A CORRELATIONAL STUDY OF PERCEIVED PATERNAL NURTURANCE
SELF-PERCEPTION, AND LEADERSHIP STATUS
AMONG FIFTH AND SIXTH GRADE BOYS

A thesis submitted in partial satisfaction of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts in

Education, Educational Psychology,
Early Childhood

by

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The thesis of Nancy Gerard Sample is approved:

California State University, Northridge
May, 1977
DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to the memory of my father, Paul Gerard (March 3, 1910 – February 24, 1977), who always inspired me to begin with a vision and follow it through, and to my husband, Stephen, who helped and encouraged me to succeed.

N.G.S.
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ABSTRACT

A CORRELATIONAL STUDY OF PERCEIVED PATERNAL NURTURANCE, SELF-PERCEPTION AND LEADERSHIP STATUS AMONG FIFTH AND SIXTH GRADE BOYS

by

Nancy Gerard Sample

Master of Arts in Educational Psychology

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship of a boy's perception of a nurturant father, self-perception, and leadership status among fifth and sixth grade boys in a public, elementary school in Southern California.

The subjects randomly selected for this study were 50, fifth and sixth grade males. The Bronfenbrenner Parent Behavior Questionnaire was employed to assess the boy's perception of his relationship with his father or father-figure. The Coopersmith Self-esteem Inventory was utilized to obtain a measure of each subject's self-perception. In order to establish the leadership status of each male participant, the Who Are They? Test was administered to
both males and females in each of four classrooms involved in the study.

The data were analyzed by correlation coefficients and a correlated t-test between perceived paternal nurturance, self-perception, and leadership status.

Results showed that there was a statistically significant relationship between perceived paternal nurturance and self-perception and a significant relationship between self-perception and leadership status for fifth and sixth grade boys at the .05 level. However, no significant relationship was found between leadership status and perceived paternal nurturance. Boys who perceive a nurturing relationship with their fathers and have positive self-concepts may not necessarily be considered leaders among their peers.

From the results of this study, the following recommendations were made: (1) It was recommended that cross-cultural studies be conducted, examining the relationship between perceived paternal nurturance, self-perception, and leadership status. (2) It was recommended that further studies be conducted among middle class children whose language in the home is standard English. (3) It was recommended that each testing instrument be administered on separate days. (4) It was recommended that subjects be randomly selected from several schools rather than one.
It was recommended that further studies be executed to explore the relationship of successful peer interaction and paternal nurturance.
Chapter I

THE PROBLEM

...his heritage to his children wasn't words, or possessions, but an unspoken treasure, the treasure of his example as a man and a father. More than anything I have, I'm trying to pass that on to my children.

Will Rogers, Jr.

It has not been until the past decade that the father-child relationship has been considered significant in the development of the child's personality and social behavior. Previously, most theorists and researchers concentrated on types of mother-child interactions while ignoring the implications and importance of the father's role. Many developmental psychologists (Bowlby, 1951, 1969; Goldfarb, 1955; Ainsworth, 1963, 1964, 1967) assumed that the child's attachment was exclusively and primarily with the mother. Through several systematic studies (Schaffer and Emerson, 1964; Pedersen and Robson, 1969; Biller, 1971; Ban and Lewis, 1971), it has been found that some infants do indeed form strong attachments to their fathers and that this attachment can facilitate the infant's personal, emotional, and social development.

Statement of the Problem

The father-son relationship can have much impact on the child's subsequent relationships with others. The way
the father interacts with his son presents a particularly potent modeling situation which the child is apt to generalize to his association with his peers. When a boy has a warm relationship with a masculine and nurturant father, he has a basis for understanding and mastering his social environment. It has been found (Tuddenham, 1951, 1952; Gray, 1957) that sex-appropriate behavior and popularity with peers are strongly related. The absence of a warm, affectionate relationship with an adult male, during which mutual enjoyment of sex-typed interests and activities take place, can seriously interfere with the boy's social development. Several studies provide data indicating a correlation between paternal nurturance and successful peer group interaction (Helper, 1955; Leiderman, 1959; Mussen et al., 1963).

When considering this relationship, the boy's self-concept must be taken into account. From earliest childhood, we reach out for the affection of people who are important to us. In this process, we build a concept in our minds of behavior which seems to lead to love and acceptance. This emerging pattern gradually becomes a conscious synthesis of what we are and what we think we are to others, especially significant others. (Those whom the individual takes into account when he acts, or, to whom his behavior is oriented in its course.) The parents, because they are the earliest and most consistent influences, are
of prime importance in cultivating the self-concept. It has been found that paternal nurturance has a positive effect on the child's self-concept (Slater, 1962; Coopersmith, 1967; Reuter and Biller, 1973). The boy's peers may also be considered significant others. His self-concept is influential in and affected by his interactions with his peers. Several studies (Mussen and Porter, 1959; Dittes, 1959; Coopersmith, 1967) indicate that a positive self-concept is related to generally adequate peer group relations, including leadership status.

This study was an attempt to investigate whether there is a correlation between three variables: the boy's perception of a nurturant father, self-perception, and leadership status.

Rationale for the Study

A significant, positive relationship has been found between paternal nurturance and peer group interaction (Helper, 1955; Leiderman, 1959; Bronfenbrenner, 1961; Mussen et al., 1963). However, leadership status, per se, has not been taken into account when examining perceived paternal nurturance. In addition, these studies do not take into account the boy's self-perception as an essential variable.

The present study is further justified by differing in
sample characteristics. Unlike the studies pertaining to peer group interaction and paternal nurturance, this study defines the peer group to include both boys and girls.

Statement of the Research Hypotheses

The present study was designed to test the following hypotheses:

1. There is a significant, positive relationship between the boy's perception of a nurturant father and self-perception.

2. There is a significant, positive relationship between the boy's self-perception and his leadership status.

3. There is a significant, positive relationship between the boy's leadership status and his perception of a nurturant father.

Delimitations of the Study

All the subjects participating in this study were male; therefore, the results of this study would only be generalizable to males who are similar to those in this study.

This study was conducted in one elementary school. The school draws its population from a lower, middle class
neighborhood with a high representation of Latins. Therefore, this study is only generalizable to schools with similar populations.

All the male subjects of this study were children with a father or father-figure residing in the home. Therefore, this study is only generalizable to a like population.

Definition of Terms

The definitions of the following terms were considered appropriate for this study:

Attachment. An affectional tie that one person or animal forms between himself and another specific one - a tie that binds them together in space and endures over time.

Paternal Nurturance. The affection, interest, and attentive behavior that the father bestows upon his child.

Self-concept or Self-perception. Self-concept is an abstract, psychological construct and has been variously defined as "the self as known to the self" (Murphy, 1947), "those aspects of the individual which seem most vital and important to the person" (Combs and Snygg, 1959), and "the sum total of all a person can call his" (Jersild, 1950). From these definitions, Purkey (1970) arrived at a composite definition of the "self" as a complex and dynamic system of beliefs which an individual holds true about himself.
In this study, self-perception is operationally defined as the total positive score on the Coopersmith Self-esteem Inventory.

**Peer Group.** The term peer group refers to a number of persons (of about the same age) who are linked together in some kind of group structure involving reciprocal relationships among group members and probably some hierarchical ordering of roles within the group.

**Leadership.** Leadership may be defined as competence in interpersonal relations.

**Sociometric Test.** The technique for evaluating the extent to which pupils are accepted by their peers and for determining the internal structure of the group.

**Organization of the Remainder of the Thesis**

The remainder of the thesis is organized as follows:

Chapter II is a review of a related literature. Chapter III describes the sample, measuring procedure, research design, and statistical analysis. Chapter IV is the presentation and analysis of the data. Chapter V contains the summary, conclusions, and recommendations of the thesis.
Chapter II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The focus of this study was the correlation between perceived paternal nurturance, self-perception, and leadership status in the peer group. (The peer group includes both boys and girls). Research in this area reveals that an important variable, the boy's self-concept, has not been included in the studies pertaining to paternal nurturance and leadership status. Reviewing the literature on the theories and research of paternal nurturance, self-perception, and leadership status is the purpose of this chapter. The chapter will be organized under the following main headings: (1) attachment theory; (2) neglect of inquiry into paternal attachment; (3) biological precedents of human paternal behavior; (4) paternal attachment; (5) paternal nurturance; (6) identification; (7) review of the theories pertaining to self-concept; (8) research related to self-concept and paternal nurturance; (9) research related to self-concept and peer group leadership; (10) research related to paternal nurturance and peer group interaction.
Attachment Theory

The behavior that has been labeled "attachment" is in evidence universally as an outstanding characteristic of early childhood. From infancy, the child seeks physical contact with specific persons in his life. According to Mary Ainsworth (1964, 1967, 1970), an attachment may be defined as an affectional tie that one person or animal forms between himself and another specific one—a tie that binds them together in space and endures over time. The behavioral hallmark of attachment is seeking to gain and to maintain a certain degree of proximity to the object of attachment.

The ethological-evolutionary viewpoint as proposed by Bowlby (1958, 1969) and expanded upon by Ainsworth (1964, 1967, 1970) conceptualizes attachment behaviors as those which promote this proximity or contact. In the human infant, these include signaling behavior (crying, smiling, vocalizing), orienting behavior such as looking, locomotions, toward the specific individual (following, approaching), and active physical contact behavior (grasping, clinging, sucking). The predictable outcome of these behaviors is to bring the mother into physical contact, or else proximity, to the infant.

The very young infant displays attachment behaviors such as crying, sucking, rooting, and smiling although he is sufficiently discriminating to direct them towards a
specific person. These initial behaviors indicate a genetic bias towards becoming attached, which can be terminated or activated by environmental stimuli. Toward the end of the first year, attachment behavior seems to be organized on a purposive or goal-directed basis. As these initial behaviors are supplemented by other active proximity-seeking behaviors which emerge at different times—presumably through a process of learning in the course of mother-infant interaction—they become organized hierarchically and directed specifically toward the mother, forming a "sophisticated, goal-corrected system." Thereby, the infant may be described as having become attached to the mother.

Viewed in the context of evolutionary theory, infant-mother attachment may be seen to fulfill significant biological functions; that is, facilitating species survival in the context of evolutionary adaptiveness. This central element of the Attachment Theory is based upon the naturalistic studies of the primitive hunting and gathering peoples on the savannah and in the forests of Central and Eastern Africa. In man's evolution, there developed a biologically adaptive process which served to protect the infant from external dangers during this period of defenselessness by bringing the adult and infant into close proximity or into actual contact with each other.

The relationship between evolution and attachment has
been highlighted in research into man's origins, extrapolated largely from human groups of hunters and gatherers and from ground-living, non-human primates. Investigators postulate that man travelled quite extensively over open grasslands, under the constant threat of predators. In order to protect their young, Bowlby and Ainsworth argue, signals had to be assigned between the mother and infant. When danger was perceived, certain signals and behavior would call for proximity-seeking behavior. In this respect, Bowlby's and Ainsworth's concept of proximity-maintaining behavior can certainly be comprehended within the context of Darwin's evolutionary principles, positing that the characteristics of any species exists because in adapting to its environment, it gives that species survival advantage (Darwin, 1859). According to Bowlby, (1969) the components of species equipment - anatomical, physiological, and behavioral - give survival advantage to the species or population and are transmitted genetically. Specie-characteristic behavior is not limited to instinctive (fixed action) patterns, but may also include plastic ("environmentally Labile") patterns. Bowlby uses, as an example, imprinting in birds. He points out that although becoming attached to some object is environmentally stable (instinctive) in certain species of birds, the object to which the bird becomes attached is "environmentally labile," depending upon the first moving object to which
the young bird happens to be exposed. When Bowlby says that attachment behavior is instinctive, he means that it is environmentally stable within the environment of adaptation in which it evolved. With the human being, the behavioral systems are believed to be developed within the infant as a result of his interaction with his environment and especially, as a result of his interaction with the principal figure of that environment, namely his mother.

In his book, Attachment and Loss, Bowlby (1969) goes to great length to emphasize the importance for an evolutionary view of human attachment behavior with regard to nature. He assumes that there is a continuity between attachment behavior in man and in other mammals, specifically, the sub-human primates. Bowlby proposes that observations of these species provides information to our understanding of the human mother-child relationship. He points out a number of times the similarities between the caretaking activities of man and those of the sub-human primates. For example, like humans, the great ape and gorilla infant at birth has not the strength to cling to its mother. It is, therefore, the mother who must initiate the proximity between herself and her infant. In the least advanced members of the primate order, the lemur and marmoset, for examples, the infant must from birth do all the clinging. It receives no support from its mother. Advancing a bit further up the continuum, the more advanced
Old World monkeys, such as the baboon and rhesus, do most of the clinging, but in the early weeks of life, are given assistance by the mother. There is an evolutionary shift from the lowest primate who is able to cling before he is able to discriminate its mother from other monkeys (or inanimate objects) to the highest primate, the human infant, who discriminates between his mother and others long before he can take an active part in either moving towards the mother or clinging. This relationship between discrimination and proximity-maintaining behavior forms part of the criteria for judging the beginning of attachment behavior in man.

Although we say that an infant is becoming attached, it is evident that this is a continuous process, occupying a large part of the young child's life. Although the criteria for attachment differs among writers, there seems to be a consensus concerning the phases through which a child passes as he becomes attached. Phase one spans roughly the first few weeks of life, encompassing a period of "orientation and signals without discrimination of figure." Although the infant is unable to discriminate among people, his initial sensory equipment is remarkably efficient and hence, has some capacity to discriminate between different stimuli. The scope of stimuli to which he is most responsive includes the range commonly emanating from human adults. He is, therefore, predisposed to respond in
special ways to humans; to track people with his eyes, to listen when a person is approaching, smile, and to cease crying upon hearing a voice or seeing a human face.

The transition between phase one and phase two is a gradual occurrence, evidenced by the introduction of discrimination between familiar figures and those that are unfamiliar. The infant continues to orient and to signal, but he begins to display markedly different behavior towards his mother. Differential smiling, vocalization, and crying emerge, primarily followed by differential greeting and crying when the mother-figure leaves the room.

There is a fair consensus that the child is finally attached in phase three. However, there is no doubt that there is further significant development of that attachment. Bowlby calls phase three "maintenance of proximity to a discriminated figure by means of locomotion as well as signals." This phase usually starts the sixth or seventh month of life and continues through the second and into the third year of life. During this phase, all the earlier attachment behaviors are still present and differential, but the infant becomes increasingly discriminating in his relations with people, and there is a striking increase in the baby's initiative in promoting proximity and contact. Locomotion facilitates proximity seeking, and he begins using his mother as a base from which to explore. Greeting responses toward familiar figures become more active and
effective, but strangers come to be treated with increasing caution and withdrawal. During this phase, Bowlby (1969) suggests that "goal-corrected" sequences of behavior emerge: sequences guided by a constant stream of feedback so that the baby alters direction, speed, and the nature of his behavior in accordance with that figure to whom he has become attached.

In phase four, usually sometime between the second and third year of life, the "formation of a goal-corrected partnership" is established. The mother is perceived as having set-goals and plans that she is adopting to achieve those goals. The child begins to acquire insight into his mother's motives and attempts to alter her set-goals and plans to fit better with his own in regard to contact, proximity, and interaction.

Both Ainsworth and Bowlby see the mother or mother-figure as being the key factor in the development of attachment. There is a great deal of evidence that in a family setting, most infants of about four months of age are already responding differently to mother as compared to other people. When he sees his mother, an infant at this age will smile and vocalize more readily and follow her with his eyes for longer than he does when he sees anyone else. Yet, it is difficult to determine attachment behavior until the child is also able to behave in such a manner as to maintain his proximity to his mother.
Proximity-maintaining behavior is very much in evidence when the mother leaves the room and the infant cries, or cries and attempts to follow her. Ainsworth (1963, 1967) reports that in one African group of infants, proximity-maintaining behavior was observed in infants as young as fifteen to seventeen weeks and was a very common behavior in infants six months of age.

Ainsworth, like Bowlby, argues that infant-care practices of the mother are a determinant of infant behavior attachment. While conceding that there are genetic factors responsible for individual differences in the quality of the mother-infant attachment, the major variables that influence the development of this relationship are the amount of care the mother gives her infant, the mother's excellence as an informant, and her attitude toward breast feeding. Thus, the sensitivity of the mother in responding to the infant's signals of need and distress and the promptness and appropriateness of her response; the amount of interaction she has with her baby and amount of pleasure they both derive from their encounter; and the extent to which other activities do not interfere with the mother's response to her infant are all significant variables essential to the development of security and attachment.

By most children, attachment behavior is exhibited strongly and regularly until almost the end of the third year. Then, an increase in an infant's perceptual range
and in his ability to understand events taking place around him leads to a change in circumstances that elicit attachment behavior. One change is that a child becomes increasingly aware of an impending departure. He can perceive what his mother's future plans are by the activity occurring around him. However, he becomes increasingly able in a strange place to feel secure with subordinate attachment figures, if they are familiar people he has gotten to know whilst in the company of his mother.

Neglect of Inquiry into Paternal Attachment

The assessment of the infant's attachment to his mother has been a topic of considerable interest to developmental psychologists in the past decade, but far less attention has been given to the nature of the relationship between the infant and the father. Even Bowlby (1951), who does give mention to the father's role, views the father as being "... of no direct importance to the young child, but is of indirect value as an economic support and in his emotional support of the mother." Since most children are raised in nuclear families, containing both a mother and a father, it appears that in focusing so narrowly on mother-infant interaction, we have ignored a relationship which is of tremendous importance in the child's development—that of the father and child.
A particularly dramatic example of the relative neglect of the father's role can be seen in Carmichael's comprehensive *Manual* (Hussen, 1970) which does not list "Father" in the index, but does have an eighty-four page section on attachment. In an article by Nowlis (1952) which bears the title "The Search for Significant Concepts in the Study of Parent-Child Relationships," the word "father" (or its synonyms) does not appear; the entire discussion focuses on mother-child relationships. A review of American family research between 1929 and 1956 reveals only 11 publications pertaining to the father-child relationship, but 160 concerned with the mother-child relationship (Peterson et al., 1969). It is astounding to witness the absence of any literature concerning the father's role when one reviews the numerous studies on the influence of maternal deprivation (Bowlby 1951, 1969; Goldfarb, 1955; Ainsworth 1963, 1964, 1967). Gradually, a body of research is accumulating to document the significance of paternal influences on child development. A number of studies (Phelan, 1964; McCandless, 1967; Rogers and Long, 1968; Burton, 1972; Green, 1974) have contrasted children, particularly males, reared under father-present and father-absent conditions. Significant differences have been repeatedly reported in such areas as sex-role development, cognitive style, intellectual level and factors related to behavioral disturbance.
Biological Precedents to Human Paternal Behavior

Paternal behavior is not limited to humans, but is found in many other animals as well. Among mammals, the male generally exercises little paternal care, perhaps because of the unique way in which mammals nurse their young. However, the male wolf and fox enter into a prolonged pair association with the female. The male will regurgitate for the pups as well as provide for the female (Eisenberg, 1966; Estes and Goddard, 1967). All members of the dwarf mongoose family, including the father, participate in taking care of the young. All help to carry the infants to and from the nest, and the father takes active participation in the grooming of the young (Eisenberg, 1966).

In his book, The Evolution of Primate Behavior, A. Jolly (1972) discusses the tremendous range of adult male-infant interactions among different species or even groups within a species of nonhuman primates. The behavior of adult primate males ranges from hostility toward the young-including killing and eating them-through indifference, to behavior that is as warm and nurturant as that of the mother. Although there does not seem to be a strong emphasis on paternal-infant attachment in the sight of danger, there have been findings to indicate that male primates have the capacity to be effective caretakers and socializers of the young. Except for nursing, the male
marmoset (a monkey of Central and South America) takes over almost complete care of the infant. The father is much less aggressive and competitive than the mother. Researchers describe the behavior of marmosets kept in a cage in their backyard (Hampton, 1964; Hampton, Hampton, and Landwehr, 1966). When female twins were born, both adult males in the cage showed extreme interest in them, handling the young around among themselves and the mother. Mitchell (1969) reports that one species of new-world monkeys, the titi monkey, is the most paternalistic primate known. The father carries the infant virtually all the time, except when it is nursing.

In contrast to New World monkeys, among which the father is consistently paternalistic, adult Old World monkeys from Asia show a wide range of behavior. Redican and Mitchell (1973) found that the adult rhesus monkey, a particularly irritable and aggressive primate, shows either strong, paternalistic affection or brutal aggression towards the infants. In a laboratory situation, the males were capable of rearing an infant monkey and in some cases, a strong attachment did develop. However, it has been witnessed in the natural field that if an infant bothers an adult male while he is eating, the male will attack by picking it up, biting it, and throwing it to the ground.

Another Old World monkey, the Japanese macaque, behaves toward the young quite differently than the rhesus.
During the delivery season, the mature males of high rank protect the "toddlers" as the mothers do at other times. They hug the infant, groom it, play with it, and take it on walks (Itani, 1963).

Both the male baboon and chimpanzee have been found to be protective and nurturant caretakers. The male assumes a permissive and guarding attitude toward the young until the juvenile is about thirty months old. Then, the juvenile becomes part of the dominance hierarchy of the entire group (De Vore, 1963).

There is general agreement that man is not a direct descendant of other present-day primates, although he might be considered a distant relative. Both man and apes probably evolved from a common group of primates, but they are from different branches of biological specializations. Therefore, we cannot consider the paternal behavior observed in other primates representative of the origins of paternal behavior in man. Animal research with humans and human experience must be the final arbiter.

According to Lynn (1974) in *The Father: His Role in Child Development*, primitive man's infant - immature, undeveloped, and helpless longer than other animals - could not possibly be protected from predators solely by the mother, confined as she was by the intimate care required by the baby. Male assistance was essential for the survival of the species. Lynn feels that the motivating
element that drove man into family life must have been biological. He sees the sexual attachment the male has for the female as a prime motivating force in establishing a bond with his child. Unlike other primates where the female shows only seasonal sexual interest and availability and sexual interest is matched by man's continuous sexual interest in women. This theory postulates that man joined with woman to form a family for a biological reason rather than cultural. The consequent contact with the young established a feeling of attachment and gentleness in the male.

Paternal Attachment

Schaffer and Emerson (1964) were among the first investigators to present data indicating that some infants form their principal attachments with their fathers. In their study of eighteen-month-old Scottish children, they measured attachment by the child's protest and distress behavior in a separation situation. They found that, during the month after the children first showed attachment behavior, one-quarter of them were directing it to other members of the family, and the father was the most frequent of the other figures to elicit attachment behavior.

The degree of attachment to the father was found by Pederson and Robson (1969) to be related to the degree of
paternal participation. The infants' behavior was observed at eight months and again, at nine and one-half months. Mothers (not the fathers) were interviewed regarding father participation. The investigators found that the degree to which the father participated in caretaking, engaged in stimulating play, and was generally emotionally involved with his infant son, was related to the infant's attachment to his father (i.e., intensity of infant's greeting behavior, directed smiles, vocalizations, increased level of excitement). In this study, Pederson and Robson also discovered that approximately three-fourths of the infants appeared to be strongly attached to their fathers; data inconsistent with the traditional notion that the infant forms an exclusive, strong attachment to the mother.

The relationship between the sex of the child and the sex of the parent as related to the expression of attachment behavior was investigated by Lewis, Weinraub, and Ban (1972). By using a play situation with first one parent, then the other, they were able to focus upon the infant-parent interactions. The investigators found that at one-year-old, the infants displayed touching and proximity-seeking about twice as often towards their mothers as towards their fathers. However, when tested again at two-years-old, there was a tendency for the children to spend more time in the proximity of their fathers rather than their mothers. In addition, the boys tended to vocalize
more towards their fathers.

Evidence (Goldberg and Lewis, 1969; Ainsworth and Bell, 1970; Ban and Lewis, 1971) has provided for this notion that there are two modes of behavior children use to express attachment: a proximal mode which includes touching and staying near, and a distal mode which includes looking and vocalizing. The results in this study support the transformational analysis of attachment behavior suggested by Ban and Lewis (1971). As they grow older, children change the behaviors they use to maintain contact with the parent. The investigators found that touching, a proximal behavior, tends to decrease from one to two years of age, while looking, a distal behavior, increases with age. In the study, the fathers estimated that they spent approximately 15-20 minutes of play a day with their one-year-olds. Therefore, it is understandable why the child has a stronger attachment to the mother who is the chief caretaker at this age. As the child grows older and more caregiving activities, such as play, replaces caretaking activities, proximal attachment behavior towards the father becomes stronger and may even become equal to the level found for the mother.

The prominence of play in the father-infant relationship helps to make the father a person with whom interaction is pleasurable and varied. Lamb (1975) conducted a study, examining father-infant and mother-infant relation-
ships by observing 20 infants, 10 boys and 10 girls, 7 and 8 months of age, with their parents in their homes. Comparisons were made between the frequencies of affiliative - and attachment behaviors (including smiling, looking, vocalizing, reaching, approaching, and seeking to be held) which were directed by the infant towards the adult. Lamb found a significant preference for their fathers over their mothers. It was also noted that the fathers engaged in more physically stimulating and unpredictable games, provoking enjoyable and diverse interaction.

Research reviewed here clearly indicates that the father has a definite bearing on the child's development. There is a great need to modify the traditional view that the infant's attachment is usually exclusively and primarily with the mother and that the father does not become an important figure for the child until post-infancy.

The father-infant relationship appears to have much impact on the child's subsequent relationships with others. The way the father interacts with the child presents a particularly potent modeling situation which the child is apt to generalize to his relationship with his peers. By exploring different facets of the father-son relationship, one is able to perceive the father's influence on his son's social development. There are several specific dimensions of paternal behavior that must be taken into account: paternal nurturance, identification, paternal dominance,
and father absence.

**Paternal Nurturance**

Most often, paternal nurturance refers to the affection, interest, and attentive behavior that the father bestows upon his child. For the most part, such behavior does not manifest itself in caretaking activities such as those mentioned when describing maternal nurturance. Indeed, Lamb (1975) postulates that the prominence of play in the father-infant relationship contributes to their pleasurable, varied, and unpredictable interaction. The father serves to introduce the child to the world beyond the home and determines the attitude with which the child approaches the world.

In Pedersen's study (Father Participation in Infancy, 1969) the larger proportion of the male sample, for whom they saw relatively clear attachment, had fathers who were: nurturant, actively, but patiently involved with the baby, and more emotionally invested in his upbringing and development. These fathers were behaving according to what social learning theorists postulates are conditions which facilitate identification with the father (to be discussed in detail later). The one-quarter of the same who did not show attachment to the father, whose fathers were more distant, less actively involved, and possibly more anxiety
arousing, would be predicted to have minimal identification with the father.

Investigation with adolescent males have provided findings indicating that general personality development, as well as sex role functioning, is enhanced by a positive father-son relationship. Mussen (1961) found that in addition to having more masculine interests, adolescents who regarded their fathers as warm and affectionate were emotionally more stable and mature than adolescents who reported little positive involvement with their fathers. On a further note, Heilbrun (1962) found that adolescents who perceived themselves as being unlike their fathers were anxious, feminine, socially immature, and lacking in self-confidence. According to maternal interview data collected by Mussen and Distler (1960), the high masculine boys in their study had closer and more nurturing relationships with their fathers than did the low masculine boys. Interviews with the boys' mothers indicated a trend for the fathers of the high masculine boys to take care of their sons more often, as well as have more responsibility for family childrearing practices. In Bronsons' (1959) investigation, preadolescent boys who had fathers who were warm, affectionate, and supportive, tended to tell stories which suggested a strong, masculine, sex role orientation. In a questionnaire study with college students, Distler (1964) found a significant relationship between perceived paternal
nurturance and the masculinity of the subjects' self-descriptions.

The amount of verbal interaction fathers direct toward their infants was studied by Rebelsky and Hanks (1971). They attached small microphones to the clothing of the infants. There were ten, middle-class families involved in the study. Recordings were made during the time the infants were two weeks old until they were three and one-half months old. Rebelsky and Hanks found evidence of very little paternal verbal interaction. The average amount of father-infant interaction per day was a little more than ten minutes, and most of the fathers, particularly those with girls, spent even less time with their infants in the latter part of the study. Biller (1971) points out that many fathers interact with their infants without verbalizing.

Well-fathered infants, according to Biller (1974) are much more curious in exploring their environment than are infants who are paternally deprived. Well-fathered infants appear to be more secure and more trustful in branching out in their explorations. There are also indications that their motor development in terms of crawling, climbing, and manipulating objects is advanced.

In reference to the studies reviewed here, the nur- turant father has a positive impact on his son's social and emotional development. Research findings indicate that the
general personality development of the boy is enhanced by a positive father-son relationship. This consistent nurturance and positive feedback from an involved father, or significant older male, augments the masculine development of the son (Payne and Mussen, 1956; Mussen and Distler, 1959; Heilbrun and Fromme, 1965; Moulton et al., 1966). As stated previously, the boy develops an attachment to his father in the first year or two of life. This attachment creates a positive beginning for a father-son relationship that, even in infancy, appears to affect the masculine development of the son.

Identification

Several theorists (Sears, 1953; Kagan, 1958; and Gewirtz and Stengle, 1968) suggest that paternal warmth facilitates identification with the parent, particularly the same-sexed child. The boy who receives positive fathering is motivated to interact with other males, but is also independent enough to resist passive conformity. He is more likely to be a leader and is better able to communicate with his peers. He is more comfortable with his masculinity and thereby, is able to contend with peer group pressure for masculine behavior (Biller, 1974). A "high masculine" group of adolescents, studied by Mussen (1961), were all well identified with their fathers. The
investigator found the group to be "better adjusted, more contented, more relaxed, more exuberant, happier, calmer, and smoother in social functioning" than boys low in masculinity.

The major hypotheses pertaining to the boy's sex role development have been derived from theories of identification. These hypotheses postulate the importance of the father behaving in a particular way if his son is to identify with him and become masculine.

Psychoanalytic theory has provided the most widely accepted explanation of the identification process. Freud's theory of the resolution of the Oedipus conflict emphasizes the importance of the father being punitive and threatening. The young boy is sexually attracted to his mother, but fears castration by his father. He resolves this conflict by identifying with the father; thereby, reducing anxiety over anticipated punishment (by castration) for his incestuous wishes toward his mother. Fear of punishment, rather than fear of loss of love, thus provides the primary incentive for a boy to identify with his father. In line with this view is an article by Collette (1957) which reported that children's earliest memories of the father do not go back earlier than three years of age and are most often unpleasant rather than pleasant. After this, (presumably due to the resolution of the Oedipal conflict) the image of the father changes to a
collaborative, protected one, though still frustrating. Although Freud offered many sensitive observations, and his theory has had a profound effect on our culture and not only in the behavioral sciences, but also in literature, art, and theatre - his formulations are held in low esteem by some social scientists. Some of Freud's broad constructs (i.e., libido, id, the Oedipus conflict) can apparently be neither validated nor invalidated.

Parsons (Parsons and Bales, 1955) elaborates on the theme of the father as society's representative within the family and the family's representative within society. Parsons regards the father as playing the "instrumental" role in the family and the mother the "expressive" role. He directs the family towards specific goals; he pries the children loose from mother-dependency so they can grow up to accept responsibilities in adult society; he is expected to issue out authority, discipline, and sound judgment, accepting the hostility generated by the conduct of his role. The mother's role as caretaker enables her to carry out the expressive functions. She must maintain smooth relations among family members, absorb stresses and strains, and act as mediator of the father-child relationship. These activities perpetuate family solidarity and sustain the children's emotional security. Freud's theory of the resolution of the Oedipus conflict and Parsons' theory of the expressive and instrumental functions hold in
common the view that the father is the parent who incites children to incorporate the prohibitions, rules, principles, and values of society (Lynn, 1974).

The Social-learning theorists initially translated Freud into learning-theory language. Mowrer (1950) describes two forms of identification: developmental and defensive. Developmental identification is:

...powered mainly by biologically given drives (fear of loss of love in the analytic sense)... and defensive identification is powered by socially inflicted discomforts (castration fear or less dramatically, simply fear of punishment (p. 592).

Despite the obvious similarity of Freud, there are marked differences. In the first place, Mowrer generalizes beyond Freud's principles to include fear of punishment rather than be restricted to castration fear. The major departure, however, is that Mowrer focuses on the developmental form within the learning theory framework. For example, Mowrer (1950), in a study of talking birds, suggested that the words of the nurturant trainer became rewarding. Later, when the bird heard its own voice making the same sounds, it automatically rewarded itself. Similarly, the child, by imitating his mother, can provide himself a substitute for her when she begins withdrawing love from him. In this view, one of the more important conditions for identification is a warm, affectionate relationship with the person with whom he identifies. Some empirical support to this is found by Payne and Mussen (1956), who in
adolescent boys observed a significant relationship between identification with the father and perception of him as a highly rewarding, affectionate person.

Sears and associates (1965), also modifying Freudian concepts within a learning theory framework, stress dependency, in conjunction with the occasional withholding of love, as a mechanism that brings about identification. Sears (1957) wrote that the actions learned by the child through imitation are those that the parent performs in gratifying the child's dependency. If the father was always present and nurturant, the boy would have little occasion to copy his actions in order to obtain self-reinforcement. On the other hand, if the father is not nurturant or withdraws his attention and affection as a disciplinary or training technique, the child will not be motivated to reproduce his actions. Thus, the motive to identify will be strongest when the child is given affection and nurturance that are periodically withdrawn in order to create a situation in which the child will be rewarded by reproducing his parents' behavior.

Status envy, a theory proposed by Whiting (1959, 1960), places primary emphasis on the defensive aspects of the identification process. This theory represents an extension of the Freudian hypothesis that identification is the outcome of a rivalrous interaction between the child and the parent who occupies an envied status. While Freud presents
the child as in competition with the father only for the mother's sexual and affectional attention, Whiting regards any form of reward, material or social, as valued resources around which rivalry may develop. He further assumes that the more a child envies the status of another person in respect to those resources of which he feels deprived, the more he will play the role of that person in fantasy. Thus, when a child competes unsuccessfully with an adult for affection, attention, food, and care, he will envy that adult and consequently identify with him.

Imitation theory, according to Bandura and Walters (1963) can account for all the development that is explained by identification theory. These social-learning theorists have abandoned the Freudian theory altogether. In an experimental situation in which the ostensible task was a discrimination problem, preschool children were shown to pattern their behavior on irrelevant, as well as relevant, aspects of an adult model's behavior. Moreover, this identification was, in general, closer with children having a "nurturant" relationship with the model that those having a "distant" initial experience. The investigators predicted that a child will choose to model after a person whom he envies or who has more power than he had. If these predictions are accurate, it follows that the child will imitate and develop similarity to the dominant parent; the parent whom he is most likely to envy and who possesses the
most power.

There are such widely differing definitions of the term "identification" that perhaps the term has lost adequate specificity for scientific purposes. Indeed, Sanford (1955) said of the term:

A term that can be employed in so many different ways and that...has been accepted by most psychologists and sociologists, could hardly mean anything very precise...We must, in any case, specify 'what kind' (of identification)...(p. 107).

As reviewed in this section, several investigators (Mowrer, 1950; Bandura and Walters, 1963; Sears et al., 1965) have focused on the way the son identifies with his father and on the influence of the father in the child's acquisition of masculine characteristics. Some social learning theorists, according to Lynn (1974) have made much of the boy's need to shift his initial identification from his mother in order to establish his masculinity. The boy not only has the problem of ceasing to pattern himself after his mother, but also finds difficulty in establishing identity with his father who, in many cases, may not be readily available due to long working hours. Consequently, the boy must turn to significant people in his life - peers, teachers, heroes, his mother - to help him define the masculine role. These influential people help to define the masculine role for the boy by selectively reinforcing (rewarding) masculine behavior and punishing feminine behavior.
Both Freud's theory of the resolution of the Oedipus conflict and Parson's theory of the expressive and instrumental parental functions view the father as the parent who incites his children to embody the prohibitions, rules, principles, and values of society. However, in some societies, there appears to be a dwindling in the effectiveness of the father in the home. German psychoanalyst Alexander Mitscherlich (1970) feels that the influence and image of the father in society has diminished under the impact of modern industrialization and urbanization. Such a loss leaves cultures vulnerable to alienation, irresponsibility, aggression, peer-group orientation, and anxiety.

Eric Fromm (1971) also believes that patriarchal authority is collapsing, taking the patriarchal principles with it. He feels that we are turning to the matriarchal society, which will stand in the way of the full development of the individual.

The Freudian, Parsonian, and social-learning imply that the boy needs to identify with the father in order to establish masculinity. If the father is unavailable, then the mother becomes the significant person in defining his masculine role. We must consider, however, one possibility that has developed with the on-set of the Women's Liberation Movement, an increase in divorce rates, and the need for a second salary in the home: the working mother. She, too, is unavailable as a model to the boy. He may then,
and usually does, turn to his peers. From the peer culture, according to Nash (1965), the boy may adopt a preadolescent concept of masculinity, taking the gang phase to be one in which peer pressures are high. It seems apparent that the progress toward a maturer concept of the male role requires that the model be an already mature and socialized adult.

It appears that there is a tendency for an individual to reproduce the actions, attitudes, and emotional responses exhibited by his parents; thereby, becoming similar to them. The identification theories discussed here have had a profound influence on the research pertaining to the father-child relationship. However, as Lynn (1974) points out, the theories should be used only as frames of reference in exploring the relationship. A theory must be considered as a tentative way for explaining observations - not to be totally rejected nor unquestioningly accepted. It can generate many useful hypotheses to guide investigators into potentially productive research.
Theories Relating to Self-Concept*

The self-concept has been variously defined as "the self as known to the self" (Murphy, 1947), "those aspects of the individual which seem most vital and important to the person (Combs and Snygg, 1959), and "the sum total of all a person can call his" (Jersild, 1960). From these definitions, Purkey (1971) arrives at a composite definition of the "self" as a complex and dynamic system of beliefs which an individual holds true about himself. Purkey goes on to list what he considers the characteristics of the self:

1. The self is organized and dynamic.
2. To the experiencing individual, the self is the center of his personal universe.
3. Everything is observed, interpreted, and comprehended from his personal vantage point.
4. Human motivation is a product of the universal striving to maintain, protect, and enhance the self. (p. 13)

In the formation of the self-concept, most theorists agree, social interactions are of crucial importance. The following three theories on the development of the self-concept call for the individual to read the reflection of himself from the minds of others.

The relationship between self and others was

*Unfortunately, when reviewing the literature, this author found the terms "self-concept" and "self-esteem" used synonymously. For the purposes of this paper, the term "self-concept" is considered as a purely descriptive part of the self - how a person sees and thinks of himself - while "self-esteem" refers to the evaluation of the self - how favorably a person regards himself.
recognized long ago by the sociologists Baldwin (1897), 
Cooley (1902), and Mead (1925). Cooley (1902) was the 
first to put forward the "looking glass" theory of the 
self - to see ourselves, we look to see how we are 
reflected in the reactions of others. In other words, the 
self-concept is a product of the reflected appraisals of 
others, especially significant others.

Cooley's ideas emerged from the line of thought which 
began with Pierce (1868). He was perhaps the first to 
indicate that the self-concept was more than intuitive, but 
was inferred from the testimony of other people. William 
James (1890) expanded Pierce's basic idea and proposed a 
social self which was the recognition man receives from his 
peers.

Properly speaking, a man has many social selves 
as there are individuals who recognize him in their 
minds. To wound any one of these images is to 
wound him. (p. 294)

To Cooley, the "self and society are twin born..." 
(1902, p. 5). This observation follows the earlier descrip-
tions of the evaluation of the self-concept from distinc-
tions between the agent and the social object. The self 
and other mutually define each other. However, it is 
apparent that not all others are equal in determining the 
individual's self-concept:

The self-idea of this sort seems to have three 
principal elements: the imagination of our 
appearance to the other person; the imagination 
of his judgment of that appearance; and some sort 
of self-feeling, such as pride or mortification. (p. 184)
Mead (1934) advanced the theory of the social nature of the self-concept by analyzing the characteristic of vocalizations whereby the self and the other are at once the audience, thereby facilitating the ability of the speaker to put himself in the place of the other and take "the attitude of others toward himself." (p. 90) Here, Mead introduces the concept of generalized others. He theorizes that no individual experiences himself directly, only indirectly from the viewpoint of other members of the same social group or from the generalized viewpoint of that social group to which he belongs.

Sullivan (1953) describes the self as a system which begins when the infant is subjected more and more to the social responsibilities of the parents. The infant learns to distinguish the self from others while still being very much included with others. Sullivan's development of the interpersonal theory of psychiatry places exclusive emphasis on the "significant other." His application of the term, because of his primary interest in the socialization of the infant and child, is restricted to parents. However, "significant other" has been gradually extended to include all those who are instrumental in the formation of the individual's self-concept.

The work of Cooley, Mead, and Sullivan makes clear that the individual's self-appraisal is, to an important extent, derived from reflected appraisals - his
interpretation of others' reactions to him. It therefore appears that the child's relationship with his father and his prestige in his peer group have a bearing upon his own feelings of self.

Research Related to Self-Concept and Paternal Nurturance

Parent-child relations are said to be an important aspect in the development of self-esteem for a following reasons:

1. The self-concept is a learned constellation of perceptions, cognitions, and values.
2. An important part of this learning comes from observing the reactions one gets from other persons.
3. The parents are the persons who are present earliest and most consistently. (Wylie, 1961, p. 121)

The boy's pattern for himself in the male role is obtained from his identification with his father. Here, according to Sullivan, he is reading the reflection of himself from the mind of his father (or "significant other"). It would follow that a close father-son relationship would be conducive to a positive self-concept in the boy. In other words, the father's interest and consistent participation and nurturance appears to strongly contribute to the development of the child's self-concept.

Adolescent boys with unaffectionate relationships with their fathers are, according to Mussen et al. (1963), particularly likely to feel rejected and unhappy. Slater
(1962) examined the relationship between college men's personality characteristics and their perceptions of their parents. Students who scored high on questionnaire measures of ego strength and social competence were likely to perceive their fathers as affectionate and emotionally supportive. Those students who scored low, suggesting a weak ego strength, impulsiveness, and social introversion, usually saw their fathers as being inhibiting in their demands and discipline. Paternal involvement was positively associated with the son's responsivity toward others. In Coopersmith's (1967) study of elementary school boys, those whose fathers were involved in limit-setting were much more likely to have high self-esteem. In contrast, the boys with low self-esteem were much more likely to be punished exclusively by their mothers. Coopersmith also noted that boys who were able to confide in their fathers were likely to have high self-esteem.

In 1973, Reuter and Biller studied the relationship between various combinations of perceived nurturance-availability and college males' personality adjustment. A family background questionnaire was used to assess perception of father-child relationships and the amount of time the father spent at home when the subjects were children. The personal adjustment scale of Gough and Heilbruns's Adjective Check List and the socialization scale of the California Psychological inventory were
employed as measures of personality adjustment. Reuter and Biller found that a male who has adequate opportunities to observe a nurturant father can imitate his behaviour and develop positive personality characteristics. In contrast, high paternal nurturance combined with low paternal availability and high paternal availability combined with low paternal nurturance were associated with relatively poor scores on the personality adjustment measures. The boy whose father is highly nurturant, but is seldom at home, may feel frustration that his father is not available more often and may find it difficult to imitate such an elusive figure. The boy whose father is nurturant and an inadequate model, but is continually present, may be especially hampered in his personality development. Indeed, Reuter and Biller feel that the boy with the unnurturant father may be better off if his father's availability is limited. This is consistent with evidence that suggests that father-absent boys often have better personality adjustment than boys with passive, ineffectual fathers (Biller, 1971).

Research Related to Self-Concept and Peer Group Leadership

A favorable self-concept is essential to the effective functioning of the child. Persons who seek psychological and psychiatry help frequently acknowledge that they suffer from feelings of inadequacy and unworthiness (Wylie, 1961).
They tend to perceive themselves as helpless and inferior (Rogers, 1954). On the other hand, Coopersmith (1967) found that children high in their estimation of themselves approached tasks and persons with the expectation that they would be well received and successful.

They have confidence in their perceptions and judgments and believe that they can bring their efforts to a favorable resolution. Their favorable self-attitudes lead them to accept their own opinions and place credence and trust in their reactions and conclusions. This permits them to follow their own judgments when there is a difference of opinion and also permits them to consider novel ideas. (p. 70)

Coopersmith (1967) selected two groups from his sample for a special study. He found that the children with good self-concepts were more popular, higher achievers, held high ideal concepts of themselves, and were less anxious than the children who had poor self-concepts.

The question of the effectiveness in groups of people holding high or low esteem for themselves is dealt with in the Mussen and Porter study (1959). This study used male volunteers from under-graduate psychology classes. The young men highest in feelings of adequacy and with favorable rather than negative self-concepts were rated by other men who took part with them in leaderless discussion groups as being generally more effective than those who expressed feelings of inadequacy and negative self-concepts.

A related study (Dittes, 1959) supports the Mussen and Porter conclusions: the self-esteem rating of 104 male college freshmen were positively correlated with ratings of
adequacy made by the fellow group members.

These studies support the suggestion that self-concepts are related to generally adequate social functioning, including leadership and popularity.

Research Related to Paternal Nurturance and Peer Group Interaction.

Leadership may be defined as competence in interpersonal relations (Knowles, 1971). By interpersonal relations, Knowles means the whole range of human conduct between individuals who interact as they are involved in relationships of communicating, cooperating, changing, problem-solving, and motivating. This investigator is dealing solely with the boy's success in his peer group interactions as a determinant of leadership.

The boy who receives positive fathering is particularly well-suited to effectively influence his peer group. He is motivated to interact with other males, but also independent enough to resist passive conformity. He is more likely to be a leader. (Biller, 1974, p. 84). Studying high school boys, Help (1955) found that boys who perceived themselves as similar to their fathers were likely to be highly accepted by their peers. In a study of 42 nine- to ten-year-old boys, Leiderman (1959) found that the affectional relationships with the parents had important effects on the acceptance of the boy by his peers. She points out
that boys whose fathers were prestigeful models were more secure in their relationships with their peers, provided the fathers allowed the boys some freedom. In another study, self-confidence, assertiveness, and over-all competence in peer group interactions were related to a warm father-son relationship (Hoffman, 1961).

The amount of time adolescent boys spent with their fathers, reported Bronfenbrenner (1961), was positively related to the degree of leadership and responsibility that the boys displayed in school. On the basis of their findings, Mussen et al. (1963) concluded that instrumental achievement striving was more frequent among adolescent boys with affectionate father-son relationships than among those with unaffectionate relationships. Findings from several studies suggest that males who have been father-absent during childhood generally have lower achievement motivation and experience less career success than do males who have been father present (McClelland, 1961; Terman and Oden, 1947; Veroff et al., 1960).

Summary of Studies in List Form

Five major conclusions from the literature about the father-son relationship will be summarized in list form, along with examples of studies supporting each conclusion.

1. Some infants form very strong attachments to their fathers.
(Schaffer and Emerson, 1964; Pedersen and Robson, 1969; Ban and Lewis, 1961; Lewis, Weinraub, and Ban, 1973: Lamb, 1975)

2. A boy's masculine development is facilitated when he identifies with his father.
(Payne and Mussen, 1956; Mussen and Distler, 1959; Freedheim, 1960; Mussen, 1961; Mussen and Rutherford, 1963; Heilbrun, 1965; Moulton et al., 1966)

3. Paternal nurturance contributes to the development of the child's positive self-concept.
(Slater, 1962; Mussen et al., 1963; Siegelman, 1965; Coopersmith, 1967; Esty, 1969; Reuter and Biller, 1973)

4. Positive self-concept is related to generally adequate social functioning.
(Mussen and Porter, 1959; Dittes, 1959; Coopersmith, 1967)

5. A nurturing father-son relationship is a basis for successful peer group interaction.
(Helper, 1955; Leiderman, 1959; Hoffman, 1961; Bronfenbrenner, 1961; Mussen et al., 1963)

Summary

The behavior that is labeled "attachment" has been defined as an affectional tie that one person forms between himself and another specific person. Both Bowlby and Ainsworth conceptualize attachment behaviors as those which promote and maintain a certain degree of proximity to the object of attachment. Bowlby's (1969) now classical work, based on an ethnological-psychoanalytical perceptive, was first and foremost an attempt to explain social relationships as a biological imperative. The author argued rather effectively that the mother-infant bond was as biologically
important to the survival and well-being of the infant as was the satisfaction of any of the other primary drives. However, Bowlby considered the child's social world to exist almost exclusively between the infant and the mother. He viewed the father as being "...of no direct important to the young child." (p. 158)

Although there is a general agreement that man is not a direct descendant of other present-day primates, it is interesting to observe their behavior in order to formulate hypotheses about human behavior. Several investigators (Eisenberg, 1966; Estes and Goddard, 1967; Hampton et al., 1966; Jolly, 1972) discuss at great length the vast range of adult male-infant interactions among different species of the primate world.

Paternal nurturance refers to the affection, interest, and attentive behavior that the father bestows upon his child. In 1964, Schaffer and Emerson were among the first investigators to substantiate that some infants do form their principal attachments to their fathers. Thereafter, followed several studies (Pederson and Robson, 1969; Rebelsky and Hanks, 1971; Lewis et al., 1973; Lamb, 1975), exploring the father-infant relationship.

Paternal nurturance can have much impact on the child's subsequent alliance with others. By examining different facets of the father-son relationship, one is able to perceive the father's influence on his son's social development.
The author has reviewed several specific dimensions of paternal behavior (i.e., nurturance, identity, self-concept, peer group interaction, and leadership) in order to better understand the father-son relationship as it affects peer group status for the boy.
Chapter III

METHODOLOGY

The purposes of this chapter were (a) to describe the method of preparation for testing, (b) to describe the method for obtaining a sample, (c) to describe the instrumentation and test administration, and (d) to describe the treatment of data and scoring procedures.

Preparation for Testing

Permission to conduct the testing was obtained from the administration of the elementary school involved. To accomplish this, it was necessary to: (1) contact the principal of the school; (2) discuss the original proposal; (3) make tentative plans for the collection of the data; and (4) decide upon the classrooms to be involved in the study.

Sample

The sample for this study was drawn from the population of fifth- and sixth-grade students enrolled at a public elementary school in Los Angeles, California.
the four classrooms of fifth- and sixth-graders, the researcher randomly selected the subjects for this study.

Since no specific criteria was used to assign students to classrooms at this school, student assignments were assumed to be random. The students participating in the study were representative of the school's population, which consists predominantly of children from Latin, lower-middle class, Spanish-speaking parentage.

Of the 69 boys who comprised the original testing sample, 58 met a criteria set, establishing a father or father-figure in the home. Of the 58 completed questionnaires returned, 50, the sample size chosen, were randomly selected by a lottery number.

Instrumentation

Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory

The instrument chosen to measure self-perception was Stanley Coopersmith's Self-Esteem Inventory (CSEI), (Coopersmith, 1967). It has been widely used (Butcher, 1967; Coopersmith, 1959; Kerensky, 1966; Trowbridge, 1972; Zirkel and Moses, 1971) and reliability and normative data are available.

Coopersmith (1967) used fifth and sixth grade classes to establish reliability levels for the CSEI. The test-retest reliability was .88 for a sample of 30 children
after a five week interval and .70 with a different sample of 56 children after a three year interval. The difference between the mean scores for males and females was not significant. A degree of concurrent validity for the CSEI was established by the findings of Simon (1972).

The CSEI is a self-report inventory composed of 58 items (Form A). It has been used on a group basis with subjects ranging in age from nine to adult level; however, it was designed specifically for children from nine to about fifteen years of age. A child taking the test is asked to check a column to indicate whether a certain attitude or characteristic is "like me" or "unlike me." The maximum possible score is 100 and the national average score for males age nine to fifteen is 72.2. There are no exact criteria for high, medium, and low self-esteem; however, Coopersmith has employed the upper quartile as being indicative of high self-esteem; the lower quartile as being indicative of low self-esteem, and the remaining range as being indicative of medium self-esteem.

This researcher used Form B of the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory. It is briefer, twenty-five questions, taking approximately half the time to administer as Form A. The total scores of Forms A and B correlate .86, a finding which has been established to a markedly similar extent on four different samples. Form B was based on an item analysis of Form A and includes those twenty-five items
which showed the highest item-total score relationships of scores obtained with Form A.

The score is reported as a single score with a maximum of 25, indicative of high self-esteem. The number of correct responses is noted, then multiplied by four (25 X 4 = 100) providing a figure which is comparable to the self-evaluation score obtained on Form A.

There is general agreement in the literature that self-concept stabilizes prior to adolescence (Wylie, 1961). Engel (1959) studied the test-retest reliability of self-concept Q-sorts taken by 172 high school students. One group was tested in the eighth and tenth grades, while the second group was tested in the tenth and twelfth grades. For 23 of the students, the average self-concept correlation was .68 over a ten day period and .53 over a two year period. Engel also found the self-concept to be less stable over time for those whose initial self-concept was more negative.

In Coopersmith's study (1967) of 10 to 12-year-old boys, he established test-retest reliability scores for his self-esteem inventory. The test-retest reliability for the inventory after a five-week interval with a sample of 30 fifth grade children was .88, and the reliability after a three-year interval with a different sample of 56 children was .70. This led Coopersmith to state:

...This would suggest that at some time preceding middle childhood, the individual arrives at a
general appraisal of his worth, which remains relative stable and enduring over a period of several years. This appraisal can presumably be affected by specific incidents and environmental changes, but apparently it reverts to its customary level when conditions resume their normal typical course. (p.5)

**Bronfenbrenner Parent Behavior Questionnaire**

The instrument chosen to measure the boy's perception of how his father treats him was the Bronfenbrenner Parent Behavior Questionnaire (BPB). Ausubel et al. (1954) note that parent behavior:

- effects the child's ego development only to the extent and in the form in which he perceives it. Hence, perceived parent behavior is in reality a more direct, relevant, and proximate determinant of personality development than the actual stimulus content to which it refers. (p. 173)

Several attempts have been made to evaluate a child's perception of his parents' behavior toward him by use of the paper-and-pencil questionnaire (Brown, Morrison, and Couch, 1947; Ausubel et al., 1954; Lippitt and Hoffman, 1959; Schaefer, 1961).

In order to establish reliability levels of the BPB, Siegelman (1965) used 131 girls and 81 boys from grades four through six. These children were primarily from lower socioeconomic areas of New York City, and were of the following ethnic groups: 65 per cent Puerto Rican, 25 per cent Negro, and 10 per cent Italian. Extremes in intelligence from both the brightest and slowest children in grades five and six were included in the sample.
On this sample, Kuder-Richardson 20 reliability coefficients ranged from .26 to .83 for male fathers (responses of male children concerning their fathers), .23 to .70 for male mothers, .55 to .88 for female fathers, and .32 to .75 for female mothers. The mean reliabilities for all BPB scales were .58 for male fathers, .45 for male mothers, .68 for female fathers, and .51 for female mothers. Siegelman attributes the rather low reliabilities to the very abbreviated nature of the scales since only three items comprise each variable. He has suggested a method of merging scales to increase the reliability of measurement on the BPB. This investigator has extracted Siegelman's suggested scale scores in order to arrive at a factor-score (I) for male fathers.

Factor I, labeled "Loving," depicts a parent who is readily available for counsel, support, and assistance. This parent enjoys being with his child, praises him, is affectionate, concerned, and has confidence in him. (p. 168)

The variables representative of Factor I (Loving) are: nurturance, affective reward, instrumental companionship, affiliative companionship, prescriptive, and principled discipline. Each variable is comprised of three statements. Factor I score reliabilities based on the merged scales ranged from .70 to .91. A degree of concurrent validity for the BPB was established by the findings of Siegelman (1965).

The BPB is a questionnaire inventory. The revised
The test used in this study is composed of 18 items. It is designed specifically for children in fourth through sixth grades. The questionnaire requires the child to answer by selecting his choice from the following options: in every case, in most cases, sometimes, seldom, never. The scoring ranges from 1 to 5, with a low score indicating the presence of certain parental behavior (e.g., in every case) and a high score denoting its absence (never).

Who Are They? Test

The instrument chosen to measure each boy's status in his peer group was the "Who Are They?" Test (WAT), a sociometric measure based on children's evaluations of their peers in regard to certain behavioral characteristics. Scores from the test provide measures of withdrawn maladjustment, aggressive maladjustment, social leadership, and friendship. Items are in the form of guess-who questions such as "Who are the good leaders." "Who are the boys and girls who always work for the good of their class, or their team, or their playmates?"

The original test, developed for the Youth Development Commission, Quincy, Illinois, included nineteen items. There were five items indicative of aggressive maladjustment, five items of withdrawn maladjustment, five items indicative of social leadership, one positive and one negative friendship item, and two items to select "practical intelligence." Upon completion of the first two testings
of the experimental and the control groups, the items were analyzed by factor analysis (Mitchell, 1951). As the result of this study, four items were deleted from the instrument, and the practical intelligence category was dropped from the scoring. The revised "Who are They?" Test developed by Havighurst, Mitchell, and Liddle (1956) Bowman (1956) consists of fifteen items, of which six are indicative of social leadership, four of aggressive maladjustment, four of withdrawn maladjustment, and one is a positive friendship choice. The test was given to the experimental and control groups during the first, second, and fourth years of the project. The scores from the first two years of testing have been utilized for a reliability study. The product-moment correlation between the two sets of percentile scores for social leadership is .74.

For the purposes of this study, six items were extracted in order to form a revised edition of the Who Are They" test which solely measures social leadership. Indeed, this procedure was recommended for teachers to follow in the Teacher's Guidance Handbook, developed for the Quincy Youth Commission Project.

The sociometric test was launched as a device for measuring relationships within groups through the publication of Moreno's book, Who Shall Survive? (1934). It is a technique which crystallizes on group member's feelings for one another and allows for systematic treatment of
these feelings. The sociometric test outlines a choice situation for the members of a particular group, and requests them to respond by indicating their preferences for one another in regard to the stated choice situation or criterion. Thus, sociometric devices viewed as rating instruments:

"deliberately exploit...the uniqueness of individual perceptions and predictions to get a picture of the peculiar perceptions of each of the participants in a group. (Withall and Lewis, p. 690)"

It was not until the 1940's that other researchers detected the sociometric test as a promising device for the study of social preferences among school children. But from that period on, there has been an almost continuous increase by a growing number of investigators to examine the interactional trends and patterns of the classroom. The extensive review and interpretation of sociometric studies of classroom groups, presented by Gronlund (1959), demonstrates the vast body of evidence which was available in the field by the end of the 1950's.

**Status Stability.** The sociometric status of children tends to remain relatively stable over a long period. The most extensive studies conducted on the reliability of sociometric results were those done by Bonney (1943). He studied the stability of sociometric status scores over one-year intervals, for a four-year period. His initial administration of the sociometric test was to a group of
forty-eight, second-grade pupils. He then administered the same test to them as they passed through each successive grade, up to the fifth grade. Stability coefficients ranged from .67 to .84 for the one-year intervals between the successive grade levels. From his extensive study of sociometric literature, Bonney (1960) reported:

> It seems fair to conclude that there is indeed a strong tendency for the members of a group to maintain quite familiar sociometric ranks over several weeks or several months... (p. 1319)

Feinberg (1964) found three-month stability coefficients for 13 to 15-year-old school boys of about .69, but for a time span of two years, .20. Coefficients ranging between .82 and .88 for time spans of three, four, and seven months were obtained by Sletta (1967).

**Acquaintance Span.** Determining the influence of acquaintance span on the stability of sociometric results is rather difficult, since very few studies mention acquaintance span as a variable. Studies by Hunt and Soloman (1942) and French (1951) indicate that a stabilizing process of group interaction occurs during the fifth or sixth week after the group is formed. According to Gronlund (1955), although individuals are not acquainted with all of the group members by this time, acquaintance span tends to be unrelated to sociometric status after this point.

**Validity.** Validity is traditionally defined as the extent to which a test measures what it is supposed to
measure. When applied to sociometric testing, however, there is little agreement as to what the sociometric technique is supposed to measure. Some sociometrists (Pepinsky, 1949; Jennings, 1950) hold the viewpoint that the sociometric test is supposed to measure choice behavior and therefore, by definition, is valid. However, a more general use of sociometric results requires that they be valid when related with psychological and sociological variables. Although many difficulties arise from this procedure, numerous studies over the years confirm the validity of results pertaining to educationally significant behavior: the actual behavior of pupils (Byrd, 1951; Barclay, 1966; teachers' judgments of pupils' social acceptance (Gronlund, 1959; Hoffman et al., 1966; Hambridge, 1968); the reputations pupils hold among their peers (Kuhlen and Lee, 1943; Mussen and Porter, 1959; Rosenberg, 1965); and problems of personal adjustment (Coopersmith, 1959). Pupils with high sociometric status are generally characterized by feelings and behaviors which are indicative of good personal-social adjustment. In contrast, pupils with low sociometric status tend to have socially ineffective behavior characteristics, and tend to exhibit evidence of poor personal-social adjustment.
Procedure

All tests are administered by this researcher during regular class hours in the Spring, 1977. The procedure was identical in each of the four classrooms.

In order to establish the leadership status of the boys, the Who Are They? Test (Appendix A) was administered to the entire class. Each question was read orally and explained, encouraging questions and comments from the students. The class was instructed to answer the questions with first names only except in cases of duplication; then, the first letter of the last name was to be added. Honesty in answering was encouraged by explaining that none of the questionnaires were tests of knowledge, would have no bearing upon school evaluation, and all information would be held in strictest confidence.

The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (Appendix B) was employed to obtain a measure of self-perception for each male subject. The answer sheet was explained to the subjects with several example statements not on the test. The subjects were informed that there were no right or wrong answers and each subject was told he could mark the response scale in accord with whatever way he felt about the question. Again, all participants were assured that their anonymity would be preserved although first names were required. Subjects were then given the opportunity to ask questions, and the procedures were reviewed if
necessary.

The second questionnaire, administered to the male subjects, was the Bronfenbrenner Parent Behavior Questionnaire (Appendix C). The statements were read orally and discussed. In general, the subjects had little difficulty reading the questionnaire. However, the researcher found it necessary to define the scale term, "in most cases." Again, the subjects were assured that all information would be held in the strictest confidence.

A very small proportion of the participants required a translator to aid in the reading and understanding of the questionnaires.

The male subjects in the sample had to meet one criterion - a father or father-figure must reside in the home. In order to avoid embarrassment for those boys without fathers, every male was given a questionnaire. After an appropriate length of time, the researcher collected all the papers at the same time. Those boys who did not meet the criterion were directed to leave their questionnaires blank. This occurred in 11 cases.

Analytical Design

Each testing instrument was hand scored by this researcher. The data for each subject were keypunched by the author onto standard IBM computer cards for analysis by
the University's Computer Center. The University's Control Data Corporation 3170 used a prepared program from statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) in the data analysis.

The Pearson product-moment correlation was processed to determine the correlation between (a) self-perception and perceived paternal relationship, (b) self-perception and leadership status, and (c) leadership status and perceived paternal relationship.

The correlated t-test was conducted to determine significance of difference between the means of three basic comparisons of the variables self-perception, perceived paternal relationship, and leadership status.

In each instance, the 0.05 level of confidence was set for the rejection of the null hypotheses.
Chapter IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

The purpose of this study was to determine if a relationship exists between self-perception, parental relationship, and leadership status among fifth and sixth grade boys.

The following hypotheses were tested:

1. There is a significant, positive relationship between the boy's perception of a nurturant father and self-perception.
2. There is a significant, positive relationship between the boy's self-perception and his leadership status.
3. There is a significant status and his perception of a nurturant father.

Two statistical applications were performed on the data to determine whether or not evidence could be found to allow acceptance of these three hypotheses. The two applications were:

1. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was applied to analyze the data between the variables self-perception and paternal relation, the variables paternal relationship and leadership status, and between the variables leadership
status and self-perception.

2. The correlated t-test was processed to determine the significant differences that occurred between the three basic comparisons on the variables self-perception, paternal relationship, and leadership status.

Treatment of the Data

The hypotheses were tested by use of the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and the correlated t-test. In each instance, the level of confidence necessary to reject the null hypothesis was set at the 0.05 level. Each hypothesis was treated independently. The statistical computations were made according to the University's Computer Center.
Presentation of the Data

Table 1

Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient For Perceived Paternal Nurturance, Self-perception, And Leadership Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Self-Perception</th>
<th>Paternal Nurturance</th>
<th>Leadership Status</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-perception</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>-0.5409</td>
<td>0.4212</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paternal Nurturance</td>
<td>-0.5409</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>-0.1448</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership Status</td>
<td>0.4212</td>
<td>-0.1448</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hypothesis 1

The research hypothesis stated that there would be a significant, positive relationship between the boy's perception of a nurturant father and self-perception. The statistical data in Table 1 show the correlation coefficient between perceived paternal nurturance and self-perception to be -.54. This was significant at the 0.05 level. Therefore, the research hypothesis was supported, and the null hypothesis was rejected. The proportion of common variance ($r^2$) between the two measures was .29. The minus in the correlation is due to the opposite interpretations of the testing instruments' scores. A low final
Hypothesis 2

The research hypothesis stated that there would be significant, positive relationship between the boy's self-perception and his leadership status. In reference to Table 1, the correlation coefficient between self-perception and leadership status was .42 and was significant at the 0.05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected, and the research hypothesis was supported. Boys with positive self-perceptions were also leaders among their peers. The proportion of common variance ($r^2$) between the two measures was .17.

Hypothesis 3

The research hypothesis stated that there would be a significant, positive relationship between the boy's leadership status and his perception of a nurturant father. According to Table 1, the correlation coefficient between leadership status and perceived paternal nurturance was -.14. This was not significant at the 0.05 level. There
fore, the null hypothesis was not rejected and the research hypothesis was not supported. A boy, determined by his peers to be their leader, did not necessarily perceive a nurturant relationship with his father. Or, the opposite can be stated: A boy who perceived a nurturing relationship with his father was not necessarily considered to be a leader by his peers. The proportion of common variance ($r^2$) between the two measures was .01. The minus in the correlation coefficient again is the result of opposite interpretations of the final scores.

Table 2 presents the range, mean, and standard deviation of the scores indicating perceived paternal nurturance, self-perception, and leadership status.
Table 2

Computation of the Means of Bronfenbrenner Parent Behavior Questionnaire

Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory

Who Are They? Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>*1. Paternal Nurturance</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>24-72</td>
<td>46.94</td>
<td>12.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*2. Self-percentage</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>84-24</td>
<td>55.36</td>
<td>14.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*3. Leadership Status</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>52-0</td>
<td>11.70</td>
<td>12.72</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*1. Bronfenbrenner Parent Behavior Questionnaire - Low score is indicative of perceived paternal nurturance.

*2. Coopersmith Self-esteem Inventory - High score is indicative of positive Self-perception.

*3. Who Are They? Test - Score is indicative of frequency of mentions, establishing leadership status.

Correlated t-test

A correlated t-test further clarifies the study.

Table 3 presents the statistical data.
Table 3

Correlated T-test Between Perceived Paternal Nurturance, Self-Perception, And Leadership Status

(N = 50)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tests</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-Perception</td>
<td>55.36</td>
<td>14.59</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paternal Nurturance</td>
<td>46.94</td>
<td>12.97</td>
<td>1.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Perception</td>
<td>55.36</td>
<td>14.59</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership Status</td>
<td>11.70</td>
<td>12.72</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paternal Nurturance</td>
<td>46.94</td>
<td>12.97</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership Status</td>
<td>11.70</td>
<td>12.72</td>
<td>.0030</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Again, the data in Table 3 demonstrate that the difference between the means of self-perception and perceived paternal nurturance (1.58) and the difference between the means of self-perception and leadership status (1.07) were statistically significant at the 0.05 level. However, there was no significance between the mean difference of paternal nurturance and leadership status.
Summary of Data

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and the correlated t-test were applied to test hypotheses 1, 2, and 3. In each instance, the level of significance necessary to reject the null hypothesis are set at the 0.05 level. Each hypothesis was treated independently.

Hypothesis 1 pertained to the relationship between perceived paternal nurturance and self-perception. The correlated coefficient between the two variables was -.054. The difference between their means (t) was 1.58. Each statistic was significant at the 0.05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected, and the research hypothesis was supported.

Hypothesis 2 was concerned with the relationship between self-perception and leadership status. The correlated coefficient was 0.42. The difference between their means (t) was 1.07. Each statistic was significant at the 0.05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected, and the search hypothesis was supported.

Hypothesis 3 referred to the relationship between perceived paternal nurturance and leadership status. The correlated coefficient between the two variables was -.14. The correlated t score was .003. Neither statistic was significant at the 0.05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected, and the research hypothesis was not supported.
Chapter V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine whether a relationship exists between a boy's perception of a nurturant father, self-perception, and leadership status among fifth and sixth grade males.

The subjects randomly selected for this study were 50, fifth and sixth grade boys. The Bronfenbrenner Parent Behavior Questionnaire was employed to assess the boy's perception of his relationship with his father or father-figure. The Coopersmith Self-esteem Inventory obtained a measure of each subject's self-perception. In order to establish the leadership status of each male participant, the Who Are They? Test was administered to all the students (both male and female) in each of four classrooms.

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and the correlated t-test were applied to test hypotheses 1, 2, and 3. In each instance, the level of significance necessary to reject the null hypothesis was set at the 0.05 level. Each hypothesis was treated independently.

Results supported research hypothesis 1 that there is a significant, positive relationship between perceived
paternal nurturance and self-perception. There was also evidence to support research hypothesis 2 that there is a significant relationship between self-perception and leadership status.

In contrast, this researcher found no evidence to support research hypothesis 3 that there is a relationship between perceived paternal nurturance and leadership status. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

Conclusions

The findings for this study suggest that a boy's perception of a nurturant father is correlated with his self-perception and that the boy's self-perception is related to leadership status. However, leadership status is not related to perceived paternal nurturance.

Research reviewed in Chapter I demonstrated that the father is instrumental in the son's personal, emotional and social development. The way the father interacts with his son has tremendous impact on the boy's self-perception and on his subsequent relationships with his peers.

Several studies (Mussen et al., 1963; Coopersmith, 1956; Reuter and Biller, 1973) lend support to the hypothesis that there is a significant relationship between the boy's perception of a nurturant father and self-perception. In addition, the results of Mussen and Porter
(1959), Dittes (1959), and Coopersmith (1967) provide evidence that there is a correlation between self-perception and leadership status.

Although several studies (Helper, 1955; Leiderman, 1959; Mussen et al., 1963; Biller, 1974) investigated positive fathering and the boy's influence or acceptance by his peers, none probed into the boy's leadership status among his peers in connection with paternal nurturance. Only Bronfenbrenner (1961) actually examined the degree of leadership. However, his other variable was the amount of time adolescent boys spent with their fathers, not paternal nurturance.

This researcher was of the opinion that because there was a relationship between self-perception and perceived paternal nurturance and between self-perception and leadership status, there was a possibility of a relationship between perceived paternal nurturance and leadership status. However, after an in-depth study of the literature pertaining to the father-son relationship and developing and conducting the study presented here, it is evident that one must consider several alternatives when examining the perceived nurturant relationship and leadership status: (1) Although studies (Mussen, 1961; Biller, 1974) provide evidence that the father is instrumental in advancing the masculinity of his son, and that the boy's masculine development is an important consideration in successful peer
interaction, it is essential to note that (a) the son may be masculine in a different way from his father and (b) much of what the boy learns about the masculine role comes from his peer group. The boy's peers may have a crude idea of masculinity, quite different from the father's. However, the peer group is a potent modelling influence. (2) A child who is easily accepted by his peers may not be considered their leader. He may be the type who goes along gracefully with others' plans and suggestions: a follower. (3) One must also consider the characteristics of the peer group; the values and interests the members hold in common. A boy may be a leader among his peers at home because he possesses a desirable talent. At school, on the other hand, another asset may be the determinant of leadership status.
Recommendations

From the results of this study, the researcher makes the following recommendations:

1. It is recommended that cross-cultural studies be conducted, examining the relationship between perceived paternal nurturance, self-perception, and leadership status.

2. It is recommended that further studies be conducted among middle class children whose language in the home is standard English.

3. It is recommended that each testing instrument be administered on separate days.

4. It is recommended that subjects be randomly selected from several schools rather than one.

5. It is recommended that studies be executed to further explore the relationship of successful peer interaction and paternal nurturance.
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WHO ARE THEY?

Here are some descriptions of boys and girls. Read each description carefully and ask yourself: "Which boys and girls in our class are like this? Think about the boys and girls in your class to find the ones that fit each description. Under each question, write the names of as many boys and girls as you think fit the description. Do not write your own name under any of the questions and do not sign your name at the top of the paper.

1. Who are the ones that seem to understand things most easily, out of school and in school?

2. Who are the good leaders? They are leaders in several activities.

3. Who are the ones that are chosen captains of teams by the other children?

4. Who are the ones that can direct other children on a project and get them to work together without hurting anyone's feelings?

5. Who are the ones that are asked by the other children to settle arguments about rules in games?
6. Who are the ones that are most enthusiastic when starting or working on new projects and help to carry them through?
## APPENDIX B

### COOPERSMITH SELF-ESTEEM INVENTORY

**Form B - 25 Items**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>LIKE ME</th>
<th>UNLIKE ME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>I often wish I were someone else.</td>
<td>( )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>I find it very hard to talk in front of the class.</td>
<td>( )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>There are lots of things about myself I'd change if I could.</td>
<td>( )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>I can make up my mind without much trouble.</td>
<td>( )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>I'm a lot of fun to be with.</td>
<td>( )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>I get upset easily at home.</td>
<td>( )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>It takes me a long time to get used to anything new.</td>
<td>( )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>I'm popular with kids my own age.</td>
<td>( )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>My parents usually consider my feelings.</td>
<td>( )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>I give in very easily.</td>
<td>( )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>My parents expect too much of me.</td>
<td>( )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>It's pretty tough to be me.</td>
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<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Things are all mixed up in my life.</td>
<td>( )</td>
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<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Kids usually follow my ideas.</td>
<td>( )</td>
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<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>I have a low opinion of myself.</td>
<td>( )</td>
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<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>There are many times when I'd like to leave home.</td>
<td>( )</td>
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<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>I often feel upset in school.</td>
<td>( )</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>LIKE ME</td>
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<td>---</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>I'm not as nice looking as most people.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>If I have something to say, I usually say it.</td>
<td>(</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>My parents understand me.</td>
<td>(</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>Most people are better liked than I am.</td>
<td>(</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>I usually feel as if my parents are punishing me.</td>
<td>(</td>
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<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>I often get discouraged at school.</td>
<td>(</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>Things usually don't bother me.</td>
<td>(</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>I can't be depended on.</td>
<td>(</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX C

BRONFENBRENNER PARENT BEHAVIOR QUESTIONNAIRE

Here are some statements about you and your father. Read each one carefully and ask yourself: "Does this happen in every case, in most cases, sometimes, seldom, or never?" Circle your answer. If you do not understand any word or sentence, please ask. There are no right or wrong answers.

1. I can talk with him about everything.
   in every case in most cases sometimes seldom never

2. My father says nice things about me to other people.
   in every case in most cases sometimes seldom never

3. He teaches me things which I want to learn.
   in every case in most cases sometimes seldom never

4. He goes on pleasant walks and outings with me.
   in every case in most cases sometimes seldom never

5. My father expects me to help around the house.
   in every case in most cases sometimes seldom never

6. He comforts me and helps me when I have troubles.
   in every case in most cases sometimes seldom never

7. He is very affectionate with me.
   in every case in most cases sometimes seldom never

8. My father helps me with hobbies or handiwork.
   in every case in most cases sometimes seldom never

9. He is happy when with me.
   in every case in most cases sometimes seldom never
10. He wants me to run errands.
   in every case  in most cases  sometimes  seldom  never
11. He is there when I need him.
   in every case  in most cases  sometimes  seldom  never
12. My father praises me when I have done something good.
   in every case  in most cases  sometimes  seldom  never
13. He helps me with school work when I don't understand something.
   in every case  in most cases  sometimes  seldom  never
14. He enjoys talking with me.
   in every case  in most cases  sometimes  seldom  never
15. My father expects me to keep my own things in order.
   in every case  in most cases  sometimes  seldom  never
16. He is fair when punishing me.
   in every case  in most cases  sometimes  seldom  never
17. When I must do something, he explains why.
   in every case  in most cases  sometimes  seldom  never
18. My father finds it difficult to punish me.
   in every case  in most cases  sometimes  seldom  never