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THE IMPACT OF THE PERCEPTIONS OF FATHERING ON ADULT CHILDREN'S
EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING AND SATISFACTION WITH LIFE

By

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A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty

of the

University of North Dakota

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Grand Forks, North Dakota
August
2013

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This dissertation, submitted by Abraham John Bilyeu in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy from the University of North Dakota, has been read by the Faculty Advisory Committee under whom the work has been done, and is hereby approved.

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Title The Impact of Perceptions of Fathering on Adult Children's
Emotional Well-Being and Satisfaction With Life

Department Counseling Psychology

Degree Doctor of Philosophy

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Abraham Bilyeu
August 2013

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the present study was to examine how perceptions of one's father figure impacted reported levels of depression, anxiety, stress, alexithymia, and satisfaction with life. Participants reported that as negative perceptions of their father figure increased so did reported levels of depression, anxiety, and stress. Further, negative perceptions of one's father figure were negatively correlated with life satisfaction, such that as negative perceptions of father increased ones reported satisfaction with life decreased. Participant age was also positively correlated with perceptions of their father, whereas age increased, so did a positive view of one's father figure. When the Attitude Toward Father Scale (ATFS; Copenhaver, Eisler, 2000) was broken down into its three basic constructs, the fear of father's negative evaluation was most highly correlated with levels of depression, anxiety, stress, and satisfaction with life. This also accounted for the highest percentage of variance among these variables, suggesting that a stand-alone scale of fear of father's negative evaluation may be relevant in clinical and research work. Such a shorter and potentially more powerful scale may allow psychologists to understand this phenomenon in a timelier manner, supporting both clinical interventions and research that is more conducive to data collection while diminishing participant fatigue.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Review Of The Literature

In an ever-changing society, the role men play in raising their children has evolved as well. During the social revolutions of the 1960's and the 1970's various roles, and the expectations that these roles held, changed for not only women and mothers but also for men and fathers (Finley & Schwartz, 2004). There are numerous cultural and societal variations to fathering, and there are also a great many ideas as to how best raise one's own children. Researchers have recently begun to look at what impact a more present, positive father figure may have on their children's development regarding psychological and social health.

The impact that parents have on a child's psychological development is often studied, but most of this research has focused on the mother, or the combined affect of both parents (Copenhaver & Eisler, 2000). In fact, much of the preliminary findings about fathers have to do with father absence and not father involvement (Krampe & Newton, 2006). Furthermore, Phares and Compas (1992) discovered that a majority of research (48%) being published looked at the particular influence that mothers had, and only a very small portion (1%) investigated the specific influence of fathers. Clearly, much work needs to be done to thoroughly understand

the importance fathers play in children's development. The main goal of this paper is to broaden the literature while also highlighting the changing societal expectations for men as fathers. A review of much of the relevant literature regarding this evolving field of research is presented below.

The next few pages will guide readers through relevant literature regarding a father's role in parenting. Beginning with the impact of father absence will lay the groundwork for the introduction of several theories regarding father presence. This will lead into a review of the development of several of these theories while outlining various ways to measure the impact fathers have on their children's psychological development. A relationship between minimal psychological distress and one's positive relationship with their father will be discussed, accompanied by a critical review of the empirical evidence.

Father Absence

The negative impact of absent fathers on their children may occur before a child and father ever meet. Alio, Kornosky, Mbah, Marty, and Salihu (2010) noted that children born with absent fathers were more likely to have lower birth weights, were born preterm and often very preterm, and were also small for their gestational age. This study also looked at births across various ethnicities and found that across the ethnic-racial groups studied, there were higher risks of poor birth outcomes among women with absent fathers compared to mothers with involved fathers. These findings are quite alarming and highlight the negative impact father absence has on children beginning in the earliest stages of life.

Once a child is born the father's presence or absence again plays an

important role in development. Ellis (2004) discussed how the timing that young adolescent girls begin puberty is often based in the paternal investment theory, which was theorized by Draper and Harpending (1982, 1988). In this theory, the functional quality and level of paternal care and involvement is believed to impact sexual behavior and pubertal maturation, even when accounting for other stressors often present in the family system (Mendle, Van Hulle, Brooks-Gunn, Emery, Harden, Trukheimer, D'Onofrio, Rodgers, & Lahey, 2009). These authors go on to note that with the role of the father becoming more specific and powerful, characteristics of father absence become more significant as well. These characteristics specifically are related to the father's function or dysfunction in the family, with more dysfunctional models believed to influence more maturational accelerations within their daughters (Mendle et al., 2009). From these theories one can see how father involvement, and more importantly functional father involvement, plays an important role in a daughter's development.

Based on the Paternal Investment Theory, several specifications arose surrounding a father's impact on the adolescent daughter's development. Belsky, Steinberg, and Draper (1991) believed that father absence was a key factor in a multitude of detrimental early childhood experiences, including interpersonal relationships. One reason for this is that children from father-absent homes often observe unstable, stressful, and conflicted parental relationships and in turn learn that resources may be scarce, people are often untrustworthy, and relationships are sometimes opportunistic instead of mutual (Mendel et al., 2009). These internalized beliefs may alter the way children view relationships. Attitudes toward sexual

relationships may shift from parenting to mating in order to secure goods, which accelerates sexual activity through tenuous relationships and multiple partners. This is in direct contrast to children with invested fathers where sexual behavior is often delayed (Mendel et al., 2009).

The detrimental impact of absent fathers is not just relegated to sexual behavior and interpersonal relationships; authors have also found that psychological symptoms such as anxiety and suicidal ideation may also be related to father absence. A longitudinal study by Ellis, Bates, Dodge, Fergusson, Horwood, Pettit, and Woodward (2003) investigated the impact of the timing of fathers' departure from the home on over 760 teenage girls in the United States and New Zealand. It should be noted that for the purposes of this study, the term father was defined as either the biological father or an adoptive father present since birth. Their findings corroborated with many previous studies that father absence did have a negative impact on the development of their children, and they broadened this research by looking at the age the daughter was when her father became absent (Ellis, et al., 2003). The reason for doing this was based on Hetherington (1972) and Draper and Harpending's (1982) suggestion that the first five years of life are particularly sensitive for the effects of father absence and a daughter's sexual development (Ellis, et al., 2003). The impact that a father's absence has on a daughter's development in this study was then examined based on various stages of absence.

The study defined father absence as either early absence (before age five), late absence (ages 6-13), or present, defined as fathers who were in the home

through the daughters 13th year. (Ellis, et al., 2003). The study also took into account 10 covariates including mother's age at first birth, race, SES and danger within the neighborhood, to name just a few. Beside the factors of early sexual activity and teenage pregnancy, the study also looked at other factors including anxiety disorder and suicide attempts. With covariate adjustments made, these authors noted in their findings that teenage girls in homes with early father absence reported anxiety disorder rates of 56.5%, compared to 41% in homes with present fathers (Ellis, et al., 2003). Furthermore, suicide attempts in homes with early onset father absence were 10.9% as compared to 6.3% in homes with present fathers. These findings are not causal, but the correlational ties showed how strong an impact father absence had on their daughter's psychological and physical development.

Unfortunately, the Ellis et al., 2003 study does not investigate late father absence. The authors define present fathers as fathers being in the home through their daughters 13th year of life. There is no mention of whether the fathers continue to stay with their daughter's family after this point, and this could reveal some important findings about late father absence. The authors may not have found this aspect relevant, and believed girls have received all the father input they need by age 13 to influence future decisions relating to sexual activity and mental health concerns, although one is simply left to hypothesize. Late father absence may be an important variable to further investigate in future research.

The extant research has highlighted several negative implications correlated with father absence, while shedding light on new areas for future exploration.

Although several studies have highlighted the negative impact father absence has on daughter's development (eg Mendle et al., 2009; Ellis et al., 2003) there is relatively little current research regarding what this impact has on a son's development.

Daughters and sons are often socialized much differently, and therefore, the impact of father involvement on the development of male children is an important construct to understand.

There are many reasons why a father may be absent in his child's life and one such factor is a father's incarceration. While fathers who are incarcerated are visibly absent from the home, this absence may also impact the probability that their son may become incarcerated. The U.S. Department of Justice, (1994) reported that 57% of inmates grew up in homes where both parents did not reside most of the time. Father absence and their son's incarceration have some common socioeconomic precursors, yet it is still possible that other social factors are influencing both incarceration and father absence (Harper, McLanahan, 2004). Many authors (eg U.S. Department of Justice, 1997) have noted that higher rates of incarceration have had an increased negative impact on male urban minority youth. This somewhat confounds certain data sets given that this population is also at a greater risk of father absence; therefore, many challenging circumstances such as racial inequality, poverty, and institutional barriers may account for both father absence and incarceration rates (Harper & McLanahan, 2004). Investigating the impact incarceration and father absence has on the sons of convicted men was a main goal of Harper and McLanahan.

Harper and McLanahan found that after accounting for several variables

including income, mother's educational level, race, and living region, among others, youth in father-absent families still had significantly greater odds of being incarcerated than mother-father families (Harper & McLanahan, 2004).

Furthermore, the authors found that youth who never had the experience of a father in the home had the greatest odds of being incarcerated. While these findings do not show causality, the role a present father can have in the life of his children may be viewed as very important, especially when pertaining to the development of young males who abide by societal standards.

Absence from children's lives is understandably a major hindrance to positive fathering. While father presence is often vital, there are also several other ways fathers impact the development of their children. Next, several conceptualizations of fathering will be outlined to lay the foundation for the current research.

Conceptualizations of Fathering

Fathering should be more active than simply providing for one's offspring, although in many cases this passive approach is still the main tenet of being a father. Researchers in the field of fathering have noted that even though our concept of fathering may be more complex today, within every distinct period of history there has been a great deal of variability in the definition and expectations of fathering (Marsiglio, Amato, Day & Lamb, 2000). Even with all of these variations regarding expectations and definitions, there are societal norms that generally co-exist with other important perceptions of fathering (Marsiglio et al., 2000). One norm that is somewhat universal is the breadwinning aspect of fathering.

Being the financial provider seems to have long been a primary aspect of fathering, even with a multitude of societal changes from the colonial period until today. During the colonial period, fathers were primarily the moral leader and teacher in their families (Pleck and Pleck, 1997). Being a financial provider was still important, but much focus was placed on providing moral guidance to one's family. This role began to shift during the industrialization period, where less attention was placed on providing moral leadership, and more focus was placed on providing economic support for one's family. While there were calls for more nurturant and involved fathers during the 1970's following feminist and scholarly critique (Griswold, 1993), a central tenet of popular and academic ideology and research focused on how father involvement was defined by breadwinning (Pleck, 2004). The aspect of being a positive paternal role for one's family often revolves around this financial provision concept, and unfortunately, other important pieces of fathering are, at times, overlooked or not considered vital.

However, one must be wary to not overgeneralize this idea given that much of the extant research has included participants who are White middle-class men, and do not necessarily represent their counterparts from other backgrounds (Marsiglia et al., 2000). While researchers have been encouraged to investigate fathering from a more multicultural standpoint and incorporate these unique experiences into the current literature, the progress on that front has been slow and somewhat limited (Burton & Snyder, 1998). These statements show the importance of examining our past data with a critical lens that allows us to understand more

thoroughly the concept of fathering, while not underestimating other views and theories.

One of the changes to past social norms occurred in the mid-1970's when expectations for men shifted from solely providing for their children to becoming increasingly involved in their lives through nurturance and caregiving (Finley & Schwartz, 2004). Even with the changing societal expectations, research that measures and conceptualizes fathering has not kept pace (Finley & Schwartz, 2004). The relatively limited historical empirical research on fathering is explored in this section. Specifically, the lines of inquiry into fathering based on 1) time spent with children, 2) the impact of fathering, 3) the child's perception of fathering, and 4) the differentiation from the impact of mothers, are examined more closely.

Time Based Approach To Fathering

What makes a good father? How does one conceptualize the impact that fathers have on their children? Michael Lamb and Joseph Pleck are often considered the initiators of the most recent father involvement measurement, which is primarily based on time devoted to fathering through time spent with children (Finley & Schwartz, 2004). Lamb, Pleck, Charnov, and Levine (1985, 1987) theorized that there are three central aspects of fathering: direct interaction or engagement, accessibility, and ultimate responsibility. Morman and Floyd (2006) gave examples of these central aspects and they included: experiencing direct contact through provided care and mutual interactions between a child and their father, being able to access a father's time when needed, and the overall responsibility surrounding being an active father including arrangement of

resources. This research largely focused on the amount of time that fathers were involved with their children and did not look too deeply into the quality or nature of this time (Finley & Schwartz, 2004).

This research was thoroughly discussed by Pleck (1997), who identified future research directions, the initial research's limitations and accomplishments in this area of study. One promising finding is that paternal involvement has increased in the past 30 years (Pleck, 1997). Not only has involvement increased, but also studies have shown that paternal accessibility has increased as well. These are promising findings when investigating fathering from a time-based approach.

Noting that involvement and accessibility have both increased, Pleck (1997) points out that more research is still needed to understand the consequences of father involvement on children, a father's marriage, and even fathers themselves. While it may be hypothesized that an increase in father involvement is beneficial, we do not fully understand what impact this involvement has on fathers and their families. While father involvement has shown a positive association with desirable outcomes in children and the men who raise these children, these factors are not completely understood. Future research should look to delineate, and more fully explain, what this increased involvement means to men and their loved ones.

Another interesting finding was that the four-factor model proposed by Lamb, Pleck, Charnov, and Levine (1985) almost a decade earlier, showed much promise. This model was able to show how a father's motivation, skills and self-confidence, social supports and stressors, as well as institutional factors and practices, inform paternal involvement. It was further noted that paternal

involvement is multiply determined and no single predictor is more salient than another. Even with this discovery, research on paternal skills and confidence is limited and an area of much needed attention (Pleck, 1997). Understanding how a father gains valuable skills relating to paternal involvement and likewise, builds confidence in these skills may further inform our understanding of fatherhood.

Another important direction of future research relating to paternal involvement is further understanding how a man's early life experiences impact motivation, skills, and self-confidence (Pleck, 1997). In addition, becoming familiar with salient experiences closer to parenthood may inform researchers about paternal involvement. These experiences have not been fully investigated, and future research needs to better understand these experiences in order to gain a more broad understanding of fatherhood and time spent with children.

While early and later life experiences are very important, Pleck (1997) further discussed how paternal identity is a significant aspect of the literature that has still received little attention. Until this time, how a man views himself as a father has been largely overlooked in research. Men may become fathers for a variety reasons, and under various contextual circumstances, and how they view their role in this process is important when considering paternal involvement. Pleck (1997) further notes that it is important to consider how paternal involvement interacts with a father's own adult and life course development. Again, men become fathers during various phases of their own life, and how these variables influence each other appears relevant.

Pleck (1997) describes how our understanding of paternal involvement has show promise, and many important discoveries have been made so far. Even so, much of the research has focused on individually predictive factors as described earlier. While these factors help broaden our understanding, it is important to move toward a more cumulative and interactional view of paternal involvement. Researchers need to more fully understanding how these factors work together to inform paternal involvement.

Overall, a time based definition and conceptualization has shown much promise, while also allowing for other theorists to broaden the definition of fathering. Noting that the time based approach of Lamb and Pleck contributed substantially to the field, there is still a dire need for the study of fathers to become more complex so that various aspects of father involvement can be understood in the context of children's development (Marsiglio et al., 2000). With this in mind researchers started to theorize that the quality or impact of time spent may be another important factor in fathering.

Impact View of Fathering

Time based approaches to fathering can be limited by the reality of many factors, including custodial relationships in divorce, and fathers' relationship to biological mothers. Given the inherent limitations of time, impact based approaches may be more appropriate when assessing the quality of father-child relationships (Armato, 1998; Amato & Gilbreth, 1999; Finley, 2003). The impact-based approach to fathering assumes that active and emotionally supportive involvement with children is possible regardless of a father's physical presence or residential status

(Amato & Gilbreth). There is an inherent bias in early literature that fathers are either present or absent, and broadening beyond a binary view of father involvement was a main goal of these authors. It was also assumed that fathers, who have separated from their children's mother, are less involved than fathers who remain married and live within the home. Due to the positive impact separated fathers can still have on their children, an impact-based approach may more accurately measure the influence and contribution that fathers of all marital and residential status have on their child's development.

Amato and Gilbreth (1999) hypothesized, based on theoretical and empirical considerations, that feelings of closeness between children and their father, an authoritative parenting style, and payment of child support is positively associated with children's well-being. They further hypothesized that frequency of father child contact by nonresident fathers is not associated with the general well-being of children. This expands the literature regarding a time-based model, and even notes that time spent with one's child may be a less important factor than feelings of closeness and parenting style.

Even though not all fathers live with a child's biological mother, researchers believed that a father's impact might still be salient if circumstances allowed for positive interactions. This is another important distinction, because time-spent does not always equal positive paternal interactions. These ideas moves research past the mere hours of interaction approach, and looks at what impact the father has on children's overall development based on the impact or quality of time spent.

The three main tenets of Amato and Gilbreth lay a solid foundation for a more impact-based approach to fathering. Even so, quality of time spent, or an impact-based approach can be measured many different ways. Further defining the construct of quality of time was an important goal for researchers invested in fathering. Hawkins and Palkovitz (1999) again broadened Lamb and his colleagues' idea of responsibility in fathering by investigating a more systemic and fuller understanding of the cognitive aspects of father involvement. These authors wrote about the importance of broadening the definition of fathering while moving toward a more developmental trajectory view. They built upon the three domains Amato and Gilbreth hypothesized, while further expanding upon the initial research once again. They identified many different domains of fathering that they believed would be related to various developmental trajectories of children, adolescents, and young adults (Hawkins & Palkovitz, 1999).

Hawkins and Palkovits (1999) noted that these areas include but are not limited to providing discipline, developing responsibility, income, caregiving, and providing companionship. As mentioned earlier, one can still see that while this approach is broadening, the fiscal responsibility of fathering still remains a tenant of this theory. Even so, additional dimensions of research were added that had not yet been investigated. The approach that Hawkins and Palkovits offer does a nice job of specifying several additional domains of children's lives that their fathers may or may not be engaging in.

This work also addresses Pleck's (1997) call for individual dimensions of fathering to be investigated, yet does not necessarily do so in a cumulative manner.

It also makes quantifying the perception of a father's involvement, from his personal view, much more attainable. This adds another perspective of father involvement to the research literature. Finley and Schwartz (2004) also note that this broadened perspective focuses more on the actual substance of the father-child interaction while in turn becoming more multidimensional. While this approach lends itself to a newer and richer definition of fathering, it still utilizes an approach to understanding fathering from the fathers point of view, and so other researchers took another stance to deepen our understanding. Building upon these early definitions, while also understanding that self-report measures are limited, researchers take the next step in investigating fathering by moving away from the father's retrospective view of his own involvement and contribution.

Adolescent and Adult Children's View of Fathers

The approaches we've reviewed so far have begun to shape our understanding of fathering, and yet they are from the perspective of the father and not the children. Finley and Schwartz (2004) looked to broaden the depth of research on fathers by emphasizing the child's perceptions of father involvement. They believed that the child's beliefs about the quality of parenting were a very important factor relating to fathering. These authors theorized that if a child, or adult children, believed that their fathers were highly involved in their life, then the impact this father had related to this perception, regardless of the actual level of involvement. Finley and Schwartz (2004) described the breakdown of this phenomenological approach to father involvement in four core concepts: First, father involvement involves multiple facets, as does a child's life, in which the father

may or may not be involved; second, the amount of time a father spends with his children is less important than the child's perception of their father's involvement; third, the child's perception is what drives the long-term impact that a father has on his child; finally, asking a child or adult children to retrospectively report back on their perceptions of their fathers involvement is one way to assess this impact.

With the theorized constructs broken down, the authors moved toward measuring their hypothesis. To assess the impact of a child's perception of father involvement and nurturance two scales were developed and utilized (Finley & Schwartz, 2004). The first assessment is called the Nurturant Fathering Scale (Finley, 1998; Williams & Finley, 1997) and was created to measure the emotional quality of fathering. The second assessment was called the Father Involvement Scale (Finley & Schwartz, 2004) and was designed to assess the child's and adult children's retrospective view of their father's involvement within 20 various domains of their lives. The authors also utilized a wide breadth of information from the writings of Hawkins and Palkovitz (1999) to create and finalize this instrument.

With more literature shifting the perspective of fathering toward the view of the child, other researchers started to take note. Krampe and Newton (2006) also wanted to add to the literature by developing and utilizing an assessment of father presence from the perspective of adult children, noting that much of the research within the past 30 years on fathering has been from the perspective of either the father himself, the mother, or a researcher. Moreover they noticed that much of the earlier research has to do with father absence and not father presence (Krampe &

Newton, 2006). They created a multidimensional definition of father presence that entailed three domains that are: Relationship with the Father, Beliefs about the Father, and Intergenerational Family Influences. Using this conceptualization, they created the Father Presence Questionnaire (FPQ), which is a 10-scale instrument that investigates fathering from the adult child's perspective.

Krampe and Newton's (2006) study provided more depth to the field of fathering in four distinct ways. First, they expanded the notion of father presence past the traditional residential father, in a similar yet additive fashion to previous research. This was done utilizing the three domain noted above from the perspective of the adult child. Second, they differentiate the perspective of adult children from children in their youth, which they believe deserves attention as well. This also makes note of the father-child relationship throughout the life, which other researches have noted as important as well (Rossi & Rossi, 1990). The third aspect that this research takes into account has to do with family of origin influences and how the parental partnership, and mother's perception of the father, affects the quality of the relationship children have with their male parent (Krampe & Newton, 2006). Finally, the FPQ assessment of father presence utilizes theory and research that investigates father-child interactions while also accounting for adult children's beliefs about their father and their perceptions of other relationships within the family that may influence the paternal bond (Krampe & Newton, 2006). This aspect was added to align with a certain amount of research (Cowan & Cowan, 1987; Feldman, Nash, & Aschenbrenner, 1983; Pleck & Masciadrelli, 2004) suggesting that

both a mother and father's relationship with their own father influences the amount of involvement they have with their own family.

With father presence gaining scientific relevance, researchers theorized that measuring father-specific variables from their children's perspective maybe an important avenue not yet studied. Copenhaver and Eisler (2000) noted that a main tenet of their theory was to further understand the difference between mother-specific and father-specific factors in parenting and children's development. This is another very important step because these factors are often hard to differentiate and understand in research. They also noted the idea that our cultural norms have limited the father's role to providing financially for the family, and that may have contributed to the underrepresentation of research on fathers in our field. Furthermore, it has traditionally been considered unmasculine for men to be involved in the emotional care taking of their children (Copenhaver & Eisler, 1996). This disconnect may offer some insight into why men have not traditionally been more involved in their children's lives. This led to another assessment instrument that investigates father involvement through the lens of their children in the Attitudes Toward Father Scale (ATFS) developed by Copenhaver and Eisler (2000).

While father's roles often are varied and somewhat inconsistent when compared to mothers, there are several influential functions that fathers have in raising their children (Copenhaver & Eisler, 2000). More importantly, the father's roles are neither unimportant nor inactive when it comes to shaping their children's social and emotional development (Copenhaver, 1996). Since fathers and mothers have various ways of impacting their children's psychological development, it is

very important to be able to assess the impact of the father-child relationship (Copenhaver& Eisler, 2000). Fathers do matter, and the time they spend molding and shaping their children's lives is overlooked and underrated.

Differentiating Father and Mother Involvement

As one can see, the research on fathering has become somewhat broad and complex. There are various ways in which researchers may choose to measure the impact that fathers have on the lives of their children, with each one drawing a certain amount of merit. There is also a small but growing amount of research that attempts to show the unique contribution that fathers and mothers have, so that the variable of fathering can be further isolated and studied. Cookston and Finlay (2006) noted that there is still a relatively small amount of research that looks at the long-term impact that parental involvement has on adolescent adjustment. They further note that while the impact mothers have had on a child's development has long been studied, until recently there has not been a substantial amount of research investigating the exact role fathers have in this same process. While it may seem illogical to underestimate the impact mothers have on children's lives, this exact notion has occurred with fathers for quite some time.

If one were going to separate the impact that mothers and fathers have on their children's development, a sound scientific procedure would have to be in place to guide this research. Cookston and Finlay (2006) described two such procedures that have been described as the *additive* and *contextual-suppression* associations.

The additive association theorizes that father involvement offers a unique contribution in addition to social variables and the mother's involvement when

conceptualizing children's development. It should be noted that this research has been regarding two parent homes, generally for simplicity sake, and this is a factor of consideration when examining this research. Flouri and Buchanan (2003) conducted research with over 2,500 adolescents in Britain to investigate this theory, and found that after several factors (i.e., mother involvement, depressive symptoms, child age, etc.) were controlled for, there was evidence suggesting that father involvement was not only statistically significant but also an outstanding predictor of adolescent happiness. Moreover, the results indicated that while both father and mother involvement made positive and significant contributions to their children's happiness, father involvement had a stronger effect.

In an earlier, related study, Amato and Riviera (1999) found results that were very similar in the 1987-1988 National Survey of Families and Households. In this study the authors used a structural equations model to predict a variety of problems at home and in school from mother and father involvement. Three separate latent factors - time spent with parent, closeness with parent, and perceived support from parent - were used as estimates and indicators of each parents individual involvement with their children. These authors also controlled for factors such as the parent's age and education, presence of a stepfather, and number of children. With this being done the authors found that father involvement was shown as a highly significant predictor of certain behavioral problems (Amato & Riviera, 1999). It was further noted that father's involvement was a slightly higher predictor of behavioral problems than the mother's involvement. This does not diminish the impact that mothers have on their children's development, but

instead shows the importance of better understanding and researching father's involvement when it comes to developmental problems with children.

While the *additive* association is certainly worth more consideration one must also consider that other researchers have not found that father involvement offers any unique contribution to children's development. When this second stance is taken a *contextual-suppression* association is generally used as an explanation to father involvement (Cookston & Finlay, 2006). From this perspective, the authors note that the predictive power of father involvement is often nullified by maternal or social contextual characteristics. Crockett, Eggebeen, and Hawkins (1993) described how the positive impact of father presence disappeared when several factors were controlled for, including child's age and mother's education level, among others. Furthermore, other researchers (Goldstein, 1982, 1983; Hofferth, 1985; Marshall, English, & Stewart, 2001) have reported a similar suppression effect, positing that father involvement is more dependent on other variables such as mother involvement, socioeconomic factors, and child characteristics. This contradicts the *additive* association and sheds light on another perspective in this research.

How can the research show such disparity when it comes to investigating the impact fathers have on the development of their children? There are many possible explanations, and Cookston and Finlay (2006) suggest that the way researchers conceptualize father involvement may be one possible explanation. With several ways to define and measure fathering including time or quality of interactions, as noted earlier, it become clear why various studies come to different conclusions.

Cookston and Finlay (2006) reported that a study documenting the additive association, conducted by Amato and Riviera (1999) described father involvement through the quality of the parent-child relationship, where studies investigating the contextual suppression association, conducted by Crockett et al., (1993) described father involvement in terms of how much time a biological father spends with his child and whether or not he is present in the home. One can see that these two different ways of operationalizing father involvement could very easily lead to findings that do not necessarily align. As mentioned earlier in this paper the way father involvement is measured has been debated, defined and redefined in the research since almost from the very beginning. Pleck (1997) suggested that both the quantity and quality of father involvement be included in studies since they both appear to have merit.

Moving Beyond a White-Euro-American View of Fathering

As mentioned earlier much of the research on fathering has been based on White middle-class men, which leaves a large gap in our understanding of fathering from a multicultural perspective. While this research may be limited, I believe it is vital to discuss the research that does exist and how it is impacting the study of fathering. Monica Robbers (2009) noted that there are many variations in the roles that fathers take regarding children's development across various cultures and generations. She also pointed out that even though the conceptualization of fathering has changed dramatically over the past 10 years, there is consistency within the literature indicating that positive involvement from fathers is associated with positive social, cognitive, and emotional development of their children

(Lundahl, Tollefson, Risser, & Lovejoy, 2008). This belief is central to this study that is investigating the impact that fathers have on the psychological development of their children.

Scientists are not the only ones noticing that more attention should be paid to the impact fathers have in their children's development. With research showing that the impact fathers have is quite sizeable, and even multi-generational, policy makers have also taken notice (Robbers, 2009). In 2006, the Promoting Responsible Fatherhood Initiative was passed. This program envisioned that funds would be used to promote responsible fathering by supporting relationship building between fathers and children through various avenues. Related to this program in theory is the program titled the *Caring Equation*, from Arlington County, Virginia that ran from 2003 to 2007 (Robbers, 2009). This is where Robbers drew much of her findings on fathering from a non-White perspective.

This program was important in many ways, one being that it was a longitudinal study of a young father's intervention program within the realm of teen parenting (Robber, 2008). Teenage mothers are somewhat popular today with TV shows on MTV and other reality networks documenting the ups and downs young mothers go through while raising their children. Even with the popularity of these shows, fathers, are often a side note barely mentioned as contributors in their own children's lives. Now there could be many explanations for this, but it does reinforce how little is often expected of fathers in our culture. While there is a wider array of research on teenage mothers, issues related to locating teenage fathers has been cited for the scarcity of similar research with young men (Thompson and Walker,

2004). The Caring Equation focused on locating fathers and educating them to the importance of father involvement through classes, activities, and counseling (Robbers, 2008). Robbers noted that they also worked to enable fathers getting involved with their children. Getting fathers actively involved and educated through activities and classes may provide a very important service because young fathers often learn from their own fathers, who may or may not have been that involved in their own development.

There are many unique characteristics that this study had that made its contribution quite noticeable. One of the first is that the sample of young men was mostly Hispanic, and even among research on people of color this specific demographic is often overlooked (Robbers, 2009). Robbers pointed out that this study also investigated fathering from a longitudinal perspective that is not often the case. Furthermore, this study explored an aspect of pre-natal father involvement, or how involved the father was before their child was born. This was done because previous research has pointed to pre-natal fathering as a strong predictor of long-term involvement of fathers (Robbers, 2009). It is also noted by Robbers (2009) that the sample size is larger than previous studies and measuring behavioral changes instead of attitudes was a main tenant. Overall the program showed promise and Robbers (2009) noted that there was improvement in assistance, interaction, and support with many of the fathers involved with this program.

Fathering From a Lower-Class African American Perspective

Public policies and programs aimed to improve fathering may be a vital aspect to increasing father involvement, yet some programs can unintentionally have a detrimental affect on fathers, mothers and their families. Roy (1999) discussed some of the negative impacts that social policy often has on African American and lower class men in his Chicago, IL based study. Examples of these programs such as the Personal Responsibility and Work Opportunity Reconciliation Act (1996) and Temporary Assistance to Needy families are drawn out in his study. Under these programs, behavioral requirements and loss of public aid benefits are aimed to increase father involvement, yet often times actually make this more difficult (Roy, 1999). These programs are intended to identify fathers and increase their fiscal contributions to their children, however this somewhat simplifies the central aspect of fathering into monetary value, where personal contributions such as time, love, and role modeling are overlooked. These problematic structural components are often overlooked by policy makers and unfairly target lower class African American fathers.

Roy identified three aspects of paternal involvement, which include one's lawful claims to fatherhood, financial support, and access to their children and caregiving. He noted that policies created solely to promote low-income fathers' financial involvement often times discourages paternal involvement (Roy, 1999). One way these policies inadvertently punish some fathers is due to an emphasis on biological fathers (Roy, 1999). The author gives an example of a young African American man, whom with the mother's blessing, attempted to be identified as the father through state procedures. He had taken care of their child for four years and

was not the biological father. The courts dismissed his involvement and even though the biological father could not be identified, this man lost custody of his daughter to the state foster care system (Roy, 1999). With biology having precedence, one's lawful claim to fatherhood may be very difficult to establish and therefore negatively impact a father's ability to be more involved in his children's lives.

The other core aspects of Roy's (1999) study, financial support and access to one's children and caregiving, are also often compromised through public policy. Within this study, many fathers identified certain disincentives for paying into a state run child support system due to the amount of money the mothers actually received. During this study, mothers and children in Illinois only received \$50 of the amount father's paid into the system (Roy, 1999). Although Roy does not mention how large the father's payment was, the idea of only part of the payment making it to the mother allowed men to view this as a way of keeping the legal system off their back and not a vital role in fathering (Roy, 1999). This is because part of the father's payments went directly to the state to lessen public aid benefits. While this may seem logical on paper, fathers in the study said they would rather pay the mother cash instead, while not registering with this program. This was done so that the mother would receive the full amount of their payment (Roy, 1999). Under this policy father's who are not registered are subject to arrest because the state cannot track the amount of money they are paying the mothers. This in turn would influence their ability to be considered adequate fathers in the states view and imprisonment becomes a real concern. One can see how this cycle of policy and

consequence greatly impacts a father's involvement with his children even if he wants to be active in his children's lives.

It is important to note that much of the research and policy related to fathers of color has relied on a deficit model, based on the assumption that the fathers will be absent or in some way not meeting their obligations. Although such programs are generally well intentioned, they can recapitulate the expectation that fathers' roles are limited to time and financial support. In this way, the role of fathers of color in the emotional and psychological development of their children continues to be significantly understudied.

Attachment and Psychological Disorders

People often believe that a child developing a positive relationship with his or her mother in the first few years of life is critical. While this is very important and probably cannot be overstated from a developmental perspective, fathers and their initial relationship with their children is often minimized, if not overlooked altogether. Bowlby (1958, 1960) popularized the notion of attachment theory, and many psychologists and psychology research have since tried to understand the complexities of this theory. Many of these psychologists studied the impact that the relationship a child has with their primary caretaker has on their self-development (Perrin, Baker, Romelus, Jones, & Heesacker, 2009). There have been many other studies that have shown that higher rates of psychological and interpersonal problems are due to insecure attachments (Collins, 1996; Diamond & Fagundes, 2008; Scharfe, 2007). This is an important idea that ties the attachment children have with their parents to the development of psychological disorders.

While psychological disorders have shown a positive correlation with father absence, in turn, a father's active involvement in their children's life has been associated with healthier development patterns (Perrin, Baker, Romelus, Jones, & Heesacker, 2009). Fathers of course, have to first be available, and as noted in earlier research this does not always mean in the home, and has more to do the children's perspective of the availability of their father figure. If a father figure is available, then there is the possibility of developing an attachment to him as a paternal figure, and developing a secure attachment with this figure is a main tenet in promoting these healthy developmental patterns. While this is not the only cause, it is one that must be considered along with biological and cognitive vulnerability-stress models, which will be briefly outlined.

Cognitive Perspectives

There have been several recent articles that describe the general cognitive vulnerability-stress modes of depression (Abramson & Alloy, 2006; Abramson et al., 2001; Hankin and Abramson, 2001). Within this model individuals who have certain negative cognitive thoughts have a greater chance of developing depression when they in turn encounter a negative or stressful event (Hyde, Mezulis, & Abramson, 2008). Two of these models of depression are the hopelessness theory of depression (Abramson, Metalsky, & Alloy, 1989) and Beck's (1967, 1976) cognitive theory of depression. The hopelessness theory of depression states that individuals have a tendency to attribute negative events in their lives to more stable global causes (e.g., "My father does not hug me because I am stupid") and this represents a diathesis that when aligned with negative life events allows for a

vulnerability to depression and more specifically hopelessness depression. Beck's theory hypothesized that a negative self-schema which, holds cognitive distortions and or dysfunctional attitudes (e.g., "I am nobody if my father does not love me") act like a similar diathesis for depression. Both of these theories propose specific mechanisms where the diathesis-stress combination leads one to negative automatic thoughts or hopelessness, which then leads to depression and may even apply to personality and anxiety disorders (Luten, Ralph, & Mineka, 1997). This is another way that scientist believe people may develop depression and anxiety.

A Biological Perspective

People have complex biological structures that may be another explanation for psychological symptoms such as depression and anxiety. There has also been research that has shown that genetic influences may impact depression (Hyde, Mezulis, & Abramson, 2008). In a 2000 meta-analysis Sullivan, Neale, and Kendler utilized genetic design to evaluate family resemblance and major depression. They found that within their twin studies, depression was moderately heritable with 37% of the variance due to additive genetic effects. This offers yet another explanation to how individuals develop depression or anxiety. While these explanations theorize psychological development from a cognitive and biological stance, this paper looks to isolate the attachment children have with their fathers in order to add to the literature on father presence.

Father Interaction Perspectives

As mentioned before most of the initial research on fathers had to do with father absence. Father absence makes the idea of father-child attachment mostly

obsolete, and has been shown to have an impact on several aspects of children's lives including academic achievement and performance (Jones, 2004), moral development (Hoffman, 1971; Parish, 1980), development of individuality and self-esteem (Phares, 1999), the development of psychological distress and disorders (Finley & Schwartz, 2007; Kenny & Schreiner, 2009; Lewis, 1992) and incarceration rates (Blankenhorn, 1995). If this is not enough, other research conducted by Popenoe (1996) found that adolescents who are dealing with father absence or loss were twice as likely to drop out of school and 2.5 times as likely to become teenage mothers, and 1.4 times more likely to be out of work or school. This impact is phenomenal and cannot be understated. With father absence having such a negative impact on a child's development one can easily wonder how much good can come from a positive father-child relationship.

Research done on more positive father involvement has shown to be associated with more advanced cognitive and academic achievement (Amato & Gilbreth, 1999; Johnson, 1988; Lamb, 1975, 1981; Phares, 1996, 1999; Radin, 1986) and moral development (Hoffman, 1971; Weisbroth, 1970). This is a direct contrast to the inadequate development of these areas noted above with father absence. Hoffman (1970) also wrote that fathers who feel positively about raising their children often have sons, who identify more strongly with them, and in turn, show higher levels of moral judgment during adolescents.

The development of social competencies has also been shown to have a strong association between positive father-child relationships (Lamb, 1981; Mackey, 1998; Parke, 1981; Radin, 1986; Sharpe, 1994) while also impacting a reduction of

violent criminal behavior (Mackey & Mackey, 2003). More research by Hamilton (1977) discovered that when fathers were very involved in their children's lives their sons were often described as autonomous, imaginative, well liked, and confident while their daughters were described as dependable, well socialized, and friendly. This is expanded on in other research that shows that children who have a strong relationship with their father often have a more positive sense of self, openness to others, high self esteem, an internal locus of control, and satisfaction in interpersonal relationships (Hamilton, 1977; Lamb, 1981; Mackey, 1998; Phares, 1996, 1999). The findings of these studies are truly remarkable and shed light on the vast importance of research on positive father-child relationships, as well as pose questions about the relationship between father-child relationships and common mental health concerns.

Anxiety, Depression, and Alexithymia

With the abundance of media commercials advertising psychotropic medications for disorders such as anxiety and depression, many people in the Western world have a clear understanding of these disorders and many of their symptoms. What we do not have a clear understanding of, is what particular genes and environmental circumstances lead to psychopathology (Tsuang, Stone, & Johnston 2008). Mental health disorders are complex in their nature, and this causes multiple challenges when studying health concerns such as depression and anxiety. It is generally believed that depression and anxiety are linked to the interaction of multiple genes and environmental factors (Tsuang et al., 2008). Even

with this limited knowledge, depression and anxiety are the two most commonly diagnosed psychological conditions.

The American College Health Association-National College Health Assessment (ACHA-NCHA) found that nearly 30 percent of college students reported difficulty functioning due to depressive feelings within the past year (ACHA-NCHA, 2009). This is a relatively high percentage among what many believe to be a high functioning group, college students. Depression can impact an individual's ability to enjoy activities they previously enjoyed, deplete energy, cause problems with concentration and sleeping patterns, as well as impact appetite, lead to physiological symptoms, and increase thoughts of suicide (NIMH, 2013). While depressive symptoms often remit with the use of psychotherapy and or psychotropic medications, serious complications can result without professional help (NIMH, 2013).

Symptoms of anxiety, much like depression, interfere with people's ability to fully enjoy their lives. In any given year, Anxiety Disorders affect close to 40 million American adults (NIMH, 2012). These disorders greatly impact people's daily lives, last at least six months, and can worsen if not properly treated with psychotherapy and or psychotropic medications. Various Anxiety Disorders exist, and impact people in similar and differing ways. These disorders range from generalized anxiety disorder (GAD) to specific phobias, and these disorders negatively impact millions of lives. Again, symptoms often remit with professional help, but seeking services are an important step one has to be willing to take in order to improve their functioning.

As noted earlier, biological and environmental factors most likely interact in a way that causes depressive and anxiety symptoms in individuals. Cookston and Finlay (2006) found that even after demographic variables were accounted for, father involvement showed predictive power in estimation of depressive symptoms. Several additional studies (Lamb, 1997; Pleck, 1997; Copenhaver & Eisler, 2000) have demonstrated correlations between father involvement, or lack thereof, and psychological and behavioral measures. While this is not viewed as causality, it is important to note the role father involvement plays in the psychological development of their children. This is an important previous finding, in that, the current research hypothesizes that father involvement, or lack thereof, is predictive of both depressive and anxiety based disorders.

While much is known about the development and symptoms of anxiety and depression much less is known regarding alexithymia. A disorder that is beginning to receive more attention, especially within the field of men and masculinity, is alexithymia. The term alexithymia literally means “without words for emotions” and Sifneos (1967, 1972) used this term in its origin when discussing certain psychiatric patients that had a hard time explaining or even identifying their feelings (Levant, Hall, Williams, & Hasan, 2009). Not only were these patients having difficulty identifying their own emotions, they often struggled discerning the emotional state of those around them (Berenbaum & Prince, 1994; Parker, Taylor, & Bagby, 1993) while also having trouble showing empathy toward others in interpersonal relationships (Krystal, 1979). Even though the term alexithymia and the idea that people may have trouble identifying or understanding emotion

originated in a clinical population, there are variations along a continuum of these symptoms that have been observed in the general population (Levant, Hall, Williams, & Hasan, 2009). This is a significant and vital aspect of understanding alexithymia since most people dealing with such an issue actually live within the general population.

How does one develop alexithymia? Are people born with this condition or do certain societal conditions trigger its development in certain pre-disposed individuals? There have been numerous theories attempting to explain the etiology of alexithymia and these have ranged from biologic causes to social learning to intrapsychic functioning to interpersonal relationships (Taylor, 1984). One biological explanation focuses on the increase of noradrenergic activity and decreased basal activity within a person's hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis, and how this relates to higher levels of alexithymia (Henry et al., 1992; Spitzer, Brandl, Rose, Nauch, & Freyberger, 2005). When this complex biological explanation was being made the samples in the studies came from various clinical populations including those who have suffered a stroke, or dealt with a Major Depressive Disorder, and therefore the findings may not generalize to how these variations of alexithymia play out in the general public (Levant, Hall, Williams, & Hasan, 2009). Understandably, this is a very complex manner that does not easily transition to a better understanding of alexithymia among most people in our society.

Theories that do not derive from a biological nature offer an alternative theory regarding how people in the general population may develop alexithymia.

There have been a small number of studies (Borens, Grosse-Schultze, Jaensch, & Kortemme, 1977; Cremerius, 1977) that have shown how the social learning process may play an important role in the development of alexithymia as well. The central theme of these social learning theories posits that children do not learn how to understand or express their own emotions, because their model, often a father figure, has not displayed emotion himself.

This modeling, particularly from a paternal figure, is an important consideration when hypothesizing about the development of psychological distress such as alexithymia, depression, and anxiety, in this present study. This is not a novice concept, as social learning theory has played an important and influential role when theorizing about learning and human development in general (Chavis, 2012). The main tenet of this theory is that people learn in a social environment as well as from other people. These learned processes can come from direct interaction with other people, as well as from observing their behaviors. Therefore, this observational learning and or modeling of other's conduct, can explain a wide assortment of behaviors an individual may display from a social learning theory perspective.

Ronald Levant has been one of the prominent researchers in the arena of alexithymia and more specifically how traditional masculinity plays into the development of alexithymia among the male population. Levant (1992) proposed the "Normative Male Alexithymia" (NMA) hypothesis, which he believed accounted for the restricted emotionality that certain traditional masculine roles influenced in the men he was working with (Levant, Hall, Williams, & Hasan, 2009). A great

example would be a father not crying, or showing much emotion, at this own father's funeral because traditional masculinity says that he should remain strong and stoic for others. Levant began to draw this hypothesis while working with males in his clinical practice and the Boston University Fatherhood Project (Levant, et al., 2009). In these settings Levant began to notice that it took a great deal of practice and a certain amount of difficulty for many of these men to locate and describe their emotional states (Levant, et al., 2009). However, with practice and a certain amount of work these men could eventually more effectively locate and describe their emotions.

The NMA hypothesis is a noticeable shift from the biological model noted above because it posits that average men without major biological disruptions are also showing many of the symptoms of alexithymia. Levant went on to theorize that many of the men he was working with had been taught to restrict their emotional expressions as young boys by their parents, teachers, peers, and coaches, and that some of these boys were even disciplined for showing or talking about such feelings (Levant, et al., 2009). Based on these observations, it was theorized that many of these boys did not develop the vocabulary necessary to express or even correctly understand their own emotions (Levant, 1992). This development, or lack thereof, with the ability to understand and express one's own emotions can easily be viewed through a social learning model which notes the importance of many social role models including fathers.

The men in Levant, Hall, Williams, and Hasan's (2009) study showed many deficits when it came to understanding and expressing emotions, yet certain aspects

were more profound than others. The more noticeable deficits were men's difficulties in identifying and expressing emotions that would show a sense of vulnerability (e.g. being fearful or sad) or emotions that would express attachment (e.g. caring or showing affection). Not being able to effectively show that one cares about others, including their own children, would have a major impact on the quality of father-child relationship, and hypothetically lead to more psychological disorders within these men's children.

Some may wonder what is wrong with men restricting their emotions, especially since men have traditionally done this for quite some time. Levant et al., (2009) noted that restricted emotions may be somewhat adaptive, especially in highly competitive environments, yet even so, many of Levant's clients reported that they had substantial problems in their personal lives with a variety of issues. Some of these problems included marital difficulties, substance abuse, domestic violence, sexual addiction, and even separation from their children (Levant & Kopecky, 1995). With myriad difficulties related to the inability to understand and express one's emotions impacting men and women's lives alike, it is somewhat surprising that more research has not been done in this area.

Even with the research somewhat lagging, there are prominent researchers making efforts to further illuminate this area. The Gender Role Strain Paradigm (Pleck, 1981, 1995) matches well with Levant's findings, as well as the dominant theoretical perspective in the psychology of men and masculinity (Levant, Hall, Williams, & Hasan, 2009). The main position of this theory is that societal forces, such as social learning, cause men to be shaped in a different manner according to

the various degrees that they have been raised as boys to adhere to the norms of traditional masculinity (Levant, 1992; Thompson & Pleck, 1995; Unger, 1990). Young boys that are raised under the premise of traditional masculinity ideology have been theorized to then become men that endorse and conform to these more traditional masculinity roles as adults (Levant, et al., 2009).

One of these traditional masculinity roles involves men restricting their emotions (Levant, Hall, Williams, & Hasan, 2009). There are theories linking this restriction to the establishment and maintenance of power while also concealing vulnerability within a patriarchal system (Levant, 1992). In multiple studies Levant (1992, 1995, 1998) pulled from the Gender Role Strain Paradigm to theorize that men who were raised within various degrees of this traditional masculinity ideology would then in turn more frequently have occurrences of mild to moderate forms of alexithymia (Levant, et al., 2009). Furthermore, there has been empirical research that finds a link between alexithymia in men and the adherence to traditional masculinity ideology (Levant, et al., 2009). This is an important aspect of this study due to the development of psychological disorders, and especially alexithymia, that may be socially learned within the norms that society holds for men. It becomes further important and vital for this study due to the nature of interaction that fathers have with their children and how this relates to future development. This is often more easily grasped by people due to the idea that we learn a lot of other basic life skills in a social environment, not only through direct engagement, but also through observing and modeling behaviors deemed appropriate.

I posit that developing a healthy attachment to a paternal figure while learning positive social norms for relating to and expressing emotion is a vital aspect of development. Lamb, Pleck, Charnov, and Levine (1985) described how a father's motivation, skills and self-confidence, social supports and stressors impact a father's ability to positively engage in paternal activities. If a father has the confidence, skills, motivation, and social support to engage with his children, he may be more likely to do so, and in turn may provide an environment where a positive attachment style within his own children can be created.

As noted above, several studies have shown that father involvement is correlated to behavioral and psychological development of children, and according to Copenhaver and Eisler (2000) adult children's perception of their father figure is of high importance. Children learn valuable lessons from their paternal figure through direct engagement, as well as accessing their father figure's time and guidance related to life issues. For the purpose of this study, while investigating the impact that fathers have on their children's development of various psychological issues, how close, or attached, one feels to their father figure, as well as how they learn to perceive and engage within certain societal norms based on interactions with and observations of their father, is hypothesized to be a defining factor.

Purpose of Study

With emotional states such as anxiety, depression, stress, and alexithymia and behavioral problems like incarceration being linked to father involvement, all within a growing yet still limited area of research, what other aspects of children's psychological development may be attributed to the father-child relationship? The

proposed study will investigate the impact adult children's perspectives of their father figure has on adult children's development of a variety of psychological issues. More specifically, symptoms of depression, anxiety, stress, and alexithymia among male and female adult children will be explored, and how these symptoms relate to the relationship these children had, and still have, with their father or father figure. How, if at all, the development of any of these psychological disorders impacts one's overall satisfaction with their life is the final aspect of this study. It is hoped that by linking the fathers' relationship quality with their the children's current well being, more attention and research will be directed toward the impact that positive fathering has on individual lives, and in turn propel a new generation of men toward accountability and success as fathers. This is the main reason Copenhaver& Eisler (2000) developed the ATFS, so that a father-specific measure could be readily utilized, and therefore this scale will be utilized in the present study.

Hypotheses

Hypothesis I: More nurturing fathering styles, measured by the three subscales of the ATFS, will have a negative relationship with the development of depression in their children

Hypothesis II: More nurturing fathering styles, measured by the three subscales of the ATFS, will have a negative relationship with the development of anxiety in their children

Hypothesis III: More nurturing fathering styles, measured by the three subscales of the ATFS, will have a negative relationship with the development of stress in their children

Hypothesis IV: More nurturing fathering styles, measured by the three subscales of the ATFS, will have a negative relationship with the development of alexithymia in their children

Hypothesis V: More nurturing fathering styles, measured by the three subscales of the ATFS, will positively impact the satisfaction of life in their children

Hypothesis VI: Individuals whose fathers are perceived as less emotionally distant will report less anxiety.

Hypothesis VII: Individuals whose fathers are perceived as less emotionally distant will report less depression.

Hypothesis VIII: Individuals who have less fear of their father's negative evaluation will report less anxiety.

Hypothesis IX: Individuals who have less fear of their father's negative evaluation will report less depression.

Hypothesis X: Individuals whose fathers are perceived as more emotionally expressive will report lower levels of alexithymia.

CHAPTER II

METHOD

Participants

Participants included 268 men and women from a single campus in the Midwest. Of the 268 participants who began the survey, 242 participants completed the survey in its entirety. Various analyses were run in order to investigate whether there were any differences between participants who completed the survey and those who did not. The only difference found was that men accounted for 76.9% of those who did not complete the survey, while they accounted for 42.6% of those who completed the survey. Since the differences noted were minimal, the following data is reporting on the 242 participants who completed the survey. Ages ranged from 18 to 77 years ($M = 23.19$ years, $SD = 10.61$). Of the 242 participants, White/Caucasian was the largest racial make up (86%) followed by Black/African American (4.5%) Asian (3.3%) American Indian or Alaska Native (2.5%) Hispanic (2.5%) and Other (1.2%). Participant demographics are reported in Table 1 and 2.

Table 1. Participant Demographics

Setting	Number of Male Participants	Number of Female Participants	Mean Age	Standard Deviation
University Classrooms	23	93	21.32	4.97
Survey Monkey	80	46	24.62	13.25
Total	103	139	23.19	10.61

Table 2. Father Figure

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Biological Father	223	92.1	92.1	92.1
Step Father	9	3.7	3.7	95.9
Adoptive Father	4	1.7	1.7	97.5
Coach/Mentor	2	0.8	0.8	98.3
Other	4	1.7	1.7	100
Total	242	100	100	

Instruments

The *Attitude Toward Father Scale (ATFS)* developed by Copenhaver and Eisler (2000) is a measure that assesses the father-child relationship from the adult children's view. Participants are asked to rate, on a 6-point Likert-type scale, how true they feel various aspects are in regards to their relationship with their father. This assessment has 45 items that comprise three subscales: (a) Perceived Emotional Distance From father with an example item being "My father never really seemed to care about me"; (b) Perceived Emotional Expressiveness by Father with an example item being "My father has often shared his feelings with me"; and (c) Fear of Father's Negative Evaluation with an example item being "I feel like I disappointed my father." In a past study the factors within the ATFS have shown good internal consistency with the Cronbach's alpha being .90 or higher on all three subscales (Copenhaver & Eisler, 2000). In the current study a Cronbach's alpha level of .95 was found. The ATFS was developed, tested, and validated on college students in the state of Virginia. The racial composition of these students was also very similar to sample in the current study (Copenhaver & Eisler, 2000).

The *Normative Male Alexithymia Scale (NMAS)* developed by Levant, et al.,

2006, (Appendix A), is a 20-item measure with items rated on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to a 7 (*strongly agree*), with higher total scores, after recoding reverse-worded items, indicating greater levels of alexithymia. Examples of items within this assessment include “I am often confused about what emotion I am feeling” and “I find it very hard to cry.” Exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses have indicated that there is a single 20-item factor within the NMAS. Past scores on the NMAS have displayed evidence of internal consistency ($\alpha = .92$ for men and $\alpha = .93$ for women) and a test-retest reliability of ($r = .82$ for women and $r = .91$ for men) over a 1-to 2-month time period (Levant et al., 2006). In the current study, a Cronbach’s alpha level of .93 was found. The NMAS has often been used in college student populations, with racial categories very similar to those found in the current study (Levant et al., 2006)

The *Depression Anxiety Stress Scales* short-form (DASS-21) inventory was used to assess the participants’ levels of anxiety and depression. The DASS-21 is a shortened version of Lovibond and Lovibond’s (1995) DASS inventory, which is a 42-item self-report measure of stress, anxiety and depression. The DASS-21 is divided equally with seven questions each pertaining to depression, anxiety, and depression. These three scales combine as one assessment of distress, and are comprised of a 4-point Likert-type scale ranging from 0 (Did not apply to me at all) to 3 (Applied to me very much, most of the time), with higher scores on each assessment equaling higher levels of stress, anxiety or depression. Participants are asked to indicate how much the statements applied to them over the past week. Examples of questions include “I tended to over-react to situations” for stress, “I was

worried about situations in which I might panic and make a fool of myself” indicating anxiety and “I felt that life was meaningless” as an indicator of depression. A study by Henry and Crawford (2005) found the internal consistency of the total and subscales to be high with Cronbach’s alpha being .88 (95% CI = .87 - .89) for the Depression scale, .82 (95% CI = .80 - .83) for the Anxiety scale, .90 (95% CI .89 - .91) for the Stress scale, and .93 (95% CI .93 - .94) for the Total scale. In the current study, a Cronbach’s alpha of .97 was found. The construct validity of the DASS-21 was researched by gathering close to 1,800 adults from the general UK population. These were unpaid volunteers and their mean age was 41 (Henry & Crawford, 2005). Another study by Sinclair, Siefert, Slavin-Mulford, Stein, Renna, and Blais (2011) utilized a sample of U.S. adults that closely resembled the U.S as a whole. This study showed very similar internal consistency results as the Henry and Crawford 2005 study. Further, these authors cited several past studies, which also displayed similar internal consistency results.

The fourth scale the participants took was the *Satisfaction With Life Scale* (SWLS, Diener et al. 1985; Pavot and Diener 1993). This is a widely used scale where people are asked to rate through a five question, seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly agree*) to 7 (*Strongly disagree*) how satisfied they currently are with their life. Examples include “If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing” and “The conditions of my life are excellent.” Scores on the SWLS can be interpreted in absolute terms as well as relative life satisfaction (Pavot & Diener, 1993). The middle or neutral point is represented by a score of 20 overall for the scale (Pavot & Diener, 1993). Score in the 26 to 30 range represent satisfied

and scored in the 5 to 9 range are representative of being extremely dissatisfied with life (Pavot & Diener, 1993). In a two-month test-retest study the correlation coefficient was reported at .82 and the coefficient alpha was reported at .87 (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985). Of the five questions used in the SWLS factor loading of each question ranged from .61 to .84 with 4 of the 5 questions being .72 or higher (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985). Item total correlations for the 5 questions ranged from .57 to .75 with 4 of the 5 questions being .67 or higher (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985). The Cronbach's alpha for the current study was .88. The SWLS is a highly cited and utilized scale when investigating satisfaction with life. It has been used on a variety of clinical and non-clinical populations as well as in various countries with satisfactory internal consistency throughout these samples (Bendayan, Blanca, Fernandez-Baena, Escobar, & Trines, 2013).

Procedure

Participants voluntarily took the survey in either a hard copy form or through an on-line survey created with Survey Monkey. Participants were surveyed in university classrooms, and on-line through a link created with Survey Monkey and sent through university e-mail. Multiple classrooms were visited at a medium-sized Midwestern University and students were asked to voluntarily participate before or after their lecture. After the survey was created through Survey Monkey, the primary researcher contacted the university's Department of Institutional Research where a stratified random sample of university student emails were

generated. These students were contacted through email with a link to the Survey Monkey research page.

Participants were briefed about the study prior to their participation. They were told that the UND Institutional Review Board had approved the study and that participation is completely voluntary and results will be completely anonymous and kept confidential. Those who consented to participate were then given a copy of the survey, which included three tests including the ATFS, NMAS, DASS-21, and the SWLS. The first sheet of both the paper and on-line survey included demographic information including gender and age and relationship to father figure (Table 2). There were no significant differences based on participant relation to their father figure (biological, step-father, etc.) so these results were not reported. All participants were given the opportunity to submit contact information in order to be entered into a drawing for a \$25 gift certificate. This contact information was gathered separately from their data as a way to ensure confidentiality. Participants were also given a copy of the informed consent sheet (Appendix B) to take with them. The overall survey has less than 100 items and generally took about 15 minutes to complete.

Design and Analysis

Preliminary analyses were conducted to identify differences in the key variables by respondent gender (using an Analysis of Variance) or age (using regression analysis) of respondent. Correlations were conducted to identify any self-reported significant relationships between attitudes toward one's father figure,

levels of alexithymia, depression, anxiety, stress and ones satisfaction with their life for all participants.

The main hypotheses were examined by using separate regression analyses to determine whether attitudes toward father and perceptions of emotional distance, emotional expressiveness, and fear of negative evaluation are predictive of alexithymia, depression, anxiety, stress, and satisfaction with life. As noted in the hypotheses, a regression analysis with perceived emotional distance of one's father and levels of anxiety and depression was run. A regression analysis with the perceived emotional expressiveness of one's father and levels of alexithymia was also run. A final regression analysis was run evaluating the perceived fear of a father's negative evaluation and levels of anxiety and depression. Additionally, regression analyses incorporated respondent gender as a dummy variable, to identify whether there was a particular effect on the psychological outcomes of sons. Data was analyzed using SPSS (version 18).

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

Preliminary analyses found no significant differences in reported levels of stress, anxiety, depression, alexithymia or overall attitude toward father based on the specific category of father figure (biological, step-father, etc.), number of children, ethnicity, education level, or employment status. In general, there was insufficient variability when investigating the potential effects of these demographic variables. There was a small correlation between participant age and attitude toward father figure $r(240) = .19, p < .01$. This indicates that as participant age increases so do the positive perceptions of their father figure.

When utilizing gender as a variable, additional significant findings were found. Men in the study reported significantly higher levels of stress $t(240) = -3.52, p < .001$, anxiety $t(240) = -5.33, p < .000$, depression $t(240) = -5.46, p < .000$, and alexithymia $t(240) = -2.02, p < .045$ than the women surveyed.

When setting was used as a variable, defined as either recruited in a classroom or online through email, additional significant findings were found. Participants who took the survey online through email recruitment reported significantly higher levels of stress $t(240) = 7.20, p < .000$, anxiety $t(240) = 4.31, p < .000$, depression $t(240) = 2.67, p < .000$, and alexithymia $t(240) = 2.02, p < .04$ than the participants who took the survey in a classroom setting. They also reported

significantly more negative perceptions of their father figure through the Attitude Toward Father Figure Total Scale $t(240) = .157, p < .003$, Perceived Emotional Distance From Father subscale $t(240) = 1.71, p < .003$, and the Fear of Father's Negative Evaluation subscale $t(240) = 4.06, p < .005$, than participants who took the survey in a classroom setting.

A series of linear regression analyses (Table 3) were conducted to investigate whether attitude toward father total (ATFT), perceived emotional distance from father (PEDF), perceived emotional expressiveness of father (PEEF), and fear of negative evaluation of father (FNEF) would predict reported levels of stress, anxiety, depression, alexithymia and satisfaction with life.

As shown on Table 3, there was a medium correlation between ATFT and reported levels of stress, anxiety, and depression of all participants. There was a medium correlation between PEDF and reported levels of stress, anxiety, and depression. There was a medium correlation between FNEF and reported levels of stress, anxiety, and depression. There was also a medium correlation between PEEF and reported levels of stress and depression. In addition, there was a medium negative correlation between one's reported satisfaction with life and ATFT. There was a medium negative correlation between one's reported satisfaction with life and PEDF. There was a medium negative correlation between one's reported satisfaction with life and PEEF. There was a medium negative correlation between one's reported satisfaction with life and FNEF.

There was a small correlation between reported levels of alexithymia and the total Attitude Toward Father scale (ATFT), as well as alexithymia and all of the ATFT

subscales (PEDF, FNEF, and PPEF). Finally, reported levels of anxiety had a small correlation to PEEF.

Table 3. Correlation Between Attitude Toward Father Scales and Measures of Psychological Symptoms

	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Stress	.841**	.878**	.291* *	.443* *	-.425**	.375**	.345**	.483**
2. Anxiety	1	.826**	.260* *	.368* *	-.292**	.330**	.253**	.409**
3. Depression		1	.301* *	.398* *	-.451**	.338**	.316**	.442**
4. Alexithymia			1	.231* *	-.341**	.161*	.221**	.277**
5. ATFT				1	-.373**	.950**	.899**	.871**
6. SWLF					1	-.310**	-.324**	-.392**
7. PEDF						1	.813**	.747**
8. PEEF							1	.687**
9. FNEF								1

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 3. Note. SWLF = Satisfaction with Life total score, ATFT = Attitude Toward Father total, PEDF = Perceived Emotional Distance from Father, PEEF = Perceived Emotional Expressiveness of Father, and FNEF = Fear of Negative Evaluation of Father.

Hypothesis 1: More nurturing fathering styles, measured by the three subscales of the ATFS, will have a negative relationship with the development of depression in their children

A linear regression analysis was conducted to investigate whether attitude toward ones father would predict current levels of depression. The scatterplot for the two variables, as shown in Figure 1, indicates that the two variables are linearly

related such that as negative attitudes toward ones father increase reported levels of depression also increase. The regression equation for predicting the overall reported level of depression is

$$\text{Depression} = .047 \text{ Attitude Toward Father} + 1.794$$

The 95% confidence interval for the slope, 0.60 to 0.03 does not contain the value of zero, and therefore a negative attitude toward ones father is significantly related to the reported level of depression. More nurturing fathering styles do help impede the development of depression in their children; therefore the hypothesis is supported. The correlation between negative attitudes towards ones father and reported levels of depression was .391. Approximately 15%($p < .01$) of the variance of the depression index was accounted for by its linear relationship with the attitude toward father index. An example would be that adult children reporting higher negative perceptions of their father would also report higher levels of depression.

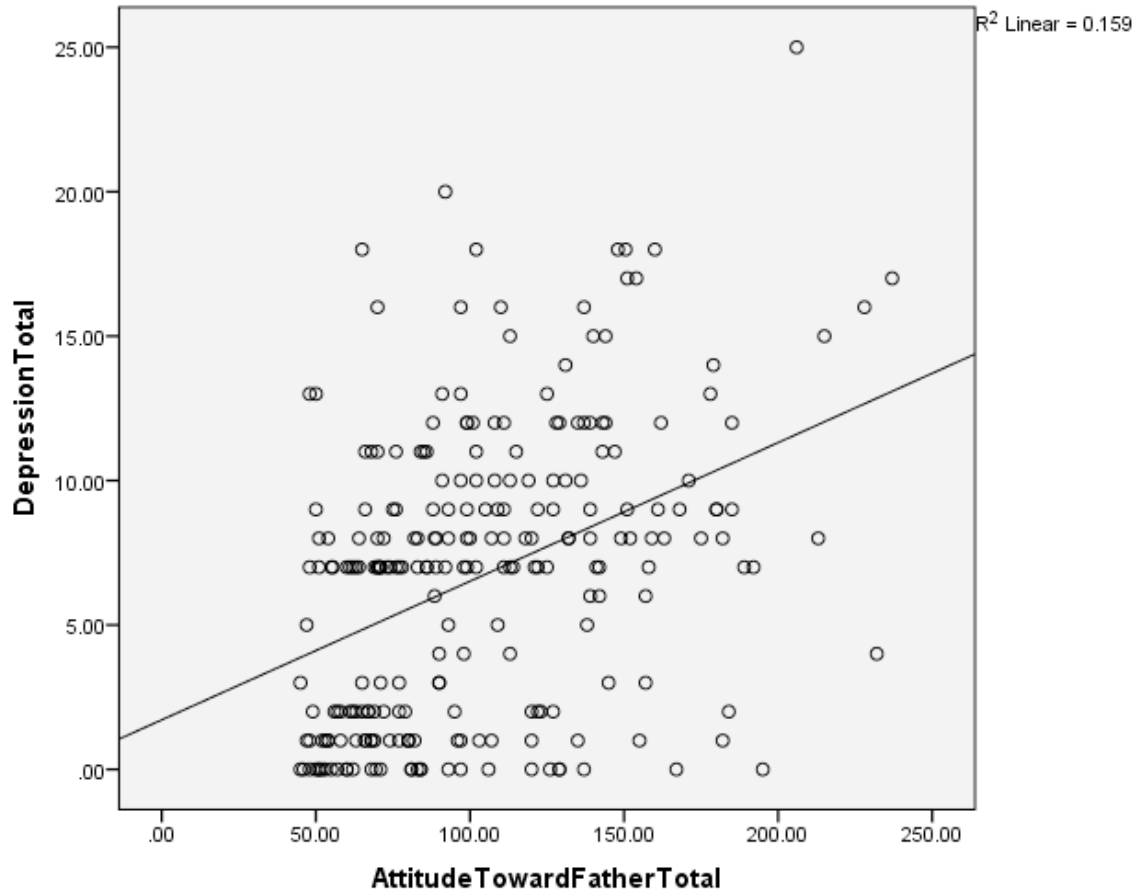


Figure 1. Scatterplot depicting the relationship between depression and attitude toward ones father figure.

Hypothesis II: More nurturing fathering styles, measured by the three subscales of the ATFS, will have a negative relationship with the development of anxiety in their children

A linear regression analysis was conducted to investigate whether attitude toward ones father would predict current levels of anxiety. The scatterplot for the two variables, as shown in Figure 2, indicates that the two variables are linearly related such that as negative attitudes toward ones father increase reported levels

of anxiety also increase. The regression equation for predicting the overall reported level of anxiety is

$$\text{Anxiety} = .040 \text{ Attitude Toward Father} + 1.986$$

The 95% confidence interval for the slope, 0.09 to 0.06 does not contain the value of zero, and therefore a negative attitude toward ones father is significantly related to the reported level of anxiety. More nurturing fathering styles do help impede the development of anxiety in their children; therefore the hypothesis is supported. The correlation between negative attitudes towards ones father and reported levels of anxiety was .362. Approximately 13%($p < .01$) of the variance of the anxiety index was accounted for by its linear relationship with the attitude toward father index. An example would be that adult children reporting higher negative perceptions of their father would also report higher levels of anxiety.

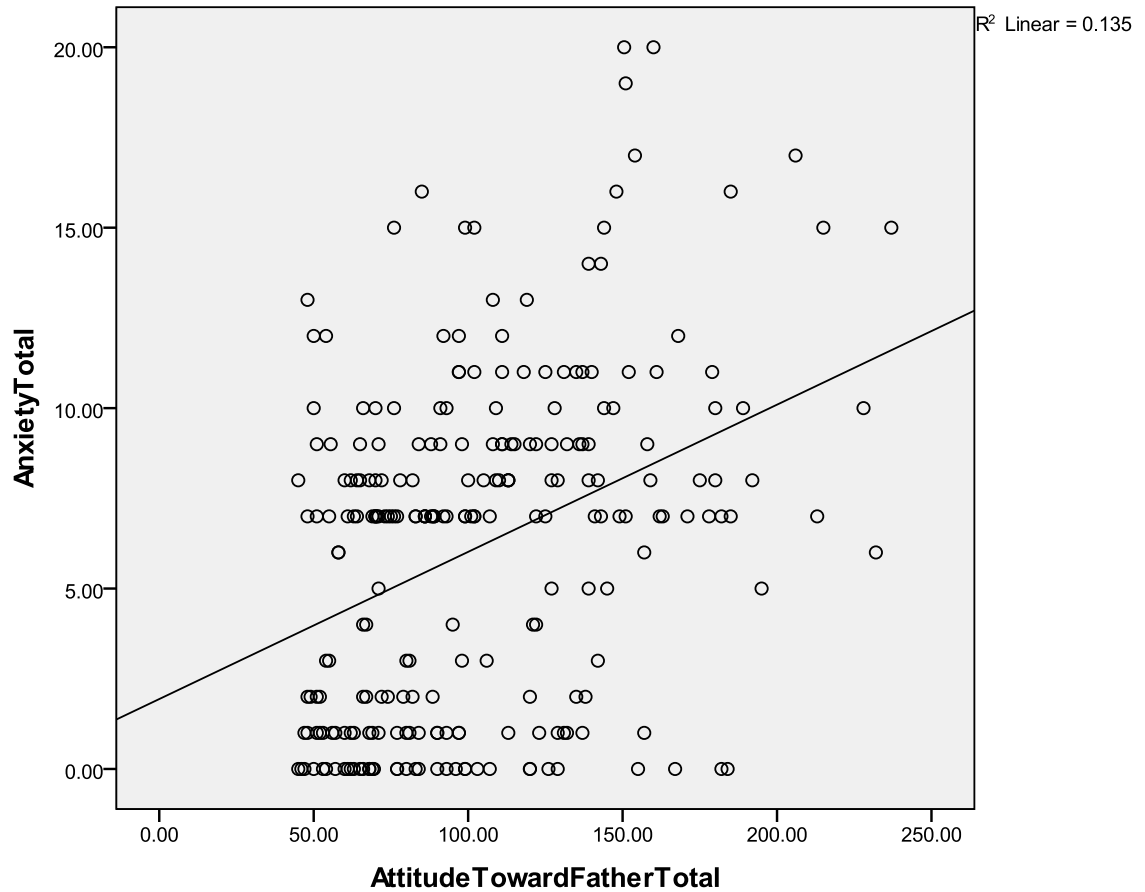


Figure 2. Scatterplot depicting the relationship between anxiety and attitude toward ones father figure.

Hypothesis III: More nurturing fathering styles, measured by the three subscales of the ATFS, will have a negative relationship with the development of stress in their children

A linear regression analysis was conducted to investigate whether attitude toward ones father would predict current levels of stress. The scatterplot for the two variables, as shown in Figure 3, indicates that the two variables are linearly related such that as negative attitudes toward ones father increases reported levels of stress also increase. The regression equation for predicting the overall reported level of stress is

$$\text{Stress} = .056 \text{ Attitude Toward Father} + 2.883$$

The 95% confidence interval for the slope, 0.07 to 0.04 does not contain the value of zero, and therefore a negative attitude toward ones father is significantly related to the reported level of stress. More nurturing fathering styles do help impede the development of stress in their children; therefore the hypothesis is supported. The correlation between negative attitudes towards ones father and reported levels of stress was .435. Approximately 19%($p < .01$) of the variance of the stress index was accounted for by its linear relationship with the attitude toward father index. An example would be that adult children reporting higher negative perceptions of their father would also report higher levels of stress.

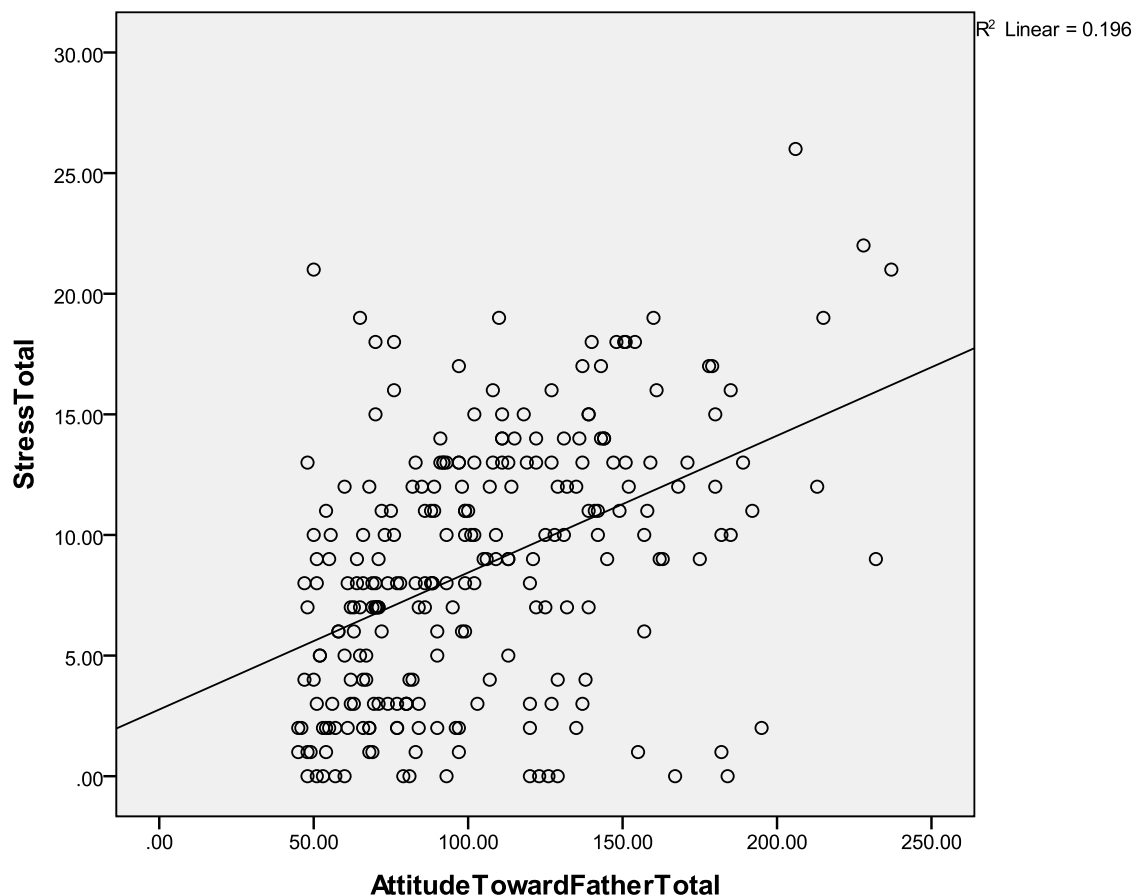


Figure 3. Scatterplot depicting the relationship between stress and attitude toward ones father figure.

Hypothesis IV: More nurturing fathering styles, measured by the three subscales of the ATFS, will have a negative relationship with the development of alexithymia in their children

A linear regression analysis was conducted to investigate whether attitude toward ones father would predict current levels of alexithymia. The scatterplot for the two variables, as shown in Figure 4, indicates that the two variables are linearly related such that as negative attitudes toward ones father increases reported levels of alexithymia also increase. The regression equation for predicting the overall reported level of alexithymia is

$$\text{Alexithymia} = .121 \text{ Attitude Toward Father} + 52.46$$

The 95% confidence interval for the slope, 0.19 to 0.06 does not contain the value of zero, and therefore a negative attitude toward ones father is significantly related to the reported level of alexithymia. More nurturing fathering styles do impact the development of alexithymia in their children; therefore the hypothesis is supported. The correlation between negative attitudes towards ones father and reported levels of alexithymia was .231. Approximately 5%($p < .01$) of the variance of the alexithymia index was accounted for by its linear relationship with the attitude toward father index. An example would be that adult children reporting higher negative perceptions of their father would also report higher levels of alexithymia.

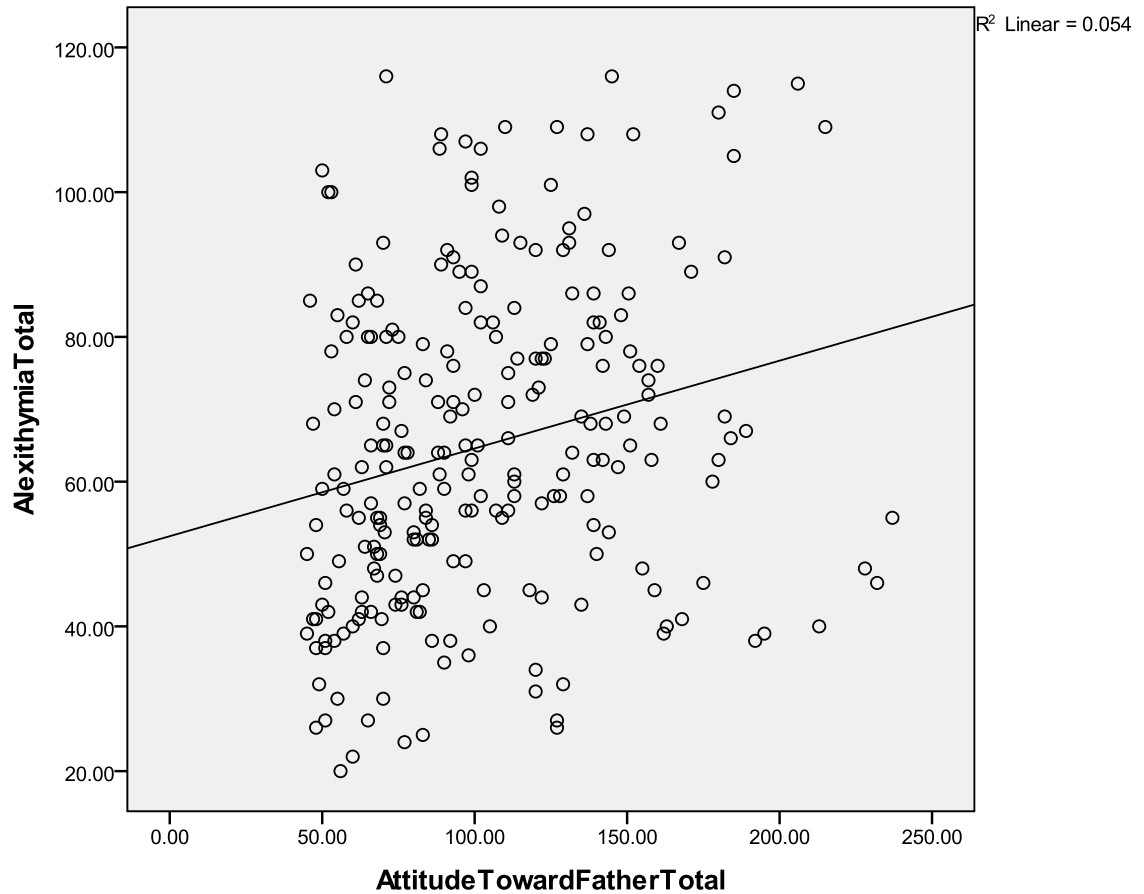


Figure 4. Scatterplot depicting the relationship between alexithymia and attitude toward ones father figure.

Hypothesis V: More nurturing fathering styles, measured by the three subscales of the ATFS, will positively impact the satisfaction of life in their children

A linear regression analysis was conducted to investigate whether attitude toward ones father would predict ones satisfaction with their life. The scatterplot for the two variables, as shown in Figure 5, indicates that the two variables are linearly related such that as negative attitudes toward ones father increases reported satisfaction with ones life decreased. The regression equation for predicting the overall reported level of satisfaction with life is

$$\text{Satisfaction With Life} = -.055 \text{ Attitude Toward Father} + 31.15$$

The 95% confidence interval for the slope, -0.04 to -0.07 does not contain the value of zero, and therefore a negative attitude toward one's father is significantly related to the reported level of satisfaction with life. More nurturing fathering styles do impact the satisfaction of life in their children; therefore the hypothesis is supported. The correlation between negative attitudes towards one's father and reported levels of satisfaction with life was -.373. Approximately 14% ($p < .01$) of the variance of the satisfaction with life index was accounted for by its linear relationship with the attitude toward father index. An example would be that adult children reporting higher negative perceptions of their father would also report a decreased satisfaction with their life.

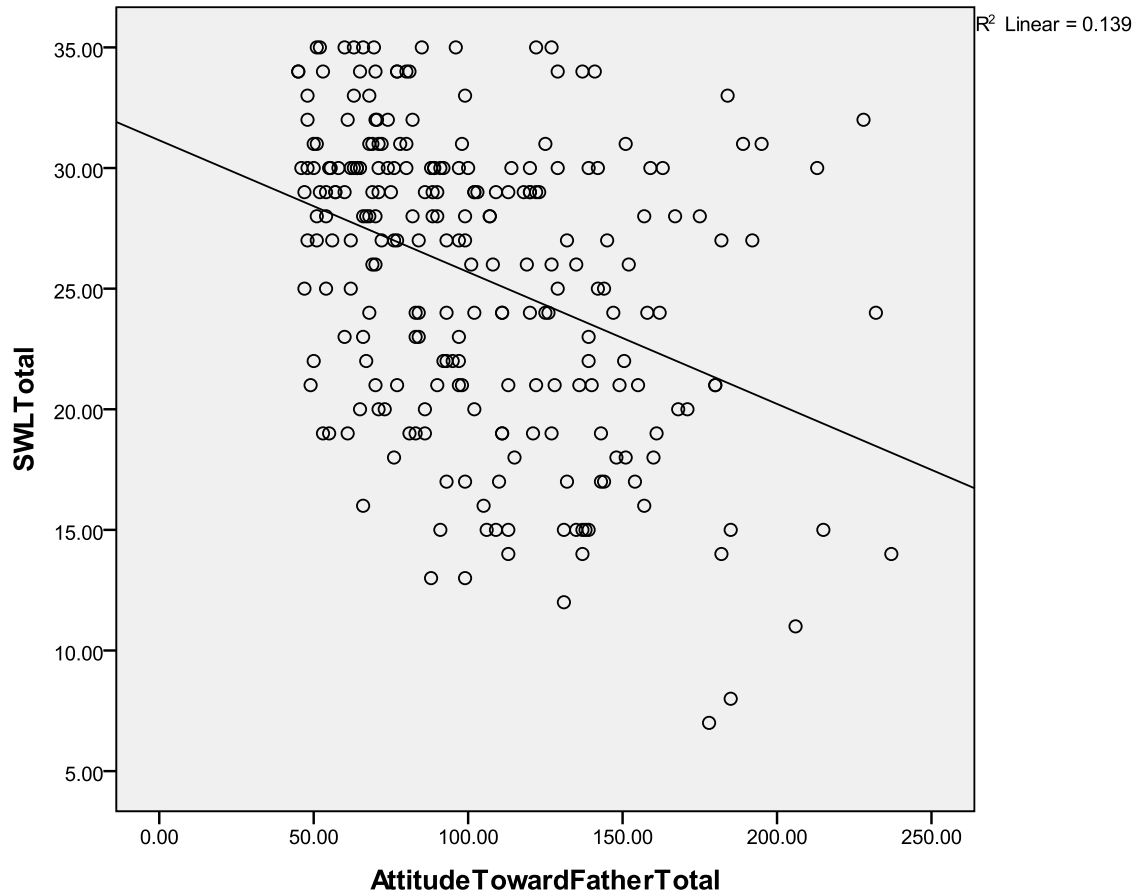


Figure 5. Scatterplot depicting the relationship between satisfaction with life and attitude toward ones father figure.

Hypothesis VI: Individuals whose fathers are perceived as more emotionally distant will report higher levels of anxiety

A linear regression analysis was conducted to investigate whether perceived emotional distance of ones father would predict ones reported level of anxiety. The scatterplot for the two variables, as shown in Figure 6, indicates that the two variables are linearly related such that as perceived emotional distance of ones father increases so do reported levels of anxiety. The regression equation for predicting the overall reported level of anxiety is

$$\text{Anxiety} = .061 \text{ Perceived Emotional Distance of Father} + 3.085$$

The 95% confidence interval for the slope, 0.08 to 0.04 does not contain the value of zero, and therefore the perceived emotional distance of ones father is significantly related to the reported level of anxiety. The perception of emotional distance of father does impact the reported levels of anxiety in their children; therefore the hypothesis is supported. The correlation between perceptions of emotional distance of ones father and reported levels of anxiety was .324. Approximately 10%($p < .01$) of the variance of the anxiety index was accounted for by its linear relationship with the perceptions of emotional distance index. An example would be that adult children reporting higher perceptions of emotional distance of their father would also report higher levels of anxiety.

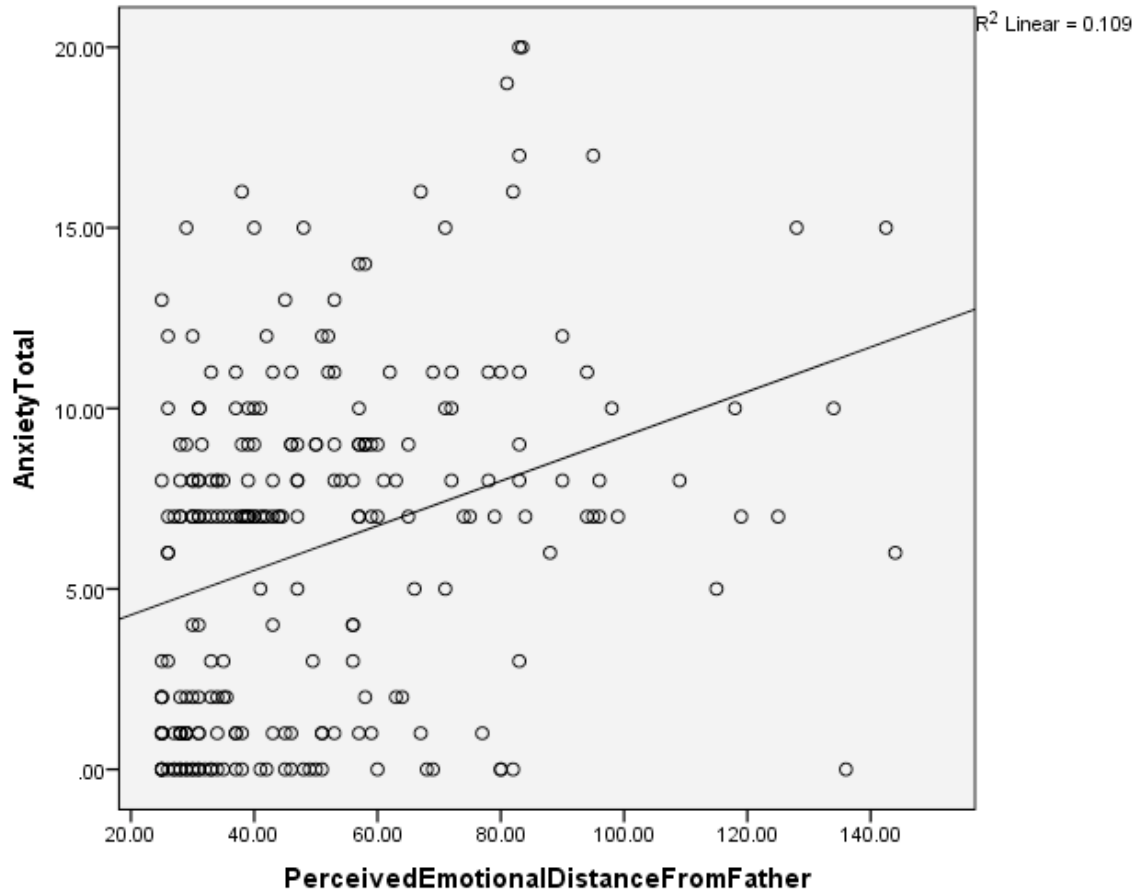


Figure 6. Scatterplot depicting the relationship between perceived emotional distance of father and reported levels of anxiety.

Hypothesis VII: Individuals whose fathers are perceived as more emotionally distant will report higher levels of depression.

A linear regression analysis was conducted to investigate whether perceived emotional distance of ones father would predict ones reported level of depression. The scatterplot for the two variables, as shown in Figure 7, indicates that the two variables are linearly related such that as perceived emotional distance of ones father increases so do reported levels of depression. The regression equation for predicting the overall reported level of depression is

$$\text{Depression} = .067 \text{ Perceived Emotional Distance of Father} + 3.286$$

The 95% confidence interval for the slope, 0.09 to 0.04 does not contain the value of zero, and therefore the perceived emotional distance of ones father is significantly related to the reported level of depression. The perception of emotional distance of father does impact the reported levels of depression in their children; therefore the hypothesis is supported. The correlation between perceptions of emotional distance of ones father and reported levels of depression was .329. Approximately 11%($p < .01$) of the variance of the depression index was accounted for by its linear relationship with the perceptions of emotional distance index. An example would be that adult children reporting higher perceptions of emotional distance of their father would also report higher levels of depression.

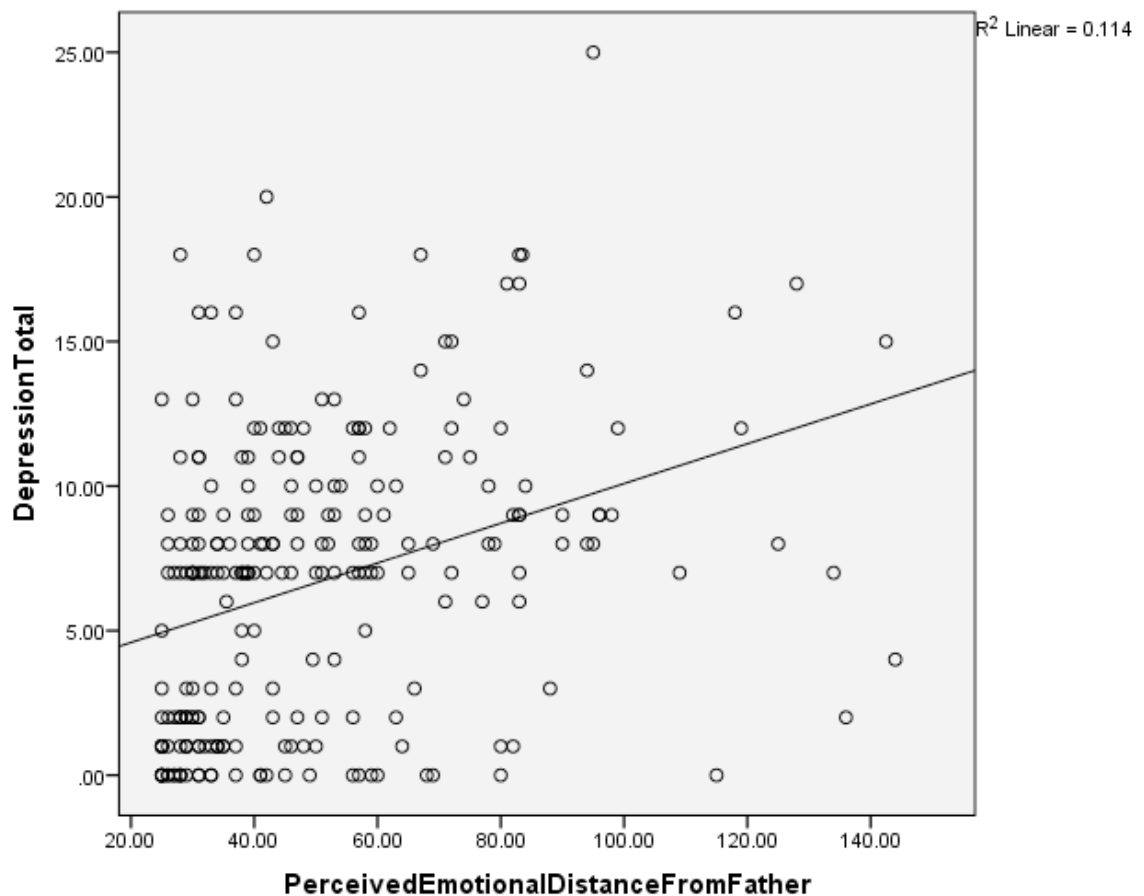


Figure 7. Scatterplot depicting the relationship between perceived emotional distance of father and reported levels of depression.

Hypothesis VIII: Individuals who have less fear of their father's negative evaluation will report less anxiety.

A linear regression analysis was conducted to investigate whether fear of fathers' negative evaluation would predict ones reported level of anxiety. The scatterplot for the two variables, as shown in Figure 8, indicates that the two variables are linearly related such that as fear of fathers' negative evaluation increases so do reported levels of anxiety. The regression equation for predicting the overall reported level of anxiety is

$$\text{Anxiety} = .149 \text{ Fear of Fathers Negative Evaluation} + 1.799$$

The 95% confidence interval for the slope, 0.19 to 0.11 does not contain the value of zero, and therefore the fear of fathers' negative evaluation is significantly related to the reported level of anxiety. The fear of fathers' negative evaluation does impact the reported levels of anxiety in their children; therefore the hypothesis is supported. The correlation between perceptions of fear of father's negative evaluation and reported levels of anxiety was .404. Approximately 16%($p < .01$) of the variance of the anxiety index was accounted for by its linear relationship with the fear of fathers negative evaluation. An example would be that adult children reporting higher fear of their fathers negative evaluation would also report higher levels of anxiety.

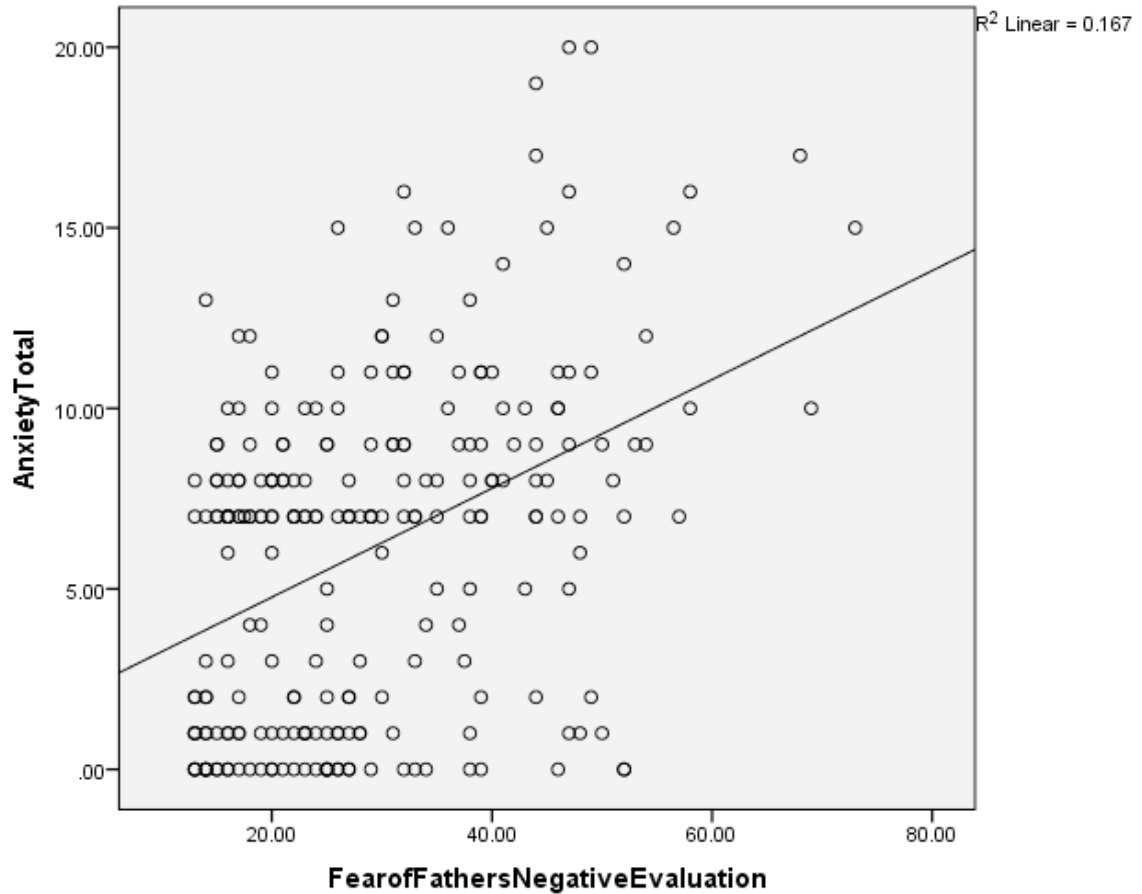


Figure 8. Scatterplot depicting the relationship between fear of fathers negative evaluation and reported levels of anxiety.

Hypothesis IX: Individuals who have less fear of their father’s negative evaluation will report less depression.

A linear regression analysis was conducted to investigate whether fear of fathers’ negative evaluation would predict ones reported level of depression. The scatterplot for the two variables, as shown in Figure 9, indicates that the two variables are linearly related such that as fear of fathers’ negative evaluation increases so do reported levels of depression. The regression equation for predicting the overall reported level of depression is

$$\text{Depression} = .174 \text{ Fear of Fathers Negative Evaluation} + 1.572$$

The 95% confidence interval for the slope, 0.07 to 0.02 does not contain the value of zero, and therefore the fear of fathers' negative evaluation is significantly related to the reported level of depression. The fear of fathers' negative evaluation does impact the reported levels of depression in their children; therefore the hypothesis is supported. The correlation between perceptions of fear of father's negative evaluation and reported levels of depression was .436. Approximately 19%($p < .01$) of the variance of the depression index was accounted for by its linear relationship with the fear of fathers negative evaluation. An example would be that adult children reporting higher fear of their fathers negative evaluation would also report higher levels of depression.

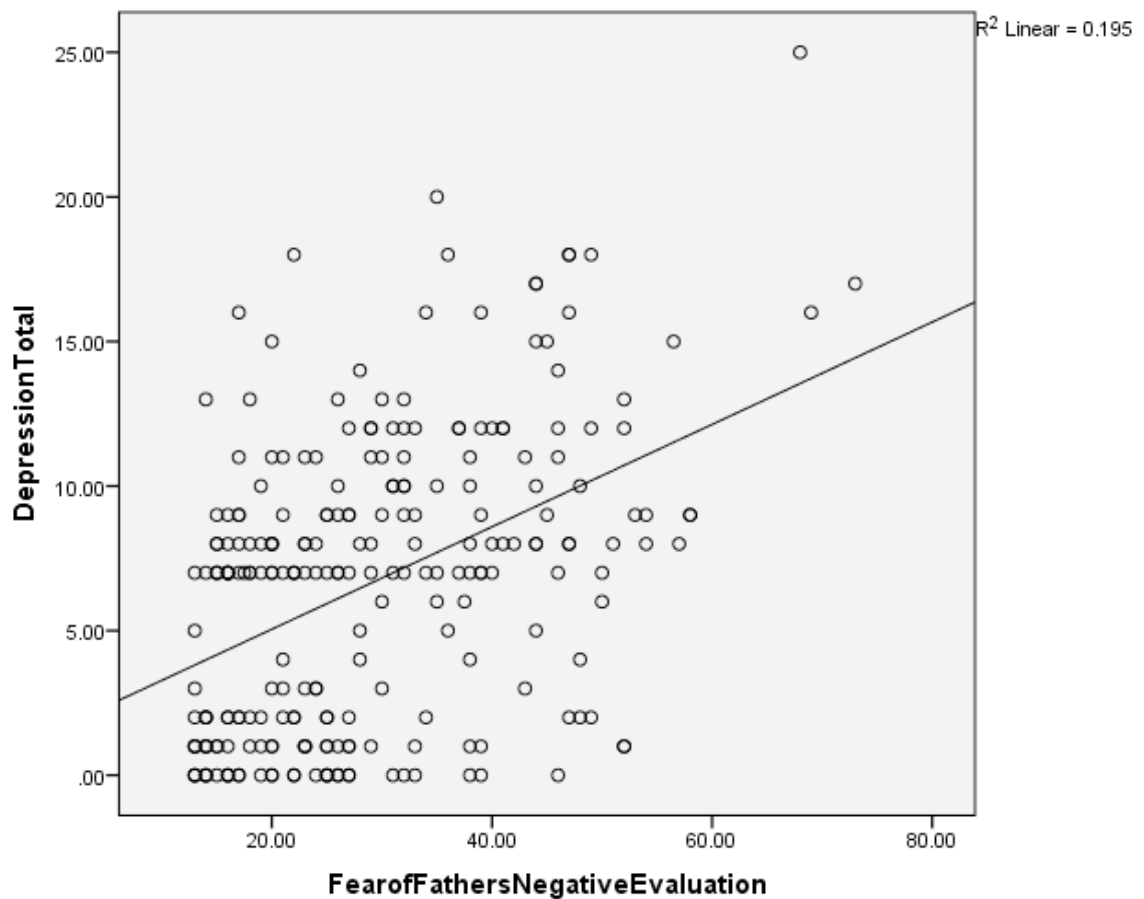


Figure 9. Scatterplot depicting the relationship between fear of fathers negative evaluation and reported levels of depression.

Hypothesis X: Individuals whose fathers are perceived as more emotionally expressive will report lower levels of alexithymia.

A linear regression analysis was conducted to investigate whether perceived emotional expressiveness of ones father would predict ones reported level of alexithymia. An alpha level of .05 was used in the current study. The scatterplot for the two variables, as shown in Figure 10, indicates that the two variables are linearly related such that as negatively perceived emotional expressiveness of ones father increases so do reported levels of alexithymia. The regression equation for predicting the overall reported level of alexithymia is

$$\text{Alexithymia} = .269 \text{ Perceived Emotional Expressiveness of Father} + 53.359$$

The 95% confidence interval for the slope, 0.42 to 0.12 does not contain the value of zero, and therefore the perceived emotional expressiveness of ones father is significantly related to the reported level of alexithymia. The perception of emotional expressiveness of father does impact the reported levels of alexithymia in their children; therefore the hypothesis is supported. The correlation between perceptions of emotional expressiveness of ones father and reported levels of alexithymia was .221. Approximately 5%($p < .01$) of the variance of the alexithymia index was accounted for by its linear relationship with the negative perceptions of emotional distance index. An example would be that adult children reporting higher negative perceptions of emotional expressiveness of their father would also report higher levels of alexithymia.

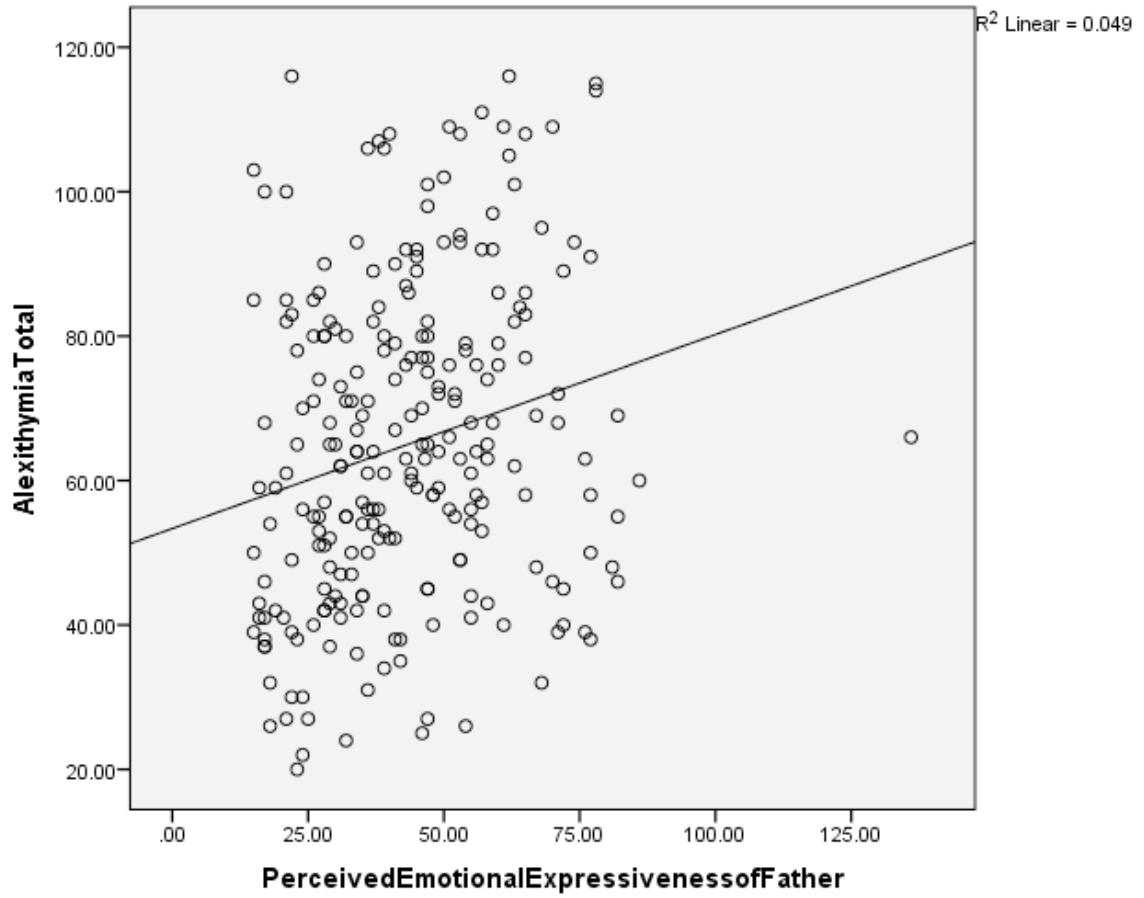


Figure 10. Scatterplot depicting the relationship between negative perception of emotional expressiveness of father and reported levels of alexithymia.

Table 4. Summary of Simple Regression Analyses for Variable Predicting Attitude Toward Father Figure (N = 242)

Coefficients ^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients	Unstandardized Coefficients	Standardized Coefficients
	B	Std. Error	Beta
(Constant)	99.967	22.648	
SWLTotal	-1.590	.454	-.233
Stress Total	1.791	1.031	.229
Anxiety Total	.529	1.035	.059
Depression Total	-.438	1.076	-.053
Alexithymia Total	.165	.114	.087
Age	.652	.281	.164
Marital Status	-.894	2.101	-.026
Number of Children	1.348	3.170	.031
Ethnicity	-3.092	2.551	-.070
Gender	1.968	5.160	.023
Father Figure	12.431	3.030	.233

a. Dependent Variable: Attitude Toward Father Total

b. R² .29

c. F 9.75

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

The purpose of the present study was to examine how perceptions of one's father figure impacted reported levels of depression, anxiety, stress, and satisfaction with life. Participants reported that as negative perceptions of their father figure increased so did reported levels of depression, anxiety, and stress. This supports initial research by Lamb, Pleck, Charnov, and Levine (1985, 1987) that father's positive interactions with their children are important, and do indeed have a positive correlation with a variety of psychological concepts.

An interesting finding that has not yet been addressed in the literature was that older participants reported more positive perceptions of their father figure than younger participants. This phenomenon is certainly worth future research considerations. It may be hypothesized that there is a positive effect that comes with age when reflecting on one's interactions and perceptions of their father figure. Younger participants have more likely just left their home environment, and this could also impact the adult child's perception of their father figure. Even so, intentionally gathering responses from certain age cohorts may lead to more noteworthy information regarding these preliminary findings.

Men and women also reported some interesting differences that are worth future considerations. Men reported significantly higher levels of alexithymia than

women, which past research have demonstrated. Men also reported significantly higher levels of stress, anxiety, and depression, which is somewhat surprising. Courtenay (2000) noted that men frequently over-report how well they are doing, even though they often are objectively less well than their female counterparts. Women also account for the vast majority of individuals who access therapeutic services and men often report fewer symptoms of stress, anxiety, and depression. The DSM-IV-TR (2000) notes that women are twice as likely to develop a Major Depressive Disorder within their lifetime, although again, one could argue this is due to men being less likely to report or seek help for distress. It is very interesting to note the males in this study actually reported higher levels of depression than women. How and why adult male children's perceptions of their father figure more fully impact their reported levels of psychological distress than their female counterparts, is a construct that needs to be more fully understood.

Another important finding was that negative perceptions of one's father figure were negatively correlated with life satisfaction. This suggests that as negative perceptions of father increased ones reported satisfaction with life decreased. Much attention is often spent investigating levels of psychological adjustment and one's relationship with their mother, and the current findings demonstrate that fathers are actively involved in the psychological development of their children. This also aligns with Finley and Schwartz (2004) theory that positive perceptions of one's father figure are an important construct when investigating adult children's psychological well-being.

Marsiglio, Amato, Day, and Lamb (2000) noted that future directions of father related research should continue to investigate the way, and extent, fathers are involved in the psychological well-being of their children. The current study heeds this call and shows promise by demonstrating that fear of a father's negative evaluation is highly correlated with reported levels on psychological concerns.

When the attitude toward father scale was broken down into its three basic constructs, perception of fathers emotional distance, perception of fathers emotional expression, and fear of fathers negative evaluation, the fear of fathers negative evaluation was most highly correlated with levels of depression, anxiety, stress, and satisfaction with life. Fear of father's negative evaluation also accounted for the highest percentage of variance among these variables suggesting a stand-alone scale of fear of father's negative evaluation may be relevant in clinical and research work. This would be a much shorter scale that may allow psychologists to understand this phenomenon in a timelier manner that is more conducive to data collection while diminishing participant fatigue.

Limitations

There are a few limitations with the current study. One potential limitation with this study is that participants handed their surveys directly to the class instructor or researcher when paper surveys were handed out. Participants may have responded in a socially desirable way because they handed their survey to the teacher or researcher directly. Since the responses are based on the subjective experiences of participants, it is possible that participants responded to how they thought they "should" feel, versus how they actually felt. The attitude about how

one feels about their father figure and levels of distress are based on one's perception, which can vary depending upon several factors.

Another point to consider is that many participants surveyed were already in a classroom where not taking the assessment was a choice, but their availability made it easier for them to comply. The lead investigator made a point of handing out surveys before the class began, to maximize student participation, as opposed to asking for participation after their lecture was over, and students would be free to leave. Results may have been different had they volunteered to show up at a certain time and take a survey.

Certain variables were not accounted for in this study. For instance, levels of past distress were not taken into account. Students were not asked if they struggled with anxiety, depression, stress, and satisfaction with life at other points in their life, which could be a confounding factor. Presumably, students who have had past experiences with these variables may be more prone to distress, and this may affect their subjective experience. This would complicate the ability to link their current distress to their perceptions of their father figure or other life events.

While utilizing students as participants is an acceptable and convenient practice, this also creates certain limitations. Individuals who attend American universities may have several characteristics that differ from the general population. While many Americans attend universities to advance their educational level, there are also a great many who do not ever attend a university. This complicates the external validity of the present study, and should be taken into account when interpreting the results.

Furthermore, students who attend a university in the Midwest may differ from students who attend universities on the coasts, or southern America. Again, the external validity should be considered when interpreting the results, even with other university students. Regions all over the United States have certain colloquialisms, and these patterns of thinking, behaving, and interacting with the outside world, are well engrained in students by the time they graduate high school and move on with their educational pursuits.

Another limitation is that most of those surveyed identified as White ethnically. The results of mostly White students cannot be assumed to generalize to our population as a whole. There were no significant differences between the responses of White students and students of color, but the sample size certainly could have influenced this result. Future research should look at how students that identify as persons of color should be surveyed so that similarities, differences, and norms can be better determined.

Implications for Future Research

Further research is needed in the area of gender, and specifically men's gender roles, as a construct and how this impacts fathers across society. It may be beneficial for future studies to look at cultures outside of the United States to see how this impact varies or is similar. Different societies emphasize different roles for fathers, and taking a closer look at the benefits or drawbacks of these different roles may help identify which aspects are most beneficial and which ones cause the most harm.

Another area of future research should look to further delineate the impact positive, present fathers have on their children's mental health development. The current study looked at several theoretical concepts of fathering, and finding consensus on how various fathering styles impact or impede adult children's perceptions of their fathers impact would benefit the field as a whole. The present study found that the theorized construct, fear of fathers negative evaluation, accounted for the most variance, and future research may utilize this finding to shorten questionnaires or develop a new abbreviated scale altogether.

More research is also needed to investigate how fathers across various socioeconomic statuses respond to paternal roles and are able to carry them out with limited interference. This variable was not investigated in the current study but may provide important information regarding factors outside the home that impact fathers interactions with their families and children. Financial distress is a pertinent construct in today's economically stressed society, and exactly how fathers navigate this reality while interacting with their families cannot be understated. Given that this construct often has a large impact on how people perceive the world around them this would appear to be relevant in future research.

While investigating paternal involvement is a main tenet of this study, future research should look at how much having a positively involved parental figure, regardless of gender or relation, impacts the psychological development of children. This study attempted to find information in this area by having study participants describe their father figure (e.g. biological father, coach, mentor), but limited information was gathered due to the homogeneity of the sample studied. Given that

familial composition is constantly changing, it is important for psychologist to be abreast of current trends and how these impact families and the psychological development of children.

Although single mother households are more common than single father households, it may be important to investigate the impact single father households have on our society and children. There may be differing constructs that impact single father households and how children react to these challenges or benefits would be important to understand. Fathers are often viewed as less nurturing by society, and while this may be an aspect of socialization rather than a role that cannot be adapted, learned, or already present within fathers remains to be seen. Researching how fathers navigate these roles in single father homes may lead to important discoveries in how fathers interact with their children when their time and resources are stretched even further without the benefit of a present partner.

Future research may also need to differentiate exactly what impact incarceration has on families, while better stating how the incarceration of generations of men is most likely due to an unjust and covertly racist judicial system. Past studies have found that children of incarcerated fathers are more likely to become incarcerated themselves, and it is hypothesized by this researcher to be due to the ongoing racial discrimination people of color face, and less to do with having that father available in the home. Black males comprise 35.4% of incarcerated individuals, even though they make up only 10% of the overall U.S population (Thomas & Ryan, 2008). Saying this has a devastating impact on their families and children is a gross understatement, and the complicated factors that

contribute to disproportionate father separation through incarceration need to be studied in a more systematic and straightforward manner.

Further understanding the impact time has on adult children's perceptions of their father figure is also an area of future research. The current study attempted to limit this phenomenon by sampling strictly collegiate students, but today's universities are more diverse age-wise than they were in the past as evidenced by growing numbers of non-traditional students. An adult child with over thirty years of adult-to-adult interactions with their father figure may have a differing view than an adult child who reports perceptions of their father after leaving the home within the past few years. Participants' memories of their father figure may change with time and investigating this impact in future research could lead to exciting results.

It would also be useful to pursue research that investigates how father specific parenting styles influence adult children's perception of their father figure, and levels of distress. Further parsing apart what type of fathering style leads to more positive perceptions of adult children could lead to a better understanding of this research. Knowing that fathers play an important role in the psychological development of their children allows future research to become more specific when studying father figures.

Future research should also specifically investigate how perceptions of father figure interact with levels of distress in marginalized and under-represented populations. People of color were not well represented in the current study, and future research could benefit of further understanding these communities.

Understanding how perceptions differ or are similar across cultural identities would allow for more specificity when reporting father figure research results.

Sexual orientation was not included in the demographic portion of this research, and future studies could also benefit from understanding how LGBT individuals perceive their father figure. Sexual orientation, and the process of disclosing one's orientation, can be both uplifting and traumatic, depending on how one's family receives and sends messages related to their children's orientation. Fathers play an important role in this process, and the messages a father sends to their children would seemingly influence their children's perception of their father.

Overall, it is hoped that this study will prompt more father specific research throughout the psychological community. It was earlier noted that research on mothers dominates academic research, and while this is a vital field to study, the investigation of paternal involvement is still minimal at best. Gender specific research has made many important discoveries due to feminist researchers advocating for such change, and while many leading figures in *The Psychological Study of Men and Masculinity* are writing cutting edge journal articles, the overall study of men and fathers is still considerably lacking. In order to more fully understand families, and children's mental health development, all aspects of the family including fathers need to be considered and researched.

Implications for Theory or Practice

Understanding that gender as a construct, and specifically masculinity, can negatively impact men's understanding of fatherhood is vital in the way we view male roles and educate our youth. Men are often socialized that their role has less to

do with nurturance, and often focus on providing material comfort for their families is all that is required. While this is undoubtedly important, the positive role, and impact, involved fathers can have on their children is often minimized or not considered in American society. Men do not lack the tools required to be positive fathers, they are often simply not required to access and utilize these abilities with their children, which appears to inhibit children's overall mental functioning. New theories on male socialization can help propel a new generation of men toward more impactful and nurturing relationships with not only their children, but all of those they come in contact with.

Within this study, the fear of father's negative evaluation construct within the overall Attitude Toward Father Scale, accounted for the most variance related toward adult children's stress, anxiety, depression, and satisfaction for life. This is an important discovery that would allow us to re-evaluate how we theorize regarding father involvement. What about one's fear of their father figure is so pertinent that it correlates with these negative mental health symptoms? Some forms of parenting accept dominance and instilling fear as a central tenant of good parenting (Bly, 1990), and this finding suggests otherwise. New theories about what it means to be an involved father should be hypothesized and tested based on this early finding.

New theories of father involvement need to be drawn up and tested with a variety of populations in order to best define the construct of fathering. There are limited theories already, and further testing would allow psychologists to more fully investigate the current and new constructs that may provide a societal shift in

expectations. Can a father be involved and living away from the home? How much time is needed for fathers to be considered involved with various communities of children? The questions are endless and our resources are not. We currently have a varied view on what father involvement entails, and being able to scientifically understand this construct is vital as we move forward.

One of the most simplistic implications for practice involves therapists talking with their clients about the male roles in their lives. While various theories differ in the amount of focus they place on discussing past relationships, it may be important to gain at least a baseline understanding of how a client's father figure impacts their current functioning. Psychologists have long considered biological factors when investigating mental health concerns; why not begin to evaluate the role fathers may have, too? By further understanding these roles, adding or eliminating them from our scientific hypotheses, we can begin to gain a more broad understanding of our client's world and what is impacting their mental functioning.

Another implication for practice is to begin to discuss the role our male clients have in the lives of their loved ones, including children. Trying to understand what it means to our male client to be a good father, or what type of involvement they believe is adequate may allow therapist to initiate conversations about positive fathering. Society expectation for men and fathers in particular are often less than adequate, and helping men be more involved with their families can benefit them and their familial system. Encouraging positive fathering roles can also be used as a way to connect and empower male clients. By focusing on and emphasizing the

necessity of their role in the lives of their loved ones, men can begin to feel more connected with their families due to the necessity of their involvement.

Discussing parental discipline beliefs with male clients is also an important consideration for clinical practice. Noting that the fear of a father's negative evaluation is most highly correlated with negative mental health symptoms, therapists can broach this subject to help men better interact with their children. Fear is a big motivator in our society, and helping men understand that they may be able to effectively discipline their children, without instilling fear, may allow for more healthy connections to be built within families. Fathers are often looked upon as leaders in their families, and being able to lead without their children constantly worrying about negative evaluations, portrays a much more positive message of leadership to their children.

Another implication for future practice is simply helping men understand that many of their behaviors, and beliefs about how they should behave, are socialized and not biologically ingrained. When broaching male role norms, including fatherhood, it is important to help men better understand this process so they may feel open to changing negative stereotypic roles, while further building positive aspects of their lives. It may be freeing for men to understand their difficulty crying, or expressing how they feel to their loved ones, is a socialized aspect of traditional masculinity, and they are not stuck with these challenges, because that's just how men are. Our society often diminishes and limits the expectations of males, and opening this discussion in a safe therapeutic

environment can lead to positive growth for men, which will impact their children, families, friendships, and all those they are connected to.

Conclusion

The purpose of the present study was to examine how perceptions of one's father figure impacted reported levels of depression, anxiety, stress, and satisfaction with life. Participants reported that as negative perceptions of their father figure increased so did reported levels of depression, anxiety, and stress. Further, negative perceptions of one's father figure were negatively correlated with life satisfaction such that as negative perceptions of father increased ones reported satisfaction with life decreased. The fear of father's negative evaluation was most highly correlated with levels of depression, anxiety, stress, and satisfaction with life. This also accounted for the highest percentage of variance among these variables suggesting a stand alone scale of fear of father's negative evaluation may be relevant in clinical and research work. As a whole, this study explored constructs still requiring further research, while highlighting new avenues that need to be thoroughly investigated as we begin to more fully understand the impact fathers have on their children's psychological development.

Appendix A

Consent Form

You are being asked to participate in a study that intends to the relationship individuals have with their fathers in various stages of life. Abraham Bilyeu is conducting this study under the direct supervision of Dr. Cindy Juntunen, from the Department of Counseling Psychology and Community Services at the University of North Dakota. Any questions may be directed to Abraham Bilyeu at (515) 720-1576. If you have any other questions or concerns about the study please call the Office of Research and Program Development at the University of North Dakota at (701) 777-4279. The Institutional Review Board has approved this research (IRB-201202-248).

We expect that completing the attached forms will take about 10 to 20 minutes. Participation in the study is completely voluntary. Participating (or not participating) will have no impact on any current or future relationship you might have with UND. You may withdraw at any time without any penalty to you by notifying the researcher, and your information will be deleted from the study database.

We ask that you not put any identifying information on the survey form. Once you have submitted all forms, and completed surveys, we will remove the consent and itunes entry forms and it will no longer be attached to any of the information that is gathered. In this way, your answers will be completely anonymous. All answers will be kept confidential and all outcomes of the study will be reported in aggregate form only, ensuring that individuals cannot be identified as participants in the study.

All of the information we collect will be stored for a period of three years in a locked filing cabinet in the Department of Counseling Psychology and Community Services at UND. Consent forms will be stored in a separate locked filing cabinet for a period of three years. After three years time, both data and consent forms will be destroyed by shredding. Only the researchers and people who audit IRB procedures will have access to the data.

We don't expect you to experience any negative effects from participating in this study. In the unlikely event that you do experience distress when completing this study, you will be referred to a local counselor or career specialist. You will be responsible for any expenses incurred by using such referrals. There will be a random drawing at the conclusion of this study where five participants will win a **\$25 itunes gift card** for participating. If you want to participate in this drawing, simply enter your email address on the last page of the survey. This sheet will be kept separate from your survey in order to protect your confidentiality. We do hope the findings will contribute to better understand paternal relationships, and that may at some point have a positive effect for men and women globally.

Please carefully read the statement below, circle next if you consent to participate.

I have read the information above and fully understand that my participation is voluntary. By circling next I am acknowledging that I understand this consent process and agree to proceed.

Quit

Next

Appendix C

Attitude Toward Father Scale

Please rate the following items according to how true you think they are in the relationship you had with your father or father figure. Please circle the appropriate number using the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5	6
Not true at all	Hardly true	A little true	Moderately true	Very true	Completely true

1. I wish my father had spent more time with me when I was growing up.
1 2 3 4 5 6
2. I would describe my father as a loveable man.
1 2 3 4 5 6
3. I wish I had been able to communicate better with my father.
1 2 3 4 5 6
4. I wish my father had been able to express his emotions better.
1 2 3 4 5 6
5. I wish I didn't have to try so hard to please my father.
1 2 3 4 5 6
6. I appreciate my father's dedication to the family.
1 2 3 4 5 6
7. I learned very little of importance from my father.
1 2 3 4 5 6
8. I really disliked my father.
1 2 3 4 5 6
9. My father never really seemed to care much about me.
1 2 3 4 5 6
10. I wish my father would have taken me more seriously.
1 2 3 4 5 6
11. I loved my father a great deal.
1 2 3 4 5 6

12. I gave up trying to have a good relationship with my father.
1 2 3 4 5 6
13. My father liked to have his own way too much.
1 2 3 4 5 6
14. I wish my father would have done more about keeping my family together.
1 2 3 4 5 6
15. My father was always critical of my friends.
1 2 3 4 5 6
16. It was difficult to discuss personal issues with my father.
1 2 3 4 5 6
17. My father usually had my best interests at heart.
1 2 3 4 5 6
18. My father expressed confidence in my abilities.
1 2 3 4 5 6
19. My father seemed to lack patience with me.
1 2 3 4 5 6
20. My father would never talk much about his feelings.
1 2 3 4 5 6
21. My father has often shared his feelings with me.
1 2 3 4 5 6
22. My father has always been there when I needed him.
1 2 3 4 5 6
23. My father has had trouble treating me as an adult.
1 2 3 4 5 6
24. I wish my father would have had more confidence in me.
1 2 3 4 5 6
25. My father has not given me the support I have needed.
1 2 3 4 5 6
26. I wish my father had been more involved in my upbringing.
1 2 3 4 5 6

27. My father is proud of my accomplishments.
1 2 3 4 5 6
28. I wish my father had gotten along better with my mother.
1 2 3 4 5 6
29. I wish my father was more open-minded.
1 2 3 4 5 6
30. My father has treated me as an equal.
1 2 3 4 5 6
31. The relationship between my father and me is one of mutual respect.
1 2 3 4 5 6
32. My father never really seemed to talk much.
1 2 3 4 5 6
33. I have anger and resentment toward my father.
1 2 3 4 5 6
34. The relationship with my father has been somewhat superficial.
1 2 3 4 5 6
35. I wish my father had been able to show more affection.
1 2 3 4 5 6
36. My father was a very gentle man.
1 2 3 4 5 6
37. I feel like I disappointed my father.
1 2 3 4 5 6
38. I feel that I can trust my father.
1 2 3 4 5 6
39. My father loses his temper too easily.
1 2 3 4 5 6
40. I never really felt that I could depend on my father.
1 2 3 4 5 6
41. I have often feared my father.
1 2 3 4 5 6

42. My father has been too concerned about his own success.
1 2 3 4 5 6

43. I am sure that my father really loves me.
1 2 3 4 5 6

44. I wish that my father and I were closer.
1 2 3 4 5 6

45. My father and I have always been able to discuss our problems.
1 2 3 4 5 6

Appendix D

Depression Anxiety Stress Scales (DASS-21)

Please read each statement and circle a number 0, 1, 2, or 3, which indicates how much the statement applied to you **over the past week**. There are no right or wrong answers. Do not spend too much time on any statement.

The rating scale is as follows:

0 – Did not apply to me at all

1 – Applied to me to some degree, or some of the time

2 – Applied to me to a considerable degree, or a good part of the time

3 – Applied to me very much, or most of the time

- | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. I found it hard to wind down. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 2. I was aware of dryness of my mouth. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 3. I couldn't seem to experience any positive feelings at all. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4. I experienced breathing difficulty (eg, excessively rapid breathing
breathlessness in the absence of physical exertion) | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 5. I found it difficult to work up the initiative to do things | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 6. I tended to over-react to situations | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 7. I experienced trembling (eg, in the hands) | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 8. I felt that I was using a lot of nervous energy | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 9. I was worried about situations in which I might panic and make
a fool of myself. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 10. I felt that I had nothing to look forward to. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 11. I found myself getting agitated. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 12. I found it difficult to relax. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 13. I felt down-hearted and blue. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 14. I was intolerant of anything that kept me from getting on with
what I was doing. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |

- | | |
|--|---------|
| 15. I felt I was close to panic. | 0 1 2 3 |
| 16. I was unable to become enthusiastic about anything. | 0 1 2 3 |
| 17. I felt I wasn't worth much as a person. | 0 1 2 3 |
| 18. I felt that I was rather touchy. | 0 1 2 3 |
| 19. I was aware of the action of my heart in the absence of physical exertion (eg, sense of heart rate increase, heart missing a beat) | 0 1 2 3 |
| 20. I felt scared without any good reason. | 0 1 2 3 |
| 21. I felt that life was meaningless. | 0 1 2 3 |

Appendix E

Normative Male Alexithymia Scale

Please use the scale below to indicate the extent to which you personally agree or disagree with each statement. There are no right or wrong responses.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral or Undecided	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

1. If I am upset or worried I don't like to show it for fear that I will be seen as weak.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. I feel comfortable expressing my affection to family members and friends.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. It does not usually occur to me to deal with my stress by talking about what is bothering me.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. I find it is very hard to cry.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5. When asked, I can easily give an account of what I am feeling.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6. I have no trouble putting my feelings into words and discussing them with others.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7. When someone close to me hurts my feelings, I am able to tell them that I am hurt.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8. I enjoy discussing my innermost feelings with my romantic partner, spouse, or best friend.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

9. It is difficult for me to reveal my innermost feelings, even to close friends.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

10. If someone asks how I am feeling, I typically say what I am not feeling (e.g., “not too bad”).

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

11. I don't see much value in talking about feelings.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12. I have difficulty telling others that I care about them.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
13. I have difficulty expressing my emotional needs to my romantic partner, spouse,
or best friend.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
14. I have difficulty expressing my innermost feelings.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
15. Talking about my feelings during sexual relations is difficult for me.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
16. I do not like to show my emotions to other people.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
17. It is too risky to express my emotions to other people.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
18. I am comfortable telling someone that I am afraid of something.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
19. I like my feelings.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
20. I don't like to talk with others about my feelings.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Appendix F

Satisfaction With Life Scale

Below are five statements that you may agree or disagree with. Using the 1 - 7 scale below indicate your agreement with each item by placing the appropriate number on the line preceding that item. Please be open and honest in your responding.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	No Opinion	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1. In most ways my life is close to my ideal.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. The conditions of my life are excellent.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. I am satisfied with my life.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. So far I have gotten the important things I want in life.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5. If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Appendix G

Survey Entry Form

Thank you for participating in this research. Your time is greatly valued. If you want to have your name entered into a drawing for one of five 25\$ itunes gift card please fill out the next page, detach it from your survey, and bring it to the data collector.

Please enter me into the drawing for one of five 25\$ itunes Gift Cards

Email

Address _____

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