports of white, Black and Mexican-American families. Developmental Psychology, 11, 871.
- Fein, R. (1976). Men's entrance to parenthood. Family Coordinator, 25, 341-345.
- Feiring, C. (1975). The influence of the child and secondary parent on maternal behavior: Toward a social systems view of early infant-mother attachment. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh.
- Fogel, A., & Melson, G., & Mistry, J. (1986). In A. Fogel & G. F. Melson (Eds.), Origins of nurturance: Developmental, biological and cultural perspectives on caregiving (pp. 53-67). Hillsdale, NJ:

L. Erlbaum.

Fraizer, E. (1939). The Negro family in the United States. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Fraizer, E. (1957b). The Negro in the United States (rev. ed.). New York: MacMillan.

Freud, S. (1909). Analysis of a phobia in a five-year old boy. In The social enlightenment of children. New York: Collier.

Freud, S. (1923). The ego and the id. New York: Norton.

Freud, S. (1924). The passing of the Oedipus Complex. In Collected Papers: Vol 2. London: Hogarth.

Furstenburg, F., Hershberg, T. & Modell, J. (1975). The origins of the female headed family: The impact of urban experience. Journal of Interdisciplinary History, 6, 211-233.

Geismar, L. & Gerhart, U. (1968, August). Social class, ethnicity, and family functioning: Exploring some issues raised by the Moynihan Report. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 480-487.

Goldberg, W. & Easterbrook, M. (1984). Role of marital quality in toddler development. Developmental Psychology, 20(3), 504-514.

Gough, H. & Heilbrun, A. (1983). The Adjective Check List Manual. Palo Alto: Consulting Psychologist Press.

Gutman, H. (1976). The Black family in slavery and freedom: 1750-1925. New York: Panthenon Books.

Henneborn, W. & Cogan, C. (1975). The effects of husband participation on reported pain and probability of medication during labor and birth. Journal of Psychosomatic Research, 19, 215-222.

Herskovits, M. (Ed.). (1966). The new world Negro. Bloomington: Indiana Press.

Hetherington, E. & Deur, J. (1971). The effects of father absence on child development. Young children, 26, 233-248.

Hetherington, E., Cox, M., & Cox, R. (1976). Divorced fathers. Family Coordinator, 25, 417-428.

Hill, R. (1971). The strength of Black families. New York: Emerson Hall.

Kagan, J. (1958). The concept of identification. Psychological Review, 5, 297-305.

- Lamb, M. (1976). Effects of stress and cohort on mother-and father-infant interaction. Developmental Psychology, 12, 435-443.
- Lamb, M. (1981). The role of the father in child development. New York: John Wiley & Son.
- Lamb, M. (1982). Paternal influence on early socio-emotional development. Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry and Allied Disciplines, 23, 185-190.
- Lewis, D. (1975, Fall). The Black family: Socialization and sex roles. Phylon, 36, 221-237.
- Lewis, M. & Weinraub, M. (1976). The father's role in the infant's social network. In M. E. Lamb (Ed.), The role of the father in child development (pp. 157 -184). New York: Wiley.
- Lieberman, L. (1973). The emergency mode of the Black family. International Journal of Sociology of the Family, 3(1), 10-22.
- Liebow, E. (1967). Tally's corner: A study of Negro streetcorner men. Boston: Little, Brown.
- Lynn, D. (1974). The father: His role in child development. Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole.
- Mack, D. (1978). The power relationship in Black families and white families. In R. Staples (Ed.), The Black family (pp. 144-149). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Mackie, J., Lloyd, D., & Rofferty, F. (1974, June). The father's influence on the intellectual level of Black ghetto children. American Journal of Public Health, 64, 615-616.
- Martin, B. (1975). Parent-child relations. In F. D. Horowitz (Ed.), Review of child development research (pp. 463-540). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Mathis, A. (1978, November). Contrasting approaches to the study of Black families. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 40(4), 667-676.
- Meerloo, J. (1968, Spring). The psychological role of the father. Child & Family, 102-116.
- Middleton, R. & Putney, S. (1960). Dominance in decisions in the family: Race and class differences. In C. V. Willie (Ed.), The family life of Black people (pp. 16-22). Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill.
- Moulton, R. (1971). Parents as models for mobile and low-mobile Black males. Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 19(4), 147-153.

- Moynihan, D. (1965, March). The Negro family: The case for national action. Office of Policy Planning and Research. United States Dept. of Labor. In L. Rainwater & W. Yancy (Eds.), The Moynihan Report and the politics of controversy (pp. 47-99). Michigan: M. I. T. Press, 1967.
- Mussen, P. & Parker, A. (1965). Mother nurturance and girls' incidental imitative learning. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 2(1), 94-97.
- McAdoo, J. (1979, January). Father-child interaction patterns and self-esteem in Black preschool children. Young children, 34(2), 46-53.
- McAdoo, J. (1981). Black fathers and child interactions. In L. E. Gray (Ed.), Black men (pp. 115-130). Beverly Hills: Sage Publications.
- McAdoo, J. (1986). Black fathers' relationships with their preschool children and the children's development of ethnic identity. In R. A. Lewis & R. E. Salt (Eds.), Men in families (pp. 169-181). Beverly Hills: Sage Publications.
- Nobles, W. (1974, June). Africanity: Its role in Black families. The Black Scholar, 5, 10-17.
- Nobles, W. (1975). A formulative and empirical study of Black families (DHEW Publication OCD-90-C-255). San Francisco: Westside Community Mental Health Center.
- Nobles, W. (1978, November). Toward an empirical and theoretical framework for defining Black families. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 40(4), 679-688.
- Nobles, W. (1981). African-American family life: An instrument of culture. In H. P. McAdoo (Ed.), Black families (pp. 77-102). Beverly Hills: Sage Publications.
- Parke, R. (1967, December). Nurturance, nurturance withdrawal, and resistance to duration. Child Development, 38(4), 1101-1110.
- Parke, R. (1979). Perspectives in father-infant interaction. In J. D. Osofsky (Ed.), Handbook of infancy (pp. 549-590). New York: Wiley.
- Parke, R. Power, T. & Gottman, J. (1979). Conceptualizing and quantifying influence patterns in the family triad. In M. E. Lamb, S. J. Suomi, & G. R. Stephenson (Eds.), Social interaction analysis: Methodological issues (pp. 231-252). Madison: University of Wisconsin Press.
- Parker, S. & Kleiner, R. (1969, August). Social and psychological dimensions of the family role performance of the Negro male. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 31(3), 500-506.

- Parson, T. and Bales, R. (1955). Family, socialization and interaction process. Glencoe, IL: Free Press.
- Payne, D. & Mussen, P. (1956). Parent-child relations and father-identification among adolescent boys. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 52, 358-362.
- Pedersen, F. (1981). Father influence reviewed in a family context. In M. L. Lamb (Ed.), The role of the father in child development (pp. 295-317). New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Pedersen, F., Anderson, B. & Cain, R. (1980). Parent-infant and husband-wife interactions observed at age 5 months old. In F. A. Pedersen (Ed.), The father-infant relationship: Observational studies in the family setting. New York: Praeger.
- Pedersen, F., Yarrow, L., Anderson, B. & Cain, R. (1979a). Conceptualization of father influence in the infancy period. In M. Lewis & L. Rosenbaum (Eds.), The social network of the developing infant. New York: Plenum.
- Peters, M. (1981). Parenting in Black families with young children: A historical perspective. In H. P. McAdoo (Ed.), Black Families (pp. 211-224). Beverly Hills: Sage Publications.
- Price, G. (1977). Factors influencing reciprocity in early mother-infant interactions. Paper presented at the meeting of the Society for Research in Child Development, New Orleans, LA.
- Price-Bonham, S. & Skeen, P. (1976), January). A comparison of Black and white fathers with implications for parent education. Family Coordinator, 28(1), 53-59.
- Pruett, K. (1987). The nurturing father: Journey toward the complete man. New York: Warner Communications.
- Radin, N. (1972). Father-child interaction and intellectual functioning of four-year old boys. Developmental Psychology, 6, 353-361.
- Radin, N. (1982). Primary caregiving and role-sharing fathers. In M. Lamb (Ed.), Nontraditional families: Parenting and child development (pp. 173-204). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Radin, N. & Kamii, C. (1965, Spring). The child-rearing attitudes of disadvantaged Negro mothers and some educational implications. Journal of Negro Education, 34, 138-146.
- Rainwater, L. (1966b). Crucible of identity: The lower-class Negro family. Daedalus, 95, 172-216.
- Reuter, M. & Biller, H. (1973). Perceived paternal nurturance-availability and personality adjustment among college

- males. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 40(3), 339-342.
- Rubin, R. (1974). Adult male absence and the self-attitudes of Black children. Child Study Journal, 4(1), 33-45.
- Rubin, R. (1978), January). Matriachal themes in Black literature: Implications for family life education. Family Coordinator, 27, 33-41.
- Sanford, R. (1955). The dynamics of identification. Psychological Review, 62(2), 106-118.
- Scanzoni, J. (1972). The Black family in modern society. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Schaefer, E. (1959). A circumplex model for maternal behavior. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 59, 226-235.
- Schaefer, E. (1965a). Children's reports of parental behavior. Child Development, 36, 413-424.
- Schaefer, E. (1965b). A configural analysis of children's reports of parental behavior. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 29, 552-557.
- Schulz, D. (1969). Variations in the father role in complete families of the Negro lower class. Social Science Quarterly, 49(3), 651-659.
- Shereshefsy, P. & Yarrow, L. (1973). Psychological aspect of the first pregnancy and early post-natal adaptation. New York: Raven Press.
- Spanier, G. (1976). Measuring dyadic adjustment: New scales for assessing the quality of marriage and similar dyads. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 38, 15-32.
- Staples, R. (1969), July). Research on the Negro family: A source for family practitioners. Family Coordinator, 18, 202-209.
- Staples, R. (1970a). Educating the Black male at various class levels for marital roles. Family Coordinator, 20, 164-167.
- Staples, R. (1970b). The myth of Black matriarchy. The Black Scholar, 1, 9-16.
- Staples, R. (1971, February). Toward a sociology of the Black family: A theoretical and methodological assessment. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 33(1), 119-138.
- Staples, R. (1976). The Black American family. In C. H. Mindel and R. W. Habenstein (Eds.), Ethnic families in America (pp. 221-247). New York: Elsevier Press.

- Stokes, S. (1950). An inquiry into the concept of identification. In W. E. Martin & C. B. Stendler (Eds.), Readings in child development (pp. 163-189). New York: Harcourt, Brace, World.
- Switzky, L., Vietze, D. & Switzky, H. (1979). Attitudinal and demographic predictors of breast-feeding and bottle-feeding behavior in mothers of six-week-old infants. Psychological Reports, 45, 3-14.
- Tabb, W. (1971, Spring). Race relations model and social change. Social Problems, 18, 431-444.
- Tenhouten, W. (1970). The Black family: Myth or reality. Psychiatry, 33, 145-173.
- Walters, J. & Stinnett, N. (1971, February). Parent-child relationships: A decade review of research. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 33, 70-111.
- Walters, J. & Walters, L. (1980). Parent-child relationships: A review 1970 - 1979. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 42, 807-822.
- Wasserman, H. (1969, June). Father-absent and father-present lower class Negro families: A comparative study of family functioning. Dissertation Abstracts, 29(11), 4569-4570. (University Microfilms No. 69-8919).
- Willie, C. (1970). The family life of Black people. Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill.
- Willie, C. (1976). A new look at Black families. Bayside, NY: General Hall.
- Willie, C. & Greenblatt, S. (1978, November). Four "classic" studies of power relationships in Black families: A review and look to the future. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 40(4), 691-694.
- Young, V. (1970, April). Family and childhood in a southern Negro community. American Anthropologist, 72(2), 269-288.
- Zaslow, M., Pedersen, F., Kramer, E. & Cain, R. (1981, April). Postpartum depression in new fathers. Paper presented at the meeting of the Society for Research in Child Development, Boston, MA.

APPENDIX
RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

Information and Consent Form

This research is being conducted for the purpose of fulfilling graduate requirements for the doctorate degree in clinical psychology. It is to this end that the investigator is requesting your participation.

The objective of the study is to further investigate the nurturant dimension of father-child relations and its interrelationship to attitudes and behaviors regarding childrearing, to parental marital quality, and to the father's personality dynamics.

The investigator is aware of the potentially anxiety arousing nature of the topic of parenting. Given this awareness the investigator will take the following precautions: (1) As desired by subject, the investigator will be available to explore expectations and concerns about the study as well as to answer questions about the research instruments to be used. (2) The investigator will also be available to provide feedback as requested by subject(s) as to subject's participation and additional information about the study when such information is available.

Participation in this study is voluntary. The subject has the right to withdraw from the study at anytime. All material will be held in strictest confidence and will be available only to the investigator and research assistant(s). No individually identifying information will be requested. Information about the subjects will not be discussed with anyone not involved in the implementation of the study.

The study will consist of the distribution of packets of questionnaires in the areas of childrearing, marital adjustment, and self-concept with instructions for each questionnaire. Completion of the questionnaires will take approximately 2 to 2½ hours. Subjects will be given the packet to complete at their convenience. The investigator or research assistant will retrieve the packet(s) at a previously designated time and place two days after receipt of the packet by the subject. In other instances, the questionnaires will be administered in a group setting as such opportunities become available.

(go to next page)

If on the basis of the information now available to you, you agree to participate in this study, fill in your name, the date, and sign this consent form below. If you do not wish to participate simply return this form to me.

Thank you.

Name

Date

Signature

Barbara J. Hines
Project Director
109 Chadwick Lane
Greenville, NC
756-6491 (Home)
757-6869 (Work)

Dear Parent:

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this study. In this packet are the following forms:

1. Background Information
2. The Adjective Check List
3. The Paternal Involvement Questionnaire
4. The Dyadic Adjustment Scale
5. Instructions for the Q-Sort Cards (The cards and smaller envelopes are in the large brown envelope that is also enclosed.)

The above questionnaires may be completed in one sitting. However, you may find it more convenient to complete the forms in two (or more) sittings. For example, you may complete forms one (1) through four (4) in the first sitting and complete the questionnaire using the Q-Sort cards in the second or last sitting.

Please do not discuss the questions or your answers with anyone. Your thoughts are what is important in this study.

If you have any questions or concerns please feel free to contact me.

Again thank you.

Barbara J. Hines
Project Director
756-6491 (home)
757-6869 or 6800 (work)

Background Information

1. How old are you? _____ Your spouse? _____
2. Ethnic Background: Black _____ Caucasian _____ Hispanic _____
3. Are you currently employed? _____
 - 3a. If yes, how many hours per week do you work? _____
 - 3b. If yes, what is your current occupation (please be as specific as possible)? _____

4. How far did you go in school? _____ some high school
 _____ H.S. grad _____ some college _____ A.A. degree _____
 _____ college grad. _____ some grad. school _____ Masters degree
 _____ Ph.D. _____ MD _____ DDS _____ occupational or
 occupational training.
5. What is your personal yearly income? (circle one)

a. under \$4,999	f. \$25,000 to 29,999
b. \$5,000 to 9,999	g. \$30,000 to 34,999
c. \$10,000 to 14,999	h. \$35,000 to 39,999
d. \$15,000 to 19,000	i. \$40,000 to 44,999
e. \$20,000 to 24,999	j. over \$45,000
6. If your spouse currently employed? _____
 - 6a. If yes, how many hours per week does she work? _____
 - 6b. If yes, what is her current occupation (please be as specific as possible)? _____

7. How far did your spouse go in school? _____ some high school
 _____ H.S. grad _____ some college _____ A.A. degree _____
 _____ college grad. _____ some grad. school _____ Masters degree
 _____ Ph.D. _____ MD _____ DDS _____ occupational or
 occupational training.
8. What is your spouse's yearly income? (Circle one)

a. under \$4,999	f. \$25,000 to 29,999
b. \$5,000 to 9,999	g. \$30,000 to 34,999
c. \$10,000 to 14,999	h. \$35,000 to 39,999
d. \$15,000 to 19,000	i. \$40,000 to 44,999
e. \$20,000 to 24,999	j. over \$45,000

(go to next page)

9. What was (is) your father's occupation? _____
10. How far did your father go in school? _____
11. What was (is) your mother's occupation? _____
12. How far did your mother go in school? _____
13. What are the ages of your children? (from youngest to oldest)

a. _____	f. _____
b. _____	g. _____
c. _____	h. _____
d. _____	
e. _____	

14. How many years have you been married? _____
15. How many times have you been married?
- a. _____ once
- b. _____ twice
- c. _____ more than twice
16. Of the children listed in question #13 are any of them your stepchildren?
- a. _____ yes
- b. _____ no
17. Are your parents currently?
- a. _____ married
- b. _____ separated
- c. _____ divorced
- d. _____ deceased (mother _____ father _____ both _____)

If b or c above, how long? _____

If b or c occurred during your childhood, with which parent did you live? _____

If you did not live with your parents, what were your living arrangements? _____

Instructions for the Adjective Check List

by

Harrison G. Gough, Ph. D.
Alfred B. Heilbrun, Jr., Ph.D.

University of California (Berkeley)

Number _____ Age _____ Sex _____

Date _____

DIRECTIONS: The following pages contain a list of adjectives. Please read them quickly and put an **x** in the box beside each one you would consider to be self-descriptive. Do not worry about duplications, contradictions, and so forth. Work quickly and do not spend too much time on any one adjective. Try to be frank, and check those adjectives which describe you as you really are, not as you would like to be.

Paternal Involvement Questionnaire

(Modification of the Paternal Involvement in Child Care Index)

Developed by

Norma Radin

University of Michigan

I. I would now like to ask you some questions about your present living situation, with your spouse and children.

1. How involved are you in caring for your children?

- a. _____ very involved
- b. _____ involved
- c. _____ uninvolved
- d. _____ very uninvolved

2. How frequently are the following parenting tasks done by you?

Tasks	Freq. (3)	Sometimes (2)	Infreq. (1)
a. Feeding the children	_____	_____	_____
b. Having sole responsibility for the children	_____	_____	_____
c. Punishing the children	_____	_____	_____
d. Setting limits for the children's behavior	_____	_____	_____
e. Helping children with personal problems	_____	_____	_____
f. Bathing and dressing the children	_____	_____	_____
g. Putting the children to bed	_____	_____	_____
h. Helping children to learn	_____	_____	_____

3. How do you feel about your involvement in childrearing?

- a. _____ like it a lot
- b. _____ like it
- c. _____ neutral
- d. _____ dislike it
- e. _____ dislike it a lot

3a. If d. or e. above, did you feel it was

- a. _____ too much?
b. _____ too little?

4. a. _____ like it a lot
b. _____ like it
c. _____ neutral
d. _____ dislike it
e. _____ dislike it a lot

5. Has the work been: a. _____ mainly full time; b. _____ mainly part time;
or c. _____ from time to time, but not on a regular basis?

6. Has she worked primarily because: a. _____ she has to; b. _____ she wants
to; or c. _____ both?

7. How frequently are the following household chores done by you?

	Freq. (3)	Sometimes (2)	Infreq. (1)
a. dishwashing	_____	_____	_____
b. cooking	_____	_____	_____
c. laundry	_____	_____	_____
d. cleaning hours	_____	_____	_____
e. paying bills	_____	_____	_____
f. buying groceries	_____	_____	_____
g. taking out garbage	_____	_____	_____
h. small household repairs	_____	_____	_____
i. yard maintenance	_____	_____	_____

8. Is there anything else you do around the house?

- a. _____ yes
b. _____ no
If yes, what?

9. How do you feel about the amount you do around the house?

- a. _____ like it a lot
b. _____ like it
c. _____ neutral
d. _____ dislike it
e. _____ dislike it a lot

10. If answered d. or e above, do you feel it is

- a. _____ too much?
b. _____ too little?

11. Please tell us how often you do the following:

Items	Freq. (3)	Sometimes (2)	Infreq. (1)
a. show your love to the children physically or verbally	_____	_____	_____
b. are concerned about the children's problems and worries	_____	_____	_____
c. try to help with these problems	_____	_____	_____
d. are able to make the children feel better when they are upset	_____	_____	_____
e. hug and kiss the children goodnight	_____	_____	_____
f. give the children a lot of care and attention	_____	_____	_____

11A. Please tell us how often your spouse does the following:

a. show your love to the children physically or verbally	_____	_____	_____
b. are concerned about the children's problems and worries	_____	_____	_____
c. try to help with these problems	_____	_____	_____
d. are able to make the children feel better when they are upset	_____	_____	_____
e. hug and kiss the children goodnight	_____	_____	_____
f. give the children a lot of care and attention	_____	_____	_____

12. How available are you to the children?

Items	Freq. (3)	Sometimes (2)	Infreq. (1)
a. away from home and children weeks and months at a time	_____	_____	_____
b. away from home days at a time	_____	_____	_____
c. away from home on weekends	_____	_____	_____
d. out in the evening at least 2 nights a week	_____	_____	_____
e. misses supper with children at least 2 nights a week	_____	_____	_____
f. has breakfast during the week with children and family	_____	_____	_____
g. Home during the week for lunch	_____	_____	_____
h. home afternoons when children come home from school (if appropriate)	_____	_____	_____
i. home all day during the week with children and family	_____	_____	_____

12A. How available is your spouse to the children?

a. away from home and children weeks and months at a time	_____	_____	_____
b. away from home days at a time	_____	_____	_____
c. away from home on weekends	_____	_____	_____
d. out in the evening at least 2 nights a week	_____	_____	_____
e. misses supper with children at least 2 nights a week	_____	_____	_____
f. has breakfast during the week with children and family	_____	_____	_____

Items	Freq. (3)	Sometimes (2)	Infreq. (1)
g. home during the week for lunch	_____	_____	_____
h. home afternoons when children come home from school (if appropriate)	_____	_____	_____
i. home all day during the week with children and family	_____	_____	_____

13. Who in your family generally makes decisions about the following and how frequently?

Decisions	husband always	hus. more than wife	hus. & wife equally	wife more than hus.	wife always
a. Concerning childrearing:					
1. when children should be disciplined	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. when children are old enough to try new things	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
b. Concerning money matters:					
1. when to make major purchases	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. how much to spend on food, clothes, allowance, etc.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
c. Concerning other important family decisions:					
1. related to the husband's employment outside the home	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. where the family should live	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. related to the wife's employment outside the home	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

14. About how many hours per week do you and your spouse discuss parenting?
- a. _____ under one
 - b. _____ 1-3
 - c. _____ 4-6
 - d. _____ over 6
15. About how many hours per week do you and your spouse talk together about allocation of household tasks?
- a. _____ under one
 - b. _____ 1-3
 - c. _____ 4-6
 - d. _____ over 6
16. How satisfied are you with your talks about parenting?
- a. _____ very satisfied
 - b. _____ satisfied
 - c. _____ neutral
 - d. _____ dissatisfied
 - e. _____ very dissatisfied
18. In general, are you satisfied with the present arrangements for caring for the children?
- a. _____ yes
 - b. _____ no
19. Are there any changes you would like to see in these arrangements?
- a. _____ yes
 - b. _____ no

If yes, what are these changes?

DYADIC ADJUSTMENT SCALE

Most persons have disagreements in their relationships. Please indicate below the approximate extent of agreement or disagreement between you and your partner for each item on the following list.

	Always Agree	Almost Always Agree	Occasionally Disagree	Frequently Disagree	Almost Always Disagree	Always Disagree
1. Handling family finances	5	4	3	2	1	0
2. Matters of recreation	5	4	3	2	1	0
3. Religious matters	5	4	3	2	1	0
4. Demonstrations of affection	5	4	3	2	1	0
5. Friends	5	4	3	2	1	0
6. Sex relations	5	4	3	2	1	0
7. Conventionality (correct or proper behavior)	5	4	3	2	1	0
8. Philosophy of life	5	4	3	2	1	0
9. Ways of dealing with parents or in laws	5	4	3	2	1	0
10. Aims, goals, and things believed important	5	4	3	2	1	0
11. Amount of time spent together	5	4	3	2	1	0
12. Making major decisions	5	4	3	2	1	0
13. Household tasks	5	4	3	2	1	0
14. Leisure time interests and activities	5	4	3	2	1	0
15. Career decisions	5	4	3	2	1	0
	All the time	Most of the time	More often than not	Occasionally	Rarely	Never
16. How often do you discuss or have you considered divorce, separation, or terminating your relationship?	0	1	2	3	4	5
17. How often do you or your mate leave the house after a fight?	0	1	2	3	4	5
18. In general, how often do you think that things between you and your partner are going well?	5	4	3	2	1	0
19. Do you confide in your mate?	5	4	3	2	1	0
20. Do you ever regret that you married? (or lived together)	0	1	2	3	4	5
21. How often do you and your partner quarrel?	0	1	2	3	4	5
22. How often do you and your mate "get on each other's nerves?"	0	1	2	3	4	5

23. Do you kiss your mate?

Every Day 4	Almost Every Day 3	Occa- sionally 2	Rarely 1	Never 0
All of them	Most of them	Some of them	Very few of them	None of them

24. Do you and your mate engage in outside interests together?

4	3	2	1	0
---	---	---	---	---

How often would you say the following events occur between you and your mate?

	Never	Less than once a month	Once or twice a month	Once or twice a week	(Once a day	More often
25. Have a stimulating exchange of ideas	0	1	2	3	4	5
26. Laugh together	0	1	2	3	4	5
27. Calmly discuss something	0	1	2	3	4	5
28. Work together on a project	0	1	2	3	4	5

These are some things about which couples sometimes agree and sometime disagree. Indicate if either item below caused differences of opinions or were problems in your relationship during the past few weeks. (Check yes or no)

	Yes	No	
29.	0	1	Being too tired for sex
30.	0	1	Not showing love.

31. The dots on the following line represent different degrees of happiness in your relationship. The middle point, "happy," represents the degree of happiness of most relationships. Please circle the dot which best describes the degree of happiness, all things considered, of your relationship.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Extremely Unhappy	Fairly Unhappy	A Little Unhappy	Happy	Very Happy	Extremely Happy	Perfect

32. Which of the following statements best describes how you feel about the future of your relationship?

- 5 I want desperately for my relationship to succeed, and would go to almost any length to see that it does.
- 4 I want very much for my relationship to succeed, and will do all I can to see that it does.
- 3 I want very much for my relationship to succeed, and will do my fair share to see that it does.
- 2 It would be nice if my relationship succeeded, but I can't do much more than I am doing now to help it succeed.
- 1 It would be nice if it succeeded, but I refuse to do any more than I am doing now to keep the relationship going.
- 0 My relationship can never succeed, and there is no more that I can do to keep the relationship going.

Instructions for the Q-Sort Cards

(Modified to Apply to this Study)

Developed by

Jeanne H. Block

Institute of Human Development

University of California, Berkeley

In trying to gain more understanding of effective parenting techniques, we would like to know what is important to you as a parent and what kinds of methods you use in rearing your child. You are asked to indicate your opinions by sorting through a special set of cards that contain statements about bringing up children.

Please do the task separately and do not discuss the card placements with your spouse.

The Cards and Envelopes

Each set or deck contains 91 cards. Each card contains a sentence having to do with childrearing. Some of these sentences will be true or descriptive of your attitudes and behavior in relation to your child. Some sentences will be untrue or undescriptive of your feelings and behaviors toward this child. By sorting these cards according to the instructions below, you will be able to show how descriptive or undescriptive each of these sentences is for you.

Together with the cards you have received 7 envelopes, with the following labels:

7. These cards are most descriptive.
6. These cards are quite descriptive.
5. These cards are fairly descriptive.
4. These cards are neither descriptive nor undescriptive.
3. These cards are fairly undescriptive.
2. These cards are quite undescriptive.
1. These cards are most undescriptive.

Your task is to choose 13 cards that fit into each of these categories and to put them into their proper envelopes.

How to Sort the Cards (you may wish to check off each step as completed)

- ☐ 1. Take the cards and shuffle them a bit first.
- ☐ 2. Find a large cleared surface, like a kitchen table or desk, and spread out the envelopes in a row, going from 7 to 1 (Most

Descriptive to Most Undescriptive):

7 6 5 4 3 2 1

3. Now take the shuffled deck of cards, and read each sentence carefully. Then make three piles of cards: one pile containing cards that are generally true or descriptive of you; one pile that you're not certain about, and one pile of cards that are generally not true or descriptive.

It doesn't make any difference how many cards you put in each of the three piles at this time, since you'll probably have to do some switching around later. But you may find it helpful if each pile contains about the same number of cards.

Now your cards and envelopes look like this:

7	6	5	4	3	2	1
						(envelopes)
"Descriptive"	"Not Sure"	"Undescriptive"				
Cards	Cards	Cards	(cards)			

4. Now, take the pile of descriptive cards and pick out the 13 cards that are most descriptive of your behavior with your child. Put these cards on top of envelope #7. Don't put them inside yet because you might want to shift some of them later.
5. Next, from the cards that remain, pick out 13 cards that you think are quite descriptive of your behavior and put these on top of envelope #6. (If you run out of cards from your "descriptive" pile, you'll have to add some of the more descriptive cards from your "Not Sure" pile.)
6. Now, begin at the other end. Take the pile of "Undescriptive" cards and pick out the 13 cards that are most undescriptive of you. Put these on top of envelope #1.
7. Then pick out the 13 cards which are quite undescriptive and put them on envelope #2. (Again, you may have to "borrow" from your "Not Sure" pile to make the necessary 13 cards for envelope #2.)
8. You should now have 39 cards left over. These are now to be sorted into three new piles with 13 cards in each: 13 cards that are fairly descriptive of you (to be put on envelope #5); 13 cards that are neither descriptive or undescriptive (to be put on envelope #4); and 13 cards that are fairly undescriptive (to be put on envelope #3.)

You may find it hard, as others have, to put the same number of cards in each pile but we must ask you to follow these directions exactly, even if you feel limited by them.

- ____ 9. Now, as a last step, look over your sort to see if there are any changes you want to make. When the cards seem to belong where you have put them, double-check to be sure you have 13 cards in each pile. Then put each pile in the proper envelopes and tuck in the flaps. The small envelopes go into the large envelope for return to the project director.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Items Comprising Child-Rearing Practices Report (CRPR) Subscales

Jeanne H. Block

University of California, Berkeley

1. Encouraging openness of expression (OPENEX)
 21. I encourage my child to wonder and think about life.
 24. I feel a child should have time to think, daydream, and even loaf sometimes.
 45. I encourage my child to be curious, to explore and question things.
 53. I encourage my child to talk about his troubles.
2. Suppression of sex (SUPSEX)
 9. I don't think young children of different sexes should be allowed to see each other naked.
 57. I dread answering my child's questions about sex.
 63. I believe that too much affection and tenderness can harm or weaken a child.
 86. I don't think children should be given sexual information before they can understand everything.
3. Emphasis on achievement (ACHIEV)
 2. I encourage my child always to do his best.
 17. I think it is good practice for a child to perform in front of others.
 33. I expect a great deal of my child.
 59. I think a child should be encouraged to do things better than others.
 71. I feel that it is good for a child to play competitive games.
 74. I want my child to make a good impression on others.
4. Parental worry about child (WORRY)
 28. I worry about the bad and sad things that can happen to a child as he grows up.
 69. I worry about the health of my child.
5. Parental inconsistency (INCONS)
 16. I sometimes forget the promises I have made to my child.
 50. I threaten punishment more often than I actually give it.
6. Authoritarian control (CNTROL)
 14. I believe physical punishment to be the best way of disciplining.

- 15. I believe that a child should be seen and not heard.
- 27. I do not allow my child to say bad things about his teacher.
- 31. I do not allow my child to get angry with me.
- 43. I have strict, well-established rules for my child.
- 54. I believe children should not have secrets from their parents.
- 55. I teach my child to keep control of his feelings at all times.
- 64. I believe that scolding and criticism makes my child improve.
- 70. I do not allow my child to question my decisions.

7. Supervision of child (SUPERV)

- 76. I make sure I know where my child is and what he is doing.
- 91. I believe it is unwise to let children play a lot by themselves without supervision from grown-ups.

8. Negative affect toward child (NEGAFF)

- 5. I often feel angry with my child.
- 32. I feel my child is a bit of a disappointment to me.
- 69. There is a good deal of conflict between my child and me.

9. Open expression of affect (EXPRES)

- 11. I feel a child should be given comfort and understanding when he is scared or upset.
- 18. I express affection by hugging, kissing, and holding my child.
- 34. I am easy going and relaxed with my child.
- 40. I joke and play with my child.
- 42. My child and I have warm, intimate times together.
- 58. When I am angry with my child, I let him know it.

10. Encouraging independence (ENCIND)

- 1. I respect my child's opinions and encourage him to express them.
- 6. If my child gets into trouble, I expect him to handle the problem mostly by himself.
- 22. I usually take into account my child's preferences in making plans for the family.
- 26. I let my child make many decisions for himself.
- 41. I give my child a good many duties and family responsibilities.
- 67. I teach my child that he is responsible for what happens to him.
- 75. I encourage my child to be independent of me.

11. Enjoyment of parental role (ENJOYS)

- 19. I find some of my greatest satisfactions in my child.
- 62. I enjoy having the house full of children.
- 77. I find it interesting and educational to be with my child for long periods.

12. Rational guiding of child (RATINL)

- 38. I talk it over and reason with my child when he misbehaves.
- 51. I believe in praising a child when he is good and think it gets better results than punishing him when he is bad.
- 52. I make sure my child knows that I appreciate what he tries or accomplishes.

13. Control by anxiety induction (CNTANX)

- 29. I teach my child that in one way or another punishment will find him when he is bad.
- 83. I control my child by warning him about the bad things that can happen to him.

14. Control by guilt induction (CNTGLE)

- 47. I expect my child to be grateful and appreciate all the advantages he has.
- 65. I believe my child should be aware of how much I sacrifice for him.
- 73. I let my child know how ashamed and disappointed I am when he misbehaves.

15. Health orientation (HEALTH)

- 8. I watch closely what my child eats and when he eats.
- 87. I believe it is very important for a child to play outside and get plenty of fresh air.
- 88. I get pleasure from seeing my child eating well and enjoying his food.

16. Emphasis on early training (ERLYTR)

- 49. I believe in toilet training a child as soon as possible.
- 78. I think a child should be weaned from the breast or bottle as soon as possible.
- 82. I think children must learn early not to cry.

17. Over-investment in child (INVEST)

- 23. I wish my child did not have to grow up so fast.
- 25. I find it difficult to punish my child.
- 36. I tend to spoil my child.
- 48. I sometimes feel that I am too involved with my child.

18. Parental maintenance of separate lives (PARSEP)

- 3. I put the wishes of my mate before the wishes of my child.
- 72. I like to have some time for myself, away from my child.
- 80. I don't go out if I have to leave my child with a stranger.

19. Protectiveness of child (PROTEC)

- 12. I try to keep my child away from children or families who have different ideas or values from our own.
- 13. I try to stop my child from playing rough games or doing things where he might get hurt.
- 20. I prefer that my child not try things if there is a chance he will fail.
- 44. I think one has to let a child take many chances as he grows up and tries new things.

20. Orientation to non-punitive punishment (NONPUN)

- 7. I punish my child by putting him off somewhere by himself for a while.
- 60. I punish my child by taking away a privilege he otherwise would have had.

21. Suppression of aggression (SUPAGG)

- 4. I help my child when he is being teased by his friends.
- 56. I try to keep my child from fighting.
- 89. I don't allow my child to tease or play tricks on others.

CRPR Items Not Included in Above Scales

1. Wishes spouse were more involved (SPINT)

- 10. I wish my spouse were more interested in our children.

2. Protects child from blame (BLAME)

- 30. I do not blame my child for whatever happens if others ask for trouble.

3. Sacrifices own interests for child (INTRST)

- 35. I give up some of my own interests because of my child.

4. Trusts child to behave properly (TRUST)

- 39. I trust my child to behave as he should, even when I am not with him.

5. Uses supernatural explanations (SUPRNT)

- 46. I sometimes talk about supernatural forces and beings in explaining things to my child.

6. Rewards positive behavior by giving privileges (EXPRIV)
 61. I give my child extra privileges when he behaves well.
7. Use of teasing and ridicule (TEASD)
 66. I sometimes tease and make fun of my child.
8. Emphasizes cleanliness (CLEN)
 79. I instruct my child not to get dirty while he is playing.
9. Believes sibling rivalry should be punished (SIBRIV)
 81. I think jealousy and quarreling between brothers and sisters should be punished.
10. Emphasis on maternal authority (MAUTHR)
 84. I think it is best if the mother, rather than the father, is the one with the most authority over the children.
11. Emphasizes conformity to reference group (NOTDIF)
 85. I don't want my child to be looked upon as different from others.
12. Encourages play with sex-appropriate toys (SEXTYR)
 90. I think it is wrong to insist that young boys and girls have different kinds of toys and play different sorts of games.
13. Belief in child's credibility (TRUTH)
 37. I have never caught my child lying.

VITA

Barbara Jean Lyons Hines was born in Whitakers, North Carolina on October 16, 1954. She attended North Whitakers Elementary School and graduated from Northern Nash Senior High School in Rocky Mount, North Carolina in 1972. She attended East Carolina University, graduating Cum Laude with a Bachelor of Arts degree in Psychology in 1976.

In September 1977, the author entered the clinical psychology program in the Graduate School at The University of Tennessee. Practica and employment sites were Lakeshore Mental Health Institute and Cherokee Mental Health Center of Morristown, Tennessee. In 1980, following three years of course work, she spent a year of internship at the University of Texas Health Science Center in San Antonio, Texas. She returned to The University of Tennessee to complete her course work and to assume part-time employment with Cherokee Mental Health Center of Morristown, Tennessee. In 1985, she obtained a lecturer position in the Department of Psychology at East Carolina University in Greenville, North Carolina, where she remains until the present. In December 1989, she received the Doctor of Philosophy degree at The University of Tennessee, with an emphasis in clinical psychology.

She is married to Dr. Larry L. Hines of Battleboro, North Carolina. They have two daughters, Kara Alyssa-Michelle who is seven years old, and Keli Ashara-Janee', who is two years old.