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DEVELOPMENTAL AND PERSONALITY DIFFERENCES BETWEEN TWO GROUPS OF FATHERS

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A dissertation submitted to the Faculty of Arts, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts in Clinical Psychology

Johannesburg, 1987

DECJ RATION

I hereby declare that this dissertation is my own unaided work and has not been submitted for a degree at any other university.

Natalie Gordon.

ABSTRACT

The aim of this research was to evaluate the effect of the father's level of ego development, his level of self esteem, his marital adjustment and his perception of his role on his child. The sample population consisted of two groups of fathers with 27 subjects in each group. The experimental group was defined by having a child who had been seen in a clinic for emotional or behavioural difficulties and the control group by having a child who had never had any therapy for emotional or behavioural difficulties. The groups were broadly matched on age of the index child, standard of the child at school, age of the father, marital status and language.

The data was analysed using t-tests to compare the groups; Pearson Product Moment Correlations to examine the relationship between variables and a Discriminant Analysis in order to look at the findings from a multivariate perspective.

Using a significance level of 0.05 as the criterion for significance, there were no significant differences between the groups. However there were distinct differences between the two groups when the subject variables from the biographical questionnaire were analysed. The results were discussed in the light of the negative findings and an attempt was made to account for the paucity of significant results. Finally the limitations of the study and the implications for further research were considered.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS PAGE

DECLARATION i
ABSTRACT ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS iii
TABLE OF CONTENTS iv
LIST OF TABLES viii

CHAPTER ONE - INTRODUCTION AND RATIONALE 1

1.1. INTRODUCTION....1
1.2. RATIONALE....3

CHAPTER TWO - THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES 7

2.1. INTRODUCTION....7
2.2. PSYCHOANALYTIC THEORY....7
2.2.1. FREUD AND THE FREUDIANS....8
2.2.2. THE NEO-FREUDIANS....11
2.2.3. RELEVANCE TO THE STUDY....12
2.3. ATTACHMENT THEORY....13
2.3.1. EARLY OBJECT RELATIONS THEORISTS....13
2.3.2. MAHLER AND THE LATER OBJECT RELATIONS THEORISTS....14
2.3.3. *RELEVANCE TO THE STUDY*....16
2.4. PARSONS' THEORY....17
2.4.1. RELEVANCE TO THE STUDY....18
2.5. SOCIAL LEARNING THEORY....19
2.5.1. RELEVANCE TO THE STUDY....21
2.6. DEVELOPMENTAL THEORY....21
2.6.1. LOEVINGER'S THEORY OF EGO DEVELOPMENT....24
2.6.2. RELEVANCE TO THE STUDY....26
2.7. THE ERA OF PATERNAL CONSCIOUSNESS....27
2.8. MAJOR AREAS OF RESEARCH TO DATE....28
2.9. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION....31

CHAPTER THREE - THE SOCIAL EFFECTS OF THE FATHER'S ROLE..32

3.1. RESEARCH ON THE ROLE OF THE FATHER.....32
3.1.1. CONCLUSION.....35
3.2. EFFECTS OF A REJECTING FATHER.....35
3.3. REASONS FOR THE DETERIORATION IN THE FATHER'S ROLE.....38
3.3.1. DETACHMENT DUE TO WORK.....39
3.3.2. FRAGMENTATION OF THE FAMILY DUE TO SEPARATE INTERESTS.....40
3.3.3. KNOWLEDGE EXPLOSION AND RAPIDITY OF CHANGE.....40
3.3.4. CHANGING NATURE OF SEX ROLES.....41
3.3.5. DIVORCE.....41
3.4. CONCLUSION.....42

CHAPTER FOUR - THE FATHER'S ROLE IN CHILD DEVELOPMENT....43

4.1. INTRODUCTION.....43
4.2. THE EFFECT OF FATHER ABSENCE ON CHILD DEVELOPMENT.....44
4.2.1. TYPES OF FATHER ABSENCE.....46
4.2.2. THE DIFFEREING EFFECTS OF FATHER ABSENCE ON BOYS OR GIRLS.....49
4.2.3. CONCLUSION.....52
4.3. THE ROLE OF THE FATHER IN RELATION TO SEX ROLE DEVELOPMENT.....54
4.3.1. THE PATERNAL INFLUENCE ON MASCULINITY AND FEMININITY.....54
4.3.2. THE INFLUENCE OF FATHER'S WORK ON SEX TYPING.....57
4.3.3. DIFFERENCES IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FATHER/SONS AND FATHER/DAUGHTERS.....58
4.4. THE FATHER'S EFFECT ON COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT.....59
4.5. THE EFFECT OF THE FATHER ON MORAL DEVELOPMENT....61
4.6. CONCLUSION.....64

CHAPTER FIVE - PSYCHOLOGICAL VARIABLES UNDER INVESTIGATION.....65

5.1. EGO DEVELOPMENT.....65
5.1.1. CONCLUSIONS.....67
5.2. THE CONCEPT OF THE SELF.....68
5.2.1. THE EXTANT SELF.....69
5.2.2. THE DESIRED SELF.....71
5.2.3. THE PRESENTING SELF.....72
5.3. RELEVANCE TO THE STUDY.....73
5.4. INTERPERSONAL RELATING AND ROLE DEFINITION.....74

CHAPTER SIX - RATIONALE, AIMS AND HYPOTHESES.....75

6.1. RATIONALE.....75
6.2. AIMS OF THE STUDY.....76
6.3. HYPOTHESES.....77

CHAPTER SEVEN - METHODOLOGY.....78

7.1. SUBJECTS.....78
7.1.1. SELECTION OF GROUPS.....79
7.2. DESIGN.....80
7.3. VARIABLES SELECTED FOR MEASURING.....81
7.3.1. EGO DEVELOPMENT.....82
7.3.2. INTERPERSONAL RELATING.....83
7.3.3. SELF-ESTEEM.....84
7.3.4. ROLE PERCEPTION.....85
7.4. RATIONALE FOR SELECTING THESE VARIABLES.....82
7.5. SELECTION OF MEASURING INSTRUMENTS.....87

7.5.1. WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY SENTENCE COMPLETION TEST (WUSC).....87
7.5.1.1. RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY.....89
7.5.1.2. INTER RATER RELIABILITY.....89
7.5.2. LOCKE-WALLACE MARITAL ADJUSTMENT SCALE...90
7.5.2.1. RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY.....92
7.5.3. COOPERSMITH SELF-ESTEEM INVENTORY.....92
7.5.3.1. RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY.....94
7.5.4. *SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL (ROLE PERCEPTION)*..95
7.5.4.1. RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY.....96
7.6. PROCEDURE.....97
7.7. BIOGRAPHICAL DETAILS.....98

CHAPTER EIGHT - STATISTICAL ANALYSIS AND RESULTS.....102

CHAPTER NINE - DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION.....108

9.1. DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS.....109
9.1.1. RESPONSE RATE.....109
9.1.2. SOCIAL DESIRABILITY SITUATIONAL RESPONSES.....111
9.1.3. SAMPLE SIZE.....112
9.2. THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS.....113
9.2.1. HYPOTHESIS 1. EGO DEVELOPMENT.....113
9.2.2 HYPOTHESIS 2. MARITAL SATISFACTION.....119
9.2.3. HYPOTHESIS 3. SELF-ESTEEM.....122
9.2.4. HYPOTHESIS 4. ROLE PERCEPTION.....123
9.3. ADDITIONAL VARIABLES RELEVANT TO THE STUDY.....128
9.3.1. ORDINAL POSITION OF CHILD AND FATHER....128
9.3.2. FATHER'S LEVEL OF EDUCATION.....130
9.3.3. SEX OF CHILD.....131
9.3.4. PERCEPTION OF TIME SPENT WITH CHILD.....133
9.4. LIMITS OF THE STUDY.....135
9.5. IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY.....138
9.6. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH.....140
9.7. CONCLUSION.....141

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE 1. MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS.....102
TABLE 2. t-tests.....103
TABLE 3. PEARSON CORRELATION CO-EFFICIENTS.....104
TABLE 3a. PEARSON CORRELATION CO-EFFICIENTS.(1).....105
TABLE 3b. PEARSON CORRELATION CO-EFFICIENTS (2).....106
TABLE 4. DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS.....107

TABLE OF BIOGRAPHICAL DETAILS.....99

REFERENCES AND APPENDICES

REFERENCES.....143

APPENDIX 1.....179
APPENDIX 2.....184

CHAPTER ONE.

1.1. INTRODUCTION AND RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY.

Recently there has been a marked shift in the focus of research devoted to the study of parents. No longer is parenting synonymous with mothering, but there is another dimension called fathering (Boss, 1986). While biology defines the role which the male plays in reproduction, the role of the man as father/provider changes with cultural, geographical and socio-economic conditi (Benedek,1970). In the past the father's role was v. y ignored by both theorists and researchers, to the extent that in 1975, Lamb called fathers "the forgotten contributorc to child development". This neglect reflects not only the obvious difficulty of recruiting busy men for research, but also the historic failure to appreciate the fact that fathers as well as mothers are im tant in the process of the child's development. (Lynn,1976).

Before the 1970's the role of the father and of paternal contributions to child development was relatively under-researched, with a particular lag in the study of the interpersonal dynamics within the father-child relationship. Since 1975 however, there has been a revival of interest in fatherhood and this topic has become a growing area for research and academic study (Beail, Lamb, Cath, Gurwitt and Ross, 1982; Lamb, 1975,1976,1977,1982; Lynn, 1976).

Today there is an increasing body of knowledge on the effects a father has on his children and researchers such as Beail (1983), Biller (1969, 1970), Blanchard & Biller (1971), Lamb (1976, 1979), Lynn (1974), Parke (1981), Santrock (1970) and Seel (1987) are just a few of the many who have contributed extensively to this field.

From 1980 there has been a veritable explosion of new literature on fathering. However most of this literature deals with the father's emotional responses to his new born infant, his ability to participate in child care activities, society's new found interest in the "modern father" and such like research and includes many "How To" books, some of which are listed in the reference list at the end of this study.

In spite of the increase in fatherhood studies one area remains ignored. There is still no research available on those personality characteristics that enable the adult male to parent effectively.

Recently, Robinson and Barret (1986) stated that;-

> "Men's behaviour as fathers is affected by their personal dynamics as they structure their adult lives. It is now recognised that personality continues to unfold throughout the life course. Internal issues sometimes influence a man's ability to father."
>
> (The Developing Father, Robinson & Barret, 1986, p.9).

It is statements such as these that support the rationale for this study.

1.2.

RATIONALE FOR THE PRESENT STUDY.

During a period of professional practise at a children's clinic it became increasingly obvious that many fathers seemed to be peripheral to the family. In a majority of cases the mother was the parent who filled in the intake forms and answered most of the biographical questions. Frequently the father did not volunteer any information, nor did he seem to know much detail of the child's development. In a fair proportion of cases he failed to attend the initial interview even if he was living in the family home. This raised many questions for the researcher. Apart from acknowledging Lynn's statement (1976) that recruiting busy fathers is difficult, and while understanding the current research devoted to the father's role and the effect of his presence or absence on the child, there was one question that remained unanswered:- what level of developmental maturity must a man attain in order for him to parent his child in a nurturant and mature way? It seems obvious that the crucial component of being a father is not found in external events, situations or tasks, but rather in the level of his intra-psychic and interpersonal development.

This study therefore postulates that his ego strength, his ability to relate interpersonally, his level of self esteem and his perception of his own role as a father are the vital components that will dictate his success or failure as a parent.

In this research Loevinger's concept of ego development is the umbrella term that is used to describe development into mature adulthood. Loevinger (1970) herself states that numerous authors have presented varied conceptions of ego

development, and her view of development unfolding through a series of unique and inevitable stages is based on many other theorists work as stated previously. She maintains that all of them view ego development as

> "an abstract continuum that is both a normal developmental sequence and a dimension of individual differences in any given age cohort. All represent holistic views of personality and all see behaviour in terms of meaning or purpose.....All are more or less concerned with impulse control and character development, interpersonal relations and with cognitive preoccupations, including self-concept."
>
> (Loevinger & Wessler, 1970,pg.3).

Allen (1967) maintains that ego strength is the appropriate concept when defining adult personality functioning. His view is that ego strength refers to one's ability to cope with one's environment and to deal adequately, directly and realistically with the problems that arise. Ego strength relates to the individual's coping skills and ego identity refers to the consistent pattern that is evident over time and situations. Allen (1967) goes on to say that ego strength has a relationship to childhood experience and hypothesises that the origins of ego strength rest in early child socialisation practises. Mental health, maturity and the effectiveness of adult functioning are all aspects of the adult character structure that enable a father to parent appropriately or not. The results of Allen's (1967) study show there is a distinct relationship between ego strength and early socialisation variables and are stated thus:

as satisfaction for the child increases so does ego strength: and as anxiety in the child goes up, so ego strength decreases. Thus it seems that factors of childhood experience relate directly to adult personality adjustment.

Mary Ingham (1984) suggests that a man's limited notion of the fathering role may be something which, in spite of the new wave of research is subtly reinforced. The traditional exclusion of the father prevents him from taking an active part in child care and can result in his distorting the feelings of care to those of resentment and jealousy directed at the close bond between mother and child. This increases the sense of being isolated from the family and can painfully reactivate early conflicts of his own which he feels powerless to work through and which hold the key to the male dilemma (Ingham, 1984).

Berger (1979) suggests that the family of origin has a far reaching effect on the individual's personality and ability to interact as an adult in the new family. He believes that many of the qualities sought for and many of the issues played out in the family and between the spouses and/or children derive their intensity from unfinished business with the family of origin. This belief supports the postulation that what the man brings to his role as a father is as much dictated by his own need to complete these matters as by any external perception of the fathering role.

Yet all the movements to redefine fathering as something more than a simple blood tie, as more than an act of procreation are floundering, not so much because of the practicalities which perpetuate the separate roles, but because they are not fixed to a firm theoretical base and to a theory which really highlights the developmental and personality characteristics incumbent upon the role of father.

The developmental perspective, although accepted as an underlying sequence of common developmental periods, also presents a uniqueness particular to each individual. Levinson showed this with great creativity in his book "Seasons of a Man"s Life" (1978) and his more recent paper "A Conception of Adult Development" (1986). He has devoted his research to examining development during the adult years. A major point he makes is that one of the primary components of each individual's life structure is his interpersonal relationships with various others. It is most common that the relationships that occupy the central position in his life are those with spouse, children and occupation. A significant relationship involves an investment of the self (Levinson, 1986) and the self in the form of an integrated ego identity is the core of the personality.

Levinson's (1978,1986) theory confirms and supports the other parameters of this thesis, namely that the level of ego development must also include the ability to relate interpersonally, a positive sense of self esteem and a realistic perception of life's roles, in this case that of being a father. These variables will all be investigated in this study. McKee and O'Brien (1982) state that fathers are not simply standins for mothers, nor is it enough for research merely to turn from mother to father. In order to understand and appreciate the diversity and complexity of fatherhood, many more areas need research. This thesis seeks to address these broader issues.

CHAPTER TWO

2.0. THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES

2.1.

INTRODUCTION

In order to develop a comprehensive and valid framework for viewing adult development it is important to recapitulate some of the major theoretical concepts and perspectives formulated by the various theoretical schools. They provide a foundation for this research and a basis for the understanding of fathering and fatherliness.

2.2.

PSYCHOANALYTIC THEORY

At the end of the last century and during the beginning of this one, it was considered slightly humiliating and unsuitable for a father to be openly involved with child care, as if taking this care-giving role was too maternal and undignified for a man and suggested lack of masculinity. (Burlingham,1973).

Bearing this contextual framework in mind, Freud's theories reflect not only his originality, but also the social beliefs of the time.

2.2.1.

FREUD AND THE FREUDIANS

Probably the most influential theory on the father-child relationship was Freud's psychoanalytic theory. Although Freud thought the mother was the *first and foremost person* with whom the infant formed a relationship, he regarded the Oedipal phase as the most significant in the child's development. According to Ross (1979) no research into fathering can be contemplated without giving credence to the entire concept of the Oedipal struggle as portrayed by Freud in 1924, with *the pre-Oedipal behaviour between mother-father-child* as the determining factor for later resolution.

2.2.1.1.

THE OEDIPAL STAGE OF DEVELOPMENT.

Freud presented the Oedipal struggle differently for boys and girls. He rarely refers to the love of, and for, a daughter in the same detail as that for a son. He believed that resolution of the Oedipus conflict for males is motivated by fear of the father's aggression (losing their genitals to a vengeful father), while for females it is motivated by fear of the loss of the mother's love.

During the boy's phallic phase, at around three to five years, he is sexually attracted to his mother and he loves and desires her , but the father stands in his way. At the same time he realises that his mother loves his father and he begins to see father as a rival for mother's affections.

He also begins to be aware of the differences between the sexes and he assumes that women once had penises which were removed as a punishment. *He then makes the assumption* that father might similarly castrate him in retaliation for loving mother, and to avoid this the child represses his affection *for his mother and identifies with his father.* By so doing he hopes that he will diminish father's aggression, and also believes that because he is now like father he will ensure *mother's* love. *Thus* the child strives to be like father and takes on many of his characteristics. Most importantly he incorporates his father's prohibition of incest, which *protects* him against the renewal of the Oedipal conflict.

It is therefore inferred from Freud that he considers the father's role to be that of the frustrating parent whose incorporation enhances the boy's weak ego and enables him to gain structure for his masculinity and teaches him to master frustration.

Chiland (1967) suggests that Freud's theory of the superego has a paternal origin. She states that the superego arises from an identification with the father. The authority of the father is introjected into the ego where it forms the nucleus of the superego which takes over the severity of the father and perpetuates his prohibition against incest.

It is obvious that in Freud's work the father is perceived as an opponent and tyrant and also as a figure to be revered for his power. (Ross, 1977,1979). As Ross (1979) states...

> "granted Freud's limitations, the truth of his notions about fathers is undeniable.."
>
> (p.319).

In some way and at some level sons do hate their fathers and wish to take their place, even though they love and admire them, according to Freudian theorists. And however well-

meaning and kind the father is, he must still discipline and deny the son the full enjoyment of pleasure and ambition. These are the necessities of childhood and the obligations of paternity. (Ross, 1979).

What Freud really presented was the core polarity that underlies developmental theory....the son's love for a nurturant and giving father versus his rage and defiance directed towards the constraining and depriving authority figure.

Freud's theory on female development suggests a similar theme, but it is less clear and consistent than for males. The girl develops an infant love for her mother, but she discovers that she has no penis like her brother (or any other male). She feels cheated and blames her mother for this lack. She then turns to her father, hoping to supplant her mother in his affections and bear him a child. However she realised that she is unable to achieve this and relinquishes the wish. Having turned from mother in an effort to replace her, she now begins to fear losing mother's love, which drives her to internalise the mother and identify with her. Since the motive is based on the fear of loss of love and not on the fear of castration (which, according to Freud, is the more powerful fear), her identification is not as complete as the male's and her Oedipal conflict is never as fully resolved. This is Freud's explanation for his idea that females never develop as strong a superego as do males.....fear of loss of love lacks the power that fear of castration has. (Deutch, 1944; Forrest, 1966,1967; Lamb, 1976,1981; Lynn, 1974; McKee & O'Brien, 1982).

This conclusion today is seen as unnecessarily sexist and has caused much anger and resentment among the feminist psychoanalytical therapists.

Lamb (1979) comments on the irony that Freud's emphasis on the formative significance of early experience should have nurtured the idea of maternal exclusivity, since Freud himself placed a major emphasis on the father's role. For Freud the lack of paternal involvement in child rearing increased the father's influence!

Most of Freud's work in therapy seemed to centre on the failure of each individual's father to provide his child with a parental love that is at once generous and facilitating, but also appropriately detached. It seems that the sons and daughters search for this elusive paternal affection and Freud concluded that this search becomes erotic and is therefore repressed. However later theorists (Biller, 1974; Biller & Meredith, 1974; Lamb, 1976; Lynn, 1974) perceived a different father; a father who would try and understand his child's experience and try and fill the void created by paternal deprivation.

2.2.2.

THE NEO-FREUDIANS

Both Sullivan (1953) and Fromm (1956) expanded on Freud's original theme, giving emphasis to their particular theoretical perspective.

Sullivan (1953) suggests that the emergence of perception of the self along gender lines occurs at about six years old in the transition period between childhood and the juvenile era. He focuses on the father's role as an encouraging model for the boy's imitative identification.

Fromm (1956) also perceives six years old as a crucial period in the child's relationship with his father and suggests that at this age the child begins to need his father's love, authority and guidance. He defines the father's role as giving conditional love for the mastery of problems in a socially acceptable way.

Forrest (1967,1967) criticises these psychoanalytic theorists in that she states that while accepting the basic premise that the father's function is one of authority and leader, the age and limited role assigned to him by society is too narrow. She agrees with the clear distinction between masculine and feminine personality and role, but believes that they have exaggerated this distinction to exclude the father from the "nursery and the kitchen"(Forrest,1967;pg.53) thereby assigning a fixed and arbitrary time as well as a prescribed entry into his child's world.

2.2.3.

RELEVANCE TO THE PRESENT STUDY.

If, as is suggested by Freud, the father enhances the child's weak ego, then one must question what would be the outcome if the father himself had poor paternal input? And if, as is suggested by Chiland (1967), the superego is internalised as the "authority father", and this identification concerns a punitive rather than a benign presence, what would the effects then be on the child's development?

An extrapolation from these premises indicates that the father himself needs to have reached a stage of mature development *in order to be an effective parent.* If he is still struggling with his own internal conflicts regarding his family of origin then it would be extremely difficult for him to interact with his child in an enhancing way.

2.3.

ATTACHMENT THEORY

2.3.1.

EARLY OBJECT-RELATIONS THEORISTS

The Object-Relations theorists led by Fairbairn (1952), Klein (1957) and Winnicott (1958) placed the greatest emphasis on the early years with particular attention to the first few months of life. They believe that it is the earliest experience of the relationship with the mother that determines the child's unfolding development and that the mother-child bond is practically exclusive. Attachmant theorists such as Ainsworth (1973) and Bowlby (1969) proposed that infants were born with an innate tendency to seek close proximity to a particular individual, who then becomes the primary attachment figure. Although they did not deny that the infant could form attachments to other adults, they believed that the mother was the specific focus and it was several years before attachment theorists realised that the baby formed relat nships with both parents (Ainsworth, Bell & Stayton, 1972).

However these theorists believe that the relationship with the primary figure is still the most influential one and this theory suggests that infants who have initially secure relationships are later able to generalise their co-operativeness and sociability to later interactions. Those infants whose initial attachment was fraught with insecurity generalise their anger and avoidance in later relationships (Lamb, 1976).

2.3.2.

MAHLER AND THE LATER OBJECT RELATION THEORISTS.

Later Object-relations theorists, Ego psychologists and Developmental theorists such as Abelin (1975), Biller (1974), Lamb (1975), Jacobson (1964), Mahler (1968) and Mahler, Pine and Bergman (1975) incorporated a core difference in their theory. Like the earlier researchers they placed emphasis on the early mother-child symbiotic bond, whereby the child gradually internalises features of her ego as if they were his own. They then went on to state that the father's presence was necessary to resolve the child's total dependency on the mother. In this view of development the father gives a positive contribution to the start of the process of individuation and his role is no longer that of inhibitor, but rather the child's helper in separating from mother. He stands as mediator between mother and child and prepares the way for further development.

Mahler's (1968) theory of child development, which came ten years after the earlier work of theorists such as Bowlby (1969), Klein (1957) and Winnicott (1958) widened the scope

of attachment theory and started a movement towards later developmental theory. She emphasised the non-symbiotic quality of the father's involvement and envisaged development as unfolding in stages, with separation, individuation *and mastery as* the ultimate goal of early growth. Mahler maintains that during the practising sub-phase of the separation/individuation process the father starts to play an important role in the child's exploratory and phallic attitudes. In the subsequent rapprochement sub-phase his role appears to be crucial in disentangling the emerging ego from a regressive pull back into symbiosis with the mother.

Abelin (1975) refined Mahler's (1975) concepts by introducing his child-observation method of research and through this hypothesised that specific recognition of the *father starts during* symbiosis, somewhat later than recognition of the mother. Stranger reactions to the father gradually subside until differentiation with the father attracts the child and the father becomes interesting and irreplacable. With the onset of the practising sub-phase the father comes to represent an exciting, different other parent, who stands for "non-mother space", while the mother constitutes a refueling home base. (Ross, 1979).
Abelin's (1975) observation of female children led him to perceive that girls attach themselves to their fathers much earlier than boys, although, at first they are much more *wary of strange men* than boys. However, by the second year girls seek and invite attention from other men as well as their fathers.

During the rapprochement phase Abelin (1975) notes that initially the child's push for independence centres on the mother, but gradually the father appears in the child's fantasy as the more powerful parent. The onset of this is a crucial image to the resolution of the rapprochement crisis as the child can begin to identify with the father rather than the mother, and to perceive a

relationship between two distinct and differentiated objects, that is, mother and father, and by extension, self and other. (Abelin, 1975; Ross, 1979).

Thus, intra-psychic separation and individuation requires both parents as the infant gravitates away from mother to father. Abelin (1975) asserts that the parents provide a double mirror reflecting the child's search for specific objects, which eventually leads to discovery of the self. Subsequently the father's presence provides the child with a dawning sense of generational as well as gender identity. The father is a vital presence for the child, especially during the transitional phases, and from whom the child absorbs a sense of self identity and mastery.

2.3.3.

RELEVANCE TO THE STUDY

From the above theory it is obvious that the father plays an extremely important role in the process of individuation and the development of independence. However, once again one needs to speculate as to the fathers own early experience with his father. Was he able to break the symbiotic bond with his mother and form a strong, healthy bond with his father? In order for him to have developed an integrated sense of self and a confident sense of mastery he needed to have had a well balanced interaction between both mother and father.

Ross (1979) criticised Abelin (1975) with regard to his failure to elaborate on each individual father's character, and in so doing provided confirmation for this thesis. He states that there is a core omission in most of the psychoanalytic, object relations and ego-psychology literature on fathering. This literature has failed to take cognisance of the father's age-specific and idiosyncratic contributions during the pre-Oedipal and later developmental phases. The behavioural and emotional consequences stemming from the father's own developmental history have been underplayed and under researched. (Ross, 1979).

2.4.

PARSONS' THEORY

Parsons & Bales (1955) and Parsons (1958) developed a theory of personality development which elaborated on Freud's theory of identification (Bronfenbrenner, 1960). Parsons depicts the child's world as consisting only of mother-child until a time corresponding to Freud's Oedipal phase, when he suggests the mother-child dyad expands to include the father. Prior to this the mother performed both expressive (nurturant, empathic) and instrumental (competent, achieving) roles. During this later phase Parsons' dichotomy is established whereby the father becomes the primary representative of the instrumental role and the mother begins to play a more restricted expressive role.

According to Parsons, the father represents an executive, action-oriented approach to the child and serves as the primary link between the family and the outside world.

Fathers are responsible for introducing the child to the sex role expectations of society, for encouraging competency and serving as the model for the child to imitate and for communicating the values and morals of society. However, there are many researchers who do not altogether agree with Parsons' ideas of so rigid a difference between male and female influences and roles.
(Lynn, 1974; Maccoby & Jacklin, 1973; Snow, Jacklin & Maccoby, 1983).

2.4.1.

RELEVANCE TO THE STUDY

One has to view Parsons in a social context. His hypotheses were described during the 1950's at a time when most of western middle-class society was immersed in role description and definition according to rigidly held beliefs about gender behaviour. The fathers tested in this study are of an age that grew up with parents who probably believed these rigidly held ideas. Therefore, when assessing the data, one needs to take into account the possibility that these men may have been influenced by fathers who themselves had difficulty in altering their preconceptions about a gender-specific fathering role.

2.5.

SOCIAL LEARNING THEORY

The social learning theorists pursued a totally different perspective from the previous schools. Their contribution has had widespread and significant importance in terms of their emphasis on behaviour by presenting the body of psychological theory with a new and radical view of human behaviour.

Most of the social learning theorists believe that behavioural shaping by reinforcement and punishment, as well as by identification or imitation, are the crucial processes in socialisation and personality development. Both parents attempt to shape their child's behaviour by reinforcement and/or punishment. Mothers, by virtue of the fact that they spend more time with their offspring, are likely to administer more reinforcements and punishments than fathers. However, paternal responses probably attain greater significance and effectiveness because of the father's relative novelty and the perceived threat of greater punitiveness. (Lamb,1976; Lynn, 1974).

Many of the learning theorists (Bandura, 1968; Bandura & Walters, 1963; Mussen, 1967) emphasise the importance of learning that takes place without explicit reinforcement or punishment. Along with Biller (1968a), Bronfenbrenner (1960,1961) and Sears, Rau & Alpert (1965) these theorists have focused on the way a child identifies with his father and on the way the father influences the child's acquisition of masculine or feminine characteristics. Observational learning is the crucial process in sex role development and underscores the importance of the father as a role model for masculinity amd achievement. Sears et al (1965) stressed

dependency in conjunction with the occasional withholding of love as a mechanism that brings about identification. They believe that the behaviours the child learns through imitation are those the parent uses in gratifying the child's dependency. If the father were always present and nurturant the male child would have little incentive to imitate him in order to obtain self-reinforcement. If, however, the father is not nurturant , but rather punitive and disapproving, the child will not be motivated to reproduce his behaviours. Thus the motive to identify will be optimum when the child is given affection and nurturance that are periodically withheld in order to create a situation where the child will be rewarded by reproducing the parent's actions.

Bandura and Walters (1963) found that it is not essential that the observer be directly reinforced for imitating behaviour. It appears that just by observing a model being reinforced for certain behaviour, the observer will probably perform the same actions.

Imitation of the father is obviously not relevant to sex role development in daughters. However, many social learning theorists believe that fathers facilitate feminine development by rewarding feminine behaviours and discouraging masculine behaviours (Biller, 1971; Lynn, 1974). It has also been suggested that fathers provide a model of masculinity that their daughters learn to complement and identify with (Biller & Weiss, 1970; Hetherington,1972).

2.5.1.

RELEVANCE TO THE STUDY

It seems clear that both imitation and identification, along with rewarding or punishing behaviour, are crucial factors to take into account when asssessing the fathers in the present study. If the female child is excessively clinging, dependent and flirtatious, then it needs to be established whether the father reinforces this type of feminine behaviour. And if he does, was this the behaviour that he imitated from his own paternal model? In the case of a boy, particularly if he has been referred to a clinic for behavioural difficulties, it is essential to investigate the model his father provides him with and the patterns of either reinforcement or punishment used within the family system. One can speculate that in this case the father possibly also received erratic rewards or punishment.

2.6.

DEVELOPMENTAL THEORY

Since Freud, as has been discussed in the foregoing section, theorists of all disciplines have assumed that the mother-child relationship has the greatest impact on the child's development. It is only recently that this view is undergoing change.

While acknowledging the significance of Parsons as well as the social learning theorists, this researcher believes that developmental theory is the most significant in studying fathering. It is these theorists who extended their postulations to include adult development.

The earliest developmentalist who particularly studied adult development was Jung (1875-1961). After his break with Freud he tried to understand individual development as a product of both the internal psychological processes and the external cultural forces. He believed that the young adult, as part of his normal developmental process, is still caught up in the emotional involvements of childhood, and that the opportunity for change and growth starts at about 40 years of age.

Following Jung, Erikson published " Childhood and Society" (1950). Erikson devoted himself to studying development throughout the life cycle and formulated his epigenetic approach, which sees the individual's development as being phase-specific, with each separate stage having a particular crisis of development to resolve.

Piaget's early writings (1925-1929) and his second phase of research (1929-1939) also depicted development as being stage specific. Piaget's theory centred on cognitive development, those processes such as perceiving, remembering, and resasoning gaining maximum attention. He paid little attention to personality development and views emotional behaviour in the context of cognitive ability. According to Piaget the intellectual abilities which the child possesses at a given age permit certain types of emotional behaviours. Piaget defines intelligence as an individual's ability to cope with the changing world through continuous organisation and reorganisation of experience.

Piaget also extended his research to include the child's moral development, which he sees as having cognitive aspects. He perceived the development of a moral sense as being stage and age related. The earliest level of moral realism is characterised by a rigid and inflexible belief in rules which are inviolate. Later there is a shift to a more autonomous level of morality which takes into account situational, social and individual contexts.

Piaget's theory of cognitive development is not in itself adequate to explain human behaviour. Yet, when it is integrated with a developmental theory such as Freud or Erikson, a more comprehensive view begins to emerge. (Singer & Revenson, 1978).

Like Piaget and other developmentalists, Kohlberg (1964) perceived moral development as occuring in stages. He built on Piaget's model and showed how morality can be identified into six stages, each stage building on and increasing the complexity of what went before (Fein, 1978).

The level of moral development that is finally reached is affected by the following factors:-

Because cognitive and moral development are closely paralleled it is essential that a capacity for abstract thought and a flexible attitude to circumstance replace the rigid, inflexible punishment-reward patterns of earlier levels of development. The ability to take on appropriate roles, particularly in interaction with peers, adds to morality. And finally, the parents personality is critical to the development of internalised standards. The promotion of positive feelings of self, of appropriate guilt, of contol of impulsivity are all the prerequisites from the parent and pave the way for a moral philosophy that hinges on universal conscience (Mussen, Conger & Kagan, 1974).

Each of these major theorists gave rise to further researchers. Erikson's work in particular stimulated that of Loevinger (1966), whose work will form the structural base for this thesis. Loevinger (1966) states that the main features of the general developmental model implicit in the theories of Freud, Sullivan, Jung, Erikson, Piaget, Kohlberg and of course herself, can be simply stated as follows:-

** There is an invariable order of the stages of development

** No stage can be skipped

** Each stage is more complex than the preceding one. Each stage represents a transformation of what existed before into a new form

** Each stage is based on the preceding one and prepares for the succeeding one

The developmental model assumes an inner sequential unfolding, a built-in plan that gives direction to the sequence of development. (Breger, 1974).

2.6.1.

LOEVINGER'S THEORY OF EGO DEVELOPMENT

The work of Jane Loevinger (1966, 1976) has centred on the description and measurement of the stages of ego development. Like earlier theorists her theory of ego

development formulates a series of sequential stages and although they may be equated with chronological age, they are defined independently of age (Hauser, 1976). These stages comprise an invariant hierarchical order, each being more complex than the last, none can be skipped, but different individuals may not develop beyond certain levels. Among adults there are representatives of each stage, who then can be characterised in terms of the features specific to the stage at which fixation occurs. As a result, in addition to the sequence of stages, there is also a description of individual differences of character style. (Hauser, 1976, Loevinger, 1966, 1976).

Loevinger (1966) conceptualises the course of ego development as concerned with impulse control, character development, interpersonal relations and self-concept. Although she includes cognitive complexity and moral reasoning, she qualifies this belief by stating that not all persons at a high level of ego development have an equivalent level of moral reasoning or cognitive ability. However, a particular measure of intelligence, as well as a level of moral reasoning may be influenced by the ego level. (Breger, 1974; Loevinger, 1966, 1976).
Providing a theoretical coherence to Loevinger's stages is her principle of "mastery of experience". She states that

> "The central task and motive of the ego is mastery of its instinctual drives, of the environment, of its own moral imperatives. Indeed, experience is what must be mastered by actively repeating what has been passively suffered; that is the ultimate momentum.
> (Loevinger, 1976, p.425).

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In sum, Loevinger's (1966) concept of ego development refers to the framework of meaning which is subjectively imposed on the individual's experience (Hauser,1976) and the mastery of that experience (Broughton & Zahaykevich,1977)

2.6.2.

RELEVANCE TO THE STUDY

In the review by Loevinger & Knoll (1983) they refer to this particular theoretical model as a cognitive-developmental theory. They maintain that it is not characterised by any single coherent theme, but is instead a set of common principles which have two generally accepted features. The first is a base of Piaget's developmental concepts and the second is acknowledging the fact that the development of cognitive structures is one of the most essential factors in development as a whole. Piaget's work is regarded as the thread which unifies cognitive-developmental theory (Blasi,1976; Brownlee, 1985; Loevinger & Knoll,1983).

Loevinger (1966, 1976) seems to capture the essence of these principles in her model. Her concepts, when seen in conjunction with Eriksonian theory, provide a coherent explanation for adult development. If one considers parenting as a whole and fathering in particular, Loevinger's theory of development, with it's emphasis not only on character style, but also on cognitive and moral development, could very well explain in part why some children display symptoms of distress and why some do not. The stage attained by each individual father must inevitably influence his emotional and cognitive capacity to parent effectively.

2.7.

THE ERA OF PATERNAL CONSCIOUSNESS.

The advent of a major growth in fatherhood research in the 1970's posed the question "Why now?". There does not seem to be one single answer and the reasons for the sudden interest appear to be complex and multi-faceted. Many differing points of view are being voiced by the various psychological and sociological disciplines.

The rise of the women's movement has been a particularly potent force in altering the traditional view of the father's role within the family. This movement led the attack on the "maternal-attachment-deprivation" theories and this shift was lent credence by the findings of Rutter (1982), which refuted many of the rigidly held earlier ideas espoused by Bowlby (1969) and Winnicott (1965) regarding the singular importance of the mother. Changes of role expectations within and without the boundaries of modern marriage have caused a marked shift in both attitudes and behaviours of *mothers and fathers*.

Further contributing factors to the revival of interest in fatherhood are an increase in the employment rate of mothers of young children, a rise in fathers gaining custody of their children after divorce and the generally increasing involvement of men with their pregnant wives and new born infants. (Greenberg & Morris, 1974; Gurwitt, 1976; Hetherington, Cox & Cox, 1976; Orthner, Brown & Ferguson, 1976; Parke & Sawin, 1976; Richards, 1982).

2.8.

MAJOR AREAS OF RESEARCH TO DATE.

Although there is a growing body of research illuminating the father's role , it has not yet reached the same stage as the research on mothering. The studies seem to follow a few main themes.

2.8.1.

Studies devoted to examining how and when a child, and particularly an infant becomes attached to their father (Belsky, 1979;Greenberg & Morris, 1974; Gurwitt, 1976; Kotelchuk, 1976; Lamb, 1976; Lynn, 1976; McKee & O'Brien, 1982; Spelke, Zelazo, Kagan & Kotelchuk,1973).

This research has most frequently concentrated on the differences between the child's reaction to either the mother or father. Attachment theory is usually the basis for these studies and, according to Parke (1979),the consensus of this research seems to suggest that attachment to the mother, while undeniably special,is not unique. Children form attachments to both parents.

2.8.2.

Studies that look at how actively the father is involved in daily child care (Easterbrooks & Goldberg,1984;Heath,1976; Lamb,1976,1982; Lewis & Pleck,1979; McKee & O'Brien,1982; Parke,1981; Parke & O'[illegible] 1976; Russell,1982).

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This group of researchers aimed at proving that fathers are as good and nurturant at parenting as are mothers. Clarke-Stewart (1978) criticised much of the earlier research on this issue, claiming that in most traditional homes the opportunity for the fathers to display nurturance is limited by the fact that they rarely spend more than three hours per day, and often much less, with their children.

2.8.3.

Studies devoted to the influence of father-involvement on

** the child's cognitive development.
(Biller, 1968,1969,1970; Cath, Gurwitt & Ross, 1982; Carlsmith, 1974; Radin, 1973 Santrock, 1972; Shinn, 1978).

** the child's moral development.
(Baumrind, 1986; Daum & Bieliauskas, 1983; Hoffman, 1971, 1975; Lamb, 1976; Shaffer & Brody, 1981).

2.8.4.

Studies that examine the father's influence through his being *either absent or present in the family*
(Biller, 1974; Blanchard & Biller, 1971; Daum & Bieliauskas, 1983; Elizur & Kaffman, 1982; Green & Beall, 1962; Herzog & Sudia, 1973; Hetherington, 1972; Marsella, Dubanoski & Motts, 1974; Pedersen, 1976; Santrock, 1972; Shinn, 1978).

2.8.5.

Studies that explore the concept of androgyny and it's relevance to either sex-typed behaviour or androgynous behaviour in terms of paternal influence (Baumrind,1982; Bem,1974; Gerber & Balkin,1977; Helmreich, Spence & Holahan, 1979; Russell, 1978; Santrock,1970).

2.8.6.

Studies devoted to the exploration of sex role acquisition (Biller,1968,1979; Biller & Weiss, 1970; Forrest,1966,1967; Heilbrun,1965,1976; Meyer,1980; Mitchell,1965; Snow, Jacklin & Maccoby 1983).

Some of the above research, when relevant to the present study, will be dealt with in greater detail in later chapters.

Despite all this research Boss (1986) maintains that when the father is observed in clinic settings there is a growing body of evidence that shows him frequently being outside the family system and very often to be psychologically absent from the family. Boss (1986) intimates that many fathers seen in a child or family clinic do not perceive themselves as active participants in child rearing, and in fact she quotes Carl Whittaker (1972) who confirms this phenomenon. He states that in a family interview he usually starts with the father first because he is the member furthest outside the family system (quoted by Boss,1986). There seem to be both extra-familial and intra-familial forces that conspire to keep the father out of the family. Firstly, the pressure of

work, which is reinforced by society rewarding high achievers and, secondly, the syndrome of dominant wife/passive husband are the external and internal reasons for the father's withdrawal from the family, both in effect pushing the father out and leaving the mother to fill the role vacated by him. Regardless of whether the father is pushed out or pulled away there is consensus that his withdrawal has far-reaching consequences for the children. (Bigner,1970; Biller,1971; Lamb,1982).

2.9.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

This chapter has presented the major theoretical schools of psychology with the intention of showing how the presence of the father has influenced the development of his child. All these core theories, although they view the father from different perspectives, have a similar common theme. They all suggest that development evolves in relation to significant attachment figures within the child's orbit. Whether one espouses the drive theory of Freud, the "self" theories of the Neo-Freudians, the internalisation of significant objects, as in the theories of both early and late Object Relations theorists, the identification theories of Parsons and the behavioural shaping theories of the Social Learning theorists, what emerges is a common belief in the importance of the father's role within the family. These particular core theories were chosen because, despite their different perspectives, they recognised this influential relationship and incorporated it's significance into the body of the theory.

CHAPTER THREE

3.0. THE SOCIAL EFFECTS OF THE FATHER'S ROLE

3.1.

RESEARCH ON THE ROLE OF THE FATHER

While it is important to understand the various theoretical perspectives that trace human development, presented in the previous chapter, it is also necessary to examine the traditional beliefs that constitute western middle-class perceptions of the role of the father.

Margaret Mead (1949) once stated that "fathers are a biological necessity, but a social accident" (quoted by Parke, 1981; p 17).

Similar cynical comments reflect an attitude during the decades preceeding 1970, which confined the father to a role of family breadwinner, a distant model for their children and a remote material support for their wives. The father was presented as a passive observer in the rearing of children, giving credence to Mead's (1949) picture of a "social accident" (Parke, 1981). Parke (1981) goes on to debate whether this stereotype ever existed as a societal norm in a large proportion of the population and states that although the father's role is usually conceived as that of the provider, instrumental, male parent, he fulfills many other roles as well.

Most studies have examined the father's effectiveness as a role model of masculinity, career committment or achievement orientation, but there is in fact no single model for a "father". The rapid economic and ideological changes taking place in society today are forcing a redefinition of the father's role (Lamb, 1979).

The psychoanalytically oriented researchers such as Burlingham (1975), Forrest (1966, 1967), Layland (1981) and Lynn (1974) have been largely concerned with the child's internal experience of the father. They believe that the importance of the father's role rests in his unique ability to provide paternal supplies for the child. Forrest (1966, 1967) suggests that interaction with a concerned involved father enables the child to differentiate other people as to sex and role and to realise his consequent relationship to them. Forrest (1966, 1967) believes the father's role provides the child with direction, judgement and the capacity to either accept gratification or frustration and also to deal with the satisfaction or demands that others require. She hypothesises that without the necessary paternal interpersonal experience there will be a negative impact on the child's personality and character, leaving the child vulnerable and without the skills to deal with his world.

Layland (1981) indicates that the way a child gradually experiences his father is largely a function of the father's response to his child, combined with memories of his own early experience with his own father. Layland (1981) calls this "the capacity to be a loving father" and states that most individuals search for this loving father during their development and maintain a fantasy of this as a desired paternal role throughout life. If the father's role as someone completely different to the mother is not acknowledged, the child's right to experience him as a significant other is denied.

Lynn (1974) added a further dimension to the role of the father. He states that children feel safe under the father's protection and even as adults, although the individual feels stronger, there is still the unconscious belief that life events are greater than himself and he remains fundamentally as helpless and unprotected as if he were a child. The yearning for this protective father (Lynn, 1974) confirms Freud's (1924) view that adults seek the protection of a strong leader (or God) in the same way that children need a strong father, even while resenting the rules and regulations they impose. The father's role is symbolic of the principles, the values and the authority of society (Lynn, 1974).

The therapists such as Parsons (1958) or Lederer (1964) placed the emphasis on the social role of the father. Parsons (1958) perceived the father as society's representative in the family and the family's representative in society. He postulated that the father's primary role is to pry the child loose from the mother by exerting his discipline and control. Parsons (1958) was the therapist who first differentiated between the father's instrumental role and the mother's expressive one. Lederer (1964), in an observation on the instrumental/expressive dichotomy, believed that the parents occupy very different roles in the child's view of the parental dyad. He maintains that fathers and mothers stand for two different modes of loving. The mother's love is perceived as unconditional upon performance and she belongs to the individual, while the father's position makes him the mediator between the family and society and his approval and love is seen as conditional upon meeting external demands. It is generally acknowledged that the acquisition of behaviours such as dominance/submission, warmth/distance and other responses that are

influenced by identification, are determined by the child's perception of the parent's role behaviour. Therefore, if the instrumental/expressive dichotomy is rigidly upheld then the child will have an inflexible view of male/female role behaviour.

3.1.1.

CONCLUSION

From the above discussion it can be seen that even though the father's role within the family is supposedly changing, there is still a fundamental position that he occupies. The changes in role are more to do with the degree of father's participation in child rearing activities and attitudes towards the child, rather than the view society holds as to what constitutes the ideal paternal role.

3.2.

THE EFFECTS OF A REJECTING FATHER

In studies of families with emotionally disturbed children it has been shown that paternal attitudes are as important as those of the mother in influencing the child (Brook, Whiteman, Gordon & Brook, 1983). It appears that the children with emotional or conduct disorders often have fathers who are emotionally distant, who show inadequate

concern for the family, are poor enforcers of discipline and who are often overbearing and domineering towards their wives and children (Plotsky & Shereshefsky, 1960). These types of fathers instil and reinforce a child's negative self regard, which has far reaching effects on their outlook on life. Ingham (1984) comments that despite the increased emphasis on "good" fathering, men's limited understanding of the fathering role may be something which has been re--inforced from a very, interaction with their own fathers.

If the father adopts this stance, lack of real interaction with his child is experienced as rejection. *This rejecting* father becomes a symbol for a cold, alien world, where the child feels ineffectual and isolated, and where the only familiar situation is a *symbiotic union with the mother.* As the child's awareness of his alienation from his father increases he resorts to frustration and rage and his world becomes hostile and *unmanageable. He longs for his father's* recognition, rages at his rejection and clings to his mother in defiance and despair. Without contact with his father *the child loses the experience of* active mastery and oscillates between impulses of passive surrender or aggressive domination. The absence of the father leaves him alone to aimlessly observe the outside world, alternating between states of boredom and confusion. He can then only be satisfied by egocentric pleasure (Forrest, 1966, 1967; Layland, 1981; Ross, 1977). The lack of paternal limits prevents him from coming into contact with an authority figure who formulates and implements rules of conduct and he remains at the mercy of his own impulses. Deprived of a role model, he lacks foundations for later standards and he is left confused about the role of men, who and what they represent. Without the impact of a father the child is unable to feel separate from the mother, or maintain an identity for himself. The father and the external world are perceived as threatening rivals and men become the

source of guilt and resentment (Forrest, 1966, 1967; Layland, 1981; Lynn, 1974). In order for the child to interact with a familiar world it must fit his experience of either union and preoccupation with mother or alienation and abandonment from father. If significant others do not care for, adulate and control the child (like mother) they are then experienced as indifferent, rejecting and unavailable (like father). The child believes that in order not to be ignored and isolated, he must be engulfed, and then reacts with rage, despair and helplessness. He lives with a fantasy of reunion, has no integrated self concept or real gender identity and is left with a hatred for both the powerful mother and the abandoning father (Forrest, 1966, 1967; Layland, 1981). Without the father's active involvement the child cannot gain independence and autonomy.

Although the above theory applies mainly to male children, much of it is also applicable to female children. Whereas in boys the negative effects are noticeable early in life (Lamb, 1979), frequently these effects are not manifested until adolescence in girls. When the father does not assume an active part in the girl's life there seems to be an equal maladjustment with the female role, as well as difficulties in interaction with males. Forrest (1966) suggests that the girl needs the impact of the masculine touch, sound, strength and tenderness if she is to develop basic trust and security in a man and in herself in relation to a man. A competent, participating and masculine father who confirms her desirability as a female and affirms her value as a separate person, opens up the mother-daughter dyad to the possibility of pleasure from some other relationship (Biller & Wess, 1970; Forrest, 1966; Fromme, 1956). An effective father also gives her a sense of her own sexual identity, an integrated perception of herself as a female and a broader understanding of male needs, values and behaviour.

However, what if the father is unable to confront the outside world effectively? Because most of the above theories demonstrate that the father is the parent who symbolises the authority of society, the consequences for failure of the father's potency and the deterioration of his role can be detrimental to the emotional health of his children. Fromm (1971) states that resistance to patriarchal authority *seems to be eroding* paternal authority and the paternal image. This is probably true, and, according to Lynn (1974) there are a number of reasons for this. This thesis hypothesises a further dimension. It contends that the father's own intrapsychic development contributes largely to the effectiveness or otherwise of the father's role.

In selecting the experimental subjects for this study, a clinic population was used because many of the children seen in the clinic showed a fair proportion of the above symptoms associated with inadequate fathering.

3.3.

REASONS FOR THE DETERIORATION IN THE FATHER'S ROLE

Lynn (1974) examined the reasons why the father's role is being undermined, and according to him the following points are of major significance.

3.3.1.

DETACHMENT DUE TO WORK

Masculine and feminine role expectation seems to be related to the status of the father's work and it seems that often there is a separation of roles for many males and females in relation to work and home (Tognoli, 1979). Contributing to the perception of role differentiation are child rearing practises which are related to socio-economic status and the frustrations and demands of the job (Lynn, 1974). It appears that traditionally middle-class fathers encourage self direction, while working class fathers demand obedience (Hoffman, 1977). Compared with high status fathers, the working man often lacks interest, knowledge and means to encourage his children either in personal situations or academically (Hood & Golden, 1979, Radin, 1973). Children are more often regarded as the wife's responsibility and the working class father is less likely to spend time with the child or participate in child care. He is frequently domineering and punitive in attitude. By contrast the professional/executive father may have the understanding of the father's role, but may be detached and unavailable due to the pressure of work. During early childhood the working class father's activities are deemed more desirable by his children, but there is a reversal as the child grows older, when executive/professional status becomes more appealing. Although the working class man's socio-economic status may limit his life style, it supposedly allows more free time that could be devoted to the family. However this is not always the case and at any work level men may let their jobs separate them from their role of father (Colman & Colman, 1981; Lynn, 1984; Tognoli, 1979).

3.3.2.

FRAGMENTATION OF THE FAMILY DUE TO SEPARATE INTERESTS

The father's role has also been undermined by the disparate interests of different family members. Peer pressure, community demands and leisure activities may leave little time for family interaction and thus weaken the role of the father. Where there is a sense of unity in the family these diverse interests can increase the richness of family life, but where they threaten the father's status and control they reduce his effectiveness as a parent (Lynn, 1974).

3.3.3.

KNOWLEDGE EXPLOSION AND RAPIDITY OF CHANGE

The recent growth of knowledge has been so rapid that even the most academic of men cannot stay abreast of their children. This ignorance undermines the traditional role of the father as a source of information in the family and leaves him feeling insecure and vulnerable in his parental role. Often the child perceives peers as more acceptable and when the child scorns the achievements of the father, or rejects his way of life, his work ethic and his educational status the father/child relationship suffers dramatically (Beail & McGuire, 1982; Daum & Bieliaskas, 1983; Lamb, 1979; Lynn, 1974).

3.3.4.

CHANGING NATURE OF SEX ROLES

There has been a marked shift in the nature of sex roles in society. The rise in women's demands for fulfillment and equality, exacerbated by the women's movement, has caused a loss in men's self-esteem and often a pervading sense of failure. No more is he regarded as the dominant partner and, although the push towards more equal partnership will probably achieve a better quality in male/female relationships, those men in transition between the traditional and new value systems may continue to feel threatened and insecure in their roles (Bem, 1974; Levinson, 1978; Spence, Helmreich & Holahan, 1979).

3.3.5.

DIVORCE

There has been a marked increase in the instability of society as a whole over the last few decades. Friendships, neighbourhoods, countries and beliefs are abandoned as people and families move around seeking vocational advancement and/or political stability. Impermanence has become a way of life and people are becoming innured to change and transience. Marriage is just another area of

life which is perceived as unstable. Coupled with the growing attitude that an emotionally and sexually unfulfilled relationship need not be maintained, divorce is seen as an alternative, which increases the feeling of impermanence (Hetherington, 1981; Jacobs, 1982; Lamb, 1982; Lynn, 1974; Rapoport & Rapoport, 1977).

Divorce separates the child from his father to a varying degree. Whatever the real cause, the child often feels responsible for the breakup, angry with and rejected by one or both parents. The father is frequently resentful over maintenance payments, is guilty over his remarriage, angry with his wife's remarriage, conflicted about his relationship with step children and his weekend status with his own children. These difficulties all serve to complicate his view of his paternal role (Jacobs, 1982, 1983; Henderson, 1981; Hetherington, 1981; Lamb, 1982; Lynn, 1974).

3.4.

CONCLUSION

Once again it needs to be reiterated that although there are many reasons to explain the shift in attitude to the father's role, the way he copes with these changes must in large part be influenced by his own developmental status and intrapsychic capacity to deal with his external environment.

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0. THE FATHER'S ROLE IN CHILD DEVELOPMENT

4.1.

INTRODUCTION

It is the purpose of this study to examine the father's personality and development in relation to his child. In order to arrive at some conclusions it is important to study what effect the father has on the child's emotional development in many areas. The major portion of the literature on fathering, as has been previously stated, is devoted to research in many different areas and the following chapters will present a review of some of the more important research to date.

The aim of this review is to show how research has concentrated on the father-child relationship. It bears *repeating, as McKee & O'Brien (1982) state, that it is not* enough for research to turn from mother to father. Men as parents are often presented as alternative mothers and little of the past research rises above comparisons of the behaviour between men and women with their children. In order to understand and appreciate the diversity and complexity of fatherhood many more areas need research, particularly that of the fathers' personality and developmental contributions.

This thesis contends that it is important to understand the role the father plays in child development so that when assessing the fathers in this study one has a comprehensive and appropriate template against which they can be measured.

4.2.

THE EFFECT OF FATHER ABSENCE ON THE CHILD'S DEVELOPMENT

By far the most frequented design for research into paternal influences on the child's development is that which compares children reared in father-absent homes with those reared in father-present homes. Differences between children developing in father-present vis-a-vis father-absent homes have been extensively studied and many of these studies have found that the presence or absence of the father is often associated with different developmental consequences. These differences are then interpreted as being due to the father's unavailability as an influential and/or an identification figure (Pedersen, 1976). Several studies have indicated that father absence significantly affects the children's development in many different areas. Academic achievement (Blanchard and Biller,1971; Radin, 1973),cognitive ability (Carlsmith, 1964; Shinn,1978), sex-role identification (Biller, 1968; Hetherington,1966), conscience and moral development (Hoffman,1971) and finally personality development (Biller,1970; Hetherington,1972; Leonard, 1966) have been the primary areas of focus.

The studies on father-absence are certainly important and have their place in the body of work, but there is also another point of view. Although it seems obvious to assume that there must be differences between father-absent and father-present homes Pedersen (1976) maintains that only a portion of this actually involves the father-child relationship. Pedersen (1976) states that a "deficit-oriented" approach to research into the family does not present the entire picture and the father-absent model cannot assess the father's influence on the relationship any more than the "maternal-deprivation" model can tell about the normal mother-child relationship.

Herzog & Sudia (1973) also sound a note of warning not to overgeneralise from research into father-absent families and have provided valuable criticism, urging researchers to attend to and understand the larger social context in which development occurs. They contend that often the causative agents that give rise to behavioural difficulties or inadequate development are as likely to be found in the wider environment associated with father-absence than with the absence per se.

Lamb (1979) states that

> "the single most important reason for failure to progress further in understanding the nature of paternal influences on child development is that researchers have regarded relationships as if they were static entities....it is obvious that the effects of a father leaving a family will be markedly different depending on the nature of the preceeding relationship between father and mother and father and child. Researchers need

> to recognise the multiple determinants of father-absent families."
>
> (American Psychologist,1979; p.940).

In the words of Pedersen (1976) and Herzog & Sudia (1973)

> "there are many factors which operate either singly or in concert with each other allowing no absolute possibility for delineating "true" causal agents on the child's development".
>
> (Family Coordinator, October 1976; p.460).

4.2.1

TYPES OF FATHER-ABSENCE

Herzog & Sudia (1973) suggest that father-absence can be viewed on a continuum which ranges from temporary absence of weeks, months or years (e,g, prison, war, work) to permanent absence due to divorce or death. It may occur once a lifetime, regularly or sporadically. Any degree of absence is represented on this continuum. In fact Bronfenbrenner (1961;1979) includes under temporary absence the frequent need of the father to be away over the dinner hour. Likewise there are also degrees of presence. Some fathers who are required to be away a good deal try and make up for it by shared activity with their children when they are at home. Others leave the child rearing strictly to the mother.

Still others who are often at home have little interaction with their children during this time. In most of the studies father-absence is researched in terms of it's effect on the child, but there are almost no studies related to the quality of time spent with the child when the father is actually present. And in the light of this thesis there are no studies that research the father's capacity for spending time with his children within the framework of his own developmental level or personality traits.

According to Pedersen (1976) the various theoretical models conceptualising paternal influences are severely hampered by the lack of consistency. Within the psychoanalytic framework the father receives little attention before the onset of the Oedipal period. On the other hand, sociological theory has not paid sufficient attention to the early environmental influences. Moreover, it's fundamental division of the parental roles into primarily instrumental for father and expressive for mother has probably been one of the most potent contributors to the exclusion of the father from being seen as a nurturant figure.

If one examines Pedersen's (1976) hypotheses in terms of this thesis it seems clear that they support the basic premise. According to him the focus of research must shift from broad concepts such as maternal or paternal deprivation *to a clearer and more specific focus, one which differentiates* the more subtle, intra-psychic underlying factors and their selective effects on development.

Pedersen (1976) concludes that father-absent research has outlived it's time. He maintains that even if the father is absent from his children during early childhood, his presence during infancy will have made enough of an impact to be an important and ongoing influence during the course of

life. The process of the post-Oedipal identification does not arise out of a vacuum. It is likely that many of the precursors of identification begin with much earlier interactions. This present study maintains that the father's early development, his own early experiences and his subsequent personality traits are a major influence on his child's development, whether he is a constant figure in the child's life or whether he is physically absent from it.

Sears (1975) showed that up to age of three temporary father absence has little effect on his child, but by five boys, as opposed to girls or children from father-present homes showed a distinct pattern of aggression. It appears that father-absence delays development rather than alters it. This researcher maintains that the father's level of ego development will be a pervasive influence on his child's emotional health, even if he is absent from the child's daily life. In fact this factor must be an important issue that contributes to the reasons for his absence in the first instance.

Biller (1970) confirms this. He maintains that father-absence is not the only factor to study, but also the personality characteristics of the present-father and his ability to interact with his child. Biller (1970) states that studies comparing children with ineffectual, inadequate fathers, *to those children with absent fathers are needed.* According to Biller(1970) it seems that boys are more affected than girls by an absent father, but further research is needed into this.

4.2.2.

THE DIFFERING EFFECT OF FATHER ABSENCE ON BOYS OR GIRLS.

Among the disadvantages of fatherless homes is the difficulty of young children to develop an adequate sex-role concept and identity. The lack of a resident father means the loss of an effective masculine role model and source of identity as well as the overwhelming presence of a feminine model as a source of identification.

With regard to boys, many writers have suggested that the primary effects of father-absence are manifested in terms of deficits and/or abnormalities in the boy's sex role development (Biller & Borstelman, 1967; Nash,1965). According to the theories of identification the boy learns to be masculine by identifying with the father and imitating his behaviour (Bandura & Walters, 1963; Biller & Borstelman, 1967; Bronfenbrenner, 1960).Studies have consistently shown that boys, mainly in the 3-11 year age group, whose fathers were absent either permanently (divorce, death, desertion), or temporarily (war, kibbutz-like rearing, work) are far less masculine than those boys from father-present families (Biller,1968a; Carlsmith, 1964; Hetherington,1966; Money,1965). Biller (1970) suggests that boys in father absent homes may also be less secure in their peer relationships because they lack the security of a masculine presence. It appears that the fatherless boy has great difficulty in learning how to delay gratification and control his needs and destructive impulses.One can therefore speculate that the father-absent boy will find it

difficult to persist in frustrating situations and to meet long term responsibilities (Biller,1970).This must inevitably affect his own capacity to father when this becomes appropriate.

However, Herzog & Sudia (1973) in their comprehensive review state that there is no clear cut and conclusive answer to the question of masculine identity either in father-absent or father-present homes. They claim that the evidence is too fragmentary and ambiguous to offer any firm conclusions and one cannot assume that boys who grow up without a father are more likely as men to suffer from an inadequate masculine identity. If all present-fathers were model fathers the results would have greater clarity. Some homes are broken because the father is unable to meet his role requirements, and some fathers who remain in the home are of dubious benefit to their children (Biller,1970;Herzog & Sudia, 1974).

In the case of girl children, in the early years there do not seem to be any gross effects of father-absence except in some instances where there appears to be a greater degree of dependency (Hetherington, 1972). Hetherington (1972) maintains that the main effects of father separation are observed in adolescent girls and manifest primarily as an inability to interact appropriately with males. Even though father-absence seems to increase dependency in girls, this is not really seen as undesirable behaviour as it is viewed as a socially appropriate feminine attribute.

Psychoanalytic theorists such as Neubauer(1960) and Leonard (1966) disagree with this view. They maintain that Freud (1932) assumed the presence and active participation of the girl's father, and that this availability is of particular importance during the Oedipal phase and also at the time of

pre- and early adolescence. Neubauer (1960) states that when a parent is absent there is no object with whom the girl can resolve all the complexities of the oedipal period, and that there is an absence of Oedipal reality. Both parents are required to stimulate this working through. If one parent is unavailable a fantasy object replaces the absent parent and is often either over idealised or imbued with punitive attributes. Leonard (1966) goes on to say that when a father holds himself aloof there is little opportunity during daily activity to compare and test out this fantasy with the real person. Consistent lack of attention seems to suggest rejection for the daughter and the subsequent loss of self esteem. If the girl is ignored by her father she does not develop the need to relinquish her pre-Oedipal attachment to her mother; and if there is no age-appropriate resolution of her Oedipal struggle, the onset of adolescence is often stormy and overwhelming (Blos,1962).

In other instances, the father who cannot accept his daughter's femaleness may instigate a fixation at the phallic "boy-like" phase characterised by tomboy behaviour. This masculine-identified girl has to introject the father's image as a way of securing attention from both parents:- she retains her mother's love by being like father, and by becoming the boy that father was or wished for, is loved by him as well (Leonard, 1966).

A participating, available father is essential to his daughter's psychosexual development. If he is not present, Leonard (1966) maintains that girls provide themselves with a fantasy relationship to a father image which can persist into adulthood. This reaction occurs whether the father is absent due to death or divorce, or if he holds himself away from her as a defense against his own impulses and intra-psychic difficulties.

It seems that Leonard's (1966) theoretical view underlines the basic tenet of this thesis....
that the father's personality and ego level will effect his child's development. She states it thus:

> " we can say that a fixation or regression in the father's own libidinal development was apparently used as a defense .....the father (for some reason) could not permit the Oedipal relationship to develop, so his daughter remained fixated at, or regressed to, a pre-Oedipal level.....thus neurosis in the parent is perpetuated in the child".
> (Leonard,1966; pg.332).

4.2.3.

CONCLUSION

Biller (1970), Hetherington (1972), Lamb (1976) and Pedersen (1976) have all researched this topic. It is inappropriate to present their studies in greater detail here. Suffice it to say that they conclude that many questions remain unclear and that much further research is needed before there is a body of conclusive theory that can be generalised to the population at large. Pedersen (1976) cautions that although it is easy to build an image of the nurturing father who copes with work and family demands, and who supports his wife in her maternal and personal roles, while at the same time having a clear sense of his own paternal role, it is important to take heed of the idiosyncratic needs and values which

prevail in different families. High father involvement may not always be the desired norm. In some families this may be threatening to the mother and undermine her feelings of competence. In others there may be economic and/or political/cultural pressures which preclude variations of the paternal role. There can still be well functioning, but qualitatively different family organisation. Research still has to address these idiosyncratic differences.

In terms of the present thesis one of the selection criteria was the presence of the father in the family home. Although both aspects of past research are valid, father-presence or absence still remains a contentious issue. This researcher maintains that the father's availablity for day-to-day interaction as well as his active participation in the relationship with his child are important components in the child's development. And the major factor is not whether he is present or absent in the home, but whether his own level of emotional development allows him to interact as a mature man and as a concerned parent.

4.3.

THE ROLE OF THE FATHER IN RELATION TO SEX ROLE DEVELOPMENT

4.3.1.

THE PATERNAL INFLUENCE ON MASCULINITY AND FEMININTY

Angrilli (1960) stated that the social, economic and interpersonal structure of most societies is based on the fundamental difference between the concepts of masculinity and femininity. According to Bronfenbrenner (1961) parental behaviours are differentiated not only by socio-economic status, but also by gender. Unger (1979) defined gender as those non-physical components of sex that are culturally regarded as appropriate to males and females. Gender includes both attributions made by others and assumptions and suppositions made by the individual himself as regards his own gender identity, and is probably a more important predictor of behaviour than is the biological sex of the person. Many sex differences may really be gender differences (Unger, 1979).

Psycho-sexual development is usually seen in the theoretical context of identification theory. Most theories of identification agree that identification is based on the processes whereby the child, through imitation, modelling or introjection, acquires traits, characteristics and values

similar to those of the parents (Angrilli, 1960; Hetherington, 1965). There is also the suggestion that subtle and unconscious attitudes of the parents regarding their own sex roles are more crucially significant factors influencing the child than are their outwardly expressed behaviours. Children who show strong acceptance of their gender identification probably have parents who show a strong acceptance of their respective roles and those children who reject their masculine/feminine feelings probably have parents who are unsure of their sex roles (Angrilli, 1960).

However Bronfenbrenner (1960) has suggested that even though this is true it is not the only truth. He says that it is the child's interpretation of what he sees rather than the actual behaviour of the parent that is the determining factor. The child identifies with many others and siblings, peers, teachers and popular cultural stereotypes are also a source of identification. But the parent provides the major source and it is rather how he interacts with the child than his actual strength of masculinity that is important. Thus the father's impact occurs at an emotional level rather than at purely sex-typed behavioural level.

No matter what theoretical stance is accepted, common to all identification theories is the belief that the child shifts identification from mother to father, thus according the father a central role in sex role development. If the father is unavailable the child remains mother dominated and mother identified and never develops the ability to relate effectively to either his own masculinity or other men (Bronfenbrenner, 1960).

According to Lynn (1974) sex role development occurs as the result of a number of interactive forces and although these

are valid, it must be remembered that there are idiosyncratic differences within families and cultures.

4.3.1.1.

The biological potential that predisposes males and females toward a particular behaviour. Aggresiveness in males is thought to have a biological component (Mitchell, 1965) although Bandura & Walters (1963) have shown that it is also learnt behaviour as a result of modelling and identification with a significant model such as the father.

4.3.1.2.

An inherent family interactional pattern that maintains learnt sex role behaviours and fosters certain child-parent relationships and child rearing attitudes. For example a father can be very expressive towards his daughter and encourage her clinging, flirtatious behaviour, while he may be aggressive, demanding and authoritatian towards his son. This type of pattern is usually learnt from his experience with his own father.

4.3.1.3.

Overt and subtle cultural reinforcement of traditional male-female role prescriptions. Most cultures, according to Lynn (1974) reinforce females in nurturant, dependent, obedient and home-orientated roles and discourage the type of aggressive behaviour that in males would be tolerated and even revered.

With an increase in research into sex role typing, and the concept of androgyny gaining credence from the work of Bem (1974), Spence, Helmreich (1979) and Spence, Helmreich & Holahan (1979), the traditional view of masculine and feminine roles is undergoing an ideological shift. Traditional definitions of sex role tend to be limiting, restrictive and rigid, but there is an increasing realisation that different concepts of masculinity or femininitty, be they traditional or non-traditional, will continue to influence, direct and control personality and behaviour (Biller, 1969,1976; Lamb,1977; Lynn, 1974).

4.3.2.

THE INFLUENCE OF FATHER'S WORK ON SEX TYPING

Lynn (1974) comments that a child's development of male or female characteristics seems in some way to be related to the father's work status. The status of work helps determine whether the children cling to narrow, masculine or feminine definitions when they begin to differentiate themselves according to gender. It has been discussed earlier that in contrast to the professional/executive father, the working class father presents a much more clearly defined model of masculinity. He is more likely to value a traditional male trait of aggression as positive than the professional counterpart. The executive presents his m[illegible]s differently. The working class father is often very [illegible]d in his attitude to his daughter and is punitive [illegible]strictive if she does not conform to traditional female [illegible]aviour.

High status fathers tend to be far less narrow but they do tend to interact in a flirtatious manner which reinforces coquettish, seductive behaviour. Both these work statuses give rise to their own rigid sex-typed influences on male and female children.

4.3.3.

DIFFERENCES IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FATHERS/SONS AND FATHERS/DAUGHTERS

There is repeated evidence in the literature that suggests that fathers treat girls and boys differently, giving girls more attention and affection and boys more discipline (Bronfenbrenner, 1961; Lynn, 1974). While Hoffman (1977) states that differential treatment is often subtle and that the parents may not be aware of it, Block (1976) maintains that parents have different goals for male or female children. Parke & O'Leary (1976) have shown that fathers' play patterns are influenced by the sex of the child. It seems as though girls are perceived as more fragile than boys and that boys are encouraged to display greater independence and to explore the environment with greater freedom (Pedersen & Robson, 1969). Such patterns of autonomy can be pervasive in the future development of sex typed behaviour and will certainly influence the child's coping skills. These role prescriptions have been severely criticised by the androgyny researchers, but Heilbrun (1965) has shown that males and females who are identified in a modelling sense with a strongly masculine (instrumental) father show enhanced masculinity and femininty. Spence, Helmreich & Holahan (1979) maintain that appropriate sex

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typing has beneficial consequences for the individual, in that masculine men and feminine women exhibit a higher degree of social adjustment and psychological health than those who deviate from traditional behaviour patterns and psychological characteristics.

4.4.

THE FATHER'S EFFECT ON COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT

Biller & Blanchard (1971), Carlsmith (1964), Lynn (1974) and Radin (1973) are some of the theorists who have investigated the father's effect on his child's cognitive ability. It appears that paternal nurturance and warmth, his involvement or lack thereof, his availability or absence and his own intellectual achievement are the salient factors that influence the child's intellectual capacity. Lynn (1974) comments that fathers generally seem to be more concerned with their sons intellectual achievement than that of their daughters and in traditional families may perceive academic ability as masculine, not feminine. This attitude can certainly retard the girl's intellectual and academic development. However, Lynn (1974) goes on to say that a girl is more likely to model her parents directly and if her father sets up a relationship whereby she can model his intellectual ability he can enhance her cognitive achievements.

Radin's (1973) research showed that paternal nurturance and warmth seems to foster identification with the father. Thus the child begins to incorporate the father's values and ideas into his thinking, to imitate his behaviours, especially

those related to problem-solving and mastery of the environment. The child is encouraged to interact with his environment and to find this rewarding, thereby facilitating exploratory behaviour and cognitive awareness. Paternal restrictiveness seems to interfere with this identification process and consequently with the child's intellectual functioning. A restrictive father disinclines the child to interact with the environment through fear of his surroundings, and his intellectual curiosity and growth seem to be hindered. The father's aversive behaviour blocks the child's desire to explore and discover his world and has a real limiting effect on his cognitive awareness.

However, Lynn (1974), Radin (1973) and Svanum, Bringle and McLaughlin (1982) all sound words of caution. It appears that the socio-economic level of the father has the strongest relationship to intellectual development. Of all factors studied this seems to be the most indicative of intellectual growth or lack of it. Svanum et al (1982) maintain that neither father-absence (as suggested by Herzog and Sudia, 1973 and Shinn, 1978) nor the level of paternal education (as researched by Lynn, 1974) affect cognitive performance to any significant degree. If the absent father creates economic hardship and reduces the family's socio-economic level this will be of greater significance than the father's absence per se. Similarly, with paternal education level, the socio-economic standing of the family is a more important indicator. Lynn (1974) maintains that in fact, the education level of the mother is a greater predictor of scholastic achievement than that of the father. Repucci (1971) showed that educational level of the parents was positively related to superior performance for girls, but was insignificant for boys. He maintains that the father's educational level does influence his daughter's cognitive ability and has no effect on his sons. But even these findings do not really suggest that anything other than the socio-economic level has any real effect.

4.5.

THE EFFECT OF THE FATHER ON MORAL DEVELOPMENT

Morality, according to Lynn (1974), generally refers to the individual's

** ability to make moral judgments against some known standard

** resistance to temptation

** sense of guilt or remorse after having transgressed

** capacity to perceive and confess misdeeds

In order to make a moral judgment the person must have incorporated some inner standards that are meaningful to him and must also have the cognitive capability and the capacity for abstract thought. However, having the cognitive ability to make high-level moral judgments does not necessarily imply a high moral standard, as the capacity to resist temptation and experience guilt when the rules are transgressed is the most important component of morality and often depends on the person's experience in his family of origin.

The father's special role in moral development is suggested in both Parsonian theory and Freudian theory. From Parsons' view, the father is the instrumental parent who brings society's normative standards into the family; while the Freudian view suggests that by identifying with the father,

who is incorporated as the controlling superego, the child acquires the motivation and control needed to adhere to societal standards.

There are many diverse opinions as to what prompts the internalisation of standards. Hoffman (1975) maintains that the discipline that the child encounters when faced with either expressing or controlling his impulses and desires is one of the deciding factors. All discipline techniques communicate the parent's desire for behavioural change and thus put pressure on the child to comply. Hoffman (1975) suggests that moral internalisation often resembles the characteristic of compliance and compliance is apt to become a personality characteristic arising out of parental discipline techniques. With increasing internalisation certain inappropriate behaviours could be expected to diminish, resulting in a lessening of the need to discipline the child. New situations for discipline constantly arise and if the parenting has been consistent and reasonable the ideal of self discipline without the need for external force can be attained.

Lynn (1974) comments on the father's child-rearing approach and maintains that if the father is extremely harsh he not only promotes resistance to temptation but also increases the child's rigidity. If the father exerts too much pressure on the child, it can decrease moral behaviour, often seen in children who cheat in order to avoid father's displeasure. Children who observe the father's avoidance of moral behaviour when also faced with a pressured situation, even though he pays lip service to moral standards, are doubly vulnerable to being unable to resist temptation.Too much parental control inhibits a child's moral judgment and if the father is perceived as over-dominant it can lead to a rejection of moral standards.

Kohlberg's (1969) hypothesis stresses his belief that moral internalisation results from exposure to levels of moral reasoning that are higher than the child's current level of cognitive functioning. But Hoffman (1975) argues with this theory and states that it does not explain how a child subordinates his hedonistic impulses in favour of moral choices. He maintains that even if the child is influenced by ever increasing levels of reasoning, ultimately the parent uses some form of discipline to enforce appropriate standards. Kohlberg (1966) also maintains that moral judgment is enhanced if the father encourages the child to participate in family discussion and decision making. His position states that moral development is promoted when moral conflicts are openly examined and negotiated and that the highest level of moral judgment attained is in circumstances where there is moderate conflict with the father.

In most of the studies devoted to the development of moral judgment it appears that the father plays a crucial role. Hoffman (1971) and Lynn maintain that the father's lack of availability during childhood, whether he is absent or non-participant, influences the child's moral development negatively. The father is the parent who teaches the child to either inhibit or express aggression. It is his modelling or punitive behaviour that is the critical factor.It is his influence that determines subsequent delinquent behaviour. Clinical experience shows that the yearning for a strong father (Layland, 1980) can precipitate all manner of unacceptable behaviour and acting out.

4.6.

CONCLUSION

In the above chapter the evidence leads to the conclusion that the father's presence or absence in the family is crucial to sex role, cognitive and moral development.

It is this evidence that supports using Loevinger's ego identity scale. She includes interpersonal style, cognition and moral development as indicators of the level of ego development and thus, as significant factors in th[illegible] v of adult development. The present study contend[illegible] in order for the father to parent effectively he must only have the ego strength, but must also have the cognitive capacity and maturity to recognise his contribution to his child's emotional development.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0. PSYCHOLOGICAL VARIABLES UNDER INVESTIGATION

EGO DEVELOPMENT AND THE CONCEPT OF THE SELF

The theory described in the previous chapters gave rise to the variables used in this study and the psychological variables will be described in this chapter. It is necessary to explore the concept of the self and how this relates to ego development since this is the central theme of the study and forms the major hypothetical proposition for this research into developmental and personality characteristics of fathers.

5.1.

EGO DEVELOPMENT

Loevinger's (1966, 1976) ego identity was the concept that provided a cohesive theme amongst all the other variables. Under this umbrella the concepts of self esteem, interpersonal relating and role definition were incorporated. The major theoretical construct remained the father's level of ego development. However, it can be stated unequivocably that the theory shows that his self concept, with particular emphasis on self esteem, his interpersonal relating and his perception of his role as a father are all important factors that exist interdependently.

Loevinger (1976) defines ego identity (based on Erikson's (1956) terms) as a combination of personality development, development of intellect, character, interpersonal relations and especially, (using Sullivan's (1953) concept), the development of the self system. When the appropriate transition from one level to the next fails to occur, the person will inevitably meet the problems of later periods with one or another type of immaturity (Loevinger, 1976). The major principle of ego development, according to Erikson (1956) and Loevinger (1976) is the idea that the child becomes internally differentiated as a means of mastering loss or frustration in his relations with significant others. Ego Identity (Erikson, 1956; Loevinger, 1976) is an evolving construct, sometimes referring to the person's conscious sense of individual identity, sometimes to an unconscious striving for continuity of personal characteristics. It takes place first by the process of introjection and projection, then by identification and finally by identity formation. The introjection of parental demands and values in early childhood and the identifications of later childhood and adolescence do not add up to mature identity. This must be resolved by each individual for himself in his relation to others, the way he incorporates how he is seen by others and by his mastery of his social and work environment.

As stated previously in chapter three, Loevinger's (1966, 1976) theory of ego development centres on sequential stage development with phase specific tasks to be accomplished in each stage. If these developmental tasks are not negotiated smoothly the individual can be fixated at a particular stage of ego development and may not develop beyond that stage. Among adults there are representatives of each stage who can be characterised in terms of the features specific to the stage at which they are fixated.

It is this premise that underlies the hypothesis of this study, namely that fathers who have not reached a fairly mature level of ego development will not be able to parent adequately.

5.1.2.

CONCLUSIONS

What changes during the course of ego development is a complex, interwoven fabric of impulse control, character traits, interpersonal relations, conscious preoccupations and cognitive complexity. Although presented as four different dimensions it is really a coherent process and the process unfolds sequentially throughout the life cycle. This process can be interrupted for any number of reasons at any point during the cycle. The consequence of this interruption is a character style that corresponds with the level of interruption. However, growth does not proceed in a straight line from low to high. Nor does it necessarily mean that the lower levels are always maladapted. All stages are important aspects of life and each opens new possibilities for growth. It is when the character structure at a fixated point prevents the individual from functioning adequately that the issue of ego level is of major significance (Hauser,1976; Hoppe,1972; Loevinger, 1976; Loevinger & Wessler, 1970; Sullivan, Grant & Grant, 1975).

5.2.

THE CONCEPT OF THE SELF

Maslow (1954) formulated a hierarchy of human needs in which the individual's sense of self esteem ranked high in the scheme. The commonly held view is that self-esteem is a pre-condition of "becoming"- that is, a growth towards self actualisation. Self esteem is said to be a universal requirement for positive improvements in other areas of the individual's personality.

There are many related terms which refer to the concept of the self and Rosenberg (1979) has defined these in detail. Lack of space and relevance make it inappropriate to repeat these definitions here. In sum, Rosenberg (1979) defines self-concept as the totality of the individual's thoughts and feelings with reference to himself as object. The self-concept is an object of perceptions and reflection and the subsequent emotional responses to those perceptions and reflections. The self-concept is an organisation of parts, pieces and components that are hierarchically organised and interrelated in many subtle ways. It is a product of development and is built up gradually out of social experience during the course of maturation. Rosenberg (1979) comments that there is a conspicuous lack of information on development after the early childhood years, lending credence to this thesis.

Rosenberg (1979) divides self-concept into three broad divisions.

** The extant self, which is how the person sees himself,

** The desired self which is how he would like to see himself

** The presenting self which is how he shows himself to others.

5.2.1.

THE EXTANT SELF in turn has it's own sub parts.

** Social Identity, which includes social status, membership of various groups, labels attached to the individual, historical biography and social type

** Personal Identity which arises out of feelings, thoughts and those factors which give the individual his own unique experience of himself.

The elements of both social and personal identity are part of the self-concept and constitute the core of the individual's view of the self. The self-concept is something which emerges and develops gradually, primarily out of social experience, and the content of the self-concept is largely made up of abstract qualities such as personal worth, self-esteem, traits appropriate to role and most important, the perception of physical characteristics (Rosenberg, 1979).

Self-concept consists of the social exterior and the psychological interior. Most of the components are of unequal importance and the significance of each element is idiosyncratic to each person. Moreover, the self-concept can be viewed either at a global or a specific level. The core element of self-concept that seems to assume critical significance is self esteem. The value placed on the self seems to override any other component in the hierarchy of values (Rosenberg, 1979)

The individual's self-concept can be characterised in terms of many dimensions. Apart from social and psychological components there are also factors that influence the intensity of his self worth, that provide a sense of internal consistency, that give him a sense of stability and clarity, and finally the ability to see himself accurately and conduct himself with confidence.

One important area of the self-concept is called " ego extentions" by Rosenberg, 1979. It is that part that can go beyond the strict boundaries of the self and encompass external elements. The independent identity of these external elements is recognised, but at the same time feels part of the self. Thus " my father or my child" become a part of "myself". The boundaries of the self are neither fixed and rigid nor are they totally permeable. External objects can be taken in and when appropriate, due to the separation of time and space,(for example in adulthood) they can be detached and pushed to the periphery of the self.

Although the incorporation of ego extensions is developmental and the distinction between me and we hopefully occurs at an early age, these extensions remain significant into adulthood. The important issue concerning the father is whether he is capable of assimilating these ego extensions and beyond that if he is ultimately able to maintain the boundary between me and we.

5.2.2.

THE DESIRED SELF is the individual's tendency to visualise himself as other than what he is. Each individual sets himself standards against which he measures what he knows about himself, and as a consequence of the developmental process, there is a either non-pathological or pathological reaction to the idealisation. The non-pathological or "committed" image reflects reality and real achievments are compared with the idealised image and accepted as satisfying. The pathological image is idealised to such an extent that frequently the standards aspired to replace the real self with an ideal self. This provides a neurotic solution that promises to solve feelings of inadequacy with feelings of superiority (Rosenberg,1979). Rosenberg (1979) states that the consequences of preoccupation with the ideal self are a feeling of strain in trying to live up to the unrealistic standards, a hyper-sensitivity to criticism, as this challenges the idealised image and extreme vulnerability, since the individual can be so easily hurt by a sense of failure. This results in self contempt and self hatred and an inability to interact with others, as the idealised self intrudes in all interactions and prevents real contact.

As a component of the desired self there exists a moral aspect. The moral image is a set of standards that derives from conscience or super ego. These standards are internalised prohibitions that have been learnt and reinforced by social institutions and the family. Violation of these standards leads to self condemnation, guilt and shame. The demands of conscience are dependent on role perception and are idiosyncratic to each individual. In the case of pathological self image the person is tyrannised by the dictates of moral conscience, but in the case of a non-pathological self image the self demands do not undermine self esteem.

The gap between extant self-concept and desired self-concept is constantly a source of concern to each individual. If the gap is too great the anxiety thus created becomes too much to bear and the individual ceases to function in a healthy way. Rosenberg (1979) maintains that behaviour is motivated by the wish to attain, maintain and retain the desired self.

5.2.3.

THE PRESENTING SELF is the image that is intentionally presented to the external world. It may match or diverge from the self pictures that are inwardly held and is usually not the same in all situations. However, at the core is a more or less consistent self that is presented to society, where certain features come to the fore in one type of situation and other features in another. Social approval is of great importance to most individuals and each person may be obliged to present different selves to different types depending on their attitudes and values.

One of the major sources for maintaining self consistency and self esteem is the reactions and responses of others. These responses are required for confirmation of the self as others see us and reconfirm the self picture.

Central to the concept of the self are two core motives. The first is the push for self esteem, the wish to think well of oneself and the second is the desire to maintain one's self picture, to protect the self concept against radical change. Rosenberg (1979) surmises that these two motivations are not passively preferred but are actively sought and describes them as follows;-

** persons seek to create and maintain stable, coherent identities

** persons prefer to evaluate their identities positively.

Allport (1961) stated that the "ego drive" (desire for approval) takes precedence over all other drives. Self esteem signifies a positive or negative drive towards an object. High self esteem suggests appreciation of one's own self worth, self respect and an acceptance of realistic achievments. Low self esteem suggests a sense of inadequacy, a lack of self respect, feelings of being unworthy and unable to appreciate one's strivings. Rosenberg (1979) maintains that these negative feelings are probably the root cause for some of the neurotic processes that hinder adequate functioning. If the individual feels there is something wrong with him, he then concludes that he cannot be loved nor can he in turn love others, whereas a high level of self-acceptance and self respect is an important componen for positive mental health.

The self-concept is thus the individual's fundamental frame of reference, the foundation on which all his behaviour is based, and once conceived, he struggles to defend and protect it against change.

5.3.

RELEVANCE TO THE STUDY

While examining the father's ability to father and when assessing the causes for breakdown in the father-child relationship it is of critical importance to bear in mind

the above theoretical constructs. Causative factors may well lie in the negative self-concept of the father. If his view of himself lacks internal consistency and esteem, if he does not value his offerings to his child and, if he then does not value his child in terms of being an "ego extension of worth", he will probably retreat from the fathering role and maintain a peripheral position in the family.

5.4.

INTERPERSONAL RELATING AND ROLE DEFINITION

Both these dimensions have been discussed in detail in the previous chapters. These psychological variables were included in the investigation as they relate directly to the level of ego development and also to the level of self esteem. They are not presented here in further detail as they have been dealt with adequately elsewhere in this thesis. Suffice it to say that if the father is unable to relate to the significant members of his family and does not have a clear concept of his role then he will be unable to perform the paternal tasks contingent upon his role definition.

CHAPTER SIX

6.0. RATIONALE, AIMS AND HYPOTHESES

6.1.

RATIONALE

To recapitulate, the rationale for this study lies in the fact that there has been no theoretical model that presents paternal personality variables as an integrated concept. The effects and influences of maternal personality characteristics and traits has been steadily researched over many decades and there is an integrated body of theory to draw on. Slowly the focus of research has shifted from global concepts such as maternal deprivation or immature mothering to more differentiated and specific components of experience in order to understand their selective effects on development (Pedersen, 1976). The same must now occur for fathers. If we are to overcome the lag in knowledge about paternal influences on development and, more particularly, adult male personality development then far more focused research is needed and greater attention must be devoted to the developmental processes of fatherhood. Because investigations of this sort have been hampered by the lack of useful conceptual models this study was designed to remediate this problem. This research addresses some of the factors involved in presenting a more integrated theory of paternal development and seeks to clarify the effects of the father on his child.

6.2.

AIMS OF THE STUDY

The aim of the present study was to investigate the relationship between the father's level of ego development, personality functioning and his role perception, and the psychological health of his child.

The underlying assumption is that fathers who are not functioning adequately in this capacity will have children with emotional problems. The literature discussed in the preceding chapters seems to indicate that the father's influence on his child's development has far reaching consequences.

This research was devoted to exploring those effects within the framework of the following variables:

the level of the father's ego development

the father's level of self esteem

the father's capacity to relate interpersonally

the father's perception of his fathering role

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the father's capacity to relate interpersonally

the father's perception of his fathering role

6.3.

HYPOTHESES

The hypotheses of this study are:

HYPOTHESIS 1. Ego Development

The fathers in the experimental group will have a different level of ego development than those in the control group.

HYPOTHESIS 2. Self Esteem

The fathers in the experimental group will have a different level of self esteem than those in the control group.

HYPOTHESIS 3. Marital Satisfaction

The fathers in the experimental group will have a different level of marital satisfaction than those in the control group.

HYPOTHESIS 4. Role perception

The fathers in the experimental group will have a different perception of the fathering role than those in the control group.

CHAPTER SEVEN

7.0. METHODOLOGY

Developmental and personality factors in a group of fathers whose childrsn were seen in a clinic were compared with the same factors in a similar group of fathers of a non-clinical group of children.

The design and methods used to research these phenomena will be presented in this chapter.

7.1.

SUBJECTS

The subjects were selected from a white, middle-class, urban population and comprised two groups of fathers (one being the experimental and one the control group) who were living with their wives and children. The age range in both groups was 30 to 48 years . All the men were asked to volunteer.

7.1.1.

SELECTION OF GROUPS

The Experimental Group (N = 27).

These fathers were volunteers from those families who were seen at The Transvaal Memorial Child, Adolescent and Family Unit (TMI) during the year March 1985 to March 1986. Each family had to meet the criteria of selection. The criteria that defined the group were the age of the child (between 8-10 years old), the class standard of the child (standard 2,3 or 4) and the age of the father (30-48 years).

On meeting the selection criteria the questionnaires were posted to each father who was asked to complete and return them to the researcher at the University of the Witwatersrand Psychology Department. The rate of return in the experimental group was less enthusiastic than the control group. In fact, many extra attempts had to be made to acquire the correct final number of 27 for the study.

The Control Group (N = 27).

These fathers were also asked to volunteer. The method of sampling consisted of a random selection of primary schools in the Johannesburg area. Each headmaster was approached to allow the questionnaires to be distributed through the children in standards 2,3 and 4. These were marked for the father's perusal and requested the father to complete and return them to the researcher at the University of Witwatersrand Psychology Department.

Out of 400 questionnaires sent out 267 replies were received, well beyond the expectations of the researcher. Of these the 27 selected for the study fitted the criteria set down in the experiment. The father's age ranged between 30-48, the childrens' ages were between 8-10 and they were selected from standard 2,3 or 4. Many of the protocols were unusable due to age discrepancy, the marriage was not the first, the man and woman were not legally married or the children were not the biological children of the father. What impressed the researcher was the willingness and indeed enthusiasm with which the fathers answered these questionnaires. It seemed to suggest that, when given the opportunity a large number of men have a need to share their feelings and thoughts about their perceptions of their roles. The less enthusiastic response from the experimental group may be symptomatic of the underlying hypotheses of this thesis. It seems to reinforce the assumption that this group of fathers are conflicted about their role and their feelings of self esteem and may possibly be evidence of a lower level of ego identity.

7.2.

DESIGN

This study is essentially a two group design to evaluate those variables related to fathering. Because there was no attempt at pair-wise matching, the groups were considered to be independent and were subjected to inferential statistics designed for independent groups.

The Independent Variable is the emotional health of the father's offspring and was operationalised in terms of group membership.

The Dependent Variables are the level of ego development, self esteem, marital adjustment and role perception of the father.

7.3.

VARIABLES SELECTED FOR MEASURING

The following variables were selected for measuring arising out of the theoretical constructs discussed in the previous sections.

7.3.1. EGO DEVELOPMENT LEVEL

7.3.2. INTERPERSONAL RELATING

7.3.3. SELF ESTEEM

7.3.4. ROLE PERCEPTION.

7.4.

RATIONALE FOR SELECTING THESE VARIABLES

7.3.1.

EGO DEVELOPMENT

Ego strength is a general aspect of adult personality whose relationship with childhood experience has been neglected by most researchers (Allen, 1967). Ego strength is a core factor in defining adult personality and refers to the individual's ability to cope with the environment, to deal adequately, directly and realistically with problems that arise. The relationship between ego development and psychopathology is an important one (Vincent & Vincent,1979). The DSM 111 has included assessment of the individual's modal core level of ego functioning under Axis V. Loevinger (1968) found that in a study of mental health and ego development there were significantly more subjects below the conformity level. She adds that those who remain below the conformity level beyond adolescence can usually be described as character disorders. Moreover, although no level is immune to psychosis or neurosis there is some evidence that the likelihood of emotional illness is smaller the higher the level of ego development (Vincent & Vincent, 1979). Bearing these facts in mind it seemed appropriate to research levels of ego development in the present study.

7.3.2.

INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS

It was decided that for this research interpersonal relationships would be investigated by examining the state of marital satisfaction for each father. Barry (1970) states that behaviour is partly determined by experiencing the self in relation to others and others in relation to the self. He maintains that it is time to study marriage from both the point of view of the relationship and of the personality of each partner. He suggests that personality is the product of past relationship experience, is the determining factor of present experience and is the basis for positive and negative consequences for future relationship experience and as such provides the significant foundation onwhich the relationship is built.

Marital satisfaction seems to be dependent on a number of factors. Barry (1970), in an overview, states the following patterns seem to indicate high marital adjustment and satisfaction.
Firstly the wife must rate the husband's emotional maturity positively.
Secondly the husband's self perception must be congruent with his own and his society's culturally accepted definition of a "good father".
Factors pertaining to the husband appear to be crucial to marital success. In general, the more solid the male's identification with, and affectional attachment to, his father, the more stable is his identity and the greater the satisfaction with his marriage.

With regard to this thesis, a further consideration is the effect of marital discord on the children. It has been widely recognised for a long time that parental marital discord has a detrimental effect on the child's behaviour and emotional health (Gurman & Kniskern, 1981; Minuchin, 1974; O'Leary & Emery, 1984; Satir, 1964). O'Leary and Emery (1984) concluded after their review of the literature that in a clinic population the relationship between child behaviour problems and marital distress frequently exists. Brody, Pillegrini & Sigel (1986) confirm that child emotional problems are related to distressed marriages. Smith (1986) in her thesis on the relationship between marital discord and child behaviour problems, shows that many different theoretical schools have a similar view. All of them share the belief that the child's behaviour difficulties are often directly related to the discord in the parent's marriage. However, she also sounds a note of warning and states that even if this is so, the correlations are generally small.

7.3.3.

SELF ESTEEM

Coopersmith (1967) defines self esteem as the individual's personal judgment of his own worth and is expressed in the attitude one holds towards oneself. If that attitude is negative the feelings of inadequacy and unworthiness will permeate all aspects of life and prevent effective functioning.

Bradshaw (1981) maintains that the need for self-esteem dominates much of human behaviour. In his study on learning, Ausubel (1969) distinguished between a person with intrinsic self esteem (a deep inner conviction that he is worthwhile for himself) and extrinsic self esteem (self esteem built up through achievment and the approval of others). Ausubel (1969) maintains that without intrinsic self esteem to fall back on, failure in the external world is traumatic to self concept and can commonly precipitate anxiety and withdrawal. The two must interact appropriately to enhance a positive sense of self.

Bozett (1985), Dickstein & Posner (1978), Friedenberg & Gillis (1980) and Sears (1970) are a few of the theorists who have looked at the relationship between self-esteem and parenting, with special emphasis on the father's role. As in all other areas the individual's view of himself will have a significant impact on his behaviour, his level of functioning and his mental health. Friedenberg & Gillis (1980) confirm Coopersmith's (1967) view that many of the individuals seeking therapy are characterised as having a low level of self esteem. Bozett (1985) agrees with this view in the literature and he also suggests that enhanced self- esteem is directly related to the child's relationship with his parents and in particular with the father.

With regard to the present study it is hypothesised that the father's level of self-esteem must inevitably impinge on his relationship with his child and either promote or impede the child's emotional development.

7.3.4.

ROLE PERCEPTION

The changing perception of the male role in the family is an area of research that is increasing. Fein (1978), Hoffman (1977), Lamb (1976, 1978) Lynn (1974) Pleck (1979), Schiff & Koopmen (1978), Sears (1970) are a few of the researchers investigating this perception. In this study the father's perception of the "Ideal Father" was compared to his perception of himself in reality, called the "Real Father". It seemed significant to look at the difference between these two perceptions and relate it to his ego level, his self esteem and his level of marital satisfaction. It was hypothesised that if the "ideal" was highly discrepant from the "real", it would also be correlated with low levels of ego identity, low self-esteem and marital discord. In other words, if the father did not have a clear perception of the reality of his role as a father, it could influence his behaviour towards his child, probably in a negative way.

7.5.

SELECTION OF THE MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

The tests selected for measuring these concepts needed to complement one another in order to reinforce Loevinger's basic view of those elements that constitute ego identity. As previously stated, Loevinger's theory of ego development is the umbrella under which all the other factors fall.

7.5.1.

Ego development was measured by:

THE WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY SENTENCE COMPLETION TEST (WUSC)

This test was devised by Loevinger (1966) and Loevinger, Wessler & Redmore (1970). It consists of 36 incomplete stems which can be used for both males and females in a variety of ways. It can either be administered as 18 pre-test and 18 post-test stems, or, according to Holt (1980) can be used in a 12- 20 item shortened form. The scoring is finalised against the answers in a comprehensive scoring manual (Loevinger, 1976) and assigns the individual to an ego development level according to the complexity of his answers. The final score derived gives a Total Protocol Rating (TPR) and thus an overall level of ego development.

A description of Loevinger's (1966) stages of ego development is presented in the Appendix.

Hauser (1976), in his critical review of Loevinger's Model, for the most part finds her empirical research highly reliable. However, he critises her model on a number of conceptual problems. Firstly, it follows a classic developmental view, which posits sequential and invariant stage organisation. Hauser (1976) suggests that this only takes into account vertical development and does not explore "horizontal structure", i.e. organisation within the stages. He also criticises the lack of clarification as to how the diverse cognitive and affective processes are related to one another and, moreover , how motivation influences ego development. Secondly, Hauser (1976) maintains that Loevinger does not discuss the idea of regression and that if there is sequential development there must also be the possibility of regressive processes. Finally, the complex relationship between ego development and social processes is not investigated.

This researcher takes cognisance of these criticisms, but also points out that Hauser (1976), Holt (1980) and Loevinger (1966, 1970, 1976) comment that these are merely suggestions for further study of the model in greater detail to acquire an ever deeper understanding of the concept of ego development.

7.5.1 1.

RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

There has been extensive research on the reliability and validity of the WUSC (Loevinger,1966; Loevinger, Wessler & Redmore, 1970; Redmore & Waldman, 1975; Hauser, 1976; Hoppe & Loevinger, 1977; Loevinger, 1977; and Holt 1980), and all the researchers have found the test to be both adequately reliable and valid. In fact Holt (1980) found that both the short forms and the traditional forms are reasonably reliable, feasible and useful for large scale research. According to Holt (1980) internal consistency and judge reliability are more than adequate for use with both males and females. Loevinger (1979) showed that internal consistency is high and in her studies of external validity and construct validity the results were positive for valid research.

7.5.1.2.

INTER-RATER RELIABILITY

Loevinger's data for rater agreement (" 70) states that between two raters trained by her the range of total agreement is from 60% to 86% with a median of 77%. On the short form Holt (1980) reports a range of agreement from 66% to 91% with, a median of 76%. Loevinger (1970) also

stated that raters who have a strong clinical background with knowledge of ego psychology and development have a high percentage of inter-rater agreement. On reliability of rater agreement using correlation coefficients her range extended from .49 to .88 (median .75) and Holt's (1980) extended from .72 to .90 (median .82).

The raters used in the present study were both highly trained clinically and had experience in developmental psychology. The researcher was a third arbitrator who was called in to settle discrepant scores and to spot check the TPR's for the final score. The inter-rater reliability in this study was .81 which more than justifies both Loevinger's and Holt's findings.

7.5.2.

Marital satisfaction was measured by:

LOCKE-WALLACE MARITAL ADJUSTMENT SCALE (Short Form)

The Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale (LWMAS) (Locke and Wallace, 1959) is an instrument that has been widely used. It can be administered in the 23 item version or the short form, used in this study, (Kimmel & van der Veen, 1974). This is a 15 item questionnaire comprising statements that highlight how happy the partners are in the marriage. There are three categories of responses. The first consists of statements organised on a six point

Lickert scale from Always Agree to Always Disagree. The scores range from 0 (Very Unhappy) to 35 (Perfectly Happy). The second rates how happy the marriage is on a seven point scale and the final five items inquire whether the subject was sorry he/she had ever married or not. The final score can achieve a maximum of 158 points, and scores below 100 are considered to indicate a discordant marriage.
It is postulated that achieving the status of intimacy (Erikson, 1966, 1985; Orlofsky,1976) is an integral part of adult development and can be evaluated within the marital relationship.

Spanier (1976) has criticised the LWMAS on two issues. Firstly, because it is a self report measure of the participant's feelings about the status of the marriage at a particular point in time, conceptual ambiguity and measurment error can result. The source of subjective weighting lies in the partner's personal and intentional valuing of marital behaviours and attitudes. Secondly, it appears that each partner has two sets of expectations about these behaviours and attitudes. One pertains to what a person wants and the other to what that person is willing to give. With particular reference to the LWMAS each respondent may subjectively edit each item, with some items seen as more personally valuable than others. The weighting of the item could reflect the individual's previous experience with rewards from either agreement or disagreement.

Even within the frame of these criticisms, the assessment of marital satisfaction is important as a measure of adult interpersonal relating, and the LWMAS is considered an accurate measure of this concept.

7.5.2.1.

RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

The LWMAS has a high reliability. The .90 reliability coefficient was computed by the split-half technique and corrected by the Spearman-Brown formula.
Kimmel & van der Veen (1974) found the instrument to be internally consistent and a valid measure of marital adjustment. Moreover, over a two year test-retest interval each factor was found to be stable. In a recent study by Koren, Carlton & Shaw (1980), Locke & Wallace's (1959) original premise that the LWMAS clearly differentiates between distressed and non-distressed couples was firmly upheld.

7.5.3.

Self Esteem was measured by:

COOPERSMITH SELF ESTEEM INVENTORY (Form C 25 Items)

Coopersmith (1967) provided a fairly comprehensive concept of self esteem and much of the subsequent work on self-esteem has used his theoretical work as a basis. He states that:-

"Self esteem is a personal judgment of
worthiness that is expressed in attitudes
the individual holds towards himself."
(Coopersmith, 1967. p.4)

In a later study Mischel (1981) confirms this view and maintains that the way an individual feels about himself will influence his interactions with others. Coopersmith (1967) also included some data on the child's level of self-esteem and it's relationship to parental behaviour. He observed that low self-esteem in both the child and the father was somewhat associated with the father's dominance and his exaggerated need for control and punishment. associated with control and punishment.
This study hypothesises that the father's level of self-esteem will influence his child's emotional development therefore it was deemed appropriate to include this scale in the battery.

Form C is a 25 item questionnaire measuring attitudes towards the self in social, academic, family and personal areas of experience. The responses are on a bi-polar scale of "Like Me" and "Unlike Me". Form C was based on the original School Short Form (Form B) in order to test older subjects.

The criticisms of the Coopersmith (1967) Inventory apply to all self report measures in general. The subjects have a bias towards socially desirable responses and this can distort the validity of the instrument. However, Coopersmith (1967) tried to control for this and included a lie scale in his original measure. One final criticism is that self esteem is a vague, diffuse concept that has no universal definition. It is a subjective experience, which makes the measurement of this global construct difficult to

operationalise (Robinson & Shaver, 1973). Wells & Marwell (1976) see self-esteem as a collection of specific attitudes rather than a unified single construct, but Coopersmith (1967) maintains that the individual's estimate of his self-esteem remains constant and enduring with minor provisions for situational fluctuations such as financial success or failure.

7.5.3.1.

RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

Internal consistency was demonstrated by Bedeian, Geagud & Zmud (1977) who reported a reliability coefficient of .71 for males and in the test-retest situation, reliability estimates were .80, which supports the instrument's stability. Crandall (cited in Shaver & Robinson, 1973) found that the correlation between the short form and the Rosenberg Scale for College Students was .60 and Fullerton (cited in Shaver & Robison, 1973) found that the split half reliability was .87. These figures seem to provide some evidence for concurrent validity for the short form.

Bedeian & Zmud (1977) found convergent validity to be weak for the Coopersmith short form. They concluded that their findings reinforce the suggestion that self-esteem is an ambiguous, multi-dimensional construct.

7.5.4.

Role perception was measured by a Semantic Differential

SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL TO TEST FOR ROLE DEFINITION

The Semantic Differential is a generalised technique for measuring the meaning of selected concepts to the individual (Osgood, Suci & Tannenbaum, 1957). In this study the concept of the Ideal versus the Real perception of the father's role was assessed.

Gilbert, Hanson & Davis (1982) define roles as the prescription and expectations of others and the self regarding behaviours required in any particular situation. They maintain that every role has a complementary role and for fathers this can often be a child. Role complementarity exists when roles are interdependent and reciprocal in nature, creating stability in the interactions. If difficulty exists, role strain occurs between the two complementary role partners. Inevitably role transition must take place giving rise to change in role perception.

The problem with testing role perception is that there are no valid instruments that deal specifically with the fathering role. In the absence of this, it was decided to devise an instrument that would highlight the difference between each individual's Ideal and Real perceptions.

Bearing in mind that Hanson (1985) maintained that role must present the perceptions of others and the self a pilot study was initially conducted to formulate a pool of items that represented desired traits in the ideal father. This pool was indicative of both "other" and "self" perceptions.

This was done in the following way.

The clinical staff at [illegible] were asked to hand to the researcher a list of those traits that they would like to find in their fathers. A second list was then compiled from these answers which in the end comprised 100 traits. During one Saturday morning 100 of these lists were handed to male shoppers at a local supermarket who were asked to fill them in then and there. From the completed forms the 20 traits most often selected were used for the final test. These final variables were set down as bi-polar constructs on a seven point Lickert-type scale. The test was then constructed in two parts. The first required the respondents to rate their "Ideal Father" on the chosen traits and the second required them to rate themselves as they perceived themselves to be in reality ("Real Father") on the same set of traits. The score was then computed on the difference between the "Ideal" and the "Real".

7.5.4.1.

RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

The validity and reliability of this type of test is questionable. However, given that all the other tests in the battery are seen to have high reliability and validity,

Bearing in mind that Hanson (1985) maintained that role must present the perceptions of others and the self a pilot study was initially conducted to formulate a pool of items that represented desired traits in the ideal father. This pool was indicative of both "other" and "self" perceptions.

This was done in the following way.

The clinical staff at TMI were asked to hand to the researcher a list of those traits that they would like to find in their fathers. A second list was then compiled from these answers which in the end comprised 100 traits. During one Saturday morning 100 of these lists were handed to male shoppers at a local supermarket who were asked to fill them in then and there. From the completed forms the 20 traits most often selected were used for the final test. These final variables were set down as bi-polar constructs on a seven point Lickert-type scale. The test was then constructed in two parts. The first required the respondents to rate their "Ideal Father" on the chosen traits and the second required them to rate themselves as they perceived themselves to be in reality ("Real Father") on the same set of traits. The score was then computed on the difference between the "Ideal" and the "Real".

7.5.4.1.

RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

The validity and reliability of this type of test is questionable. However, given that all the other tests in the battery are seen to have high reliability and validity,

it was deemed acceptable to include this type of subjective measure, particularly because there were no other tests suitable for inclusion. This measure of role perception fitted with Loevinger's (1966, 1976) basic concept of ego identity. Part of ego development is the ability to perceive oneself in a real light and not either idealise or devalue the self concept.

Moreover, the Semantic Differential is a well recognised instrument and has been used in many significant studies (Bem, 1974).

7.6.

PROCEDURE

The headmasters of a random selection of schools in Johannesburg were approached to hand out the questionnaires to the children in standards 2,3 and 4. These were addressed to the fathers and on completion they were asked to post them to the researcher at the Psychology Department of the University of the Witwatersrand. A similar procedure was organised through the Child, Adolescent and Family unit at The Transvaal Memorial Hospital.

Subjects were asked to complete the battery of tests and a biographical questionnaire. (See appendix).

To control for as many extraneous variables as possible, the sample was restricted with regard to social class, age of child, age of father, language and marital status.

The sample consisted of 27 subjects in each group.

In the EXPERIMENTAL GROUP there were 8 boys and 19 girls.

In the CONTROL GROUP there were 6 boys and 18 girls.

It is interesting to note that there was a predominance of female children in both groups. This is particularly noteworthy for the experimental group, since in most clinics for learning disabled children there is usually a majority of boys. One can speculate that when there is evidence of emotional disturbance, perhaps girls' unhappiness is more overt and acknowledged than boys. It is more acceptable for boys to display aggression and can therefore hide their disturbance behind this so-called acceptable behaviour. It may also be due to the fact that fathers are more amenable to and aware of a girl's emotional responses and may possibly not attend so assiduously to their son's emotional responses, and thus avoid this "unmasculine" behaviour. This could account for the preponderance of girls' fathers to boys' fathers who responded to the questionnaires.

7.7.

In the following table the biographical details of the study will be shown.

7.7.1. TABLE OF THE BIOGRAPHICAL DETAILS.

VARIABLE	GROUP 1 EXPERIMENTAL		GROUP 2 CONTROL	
Length of Marriage	Range 9-23 years Majority at 12 yrs.		Range 11-22 yrs. Majority at 16 yrs.	
Ordinal Position of child.	Oldest	14	Oldest	12
	Middle	5	Middle	5
	Youngest	8	Youngest	9
	Only	0	Only	1
Ordinal Position of father	Oldest	7	Oldest	13
	Middle	13	Middle	6
	Youngest	5	Youngest	6
	Only	2	Only	2
Educational Level	Std. 8	4	Std. 8	0
	Matric	9	Matric	8
	Tech.	8	Tech.	5
	Degree	6	Degree	14

Employment Category	Mainly Lower Administration	Mainly Upper Administration
Employment Status	Self Emp. 17 Other Emp.10	Self Emp. 12 Other Emp. 15
Time Spent with child:- Perception of father.	Seldom 4 Occas. 17 Often. 6	Seldom 2 Occas. 21 Often 4
Actual:Week	0 -5 hrs. 11 5-14 hrs. 13 +14 hrs. 3	0 -5 hrs. 6 5-14 hrs. 17 +14 hrs. 6
Weekend	0-2 hrs. 3 2-6 hrs. 10 +6 hrs. 14	0-2 hrs. 4 2-6 hrs. 10 +6 hrs. 13

7.7.2.

There is very little difference between the two groups in the biographical details. The details that bear comment are in themselves not significant, but merely stand out because they are slightly different between the two groups.

Firstly, it is interesting to note that in the ordinal position of fathers many more in the control group are the oldest child than in the experimental group where the majority are middle children (in the families of origin).

Secondly, when examining the educational level it is immediately apparent that there is a percentage of fathers in the experimental group who have only a standard 8 level of education and that in the control group there is a high percentage of fathers who have a university degree. In this category there is a marked difference between the two groups.

Thirdly, in the employment category the majority of the fathers in the experimental group are in a "Lower Administrative" level (Schlemmer and Stopforth, 1979) and are self employed, while in the control group most of the fathers are in the "High Administrative" category and are not self employed, but employees.

Finally, with regard to time spent with the child, both groups' perception of the time they spend with their children is clustered significantly at the mid-point, with the control being slightly higher than the experimental group. This seems to indicate that fathers think they only spend occasional time with their children. In responding to this in actual hours, during the week the experimental group intimate that they spent too little time with the child, while the control group appears to spend more time with the child. At the weekend the groups are evenly matched, and indicated that they spent much more time with the children.

In summary the biographical details reveal that there are some differences between the groups of fathers. These differences will be discussed in more detail in chapter nine.

8.0. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

8.1.

TABLE 1

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SAMPLE

	Group 1 N = 27.		Group 2 N = 27	
	Mean	Std.Dev.	Mean	Std.Dev.
Variable				
Loevinger's Ego Identity	3.96	1.05	3.96	0.97
Self Esteem	67.70	16.11	73.48	17.15
Locke-Wallace Marital Satisfaction	9.03	2.47	8.85	2.93
Semantic differential of Role Perception	24.77	13.35	20.74	8.02

8.2.

The statistical analysis used included pairwise t-tests to determine whether there was a significant difference between the two groups on the selected variables. F-tests for homogeneity of variance were automatically performed by the SAS package; when variances are significantly unequal, the SAS Statistical package corrects for this (Ray, 1982).
A Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Co-efficient was done in order to investigate whether there was a statistically significant relationship between the variables under investigation (Bennet & Bowers, 1976).
Finally, a discriminant analysis was used to determine which of the variables contribute most to the observed differences between the groups; this analysis included the biographical variables as well,for the purposes of statistical control of these biographical variables (Bennet & Bowers, 1976; Kerlinger & Pedhazur, 1973).

The following is the table for the t-test.

TABLE 2
t-test for two similar groups

Variable:	t value	df	p>t
Loevinger's Ego Identity	0.00	52.0	1.00
Coopersmith Self Esteem	-1.27	52.0	0.20
Locke-Wallace Marital Adjust.	0.25	52.0	0.80
Semantic Differential	1.34	42.6**	0.18

** The variances in the two groups on this variable are not equal (F=2,77; p 0,05) thus the adjusted degrees of freedom result from the correction (Ray, 1982).

There were no significant differences between the experimental group (those fathers who had children seen at the clinic) and the control group (those fathers whose children had never been seen at the clinic) on the variables under investigation.

8.3.

The correlations between the variables were correlated by means of the Pearson Correlation and are reflected in the following matrix.

TABLE 3

PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

	LOEGOID	SEST	LWMSAT	SDIF
LOEGOID		0.12	-0.08	-0.36
		(0.37)	(0.54)	(0.01)**
SEST			0.24	-0.38
			(.07)	(0.05)*
LWMSAT				-0.05
				(0.69)
SDIF				

N = 54 *= p<0.05 **= p<0.01

ENTIRE SAMPLE

KEY

LOEGOID = Loevinger's Ego Identity Scale
SEST = Coopersmith Self Esteem Scale
LWMSAT = Locke-Wallace Marital Satisfaction Scale
SDIF = Semantic Differential--Role perception

In the above correlation table representing the entire sample the Semantic Differential was correlated with Ego Development at the 1% level of significance and with Self Esteem at the 5% level of significance.

8.4.

TABLE 3a

PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

	LOEGOID	SEST	LWMSAT	SDIF
LOEGOID		0.05	-0.02	-0.50
		(0.79)	(0.88)	(0.01)**
SEST			0.06	-0.54
			(0.74)	(0.00)
LWMSAT				-0.02
				(0.91)
SDIF				

GROUP 1. N = 27. *p<0.05 **p<0.01

In Group 1 the Semantic Differential is correlated with Ego development at the 1% level of significance.

TABLE 3b

PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

	LOEGOID	SEST	LWMSAT	SDIF
LOEGOID		0.19	-0.13	-0.13
		(0.32)	(0.50)	(0.50)
SEST			0.40	-0.10
			(0.03)	(0.60)
LWMSAT				-0.12
				(0.52)
SDIF				

GROUP 2. N = 27 *p<0.05 **p<0.01

By contrast, in Group 2 the level of self esteem is correlated with marital satisfaction at the 5% level of significance. Other than this there are no further correlations amongst the variables.

8.5.

TABLE 4

DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS

STEPWISE SELECTION: Summary

STEP	VARIABLE ENTERED	NO IN	PARTIAL R**2	F*	PROB.
1	SEXCH	1	0.19	12.82	0.00
2	SEST	2	0.10	5.79	0.19
3	FAED	3	0.06	3.71	0.05

* DF = 1/51.

In the discriminant analysis sex of the child, self esteem and father's educational level emerge as the only significant discriminators between the two groups, with sex of the child as the discriminator explaining the most difference between the groups.

CHAPTER NINE

9.0. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The present study sought to understand the influence of the father's developmental level and personality characteristics on the emotional health of his child. The purpose of this study was to attempt to show that the level of the father's ego development, his self-esteem, the status of his marriage and his perception of his role are interdependent variables that influence his ability to parent his child in a real and effective way. Two groups of fathers were examined. The control group, consisting of those fathers whose children had never received any psychological intervention was contrasted with the experimental group, consisting of those fathers whose children were seen in a clinic for children with emotional problems.

Questionnaires were handed out to the two populations and the results are discussed in this chapter. Limitations of the study will also be discussed and implications for future research will be presented in the final section.

9.1.

DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

Contrary to the predictions of the hypotheses nothing conclusive was found and there were no significant differences between the two groups. However, there are some trends that were revealed in the research which need discussion, as do the implications of the negative findings.

9.1.1.

RESPONSE RATE

The t-tests did not show any significant differences between the two groups on any of the variables.

However, with regard to the Pearson Correlation Coefficients what one sees is that there is a difference in the pattern of relationships between the experimental and the control groups. In Group 1 (experimental group) the Semantic Differential shows a tendency towards a negative correlation with Self-Esteem, suggesting that poor role perception may be connected to lowered self-esteem. In Group 2 (control group) there is no relationship between the variables. This indicates a slight difference between the the groups with regard to the relationships between role perception and self-esteem. From this result one may tentatively profer that the fathers in the experimental group seem to have a lowered self-esteem level and a

negative perception of their role as fathers. This concurs with the clinical observations of both the researcher and theorists such as Anderson (1969) and Boss (1986) who perceive fathers of clinic populations as being inadequate in their paternal role.

It seems appropriate to comment once again on the differences in response rates between the two groups. The control group's rate of response was so much higher than expected that it appears to suggest a need for further empirical research into "normal population samples", whereas the experimental groups response rate was remarkable in the lack of co-operation in replying to the questionnaires. Even though there are no discernable differences in ego development between the two groups, this enthusiasm on the part of the control group does seem to suggest a heightened sense of self-awareness and a capacity for, and need to, express and communicate feelings and thoughts about life experience. The lack of response in the experimental group, on the other hand, could possibly be evidence of either a more passive masculine role, or a sign of a lack of interest in the child in a sample that is already showing symptomatology through the child. To reiterate, this seems to uphold the hypothesis that a lowered level of ego development, a lack of self-esteem and role conflict in the father can influence the child's emotional health.

There is also the possibility that since members of the experimental group fell into the "lower administrative" category they could be more pencil-and-paper shy than those in the control group who were in the "high administrative" category. In this category the members are probably involved in extensive report writing and might therefore be less threatened by the pencil-and paper format.

9.1.2.

SOCIAL DESIRABILITY SITUATIONAL RESPONSES

It is important to examine the reasons for the paucity of significant difference between the groups with regard to the variables selected for measurement.

Firstly, there is the difficulty with self report measures. The most often quoted criticism of these instruments is that they are susceptible to faking (Anastasi, 1882). Crowne & Marlowe (1964) suggested that the individual's need for self protection, avoidance of criticism and wish for social approval contributed to the "social-desirability response set". This is a conscious or unconscious desire to present a particular view of the self, which obviously will influence the way the questions are perceived and the selective importance they are given. However, it is also true, according to Haynes (1978), that subjects will vary in their sensitivity to socially desirable factors. Thus for some members the answers may only be minimally affected, while for others they may be strongly biased. Moreover, there will always be some items that have particular significance for some individuals and not for others. Haynes (1978) also points out that self report inventories are the most frequently used measures and by and large are fairly objective.

In the light of the present study the father's answers could very well be influenced by social desirability, by his perception of what is a socially accepted view of the paternal role and by the situational factors prevalent at the time of replying.

In fact Anastasi (1982) confirms this point. She states that behaviour measured by personality tests is highly changeable over time and that this fact complicates the findings. The responses may be biased in terms of situational conditions at the time of taking the test. For instance, if any particular father in either group was distressed by the child's behaviour while answering the questions, it could very well colour the evidence presented in the questionnaires. Thus, in this study the lack of group difference may have been biased by individual performance fluctuations and would then be assumed to be indicative of the group level.

9.1.3.

SAMPLE SIZE

The limited significant findings may also be attributable to the fact that individual intra-psychic differences in the actual subjects could have been lost in the overall group scores. Ego development is a measure of personal identity and it may be more important to examine the individual differences and how these relate to the child's emotional health, rather than extrapolate from a group score. Theoretically, one way to overcome part of this difficulty is to enlarge the size of the sample. This would serve to increase the observable differences between the groups. As Huysamen (1976) states

"if one has reason to suspect that one or both of the population distributions are not normal, one would be well advised to use larger samples" (p. 231).

9.2.

THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

Even though the standardised tests do not reflect significant differences between the two groups, there are clearly two distinct and separate groups of fathers. This can be surmised from the different pattern of relationships between the variables in the two groups.

In turning to the theoretical implications it is necessary to examine the theory discussed in the previous chapters for some explanation as to why this is so. This will be done by examining each of the hypotheses and the theory on which they are based.

9.2.1.

HYPOTHESIS 1

The Level of Ego Development will be different between the two groups.

This hypothesis was not upheld. The possible reasons for this derive from the following.

Most of the fathers in both groups fell into the Loevinger Ego Development category of I 3/4/. This is a transition stage passing from Conformist to Conscientious.

The major characteristics of the Conformist character style are a conforming adherence to external rules, a need to belong, a strong emphasis on social conformity and a guilt-ridden, shameful attitude when caught breaking the rules. Cognitively this type of person has a conceptual simplicity with emphasis on streotypes and cliches.
The characteristics of the Conscientious character style are less rigid. Standards are more self evaluated, there is a responsive, mutual concern for communication and the conscious pre-occupations are with motives for behaviour, self respect, self achievement and self expression. The cognitive style is more complex and the individual is starting to perceive patterns of thought, feelings and behaviour. The transition between these two stages involves a shift from external control to a more internal awareness. Interpersonal relationships are deeper and there is a growing concern for others. There is conscious awareness of the self being separate from the group, a recognition of psychological causation for events and a move towards greater cognitive complexity. This means that individual differences, interests and abilities are perceived but still only in the broadest terms. Loevinger (1976) calls this the "self-aware" level and states that this is the easiest transition to study since it appears to be the modal level for most adults in our society. Although she calls it a transition, she concedes that it may be a stable position in mature life. Holt (1980) intimates that because so many adults fall into this level it could be a major stage in its own right. Holt (1980) contends that none of the developmentalists (Erikson, 1956, 1959, 1968, 1982; Kohlberg, 1969; or Piaget, 1926-1970) have described a concept that clearly defines a Conformist/Conscientious stage. His reasoning suggests that because most adults (Americans) fall into this category, it has been overlooked for this [illegible] reason. It is the "average, expectable" person a[illegible]

constitute the ground against which all other types stand out. If this is so, it seems to apply to the local adult population as well, and therefore the difference between groups would not reflect any significant variance. Only by examining individual responses would the answers to the WUSC stems be of clinical value, rather than of statistical significance. It is the contention of the researcher that any transition creates a time of turmoil and conflict. If Loevinger's (1976) description of the I 3/4 transition's major characteristics are examined, then it is obvious that the individual is struggling with reliquishing a need for group conformity and acceptance and is trying to acquire a sense of self motivation, self standards and self criticism.

It seems appropriate at this point to consider some of the recent work by Daniel Levinson (1978, 1986) and his fellow researchers. Briefly, these researchers conceptualise adult development as having the following elements. Firstly, the concepts of a life course and a life cycle provide an essential framework against which one can study how the process is connected to age level. Secondly, they conceptualise an individual life structure which includes many aspects of personality and the external world and which evolves in its own distinctive way. And thirdly, there is the process of adult development which is the evolution of the life structure in early and middle adulthood. It is superfluous to discuss the first two of Levinson's (1978, 1986) concepts in greater detail as they mirror to a large degree the foregoing chapters in this thesis. However, in terms of the transition stage depicted in the results of this study it seems correct to present his third concept, namely early and middle adulthood.

Early adulthood extends from age 17-45, and is the period of greatest energy and also of greatest stress and contradiction. It is the season for forming and pursuing goals and

aspirations, finding a niche in society and raising a family. It can be a time of rich fulfillment or overwhelming conflict, as most men are trying to juggle the needs of work and society. Before there is maturity to deal with the stressors, the individual must make crucial life choices. As Levinson (1986) states, this is a time when the person is most at the mercy of his passions and ambitions. Under reasonably favourable conditions the rewards can be enormous, but the costs often exceed the benefits.

The Midlife Transition, from about age 40-45 separates and connects early from middle adulthood. The major developmental task of this transition is a new level of individuation. The degree of this achievement will dictate the capacity for compassion, self awareness and reflection. The critical point is the movement away from the tyranny of inner conflict and external demand to acceptance of the self and others. Without this the individual sees his life as increasingly stagnant or trivial. Levinson (1986) is saying is that life seems to be an alternating series of structure-building and structure-changing (transition). A transition terminates the existing structure and creates the possibility for a new one.

It can be seen in the data that the men in the age group criterion for the study are in the period of early adulthood and most seem to be in the stage of transition. They are coping with their own intrapsychic change and therefore are not in a stable developmental position. Loevinger's I 3/4 seems to denote a transition stage that needs to be studied in its own right, as Holt (1980) has intimated. Thus the differences between the two groups would not show up in a test of ego development level if age is used as one of the selection criterion since Levinson (1986) clearly states that this period is age-controlled.

The question then remains as to why some of the children show symptomatology and some do not? Obviously there must be factors to take into consideration other than those pertaining to ego development in the father. McCrae & Costa (1980) suggest that there are two distinct branches of research that need to be pursued. There is the dimension of "individual differences" approach and the "developmental stage" approach. It has already been intimated that the results are more important in their individual responses than as a group measure. McCrae & Costa (1980) have included a further idea in the research addressing the concept of ego identity. They state that "openess to experience" is a major consideration and there should be a correlation between openess and ego level. However, they also state that many of the diagnostic criteria of ego level such as impulse control and maturity of interpersonal style are not directly related to openess. One can then speculate that the children from the experimental group have fathers who are not particularly open regardless of ego level and are thus unable to share an open relationship.

Waugh & McCaulley (1981) commented on the relation of ego developmental level to type and severity of psychopathology and concluded there is no significant relationship. It is important to note that no-one in their sample fell into any ego stage higher than the conscientious level, which matches the data of this study. According to the above researchers, the level of ego development in both abnormal and normal groups remains similar and does not show any correlation with pathology. One can deduce from this that if the fathers of the emotionally disturbed children are themselves emotionally conflicted, there will be no evidence of this in their level of ego development and this level may not be a significant criterion to consider.

One further comment derives from the work of Sampson (1978). He maintains that the "location of identity" is also an important factor to study. This refers to a characteristic which, if part of the person's external environment has an external location or, if part of the person's inner self has an internal location. Sampson (1978) states that the motivating force in establishing a sense of personal continuity is the process of "identity mastery". Some people are internally motivated while others are externally motivated and the location of this identity characteristic will determine the manner in which their world is mastered and by which they define themselves. Externals will define their world in terms of places, possessions and situations, while Internals will define their world in terms of internal traits, needs and perceptions. It appears that Externals are high on authoritarianism, exerting considerable control over the environment to gain mastery in order to achieve stability and continuity of identity. Conversely, the Internals seem to have less need to exert external control and appear to have a more stable identity over different situations. There are some interesting implications to this perspective. If Sampson (1978) is correct, then different life events would have varying consequences, depending where the identity is located. One could then expect Externals to be more disturbed by alterations in the environment (divorce, separation or children's demands), and to react with greater distress to external threats (to property or family) than Internals. With regard to this study, one could assume that the influence of either external or internal location of identity would be a critical factor in the responses of the father to his child and would effect their relationship.

In summary, the above factors offer considerable reason as to why the level of ego development was not significantly different between the two groups, since these subtle variables were not taken into account during the testing.

9.2.2.

HYPOTHESIS 2.

The Level of Marital Satisfaction will be different between the two groups of fathers.

Although marital satisfaction and self-esteem were slightly correlated and showed a tendency towards difference between the groups, there was no statistically significant variance from group 1 to group 2.

Once again one must question the reason for this. It appears that it is related to the level of ego development displayed by both groups. To clarify this observation one can refer to the research into marriage by O'Neill & O'Neill (1972) which occured more or less at the same time as Loevinger's study of ego development (1966, 1979). O'Neill & O'Neill (1972) studied the effects of traditional marriage and set forth ideas for a more open relationship, one in which there is committment by each partner to respect and uphold the other's right to grow and develop autonomy (Ryals & Foster, 1976). According to Loevinger's (1966, 1976) scheme, there is no acknowledgment for the autonomy of others in the interpersonal style in earlier stages of ego development. Ryals & Foster (1976) believe that respect for autonomy represents a milestone in the more mature stages of development. Extrapolating from this one can assume that individuals in the I 3/4/ stage have not achieved the cogniyive complexity required to understand the notion of autonomy in marriage and would find it a most anxiety provoking concept. At the lower stages there is a

conformist need for social approval, sex roles being conventional and stereotyped. Thus, since the entire research population was clustered at the I 3/4/ stage a test of marital satisfaction would only show conventional answers and would not reflect either the high or low scores that would indicate significant intergroup difference.

A further reason for the lack of difference between the two groups may derive from the fact that marital satisfaction is not an isolated phenomenon. The pattern of interaction between the spouses can be markedly influenced by factors not directly related to the marriage per se. Lynn (1974) states that the father/mother and father/child relationships are not only dyadic, but that they are organised to include others within the family context. The sibling pattern, such as birth order, sex and age of the children, the number of children in the family, the position both parents in their families of origin and their concept of marriage are all factors that impinge on the way a father will interact with his spouse and children. These extraneous factors were not included in the dependent variables, but were assessed in the biographical data.

Brody, Pilligrini & Sigel (1986) and O'Leary & Emery (1984) investigated marital quality and parent/child interaction and have shown that in a clinic population there is frequently a relationship between marital distress and child behaviour problems. However Brody et al (1986) state that these findings cannot be generalised to samples that comprise different socio-economic or educational levels. Their data was based on well educated samples and they caution against assuming that the relation between marital distress and child problems is always indicative of a marriage low in satisfaction. The father's behaviour towards the child may not be directly affected by his marriage, but by the spouses' socio-economic status and educational level and their beliefs about and attitudes toward child rearing.

A further aspect that confounds the assessment of marital satisfaction and its relation to child behaviour was proposed by Heath (1976). Heath (1976) found that paternal competence reflects marital satisfaction;- the higher the degree of satisfaction the greater the level of paternal competence. Satisfaction is also related to the degree of communication with the man's wife and the more competent father will discuss his problems freely with his spouse, giving rise to an increased sense of satisfaction in the marriage. The more competent father showed a higher degree of sexual fulfillment and it appears that mutual faithfulness and pleasure are both strong elements in a satisfactory marriage. Heath (1976) also showed that the more competent the father the more his wife is invovled in child care and there seems to be mutual agreement over decision making and discipline. Heath (1976) maintains that his findings consistently indicate that paternal competence is directly related to maturity. Paternal competence was not measured in this study as it is usually measured by the wife's assessment of the father's skill as a parent and was not feasible in this research.

In the present study the biographical variables which also include socio-economic and educational data and the level of paternal competence were not taken into account when administering the measuring instruments and, moreover, only the father's degree of marital satisfaction was assessed. It seems that these extended factors could account for the minimal difference on this measure between the two groups.

9.2.3.

HYPOTHESIS 3.

The Level of Self-Esteem will be different between the two groups of fathers.

There was no significant difference on the measure of self-esteem between the two groups of fathers, although there was a slight tendency for self-esteem to be correlated with marital satisfaction.

Coopersmith (1967), Farber (1962), Lynn (1974) and Sears (1970) are few of the many theorists who underline the fact that self-esteem in the child is directly related to the quality of the parent's relationship and to the level of father's self-esteem. Sears (1970) believes that if the parent gives the child a feeling of being loved, wanted, accepted and respected, this should generate a sense of self worth. Thus parental warmth, affection and appropriate discipline should be associated with high self-esteem, while coldness and harsh discipline associated with the opposite. It is the contention of this study that if the father's sense of self worth is not high, he would then lack the capacity to generate self worth in his child. Sears (1970) has confirmed this and suggests that low self-esteem in the child is the result of father dominance, harsh control and punishment and high self-esteem is the result of paternal warmth.

However these patterns were not corroborated by the evidence in the data, probably because neither the father's warmth nor his dominant behaviour was tested. The explanation for the lack of difference between the groups could also be an indication that even though self-esteem appears to be important, the father may not necessarily have to have a high sense of self worth to be a warm, caring father. As long as he is attuned to the child's needs for acceptance and respect, and does not dominate and control in an unaware, punitive way, the child's self-esteem can flourish and develop appropriately.

9.2.4.

HYPOTHESIS 4.

Role Perception will be different between the two groups of fathers.

Role perception was tested by the Semantic Differential and compared each individual's idea of the Ideal Father with the perception of the Real Father. Once again there were no significant differences between the two groups.

The major point of interest that warrants comment on this measure was the response to the pilot study. Out of the entire list of attributes and traits to choose from, all the men in the original pilot sample selected expressive characteristics as the most desirable for the Ideal Father. This, taken in conjunction with the large response from the control group seems to suggest that most men in the 1980's have a need to express their feelings about their paternal

role and a desire to express the emotive side of their personality. Mckee & O'Brien (1982), Robinsin & Barret, (1986) and Seel (1987) are some of the latest researchers beginning to confirm this evidence. It seems that of all the areas discussed in this study this is the most important issue and should be followed up with empirical research.

These observations are in direct opposition to the majority of studies conducted before 1980. Most of these prior studies presented the father as the instrumental parent and depicted him as the family's representative in the wider society. He was portrayed as a figure to be feared and respected and was shown to spend less time with the children than his wife. The mother was viewed as the nurturant partner and was placed in the strategic position to interpret the father to the child. Farber (1962) stated that when the marriage was congenial and there was consensus between the parents on domestic values and role perception, then the mother supported the child's positive feelings for the father and his for the child.

In traditional families much of this is still true. There are many families that support the instrumental/expressive dichotomy and in South African middle-class society, compared to other socio-cultural groups particularly elsewhere in the world, this is still fairly usual. Therefore one would not see a difference between the two groups on a measure of role perception, as the majority of the men still subscribe to traditional viewpoints and the sample was too small for those men who do support non-traditional behaviours to make an impact on the results. But one must not lose sight of the fact that attitudes are undergoing change, as the selection of characteristics indicated.

As far as non-traditional families are concerned Lamb, Frodi, Hwang & Frodi (1982), Radin (1982) and Russell (1982)

have commented on the various concepts that are seen as the possible antecedents and consequences of close contact between fathers and their children.

Firstly, it seems that modelling plays a large role in fostering fathers' nurturant behaviour. Those men who themselves observed a nurturant father will imitate their behaviour and become nurturant to their own children. De Frain (1979) researched androgynous parents and inquired into those factors in childhood that had prepared them for role sharing. The most important factor proved to be either a positive or negative role model in their family of origin. In the present study the father's perception of his father was not included and this may have influenced the final result as the effect of the role model was not investigated.

Secondly, it seems that when parenthood is highly valued and work is relegated to a lower priority, paternal satisfaction and involvement increases. In non-traditional families it appears that fathers value parenthood more than work and also aspire to play a major role in child care. This is not only due to the high value they place on parenthood, but also because it is less important to their wives. This is a vital difference between traditional and non-traditional families. Parke (1978) confirms this view and suggests that parental behaviours are mediated by their beliefs and perceptions of their roles. The manner in which parents conduct their parenting may be linked to their basic view of the differences between male and female roles and also to their fundamental attitudes to work. In respect of this study, even though the father's work was included in the biographical data, neither his nor his wife's attitude to work, or their attitudes to parenting were assessed. Therefore the test for role perception did not show up these details, which probably accounts for the lack of difference between the groups.

This framework has attempted to create a cohesive view of some of the intrapsychic and interpersonal developmental characteristics that contribute to the personality as a whole. It was hypothesised that aspects of the father's intrapsychic and interpersonal functioning would be relevant to his functioning as a parent and that this would be reflected in his child's emotional health. The four inter-linked variables that were used to define those characteristics were the level of ego development, marital satisfaction, self-esteem and perception of role. The purpose of presenting these four variables was to show how internal and external factors are interdependent and how, depending on the stage of development, these same variables can contribute to the child's emotional health or impede the child's emotional development (Plotsky & Shereshefsky, 1960).

Even though there were no significant differences personal communication with professional workers in the field of child therapy has shown that there is a definite difference between clinic and non- clinic populations. As Anderson (1969) has confirmed, parents of disturbed children are known to be more disturbed than non-clinic parents and interest in parent personality patterns associated with behaviour problems in children has been steadily increasing as therapists and educators try to understand causation. It is well known amongst educational and clinical psychologists that fathers of disturbed children are often unavailable for family sessions and refuse to attend discussions of the child's problems (private communications). The important question then remains as to why there were no significant results if it is known that parent personality influences the child's emotional health and, moreover, that the father is peripheral to the family?

The researcher still maintains that there is relevance in the concept of the ego stage being a unifying thread that links all other aspects of the personality. If development

has been arrested or is stagnant (as in Erikson's, 1959, 1963 "Generativity versus Stagnation" stage), it seems reasonable to assume that self-esteem must suffer, that an interpersonal relationship, such as a marriage, must be difficult to negotiate and that the perception of role is rigid, stereotypical and narrow.

The major question is why these differences did not show up? This researcher suggests that the greatest limit to this model of development is that it ends up addressing a stage rather than a person. The stages are at best only indicators of development and need to be examined in much more detail. In order to understand development in relation to the father, studies need to avoid comparing two groups and concentrate on longitudinal investigation concentrating on each individual's response rather than group data. If predictive data about "father development" could become available it would have great value for the childrens' emotional health. At the same time it would give therapists and educators a clearer sense of each individual man's needs and would then avoid addressing a stage and concentrate on the person (Kegan, 1976).

It also seems that part of the reason for lack of significant results lies in the extraneous factors that were not included in the dependent variables. As far as identity is concerned, at no time did the tests assess location of personality or the level of pathology that may have been present in some of the fathers. It is apparent to the researcher that investigating personality is an intricate and subtle process. Slight shifts in attitude or developmental level will not be reflected in the crude measuring instruments availble. Therefore more qualitative tests must be developed which will expose the finer aspects of personality, and better techniques for assessing personality characteristics must be found, not only for this study, but for all studies that investigate socio- emotional and humanistic dimensions.

9.3.

ADDITIONAL SUBJECT VARIABLES RELEVANT TO THE STUDY

The following are the relevant additional subject variables included in the analysis of the results. They were selected on the basis of previous research that indicated a significant relationship between these variables (Adler, 1927; Biller, 1967, 1970; Bloch, 1973; Colman and Colman, 1981; Hood & Golden, 1979; Leonard, 1966; Lohman, Lohman & Christensen, 1985; Meyer, 1980; Nowicki, 1971; Radin, 1973; Repucci, 1971; Rosenberg & Sutton-Smith, 1971).

9.3.1. Ordinal Position of the Child and the Father

9.3.2. Father's Level of Education

9.3.3. Sex of the Child

9.3.4. Perception of Time Spent with the Child

9.3.1.

ORDINAL POSITION OF THE CHILD AND THE FATHER

Birth order influences on personality development has been an important factor according to many theorists (Adler, 1927;Heilbrun & Fromme, 1965; Lohman, Lohman & Christensen, 1985; Rosenberg & Sutton-Smith, 1971; Sears, Rau & Alpert, 1965; Toman, 1959) and should be considered when examining family interaction patterns. Many studies have suggested

several distinguishing characteristics of being either first born or later in the sibling sequence. However, it is not only the ordinal position that is important, but also the psychological perception of that position. There is no literature on the child's perception of his ordinal position and how that pressurises him to maintain that place. For instance, how often is an eldest child's position usurped by a sibling thus affecting the eldest's self esteem? Or how many times does a younger sibling have to play down his talents in order to give preference to the eldest. Lohman, Lohman & Christensen (1985) indicate that it is necessary to distinguish birth order from psychological position. They conclude that birth order and psychological position are not the same, especially for second and third born children. Various traits are associated with psychological outlook which supports some relationship between the psychological position in the family and self perception.

Heilbrun & Fromme (1965) found that mothers tend to regard their first born children more positively than later ones and seem to spend less nurturant time with each subsequent child. Similarly, fathers also spend more time in interaction with first born children than later ones. They suggest that the oldest child is more highly identified with the same sex parent than the middle or youngest child and these researchers maintain that although there are no hard and fast rules, the question bears intensive research as it is obvious the child's ordinal position does show demonstrable effects.

With regard to the present study one can speculate as to the effect on both the father and his child of their respective ordinal and psychological positions. In the analysis of the subject variables, in the experimental group the majority of the fathers were middle children and the majority of their children were the eldest. If one generalises, according to

Heilbrun & Fromme (1985), most of the oldest children are identified with the mother and the middle children are less nurtured by either parent. Thus the fathers may feel more needy and have less self-esteem, while the children probably increase these feelings of inadequacy as they are more identified with their mothers. In the control group the majority of fathers and their children were oldest children. Using the same extrapolations it seems that in this group there exists the probability that both fathers and children were well nurtured and thus had a high degree of self-esteem. It seems important to study the effects of these two interactive positions and determine what the father brings into the relationship from his own background and family.

9.3.2.

FATHER'S LEVEL OF EDUCATION

There is a paucity of research into the influence of the father's educational level on both his own self-esteem and on his ability to parent. Most research has studied the father's occupational status as was stated earlier in this study. The younger child is prouder of a father who works at a physical type of job, while the older child is prouder of the father who has a more cerebral type of work. However, there is another dimension to this. Low status fathers may have the time to spend with their children, but lack the knowledge or motivation to be in an active parental role, whereas the high status father may have the understanding of his paternal role and not have the time or inclination to parent actively. But this is all work related and does not have much to do with educational level.

In this study there is a definite difference between the two groups. In the experimental group only 6 fathers had a degree, while in the control group 14 fathers had higher degrees. Although this by no means suggests that higher education means more effective paternal involvement, it does seem that this is an area that needs further investigation. However it must be born in mind that a clinic population may represent a biased sample in that there is a high percentage of the lower socio-economic groups in the patient population (although this study controlled broadly for socio-economic status). Further research would need to include parents who seek help from private therapists in order to study a more representative sample from all socio-economic and cultural groups.

9.3.3.

SEX OF THE CHILD

In a previous chapter the sex role identification of the child and the influence of the father on his child's sex role development was presented in fair detail, therefore it seems unnecessary to repeat this. It is obvious from the literature that the father plays an extremely important part in his child's gender development.

In the results of this study it was notable that female children figured more significantly in the numbers than males. On reflection one can speculate on the reason for

this. It may be that fathers of females are more sensitive to the child since she may challenge his definition of himself both as an adult man and as a parent; whereas sons may not present a challenge, but rather are seen as competitive males. It is well documented in the literature that the cross-parent relationship is far more complex than the same-sex one (Heilbrun, 1976). Heilbrun (1976) stated that fathers are generally less nurturant with their sons than with their daughters. Biller & Weiss (1970) indicated that fathers viewed their daughters as more delicate and sensitive than their sons. If this is the case, then one could expect that a study devoted to emotive issues would show a greater response from fathers with daughters than fathers with sons. There is a large body of literature on fathers' different behaviour toward their sons or daughters (Biller, 1969; Biller & Weiss, 1970; Greenstein, 1966; Heilbrun, 1976; Hetherington, 1965, 1972; Leonard, 1966; Locksley & Colten, 1979; Meister, 1981; Meyer, 1980; Osofsky & O'Connell, 1972; Rothbart & Maccoby, 1966; Russell, 1978, 1982; Santrock, 1970). The reason for this difference seems to be rooted in identification theory as well as the theory of socio-cultural expectation. Recently there has been much attention devoted to androgynous parenting, which adds a further dimension to the complex issue of the father's influence on his child's sex-role development.

Whatever the cause it is quite obvious from the literature and from this study that a father's response to a daughter differs vastly from that to a son. Future research should be devoted to investigating the father's own sex-role development and identification, with a view to examining how this affects his relationship with his own children.

9.3.4.

PERCEPTION OF TIME SPENT WITH THE CHILD

Men's working hours are the "revolving doors through which men leave and enter family relationships" (Hood & Golden, 1979; p.575). The number and selection of the hours which men work affects the quality, the length and the frequency of their family interactions. Clark, Nye and Gecas (1978) found little relationship between the quantity of hours worked and marital satisfaction. It seems that a man who is enthusiastic and committed to his work is often also committed to marriage and the family and seems to find the energy for both. The complexity of this issue appears to lie in the relationship between time, energy and committment and is not something that can be answered easily. This view serves to reinforce the basic premise of this thesis that the level of ego development, self esteem and perception of role must contribute enormously to the man's ability to cope with both areas of life.

In most of the literature the common argument is between quality versus quantity and it is usually assumed that quality is more critical than quantity (Parke, 1981; Russell, 1982). Nevertheless it is faulty to assume that quantity is irrelevant and that it does not influence the quality. Although there seems to be great variability in the amount of father-involvement with young children, actual time spent in child interaction and child care by fathers had little significant documentation (Lewis, Freneau & Roberts, (1979). It is only since the 1980's that research into paternal involvement has increased. In part this is

due to a decrease in the number of paid work hours for many men as well as a change in the father's perception of his role. Even though mothers traditionally spend more time with the children, Kotelchuk (1979) suggests that the total time spent is not the most important determinant of the impact of either parent. From the more recent books on fathering (see bibliography) it is what the father does in the hours spent with the child that is crucial. It is also of primary importance to recognise that the father-child relationship is a two way process and that the child will influence the father just as he will the child. Children directly affect the ways their fathers treat them and thereby contribute to the ways in which they interact. The previous three variables, namely, the ordinal positions of both participants, the sex of the child and the level of the fathers education, can also determine or alter this interaction. These four factors are interdependent and work in concert rather than separately.

In this study the father's perception of time spent with his child reflects the current trends. In 1977,a report in the United States showed that fathers on average spent 9.7 hours per week invovled in child care activities (Lewis, Freneau & Roberts, 1979). In 1976 according to Heath, a third of the men in his study believed that they did not spend enough time playing with and reading to their children. The professional man with a higher level of education expressed great guilt over not being able to spend more time with his child. In the present research thirteen fathers in the experimental group spent 5-14 hours with the child during the week and 10 hours over the weekend. In the control group seventeen fathers spent 5-14 hours with the child during the week and also 10 hours over the weekend. If one takes into account that the fathers in the control group had a higher level of education and then generalises from Heath's (1976) supposition, namely that the higher the level of education the greater the guilt over time not spent, then it is understandable that a greater number in the control group would try and spend more time with their children.

An important consequence of increased paternal participation is the possibility of change in the affective nature of the father-child relationship (Russell, 1982). Highly participant fathers are likely to have more physical contact with their children, more opportunity to show and receive affection and, according to Sagi (1982), high father participation is associated with greater satisfaction with the parental role.

9.4.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Although all the measures used were valid and reliable and even though they did tap into the dependent variables, this study did not show significant differences between the two groups. This researcher still believes that the hypotheses are worth further investigation. There is definitely some factor related to fathers that causes some children to require emotional help and enables others to develop normally. If there is a trend to include fathers in the process of active parenting, and it seems as though this is true for modern fathers, then they must equally share responsibility for the child's emotional development. No longer is it correct to assume that it is the mother who bears the brunt of resposibility for the child's appropriate emotional development.

There are a number of factors that proved to be limitations for this study.

It is well documented that the size of the sample influences the statistical methods employed and leaves more to chance if the sample size is too small. It also reduces the possibility of significant difference between two groups if the size of the group is too small. As has been mentioned earlier it was extremely difficult to obtain enough subjects in the experimental group and so both groups remained small.

The subset of the fathers studied may not represent all types of communities. Other subgroups could show considerable differences particularly in the area of marital interaction since the quality of marriage varies greatly depending on socio-economic and educational factors.

Another limitation focuses on the quality of the test material used. Although the tests measured what they were supposed to measure, they certainly did not distinguish subtle differences, nor did they assess broadly enough. Judging from the discussion, there were many other issues that confounded the original variables and these need to be assessed in detail before arriving at any comprehensive conclusions.

Heath (1976) directed attention to the limitation of studying paternal competence by the indirect method of using the child as a criterion and judging paternal effect as "good" or "healthy" because of the child's behaviour. He stated that studies that indirectly infer traits of paternal competence from the presence of good or bad effects in the child are difficult to interpret and causal influences cannot strictly be made from a correlational design. The

number of predisposing and intervening variables are such as to make inferences about paternal competence from correlations all but impossible. However one must bear in mind that this is merely Heath's (1976) view and that there are many theorists who believe that the only way to study the father's influence on his child is to begin with the child's emotional responses to the father and to his environment.

A further limitation derives from the fact that the wives and mothers were not assessed. It seems important to also invstigate the father through the mother's eyes. Some of the father's influence may be channelled through the mother and the father could very well affect the mother's feelings and behaviour towards the children in the same way that the mother affects the father's interaction with his children.

One final limitation was the lack of in-depth literature on the personality traits, the characteristics and the role of mature men in society. Men seem to be defined by their status as husbands, by the influence they have on their child's development, by their sex-role orientation and by their work status. There is almost no literature on their status as males in their own right. This study tried to address some of these issues, but was severely hampered by the lack of powerful and discriminating test material and theoretical concepts.

9.5.

IMPLICATIONS OF THIS STUDY

This researcher believes that it is very important to expose fathers and other males who may become fathers or who are able and available to play a fathering role to the significance of the father-child relationship. Many men are led to believe only the stereotypes they are presented with and it is essential to depict alternatives. Most men have a desire to be good fathers, but many have never had the opportunity to learn about the psychological needs of children. Frequently the role models from their own fathers have been inadequate and they do not seem to be aware of their role and function beyond that of provider. From the foregoing chapters it is obvious that a father is a vital and significant "other" in every child's life. His presence, involvement and care is essential to the emotional development of his child. Through education and media exposure other viewpoints can be explored and this could serve as an important preventative community mental health service.

Colman & Colman (1981) have stated that in recent years more and more men are questioning their roles and are searching for new ways to structure their fathering role. Men who want to or are able to make a major change in their self image and who want to relinquish the typical male stereotype may be emotionally unprepared and unable to accommodate themselves to a new way. There are few forms of support in the community at large to help fathers learn

their roles and perform them effectively. In fact, society still sees nurturant, expressive fathers as weak and impotent. Society only acknowledges the good provider and, what is more, perceives competent, instrumental mothers as castrating and hostile. It is the desire of this study to provide some alternatives and to present society as a whole and men in particular with some of the theoretical concepts about male personality development and the impact of the father's development on his children.

Clinically there is also importance in this study. It is essential that professionals working with children, adults and families be aware of the processes involved in adult male development, as well as the impact of the father's role on the family. Not only do they need to recognise his influence within the family, but it is also important to understand the various theoretical concepts and implications in order to increase men's self worth, esteem and knowledge regarding their role as fathers.

The advent and growth of family therapy has provided a unique way of addressing the child's problem while including the father in the therapeutic encounter. It was Whitaker (1972; quoted by Boss, 1986) who commented on the father's peripheral position in the family and it is from therapists like these that the body of family therapy research and literature has sprung (Gurman & Kniskern, 1981).

9.6

SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Arising out of the above limitations it is obvious that certain issues need further research.

Rather than concentrating on correlational designs, it seems more valid to institute longitudinal studies assessing fathers, their children and their wives as a way to unravel the complex interacting paternal traits and practises that define adequate fathers.

Clarke-Stewart (1978) stated that too often investigations of paternal predictors of development have focused on the father-child relationship in a similar way to the mother-child relationship. To fully understand parental correlates of child development it is necessary to examine both mother and father simultaneously, to establish the influence of the triadic family system.
In addition to this, marital satisfaction should be assessed from the wife's point of view to gain a greater understanding of the effect this has on both partners.

Likewise, the father's parent's marriage should be investigated to ascertain how much this has to do with his concept of marital satisfaction and how it has influenced his perception of marriage. Investigation at this level must also address the effect the parental marriage has on the father's own views on parenting and his ability to parent effectively.

Further research should devote itself to examining these factors to establish their relevance.

In the discussion, the following points were raised and warrant further investigation. The concept of husband/wife dominance, the father's capacity for warmth and acceptance, the wife's view of the importance of work are all areas that impinge on the father's role perception and self esteem and could very well be influenced or in turn influence his level of ego development.

Judging from the responses to the pilot study it would seem important to help men understand and integrate their expressive selves and learn to feel comfortable with the emotional side of their personality. To this end education either through the media or through fathering groups would be a worthwhile area for further research.

And finally, as a result of the high response rate by the control group, it seems appropriate to instigate a normative study on men and their view of their fathering role.

9.7.

CONCLUSION

Most of the men in our society do not know their importance as fathers. The principle danger to fatherhood today is that fathers do not have the vital sense of father-power that they have had in the past (Gatley & Koulack, 1979). Societal

pressure has caused the father to lose confidence that he is naturally important to his children and most societies today have given their men to believe child rearing is a mother's job. Men are not expected to participate actively in child rearing and most men are not confident that fatherhood is a basic part of being masculine and a legitimate focus for life. Researchers maintain that nurturance is not a female prerogative and men are potentially as well equipped to parent as women.

But it is clear that the traditional views are changing and cultural roles are being re-evaluated and re-defined. The societal stereotype of gender is undergoing change and men's view of themselves is being challenged. Moreover, the concept of masculine development unfolding in a particular sequence and involving particular personality traits and characteristics is gaining ground.

Each piece of research adds to the body of work on adult male development and this study has attempted to add one more dimension to the growing understanding of men in their roles as individuals in society and as fathers in the family.

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LOEVINGER'S STAGES OF EGO DEVELOPMENT

Stage	*Code*	*Impulse Control, Character Development*	*Interpersonal Style*	*Conscious Preoccupations*	*Cognitive Style*
Presocial			*Autistic*		
Symbiotic	I-1		Symbiotic	Self vs. non-self	
Impulsive	I-2	Impulsive, fear of retaliation	Receiving, dependent, exploitative	Bodily feelings, especially sexual and aggretive	Stereotyping, conceptual confusion
Self-Protective	Δ	Fear of being caught, externalising blame, opportunistic	Wary, manipulative, exploitative	Self-protection, trouble, wishes, things, advantage, control	
Conformist	I-3	Conformity to external rules, shame, guilt for breaking rules	Belonging, superficial niceness	Appearance, social acceptability, banal feelings, behavior	*Conceptual simplicity*, stereotypes, cliches
Conscientious-Conformist	I-3/4	Differentiation of norms, goals	Aware of self in relation to group, helping	*Adjustment*, problems, reasons, opportunities (vague)	Multiplicity
Conscientious	I-4	*Self-evaluated standards*, self-criticism, guilt for consequences, long-term goals and ideals	Intensive, responsible, mutual, concern for communication	Differentiated feelings, motives, for behavior, self-respect, achievements, traits, expression	Conceptual complexity, idea of patterning
Individualistic	I-4/5	*Add:* Respect for individuality	*Add:* Dependence as an emotional problem	*Add:* Development, social problems, differentiation *of inner life from* outer	*Add:* Distinction of process and outcome
Autonomous	I-5	*Add:* Coping with conflicting inner needs, toleration	*Add:* Respect for autonomy, *interdependence*	Vividly conveyed feelings, *integration of* physiological and psychological, psychological causation of behavior, role conception, self-fulfillment, self in social context	Increased conceptual complexity, complex patterns, toleration for ambiguity, broad scope, objectivity
Integrated	I-6	*Add:* Reconciling inner conflicts, renunciation of unattainable	*Add:* Cherishing of individuality	*Add:* Identity	

NOTE: "*Add*" means in addition to the description applying to the previous level.

APPENDIX 1

LOEVINGER'S STAGES OF EGO DEVELOPMENT (1966, 1976)

Loevinger (1966, 1976) describes eight stages of ego development. The first stage appears before the ego actually comes into being.

1. PRESOCIAL AND SYMBIOTIC PHASE (I1)

In the presocial phase the infant is oblivious to everything except the gratification of his immediate needs. At this phase the baby has no real ego and the self is undifferentiated from his world of objects. He is referred to as autistic when this stage continues beyond the appropriate time.

In the symbiotic phase however, the child has a strong attachment to the mother and although he can distinguish her from the rest of his world, he cannot yet differentiate himself from her (Mahler, 1968).

2. IMPULSIVE STAGE (I-2)

Impulses are the motivating force in the child's life. This helps him affirm his separate identity, but the control of his impulses is experienced as either destructive or undependable. First constraint and then later reward and punishment are the methods of control. Actions are seen as good or bad and the conscious preoccupations are with satisfaction of physical needs including sexual and aggressive wishes. The world view is egocentric and concrete.

3 a. DELTA STAGE

This third stage is self-protective. The person understands that there are rules, but they are merely obeyed out of self interest or immediate advantage. Morality is born out of expediency and interpersonal relations are exploitative and manipulative, although they are less dependent.

3 b. DELTA /3

This phase represents the transition between the Self-protective stage and the next one, the Conformist stage.

4 a. CONFORMIST STAGE (I-3)

Loevinger comments that most people at sometime during childhood or adolescence move to this stage. Rules are obeyed because they are rules. Disapproval is a potent deterrent and the moral code is in terms of right or wrong. Status, reputation and appearance are very important and the group norms are the measure of behaviour. The world is perceived in cliches and stereotypes.

4 b. SELF-AWARE LEVEL (I-3/4)

This position is another transition between stages 3 and 4. It represents the move from Conformist to Conscientious. Hoppe (1972) says that in this self-aware phase the rightness of an action is contextual and is considered to be a function of the person's time and place. There is an emergence of an introspective capacity and the beginnings of the understanding of psychological causation, self-awareness and self criticism. The social group is no longer the arbiter for behaviour. Redmore and Waldman (1975) comment that there are more people in this stage than any other.

3 a. DELTA STAGE

This third stage is self-protective. The person understands that there are rules, but they are merely obeyed out of self interest or immediate advantage. Morality is born out of expediency and interpersonal relations are exploitative and manipulative, although they are less dependent.

3 b. DELTA /3

This phase represents the transition between the Self-protective stage and the next one, the Conformist stage.

4 a. CONFORMIST STAGE (I-3)

Loevinger comments that most people at sometime during childhood or adolescence move to this stage. Rules are obeyed because they are rules. Disapproval is a potent deterrent and the moral is in terms of right or wrong. Status, reputation and appearance are very important and the group norms are the measure of behaviour. The world is perceived in cliches and stereotypes.

4 b. SELF-AWARE LEVEL (I-3/4)

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5. CONSCIENTIOUS STAGE (I-4)

Morality is now internalised and inner rules supercede those dictated by either the group or authority. Transgression is accompanied by guilt. Interpersonal relations are seen in terms of *feelings and motives* rather than actions. Stereotypes give way to ndividual differences and there is a capacity for self criticism.

6. INDIVIDUALISTIC LEVEL (I-4/5)

This period is the transition from Conscientious to Autonomous stages. Hoppe (1972) comments that persons at this level are beginning to tolerate paradoxical relationships between events. There is greater conceptual complexity particularly in interpersonal relations which are highly valued.

7. AUTONOMOUS STAGE (I-5)

The core characteristic here concerns coping with inner conflict, with conflicting needs and with the conflict between needs, ideals and perceptions. There is increased tolerance for the choices and solutions of others and a decrease in moral outrage and condemnation. Role differentiation, individuality and self fulfillment are the pre-occupations and interpersoanl relationships are characterised by an acknowledgement of interdependence and the other's need for autonomy.

8. INTEGRATED STAGE (I-6)

This is the highest level of ego development. Loevinger and Wessler (1970) maintain that in any social group no more than I% of the population falls into this category. Here the person is struggling with renunciation of the unattainable and is proceeding beyond coping with conflicts to acknowledging conflicting demands. Maslow's (1954) "self-actualised" person describes this individual.

As stated before, the sequence of ego development can be interrupted at any point during the life cycle. The consequence of this interruption is a character style corresponding to the level of interruption. However growth does not proceed in a straight line from low to high. All stages are important as part of life and each opens new possibilities for growth (Hauser, 1976; Hoppe, 1972; Loevinger, 1966, 1976).

APPENDIX 2

Jan Smuts Avenue
Johannesburg
2001 South Africa

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND, JOHANNESBURG

August, 1985

Dear Sir/Madam,

The University of the Witwatersrand is presently engaged in a research project to assess the influence that the father's role has on primary school children. In order to get a valid random sample of fathers we need to reach as many families as possible. We would be extremely grateful if we could hand these sealed questionnaires to your Standard II,III and IV children in order for them to deliver these envelopes to their fathers. This will be the only contact involving the school. The questionnaires will be returned to us personally, when completed.

Thanking you in anticipation of your generous co-operation.

Yours sincerely,

Natalie Gordon

(Mrs.) Natalie Gordon, M.A. CLIN. PSY. (INTERN)
School of Psychology (Wits.)

Diana Shmukler

DR. D. SHMUKLER (CLINICAL PSYCHOLOGIST, S.A. Med. & Dent. Council)
Senior Lecturer, School of Psychology (Wits.)

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Enquiries

THE FATHER

Date August, 1985

Dear Sir,

The Psychology Department of the University of the Witwatersrand is engaged in a project to assess the effect of the father's role on primary school children. I am asking the fathers of normal average school children to help in this research. This letter is a request to you to fill in the accompanying questionnaire and thus participate in this project.

Please be assured that all information is strictly confidential and at no time are you asked to divulge your name. The information in this questionnaire is for statistical purposes only.

I would be extremely grateful if you could spare the time to complete the questionnaire and return it to me in the enclosed envelope. If there is anything further you would like to know or discuss, please feel free to phone me in the evening between 6.30 and 8 at this number : 640 1119.

Thanking you for your co-operation.

Yours sincerely,

Natalie Gordon.

(Mrs.) Natalie Gordon, M.A. CLIN. PSY. (INTERN)
School of Psychology, University of the Witwatersrand

Diana Shmukler

Supervisor of project : Dr. D. Shmukler (Clinical Psychologist, S.A. Med. & Dent. Council)
Senior Lecturer, School of Psychology (Wits.)

To be filled in by the Father

CONFIDENTIAL

Thank you for participating in this study.

Will you please answer the following questionnaires as accurately as possible? Read each question carefully and place a tick, or fill in the blank space where applicable. Time required for the entire questionnaire is approximately 45 minutes.

When completed, please post them back to me in the envelope provided.

BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE

"The child" refers to your Standard 2, 3 or 4 child who delivered this questionnaire to you.

1. How old are you? [ ]

2. What is your marital status?

married	divorced	separated	widowed	remarried

3. If a first marriage, how long have you been married? [ ]

4. How old is the child who delivered this questionnaire? [ ]

5. WWhat is her/his position in the family?

youngest	middle	oldest

6. How many children in the family? [ ]

7. Is this child

male	female

?

8. What was your position in your own family of origin?

youngest	middle	oldest

9. What is your home language?

English	Afrikaans	Other

10. What is your highest attained level of education?

Standard 8	Matric.	University degree	Technical College	Other (Specify)

11. What is your present occupation?

12. Have you always worked in this field?

Yes	No

13. Are you self-employed?

Yes	No

14. What is your approximate income per year?

Under R12 000	R12 000 to R24 000	R24 000 to R48 000	over R48 000

15. Was this child planned?

Yes	No

16. Do you spend time alone with your child?

Very Seldom	Occasionally	Very Often

17. How much time do you spend with him/her?

(a) During the week?

Less than 5 hours	5 - 14 hours	Over 14 hours

(b) Over the weekend?

0 - 2 hours	2 - 6 hours	over 6 hours

18. Has your child ever been to a therapist/counsellor for psychological help?

Yes	No

Please complete the following sentences. Try to make your answers brief. There are no right or wrong answers.

1. Raising a family

2. A man's job

3. The thing I like about myself

4. When I am criticised

5. When a child will not join in group activities

6. A good father

7. My mother and I

8. What gets me into trouble is

9. I feel sorry

10. A man feels good when

11. When they talked about sex

12. I just can't stand people who

13. My main problem is

14. A husband has a right to

15. If I can't get what I want

16. A man should always

17. When I am with a woman

18. My father

19. A good mother

20. My conscience bothers me if

Please respond to the following statements. If a statement describes how you usually feel, place a mark (✓) in the column "LIKE ME". If a statement does not describe how you usually feel, place a mark (✓) in the column "UNLIKE ME". There are no right or wrong answers.

		LIKE ME	UNLIKE ME
1.	I often wish I were someone else.	( )	( )
2.	I find it very hard to talk in front of a group.	( )	( )
3.	There are lots of things about myself I'd change if I could.	( )	( )
4.	I can make up my mind without too much trouble.	( )	( )
5.	I'm a lot of fun to be with.	( )	( )
6.	I get upset easily at home.	( )	( )
7.	It takes me a long time to get used to something new.	( )	( )
8.	I'm popular with persons of my own age.	( )	( )
9.	My family usually considers my feelings.	( )	( )
10.	I give in very easily.	( )	( )
11.	My family expects too much of me.	( )	( )
12.	It's pretty tough to be me.	( )	( )
13.	Things are all mixed up in my life.	( )	( )
14.	People usually follow my advice.	( )	( )
15.	I have a low opinion of myself.	( )	( )
16.	There are many times when I would like to leave home.	( )	( )
17.	I often feel upset with my work.	( )	( )
18.	I'm not as nice looking as most people.	( )	( )
19.	If I have something to say, I usually say it.	( )	( )
20.	My family understands me.	( )	( )
21.	Most people are better liked than I am.	( )	( )
22.	I usually feel as if my family is pushing me.	( )	( )
23.	I often get discouraged with what I am doing.	( )	( )
24.	Things usually don't bother me.	( )	( )
25.	I can't be depended on.	( )	( )

Please answer the following 15 items.

1. Please mark the dot on the scale line below which best describes the degree of happiness, everything considered, of your present marriage. The middle point "happy" represents the degree of happiness which most people get from marriage and the scale gradually ranges on one side to those few who are very unhappy in marriage, and on the other, to those few who experience extreme joy or felicity in marriage.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Unhappy			Happy			Perfuctly Happy

State the approximate extent of agreement or disagreement between you and your wife on the following items by checking each item. Please tick each column.

	Always Agree	Almost Always Agree	Occasionally Disagree	Frequently Disagree	Almost Always Disagree	Always Disagree
2. Handling family finances						
3. Matters of recreation						
4. Demonstrations of affection						
5. Friends						
6. Sex relations						
7. Conventionality (right, good or proper conduct)						
8. Philosophy of life						
9. Ways of dealing with in-laws						

10. When disagreements arise, they usually result in :

☐ husband giving in ☐ wife giving in ☐ agreement by mutual give and take

11. Do you and your wife engage in outside interests together?

☐ all of them ☐ some of them ☐ very few of them ☐ none of them

12. In leisure time do you generally prefer :

☐ to be "on the go" ☐ to stay at home

Does your wife generally prefer :

☐ to be "on the go" ☐ to stay at home

13. Do you ever wish you had not married?

☐ Frequently ☐ Occasionally ☐ Rarely ☐ Never

14. If you had your life to live over, do you think you would :

☐ Marry the same person ☐ Marry a different person

☐ Not marry at all

15. Do you confide in your wife :

☐ Almost never ☐ In some things ☐ In most things

☐ In everything

Please mark the position (✓) on the following 20 items that most represents your view of the IDEAL FATHER

4 = the neutral position

e.g. active	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	passive
	✓							

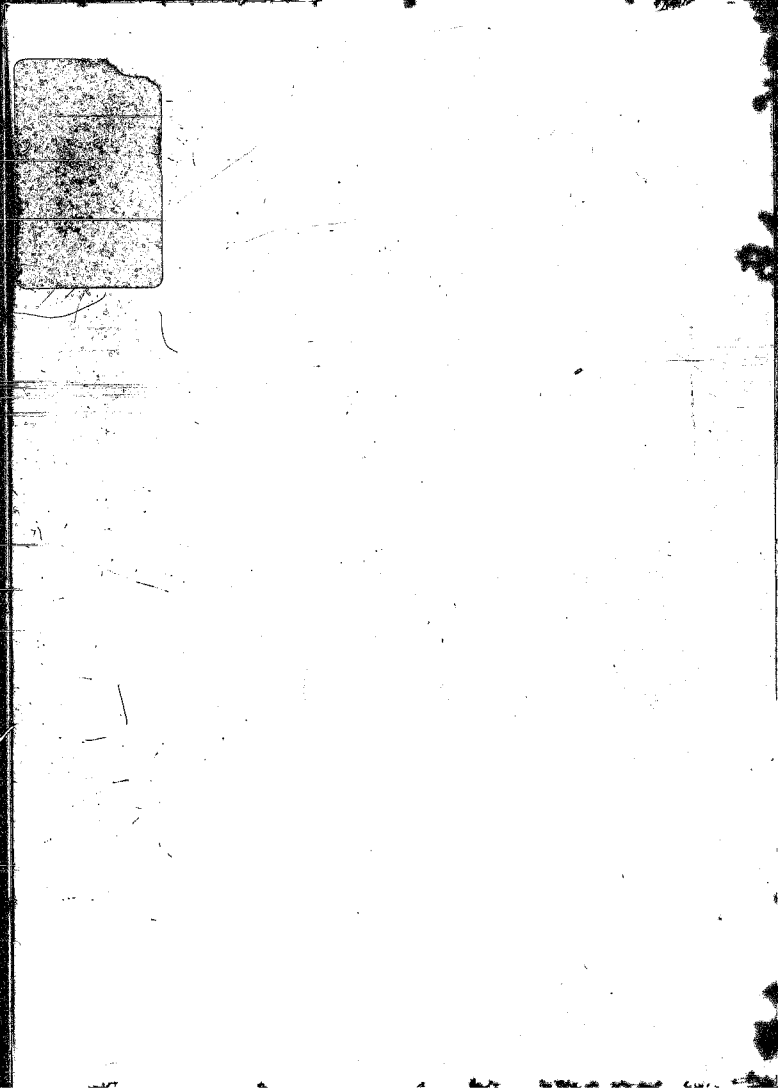
	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	
communicative	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	withdrawn
confident	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	unsure
consistent	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	inconsistent
understanding	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	critical
responsible	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	irresponsible
affectionate	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	undemonstrative
good listener	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	poor listener
flexible	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	rigid
warm	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	distant
intelligent	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	unintelligent
tolerant	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	intolerant
assertive	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	non-assertive
involved	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	uninvolved
fun-loving	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	serious
generous	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	mean
self-motivated	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	needs direction
imaginative	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	dull
leader	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	follower
permissive	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	disciplinarian
sensitive	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	insensitive

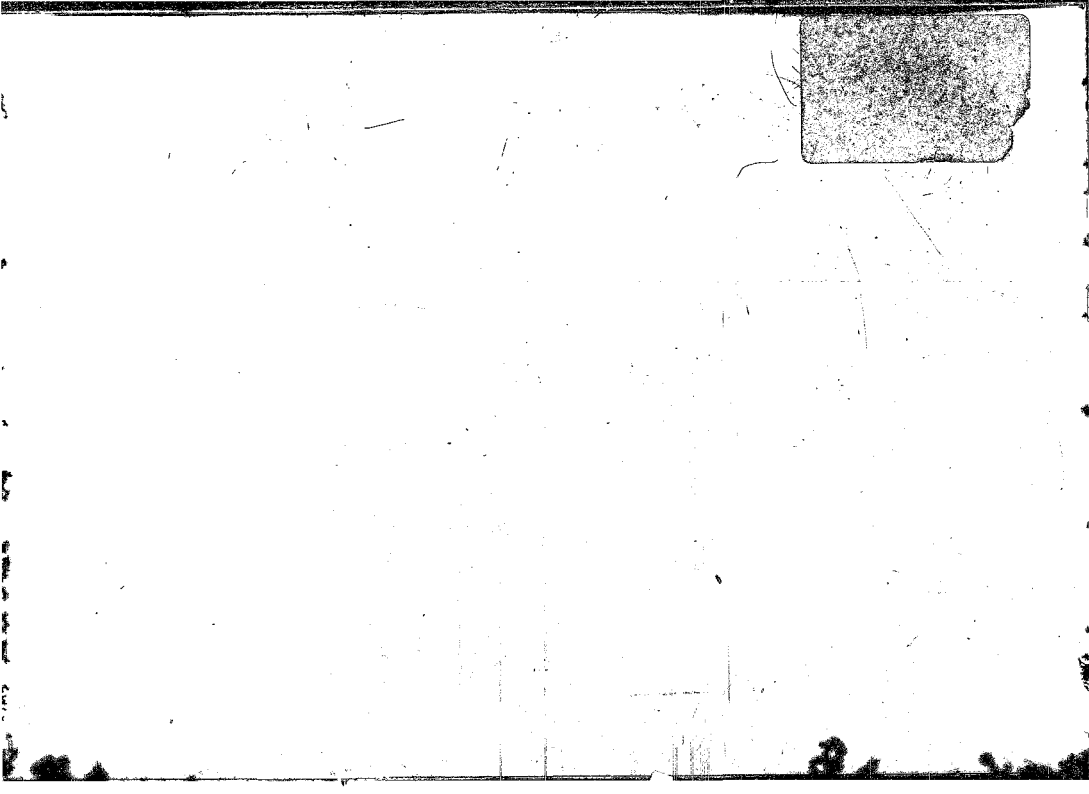
Please mark the position (✓) on the following 20 items that most represents your view of YOURSELF (REAL FATHER)

4 = the neutral position

e.g.	active	7 –	6 –	5 –	4 –	3 –	2 –	1 –	passive

	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	
communicative	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	withdrawn
confident	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	unsure
consistent	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	inconsistent
understanding	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	critical
responsible	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	irresponsible
affectionate	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	undemonstrative
good listener	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	poor listener
flexible	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	rigid
warm	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	distant
intelligent	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	unintelligent
tolerant	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	intolerant
assertive	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	non-assertive
involved	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	uninvolved
fun-loving	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	serious
generous	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	mean
self-motivated	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	needs direction
imaginative	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	dull
leader	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	follower
permissive	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	disciplinarian
sensitive	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	insensitive





Author Gordon Natalie
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