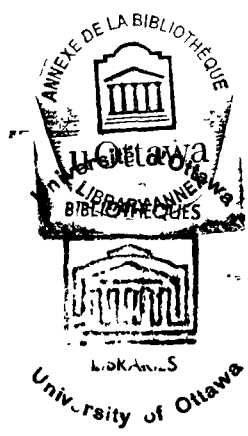


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EXPLORATORY STUDY
OF THE FATHER-ADOLESCENT RELATIONSHIP:
IMPLICATIONS FOR FAMILY LIFE

by Denise Alcock

Thesis presented to the School of
Graduate Studies of the University
of Ottawa as partial fulfillment of
the requirements for the degree of
Master of Arts in Education



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CURRICULUM STUDIORUM

Denise (Platschorre) Alcock was born July 31, 1936, in Tillsonburg, Ontario. She obtained her Bachelor of Science Degree in Nursing from the University of Toronto, in 1959.

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INTRODUCTION

The quality of the parent-adolescent relationship is a strong determinant of the adolescent's behavior and personality development, yet, as Chilman (1968) notes, very little research deals with the parent-adolescent relationship and "almost no study exists on family interaction in "healthy well-adjusted" families."¹ That there is a noticeable lack of Canadian studies in family relationships has been pointed out by Spencer (1967)² and by Breton and McDonald (1971)³.

Family life specialists and community workers have expressed a need for information concerning current parent-adolescent relationships. The key objective of family life programs as expressed by the National Council on Family

1. Catherine S. Chilman, "Families in Development at Mid-Stage of the Family Life Cycle", in The Family Coordinator, Vol. 17, 1968, p. 309-310.

2. John Spencer, An Inventory Of Family Research And Studies In Canada (1963-1967), Ottawa, The Vanier Institute Of The Family, 1967, p. iv.

3. Raymond Breton and John C. McDonald, "Aspects of Parent-Adolescent Relationships: The Perceptions of Secondary School Students", in Ishwaran, K., The Canadian Family, Toronto, Holt, Rinehart and Winston of Canada Ltd., 1971, p. 155.

Relations (1970)⁴ and the National Commission on Family Life Education (1968)⁵ is to guide individuals and families in improving their interpersonal relationships and thus help further their maximum development. Before family life educators can guide individuals and families in improving their interpersonal relationships, and develop programs to service community needs, the educators must know how these relationships are being perceived.

Sinay, Yusin and Nihira (1974) recognize the importance of knowledge of current parent-child attitudes for yet another reason. They state:

With increasing utilization of brief and crisis psychotherapies with adolescents, knowledge of here⁶ and now familial interactions is extremely relevant.

They feel it is important to know the attitudes of parents of adolescents not in crisis, so that comparisons can be made with the attitudes of parents of adolescents in crisis.

4. National Council on Family Relations, "Position Paper on Family Life Education", in The Family Coordinator, Vol. 19, 1970, p. 186.

5. National Commission on Family Life Education, "Family Life Education Programs: Principles, Plans, Procedures", in The Family Coordinator, Vol. 17, 1968, p. 211.

6. Ruth Sinay, Alvin Yusin and Kazuo Nihira, "Crisis in Adolescence: Parental Attitudes Toward Children's Behavior", in American Journal Of Orthopsychiatry Digests of Papers, Vol. 44, No. 2, 1974, p. 257.

Information of this kind is helpful in understanding and assisting adolescents to develop adaptive and appropriate ways of coping with everyday experiences.

Social, economic and educational influences have altered family life styles and especially father's role in the family. Adolescents, today, according to Conger (1972)⁷, react to their fathers, not as authority figures who through their status as fathers demand love and obedience, but on the basis of the father's personal attributes and on the quality of the interpersonal relationship between father and adolescent. Studies 8, 9, 10, 11, indicate that the interpersonal relationship between father and adolescent has a profound effect on the adolescent's

7. John Janeway Conger, "A World They Never Knew: The Family And Social Change", in Kagan, Jerome and Robert Coles, (ed.), Twelve to Sixteen: Early Adolescence, New York, W. W. Norton, 1972, p. 201.

8. Barbara Kimball, "Case Studies in Educational Failure During Adolescence", in American Journal Of Orthopsychiatry, Vol. 23, 1955, p. 406-415.

9. Robert G. Andry, Delinquency and Parental Pathology, London, Staples Press, 1971, 189 p.

10. Arnold W. Rachman, "The Role of "Fathering" In Group Psychotherapy With Adolescent Delinquent Males", on ED 034 267, February 1969, 27 p.

11. Alex Rode, "Perceptions Of Parental Behavior Among Alienated Adolescents", in Adolescence, Vol. 6, No. 21, 1971, p. 19-38.

personality and behavior. However, as Howells (1971)¹² points out, research is rarely concerned with the nature of fathering.

This study explores the father-adolescent relationship using Carl Rogers' concept of the helping relationship as measured by the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory. Both Rogers and Barrett-Lennard stress that an organism reacts to the field as it is experienced and perceived. In other words, the adolescent's personality and behavior will be influenced by the way the adolescent perceives and experiences his or her relationship with the father. It is for this reason that the study explores the adolescent's perception of his or her relationship with the father, in terms of the father's level of regard, empathic understanding, congruence, unconditionality of regard and willingness to be known.

As Chapter I, Review of the Literature, indicates, the age of the adolescent, the sex of the adolescent and the number of children in the family, appear to be factors that affect the father-adolescent relationship. However, the literature is by no means clear and directive as to how

12. John G. Howells (ed.), Modern Perspectives In Psychiatry, Vol. 3, New York, Brunner Mazel Inc., 1971, p. 149.

these factors affect the father-adolescent relationship. Also, very little attention has been given to examining the relationship between the father and his adolescent daughter. Since literature is ambiguous, the research hypotheses are derived from the most heavily weighted evidence concerning the effects of age, sex and number of children in the family on the father-adolescent relationship. The study is exploratory because there are no normative standards with which to compare the adolescents' scoring of the father in terms of the attitudinal qualities of the helping relationship.

Chapter I of this study reviews the literature from which the hypotheses are derived and presents the hypotheses. Chapter II describes the experimental design in terms of the instrument, the sample, the procedure for collecting the data and the format for statistical analysis. Chapter III presents the research findings and Chapter IV is a discussion of the results. Chapter V presents the implications of the results of this study for family life and for further research. A final section contains a summary and conclusion.

CHAPTER I

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Chapter I is divided into four sections. The first three sections review the literature dealing with the father-adolescent relationship as influenced by the adolescent's age and sex and by the number of children in the family. The fourth section presents the hypotheses which arise from the review of the literature.

1. Effect Of Adolescent's Age On Father-Adolescent Relationship

Benson (1968)¹ writes that the peak of father-adolescent conflict seems to occur in the early stages of adolescence. His observation is supported by Ausubel (1954)², Blos (1972)³, and Anthony (1970)⁴. Blos believes that

1. Leonard Benson, Fatherhood A Sociological Perspective, New York, Random House, 1968, p. 244.

2. David Ausubel, Theory and Problems of Adolescent Development, New York, Grune & Stratton, 1954, p. 224.

3. Peter Blos, "The Child Analyst Looks at the Young Adolescent", in Kagan, Jerome and Robert Coles, (ed.), Twelve to Sixteen: Early Adolescence, New York, W.W. Norton, 1972, p. 67.

4. E.J. Anthony, "The Reactions of Parents to Adolescents and to Their Behavior", in Anthony, E.J. and Therese Benedek (ed.), Parenthood Its Psychology and Psychopathology, Boston, Little Brown and Company, 1970, p. 315.

opposition to parental guidance, silent or vocal, belongs to the initial stage of adolescence. Meissner's study (1965)⁵ confirms that there is an increased valuation of the father's guidance as the boy passes through the adolescent period, but, he notes that at the same time, the boys experience a decreased valuation of the father's understanding of their personal problems. The pattern of interaction between parent and adolescent therefore shifts in both positive and negative dimensions as the boy passes through the adolescent period. Father's influence appeared dominant, the older the boy, but there was also increased evidence of rebelliousness and parental alienation.

Ivan Nye (1952)⁶ divided the 1,366 adolescents who responded to his questionnaire measuring adolescent-parent adjustment into four age groups. The young boy group and the young girl group were aged twelve to fourteen and the two older groups of boys and girls respectively, were aged fifteen to seventeen. The older boys registered the poorest adjustment to their parents. No significant

5. W.W. Meissner, "Parental Interaction Of The Adolescent Boy", in Journal Of Genetic Psychology, Vol. 107, 1965, p.228.

6. Ivan Nye, "Adolescent-Parent Adjustment: Age, Sex, Sibling Number, Broken Homes, and Employed Mothers as Variables", in Marriage and Family Living, Vol. 14, 1952, p. 327-332.

difference was found between the other three groups. Nye attributes the poorer adjustment of the adolescent boys with modal age sixteen to be largely a cultural phenomenon in that this group are given more independence and thus experience less family integration.

Benson argues that after the initial hard conflict period of early adolescence, patterns of accommodation are usually worked out and suggests that Nye's findings are illusory because any lack of adjustment is simply more forcefully articulated by the older adolescent.

Using a word association test on 448 volunteer males and females, ages ten to thirty, Marvin Powell (1955)⁷ took the mean reaction time to neutral words and the mean reaction time to critical words and then found the means and standard deviations of the difference scores. He states that there is a significant increase in difference scores to the critical stimulus words associated with parent-child relationships between the ages of twelve and thirteen. Parent-child relationships appear to be a source of conflict for both

7. Marvin Powell, "Age and Sex Differences in Degree of Conflict Within Certain Areas of Psychological Adjustment", in Psychological Monographs, Vol. 69, No. 387, 1955, p. 96-106.

sexes, but, the mean of the difference scores for the girls was .206 as compared to .115 for the boys, implying that thirteen year old girls are more aware of parent-child conflict.

O'Keefe (1971)⁸ studied family communication orientation and interpersonal agreement, accuracy and congruency between junior and senior high school students and their mother or their father on a group of political issue items and with regard to the importance of the child going to college. Although there was an avoidance of communication on controversial topics, senior high school students scored higher with their fathers. These findings would indicate that the father-adolescent relationship improved between junior and senior high school.

Harris and Tseng (1957)⁹ investigated children's attitudes toward parents and peers by a sentence completion test. They reported a trend to upswing in positive attitudes toward parents during mid-adolescence, especially for boys.

8. Garrett J. O'Keefe Jr., "Family Communication Orientation and Interpersonal Agreement, Accuracy and Congruency", in Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 31A, No. 11, 1971, p. 6161.

9. Dale B. Harris and Sing Chu Tseng, "Children's Attitudes Toward Peers and Parents As Revealed By Sentence Completions", in Child Development, Vol. 28, No. 4, 1957, p. 401-411.

Their measurement of attitudes toward parents is based on responses to only two questions. Their results showed that girls' attitudes toward their father were at their lowest in grade seven and then rose steadily to grade ten after which they levelled off. Although this study indicates that girls' preference scores for father rise after grade seven, Harris and Tseng's method of arriving at this conclusion is not a valid one. The percentage of children preferring the father was obtained in each grade group by combining the percentage giving a neutral response to mother but a favorable response to father, plus, the percentage giving an unfavorable response to mother but a neutral response to father, plus, the percentage giving an unfavorable response to mother but a favorable response to father. The score resulting from this manipulation of data can hardly be called a preference score for father.

In order to examine the affectional relationship between stepchildren and parents, Bowerman and Irish (1962)¹⁰ also tested a control group of teenagers living with both natural parents. The affectional relationship between

10. Charles E. Bowerman and Donald P. Irish, "Some Relationships of Stepchildren to Their Parents", in Journal of Marriage and Family Living, Vol. 24, No. 2, 1962, p. 113-121.

adolescent and father was assessed by 3,488 grade seven to twelve Washington students and by 17,738 grade seven to twelve North Carolina and Ohio students. Within both groups the younger adolescent indicated an affectional relationship with the father that was considerably higher than that of the older adolescent. The same trend persisted in the stepfather-adolescent scores. However, in the father-adolescent relationship within the parent pattern of stepmother-natural father, the Washington sample grade seven to nine males scored the father lower than the grade ten to twelve males. Aside from this one exception, the younger adolescent scored the father higher than the older adolescent.

A factor to be considered in the father-adolescent relationship and relevant to the adolescent's age is the shift from family orientation to peer orientation which takes place most noticeably between the sixth and seventh grade in girls and between the seventh and eighth grade in boys.¹¹ Low adjustment to the family and a low degree of family orientation are a function of the way in which the family react to the child during the period of increased

11. Charles E. Bowerman and John W. Kinch, "Changes in Family and Peer Orientation Of Children Between Fourth and Tenth Grades", in Social Forces, Vol. 37, 1957, p. 206-211.

peer orientation. Larson (1970)¹², indicates that parental influence is greatest where parent-adolescent affect is greatest. Affect in Larson's study refers to the quality of the relationship as measured by parental interest and understanding, willingness to be helpful and the amount of shared family activity. Adolescents with high parent-adolescent affect scores were significantly less likely than those with low scores to see a need to differentiate between the influence of parents and best friends. The quality of the relationship assumes increased importance as a determinant of parental influence the older the child and this is reflected in a comment by Conger (1972):

In short, a parent may be making a serious mistake if he thinks that because he can influence his children at the beginning of adolescence without concerning himself with the quality of the relationship with his children and his contribution to it, he will continue to be able to do so in middle and later adolescence.¹³

The preceding review of the literature strongly suggests that the age of the adolescent is a factor affecting the father-adolescent relationship. The quality

12. Lyle E. Larson, "The Relative Influence of Parent-Adolescent Affect In Predicting The Salience Hierarchy Among Youth", on ED 043 079, October, 1970, 30 p.

13. John Janeway Conger, "A World They Never Knew: The Family And Social Change", in Kagan, Jerome and Robert Coles (ed.), Twelve to Sixteen: Early Adolescence, New York, W. W. Norton & Co., 1972, p. 222.

of the relationship is of prime importance in determining how the adolescent perceives and reacts to the relationship. The studies by Nye and by Bowerman and Irish do not agree with the theory that early adolescence is the period of poorest parent-adolescent adjustment. A more thorough examination of the adolescent's perception of the father's attitude toward him or her must be made in order to determine if differences in the quality of the relationship exist across the thirteen to sixteen year old age group and if so, which age group experiences the greatest difficulty.

2. Effect Of Adolescent's Sex On Father-Adolescent Relationship

Harry S. Sullivan (1953) writes that

... the parent who is of the same sex as the child has a feeling of familiarity with the child, of understanding him; while the parent of the other sex has a surviving, justifiable feeling of difference and uncertainty toward him.¹⁴

If this is so, the father should feel more comfortable with his adolescent son than with his adolescent daughter, and one would expect the father-son relationship to be more intimate and intense than the father-daughter relationship.

14. Harry S. Sullivan, The Interpersonal Theory Of Psychiatry, New York, W. W. Norton & Co., 1953, p. 218.

Elder (1961)¹⁵ indicates that adolescent boys are much more likely to want to do things with their fathers than with their mothers. Tasch (1952)¹⁶ found that after the child has reached the age of six, there is a tendency for fathers to engage in more activities with his sons than with his daughters. Lickorish (1966)¹⁷ using the Family Relations Indicator which he developed, evaluated the responses of nineteen boys ages nine to thirteen and a half with regard to family relationships. His results showed far more interaction between father and son than between mother and son. However, the sample was small, the girls' responses were not elicited and the verbal remarks to the thirty-three pictures of the Family Relations Indicator were subjectively analysed by the researcher.

15. Glen H. Elder Jr., "Family Structure and the Transmission of Values and Norms in the Process of Child Rearing", unpublished doctoral dissertation quoted in Elder Jr., Glen H., and Charles E. Bowerman, "Family Structure and Child-Rearing Patterns: The Effect of Family Size and Sex Composition", in American Sociological Review, Vol. 28, 1963, p 893.

16. Ruth Jacobson Tasch, "The Role of the Father in the Family", in Journal of Experimental Education, Vol. 20, No. 4, 1952, p. 329.

17. John R. Lickorish, "Evaluating the Child's View Of His Parents", in Journal of Projective Techniques and Personality Assessment, Vol. 30, 1966, p. 68-76.

Langford and Alm (1954)¹⁸ gave the California Test of Personality to twenty boys and to twenty girls aged twelve, and their parents. They asked the parents to answer the questions as they thought their children would answer them. Results showed father-son accuracy to be greater than father-daughter, mother-son or indeed even mother-daughter accuracy.

A parent behavior inventory (1963)¹⁹ completed by 161 twelve and thirteen year old boys and girls showed a significant difference between boys' and girls' scoring of parents with regard to parental rejection, neglect and ignoring behavior. The difference between mother and father expressed in z scores on ignoring behavior reported by girls for father was 2.81 as compared to that reported by boys for father which was .74. The young girls in this study felt their fathers ignored them more than did their mothers. The scoring of items representing a more involved

18. Louise Langford and O. W. Alm, "A Comparison of Parent Judgments and Child Feelings Concerning Self Adjustment and Social Adjustment of Twelve Year Old Children", in Journal of Genetic Psychology, Vol. 85, 1954, p. 39-46.

19. Leo F. Droppleman and Earl S. Schaefer, "Boys' And Girls' Reports Of Maternal And Paternal Behavior", in Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, Vol. 67, No. 6, 1963, p. 648-654.

parental type of negative behavior such as parental irritability and nagging behavior credited the same sex parent as the child with more nagging and irritability toward the child.

The same sex parent demands more of the child. Bowerman and Elder (1964)²⁰ found that grade ten to twelve youth most often reported the same sex parent as the principle authority figure. Grinder and Spector (1965)²¹ examined the adolescent's perception of and identification with the parent who controls the desirable resources in the family. Girls perceived their mothers as more powerful and boys believed their fathers to be in control. Using an entire high school population in Israel, Breznitz and Kugelmass (1965)²² set out to determine the adolescent's perception of parents in terms of Parsons and Bales sex role differentiation into instrumental and expressive

20. Charles E. Bowerman and Glen H. Elder Jr., "Variations in Adolescent Perception Of Family Power Structure", in American Sociological Review , Vol. 29, 1964, p. 567.

21. Robert E. Grinder and Judith C. Spector, "Sex Differences in Adolescents' Perceptions Of Parental Resource Control", in Journal of Genetic Psychology, Vol. 106, 1965, p. 337-344.

22. Shlomo Breznitz and Sol Kugelmass, "The Perception of Parents by Adolescents", in Human Relations, Vol. 18, 1965, p. 103-113.

functions. Boys, as compared to girls of the same age group (fourteen to eighteen) more frequently credited their fathers with knowing more, making more decisions at home and demanding more. Thirty-nine percent of the boys and only twelve percent of the girls turned to their father for advice. It is interesting to note, however, that a slightly higher percentage of girls than boys felt their father was more considerate of other peoples's feelings than was their mother. These findings agree with those of Gardner (1947)²³ who found that children gave more attributes for parents of the same sex but rated the parent of the opposite sex somewhat higher in disposition and character.

A father-son relationship in which the father is seen as a powerful source of reward and punishment and in which affection and warmth is exchanged is essential to the male child's sex role identification²⁴ and to the adolescent

23. L. Pearl Gardner, "An Analysis of Children's Attitudes Toward Fathers", in Journal Of Genetic Psychology, Vol. 70, 1947, p. 27.

24. Paul Mussen and Luther Distler, "Masculinity Identification and Father-Son Relationships", in Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, Vol. 59, 1957, p. 350-356.

male's development of responsibility and leadership.²⁵ Only recently²⁶ has evidence supported the notion that the father is equally important as an identification model to the female child. It is with healthy interaction with the father that the female child acquires social skills and confidence to interact appropriately with the opposite sex at adolescence.

Both Johnson (1963)²⁷ and Aberle and Naegele (1952)²⁸ point out that fathers, more than mothers tend to differentiate their behavior toward sons and daughters on the basis of role expectations for them. Aberle and Naegele found that the father expressed more negative evaluation of his son's behavior than of his daughter's behavior.

25. Urie Bronfenbrenner, "Some Familial Antecedents of Responsibility and Leadership in Adolescents", in Petrullo, Luigi, and Bernard M. Bass, (ed.), Leadership and Interpersonal Behavior, New York, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1961, p. 239-271.

26. E. Mavis Hetherington, "Girls Without Fathers", in Psychology Today, Vol. 6, No. 9, 1973, p. 47-52.

27. Miriam Johnson, "Sex Role Learning In The Nuclear Family", in Child Development, Vol. 34, 1963, p. 319-333.

28. David Aberle and Kasper D. Naegele, "Middle-Class Fathers' Occupational Role And Attitudes Toward Children", in American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, Vol. 22, 1952, p. 366-378.

Bronfenbrenner (1961)²⁹ also noted a difference in attitude on the part of the father toward sons or daughters. The girls received more praise, affection and attention and the boys were subjected to greater pressure and discipline. Peterson (1968)³⁰ analysed the results of a questionnaire measuring the parent's interest in and control of the adolescent's activities. The questionnaire was completed by a large sample representing all major regions of the United States. Girls indicated they experienced greater control and interest in their activities than the boys. After the fifteenth birthday, the boys appeared to experience a change from high control and interest to lower control and interest. Kuhlen (1952)³¹ suggests that it is because parents, particularly fathers, have a different attitude toward girls' behavior than toward boys' behavior that girls experience more difficulty in their struggle for independence during adolescence.

29. U. Bronfenbrenner, Op. Cit. p. 249.

30. Evan T. Peterson, "The Adolescent Male and Paternal Relationships" on ED 038 208, 1968, 25 p.

31. Raymond G. Kuhlen, The Psychology Of Adolescent Development, New York, Harper & Row, 1952, p. 590.

The 1970 study by Kinloch³² showed striking sex differences in parent-youth conflict. Female adolescents experienced more family conflict and more emotional reaction to conflict than did male adolescents. Kinloch's study did not determine with which parent the adolescent experienced the most conflict. Also, it should be noted that the study was retrospective in that it asked one hundred freshmen in a Sociology course to reflect on family conflict while in high school. It would be more accurate and useful to investigate the adolescents' perceptions of their relationship with their father or mother or both as they are living that relationship.

Sorenson's (1973)³³ comprehensive American study into the personal values and sexual behavior of American adolescents, discovered a rather startling response to the statement: "I've never really gotten to know my father." Forty-nine percent of the girls between thirteen and

32. Graham C. Kinloch, "Parent-Youth Conflict At Home: An Investigation Among University Freshmen", in American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, Vol. 40, No. 4, 1970, p. 658-664.

33. Robert C. Sorenson, Adolescent Sexuality in Contemporary America, New York, World Publishing Co., 1973, p. 388.

fifteen marked the statement as true as opposed to only twenty-three percent of the boys in the same age group. Within the sixteen to nineteen year old group, forty percent of the girls marked the statement as true and forty-four percent of the boys, which was a significant increase from the younger male's response.

As society moves toward less sex-role distinction, parental attitudes toward sons and daughters should equalize. Most of the literature reviewed was based on studies of the 1950's and 1960's, and there has been very little reference made to the quality of the relationship between the adolescent girl and her father as compared to the adolescent boy and his father. The literature reviewed notes that the adolescent girl experiences more attention, interest in and control of her activities, whereas the adolescent boy is given more independence, but at the same time experiences more pressure and evaluative behavior from his father. None of the studies evaluate the relationship in terms of the attitudinal qualities perceived by the adolescent as present in the relationship. Parents and adolescents can differ in values and modes of behavior, but still remain capable of mutual understanding and respect and much of the parent-interaction can be non-verbal as well as verbal. What is important to the adolescent, male or

female, who is involved in the emotional upheaval typical of adolescence, is the personal aspect of his or her relationship with father and this needs to be examined.

3. Effect Of Family Size On Father-Adolescent Relationship

Ivan Nye (1952)³⁴ hypothesized that the differences in the adjustment of adolescents to parents are largely the product of differences in the significant social environment of the adolescent. One of the variables he found to be significant was sibling number. In his study the high quartile for adolescent-parent adjustment shows the following trend:

only child	one sibling	two, three, four siblings	five plus siblings
38%	32%	24%	16%

As family size increases, adolescent-parent adjustment scores go down.

Using secondary data from two large surveys completed in 1955 and 1958, Nye, Carlson and Garrett³⁵ synthesized

34. Ivan Nye, Op. Cit., p. 330.

35. Ivan Nye, John Carlson and Gerald Garrett, "Family Size, Interaction, Affect and Stress", in Journal of Marriage and the Family, Vol. 32, 1970, p. 216-226.

previous research on the relationship of family size to affect, interaction and stress in family relationships. They arrived at the following conclusions:

1) The perception of adolescents concerning parents' feelings toward them show major differences by family size as Figure I, page 19, indicates.

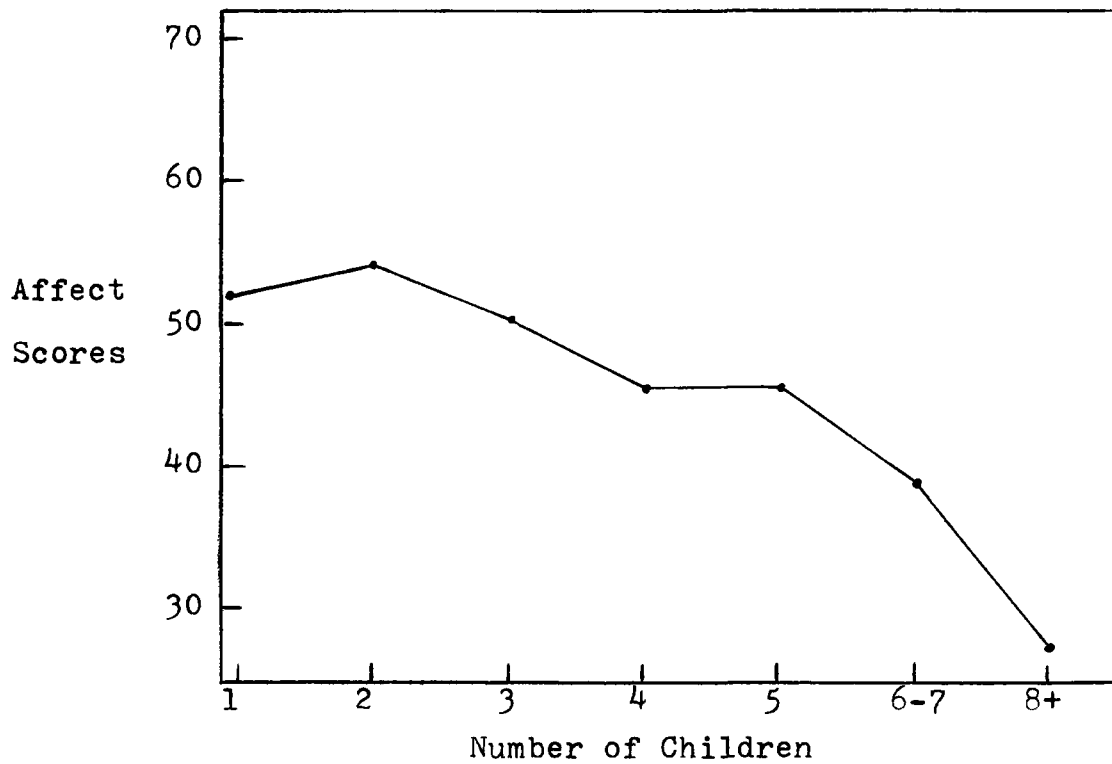
2) The decline in affect of children toward parents is much less than the decline in their perception of their parents' affect toward them. Family size is more likely to be reflected in feelings of children being neglected and rejected than in rejective feelings on their part toward their parents.

3) There is less permissiveness for girls past the three child family. Fathers of girls in large families control heavily the girl's freedom to attend social functions by themselves.

4) Corporal punishment and more infrequent discussion-only discipline measures are significantly related to family size increases.

5) Increased evidence of strain is shown in the disposition of the father as family size increases. Nye, Carlson and Garrett state that research suggests that large

Figure I
 Adolescent Perception Of Affect Of Parents Toward Them



Ivan Nye, John Carlson and Gerald Garrett, "Family Size, Interaction, Affect and Stress", in Journal of Marriage and The Family, Vol. 32, 1970, p. 217.

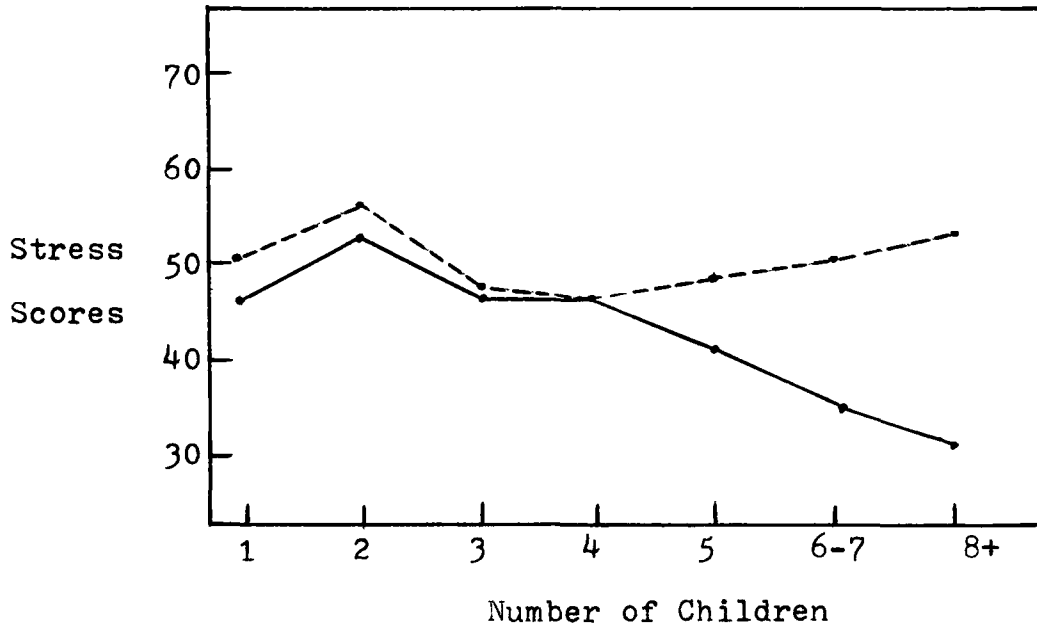
families may be more stressful for fathers than for mothers.
(Figure II, page 21.)

This analysis of previous research findings stresses that the relationship between family size, interaction, affect and stress is not linear. Generally, the higher positive scores start with the one child family, increase for the two child family and then decline as the number of children increases.

Holtzman and Moore (1967)³⁶ analysed responses to two forms dealing with attitudes toward personal and family living, and concerns and problems in personal and family living that had been completed by 12,892 Texas teenagers in 1956. The responses indicated that youth from the larger (six to nine plus) families were consistently more negativistic and less egalitarian in attitudes. The teenagers from the six plus families resented their dependence upon the family to a greater degree than did youth from smaller families. Family tension was high among members of large households and the children in these households felt

36. Wayne H. Holtzman and Bernice Milburn Moore, "Family Structure and Youth Attitudes", in Sherif, Muzaffer, and Carolyn W. Sherif (ed.), Problems of Youth, Chicago, Aldine Publishing Company, 1967, p. 46-61.

Figure II
 Family Size and Parental Stress



_____ Disposition of Fathers
 ----- Disposition of Mothers

Ivan Nye, John Carlson and Gerald Garrett, "Family Size, Interaction, Affect and Stress", in Journal of Marriage and The Family, Vol. 32, 1970, p. 223.

problems were more numerous between them, their parents and their peers. As Figure III, page 23 shows, girls in large families are more aware and concerned about tension in the family than boys. Boys were more apt to enjoy more rather than less independence whereas the teenage daughter in a large family tended to feel overburdened with family responsibility. Holtzman and Moore state:

In these family constellations of numerous members, the actual social-emotional distance between parents and children tends to be greater. Person-to-person contact between adults and youth is diluted in proportion to the number of others with whom it must be shared. 37.

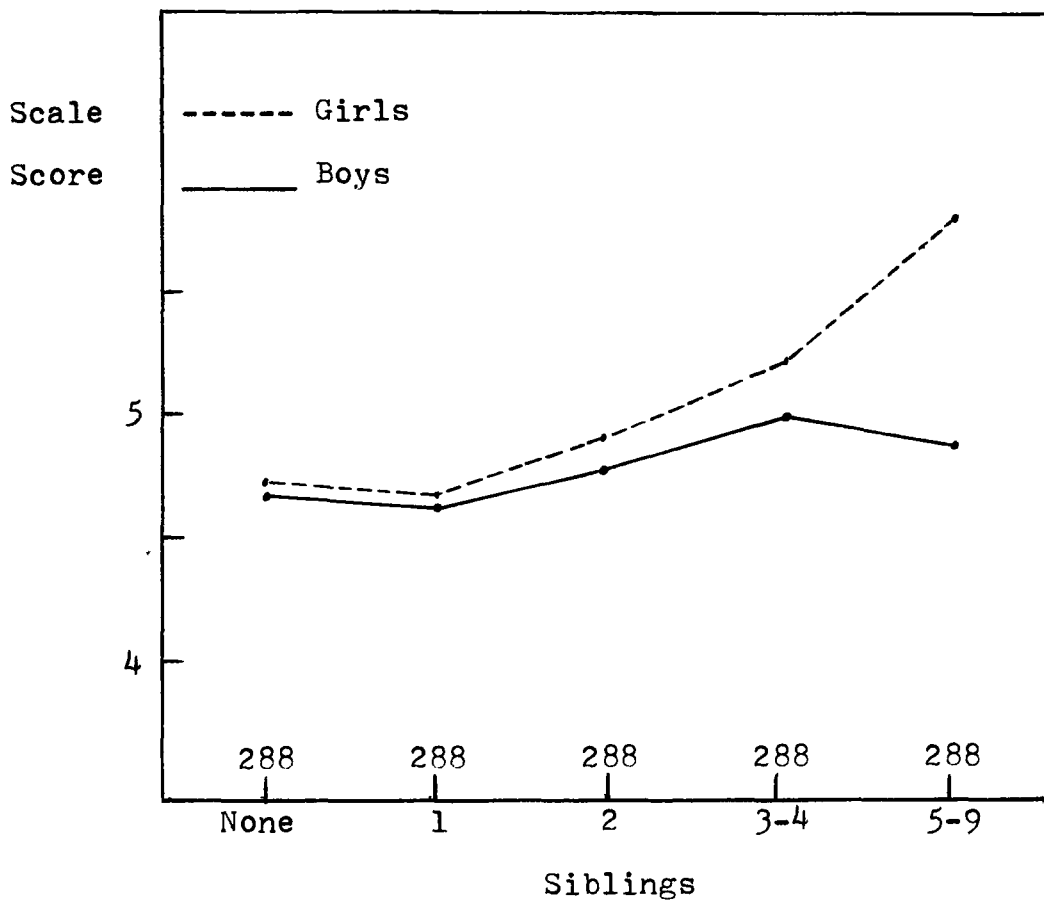
During the same period, the 1950's, Templeton (1962)³⁸ used data from 10,000 questionnaires that had been administered by a sociology department to junior and senior high school students during 1957, 1958, and 1959 to investigate the influence of family size on aspects of the teenagers' attitudes, behavior, and perceptions of home life. His findings were congruent with Douvan and Adelson's

37. IBID, p. 52.

38. Joe A. Templeton, "The Influence of Family Size On Some Aspects Of Teenagers' Attitudes, Behavior, and Perceptions of Home Life", in The Family Coordinator, Vol. 11, No. 1, 1962, p. 51-57.

Figure III

Girls In Large Families More Aware Of Family Tension Than Boys



Wayne H. Holtzman and Bernice Milburn Moore, "Family Structure and Youth Attitudes", in Sherif, Muzafer and Carolyn W. Sherif (ed.), Problems of Youth, Chicago, Aldine Publishing Company, 1967, p.53.

findings (1966)³⁹. Children from small or medium sized families (one to three children) reported home and family centered activities more often than did children from larger families. Also, small family children tended to view their families as highly cooperative. Templeton's democracy scale consistently indicated more democratic control in smaller families and Douvan and Adelson found parents of large families to be more traditional, strict and punitive. Large family parents more frequently used physical punishment.

Elder and Bowerman (1963)⁴⁰ hypothesized that the probability of paternal involvement in control and discipline of children would increase as family size increases. Their data was drawn from a larger research project and their sample consisted of grade seven students. The father was reported as being more likely to make decisions and act as chief disciplinarian as family size increases except in the case of lower class boys. Girls in a large family were twice as likely to report being disciplined by physical

39. Elizabeth Douvan and Joseph Adelson, The Adolescent Experience, New York, John Wiley & Sons Inc., 1966, p. 272-277.

40. Glen H. Elder Jr., and Charles E. Bowerman, "Family Structure and Child-Rearing Patterns: The Effect of Family Size and Sex Composition", in American Sociological Review, Vol. 28, 1963, p. 891-905.

discipline than lower class small family girls. Elder and Bowerman concluded that family size and sex composition effects on paternal involvement are heavily contingent on the sex of the child and on the family's social class status.

The only Canadian study taking family size into consideration is the study by Breton and McDonald (1971) who justify their use of secondary data in this way:

In spite of the limitations of the available data, in the sense that somewhat different and additional questions would have been asked if the study had been designed to explore and analyse family relationships and would also have included information from parents as well as from adolescents, the justification for the secondary analysis reported in this paper lies in the scarcity of research material on this matter in Canada.⁴¹

One aspect of Breton and McDonald's study looked at the supportive relationships between parents and adolescents by finding the percentage reporting interest shown in school work by and praise received from both parents, the father, or the mother, as related to the occupational status of the father, the language of the family, French or English, the number of children in the family, the birth order of the children, and the employment status of the mother.

41. Raymond Breton and John C. McDonald, "Aspects of Parent-Adolescent Relationships: The Perceptions of Secondary School Students", in Ishwaran, K., The Canadian Family, Toronto, Holt, Rinehart and Winston of Canada Ltd., 1971, p. 155.

Family size and the child's birth order were found not to be related to parental interest in school work or to the expression of parental praise for the accomplishments of the child. More parents gave praise than showed interest in school work but there was very little difference across the various family size groups for either praise or interest shown. A strong positive association was found, however, between family size and the adolescent's participation in family decisions, his independence in decision-making, and with the educational aspirations of the parents for their son or daughter. Adolescents from small families were found to be about fourteen percent more likely to score high on participation in family decision-making and on independence in vocational decision-making, than adolescents from large families.⁴²

Adolescents today were born in the late 1950's and early 1960's, during a period when the family planning movement was beginning to reach the general population. Parents of adolescents that participated in the research of the 1950's and 1960's may not have had access to family planning information. Certainly, attitudes toward family planning became much more positive from the 1950's onward.

42. IBID, p. 159.

Consequently, large families of the 1970's may not experience the same degree of tension or of stress on the part of the father, and there may be no significant difference in father-child adjustment in relation to family size.

In each of the preceding sections which have examined the father-adolescent relationship as affected by the adolescent's age, sex, and sibling number, the need for a more intense examination of the interpersonal relationship between father and adolescent as affected by these factors has arisen. Studies dealing with the father-adolescent relationship in the 1940's, 1950's and early 1960's may no longer be relevant since father's role in the family is changing. Bernice Milburn Moore (1967)⁴³ believes that different ways of relating, behaving and interacting between generations come into being as inevitably as scientific advances and technological modifications. It has been previously noted that adolescents today react to their fathers on the basis of the father's personal attributes and on the interpersonal relationship between

43. Bernice Milburn Moore, "Interaction Among Generations", in Journal Of Home Economics, Vol. 59, No. 8, 1967, p. 622.

father and child, rather than out of respect for the father as traditionally viewed. John Janeway Conger (1972) notes that today's adults also react differently to adolescents:

It has been recently observed, although systematic data are lacking, that adults who are currently the parents of adolescents are more likely to be sympathetic and "understanding" not only toward their own children, but, toward adolescents generally.

Taking account of these facts, the following research hypotheses have been developed to test the literature previously reviewed, and to further explore the father-adolescent relationship of the 1970's.

44. John Janeway Conger, Op Cit., p. 211.

4. Research Hypotheses:

1. There will be a significant difference between the early adolescent's and the mid-adolescent's perception of the father's relationship with them, in that the early adolescent will score the father lower than the older adolescent.

2. There will be a significant difference between the boy's and the girl's perception of the father's relationship with them, in that the girl will score the father lower than the boy.

3. There will be a significant difference between the small family adolescent's and the large family adolescent's perception of the father's relationship with them, in that the large family adolescent will score the father lower than the small family adolescent.

CHAPTER II

EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

The father-adolescent relationship is explored by means of the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory which measures the attitudinal qualities of the helping relationship as defined by Carl Rogers. Rogers states that a helping relationship is one in which one party has the intent of promoting the growth, development, maturity, improved functioning and improved coping with life of the other.¹ Although Rogers' emphasis has been on psychotherapy, he notes the relevance of the concept for family interaction.² The helping relationship is characterized by the following attitudinal qualities:

by a genuineness and transparency, in which I am my real feelings;
by a warm acceptance of and prizing of the other person as a separate individual;
by a sensitive ability to see his world and himself as he sees them;

The concept of the helping relationship as measured by the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory is used in this study

1. Carl R. Rogers, On Becoming A Person, Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1961, p. 39-40.

2. IBID, p. 38, 40, 41, 42.

3. IBID, p.37-38.

because it appears to be the best available means of assessing the quality of the father-adolescent relationship as perceived by the adolescent.

1. The Instrument

Barrett-Lennard started with Rogers' theoretical formulation of necessary conditions for the helping relationship and developed the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory which measures the attitudinal qualities of level of regard, empathic understanding, congruence, unconditionality of regard and willingness to be known. He defines these variables in the following terms:

Level of Regard

refers here to the affective aspect of one person's response to another. This may include various qualities and strengths of "positive" and "negative" feeling. Positive feelings include respect, liking, appreciation, affection, and any other affectively adient response. Conversely, negative feelings include dislike, impatience, contempt, and in general affectively abient responses. Level of regard is the general tendency (at a given time) of the various affective⁴ reactions of one person in relation to another.

4. G. T. Barrett-Lennard, "Dimensions Of Therapist Response As Causal Factors In Therapeutic Change", in Psychological Monographs, Vol. 76, No. 43, 1962, p. 4.

Empathic Understanding

is an active process of desiring to know the full present and changing awareness of another person, of reaching out to receive his communication and meaning, and of translating his words and signs into experienced meaning that matches at least those aspects of his awareness that are most important to him at the moment. It is an experiencing of the consciousness "behind" another's outward communication, but with continuous awareness that this consciousness is originating and proceeding in the other.⁵

Congruence

is the degree to which one person is functionally integrated in the context of his relationship with another, such that there is absence of conflict or inconsistency between his total experience, his awareness, and his overt communication...

In other words, the highly congruent individual is completely honest, direct, and sincere in what he conveys, but does not feel any compulsion to communicate his perceptions, or any need to withhold₆ them for emotionally self-protective reasons.

Unconditionality of Regard

is specifically concerned with how little or how much variability there is in one person's affective response for another,⁷ who communicates self-experiences to the first.

5. IBID, p. 3

6. IBID, p. 4

7. IBID, p. 4

Willingness to be Known

is conceived as the degree to which one person is willing to be known as a person, by another, according to the other's desire for this. To be known as a person is considered here to involve especially the sharing of experiences and perceptions of the self, perceptions of the self-other interaction or relationship (referred to, collectively, as self-experience).

A person who is functioning with a high degree of willingness to be known, in relation to another, is open to awareness of whatever desire the other has to experience and know him as a person, and wants to share self-experience in direct relation to his awareness of this desire.⁸

Each variable is represented by sixteen to eighteen items, which are both negatively and positively expressed. The item content for the Relationship Inventory was prepared in association with staff members of the University of Chicago Counseling Center. Five experienced client-centered counsellors independently classified each item as a positive, a negative or a neutral indicator of the variable in question. Perfect agreement was reached except in the case of four items, three of which were eliminated and the fourth was retained because there was inconsistency only in that it had been given a neutral rating by one judge. A total of eighty-five items comprise the questionnaire.

8. IBID, p. 5.

The Relationship Inventory makes provision for three grades of 'yes' and three grades of 'no' responses which are identified as +1, +2, +3, and -1, -2, -3, respectively. Barrett-Lennard's purpose for this graded response was to obtain answers that reflected how certain the respondent felt about the item statement being correct or incorrect and how the respondent felt as well as what he observed with regard to the subject of the inquiry.

The answer categories are as follows:

- +3: Yes, I strongly feel that it is true.
- +2: Yes, I feel it is true.
- +1: Yes, I feel that it is probably true, or more true than untrue.
- 1: No, I feel that it is probably untrue, or more untrue than true.
- 2: No, I feel it is not true.
- 3: No, I strongly feel that it is not true.

The scoring procedure involves face-value weighting of the numerical categories and allows every answer to the items to either add or detract from the resulting score, according to the direction of its theoretical meaning. The specific method for scoring is to reverse the sign of the subject's answers to the theoretically negative items, giving the answers to positive and negative items the same

theoretical direction, and then to sum the relevant items for each variable. This method yields a possible scoring range of $+3n$ to $-3n$, where n is the number of items for the variable being scored.

As Barrett-Lennard points out, one aspect of the validity question is whether the primary data are themselves valid. The students in this study were told that the purpose of the study was to gain a better understanding of the father-adolescent relationship. They were told that the researcher did not want to know the name of the student or the name of his or her father. Only those presently living with their father filled in the questionnaire. It is felt that by knowing the purpose of the questionnaire, by filling it out anonymously and by responding in respect to a present relationship with the father, the students' responses would reflect greater accuracy of their perceptions and experiences with regard to the father's attitudinal qualities as measured by the Relationship Inventory.

The internal consistency of the five individual variable scales was assessed by Barrett-Lennard by the split-half method. Corrected split-half reliability coefficients of the Relationship Inventory scales from client data after five therapy interviews were: ($N=40$), level of regard .93; empathic understanding .86;

congruence .89; unconditionality of regard .82; and willingness to be known .82. Test-retest correlations over a four week period using forty-five college students' responses regarding a long standing personal relationship were made. Nine cases were eliminated because the subjects felt that their relationship had changed. The test-retest correlations for the remaining sample were: level of regard .84; empathic understanding .89; congruence .86; unconditionality of regard .90; and willingness to be known .78.⁹

Subsequent researchers using the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory found corrected split-half reliability coefficients on the first four variables ranged from .95 to .51.¹⁰

9. IBID, p. 12.

10. John Gray Thomson, An Empirical Study Of The Relationship Between Ontario Secondary Principals' Leadership Effectiveness And Helping Relationship In Ontario Secondary Teachers, unpublished doctoral dissertation, University Of Ottawa, 1972, unpublished information quoted on page 42.

2. The Sample

In order to examine the adolescents' perception of the fathers' relationship with them in terms of the previously stated hypotheses, one hundred and fifty students in grades seven and eight of a senior elementary school, and one hundred and fifty grade eleven high school students were given the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory to complete.

Forty-one students returned questionnaires that were not usable because they were not presently living with their father, or, they felt strongly about answering the questionnaire, or, they did not complete the questionnaire.

For the purpose of this study, early adolescent is defined as age thirteen plus or minus one year; mid-adolescent is age sixteen plus or minus one year; a small family refers to a family with one to three children; and a large family refers to a family with four or more children. These definitions are consistent with those of researchers whose studies are quoted in Chapter I.

3. The Research Design

The two hundred and fifty-nine students who participated in the study randomly fell into the following groupings:

		Modal Age 13	Modal Age 16
Small Family	Male	n=33	n=31
	Female	n=43	n=42
Large Family	Male	n=18	n=35
	Female	n=28	n=29

There are five dependent variables giving scores for the adolescent's perception of the father's level of regard, empathic understanding, congruence, unconditionality of regard, and willingness to be known. The three factors in the design, age, sex, and family size, each have two levels as the design indicates.

4. Analysis of Data

The Fortran IV program by J. D. Finn, Version 4, June, 1968, A Univariate and Multivariate Analysis of Variance and Covariance and Regression, was used to analyse the data. The F-ratio for the multivariate test of equality of mean vectors was computed for:

- 1) the two levels of age
- 2) the two levels of family size
- 3) the two sexes
- 4) the two factors age and family size
- 5) the two factors age and sex
- 6) the two factors family size and sex
- 7) the three factors age, family size, and sex

A post hoc procedure was carried out to determine the groups contributing to significant F-values in the hypothesis concerning the two levels of age and the one concerning the sexes. The post hoc analysis also determined which variables contributed to the significant F-values. The step-down F-values provided by the program indicated which variables contributed to the significant F-values. The Least Square Estimates of Effects for each variable also provided by the program indicated the direction of effect, that is, which level of each factor had the higher mean for the variables causing significant results.

CHAPTER III

PRESENTATION OF THE RESULTS

The first hypothesis indicated an expected difference in scores on the father's relationship with the adolescent as related to the adolescent's age. The multivariate F-value was significant for the age factor at the .0001 level of significance. There is a significant difference between the early and the mid-adolescents' perceptions of their fathers' relationship with them. The step-down F-values provided by the computer program indicate that the significant difference between the two age groups can be attributed to the second dependent variable which is empathic understanding. The mean on level one (modal age 13) was significantly greater ($p < .0001$) than the mean on level two (modal age 16) for this variable. Therefore, the early adolescent scored the father higher than the mid-adolescent and the variable which contributed significantly to this result was the father's level of empathic understanding.

The results fail to accept the first hypothesis being tested which was based on the literature indicating that the period of greatest father-adolescent conflict was

at pubescence and therefore assumed that the early adolescents would perceive their fathers' relationship with them less favorably than the older adolescents.

The second hypothesis stated that there would be a significant difference between the boy's and girl's perception of the father's relationship with them in that the girl would score the father lower than the boy. The multivariate F-value was significant for the sex factor at .002 level of significance. Step-down F-values indicated that this significance was attributable to variable 1, level of regard ($p < .0064$); variable 2, empathic understanding ($p < .0127$); and variable 4, unconditionality of regard ($p < .049$). The mean on level two (females) was significantly higher than the mean on level one (males) for variable 1, level of regard. For variable 4, unconditionality of regard, the girls again scored the father significantly higher than did the females.

The results fail to accept the hypothesis that the boys would score the father higher than the girls because the boys scored the father higher on only one variable whereas the girls scored the father significantly higher on two variables.

No significant difference was found in adolescent-father scoring considering family size. Hypothesis three which stated that the adolescent from a small family would score the father higher than the adolescent from a large family cannot be accepted.

PRESENTATION OF THE RESULTS

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TABLE I

Observed Cell Means And Standard Deviations Of Dependent Variables

		Modal Age 13			Modal Age 16			
		Mean	Std. Dev.		Mean	Std. Dev.		
Small Family Male	n=33	R.	29.88	19.55	n=31	R.	34.58	12.98
		E.	9.55	15.21		E.	4.84	13.58
		C.	18.76	15.32		C.	18.30	12.93
		U.	.23	14.33		U.	-1.29	15.33
		W.	16.73	15.63		W.	17.74	13.33
Small Family Female	n=43	R.	35.02	16.52	n=42	R.	38.98	10.36
		E.	9.40	13.60		E.	2.19	13.57
		C.	19.77	15.58		C.	24.00	13.36
		U.	1.88	15.89		U.	4.64	15.88
		W.	17.72	14.69		W.	20.09	13.86
Large Family Male	n=18	R.	37.44	12.51	n=35	R.	23.74	22.54
		E.	11.05	14.04		E.	-2.51	12.24
		C.	21.33	13.20		C.	11.88	17.51
		U.	-.11	13.69		U.	-6.54	14.68
		W.	22.05	13.33		W.	9.00	16.21
Large Family Female	n=28	R.	33.89	14.77	n=29	R.	34.90	13.58
		E.	6.32	12.39		E.	-.72	14.75
		C.	18.32	12.02		C.	18.68	12.40
		U.	2.07	17.73		U.	-1.68	18.06
		W.	16.82	13.64		W.	15.14	12.09

n= number in cell
R= Level of Regard
E= Empathic Understanding

C= Congruence
U= Unconditionality of Regard
W= Willingness to be Known

TABLE II

Manova Table

Level of Significance 0.05					
Source	Hypothesis ¹	ndf	Multivariate F-value	ndf	Significance
A	2	1	7.61	5,247	.0001*
B	2	1	1.27	5,247	.28
C	2	1	4.04	5,247	.002*
AB	8	1	1.75	5,247	.12
AC	8	1	1.16	5,247	.33
BC	8	1	0.05	5,247	.99
ABC	8	1	1.04	5,247	.39

A= Age

B= Family Size

C= Sex

1. Within the Finn program there is a re-ordering of the basis vectors so that the main effects are read when first out (hypothesis two in the program) and the interactions when last out, or, the eighth hypothesis in each case.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

The results of this study indicate that the early adolescent experiences more empathic understanding from the father than does the older adolescent. As previously defined, empathic understanding

is an active process of desiring to know the full present and changing awareness of another person, of reaching out to receive his communication and meaning, and of translating his words and signs into experienced meaning that matches at least those aspects of his awareness that are most important to him at the moment.¹

Three steps are involved in the empathic relationship: first, the father must reach out to receive the adolescent's communication; second, the father must communicate his perception of the adolescent's state of awareness back to the adolescent; and third, the adolescent must perceive that the father does empathically understand. Difficulty in achieving any one of these steps could be responsible for the older adolescent's lower scoring of the father with regard to level of empathic understanding.

1. G. T. Barrett-Lennard, "Dimensions Of Therapist Response As Causal Factors In Therapeutic Change", in Psychological Monographs, Vol. 76, No. 43, 1962, p. 3.

Nye found that the older boys in his study (aged fifteen to seventeen), registered the poorest adjustment to parents and postulated that this was because the older boys were granted more independence and therefore experienced less family integration. It may be, that as the older adolescents, male and female, broaden their social horizons and the father permits them more independence, there is less interaction or meaningful communication between father and older adolescent. Without close interpersonal contact it is difficult to be sensitive to another person's feelings, or to let another person know that he is understood.

As the adolescent gains more independence, his evaluation of the father's relationship with him will be more objective. Not only does the older adolescent's increased independence permit him more interpersonal relationships outside the family with which to compare and judge the relationship with the father, but, he also experiences less emotional dependency and therefore, is able to perceive more realistically in terms of evidence coming from his own senses. In other words, it may be that the younger adolescent judges his father as he feels he should be judged and is not yet able to open his senses to a realistic evaluation of the relationship. Also, Conger pointed out that the quality of the interpersonal relationship is more important to the older adolescent and as such,

the older adolescent will be more sensitive to the father's level of empathic understanding.

Meissner noted that the older the adolescent, the more he feels that the father does not understand his personal problems. It is difficult for the father to experience the world as the adolescent experiences it because he draws on his own experience to try to understand their problems and comes upon two obstacles to reaching an understanding of their problems. First, he did not experience the same problems adolescents today face, and secondly, he is too emotionally involved to be objective and see the problem from the adolescent's point of view. Also, as the adolescent makes greater strides toward establishing a self identity, the father may become more defensive because he faces the realization that he is losing his youth and this too precludes the sharing of feelings.

With the process of detachment from the family comes the need to develop a measure of emotional independence, and for a time, adolescents may shut themselves off emotionally from their parents, and in this way, attempt to shield themselves from exposing their mixed-up feelings.

The younger adolescents in Bowerman and Irish's study felt they had a closer affectional relationship with

the father than did the older adolescents. Since friendship, warmth and emotional closeness are part of the empathic process, this finding is congruent with the higher level of empathic understanding perceived by the younger adolescents in this study.

The fact that there is strong evidence in literature to indicate that peak father-adolescent conflict occurs in early adolescence must be carefully considered. Conflict between father and adolescent need not be indicative of a poor interpersonal relationship. In fact, conflict may only take place within a secure interpersonal relationship, one in which the adolescent feels free to test, to provoke, and to invite negative adult reaction. The conflict may be a 'war game' stimulated by trivia such as length of hair or wearing apparel. Moreover, a complete absence of conflict does not necessarily indicate a good interpersonal relationship. Under the surface feelings on the part of the adolescent with regard to the relationship with the father may never be communicated but certainly do little to liberate or enlarge the adolescent's personality structure. Careful attention must be paid to what the term 'conflict' really imports. If father-adolescent conflict is assessed on the basis of word association test, then very little will be learned about the father-adolescent relationship.

With regard to the second hypothesis, it is not surprising that the males scored their father higher than did the females on level of empathic understanding. As Sullivan stated: "... the parent of the same sex as the child has a feeling of familiarity with the child, of understanding him..."² It is easier for the father to identify with his son than with his daughter. Also, as previously noted in Chapter I, by Elder, Tasch, and by Lickorish, there is more interaction between father and son than between father and daughter. More interaction invites greater opportunity for empathic understanding. Fathers are also more likely to perceive within the same frame of reference as their sons as confirmed by Langford and Alm. Therefore, the finding that boys scored the father higher than did the girls on the father's level of empathic understanding is in keeping with the literature reviewed.

The girls scored their fathers higher than did the boys on level of regard and on unconditionality of regard. Returning to the review of the literature in Chapter I for an explanation of these results, it will be noted that

2. H. S. Sullivan, The Interpersonal Theory Of Psychiatry, New York, W.W. Norton, 1953, p. 218.

fathers tend to differentiate their behavior toward sons and daughters on the basis of role expectations for them. Boys experience more nagging and irritability from their fathers than do girls, and, fathers demand more of their sons and exert more pressure on them to achieve. Fathers were also found to be less evaluative of their daughters' behavior and praised them more than they praised their sons.

If indeed, the adolescent male experiences more evaluative judgments of his behavior by his father than does the female, the male will probably perceive the father as having a lower level of regard for him as an individual compared to the female. He will experience more of the affectively abient responses such as impatience, disapproval, nagging and non-acceptance of behavior. The female, on the other hand, experiences more affectively adient responses from the father. The boys and girls in Droppleman and Schaefer's study credited the same sex parent with more negative behavior such as nagging and irritability, so girls as compared to the boys would be expected to see their fathers as nicer, respecting them more, and showing them more appreciation. Both the Breznitz and Kugelmass and the Gardner studies confirm that the opposite sex parent is rated higher in disposition and character.

Since the boys feel compelled to meet certain of their father's goals for them, they may see their father's respect as conditional and closely related to their performance and to the father's acceptance of their behavior. The adolescent who perceives a high level of unconditionality of regard sees himself as being valued as a person, irrespective of the differential values placed on specific behaviors. Table I, page 43, shows that all adolescents in this study scored their fathers low (as compared to scores on other variables) on unconditionality of regard. The analysis of the results indicated that the boys scored this variable significantly lower than did the girls. It would seem then, that either adolescents, boys more than girls, have difficulty perceiving their father's unconditionality of regard as such, or, that fathers have difficulty valuing the adolescent as a person irrespective of the differential values placed on the son or daughter's specific behaviors. In view of the fact, that parents tend to see children as extensions of themselves, and tend to subjectively evaluate their behavior, it is more likely that fathers do have a low level of unconditionality of regard for their adolescent offspring. Since the adolescent is struggling for autonomy, self-assertiveness and self-direction, he or she will

likely feel threatened and defensive in the face of the father's unconditionality of regard. The adolescent needs to feel respected and valued as a person in his own right and not as a son or daughter in order to achieve a sense of worth and to feel free to be himself. Turning again to Table I, page 43, it will be noted that the variable receiving the highest score in all groups is level of regard. Adolescents, girls more than boys, see their fathers as liking them and respecting them, but boys more than girls, feel this respect is conditional.

The variables congruence and willingness to be known did not contribute significantly to the significant F-value between the boys' and girls' perception of the fathers' relationship with them. Unlike the Sorenson study, this study found that adolescents did not appear to find any difficulty with regard to the father's willingness to be known. However, it must be noted that Sorenson's data was based on one true-false question whereas the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory used in this study devotes sixteen weighted questions to the assessment of the variable willingness to be known.

No significant difference was found between the large and small family child's perception of the relationship with the father, nor were any significant differences found in the interactions between age and family size, sex and family size, and age, sex, and family size.

As previously noted, most of the studies, including the study by Nye, Carlson, and Garrett which was published in 1970, were based on data collected from adolescents of the 1950's and 1960's. During the 1940's and 1950's when these adolescents were born, family planning was not universally accepted. The dissemination of birth control information and the sale of contraceptives was a criminal offense in Canada until 1969 under Section 150 (2)c of the Criminal Code. However, the law was largely ignored during the late fifties and early sixties when today's adolescents were born. In spite of the law, contraceptives were available in pharmacies and freely prescribed by more and more doctors. With the availability and acceptance of contraception, parents of today's children are being forced to accept a greater responsibility and commitment with regard to their children. When it is possible for the parents to choose the size of the family they want, it is less likely that there will be marked differences in parent-child relationships according to family size.

However, in order to draw conclusions about family size, family planning and the father-adolescent relationship, further research would have to be undertaken to link family planning with the results of this study concerning family size.

The results of this study contrast the findings of Nye, Carlson and Garrett which indicate that the perception of children concerning parents' feelings toward them show major differences with respect to family size. There is strong evidence to support the contention that family size affects the authority and discipline patterns within the family, but, as shown in Breton and McDonald's study which considered as well, social-economic status and French-English cultural backgrounds, family size did not appear to affect the parent's supportiveness of their child in terms of interest in their school work or praise for their accomplishments. Both the present and the previous Canadian studies suggest that family size does not influence the adolescent's perception of the helping or supportive relationship offered him by his parents. It may be that there are differences in Canadian and American value systems which will account for the discrepancy found in the results of the Canadian and American studies with regard to the adolescent's perception of the parent's affect toward him. It may also

be, as Conger observed, that parents of adolescents today are more understanding toward adolescents generally.

In conclusion, looking at the father-adolescent relationship in terms of the three hypotheses concerning age, sex, and family size, it is evident that the age and sex of the adolescent are important factors to be considered in the father-adolescent relationship, but family size appears to have no significant bearing on the quality of the relationship. The implications of these results for family living and for family life education will be dealt with in the following chapter.

CHAPTER V

IMPLICATIONS FOR FAMILY LIFE AND FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

As noted in the Introduction, the key concept of family life education programs is to guide individuals and families in improving their interpersonal relationships and in this way to help further their maximum development. The results of this study have helped identify areas for improvement in the father-adolescent relationship and have also noted differences in the adolescent's perception of the relationship according to the age and the sex of the adolescent. The Introduction also pointed out that lack of a close interpersonal father-adolescent relationship has dire effects on the adolescent's personality, behavior, and total functioning as an individual. Therefore, it is of paramount importance to develop programs aimed at improving the father-adolescent relationship.

Family life programs reach out to all age groups, to parents as well as to their children. Fathers can be helped through various techniques of parent effectiveness training, through parent-adolescent discussion groups and through parent-adolescent interaction groups, to learn to reflect their son or daughter's feelings, to communicate understanding before leaping in and offering advice or evaluating the adolescent's behavior. As fathers learn to

listen and to communicate non-evaluatively, they get to know and understand their child better and become better prepared to accept the child as a person and not just as a child functioning within a son or daughter role. Most adolescents participating in this study responded positively to the father's congruence and willingness to be known and even though there were differences in the boys' and girls' scoring of level of regard, both scored the father high compared to scores on the other variables. Therefore, the basis for establishing a close interpersonal relationship is perceived as present by the adolescent.

It would be useful to know how the father perceives the relationship with his adolescent son or daughter and whether his perceptions are congruent with those of other members of the family. There has been very little research on family interaction within the nuclear family and also very little intergenerational research to isolate patterns of interaction and attitudinal qualities between parents and children.

Frequently, it is the adolescent's perception of the parent's attitudes which closes off further communication between parent and child. The adolescent who perceives his father as having a low level of unconditionality of regard

for him will feel hesitant to discuss a problem of deep concern with his father for fear of losing the father's respect and affection. A further project for research could be a pilot study to determine improvement in adolescent perception of the parental relationship with them after exposure to parent-adolescent discussion groups subsequent to the parents' having undergone parent-effectiveness training. Should the results prove encouraging, more use could be made of trained parent volunteer groups to work with adolescents and their parents in such areas as family planning clinics, venereal disease clinics and juvenile court where problems in adolescent-parent communication are more than obvious and adolescents often express a fear of communicating with their parents because of their parents' evaluative behavior toward them.

Since the adolescent with modal age sixteen experiences less empathic understanding from the father than the younger adolescent, father participation in the school's family life program should be particularly encouraged for the thirteen to sixteen year old group. Parent participation in the school's family life program encourages a greater mutuality of understanding. Parent participation in the school's family life program also encourages adolescent participation in family activities and in family decision-making. Increased parent-adolescent interaction of this

kind should lead to a closer parent-adolescent relationship.

Sinay, Yusin and Nihira commented on the importance of knowledge of current parent-adolescent attitudes for the treatment of adolescents in crisis. Not only can adolescents be helped to develop adaptive and appropriate ways of coping with their parents' attitudes toward them, but, following more extensive research into parent-adolescent attitudes, comparisons can be made between the attitudes of parents of adolescents in crisis and those of adolescents not in crisis. The more that can be known about the 'normal' adolescent's perception of his parents' attitudes toward him, the easier it will be to focus on significant areas for crisis psychotherapy with adolescents experiencing problems in their relationship with their parents. The present study contributes to the knowledge of current parent-adolescent attitudes in that it indicates that there is a difference between the boys' and the girls' perceptions of the father's level of regard, unconditionality of regard, and level of empathic understanding for them. It also notes differences between the early and the mid-adolescent's perception of the father's level of empathic understanding.

Knowing that there are differences in perception across the two age groups studied, it would be interesting for further research to identify changes in the father-

child relationship across the various age groups, preschool, school age, adolescence and adulthood. It would be a challenging investigation but infinitely valuable in developing a continuous parent-child education program to improve the quality of family life. Another factor which may influence the father-child relationship is the father's participation in a family centered maternity care program. It would be worthwhile to assess the effect on the father-child relationship of the father's participation in a family centered maternity care program and the longevity of the effect. In other words, does the father who participates in his son's or daughter's birth and postnatal care have a closer relationship with his child even when the child becomes an adolescent, than the father who does not take part in a family centered maternity care program? By isolating factors that contribute to a closer father-child relationship, progress can be made in promoting better father-child relationships and in this way encourage the maximum development of the child.

In view of the fact that significant differences were noted with regard to the sex of the adolescent and his or her perception of the relationship with the father, an interesting question arises as to the grouping of students in family life education classes. If adolescents

perceive their relationship with their parents differently should the sexes be separated or integrated for family life classes? At present both policies exist in the education system. It is the author's contention that by separating two groups who do not perceive relationships the same way, an educational program does not encourage better understanding between different sexed siblings, or between boys and girls in general. Each sex can help the other to reach a better understanding and appreciation of the parent-child relationship.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The purpose of the study was to investigate the adolescents' perception of the father's relationship with them as measured by the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory and in light of the three hypotheses concerning expected differences in perception of the relationship according to the adolescent's age, sex and family size.

Significant differences in the adolescents' perception of the father's relationship with them were noted with regard to the adolescent's age and sex but no significant differences could be attributed to family size. The early adolescent scored the father more favorably than did the older adolescent and the variable which contributed significantly to this result was the father's level of empathic understanding. The girls scored their fathers higher on two variables, level of regard and unconditionality of regard but the males scored their fathers higher on level of empathic understanding. Therefore, although one can say that on the overall score, girls scored their fathers more favorably than did the boys, the significantly different scoring of these variables must be taken into consideration when looking at the father-adolescent relationship.

These findings add to the limited knowledge of current parent-adolescent attitudes and thus contribute to a better understanding of the adolescent-father relationship. Suggestions have been put forth regarding the usefulness of these findings for the promotion of better father-adolescent relationships through various educational programs. The importance of these findings for the therapist working with the adolescent in crisis has also been considered. Finally, suggestions have been offered regarding further research to augment the present state of knowledge of father-child relationships.

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APPENDIX 1

THE RELATIONSHIP INVENTORY INSTRUMENT

APPENDIX 1

RELATIONSHIP INVENTORY

The purpose of this research is to gain a better understanding of father-adolescent relationships in the city and environs of Ottawa. The data collected from your participation and that of other randomly selected Ottawa and district high school students will be used only for purposes of research being conducted at the University of Ottawa. Your response to the following questionnaire will remain anonymous. Please do not write your name on this form.

_____ Your age. M _____ F Sex. _____ Father's age.

_____ Number of children in your family.

_____ Taking number 1 as representing the oldest, what number are you in the family?

_____ Educational level attained by your father, i.e.
1- grade school, 2- high school, 3- university

Following are listed ways that one person may feel or behave toward another person. Please consider each statement with respect to your present relationship with your FATHER. Mark each statement in the left margin according to how strongly you feel it is true or not true. It is most important to answer every item. Write in +1, +2, +3, or -1, -2, -3, to

stand for the following answers:

- | | |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------|
| +3: Yes, I strongly feel that it is true. | -1: No, I feel that it is probably untrue, or more untrue than true. |
| +2: Yes, I feel it is true. | -2: No, I feel it is not true. |
| +1: Yes, I feel that it is probably true, or more true than untrue. | -3: No, I strongly feel that it is not true. |

- _____ 1. He respects me.
- _____ 2. He tries to see things through my eyes.
- _____ 3. He pretends that he likes me or understands me more than he really does.
- _____ 4. His interest in me depends partly on what I am talking to him about.
- _____ 5. He is willing to tell me his own thoughts and feelings when he is sure that I really want to know them.
- _____ 6. He disapproves of me.
- _____ 7. He understands my words but not the way I feel.
- _____ 8. What he says to me never conflicts with what he thinks or feels.
- _____ 9. He always responds to me with warmth and interest-
or always with coldness and disinterest.
- _____ 10. He tells me his opinions or feelings more than I really want to know them.
- _____ 11. He is curious about "the way I tick", but not really interested in me as a person.
- _____ 12. He is interested in knowing what my experiences mean to me.
- _____ 13. He is disturbed whenever I talk about or ask about certain things.
- _____ 14. His feeling toward me does not depend on how I am feeling towards him.

- _____ 15. He prefers to talk only about me and not at all about him.
- _____ 16. He likes seeing me.
- _____ 17. He nearly always knows exactly what I mean.
- _____ 18. I feel that he has unspoken feelings or concerns that are getting in the way of our relationship.
- _____ 19. His attitude toward me depends partly on how I am feeling about myself.
- _____ 20. He will freely tell me his own thoughts and feelings, when I want to know them.
- _____ 21. He is indifferent to me.
- _____ 22. At times he jumps to the conclusion that I feel more strongly or more concerned about something than I actually do.
- _____ 23. He behaves just the way he is, in our relationship.
- _____ 24. Sometimes he responds to me in a more positive and friendly way than he does at other times.
- _____ 25. He says more about himself than I am really interested to hear.
- _____ 26. He appreciates me.
- _____ 27. Sometimes he thinks that I feel a certain way, because he feels that way.
- _____ 28. I do not think that he hides anything from himself that he feels with me.

- _____ 29. He likes me in some ways, dislikes me in others.
- _____ 30. He adopts a professional role that makes it hard
for me to know what he is like as a person.
- _____ 31. He is friendly and warm toward me.
- _____ 32. He understands me.
- _____ 33. If I feel negatively toward him he responds
negatively to me.
- _____ 34. He tells me what he thinks about me, whether I
want to know it or not.
- _____ 35. He cares about me.
- _____ 36. His attitudes toward some of the things I say,
or do, stop him from really understanding me.
- _____ 37. He does not avoid anything that is important for
our relationship.
- _____ 38. Whether I am expressing "good" feelings or "bad"
ones, seems to make no difference to how positively-
or how negatively-he feels toward me.
- _____ 39. He is uncomfortable when I ask him something
about himself.
- _____ 40. He feels that I am dull and uninteresting.
- _____ 41. He understands what I say, from a detached, objec-
tive point of view.
- _____ 42. I feel that I can trust him to be honest with me.
- _____ 43. Sometimes he is warmly responsive to me, at other
times cold or disapproving.

- _____ 44. He expresses ideas or feelings of his own that I am not really interested in.
- _____ 45. He is interested in me.
- _____ 46. He appreciates what my experiences feel like to me.
- _____ 47. He is secure and comfortable in our relationship.
- _____ 48. Depending on his mood, he sometimes responds to me with quite a lot more warmth and interest than he does at other times.
- _____ 49. He wants to say as little as possible about his own thoughts and feelings.
- _____ 50. He just tolerates me.
- _____ 51. He is playing a role with me.
- _____ 52. He is equally appreciative - or equally unappreciative - of me, whatever I am telling him about myself.
- _____ 53. His own feelings and thoughts are always available to me, but never imposed on me.
- _____ 54. He does not really care what happens to me.
- _____ 55. He does not realize how strongly I feel about some of the things we discuss.
- _____ 56. There are times when I feel that his outward response is quite different from his inner reaction to me.
- _____ 57. His general feeling toward me varies considerably.

- _____ 58. He is willing for me to use our time to get to know him better, if or when I want to.
- _____ 59. He seems to really value me.
- _____ 60. He responds to me mechanically.
- _____ 61. I don't think that he is being honest with himself about the way he feels toward me.
- _____ 62. Whether I like or dislike myself makes no difference to the way he feels about me.
- _____ 63. He is more interested in expressing and communicating himself than in knowing and understanding me.
- _____ 64. He dislikes me.
- _____ 65. I feel that he is being genuine with me.
- _____ 66. Sometimes he responds quite positively to me; at other times he seems indifferent.
- _____ 67. He is unwilling to tell me how he feels about me.
- _____ 68. He is impatient with me.
- _____ 69. Sometimes he is not at all comfortable but we go on, outwardly ignoring it.
- _____ 70. He likes me better when I behave in some ways than he does when I behave in other ways.
- _____ 71. He is willing to tell me his actual response to anything I say or do.
- _____ 72. He feels deep affection for me.
- _____ 73. He usually understands all of what I say to him.
- _____ 74. He does not try to mislead me about his own thoughts or feelings.

- _____ 75. Whether I feel fine or feel awful makes no difference to how warmly and appreciatively - or how coldly and unappreciatively - he feels toward me.
- _____ 76. He tends to evade any attempt that I make to get to know him better.
- _____ 77. He regards me as a disagreeable person.
- _____ 78. What he says gives a false impression of his total reaction to me.
- _____ 79. I can be very critical of him or very appreciative of him without it changing his feelings toward me.
- _____ 80. At times he feels contempt for me.
- _____ 81. When I do not say what I mean at all clearly, he still understands me.
- _____ 82. He tries to avoid telling me anything that might upset me.
- _____ 83. His general feeling toward me (of liking, respect, dislike, trust, criticism, anger, etc.) reflects the way that I am feeling toward him.
- _____ 84. He tries to understand me from his own point of view.
- _____ 85. He can be deeply and fully aware of my most painful feelings without being distressed or burdened by them himself.

PLEASE CHECK TO BE CERTAIN THAT YOU HAVE RESPONDED TO EVERY ITEM

APPENDIX 2

RELATIONSHIP INVENTORY RAW SCORES

Relationship Inventory Raw Scores

111= Small Family Male, modal age 13 211= Small Family Male, modal age 16
 112= Small Family Female, modal age 13 212= Small Family Female, modal age 16
 121= Large Family Male, modal age 13 221= Large Family Male, modal age 16
 122= Large Family Female, modal age 13 222= Large Family Female, modal age 16

Code	Level of Regard	Empathic Understanding	Congruence	Unconditionality of Regard	Willingness To Be Known
111	-9	-18	17	-7	-5
	47	26	45	20	39
	49	21	40	15	27
	2	-17	13	-5	4
	22	-18	-4	-20	-9
	26	1	15	6	20
	39	9	22	3	21
	53	23	40	21	38
	-3	-5	14	-10	2
	-36	-14	-21	4	-10
	48	24	25	28	33
	39	39	39	-26	46
	43	19	27	1	19
	35	-11	3	-26	9
	39	15	26	8	13
	24	6	19	-1	-2
	26	13	13	-4	13
	52	24	44	33	46
	48	39	35	5	33

Relationship Inventory Raw Scores

Code	Level of Regard	Empathic Understanding	Congruence	Unconditionality of Regard	Willingness To Be Known
111	28	9	29	2	13
	43	19	28	11	20
	29	2	-6	-13	-3
	37	5	12	-13	19
	43	16	23	5	22
	25	8	-4	-13	-6
	35	26	20	4	33
	26	6	21	-18	11
	38	13	12	17	25
	-1	-4	13	-14	3
	32	12	13	2	19
	32	-5	-2	-2	22
	36	21	24	-7	30
	39	11	24	3	7
112	54	7	29	-12	33
	37	2	7	-1	-6
	20	-9	13	-18	11
	51	36	44	25	38
	50	22	24	14	28
	34	-1	13	-7	15
	33	7	7	-6	15
	44	-19	-10	-6	2
	51	17	23	15	32
	24	8	-6	1	11
	47	22	13	-4	24

Relationship Inventory Raw Scores

Code	Level of Regard	Empathic Understanding	Congruence	Unconditionality of Regard	Willingness To Be Known
112	43	19	23	8	14
	24	-9	-2	-6	-2
	40	6	21	-22	31
	52	25	48	7	41
	39	11	30	5	34
	8	-11	0	-14	2
	7	4	16	-7	15
	35	4	10	6	15
	52	32	45	51	47
	26	21	23	11	1
	41	5	21	-16	6
	5	8	0	7	-6
	-24	-22	-1	-3	-6
	47	12	30	14	13
	38	8	16	0	3
	20	-18	19	-12	13
	47	26	44	24	33
	45	21	30	19	25
	52	26	39	30	43
	8	-1	2	-13	-7
	46	12	40	20	25
	36	18	45	3	27
	43	18	30	-17	20

Relationship Inventory Raw Scores

Code	Level of Regard	Empathic Understanding	Congruence	Unconditionality of Regard	Willingness To Be Known
112	36	18	13	-9	16
	35	6	22	3	11
	35	14	18	0	20
	51	25	44	37	32
	48	18	19	-6	16
	23	4	-1	-13	17
	42	-2	9	-4	22
	46	17	32	-20	40
	15	-3	8	-3	-2
	121	41	17	31	-3
42		4	15	-13	9
54		34	34	20	40
53		39	39	14	42
34		12	0	-20	19
45		8	23	-11	25
53		33	31	29	41
49		4	40	3	31
46		-4	19	11	28
28		8	22	-1	28
30		11	13	7	10
30		13	-2	-9	5
39		23	40	8	38
22		-4	10	-8	8
37		14	20	-21	13

Relationship Inventory Raw Scores

Code	Level of Regard	Empathic Understanding	Congruence	Unconditionality of Regard	Willingness To Be Known
121	6	-10	9	-13	11
	40	3	30	7	22
	25	-6	10	-2	0
122	38	3	1	-1	13
	26	3	17	2	22
	42	12	28	33	42
	36	-14	7	-14	17
	48	12	23	-1	-14
	47	15	35	16	33
	1	-7	3	-18	9
	18	6	26	-1	22
	25	-13	4	-17	-1
	50	16	37	8	32
	54	25	33	31	42
	29	2	20	-12	15
	33	-10	-7	-17	3
	34	7	15	-29	9
	28	4	8	24	0
	26	13	30	8	17
	21	1	10	4	2
	53	24	27	31	39
51	7	22	-3	22	
28	-14	9	1	3	
44	20	33	27	28	

Relationship Inventory Raw Scores

Code	Level of Regard	Empathic Understanding	Congruence	Unconditionality of Regard	Willingness To Be Known
122	49	16	27	15	17
	47	19	35	26	28
	20	16	16	13	14
	-2	-13	8	-16	-4
	49	27	25	16	30
	26	-6	14	-12	0
	28	6	7	-8	3
	211	41	6	18	24
34		7	27	1	17
15		9	19	-19	5
41		16	25	7	27
-9		-21	-1	-17	-12
44		17	33	-7	29
26		-12	27	-14	2
43		15	31	14	23
47		13	31	9	18
28		24	21	-11	17
51		8	26	22	39
35		-5	4	-9	34
47		21	28	-7	26
42		14	18	17	31
51		27	26	27	31

Relationship Inventory Raw Scores

Code	Level of Regard	Empathic Understanding	Congruence	Unconditionality of Regard	Willingness To Be Known
211	35	-13	14	-4	2
	52	5	14	5	10
	13	-14	4	-6	5
	34	1	9	-24	0
	32	6	16	-20	10
	36	2	0	-8	1
	35	4	29	-4	37
	16	-26	-21	-19	8
	38	1	23	3	13
	43	10	22	5	13
	32	16	19	-15	20
	33	-19	31	-26	34
	20	-3	-8	-14	6
	37	15	31	22	28
	37	5	25	9	13
	43	21	26	19	24
212	35	-7	17	-18	-6
	7	1	-5	-17	-10
	39	25	34	20	30
	36	12	25	4	31
	36	-19	19	-2	8
	50	19	44	8	40
	41	11	30	15	16
	35	5	25	8	16
	46	11	26	10	31

Relationship Inventory Raw Scores

Code	Level of Regard	Empathic Understanding	Congruence	Unconditionality of Regard	Willingness To Be Known
212	43	4	45	-17	41
	37	-11	11	-13	24
	29	-9	27	5	15
	37	-9	10	-6	20
	42	-12	30	9	15
	53	24	37	-3	19
	22	-5	19	13	30
	48	0	34	20	37
	24	-5	15	-23	-2
	12	-18	7	-26	-9
	48	16	25	4	39
	54	28	50	36	35
	44	4	17	-12	30
	39	-11	21	5	28
	44	17	30	8	30
	41	10	30	1	25
	34	-8	18	-7	4
	42	-8	21	37	16
	38	-10	-11	12	3
	47	12	35	28	29
	46	5	33	8	28
	44	12	26	-10	24
	35	-9	17	3	10

Relationship Inventory Raw Scores

Code	Level of Regard	Empathic Understanding	Congruence	Unconditionality of Regard	Willingness To Be Known
212	37	-7	14	12	22
	33	25	15	-3	5
	45	4	40	17	33
	48	1	36	-6	17
	48	-13	22	27	22
	40	-5	-2	-14	6
	17	0	23	0	5
	47	17	30	12	25
	51	32	50	41	45
	43	13	18	9	18
	221	46	-9	23	13
37		0	26	-13	32
-44		-28	-9	11	-32
29		-13	28	-36	20
29		-4	32	1	17
30		2	12	-9	17
28		2	10	-9	21
38		-3	-4	-23	-4
39		4	28	0	18
42		4	21	-14	6
-4		-20	-13	1	-9
30		6	12	-5	16

Relationship Inventory Raw Scores

Code	Level of Regard	Empathic Understanding	Congruence	Unconditionality of Regard	Willingness To Be Known
221	0	-14	8	-11	4
	23	2	18	-9	10
	-33	-17	-27	11	-28
	14	-26	-1	-15	4
	32	30	-1	-25	4
	26	-1	12	-3	-2
	39	-9	16	11	8
	39	0	-18	27	-18
	41	6	27	-6	23
	-5	-21	-15	-10	-6
	-3	-13	3	-1	8
	39	8	28	1	4
	31	-6	15	-31	29
	-13	-13	-5	-15	-12
	39	4	31	-19	26
	14	19	-19	-18	1
	22	-4	21	6	16
	14	-6	4	-17	3
	44	13	23	-17	31
	48	6	36	24	18
	28	0	24	-22	10
	46	7	33	11	33
	46	6	37	-18	31

Relationship Inventory Raw Scores

Code	Level of Regard	Empathic Understanding	Congruence	Unconditionality of Regard	Willingness To Be Known
222	41	8	20	-16	15
	47	-12	15	-14	21
	18	-10	-9	-8	23
	47	20	33	32	31
	38	-2	20	-4	14
	-11	-12	1	-19	11
	40	5	26	-5	29
	35	-13	20	12	8
	46	6	24	-1	4
	35	-12	-18	-12	-2
	34	-12	11	-3	9
	37	2	18	2	19
	33	-9	27	-15	10
	22	-24	28	-45	-10
	49	-1	19	18	25
	28	-10	10	-11	16
	43	11	26	8	19
	39	14	19	16	17
	49	21	22	11	22
	8	-30	10	-7	-6

Relationship Inventory Raw Scores

Code	Level of Regard	Empathic Understanding	Congruence	Unconditionality of Regard	Willingness To Be Known
222	32	-18	19	-14	11
	46	5	19	-2	29
	50	21	37	33	26
	41	6	39	-27	26
	33	15	8	9	13
	37	13	29	0	12
	17	-20	27	-8	-7
	46	25	28	37	43
	32	-8	14	-16	11

APPENDIX 3

ABSTRACT OF

EXPLORATORY STUDY
OF THE FATHER-ADOLESCENT RELATIONSHIP:
IMPLICATIONS FOR FAMILY LIFE

APPENDIX 3

ABSTRACT OF

Exploratory Study Of The Father-Adolescent Relationship: Implications For Family Life¹

This study arose out of the need expressed in literature and by community workers for current information regarding parent-adolescent relationships. The study focuses on the male and female adolescent's perception of the father's relationship with them because previous studies have found the quality of the father-adolescent relationship to have a profound effect on the adolescent's personality and behavior, father's role in the family is changing as is the adolescent's perception of the father role, and little is known about current father-adolescent relationships.

Since the personality and behavior of the adolescent is influenced by the way he or she perceives his relationship with the father, the father-adolescent relationship has been assessed in terms of the adolescents' perceptions of the father's relationship with them. The Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory which measures the attitudinal

1. Denise Alcock, master's thesis presented to the School of Graduate Studies of the University of Ottawa, May, 1974, xi-91.

qualities of the helping relationship as defined by Carl Rogers, was used to evaluate the adolescent's perception of the father's level of regard, level of empathic understanding, congruence, unconditionality of regard and willingness to be known.

Previous studies have indicated that the age and sex of the adolescent and the number of children in the family are factors that influence the father-adolescent relationship but the studies are not agreed as to how these factors influence the relationship. Therefore, the relationship has been studied in light of the following hypotheses:

1. There will be a significant difference between the early adolescent's and the mid-adolescent's perception of the father's relationship with them, in that the early adolescent will score the father lower than the older adolescent.
2. There will be a significant difference between the boy's and the girl's perception of the father's relationship with them, in that the girl will score the father lower than the boy.
3. There will be a significant difference between the small family adolescent's and the large family adolescent's perception of the father's relationship with them, in that the large family adolescent will score the father lower than the small family adolescent.

The two hundred and fifty-nine adolescents who completed the Relationship Inventory randomly fell into groupings according to age (modal age thirteen or sixteen), sex and family size. A multivariate analysis of variance

using the Fortran IV program by J. D. Finn, showed significant F-values for the two age levels and the two sexes, but no significant difference was found between the two levels of family size. A post hoc analysis of the results isolated the variables contributing to the significant results. The younger adolescent scored the father more favorably than did the older adolescent and the variable which contributed significantly to this result was the father's level of empathic understanding. The girls scored their fathers higher on level of regard and on unconditionality of regard, but the boys scored their fathers higher on level of empathic understanding.

The findings of this study present areas for consideration by family life educators, parent-adolescent discussion leaders and therapists helping adolescents in crisis. Suggestions for further research include a study of the father's perception of his relationship with his adolescent son or daughter; a cross generational study of the attitudinal qualities of the father-child relationship to look for patterns of family interaction; and a study of the father-child relationship across the various age groups, preschool, school age, adolescence and adulthood to identify changes in the attitudinal quality of the father-child relationship associated with the age factor.