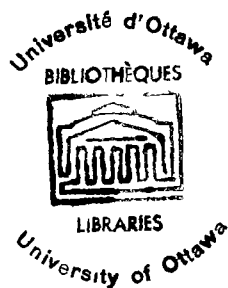


FIRST YEAR UNIVERSITY STUDENTS' RETROSPECTIVE ACCOUNT
OF THEIR RELATIONSHIP WITH THEIR FATHERS AND ITS
CORRELATION WITH STRESS AT SEPARATION

by Susan V. Baxt

Thesis presented to the School of
Graduate Studies of the University
of Ottawa as partial fulfillment of
the requirements for the degree of
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Ottawa, Canada, 1981



Susan V. Baxt, Ottawa, Canada, 1981

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CURRICULUM STUDIORUM

Susan Vita Baxt was born January 9th, 1944, in East Orange, New Jersey, U.S.A. She obtained a Bachelor of Arts in 1965 and a Masters of Education in 1974, both from McGill University. In 1976 she obtained a Bachelor of Arts with Honours in Psychology from the University of Ottawa.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter	Page
INTRODUCTION.....	
I. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE.....	1
Historical Background	1
Margaret Mahler and Erik Erikson: The years birth to three	5
Margaret Mahler	6
Erik Erikson	9
Fatherliness	14
Findings of research into Paternal Involvement in Development	16
Father and the Separation Process	20
Erikson's Developmental Theory and the Relation of the Task of Separation to Later Tasks	22
Adolescent Developmental Crises	33
II. METHODOLOGY.....	36
Design Rationale	36
The Setting	37
Subjects	37
Instrumentation	49
Biographical Data Sheet	49
The Personality Research Form	50
The Adjective Check List	52
The Parent-Child Relations Questionnaire	55
An Eriksonian Measure of Development	57
Procedure	58
Hypotheses	59
The Personality Research Form	61
The Adjective Check List	62
An Eriksonian Measure of Development	63
III. RESULTS.....	64
The Eriksonian Measure of Development	64
Descriptive Statistics	67
Results	68

IV. DISCUSSION.....	78
Personality Research Form	78
Achievement	78
Social Recognition	82
Affiliation	82
Aggression	83
Infrequency	85
Eriksonian Measure of Development	86
Basic Trust versus Basic Mistrust	86
Autonomy versus Shame and Doubt	87
The Autonomy Scales	88
The Adjective Check List	92
Hypotheses which were not supported by the Findings	94
Summary and Conclusions	98

Appendix

A. CORRELATION MATRIX.....	103
B. BIOGRAPHICAL DATA SHEET.....	106
C. PERSONALITY RESEARCH FORM. FORM A.....	108
D. ADJECTIVE CHECK LIST.....	125
E. PARENT-CHILD RELATIONS QUESTIONNAIRE FATHER-SON, MOTHER-SON FORMS.....	141
F. ERIKSONIAN MEASURE OF DEVELOPMENT.....	153
BIBLIOGRAPHY.....	158

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Length of absence of both parents by age of subject - Total sample.....	39
2. Length of absence of mother by age of subject - Total sample.....	40
3. Length of absence of father by age of subject - Total sample.....	41
4. Type of absence from parental home - Total sample.....	42
5. Length of absence of both parents by age of subject - Subset.....	45
6. Length of absence of mother by age of subject - Subset.....	46
7. Length of absence of father by age of subject - Subset.....	47
8. Type of absence from parental home - Subset.....	48
9. Pearson Product-Moment correlation. IPD test re-test with 3-month interval.....	65
10. Factor analysis with varimax rotation, IPD.....	66
11. Multiple regression F-ratios PRF with PCR father scales - Total sample.....	70
12. Multiple regression F-ratios ACL with PCR father scales - Total sample.....	71
13. Multiple regression F-ratios IPD with PCR father scales - Total sample.....	72
14. Multiple regression coefficients and F-ratios PRF with PCR father scales - Subset.....	74
15. Multiple regression coefficients and F-ratios ACL with PCR father scales - Subset.....	75
16. Multiple regression coefficients F-ratios IPD with PCR father scales - Subset.....	76
17. Correlation Matrix.....	103

Abstract

Psychodynamically oriented theories of child development since Sigmund Freud have traditionally upheld a belief in the supremacy of the mother-child relationship. Little attention is given to the role a father may have to play during the infant years of his children. However, research findings have generally supported the hypothesis that the involvement of a paternal figure prior to the age of two is important in the development of both a boy and a girl. This paper attempts to integrate the research findings with the theoretical formulations and to outline some of the parameters of a father's contribution to development.

One hundred and twenty first-year University of Ottawa students were administered the Adjective Check List, the Personality Research Form, the Parent-child Relations Questionnaire, and the IPD, an Eriksonian Measure of Development. The data was statistically analyzed to relate the recalled father-child relationship with personality traits and with Eriksonian developmental stages.

Results suggest that father's role during the first eighteen months of life may be minimal while his active involvement during the second eighteen months may facilitate positive development. The data also supports the hypothesis that a recalled positive, relationship with father is associated with less distress during the separation from the parental home which is part of entrance into university.

The findings are discussed in terms of the advantages of different styles of parenting at different stages in the child's development. Also discussed is the possibility that moderation, rather than intensity, is facilitative in the father-child relationship.

The aim of this thesis is to link students' retrospective accounts of their relationships with their fathers with their difficulty in making the transition from the parental home into the first year university environment. The thesis was designed to be a pilot study to aid in delineating variables of the father-child relationship.

Psychodynamically-oriented theories of child development, with the exception of that of Sigmund Freud, have assumed that the mother-child relationship is unique and more important than any contemporaneous or subsequent relationship. This thesis will examine two theories considered representative of the ego psychology and psycho-social-sexual schools, those of Margaret Mahler and Erik Erikson. In their explanations, father is rarely mentioned; it would seem that his presence is considered to be unimportant before the child reaches the age of three. However, current research findings indicate that his presence and active involvement is important as early as the age of one and perhaps earlier. Although the findings of correlational studies employing the father absent paradigm are often contradictory in isolation, their results when viewed collectively strongly point to the years from birth to two as the most crucial for paternal involvement in development. Also, researchers have observed that some fathers are involved with their infants from birth in both caretaking and socializing roles. Yet, these findings have not yet been integrated into the theories of early child development mentioned above.

One of the important early childhood issues in the theories of Erik

Erikson and Margaret Mahler is that of separation from mother and from the intense early mother-child bond of the first year of life. Although the theoretical literature does not account for the part the father may have to play in the mastery of this task, the observational research results mentioned above support the hypothesis that his manner of relating to his child may significantly facilitate or impede separation. Thus a specific point of integration of the theories of these writers with the current empirical literature appears to be in the area of the effects of paternal contributions to early child development. Therefore, the general question asked by this thesis is "What effect does father involvement have on the mastery of the developmental task of separation as outlined by the theorists Mahler and Erikson?"

It has been theoretically posited, and supported by clinical observations, that the task of separation begun in infancy recurs at several points during the lifespan. Clinically, it is accepted that patients who have not successfully mastered the task of separation of the age-appropriate time manifest difficulties when the issue recurs at later stages. Entrance into university can be considered to reintroduce the task of separation, since it represents an emotional and often physical separation from the nuclear family. Thus, first year university students might be expected to manifest difficulties clinically associated with separation. In fact the literature indicates that this is the case. In this thesis it is hypothesized further that this distress will be most intense among those students who report less successful mastery of the early separation phase. Moreover, it is proposed that these same students will report recalling a poor relationship with their fathers during early childhood.

Essentially then, it will be here proposed that first year university students who have not successfully negotiated the developmental task of separation from mother at the age appropriate time will report recalling a negative relationship with their fathers. Obversely it will be proposed that students who have successfully mastered the task of separation will report a positive relationship with their fathers and will evidence less distress than their counterparts who recall a negative relationship with their fathers.

CHAPTER I

Review of the Literature

The first chapter will describe the historical progression of the interest in father's contribution to the development of his offspring. It will outline two currently accepted psychodynamic developmental theories and compare these with the findings of research into father's involvement. This chapter will then suggest that it is possible to examine influences in a subject's development by analyzing the personality characteristics exhibited during his first year of university. The chapter will close with a summary of the hypotheses under investigation.

Historical Background

Freud was one of the first to theorize about the importance of particular family patterns on the formation of the personality. In fact, Freud touched on all the areas that have since been elaborated by subsequent theorists. Important to the present discussion, he worked from an intrapsychic perspective which emphasized the effect of early experiences on the structuring of the personality. Especially relevant is his thinking about the impact on the child of the father's behavior and the child's perception of this behavior.

The emphasis in Freud's writings was on the adaptive relationship worked out with respect to fear of father on the part of the boy and love of the father on the part of the girl. It must be underlined that it is not the interrelationship between father and child which is described by Freud, but the individual resolution of a mutual conflict

between father and child.

After Sigmund Freud's death, Anna Freud (1949) and Melanie Klein (1952) revised and reworked many of his essential postulates. Of interest to the central theme of this thesis, both women, from different theoretical orientations, redirected the emphasis from the father-child to the mother-child relationship. In part, this shift resulted from their expanded exploration of the pre-Oedipal stages of development. The mother-child relationship, they claimed, is of crucial if not exclusive importance during these stages. Both began by observing the effects of maternal deprivation or of pathological conditions. However, since others (Bowlby, 1959; Spitz, 1949) were arriving at the same similar conclusions at approximately the same time, it is here suggested that A. Freud and Klein were in effect synthesizing the accumulated knowledge and the Zeitgeist.

Anna Freud's students emigrated to America and began a process of elaboration of her theories. Margaret Mahler (1968) and Erik Erikson (1950) exemplify this "school" of developmental ego psychologists which expanded in the United States from 1945 to the present. Their works will be described in some detail below, but it is important to note here that the theorists of this orientation continued to uphold the primacy of the mother-child relationship. In fact, to varying degrees, all hold a deterministic position, stating that the degree of success of this early relationship sets the pattern of personality structure which continues unchanged into adult life.

The focus of these writers was the behavior of the mother. Mother, they wrote, created either an environment in which the child could develop happily and healthily, or one in which continual frustrations and deprivations warped, dwarfed and otherwise impeded personality

growth. The child was seen virtually as a passive recipient, a bundle of undifferentiated feelings and perceptions on whom the environment acted and left its imprint.

It would be simplistic to indicate that this was the only view being expounded during the 1950s and 1960s. However, although there were many variations on the above theme (for example, Sullivan, 1953; Hartmann, 1958), the ego psychology movement continued to hold that up to age three the mother-child relationship is exclusive and essential. From three years onward, the peer group was considered to provide the important input. The child, it was theorized, progressed from the early mother-child to the peer group relationship. Where, if at all, is the father's contribution made, once conception has been achieved?

During the 1950s, three parallel and seemingly unrelated movements began in the United States which have cumulated in a changed focus in both the theoretical and experimental streams of developmental psychology. The first of these was the self psychology movement, represented by Carl Rogers (1956) and Heinz Kohut (1968). Although many of these writers included both mother and father in the developmental schema, they did not differentiate between their contributions. However, Heinz Kohut, for one, began to delineate the important parameters of a father's contribution.

Concurrently, a second orientation was developing among the applied practitioners. Growing out of the needs experienced in child-guidance clinics and by analytically oriented psychiatrists, there began a trend towards seeing the entire family of a referred patient. This replaced the practice up to that time of interviewing the individual child or at most the child and his mother (Ackerman, 1958). By seeing the entire family, practitioners and theorists gave tacit support to a shift

in focus. First, the child was seen as a dynamic participant rather than a passive reactor. Furthermore, the inclusion of both parents reflected a speculation that a father's involvement with his children may be important. Nevertheless, the father's role remained one of socializer and disciplinarian (Parsons and Bales, 1955) and the popular credence was that fathers became interested and perhaps involved with their children only once these children could walk and talk.

Developments in a third but separate area of psychology lead to further elaboration of the paternal role. Increasing social consciousness resulted in an interest and research into the various minority groups. One of these groups was black ghetto families, traditionally fatherless or involved with a number of transient fathers. At approximately the same time, interest developed in the children of men who had been absentee fathers due to their participation in the armed forces during the Second World War. Likely this large-scale international military participation, and therefore absence of American men, coinciding with the expanding vista of therapists, lead to an awareness of the importance of father's involvement and gave birth to the "father-absent" research paradigm.

When, in the 1940s, interest shifted from father to mother, initially the mother-child dyad was studied by observing children who were deficient in mothering. (A. Freud, 1949, Spitz, 1949). The interest later shifted to direct observation of the mother-child relationship (e.g., Mahler, 1952). Similarly, research into the father's contribution began by studying the effects on child development of an absentee father. In the 1970's, realizing the limitations of that method, researchers have almost entirely abandoned the father-absent

paradigm in favour of the study of intact families. The developing interest is reflected in the following trend. In 1961, less than 10% of the Psychological Abstract listings concerning the parent-child relationships were devoted to the father-child dyad (Laymann, 1961). By 1976 the proportion had become approximately half (personal count) and since 1974 at least five new texts have been published which are devoted to the role of the father in child development (Lynn, 1974; Biller, 1971, 1974; Laymann, 1976; Mitterlich, 1974).

Theory building has not yet incorporated the results of the research in this area. In the theoretical literature, "it had generally been assumed that his (father's) influence begins to take on importance only in the late infancy and early childhood" (Parke & Sawin, 1976, p. 365). Fathers have been believed to be uninterested, uninvolved and non-nurturant respecting their newborn infants. They have been seen as less competent than the mother in caretaking roles and have tended to leave these activities to her (Parke & Sawin, 1976). These views are reflected in the works of the two theorists chosen as representatives of the ego psychology movement, Margaret Mahler and Erik Erikson.

Margaret Mahler and Erik Erikson: The years birth to three.

Mahler and Erikson see attachment to and separation from mother as a developmental task occurring in infancy. Following attachment after birth, separation occurs initially between nine and fourteen months of age, then recurs at several crisis points during psychosexual maturation (Mahler, 1968; Erikson, 1959). Some of the major crisis points are the birth of a sibling, the first entry into the peer group, the beginning

of school, adolescence, marriage, and the birth of the first child.

Central to the views of these and other theorists is the hypothesis that before age three, the child's world centers on and around his relationship with his mother. In this relationship he accomplishes several important developmental tasks. A summary of these tasks follows.

Margaret Mahler

In the first weeks of life, the autistic stage, physiological needs and bodily sensations predominate, according to Margaret Mahler's theory. (Blanck & Blanck, 1974) The infant is concerned only with maintaining a positive balance between pleasant and unpleasant sensations, or homeostasis. Gradually, he becomes able to distinguish his own from his mother's tension-reducing operations and to separate pleasurable from painful experiences. By the age of two or three months, he is aware of someone in the external world who is satisfying his needs. During this period, however, the infant is said to retain the magical "belief" that he and this need-satisfying object are one and the same physical entity. This stage, which Mahler calls the symbiotic stage, is said to be a prerequisite for normal growth. The stage lasts approximately from a few weeks of age to nine months. In these nine months, the infant learns that he and this object are actually separate. With adequate symbiotic mothering, the groundwork is laid for the capacity to mediate between inner and outer needs and reality. During this second stage, the infant develops the capacity to endure the delay of gratification. In this, he is aided by the memory of pleasurable experiences which can

now tide him over during times of frustration. Through this maturation of relations between the internal and external worlds, by the age of 10 months the external care-giver is so distinct that she can no longer be experienced as interchangeable with himself. These first two demarcations in development, the autistic and the symbiotic, occur during the period from birth to ten months, approximately.

During the third stage, lasting from approximately 10 months to three years of age, the child develops an awareness of his own separate existence. This implies an awareness of psychological as well as physical separateness. It is divided into four phases. The first two phases last from ten to eighteen months; the second two occupy the next eighteen months of life.

In the first phase, differentiation, the child who has experienced a safe environment during his symbiotic fusion with his mother begins to move away from this fusion and reliance on mother and to explore. In this exploration he is aided by maturational processes such as locomotion. Although this thesis does not provide the forum to elucidate the controversy still ongoing between object relations and classical analytic theorists (Bowlby, 1969; A. Freud, 1949; Klein, 1952; Spitz, 1949), the following can be included at this juncture. Whether one postulates a primary drive toward socialization (Bowlby, 1969) or a secondary drive toward affiliation arising out of the association of the satisfaction of physiological needs with the mothering figure (A. Freud, 1949, Erikson, 1950), clearly by the end of the differentiation phase the child has developed a bond of attachment to mother in addition to the dependency tie.

From this time until 16 months of age he is in the practicing phase

and is exploring the world beyond his relationship with his mother. He begins to investigate the physical world around him and to test his mother's reactions. Although this may provide a welcome freedom to the mother, it is important now to allow the child to lengthen the anchoring rope only as he feels able to do so. Mother's presence is needed to reinforce approved behaviours and set limits by chastising some behaviors and approving others. Otherwise the child will have the feeling he is being cut adrift.

During the practicing period, the child behaves as though he is oblivious to his mother's presence. Now, as he enters the rapprochement phase he often seems to exhibit behaviour appropriate to an earlier stage as he once again shows a reluctance to separate from his mother. So often the mother resents the increased dependency at this stage, and the resulting rebuff, or the birth of the next child, is said to lead to depression later in life.

In the fourth phase, separation-individuation, the child establishes himself as a male (or herself as a female) child, separate from his mother. His relationships with his environment can now be undertaken independent of his states of need. He is developing a joy in autonomous functioning and the beginning of language and representational thought.

In summary, Mahler postulates three stages in the first three years of life. In progressing through these three phases, the child develops from a psychological union with mother through an exploration of his environment (both physical and human) into a separate and individuated existence. During the first eighteen months, that is, the first two stages, and the first three phases of the third stage, the bond between

mother and child remains intense. During the final phase of the third stage, the child is developing a sense of himself as a separate and separately functioning individual. Margaret Mahler's three-stage scheme of development is somewhat similar to the views of another theorist, Erik Erikson.

Erik Erikson

Erik Erikson describes normal development in terms of eight sequential epigenetic stages. Each stage is dominated by growth through one particular task which must be partially resolved before the individual can proceed to the next and each stage is built on the resolution of the previous one. The developmental tasks of each level are not completely resolved but recede in importance and continue to be worked through in successive years. The result of each level is characterized by hypothetical polarities representing successful and unsuccessful resolution; normal resolution lies somewhere between these polarities (Erikson, 1950).

The first task the child must face, according to Erikson, is to establish a sense of Basic Trust in himself and in his environment during the first 12 to 18 months of life. In the first few months, when physiological needs predominate, his mother's responsiveness to his needs for nurturance, for food, and for tactual and sensual care, becomes the modality which facilitates this basic trust. If his mother is relaxed and secure in herself and her role as caregiver, she will be alert to his cues and will differentiate those for food from those for diaper changing, and those for attention. She will be there when

needed and will allow a minimum of extended or unnecessary frustration of the child's needs. If she provides for him in this responsive and consistent, relaxed manner, he will experience his external environment as warm, secure, and safe. This responsiveness to his needs allows him to sustain a pleasurable bodily state with a minimum of frustration and tension. With this maximum of pleasurable and minimum of unpleasant sensations, his first feelings about himself, his body, and his environment are positive ones. If the child is cared for in a manner which allows him this security, he will accomplish his first developmental task, writes Erikson.

Within the relationship described above, the modicum of frustration that the child is bound to experience will be tolerable. Although no mother can ever perfectly anticipate her child's needs and understand his grunted demands, he will gradually become aware of the transitoriness of the periods of discomfort compared to the moments of satisfaction. The child will learn to regulate his getting with his mother's giving. Erikson regards the establishment, during the first six months, of this mutual regulation as the prerequisite for the formation of a healthy personality.

Some frustration is, however, inevitable. At these times, the child will be forced to perceive events in his environment external to his own body in order to anticipate the satisfaction of his needs. Thus, the child learns to differentiate between his mother's step and all others and turns his head and ceases wailing as she approaches his doorway. The infant will accomplish this only if he has learned that her approach will bring an end to his discomfort. If he has learned to perceive his world as a safe place, the infant will continue to expand

his perceptions of it, beginning first with his own body and then with his physical surroundings. He begins by examining his extensions through flexing, bending, touching, and pushing. As he develops control over his musculature, he becomes more mobile; his first achievement is crawling. He comes into contact with new physical objects and, in the process, bangs, drops, and examines these.

In this period, the infant is also assimilating all these new objects and experiences. With repetition, especially sequential repetition, he comes to recognize a relationship between the stimulus and the reaction. When he sees this relationship, the infant realizes that he has control over the reaction (Ginsburg and Oppen, 1969). This is a rudimentary awareness that there is a difference between himself and external objects. The awareness is an extension of the realization that a difference exists between himself and his caregiver, his mother. This recognition of differences begins between age six to nine months. Between nine and 18 months he differentiates more and more of his world from himself.

The second stage lasts from about 18 months to about three years of age. Aided by the maturation of the muscle system, the child begins to be able to co-ordinate several conflicting action systems. Whereas in the first phase, his typical mode of interaction with his world was through passive receiving, he now delights in holding on and letting go. Although he is still dependent, he begins to exercise his autonomous will on the environment.

The change in diet which occurs with the arrival of his teeth results in better formed stool. Aided by this, the maturing muscles of the sphincter enable him to indulge in strong need to retain and expel

his feces; therefore, much of the activity of this phase centres around sphincter control and toilet training. The anal zone and the pleasure resulting from his bowel activity is the model for the two conflicting behaviours which must become alternating: those of retention and elimination. However, this approach to the environment is not limited to the sphincter. The basic behaviours of holding onto, voluntarily letting go of, and throwing away are carried over to other activities. Thus the child begins to delineate his world as "me" and "you". In addition there is "mine". Everything is "mine" and the child will hoard and retain piles of objects, then suddenly, hurl them away or give them to nearby people.

The infant's struggle, then, is for autonomy. Here, the mutual regulation of the earlier stage faces its severest test. The willingness to engage in this struggle is based on the sense of basic trust in himself and his world developed during the first year of his life and is aided by a firmness and tolerance from the adults in his environment. The child must sense that he will be protected from intense desires to appropriate or to push away and must experience that these behaviours will not jeopardize the continued safety of his environment. He must know that he will be protected from his inability to discriminate between when to hold on and when to let go. This is accomplished by recognition of both his dependency needs and his strivings for independence.

The task, then, is for the child to gradually wish to control his bowels and other functions. His goal is to achieve "self control without loss of self esteem" (Erikson in G. S. Klein, p. 18). If he is able to achieve this regulation through his own efforts, he will develop

a balance between co-operation and willfulness and a lasting sense of autonomy and self-esteem. If, however, he is forced to self-control by too early or too rigid training, he will feel he has very little command of his own bodily functions. He will also feel powerless against outside forces which compel him to do their bidding. If he feels such an inability to control himself, the result, says Erikson is a lasting sense of Shame and Doubt. Shame is the sensation of being completely exposed before one is ready to be looked at.

To summarize, Erikson divides the first three years of development into two stages. During the first, the child is developing a sense of trust in himself and in the consistent benevolence of the external world within the intense bond with his mother. During the second stage, the child is practising control of himself by extrapolating from his environment, is developing into an autonomous individual. The terminology is different from that of Mahler, and Erikson postulates two stages whereas Mahler describes three; however, the theories about the psychological process underlying the development are similar.

Both Mahler and Erikson advance developmental theories in which the process depends largely on the satisfactory resolution of the issues inherent in the first three years of life. These issues can be described as the establishment of an intensely close, mutually satisfactory and mutually regulatory relationship between mother and child and the gradual loosening of this bond as the child separates from his mother. Mahler postulates the satisfactory resolution as a continuum, and it is the position on this continuum which effects later development. In other words, how well the child has achieved this differentiation is a crucial factor in his later behaviour. Similarly,

Erikson sees these tasks as focal and characterizes resolution on a continuum--but inevitably partial--to be elaborated in successive stages. Notably, neither theorist accounts for the presence and differentiated involvement of a father during these first three years of life.

Fatherliness

In fact, the theories give little attention to the possibility that in addition to offering support to the mother, father can provide direct contact which could influence the developmental processes of the first three years. This may be a culturally-determined attitude.

Until quite recently, it has generally been considered inappropriate in our (white North American) culture for fathers to be nurturant toward their infants. In the 1950s, Josselyn (1956) deemed it necessary to write a plea for recognition of the constellation of emotions in men which can be called "fatherliness" to parallel and occasionally overlap the constellation called "motherliness" in women. "Tenderness, gentleness, a capacity to respond emotionally and to rationalize at leisure, to value a love object more than the self, and to find a living experience in the experience of others is not just a prerogative of women, it is a human characteristic" (Josselyn, in Hines, 1971, pp. 190-191). At least one cohesive factor in this amalgamation of responses is tender love; however, when this emotion is used to describe a cohesive force in men, it is too often considered, by layman and professional alike to be evidence of repressed femininity (Josselyn, 1956). Thus, Josselyn wrote, if father expresses his fatherliness, he

is seen as a pale copy of mother. It might be argued that twenty-two years have elapsed since that article and that rigid views regarding masculinity and masculine behavior, as well as femininity and feminine behaviour, have been modified since that time. Yet, five years later, Psychological Abstract listings indicated that less than 10% of the articles treating the parent-child relationship were devoted to the father-child dyad (Laymann, 1961). Further, 15 years after the Josselyn article, Hines, in her overview of the changing role of the father as organize and breadwinner, saw him as a pale reflection of the modern superhuman ideal of masculinity (Hines, 1971). At about the same time, Bettelheim wrote that "...only occasionally, for boys, is fatherliness added, like an afterthought, as part of their self-image as mature men" (Bettelheim, in Brenton, 1969, p. 156). In this light, it is questionable whether or not a father's membership in his family and his contribution to development has been considered meaningful.

Yet what of the changing role of the father necessitated by the changing role of the family in society? Hines writes that a changing and minimized role of the father in the family leaves him little opportunity to be with his children and to make his presence felt by them (Hines, 1971). However, this view relegates father to the traditional role of distanciated attender to instrumental and socializing needs. And it is this view of father as filling only the socializing and disciplining roles after the child has reached the age of three that is reflected in the traditional psychodynamic theories of Mahler and Erikson which have been described in the preceding section.

And this view does not account for the effects on the children in the family of this emotionally distanciated parental figure. Nor does

it explain the effects on the family of the physical absence of the father. Hines (1971) states that the absence of father in the preschool period has strong deleterious effects on the child. Furthermore, research results support this statement.

Findings of Research into Paternal Involvement in Development

In reviewing, below, the results of the studies using the father-absent paradigm, it must be remembered that these studies into the effects of father-deprivation are early attempts to examine the contribution of fathers to their families in the same way that earlier studies into the importance of mothering initially concentrated on mother-deprived children (for example, Spitz, 1949, Bowlby, 1954, A. Freud, 1949). However, it cannot be too strongly stressed that regardless of the statistical models employed, the studies represent only correlations between father absence and observed behaviours. That is, no cause and effect conclusions can be drawn from their results. Moreover, the results of these studies are confounded by the prevalent neglect of control for type of father absence, the age of the child at the onset of father absence, the attitude of the mother to the departed father, the attitude of the community to the reason for departure, and the presence of a father surrogate and/or older siblings. For these reasons, the father-absent paradigm is now less frequently employed.

The summary below represents a synthesis of the findings in these studies. In reviewing the research which was undertaken prior to 1974, one is faced with a plethora of often conflicting results which makes summarizing the results difficult. In fact, three texts have been

devoted to this task (Biller, 1971, 1974; Lamb, 1976). Nevertheless, the studies are of interest both for historical reasons, and for the directions they point to needed research.

Onset of father absence in the pre-school period has been found to correlate positively with lower scores on achievement tests (Santrock, 1959; Laymann, 1961; Palmer, 1960; Wylie and Delgado, 1969), severe chronic depression (Brown, 1961; Beck, Sehti & Tuthill, 1963), delinquency (Goode, 1961), neurosis, psychosis and personality disorders (Brill & Liston, 1961), low self-esteem, and sexual acting-out (Hetherington, 1972). Further, Trunnel found that the degree of severity of pathology of an outpatient clinic sample varied directly with the length of father absence and the age of its onset (Trunnel, 1968).

Research results of differential effects on boys and girls are equivocal but, in addition to the above, boys who have suffered the loss of father before the age of five were found to be more dependent and less aggressive (Hetherington, 1966), and to evidence less masculine sex role orientations and sex role preferences than did father-present boys (Biller, 1969). Biller writes "comparisons of father-absent and father-present boys suggest that availability of the father is an important factor in the masculine development of young boys. There is evidence that the young father-absent boy is more dependent, less aggressive, and less competent in peer relationships than his father-present counterpart. He is likely to have an unmasculine self-concept" (Biller, 1974, p. 53).

The link between early father absence and difficulties in female offspring may be even less recognized. In addition to the general

findings listed above, early father loss has been shown to have a strong association with a daughter's emotional instability, sex role insecurity, alienation, and inability to adjust to society (Lang, 1976), to difficulties in the areas of adult intimacy and sexuality (Jacobsen & Ryder, 1969), to difficulties in the management of anger and aggression (Jacobsen & Ryder, 1969; Thomes, 1968; Rothbart & Maccoby, 1966; Steinberg, 1974). Thomes (1968) also found that father-absent girls belong to fewer groups than do father-present girls.

Although the effects have been found to depend greatly on the social view of the cause of the absence (Herzog, 1972), on the sibling constellation, and on the family's socio-economic status, (Biller, 1974), it is clear that father's presence in the home between the ages of birth and five years is crucial to the development of both a boy and a girl. Further, the differences in effect are associated with the age at which the absence began. Santrock (1970) suggests that boys who lost their fathers before the age of two were the most severely affected. Using an Eriksonian measure of development, he found these boys to be less trusting, less industrious, and to have more feelings of inferiority than boys who became father-absent between the ages of three and nine. Similar studies have not been undertaken for female groups.

However, in comparing parental child-rearing practices with children's reports of shame and guilt, Seigel (1974) did find that father's use of love withdrawal may correlate highly with reports of guilt in boys but with reports of shame in girls.

Now it has been explained that the establishment of basic trust and the integration of feelings of shame are developmental tasks which fall to the first two Eriksonian stages--birth to one and a half, and

one and a half to three years. Supporting the argument that father's involvement at this age is important, two-year-old girls, when asked which of their parents who were waiting in the next room they wished to have participate in each of seven play activities, showed significant preference for their father. The three-year-olds showed no significant preference; four-year-old girls showed a preference for mother. (Lynn & Cross, 1974)

Therefore, the research literature does bear out the importance of a father's involvement before the age of two. Father, says Hines (1971), must develop an early relationship with his child, and this requires early physical contact. Research supports the view that he can be just as competent as mother in the early feeding situation. When both father and mother are together with their infant, father frequently feeds more than does mother, is equally sensitive to cues, and manages to feed similar amounts of milk. (Parke, 1976) One group of researchers found that the one-quarter of their infant sample who did not show attachment to the father had fathers who were more distant and less actively involved and therefore possibly more anxiety arousing. The implication in their discussion was that had these fathers been more involved, their infants would, like the others, have displayed attachment behavior (Pederson & Robson, 1969). Further, father's involvement significantly affects the infant's behavior. In the same study, father's restrictive control was associated with fewer spontaneous nocturnal awakenings and fussings for no apparent cause (Pederson & Robson, 1969). In these studies quoted above, the sex of the infant did not appear significantly to affect the participation of the fathers (Parke & Sawin, 1976; Rendina & Dickerscheid, 1976; Pederson

& Robson, 1969).

In summary, a father's lack of involvement in his child's life before the age of two appears to have implications, albeit poorly delineated, for later development. Further, studies into father's active participation seem to support Josselyn's (1956) view that where permitted to do so father does show deep affection for his infant. As might be expected, this involvement also appears to effect changes in the infant's behavior. The next question might then be, what effects do these behavior changes have on the overall developmental pattern of the child. And how might these be accounted for in the developmental process of separation from mother outlined by Mahler and Erikson?

Father and the Separation Process

Erikson and Mahler both consider the mother-child relationship to be of prime if not exclusive importance during the first three years of a child's life. However, the research quoted above provides evidence that these psychodynamic developmental theories are not supported with regard to the primacy of the mother in the first three years. Based on this line of thinking, it seems possible that a father's direct physical contact may even be able to facilitate the crucial separation process described by Mahler and Erikson. In terms of behavior as basic as his physical handling of the infant, it is hypothesized that he provides awareness of at least one alternative set of sensations. The alternative model would then be available in terms of handling, methods of feeding, tone of voice, and facial expression. It is possible that once the regulatory bond and basic trust have been established with

mother in the first few months, the experience of a second safe, external figure who is also need-satisfying, allows the child to gradually broaden and differentiate his preception of his world. Also, between six and 12 months weaning generally occurs and mother returns to involvement in other activities. At his juncture Erikson cautions that it is necessary to allow the infant a substitute for this gratification from and activity with mother.

Might not this be the point in normal (or, more accurately, ideal) development at which father actually begins to take over some of these functions? If, indeed, father does become more involved, and becomes a caretaking and an attachment figure in the period between nine and twelve months, this would theoretically result in a less intense bonding with the mother. In other words, he would serve to neutralize the dependency tie. The differential effects of this shift on the quality of the early mother-child bonding, and on the establishment of Basic Trust have yet to be examined; however, there is no reason to suppose that the effects would be deleterious. Then, if the dependency tie is not severely damaged, but its intensity is diffused, the establishment of autonomy and executive independence may actually be facilitated.

Viewed in this way, the separation process may in fact be less traumatic for children whose fathers are involved with their caretaking and socializing from early infancy. Indeed, Spalke (1974) found that in his infant sample, all high father-interaction children showed less crying, fretting, and interruption of play upon departure of mother, that is, in the classic structured separation paradigm, than did low father-interaction children.

Theoretically, then, a father's active involvement with his

children during their first year of life may neutralize the dependency tie to mother and lessen the intensity of the process of separation from her. If this occurs, what then is the effect on later developmental processes?

Erikson's Developmental Theory and the Relation of the Task of Separation to Later Tasks

It will be remembered that in both Erikson's and Mahler's theories, the developmental process depends largely on the satisfactory resolution of issues in the first three years of life. To restate, these issues can be broadly described as the establishment of an intensely close, mutually satisfactory and mutually regulatory relationship between mother and child and the gradual loosening of this bond and the separation of the child from his mother. Mahler postulates the satisfactory resolution on a continuum, position on which effects later development. In other words, how well the child has achieved this differentiation is a crucial factor in his later behavior. Erikson similarly sees this as focal and characterizes resolution on a continuum--but inevitably partial--to be elaborated in successive stages. In this way, both theorists suggest that an unsuccessful resolution of the task of separation has adverse repercussions when the issue of separation re-emerges later in life.

Indeed, "...separation difficulties can be observed in adult patients who have insufficiently accomplished this development task" (Bowlby, 1969, p. 10). Also, separation is an emotional issue which recurs many times throughout normal development. If the individual

experienced interference with his resolution of the task at the age appropriate time, he is said to be continuously expending effort to recoup what he has lost, and to resolve the difficulty (Erikson, 1950). In this way, separation in each of the later stages, such as to peer group, to school, to first home, and upon marriage, become more traumatic.

Unlike Margaret Mahler, Erik Erikson presents a theory which describes development throughout the life span. Although not the focus of this thesis, discussion of the remaining six stages is germane to an understanding of development and developmental difficulties during the adolescent years. Again, in each stage, a unique crisis arises which must be satisfactorily confronted and partially resolved. The relative success or lack of success in this partial resolution leaves the individual with a residual attitude or orientation toward himself which in part determines his relative success in other stages.

During the third phase, that of Initiative versus Guilt, occurring at approximately, age three to seven, the child is being encouraged to assume more responsibility for himself and the objects of his personal environment such as a pet or a toy. As he meets the challenge with a sense of initiative he is able to convince himself and those around him that he is important and that life for him has taken on purpose. In fantasy and through his incessant questions, he tests out his skills and power--in short, the options which seem open to him given his potential. In so doing, he seems to be constantly requiring the participation of significant others and in turn to be intruding on their thoughts and actions. The three and four year old wants you to play with him, wants to know what you do, and why you do it, and when you do

it. His demands can often seem incessant and annoying to his parents. Thus, his assault on his environment often meets with resistance when his needs run counter to the needs of autonomous others. This can cause the child considerable guilt feelings which are exacerbated by the additional realization that his clash of wills threatens the trusting dependency or basic trust of the previous two phases. The conflict then is between pursuing his initiative behaviours or curtailing these and succumbing to the guilt.

During this phase, the child is beginning to learn to parent himself and is forming his own inner framework or conscience from the consistent and caring admonitions he has heard so many times. Often, during these years, one can almost see the process occurring. The child will begin a forbidden action, look at the attendant adult, then say "No". Slightly later, the child may try out the stricture on a doll, a toy, or perhaps a friend, admonishing reprovved behavior in others before he is quite ready to limit his own action.

Now, too, begins the important sexual differentiation. This aspect is a confusing one and increases the propensity for guilt. Although he is said to continue to carry with him remnants of the opposite sex, the child is now beginning to experience more mature pressures of sexual desires (Maier, 1965). Without requiring elaboration here, it is noteworthy that at this point Erikson credits Freud's concept of the Oedipal crisis, at the same time expanding its implications from an emphasis on the pathological condition to a realization of its place in normal development. The increasing interest in genital differentiation and in genital affection are actively explored, with the most important representatives of the opposite sex--his parents. Similarly, Erikson

deals with castration anxiety, placing it on a wider spectrum. That is, if a boy has a penis and a girl seemingly has lost hers, how did this happen, and for what unknown transgression? In other words, the cause could lie equally within or without the Oedipal triangle.

The parents are, in this stage, conveyors of information about the wider social network into which the child is moving. They are also there to monitor their child's thrust toward independence and to provide an alterego or alter superego whenever the child's strivings overtax his immature apparatus.

As he moves into the fourth phase, Industry versus Inferiority, age seven to eleven approximately, the child is said to move from isolated contacts with representatives of the wider social network into participation in the community at large. He begins school and is brought face to face with the hierarchical nature of adult-child relationships, simultaneously establishes his place in the peer group, and directs his energies toward resolving the social problems he now faces. His task during these years is to develop a sense of industry instead of a sense of inferiority. The dilemma is between production and non-production. But his productions are limited by his incomplete development. Thus, though he exercises and experiments with his rudimentary skills, he must work to overcome a sense of inferiority about the products of his efforts.

Traditionally, this was said to be a period of physical, psychological and sexual quiescence during which developmental progress slows and the emphasis is on consolidating what has already been learned and on filling in the gaps within the present level of ability. However, Erikson does not see this period as inactive or latent except in the

sexual sense. The consolidation requires considerable energetic involvement at this stage, for the child's future is being determined by how well he masters each day-to-day situation, be it social, intellectual, or physical. Since his competency is being observed and tested, this may result in a competitive striving to succeed, to be first, and to avoid failure at any price. Although the child may occasionally engage in activities normally reserved for the opposite sex, in essence the differentiation between the sexes is becoming increasingly marked in play activities.

During these years, the child enters into a relationship with his parents which is more realistically tied to his growing abilities and his dependency needs. The Oedipal crisis resolved, the child begins to foresee a break with the life his family has presented and movement into a wider social reality. As representative of the wider culture, his parents are now measured against other representatives of the society. Thus, the child is developing a personal and social yardstick which is no longer based solely on the mores taught by his parents. He is now beginning to include the options offered by other adults with whom the parents and he interact, for example, teachers, friends of their parents, and the parents of their friends. He now measures his parents against these alternative models.

The peer group and other groups outside the family now become increasingly important as the child shifts his dependency from the family to social institutions. His perspective in this period is essentially outward as he devotes his energies to self-improvement--always in comparison to others--and the conquest of people and things.

Recognition of the next stage, that of Identity versus Identity

Diffusion, has for many years been considered one of Erikson's major contributions (Constantinople, 1969). However, as the problems of society shift, it may be that Erikson's formulations about this stage of adolescence are becoming outdated. Nevertheless, no presentation of his theory of development would be complete without a description of this phase, covering the years between the onset of puberty and the end of adolescence.

If the individual has mastered the problems of each of the childhood stages he is now, at puberty, ready to face the challenges of the adult world as a potential equal. In order to successfully deal with the important decisions which will face him as an adult, the individual must operate from within a sense of his own identity. Thus his task during his adolescent years is to establish his own identity while overcoming a sense of identity diffusion. At one end of this polarity there is a striving toward an integration of inner and outer forces, while at the other, the diffusion results in a sense of instability, a floundering in the confusion between the internal and the external demands.

In this stage, the child's confidence in and mastery over his own body is shaken by the rapid physiological, anatomical, and psychological changes which occur during puberty. These are the years, then, when adolescents seek reassurance from their peers in the re-evaluation of their abilities. The resurgence of sexual drives requires that these again be integrated into the personality structure and must eventually find an outlet in an appropriate heterosexual relationship. To reach this point, the teenager must rework all the issues of the earlier stages, including the Oedipal theme. If he has been able to separate

and differentiate himself from his parents, he will be able to resolve this conflict by finding suitable expressions of his desires outside his family. The parents are then seen in the same category as are other significant adults, with the exception that they share with the youth a personal history and an anticipation of the future. This exception is, however, important, since it is within his history, his personal and cultural roots, that he will be able to forge his identity. And he is involved in a search for this sense of who he is to become--for this sense of self--since identifications with admired others are no longer sufficient.

According to Erikson (1956) the adolescent is permitted time to organize his identity through a socially sanctioned extension of childhood--the so-called psycho-social moratorium. In this moratorium society grants him selected permissiveness while theoretically allowing him to don the mantle of adulthood as he is ready. He is given the opportunity to try out, without dire consequence, different ideological, political, and career orientations. He is permitted to reflect upon them, even temporarily adopt one or the other, with the recognition that these experiments are only transient, temporary manifestations of the final configuration which will be his identity.

Following the resolution of the identity crisis, the individual enters the sixth stage, Intimacy versus Isolation, and is required to take his place as a fully participant, adult member of society with the contingent freedom and responsibilities. It is time for marriage and for the selection and pursuit of a career. This, says Erikson, must be accomplished from a base of self-awareness and identity, otherwise the intimacy involved results in personality disintegration and diffusion.

"The youth who is not sure of his identity shies away from interpersonal intimacy or throws himself into acts of intimacy which are 'promiscuous' without true fusion or real self abandon" (Erikson, 1968, p. 135). The tasks, then, facing the individual during the sixth phase are the acquisition of an intimate relationship and the avoidance of a sense of isolation.

Attaining a sense of solaridity involves the difficult undertaking of finding a mate who complements the individual's personal and social history. If he is unable to accomplish this, he is left with a feeling of being an isolated unit in a world of families. He must, therefore, "...achieve a personalized pattern of living which guarantees him an individual identity in joint identity" (Maier, 1965, p. 65).

Thus, he will find his ratio of co-operation, competition, love, friendship, and more formal relations. He will achieve at the end of the sixth stage a sense of shared identity. The sixth, seventh, and eighth stages remain labelled but not broadly elaborated in Erikson's scheme.

In the seventh phase, Generativity versus Stagnation, the focus shifts from the interrelating of two individuals to the division of labour within the shared household. The relationship now serves as the foundation for the development of the next generation as the individual faces the task of preparing for the next generation while avoiding self absorption or stagnation. Generativity refers not merely to the act of procreation per se but also to the manner in which he and his partner use their past experience and accumulated wisdom to plan for the next generation. This involves not only the act of parenting but also participating in the maintenance of important social insituations such

as child care, education and so on, which will of course also affect the offspring of the union. "Each adult accepts or rejects the challenge of accepting the next generation as his responsibility and of assuring this new generation the trust outlined in the first developmental phase." (Maier, 1965, p. 67).

In so doing, the adult begins to gain a perspective on his own cycle and develops an acceptance of mankind's individual and collective life cycle as he moves into the eighth stage, Integrity versus Despair. This perspective calls for a sense of integrity and the task of this final stage is the acquisition of a sense of integrity, avoiding a sense of despair. Erikson believes that with this sense of integrity man can overcome the dissatisfactions of various lifestyles and the fear of death. If accomplished, this integrity brings with it wisdom and a consolidated philosophy of life. (Erikson, 1950, 1968; Maier, 1965)

Research attempting to validate Erikson's theoretical description of development has been scarce and has yielded equivocal results. In part this may be due to the complexity of Erikson's hypotheses which has confounded their investigation in an empirical model. However, in part, the attempts also suffer from the passage of time. The largest portion of Erikson's observations were undertaken prior to 1950, when his first major work was published. Rapid social change since that time must impinge on family structure and the contingent developmental experiences which are not accounted for in his theory. As such, his theory must be viewed as descriptive of development up to the middle of the twentieth century and difficult to validate on subjects who have grown up since that time. However, with the proliferation of multivariate techniques of data analysis it is perhaps topical to

investigate how and where Erikson's theory stands alongside current defined stages of development.

It must be noted, however, that studies which have been undertaken to validate his theory, as opposed to correlating its stages with other issues in development, have focused almost exclusively on the phase of the resolution of an identity. In general, psychologists have corroborated the existence of this conflict (Marcia, 1966; Marcia & Friedman, 1970; Constantinople, 1969; Waterman & Waterman, 1971; Donovan, 1975), while its resolution may present a different process for girls than for boys (Marcia, 1966; Marcia & Friedman, 1970; Constantinople, 1969). At least within a college population, the stage may extend into the twenties and even the thirties (Donovan, 1975); further, there is evidence that its resolution over time can be charted (Constantinople, 1969; Waterman & Waterman, 1971). Constantinople's (1969) longitudinal study attempted to look at the resolution of earlier stages during late adolescence but obtained only partial confirmation.

Before proceeding to look at adolescent developmental crises, it must be reiterated that Erikson considered the degree of satisfactory resolution of each stage to be crucial to the mastery of subsequent developmental tasks. Particularly, the resolution of the phase of Basic Trust ensures a trust of the individual's ability to control his or her libidinal urges. During the teenage years, there is an upsurge of libidinal energy which the individual must learn to control and channel effectively with a minimum of guilt and shame, and a striving for autonomy the realization of which must not shatter his basic faith in himself and his world. In this way, processes going on in adolescence depend on the degree of satisfactory resolution of earlier stages,

including the first three--Basic Trust versus Basic Mistrust, Autonomy versus Shame and Doubt, and Initiative versus Guilt.

Seemingly dissonant viewpoints can be integrated into this framework. Sullivan (1953) and Nixon (1962) consider that adolescence may offer an opportunity to redress some of the difficulties experienced in earlier development. Nixon (1962) holds that rethinking in adolescence can change attitudes acquired earlier by providing a new perspective. A similar viewpoint was expressed by Sullivan (1953) when he talked of the beneficial effects having a good chum can have on the idiosyncratic attitudes acquired earlier from the nuclear family.

However, the dissonant views can be reconciled if a differentiation is made between attitudes (interpersonal) and more fundamental ego positions (intrapsychic). Attitudes are external manifestations which may be congruent with inner positions but may also be modified by external pressures. These then, could be seen to be modifiable. Fundamental ego positions are the subject matter of Erikson's theorizing, and although he allows for modification of these positions via the experiences and working through in the adolescent years, he nevertheless maintains a belief that self-esteem and ego integration are the end product of successful resolutions of each crisis. The fewer, or the less satisfactory the resolutions, the less the self-esteem and ego strength on which to build during adolescence.

In adolescence then, all the earlier intrapsychic crises, both resolved and unresolved, return with vigor to be faced and reworked on a new level (Blos, 1963). Particularly during adolescence, necessary separations may take on the earmarks of a crisis since "...adolescence is the time when the residue of previous crises are to be integrated

within a personally appropriate identity." (Erikson In Donovan, 1975, p. 9).

Adolescent Developmental Crises

It has been shown that theorists have postulated that separation from the primitive bond with mother is a developmental task occurring initially in infancy. In adolescence, it is said that residues of earlier developmental crises, including those of separation, return to be reworked and their resolutions integrated into the mature personality structure of the individual. Some examples of separation crises during the adolescent years would be entrance into high school, the first romantic relationship, career choice, entrance into university, and departure from the parental home.

Theoretically, then, it becomes possible to study separation anxiety at its re-emergence during any of the traumatic events of adolescence. Particularly useful, however, is the first move out of the family home, since it signifies a physical and cognitive separation as well as an emotional one. For the purposes of this study, entrance into university will represent this move.

Therefore, it might be suspected that first year university students would, according to the above reasoning, be liable to experience stress. Depression is considered a behavioral and emotional indicator of stress and is also considered by psychoanalytic theorists to represent a reaction to loss (Jackson, 1976). It is not surprising, therefore, that adolescents are subject to depression when faced with an experience of separation (Braconnier & Ferrari, 1976). Suspecting that

much of depression among college students goes undetected by university mental health facilities, and shows up only in attrition, Bosse (Bosse et al, 1975) studied depression among freshman university students. Using self reports of sophomores on their own experiences during the freshman year, the research group found that at least 75% of the students who returned the mailed questionnaire reported having suffered at least mild depression. Moreover, 41% of the sample reported having suffered from mild to severe depression. In a similar vein, Gum's (1974) survey of college dropouts revealed one of the main reported causes of attrition to be a "lack of identity". Finally, Cottle (1974) reminds university administrations of the task facing college students, namely to renounce the past and to learn to live in a new social context that usually emphasizes separation from home. Cottle here links depression in freshmen with an adolescent crisis which is an echo of the earlier task of separation.

Thus, first year university students do experience periods of stress which have been related in the literature to the task of separation. It is here suggested that students for whom the issue of separation has not been adequately resolved will evidence more intense distress than do students who have worked through this issue at the task appropriate ages. It is also suggested that students who have experienced satisfactory relationships with their fathers will have more successfully completed the primary task of separation from their mothers. In line with the above discussion, it is then possible that students who have experienced positive relationships with their fathers will have worked through the separation issue satisfactorily and will evidence less anxiety in their first year of university.

It is, therefore, proposed to document the emotional discomfort experienced by first year university students. In particular, discomfort in terms of heightened distrust in themselves or their environment, poor impulse control, and aggravated dependency needs will be linked to poor resolution of the separation crisis and of the first Eriksonian stage, Basic Trust versus Basic Mistrust. In addition, reports of a lack of self-confidence, difficulty in functioning in an appropriately autonomous manner, and/or feelings of powerlessness will be taken as descriptions of a poor resolution of the second Eriksonian stage of development, Autonomy versus Shame and Doubt. It is hypothesized that these self-descriptions will be closely related to a relationship with father that is remembered as being negative in tone.

In summary, it should be noted that although this Review focuses, to a large extent, on the developmental theories of Margaret Mahler and Erik Erikson, this study is not intended as an examination of their theories. Rather, the description of their respective positions was provided as a framework or focus from which to review the findings of empirical studies with special emphasis on differences in these findings. Within the framework it is suggested that students in first year university experience varying degrees of stress and anxiety that can be likened to a form of separation anxiety. It is further suggested that the degree of this anxiety is mediated by the type of relationship the student had with his father during the developmental years, a more positive relationship predicting less anxiety at later (separation) stresses. The results of the present investigation, therefore, bear on these issues rather than serving as an examination or test of the developmental theories of Mahler and Erikson.

CHAPTER II

Methodology

This chapter will present the design rationale, the settings, the sample, the research instruments, the procedure, the statistical analyses, and the specific hypotheses.

Design Rationale

The design used in this study would be called a Retrospective Descriptive Survey from the paradigms described by Fox (1969). It is intended to describe and relate two sets of variables in the population of students under consideration. It is considered a retrospective study since one set of phenomena transpired prior to the collection of the data under investigation.

According to Fox (1969), the major potential hazard in employing the correlational and retrospective paradigms involves the strength of the instruments being used. Indeed, research instruments are often of weak psychometric status, especially in the area of family studies. The validity and reliability of the tests therefore being crucial, care was taken to select those instruments which were not only aimed at answering the questions being asked, but were also as valid and reliable as possible. With the exception of the Eriksonian measure, it is suggested that considerable success has been achieved in this area.

However, given reliable instrumentation, Fox (1969) considers the correlational and retrospective surveys to be sound and sensible paradigms requiring samples of sufficiently small size to be ideal models for student studies.

The Setting

The University of Ottawa offers an introductory course in psychology at the undergraduate level from September to May each year. During the academic year 1978-1979, the English enrollment was divided into six English classes. The number of students in each class varied from class to class, the lowest being approximately 90, the highest approximately 150. The two evening classes contained a predominance of students aged 21 years or more; the four classes offered during the day contained students the greater proportion of whom were aged 21 years or less.

Subjects

The three Introductory Psychology classes offered during the day and which also contained the greater total number of students, were selected for participation in the study. The combined total number of students was approximately 400.

Each of the three Introductory Psychology classes was visited by the researcher, and volunteers were requested. An incentive of 3% toward the final grade was offered. Approximately two-thirds of each class indicated that they wished to participate. All students who volunteered and who arrived at the designated times were administered the research test battery. Of those who had initially volunteered, all but 10 presented themselves at the first sitting. About one-half of the students who had completed the first half of the test battery presented themselves three months later to complete the second half; thus,

about 150 students completed the entire battery of six instruments.

Of these, only 120 were considered suitable for submission to statistical analysis. The first to be excluded were subjects who had spoiled or incomplete protocols. Here two criteria were used: if a protocol was more than 50% unusable, it was discarded. If any protocol discarded or missing was one of the parent relationship measures, the subject's battery was not used.

Further, it transpired that several of the students had completed their formative years in countries outside Western European or American spheres. It was considered that the experiences of these individuals during their development, including early development, was likely to have been of a different nature from the experiences which have to date been researched and documented. Including this group in the statistical analysis was considered to add to the variance in a manner which would be difficult to document. Therefore, the protocols of this group were excluded from the statistical analysis.

In summary, the protocols of all volunteer students who had completed the entire battery of research instruments and who were born and who had completed their first twelve years of development in a culture normally falling under the rubric of "Western", comprised the sample to be considered in the statistical analysis. There were 120 of these protocols, 39 males and 81 females. Descriptive characteristics of the sample can be noted in Figures 1, 2, 3 and 4.

It was decided to consider a subtest of the sample for a more detailed statistical analysis. The aim in selecting this subset was to account for as much of the error variance as possible by extracting variables defined in previous studies as contributing to the variance.

Table 1

Length of absence of both parents by age of subject (N=120)

Age	(0)		(1)		(2)		(4)		(5)	
	No Absence		1 yr or less		1 year		3 years		4 yrs or more	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Birth	-	1	-	-	3	1	-	-	-	-
1 Year	60	34	4	1	8	1	-	1	6	-

Table 2

Length of absence of mother by age of subject (N=120)

Age	(0)		(1)		(2)		(4)		(5)	
	No Absence		1 yr or less		1 year		3 years		4 yrs or more	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Birth	60	34	4	1	10	2	-	1	5	-
4	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	1
13	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 3

Length of absence of father by age of subject (N=120)

Age	(0)		(1)		(2)		(4)		(5)	
	No Absence		1 yr or less		1 year		3 years		4 yrs or more	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Birth	60	34	2	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
1	-	-	1	-	-	1	-	-	1	-
3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-
4	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
5	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-
8	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	1	-	-
9	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
10	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	2	-
11	-	-	-	-	3	-	-	-	-	-
12	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
13	-	-	-	-	3	1	-	-	-	-

Table 4

Type of absence from parental home (N=120)

	Female	Male	
First Absence From Home	59	31	90
Had Been Away Before	22	8	29
TOTAL	81	39	120

Thus, the subset was selected to include subjects who were first born, of families which had included both natural parents until the subject reached the age of 12, who had not experienced a major move out of the family home prior to entering university, and who were 21 years of age or less. There were 14 males and 34 females in this sample. Descriptive characteristics of the subset are presented in Figures 5, 6, and 7.

The subset was constituted to include only students aged 20 years, 11 months or younger. The choice of this cut-off was made for the following reasons. Twenty-one has traditionally been the socially accepted mark of the end of adolescence in the North American culture. Although there is some evidence that developmental tasks undertaken during the adolescent years are now being extended into the twenties and even the thirties (Donovan, 1975), the samples on which such conclusions have been drawn are small and nonrepresentative, and the conclusions must therefore be considered tentative. The more traditionally held cut-off age was therefore used.

In addition, the sample was narrowed to include only those students who were either currently still living in the parental home or for whom the move to accommodation near the university represented the first move out of the parental domicile. Summer sojourns away from parents, for example at camp, were not counted as a move out of the parental home. This refinement was necessary in terms of the definition given to "separation" in Chapter 1 (see page 8). It was reasoned that for those students still living with their parents, entrance into university was a major step toward cognitive and emotional differentiation and autonomy. College, to the extent that it challenges the student to re-evaluate

himself and his world and offers him the freedom to try out the results of such re-evaluation, can influence the nature and extent of personality change (Constantinople, 1969; Sanford, 1962, 1967; Freedman, 1967). Those for whom the move was physical as well as cognitive were also included in the subset without being separately defined.

Inclusion in the subset was further restricted to those students whose parents were both present until the subject had reached the age of twelve. The reason for the selection of this restriction came from the requirements for the administration of the Parent Child Relations Questionnaire. Siegelman and Roe (1965) explicitly state that they included in their normative sample only those students whose fathers and mothers were both present until the subject had attained the age of thirteen.

Finally, it was decided to include only first born children in the subset. In his 1971 summary, Biller asserted that the specific effects of paternal deprivation are mitigated by such factors as the personality of the mother, sociocultural background, and the presence and sex of siblings. In general, the research studies supporting this view have found that elementary school-age boys with older brothers have been found to be rated as more masculine by peers (Koch, 1956), to have more masculine sex role preferences (Rosenberg and Sutton-Smith, 1964) and to be less dependent (Wohlford et al, 1971). In these studies, obverse but parallel findings were obtained for the female samples. In addition, in comparison to boys with older sisters, boys with older brothers were seen as more masculine by their mothers (Santrock, 1970) and were found to suffer less in academic areas following the loss of their fathers (Sutton-Smith, Rosenberg, & Landy, 1968).

From these studies, it is evident that older siblings have an

Table 5

Length of absence of both parents by age of subject (N=48)

Age	(0)		(1)		(2)		(5)	
	No Absence		1 yr or less		1 year		4 yrs or more	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Birth	-	-	-	-	2	1	-	-
1	23	13	2	-	4	-	3	-

Table 6

Length of absence of mother by age of subject (N=48)

Age	(0)		(1)		(2)		(5)	
	No Absence		1 yr or less		1 year		4 yrs or more	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Birth	23	13	2	-	5	1	2	-
1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-
4	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-

Table 7

Length of absence of father by age of subject (N=48)

Age	(0)		(1)		(2)		(5)	
	No Absence		1 yr or less		1 year		4 yrs or more	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Birth	23	13	-	-	1	-	-	-
1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
3	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-
5	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
7	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-
8	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
10	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-
11	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-
13+	-	-	-	-	2	1	-	-

Table 8

Type of absence from parental home (N=48)

	Female	Male	
First Absence			
From Home	22	11	33
Had Been			
Away Before	12	3	15
Total	34	14	48

effect on both father present and father absent children. While the nature and extent of this effect has not yet been clearly delineated, it is plain that controlling for this factor would give a more useful picture of the effect of the parental behaviors.

Instrumentation

The following section will briefly describe each of the six research instruments included in the battery. While the measures are considered to be among the sturdiest available in the area of family relations and especially in the paradigm of retrospective analysis, very few good psychometric measures exist. Further, none of the measures has been widely used in studies thus compounding the difficulty in assessing their usefulness. An attempt was made to select the most reliable and valid of the available tests which would also fit the needs of this investigation.

A. Biological Data Sheet

A biological data sheet was designed in order to facilitate the identification of the subsample in accordance with the variables to be controlled. These variables included birthplace, age, birth order, periods of time away from home, and the intactness of the family up to the beginning of the subject's adolescence. Since this Data Sheet was administered at the end of the first testing, that is, roughly in the middle of the procedure, several questions also relating to biographical information but unrelated to the research questions were also included. The purpose of this composition was to disguise the specific nature of the research in order not to bias the results of the family

questionnaires which came later. Here are examples of each type of question:

Mother: Age: _____
 Occupation: _____
 If employed outside the home, in what year did she
 begin to work outside the home? _____

Interests and Hobbies:

 During childhood: _____
 During adolescence: _____
 At the present time: _____

See Appendix B

B. The Personality Research Form (PRF)

Author: Don Jackson, Ph.D.

The inventory was included as a self report of emotional state and personality functioning at the time of the testing. It is said to measure those variables broadly relevant to the functioning of normal individuals (Jackson, 1967).

The standard edition, used in this study, has two alternate parallel forms each containing 300 items to be answered True or False. The responses to the 300 items are hand-scored using a transparent template. The scores yield information on 15 scales based on Murray's theory of Needs and Presses (Murray, 1938).

The 15 scales are:

Achievement	Endurance	Order
Affiliation	Exhibition	Play
Aggression	Harmavoidance	Social recognition
Autonomy	Impulsivity	Understanding
Dominance	Nurturance	Infrequency

(Jackson, 1967)

With the careful definition of scales, the choice of items to show high correlation with total scales, and the careful editing procedures, Jackson expected that the PRF would yield substantial reliability coefficients.

The Kuder-Richardson Formula 20 reliabilities from a sample of 100 college students are considered by Jackson (1967) to be unusually high for personality scales. For the shorter parallel forms, used in this study, the reliabilities range from .78 (Defence) to .94 (Order). However, there was a low reliability of .55 on the Infrequency Scale which is to be expected from the nature of the content of the scale. It is important, also, to note that the standard deviations varied from a high of 9.79 (Order) to a low of 1.05 (Infrequency). The generally large standard deviations indicate a good separation of the subjects on the scales.

Investigations of the stability of the PRF scales over time have been undertaken using the two longer parallel forms of 464 items each. In an unpublished study Jackson (see Jackson, 1967) evaluated the temporal stability of the two forms over two testing sessions separated by two weeks. On a sample of 192 subjects, odd even reliabilities ranged from .48 (Defence) to .86 (Dominance) on Form AA. Form BB reliabilities ranged from .51 (Change) to .90 (Harmavoidance).

Correlations between the alternate forms ranged from .72 (Defence) to .92 (Order, Dominance). In addition, validity of the scales has been examined using behaviour ratings by peer judges. Correlations range from .10 (Sentience) to .71 (Exhibition).

The test therefore seems to be moderately stable, with some sensitivity to changes in personality functioning. This study required that the instrument used to measure the dependent variables of personality characteristics be at least moderately sensitive to fluctuations in these emotional states. What the test was required to pick up was emotional discomfort heightened by a particular situation, that is, entrance into university. On the other hand, the instrument had to be stable enough to allow for a second set of tests to be administered three months after the first, without appreciable overall change. The Personality Research Form appeared adequate for this purpose.

It was considered redundant to use all 15 scales in the statistical analysis for the present study, primarily because only about seven were directly relevant to the hypotheses being tested. These seven were relevant either because they referred to some manifestation of anxiety and/or depression or because they were seen as relating to one of the first two developmental stages described by Erikson. The seven which were selected for examination are: Achievement, Affiliation, Aggression, Autonomy, Dominance, Social Recognition, and Infrequency. (see Appendix C)

C. The Adjective Check List (ACL)

Authors: Harrison G., Gough, Ph.D., Alfred B., Heilbrun, Ph.D.

The Adjective Check List was selected for inclusion in the research battery as a self-report measure of emotional discomfort, to complement

the Personality Research Form.

It was considered insufficiently sturdy to be used on its own in place of the Personality Research Form; however, its inclusion was supported since several of the scales were reported to measure personality characteristics pertinent to the hypotheses. Also, several of the scales were described as measuring characteristics different from those measured by the PRF.

The Adjective Check List has only one form containing 300 adjectives which are in common use in the English language. The subject is instructed to check the adjectives which he (or she) considers to be most descriptive of himself at the time of the testing. No maximum or minimum number of check words is required. (Gough & Heilbrun, 1975)

The following are the scales developed out of the ACL items. Scales 9 through 24 are subtitled "Need Scales":

Number of items checked	Intracception
Defensiveness	Nurturance
Number of favourable items checked	Affiliation
Number of unfavourable items checked	Heterosexuality
Self-confidence	Exhibition
Lability	Autonomy
Self-control	Aggression
Personality adjustment	Change
Achievement	Succorance
Dominance	Abasement
Endurance	Deference
Order	Counselling readiness

The ACL can, like the other instruments in the battery, be either a group or an individual test. It is available in either a handscoring

folder or a single sheet computer scoring format. Since the manual provides a list of the adjectives to be added to and subtracted from each scale, a combination of the two formats is used. Regardless of the booklet on which the subject indicated his or her responses, these responses were transferred to the University of Ottawa computer sheets and a program was written to score the test.

Although the Adjective Check List is subject to the criticisms concerning validity and reliability which are levelled at all check lists, it is considered to be one of the more useful of these instruments. Vance, in the 7th Mental Measurement Yearbook, called the scale development "sophisticated and sound" (Buros, 1975). Furthermore, the reliability estimates appear sufficient. Coefficients ranging from .54 (Succorance) to .84 (Unfavourable) were obtained on a group of 89 college students retested after a lapse of 10 weeks. Six month retest on 100 males yielded reliabilities ranging from .31 (Favourable) to .75 (Exhibition). After a five and one-half year span the coefficients on a sample of 34 medical students dropped. The range was from .26 (Lability) to .77 (Autonomy).

As with the PRF, the reliability coefficients for the Adjective Check List suggest moderate stability with some sensitivity to changes in personality functioning. Thus, it appears adequate for the purposes of this study.

Once again, it was considered to be unnecessary to use all of the 24 available scales in this study, since examination immediately revealed that only a few are relevant to the subject under consideration. Therefore, six were selected for use as dependent variables. The decision concerning which of the ACL scales to include was arrived at in the following manner. Using the descriptions in the manual, an

initial short list was made of 12 of the scales whose content most closely suited the questions being asked in this study. The scales were selected to describe varying degrees of anxiety or depression, or as descriptions which overlapped with behaviours associated with the first two Eriksonian developmental stages. The final group of six was arrived at by selecting the strongest of the 12 scales. In this instance, the criteria of reliability, validity, and intercorrelation were examined. The six scales which were selected for inclusion in the statistical analyses were: Abasement, Aggression, Dominance, Exhibitionism, Succorance, and Personality Adjustment. (see Appendix D)

D. The Parent Child Relations Questionnaire (PCR)

Authors: Anne Roe, Ph.D., Marvin Siegelman, Ph.D.

The Parent Child Relations Questionnaire was included to elicit the subjects retrospective perceptions of their relationships with their fathers (and mothers) during their childhood up to and including the age of 11 years and 11 months.

The PCR is made up of four forms of 50 items each. The items refer to specific behaviors and not to attitudes in order to reduce some of the difficulties deriving from retrospective data. All four forms were used in this study. The four questionnaires relate to the mother-son, mother-daughter, father-son and father-daughter relationships. The items for each were specifically selected to yield information on five categories, of 10 items each. The five scales are: Loving, Demanding, Attention, Rejecting, and Casual. For female questionnaires, 33 items are the same for both mother and father. For the male questionnaires,

32 items are the same for both mother and father. For this reason, the categories are defined in terms of the items which appear on at least three of the four questionnaires (Roe & Siegelman, 1965). Subjects are requested to indicate how closely, on a scale of seven to one, the descriptive statement fits their memory of the behaviour of the parent in question. Answers are recorded directly onto the answer booklet, and answers are scored according to a typewritten list (Roe & Siegelman, 1965).

Reliability statistics were derived from samples of college students aged 18 to 20 in New York, Louisiana, Georgia, and Arizona. Three of the samples were white, one was black. For the samples combined, the coefficients appear to be respectable. For 352 males on the father scales, Kuder-Richardson Formula 20 reliability coefficients ranged from .72 to .96. For 355 males the coefficients ranged from .63 to .92. The sample of 360 females received coefficients on the father scales ranging from .72 to .97. Finally, the 371 females, completing the mother scales received coefficients ranging from .69 to .96. Support for content validity is said to be given by the unanimous agreement of four judges that certain items, from a large pool of questions, fit into a given category (Siegelman & Roe, 1965).

Taking only about 15 minutes to complete, the PCR is an economical measure of parent/child relationships. Of the available measures of this type, it was considered to offer the most face validity, and the sturdiest psychometric standards. In addition, since it has been repeatedly refined over a period of 15 years, it has amassed a body of research by which it can be evaluated and which can also be used to define the parameters of its usefulness. (see Appendix E)

E. An Eriksonian Measure of Development (IPD)

Author: Anne Constantinople, Ph.D.

The Eriksonian Measure was included in an attempt to ascertain into which Eriksonian developmental stage(s) the students were expending their day-to-day energy. In this way it was hoped to be able to relate the developmental stage attained with the independent measures of parent/child interaction and identification.

The test bears resemblance to the Q-sort from which it was derived for group use (Wessman & Ricks, 1964; Constantinople, 1965). It includes 60 descriptive statements pertaining to the first six Eriksonian stages of development. There are five questions each for successful and unsuccessful resolution. The six stages are:

Basic Trust	versus	Basic Mistrust
Autonomy	versus	Shame and Doubt
Initiative	versus	Guilt
Industry	versus	Inferiority
Identity	versus	Identity Diffusion
Intimacy	versus	Isolation

Items are either short phrases or single words, and Constantinople has substituted a seven-point scale for the Q-sort format. The subject is asked to circle the number from seven to one which describes how characteristic that phrase is of him.

The ratings on the five items for each of the 12 subscales are summed to obtain the 12 subscale scores. High scores on positive scales and low scores on negative scales indicate successful resolution.

Available psychometric data is minimal. Constantinople (1969) reports six-week retest reliability estimates, ranging from .45 on the Identity Diffusion scale to .81 on the Intimacy scale. However, it

should be noted that these reliabilities were computed only on the last six scales and not on the first six which are central to the hypotheses of this study. The study itself is unreported and further details are unknown. For this reason reliability and factorial data were obtained on the sample under consideration in this study and will be reported in Chapter 3. To obtain these statistics, the IPD was administered twice in order to obtain reliability estimates.

Of the research instruments, this measure is recognized as the weakest. Developed approximately 10 years ago, it has been rarely used since that time. Further, with only five items per scale, validity and reliability must be considered to be weak. Weakest of all is face validity. Many of the questions are either transparent in their intent, or obscurely worded. Nonetheless, it was the only such measure in existence at the time of data gathering for this thesis. Other studies designed to research Erikson's hypotheses have been forced to use individual interviews, which was not possible for this study (Donovan, 1975). (see Appendix F)

Procedure

This section will describe the chronology of the testing sessions and of the tests administered, and the scoring procedures.

The test batteries were too lengthy for both to be administered within one class period. Therefore, the subjects were tested on two separate occasions. The first session was held outside normally scheduled class time, during the second week of November, 1977. The instruments administered at this sitting included, in chronological sequence, the Adjective Check List, the Eriksonian Measure of Development, and the Personality Research Form, Form A. All students completed the tests in this order in order to standardize administration. The

order was selected to separate the ACL and PRF, which are similar in intent. Also, it was intended to administer the Family Relations instrument last in order to preclude disclosure of the hypotheses under investigation and thus distort the information from the other tests. At the end of this first testing session, each student was asked to fill in the biographical questionnaire prior to leaving.

The second testing session was held during the last week in January 1978, at a time convenient to the professors of the classes and during a regularly scheduled class period. It was hypothesized that this was after a recurrence of the separation, that is after the Christmas break. Subjects completed the Eriksonian Measure of Development first, as a refrain of the earlier testing, then the Parent Child Relations Questionnaire.

The following instruments were hand scored by the experimenter: The IPD, the PRF, and the PCR. A computer program was written to score the Adjective Check List according to the instructions in the ACL manual (Cough & Heilbrun, 1965).

The normative studies for the PRF, the ACL, and the PCR were undertaken in the mid-1960s. For the most part, the samples were comprised of urban American university students. Since it was considered unwise to compare 1978 Ottawa students to these standards, z-scores, using a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10 and also norms, were developed using the 120 students in the present sample. These z-scores were later used in the statistical analyses.

Hypotheses

The following section will present the specific hypotheses to be tested. The hypotheses will be divided into three groups corresponding

to the three sources of dependent variables. The first section will deal with the seven dependent variables obtained from the PRF; the next group will cover the nine dependent variables obtained from the ACL; finally, there will be a group of hypotheses covering the four dependent variables derived from the Eriksonian Measure of Development.

Overall a positive relationship with father was expected to mediate separation from mother and passage into the second Eriksonian stage of development, Autonomy versus Shame and Doubt. Obversely, a negatively toned relationship with father would be noted in students who had not successfully mastered the ability to separate. In all cases it was expected that a recalled Rejecting and Demanding relationship with father, as reported on the PCR, would correlate with negative resolutions of the first two Eriksonian stages of development, Basic Trust versus Mistrust, and Autonomy versus Shame and Doubt.

Furthermore, the first year university students who are required to cope with separation from home and to function autonomously would be experiencing stress if they reported the rejecting and demanding relationships with their fathers. The stress would be described, experimentally, by their scores on the personality inventories, the PRF, and the ACL, as described below.

Obversely, high scores on the PCR Loving and Attention scales would correlate with positive resolution of the first two Eriksonian developmental stages and with overall personality adjustment.

The research hypotheses will be listed below. Each time the statement will be couched in either positive or negative terms, that is, phrased in terms of the expected associations to a Loving and/or Attentive or the Rejecting and/or Demanding father-child relationships. In each case the obverse is also expected, due to the bipolar nature of

the PCR and IPD scales. However, the expected associations will not be enumerated as this was considered to be both unnecessary and unwieldy.

Accordingly, the following hypotheses were examined.

1. With respect to the PRF: A negatively-toned relationship with fathers will be associated with a reported low need for achievement. Specifically, low scores on the Achievement scale would be associated with recalled Rejecting and/or Demanding relationship with father.
2. A negatively-toned relationship with father will be associated with a low need for affiliation. Specifically, low scores on the Affiliation scale would be associated with a recalled Rejecting and/or Demanding relationships with father.
3. A negatively-toned relationship with father will be associated with a high need for aggression. Specifically, high scores on the Aggression scale would be associated with a recalled Rejecting and/or Demanding relationship with father.
4. A negatively-toned relationship with father will be associated with a need for dominance. Specifically, high scores on the Dominance scale would be associated with a recalled Rejecting and/or Demanding relationship with father.
5. A negatively-toned relationship with father will be associated with a reported low need for social recognition. Specifically, low scores on the Social Recognition scale were expected to be associated with a recalled Rejecting and/or Demanding relationship with father.

6. A negatively-toned relationship with father will be associated with a high degree of anxiety. Specifically, high scores on the Infrequency scale would be associated with a recalled Rejecting and/or Demanding relationship with father.
7. A positively-toned relationship with father will be associated with a reported high need for autonomy. Specifically, high scores on the Autonomy scale would be associated with a recalled Loving and/or Attentive relationship with father.

With respect to the ACL:

8. A negatively-toned relationship with father will be associated with a reported low need for abasement. Specifically, high scores on the Abasement scale would be associated with a recalled Rejecting and/or Demanding relationship with father.
9. A negatively-toned relationship with father will be associated with a reported low need for exhibitionism. Specifically, low scores on the Exhibitionism scale would be associated with a recalled Rejecting and/or Demanding relationship with father.
10. A negatively-toned relationship will be associated with a reported low need for succorance. Specifically, low scores on the Succorance scale would be associated with a recalled Rejecting and/or Demanding relationship with father.
11. A positively-toned relationship with father will be associated with a reported overall personality adjustment. Specifically, high scores on the Personality Adjustment scale would be associated with a recalled Loving and/or Attentive relationship with father.

12. Associations for the ACL Aggression, Dominance, and Autonomy scales were expected to be the same as those for the PRF scales of the same name.

Finally, overall reported positive relationships with father were expected to correlate with positive resolution of the first two Eriksonian developmental stages, Basic Trust versus Basic Mistrust and Autonomy versus Shame and Doubt. Thus, for the Eriksonian Measure of Development, the expected relationships were as follows:

13. The Basic Trust scale would be associated with a recalled Loving and/or Attentive relationship with father.
14. The Autonomy scale would be associated with a recalled Loving and/or Attentive relationship with father.

CHAPTER III

Results

This chapter will be devoted to the descriptions of the statistical procedures used and to the results obtained from them.

The Eriksonian Measure of Development

The Eriksonian Measure of Development, the IPD, was administered twice, once at each sitting, separated by approximately 12 weeks. The purpose was to obtain test retest reliability estimates of the instrument and to rate the confidence with which it might be interpreted. Pearson correlation coefficients were obtained for each of the 12 scales. Coefficients ranged from a low of .57 on the Shame and Doubt scale to a high of .79 on the Intimacy scale (see Figure 9). The Shame and Doubt scale is pertinent to the hypotheses of this study. Since it is apparently weak in stability estimates, caution must be taken in interpreting data accruing from this scale.

The Eriksonian measure was also examined with respect to the bipolarity of the scales. A Factor Analysis with varimax rotation (Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steibrenner, & Brent, 1975) was performed on the second administration. Two factors emerged. The negative resolution scales loaded on the first factor and the positive resolution scales loaded on the second factor. Thus bipolarity can be assumed for the scales of this measure.

Table 9

Coefficients of test-retest reliability with 3-month interval (N=120)

Basic Trust	.75
Basic Mistrust	.66
Autonomy	.62
Shame & Doubt	.57
Initiative	.73
Guilt	.65
Industry	.74
Inferiority	.68
Identity	.69
Identity Diffusion	.59
Intimacy	.79
Isolation	.72

Figure 10

Factor analysis with varimax rotation

Eriksonian Measure of Development - February 1978 Administration

(N=120)

SCALE	FACTOR I	FACTOR II
Basic Trust	.80	-.10
Basic Mistrust	-.20	.79
Autonomy	.73	.07
Shame-Doubt	.35	.48
Initiative	.77	.15
Guilt	-.06	.72
Industry	.54	.02
Inferiority	.08	.56
Identity	.81	-.10
Identity Diffusion	.07	.66
Intimacy	.82	-.13
Isolation	-.08	.78

Descriptive Statistics

The statistical procedure used to analyze the data is contained in the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, second edition (Nie et al., 1975), and is called the SPSS Multiple Regression Analysis, subprogram regression. Multiple regression is used to define the relationship between a dependent or criterion variable and a set of independent or predictor variables (Nie et al, 1975). It provides the estimation of the overall degree of relationship between the set of predictor variables and the outcome measure (Harris, 1975) and can be used to predict the criterion or outcome measure.

Multiple regression was selected as the statistical model for the following reasons. As mentioned in Chapter 1, there was little in the literature to give an indication of the important variables to be studied, though the areas in which father's involvement seemed to be important had been roughly outlined. Such areas included the development of a cognitive style, sex-role development, and the documented importance of his presence prior to the age of two, but within these global areas the particular variables, the order of their importance, or their covariation had not been delineated. Therefore, an exploratory study seemed to be most useful at this stage.

Furthermore, it seemed premature, given the state of theoretical and empirical knowledge, to attempt to differentiate main from interaction effect. Rather, it seemed appropriate to define the key question of the study as one of prediction, namely: would father involvement predict less (separation) anxiety at the entrance into first year university. Thus, the model to be used would be a correlational one. A multivariate approach seemed preferable to determine the relative weights of a number of variables used as predictors.

Thus, the study had been conceptualized as exploratory, to delineate specific variables for future study. It had been envisaged as a predictive study to determine the extent of interrelationship of variables picked a priori from knowledge of the findings of previous studies. Hence, the multiple regression model was selected.

Results

The following results were obtained (see Figure 11). It will be noted that these results were for the majority of relationships obtained on the regression equations involving the Personality Research Form and the Eriksonian Measure of Development only; only one of the Adjective Check List scales was significantly correlated with the aspects of the father-child relationship covered by the Parent-Child Relations Questionnaire.

Thus, students whose relationships with their fathers were recalled as Loving also evidenced a striving towards Achievement ($F=3.562$, $p \leq .01$, $r=.01$) and Social Recognition ($F=1.936$, $p \leq .01$, $r=.10$). Students who experienced their fathers as Rejecting also described themselves as needing to Achieve ($F=4.697$, $p \leq .01$, $r=.06$) and as tending to respond to others in an Aggressive manner ($F=3.061$, $p \leq .01$, $r=.04$). These students also tended to respond to questions in a random and disjointed manner, that is, evidenced high Infrequency scale scores ($F=2.336$, $p \leq .01$, $r=.15$). Further, subjects who recalled their fathers as Rejecting also did not seek out interpersonal relationships, that is, did not evidence an Affiliative need ($F=4.751$, $p \leq .01$, $r=.17$). Students who recalled their father as Demanding of them tended to avoid Affiliative relationships ($F=2.954$, $p \leq .01$, $r=.25$) (see Figure 11).

With respect to the Eriksonian measure of development, the following results were obtained. The PCR Rejecting scale was positively

correlated with the Basic Mistrust scale ($F=2.211$, $p \leq .01$, $r=.35$). Thus, students who recalled their fathers as having been rejecting of them, received scores on the IPD which indicated a negative resolution of the first Eriksonian stage of development, Basic Trust versus Basic Mistrust. The PCR father Rejecting scale was also negatively correlated with the Autonomy scale of the IPD ($F=2.546$, $p \leq .01$, $r=.12$), indicating that students who recalled their fathers as having been Rejecting of them had achieved a more negative resolution of the second developmental stage, Autonomy versus Shame and Doubt.

The PCR father Demanding scale was negatively correlated with the IPD Basic Mistrust scale ($F=2.973$, $p \leq .01$, $r=.14$). Thus, those students whose scores indicated a resolution of the first stage which was skewed towards the Mistrust end of the continuum recalled their fathers as having related to them in an unDemanding way.

A finding not stated in the main hypotheses but of interest in a pilot study such as this, indicated a positive relationship between the father Casual scale and the Autonomy scale ($F=5.591$, $p \leq .01$, $r=.06$). Thus, students who described their fathers as relating to them in a Casual manner, described themselves as functioning Autonomously (see Figure 12).

For the results of the ACL only Personality Adjustment was correlated with the father Casual scale ($F=1.608$, $p \leq .05$, $r=.21$). Thus, the casual manner of relating was regularly associated with overall personality integration (see Figure 13).

All other hypotheses were either not supported or attained significance in the direction opposite to that which had been predicted.

In the latter category, the correlation between the Loving scale and the PRF Aggression scale was statistically significant ($F=6.489$, $p \leq .01$, $r=.60$), but in a direction opposite to that which had been

Table 11

Multiple regression coefficients and F-ratios

Personality Research Form with Parent-Child Relations Questionnaire Father Scales (N=120)

Scale	Loving		Demanding		Attention		Rejecting		Casual	
	Correl. Coeff.	F-ratio	Correl. Coeff.	F-ratio	Correl. Coeff.	F-ratio	Correl. Coeff.	F-ratio	Correl. Coeff.	F-ratio
Achievement	.29	3.56**	-.02	.03	.09	.71	.36	4.70**	-.14	.99
Affiliation	-.19	1.48	.22	2.96**	-.02	.02	-.36	4.75**	-.05	.10
Aggression	.48	6.49**	-.07	.21	.15	1.21	.35	3.06**	-.07	.14
Autonomy	-.33	3.96**	-.18	1.56	.04	.11	.05	.06	-.16	1.00
Dominance	.05	.07	-.06	.13	.12	.80	.04	.04	-.12	.51
Social Recognition	.23	1.94**	-.08	.30	.07	.36	.04	2.34**	-.17	1.25
Infrequency	.08	.18	-.22	1.72*	-.08	.37	.32	.33	-.14	.60
Nurturance	.18	.99	.12	.67	.06	.21	.11	.33	-.02	.01

*p .05

**p .01

***p .001

Table 12

Multiple regression coefficients and F-ratios

Adjective Check List with Parent-Child Relations Questionnaire Father scales (N=120)

Scale	Loving		Demanding		Attention		Rejecting		Casual	
	Correl. Coeff.	F-ratio	Correl. Coeff.	F-ratio	Correl. Coeff.	F-ratio	Correl. Coeff.	F-ratio	Correl. Coeff.	F-ratio
Abasement	.01	.01	.06	.19	-.10	.83	.13	.54	.05	.12
Aggression	-.07	.14	.05	.09	.12	.85	-.09	.23	.11	.46
Dominance	-.03	.03	.03	.06	.06	.28	-.09	.33	-.08	.34
Exhibitionism	-.16	.87	-.02	.02	-.03	.06	-.20	1.15	-.01	.00
Succorance	-.14	.85	-.01	-.01	.03	-.00	-.07	.21	-.04	.11
Personality Adjustment	-.07	.17	-.16	1.05	-.02	.23	-.08	.48	-.21	1.61*

*p .05

**p .01

***p .001

Table 13

Multiple regression coefficients and F-ratios

Eriksonian Measure of Development with Parent-Child Relations Questionnaire Father scales (N=120)

Scale	Loving		Demanding		Attention		Rejecting		Casual	
	Correl. Coeff.	F-ratio	Correl. Coeff.	F-ratio	Correl. Coeff.	F-ratio	Correl. Coeff.	F-ratio	Correl. Coeff.	F-ratio
Basic Trust	.10	.30	.17	1.33	-.06	.22	-.02	.12	.07	.21
Basic Mistrust		.22		2.97**		.65		2.21		.08
Autonomy	-.08	.21	.28	3.79**	-.16	1.59	-.30	2.55**	.36	5.59
Shame and Doubt	-.01	.00	-.11	.56	.19	2.23*	-.03	.03	-.12	.61

*p .05
 **p .01
 ***p .001

anticipated. Students who recalled their fathers having been loving preferred non-aggressive behavior. Similarly, the father Demanding scale was positively and not negatively correlated with the PRF Autonomy scale ($F=3.956$, $p \leq .01$, $r=.41$). Therefore, in this study a recalled Demanding father was associated with reported Autonomous behavior in subjects. An Attentive father was remembered by students whose responses indicated that they were experiencing feelings of Shame and Doubt and were not functioning autonomously ($F=2.234$, $p \leq .01$, $r=.26$).

Few significant results were obtained for the selected subset. Where significant results were obtained for the subset, in all but one case the direction contradicted the findings for the general sample. This phenomenon may reflect the 2.5:1 ratio of female to male students in the subgroup and as such may indicate the presence of sex differences in the consequences of father involvement. It may also reflect the small sample of the selected subgroup, rendering it inappropriate for nonparametric statistics. Whichever is the case, the results have been reported in Figures 14, 15, and 16, but no explanations for these findings will be given.

Table 14

Multiple regression coefficients and F-ratios

Personality Research Form with Parent-Child Relations Questionnaire Father scales (N=48)

Scale	Loving		Demanding		Attention		Rejecting		Casual	
	Correl. Coeff.	F-ratio	Correl. Coeff.	F-ratio	Correl. Coeff.	F-ratio	Correl. Coeff.	F-ratio	Correl. Coeff.	F-ratio
Achievement	-.59	.58	-.52	.42	-.60	1.02	.07	.01	-.00	.00
Affiliation	.07	.01	.29	0.11	.42	.44	-.82	.84	-.03	.00
Aggression	.08	.02	.02	.00	-.69	1.69	-.19	.06	.40	.41
Autonomy	.11	.03	-.11	.03	-.62	1.84	-.05	.01	-.30	.28
Dominance	.11	.16	.42	.61	1.11	.81	-.37	.07	-.26	.73
Social Recognition	-.16	.04	-.11	.02	.10	.03	-.97	1.17	.05	.00
Infrequency	.20	.10	.51	.59	.92	3.54*	.23	.11	.07	.01

*p .05

**p .01

***p .001

Table 15

Multiple regression coefficients and F-ratios

Adjective Check List with Parent-Child Relations Questionnaire Father scales (N=48)

Scale	Loving		Demanding		Attention		Rejecting		Casual	
	Correl. Coeff.	F-ratio	Correl. Coeff.	F-ratio	Correl. Coeff.	F-ratio	Correl. Coeff.	F-ratio	Correl. Coeff.	F-ratio
Abasement	.09	.02	.61	.73	.49	.85	-.31	.18	.49	.62
Aggression	.14	.09	-.38	.60	-.53	2.23	.58	1.32	-.43	1.01
Dominance	.33	2.24	-.87	1.49	-.25	.23	.02	.00	-.74	1.44
Exhibitionism	.65	1.82	-.65	1.62	-.33	.79	.47	.79	-.31	1.32
Succorance	.41	.40	.15	.05	.01	.00	.51	.52	-.39	.43
Personality Adjustment	-.03	.00	.22	.12	.07	.02	-.41	.37	.19	.12

*p .05

**p .01

***p .001

Table 16

Multiple regression coefficients and F-ratios

Eriksonian Measure of Development with Parent-Child Relations Questionnaire Father scales (N=48)

Scale	Loving		Demanding		Attention		Rejecting		Casual	
	Correl. Coeff.	F-ratio	Correl. Coeff.	F-ratio	Correl. Coeff.	F-ratio	Correl. Coeff.	F-ratio	Correl. Coeff.	F-ratio
Basic Trust	-.00	.00	-.47	.45	.39	.82	-.32	.18	-.39	.37
Basic Mistrust		.22		2.97**		.65		2.21*		.08
Autonomy	-.33	.66	-.28	.45	-.16	.38	-.18	.16	-.19	.24
Shame and Doubt	-.01	.00	-.10	2.56**	.19	2.23*	-.03	.03	-.12	.61

*p .05
 **p .01
 ***p .001

In summary, the father Loving scale of the PCR was positively correlated with the PRF Achievement and Social Recognition scales. The Rejecting scale was positively correlated with the Achievement, Aggression, Infrequency, and Affiliation scales of the PRF and the Basic Mistrust scale of the IPD. The Rejecting scale was negatively correlated with the IPD Basic Trust scale. The Demanding scale was positively correlated with the Affiliation and Autonomy scales of the PRF and the Autonomy scale of the IPD. It was negatively correlated with the Basic Mistrust scale of the IPD.

Results also suggest that the IPD is a reasonably sound research instrument. The claim of bipolarity was maintained, and its stability appears adequate for a questionnaire measuring changes during development. However, it was noted that the Shame and Doubt scale is weak in both instances.

CHAPTER IV

Discussion

Chapter IV will examine, in more detail, the relationships found, and will offer explanations for the data. The first set of correlations to be examined will be those which support the research hypotheses. Following this, the chapter will look at those statistical relationships which achieved significance but in a direction opposite to that which had been anticipated, and those statistical relationships which had not been expected to achieve significance, but which did so. Explanations will also be attempted for associations which had been predicted but which did not emerge. The purpose of the examination of these two sets of relationships is to further the use of this thesis as a pilot study, as an attempt to isolate variables to be examined in depth at a later time. In each case, the relationship will be described, a possible explanation will be offered, and supporting studies will be summarized. Finally, Chapter IV will suggest implications for future research.

Personality Research Form

The findings resulting from the multiple regression analysis using the Personality Research Form scales as dependent variables will be discussed first.

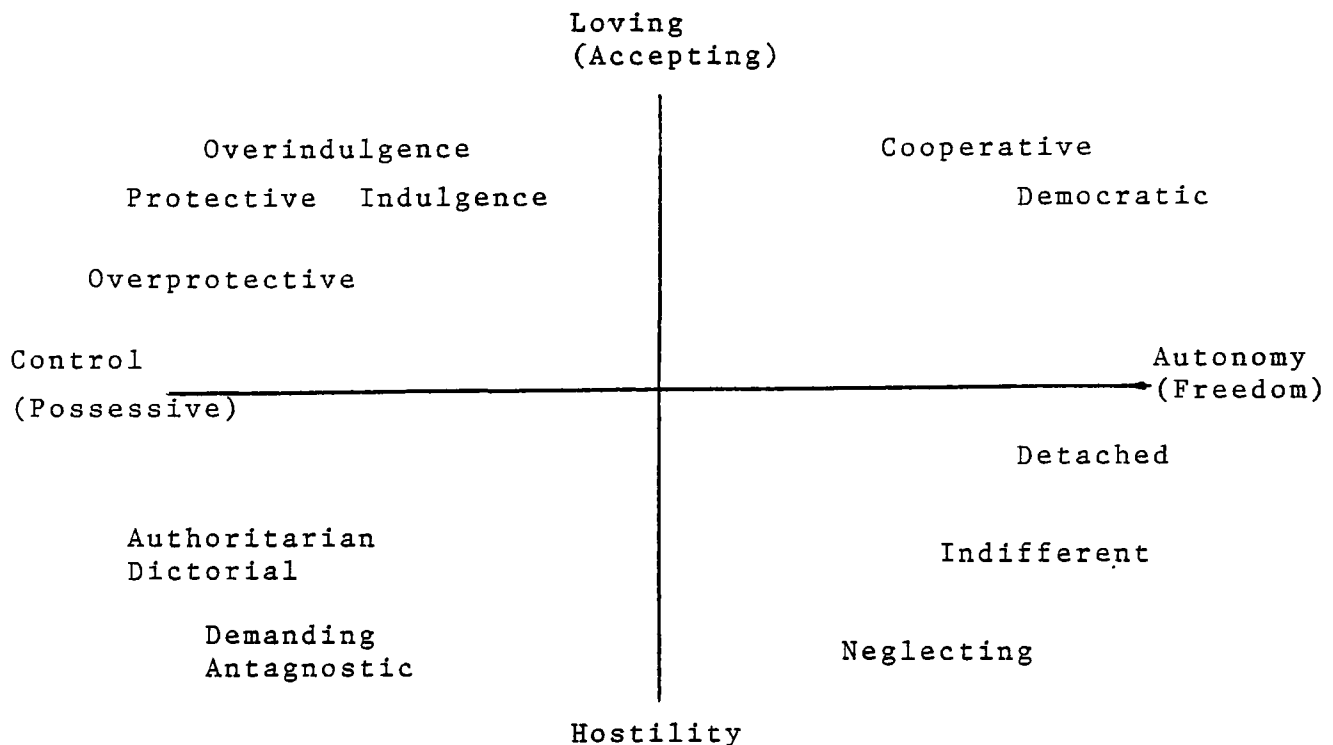
Achievement

A need for Achievement was found to be significantly associated with recalled Loving and recalled Rejecting relationships with father.

Capable, productive, ambitious (Jackson, 1967) students indicated relationships with their fathers which contained both components; only the Achievement-Rejecting relationship had been predicted. The phenomenon of the significant correlation achieved in the same direction for both ends of a scale which has been reported to be bipolar (Siegelman, 1973) occurred throughout the findings of this study. Since the mechanism operative in each instance appears to be the same, an explanation will now be offered which is intended to cover all the occurrences and which will be referred to later in the chapter.

The present study was designed around a retrospective format, and thus the various stages are necessarily collapsed into a single descriptive term for the relevant 12-year span of the parent-child relationship. Consequently, a father who was rejecting at one stage and loving at another may later be remembered as a Rejecting and Loving father. The format of the questionnaire does not allow for an examination of the qualities of the relationships at different periods in development or on different issues within the parent-child relationship. It may then be that the child who becomes an ambitious and industrious individual will likely recall a Loving then Rejecting relationship with his or her father. The obverse, Rejecting followed by Loving, is also possible. However this sequence is less likely since, as will be shown below, an initial Rejecting stance on the part of the father was associated with Basic Mistrust, which was negatively correlated with Achievement needs.

To further elaborate this theme, Schaefer (1959) proposed the following bimodal model to account for variations of parental disciplinary techniques:



Schaefer included in his model the premise that parental behaviour in the middle of the continuum is most facilitative for child development. Conversely, parental behaviour at either extreme of an axis would lead to extreme and malfunctional behavior on the part of the child.

Although the scales of the PRF tend to emphasize strong needs, they are not intended as descriptions of pathology. Also, a striving for achievement, within the normal ranges, is an adaptive striving in the university setting, an indication of an attempt to appropriately resolve the stress posed by the demands of the university environment. Thus, the student who reported this adaptive striving on the PRF also indicated that he or she had a relationship with father which, in Schaefer's terms, contained elements of both aspects of the continuum

and was therefore a balanced and facilitative relationship.

These data are consistent with findings in other areas of the literature. Lynn (1974) suggests that the antecedents of achievement motivation are achievement training or training to do things well, and independence training or training to accomplish tasks alone. Using subjects' responses to projective techniques and parental interview responses, Rosen and D'Andrade (1959) found that both the mothers and the fathers of the high achievement motivation boys stressed independence training. The fathers were especially strong in doing so. On the other hand, in his summaries, Biller (1974, 1967) links achievement motivation in the child and a negative relationship with father. He suggests that this relationship acts as an impetus which fosters the child's sense of mastery over his environment. This sense of mastery might be considered a prerequisite for the achievement need, since without some sense of mastery, thoughts of achievement would be considered to be beyond reach. Thus, although different antecedents of achievement need have been postulated, in each case, the relationship with father has been seen as a major motivating factor. Furthermore, McClelland et al (McClelland, Atkinson, Clark, Lowell, 1953) found that male university students who viewed their fathers as "rejecting" had high achievement motivations. However, male high school students with high achievement motivation described their fathers as "friendly". When he reviewed the article, Lynn (1974) wrote that this suggests that sons of moderately friendly and successful fathers would have the highest motivation to achieve. "Sons of fathers who are either too friendly or too rejecting, or too successful or total failures, would be poorly motivated to achieve". (Lynn, 1974, p. 176). The McClelland et al paper tends to support the Loving-Rejecting association noted in the

data and the proposed explanation using Schaefer's model. In addition, this lends support to the argument of this chapter that different parent-child relationships are differently facilitative at different developmental stages.

Since no such findings are available for a female sample, it will be assumed, for the purposes of the present explanation, that a similar mechanism would be operative in female development.

Social Recognition

Students who received high scores on the PRF Social Recognition scale received high scores on the PCR father Loving scale. This was in a direction opposite to that which had been hypothesized.

Thus, students who are concerned about their reputation, who work for approval and recognition (Jackson, 1967), recall their relationships with their fathers as having been loving ones. This corresponds with the traditional role of the father as a socializing agent but may also point to the following additional factor. A further explanation may be that, among this sample at least, some students have not relinquished their need for approval and recognition and their need to assume self-reinforcement.

Affiliation

Affiliative needs were reported by students who recalled relationships with their fathers which were not Demanding, not Rejecting, and not Loving. The first two associations were in the hypothesized direction, the third was in a direction opposite to that hypothesized.

The traits associated with affiliative needs are: loyal, gregarious, cooperative, sociable, and genial (Jackson, 1967). Evident once more is the presence of both the Loving and the Rejecting attitudes on the part of the father. Again, the explanation is offered that both emotional tones in the father-child relationship are facilitative to development during the years from birth to 12. As with the relationship with the mother, the child's healthy personality would lie rooted in a positive, not-rejecting, relationship with his father. It is here that the child would learn to experience security and warmth, without a degree of intensity which may stifle normal development. This relationship, hypothetically, would not continue indefinitely if the child is to develop autonomous functioning and an orientation towards others outside this dyadic relationship. In this framework, at one or several points during the repetitive expanding spiral that characterizes development, a less loving attitude on the part of the father would be necessary to propel the child towards relationships outside the dyad. This parallels the theoretical position of Schaefer (Schaefer, 1959, 1961) quoted above.

The relevant literature reports findings for male subjects only. It appears that the relationship between affiliative needs and father-demandingness is the obverse for them, that controlling restrictive fathers would appear to foster affiliative qualities and to stifle achievement orientation in their sons (Biller, 1974; Lamb, 1976). It may be that the 2.5:1 ratio of females to males in this sample accounts for the direction of the findings.

Aggression

Students who expressed a tendency toward Aggressive strivings also

recalled relationships with their fathers which were both Rejecting and Loving, the latter being in a direction opposite to that hypothesized. Thus, students who described themselves as quarrelsome, irritable, hostile, and revengeful (Jackson, 1967) once again described this bipolar relationship with their fathers.

Once again this combination poses difficulties of interpretation. Two explanations will be offered. It is possible that either consecutive ordering of the two behavior patterns predisposes the child toward aggressiveness. The order could be in either direction, a Rejecting relationship initially predisposing the child to tension, anxiety and Basic Mistrust such that a later Loving relationship is able only partially to mediate and preclude more disturbed[?] personality functioning. The alternative order, the initial Loving relationship followed by a more Rejecting stance, after the child reaches the age of aggressive autonomy at about 18 or 24 months of age, would then leave the child without the positive relationship with father which, it is hypothesized, is important at this age of autonomous strivings. The child would then have no alternative to the primitive mother-child relationship, thus being hampered in the separation process. In support of this hypothesis, one of the adult indicators in the population of patients who have not successfully negotiated the separation crisis is a tendency toward aggressive expression (Blanck & Blanck, 1974).

The second possibility is that the relationship simultaneously contains both emotional overtones. Thus the child is attracted to the relationship by its Loving aspects but is then more susceptible to frustration from its Rejecting aspects. This would theoretically lead to Aggression as does its parallel, the double bind mother-child relationship (Berger, 1978).

Either or both of the above explanations may be operative. However, the data suggests that a relationship with father that is both Rejecting and Loving can lead to Aggressive strivings in the adolescent.

Infrequency

Students whose Infrequency scores were high also recalled their fathers as having been Rejecting but not Demanding. These associations were in the hypothesized directions.

Thus, this scale which is indicative of noncompliance, randomness, passive aggressivity, and anxiety (Jackson, 1967), in its higher ranges correlated with a relationship which might also be described as permissive and hostile.

These findings parallel research which has shown that in lax-hostile conditions a child is likely to grow up as noncompliant and possibly aggressive, with poorly controlled impulses (Becker, 1977; Siegelman, 1973). It may be that for the child to learn to set limits for himself he must have experienced, during development, limits set for him by a caring adult. In such an explanation, hypothetically, limits set by a rejecting adult would be resented and limits not set or not clearly defined would lead to poor internalization of limits.

These observations are important in the present context since, of the scales used in this study, the Infrequency scale provides the best index of anxiety. Here, then, is an indication of heightened anxiety during the phase of adjustment to the separation from home required in the university setting, which is statistically linked with a poor father-child relationship.

Eriksonian Measure of Development

The findings for the IPD, the Eriksonian Measure of Development, generally tended to support the theoretical position offered in Chapter I.

Basic Trust Versus Basic Mistrust

Although the Loving father-child relationship was not significantly related to the establishment of Basic Trust as had been expected, his Rejecting attitude did correlate with an attitude of Basic Mistrust. Further, findings indicated that a not Demanding father-child relationship also contributed significantly to Basic Mistrust in this sample. These findings suggest that a father's positive presence during the first year of life may not significantly affect the resolution of the first Eriksonian developmental crisis. However, his negative impact in terms of a quality of rejection and a lack of limit-setting in his relationship with his child may significantly skew resolution toward the negative end of the continuum.

It may be, therefore, that during the first year, the child feels the father's presence in terms of his authoritarian or limit-setting role. This hypothesis would be partially supported by the findings of Pederson and Robson (1969) noted in Chapter 1. To recap, these authors found that infants whose fathers were more controlling evidenced fewer spontaneous nocturnal awakenings which were for no apparent cause. On the other hand, if he is unDemanding, that is, does not set limits and/or is Rejecting, it may be that he does not provide an alternative to the warmth of the primitive mother-child bond. The child then, would

not be offered a viable alternative transitional figure and would poorly negotiate the task of separation from mother. The world outside this relationship, exemplified in part by the father, would then be seen as unattractive and possibly hostile. The stage would then be set for the development of Basic Mistrust.

Autonomy Versus Shame and Doubt

With respect to the second developmental stage, that of Autonomy versus Shame and Doubt, the results lend support to both the theoretical hypotheses and the research hypotheses. However, it is necessary to reiterate that reliabilities and factor readings, as mentioned in Chapter 3, point to this set of scales as a less reliable measure. Results must, therefore, be seen as trends only.

There was only one scale which significantly predicted a stance of Shame and Doubt--the father Attention scale which had been predicted to have a negative relationship to the establishment of Shame and Doubt. When the relationship was instead found to be positive it was necessary to look at the content of the scale for an explanation. The content analysis revealed that the title "Attention" may be a misnomer; the items refer to indulgence or bribery used as positive or negative reinforcement. In this sense, it also relates to a reliance on external rules and rewards which may have the effect on the child of feeling dominated and controlled by an external source. The use of bribery can be an effective way to undermine free will. To quote Erikson, "A sense of self-control without loss of self-esteem is the ontogenetic source of a sense of free will. From an avoidable sense of loss of self-control

and of parental over-control comes a lasting propensity for doubt and shame" (Erikson, 1968, p. 109-110).

The Autonomy Scales

At this point the findings for the PRF Autonomy scale and the IPD Autonomy scale will be discussed in conjunction since the two appear to be measuring the same personality characteristics.

The Autonomy scale of the PRF correlated with a recalled not Loving father-child relationship. On the other hand, although the Autonomy scale of the IPD did not correlate with the father Loving scale, as expected, it was unexpectedly significantly related to the father not Rejecting, non-Attention, and father-Casual scales. Also, in a direction opposite to that hypothesized, it was significantly related to the father-Demanding scale. The Autonomy and not Rejecting association on the IPD were opposite to the Autonomy and not Loving association on the PRF. These associations are focal to the hypotheses in the theoretical position described in Chapter I of this thesis, and therefore the contradictory findings require examination. The answer to the conflicting results was therefore sought in the contents of the individual scales.

It is likely that the PRF Autonomy and IPD Autonomy scales were significantly associated with different PCR scales owing to their different content. Item analysis revealed that the six items of the IPD Autonomy scale focus on such issues as independence, freedom, and self-sufficiency. The items of the PRF Autonomy scale investigate the area of rebelliousness, self-determination, and non-conformity. It would

appear then, that the PRF scale yields information about independence strivings and the IPD scale gives information about autonomous attitudes. The distinction is a fine one, between a lack of reliance on authority and a self-regulation (Oxford Concise Dictionary). However, the different results arising out of the distinction require further elaboration.

The PRF Autonomy scale, measuring non-conformance, self-reliance, etc. (Jackson, 1967) correlated negatively with the PCR Loving scale. These findings suggest that the attainment of autonomy for this group was facilitated by a less Loving, but not Rejecting, relationship with father. Once again, an explanation may be that at the point at which the child is struggling to integrate autonomous strivings an intense relationship with father may serve to stifle rather than facilitate progress. On the IPD, the attainment of an Autonomous position was not significantly correlated with a recalled Loving father-child relationship, as predicted, possibly explained by the advantage of the lack of intensity and extremes hypothesized by Schaefer (1959, 1961). It is conceivable that the relationship is best if it is positive without being sufficiently intense to be recalled as Loving; the intensity may serve to stifle autonomy rather than to facilitate it. This would be supported by the significant positive relationship that was found between the father not Rejecting and the father Casual scales, and the IPD Autonomy scale. It would also integrate the seemingly different associations on the PRF and the IPD Autonomy scales.

It is possible to examine this hypothesis in more depth since the IPD Autonomy scale was also significantly correlated with the father Demanding, the father non-Attention, and the father Casual scales of the PCR.

The content of the Demanding scale focuses on immediate, unquestioning obedience to the parent, who controlled all aspects of the child's behaviour and punished transgressions by means of harsh discipline. This area of the parental function has been the subject of recent investigation. "The degree to which parents place demands and restrictions on the child in a broad grouping of task areas, and insist on compliance to these demands and restrictions has been found in recent statistical analyses to form a global dimension useful in describing parent-role behavior" (Becker, 1977, p. 189). Parents who are strict or restrictive in one area tend to carry this over to other areas although some individual variation does exist. Therefore, Becker conceptualizes a dimension of restrictiveness versus permissiveness which describes the degree of control exerted over the child without specifying how this control is achieved and maintained (Becker, 1977). Although empirically a variety of terms have been used to describe this restrictive-permissive dimension, the terms tend to be either good approximations of the terms restrictive and permissive or a combination of either pole with the juxtaposition of the dimensions of warmth-rejection and emotional involvement-detachment. A difficulty in this area lies in the fact that studies have tended to examine the continuum from the perspective of maternal behaviour only, and the effects of paternal restrictiveness versus permissiveness might be expected to be different. Nonetheless, the findings are presented for the light they shed on the present study.

A few studies have investigated the effects of the restrictiveness versus permissiveness axis in climates of hostility and warmth. In

general, these studies indicate that permissiveness combined with warmth leads to independence and ease of assuming responsibility for behavior, cooperation with adults, moderate persistence in the face of an impossible task, more creativity and less hostility (Watson, 1957), increase in successful socially outgoing, domineering as well as friendly behaviors (Baldwin, 1949), that is, to autonomous behavior. This relationship between restrictiveness, parental disciplinary measures, and autonomous behaviour parallels the findings of this study.

From his survey of research, Lamb (1976) concludes that the aspect of the father-child relationship which is critical to the child's development is his warmth or nurturance in combination with "punitiveness" or an authoritarian position. This relates to the present findings associating the development of the child's Autonomy to father's lack of Rejection coupled with his demands or discipline.

Also, the Autonomy scale of the IPD positively correlated with the father not Attentive scale. The content of the Attentiveness scale appears to relate to use of bribery as a discipline. Thus, it may be that a father's restrictive measures may not be manipulative in order to facilitate the development of autonomy. It is possible that a parent who sets limits in a non-manipulative manner provides the degree of restrictiveness recommended during this stage by Erikson: he also provides the rules in a manner which can be comprehensible to the child, thus facilitating his use of this parent as a model, and the adoption of the rules for himself. In this way the child learns to control the vicissitudes of his own impulses, which is necessary for the attainment of autonomy (Erikson, 1950).

Thus, it would appear that a father-child relationship which is not

particularly rejecting but not overly warm either, which is characterized by strong but non-manipulative discipline without intensive involvement, facilitates the attainment of autonomy for the sample presently under consideration. Theoretically then it may also facilitate separation from the mother. It is suggested that by acting as a warm, but not intense, limit-setting figure, the father provides the alternative to the intense, less limit-setting symbiotic (Mahler, 1974) relationship with mother. By providing this alternative he facilitates separation from the mother-dominated first Eriksonian stage and the development of autonomy.

Thus it would appear that a positive, but not intense, non-manipulative relationship with father may facilitate the positive resolution of the second Eriksonian stage of development and may also facilitate the initial separation from the mother-dominated first stage.

Adjective Check List

The significant results for the ACL were more sparse. Interestingly, the scales generally correlated significantly with the mother and not the father scales of the PCR. This was so even where the scales were titled similarly to those of the PRF and contained similar content. It may be due to the more pathological orientation of the ACL items and its scale descriptions. This would suggest that where pathological extremes are being analyzed, the tendency may be to attribute causation to the mother-child relationship. As such, this may reflect trends in the psychological literature noted in Chapter I.

The statistically significant correlation noted between one ACL and

one PCR scale in the total sample was not one which had been hypothesized. It was found that overall Personality Adjustment was significantly related to the father Casual scale.

Thus, students whose scores indicated that their general attitude towards life was positive, while not devoid of problems, recalled a relationship with their fathers which was Casual, that is, permissive. The general tenor of the Casual scale content is that of warmth rather than hostility. Thus, although the Loving scale was not significantly correlated with the Adjustment scale as had been predicted, the association found parallels the permissive/warmth environment mentioned in Becker's (1977) overview of the research into consequences of parental disciplinary styles.

Becker's 1977 summary notes that the combination of warmth and permissiveness in parental discipline is associated in offspring with facilitated adult role-taking independence, friendliness, creativity, low projected hostility, and successful aggression. Although Becker has not tied these traits into a single descriptive term, the combination of the traits would seem to describe an adjusted personality. These results, it will be remembered, are based on analysis of the mother-child relationship. It is interesting to note that the present findings suggest that father's contribution is also important in this area of personality development. Further, the obverse, the low Personality Adjustment score being associated with a more restrictive paternal parenting style, is in keeping with the central thrust of this thesis. It is possible that the restrictive, colder relationship does not offer the child a viable transition figure, the result then being a more poorly integrated personality in adolescence. The Infrequency

scale, it will be recalled, also correlates significantly with a less Demanding paternal parenting style. Such an interrelationship suggests that higher anxiety at university entrance is associated with poor personality adjustment, which is associated with poor paternal parenting style.

Hypotheses which were not Supported by the Findings

The following section will look at the hypotheses which were not supported by the findings.

The hypotheses which refer to the father Attention scale are, perhaps, the simplest to account for. Thus, concerning the expected association between the PRF father Attention and the Social Recognition, Infrequency and Achievement scales, the results were inconclusive in part because of the content of the scale had not been recognized "a priori". The label of "Attention" derives from the original items which comprised the original scale entitled "Overt Attention". However, item analysis revealed that the focus of the scale is actually aimed at the use of masked external rewards--such as bribery and relaxation of limits--for negative and positive reinforcement. Seen in this light, it is still difficult to comprehend why the father Attention scale does not show the expected relationship to the PRF Social Recognition scale. That is, since the reinforcements built into the Attention scale become predictable for the child, it would seem plausible that it results in a reliance on external reinforcers, among them social reinforcers. In this way, an elevation on the Social Recognition scale would be expected in association with the father Attention scale. Why then the absence of

this relationship? Possibly, a manipulative manner of limit-setting results in making the external limits and rewards less attractive. Were this the case, the child would not later describe himself as seeking external social reinforcement.

A positive relationship had been predicted between the PRF Social Recognition and the PCR father Demanding scale, and a negative relationship had been predicted with the father Attention scales. Neither the Attention nor the Demanding scales significantly predicted the Social Recognition scale, however, the father Loving scale did predict this desire to be held in high esteem by others. Thus, a positive, nurturant relationship with father seems to effect this need, but this discipline with or without bribery tactics does not. It may be that the derivation of a striving for social recognition is more complex than had been hypothesized. Possibly it originates in positive relationships but is mediated by the content of a value system and possibly other factors.

It had further been anticipated that the Infrequency scale would be predicted by a non-Loving relationship. Although no such relationship did emerge, the strong positive relationship between the father Rejection and the Infrequency scales, at least conceptually supports the hypothesis. Unfortunately, the fact that the Loving-Rejection scales were expected to be bipolar (Siegelman, 1973) and the anticipated negative correlation with the father Loving scale did not emerge, may point more to the construction of the scale than to the validity of the hypothesis.

However, the lack of expected association between the Infrequency and the father Attention scales can be explained in the light of the more complete understanding of scale content. Since the reinforcements

described in the Attention scale are likely to become predictable for the child, they may also be manipulatable. The effect of this would be to create an environment in which events could be anticipated and, to an extent, influenced. Thus, the link to a scale such as Infrequency, which suggests a more diffuse anxiety and implies a less predictable environment, would not be expected once the nature of the content had been understood.

However, the lack of a relationship between the Achievement and the Attention scales remains puzzling. It would be expected, from the tenets of Stimulus-Response theory (Hill, 1977), that a reliance on external, concrete reinforcement, would lead to striving for achievement. Perhaps here the reinforcement is in the context of a relaxation of standards and values, thus simultaneously devaluing what is worked for and reinforced, that precludes the expected relationship. An example would be a reward of no homework for a night, as a reward for doing well in school. Simultaneous rewarding and devaluing of an achievement during development may have the cumulative effect of dulling the need to achieve.

A similar argument will be employed with respect to the relationship between the father Attention scale and the first four scales on the IPD. Father Attention had been expected to relate positively to Basic Trust and negatively to Basic Mistrust. It can be seen that the relationship ought to have been hypothesized to be the reverse--bribery leading to a lack of trust. However, no significant relationship, either positive or negative, was noted, which may imply that this method of rewarding by father is either not operational in the first year of life, or, more probably, if it is, it does not hold the

impact for development which had been anticipated. Especially during the first year of life when the primary bond is posited to be with mother, it may be mother's rather than father's demonstration of an unpredictable world which carries with it the crucial impact. Indeed, if one theorizes that father becomes a more salient figure after the first 12 months, it is not surprising to note that the father Attention scale achieved significance in predicting Shame and Doubt but was not significantly related to either pole of the first developmental stage.

Several aspects of the father-child relationship had been expected to predict the ACL scales, and only one significant relationship between the PCR father scales and the ACL scales could be discerned. However, the PCR mother scales did predict each of these scales. The mother-child relationship is not the focus of this thesis and it is not necessary to this explanation to describe the relationships which were found. Suffice it to say that in spite of similar scale descriptions, some aspect either of the format of the test administration, or of the actual content of the scales results in an association between the PCR mother scales and the ACL and, less dramatically, between PCR father scales and the PCR.

Finally, the absence of findings with respect to the Eriksonian scales will be summarized here, since they have been examined above. It had been predicted that Basic Trust would be mediated by Loving, Attentive, not Rejecting relationships between father and child. The results, however, suggest that the presence of father may not significantly contribute to the establishment of Basic Trust unless his manner of relating to the child is Rejecting. If he does reject his child, development may be skewed toward the establishment of Basic Mistrust.

It had further been anticipated that positive resolution of the second stage, Autonomy versus Shame and Doubt, would be predicted by a Loving, not Demanding father-child relationship. A negative resolution had been anticipated as the association with a Rejecting, Demanding, not Attentive, not Loving relationship.

The results indicate that, at least for this sample, behaviors other than those which had been anticipated relate to the positive and negative resolution. A Loving father-child relationship was not significantly related to either Autonomy or to Shame and Doubt. It may be that between the ages of 18 and 36 months, the crucial aspect of the father-child relationship is not its lovingness. In fact, the ties that bind in a loving relationship as depicted by the scale may hamper the bursts of independence which characterize the second phase of development.

Thus, the results suggest that while it may be nonfacilitative for the father to be Loving, he must nonetheless be Casual and simultaneously not Rejecting. In addition, it is suggested that he must be authoritative and disciplining, although not in any bribing sense. He must set and maintain limits, and not use these same limits as a reward.

Summary and Conclusions

In general, the results lend support to the research hypotheses, but deviations from the expected pattern point the way to new avenues of thinking and research. Overall, the indication is that different types of father-child relationships may be required for different areas of functioning and/or at different stages in development. Also, extremes

of parent-child relationship, may be less facilitative to child development than moderate relationships. Finally, paternal involvement in child development appears to play a more complex role than had been anticipated.

Thus, it may be that a uniformly loving relationship with father may not necessarily foster development. Not only is it possibly impeding to the attainment of autonomous functioning, but more specifically it may foster dependence on external validation and recognition of achievements, at least into late adolescence.

However, relationships which were recalled as both Loving and rejecting appeared to foster both achieving and aggressive striving in children. It may be that father's active participation, perhaps as conveyor of social mores, results in his child's active participation in his environment. It would be interesting, perhaps, to undertake a study which compares moderate levels of dependent and independent variables to extremes of both. It may be that moderation is the key word in all things to paraphrase Milton (1674). This is especially interesting in view of the fact that a relationship which is recalled as having been neither particularly loving nor particularly rejecting mediates a more dependent relationship with the environment, an inclination toward affiliation.

Clearly, however, father's negative attitude toward his child makes a lasting impact. His rejection and lack of limit-setting was, in this study, associated with a randomness in test-taking behavior which is indicative of extreme anxiety and/or passive aggressivity and, a basically mistrustful outlook on life. Supporting the theoretical hypotheses of this thesis, rejecting relationships were associated with

high anxiety during the first months of separation from home to university.

On the other hand, a relationship in which the father set limits and was not rejecting, was associated with affiliative strivings. The students who recalled this type of relationship were therefore people-oriented. Since father's limit-setting or lack of it appeared to be involved in the resolution of early developmental issues such as Basic Trust and extreme anxiety, it may be hypothesized that this behavior is facilitative for the development of impulse control. Coupled with this, it would appear that he may play an important, albeit traditional, role as socializer or socializing agent in development. And a relatively positive relationship with father allows the child to benefit from this involvement.

The data suggests that father's relationship with his children may be important to their development from approximately 18 months onwards. A positive but casual and not intense relationship with him appears to facilitate development and personality integration. Interestingly, in the present sample, his importance emerged more in terms of his possible negative impact rather than in terms of his possible critical positive input.

Thus, it might have been advisable to administer only the father scales of the PCR. It may be that the method of data collection used here encouraged comparison between mother and father, rather than a description of the recalled aspects of the father relationship. It would seem that the data has been affected by the social stereotypes of mothering and fathering, which is to be expected in a retrospective study (Yarrow et al., 1971). Such contamination may have been avoided,

at least in part, by use of more direct methods of data collection, such as observation, or by collecting the data for mother and father separately. In light of the above interpretations, there are several analyses of the data which might have been undertaken. There have been several points in the explanation where it was noted that the 2.5:1 ratio of female to male students may have significantly effected the direction of the results. It is difficult to be certain from the present statistical analyses whether the results represent developmental trends in general or only for a female sample. If the latter is the case, would the results be different for a male sample? Would different or additional relationships be noted if the two groups were analyzed separately? It would therefore have been advisable to have run separate regression statistics for the males and females in the sample.

Similarly, it would have been better to have separated the analyses according to social economic class since it is not documented to what extent family patterns differ in different social classes. This would have required the addition of a question to the life history questionnaire aimed at eliciting information on the level of the family's income.

Finally, it would have been advisable to factor analyze the personality trait scales. It is possible that the traits would form clusters, understanding the nature of which would provide added insight into which aspects of the child development is reliant on characteristics of the father-child relationship.

These suggestions could be incorporated into a future study. It would perhaps be advisable to plan a study around the investigation of sex differences in reacting to the same patterns of father-child

relationship. Along this line of thinking, it may also be interesting to mount an observational study to attempt to delimit the more refined aspects and the parameters of the father-child relationship. For example, in what manner are these relationship characteristics transmitted to the child? Finally, it may be beneficial to contrast different aspects of paternal involvement only during the first 18 months of life.

In summarizing the data and looking at the implications for future research it is important to note that little of a conclusive nature can be assumed from the findings. Given the retrospective nature of the study and the lack of figures in the design, statements that are made based on the findings must be seen as hypotheses requiring future examination. This is in keeping with the exploratory nature of the study.

However, the data does give some indication that the psychoanalytic developmental theories are supported with regards to the primacy of the mother-child relationship in the first year of life. Findings suggest that father's presence may only be in terms of a more negative impact such that as a positive figure his importance is secondary but as a negative figure his impact may have implications for future development. The specific nature of these implications requires a more detailed examination.

In the second year of life his impact may become more pervasive, according to the trends in the data. Again the impact of a negative father-child relationship is important but at this stage, the data suggests that the positive father-child relationship may have important implications.

Of most interest was the suggestion in the data that it may be a more casual, less intense relationship with father which facilitates development. The nature of this relationship requires further elaboration, as does its comparison with the parallel mother-child relationship.

APPENDIX A

Table 17

Correlation Matrix (n=120)

	Ach	Aff	Agg	Auto	Dom	Nurt	Soc Recog	Infreq
Achievement	1.00	-.19	-.16	.17	.29	.23	-.09	-.02
Affiliation	-.19	1.00	-.08	-.31	.06	.43	.21	-.10
Aggression	-.16	-.08	1.00	.07	.35	-.20	.32	.11
Autonomy	.17	-.31	.07	1.00	.17	-.27	-.28	.25
Dominance	.29	.06	.35	.17	1.00	.04	.15	.14
Nurturance	.23	.43	-.20	-.27	.04	1.00	.15	-.21
Social Recog.	-.09	.21	.32	-.28	.15	.15	1.00	.06
Infrequency	-.02	-.10	.11	.25	.14	-.21	.06	1.00
Loving	.01	.18	.19	-.23	.05	.18	.10	-.11
Demanding	.04	.25	-.23	-.04	-.06	.19	-.04	-.05
Attention	.08	-.07	.21	-.16	.20	.06	.29	.03
Rejecting	.06	-.29	-.04	.11	-.04	-.11	-.01	-.14
Casual	.05	-.26	.16	-.02	.09	-.13	.03	.09
Basic Trust	.24	.18	-.17	.08	.17	.14	.15	.10
Basic Mistrust	-.17	-.28	.18	.01	-.01	-.17	.24	-.04
Autonomy	.28	.00	-.14	.20	.13	.19	-.23	.02
Shame & Doubt	.18	-.01	.09	.03	.15	.22	.22	.03
Personality Adj.	.12	.25	-.39	-.11	-.13	.33	-.11	-.25
Dominance	.27	.14	.04	.11	.55	.12	.07	.05
Affiliation	.08	.38	-.31	-.23	-.03	.35	.07	-.22
Succorance	-.27	-.01	.13	-.18	-.16	-.05	.30	.09
Deference	-.07	.09	-.40	-.29	-.46	.20	.02	-.14
Aggression	-.13	-.14	.56	.23	.42	-.29	.15	.17
Autonomy	.08	-.07	.29	.34	.35	-.15	-.09	.13
Abasement	-.07	.03	-.28	-.23	-.47	.15	.06	-.08
<u>Exhibitionism</u>	<u>-.16</u>	<u>.28</u>	<u>.36</u>	<u>.06</u>	<u>.45</u>	<u>-.00</u>	<u>.14</u>	<u>.14</u>

APPENDIX A

Table 17

Correlation Matrix (n=120)

Lov	Dem	Att	Rej	Cas	Basic Trust	Basic Mistr	Shame/ Auto	Doubt	Per Adj	
.01	.04	.08	.06	.47	.24	-.18	.28	.18	.13	Achievement
.18	.25	-.07	-.28	-.26	.18	-.28	.00	-.01	.25	Affiliation
.19	-.23	.21	-.04	.16	-.17	.18	-.14	.08	-.39	Aggression
.23	-.04	-.16	.11	-.02	.08	.01	-.20	.03	-.11	Autonomy
.05	.06	.20	-.04	.09	.17	-.01	.13	.15	-.13	Dominance
.18	.19	.06	-.11	-.13	.14	-.17	.19	.22	.33	Nurturance
.10	-.04	.29	-.01	.03	-.15	.24	-.29	.22	-.11	Social Recog.
-.11	-.05	.03	.15	.09	.10	-.04	-.03	.03	-.25	Infrequency
1.00	-.23	.20	-.80	.08	.10	-.26	.10	-.01	.11	Loving
-.23	1.00	-.22	.11	.60	.16	-.17	.18	.06	.09	Demanding
.20	-.22	1.00	-.01	.47	-.03	.11	-.02	.26	-.17	Attention
-.80	.11	-.01	1.00	.17	-.13	.35	-.02	.07	-.17	Rejecting
.08	-.60	.47	.17	1.00	-.05	.18	-.06	.07	-.25	Casual
.10	.16	-.03	-.13	-.05	1.00	-.48	.49	-.02	.17	Basic Trust
-.26	-.17	.11	.35	.18	-.48	1.00	-.04	.28	-.26	Basic Mistrust
.10	.18	-.02	-.11	.06	.49	-.04	1.00	.21	.18	Autonomy
-.01	-.06	.26	.07	.07	-.02	.28	.21	1.00	.06	Shame & Doubt
.11	.09	-.17	-.17	-.25	.17	-.26	.18	.06	1.00	Personality Ad
.08	-.00	.09	-.12	.06	.30	-.23	.31	.11	.21	Dominance
.00	.21	-.13	-.07	-.29	.16	.23	.12	.04	.73	Affiliation
-.17	-.03	.10	.20	.01	-.52	.46	-.35	.22	-.18	Succorance
-.05	.21	-.23	.03	-.31	-.21	.08	-.21	.01	.41	Deference
.01	-.25	.21	-.01	.28	-.15	.14	-.13	.03	-.64	Aggression
-.08	-.19	.07	.09	.26	.17	.06	.17	.02	-.30	Autonomy
-.13	.10	-.15	.17	-.14	-.36	.26	-.17	.11	.24	Abasement
-.01	-.06	.09	-.02	.11	.14	-.07	.01	.01	-.23	Exhibitionism

APPENDIX A

Table 17

Correlation Matrix (n=120)

Dom	Aff	Suc	Def	Agg	Auto	Aba	Exh	
.27	.08	-.27	-.07	-.13	.08	-.07	-.16	Achievement
.14	.38	-.01	.09	-.14	-.07	.03	.28	Affiliation
.04	-.31	.13	-.40	.56	.29	-.28	.36	Aggression
.11	-.23	-.18	-.29	.23	.34	-.23	.06	Autonomy
.55	-.03	-.16	-.46	.42	.35	-.47	.45	Dominance
.12	.35	-.05	.20	-.29	-.14	.15	-.00	Nurturance
-.07	-.07	.30	.08	.15	-.09	.06	.14	Social Recog.
-.05	-.21	.09	-.14	.17	.13	-.08	-.14	Infrequency
.08	.00	-.17	-.04	.01	-.08	-.13	-.00	Loving
.00	.21	-.03	.21	-.25	-.19	.11	-.06	Demanding
.10	-.13	.10	-.23	.21	.07	-.15	.10	Attention
-.12	-.07	.20	.03	-.01	.09	.17	-.02	Rejecting
.06	-.29	.01	-.31	.28	.26	.14	.11	Casual
.30	.16	-.52	-.21	-.15	.17	-.36	.15	Basic Trust
-.23	-.23	.46	.08	.15	.04	.26	-.07	Basic Mistrust
.31	.12	-.35	-.12	-.13	.17	-.17	.01	Autonomy
.11	.04	.22	.01	.03	.02	.11	.01	Shame & Doubt
.21	.73	-.18	.41	-.64	-.30	.24	-.23	Personality Adj.
1.00	.42	-.49	-.54	.29	.55	-.70	.55	Dominance
.42	1.00	-.09	.26	-.48	-.04	.06	.08	Affiliation
-.49	-.09	1.00	.33	-.00	-.27	.60	-.07	Succorance
.54	.26	.33	1.00	-.75	-.78	.79	-.69	Deference
.29	-.48	-.00	-.75	1.00	.66	-.59	.63	Aggression
.55	-.04	-.27	-.78	.66	1.00	-.69	.67	Autonomy
-.70	.06	.60	.79	-.59	-.69	1.00	-.62	Abasement
.55	.08	-.07	-.69	.63	.67	-.62	1.00	Exhibitionism

APPENDIX B

Biographical Data Sheet

1. Test Identification Number: _____
2. Age: _____
3. Sex: _____
4. Date of birth: _____
5. Place of birth: _____
6. If you were born in a country other than Canada - In what year did you enter Canada? _____
7. Health during childhood? _____
8. List illnesses and/or disabilities: _____

9. Interests and hobbies
 - (a) During childhood? _____
 - (b) During adolescence? _____
 - (c) At the present time? _____
10. How is most of your 'spare' time occupied? _____

11. Family Data
 - (a) Father:
Age: _____
Occupation: _____
Health: _____ (good, adequate, poor, etc.)
If deceased, year of death: _____
During your childhood, if it was ever necessary for your father to live away from home, for how long did this last? _____
Beginning in which year? _____

(b) Mother:

Age: _____

Occupation: _____

If employed outside the home, in what year did she begin to work outside the home? _____

Health: _____

If deceased, year of death: _____

During your childhood if it was ever necessary for your mother to live away from home, for how long did this last? _____

Beginning in what year? _____

(c) Brothers:

Ages: _____

If not living at home, in what years did they leave? _____

(d) Sisters:

Ages: _____

If not living at home, in what years did they leave? _____

(e) If the parent with whom you were living remarried, in what year did this take place? _____

(f) If you were not raised by your parents, who did bring you up, and between what years? _____

12. Languages spoken at home: _____

13. Language most frequently used for communication at home: _____

14. If the answer to #13 is a language other than English, at what age did you first learn English? _____

15. Marital status: _____

16. With whom are you now living? _____

17. Do you live in residence, room, apartment, house, etc.? _____

18. Before this year have you ever lived away from home? _____
For how long? _____

APPENDIX C

PERSONALITY RESEARCH FORM (PRF)

FORM A

Directions:

On the following pages you will find a series of statements which a person might use to describe himself. Read each statement and decide whether or not it describes you. Then indicate your answer on the separate answer sheet.

If you agree with a statement or decide that it does describe you, answer TRUE. If you disagree with a statement or feel that it is not descriptive of you, answer FALSE.

In marking your answers on the answer sheet, be sure that the number of the statement you have just read is the same as the number on the answer sheet.

Answer every statement either true or false, even if you are not completely sure of your answer.

1. I enjoy doing things which challenge me.
2. I pay little attention to the interests of people I know.
3. I get a kick out of seeing someone I dislike appear foolish in front of others.
4. If public opinion is against me, I usually decide that I am wrong.
5. I would enjoy being a club officer.
6. If I can't finish a task within a certain amount of time, I usually decide not to waste any more time on it.
7. Others think I am lively and witty.
8. I almost always accept a dare.
9. I admire free, spontaneous people.
10. I think a man is smart to avoid being talked into helping his acquaintances.
11. I often decide ahead of time exactly what I will do on a certain day.
12. I feel that adults who still like to play have never really grown up.

13. I consider it important to be held in high esteem by those I know.
14. Philosophical discussions are a waste of time.
15. I was born over 90 years ago.
16. Self-improvement means nothing to me unless it leads to immediate success.
17. I believe that a person who is incapable of enjoying the people around him misses much in life.
18. It doesn't bother me much to have someone get the best of me in a discussion.
19. I would like to wander freely from country to country.
20. I am not very insistent in an argument.
21. I don't mind doing all the work myself if it is necessary to complete what I have begun.
22. I am too shy to tell jokes.
23. I am careful about the things I do because I want to have a long and healthy life.
24. I have a reserved and cautious attitude toward life.
25. When I see someone who looks confused, I usually ask if I can be of any assistance.
26. I don't especially care how I look when I go out.
27. I love to tell, and listen to, jokes and funny stories.
28. I give little thought to the impression I make on others.
29. I often try to grasp the relationships between different things that happen.
30. I try to get at least some sleep every night.
31. I get disgusted with myself when I have not learned something properly.
32. Trying to please people is a waste of time.
33. I swear a lot.
34. Adventures where I am on my own are a little frightening to me.
35. I try to control others rather than permit them to control me.

36. If I find it hard to get something I want, I usually change my mind and try for something else.
37. I like to have people talk about things I have done.
38. I would enjoy learning to walk on a tightrope.
39. I find that I sometimes forget to "look before I leap".
40. All babies look very much like little monkeys to me.
41. When I am going somewhere I usually find my exact route by using a map.
42. I consider most entertainment to be a waste of time.
43. I very much enjoy being complimented.
44. I can't see how intellectuals get personal satisfaction from their impractical lives.
45. I have a number of outfits of clothing, each of which costs several thousand dollars.
46. I work because I have to, and for that reason only.
47. Loyalty to my friends is quite important to me.
48. If someone does something I don't like, I seldom say anything.
49. When I was a child, I wanted to be independent.
50. I have little interest in leading others.
51. If people want a job done which requires patience, they ask me.
52. I would not like the fame that goes with being a great athlete.
53. I would never want to be a forest-fire fighter.
54. Rarely, if ever, do I do anything reckless.
55. I feel very sorry for lonely people.
56. My personal papers are usually in a state of confusion.
57. I enjoy parties, shows, games--anything for fun.
58. Social approval is unimportant to me.
59. I do almost as much reading on my own as I did for classes when I was in school.
60. I make all my own clothes and shoes.

61. I will keep working on a problem after others have given up.
62. Most of my relationships with people are business-like rather than friendly.
63. If someone has a better job than I, I like to try to show him up.
64. I don't want to be away from my family too much.
65. I feel confident when directing the activities of others.
66. The mere prospect of having to put in long hours working makes me tired.
67. I don't mind being conspicuous.
68. I would never pass up something that sounded like fun just because it would a little bit hazardous.
69. The people I know who say the first thing they think of are some of my most interesting acquaintances.
70. I dislike people who are always asking me for advice.
71. I keep all my important documents in one safe place.
72. When I have a choice between work and enjoying myself, I usually work.
73. The good opinion of one's friends is one of the chief rewards for living a good life.
74. If the relationships between theories and facts are not immediately evident, I see no point in trying to find them.
75. I have attended school at some time during my life.
76. I try to work just hard enough to get by.
77. I am considered friendly.
78. I am quite soft-spoken.
79. My greatest desire is to be independent and free.
80. I would make a poor judge because I dislike telling others what to do.
81. If I want to know the answer to a certain question, I sometimes look for it for days.
82. I feel uncomfortable when people are paying attention to me.
83. I can't imagine myself jumping out of an airplane as skydivers do.

84. I am not an "impulse-buyer".
85. People like to tell me their troubles because they know that I will do everything I can to help them.
86. Most of the things I do have no system to them.
87. Once in a while I enjoy acting as if I were tipsy.
88. The opinions that important people have of me cause me little concern.
89. I have unlimited curiosity about many things.
90. I rarely use food or drink of any kind.
91. I often set goals that are very difficult to reach.
92. After I get to know most people, I decide that they would make poor friends.
93. Stupidity makes me angry.
94. I usually try to share my problems with someone who can help me.
95. I am quite good at keeping others in line.
96. When someone thinks I should not finish a project, I am usually willing to follow his advice.
97. I like to be in the spotlight.
98. I think it would be enjoyable and rather exciting to feel an earthquake.
99. I have often broken things because of carelessness.
100. I get little satisfaction from serving others.
101. Before I start to work, I plan what I will need and get all the necessary materials.
102. I only celebrate very special kinds of events.
103. I constantly try to make people think highly of me.
104. When I was a child, I showed no interest in books.
105. I have never ridden in an automobile.
106. I would rather do an easy job than one involving obstacles which must be overcome.
107. I enjoy being neighborly.

108. I seldom feel like hitting anyone.
109. I would like to have a job in which I didn't have to answer to anyone.
110. Most community leaders do a better job than I could possibly do.
111. I don't like to leave anything unfinished.
112. I was one of the quietest children in my group.
113. I avoid some hobbies and sports because of their dangerous nature.
114. I make certain that I speak softly when I am in a public place.
115. I believe in giving friends lots of help and advice.
116. I can work better when conditions are somewhat chaotic.
117. Most of my spare moments are spent relaxing and amusing myself.
118. It seems foolish to me to worry about my public image.
119. I would very much like to know how and why natural events occur in the way they do.
120. I could easily count from one to twenty-five.
121. My goal is to do at least a little bit more than anyone else has done before.
122. Usually I would rather go somewhere alone than go to a party.
123. Life is a matter of "push or be shoved".
124. I often do things just because social custom dictates.
125. I seek out positions of authority.
126. When other people give up working on a problem, I usually quit too.
127. I would enjoy being a popular singer with a large fan club.
128. I would enjoy the feeling of riding to the top of an unfinished skyscraper in an open elevator.
129. I enjoy arguments that require good quick thinking more than knowledge.
130. I really do not pay much attention to people when they talk about their problems.
131. I dislike to be in a room that is cluttered.

132. Practical jokes aren't at all funny to me.
133. Nothing would hurt me more than to have a bad reputation.
134. Abstract ideas are of little use to me.
135. Sometimes I feel thirsty and hungry.
136. I really don't enjoy hard work.
137. I try to be in the company of friends as much as possible.
138. If someone hurts me, I just try to forget about it.
139. If I have a problem, I like to work it out alone.
140. I think it is better to be quiet than assertive.
141. When I hit a snag in what I am doing, I don't stop until I have found a way to get around it.
142. At a party, I usually sit back and watch the others.
143. I try to get out of jobs that would require using dangerous tools or machinery.
144. I am not one of those people who blurt out things without thinking.
145. I am usually the first to offer a helping hand when it is needed.
146. I seldom take time to hang up my clothes neatly.
147. I like to go "out on the town" as often as I can.
148. I will not go out of my way to behave in an approved way.
149. When I see a new invention, I attempt to find out how it works.
150. I have never seen an apple.
151. I prefer to be paid on the basis of how much work I have done rather than on how many hours I have worked.
152. I have relatively few friends.
153. I often find it necessary to criticize a person sharply if he annoys me.
154. Family obligations make me feel important.
155. When I am with someone else I do most of the decision-making.

156. I don't believe in sticking to something when there is little change of success.
157. If I were to be in a play, I would want to play the leading role.
158. Swimming alone in strange waters would not bother me.
159. I often get bored at having to concentrate on one thing at a time.
160. If someone is in trouble, I try not to become involved.
161. A messy desk is inexcusable.
162. I prefer to read worthwhile books rather than spend my spare time playing.
163. When I am doing something, I often worry about what other people will think.
164. It is more important to me to be good at a sport than to know about literature or science.
165. I usually wear something warm when I go outside on a cold day.
166. I have rarely done extra studying in connection with my work.
167. To love and be loved is of greatest important to me.
168. If I have to stand in line, I seldom try to cut ahead of the other people.
169. I delight in feeling unattached.
170. I would make a poor military leader.
171. I am willing to work longer at a project than are most people.
172. When I was young I seldom competed with the other children for attention.
173. I prefer a quiet, secure life to an adventurous one.
174. I always try to be fully prepared before I begin working on anything.
175. I would prefer to care for a sick child myself rather than hire a nurse.
176. I could never find out with accuracy just how I have spent my money in the past several months.
177. I spend a good deal of my time just having fun.
178. I don't care if my clothes are unstylish, as long as I like them.

179. I am more at home in an intellectual discussion than in a discussion of sports.
180. I think the work would be a much better place if no one ever went to school.
181. People have always said that I am a hard worker.
182. I seldom go out of my way to do something just to make others happy.
183. I often make people angry by teasing them.
184. I respect rules because they guide me.
185. When two persons are arguing, I often settle the argument for them.
186. If I had to do smething I didn't like, I would put it off and hope that someone else might do it.
187. I often monopolize a conversation.
188. To me, crossing the ocean in a sailboat would be a wonderful adventure.
189. It seems that emotion has more influence over me than does calm meditation.
190. I avoid doing too many favours for people because it would seem as if I were trying to buy friendship.
191. My work is always well organized.
192. Most of my friends are serious-minded people.
193. One of the things which spurs me on to do my best is the realization that I will be praised for my work.
194. I really don't know what is involved in any of the latest cultural developments.
195. I have no sense of touch in my fingers.
196. When people are not going to see what I do, I often do less than my very best.
197. Most people think I am warm-hearted and sociable.
198. I show leniency to those who have offended me.
199. I find that I can think better without having to bother with advice from others.

200. I would not do well as a salesman because I am not very persuasive.
201. When I am working outdoors I finish what I have to do even if it is growing dark.
202. I think that trying to be the center of attention is a sign of bad taste.
203. I never go into sections of a city that are considered dangerous.
204. I generally rely on careful reasoning in making up my mind.
205. When I see a baby, I often ask to hold him.
206. I often forget to put things back in their places.
207. I like to watch television comedies.
208. If I have done something well, I don't bother to call it to other people's attention.
209. If I believe something is true, I try to prove that my theory will hold up in actual practice.
210. If someone pricked me with a pin, it would hurt.
211. I don't mind working while other people are having fun.
212. When I see someone I know from a distance, I don't go out of my way to say "Hello".
213. I become angry more easily than most people.
214. I find that for most jobs the combined effort of several people will accomplish more than one person working alone.
215. If I were in politics, I would probably be seen as one of the forceful leaders of my party.
216. If I get tired while playing a game, I generally stop playing.
217. I try to get others to notice the way I dress.
218. I would enjoy exploring an old deserted house at night.
219. Often I stop in the middle of one activity in order to start something else.
220. People's tears tend to irritate me more than to arouse my sympathy.
221. I spend much of my time arranging my belongings neatly.

- 222. People consider me a serious, reserved person.
- 223. I feel that my life would not be complete if I failed to gain distinction and social prestige.
- 224. I would rather be an accountant than a theoretical mathematician.
- 225. If I were exploring a strange place at night, I would want to carry a light.
- 226. It doesn't really matter to me whether I become one of the best in my field.
- 227. I truly enjoy myself at social functions.
- 228. I do not like to see anyone receive bad news.
- 229. I would not mind living in a very lonely place.
- 230. I feel incapable of handling many situations.
- 231. I will continue working on a problem even with a severe headache.
- 232. I never attempt to be the life of the party.
- 233. Surf-board riding would be too dangerous for me.
- 234. If I am playing a game of skill, I attempt to plan each move thoroughly before acting.
- 235. I feel most worthwhile when I am helping someone who is disabled.
- 236. I rarely clean out my bureau drawers.
- 237. If I didn't have to earn a living, I would spend most of my time just having fun.
- 238. I don't try to "keep up with the Joneses".
- 239. I like to read several books on one topic at the same time.
- 240. I wear clothes when I am around other people.
- 241. Sometimes people say I neglect other important aspects of my life because I work so hard.
- 242. I want to remain unhampered by obligations to friends.
- 243. I have a violent temper.
- 244. To have a sense of belonging is very important to me.
- 245. I try to convince others to accept my political principles.

- 246. I am easily distracted when I am tired.
- 247. When I was in school, I often talked back to the teacher to make the other children laugh.
- 248. I would like to drive a motorcycle.
- 249. Most people feel that I act spontaneously.
- 250. I become irritated when I must interrupt my activities to do a favor for someone.
- 251. I keep my possessions in such good order that I have no trouble finding anything.
- 252. I usually have some reason for the things I do rather than just doing them for my own amusement.
- 253. I would not consider myself a success unless other people viewed me as such.
- 254. I would rather build something with my hands than try to develop scientific theories.
- 255. I can't believe that wood really burns.
- 256. I am sure people think that I don't have a great deal of drive.
- 257. I spend a lot of time visiting friends.
- 258. I do not think it is necessary to step on others in order to get ahead in the world.
- 259. Having a home has a tendency to tie a person down more than I would like.
- 260. I would not want to have a job enforcing the law.
- 261. I won't leave a project unfinished even if I am very tired.
- 262. I don't like to do anything unusual that will call attention to myself.
- 263. I will not climb a ladder unless someone is there to steady it for me.
- 264. I think that people who fall in love impulsively are quite immature.
- 265. Seeing an old or helpless person makes me feel that I would like to take care of him.
- 266. I feel comfortable in a somewhat disorganized room.

267. I delight in playing silly little tricks on people.
268. When I am being introduced, I don't like the person to make lengthy comments about what I have done.
269. I am unable to think of anything that I wouldn't enjoy learning about.
270. I can run a mile in less than four minutes.
271. I enjoy work more than play.
272. I am quite independent of the people I know.
273. I often quarrel with others.
274. I can do my best work when I have the encouragement of others.
275. With a little effort, I can "wrap most people around my little finger".
276. When I feel ill, I stop working and try to get some rest.
277. I perform in public whenever I have the opportunity.
278. I like the feeling of speed.
279. Life is no fun unless it is lived in a carefree way.
280. It doesn't affect me one way or another to see a child being spanked.
281. I can't stand reading a newspaper that has been messed up.
282. I would prefer a quiet evening with friends to a loud party.
283. I do a good job more to gain approval than because I like my work.
284. There are many activities that I prefer to reading.
285. I would have a hard time keeping my mind a complete blank.
286. It is unrealistic for me to insist on becoming the best in my field of work all of the time.
287. I go out of my way to meet people.
288. I try to show self-restraint to avoid hurting other people.
289. My idea of an ideal marriage is one where the two people remain as independent as if they were single.
290. I don't have a forceful or dominating personality.

291. I am very persistent and efficient even when I have been working for many hours without rest.
292. The idea of acting in front of a large group doesn't appeal to me.
293. To me, it seems foolish to ski when so many people get hurt that way.
294. I like to take care of things one at a time.
295. I can remember that as a child I tried to take care of anyone who was sick.
296. If I have brought something home, I often drop it on a chair or table as I enter.
297. Things that would annoy most people seem humorous to me.
298. Inner satisfaction rather than fame is my goal in life.
299. If I were going to an art exhibit, I would first try to learn about the artist, his style and technique, his philosophy of art, and the story behind each piece of work.
300. I am able to breathe.

PERSONALITY RESEARCH FORM SCALES

SCALE	DESCRIPTION OF HIGH SCORER
Abasement	Shows a high degree of humility; accepts blame and criticism even when not deserved; exposes himself to situations where he is in an inferior position; tends to be self-effacing.
Achievement	Aspires to accomplish difficult tasks; maintains high standards and is willing to work toward distant goals; responds positively to competition; willing to put forth effort to attain excellence.
Affiliation	Enjoys being with friends and people in general; accepts people readily; makes efforts to win friendships and maintain associations with people.
Aggression	Enjoys combat and argument; easily annoyed; sometimes willing to hurt people to get his way; may seek to "get even" with people whom he perceives as having harmed him.
Autonomy	Tries to break away from restraints, confinement, or restrictions of any kind; enjoys being unattached, free, not tied to people, places, or obligations; may be rebellious when faced with restraints.
Change	Likes new and different experiences; dislikes routine and avoids it; may readily change opinions or values in different circumstances; adapts readily to changes in environment.
Cognitive Structure	Does not like ambiguity or uncertainty in information; wants all questions answered completely; desires to make decisions based upon definite knowledge, rather than upon guesses or probabilities.
Defendence	Readily suspects that people mean him harm or are against him; ready to defend himself at all times; takes offense easily; does not accept criticism readily.
Dominance	Attempts to control his environment, and to influence or direct other people; expresses opinions forcefully; enjoys the role of leader and may assume it spontaneously.

Endurance	Willing to work long hours; doesn't give up quickly on a problem; persevering, even in the face of great difficulty; patient and unrelenting in his work habits.
Exhibition	Wants to be the center of attention; enjoys having an audience; engages in behavior which wins the notice of others; may enjoy being dramatic or witty.
Harmavoidance	Does not enjoy exciting activities, especially if danger is involved; avoids risk of bodily harm; seeks to maximize personal safety.
Impulsivity	Tends to act on the "spur of the moment" and without deliberation; gives vent readily to feelings and wishes; speaks freely; may be volatile in emotional expression.
Nurturance	Gives sympathy and comfort; assists others whenever possible, interested in caring for children, the disabled, or the infirm; offers a "helping hand" to those in need; readily performs favors for others.
Order	Concerned with keeping personal effects and surroundings neat and organized; dislikes clutter, confusion, lack of organization; interested in developing methods of keeping materials methodically organized.
Play	Does many things "just for fun;" spends a good deal of time participating in games, sports, social activities, and other amusements; enjoys jokes and funny stories; maintains a light-hearted, easy-going attitude toward life.
Sentience	Notices smells, sounds, sights, tastes, and the way things feel; remembers these sensations and believes that they are an important part of life; is sensitive to many forms of experience; may maintain an essentially hedonistic or aesthetic view of life.
Social Recognition	Desires to be held in high esteem by acquaintances; concerned about reputation and what other people think of him; works for the approval and recognition of others.
Succorance	Frequently seeks the sympathy, protection, love, advice, and reassurance of other people; may feel insecure or helpless without such support; confides difficulties readily to a receptive person.

Understanding	Wants to understand many areas of knowledge; values synthesis of ideas, verifiable generalization, logical thought, particularly when directed at satisfying intellectual curiosity.
Desirability	Describes self in terms judged as desirable; consciously or unconsciously, accurately or inaccurately, presents favorable picture of self in responses to personality statements.
Infrequency	Responds in implausible or pseudo-random manner, possibly due to carelessness, poor comprehension, passive non-compliance, confusion, or gross deviation.

APPENDIX D

THE ADJECTIVE CHECK LIST (ACL)

Directions:

This answer sheet contains a list of 300 adjectives. Please read them quickly and blacken in the circle beside each one you would consider to be self-descriptive. Do not worry about duplications, contradictions, and so forth. Work quickly and do not spend too much time on any one adjective. Try to be frank, and fill the circles for the adjectives which describe you as you really are, not as you would like to be. BE SURE TO TURN THE PAGE OVER and continue through adjective No. 300 on the reverse side.

- | | |
|-------------------|--------------------|
| 1. absent-minded | 19. autocratic |
| 2. active | 20. awkward |
| 3. adaptable | 21. bitter |
| 4. adventurous | 22. blustery |
| 5. affected | 23. boastful |
| 6. affectionate | 24. bossy |
| 7. aggressive | 25. calm |
| 8. alert | 26. capable |
| 9. aloof | 27. careless |
| 10. ambitious | 28. cautious |
| 11. anxious | 29. changeable |
| 12. apathetic | 30. charming |
| 13. appreciative | 31. cheerful |
| 14. argumentative | 32. civilized |
| 15. arrogant | 33. clear-thinking |
| 16. artistic | 34. clever |
| 17. assertive | 35. coarse |
| 18. attractive | 36. cold |

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|-------------------|-------------------|
| 37. commonplace | 64. dignified |
| 38. complaining | 65. discreet |
| 39. complicated | 66. disorderly |
| 40. conceited | 67. dissatisfied |
| 41. confident | 68. distractible |
| 42. confused | 69. distrustful |
| 43. conscientious | 70. dominant |
| 44. conservative | 71. dreamy |
| 45. considerate | 72. dull |
| 46. contented | 73. easy-going |
| 47. conventional | 74. effeminate |
| 48. cool | 75. efficient |
| 49. cooperative | 76. egotistical |
| 50. courageous | 77. emotional |
| 51. cowardly | 78. enegetic |
| 52. cruel | 79. enterprising |
| 53. curious | 80. enthusiastic |
| 54. cynical | 81. evasive |
| 55. daring | 82. excitable |
| 56. deceitful | 83. fair-minded |
| 57. defensive | 84. fault-finding |
| 58. deliberate | 85. fearful |
| 59. demanding | 86. feminine |
| 60. dependable | 87. fickle |
| 61. dependent | 88. flirtatious |
| 62. despondent | 89. foolish |
| 63. determined | 90. forceful |

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|-------------------|-----------------------|
| 91. foresighted | 118. imaginative |
| 92. forgetful | 119. immature |
| 93. forgiving | 120. impatient |
| 94. formal | 121. impulsive |
| 95. frank | 122. independent |
| 96. friendly | 123. indifferent |
| 97. frivolous | 124. individualistic |
| 98. fussy | 125. industrious |
| 99. generous | 126. infantile |
| 100. gentle | 127. informal |
| 101. gloomy | 128. ingenious |
| 102. good-looking | 129. inhibited |
| 103. good-natured | 130. initiative |
| 104. greedy | 131. insightful |
| 105. handsome | 132. intelligent |
| 106. hard-headed | 133. interests narrow |
| 107. hard-hearted | 134. interests wide |
| 108. hasty | 135. intolerant |
| 109. headstrong | 136. inventive |
| 110. healthy | 137. irresponsible |
| 111. helpful | 138. irritable |
| 112. high-strung | 139. jolly |
| 113. honest | 140. kind |
| 114. hostile | 141. lazy |
| 115. humorous | 142. leisurely |
| 116. hurried | 143. logical |
| 117. idealistic | 144. loud |

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|--------------------|-----------------------|
| 145. loyal | 172. peculiar |
| 146. mannerly | 173. persevering |
| 147. masculine | 174. persistent |
| 148. mature | 175. pessimistic |
| 149. meek | 176. planful |
| 150. methodical | 177. pleasant |
| 151. mild | 178. pleasure-seeking |
| 152. mischievous | 179. poised |
| 153. moderate | 180. polished |
| 154. modest | 181. practical |
| 155. moody | 182. praising |
| 156. nagging | 183. precise |
| 157. natural | 184. prejudiced |
| 158. nervous | 185. preoccupied |
| 159. noisy | 186. progressive |
| 160. obliging | 187. prudish |
| 161. obnoxious | 188. quarrelsome |
| 162. opinionated | 189. queer |
| 163. opportunistic | 190. quick |
| 164. optimistic | 191. quiet |
| 165. organized | 192. quitting |
| 166. original | 193. rational |
| 167. outgoing | 194. rattlebrained |
| 168. outspoken | 195. realistic |
| 169. painstaking | 196. reasonable |
| 170. patient | 197. rebellious |
| 171. peaceable | 198. reckless |

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|----------------------|--------------------|
| 199. reflective | 226. sharp-witted |
| 200. relaxed | 227. shiftless |
| 201. reliable | 228. show-off |
| 202. resentful | 229. shrewd |
| 203. reserved | 230. shy |
| 204. resourceful | 231. silent |
| 205. responsible | 232. simple |
| 206. restless | 233. sincere |
| 207. retiring | 234. slipshod |
| 208. rigid | 235. slow |
| 209. robust | 236. sly |
| 210. rude | 237. smug |
| 211. sarcastic | 238. snobbish |
| 212. self-centered | 239. sociable |
| 213. self-confident | 240. soft-hearted |
| 214. self-controlled | 241. sophisticated |
| 215. self-denying | 242. spendthrift |
| 216. self-pitying | 243. spineless |
| 217. self-punishing | 244. spontaneous |
| 218. self-seeking | 245. spunky |
| 219. selfish | 246. stable |
| 220. sensitive | 247. steady |
| 221. sentimental | 248. stern |
| 222. serious | 249. stingy |
| 223. severe | 250. stolid |
| 224. sexy | 251. strong |
| 225. shallow | 252. stubborn |

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|---------------------|--------------------|
| 253. submissive | 280. unexcitable |
| 254. suggestible | 281. unfriendly |
| 255. sulky | 282. uninhibited |
| 256. superstitious | 283. unintelligent |
| 257. suspicious | 284. unkind |
| 258. sympathetic | 285. unrealistic |
| 259. tactful | 286. unscrupulous |
| 260. tactless | 287. unselfish |
| 261. talkative | 288. unstable |
| 262. tempermental | 289. vindictive |
| 263. tense | 290. versatile |
| 264. thankless | 291. warm |
| 265. thorough | 292. wary |
| 266. thoughtful | 293. weak |
| 267. thrifty | 294. whiny |
| 268. timid | 295. wholesom |
| 269. tolerant | 296. wise |
| 270. touchy | 297. withdrawn |
| 271. tough | 298. witty |
| 272. trusting | 299. worrying |
| 273. unaffected | 300. zany |
| 274. unambitious | |
| 275. unassuming | |
| 276. unconventional | |
| 277. undependable | |
| 278. understanding | |
| 279. unemotional | |

DESCRIPTION OF THE SCALES

1. Total number of adjectives checked: No. Ckd

Checking many adjectives seems to reflect surgency and drive, and a relative absence of repressive tendencies. Correlation with intelligence is slightly negative, so that the exuberance in behavior may possibly spring more from shallowness and inattention to ambiguities than from a deep level of involvement. The individual high on this variable tends to be described as emotional, adventurous, wholesome, conservative, enthusiastic, unintelligent, frank, and helpful. He is active, apparently means well, but tends to blunder. The man with low scores tends more often to be quiet and reserved, more tentative and cautious in his approach to problems, and perhaps at times unduly tactiturn and aloof. He is more apt to think originally and inventively, but is perhaps less effective in getting things done.

2. Defensiveness: Df

Df measures a bipolar dimension of test-taking response which is interpretable at either extreme. Therefore, if scores on Df are highly deviant (greater than 70 or less than 30), an interpretation of dissimulation should probably be entertained. However, most scores will fall closer to 50, within a normal range of variation.

3. Number of favorable adjectives checked: Fav

The individual who checks many of the words in the list of 75 appears to be motivated by a strong desire to do well and to impress others, but always by virtue of hard work and conventional endeavor. The reaction of others is to see him as dependable, steady, conscientious, mannerly, and serious; there is also the suspicion that he may be too concerned about others, and lacking in verve and quickness of mind. Egotism and self-centeredness, which might be suggested by the way in which the variable was derived, is seldom salient in high-scoring subjects. The social desirability component, in other words, is not ordinarily a facade or an artifact, but sincere concern with behaving appropriately and with doing one's duty.

The low-scoring subject is much more of an individualist--more often seen as clever, sharp-witted, headstrong, pleasure-seeking, and original in thought and behavior. His emotions being more accessible, he also more often experiences anxiety, self-doubts, and perplexities.

4. Number of unfavorable adjectives checked: Unfav

Checking of unfavorable adjectives does not spring from a sense of humility and self-effacement, but more from a kind of impulsive lack of control over the hostile and unattractive aspects of one's personality. The high-scoring subject strikes others as rebellious, arrogant, careless, conceited, and cynical. He tends to be a disbeliever, a skeptic, and a threat to the complacent beliefs and attitudes of his

fellows. The low-scorer is more placid, more obliging, more mannerly, more tactful, and probably less intelligent.

5. Self-confidence: S-Cfd

Interpretation of S-Cfd stresses a sense of dominance, clearly one of the major elements in the syndrome defined by the scale. The high-scorer is assertive, affiliative, outgoing, persistent, an actionist. He wants to get things done, and is impatient with people or things standing in his way. He is concerned about creating a good impression, and is not above cutting a few corners to achieve this objective. He makes a distinct impression on others, who see him as forceful, self-confident, determined, ambitious, and opportunistic.

The low-scoring person is a much less effective person in the everyday sense of the word—he has difficulty in mobilizing himself and taking action, preferring inaction and contemplation. Others see him as unassuming, forgetful, mild, preoccupied, reserved, and retiring.

6. Self-control: S-Cn

Several oppositional factors stand out in this scale. High scorers tend to be serious, sober individuals, interested in and responsive to their obligations. They are seen as diligent, practical, and loyal workers. At the same time there may be an element of over-control, too much emphasis on the proper means of attaining the ends of social living. Thus the highest level of ego integration, involving recognition and sublimation of chaotic and destructive impulse along with the

social and life-giving dispositions, may be denied to these individuals.

At the other end of the scale one seems to find the inadequately socialized person, headstrong, irresponsible, complaining, disorderly, narcissistic, and impulsive. Needless to say, the low-scoring subject tends to be described in unflattering terms, even including such words as obnoxious, autocratic, and thankless.

7. Lability: Lab

Although there is a facet of high ego strength in this scale, an adventurous delighting in the new and different and a sensitivity to all that is unusual and challenging, the main emphasis seems to be upon an inner restlessness and an inability to tolerate consistency and routine. The high-scoring subject is seen favorably as spontaneous, but unfavorably as excitable, temperamental, restless, nervous, and high-strung. The psychological equilibrium, the balance of forces, is an uneasy one in this person and he seems impelled toward change and new experience in an endless flight from his perplexities.

The low-scorer is more phlegmatic, routinized, planful and conventional. He reports stricter opinions on right and wrong practices, and a greater need for order and regularity. He is described by observers as thorough, organized, steady, and unemotional.

8. Personal Adjustment: Per Adj

This scale seems to depict a positive attitude toward life more than an absence of problems and worries. The attitudinal set is one of optimism, cheerfulness, interest in others, and a readiness to adapt. The high-scoring subject is seen as dependable, peaceable, trusting,

friendly, practical, loyal, and wholesome. He fits in well, asks for little, treats others with courtesy, and works enterprisingly toward his own goals. He may or may not understand himself psychodynamically, but he nonetheless seems to possess the capacity to "love and work".

The subject low on the personal adjustment scale sees himself as at odds with other people and as moody and dissatisfied. This view is reciprocated by observers, who describe the low scorer as aloof, defensive, anxious, inhibited, worrying, withdrawn, and unfriendly. What appears to begin as a problem in self-definition eventuates as a problem in interpersonal living.

9. Achievement: Ach

The high-scoring subject on Ach is usually seen as intelligent and hard-working, but also as involved in his intellectual and other endeavors. He is determined to do well and usually succeeds. His motives are internal and goal-centered rather than competitive, and in his dealings with others he may actually be unduly trusting and optimistic. The low-scoring subject on Ach is more skeptical, more dubious about the rewards which might come from effort and involvement, and uncertain about risking his labors. He tends also to be somewhat withdrawn and dissatisfied with his current status.

10. Dominance: Dom

The higher-scorer on this scale is a forceful, strong-willed, and persevering individual. He is confident of his ability to do what he wishes and is direct and forthright in his behavior. The low scorer on Dom is unsure of himself, and indifferent to both the demands and the challenges of interpersonal life. He stays out of the limelight, and

avoids situations calling for choice and decision-making.

11. Endurance: End

The subject high on End is typically self-controlled and responsible, but also idealistic and concerned about truth and justice. By nature conventional, he may nonetheless (because of his sense of rectitude) find himself championing unconventional ideas and unpopular causes. The low-scorer on End, on the other hand, is erratic and impatient, intolerant of prolonged effort or attention, and apt to change in an abrupt and quixotic manner.

12. Order: Ord

High-scorers on Ord are usually sincere and dependable, but at the cost of individuality and spontaneity. These self-denying and inhibitory trends may actually interfere with the attainment of the harmony and psychic order which they seek. Low-scorers are quicker in temperament and reaction, and might often be called impulsive. They prefer complexity and variety, and dislike delay, caution, and deliberation.

13. Intracception: Int

The high-scorer on Int is reflective and serious, as would be expected; he is also capable, conscientious, and knowledgeable. His intellectual talents are excellent and he derives pleasure from their exercise. The low-scorer may also have talent, but he tends toward profligacy and intemperateness in its use. He is aggressive in manner, and quickly becomes bored or impatient with any situation where direct action is not possible. He is a doer, not a thinker.

14. Nurturance: Nur

The subject high on this scale is of a helpful, nurturant disposition, but sometimes too bland and self-disciplined. His dependability and benevolence are worthy qualities, but he may nonetheless be too conventional and solicitous of the other person. The subject scoring low on Nur is the opposite: skeptical, clever, and acute, but too self-centered and too little attentive to the feelings and wishes of others.

15. Affiliation: Aff

The high-scorer on Aff is adaptable and anxious to please, but not necessarily because of altruistic motives; i.e., he is ambitious and concerned with position, and may tend to exploit others and his relationships with them in order to gain his ends. The low-scorer is more individualistic and strong-willed, though perhaps not out of inner resourcefulness and independence. He tends to be less trusting, more pessimistic about life, and restless in any situation which intensifies or prolongs his contacts with others.

16. Heterosexuality: Het

The high-scorer on Het is interested in the opposite sex as he is interested in life, experience, and most things around him in a healthy, direct, and outgoing manner. He may even be a bit naive in the friendly ingenuousness in which he approaches others. The low-scorer thinks too much, as it were, and dampens his vitality; he tends to be dispirited, inhibited, shrewd and calculating in his interpersonal relationships.

17. Exhibition: Exh

Persons who are high on this scale tend to be self-centered and even narcissistic. They are poised, self-assured, and able to meet situations with aplomb, but at the same time they are quick tempered and irritable. In their dealings with others they are apt to be opportunistic and manipulative. Persons who score low tend toward apathy, self-doubt, and undue inhibition of impulse. They lack confidence in themselves and shrink from any encounter in which they will be visible or "on stage".

18. Autonomy: Aut

The higher-scorer on Aut is independent and autonomous, but also assertive and self-willed. He tends to be indifferent to the feelings of others and heedless of their preferences when he himself wishes to act. The low-scorer is of a moderate and even subdued disposition. He hesitates to take the initiative, preferring to wait and follow the dictates of others.

19. Aggression: Agg

The individual high on this scale is both competitive and aggressive. He seeks to win, to vanquish, and views others as rivals. His impulses are strong, and often undercontrolled. In an appropriate situation he may drive on to worthy attainment, but often his behaviors will be self-aggrandizing and disruptive. The individual who is low on Agg is much more of a conformist, but not necessarily lacking in courage or tenacity. He tends to be patiently diligent, and sincere in his relationships with others.

20. Change: Cha

Persons high on Cha are typically perceptive, alert, and spontaneous individuals who comprehend problems and situations rapidly and incisively and who take pleasure in change and variety. They have confidence in themselves and welcome the challenges to be found in disorder and complexity. The low-scorer seeks stability and continuity in his environment, and is apprehensive of ill-defined and risk-involving situations. In temperament he is patient and obliging, concerned about others, but lacking in verve and energy.

21. Succorance: Suc

Suc appears to depict, at its high end, a personality which is trusting, guileless, and even naive in its faith in the integrity and benevolence of others. The high-scorer is dependent on others, seeks support, and expects to find it. The low-scorer, on the contrary, is independent, resourceful, and self-sufficient, but at the same time prudent and circumspect. He has a sort of quiet confidence in his own worth and capability.

22. Abasement: Aba

High-scorers on Aba are not only submissive and self-effacing, but also appear to have problems of self-acceptance. They see themselves as weak and undeserving, and face the world with anxiety and foreboding. Their behavior is often self-punishing, perhaps in the hope of forestalling criticism and rejection from without. The low-scorer is optimistic, poised, productive, and decisive. Not fearing others, he is alert and responsive to them. His tempo is brisk, his manner confident, and his behavior effective.

23. Deference: Def

The individual scoring high on Def is typically conscientious, dependable, and persevering. He is self-denying not so much out of any fear of others or inferiority to them as out of a preference for anonymity and freedom from stress and external demands. He attends modestly to his affairs, seeking little, and yielding always to any reasonable claim by another. The individual with a low score on Def is more energetic, spontaneous, and independent; he likes attention, likes to supervise and direct others, and to express his will. He is also ambitious, and is not above taking advantage of others and coercing them if he can attain a goal in so doing.

24. Counselling Readiness: Crs

The higher-scorer on Crs is predominantly worried about himself and ambivalent about his status. He feels left out of things, unable to enjoy life to the full, and unduly anxious. He tends to be preoccupied with his problems and pessimistic about his ability to resolve them constructively. The low-scorer is more or less free of these concerns. He is self-confident, poised, sure of himself and outgoing. He seeks the company of others, likes activity, and enjoys life in an uncomplicated way.

APPENDIX E

Number _____

Age _____

Date _____

PCR QUESTIONNAIRE II FATHER-SON

Siegelman-Roe

Here are 50 statements which describe different ways that fathers act towards their sons. Read each statement carefully and think how well it describes how your father acted while you were growing up. Think especially about the time before you were 12.

Before each statement there are four lines. These are labelled VERY TRUE; TENDED to be TRUE; TENDED to be UNTRUE; VERY UNTRUE. Put an X on the line that indicates how true you think each statement was of your father.

For example, if your memory is that your father often let you off easy when you did something wrong, you would mark the item as follows:

	TENDED		TENDED	
VERY	to be	to be	VERY	
TRUE	TRUE	UNTRUE	UNTRUE	My father
_____	_____	_____	_____	1. never let me off easy
				when I did something
				wrong

PCR QUESTIONNAIRE II

FATHER-SON

VERY TRUE	TENDED to be TRUE	TENDED to be UNTRUE	VERY UNTRUE	
_____	_____	_____	_____	My father
_____	_____	_____	_____	1. was genuinely interested in my affairs
_____	_____	_____	_____	2. punished me hard enough when I misbehaved to make sure I would not do it again
_____	_____	_____	_____	3. tried to get me everything I wanted
_____	_____	_____	_____	4. let me know I was not wanted
_____	_____	_____	_____	5. let me spend my allowance any way I liked
_____	_____	_____	_____	6. made me feel what I did was important
_____	_____	_____	_____	7. took away my toys and playthings when I was bad
_____	_____	_____	_____	8. spoiled me
_____	_____	_____	_____	9. was too busy to answer my questions
_____	_____	_____	_____	10. set very few rules for me
_____	_____	_____	_____	11. made me feel wanted and needed
_____	_____	_____	_____	12. made it clear that he was boss
_____	_____	_____	_____	13. gave me new books or records as rewards
_____	_____	_____	_____	14. did not spend any more time with me than he had to
_____	_____	_____	_____	15. gave me as much freedom as I wanted
_____	_____	_____	_____	16. talked to me in a warm and affectionate way.

PCR QUESTIONNAIRE II

FATHER-SON

VERY TRUE	TENDED to be TRUE	TENDED to be UNTRUE	VERY UNTRUE	
_____	_____	_____	_____	My father
_____	_____	_____	_____	17. would not let me play with other children when I was bad
_____	_____	_____	_____	18. praised me before my playmates
_____	_____	_____	_____	19. paid no attention to what I was doing in school
_____	_____	_____	_____	20. let me off easy when I did something wrong
_____	_____	_____	_____	21. tried to help me when I was scared or upset
_____	_____	_____	_____	22. spanked me as punishment
_____	_____	_____	_____	23. gave me candy or ice cream as a reward
_____	_____	_____	_____	24. did not take me into consideration in making plans
_____	_____	_____	_____	25. gave me a choice of what to do whenever it was possible
_____	_____	_____	_____	26. respected my point of view and encouraged me to express it
_____	_____	_____	_____	27. frightened or threatened me when I did wrong
_____	_____	_____	_____	28. made others give in to me
_____	_____	_____	_____	29. complained about me
_____	_____	_____	_____	30. let me do pretty much what I wanted to do
_____	_____	_____	_____	31. made me feel proud when I did well
_____	_____	_____	_____	32. demanded unquestioning respect

PCR QUESTIONNAIRE II

FATHER-SON

VERY TRUE	TENDED to be TRUE	TENDED to be UNTRUE	VERY UNTRUE	
_____	_____	_____	_____	My father
_____	_____	_____	_____	33. give me special attention as a reward
_____	_____	_____	_____	34. did not try to help me learn things
_____	_____	_____	_____	35. did not tell me what time to be home when I was out
_____	_____	_____	_____	36. reasoned with me and explained possible harmful consequences when I did
_____	_____	_____	_____	37. punished me by being more strict about rules and regulations
_____	_____	_____	_____	38. hugged me, kissed me, petted me when I was good
_____	_____	_____	_____	39. ignored me as long as I did not do anything to disturb him
_____	_____	_____	_____	40. did not object when I was late for meals
_____	_____	_____	_____	41. was willing to discuss regulations with me, and took my point of view into consideration in making them
_____	_____	_____	_____	42. taught me that he knew best and that I must accept his decisions
_____	_____	_____	_____	43. gave me new things as a reward, such as toys
_____	_____	_____	_____	44. paid no attention to me
_____	_____	_____	_____	45. was easy with me
_____	_____	_____	_____	46. made it easy for me to confide in him

PCR QUESTIONNAIRE II

FATHER-SON

VERY TRUE	TENDED to be TRUE	TENDED to be UNTRUE	VERY UNTRUE	
_____	_____	_____	_____	My father
_____	_____	_____	_____	47. expected prompt and unquestioning obedience
_____	_____	_____	_____	48. hated to refuse me anything
_____	_____	_____	_____	49. avoided my company
_____	_____	_____	_____	50. did not bother much about enforcing rules

APPENDIX E

Number _____

Age _____

Date _____

PCR QUESTIONNAIRE II MOTHER-SON

Siegelman-Roe

Here are 50 statements which describe different ways that mothers act towards their sons. Read each statement carefully and think how well it describes how your mother acted while you were growing up. Think especially about the time before you were 12.

Before each statement there are four lines. These are labelled VERY TRUE; TENDED to be TRUE; TENDED to be UNTRUE; VERY UNTRUE. Put an X on the line that indicates how true you think each statement was of your mother.

For example, if your memory is that your mother often let you off easy when you did something wrong, you would mark the item as follows:

	TENDED		TENDED	
VERY	to be		to be	VERY
TRUE	TRUE		UNTRUE	UNTRUE
				My mother
<u>X</u>	_____	_____	_____	1. objected when I was
				late for meals

PCR QUESTIONNAIRE II

MOTHER-SON

VERY TRUE	TENDED to be TRUE	TENDED to be UNTRUE	VERY UNTRUE	
_____	_____	_____	_____	My mother
_____	_____	_____	_____	1. was genuinely interested in my affairs
_____	_____	_____	_____	2. punished me hard enough when I misbehaved to make sure I would not do it again
_____	_____	_____	_____	3. relaxed rules and regulations as a reward
_____	_____	_____	_____	4. was too busy to answer my questions
_____	_____	_____	_____	5. let me spend my allowance any way I liked
_____	_____	_____	_____	6. made me feel wanted and needed
_____	_____	_____	_____	7. took away my toys and playthings when I was bad
_____	_____	_____	_____	8. was very careful about protecting me from accidents
_____	_____	_____	_____	9. did not spend any more time with me than she had to
_____	_____	_____	_____	10. set very few rules for me
_____	_____	_____	_____	11. talked to me in a warm and affectionate way
_____	_____	_____	_____	12. made it clear that he was boss
_____	_____	_____	_____	13. gave me new books or records as rewards
_____	_____	_____	_____	14. did not consider me when making plans
_____	_____	_____	_____	15. could not bring herself to punish me

PCR QUESTIONNAIRE II

MOTHER-SON

VERY TRUE	TENDED to be TRUE	TENDED to be UNTRUE	VERY UNTRUE	
_____	_____	_____	_____	My mother
_____	_____	_____	_____	16. praised me when I deserved it
_____	_____	_____	_____	17. slapped or struck me when I behaved badly
_____	_____	_____	_____	18. would not let older children tease or bully me
_____	_____	_____	_____	19. went out of her way to hurt my feelings
_____	_____	_____	_____	20. let me off easy when I did something wrong
_____	_____	_____	_____	21. tried to help me when I was scared or upset
_____	_____	_____	_____	22. would not let me play with other children when I was bad
_____	_____	_____	_____	23. praised me before my playmates
_____	_____	_____	_____	24. ridiculed and made fun of me
_____	_____	_____	_____	25. let me do as I liked with my time after school
_____	_____	_____	_____	26. respected my point of view and encouraged me to express it
_____	_____	_____	_____	27. demanded unquestioning respect
_____	_____	_____	_____	28. did not want me to play rough outdoor games for fear I might be hurt
_____	_____	_____	_____	29. complained about me
_____	_____	_____	_____	30. did not tell me what time to be home when I went out

PCR QUESTIONNAIRE II

MOTHER-SON

VERY TRUE	TENDED to be TRUE	TENDED to be UNTRUE	VERY UNTRUE	
_____	_____	_____	_____	My mother
_____	_____	_____	_____	31. reasoned with me and explained possible harmful consequences when I misbehaved
_____	_____	_____	_____	32. punished me by being more strict about rules and regulations
_____	_____	_____	_____	33. rewarded me by giving me money or increasing my allowance
_____	_____	_____	_____	34. paid no attention to me
_____	_____	_____	_____	35. did not object when I was late for meals
_____	_____	_____	_____	36. tried to help me learn to live comfortably with myself
_____	_____	_____	_____	37. would not let me question her reasoning
_____	_____	_____	_____	38. hugged me, kissed me, petted me when I was good
_____	_____	_____	_____	39. ignored me as long as I did not do anything to disturb her
_____	_____	_____	_____	40. was easy with me
_____	_____	_____	_____	41. was willing to discuss regulations with me and took my point of view into consideration in making them
_____	_____	_____	_____	42. wanted to have complete control over my actions
_____	_____	_____	_____	43. gave me new things as a reward, such as toys
_____	_____	_____	_____	44. thought it was bad for a child to be given affection and tenderness

PCR QUESTIONNAIRE II

MOTHER-SON

VERY TRUE	TENDED to be TRUE	TENDED to be UNTRUE	VERY UNTRUE	
_____	_____	_____	_____	My mother
_____	_____	_____	_____	45. did not bother much about enforcing rules
_____	_____	_____	_____	46. said nice things about me
_____	_____	_____	_____	47. expected prompt and questioning obedience
_____	_____	_____	_____	48. was particular about who my friends were
_____	_____	_____	_____	49. did not try to help me learn things
_____	_____	_____	_____	50. did not check up on whether I did my homework

Parent-Child Relations Questionnaire

Description of PCR II Categories

Loving

Parents were warm, affectionate, and helpful; respected their child's point of view and encouraged him to express it; made him feel wanted and important; reasoned with him and explained harmful consequences when he did wrong things; helped their child to live comfortably with himself, and made it easy for him to confide in them.

Rejecting

Parents were too busy to answer questions; did not spend any more time with their child than they had to; did not take him into consideration in making plans; ridiculed and made fun of him; complained about him; paid no attention to him; and did not try to help their child learn things.

Casual

Parents set very few rules for their child; gave him as much freedom as he wanted; let him off easy when he did something wrong; let him stay up as late as he liked; did not object when he was late for meals; was easy with him; did not bother much about enforcing rules.

Demanding

Parents punished their child hard enough when he misbehaved to make sure that he would not do it again; made it clear that they were the bosses; demanded unquestioning respect; punished their child by being more strict about rules and regulations; expected prompt and unquestioning obedience.

Attention

Parents spoiled their child; relaxed rules and regulations as a reward; gave him candy or ice cream as a reward; gave their child special attention as a reward; rewarded him by giving him money or increasing his allowance; gave him new things as a reward, such as toys.

APPENDIX F

ERIKSONIAN MEASURE OF DEVELOPMENT (IPD)

Directions:

Mood is usually applied to states lasting for minutes or hours, but most people can estimate their average or typical mood over a longer period of time. Using the following scale, please indicate which statement best describes your typical mood for the current academic year. Draw a circle around the number of the statement which best describes your average level of happiness or unhappiness since September.

ELATION vs. DEPRESSION (How elated or depressed, happy or unhappy, you usually felt during this year.)

- 10) Complete elation. Rapturous joy and soaring ecstasy.
- 9) Very elated and in very high spirits. Tremendous delight and buoyancy.
- 8) Elated and in high spirits.
- 7) Felt very good and cheerful.
- 6) Felt pretty good, "O.K."
- 5) Felt a little bit low. Just so-so.
- 4) Spirits low and somewhat "blue".
- 3) Depressed and felt very low. Definitely "blue".
- 2) Tremendously depressed. Felt terrible, miserable, "just awful".
- 1) Utter depression and gloom. Completely down, all was black and leaden.

Following these instructions you will find a list of 60 terms and phrases which were used by students to describe themselves. Please use the list to describe yourself as you honestly feel and believe you are. Following each phrase are numbers from 7 to 1. Circle the seven 7 for phrases that are definitely most characteristic of you, the six 6 for phrases that are very characteristic of you, etc. Circle the one 1 if the phrase is definitely most uncharacteristic of you. In other words:

- 7 = definitely most characteristic of you
- 6 = very characteristic of you
- 5 = somewhat characteristic of you
- 4 = neither characteristic nor uncharacteristic of you
- 3 = somewhat uncharacteristic of you
- 2 = very uncharacteristic of you
- 1 = definitely most uncharacteristic of you

Be sure when you do these ratings that you are guided by your best judgment of the way you really are. There is no need to ponder your ratings excessively; your first impressions are generally the best. Do the phrases in order. Be sure to answer every item.

1. placid and untroubled 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
2. an automatic response to all situations 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
3. adventuresome 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
4. can't fulfill my ambitions 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
5. confidence is brimming over 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
6. little regard for the rest of the world 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
7. incapable of absorbing frustration and
 everything frustrates me 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
8. value independence above security 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
9. sexually blunted 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
10. conscientious and hard-working 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
11. a poseur, all facade and pretense 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
12. candid, not afraid to expose myself 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
13. accessible to new ideas 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
14. meticulous and over-organized 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
15. dynamic 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
16. don't apply myself fully 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
17. natural and genuine 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
18. preoccupied with myself 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
19. can't share anything 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
20. free and spontaneous 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
21. afraid of impotence 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
22. interested in learning and like to study 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
23. spread myself thin 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
24. warm and friendly 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
25. imperturbable optimist 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
26. cautious, hesitant, doubting 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
27. ambitious 7 6 5 4 3 2 1

28. fritter away my time 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
29. poised 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
30. very lonely 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
31. pessimistic, little hope 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
32. stand on my own two feet 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
33. think too much about the wrong things 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
34. serious, have high standards 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
35. attempt to appear at ease 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
36. have sympathetic concern for others 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
37. able to take things as they come 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
38. feel as if I were being followed 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
39. inventive, delight in finding new
 solutions to new problems 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
40. ineffective, don't amount to much 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
41. know who I am and what I want out of life 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
42. cold and remote 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
43. dim nostalgia for lost paradise 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
44. quietly go my own way 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
45. big smoke but no fire 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
46. accomplish much, truly productive 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
47. never know how I feel 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
48. tactful in personal relations 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
49. deep, unshakable faith in myself 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
50. always in the wrong, apologetic 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
51. sexually aware 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
52. a playboy, always "hacking around" 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
53. pride in my own character and values 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
54. secretly oblivious to the opinions of others 7 6 5 4 3 2 1

55. never get what I really want 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
56. good judge of when to comply
and when to assert myself 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
57. inhibited and self-restricted 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
58. excel in my work 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
59. afraid of commitment 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
60. comfortable in intimate relationships 7 6 5 4 3 2 1

Below are listed several items which students have indicated are important goals for them when they come to college. Using the 7-point scale following the item, rate each one on its importance as a goal toward which you have actually been working during your college career. As usual, 7 = extremely important goal, 1 = not at all important goal. Please be sure to rate each item.

1. Learning how to learn from books and teachers 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
2. Acquiring an appreciation of ideas 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
3. Establishing your own personal, social
and academic values 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
4. Developing relationships with the opposite sex 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
5. Contributing in a distinguished, meaningful manner
to some campus group 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
6. Developing your ability to get along with
different kinds of people 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
7. Becoming self-confident 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
8. Personal independence 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
9. Finding a spouse 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
10. Achieving academic distinction 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
11. Having many good friends 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
12. Discovering your own strong points
and limitations 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
13. Preparing for a career which begins
right after graduation 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
14. Preparing for a career which requires
further study beyond the B.A. or B.S. 7 6 5 4 3 2 1

Now we would like you to indicate how much being a student at the University of Ottawa has actually helped or hindered your progress toward these goals. Use the following scale to indicate the extent to which you have been helped or hindered in your progress toward each goal:

+3 = UO has helped greatly
 +2 = US has helped moderately
 +1 = UO has helped slightly
 0 = US has neither helped nor hindered
 -1 = UO has hindered slightly
 -2 = UO has hindered moderately
 -3 = UO has hindered greatly

1. Learning how to learn from books and teachers +3 +2 +1 0 -1 -2 -3
2. Acquiring an appreciation of ideas +3 +2 +1 0 -1 -2 -3
3. Establishing your own personal, social
and academic values +3 +2 +1 0 -1 -2 -3
4. Developing relationships with the
opposite sex +3 +2 +1 0 -1 -2 -3
5. Contributing in a distinguished, meaningful
manner to some campus group +3 +2 +1 0 -1 -2 -3
6. Developing your ability to get along with
different kinds of people +3 +2 +1 0 -1 -2 -3
7. Becoming self-confident +3 +2 +1 0 -1 -2 -3
8. Personal independence +3 +2 +1 0 -1 -2 -3
9. Finding a spouse +3 +2 +1 0 -1 -2 -3
10. Achieving academic distinction +3 +2 +1 0 -1 -2 -3
11. Having many good friends +3 +2 +1 0 -1 -2 -3
12. Discovering your own strong points
and limitations +3 +2 +1 0 -1 -2 -3
13. Preparing for a career which beings
right after graduation +3 +2 +1 0 -1 -2 -3
14. Preparing for a career which requires further
study beyond the B.A. or B.S. +3 +2 +1 0 -1 -2 -3

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