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A STUDY OF FACTORS WHICH MAY INFLUENCE ATTITUDES OF
L. D. S. TEEN-AGERS TOWARD FAMILY HOME EVENING

A Thesis

Presented to the

Department of Family Life Education

Brigham Young University

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Science

by

Don LeRoy Miller

August 1969

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER	PAGE
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Statement of the Problem	3
Hypotheses and Assumptions	4
Definition of Terms	9
II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	11
Related Studies in the Field of the Family	11
The Family as a Small Group	12
The Concept of Attitude	13
The Relationship of Attitudes and Behavior	17
Attitudes toward Group Membership	19
Group Properties and Attitudes of Members	21
The Nature of Group Relations and Membership Attitudes	22
Group Leadership and Member Attitudes	23
Family Role Differentiation and Member Attitudes	28
Summary	31
III. METHODOLOGY	33
Research Design	33
Development of the Questionnaire	33
Dependent Variable	34
Independent Variables	36
Sample Description	40
Test Administration and Data Collection	41

CHAPTER	PAGE
Analysis of Data	41
Limitations of the Study	43
Summary	44
IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION	46
Description of Sample	46
Range, Central Tendency, and Frequency of Data Related to Major Variables	47
Description of Subsamples	47
Findings Related to Hypotheses	51
Discussion of Findings Related to Hypotheses	59
Findings Not Related to Hypotheses	61
V. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH	81
The Problem	81
Methodology	81
Findings and Discussion	82
Conclusions	85
Suggestions for Further Research	87
REFERENCES	88
APPENDIX	98

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	PAGE
I. Frequency with Which Subjects' Families Held	
Home Evening	48
II. Range and Central Tendency of Data on Major Variables .	49
III. Frequency of Responses to Categories Related to	
Major Variables for Sample A	50
IV. Descriptive Comparisons of Subsamples	52
V. Comparisons of Subsamples on Data Related to Major	
Variables	53
VI. Frequency of Response to Categories Related to	
Variables in Hypotheses One through Four	55
VII. Correlations of Variables in Hypotheses One	
through Four	56
VIII. Response of Sample A Teen-agers to the Question: Who	
Usually Sees to it that Home Evening is Held in	
Your Family?	62
IX. Response of Sample A Teen-agers to the Question: Who	
Would You Prefer to Have Lead Your Family Home	
Evening?	64
X. Themes from Sample B Teen-agers' Response to the	
Question: If Your Family Held Home Evening a	
Few Times and Then Stopped, Why Do You Think	
They Stopped?	65

TABLE

PAGE

XI.	Themes from Sample B and C Teen-agers' Response to the Question: Why Doesn't Your Family Hold Home Evening Now?	66
XII.	Themes from Sample B and C Teen-agers' Response to the Question: Would You Like to Have Home Evening in Your Family? Why or Why Not?	68
XIII.	Themes from Sample B and C Teen-agers' Response to the Question: What Kinds of Things Would You Like to do During Home Evening if Your Family Decided to Hold It?	69
XIV.	Themes from Sample B and C Teen-agers' Response to the Question: Who Would You Prefer to Have Lead Your Family Home Evening?	70
XV.	Themes from Sample B and C Teen-agers' Response to the Question: If Your Family Decided to Hold Home Evening, Would You Like to Help Plan for It and Help Present the Lessons? Why or Why Not?	72
XVI.	Themes from Answers to Questions on Story of Helen and Maxine	73
XVII.	Themes from Answers to Questions on Story of Judy and Donna	75
XVIII.	Themes from Answers to Questions on Story of Ned and Ben	76

TABLE

PAGE

XIX. Themes from Answers to Questions on Story of
Walter and Martin 78

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Societies throughout the world are challenged by a variety of threatening problems including industrial unrest, racial prejudice, crime, delinquency, and war (Krech, Crutchfield, & Ballachey, 1962, p. 2). Related to these problems is the fact that technological advancement has far exceeded social progress. Skinner (1965) has described our modern predicament in the following words:

Man's power appears to have increased out of all proportion to his wisdom. He has never been in a better position to build a healthy, happy, and productive world; yet things have never seemed so black. Two exhausting world wars have given no assurance of a lasting peace. Dreams of progress toward a higher civilization have been shattered by the spectacle of the murder of millions of innocent people [p. 4].

Although the family often serves as a buffer in protecting its individual members from community pressures (Hansen & Hill, 1964, p. 795), the problems of society are shared by the family. While it is not clear whether the family is disorganized and deteriorating or is in a state of transition and reorganization, it is acknowledged that the family is encountering severe and ominous problems (Anshen, 1949, p. 6). Stresses upon the family include illness, war separation, desertion, nonsupport, infidelity, alcoholism, drug addiction, delinquency, illegitimacy, divorce, suicide, and mental illness (Hansen & Hill, 1964, p. 793). Particularly related to this study is the suggestion by Davis (1965, p. 149) that contemporary western civilization experiences an

extra ordinary amount of parent-adolescent conflict.

Coopersmith (1968) has suggested the need of a positive approach to modern social problems: "The question is no longer how to avoid maladjustment and insecurity but rather how to generate those capacities that enable an individual to function effectively in his private, personal, and public activities [p. 96]."

The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints has attempted to make available to its members programs and resources which would aid them in the development of capacities and strengths to more effectively deal with contemporary problems, particularly those related to family living. In the fall of 1964, this church announced a church-wide program, known as the "Family Home Evening Program," which was to be carried on by parents in the home. The program was intended to be more than just a discussion of religious principles; it was supposed to include the living and applying of these principles in daily activities (Home Evening Manual, 1965, p. vi).

The establishment of the Family Home Evening Program was consistent with the philosophy of the L. D. S. Church expressed by its President, David O. McKay:

The home is the basis of a righteous life, and no other instrumentality can take its place nor fulfill its essential functions. The problems of these difficult times cannot better be solved in any other place, by any other agency, by any other means, than by love and righteousness, and precept and example, and devotion to duty in the home (Home Evening Manual, 1966, p. v).

It is a basic teaching of the L. D. S. Church that parents are responsible for teaching their children and that the home is usually

the best place for parents to do this teaching (Home Evening Manual, 1965, p. ix).

Larson (1967), in a Master's thesis, investigated factors in the acceptance and adoption of the Family Home Evening Program by L. D. S. families. In giving suggestions for further research related to his study, Larson indicated a need to look at the Home Evening Program from the viewpoint of children in the family, particularly those in early adolescence. He felt that it would be meaningful to attempt to learn why some children resist home evening while others participate eagerly. Data reported by Larson (1967, pp. 71, 103) seem to support the idea that families with older children in their early teens are less prone to adopt the Home Evening Program than are families in other stages of child rearing, but he did not attempt to explain why these families were reluctant to participate therein.

Many important questions remain unanswered. Why do some teenagers have favorable attitudes toward home evening while others have unfavorable attitudes? Are negative attitudes related to failure on the part of parents to provide adequate leadership in initiating and conducting the Program? Answers to these questions would provide information which would be of value to all those who are involved in planning and carrying out the Home Evening Program.

I. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The general purpose of this study was to identify factors which may influence the attitudes of teen-agers toward the Home

Evening Program. One subpurpose of the study was to test in the field of family relations certain hypotheses derived from the area of small group research. These hypotheses were concerned with the relationship of selected factors to attitudes toward the Home Evening Program. Another purpose of the study was to report reasons perceived by L. D. S. teen-agers for favorable and unfavorable attitudes toward home evening. It is hoped that the descriptive data obtained from these reports will furnish clues to the identity of other factors which may be related to attitudes toward home evening.

II. HYPOTHESES AND ASSUMPTIONS

A review of the literature reported in the next chapter led to the development of the following hypotheses: (Research related to each hypothesis will be discussed briefly following the statement of the hypothesis.)

1. The more teen-agers perceive that their family's home evening follows the prescribed manual, the less positive will be their attitudes toward the concept of home evening.

It is assumed that when families follow the prescribed home evening manual lessons closely, there will be little provision for selecting materials which are meaningful to the particular family involved; and that the use of such irrelevant material will be a factor related to negative participant attitudes (Family Home Evening Manual, 1965, p. vii; Family Home Evening Manual, 1966, p. vi). It is also assumed that when families follow the prescribed home evening

manual lessons closely, member attitudes toward the program will be less positive because of a lack of opportunity to set their own goals and to make decisions. Several studies have suggested a relationship between self-determination of goals by group members and member satisfaction (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 352; Coch & French, 1948, p. 531; French, Israel, & As, 1960, p. 18; Lippitt & White, 1960, p. 261; Rieken & Homans, 1954, p. 810-813).

2. The more teen-agers perceive themselves as participating in planning their family's home evening the more positive will be their attitudes toward the concept of home evening.

It is assumed that participation by teen-agers in planning their family's home evening will increase family interaction. A high degree of interaction among group members is often related to favorable member attitudes, particularly when the interaction takes place under conditions of equality (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 327; Bovard, 1956, p. 485; Homans, 1950, pp. 119, 120, 133; Jackson, 1960, p. 138; Wilson & Miller, 1961, p. 431). It is assumed that the more family members interact in home evening, the more positive will be their attitudes toward the concept of home evening.

3. The more teen-agers perceive themselves as participating in presenting home evening lessons the more positive will be their attitudes toward the concept of home evening.

It is assumed that participation by teen-agers in presenting home evening lessons will be related to increased family interaction and subsequently to more positive attitudes toward home evening as

explained in the previous hypothesis.

4. The more teen-agers perceive their family as discussing questions or problems which are important to them during their family's home evening, the more positive will be their attitudes toward the concept of home evening.

It is assumed that when families discuss questions or problems which the teen-agers consider important, interaction and participation are encouraged. Interaction and participation among group members seem to be related to favorable member attitudes (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 327; Bovard, 1956, p. 485; Homans, 1950, pp. 119, 120, 133; Jackson, 1960, p. 138; Wilson & Miller, 1961, p. 431).

5. It is hypothesized that:

a. When teen-agers perceive their father as task oriented and their mother as maintenance oriented, their attitudes toward the concept of home evening will be most positive.

b. When teen-agers perceive both parents as maintenance oriented, their attitudes toward the concept of home evening will be less positive.

c. When teen-agers perceive both parents as task oriented, their attitudes toward the concept of home evening will be still less positive.

d. When teen-agers perceive their father as maintenance oriented and their mother as task oriented, their attitudes toward the concept of home evening will be least positive.

Parsons and Bales (1955) concluded that one of the most basic dimensions of differentiation within the nuclear family is along instrumental-expressive (task-maintenance) lines. Zelditch (1955, pp. 314-315) claimed general cross-cultural support for the hypothesis that the male adult commonly plays the role of instrumental (task) leader, and the female adult generally plays the role of the expressive (maintenance) leader. Parsons and Bales argued that a clear differentiation of the father's instrumental responsibility for getting things done and the mother's expressive responsibility for providing emotional warmth would enhance the stability and security of the family:

For one thing, to be a stable focus of integration, the integrative-expressive "leader" can't be off on adaptive-instrumental errands all the time. For another, a stable, secure attitude of members depends, it can be assumed on a clear structure being given to the situation so that an uncertain responsibility for emotional warmth for instance, raises significant problems for the stability of the system and an uncertain managerial responsibility, an unclear definition of authority for decisions and getting things done, is also clearly a threat to the stability of the system [p. 312].

Winter (1958, pp. 42-43) indicated that when the wife tried to perform both task and maintenance functions, she was not able to perform either role effectively because of the negative feelings created by her performance of task functions. Dager (1964, pp. 757) suggested that a lack of clearly delineated instrumental-expressive roles in the family would tend to confuse the child and perhaps contribute to personality disorganization.

The above research findings seem to suggest that emphasis on task functions by the father and on maintenance functions by the mother would be associated with the most positive attitude toward parental leadership since task-maintenance responsibilities would tend to be clearly delineated and in accordance with the societal norms hypothesized by Parsons and Bales. According to the Parsons and Bales approach to role differentiation, emphasis on maintenance functions by both parents would be less effective in promoting a positive attitude toward parental leadership because of the relative likelihood of failure in family goal achievement. According to Parsons and Bales' theory, emphasis on task functions by both parents would also be less effective in promoting positive attitudes toward parental leadership because of the relative disregard for the solution of problems related to keeping interpersonal relations pleasant.

The research data surveyed by the writer gave no clear indication whether a relative emphasis by both parents on task functions would be more closely related to positive attitudes toward parental leadership than would an emphasis by both parents upon maintenance functions. For testing purposes, however, it was assumed that the relative emphasis upon maintenance functions would produce the more positive attitudes toward parental leadership. Emphasis upon maintenance functions by the father and upon task functions by the mother would be least conducive to positive attitudes toward parental leadership because of presumed confusion resulting from the reversal of the societal norms hypothesized by Parsons and Bales. Ackerman

(1958, pp. 153) has suggested that the reversal of traditional male-female roles is related to the distortion of parental functions and is a disturbing influence upon the development of children. Verville (1967, pp. 77-78) reported data in support of the conclusion that children tend to show hostility toward their parents in families where parental roles were reversed.

It was assumed that factors which influence attitudes toward parental leadership also influence attitudes toward the Home Evening Program.

III. DEFINITION OF TERMS

Attitude. An evaluation by an individual of some symbol, object or aspect of his world as favorable or unfavorable (Katz, 1960, p. 168).

Family council. A meeting of all members of the family in which problems are discussed and solutions sought (Dreikurs, 1964, p. 301).

Family home evening. A weekly meeting of the family under the direction of the parents for the purpose of discussing religious principles and participating in joint activities (Family Home Evening Manual, 1964, p. v).

Family Home Evening Program. The official name of the family home evening program of the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints.

Leadership. The performance of those acts which help the group achieve its preferred outcomes (Cartwright & Zander, 1960, p. 492).

Mormons, L. D. S., or Latter-day Saints. "Terms used interchangeably to designate the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints or its members (Larson, 1967, pp. 6-7)."

Maintenance functions. Actions which are necessary in a group to maintain the group itself. Such actions are also referred to as expressive or socio-emotional functions.

Maintenance orientation. A relative emphasis on the performance of maintenance functions more than task functions in the family by either or both parents.

Task functions. Actions which are necessary in a group to facilitate goal achievement. Such actions are also referred to as instrumental functions.

Task orientation. A relative emphasis on the performance of task functions more than maintenance functions in the family by either or both parents.

Content analysis. "A method of studying and analyzing communications in a systematic, objective, and quantitative manner for the purpose of studying variables (Kerlinger, 1964, p. 544)."

Semantic differential. A technique for measuring attitudes by obtaining ratings on a number of bipolar adjective scales (Krech, Crutchfield, & Ballachey, 1962, p. 179).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

I. RELATED STUDIES IN THE FIELD OF THE FAMILY

A review of the literature revealed only one investigation of home evening in a family context. In that study, Larson (1967) investigated factors related to the acceptance and adoption of the Family Home Evening Program by L. D. S. families. Larson regarded the program as a form of family ritual, and as an effort by the L. D. S. Church to initiate a program of planned change among member families. As part of his review of literature, Larson (1967, pp. 9-26) traced the history of family home evening in the L. D. S. Church from local efforts in the early 1900's to the church-wide adoption of the Program in 1964.

Somewhat related to the family home evening is the concept of family council. Dreikurs (1964) defined the term family council as "a meeting of all members of the family in which problems are discussed and solutions sought [p. 301]." Bossard and Boll (1958) described the family council as a meeting of a family group to discuss matters of common interest to its members. The operation of family councils as described above implies that "the family is a unified group of interacting personalities, in which each member has his rights, roles and responsibilities (Bossard, 1955, p. 407)." Effective operation of a family council may contribute to family unity and rapport,

mutual respect and responsibility, equality, and to the solution of troublesome problems (Bossard and Boll, 1958; Dreikurs, 1964).

II. THE FAMILY AS A SMALL GROUP

Because of the lack of pertinent studies in a family context, the investigator turned to the field of social psychology and particularly to small group research in an effort to find theory and research data related to the present study.

Several writers have suggested that the family can profitably be studied as a small group. Among the early writers who contributed to this approach were Cooley and Burgess. Cooley (1929) regarded the family as a "primary group" which gave "the individual his earliest and completest experience in social unity [p. 26]." Christensen (1964) pointed out that it was Burgess who did the most to stimulate the social-psychological approach to the family. Hill (1958, pp. 7, 59-68) noted 145 studies of the family as a small group which were made prior to 1956, and he reported an increasing tendency to study the family as a small group association.

Parsons and Bales (1955, pp. 308, 355) argued that it is fruitful to consider the nuclear family as a special case of a small group, sharing characteristics common to small groups of about the same size. Bossard and Boll (1958, p. 179) described marriage as the establishment of a project in group living. They believed that stable family life is dependent upon the operation of the family as a group rather than as a collection of individuals. Strodbeck (1954)

compared findings derived from the observation of ad hoc three-person groups with his own findings in regard to three-member families. He found encouragement for the idea that there is a common process underlying both primary and ad hoc group interaction.

Comparisons of the family with other small groups have revealed factors peculiar to the family, such as feelings of interdependence in community relations, feelings of responsibility for one another's well being, difficulty of withdrawal from the relationship, age-sex structure, and functions (Krech, Crutchfield, & Ballachey, 1962; Parsons & Bales, 1955). Since these factors are peculiar to the family and might create special conditions which could invalidate some of the general small group principles as applied to the family, it seems that the principles of group dynamics need testing in the particular area of the family. In the light of the data presented above, however, it appears that the general principles of small group operation may well serve as guides in approaching the study of family relations. There seems to be, then, justification for using the findings from small group research in approaching a study of the Family Home Evening Program.

III. THE CONCEPT OF ATTITUDE

The concept of attitude as developed in social psychology is one of the most widely used concepts in behavioral science research and theory (Allport, 1967, p. 3). It has been a central research variable in investigating a tremendous variety of behavior

(DeFleur & Westie, 1960, pp. 17-18). Since the concept of attitude is used in the present study, a review of various meanings of the word, especially as they relate to behavioral research and theory, seems pertinent.

DeFleur and Westie (1960) traced the historical usage of the word attitude. In the seventeenth century the word commonly referred to the physical positioning of an artist's subject with respect to background. Over the centuries, the word acquired new meanings such as the position of an individual on political issues, modes of thought characteristic of groups or classes, and the individual's predisposition toward the world. Alexander Bain and Herbert Spencer used the term in referring to a set way of thinking. During the late 1800's, psychologists used the term in describing differing states of readiness to perform experimental tasks among their subjects (DeFleur & Westie, 1960, pp. 18-20). The concept of task-attitude played an important part in many psychological experiments near the end of the nineteenth century (Allport, 1967, p. 4).

W. I. Thomas and Florian Znaniecki have been credited with giving the concept of attitude an important place in sociological writings (Allport, 1967, p. 6). Thomas and Znaniecki used attitude as a key concept to indicate a relationship between an individual and a socially significant object (DeFleur & Westie, 1960, pp. 19-20).

Concern with the measurement of attitudes began in the 1920's. Since the early efforts of Thurstone, Chave, and Bogardus

thousands of investigators have contributed procedures for measuring attitudes (DeFleur & Westie, 1960, pp. 19-20). As researchers conducted studies from various points of view, many different definitions of attitude were proposed. Thurstone (1932) defined attitude as "the affect for or against a psychological object [p. 261]." Bogardus (1931) stated that "an attitude is a tendency to act toward or against some environmental factor which becomes thereby a positive or negative value [p. 52]." Allport (1967) described attitude as "a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related [p. 8]." Katz (1960) defined attitude as "the predisposition of the individual to evaluate some symbol or object or aspect of his world in a favorable or unfavorable manner [p. 168]."

Krech, Crutchfield, and Ballachey (1962) described attitude as a system with component parts. They defined attitude as, "an enduring system of positive or negative evaluations, emotional feelings, and pro or con action tendencies with respect to a social object [p. 177]." Krech and associates (1962, pp. 140, 141, 178, 179) explained that the above system consists of (a) a cognitive, evaluative belief about the object, (b) a feeling about the object, and (c) a behavioral readiness associated with the object. Fishbein (1967) criticized the above definition and suggested that beliefs and behavioral intentions can better be

viewed as determinants or consequences of attitudes rather than as parts of attitudes.

DeFleur and Westie (1960) indicated a narrowing of views in recent years as to the meaning of attitude. They said in part that there are two current conceptions of the term:

(a) attitude as the probability of recurrence of behavior forms of a given type, and (b) attitude as a hypothetical variable functioning within the behaving individual which mediates and gives consistency to observable behavior [p. 20].

The usefulness of "latent process" definitions, in which attitude is regarded as something which occurs inside an individual and which determines the way in which he responds to a stimulus was questioned by DeFleur and Westie (1960, p. 24). They felt that those who propose latent process conceptions of attitudes have a responsibility to demonstrate the validity and utility of such concepts. Tittle and Hill (1967) countered DeFleur and Westie's argument with the following statement:

By abandoning attempts to assess internal states, the behaviorist binds response variance to highly unique organism-in-environment situations, from which generalizations may be achieved only by reference to "relevant" external factors which lie buried in the past. So defined, attitude becomes merely a category of highly specific behaviors that is scientifically useful only as a dependent variable in the study of social learning [p. 281].

Alexander (1966) agreed with Tittle and Hill's point of view. He believed that a definition of attitude which excludes consideration of internal states would greatly reduce the utility of the term.

DeFleur and Westie (1960, p. 28) contended that a useful conception of attitude must account for both the consistency and

variability of behavior, and must also be a logical inference from observable behavior. To accomplish these ends, they have proposed: (a) that the idea of attitude as an intervening variable be abandoned, (b) that definitions be more closely tied to the methods employed in measurement, (c) that the "social object" of the attitude be exactly specified, (d) that the nature of responses be more exactly specified, and (e) that the measuring operation be more exactly specified.

IV. THE RELATIONSHIP OF ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOR

After more than seventy-five years of research concerning attitudes there are relatively few studies dealing with the correspondence of attitudes and behavior, and the relationship between them is consequently not clear (Fishbein, 1967, p. 477). DeFleur and Westie (1958, p. 667) suggested that the relative absence of studies may be partly due to the difficulty of isolating and measuring overt acceptance-avoidance acts.

One of the first to report a lack of correspondence between verbal attitudes and overt behavior was LaPiere (1934). He observed that there was often a discrepancy between race prejudice as indicated by verbal behavior and prejudice as indicated by willingness to admit colored people to hotels. He felt that the observed discrepancy resulted because verbal attitudes are only a verbal response to a symbolic situation (LaPiere 1967, p. 26)

Any attempt to predict behavior is a complex and difficult

undertaking, regardless of whether attitudes or other variables are considered (Bogardus, 1931, p. 484). Fishbein (1967, p. 491) called attention to the fact that behavior toward a given object is a function of many variables, of which attitude toward the object is but one. Rokeach (1967, pp. 530-534) observed that behavior is not only a function of attitude toward an object, but also of attitude toward a situation. Tittle and Hill (1967, p. 202) suggested that the degree of correspondence between measured attitudes and other behavior varies not only with the measure of attitude used, but also with the criterion which is taken as an indicator of behavior. DeFleur and Westie (1958, p. 672) hypothesized that lack of a straight line relationship between verbal attitudes and overt action behavior can probably be explained in terms of the involvement of the subjects in a system of social constraints, preventing them from acting (overtly) in the direction of their convictions.

Fendrich (1966, p. 355) concluded that verbal attitudes can be either consistent or inconsistent with overt behavior, depending upon the way respondents define the attitude measurement situation. When subjects defined the research setting as the usual play-like experiment, verbal attitudes were not found to be good predictors of behavior. However, when subjects were encouraged to define the research setting as a situation where current acts would have consequences for future behavior, verbal attitudes were found to be good predictors of overt behavior.

DeFleur and Westie (1958) performed an experiment in which the verbal attitudes of subjects toward negroes was determined and then an overt action opportunity was presented. The subjects were asked if they were willing to be photographed with a Negro person of the opposite sex. Still later, subjects were asked to sign a photograph release agreement. The relationship between verbal attitudes and overt acts was statistically significant and suggested some correspondence between attitudes measured by verbal scales and an acceptance-avoidance act toward the attitude object. In spite of statistical significance, however, about one-third of the subjects exhibited behavior which was inconsistent with verbal attitudes. Most subjects admitted in later questioning that their overt actions were heavily influenced by their beliefs concerning possible approval or disapproval by their reference groups.

Tittle and Hill (1967) conducted a survey of research dealing with attitude measurement and prediction of behavior. They reported that of the four studies, in their sample of fifteen, which most adequately met methodological requirements, three of the studies showed attitude measures to be highly associated with behavioral patterns.

V. ATTITUDES TOWARD GROUP MEMBERSHIP

In a society where freedom and democracy are valued, it is important to understand some of the factors which influence attitudes toward group membership. In such a society, attitudes toward group

membership may determine whether or not a person will seek membership in a group, and once a member, whether he will continue to participate in group activities.

The idea that individuals attempt to maximize personal gratification and minimize deprivation in social interaction is well supported by group research (Jackson, 1960, p. 138) and is a helpful concept to keep in mind in analyzing sources of member attitudes. A person will be increasingly attracted to a group and satisfied with membership therein to the degree that he believes his needs will be fulfilled by belonging. A person's attraction to a group and satisfaction with membership, therefore, depends upon two basic factors: (a) the particular needs of the person involved, and (b) the properties of the group concerned which are related to need fulfillment (Cartwright & Zander, pp. 72-78).

Favorable attitudes toward group membership seem to be particularly related to the fulfillment of certain needs including needs to be highly regarded and valued (Aronson & Mills, 1960, p. 138; Cartwright & Zander, 1960, p. 79; Jackson, 1960, p. 134), needs to associate with friendly members (Rieken & Homans, 1960, p. 813; VanZelst, 1952, pp. 300-301), and needs to be secure and unthreatened (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 353; Cartwright & Zander, 1960, p. 83). Both group effectiveness and member satisfaction are likely to increase when member needs and personal goals correspond or are highly interdependent with group goals. The chances that such a condition will exist are maximized when the group is

self-determining with respect to what it does, and when members of the group have the knowledge and skill required to make effective decisions. When members push their own needs at the expense of their associates, both satisfaction and effectiveness decline (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 352; Rieken & Homans, 1954, p. 813).

VI. GROUP PROPERTIES AND ATTITUDES OF MEMBERS

A group may fulfill certain needs but fail to fill other needs depending upon the properties of the group involved. When group properties are such that the group is relatively more attractive than other comparable groups, people will not only have a greater desire to become affiliated with it, but also will be more satisfied to remain as members once they have joined (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 338).

Group properties associated with favorable member attitudes include high cohesiveness, optimal size, and homogeneity of membership characteristics. Gibb (1954, p. 911) concluded that cohesiveness and high morale are largely the result of having one's expectations fulfilled. Kelley and Thibaut (1954, p. 765) listed sources of group cohesion as: (a) attractiveness of association with the group, and (b) attractiveness of the goals that are mediated by belonging to the group. Cartwright and Zander (1960, pp. 80-81) reported that smaller units tend to be more satisfying than larger units. Slater (1958, pp. 137-138) conducted a study of "creative" groups ranging in size from two to seven members. He found that

members were most satisfied with groups of five. Members of groups larger than five often felt that their groups were disorderly and wasted time, while members of groups smaller than five complained that the groups were too small. Considerable evidence exists that homogeneity of individual characteristics among members of a group promotes favorable attitudes (Carter & Haythorn, 1956, p. 72; Krech, Crutchfield & Ballachey, 1962, p. 463).

VII. THE NATURE OF GROUP RELATIONS AND MEMBERSHIP ATTITUDES

Attitudes of members generally improve in groups which progress and experience success in accomplishing their goals (Bachmen, 1964, pp. 272-273; Cartwright & Zander, 1960, p. 81; Deutsch, 1959, p. 94; Lippitt & White, 1960, p. 266; Rieken & Homans, 1954, p. 805; Strotland, 1959, p. 79). A factor closely related to group success in goal achievement is the matter of how clearly the members understand what the group goals are, how they are to be achieved and how their particular task is related to achievement of the goals. Raven and Rietsema (1960, pp. 395-413) found that members were more strongly attracted to a group when group goals and ways of achieving the goals were clear. Members were also more satisfied when they understood how their task was related to the group's goals and their achievement.

A high degree of interaction among members is generally considered to be positively related to favorable member attitudes, particularly when the interaction takes place under conditions of

equality (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 327; Bovard, 1956, p. 485; Homans, 1950, pp. 119, 120, 133; Jackson, 1960, p. 138; Wilson & Miller, 1961, p. 431). Homans (1950, p. 133) suggested that member satisfaction related to increased interaction may be partly explained by the fact that interacting persons tend to become more alike in their activities and sentiments.

Other factors seem to be related to group member attitudes. Lippitt and White (1960, p. 264) concluded that free communication promoted group satisfaction. Clique structure may decrease group satisfaction by limiting interaction and communication and by increasing isolation (Carlson, pp. 331-336). When group members engage in cooperative relations they are more likely to have favorable attitudes than when they are competing (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 353; Cartwright & Zander, 1960, p. 80; Thomas, 1960, p. 470). Deutsch (1949, p. 230) observed that competitiveness seemed to produce greater personal insecurity than did cooperation.

VIII. GROUP LEADERSHIP AND MEMBER ATTITUDES

The nature of leadership provided in a group may be a factor in influencing the attitudes of group members. Theoretical approaches to the study of leadership have changed considerably over the years (Gibb, 1954, pp. 913-915). The earliest approach to research on leadership was concerned with identifying traits associated with successful leadership (Cartwright & Zander, 1960, p. 489; Lippitt, 1961, p. 7). The trait approach was generally disappointing

(Cartwright & Zander, 1960, p. 490). Later, the influence of factors within the situation upon leadership behavior was studied. Still later, research tended to focus upon different leadership styles. Currently, a functional approach to leadership is being used by many investigators (Lippitt, 1961, pp. 7-11).

The functional approach to leadership is described by Cartwright and Zander (1960) as follows:

. . . it seeks to discover what actions are required by groups under various conditions if they are to achieve their goals or other valued states, and how different group members take part in these group actions. Leadership is viewed as the performance of those acts which help the group achieve its preferred outcomes. Such acts may be termed group functions. More specifically, leadership consists of such actions by group members, as those which aid in setting group goals, moving the group toward its goals, improving the quality of interactions among group members, building cohesiveness of the group, or making resources available to the group. In principle, leadership may be performed by one or many members of the group [p. 492].

Crockett's (1955, pp. 382-385) observation that group functions which facilitate progress toward a collective goal may be thought of as leadership function is in agreement with the ideas of Cartwright and Zander quoted above.

Cartwright and Zander (1960, p. 496) observed that most group objectives can be subsumed under one of two headings: (a) the achievement of some specific group goal, or (b) the maintenance or strengthening of the group itself. These writers pointed out that group or leadership functions may be distinguished according to the type of objective to which the function contributes:

Examples of member behaviors that serve functions of goal achievement are "initiates action," "keeps members' attention on the goal," "clarifies the issue," "develops a procedural plan," "evaluates the quality of work done," and "makes information available." Examples of behaviors that serve functions of group maintenance are "keeps interpersonal relations pleasant," "arbitrates disputes," "provides encouragement," "gives the minority a chance to be heard," "stimulates self-direction," and "increases the interdependence among members [p. 496]."

Winer and Halpin (1957) identified two main dimensions of leadership behavior which were similar to the above dimensions mentioned by Cartwright and Zander. They reported that 83 per cent of the leadership behavior observed by them could be included under one of two dimensions: (a) "initiating structure," and (b) "consideration." Initiating structure referred to the leader's behavior in delineating the relationship between himself and the members of his group, and in endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and ways of getting the job done. Consideration referred to behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in relationships between the leader and members of the group.

Parsons and Bales (1955, pp. 278-280) concluded that there was a tendency in small decision-making groups for two leaders to emerge-- one concerned with achieving group goals and the other contributing to the socio-emotional maintenance of the group. The leader concerned with goal achievement was referred to as the "task leader" while the person who contributed to group maintenance was called a "sociometric star." The task leader seemed to be associated with behaviors such as giving suggestions, directions, and opinions.

The sociometric star tended to be associated with patterns of behavior such as the expression of emotions, supportive behavior to others, the desire to please and be liked, and a generalized liking for other members (Parsons & Bales, 1955, pp. 309-310).

Gorman (1963) has described a task leader as one who encourages group members to gain knowledge and skills. The task leader also makes decisions and evaluates the performance of others [pp. 39, 59]. Gorman described the maintenance leader (sociometric star) as one who is sensitive to the individual needs of group members and one who works to improve group relations [p. 29]. Thibaut and Kelley ((1959, pp. 274-276) referred to the social-emotional specialist as a maintenance specialist because of his function in maintaining the interdependence of members and the survival of the group. Parsons and Bales (1955, p. 284) reported that when task and maintenance leaders were mutually supportive, groups tended to function more effectively than where such support was absent.

Closely related to the concept of task-maintenance differentiation of leadership functions is the idea of instrumental-expressive functional differentiation. Parsons and Bales (1955) described instrumental and expressive functions as follows:

The instrumental area concerns the relations of the system to its situation outside the system, to meeting the adaptive conditions of its maintenance of equilibrium, and "instrumentally" establishing the desired relations to external goal-objects. The expressive area concern the "internal" affairs of the system, the maintenance of integrative relations between the members, and regulation of the patterns and tension levels of its component units [p. 47].

Attitudes of members toward group leadership seem to be related to a number of factors. Kelley and Thibaut (1954, p. 777) suggested that the satisfaction of members with any given leadership style is affected, at least initially, by the expectations which members have about how the leader role should be performed. Berelson and Steiner (1964) concluded that democratic leadership is more conducive to member satisfaction than autocratic or laissezfaire leadership. Lippitt and White (1960, p. 269) hypothesized that the two major factors that sometimes make autocracy more satisfying than democracy are clearness of roles and efficiency of group performance. When these two factors are achieved in democracy, however, democracy is all the more satisfying. Lippitt and White also found that laissez-faire leadership was definitely less satisfying to the groups of boys with whom they worked than was democratic leadership.

Satisfaction is generally enhanced when group members are allowed to participate in making decisions and setting group goals (Coch & French, 1948, p. 531; French, Israel, & As, 1960, p. 18; Reiken & Homans, 1954, p. 810). Lippitt and White (1960) concluded that:

Of all the generalizations growing out of the experimental study of groups, one of the most broadly and firmly established is that the members of a group tend to be more satisfied if they have at least some feeling of participation in its decisions [p. 261].

IX. FAMILY ROLE DIFFERENTIATION AND MEMBER ATTITUDES

Several investigators have attempted to relate small group theory and research findings to the nuclear family. Parsons and Bales (1955, p. 22) suggested certain similarities between role differentiation in the family and the emergence of leadership in small groups. They concluded that one of the most basic dimensions of differentiation within the nuclear family was along instrumental-expressive lines. Farber (1964) noted that:

. . . instrumental values and norms pertain to the continuity of the family unit through generations, administration of family affairs, and the place of the family among other institutions. Instrumental valuation is manifested in a high preference given to values and expectations related to economic security, physical health of the family members, a respected place in the community, and adherence to moral and religious principles in developing role expectations [p. 291].

Farber described social-emotional values and norms as being:

. . . related to the development of a system of personal relationships between family members. Social-emotional valuation is manifest in a high preference given to values and expectations related to companionship, personality development, emotional security, and affectional satisfaction [p. 291].

Bresnitz and Kugelmass (1965) suggested that the instrumental behavior of parents would be perceived by the child as:

. . . direct responsibility for the solution of the child's tasks, for skill and information that are prerequisites to the role in its adaptive aspects, and for the authority required to make binding managerial decisions; and, associated with this "managerial" complex, the primary responsibility for the discipline and "training" of the child [p. 107].

Bresnitz and Kugelmass (1965, p. 112) concluded from their data that instrumentality and expressivity should be treated as two dimensions which are theoretically independent.

Zelditch (1955) found general cross-cultural support for the following hypotheses:

(a) If the nuclear family constitutes a social system stable over time, it will differentiate roles such that instrumental leadership and expressive leadership of the system are discriminated.

(b) If the nuclear family consists in a defined "normal" component of the male adult, female adult and their immediate children, the male adult will play the role of instrumental leader and the female adult will play the role of expressive leader [pp. 314-315].

Zelditch (1955) observed that the husband is generally:

. . . expected to be a "good provider," to be able to secure for the couple a "good position" in the community. The wife on the other hand is expected to develop the skills in human relations which are central to making the home harmonious and pleasant for both [p. 163].

Stephens (1963) felt that Zelditch's generalizations regarding the universal attributes of husband-wife roles need some qualification:

It is probably too much to claim that there is a certain type of role differentiation that universal to all families. I feel sure Zelditch would agree to this. It would be safer to claim universality on a society level and even this is probably a bit rash. Further, I would not choose the labels "instrumental leader" and "expressive leader" to describe the attributes of husband-role and wife-role. Still, making allowance for these qualifications, I think there is some validity for Zelditch's statement. There are extraordinary cross-cultural regularities in husband-wife roles [pp. 303-304].

A number of explanations of observed cross-cultural regularities in husband-wife roles have been proposed. Stephens (1963, p. 281) suggested that the division of labor between husband

and wife seems to have little to do with biological capabilities and limitations except those associated with child bearing and nursing of children. Goode (1964) agreed that bearing and nursing of children were important factors influencing sex role differentiation in the family:

The mother begins with the nurturance of the child, establishing a close physical and psychological bond because of the gratifications both give one another. Her social relational tasks are expressive, emotional, or integrative. She is to console, to nurse, to bring together again those who have quarreled. The father is the instrumental leader, organizing family labor for production, political conflicts, or war. He must solve the problems of the outside environment, social or physical [p. 71].

Some investigators have suggested that certain variations in husband-wife roles may be expected to influence the nature of family relations in predictable ways. Lidz (1961, p. 48) noted that failure to maintain different roles and tasks in the family led to pathological family interaction. Winter (1958, pp. 42-43) indicated that when the wife tried to perform both task and maintenance functions, she was not able to perform either role effectively because of the negative feelings created by her performance of task functions.

Goode (1964) concluded that:

. . . a family that has a weak or ineffectual mother, or a cold, unyielding father is less likely to fail in its socializing tasks than one in which there is either a cold, unyielding mother or a weak, ineffectual father [p. 71].

Ackerman (1958) expressed the belief that confusion related to the roles of husband and wife has had "an immeasurable effect

in distorting the sexual and emotional development of the child
p. 173 ."

A number of studies have reported changes in husband-wife role allocation in recent times. Stephens (1963, p. 288) noted that sexual division of labor is comparatively less strict in industrialized democracies than in other societies. The results of several studies support the idea that there has been a merging of sex roles in which differences have been reduced (Koltar, 1962; LeMasters, 1957; Winch, 1952). Ackerman (1958) contended that a reversal of sex roles has taken place in many families.

X. SUMMARY

Because of a lack of pertinent studies in a family context, the present study was approached largely from the standpoint of small group theory and research. Several writers suggested that the family could be profitably studied as a small group association.

Since the concept of attitude is used in this study, a review of the history of the development of the term as an important research variable was undertaken. Research findings bearing upon the relationship of attitudes and behavior were reviewed.

The possible influence of group properties, group relations, and group leadership upon the attitudes of group members was explored. Role differentiation patterns in small groups and families were compared and possible implications of role variations

were examined. Evidence suggesting recent changes in husband-wife role allocations was surveyed.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

I. RESEARCH DESIGN

This study was an attempt to measure the attitudes of teen-agers toward the Home Evening Program and to identify factors which may be related to such attitudes. One subpurpose of the study was to test in the field of family relations certain hypotheses derived from the area of small group research. These hypotheses were concerned with the relationship of selected factors to attitudes toward the Home Evening Program. Another subpurpose of the study was to report reasons given by teen-agers for favorable and unfavorable attitudes in an attempt to identify other factors which may be related to attitudes toward home evening. The present investigation, therefore, had elements characteristic of exploratory, descriptive, and hypotheses-testing studies (Selitz, Jahoda, Deutsch, & Cook, 1967, pp. 50-51).

II. DEVELOPMENT OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

A search of available instruments did not reveal any which fit the particular requirements of the present investigation. It was decided, therefore, to develop a questionnaire adapted to the specific nature of the study.

The questionnaire contained sections designed to measure

attitudes, parental leadership orientations, descriptive and control variables, home evening experience, and reasons for both positive and negative attitudes.

The questionnaire was pretested prior to its use in actual data collection. The pretest involved forty-eight ninth-grade seminary students in three classes. Suggestions by the students prompted the deletion of one item and the rewording of other items. A retest of part of the questionnaire, involving the same students, was conducted two weeks later.

Operational definitions of dependent and independent variables involved in the study and information concerning the reliability and validity of various parts of the questionnaire follow. It should be understood that designation of variables as dependent and independent does not imply that a cause and effect relationship can be shown through the methods used in this study.

III. DEPENDENT VARIABLE

Positive or negative attitude toward the concept of home evening. Attitude toward home evening was determined through use of a semantic differential rating technique directly involving the concept of home evening. The attitude was defined as the allocation of the meaning of this concept to any of seven semantic spaces on a continuous scale. The unfavorable pole of the evaluative scale was assigned the score of "1" with the remaining semantic spaces being assigned continuous positive intergers up to "7" at

the favorable pole. Over-all evaluative ratings were summed to obtain the attitude score. Bi-polar adjectives were randomized as to positive and negative direction (Osgood, C. E., et al, 1957, p. 190). After reviewing relevant data, some authorities concluded that the use of the evaluative factor (evaluative adjective pairs) of semantic differentials seems to meet all the criteria for a measure of attitudes (Kerlinger, 1964, p. 579; Osgood, et al, 1957, pp. 192-195). An advantage of using the evaluative factor of the semantic differential as an attitude scale is that it applies the same set of evaluative scales to all concepts measured (Osgood, 1967, p. 112). Kerlinger (1964, p. 578) added that the semantic differential is flexible and easy to adapt to varying research demands, and economical to administer and to score.

After reviewing available data, Kerlinger (1964, p. 578) concluded that the semantic differential has been shown to be sufficiently reliable and valid for many research purposes. Test-retest reliability coefficients ranged from .87 to .93, with a mean r of .91 when the semantic differential was used as a measure of attitude (Osgood, et al, 1957, p. 192). Concerning validity, Osgood and associates (1957) stated that:

The evaluative dimension of the semantic differential displays reasonable face-validity as a measure of attitude. For example, Suci was able to differentiate between high and low ethnocentrics, as determined independently from the E-scale of the Authoritarian Personality studies, on the basis of their ratings of various ethnic concepts on the evaluative scales of the differential [p. 192-193].

Additional information concerning the validity and reliability of the semantic differential was presented by Osgood (1967) as follows:

Dr. Percy Tannenbaum compared E-factor scores for subjects judging the concepts "the Negro," "the church," and "capital punishment" with their scores on special Thurstone attitude scales devised to tap each of these attitudes. Reliabilities of the E-factor scores proved to be slightly higher, actually, than those of the Thurstone scales. More important, the E-factor scores for the concepts correlated with their corresponding Thurstone scale scores as highly as reliabilities could allow. In other words, it would appear that whatever the specific Thurstone scales were measuring--and they were designed to measure attitude--the E factor was measuring equally well [p. 112].

Osgood and associates (1957) also reported that the Guttman scale and the evaluative scale of the differential are measuring the same thing to a considerable degree.

Evaluative factor scales were selected for the questionnaire from a list provided by Osgood and associates (1957, pp. 53-55) on the basis of relevance to the concept being considered, i. e., home evening. This procedure was suggested by Osgood and associates (1957, p. 78). Scales were randomly alternated in polarity direction to prevent the formation of position preference (Osgood, et al, 1957, p. 82). Seven-step scales were used because it was found that with seven alternatives all of them tend to be used and with about equal frequencies (Osgood, et al, 1957, p. 85).

IV. INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

1. Perceive that the Program follows the prescribed manual.

Respondents were asked to rate the frequency with which their family followed the prescribed home evening manual lessons as (a) regularly, (b) frequently, (c) occasionally, (d) seldom, and (e) never. Numerical values were assigned, ranging from "5" for "a" to "1" for "e."

2. Perceive themselves as participating in planning home evening. Respondents were asked to rate the frequency with which they helped in planning home evening. Frequency was rated as with the previous variable.

3. Perceive themselves as participating in presenting home evening lessons. Respondents were asked to rate the frequency with which they participated in presenting home evening lessons. Frequency was rated as with the previous variables.

4. Perceive their family as discussing questions or problems which are important to the teen-agers. Respondents were asked to rate the frequency with which their family discussed questions or problems which were important to the teen-agers. Frequency was rated as with the previous variables.

5. Task oriented. This variable refers to a relative emphasis on the performance of task functions more than maintenance functions in the family by either or both parents. Task functions are actions which are necessary in a group to facilitate goal achievement. Respondents were asked to rate the frequency of each of their parent's behavior with reference to five behavior descriptions characteristic of a task orientation. Frequency was rated

as (a) regularly, (b) frequently, (c) occasionally, (d) seldom, or (e) never. Numerical values which were assigned ranged from "1" to "5" with increasing frequency.

Maintenance oriented. This variable refers to a relative emphasis on the performance of maintenance functions more than task functions in the family by either or both parents. Maintenance functions are actions which are necessary in a group to maintain the group itself. Respondents were asked to rate the frequency of each parent's behavior with reference to five behavior descriptions characteristic of a maintenance orientation. Frequency was rated numerically as with the previous variable.

Behavior descriptions used in the measurement of task and maintenance orientations were selected by three faculty members from a list presented to them by the investigator. The original list of behavior descriptions was composed by the investigator after a review of the literature related to the origin and meaning of the terms, "task," and maintenance."

Only those items selected by two or more faculty members were used in the final questionnaire. In this way, an attempt was made to select items on the basis of face validity (Selltiz, et al, 1967, pp. 164-165).

An attempt was made to assess the reliability of the items designed to measure task-maintenance orientation by using a test-retest method. Forty-eight ninth-grade students were tested and then retested after two weeks. Test-retest reliability coefficients

were as follow: (a) For items measuring the task orientation of the father, $r = .87$, (b) for items measuring the maintenance orientation of the father, $r = .93$, (c) for items measuring the task orientation of the mother, $r = .82$, and (d) for items measuring maintenance orientation of the mother, $r = .87$. These correlations represent a moderately high degree of statistical significance.

A part of the questionnaire was designed to describe reasons given by teen-agers for positive and negative attitudes toward home evening. Subjects were asked to answer open-end questions about incomplete stories portraying favorable and unfavorable attitudes toward the program. These questions asked the respondents to give what they thought were the reasons for the attitudes portrayed in the stories.

The story completion test is a projective technique in which values, attitudes, needs, wishes, as well as impulses and motives are projected upon objects and behavior outside the individual (Kerlinger, 1964, pp. 33, 525). Gingles (1955, p. 5) suggested that a projective technique such as an incomplete story test could yield a truer picture of interaction within a family than could more direct tests. Gingles (1955) investigated the administration and scoring of the incomplete story test as a measure of teen-agers' perception of affectional relationships in the family. She concluded that there were no significant differences in the number of responses obtained from oral and written methods of administration, and that the written method of administration is less time consuming and less

expensive than the oral method. She also concluded that there were no significant differences in the number of responses obtained from stories having male or female heroes. The above findings were considered in composing and administering the incomplete stories used in this study.

V. SAMPLE DESCRIPTION

The sample was chosen from ninth-grade seminary students in the Salt Lake Valley South Seminary District. The population consisted of all ninth-grade seminary classes in the district. Since the sample was selected with classes rather than individuals as the sampling unit, it can be properly called a cluster sample. This cluster sample was selected by a simple random method as described by Selltitz and associates (1967, p. 533). All ninth-grade seminary classes in the population were first listed. The classes were then numbered consecutively from 1 through 65. A table of random digits was used in selecting the sample (Wyatt, & Bridges, 1966, pp. 7, 352-355). Twenty-three classes with an enrollment of 306 boys and 291 girls, making a total of 597 were thus selected for the sample. Included in the study were all students in the classes selected who were in attendance on the day that the questionnaire was administered.

Rationale for the selection of the sample included the fact that ninth-grade seminary students (approximately 14 or 15 years

of age) represented the early adolescent group which was the focus of the study. Although seminary students are not fully representative of the total L. D. S. teen-age population, the use of seminary students as subjects for the study allowed the researcher to obtain a comparatively large sample of responses in a relatively short time.

VI. TEST ADMINISTRATION AND DATA COLLECTION

Permission to administer the questionnaire was obtained from the seminary administrators involved. A schedule of visits was arranged and appointments to visit specific classes were made.

After an introduction by the regular instructor, the questionnaire was administered personally by the investigator to the class members. Instructions for completing the questionnaire were read orally by the investigator before the students began the questionnaire. Participating students were reminded that since the study was to be anonymous, they were not to write their names on the questionnaire.

VII. ANALYSIS OF DATA

Questionnaires were first checked for completeness. Sixteen questionnaires were found to be incomplete and were eliminated from the sample. Those respondents who indicated the absence of either a male or female guardian in their home were also excluded. One questionnaire was eliminated because of the lack of a female guardian and seventeen because of the lack of a male guardian.

Twenty-one questionnaires were rejected because the students were twelfth-graders rather than ninth-graders. These twelfth-graders were inadvertently included in the sample because one of the seminaries offered a class ordinarily limited to ninth-graders to seniors. This was unknown to the writer at the time the sample was selected.

Where possible, the data were numerically coded and recorded on IBM data sheets. The data were then transferred to cards and checked for accuracy.

The relationships of variables involved in testing hypotheses one through four were determined by calculating the Pearsonian product moment correlation coefficients for each dependent-independent variable relationship involved. Computation of correlation coefficients was accomplished through the use of appropriate programs on the B. Y. U. IBM computer.

Although the use of the Pearsonian correlation coefficient on ordinal data might be questioned, a number of authorities seem to agree that the use of such a procedure, although not strictly proper, has been fruitful (Snedecor & Cochran, 1967, pp. 244-245; Stevens, 1951, p. 26; Torgerson, 1958, p. 24).

The relationships of variables involved in testing hypothesis number five were determined by computation of simple analysis of variance. This computation was also accomplished through the use of an appropriate computer program.

Answers to open-end questions contained in the questionnaires were content analyzed by three independent judges. The judges were instructed to read responses to the questions and suggest appropriate categories. Suggested categories were then compared by the investigator and a final set of categories was determined on the basis of common categories suggested by at least two of the judges. Quantification was accomplished by having the judges count the number of responses in each category.

VII. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

1. Since non-seminary subjects were not included in the sample, the findings cannot be generalized to all L. D. S. teenagers in the Salt Lake Valley Seminary District.

2. Since the study dealt with the behavior of family members as perceived and reported by teenagers, the relationship of reported and actual behavior is unknown.

3. Although the study attempted to test some hypotheses, the wide range of factors considered and the exploratory nature of the study precluded a detailed analysis because of time and resource limitations.

4. Several limitations generally related to the measurement of attitudes also apply to the study. Measured attitudes may be only approximations of the way in which attitudes actually exist in the mental life of an individual (Allport, 1967, pp. 11-12). Since an individual may have contradictory attitudes and since

his attitudes may change, attitudes as measured at one time may not long represent a true picture of current changes (Allport, 1967, p. 12). Rationalization and deception almost always occur, especially when the attitudes studied pertain to moral life or social status of the subject (Allport, 1967, p. 12).

5. The nature of the relationship between attitudes and behavior is not yet fully understood. (See section on attitudes and behavior in Chapter II, p. 17.)

6. No cause and effect relationships between variables can be shown because of limitations in experimental design.

VIII. SUMMARY

This chapter described research design, questionnaire development, sample selection, test administration, data collection, analysis of data, and limitations related to the study. The present investigation has elements characteristic of exploratory, descriptive, and hypotheses-testing studies. A questionnaire designed to measure attitudes toward the Home Evening Program and factors of possible influence upon such attitudes was developed. A cluster sample made up of twenty-three classes of ninth-grade students was randomly selected from the Salt Lake Valley South Seminary District. The questionnaire was administered by the author to students in attendance in the classes selected. Statistics used in analyzing the data included the Pearsonian product moment correlation coefficient, and analysis of variance. Limitations

of the study were discussed.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter contains a description of the sample, and a presentation and discussion of the findings.

I. DESCRIPTION OF SAMPLE

The sample consisted of 424 ninth-grade subjects--220 boys and 204 girls. These ninth-grade subjects ranged in age from 14 through 16. Distribution of their ages was as follows:

<u>Age</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
14	114	26.9
15	296	69.8
16	<u>14</u>	<u>3.3</u>
Totals	<u>424</u>	<u>100.0</u>

All of the subjects were L. D. S. Eighty-six per cent had been members seven years or more, 12 per cent had been four to six years, and 2 per cent had been one to three years. Ninety-three per cent of the subjects reported that both parents or guardians were L. D. S., 6 per cent that one was L. D. S., and 1 per cent that neither was L. D. S. Ninety-eight per cent of the subjects' parents or guardians who were L. D. S. had been members of the church at least seven years.

Ninety-seven per cent of the subjects reported that both of their parents were living, and 92 per cent reported that they were

living with both of their own parents.

The frequency with which families held home evening is reported in Table I. Of the families represented, 74.8 per cent had not held a home evening in the last six weeks.

RANGE, CENTRAL TENDENCY, AND FREQUENCY OF DATA

RELATED TO MAJOR VARIABLES

The range and central tendency of data related to certain major variables are given in Table II, page 49. When appropriate, the frequency of responses in categories related to major variables are presented in Table III, page 50.

III. DESCRIPTION OF SUBSAMPLES

The total sample was divided into subsamples to facilitate analysis. Subsample A consisted of those subjects whose families had held home evening often in the past but not within the last six weeks, or who had held it one or more times in the last six weeks. Subsample B consisted of subjects whose families had held home evening a few times but not within the last six weeks. Subsample C consisted of subjects whose families had never held home evening. Hereafter, these subsamples are referred to as sample A, sample B, and sample C respectively. The size of these samples can be determined by referring to Table I. Sample A consisted of 94 boys and 63 girls, making a total of 157; sample B consisted of 69 boys and 88 girls, making a total of 157; and sample C consisted of

TABLE I
FREQUENCY WITH WHICH SUBJECTS'
FAMILIES HELD HOME EVENING

Frequency of home evening	Number	Percentage
Never held it	110	25.9
Held it a few times but not within the last six weeks	157	37.1
Held it often but not within the last six weeks	50	11.8
Held it once or twice in the last six weeks	42	9.9
Held it three or four times in the last six weeks	37	8.7
Held it five or six times in the last six weeks	28	6.6
Totals	424	100.0

TABLE II
RANGE AND CENTRAL TENDENCY OF
DATA ON MAJOR VARIABLES

Variable	Range	Median	Mean
Fathers' task scores	7-25	20.6	19.8
Fathers' maintenance scores	5-25	18.8	17.5
Mothers' task scores	7-25	21.3	20.7
Mother' maintenance scores	5-25	19.4	18.9
Attitude toward home evening scores	13-91	74.7	71.3

TABLE III
 FREQUENCY OF RESPONSES TO CATEGORIES RELATED
 TO MAJOR VARIABLES FOR SAMPLE A^a

Variables	Categories	N	%
Perceived frequency with which subject helped to present home evening lesson	Regularly	33	21
	Frequently	35	22
	Occasionally	51	33
	Seldom	25	16
	Never	13	8
	Totals	157	100
Perceived frequency with which subject helped plan home evening	Regularly	30	19
	Frequently	23	15
	Occasionally	50	32
	Seldom	38	24
	Never	16	10
	Totals	157	100
Perceived frequency with which subject's family discussed questions or problems which were important to the subject	Regularly	54	34
	Frequently	40	25
	Occasionally	39	25
	Seldom	15	10
	Never	9	6
	Totals	157	100
Perceived frequency with which subject's family followed home evening manual lessons	Regularly	70	45
	Frequently	38	24
	Occasionally	29	18
	Seldom	12	8
	Never	8	5
	Totals	157	100

^aSubjects with limited or no home evening experience did not give responses related to the above variables.

57 boys and 53 girls, making a total of 110. Descriptive comparisons of these samples are presented in Table IV. Comparisons of these samples on data related to major variables are presented in Table V, page 53.

IV. FINDINGS RELATED TO HYPOTHESES

The first four hypotheses were tested by calculating the Pearsonian product moment correlation coefficient to determine the relationship of the variables involved. Since the testing of these hypotheses involved the use of some ordinal data, the use of the product moment correlation coefficient on ordinal data might properly be questioned. In a discussion related to this issue, Stevens (1951) explained that:

As a matter of fact, most of the scales used widely and effectively by psychologists are ordinal scales. In the strictest propriety the ordinary statistics involving means and standard deviations ought not to be used with these scales, for these statistics imply a knowledge of something more than the relative rank order of data. On the other hand, for this "illegal" statisticizing, there can be invoked a kind of pragmatic sanction: in numerous instances it leads to fruitful results [p. 26].

Torgerson (1958, p. 24) suggested that the discovery of orderly relationships among ordinal data through the use of statistics such as product moment correlations which are ordinarily used for interval and ratio scales can be as important as among variables measured in other ways.

Snedecor and Cochran (1967), after explaining that it is a common practice among statisticians to attach a score to ordered

TABLE IV
DESCRIPTIVE COMPARISONS OF SUBSAMPLES

Descriptive variable	Sample A ^a		Sample B ^b		Sample C ^c	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
L. D. S. subjects	157	100	157	100	110	100
Length of subjects' membership in L. D. S. Church:						
7 years or more	140	89	130	83	95	86
4-6 years	17	11	21	13	12	11
1-3 years	0	0	6	4	3	2
Both parents or guardians L. D. S.	152	97	148	94	96	87
One parent or guardian L. D. S.	5	3	9	6	12	11
Neither parent or guardian L. D. S.	0	0	0	0	2	2
L. D. S. parents who were members of the church 7 years or more	155	99	152	97	108	98
Subjects who had both of their parents living	154	98	152	97	106	96
Subjects living with both of their own parents	148	94	143	91	98	89

^aSample A consisted of those subjects whose families had held home evening often in the past, or had held it one or more times in the last six weeks.

^bSample B consisted of those subjects whose families had held home evening a few times, but not within the last six weeks.

^cSample C consisted of those subjects whose families had never held home evening.

TABLE V

COMPARISONS OF SUBSAMPLES ON DATA RELATED TO MAJOR VARIABLES

Variable	Sample A ^a			Sample B ^b			Sample C ^c		
	Range	Median	Mean	Range	Median	Mean	Range	Median	Mean
Fathers' task scores	7-25	22.3	21.0	7-25	20.0	19.7	8-25	19.9	18.7
Fathers' maintenance scores	5-25	19.9	19.1	5-25	18.8	17.5	5-24	18.3	16.0
Mothers' task scores	9-25	21.8	21.5	11-25	21.1	20.8	7-25	20.5	19.9
Mothers' maintenance scores	8-25	20.3	19.9	7-25	19.0	19.2	5-25	18.5	17.5
Subjects' attitude toward home evening scores	16-91	78.7	76.1	13-91	73.3	70.5	17-91	70.4	67.2

^aSample A consisted of those subjects whose families had held home evening often in the past, or had held it one or more times in the last six weeks.

^bSample B consisted of those subjects whose families had held home evening a few times, but not within the last six weeks.

^cSample C consisted of those subjects whose families had never held home evening.

Classes of variables so as to create an ordered scale, suggested that:

The assignment of scores is appropriate when (1) the phenomenon in question is one that could be measured on a continuous scale if the instruments of measurement were good enough, and (2) the order classification can be regarded as a kind of grouping of this continuous scale, or as an attempt to approximate the continuous scale by a cruder scale that is the best we can do in the present state of knowledge [p. 244].

Snedecor and Cochran explained that:

The advantage in assigning scores is that the more flexible and powerful methods of analysis that have been developed for continuous variables becomes available [p. 244].

Snedecor and Cochran concluded that the standard methods of analysis of continuous variables, including t-ratio, product moment correlation, and analysis of variance, can be appropriately used with such ordered scales when the above assumptions are met [p. 145].

Only sample A was used in testing the first four hypotheses because this group had more home evening experience than samples B or C. Such experience provided the kinds of information needed to test the four hypotheses.

Semantic differential scores representing attitudes toward home evening for sample A ranged from 16 to 91, with a median of 78.7, and a mean of 76.1. Frequency of responses to categories related to variables in hypotheses one through four are given in Table VI. A summary of correlations of variables in hypotheses one through four are presented in Table VII, page 56.

TABLE VI

FREQUENCY OF RESPONSE TO CATEGORIES RELATED TO VARIABLES
IN HYPOTHESES ONE THROUGH FOUR

Variables	Categories	N	%
^a Perceived frequency with which subject helped to present home evening lesson	Regularly	33	21
	Frequently	35	22
	Occasionally	51	33
	Seldom	25	16
	Never	13	8
	Totals	157	100
^b Perceived frequency with which subject helped plan home evening	Regularly	30	19
	Frequently	23	15
	Occasionally	50	32
	Seldom	38	24
	Never	16	10
	Totals	157	100
^c Perceived frequency with which subject's family discussed questions or problems which were important to the subject	Regularly	54	34
	Frequently	40	25
	Occasionally	39	25
	Seldom	15	10
	Never	9	6
	Totals	157	100
^d Perceived frequency with which subject's family followed home evening manual lessons	Regularly	70	45
	Frequently	38	24
	Occasionally	29	18
	Seldom	12	8
	Never	8	5
	Totals	157	100

^a Related to hypothesis one. ^c Related to hypothesis three.

^b Related to hypothesis two. ^d Related to hypothesis four.

TABLE VII
CORRELATIONS OF VARIABLES IN HYPOTHESES
ONE THROUGH FOUR

Dependent Variables	Independent Variables			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Attitude toward home evening scores for boys in sample A	.03	.30**	.38**	.45**
Attitude toward home evening scores for girls in sample A	.30*	.31*	.44**	.26*
Attitude toward home evening scores for boys and girls in sample A combined	.14	.35**	.44**	.39**

(1) Perceived frequency with which subject's family followed prescribed manual.

(2) Perceived frequency with which subject participated in planning home evening.

(3) Perceived frequency with which subject participated in presenting home evening lessons.

(4) Perceived frequency with which subject's family discussed questions or problems important to the subject.

* Significant at the .05 level.

** Significant at the .01 level.

The first hypothesis stated that the more teen-agers perceive that their family's home evening follows the prescribed manual the less positive will be their attitudes toward the concept of home evening. None of the correlations were in the predicted negative direction.

The second hypothesis stated that the more teen-agers perceive themselves as participating in planning their family's home evening the more positive will be their attitudes toward the concept of home evening. All correlations were positive, in the predicted direction, and significant at the .01 or .05 level.

The third hypothesis stated that the more teen-agers perceive themselves as participating in presenting home evening lessons the more positive will be their attitudes toward the concept of home evening. All correlations were positive, in the predicted direction, and significant at the .01 or .05 level.

The fourth hypothesis stated that the more teen-agers perceive their family as discussing questions or problems which are important to them during their family's home evening, the more positive will be their attitude toward the concept of home evening. All correlations were positive, in the predicted direction, and significant at the .01 or .05 level of confidence.

The fifth hypothesis stated that:

(a) When teen-agers perceive their father as task oriented and their mother as maintenance oriented, their attitudes toward the concept of home evening will be most positive.

(b) When teen-agers perceive both parents as maintenance

oriented, their attitudes toward the concept of home evening will be less positive.

(c) When teen-agers perceive both parents as task oriented, their attitudes toward the concept of home evening will be still less positive.

(d) When teen-agers perceive their father as maintenance oriented and their mother as task oriented, their attitude toward home evening will be least positive. This hypothesis was tested by calculating analysis of variance to determine if there were significant differences in attitudes of subjects having parents with the task-maintenance orientations specified in the above hypothesis. The Newman-Keuls Sequential Range Test was to be used to determine which groups differed significantly from other groups if differences were indicated by analysis of variance.

Group one consisted of 17 subjects whose fathers were relatively task oriented and whose mothers were relatively maintenance oriented, group two consisted of 8 subjects whose parents were both maintenance oriented, group three consisted of 152 subjects whose parents were both task oriented, and group four consisted of 20 subjects whose fathers were maintenance oriented and whose mothers were task oriented. The four groups totaled 197 subjects. It may be of interest to note that 77 per cent of the 197 subjects perceived both parents as being task-oriented. A total of 227 subjects were not included because there was less than a 2 point

spread between the task-maintenance scores of one or both of the parents. A spread of at least 2 points was considered necessary to make task-maintenance differences meaningful.

Analysis of variance results were as follow:

<u>Scale</u>	<u>Source</u>	<u>D. F.</u>	<u>M. S.</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>P</u>
[Total of semantic differential scales]	Groups	3	153.0	.625	N. S.
	Error	193	244.7		

There were no significant differences between the groups. The mean for group one was 69.8; for group two, 76.2; for group three, 69.0; and for group four, 67.6.

V. DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS RELATED TO HYPOTHESES

None of the correlations of variables for hypothesis number one were in the predicted negative direction. For the girls there was a positive correlation which was significant at the .05 level. This might be interpreted as an indication that the more teen-age girls perceive their family as following the home evening manual the more positive would be their attitudes toward the concept of home evening. Teen-age boys' perception of how closely their family's home evening follows the prescribed manual was also opposite the hypothesized direction, but the correlation was not significant at the .05 level.

While correlations of variables in hypothesis number two were all in the predicted direction and statistically significant at either the .01 or .05 level, the correlations were low, from .30 to .35. Calculation of coefficients of determination (r^2)

suggested that these correlations could account for no more than about one-tenth of the total variance of attitudes toward home evening. It seems, therefore, that while perceived participation in planning may be related to positive attitudes toward home evening, this variable can account for only a small part of the variance.

Correlations of variables in hypothesis number three were slightly higher than in the previous hypothesis. All correlations were in the predicted direction and significant at the .01 level. Calculation of coefficients of determination suggested that these correlations could account for no more than about 16 per cent of the total variance. These findings would suggest that the correlation between perceived participation in presenting home evening lessons could account for only part of the variance of attitudes of teenagers toward home evening.

Although correlations of variables in hypothesis number four were all in the predicted direction and significant at the .01 or .05 level, the correlation for the boys' group was almost twice as high as the correlation for the girls' group. This finding suggests that perception of their family as discussing questions or problems of importance during home evening would be more closely related to positive attitudes toward home evening among boys than it would be among girls. Even with the boys, however, this variable could account for no more than 20 per cent of the total variance in attitudes toward home evening.

There were no significant differences between the groups analyzed in hypothesis number five, and, therefore, there appears to be no support for this hypothesis. Inspection of the F-ratio and group means suggested that combining the two smallest groups, groups one and two, in an attempt to obtain significance would be futile. There was greater variance in attitudes within groups than between groups.

VI. FINDINGS NOT RELATED TO HYPOTHESES

A number of open-end questions were included in the questionnaire for the purpose of exploring factors other than those tested in the hypotheses which might be related to attitudes toward home evening. Each question was considered separately and responses tabulated according to the number of times recurrent themes were mentioned. Data reported by the three judges who analyzed the open-end question responses are reported separately along with the averages for the three judges.

Question one in section B of the questionnaire was designed to determine who saw to it that home evening was held in the subject's family. Subjects whose families held home evening relatively often filled out section B. The findings are presented in Table VIII. Teen-agers perceived that their father and mother jointly saw to it that home evening was held in the majority (52.9 per cent) of instances. Teen-agers reported that mothers

TABLE VIII

RESPONSE OF SAMPLE A TEEN-AGERS TO THE QUESTION: WHO USUALLY
SEES TO IT THAT HOME EVENING IS HELD IN YOUR FAMILY?

Answers	N	%
Father	22	14.0
Mother	39	24.8
Both father and mother	83	52.9
Others	<u>13</u>	<u>8.3</u>
Totals	157	100.0

usually saw to it that home evening was held in 24.8 per cent of the homes, as compared with 14.0 per cent for fathers.

Question six in section B asked who the subject would prefer to have lead his family home evening. Related findings are presented in Table IX. Almost half (45.1 per cent) of the respondents preferred to have both father and mother lead their home evening. A number of responses included under "other" suggested that children and parents take turns leading home evening.

Only students whose families either did not hold home evening or held it very infrequently were asked to fill out section A. Question one in section A asked subjects with home evening experience why their family had stopped holding home evening. The frequencies with which various themes were mentioned in response to the question are summarized in Table X, page 65. Both girls and boys blamed discontinuence of home evening on inability to get the family together at the same time due to conflicting activities more often than any other theme. A lack of interest or desire on the part of family members was the next most prominent theme.

Question two, section A, asked why the subject's family did not hold home evening at the time the questionnaire was filled out. A summary of responses is contained in Table XI, page 66. As with the previous question, time conflicts and a lack of interest or desire were mentioned most often.

Question three, section A, asked if the subject would like

TABLE IX

RESPONSE OF SAMPLE A TEEN-AGERS TO THE QUESTION: WHO WOULD YOU PREFER TO HAVE LEAD YOUR FAMILY HOME EVENING?

Answers	N	%
Father	38	24.20
Mother	26	16.56
Both father and mother	74	47.13
Others	<u>19</u>	<u>12.11</u>
Totals	157	100.00

TABLE X

THEMES FROM SAMPLE B TEEN-AGERS' RESPONSE TO THE QUESTION: IF YOUR FAMILY HELD HOME EVENING A FEW TIMES AND THEN STOPPED, WHY DO YOU THINK THEY STOPPED?

Theme	Number of times theme was mentioned											
	Judge A			Judge B			Judge C			Judge average ^a		
	Boys	Girls	Both	Boys	Girls	Both	Boys	Girls	Both	Boys	Girls	Both
a. Can't get together at same time	50	76	126	46	73	119	61	82	143	52	77	129
b. Not interested, lack desire, or bored	27	34	61	25	27	52	28	29	57	27	30	57
c. No cooperation or participation	5	9	14	2	2	4	6	4	10	4	5	9
d. One parent non-member of the church	1	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	3	1	1	2
e. Either or both parents inactive	2	3	5	2	4	6	2	7	9	2	5	7
f. Family does other things together	5	4	9	3	2	5	3	2	5	4	3	7
g. Other	4	5	9	27	21	48	13	5	18	15	10	25
Totals	94	132	226	106	130	236	114	131	245	105	131	236

^aAverages are to the nearest whole number.

TABLE XI

THEMES FROM SAMPLE B AND C TEEN-AGERS' RESPONSE TO THE QUESTION:
WHY DOESN'T YOUR FAMILY HOLD HOME EVENING NOW?

Theme	Number of times theme was mentioned											
	Judge A			Judge B			Judge C			Judge average ^a		
	Boys	Girls	Both	Boys	Girls	Both	Boys	Girls	Both	Boys	Girls	Both
a. Can't get together at same time	63	85	148	55	77	132	67	84	151	62	82	144
b. Lack of interest, de- sire, enthusiasm	24	30	54	24	25	49	29	27	56	26	27	53
c. Forget to hold it or not regularly	8	4	12	9	7	16	8	5	13	8	5	13
d. Parents not active in the Church	7	8	15	7	5	12	6	8	14	7	7	14
e. Family does other things together	6	5	11	5	9	14	5	6	11	5	7	12
f. Other	7	6	13	20	11	31	7	4	11	11	7	18
Totals	115	138	253	120	134	254	122	134	256	119	135	254

^aAverages are to the nearest whole number.

to have home evening in his family, and why or why not. Responses are summarized in Table XII. More girls (61 per cent) than boys (39 per cent) wanted to have home evening. Combining responses of girls and boys, 64 per cent wanted to have family home evening compared with 36 per cent who did not. The most mentioned reason for wanting to have home evening was that it would promote unity and understanding in the family. The reasons most often given for not wanting to have family home evening were that the subjects "would rather do other things such as watch T. V. or be with friends," or they were "too busy with homework, etc.," and had no time.

Question four, section A, asked what kinds of things the subject would like to do during home evening if his family decided to hold it. The frequency with which various themes were mentioned are presented in Table XIII, page 69. The most common theme was a desire to "have activities--shows, outings, games, songs, and creative activities." A desire to have interesting lessons was often expressed. Desires to discuss family or personal problems and to learn more about the church were also mentioned quite often.

Question five, section A, asked students with little home evening experience who they would prefer to have lead their family home evening. The findings are presented in Table XIV, page 70. A combination of father and mother was preferred most often. The preference pattern indicated in this question is similar to that

TABLE XII

THEMES FROM SAMPLE B AND C TEEN-AGERS' RESPONSE TO THE QUESTION: WOULD YOU LIKE TO HAVE HOME EVENING IN YOUR FAMILY? WHY OR WHY NOT?

Theme	Number of times theme was mentioned											
	Judge A			Judge B			Judge C			Judge average ^a		
	Boys	Girls	Both	Boys	Girls	Both	Boys	Girls	Both	Boys	Girls	Both
Yes	60	91	151	60	94	154	61	94	155	60	93	153
a. Would bring family closer together. .	30	58	88	30	51	81	31	56	87	30	55	85
b. Would be interesting and fun . . .	7	20	27	7	20	27	10	14	24	8	18	26
c. Opportunity to learn about Church	13	20	33	7	11	18	8	16	24	9	16	25
d. Other	5	9	14	13	11	24	4	8	12	7	9	16
No	50	34	84	52	35	87	51	36	87	51	35	86
a. Would rather do other things--TV .	8	3	11	6	1	7	17	16	33	10	7	17
b. Would rather do other things with family	5	1	6	3	2	5	5	2	7	4	2	6
c. Too busy with home work--no time . .	14	9	23	11	5	16	11	7	18	12	7	19
d. Other	26	23	49	31	25	56	15	10	25	24	19	43
Totals	218	268	486	220	255	475	213	259	472	215	261	476

^aAverages to the nearest whole number.

TABLE XIII

THEMES FROM SAMPLE B AND C TEEN-AGERS' RESPONSE TO THE QUESTION: WHAT KINDS OF THINGS WOULD YOU LIKE TO DO DURING HOME EVENING IF YOUR FAMILY DECIDED TO HOLD IT?

	Number of times theme was mentioned											
	Judge A			Judge B			Judge C			Judge average ^a		
	Boys	Girls	Both	Boys	Girls	Both	Boys	Girls	Both	Boys	Girls	Both
a. Have activities-- shows, outings, etc.	41	70	111	34	68	102	33	60	93	36	66	102
b. Have interesting lessons	20	39	59	15	33	48	19	37	56	18	36	54
c. Have refreshments .	15	20	34	12	16	28	12	20	32	13	19	32
d. Have more grown-up activities, stories	6	8	14	5	4	9	5	6	11	5	6	11
e. Discuss family or personal problems .	18	29	47	12	22	34	10	20	30	13	24	37
f. Learn more about the Church, scriptures .	18	20	38	16	18	34	17	22	39	17	20	37
g. Other	5	7	12	27	12	39	17	12	29	16	10	26
Totals	123	193	316	121	173	294	113	117	290	118	181	299

^aAverages are to the nearest whole number.

TABLE XIV

THEMES FROM SAMPLE B AND C TEEN-AGERS' RESPONSE TO THE QUESTION: WHO
WOULD YOU PREFER TO HAVE LEAD YOUR FAMILY HOME EVENING?

	Number of times theme was mentioned											
	Judge A			Judge B			Judge C			Judge average ^a		
	Boys	Girls	Both	Boys	Girls	Both	Boys	Girls	Both	Boys	Girls	Both
a. Father	29	16	45	29	15	44	29	15	44	29	15	44
b. Mother	20	24	44	20	24	44	19	24	43	20	24	44
c. Both father & Mother	58	73	131	58	73	131	59	73	132	58	73	131
d. Self	1	4	5	1	3	4	1	1	2	1	3	4
e. Brother or sister	3	3	6	3	3	6	3	4	7	3	3	6
f. Take turns, alternate	7	13	20	8	12	20	8	11	19	8	12	20
g. Grandparents	1	3	4	1	3	4	1	5	6	1	4	5
h. Uncle or aunt	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1
Totals	119	137	256	120	134	254	120	134	254	120	135	255

^aAverages to the nearest whole number.

of students with greater home evening experience described in Table IX, page 64.

Question six, section A, asked if the teen-ager's family decided to hold home evening, would he like to help plan for it and help present the lesson. The subject was also asked why or why not. Responses are summarized in Table XV. More girls (79 per cent) than boys (56 per cent) indicated a desire to participate. There were more boys (56 per cent) who indicated a desire to participate than there were who indicated a desire not to participate (44 per cent). There were also more girls (79 per cent) who desired to participate than those who desired not to (21 per cent). Combining the responses of girls and boys, 68 per cent indicated a desire to participate, while 32 per cent indicated a desire not to participate.

The subjects were asked to respond to several questions based on incomplete stories included in the questionnaire. Boys responded to stories based on male characters, while girls responded to stories based on female characters. Two questions following each story asked why the subject thought the main character in the story felt the way he or she did about home evening, and what kinds of things the subject thought the main character's family did during home evening.

Responses to questions based on the story of Helen and Maxine are presented in Table XVI, page 73. Only girls were asked

TABLE XV

THEMES FROM SAMPLE B AND C TEEN-AGERS' RESPONSE TO THE QUESTION: IF YOUR FAMILY DECIDED TO HOLD HOME EVENING, WOULD YOU LIKE TO HELP PLAN FOR IT AND HELP PRESENT THE LESSONS? WHY OR WHY NOT?

	Number of times theme was mentioned											
	Judge A			Judge B			Judge C			Judge average ^a		
	Boys	Girls	Both	Boys	Girls	Both	Boys	Girls	Both	Boys	Girls	Both
Yes	60	100	160	62	104	166	62	100	162	62	101	163
a. More interesting or fun if all do . . .	23	47	70	15	36	51	17	33	50	18	39	57
b. Would help person learn and grow . .	15	38	53	11	21	32	25	45	70	17	35	52
c. All would feel included	16	21	37	17	19	36	19	15	34	17	18	35
d. Other	3	3	6	15	20	35	4	6	10	7	10	17
No	47	26	73	50	26	76	46	28	74	48	27	75
a. Don't want to do it	15	14	29	13	11	24	16	15	31	15	13	28
b. Wouldn't know how .	3	2	5	4	1	5	3	2	5	3	2	5
c. Too hard	1	1	2	1	3	4	1	0	1	1	1	2
d. Waste of time or boring	17	8	25	6	0	6	12	3	15	12	4	16
e. Afraid of people .	2	1	3	0	0	0	1	2	3	1	1	2
f. Other	3	3	6	18	8	26	8	4	12	10	5	15
Totals	205	264	469	212	249	461	214	253	467	210	256	466

^aAverages are to the nearest whole number.

TABLE XVI

THEMES FROM ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS ON
STORY OF HELEN AND MAXINE^a

Theme	Number of times theme was mentioned			
	Judge A	Judge B	Judge C	Judge Av.
Question one ^b				
a. Lessons uninteresting, read, not for proper age level, etc.	138	134	123	132
b. No family participation in planning, presenting lessons	56	48	59	54
c. No activities	13	6	10	10
d. No refreshments	0	1	1	1
e. No discussion of family problems or plans	10	3	10	8
f. Poor family relationships	45	42	40	42
g. Negative attitude--doesn't want to learn or participate	35	34	54	41
h. Conflicting activities	25	13	16	18
i. Other	16	8	7	10
Question two ^c				
a. Lessons uninteresting, read, strictly following manual	139	144	164	149
b. No family participation	32	20	33	28
c. No activities	32	24	34	30
d. No refreshments	1	5	3	3
e. No discussion of family problems or plans	14	2	8	11
f. Discuss only the Church	12	7	4	8
g. Other	24	51	25	33

^aOnly girls responded to this story.

^bWhy do you think Helen feels the way she does about home evening?

^cWhat kinds of things do you think Helen's family does during home evening?

to respond to this story which depicted Helen as having a negative attitude toward home evening. The most commonly perceived reason for Helen's negative attitude was that the lessons were uninteresting and not adapted to her age-level. The most common guess as to what Helen's family did during home evening was that they had uninteresting, and poorly prepared lessons which were not adapted to her age-level.

Responses to questions based on the story of Judy and Donna are summarized in Table XVII. This story depicted Judy as having a positive attitude toward home evening. The most commonly perceived reasons for Judy's positive attitude were that the lessons were interesting, short, well prepared, and geared to all family members; that the family participated in planning and presenting lessons; and that there were probably good relationships among family members. The most common guess as to what Judy's family did during home evening was that they had lessons which were interesting, short, well prepared, and geared to all family members; that the family participated in planning and presenting lessons; and that they had activities.

Themes related to answers to questions concerning the story of Ned and Ben are presented in Table XVIII, page 76. This story depicted Ned as having a positive attitude toward home evening. The most commonly perceived reasons for Ned's positive attitude were that the lessons were interesting, short, well prepared, and geared to all; and that there were good family relationships.

TABLE XVII

THEMES FROM ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS ON
STORY OF JUDY AND DONNA^a

Theme	Number of times theme was mentioned			
	Judge A	Judge B	Judge C	Judge Av.
Question one ^b				
a. Lessons interesting, short, prepared, geared to all	86	80	92	86
b. Family participation in planning and presenting lessons .	83	77	90	83
c. Activities	40	24	29	31
d. Refreshments	0	1	3	1
e. Discussions of family problems or plans	7	12	6	8
f. Good family relationships . .	73	66	74	71
g. Positive attitude--wants to learn or participate	21	23	25	23
h. Other	13	9	5	9
Question two ^c				
a. Lessons interesting, short, prepared, geared to all. . . .	95	78	120	98
b. Family participation in planning and presenting lessons .	52	50	80	61
c. Activities	116	105	102	108
d. Refreshments	37	36	40	38
e. Discussions of family problems or plans	39	38	23	33
f. Other	24	30	20	25

^aOnly girls responded to this story.

^bWhy do you think Judy feels the way she does about home evening?

^cWhat kinds of things do you think Judy's family does during home evening?

TABLE XVIII

THEMES FROM ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS ON
STORY OF NED AND BEN^a

Theme	Number of times theme was mentioned			
	Judge A	Judge B	Judge C	Judge Av.
Question one ^b				
a. Lessons interesting, short prepared, geared to all . . .	85	101	83	90
b. Family participation in planning and presenting lessons .	29	24	37	30
c. Activities	31	12	19	21
d. Refreshments	4	4	5	4
e. Discussion of family problems or plans	17	12	14	14
f. Good family relationships . .	44	55	68	56
g. Positive attitude--wants to learn or participate	39	18	44	34
h. Other.	53	47	14	38
Question two ^c				
a. Lessons interesting, short, prepared, geared to all. . . .	105	92	113	103
b. Family participation in planning and presenting lessons .	22	25	52	33
c. Activities	114	106	94	105
d. Refreshments	44	47	43	45
e. Discussions of family problems or plans	43	42	37	41
f. Other.	33	40	28	34

^aOnly boys responded to this story.

^bWhy do you think Ned feels the way he does about home evening?

^cWhat kinds of things do you think Ned's family does during home evening?

This would suggest that good family relations are perceived by these teen-agers as encouraging the holding of home evening. The most common guess as to what Ned's family did during home evening was that they had lessons which were interesting, short, well prepared, and geared to all; and that they had activities.

Responses to questions based on the story of Walter and Martin are summarized in Table XIX. This story depicted Walter as having a negative attitude toward home evening. The most commonly perceived reason for Walter's negative attitude was that lessons were uninteresting, read, long, poorly prepared, or were not for the proper age-level.

There was, with few exceptions, a general pattern of agreement between the responses given by girls and boys. Girls emphasized the relationship of planning and presenting lessons to a positive attitude more than did boys. Boys and girls seemed to be in agreement that poor lessons were the factor most commonly related to negative attitudes toward home evening.

Although no support was found for the relationship of teen-agers' attitudes toward home evening and the task-maintenance orientations of their parents as predicted in hypothesis five, page 57, analysis not directly related to this hypothesis did reveal significant differences in teen-agers' attitudes toward home evening when task-maintenance orientations of fathers and mothers were analyzed separately.

TABLE XIX

THEMES FROM ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS ON
STORY OF WALTER AND MARTIN^a

Theme	Number of times theme was mentioned			
	Judge A	Judge B	Judge C	Judge Av.
Question one ^b				
a. Lessons uninteresting, read, not for proper age level, etc.	136	117	120	124
b. No family participation in planning, presenting lessons	31	23	28	27
c. No activities	40	30	34	35
d. No refreshments	0	1	1	1
e. No discussions of family problems or plans	6	1	7	5
f. Poor family relationships	21	20	21	21
g. Negative attitude--doesn't want to learn or participate	15	19	28	21
h. Conflicting activities	26	10	18	18
i. Other	14	24	8	15
Question two ^c				
a. Lessons uninteresting, read, strictly following manual	131	129	161	140
b. No family participation	16	10	11	12
c. No activities	31	14	18	21
d. No refreshments	0	3	3	2
e. No discussions of family problems or plans.	6	4	2	4
f. Discuss only the Church	15	9	8	11
g. Other	31	55	15	34

^aOnly boys responded to this story.

^bWhy do you think Walter feels the way he does about home evening?

^cWhat kinds of things do you think Walter's family does during home evening?

Fathers and mothers were each divided into the following groups using group means as a reference point: (a) Those below the mean on both task and maintenance scores were group one. (b) Those below the mean on task but above the mean on maintenance were group two. (c) Those above the mean on task but below the mean on maintenance were group three. (d) Those above their group means on both task and maintenance scores were group four. Group means for father and mother task-maintenance scores are reported in Table II, p. 49. Fathers or mothers with task scores between 23 and 19, and maintenance scores between 21 and 17 were not included in the analysis. A total of 344 fathers and 327 mothers were analyzed.

Analysis of variance results for fathers were as follow:

<u>Scale</u>	<u>Source</u>	<u>D. F.</u>	<u>M. S.</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>P</u>
[Total of semantic differential scales]	Groups	3	2338.2	10.8	.0005
	Error	340	216.1		

The Newman-Keuls Sequential Range Test was next used to determine how each group of fathers differed from each other group of fathers. The results were as follow:

<u>Groups</u>	<u>Attitude Means</u>	<u>Groups</u>		
		<u>1</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>2</u>
4	77.7	10.2*	6.6	3.7
2	74.0	6.5	2.9	
3	71.0	3.6		
1	67.4			

*Significant at the .01 level.

It can be seen that only group one and group four differed significantly at the .01 level.

Analysis of variance results for mothers were as follow:

<u>Scale</u>	<u>Source</u>	<u>D. F.</u>	<u>M. S.</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>P</u>
[Total of semantic differential scales]	Groups	3	2407.1	11.7	.0005
	Error	323	206.1		

The Newman-Keuls Sequential Range Test was then used to determine how each group of mothers differed from each other group of mothers. Results were as follow:

<u>Groups</u>	<u>Attitude Means</u>	<u>Groups</u>		
		<u>1</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>2</u>
4	76.7	10.5*	4.5	4.2
2	72.5	6.4	.4	
3	72.2	6.0		
1	66.2			

*Significant at the .01 level.

Only group one and group four differed significantly at the .01 level.

In summary, when task-maintenance scores of fathers and mothers were analyzed separately, parents who were above their group mean in both task and maintenance differed significantly from parents who were below their group mean in both task and maintenance in relation to the attitudes toward home evening held by their teen-age children. The differences between these groups seem to be related to the total quantity of interaction between parents and their children as perceived by the teen-agers, rather than to relative differences in task-maintenance orientations of the parents. When interaction between parents and their children was high, children tended to have positive attitudes toward home evening.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

In this chapter the investigator has summarized the problem, methodology, findings, discussion of the findings, and conclusions of the study. Recommendations for further research are also presented.

I. THE PROBLEM

The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints attempted to provide through the Family Home Evening Program a means of helping member families to deal more effectively with contemporary problems through the application of religious principles in daily activities. The general purpose of this study was to identify factors related to attitudes of teen-agers toward the concept of home evening. Hypotheses involving the relationship between certain factors and attitudes toward home evening were tested. A number of open-end questions and incomplete stories were included in the questionnaire for the purpose of exploring factors other than those tested in the hypotheses which might be related to attitudes toward home evening.

II. METHODOLOGY

A questionnaire was designed to measure attitudes toward the

concept of home evening, and factors related to such attitudes.

A cluster sample of twenty-three classes of ninth-grade seminary students was selected from the Salt Lake Valley South Seminary District. Of the original sample of 479 subjects, 55 were not included in the analysis for reasons given in Chapter III, page 40. The remaining sample consisted of 220 boys and 204 girls making a total of 424 subjects.

The questionnaire was administered by the investigator to those students in attendance at the classes previously selected.

Statistics used in analyzing the data included the Pearsonian product moment correlation coefficient, and analysis of variance. Answers to open-end questions and incomplete stories were content analyzed by three independent judges.

III. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The first hypothesis stated that the more teen-agers perceive that their family's home evening follows the prescribed manual the less positive will be their attitude toward the concept of home evening. This study provided no support for the hypothesis. There was a tentative indication that the more teen-age girls perceived their family as following the home evening manual, the more positive was their attitude toward home evening.

The second hypothesis stated that the more teen-agers perceive themselves as participating in planning their family's home evening the more positive will be their attitude toward the

concept of home evening. Correlations of variables in this hypothesis were statistically significant and in the predicted direction, but low, suggesting that these correlations could account for no more than about one-tenth of the total variance of attitudes.

The third hypothesis stated that the more teen-agers perceive themselves as participating in presenting home evening lessons the more positive will be their attitudes toward the concept of home evening. Correlations of variables in this hypothesis were statistically significant and in the predicted direction, but could account for no more than 16 per cent of the total variance of attitudes.

The fourth hypothesis stated that the more teen-agers perceive their family as discussing questions or problems which are important to them during their family's home evening the more positive will be their attitude toward the concept of home evening. Correlations of variables in this hypothesis were statistically significant in the predicted direction, but relatively low. The correlation for boys was higher than for girls, accounting for not more than 20 per cent of the variance in boys' attitudes as compared with about 7 per cent for the girls.

The fifth hypothesis stated that:

(a) When teen-agers perceive their father as task oriented and their mother as maintenance oriented, their attitude toward the concept of home evening will be most positive.

(b) When teen-agers perceive both parents as maintenance

oriented, their attitude toward the concept of home evening will be less positive.

(c) When teen-agers perceive both parents as task oriented, their attitude toward the concept of home evening will be still less positive.

(d) When teen-agers perceive their father as maintenance oriented and their mother as task oriented, their attitude toward home evening will be least positive. There were no significant differences between the groups analyzed in this hypothesis. There appeared to be no support for the hypothesis.

Responses to open-end questions and incomplete stories seemed to suggest that teen-agers desire all members of the family to participate in home evening. Subjects tended to blame failure to hold home evening on inability to get the family together, and a lack of interest or desire.

A majority of both boys and girls indicated a desire to have home evening in their home. The most frequently mentioned reason for wanting to have home evening was that, "it would bring our family closer together." Preference for other activities and being "too busy" were given as reasons for not wanting to hold home evening.

Subjects tended to indicate a desire to have activities, to have more interesting lessons, and to discuss family and personal problems during home evening. The most commonly perceived reason

for negative attitudes toward home evening was that lessons were uninteresting and not adapted to the interest levels of family members. The most common reasons given for positive attitudes toward home evening were that lessons were interesting and adapted to the age-levels of family members, and that there were good relationships between family members.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

The following generalizations are applicable only to ninth-grade seminary students in the Salt Lake Valley South Seminary District living in Salt Lake County, Utah.

The findings of this study seem to suggest the following conclusions concerning factors which may influence the attitudes of teen-agers toward home evening:

1. Attitudes of teen-agers toward home evening seem to be relatively positive when (a) teen-agers perceive themselves as participating in planning their family's home evening, (b) both parents lead the family home evening or when parents and children take turns leading, (c) teen-agers perceive themselves as participating in presenting home evening lessons, (d) lessons are perceived as interesting, short, well prepared, and geared to the level of those involved, (e) teen-agers perceive family members as wanting to learn and participate, (f) home evening provides an opportunity to learn more about the Church and the Scriptures, (g) teen-agers perceive their family as discussing questions which are important to them during home evening, (h) family problems and plans are

discussed as a part of home evening, (i) home evening includes a variety of activities, (j) family relations are perceived by teen-agers as being good, and (k) teen-agers perceive a relatively high degree of interaction between themselves and their parents.

2. Attitudes of teen-agers toward home evening seem to be relatively negative when (a) teen-agers perceive themselves as not participating in planning their family's home evening, (b) only one parent leads the home evenings without giving other family members a turn, (c) teen-agers perceive themselves as not participating in presenting home evening lessons, (d) lessons are uninteresting, read, or not for the proper age level, (e) teen-agers perceive family members as not wanting to participate or learn, (f) home evening experience does not increase the teen-ager's knowledge of the Church and the Scriptures, (g) teen-agers perceive their family as failing to discuss questions which are important to them during home evening, (h) there is little discussion of family problems or plans, (i) there are few activities, (j) family relations are perceived by teen-agers as being poor, and (k) teen-agers perceive little interaction between themselves and their parents.

3. Relative differences in task-maintenance orientations of parents as measured in this study were not significantly related to attitudes of teen-agers toward home evening.

4. It is concluded that a majority of L. D. S. teen-agers desire to have home evening in their family. The most frequently mentioned reason for wanting to have home evening was that "it would

bring the family closer together."

V. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

✓1. It is suggested that well designed experimental studies be made of the influence of various approaches to holding home evening upon attitudes of family members toward their home evening experience. One purpose of such studies could be to suggest effective ways of improving home evening morale.

✓2. There seems to be a need for a study designed to examine the nature of the influence of home evening experience upon the behavior and attitudes of family members.

3. There is a need to study the degree of agreement between verbal or written attitudes and actual behavior as it relates to the Family Home Evening Program.

4. It is suggested that a study be made to explore specifically what teen-agers perceive as an "interesting lesson adapted to their age-level."

✓5. There is a need for further research in which the amount and kind of family interaction in families could be compared with their attitudes toward home evening. Such a study could test the general hypothesis that home evening attitudes are related to the amount and kind of interaction in a given family.

✓6. A large number of subjects expressed the belief that holding family home evening would bring the family closer together. A study of the effect of home evening experience upon family unity could test the above assumption.

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX

QUESTIONNAIRE USED IN THE STUDY

Instructions: One purpose of this study is to measure the meaning of certain words. Please make your judgment on the basis of what these things mean to you. On the following page you will find a word to be judged and beneath it, a set of scales. You are to rate the word on each of these scales in order.

Here is how you are to use these scales:

If you feel that the word at the top of the page is very closely related to one end of the scale, you should place your check-mark as follows:

fair X : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : unfair
fair _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : X : unfair

If you feel that the word is quite closely related to one or the other end of the scale (but not extremely), you should place your check-mark as follows:

strong _____ : X : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : weak
strong _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : X : _____ : weak

If the word seems only slightly related to one side as opposed to the other side (but is not really neutral), then you should check as follows:

active _____ : _____ : X : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : passive
active _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : X : _____ : _____ : passive

The direction toward which you check, of course, depends upon which of the two ends of the scale seem most characteristic of the thing you're judging.

If you consider the word to be neutral on the scale, both sides of the scale are equally associated with the word, or if the scale doesn't seem to apply, then you should place your check-mark in the middle space:

safe _____ : _____ : _____ : X : _____ : _____ : _____ : dangerous

IMPORTANT:

- (1) Place your check-marks in the middle of spaces, not on the boundaries:



- (2) Be sure you check every scale for every word--do not omit any.
- (3) Never put more than one check-mark on a single scale.

Work at a fairly high speed through this test. Do not worry or puzzle over individual items. It is your first impressions, the immediate feelings about the items, that we want. On the other hand, please do not be careless, because we want your true impressions.

Rate This Word:

HOME EVENING

good	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ :	bad
negative	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ :	positive
meaningful	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ :	meaningless
painful	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ :	pleasurable
unimportant	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ :	important
wise	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ :	foolish
sad	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ :	happy
unfriendly	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ :	friendly
willing	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ :	unwilling
comfortable	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ :	uncomfortable
useful	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ :	useless
wrong	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ :	right
interesting	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ :	boring

Directions: Read each of the following statements about your father. When he is with family members, how much time does he spend doing the kind of thing mentioned? Decide whether he always, often, occasionally, seldom, or never acts in the way described. Following each statement, circle the word which best describes his behavior.

Statements about your father:

1. He spends time with family members doing things which they enjoy doing.
ALWAYS OFTEN OCCASIONALLY SELDOM NEVER
2. He reminds us that school grades are important.
ALWAYS OFTEN OCCASIONALLY SELDOM NEVER
3. He lets family members know what their duties are around home.
ALWAYS OFTEN OCCASIONALLY SELDOM NEVER
4. He praises and encourages family members.
ALWAYS OFTEN OCCASIONALLY SELDOM NEVER
5. He gives family members advice about how to solve their problems.
ALWAYS OFTEN OCCASIONALLY SELDOM NEVER
6. He is concerned with getting things done well.
ALWAYS OFTEN OCCASIONALLY SELDOM NEVER
7. He sees that the family sets goals.
ALWAYS OFTEN OCCASIONALLY SELDOM NEVER
8. He listens when family members have problems and tries to help.
ALWAYS OFTEN OCCASIONALLY SELDOM NEVER
9. He accepts the ideas of others about how to do things.
ALWAYS OFTEN OCCASIONALLY SELDOM NEVER
10. He explains the reasons behind his actions and decisions.
ALWAYS OFTEN OCCASIONALLY SELDOM NEVER

Directions: Read each of the following statements about your mother. When she is with family members, how much time does she spend doing the kind of thing mentioned? Decide whether she always, often, occasionally, seldom, or never acts in the way described. Following each statement, circle the word which best describes her behavior.

Statements about your mother:

1. She spends time with family members doing things which they enjoy doing.
ALWAYS OFTEN OCCASIONALLY SELDOM NEVER
2. She reminds us that school grades are important.
ALWAYS OFTEN OCCASIONALLY SELDOM NEVER
3. She lets family members know what their duties are around home.
ALWAYS OFTEN OCCASIONALLY SELDOM NEVER
4. She praises and encourages family members.
ALWAYS OFTEN OCCASIONALLY SELDOM NEVER
5. She gives family members advice about how to solve their problems.
ALWAYS OFTEN OCCASIONALLY SELDOM NEVER
6. She is concerned with getting things done well.
ALWAYS OFTEN OCCASIONALLY SELDOM NEVER
7. She sees that the family sets goals.
ALWAYS OFTEN OCCASIONALLY SELDOM NEVER
8. She listens when family members have problems and tries to help.
ALWAYS OFTEN OCCASIONALLY SELDOM NEVER
9. She accepts the ideas of others about how to do things.
ALWAYS OFTEN OCCASIONALLY SELDOM NEVER
10. She explains the reasons behind her actions and decisions.
ALWAYS OFTEN OCCASIONALLY SELDOM NEVER

SECTION A

1. If your family held home evening a few times and then stopped, why do you think they stopped?

2. Why doesn't your family hold home evening now?

3. Would you like to have home evening in your family? Why or why not?

4. What kinds of things would you like to do during home evening if your family decided to hold it?

5. Who would you prefer to have lead your family home evening?

<input type="checkbox"/> Father	<input type="checkbox"/> Both Father and Mother
<input type="checkbox"/> Mother	<input type="checkbox"/> Others (tell who) _____

6. If your family decided to hold home evening, would you like to help plan for it and help present the lesson? Why or why not?

SECTION B

1. Who usually sees to it that home evening is held in your family?
- | | |
|---------------------------------|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Father | <input type="checkbox"/> Both Father and Mother |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Mother | <input type="checkbox"/> Others (please tell who) _____ |
-
2. How often do you help in presenting the home evening lessons?
- | | |
|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Regularly | <input type="checkbox"/> Seldom |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Frequently | <input type="checkbox"/> Never |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Occasionally | |
3. How often do you help in planning home evening?
- | | |
|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Regularly | <input type="checkbox"/> Seldom |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Frequently | <input type="checkbox"/> Never |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Occasionally | |
4. How often during home evening does your family discuss questions or problems which are important to you?
- | | |
|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Regularly | <input type="checkbox"/> Seldom |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Frequently | <input type="checkbox"/> Never |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Occasionally | |
5. How often do you think your family follows the home evening manual lessons?
- | | |
|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Regularly | <input type="checkbox"/> Seldom |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Frequently | <input type="checkbox"/> Never |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Occasionally | |
6. Who would you prefer to have lead your family home evening?
- | | |
|---------------------------------|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Father | <input type="checkbox"/> Both Father and Mother |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Mother | <input type="checkbox"/> Others (please tell who) _____ |
-

Instructions: Read each story and answer the questions at the end.

After M. I. A. Helen and Maxine got to talking about home evening. Both girls are members of the L. D. S. Church and participate with their families in home evening. Helen says that she does not enjoy home evening and wishes that she could get out of attending.

1. Why do you think Helen feels the way she does about home evening?

2. What kinds of things do you think Helen's family does during home evening?

Judy and Donna were discussing the subject of home evening as they walked home from school. Judy is in the ninth grade. All of her family are members of the L. D. S. Church and they have been holding home evening regularly for over a year. Judy says that she really enjoys home evening and looks forward to it each week.

1. Why do you think Judy feels the way she does about home evening?

2. What kinds of things do you think Judy's family does during home evening?

Instructions: Read each story and answer the questions at the end.

Ned and Ben were discussing the subject of home evening as they were walking home from school. All of Ned's family are members of the L. D. S. Church and they have been holding home evening regularly for over a year. Ned says that he really enjoys home evening and looks forward to it each week.

1. Why do you think Ned feels the way he does about home evening?

2. What kinds of things do you think Ned's family does during home evening?

After M. I. A. Walter and Martin got to talking about home evening. Both boys are members of the L. D. S. Church and participate with their families in home evening. Walter says that he does not enjoy home evening, and wishes that he could get out of attending.

1. Why do you think Walter feels the way he does about home evening?

2. What kinds of things do you think Walter's family does during home evening?

A STUDY OF FACTORS WHICH MAY INFLUENCE ATTITUDES OF
L. D. S. TEEN-AGERS TOWARD FAMILY HOME EVENING

An Abstract of a Thesis

Presented to

the Department of Family Life Education

Brigham Young University

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Science

by

Don LeRoy Miller

August 1969

ABSTRACT

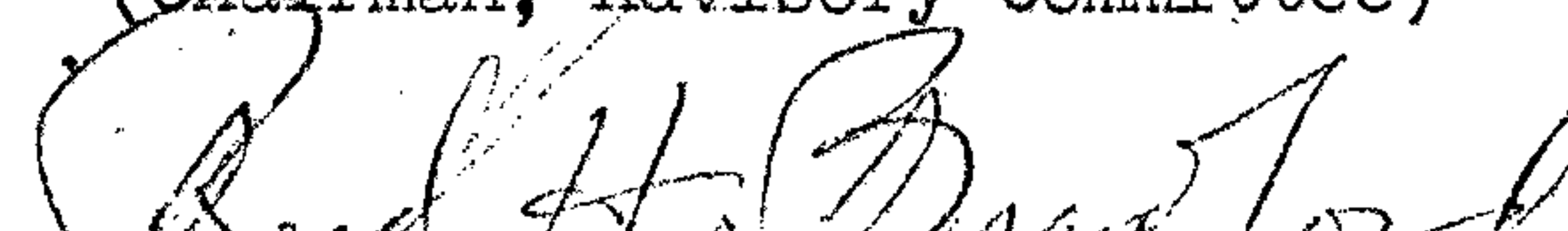
The purpose of this study was to identify factors related to attitudes of teen-agers toward the Family Home Evening Program of the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints. Hypotheses involving the relationships of certain factors to attitudes toward home evening were tested.

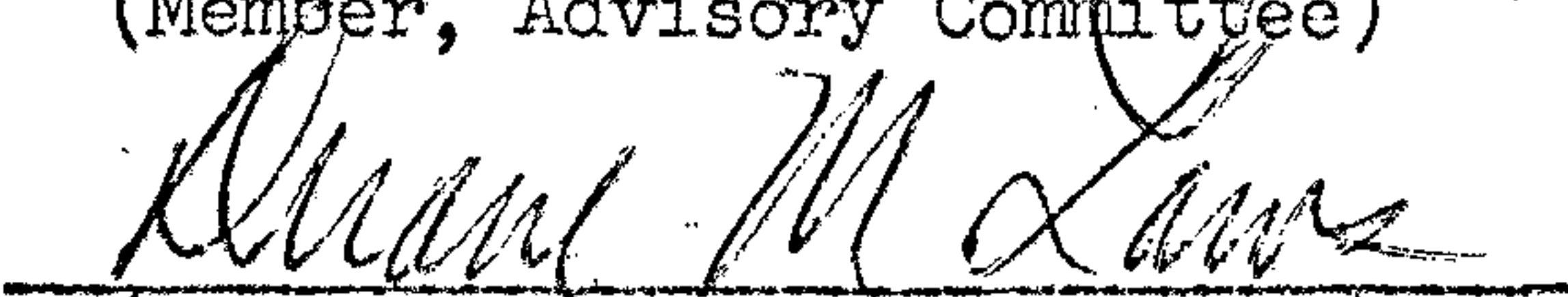
A cluster sample of twenty-three ninth-grade classes was selected and data were gathered through use of a questionnaire. Statistics used in analysis of data included the Pearsonian product moment correlation coefficient, and analysis of variance. Responses to open-end questions were content analyzed by three independent judges.

Findings suggest that perceived participation by teen-agers in planning and presenting home evening lessons is related to positive attitudes toward the program. Teen-agers' perception of their family as discussing questions or problems of importance to them during home evening also seems to be related to positive attitudes. No significant relationship was found between teen-agers' perception of relative differences in task-maintenance orientations of their parents and teen-agers' attitudes toward home evening.

APPROVED:


(Chairman, Advisory Committee)


(Member, Advisory Committee)


(Chairman, Major Department)