

2006

Framing requests for parental participation in family research

David Clay
University of South Florida

Follow this and additional works at: <https://digitalcommons.usf.edu/etd>



Part of the [American Studies Commons](#)

Scholar Commons Citation

Clay, David, "Framing requests for parental participation in family research" (2006). *USF Tampa Graduate Theses and Dissertations*.

<https://digitalcommons.usf.edu/etd/2483>

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the USF Graduate Theses and Dissertations at Digital Commons @ University of South Florida. It has been accepted for inclusion in USF Tampa Graduate Theses and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Digital Commons @ University of South Florida. For more information, please contact digitalcommons@usf.edu.

Framing Requests for Parental Participation in Family Research

by

David Clay

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
Department of Psychology
College of Arts and Sciences
University of South Florida

Major Professor: Vicky Phares, Ph.D.
Judith Becker Bryant, Ph.D.
Bill Kinder, Ph.D.
Sandra Schnieder, Ph.D.
Kevin Thompson, Ph.D.

Date of Approval:
October 27, 2006

Keywords: children, attribution, experiment, father, affect

© Copyright 2006 , David Clay

Dedication

I would like to take this opportunity to thank those who have contributed to my successful completion of this dissertation project. This project is dedicated to my mother who died when I was seventeen. She said to me at one point that I would be a doctor, but I didn't agree with her. At the time I didn't know there were many different types of doctors besides medical doctors of which I had no interest in becoming. During those moments of self doubt and rebuke, I have often had to draw from my memories of my mother and that conversation about my becoming a doctor to fortify myself and continue on. I know she would be proud of me. This project is also dedicated to my wife who loves me despite my frailties, my brother Amos who has inspired me with his perseverance, my sister Kathy who was the first to teach me about sacrifice, my sister Madra who has always had the ability to make me laugh ("Where's my Kermit at?"), to my sister Gloria who has a wonderful disposition no matter what time you wake her up, to my sister Denise who shares my birthday, albeit separated by some years, who I believe to be a kindred spirit, and to my friends Najja, John, Tariq, Mark, and Verse, who have all inspired me in one way or another and whom I love as brothers. Finally, this project is dedicated to my Morehouse instructors and everybody else that I have failed to mention who have contributed to my growth and completion of this project.

Acknowledgments

I would like to thank Dr. Vicky Phares for all of her assistance and encouragement in helping me to complete this project. Special thanks goes to my wife Dr. Monica Watkins-Clay for her enduring patience and tolerance of my imperfections and oddities, especially while I worked to complete this project. I would also like to thank my committee members Kevin Thompson, Ph.D., Judith Becker Bryant, Ph.D., Bill Kinder, Ph.D., & Sandra Schneider, Ph.D. I would also like to thank all of the research assistants who have contributed to the completion of this research project.

Table of Contents

List of Tables	iv
List of Figures	vii
Abstract.....	viii
Introduction	1
Historical Concept of Fatherhood.....	2
Research Volunteers	7
Fathers' Participation in Research	11
Emotional Availability	20
Measurement of Emotional Availability	23
Emotional Availability in Family Research.....	25
Framing.....	29
A Framing Typology.....	32
Goal Framing.....	33
Summary.....	35
Hypotheses	42
Exploratory Questions.....	43
Method.....	44
Participants	44
Materials	49
Cover Letters.....	49
Academic Cover Letters.....	50
Behavioral Cover Letters.....	51
Athletic Cover Letters.....	51
Cover Letters Sent Via Email.....	51
Response Post Cards/Emails.....	52
Reminder Post Cards.....	52
Family Information Form.....	52
Parent Report of Parental Behavior Index – Revised (PRPBI-R).....	53
Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL).....	53
Lum Emotional Availability of Parents (LEAP) Scale.....	54
Future Contact Form.....	55
Questionnaire Instruction Letter.....	55

Debriefing Letter.....	55
Informed Consent Letter (Sent Via Interdepartmental Mail).....	55
Informed Consent Letter (Sent Via Email).....	56
Email Instructions on How to Complete the On-line Survey.....	56
Discontinuation Thank You Letter.....	56
Procedure.....	56
Results.....	60
Exploratory Analyses	77
Discussion	89
References	108
Appendices.....	119
Appendix A: Request to Participate Cover Letter: Positive/Gain Valence/Academic	120
Appendix B: Request to Participate Cover Letter: Negative/Loss Valence/Academic	121
Appendix C: Request to Participate Cover Letter: Control Group/Academic	122
Appendix D: Request to Participate Cover Letter: Positive/Gain Valence/Child Behavior.....	123
Appendix E: Request to Participate Cover Letter: Negative/Gain Valence/Child Behavior.....	124
Appendix F: Request to Participate Cover Letter: Control Group/Child Behavior.....	125
Appendix G: Request to Participate Cover Letter: Positive/Gain Valence/Athletics	126
Appendix H: Request to Participate Cover Letter: Negative/Gain Valence/Athletics	127
Appendix I: Request to Participate Cover Letter: Control/Gain Valence/Athletics	128
Appendix J: Sample Email Cover Letter	129
Appendix K: Response Postcard	131
Appendix L: Reminder Postcard	132
Appendix M: Reminder Email.....	133
Appendix N: Family Information Form.....	134
Appendix O: Parent Report of Parental Behavior Inventory - Revised (PRPBI-R)	139
Appendix P: Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL).....	141
Appendix Q: Lum Emotional Availability of Parents Scale (LEAP).....	142
Appendix R: Future Contact Form	143

Appendix S: Questionnaire Cover Letter.....	144
Appendix T: Debriefing Letter	145
Appendix U: Informed Consent Letter (Sent Via Interdepartmental Mail)	146
Appendix V: Informed Consent Letter (Sent Via Email).....	148
Appendix W: Email Instructions on How to Complete the On-line Survey	150
Appendix X: Discontinuation Web Page for On-line Survey	151
Appendix Y: Sample Characteristics.....	152
About the Author.....	End Page

List of Tables

Table 1	Frequency Count for Study Participation Classification.....	45
Table 2	Average Salary by Study Site of Potential Participants	46
Table 3	Number of Responses to Initial Request for Participation by Goal Framing.....	62
Table 4	Number of Responders Willing and Unwilling to Participate in the Study by Goal Framing.....	63
Table 5	Number of Responders Who Were Willing to Participate by Goal Framing and Completion Status	63
Table 6	Number of Potential Participants Who Responded to Contact Across Research Type.....	67
Table 7	Qualified Potential Participants by Willingness to Participate, Research Type, and Gender	68
Table 8	Female Potential Participants' Study Completion Status, Research Type and Gender	69
Table 9	Potential Father Participants Response to Contact Across Research Type	71
Table 10	Qualified Fathers and Willingness to Participate Status Across Research Type	71
Table 11	Fathers' Study Completion Status by Research Type	72
Table 12	Descriptive Statistics for LEAP and PRPBI-R Subscale Scores (Acceptance, Positive Involvement, and Withdrawal of Relations)	73
Table 13	Correlations for LEAP and PRPBI-R Subscales (Acceptance, Positive Involvement, and Withdrawal of Relations) for All Participants.....	75

Table 14	Correlations for LEAP and PRPBI-R Subscales (Acceptance, Positive Involvement, and Withdrawal of Relations) by Parental Gender	75
Table 15	T-Statistic and Descriptive Scores for Father, Mother, and Combined Self-Reported LEAP Scores and Partner LEAP Scores.	77
Table 16	Means for Self-Reported LEAP, Partner LEAP, Acceptance, Withdrawal of Relations, and Rejection by Research Type	79
Table 17	One Way ANOVA by Research Type (Academic, Athletic, or Behavioral) and Measures of Emotional Availability and Parental Warmth	80
Table 18	Means for Self-Reported LEAP, Partner LEAP, Acceptance, Withdrawal of Relations, and Rejection by Frame	81
Table 19	One Way ANOVA for Goal Framing by Measures of Parental Warmth and Emotional Availability	82
Table 20	Means and T-test Results for Mothers and Fathers on Measures of Warmth, Emotional Availability	85
Table 21	Means and T-test Results for Mothers and Fathers on Measures of Parent – Child Interactions	86
Table 22	CBCL Mean T Score and Clinical Categorization.....	87
Table 23	Correlations between Parental Emotional Availability and the CBCL	88
Table 24	One Way ANOVA of Salary by Institution	152
Table 25	Frequency Distribution for Responders and Nonresponders by Race	155
Table 26	Frequency Distribution for Responders and Nonresponders by Education Level	155
Table 27	Frequency Distribution for Responders and Nonresponders by Pay Plan	156
Table 28	Responders' and Nonresponders' Mean Age and Annual Salary	156

Table 29	Frequency Distribution for Individuals Who Qualified for Inclusion in the Study and their Willingness to Participate by University Employment.....	159
Table 30	Frequency Distribution for Individuals Who Qualified for Inclusion in the Study and their Willingness to Participate by Pay Plan	159
Table 31	Frequency Distribution for Individuals Who Qualified for Inclusion in the Study and their Willingness to Participate by Race	160
Table 32	Frequency Distribution for Individuals Who Qualified for Inclusion in the Study and their Willingness to Participate by Education Level	160
Table 33	Mean Annual Salary and Age for Individuals Who Qualified for Inclusion in the Study by Willingness to Participate Status	161
Table 34	Frequency Distribution for Individuals Who Agreed to Participate in the Study by University Employment and Completion Status	164
Table 35	Frequency Distribution for Individuals Who Agreed to Participate in the Study by Race and Completion Status	164
Table 36	Frequency Distribution for Individuals Who Agreed to Participate in the Study by Pay Plan and Completion Status	165
Table 37	Frequency Distribution for Individuals Who Agreed to Participate in the Study by Education Level and Completion Status	166
Table 38	Mean Age and Annual Salary for Individuals who Completed the Study and Those Who Did Not Complete the Study.	167

List of Figures

Figure 1. Graph of Potential Participant Responses 49

Framing Requests for Parental Participation in Family Research

David Clay

ABSTRACT

This study focused on fathers and their willingness to participate in family related research studies. Traditional expectations of parental roles have hindered the inclusion of fathers in research studies despite gradual changes in cultural norms and research studies that indicate fathers have a significant influence on the developmental outcomes of children. Recent work in this area indicates that fathers are just as likely as mothers to participate in family related research. This study sought to shed light on this issue. Employees at three large Southeastern Universities were asked to participate in one of three different types of research: Academics, Athletics, and Behavioral Functioning. The requests were manipulated to be framed as either positive, negative, or neutral requests for parental participation in the study. Requests were sent to employees either via interdepartmental mail for one institution or via email for two institutions. It was hypothesized that (1) requests framed in a negative manner would have higher rates of participation than requests framed in either a positive or a neutral manner, (2) there would be more mothers than fathers who agreed to participate in the study across research type (Academic, Athletic, and Behavioral), (3) fathers would have higher rates of participation in athletic related

research vs. academic and behavioral research, (4) the Lum Emotional Availability of Parents Scale (LEAP) would be found construct valid, and (5) parental willingness to participate in future research would be related to parental emotional availability. Only hypothesis four received strong support as the LEAP was found to be correlated with measures of parental warmth and involvement in expected directions. Additional findings revealed that mothers had a higher response rate than fathers. Implications, limitations, and future research directions are discussed.

Introduction

When initiating a research project, one of the most important concerns for researchers is the individual who is available and willing to participate in a research project. This issue is directly relevant to the representativeness of samples and to the generalizability of data (Costigan & Cox, 2001). In family research, most researchers have focused their attention on mothers and have made little effort to acquire data from fathers (Phares, Lopez, Fields, Kamboukos, & Duhig, 2005). Despite the lack of attention given to fathers in family research, we know that fathers contribute to childhood developmental outcomes and family functioning (Lamb, 2004; Phares & Compas, 1992). An area of research that has not received a lot of attention is why fathers may or may not agree to participate in research. Part of the systemic neglect of including fathers in family studies has stemmed from researchers' perceptions that fathers were unavailable for research and, therefore, fathers would not agree to participate in family studies. The current study sought to evaluate whether fathers are willing to participate in family-related research. The literature on fatherhood is reviewed to discuss some of the historical changes of the concept of fatherhood and what those changes might mean for contemporary fathers. This is followed by a review of the literature on research volunteers, emotional availability, and framing manipulations. Next, how the information garnered from these separate areas of study may contribute to our understanding of why fathers participate in research is explored. Finally, a study investigating these issues is presented.

Historical Concept of Fatherhood

Although our current cultural expectations of fathers suggest that fathers are more involved in family activities and childcare, this pattern has not always been the case. In a review of the history of fatherhood in America, Lamb (2000) reported that fathers' roles have progressed through at least four stages: the moral teacher or guide, the breadwinner, the sex-role model, and the current model of a more nurturant father. Pleck and Pleck (1997) reported a somewhat different model of paternal transition. They suggested that the role of the father has gone through the stages of a stern patriarch, distant breadwinner, dad (close rather than a distant breadwinner who engages children in fun activities), and coparent. According to Pleck and Pleck (1997), our culture currently views fathers as coparents and fathers are expected to be highly involved with the family and to have a more egalitarian role than they have exhibited in the past. In contrast to Lamb (2000), Pleck and Pleck (1997) indicated that more egalitarian roles for fathers have been part of our cultural framework since the 1930's in varying degrees. LaRossa, Jaret, Gadgil, and Wynn (2000) provided some support for this conclusion in their analysis of Father's Day and Mother's Day cartoons. Based upon the premise that cartoons are representative of societal norms, they suggested that the expectation for fathers to play a more egalitarian role within the family is demonstrated by the high levels of egalitarian paternal behavior depicted in these cartoons as early as the 1940's.

Although these two models of paternal development differ somewhat, they both cover the same time period (early colonial to present day). Both models

point out that colonial fathers were expected to teach children morality and culturally appropriate behavior (Lamb, 2000; Pleck & Pleck, 1997). Both also note that the paternal and maternal roles of moral educator and nurturer, respectively, changed during the twentieth century. These roles were maintained until the Great Depression (Griswold, 1993; Lamb, 2000; Pleck & Pleck, 1997). This is where the models diverge somewhat. Lamb (2000) indicated that between the 1930's and the 1940's, family research literature conceptualized fathers as models for children's sex-role development, whereas Pleck and Pleck (1997) indicated that the idea of the nurturant father was initiated during this time. More attention was given to an equal distribution of labor for mothers and fathers in the mid 1970's when women began to actively seek a more egalitarian division of labor (Caplan & Hall-McCorquodale, 1983) and when commentators became more vocal in support of the woman's movement (Lamb, 1986, 2000). Regardless of when the changes in expectations for fathers occurred, the expectations for fathers' participation within the family have undergone change and continue to be in flux.

Although there were calls for fathers to be more active within the family during the 1970's, paternal behavior tends to lag behind society's ideal of how fathers should act (Pleck & Pleck, 1997). Yet, there are signs that fathers are engaging in behaviors that are consistent with a more egalitarian parental role. Between 1975 and 1981, two waves of data from a national sample revealed a 26% increase in the total amount of time fathers spent interacting with their children (Juster, 1985). The data also revealed an increase in the proportion of

time that fathers spent interacting with their children when compared to the proportion of time of mothers' interactions. For example, in 1975 the total interaction time between fathers and their children was equal to 33% of the total interaction time between mothers and their children. By 1981, this number had increased to 43% (Juster, 1985). When examining the amount of time fathers are engaged with children as a percentage of mothers' engagement time with children, fathers have increased the proportion of time they are engaged with children (relative to mothers' time) to anywhere between 74% and 90% (Hofferth, Pleck, Stueve, Bianchi, & Sayer, 2002; Pleck & Masciadrelli, 2004).

Does this pattern mean that men are more accepting of an egalitarian role within families? Not necessarily. In another study, increases in paternal-child interactions were a result of family structural variables (Barnett & Baruch, 1987). Barnett and Baruch (1987) evaluated differences between fathers with employed and non-employed wives. There were no group differences in the total amount of time fathers spent interacting with their children. However, there was less disparity between mothers' and fathers' interaction time with children when the mothers were employed. Additionally, fathers spent more time with their children when their families were larger, when the children were younger, when they had sons, and when they had negative attitudes about their own fathers' performance in his paternal role (Barnett & Baruch, 1987). Thus, there is some evidence that cultural norms are changing and researchers are attempting to determine the resultant changes in families' experiences (Dienhart, 1998).

Along these lines, researchers have examined the effect fathers have on their children's developmental outcomes leading to several childhood variables being associated with paternal influences such as links between fathers' antisocial and aggressive behaviors and childhood conduct disorder, links between paternal alcoholism and children's emotional/behavioral problems, and links between parental conflict and childhood behavior problems, poor cognitive functioning, and social problems (Connell & Goodman, 2002; Phares & Compas, 1992). In addition, there are strong links between the father-child relationship and fathers' nurturance, participation in father-child activities, parenting style, and children's cognitive development (Lamb, 2000). Essentially, these results present evidence that differences exist between fathers of children with psychopathology and fathers of children without psychopathology.

When the father-child relationship has been explored, fathers have been shown to have positive influences on children's social skill development, emotional intelligence, academic outcomes, general intelligence, and long-term employment outcomes as adults (Parke & Brott, 1999). Fathers' involvement with families has been shown to be influenced by a complex interaction among a number of variables across individual, family, extra-familial, institutional/formal, and cultural influences (Parke, 1996). Other studies have found men to be more active caretakers when they hold more favorable attitudes toward the paternal role (whether the mother is employed or not), when they are more satisfied with their marital relationship, when the mother is employed, when they have fewer children, when the children are older, when they work fewer hours, and when

they have higher educational attainment (Aldous, Mulligan, & Bjarnason, 1998; Bonney, Kelley, & Levant, 1999; Coley & Chase-Lansdale, 1999; McBride & Rane, 1997). Although there are some reports that many minority and low-income fathers have very little influence on the developmental outcomes of their children, it is not possible to draw this conclusion for all fathers, minority or otherwise (Coley, 2001).

Aldous et al. (1998) argued that when fathers begin child-rearing activities with younger children, a pattern is established and they are more likely to engage in long-term child rearing activities. Even with evidence that fathers are likely to increase their child-rearing activities under specific circumstances, it is not clear whether or not fathers are emotionally available for their children during these times. Thus, increasing our understanding of the influence of emotional availability, father-child interactions, and developmental outcomes is important (Dienhart, 1998; Emde, 2000; Lum & Phares, 2005). It can be argued that the “real” or “true” paternal influence upon developmental trajectories is, in large part, unknown because fathers have been so noticeably absent from family research.

In summary, cultural expectations have begun to shift toward a more egalitarian role for fathers and mothers in childcare (Lamb, 2000; Pleck & Pleck, 1997). Paternal behaviors have slowly begun to move in line with these expectations, which can be partially explained by mothers moving into the work force (Barnett & Baruch, 1987; Juster, 1985). Although we know that fathers provide important information about families and family functioning, we know

very little about the motivating factors that influence individuals (including fathers) to participate in family research.

Research Volunteers

Getting people to volunteer for research has always been a potential challenge for researchers. Although obtaining participants is often difficult for researchers, obtaining a representative sample requires even more effort and is not always accomplished successfully (Judd, Smith, & Kidder, 1991). When researchers experience recruitment difficulties or other types of systematic problems, it can lead to bias of one kind or another.

In an enormous review of the research literature, Rosenthal and Rosnow (1975) compared the characteristics of research participants and nonparticipants across several types of studies. They concluded that researchers could have varying levels of confidence (maximum, considerable, some, and minimum) regarding what characteristics their research participants are likely to possess in contrast to nonparticipants. Maximum confidence characteristics were based on a large number of studies, with most of the studies finding that participants differed from nonparticipants on the specific variables of interest. Considerable confidence characteristics were also based on a large number of studies; however, the number of studies with significant results dropped below one-third of the total number of studies evaluated. Despite this pattern, the significant studies still had to have a preponderance of results that favored the hypothesis (i.e., participants differed from nonparticipants). Characteristics described with some confidence differed from considerable confidence characteristics only in

the number of studies used for the review. Lastly, characteristics with minimum confidence did not differentiate participants and nonparticipants.

Rosenthal and Rosnow (1975) identified specific characteristics that fell within each confidence level. With maximum confidence, Rosenthal and Rosnow (1975) found that, in contrast to nonparticipants, participants were more likely to have a higher education level (especially when contact between researcher and participant was not required), have higher social class status, have higher intelligence levels (but only when participation was for the sake of research in general not when it was for atypical research such as hypnosis or sex related topics), show a greater need for social acceptance, and show more sociability. Similar participant characteristics have been found in more recent studies. Compared with nonparticipants, participants in a national study were found more likely to be highly educated, middle class, middle-aged, female, and Caucasian (Rogers & White, 1998). Research volunteers have also been found to be less anxious, less likely to use pathological defense mechanisms, and more likely to show better adjustment when compared to nonvolunteers (Waite, Claffey, & Hillbrand, 1998).

Although there are several participant characteristics associated with the considerable confidence category in Rosenthal and Rosnow's (1975) review, one in particular is relevant for the current study. They found that women were more likely than men to volunteer for general research. However, men were more likely than women to volunteer for research that was physically and emotionally stressful (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1975).

Rosenthal and Rosnow (1975) also provided information about why people may volunteer for research studies. With maximum confidence, they concluded that individuals were more likely to participate in a research project if they were interested in the topic of study and if they had expectations of being favorably evaluated by the researcher. The considerable confidence level included those who were likely to participate in research studies if they perceived the research as important, were made to feel good or competent, and if they were offered a material incentive. By providing information about what characteristics typical research participants will possess, Rosenthal and Rosnow (1975) provided a starting point for evaluating differences between participants and nonparticipants.

Volunteering for research is important, yet there is very little research examining this issue. The lack of data on this topic may be a result of the different choices researchers have for obtaining data. For example, researchers discussing differences between participants and nonparticipants may have previous data collected on the groups of interest (Gershen & McCreary, 1983; Kuehner, Angermsyer, & Veiel, 1996; Thompson & Curry, 1994) or they may have special access to a target sample (Pohl, Martinelli, & Antonakos, 1998). When these options are not available, comparisons between study participants and data collected from national norms have been used instead (Coye, 1985; Koch & Emrey, 2001). Finally, researchers may use collateral data in the form of reports from spouses, children, and others to draw conclusions on nonparticipants (Noll, Zeller, Vannatta, Bukoski, & Davies, 1997). Given

alternative sources of data, it appears that researchers may have little motivation to investigate decisions to participate or not to participate in research.

It also appears that the recruitment method and characteristics of individual participants may have an impact upon the make-up of a study's participants and the outcomes obtained. In a non-family study, the timing of the research project was related to participants' characteristics (Zelenski, Rusting, & Larsen, 2003). For example, time of day was related to participant characteristics. Zelenski, Rusting, and Larsen (2003) found that personality variables were related to what time of the day college students participate in studies, which introduces a systematic bias. Bernard and Walsh (2002) found that college student participants who completed a study early in the semester had higher Scholastic Assessment Test scores and grade point averages than those who participated later in the semester.

Some of the findings reported above have been previously discussed by Rosnow (1993) when he argued against the use of volunteer research participants because of the potential to bias research outcomes. He argued against the sole use of research volunteers, stating,

“Imagine that a researcher used volunteer subjects to develop population norms in a test standardization study. A fundamental assumption is that the resulting values are actually representative of the specified population. However, if the research relied solely on people who volunteered to be tested, the population estimates could be seriously biased. The basis of our suspicion is the third conclusion [research volunteers generally tend to have higher

intelligence levels than nonvolunteers], which implies that standardizing an intelligence test on volunteer subjects is likely to produce inflated norms. A similar hypothesis is implied for standardizing tests of the need for social approval ... and self-disclosure” (Rosnow, 1993, p. 426).

It appears that obtaining samples of convenience might be a necessity in research, but ultimately it is important to obtain random, representative samples. Although strong conclusions cannot be drawn based upon the available data, previous research suggests that unknown biases may be influencing research outcomes in unknown ways.

In summary, when evaluating characteristics of research participants, several points stand out. There is evidence that participants will generally be educated, Caucasian, middle class, female, interested in the topic, expecting a positive evaluation of themselves, and perceive the research as important (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1975). Further, the method used to obtain research participants and individual participant characteristics can have an impact upon demographic differences between participants and nonparticipants in a study (Ramich, 2002; Zelanski, Rusting, & Larsen, 2003). These issues have relevance for trying to recruit fathers into research.

Fathers’ Participation in Research

Although women are more likely to be participants in family research, including fathers in family research may not be as difficult as researchers previously thought. When fathers are asked to participate in research directly they have shown an inclination to oblige, they provide important and previously

overlooked information, and they have been found willing to participate at rates similar to those of mothers (Phares, 1995; Hops & Seeley, 1992). Further, researchers acknowledge an increase in the number of studies including fathers since the mid 1970's (Boyd, 1985; Bronstein & Cowan, 1988; Doherty, Kouneski, & Erickson, 1998; Elster & Lamb, 1982). Phares and Compas (1992) reviewed several journal publications and conducted a literature search to evaluate the level of paternal participation in family research. They reviewed 577 studies and found that 48% included mothers only, 26% included both fathers and mothers, 25% either were ambiguous about parental participation or did not analyze the data by gender, and only 1% included fathers only.

There have been increases in fathers' participation in research. However, work is still required in this area. For the purposes of this study, a review of the *Journal of Clinical Child and Adolescent Psychology* for the year 2001 and for August 2005 through August 2006 was completed. In 2001, 77.00% of the family research articles failed to include fathers. Between August 2005 and August 2006, 73.33% of the studies that collected data from parents failed to include fathers. Some studies (26.67%) did not specify which parent provided information for the study. This is an indication that fathers are still characteristically left out of family research. Other researchers have also established that fathers continue to be ignored in clinical child (Phares, Fields, Kamboukos, & Lopez, 2005) and pediatric (Phares, et al., 2005) research. Overall, there is clear evidence demonstrating the lack of attention given to fathers as opposed to mothers in family research. When fathers do agree to

participate in research it is not clear what factors influence their decision to do so since many researchers do not report refusal rates, attrition rates, or reasons for fathers' refusal (Phares, 1999).

The noted increases in fathers' research participation rates coincided with researchers' efforts to delineate similarities and differences between men and women (Eagly, 1995). During these initial changes in the family research paradigm, researchers were not immune to sexist theories and beliefs about mothers' and fathers' family roles (Caspi et al., 2001; Dienhart, 1998; Phares, 1992; Russell, 1986). These assumptions have contributed to the absence of fathers in family and child research. Many researchers have also perceived fathers as inaccessible, difficult to recruit, and unwilling to participate in research (Phares, 1992). The continued disparity between maternal and paternal participation in research is contrary to evidence indicating fathers provide significant contributions to our knowledge about families and family functioning and should participate more in family research (Phares & Compas, 1992).

Another problem in past family research was the assumption that fathers are less important in developmental outcomes than are mothers. This view was predominantly a result of traditional role expectations that relegated women to being responsible for child care (Lamb, 1986). These beliefs continue to hold despite the large numbers of mothers who are in the workforce and some subsequent role reversals allowing mothers and fathers to switch caretaker and provider roles (Morris, 2002; Russell, 1986).

Different rates of participation between mothers and fathers and the generalizability of the results may influence the degree to which we can trust results from family studies. Some research on self-selection bias has shown a bias toward participants who are well adjusted and who have a higher socioeconomic status (Anderman, Cheadle, Diehr, Shultz, & Wagner, 1995). Other research that has specifically targeted fathers has shown mixed results with some researchers finding biases between participating and nonparticipating fathers (Braver & Bay, 1992; Costigan & Cox, 2001; Hops & Seely, 1992) and at least one other researcher finding no such differences when two-parent families were explored (Phares, 1995). Braver and Bay (1992) studied couples who were getting divorced. They found that fathers who participated in the study were more likely to have joint custody of the children, a lengthier time between their divorce petition and their divorce decree, and specified visitation privileges. In a study of parental research participation, Hops and Seeley (1992) compared families based on their parental participation levels. Parents were either full participants, partial participants (they completed questionnaires but did not complete family observations), or nonparticipants. Adolescents reported less family cohesion when their fathers were nonparticipants and they reported greater levels of family distress when their fathers were partial participants than when their fathers were full participants. Mothers reported higher levels of child behavior problems and greater difficulties with problem-solving at home when fathers were partial participants than when fathers were full participants. Fathers with participating spouses had lower depression levels and were less distressed

than fathers with nonparticipating spouses. Costigan and Cox (2001) examined self-selection bias in fathers and found that fathers who participated in research were more likely to be Caucasian, older, more educated, middle class, and stable in their marital relationships and living situations compared to nonparticipants. In a comparison of participating and nonparticipating parents, Phares (1995) found no differences between the two groups of fathers. This finding was based on college students' reports of their parents' behaviors in two parent families.

Although not a direct investigation of bias in fathers' involvement in research, Ramich (2002) examined how recruitment efforts impact the composition of study participants. He compared community advertisements and letter mailing as recruitment tools. Mothers who were recruited via community advertisements had lower incomes, used more verbal aggression with fathers, and were less educated than those recruited through the mail. As part of the analysis, Ramich examined differences between mothers who were either required or not required to have the father participate in the study. Participating mothers who were not required to have fathers participate had poorer marital adjustment and had been married for a shorter period of time. These findings suggest that methodological considerations in sample selection are important as well as a balanced approach to family research that includes both parents as participants.

Although bias is important in understanding potential problems in family research, so is generalizability. The generalizability of research on fathers may

be limited due to the under-representation of certain groups, specifically, fathers who are ethnic minorities, less educated, working-class, and in troubled marriages (Hops & Seeley, 1992). Fathers who participate in research tend to be White, highly educated, have less marital ambivalence from their wives, have wives who are likely to have less traditional child rearing beliefs, have a higher occupational status, and live in smaller families with greater levels of marital stability than their nonparticipating peers (Hops & Seeley, 1992).

In a national study of paternal self-selection biases in family research, husbands of new mothers were asked to participate in a family study (Costigan & Cox, 2001). Significant demographic differences were found within the paternal sample which supported a self-selection bias. Analyses revealed that 88.8% of the participating fathers were Caucasian (compared with 80.8% of those who did not participate), 6.6% were African American (compared with 9.4% of those who did not participate), and 2.8% were Hispanic (compared with 6% who did not participate). A total of 61.6% of participants were middle class and 38.4% were working class. Participating fathers were found to have smaller family sizes, more education, and to have lived in the home more consistently over the 15 months prior to the investigation (Costigan & Cox, 2001). Other researchers have reported similar demographic outcomes in their investigations (Ehrenberg, Gearing-Small, Hunter, & Small, 2001; McBride & Rane, 1998).

Fathers who participate in research differ from fathers who do not participate in research along demographic variables and along other important domains. For example, fathers and mothers may not have equal levels of

participation in research studies. A study examining family participation in a longitudinal, hospital-based research project required that both mothers and fathers agree to participate in the study (Janus & Goldberg, 1997). Level of parental participation was measured by their activity within the study. For example, participants were assigned a value based upon whether they came into the hospital for a visit, visited the hospital and completed all questionnaires, or visited the hospital and only completed some of the questionnaires. Fathers were shown to have less active participation than mothers, which is an indication that paternal involvement in research is problematic even when fathers agree to participate. Researchers need to make a concerted effort to address paternal participation inconsistency and to be sensitive to the barriers for the research participants.

An additional problem in research participation of fathers is that many researchers measure the quantity of time fathers spend with their children while ignoring the quality of the father-child relationship (Parke, 2000). Quantity of parental involvement has been primarily measured in three ways: paternal engagement, accessibility, and responsibility (Lamb, 2000; Phares, 1999; Pleck, 1997). Paternal engagement has been described as the time that fathers spend in one-to-one interactions with their children. Paternal accessibility is reflected when fathers are in the vicinity of their children but not interacting with them directly. Activities such as cleaning around the house or working on the car in the garage while the child was in the house would qualify under this category. Lastly, paternal responsibility is referred to as a reflection of the father taking

direct responsibility for his children in particular areas of concern, such as medical appointments or homework. Taking responsibility for children does not require direct contact with them (Lamb, 2000). When considering the quality of the father-child relationship, measuring the commitment to the relationship, the level of emotional support received by the child, and the paternal perception of fatherhood is important. These factors are often overlooked in traditional objective methods of measuring paternal involvement (Coley, 2001).

The quality of father-child interactions is important in contemporary families and may be influenced by the hours worked by the mother, the perceptions men hold of their role as provider, their experience and competence as parents, and marital harmony (Dienhart, 1998). In addition, many families currently have two employed parents, often requiring that fathers be more involved in childrearing. Despite the need for fathers to increase their participation in child care, mothers still bear the greater burden in this area, especially when both parents live in the home (Parke, 2000). Simply studying the quantity of father-child interactions does not account for how an activity is completed or how the father thinks about the activity while completing it. Instead of relying upon simple measures of the quantity of parental involvement, an effort to understand the quality of parenting activities and skills can improve our understanding of the characteristics of fatherhood (Dienhart, 1998).

Another issue in paternal research is that many early investigators used mothers' reports, children's reports, or both to gather information about fathers (Boyd, 1985). Researchers have emphasized the importance of obtaining

information about children from multiple sources when possible (Achenbach, McConaughy, & Howell, 1987; De Los Reyes & Kazdin, 2004, 2005; Kaufman, 1990; Sattler, 1992; Smith & Morgan, 1994). Using multiple informants is good practice, but this method should not be used as justification for excluding fathers from family research more frequently than other family members (Caspi et al., 2001; Dedmon, 2000). It is easy to see why researchers have used collateral reports on fathers. Data show that these collateral reports have provided adequate correspondence with what would be expected from self-reports (Jacob & Windle, 1999). However, it may be difficult to rely on collateral data when the dyadic relationship is under distress, especially when asking mothers to report on their spouses or ex-spouses (Coley, 2001). Therefore, an effort to obtain information from fathers first-hand should serve as the goal in the design of family studies.

In summary, the importance of including fathers in family research cannot be overstated. There are several important issues to consider when seeking paternal participation in research. First, there are differences between fathers who participate in research and those who do not. These differences may bias research outcomes and our ability to generalize the results from these studies. Second, the rate of paternal participation in research studies varies and may differ significantly from that of maternal participation rates. Third, the measurement method used in paternal research does not adequately answer important questions regarding paternal involvement with children. Many researchers have used methods that count the number of activities an individual

may perform while leaving out important information regarding the emotions involved with the activity and the quality of the interaction (Lamb, 1986). Finally, using others to report on fathers should be complementary to data obtained from fathers themselves, not the primary source of data. These issues are important because fathers can contribute relevant information to help us understand family dynamics and children's functioning. Although there are signs that researchers are studying fathers more than in the past, many authors fail to report why they do not include both parents and also fail to include refusal and attrition rates (Phares, 1999).

Emotional Availability

Is it possible that paternal participation in research may also be related to paternal emotional availability? Before that question can be answered, emotional availability in parents must be examined. Emotional availability refers to a parent's acceptance of his or her child's varying affects by displays of responsiveness, sympathy, and warmth (Biringen & Robinson, 1991; Easterbrooks & Biringen, 2000). When discussing emotional availability, it is important to consider attachment theory (AT) due to the overlap between the two constructs (Bretherton, 2000; Easterbrooks & Biringen, 2000). Attachment theory developed as a result of researchers' observations of important adaptive changes occurring in parent-infant dyads that have been shown to enhance an infant's sense of attachment (Bowlby, 1982; Emde, 2000). Attachment theorists postulated that the emotional bonding between a parent and a child is an important part of the child's developmental outcomes and of the child's

perceptions of others. Studying how the attachment process influences children and the way they interact with the world, attachment theorists have indicated that parents and children form three different types of attachment: secure, avoidant, and ambivalent (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978). Children who are securely attached to parents have positive and relaxed behaviors when they are reunited with their parents after a period of separation. Children with an avoidant attachment style display a neutral effect and minimal, polite responses when reunited with their parents. Lastly, children who display an ambivalent attachment style are generally preoccupied with their relationship to their attachment figure which in turn causes exploring, playing, or current activities to be neglected. These forms of attachment are thought to be stable and endure throughout the life span, however, available data on this issue are somewhat mixed (Gallo, Smith, & Ruiz, 2003).

Similar to attachment, the construct of emotional availability is used to explore relationships between parents and children. Emotionally available parents, in addition to being warm and supportive, are thought to be non-intrusive, non-hostile, adept at providing structure, and adept at sending signals to and receiving emotional signals from their child. From the children's side, emotional availability is influenced by children's social, emotional, and physical responsiveness toward their parents as they interact with them (Biringen & Robinson, 1991). Although the constructs of attachment and emotional availability have some overlap between their theoretical conceptualizations, such as parents providing a secure base from which their children explore, the

emotional availability construct places more emphasis on parental affective understanding and parents' ability to communicate their affective responses effectively (Biringen, 2000; Bretherton, 2000; Easterbrooks & Biringen, 2000). Parents' ability to read and understand their children's emotional signals can influence parental emotional availability. Thus, it is important to consider both a parent's and a child's behavior in a relational context (Biringen, 2000).

Biringen (2000) argued that the interaction between the parent and the child is an important aspect of emotional availability despite the view that their behaviors are separate dimensions. For example, in a study examining emotional availability, parent-child interactions were found to be related to the child's behavior problems. Children with problem behaviors were more likely to report receiving less emotional support and more emotional rejection from their parents than children without behavior problems (Fry & Grover, 1983). In another study, children who were found to have a disorganized attachment style during infancy had less emotionally available mothers during middle childhood when they were compared to children who had secure attachment relationships during infancy (Easterbrooks, Biesecker, & Lyons-Ruth, 2000).

Another distinction between attachment and emotional availability revolves around the behaviors related to each concept. Although the attachment behavioral system and emotional availability may be observed under similar circumstances such as when a child experiences threat, danger, or distress, emotional availability may also be observed across a wider range of emotions and under benign circumstances such as when a child is at play or when a

parent teaches a child a new task (Easterbrooks & Biringen, 2000). Based upon the available data, emotional availability has been recognized as an important component for the development of a child's emotional and social self in a healthy and appropriate way (Easterbrooks & Biringen, 2000).

Measurement of Emotional Availability

Although no measure can entirely account for why children develop problem behaviors and emotional difficulties, assessing parental emotional availability can be an important tool in both family research and clinical treatment (Lum, Phares, & Roberts, 1996). The emotional availability construct has been measured primarily by means of observational techniques (Biringen et al., 2000; Bretherton, 2000). A popular observational measure of emotional availability is Biringen's (2000) Emotional Availability Scales (EAS). The EAS contains several parental subscales (sensitivity, structuring, nonintrusiveness, and nonhostility) and two child scales (involvement of the parent and responsiveness to the parent). Observers are required to rate participant behaviors according to where they fall along a continuum for each of these subscales. Primarily used for observations of parents with infants and toddlers, this measure has been reported to have good interrater reliability scores which range from .75 - 1.00 (Aviezar, Sagi, Joels, Ziv, 1999; Carter, Little, & Garrity-Rokous, 1998; Easterbrooks, Lyons-Ruth, Biesecker, & Carper, 1996; Robinson & Spieker, 1996; Ziv, Aviezar, Gini, Sagi, Koren-Karie, 2000).

The EAS has good interrater reliability; however, it is somewhat time intensive due to the necessity of observing individual behaviors in context. In

addition, the EAS is not appropriate for older children and adolescents. The Lum Emotional Availability of Parenting (LEAP) scale is a less time intensive measure of emotional availability (Lum & Phares, 2005; Lum, Phares, & Roberts, 1996). The LEAP was originally designed to allow older adolescents and young adults to provide retrospective reports on their parents' emotional availability. Prior to the development of this scale, there were no self-report measures that allowed individuals to report on their parents.

In a college sample, the LEAP correlated well with other measures of parental warmth and acceptance. However, it was not a significant predictor of psychological maladjustment (Lum et al., 1996). In a school-aged sample (ages 9-17) of participants selected from both clinical and nonclinical populations, children in the clinical sample reported that their parents displayed significantly lower levels of emotional availability (Lum & Phares, 2005). Although the LEAP did not serve as a significant predictor of psychological maladjustment in the college sample, it did differentiate between school-aged children with and without psychological maladjustment. Although the relationships obtained between behavioral outcomes and the LEAP are somewhat equivocal in their support of emotional availability as an important component in children's developmental outcomes, this measure is still new and more work needs to be completed. Initial data on the LEAP suggest that it can distinguish between different parental levels of emotional availability and that parental emotional availability is related to childhood developmental outcomes.

Emotional Availability in Family Research

Family research on emotional availability has focused predominately on the mother-child dyad with very little attention given to the father (Biringen, 2000). In fact, Bretherton (2000) suggests that researchers would advance knowledge about emotional availability more quickly if they give more attention to the perspectives of mothers and children. This admonition to focus on mothers and children appears to have been unnecessary since researchers, both past and present, primarily used mothers as participants in research on emotional availability. Researchers using mother-child dyads without including fathers have found that high levels of parental emotional availability are related to children's prosocial interaction (Robinson & Little, 1994), toddlers' ability to identify themselves (Harel, Eschel, & Ganor, 2002), distinctions between secure-ambivalent and securely attached infants (Easterbrooks, Biesecker, & Lyons-Ruth, 2000; Ziv et al., 2000), lower anxiety levels in mothers (Oyen, Landy, & Hillburn-Cobb, 2000), language gains in children with hearing loss (Pressman, Pipp-Siegel, & Yoshinaga-Itano, 1998), child compliance, and lower levels of social fearfulness and anger in children (Taylor & Francis, 2002).

Not all researchers focus solely on the mother-child dyad. There are studies of emotional availability that have included either both mothers and fathers or fathers only. In an evaluation of language development and emotional availability, Lovas (2002) videotaped mother-child and father-child dyads and coded their behavior according to the Emotional Availability Scales (Biringen, Robinson, & Emde, 1998). She found that mother-child dyads had higher levels

of emotional availability scores than father-child dyads, and sensitive parents were less intrusive when interacting with sons than with daughters. In another study, Volling, McElwain, Notaro, and Herrera (2002) observed both mothers and fathers interacting with their children. They found mothers to be more emotionally available than fathers and that infants demonstrated more emotional competence and greater levels of effortful attention with mothers than with fathers.

Using only father-son dyads, Vogel (1998) found that fathers with higher levels of emotional availability had greater levels of relatedness within their sons. However, this outcome was found to be a result of a constellation of variables grouped around structuring and positiveness rather than sensitivity, which is typically found in mother-daughter dyads. In a retrospective account of paternal emotional availability and adult sons' same-sex intimacy, Hans (2001) asked homosexual men to report on their father's emotional availability. Fathers' emotional availability was not found to be an important factor in their sons' capacity to experience same-sex intimacy in non-sexual relationships.

Overall, these findings contribute to our understanding of the influence emotional availability has on development, but more fathers are needed in this area of research. It is important to make efforts to investigate the influence of emotional availability in the family unit as a whole and not just in the mother-child dyad. Mothers continue to be the primary caretakers for children. However, this should not hinder efforts to include fathers in the research process. Further, mothers and fathers have been shown to have similar influences on

developmental outcomes. Thus, important information is lost when fathers are not included in the research process (Silverstein, 2002).

There may be a connection between a father's level of emotional availability and his commitment to the paternal role. Commitment can be viewed as either interactional or affective. Interactional commitment refers to the extensiveness of an individual's social relationships as they relate to a particular role. In other words, interactional commitment could be gauged by the number of relationships a father has that are associated with his paternal role. Affective commitment, on the other hand, refers to the intensiveness associated with those social relationships and the emotional costs incurred if the relationships are not maintained (Stryker & Serpe, 1994).

In fact, with regard to commitment, research has shown that fathers who believe their wives evaluate them positively have stronger paternal role identities and are more invested in their children (Pasley, Futris, & Skinner, 2002; Doherty, Kouneski, & Erickson, 1998). In addition, fathers who report having a more extensive social support network are more likely to identify strongly with the father role (Pasley et al., 2002). Although social support and positive spousal evaluations of the father are related to men's greater commitment to the paternal role, having a positive attitude about the paternal role seems to be important in men's behavior within the family. When men have positive attitudes about the paternal role, they have been found to be more involved in child rearing activities (McBride & Rane, 1997; Pasley et al., 2002).

Engagement is not the same as emotional availability. However, adequate paternal support and positive attitudes in combination with more paternal involvement in child rearing may be seen as behavior consistent with fathers' affective commitment to relationships with children. Thus, they present themselves as emotionally available. Researchers argue that fathering is influenced by environmental and interpersonal factors such as mothers' expectations and behaviors, the parental relationship, economic factors, institutions, employment, and the well-being, cognitive development, and social competence of the child (Cabrera, Tamis-LeMonda, Bradley, Hofferth, & Lamb, 2000; Doherty, Kouneski, & Erickson, 1998). Thus, it appears the level of emotional availability that may be observed in fathers will potentially be influenced by several variables that are external to the individual.

To summarize, the emotional availability construct is similar to the construct of attachment with some important and distinctive differences. Emotional availability theorists indicate that the parent-child relationship is reciprocal and parents are emotionally available under both distressing and nondistressing conditions. Parents also need to be adept at communicating to their child their own emotional signals as well as be able to read the emotional signals from their child (Biringen, 2000; Easterbrooks & Biringen, 2000). Although there is empirical evidence to support the construct of emotional availability (Easterbrooks et al., 2000; Fry & Grover, 1983), most of the research on emotional availability has been conducted using mother-child dyads to the exclusion of fathers leaving a gap in our knowledge about emotional availability

and family functioning. Evaluating the possible connection between emotional and paternal involvement with their children is an interesting approach to understanding the potential for fathers to be willing to participate in family research. One theoretical conceptualization of why individuals participate in research comes from the area of framing research.

Framing

Decision-making is an everyday process. We make decisions regarding what to wear, where to go, and what to do. Many of our decisions are driven by necessity, such as the need to go to work or to school and the direction we drive to get there. Our decisions are also often influenced by external sources of information. These external sources of information influence our decision-making processes in various ways. Consider two people who are listening to the morning traffic report on two different radio stations. One station reports that traffic is moderately heavy and smooth but slow. The second station reports that the traffic is starting to pick up and is moving along smoothly. Let's assume that both of the reporters are reporting on the same traffic pattern observed at the same location on a thoroughfare. The first reporter provides a negative connotation while the second reporter provides a more positive connotation to their respective audiences. It is likely that, everything else being equal, those listening to the first report may consider and actually take an alternate route while those listening to the second report may make the assumption that traffic will not be a problem and enter the thoroughfare while traveling to work. This is an example, albeit a simple one, of the way that information presentation can

influence people's decisions without the person being aware that their decisions are influenced by the way the information is presented to them – either positively or negatively in this case.

Is framing important? The unequivocal answer to this question is “yes,” as the following literature review will demonstrate. Is framing important in helping to obtain research participants, specifically fathers as research participants? This study will evaluate this question to determine whether framing can increase fathers' willingness to participate in research. Research on framing is briefly reviewed.

Prospect theory is a well-known theory in framing research. It has been derived from the expected utility model which is the primary model used to explain risky decision-making. Expected utility theory allows that the “utility of a risky prospect is equal to the expected utility of its outcomes, obtained by weighting the utility of each possible outcome by its probability” (Tversky & Kahneman, 1981, p. 453). This process is expected to lead to decisions that allow for the greatest expected utility when choosing between two or more options. The expected utility model leaves some questions unanswered such as why choice reversals occur. Choice reversals are decisions that people make which are opposite to an earlier decision based on the same information framed in a different way (Tversky & Kahneman, 1981).

Dissatisfied with expected utility theory's inability to provide explanations for these choice reversals, Tversky and Kahneman (1981) used prospect theory to explain decision-making. They incorporated several changes to utility theory.

Their prospect theory allows for two phases in the decision making process: the initial phase in which acts, outcomes, and contingencies are framed and an evaluation phase that follows. Outcomes are stated as either positive or negative based upon a neutral reference point. Although values may differ from person to person, the authors suggest that there is an S-shaped function that is concave above the reference point and convex below it. The value function in reference to the neutral stimulus is steeper for losses than for gains and smaller numbers will show greater discrepancies than larger numbers (due to the nonlinear curve). Second, the value of an outcome is multiplied by decision weights that are not probabilities, but are monotonic functions of probabilities.

An example of decision reversals is presented in a study where participants were to make one of three choices. The first choice involved deciding between a sure win of \$30 and an 80% chance of winning \$45. More people chose the former rather than the later. Choice two involved the same scenario; however, the experimenters presented participants with a preliminary condition. Prior to making the decision, the participants had a 25% chance to get to the decision stage (stage 2) and a 75% chance of not moving on to stage two. They were instructed to decide which option they wanted to take if they reached stage two. More participants chose to accept the sure win of \$30 instead of the seemingly riskier winnings of \$45. Choice three asked participants to choose between a 25% chance to win \$30 and a 20% chance to win \$45 dollars. More people chose the \$45 dollar option in choice three. Choice three differed from choice two only in the stages allowed; choice three did not present

a 2-stage process. In choice two when multiplying the chances of reaching the second stage (.25) by the chances of winning \$45 (.80) you get .20 which is the same chance presented in choice three.

In summary, Tversky and Kahneman (1981) used prospect theory to account for choice reversals because they believed utility theory could not adequately do so while using the expected utility of an outcome as the explanation for decision-making. Prospect theory proposes that people use positive and negative reference points when making risky decisions and decision outcomes are multiplied by a decision weight. Despite its usefulness, prospect theory remains a simplified and incomplete explanation of risky prospects.

A Framing Typology.

The early work on framing and decision making led to an explosion in research in this area that, at times, led to inconsistent findings. In their efforts to clarify the confusion within the framing literature Levin, Schneider, and Gaeth (1998) outlined three framing categories: risky choice framing, attribute framing, and goal framing. Risky choice framing involves choosing between options that differ in their level of risk and are described in a positive or negative manner. Attribute framing focuses on describing a particular attribute or characteristic of an object or event in a positive or negative manner. Goal framing is when the goal of an action or behavior is framed in either a positive or negative manner. The purpose of goal framing is to evaluate the influence of behavior based on the valence provided to research participants. Because the present research is

concerned with goal framing, only this framing typology is discussed in greater detail.

Goal Framing.

Goal framing refers to the goal of an action or behavior that is framed in a positive or negative manner. More specifically, one can frame a particular issue as providing some benefit or some gain (positive frame) or as possibly preventing or avoiding a loss or deficit (negative frame). The distinguishing feature of goal framing is that both the positive/gain and the negative/loss frames are designed to enhance or produce a desired behavior. What is at issue within goal framing is whether the positive/gain or the negative/loss frame is more effective in producing the desired behavior. Research has overwhelmingly demonstrated that the negative/loss frame condition has a strong effect on research participants' behaviors.

In a study of women's intention to obtain mammograms, women were provided video messages about mammograms in one of two conditions, gain or loss framing (Banks et al., 1995). The positive/gain condition provided women with information about the benefits of obtaining a mammogram and the negative/loss condition provided women with information about the risks of not obtaining a mammogram. Consistent with the authors' hypothesis, women in the negative/loss frame condition were more likely to obtain a mammogram within twelve months of watching the video. The advantage of the negative/loss frame condition was still found when accounting for demographic variables such as

preintervention attitudes and beliefs and preventive health behaviors (Banks et al., 1995).

Another use of framing in medical research focuses on breast self-examinations. College age women were presented with information pamphlets on breast self-examinations stressing positive/gain arguments, negative/loss arguments, or no arguments (neutral condition) for self-examinations. A control group was provided a pamphlet missing the manipulated information. Four months after their exposure to the pamphlets, participants in the negative/loss condition reported more frequent breast self-examinations than the other conditions. Interestingly, the neutral group's ability to recall the information provided within the pamphlet was worse than both the positive/gain and negative/loss argument groups (Meyerowitz & Chaiken, 1987).

Goal framing has also been used in the business literature (Ganzach & Karsahi, 1995). Customers of a credit card company living in the three largest U.S. cities were targeted as part of the company's marketing campaign. Card holders whose cards were inactive for three months were called and provided information regarding the benefits of using the credit card. The initial phone call was followed with a letter in the mail. The information was provided either in terms of gains or losses when comparing the card use to other forms of payments such as using checks or cash. Over the subsequent two-month period following initial contact, the loss framing condition had a much stronger impact than the gain framing condition on whether the credit card holders used their cards for purchases. In contrast with the gain condition, participants in the loss

condition increased their use to twice that of the gain condition. Further, six months later, participants in the loss condition had better message recall than participants in the gain condition and they reported greater persuasiveness of the message than participants in the gain condition (Ganzach & Karsahi, 1995).

Overall, goal framing is thought to be a unique mechanism of behavior change. This type of framing uses both positive/gain and negative/loss attributes when presenting information to individuals. Levin and colleagues (1998) argued successfully that negative/loss frames are more effective than positive/gain frames; however, both frames are designed to lead to an increase in the desired behavior. Goal framing has successfully demonstrated the influence of negative/loss framing in business (Ganzach & Karsahi, 1995; Grewal, Gottlieb, & Marmorstein, 1994; Homer & Yoon, 1992), health (Banks, et al., 1995; Reese, Schneider, Hnath, & Abrams, 1997 as cited in Levin, Schneider, & Gaeth, 1998), and personal loss vs. personal gain research. Using goal framing for paternal participation research has not been attempted to date. However, use of this type of framing may increase knowledge about how to engage fathers in the research process.

Summary

It is clear that fathers are not asked to participate in family research as frequently as are mothers. They have often been ignored, largely as a result of perceptions that fathers are less important in their children's developmental outcomes than are mothers. In addition, fathers are often perceived as unwilling to participate in family research (Phares, 1992), but when they do participate,

they contribute to our understanding of family functioning (Phares & Compas, 1992). The data do not support the idea that fathers are unwilling to participate in research. Although there are many studies lacking fathers as participants, some studies have shown that fathers will participate in research when asked (Hops & Seeley, 1992; Phares, 1995). In addition, it is important to note that research participants often display very specific characteristics (Rogers & White, 1998) that should be addressed during recruitment for family studies.

One method of increasing paternal participation is to ask fathers directly to participate in the family studies (Hops & Seeley, 1992). However, direct contact with parents to request their participation may not always be possible.

Therefore, changing the way the request is presented to parents may serve as an alternate mechanism for increasing paternal participation rates. An evaluation of the influence of framing may contribute to our understanding of how to engage fathers more effectively in family research. When measuring the framing effect, risky choice framing measures individuals' choice of risky options, attribute framing compares attractiveness ratings, and goal framing compares the extent of behavior adoption resulting from the manipulation. Thus, the three framing types have different uses, and understanding their nuances will help researchers to avoid using them inappropriately (Levin et al., 1998). Of the three types of framing, goal framing is the most appropriate for use in evaluating the effects of framing on paternal willingness to participate in family research.

There are no known studies that have empirically tested factors leading to paternal participation in research. One purpose of this study is to evaluate

whether fathers are willing to participate in family research as a function of the study's purpose and of the way the request is framed. This study used one of three different cover letters to request parental participation in a study conducted at the University of South Florida. Parents were asked to participate in one of three different types of studies: families and child academic outcomes, families and child behavior, or parental involvement in child athletics. The cover letter was framed in either a positive/gain or a negative/loss valence. Although research has shown attribute framing to be influenced by the amount of information presented to an individual (Schoorman, Mayer, Douglas, & Hetrick, 1994), the amount of information important for differential effects when requesting parental participation in family research is currently unknown. Results of this study may serve as an impetus for future research if framing manipulations are shown to influence parents' willingness to participate in research.

The research on goal framing has consistently shown that messages with a negative/loss valence influence individuals to engage in a target behavior more frequently than messages with a positive/gain valence (Levin, et al., 1998). In addition, this outcome has been found across several behaviors such as encouraging customers to use their credit cards (Ganzach, 1995), sharing resources in social situations (Brewer & Kramer, 1986; Fleishman, 1988) and for encouraging mammography (Banks, et al., 1995). Based upon these findings, it is hypothesized that, across all research topics (Academic, Child Behavior, and Athletic Research); negative/loss framed requests for research participation will

result in higher rates of agreement to participate in family research than positive/gain framed requests.

Although researchers have argued for the inclusion of fathers in family research (Parke, 2000), fathers still participate in research less than mothers, fathers are not recruited with similar intensity, and fathers tend to have higher rates of attrition than mothers (Hops & Seeley, 1992; Woollett, White, & Lyon, 1982). Thus, the second hypothesis proposes that mothers will have greater rates of participation than fathers across all conditions (Academic, Child Behavior, and Athletic Research).

As indicated previously, social roles have portrayed mothers as care givers and fathers as providers, sex role models for boys, and as the more playful parent (Lamb, 2000). Paternal participation in the introduction of, or the continued exposure to, athletics would be consistent with a male sex role model. However, because societal expectations for fathers have changed from expecting them to be role models of gender-consistent behavior to being more nurturing and caring (not to mention increases in female athletic participation), it would seem reasonable to expect that fathers would be more engaged in both sons' and daughters' athletic activities.

Although there is no concrete evidence that fathers are more likely to participate in their children's sporting activities, there is evidence that they are less likely to participate in child rearing and other activities such as family therapy (Duhig, Phares, & Birkeland, 2002). Thus, the third hypothesis proposed that fathers would have higher rates of participation when they were asked to

participate in research related to their children's athletic activities than when they were asked to participate in research related to their children's academic outcomes and family functioning. This hypothesis is consistent with Rosenthal and Rosnow's (1975) suggestion that people are likely to participate in research activities that interest them. Based on the assumption that fathers are "traditionally" more likely to engage in fun activities, it is expected that they would find athletic related activities more interesting (Lamb, 1986). There were no expected differences in participation rates among fathers when they were asked to participate in research related to academic outcomes and family functioning.

Although manipulating the request to participate in family research may increase fathers' research participation, evaluating fathers' emotional availability can contribute to our understanding of family functioning and its influence on paternal participation in research. The link between emotional availability and research participation has not been demonstrated empirically, yet some research outcomes point toward a possible link between the two. First, more is needed than admonishing men to become engaged with their children because many men may perceive childcare and related activities as cross gender behavior and as counter to their learning of what masculine behavior entails (Silverstein, 2002). For example, fathers are more emotionally responsive to children and they interact with them more when they have support for their role as a father and when they have a strong commitment to the fathering role (Lewis & Lamb, 2003). Thus, one might deduce that fathers who are more engaged with their

children have a stronger affective commitment to maintaining their relationships and are, therefore, more emotionally available to their children.

Second, research suggests that fathers, who are more engaged with their children, may also be more responsive to participating in activities that have traditionally been the responsibility of mothers. Some of these activities might include daily childcare tasks and being responsible for the child's extra curricular activities. An extension of fathers' higher levels of engagement with their children would be for these fathers to be more responsive to participating in atypical behaviors such as participating in family research studies. Thus it was hypothesized that fathers' willingness to participate in future studies involving their children would be positively related to their levels of emotional availability.

Similar to other areas of family research, most of the research conducted on emotional availability has been conducted with mothers (Biringen, 1998). As mentioned previously, fathers play an integral part in children's developmental outcomes. Evaluating fathers' emotional availability within the context of family functioning can contribute to our understanding of family functioning. The emotional and cognitive aspects of paternal-child interactions have often been overlooked because many researchers in the past have assumed that if fathers have more interactions, or are physically available more often, children will have improved developmental outcomes (Dienhart, 1998). These assumptions do not consider the distinction between the quantity and quality of interactions between fathers and their children. Simply being present and active does not automatically make a father emotionally available. For instance, a father may be

physically available for his children who are playing across the room “if” they call him, “if” they ask him a question, or “if” some other event happens that requires his attention and interaction with them. However, he may not be emotionally available during most or all of the time they spend together.

Many researchers have also assumed that more interactions between a father and child will lead to more positive outcomes for the child (Dienhart, 1998). However, this assumption is not always true. Although it is true that increased father-child interactions have been related to fewer behavior problems, better sociability, and better school performance for children, some data indicate that increased contact with separated fathers can lead to delinquent behavior and problems with children’s math scores (Le Menestrel, 2003). Other research suggests that higher levels of contact with maladaptive fathers can be problematic for children (Jaffee, Moffitt, Caspi, & Taylor, 2003). A simple count of the number of interactions or type of interactions does not adequately represent the emotional and cognitive components of the relationship and interactions in a father - child dyad.

Although counting the number of interactions is important in its own respect, it is also important to assess the quality of these interactions in a way that is easily replicable by other researchers and practitioners. Thus, validating a self-report measure of emotional availability for parents can help both researchers and clinicians alike. Measuring emotional availability has primarily been conducted using time consuming observational techniques. However a self-report questionnaire, once validated, can be administered easily and cheaply

by almost anyone. Although the self-report questionnaire is not the researcher's panacea, the savings in time and costs make this assessment method highly acceptable (Judd, Smith, & Kidder, 1991).

The emotional availability construct has also previously been measured with a child-report questionnaire (the LEAP). The LEAP has demonstrated good psychometric properties with children, adolescents, and young adults reporting on their parent's emotional availability (Lum & Phares, 2005). The current study evaluated the LEAP on a sample of parents who provided self-reports on their emotional availability. Based on the findings of Lum and Phares (2005), it was hypothesized that the LEAP will show construct validity when compared to other measures of parental warmth.

Hypotheses

1. Negative/loss framed requests for research participation will result in higher rates of agreement to participate than positive/gain framed requests and neutral/control requests
2. Mothers will have greater rates of agreement to participate in the study than fathers.
3. Fathers will have higher rates of agreement when they are asked to participate in research related to their children's athletic activities than when they are asked to participate in research related to their children's academic outcomes and family functioning. There are no differences expected in agreement rates among fathers when they are asked to participate in Academic versus Child Behavior research.

4. The LEAP will be construct valid when compared to other measures of parental warmth and responsiveness.
5. Parents who report that they are willing to take part in future research will have higher levels of emotional availability and parental involvement than parents who do not wish to participate in future research.

Exploratory Questions

Exploratory analyses were conducted to determine whether there are differences in emotional availability of parents as a function of Goal Framing and the type of research in which they have agreed to participate (Athletic, Child Behavior, or Academic). Parents' emotional availability was also explored in relation to their children's functioning.

Currently, the connection between emotional availability and negative developmental outcomes has some support in child populations. Lum et al. (1996) assessed for negative outcomes in samples of young adults and youth who reported on their parent's emotional availability. Parental emotional availability was not found to be a significant predictor of negative outcomes for the young adult participants. In the youth sample, however, parental emotional availability was associated with better child functioning. This study investigated this issue further by having a parent sample report on their emotional availability and the functioning of their children.

METHOD

Participants

Basic demographic information was obtained on 11,322 potential participants from three study sites, the University of South Florida (USF), the University of Central Florida (UCF), and Florida State University (FSU). Information obtained included annual salary, age range in 5 year increments (age provided only by USF), gender, race, pay plan (Faculty, USPS, A&P Regular, OPS Hourly, Dual Comp, or Executive Service), and education level. Individuals were classified in three ways: 1) Potential participants who responded to the correspondence in any capacity (Responders) or potential participants who did not respond to the correspondence (Nonresponders), 2) Potential participants who indicated that they were qualified and willing (Qualified–Willing) or qualified and unwilling to participate in the study (Qualified–Unwilling), and 3) Potential participants who agreed to participate in the study and did so (Agreed–Complete) or agreed to participate in the study and did not (Agreed–Incomplete).

Table 1 shows that, of the 11,322 potential participants, there were 2,472 (21.83%) Responders and 8,850 (78.17%) Nonresponders. Out of 2,472 Responders, 549 (22.21%) met criteria for inclusion in the study. Out of the 549 who qualified for the study, 340 (61.93%) were Qualified–Willing and 209 (38.10%) were Qualified–Unwilling. Out of the total number of Qualified–Willing individuals, 164 (48.24%) fell within the Agreed–Completed category and 176 (51.76%) fell within the Agreed–Incomplete category. In summary, 21.8% of the potential participants responded to the request for their participation either by

way of email or interdepartmental mail. Of those who responded to the study request, 61.93% agreed to complete the study with 51.76% of this group actually completing the study.

Table 1 Frequency Count for Study Participation Classification

Classification Category		N	Percentage Within Category	Percentage of Total Sample
Responders vs. Nonresponders	Responders	2,472	21.83%	21.80%
	Nonresponders	8,850	78.17%	78.20%
	Total	11,322	100.00%	100.00%
Qualified–Willing vs. Qualified–Unwilling	Qualified–Willing	340	61.90%	3.00%
	Qualified–Unwilling	209	38.10%	1.85%
	Total	549	100.00%	4.85%
Agreed–Complete vs. Agreed–Incomplete	Agreed–Complete	164	48.24%	1.45%
	Agreed–Incomplete	176	51.76%	1.55%
	Total	340	100.00%	3.00%

The gender distribution for the potential participant database included 6,244 (55.15%) women, 4,933 (43.57%) men, and 145 (1.28%) individuals missing a Gender classification. The salary average for the total sample was \$43,067.47. See Table 2 for average annual salaries.

Table 2 Average Salary by Study Site of Potential Participants

<i>Study Site</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Minimum</i>	<i>Maximum</i>
USF	3290	\$38,471.87	\$21,605.12	\$0.00	\$492,680.00
FSU	2604	\$58,347.59	\$25,911.95	\$2,810.00	\$227,386.00
UCF	5423	\$38,518.34	\$28,365.12	\$261.00	\$311,220.00
Total	11317	\$43,067.47	\$27,302.27	\$0.00	\$492,680.00

Note: Total N does not equal 11,328 due to missing data

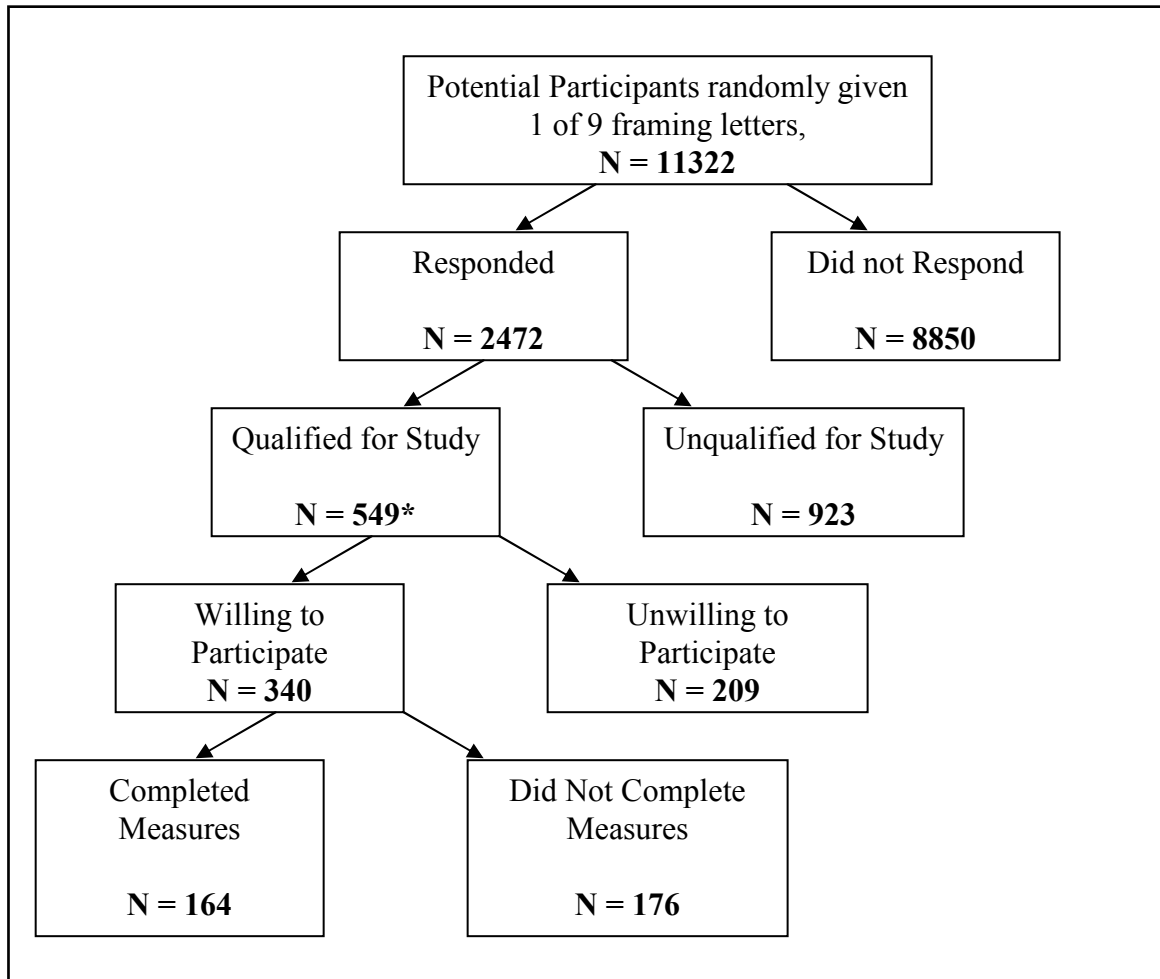
There were 549 Responders who qualified for inclusion in the study. However, not all of these Responders agreed to complete the questionnaires. The first three hypotheses are evaluated using these 549 Responders. There were 399 qualified Responders from USF, 68 from UCF and 80 from FSU. The following information reflects the available data contained within the databases provided by the respective universities (USF, UCF, and FSU). Responders included 282 (51.6%) females, 188 (34.4) males, and 77 (14.1%) who did not have a gender classification within the provided university database (see Procedure section below for discussion of database information). The potential participants were between the ages of 20 and 60 with a mean age of 41.52 years (n = 399, missing data: n = 150). The mean age for female responders was 42.14 years while the mean age for male responders was 40.61 years. The mean age for responders who met the inclusion criteria and agreed to participate in the study was 42.12 years (n = 222, missing data: n = 122) while the mean age for those who met the inclusion criteria and declined the participation request was 40.76 years (n = 177, missing data: n = 32). The responders

consisted of 320 Caucasians (68.5%), 67 African Americans (14.3%), 55 Hispanic/Latina/Latinos (11.8%), 20 Asian/Pacific Islanders (4.3%), 1 American Indian/Alaskan Native (0.2%), and 4 individuals with missing data (0.9%). Responders' education levels included 1 G.E.D. (0.3%), 23 high school diplomas (5.8%), 102 bachelor degrees (25.6%), 51 Master's/Juris Prudence degrees (12.8%), 12 doctorate degrees (3.00%), 1 medical degree (0.3%), and 199 individuals missing degree level information (50.0%).

For the final sample of participants who completed all of the measures, there were 164 participants from three Florida universities (the University of South Florida (USF), $n = 119$, the University of Central Florida (UCF), $n = 17$, and Florida State University (FSU), $n = 28$). The inclusion criteria required that participants have at least one child between the ages of 6 and 18. The sample included 119 (72.6%) females and 45 (27.4%) males. The sample participants were between the ages of 26 and 62 with a mean age of 44.40. The age range for female participants was between 26 and 58 years with a mean age of 43.48 years, while the age range for male participants was between 32 and 62 years with a mean age of 46.76 years. The sample consisted of 122 Caucasian (74.4%), 20 African American (12.2%), 12 Hispanic/Latina/Latino (7.3%), 6 Multi-racial (3.7%), 1 Asian (0.6%), and 3 individuals who did not specify their ethnicity (1.8%). Participants reported their marital status as married ($n = 124$, 75.6%), divorced ($n = 15$, 9.1%), single and not living with a partner ($n = 9$, 5.5%), widowed ($n = 5$, 3.0%), separated ($n = 4$, 2.4%), single and living with a partner ($n = 3$, 1.8%), and Other ($n = 4$, 2.4%).

There were 2 adoptive fathers (1.21% of total sample), 38 biological fathers (23.17% of total sample), and 2 stepfathers (1.21% of total sample) who participated in the study. There were 2 adoptive mothers (1.21% of total sample), 5 caretaking grandmothers (3.04% of total sample), 105 biological mothers (64.02% of total sample), and 8 stepmothers (4.88% of total sample) who participated in the study. There were 2 individuals (1.21% of total sample) who did not report their parental status. All participants are referred to as either fathers or mothers, respectively. The overall distribution of potential participants is summarized in Figure 1. There were 164 participants who completed the study; however, 2 of these participants could not be matched to their identification number because they did not include their names when they completed the questionnaires on the internet. Thus, Chi-Square analyses including only individuals who were qualified for the study were computed on 547 instead of 549 responses. Similarly, Chi-Square analyses including actual study participants were completed on 162 instead of 164 responses.

Figure 1 Graph of Potential Participant Responses



*Two participants could not be matched to their identification number. Thus, some analyses include 547 individuals when examining individuals who responded to the study request, were Qualified for the study and were either willing or unwilling to participate in the study.

Materials

Cover Letters. A total of nine cover letters were composed. The letters varied by the type of research that university employees were asked to participate in (Academic, Athletic, or Behavioral). In addition, letters from each type of research were manipulated to include a positive goal frame (Positive Valence; PV), a negative goal frame (Negative Valence; NV), and a neutral goal

frame (Control; CON), for a total of nine different letters. The cover letters served as an independent variable. All letters included information regarding how participation in family research could influence children's happiness and family adjustment, parenting skills and developmental outcomes, children's academic outcomes, treatment interventions that help children develop better social skills, and children's outcomes as adults, but varied by framing type (Positive, Negative, or Neutral). The PV framed these rationales in a positive manner, the NV framed these rationales in a negative manner, and the CON condition was free of the manipulated statements altogether.

The introductory cover letters were given to ten graduate students who were asked to rate whether the scenarios contained either a positive or a negative valence. Raters were told to review the respective cover letters in their original format and to rate whether each letter was stated in a positive or a negative manner. All of the respondents accurately rated the positive valence cover letter as positive and 9 of 10 respondents rated the negative valence cover letter as negative. The cover letters were further scrutinized and modified by a faculty member at the University of South Florida who was familiar with the literature on framing and who has published articles in this area of research. The letters were then changed to their current format with the inclusion of a neutral cover letter.

Academic Cover Letters. The Academic Cover Letters requested participation in a study on families and their children's academic outcomes. The letters advised that the participant's child did not have to be in school in order for

the parent to participate in the study; however, the child must be between the ages of 6 and 18 (See Appendices A, B, and C for the Academic Cover Letters).

Behavioral Cover Letters. The Behavioral Cover Letters requested participation in a study on families and their children's emotional and psychological well-being. The letters advised that the participant's child did not have to be seeing a counselor nor have any unusual emotional or behavioral problems in order for the parent to participate in the study; however, the child must be between the ages of 6 and 18 (See Appendices D, E, and F for the Behavioral Cover Letters).

Athletic Cover Letters. The Athletic Cover Letters requested participation in a study on families and their children's participation in athletics. The letters advised that the participant's child did not have to be involved in athletics at the time, nor in the past, in order for the parent to participate in the study; however, the child must be between the ages of 6 and 18 (See Appendices G, H, and I for the Athletic Cover Letters).

Cover Letters Sent Via Email. Cover letters that were sent via email contained all of the same information described above for each of the three conditions. These email cover letters also contained information regarding Institutional Review Board approval information for both USF and FSU. Participants were also instructed to respond via email instead of interdepartmental mail (See Appendix J for a sample cover letter sent via email).

Response Post Cards/Emails. A response post card consisting of two questions was sent with the cover letter to USF employees. The first question inquired if the respondent had at least one child between the ages of 6 and 18. The second question inquired about whether they would like to participate in a study on one of their children (between 6 and 18 years old) in one of the following areas: Academics, Athletics, or Behavioral research (i.e., only one of the areas was noted on each post card or email). Emails to participants at UCF and FSU followed the same format as the postcards; however, the screening questions were posted at the bottom of the email (See Appendix K for the response postcard).

Reminder Post Cards. A reminder post card was sent via envelope to USF employees who did not respond to the initial contact letter. The reminder post card included the same two questions in the initial response post card. Employees were instructed to return the self-addressed post card via interdepartmental mail (See Appendix L for the reminder postcard).

Reminder Email. This email served a similar purpose as the reminder post cards. It reminded potential participants that they had not responded to the initial request for a response to the screening questions. It also asked the potential participants to respond to the screening questions listed in the email (See Appendix M for Reminder Email).

Family Information Form. The Family Information Form (FIF) requested demographic information and information about family interactions, such as

parental involvement, children's academic functioning, and children's involvement in athletics (See Appendix N for the FIF).

Parent Report of Parental Behavior Index – Revised (PRPBI-R). The Parent Report of Parental Behavior Index – Revised (PRPBI-R) is a self-report measure of parenting behavior. The PRPBI-R is a modification of the Children's Report of Parental Behavior Index – Revised (CRPBI-R), a measure of children's reports of parental behavior (Schludermann & Schludermann, 1970). The CRPBI-R consists of 18 subscales. However, consistent with Lum and Phares (2005), only subscales relevant to the current study were used: Acceptance, Positive Involvement, and Withdrawal of Relations. When scoring these subscales, higher scores are indicative of higher levels of that characteristic. The ranges of possible scores on these subscales are: Acceptance (8 to 40), Positive Involvement (8 to 40), and Withdrawal of Relations (5 to 25).

Although the CRPBI-R was originally designed as a measure of children's reports on parental behavior, it has been used as a self-report measure for parents (Galambos, Barker, and Almeida, 2003) with alpha coefficients ranging between .81 and .93. In the current study, alpha coefficients ranged from .64 to .80. Similar to Galambos and colleagues (2003), the current modification of the CRPBI-R uses a five-point scale instead of the original three-point scale (See Appendix O for the PRPBI-R).

Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL). The Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL) is a 120-item measure designed to allow parents to rate their children's competencies across a spectrum of behavioral and emotional problems

(Achenbach, Dumenci, & Rescorla, 2001). The CBCL has been normed on a nationally representative sample of parents of children between the ages of 6 and 18 years. T-scores are based on a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10. The measure has test-retest reliabilities above .80 and internal consistency coefficients averaging .80. The CBCL is widely used as the standard measure of child and adolescent psychopathology (Achenbach & Rescorla, 2001; Doll, 1992; Furlong, 1992; See Appendix P for CBCL sample items).

Lum Emotional Availability of Parents (LEAP) Scale. The Lum Emotional Availability of Parents (LEAP) Scale questionnaire is a 15-item, one factor measure originally designed to allow young adults and children to report on their parents' emotional availability. Respondents are allowed to choose from 1 (Never) to 6 (Always). Higher scores on the LEAP correspond to higher parental emotional availability. Possible scores can range from 15 to 90. The LEAP has demonstrated good reliability in both a college sample and a child/adolescent/adult sample. In the college sample, test-retest coefficients were .92 and .85, respectively, for mother and father reports. Validity coefficients in this sample ranged between .74 and .77 when correlated with other measures of parenting behavior. In the child/adolescent/adult sample, Cronbach alpha coefficients ranged between .92 and .97 (Lum & Phares, 2005). The LEAP has been modified in this study to make it appropriate for parents to report on their own levels of emotional availability and the emotional availability of their partners. The LEAP has not been validated for parents' reporting on their own emotional availability. Thus, an evaluation of internal consistency was

conducted. For self-reported emotional availability (LEAP scores), in the current study, alpha was .93 and for parents' reports of their partner's emotional availability (Partner LEAP scores), alpha was .97. The obtained alpha coefficients are high and they are consistent with results obtained in previous research (See Appendix Q for the LEAP).

Future Contact Form. The Future Contact Form (FCF) contains two questions about participants' willingness to participate in future research and their willingness to participate in future research with their families (See Appendix R for the FCF).

Questionnaire Instruction Letter. The Questionnaire Instruction Letter requested that participants complete all questions, avoid seeking assistance from others while answering the questions, and contact the researcher if there were any questions (See Appendix S for the Questionnaire Instruction Letter).

Debriefing Letter. The debriefing letter thanked participants for their participation in the study. The letter also explained the purpose of the study and provided participants with a list of references that they could use to gather additional information about the constructs evaluated within the study (See Appendix T for Debriefing Letter).

Informed Consent Letter (Sent Via Interdepartmental Mail). The Informed Consent Letter was sent with the initial letters requesting individual's participation within the study and it provided potential participants with information about the purpose of the study, the tasks that they would be asked to complete, and the length of time it would take in order for them to complete the study. Potential

participants were informed that the study was voluntary and that they could discontinue their participation at any time (See Appendix U for Informed Consent Letter sent via interdepartmental mail).

Informed Consent Letter (Sent Via Email). The information provided in the Informed Consent Letter that was sent via email was essentially the same and it was sent with the initial email cover letters requesting individual's participation within the study. This form also included Institutional Review Board information for both USF and FSU (See Appendix V for Informed Consent Letter sent via email).

Email Instructions on How to Complete the On-line Survey. Simple instructions were provided to individuals who agreed to participate in the study. They were thanked for their time and given an address to a secure web site where they could go on-line to complete the study (See Appendix W for Email Instructions on How to Complete the On-line Survey).

Discontinuation Thank You Letter. This page thanked participants who started the study and decided to discontinue their participation. Participants would only see this page if they clicked the button that indicated they were going to discontinue the study (See Appendix X for Discontinuation Thank You Letter).

Procedure

A listing of employees, their contact information, and basic demographic data were obtained from the University of South Florida, the University of Central Florida, and Florida State University. The potential participants at the University of South Florida and Florida State University were limited to non-faculty

employees while the potential participants from UCF included both faculty and nonfaculty employees. The data missing on faculty for the University of South Florida was due to information restrictions imposed by the university. It was unclear as to why the data on faculty was missing from Florida State University, however, representatives of FSU reported that they provided all of the data that were reasonably available for the purposes of this study. Information varied across sites. The available demographic information included Annual Salary, Age range in 5 year increments (USF only), Gender, Ethnicity, Pay Plan (Faculty, University Support Personnel Services (USPS), and A&S Regular, & OPS Hourly), and Education Level. The accuracy of the demographic information could not be confirmed.

Employees were randomly assigned to conditions using Microsoft Excel's Rand Function. Participants were assigned a random number, sorted by their random number and then assigned both an identification number, a Framing Condition (Positive, Negative, or Control), and a Research Type (Academic, Athletic, or Behavioral).

The framing manipulation was established prior to the dissemination of the cover letters to the potential participants (i.e., prior to the invitation to participate in the study). Employees at the University of South Florida received one of these nine letters through their university addresses requesting their participation in the study. Due to Institutional Review Board Regulations (IRB), the standardized consent form was also provided to participants at the same time they received the invitation to participate in the study. They also received a

response post card asking two qualifying questions to ascertain whether they were eligible to participate in the study. The first question on the response post card inquired if they had any children between the ages of 6 and 18. The second question inquired about their willingness to participate in a study of families and children in one of the following three areas: Academics, Athletics, or Behavioral research. Participants were instructed to return their response post cards via interdepartmental mail. To maintain confidentiality, post cards were identifiable only through a predetermined identification number assigned to all potential participants. Participants who responded that they were qualified and were willing to participate were then sent the questionnaires (either via interdepartmental mail or via email).

After this point, all potential participants were given the same material. After receiving a response post card that indicated an individual was both qualified and interested in participating in the study, a packet containing the Family Information Form (FIF), the Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL), the Lum Emotional Availability of Parents (LEAP) form, the Parents Report of Parent's Behavior Index – Revised (PRPBI-R), and the Future Contact Form (FCF) was sent to the individual. The cover letter was presented first in the packet and the FCF was presented last. All other questionnaires were rotated to control for order effects. A self-addressed, return envelope was also included. All items that were to be returned were marked only with an identification number to help ensure the confidentiality of the participants. Instructions were provided that informed all USF recipients to return items through interdepartmental mail.

Reminder post cards were sent out to all employees who did not respond to the initial request.

Employees at the University of Central Florida and Florida State University were asked to participate in the study via email. The email included information to ensure informed consent and two questions identical to those included on the response post card. Participants were asked to respond to the email regardless of whether or not they wanted to participate in the study. If they answered yes to both of the screening questions they were sent another email with instructions on how to complete the questionnaires at a secure on-line site. All participants were informed that the questionnaires could be completed in approximately 30 minutes. All potential participants who agreed to participate in the study and failed to complete the questionnaires were sent a reminder asking that they complete the questionnaires. Employees at USF were also sent another copy of the paper and pencil version of the questionnaires.

Results

Sample Characteristics. A thorough analysis of Responders and Nonresponders was completed for all of the available demographic variables that were not part of the hypotheses. Results and tables for these analyses are presented in Appendix Y. These analyses indicate that people who responded to the request for their participation in the study tended to be Caucasian, well educated, middle class, female, and USF employees.

Hypothesis Testing.

Four sets of Chi-Square analyses were completed to test hypotheses 1 – 3. The first analysis examined people who either did or did not reply to the initial study request (responders vs. nonresponders). The second analysis examined data for individuals who responded to the study request and who also met the inclusion criteria for the study. The third analysis examined data for individuals who said that they would complete the study and either did or did not do so. The fourth analysis examined data obtained from the 164 study participants. According to Cohen (1992), to obtain enough power for a medium effect size when using an alpha of .05, one must have a minimum of 87 participants when $df = 1$, a minimum of 107 participants when $df = 2$, a minimum of 121 participants when $df = 3$, and a minimum of 133 participants when $df = 4$. All Chi-Square analyses conducted within this study have sufficient sample sizes to detect at least a medium effect when $\alpha = .05$.

Hypothesis 1. Hypothesis one proposed that negative/loss framed requests for research participation would result in higher rates of agreement to

participate than would positive/gain framed requests and neutral/control requests. The first Chi-square analysis for hypothesis one examining responders vs. nonresponders revealed no effect for Goal Framing χ^2 ($n = 11,322$) = .390, $df = 2$, $p > .05$. Thus, the number of people who responded to the request to participate in the study was not significantly different across levels of the framing manipulation (See Table 3 for frequency distributions).

The second Chi-square analysis for hypothesis one with individuals who met criteria for the study revealed no significant effects for Goal Framing, χ^2 ($n = 547$) = .801, $df = 2$, $p > .05$. Thus, Goal Framing was not related to whether individuals who were qualified for the study agreed to participate in the study or not. Of the 547 who responded and met the inclusion criteria, 338 (61.79%) were willing to participate in the study (Qualified-Willing) and 209 (38.21%) were unwilling to participate in the study (Qualified-Unwilling; See Table 4 for frequency distribution).

The third Chi-square analysis for hypothesis one with individuals who said that they would participate in the study revealed no effect for Goal Framing χ^2 ($n=338$) = 1.009, $df = 2$, $p > .05$. Thus, Goal Framing was not related to whether potential participants who were qualified for inclusion in the study would agree to participate (See Table 5 for frequency distribution).

The fourth Chi-square analysis for hypothesis one with 162 of 164 study participants revealed no effect for Goal Framing, χ^2 ($n = 162$) = 1.009, $df = 2$, $p >$

.05). Thus, there were no significant differences in the number of individuals who actually completed the study based upon the framing manipulation. There were 164 individuals who completed the study after they said they would do so (Agreed-Complete, recall that two of these individuals could not be matched to their identification information) and 176 individuals who did not complete the study after they said they would do so (Agreed-Incomplete; See Table for 5 for frequency distribution). Overall, the results of these analyses do not support hypothesis one.

Table 3 Number of Responses to Initial Request for Participation by Goal Framing

Attribution		Responded to Contact		
		Yes	No	Total
Control	Count	812	2957	3769
	% within Attribution	21.54%	78.46%	100.00%
	% of Column Total	32.85%	33.41%	33.29%
Negative	Count	821	2942	3763
	% within Attribution	21.82%	78.18%	100.00%
	% of Column Total	33.21%	33.24%	33.24%
Positive	Count	839	2951	3790
	% within Attribution	22.14%	77.86%	100.00%
	% of Column Total	33.94%	33.34%	33.47%
Total	Count	2472	8850	11322
	% within Attribution	21.83%	78.17%	100.00%
	% of Column Total	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%

*PP = Potential Participants

Table 4 Number of Responders Willing and Unwilling to Participate in the Study by Goal Framing

		Willingness to Participate		
		No	Yes	
Control	N	74	113	187
	% Within Control	39.57	60.43	100.00
	% of Total Qualified	13.53	20.66	34.19
Negative	N	67	121	188
	% Within Negative	35.64	64.36	100.00
	% of Total Qualified	12.25	22.12	34.37
Positive	N	68	104	172
	% Within Positive	39.53	60.47	100.00
	% of Total Qualified	12.43	19.01	31.44
Total	N	209	338	547
	% Within Total	38.21	61.79	100.00
	% of Total Qualified	38.21	61.79	100.00

Table 5 Number of Responders Who Were Willing to Participate by Goal Framing and Completion Status

		Completion Status		
		Incomplete	Complete	Total
Control	N	60	53	113
	% Within Control	53.10	46.90	100.00
	% of Total Willing	17.75	15.68	33.43
Negative	N	66	55	121
	% Within Negative	54.55	45.45	100.00
	% of Total Willing	19.53	16.27	35.80
Positive	N	50	54	104
	% Within Positive	48.08	51.92	100.00
	% of Total Willing	14.79	15.98	30.77
Total	N	176	162	338
	% Within Total	52.07	47.93	100.00
	% of Total Willing	52.07	47.93	100.00

Hypothesis 2. Hypothesis two proposed that mothers would have greater rates of agreement to participate in the study than fathers. Main effects analyses are required to answer several pertinent questions regarding response rates. First, does the overall response rate differ by gender? Second, does the overall response rate differ as a result of the Research Type? Third, does the response rate differ as a function of the Research Type by gender interaction? The Chi-Square analysis of gender revealed a significant difference in response rates, $\chi^2 (n = 11,177) = 92.570$, $df = 1$, $p < .0001$. This is indicative of a gender effect for likelihood of responding to a request for participation in research studies, regardless of the individual's willingness to participate in the study and regardless of whether the individual met the inclusion criteria. Just over a quarter (25.94%) of the women who were asked to participate in the study responded to the study request, while just under one fifth (18.44%) of the men responded to the study request. Thus, women were more likely to respond to the initial request for their participation in the study.

The Chi-Square analysis of Research Type by participant response (responders vs. nonresponders) to the study request revealed a significant difference in rate of response for Research Type, $\chi^2 (n = 11,322) = 12.531$, $df = 2$, $p < .01$. Follow up analyses indicated that individuals who received the request for participation in the Academic study condition were more likely to respond than individuals who received the request for participation in the Athletic study condition, $\chi^2 (n = 7541) = 12.48$, $df = 1$, $p < .01$. No differences were observed between the Academic and the Behavioral study conditions, $\chi^2 = 3.59$,

$df = 1, p > .05$; and no differences were observed between the behavioral and the Athletic study conditions, $\chi^2 = 2.70, df = 1, p > .05$.

A log linear analysis was completed to examine the interaction effects of Gender (2) x Response to inquiry (2, responders vs. nonresponders) x Research Type (3, Academic, Athletic, Behavioral). The results revealed no significant interaction effects, $\chi^2 (n = 11,177) = 4.257, df = 4, p > .05$. Thus, the type of research that individuals were asked to participate in did not influence whether males or females would respond to the initial inquiry for their participation in the study.

The Chi-square analysis for hypothesis two examining all potential participants who responded to the request for participation, revealed no significant gender differences in response across Research Type, $\chi^2 (n = 2,472) = .791, df = 2, p > .05$. Thus, there were no observed differences in the number of males and females who responded to or did not respond to the request for their participation in the study (See Table 6 for frequency distribution).

The Chi-square analysis for Research Type (Academic, Athletic, and Behavioral) revealed no significant effects for individuals who responded to the request for their participation in the study and indicated their willingness (Qualified-Willing) or unwillingness (Qualified-Unwilling) to participate in the study, $\chi^2 (n = 532) = 3.852, df = 4, p > .05$. Thus, there were no observed differences across Research Type in the number of fathers and mothers who were Qualified-Willing or Qualified-Unwilling (See Table 7 for frequency distribution).

The Chi-square analysis for when responders who agreed to participate in the study either did (Agreed-Complete) or did not (Agreed-Incomplete) actually complete the questionnaires revealed no significant effects for Research Type, χ^2 (n = 335) = .278, $df = 4$, $p > .05$. Thus, there were no observed differences across Research Type in the number of fathers and mothers who were classified as Agreed-Complete and Agreed-Incomplete (See Table 8 for frequency distribution). Follow up analyses indicate that there were no significant differences between Research Type when comparing the Academic and Athletic conditions, χ^2 (n = 356) = 2.920, $df = 1$, $p > .05$, when comparing the Academic and Behavioral conditions, χ^2 (n = 364) = 2.141, $df = 1$, $p > .05$, and when comparing the Athletic and Behavioral conditions, χ^2 (n = 344) = .067, $df = 1$, $p > .05$.

The Chi-Square analysis examining the study participants revealed no significant effects for Research Type, χ^2 (n = 164) = 2.539, $df = 2$, $p > .05$. Thus, there were no observed differences across Research Type in the number of fathers and mothers who actually completed the questionnaires were classified as Agreed-Complete and Agreed-Incomplete (See Table 8 for frequency distribution). These results do not support hypothesis two.

Table 6 Number of Potential Participants Who Responded to Contact Across Research Type

Research Type		Gender		
		Female	Male	Total
Academic	N	577	309	886
	% Within Academic	65.12	34.88	100.00
	% of Total Qualified Responders	23.34	12.50	35.84
Athletic	N	512	257	769
	% Within Athletic	66.58	33.42	100.00
	% of Total Qualified Responders	20.71	10.40	31.11
Behavioral	N	527	290	817
	% Within Behavioral	64.50	35.50	100.00
	% of Total Qualified Responders	21.32	11.73	33.05
Total	N	1616	856	2472
	% Within Completion Status	65.37	34.63	100.00
	% of Total Qualified Responders	65.37	34.63	100.00

Table 7 Qualified Potential Participants by Willingness to Participate, Research Type, and Gender

Research Type		Gender			
		F	M	Total	
Qualified- Unwilling	Academic	N	33	31	64
		% Within Academic	51.56	48.44	100.00
		% of Total Qualified Females	15.79	14.83	30.62
	Athletic	N	40	32	72
		% Within Athletic	55.56	44.44	100.00
		% of Total Qualified Females	19.14	15.31	34.45
	Behavioral	N	55	18	73
		% Within Behavioral	75.34	24.66	100.00
		% of Total Qualified Females	26.32	8.61	34.93
	Total	N	128	81	209
		% Within Completion Status	61.24	38.76	100.00
		% of Total Qualified Females	61.24	38.76	100.00
Qualified- Willing	Academic	N	76	48	124
		% Within Academic	61.29	38.71	100.00
		% of Total Qualified Females	23.53	14.86	38.39
	Athletic	N	67	29	96
		% Within Athletic	69.79	30.21	100.00
		% of Total Qualified Females	20.74	8.98	29.72
	Behavioral	N	60	43	103
		% Within Behavioral	58.25	41.75	100.00
		% of Total Qualified Females	18.58	13.31	31.89
	Total	N	203	120	323
		% Within Completion Status	62.85	37.15	100.00
		% of Total Qualified Females	62.85	37.15	100.00

Table 8 Potential Parent Participants' Study Completion Status, Research Type and Gender

		Gender			
		Female	Male	Total	
Incomplete	Academic	Count	44	22	66
		% within type of research	66.67	33.33	100.00
		% of Total	25.73	12.87	38.60
	Athletic	Count	35	14	49
		% within type of research	71.43	28.57	100.00
		% of Total	20.47	8.19	28.65
	Behavioral	Count	32	24	56
		% within type of research	57.14	42.86	100.00
		% of Total	18.71	14.04	32.75
	Total	Count	111	60	171
		% within type of research	64.91	35.09	100.00
		% of Total	64.91	35.09	100.00
Complete	Academic	Count	32	26	58
		% within type of research	55.17	44.83	100.00
		% of Total	21.05	17.11	38.16
	Athletic	Count	32	15	47
		% within type of research	68.09	31.91	100.00
		% of Total	21.05	9.87	30.92
	Behavioral	Count	28	19	47
		% within type of research	59.57	40.43	100.00
		% of Total	18.42	12.50	30.92
	Total	Count	92	60	152
		% within type of research	60.53	39.47	100.00
		% of Total	60.53	39.47	100.00

Hypothesis 3. Hypothesis three indicated that fathers would have higher rates of agreement to participate when they are asked to participate in research related to their children’s athletic activities than when they are asked to participate in research related to their children’s academic outcomes and family functioning. The first Chi-square examining responses for all potential male participants revealed no significant effect for Research Type, χ^2 (n = 4,945) =

5.795, $df = 2$, $p > .05$. Thus, the type of study males were asked to participate in did not influence their response rates (See Table 9 for frequency distribution).

The Chi-square analysis for potential father participants who responded to the request for their participation in the study, met the inclusion criteria, and indicated their willingness (Qualified-Willing) or their unwillingness (Qualified-Unwilling) to participate in the study revealed a significant effect for Research Type, $\chi^2(n = 207) = 7.209$, $df = 2$, $p < .05$. These results indicate that there is a differential rate of responding for fathers depending upon the type of research they are asked to participate in. Additional analyses revealed that fathers who were qualified for inclusion in the study were more likely to agree to participate in the study when they were asked to participate in the behavioral condition than fathers who were asked to participate in the athletic condition, $\chi^2(n = 131) = 7.183$, $df = 1$, $p < .01$. There were no significant differences observed for qualified fathers' willingness to participate in the study when comparing those who received the request for the Academic condition and the Behavioral condition, $\chi^2(n = 144) = 2.614$, $df = 1$, $p > .05$, and when comparing the Academic condition and the Athletic condition, $\chi^2(n = 139) = 1.391$, $df = 1$, $p > .05$ (See Table 10 for frequency distribution)

The Chi-square analysis on fathers who either agreed to complete the study and either did or did not do so revealed no significant effect for Research Type, $\chi^2(n = 124) = 3.861$, $df = 2$, $p > .05$. Thus, fathers who agreed to complete the study either completed or did not complete the study in similar rates across all Research Types (See Table 11 for frequency distribution).

The fourth Chi-square analysis for hypothesis three on 60 fathers revealed no effect for Research Type, $\chi^2 (n = 60) = 3.10$, $df = 2$, $p > .05$. Thus, there were no observed differences across Research Type in the number of fathers who actually completed the questionnaires (See Table 11 for frequency distribution). Overall, the results do not support hypothesis three.

Table 9 Potential Father Participants Response to Contact Across Research Type

Research Type		Responded to contact		
		No	Yes	Total
Academic	N	534	309	843
	% Within Academic	63.35	36.65	100.00
	% of Total Qualified Males	29.54	17.09	46.63
Athletic	N	169	257	426
	% Within Athletic	39.67	60.33	100.00
	% of Total Qualified Males	9.35	14.21	23.56
Behavioral	N	249	290	539
	% Within Behavioral	46.20	53.80	100.00
	% of Total Qualified Males	13.77	16.04	29.81
Total	N	952	856	1808
	% Within Completion Status	52.65	47.35	100.00
	% of Total Qualified Males	52.65	47.35	100.00

Table 10 Qualified Fathers and Willingness to Participate Status Across Research Type

Research Type		Willingness to Participate in the Study		
		Unwilling	Willing	Total
Academic	N	31	45	76
	% Within Academic	38.27%	36.29%	100.00%
	% of Total Qualified Males	15.12%	21.95%	37.07%
Athletic	N	32	31	61
	% Within Athletic	39.51%	25.00%	100.00%
	% of Total Qualified Males	15.61%	15.12%	29.76%
Behavioral	N	18	49	67
	% Within Behavioral	22.22%	39.52%	100.00%
	% of Total Qualified Males	8.78%	23.90%	32.68%
Total	N	81	124	205
	% Within Completion Status	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%
	% of Total Qualified Males	39.51%	60.49%	100.00%

Table 11 Fathers' Study Completion Status by Research Type

Research Type		Study Completion Status		
		Incomplete	Complete	Total
Academic	N	22	26	48
	% Within Academic	45.83	54.17	100.00
	% of Total Qualified Males	18.33	21.67	40.00
Athletic	N	14	15	29
	% Within Athletic	48.28	51.72	100.00
	% of Total Qualified Males	11.67	12.50	24.17
Behavioral	N	24	19	43
	% Within Behavioral	55.81	44.19	100.00
	% of Total Qualified Males	20.00	15.83	35.83
Total	N	60	60	120
	% Within Completion Status	50.00	50.00	100.00
	% of Total Qualified Males	50.00	50.00	100.00

Analyses for hypothesis 4 and hypothesis 5 were completed using data from the 164 individuals who agreed to participate in the study and actually completed the questionnaires.

Hypothesis 4. Hypothesis 4 proposed that the LEAP would be construct valid. Specifically, when compared to measures of parental warmth the LEAP was hypothesized to correlate positively with the Acceptance and Positive Involvement subscales and to correlate negatively with the Withdrawal of Relations subscale on the PRPBI-R. Mean scores for the LEAP and for the PRPBI-R subscale scores are presented in Table 12. These means are all consistent with well-functioning parents. Correlation coefficients for the LEAP and the PRPBI-R subscale scores are presented in Table 13. For hypothesis four, correlation analyses were computed to evaluate the relationship between parental emotional availability and measures of parental warmth. A similar analysis was completed for Partner LEAP scores. Evidence was found to

support hypothesis four. The LEAP scores for the overall sample were positively correlated with the Acceptance and Positive Involvement Subscales and were negatively correlated with the Withdrawal of Relations subscale. Self-reported LEAP scores and perceived partner LEAP scores were positively correlated with each other.

Table 12 Descriptive Statistics for LEAP and PRPBI-R Subscale Scores
(Acceptance, Positive Involvement, and Withdrawal of Relations)

Gender	Variable	Mean	SD	N
Mothers	Acceptance	34.89	3.46	118
	Positive Involvement	36.59	3.76	118
	Withdrawal of Relations	9.20	3.10	118
	Self-Reported LEAP	80.88	8.36	114
	Partner LEAP	69.66	16.45	91
Fathers	Acceptance	34.18	3.92	45
	Positive Involvement	35.58	4.04	45
	Withdrawal of Relations	9.11	2.48	45
	Self-Reported LEAP	74.63	10.91	43
	Partner LEAP	75.48	11.16	42
Total	Acceptance	34.69	3.60	163
	Positive Involvement	36.31	3.85	163
	Withdrawal of Relations	9.18	2.94	163
	Self-Reported LEAP	79.17	9.51	157
	Partner LEAP	71.50	15.18	133

An examination of the relationship between emotional availability and parental warmth was completed for fathers and mothers separately. Correlation coefficients for this analysis are presented in Table 14. Coefficients for fathers are presented below the diagonal and coefficients for mothers are presented above the diagonal. Analyses revealed significant positive correlations between fathers' Self-Reported LEAP scores and the Acceptance and Positive Involvement subscales. Although there was a negative correlation between

fathers' Self-Reported LEAP scores and the Withdrawal of Relations subscale, this relationship was not significant. Fathers' perceptions of their partners' emotional availability was found to have a significant positive correlation with the Positive Involvement subscale and with their own self-reported levels of emotional availability.

Mothers' Self-Reported LEAP scores had a significant positive correlation with the Acceptance and the Positive Involvement subscales and a significant negative correlation with the Withdrawal of Relations subscale. Mothers' perceptions of their partners' emotional availability was found to have a positive correlation with the Acceptance subscale and with their own Self-Reported levels of emotional availability. Overall, the analyses provide support for the hypothesis that the LEAP is construct valid as it has correlated well with measures of parental warmth as expected.

When evaluating LEAP scores by parents' gender, mothers' Self-Reported LEAP scores correlated well with measures of parental warmth while fathers' Self-Reported LEAP scores provided partial support for the hypotheses. Additionally, mothers and fathers reported their partners' emotional availability to be related to their interactions with their child in different ways. Fathers' perceptions of their partners' emotional availability were positively correlated with fathers' Positive Involvement with their children, whereas mothers' perceptions of their partners' emotional availability were positively associated with mothers' Acceptance of their children.

Table 13 Correlations for LEAP and PRPBI-R Subscales (Acceptance, Positive Involvement, and Withdrawal of Relations) for All Parents

	1	2	3	4	5
1 Acceptance	--				
2 Positive Involvement	.70**	--			
	163				
3 Withdrawal of Relations	-.28**	-.28**	--		
	163	163			
4 Self-Reported LEAP	.41**	.46**	-.18*	--	
	156	156	156		
5 Partner LEAP	.20*	.08	-.15	.35**	--
	132	132	132	132	

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

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

Note 2: Sample sizes used in the analyses are depicted beneath the correlation coefficient.

Table 14 Correlations for LEAP and PRPBI-R Subscales (Acceptance, Positive Involvement, and Withdrawal of Relations) by Parental Gender

	1	2	3	4	5
1 Acceptance	--	.65**	-.28**	.41**	.26**
		109	109	107	85
2 Positive Involvement	.77**	--	-.27**	.35**	.02
	32		109	107	85
3 Withdrawal of Relations	-.29	-.33	--	-.25**	-.18
	32	32		107	85
4 Self-Reported LEAP	.58**	.81**	-.19	--	.27*
	31	31	31		85
5 Partner LEAP	.27	.44*	.00	.64**	--
	30	30	30	30	

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

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

Note 1: Correlations for fathers are presented below the diagonal and correlations for mothers are presented above the diagonal.

Note 2: Sample sizes used in the analyses are depicted under the correlation coefficient.

Hypothesis 5. Hypothesis five proposed that parents who were willing to participate in future research would have higher levels of emotional availability. Participants were asked if they were willing to participate in future research

projects and if they were willing to have their family participate in future research. T-tests were computed to test for differences in Self-Reported LEAP scores and Partner LEAP scores as a function of participants' willingness to participate in future research. A t-test was also computed to test for differences in Self-Reported LEAP scores and Partner LEAP scores as a function of participants' willingness to participate in future research with their families. Participants who reported that they were not willing to participate in future research, but did not respond to the second question asking them if they would be willing to participate in future research with their families were considered to have also not been interested in participating in future research with their families. Results from the t-test did not support hypothesis five. T-test results presented in Table 15 indicate that there were no significant differences between parents who indicated a willingness to participate in future research and parents who indicated that they were unwilling to participate in future.

Additional t-tests were completed to evaluate whether parents who were willing to participate in future research reported higher levels of emotional availability for their partners than parents who were not willing to participate in future research. The results revealed no significant between group differences. When evaluating willingness to participate in future research by gender and emotional availability, no significant between group differences for were observed for father and mother Self-Reported LEAP scores or for father and mother Partner LEAP scores. Overall, hypothesis five was not supported.

Table 15 T-Statistic and Descriptive Scores for Father, Mother, and Combined Self-Reported LEAP Scores and Partner LEAP Scores.

	Participate in Future studies	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	T-Statistic (2-Tailed)	Sig.
Father Self-Reported LEAP	No	22	74.82	12.09	.116	N.S.
	Yes	21	74.43	9.81		
Fathers' Partner LEAP	No	22	74.50	11.67	-.590	N.S.
	Yes	20	76.55	10.77		
Mother Self-Reported LEAP	No	26	82.27	8.59	.820	N.S.
	Yes	83	80.74	8.25		
Mothers' Partner LEAP	No	19	71.58	18.69	.591	N.S.
	Yes	68	69.02	16.16		
Overall Self-Reported LEAP	No	48	78.85	10.89	-.364	N.S.
	Yes	104	79.46	8.91		
Overall Partner LEAP	No	41	73.15	15.19	.835	N.S.
	Yes	88	70.73	15.38		

Exploratory Analyses

In order to assess the relationship between parental emotional availability and Research Type, one way ANOVAs were completed. Although there are no known studies that support a relationship between emotional availability and research participation, there is a relationship between fathers' favorable attitudes toward the parental role when certain conditions are met, such as (among others) their perceptions that their wives evaluate them positively (Aldous, et al., 1998; Bonney, et al., 1999; Coley, et al., 1999). Due to the small sample size of fathers, there was insufficient power for computing a multi-factorial ANOVA. Additionally, t-tests were used to evaluate gender differences on measures of parental warmth, emotional availability, parent-child interaction time, child access

to parents, time at work or school (inclusive of time commuting), parents' age, and parental satisfaction with the distribution of family responsibilities.

In order to assess the relationship between parental emotional availability and Research Type, one-way ANOVAs were completed using Self-Reported LEAP scores and Partner LEAP scores. Results revealed no significant differences for Self-Reported LEAP scores and no significant differences for Partner LEAP scores as a function of Research Type. Thus, parental emotional availability was not related to the Research Type in which parents participated. One-way ANOVAs computed for the PRPBI-R subscales – Acceptance, Positive Involvement, and Withdrawal of Relations revealed no significant differences as a function of Research Type. Thus, parents exhibited similar levels of parental warmth across Research Type on the Acceptance, Positive Involvement, and Withdrawal of Relations subscales. See Table 16 for descriptive data and Table 17 for ANOVA results.

Table 16 Means for Self-Reported LEAP, Partner LEAP, Acceptance, Withdrawal of Relations, and Rejection by Research Type

	Research Type	Mean	N	SD
Acceptance	Academic	34.81	57	3.78
	Athletic	34.85	55	3.59
	Behavioral	34.47	49	3.37
	Total	34.72	161	3.58
Positive Involvement	Academic	36.04	57	4.80
	Athletic	36.31	55	3.31
	Behavioral	36.73	49	3.17
	Total	36.34	161	3.85
Withdrawal of Relations	Academic	8.95	57	2.69
	Athletic	9.20	55	3.21
	Behavioral	9.35	49	2.97
	Total	9.16	161	2.95
Rejection	Academic	33.30	57	2.92
	Athletic	32.58	55	4.41
	Behavioral	32.94	49	3.86
	Total	32.94	161	3.76
Self-Reported LEAP	Academic	78.84	56	8.87
	Athletic	78.52	54	9.94
	Behavioral	80.31	45	10.03
	Total	79.16	155	9.56
Partner LEAP	Academic	72.96	46	13.14
	Athletic	74.98	42	12.42
	Behavioral	66.09	43	18.41
	Total	71.35	131	15.24

Table 17 One Way ANOVA by Research Type (Academic, Athletic, or Behavioral) and Measures of Emotional Availability and Parental Warmth

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	Sig.
Research Type	Acceptance	17.49	2	8.74	.672	.512
	Positive Involvement	36.53	2	18.27	1.122	.329
	Withdrawal of Relations	1.25	2	.63	0.072	.931
	Self-Reported LEAP	251.16	2	125.58	1.430	.243
	Partner LEAP	1068.40	2	534.20	2.819	.064
Error	Acceptance	1613.19	124	13.01		
	Positive Involvement	2019.53	124	16.29		
	Withdrawal of Relations	1082.62	124	8.73		
	Self-Reported LEAP	10886.56	124	87.80		
	Partner LEAP	23499.06	124	189.51		
Total	Acceptance	155391.00	127			
	Positive Involvement	169686.00	127			
	Withdrawal of Relations	11443.00	127			
	Self-Reported LEAP	802797.00	127			
	Partner LEAP	686396.00	127			

Note: Two outliers removed from Behavioral Condition of the independent variable.

Similar one-way ANOVAs were completed to evaluate between group differences as a function of the independent variable Goal Framing. The dependent variables included Self-Reported LEAP score, Partner LEAP score, and the PRPBI-R subscales Acceptance, Positive Involvement, and Withdrawal of relations. Results revealed significant differences only for the Withdrawal of Relations subscale, $F(2) = 4.783$, $p = 0.01$). Bonferroni post hoc analyses revealed that participants in the negative Goal Framing condition reported significantly higher scores on the Withdrawal of Relations subscale than participants in the control condition (Bonferroni mean difference = 1.80, $p = 0.01$). Individuals within the Positive Frame condition did not significantly differ

from either the Negative Frame or Neutral Frame. See Table 18 for descriptive data and Table 19 for ANOVA results. Overall, these results offer some support for a relationship between framing influences and at least one measure of parental warmth.

Table 18 Means for Self-Reported LEAP, Partner LEAP, Acceptance, Withdrawal of Relations, and Rejection by Goal Framing

	Goal Framing	Mean	N	SD
Acceptance	Control	34.06	51	3.501
	Negative	34.91	56	3.615
	Positive	35.15	54	3.579
	Total	34.72	161	3.575
Positive Involvement	Control	35.96	51	4.660
	Negative	36.27	56	3.503
	Positive	36.78	54	3.352
	Total	36.34	161	3.852
Withdrawal of Relations	Control	8.43	51	2.594
	Negative	10.11	56	3.441
	Positive	8.85	54	2.453
	Total	9.16	161	2.947
Self-Reported LEAP	Control	78.5208	48	8.98696
	Negative	78.1429	56	10.88690
	Positive	80.8627	51	8.40957
	Total	79.1548	155	9.56057
Partner LEAP	Control	73.1905	42	14.19247
	Negative	72.5745	47	13.64574
	Positive	68.1429	42	17.60484
	Total	71.3511	131	15.23555

Table 19 One Way ANOVA for Goal Framing by Measures of Parental Warmth and Emotional Availability

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Goal Framing	Acceptance	17.615	2	8.808	.677	N.S.
	Positive Involvement	18.283	2	9.142	.556	N.S.
	Withdrawal of Relations	77.625	2	38.812	4.783	.010
	Self-Reported LEAP	61.019	2	30.510	.342	N.S.
	Partner LEAP	154.254	2	77.127	.392	N.S.
Error	Acceptance	1613.062	124	13.009		
	Positive Involvement	2037.827	124	16.434		
	Withdrawal of Relations	1006.249	124	8.115		
	Self-Reported LEAP	11076.697	124	89.328		
	Partner LEAP	24413.211	124	196.881		
Total	Acceptance	155391.000	127			
	Positive Involvement	169686.000	127			
	Withdrawal of Relations	11443.000	127			
	Self-Reported LEAP	802797.000	127			
	Partner LEAP	686396.000	127			

Note: Outliers removed from Partner LEAP
N.S. = Not Significant

The sample size in this study did not provide enough power to complete factorial ANOVAs. Thus, t-tests were used to evaluate parental differences on measures of parental warmth, emotional availability, parent–child interaction, parent–child access, parental satisfaction with family responsibilities, and who is more responsible for their child’s school work, discipline, daily care, and fun activities. Results indicated that mothers rated their own levels of emotional availability higher than fathers rated their own levels of emotional availability. Fathers’ ratings of their partners’ levels of emotional availability were higher than mothers’ ratings of their partners’ levels of emotional availability (which again

suggests higher maternal than paternal emotional availability). Fathers in this study were significantly older than mothers and were more satisfied with the distribution of family responsibilities than were mothers. Lastly, fathers reported that they had longer periods of accessibility during the week for their children than what mothers reported. No differences were noted in the amount of time mothers and fathers interacted with their children during the week. However, significant differences were found for parental reports of who has the most responsibility for their child's school work, discipline, daily care, and fun activities. For all activities, mothers reported that they have more responsibility than what fathers reported for each activity. Mean scores and t-test results are presented in Tables 20 and 21. Overall, both mothers and fathers see mothers as being more emotionally available for their children than fathers. Additionally, mothers' reports of their own level of responsibility for the management of their child's day-to-day needs was higher than fathers' reports of their own level of responsibility for the management of their child's day-to-day needs. Although mothers and fathers reported similar levels of interaction with their child, fathers believed that they were more accessible to their child during the week than mothers believed themselves to be.

To assess the relationship between parental emotional availability and children's developmental outcomes, correlations were computed between Self-Reported LEAP scores and CBCL subscale scores. Correlations were also computed between Partner LEAP scores and CBCL subscale scores. Although some of the parents provided domain ratings for their children that were

classified as either borderline or clinical, most parents reported that their children were within the normal range of functioning. See Table 22 for CBCL means and standard deviations.

As can be seen in Table 23, the correlations between Self-Reported LEAP scores and CBCL subscale scores revealed significant negative correlations for the following CBCL subscales: Somatic Complaints, Delinquent Behavior, Aggressive Behavior, Internalizing Problems, Externalizing Problems, and Total Problems. These results indicate that parents who have high levels of emotional availability have children who are less likely to experience these emotional/behavioral difficulties. Correlations between Partner LEAP scores and the CBCL revealed significant correlations for all CBCL subscale scores except Social Competence. Partner LEAP scores did have significant positive correlations with the CBCL's competence subscales (Activities and School Competence), but was not significantly correlated with the Social Competence subscale. Thus, the more parents perceived their partners to be emotionally available for their children, the more children were reported to have developed appropriate behaviors in their daily and extracurricular activities and in their school related activities. Partner LEAP scores were found to have significant negative correlations with all remaining clinical subscales on the CBCL. Thus, parents' perceptions of their partners' emotional availability for their child was perceived to be positively related to their child's mental health status. Overall, the LEAP is positively associated with measures of good developmental outcomes (the competence scales of the CBCL) and negatively associated with

indicators of poor developmental outcomes (the problem scales of the CBCL).

Thus, these results suggest that parental emotional availability plays an

important protective role in children's developmental outcomes.

Table 20 Means and T-test Results for Mothers and Fathers on Measures of Warmth, Emotional Availability

	Gender	N	Mean	SD	T – Statistic
Self-Reported LEAP	Female	114	80.88	8.36	3.40**
	Male	43	74.63	10.91	
Partner LEAP	Female	91	69.66	16.45	-2.39*
	Male	42	75.48	11.16	
Acceptance	Female	118	34.89	3.46	1.13
	Male	45	34.18	3.92	
Positive Involvement	Female	118	36.59	3.76	1.51
	Male	45	35.58	4.04	
Withdrawal of Relations	Female	118	9.20	3.10	0.18
	Male	45	9.11	2.48	
Rejection	Female	118	33.10	3.95	0.97
	Male	45	32.47	3.10	
Parent's Age	Female	117	42.74	9.23	-2.62**
	Male	45	46.76	7.33	

**p. ≤ .01

*p. ≤ .05

Table 21 Means and T-test Results for Mothers and Fathers on Measures of Parent – Child Interactions

	Gender	N	Mean	SD	T – Statistic
Average time spent at work, school, + commute time (in hours per week)	Female	118	43.02	16.38	
	Male	44	46.09	16.21	-1.07
Interaction time during the week (in hours per day)	Female	109	4.28	3.99	
	Male	36	3.86	3.83	-0.558
Interaction time during weekend (in hours per day)	Female	87	7.94	4.79	
	Male	21	6.43	4.02	-1.337
Accessibility during week (in hours per day)	Female	101	3.92	3.74	
	Male	38	6.29	8.37	2.305*
Accessibility during weekend (in hours per day)	Female	80	6.36	5.08	
	Male	20	7.95	4.01	1.28
Interaction during month (in hours per month)	Female	5	34.00	23.29	
	Male	5	10.80	14.38	1.9
Accessibility during month (in hours per month)	Female	5	15.40	12.64	
	Male	5	23.40	42.99	-0.4
Satisfaction with division of family responsibilities	Female	112	5.64	2.41	
	Male	44	7.07	1.53	-3.64**
Responsibility for Child's School Work	Female	116	2.87	1.83	
	Male	45	4.58	1.95	-5.226***
Responsibility for Child's Discipline	Female	117	4.07	2.00	
	Male	45	5.00	1.65	-2.781**
Responsibility for Child's Daily Care	Female	117	3.18	1.92	
	Male	45	4.00	1.73	-2.498*
Responsibility for Child's Fun Activities	Female	117	4.15	1.83	
	Male	45	5.53	1.69	-4.386***

Note: Lower scores equal greater maternal responsibility and higher scores equal greater paternal responsibility for Child's School Work, Child's Discipline, Child's Daily Care, and Child's Fun Activities.

***p. ≤ .001

**p. ≤ .01

*p. ≤ .05

Table 22 CBCL Mean T-Score and Clinical Categorization

CBCL Subscales	Clinical Categorization								
				Normal		Borderline		Clinical	
	N	Mean T-Score	SD	N	%	N	%	N	%
Total Problems	154	3.80	0.54	133	86.4	10	6.5	11	7.1
Externalizing Problems	154	3.88	0.41	141	91.6	5	3	8	4.9
Internalizing Problems	154	3.85	0.45	137	83.5	6	3.7	11	6.7
Aggressive Behavior	154	3.95	0.26	149	96.8	2	1.3	3	1.8
Delinquent Behavior	154	3.94	0.34	148	90.2	4	2.4	2	1.2
Attention Problems	154	3.95	0.30	149	90.4	3	1.8	2	1.2
Thought Problems	154	3.91	0.39	145	94.2	5	3.2	4	2.6
Social Problems	154	3.95	0.26	149	96.8	2	1.3	3	1.9
Anxious-Depressed	154	3.95	0.29	150	97.4	3	1.9	1	0.6
Somatic Complaints	154	3.92	0.35	146	94.8	4	2.6	4	2.6
Withdrawn	154	3.94	0.33	149	96.8	4	2.6	1	0.6
Total Competence	153	3.67	0.67	120	73.2	17	11.1	16	9.8
School Competence	154	3.92	0.38	146	94.8	5	3.2	3	1.9
Social Competence	152	3.90	0.39	142	93.4	5	3.3	5	3.3
Activities Competence	154	2.90	0.43	145	94.2	7	4.5	2	1.3

Table 23 Correlations between Parental Emotional Availability and the CBCL.

PROBLEMS		Self-Reported LEAP	Partner LEAP
Total Problems	Pearson Correlation N	-.21** 150	-.21** 126
Externalizing Problems	Pearson Correlation N	-.22** 151	-.26** 126
Internalizing Problems	Pearson Correlation N	-.20* 151	-.39** 126
Aggressive Behavior	Pearson Correlation N	-.20* 151	-.21* 126
Delinquent Behavior	Pearson Correlation N	-.20* 151	-.27** 126
Attention Problems	Pearson Correlation N	-.09 151	-.26** 126
Thought Problems	Pearson Correlation N	-.06 151	-.25** 126
Social Problems	Pearson Correlation N	-.09 151	-.30** 126
Anxious-Depressed	Pearson Correlation N	-.14 151	-.27** 126
Somatic Complaints	Pearson Correlation N	-.19* 151	-.30** 126
Withdrawn	Pearson Correlation N	-.17 151	-.34** 126
COMPETENCE			
Total Competence	Pearson Correlation N	.09 149	.25** 119
School Competence	Pearson Correlation N	.13 146	.18* 124
Social Competence	Pearson Correlation N	.02 149	.17 124
Activities Competence	Pearson Correlation N	.11 150	.27** 125

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

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

Note: Higher scores on problem subscales reflect more problems in those areas and higher scores on competence scores reflect more competence in those domains.

Discussion

Parental roles within the United States have changed significantly over the past century, especially over the course of the past twenty-five to thirty years (Caplan and Hall-McCorquodale, 1983; Dienhart, 1998;). Male and female roles in family responsibilities, initially unevenly distributed, have begun to merge and the distinction between paternal and maternal roles in the family is beginning to blur in some families. Fathers have traditionally been involved in teaching their children lessons about morality and have served as the primary breadwinners in the family. Mothers, on the other hand, have traditionally served as the primary caretaker and nurturer. These roles are no longer necessarily true as mothers and fathers have, in some instances, switched roles, and in other cases, they have distributed family responsibilities between them more equitably (Griswold, 1993; Lamb, 2000).

Although there have been these structural changes within many American families, many fathers and mothers continue to abide by traditional parental roles. These perceptions of what are considered to be traditional parental roles permeate our culture and have influenced researchers' beliefs that fathers are not likely to participate in research due to their inaccessibility and their unwillingness to participate in family studies (Phares, 1992). Efforts since the mid 1970's to increase the number of fathers involved in research have had some benefit as information on fathers and their roles within the family began to become more prominent in the literature (Boyd, 1985; Doherty, Kouneski, & Erickson, 1998; Phares, 1999). Despite the noted improvements, fathers

continue to be underrepresented in family research. Because of this underrepresentation, this study sought to examine differences in fathers' and mothers' willingness to participate in family related research.

In addition to determining parental willingness to participate in research, an examination of the nature of the request to participate in research was completed. Attribution theories have demonstrated that framing effects influence decision making and subsequent behavior. These effects have been observed to influence consumer behaviors and medical treatment seeking behaviors (Banks, et al., 1995; Ganzach & Karsahi, 1995; Meyerowitz & Chaiken, 1987). Of the three types of framing, Risky Choice Framing, Goal Framing, and Attribute Framing, this study focused on the application of Goal Framing and its potential to increase the numbers of fathers who agree to participate in research. Goal framing describes the action of a behavior in either a positive or negative manner, as providing some benefit or gain, or as preventing a loss or deficit. Evidence suggests that negative frames ultimately have a greater influence on individual behavior than positive frames (Levin, et al., 1998).

Thus, hypothesis one proposed that negatively framed requests would lead to higher rates of participation in the study. The study did not yield support for this hypothesis. It is possible that the framing manipulation presented a negative/loss condition that was too far removed from the current request for individuals to participate in this study. Although participants were given the framing letter and then asked to respond to their willingness to participate, perhaps the salience of the framing conditions got lost in the request for

participation. The negative frame was structured as missing out on an opportunity to help future unknown others by providing information that could be used to design necessary treatments and interventions. Some researchers have used framing manipulations that may be considered perceptually more salient and powerful (Banks, et al., 1995; Meyerowitz, et al., 1987), however, using similarly strong messages did not appear to be possible for this study. It was felt that a fine line had to be walked between presenting the information in a way that was consistent with the goal framing concept and presenting the information in a manner that would be tolerable to potential participants. Another potential explanation for the lack of support for this hypothesis is related to the characteristics of typical research participants. Typical research participants have been described as intelligent, more sociable, more educated, and financially secure (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1975) which describes this sample well. More than half of the participants were college graduates and the sample (on average) was middle class. Additionally, the framing manipulation was piloted with ten graduate students and an expert in the field, however, the impact of the framing manipulation may have been negated by everyone receiving the same informed consent form at the same time as the cover letter as required by the IRB.

Hypothesis two, which proposed that mothers would have a higher response rate than fathers, was not supported. Overall, women were more likely than men to respond to the initial request for their participation in the study whether they were qualified for the study or not. Additionally, when examining

the response rates based on Research Type, there was a significantly higher response rate for the Academic research condition than the Athletic research condition. However, there were no notable gender differences in response rates when examining gender across Research Type. These results are consistent with other studies that have reported higher refusal rates for fathers than mothers (Gattuso, Hinds, Tong, & Srivastava, 2006), but were inconsistent with Woollett, White, and Lyon's (1982) research review in which it was suggested that refusal and attrition rates were no different for fathers and mothers. Additionally, the difference in the male and female response rates noted within the current study is consistent with observations by Rosenthal and Rosnow (1975) in their extensive review of articles examining volunteers and nonvolunteers. These authors concluded that the overwhelming majority of research volunteers tend to be women.

Hypothesis three proposed that fathers would have higher levels of participation when they were asked to participate in athletic related research than when they were asked to participate in either behavioral or academic related research. This hypothesis was not supported. Interestingly, fathers meeting the inclusionary criteria for the study were more likely to respond to the request for their participation the Behavioral study than in the Athletic study. Yet, response rates for individuals who actually participated in the study yielded no significant differences by Research Type. The general lack of support for hypothesis three may be indicative of other factors influencing fathers' decisions regarding their participation in research. In a study examining reasons parents refused to

participate in clinical research protocols, parents reported that they did not want to participate in the research due to the research methods being too involved or burdensome, their worry about other issues such as family conflicts, not being interested in the research topic, not knowing why they did not want to participate, the topic (pediatric oncology studies), complex design issues such as multiple data collection times, personal traits such as shyness, situational circumstances within a given point in time, and not seeing any benefit for themselves in participating in the study (Gattuso et al., 2006). Since all of the topics presented in this study were somewhat comparable (i.e., related to children), perhaps the type of research was not seen as very salient to the potential participants.

Hypothesis four proposed that the LEAP, a measure of emotional availability, would be construct valid when compared with other measures of parental warmth. Specifically, the LEAP was expected to be positively associated with subscales from the PRPBI-R. The results supported this hypothesis. Similar to Lum and Phares (2005), the LEAP correlated well with self-reports on measures of parental warmth. Average parental ratings of emotional availability were high for self-report. They also reported high levels of Acceptance and Positive Involvement and low levels of Withdrawal of Relations on the PRPBI-R. Thus, parents who reported that they were more emotionally available were more accepting of their children, more involved with their children in positive ways and less withdrawn from their children.

Parents were also given the opportunity to assess their partners' levels of emotional availability. Significant positive correlations were found between study

participants for their own perceived levels of emotional availability and the perceived level of emotional availability of their partners. Additionally, fathers' ratings of their partners' emotional availability was higher than mothers' ratings of their partners' emotional availability. These beliefs about partner emotional availability are consistent with traditional parental roles in the United States and with research outcomes that have reported that fathers have been observed to have lower levels of emotional availability than mothers (Biringen, et al., 1998). It may be that mothers and fathers are acculturated to be either more or less emotionally expressive (respectively) in their interactions with their children (Vogel, 1998).

Further, fathers' reports of their partners' levels of emotional availability were related to their own self-reported levels of positive involvement whereas mothers' reports' of their partners' levels of emotional availability were related to their self-reported levels of acceptance. This is interesting when considering that fathers have been found to have a greater sense of their paternal role identities and be more psychologically aware of their children when they believe that their wives evaluate them positively (Barnett & Baruch, 1987). Although mothers' emotional availability does not address their perceptions of fathers directly, the study's sample characteristics are indicative of a stable, well-adjusted group which, in turn, allows for a fairly safe assumption that the partners of the fathers who participated in this study think well of them and the fathers are aware of it. The association between maternal acceptance of children and paternal levels of emotional availability may be an artifact of mothers feeling supported and

nurtured in their roles as mothers. It cannot be definitively concluded that high emotionally available fathers are also going to be more supportive and emotionally available for their partners, however, this is one possible conclusion that could be drawn from the results and examined in future research efforts.

Hypothesis five proposed that parents who were agreeable to participating in future research after this study would have higher levels of emotional availability. This hypothesis was not supported. Essentially, no differences were found for this variable for either participating in a future study on one's own or with one's family. There were twice as many participants who reported being willing to participate in future research as there were for individuals who reported that they were not interested in participating in future research. Similar results were obtained when evaluating partners' levels of emotional availability. Thus, it appears that the participants in this study may simply fit the characteristics of individuals who are more likely to participate in research as described by Rosenthal and Rosnow (1975) and Rosnow (1993).

EXPLORATORY ANALYSES

An evaluation of measures of parental warmth and emotional availability revealed that there were no differences in these variables either as a function of the type of research that participants were asked to participate in or as a function of the framing condition employed to solicit their participation. One exception was the difference found on the Withdrawal of Relations subscale of the PRPBI-R and Goal Framing. Participants in the negative framing condition reported that they were more withdrawn from their children than parents who were in the

control condition. There are no clear indications as to why this outcome was obtained, however, within the negatively framed letters the statements were designed to make people feel as if they may lose out on the opportunity to do something that they might consider valuable in some capacity. Further, the manipulated information within the letters specified potential outcomes that could be perceived as negative if they did not agree to participate in the study. Perhaps the negatively framed requests led the individuals who received it to respond from within a predominately negative mindset leading to the observed outcome. This pattern may have led to more negative reports of their relationship with their child.

Exploratory analyses were consistent with previous research which found that mothers' levels of emotional availability was perceived as higher than fathers' levels of emotional availability (Biringen, et al. 1998). Specifically, levels of emotional availability was perceived to be higher in mothers than in fathers when participants rated their own and their partners' levels of emotional availability. Despite the differences noted between ratings for mothers and fathers, both mothers and fathers were reported to have relatively high levels of emotional availability which would be consistent with a well-adjusted sample (Lum & Phares, 2005). Other differences noted between mothers and fathers should be explored in future research. For example, fathers in this sample were older than mothers, yet, both groups were middle-aged, fathers were more satisfied with the distribution of family responsibilities than mothers, but mothers were not unhappy about the distribution of family responsibilities, and a

comparison of time that children have access to parents revealed that fathers reported being more accessible (in hours) than mothers did.

Research has shown that fathers have an influence on their children's developmental outcomes (Hops & Seeley, 1992). However, no known research has examined fathers' levels of emotional availability and developmental outcomes. Gaining a better understanding of parental emotional availability and childhood functioning is an important step in the process for providing treatments that can target sources of dysfunction in family relationships. Thus, the relationship between parental emotional availability and childhood developmental outcomes was examined. Significant positive and negative relationships were found. Associations between self-reported emotional availability and perceptions of partners' levels of emotional availability were all negatively associated with indicators of developmental problems. This suggests that high parental emotional availability serves as an important protective factor for children's developmental outcomes. Additionally, emotional availability tended to be positively correlated with measures of social competence as assessed by the CBCL. These results are consistent with expectations regarding children's developmental outcomes and parental emotional support and empathy. Mallinckrodt (1992) reported that children with higher self-efficacy reported that their parents were more emotionally responsive, warm, and nurturing and Miller and Lane (1991) reported that supportive relationships with parents help to maintain adolescent well-being. One would anticipate and expect that higher levels of emotional availability would serve as a buffer against negative

developmental outcomes and the evidence found in this research project bears that out.

OTHER RESULTS

Responders vs. Nonresponders

As noted in Appendix Y, analyses of demographic data by response rates revealed that a greater number of employees agreed to participate from the University of South Florida (USF) than from Florida State University (FSU) and the University of Central Florida (UCF). The difference in response rates could be a reflection of the method used to request participation. Individuals from USF received interdepartmental mail requesting their participation and then were subsequently sent a packet of questionnaires if they agreed to participate in the study and met the inclusion criteria. On the other hand, individuals from UCF and FSU were sent emails requesting their participation in the study. While there are advantages to conducting research on the internet, there are also disadvantages. The internet allows for lower costs for running a study, larger potential sample sizes, recruitment of specialized populations, better generalization, lower measurement error than phone surveys, and lower levels of social desirability bias than phone surveys while simultaneously providing quality data similar to paper and pencil surveys and face to face interviews (Skitka & Sargis, 2006; Birnham, 2004).

Although there are other disadvantages, the method of recruitment may have been detrimental. Birnham (2004) suggested that it is bad manners to send unwanted and unsolicited emails requesting participation in research

studies as was done in this study. It was suggested that researchers were more likely to anger their potential participants. These emails can be perceived as spam by the receiver and it was suggested that better efforts be made to gain endorsement from a source trusted by potential participants. Additionally, institutions have improved their ability to reduce and eliminate the amount of unsolicited emails that may appear as spam, effectively limiting the number of emails that may have actually been received by the targeted sample. Last, low socioeconomic status (SES) employees may not have the same level of access to the internet and email as higher SES employees which, in turn, limits the sample distribution (Birnham, 2004).

The sample targeted for this study consisted of employees at three universities in the state of Florida. Although the universities were able to provide some basic demographic information on their employees, they were unable to provide information on the number of children each employee had due to confidentiality issues. Thus, targeting only employees who met the study's inclusion criteria was not possible. In all, 21.83% of the targeted sample responded to the study participation request.

As previously indicated, more mothers than fathers responded to the request for participation in the study and women had a higher response rate than men to the initial request for their participation within the study. Simply responding does not specify whether an individual was qualified to participate in the study, however, it is an indication that in terms of engaging in a simple action (i.e., returning answers to screening questions) women were more likely to

respond than men. Similarly, more Caucasians responded to the study than other racial groups. Although there were more Caucasian responders than other racial groups, Caucasians had an equal or lower rate of response than the other racial groups. Blacks had the highest return rate at 37.20%. Having more Caucasians respond to the request for their participation in the study is consistent with the findings of Rosenthal and Rosnow (1975) and Rosnow (1993) who have indicated that Caucasians are more likely to be study participants than individuals from other racial groups.

Responses from employees were received in decreasing numbers, respectively, from A&P Regular, USPS, and Faculty employees. USF did not provide contact information for faculty members and since USF had the highest number of people who responded to the study overall, it would not be unexpected to obtain response rates in the manner specified. In fact, FSU did not provide Pay Plan information for their employees. Finally, there were no age differences between Responders and Nonresponders, however, there were differences in average Annual Salary with Nonresponders having higher average annual salaries than people who responded to the request for their participation in research. It is possible that this difference in annual salary is related to sample distribution biases. Given the sample size of the FSU database, it is not likely that all employees were included in the database and, as mentioned earlier, USF did not provide information for faculty employees. Further, the employees who were at the highest end of the pay scale were less likely to respond to the request for their participation in the study. Although there was a

difference between the Responders and the Nonresponders, the Responders' average salary was sufficient for them to be classified as middle class. This outcome is consistent with Rosenthal and Rosnow (1975) and Rosnow (1993) who noted that study participants are typically middle class demographically.

QUALIFIED: Willing vs. Unwilling

Due to the truncated data available for analysis from the universities, people were asked to respond to the screening questions whether they were willing to participate in the study or not. This method allowed people to report whether or not they met the inclusion criteria even if they did not want to participate within the study. There were more mothers, numerically, willing to participate in the study than fathers; however, there was no difference in response rates between mothers and fathers (59.57% and 57.45%, respectively). Given the observed response rate one could generalize these numbers to a larger sample with similar characteristics concluding that participation rates would be similar between fathers and mothers, especially since fathers have been reported to have similar rates of participation in family research studies (Hops & Seeley, 1992; Phares, 1995; Woollett, White, & Lyon). Another difference observed in the group of individuals who were qualified to participate in the study involves the pay plan of the individual respondents. There were more people in the A&P Regular and USPS pay plans who were qualified for the study than in other pay plan categories. As discussed earlier, this could have resulted from the truncated sample provided from USF and the

lack of pay plan information from FSU. There were no other notable differences between those who were or were not qualified for the study.

AGREED: Complete vs. Incomplete

One of the main tasks of researchers is to engage individuals in the research process, especially after they have indicated that they are willing to participate. Many potential participants stated that they were willing to participate in research and did not follow through. A comparison of this group with those who actually completed the study revealed that a greater number of individuals who actually completed the study were employees of USF and that there were more female than male participants. Employees from USF had higher completion rates than employees from FSU and UCF. Additionally, it appears that employees at USF completed the study and failed to complete the study at very similar rates while employees at FSU and UCF had higher rates of incompletes than completes. USF employees were given paper and pencil letters and measures, so it is possible that providing the survey questions in this format contributed to the overall completion status. While going on-line to complete the survey may seem fairly easy, potential participants were unable to take the survey with them from one location to another to be completed at their leisure. To complete the survey on-line, individuals had to dedicate at least thirty minutes of their time to sitting down at a computer and reading and answering questions about themselves and their families. After completing a full day at work and having to go home to take care of family responsibilities, people may not have been as interested in using the computer for another task. Additionally,

potential participants from USF may have felt a higher level of dedication toward the project than potential participants from other universities. In a study of parents' participation in student related research at the University of Connecticut, 66.2% of participating fathers and 78.0% of participating mothers reported that they were willing to participate in the research project because they wanted to help the university (Phares, 1995).

Another relevant issue for this particular study is the comparison of this university sample to community samples. In order to do this, a review of Rosenthal and Rosnow (1975) results reveals a good standard for comparative purposes. Within relevant research studies, these authors noted that study volunteers were more likely to be women, more intelligent, better educated, and more sociable. The results of the current study reveals that the sample is highly educated and predominately female. While there are other good indicators noted by Rosenthal and Rosnow (1975), they were not evaluated within the current study. These issues should be explored in future research.

Methodological Concerns and Future Directions

Most studies could be improved in some way and this one is no different. There were several notable issues that could be improved in future research efforts. One important issue is the recruitment method used in this study. USF employees were asked to participate via interdepartmental mail while UCF and FSU employees were solicited via email. Employees who received emails had far fewer positive responses to the request for participation in the study. It is possible that people consider it rude to receive unsolicited emails (Birnham,

2004). Using alternatives to email solicitation may generate greater levels of support. For example, contact could be made via list serve, word of mouth, advertising on sites that focus on individuals of interest to the researcher, and internet advertising. Emailing everybody on a list is generally considered spam and institutions have gotten better at blocking spam due to the increasingly large amount of superfluous email that employees receive on a daily basis which results in decreased productivity. Thus, it is hard to know how many people actually received the initial request. Although internet based research is a feasible method of conducting research (Koch & Emery, 2001; Rowe, Poortinga, & Pidgeon, 2006), perhaps contacting people more directly via mail or through an intermediary agency and then directing participants to a secure internet site would facilitate greater levels of participation. Birnham (2004) indicated that using emails to contact individuals for participation in research is considered rude and other methods should be found to engage one's target sample.

Another limitation in this study was the lack of random selection. The names of the individuals who were provided by the respective institutions clearly were not exhaustive of the available employees, with the possible exception of UCF. Additionally, there were fewer people who agreed to complete the study on-line than via paper and pencil. Internet based research can be secure and offer the same level of confidentiality that a paper and pencil questionnaire offers, however, those who agree to complete surveys on-line may not have the same level of comfort with an internet based study as they do with a typical paper and pencil questionnaire. Further, those who agree to participate in an on-

line study are self-selected and may not be truly representative of the target population (Birnham, 2004). It is possible for people who would agree to participate in an on-line study to have different characteristics than those who would not agree to participate in an on-line study, but would agree to participate in a traditional paper and pencil version of a study. Future efforts could allow participants the option of completing the study with paper and pencil or via internet. This practice would help to avoid refusals due to low levels of comfort with what might still be considered a new medium – the internet.

Another methodological issue centers on the targeted population. It may have been better to target a population that is more likely to meet the inclusion criteria. Conducting the study within the public school system would have yielded a greater number of potential participants who actually met the inclusion criteria. Further, it was impossible to target a specific subset of individuals within the university system due to the lack of information about whether they qualified for inclusion in the study (i.e. whether they had children in the specified age range).

An issue related to the measures used in the study centers on the self-reported LEAP scores. One would expect that most high functioning parents would see themselves as having high levels of emotional availability and as highly supportive. However, parent reports and child reports often do not match (Achenbach et al., 1987; De Los Reyes & Kazdin, 2005). To accommodate this potential discrepancy, future efforts should allow for the comparison of parent and child reports of parental emotional availability. Parents should also be asked

to report on what they think their children would say about their levels of emotional availability. It seems likely that parents would be forced to contemplate the questions more and differences (even minor ones) are more likely to be observed.

Finally, Weathers (1993) suggested that providing incentives for study participants and using first class mail may improve response rates. This study did not use incentives and first class mail was not necessary because all correspondence was sent and received either via email or through interdepartmental mail. It is possible that the presentation of the correspondence upon the opening of the envelope could have been made to look more impressive or somewhat more eye catching than it did. However, it is important to note that the purpose of this study was to examine the effects of a framing manipulation on individual's willingness to engage in the research process. By introducing incentives and other variables designed to increase study participation rates, a clear analysis of the framing manipulation's influence would not have been possible without changing the study's design to unwieldy proportions and without reducing the power necessary to detect group differences.

Summary

In summary, the results of this project did not support the use of Goal Framing as a potential tool for increasing participation rates of fathers in family related research. Goal Framing manipulations were used to determine whether the nature of the request has any impact upon fathers' decisions to participate in

research. Another manipulation included the type of research in which participants were asked to participate (Academic, Athletic, or Behavioral). There were no differences in participation rates based upon the nature of the research being conducted.

In addition, there were more female than male participants. Despite the finding of a significant difference in response rates, the relative gender response rates may not, as a practical matter, make that much of a difference to researchers.

Finally, the LEAP was found to be construct valid as a measure of parental emotional availability. The LEAP had not been previously validated on a parent sample. Future research on the LEAP should focus on evaluating the factor structure based on parents' self-reports. Additionally, emotional availability was found to be associated with measures of childhood developmental outcomes, but not with parents' willingness to participate in future research either alone or with their family.

Overall, this study suggests that both mothers and fathers can participate in child-related research at similar levels and that their responses are meaningful. Additional research is needed to understand why the well-established process of framing did not impact participation rates of mothers and fathers.

References

- Achenbach, T. M., Dumenci, L., & Rescorla, L. A. (2002). Ten-year comparisons of problems and competencies for national samples of youth: Self, parent and teacher reports. *Journal of Emotional & Behavioral Disorders, 10*, 194-203.
- Achenbach, T. M., McConaughy, S. H., & Howell, C. T. (1987). Child/adolescent behavioral and emotional problems: Implications of cross-informant correlations for situational specificity. *Psychological Bulletin, 101*, 213-232.
- Ainsworth, M. S., Blehar, M. C., Waters, E., & Wall, S. (1978). *Patterns of attachment: A psychological study of the strange situation*. Oxford, England: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Aldous, J., Mulligan, G. M., & Bjarnason, T. (1998). Fathering over time: What makes the difference? *Journal of Marriage & the Family, 60*, 809-820.
- Anderman, C., Cheadle, A., Curry, S., Diehr, P., et al. (1995). Selection bias related to parental consent in school-based survey research. *Evaluation Review, 19*, 663-674.
- Aviezer, O., Sagi, A., Joels, T. & Ziv, Y. (1999). Emotional availability and attachment representations in kibbutz infants and their mothers. *Developmental Psychology, 35*, 811-821.
- Banks, S. M., Salovey, P., Greener, S., Rothman, A. J., Beauvais, J., & Epel, E. (1995). The effects of message framing on mammography utilization. *Health Psychology, 14*, 178-184.
- Barnett, R. C. & Baruch, G. K. (1987). Determinants of fathers' participation in family work. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 49*, 29-40.
- Bernard, L. G. & Walsh, R. P. (2002). Variations in a university subject pool as a function of earlier or later participation and self-report: A replication and extension. *Psychological Reports, 91*, 553-570.
- Biringen, Z. (2000). Emotional availability: Conceptualization and research findings. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 70* 104-114.
- Biringen, Z., Brown, D., Donaldson, L., Green, S., Krcmarik, S., & Lovas, G. (2000). Adult attachment interview: Linkages with dimensions of emotional availability for mothers and their pre-kindergartners. *Attachment & Human Development, 2*(2), 188-202.

- Biringen, Z. & Robinson, J. (1991). Emotional availability in mother-child interactions. A reconceptualization for research. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, 61, 258-271.
- Biringen, Z., Robinson, J. L., & Emde, R. N. (1998). Appendix B: The Emotional Availability Scales (3rd ed.; an abridged infancy/early childhood version). *Attachment & Human Development*, 2, 245-270.
- Birnbaum, M. H. (2004). Human research and data collection via the internet. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 55, 803-832.
- Bonney, J. F., Kelley, M. L., & Levant, R. F. (1999). A model of fathers= behavioral involvement in child-care in dual-earner families. *Journal of Family Psychology*, 13, 401-415
- Bowlby, J. (1982). Attachment and loss: Retrospect and prospect. *Annual Progress in Child Psychiatry & Child Development*, 52, 29-47.
- Boyd, S. T. (1985). Study of the father: Research methods. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 29, 112-128.
- Braver, S. L. & Bay, R. C. (1992). Assessing and compensating for self-selection bias (non-representativeness) of the family research sample. *Journal of Marriage & the Family*, 54, 925-939.
- Bretherton, I. (2000). Emotional availability: An attachment perspective. *Attachment & Human Development*, 2, 233-241.
- Brewer, M. B. & Kramer, R. M. (1986). Choice behavior in social dilemmas: Effects of social identity, group size, and decision framing. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, 50, 543-549.
- Bronstein, P. (1988). Marital and parenting roles in transition: An overview. In P. Bronstein & C. P. Cowan (Eds.), *Fatherhood today: Men's changing role in the family* (pp. 3-10). New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.
- Bronstein, P., & Cowan, C. P. (1988). *Fatherhood today: Men's changing role in the family*. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.
- Caplan, P. J. & Hall-McCorquodale, I. (1983). Mother-blaming in major clinical journals. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, 55, 345-353.
- Caspi, A., Taylor, A., Smart, M., Jackson, J., Tagami, S., & Moffitt, T. E. (2001). Can women provide reliable information about their children's fathers? Cross-informant agreement about men's lifetime antisocial behaviour. *Journal of Child Psychology & Psychiatry & Allied Disciplines*, 42, 915-920.

- Cochran, W. G. (1977). *Sampling Techniques* (3rd ed.). New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Coley, R. L., Chase-Lansdale, P. L. (1999). Stability and change in paternal involvement among urban African American fathers. *Journal of Family Psychology, 13*, 416-435.
- Comry, A. L. & Lee, H. B. (1992). *A first course in factor analysis: Second edition*. Hillsdale, N.J., Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Coley, R. L. (2001). (In)visible men: Emerging research on low-income, unmarried, and minority fathers. *American Psychologist, 56*, 743-753.
- Connell, A. M. & Goodman, S. H. (2002). The association between psychopathology in fathers versus mothers and children's internalizing and externalizing behavior problems: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin, 128*, 746-773.
- Costigan, C. L., & Cox, M. J. (2001). Fathers' participation in family research: Is there a self-selection bias? *Journal of Family Psychology, 15*, 706-720.
- Coye, R. W. (1985). Characteristics of participants and nonparticipants in experimental research. *Psychological Reports, 56*, 19-25.
- Dedmon, A. M. M. (2000). The availability, use, and participation of multiple informants in the assessment of child and adolescent psychopathology in research and practice. *Dissertation Abstracts International, 60*(8-B), 4215.
- De Los Reyes, A. & Kazdin, A. E. (2005). Informant discrepancies in the assessment of childhood psychopathology: A critical review, theoretical framework, and recommendations for further study. *Psychological Bulletin, 131*, 483-509.
- De Los Reyes, A. & Kazdin, A. E. (2004). Measuring informant discrepancies in clinical child research. *Psychological Assessment, 16*, 330-334.
- Dienhart, A. (1998). *Reshaping fatherhood: The social construction of shared parenting*. Thousand Oaks, California. Sage Publications.
- Doherty, W. J., Kouneski, E. F., & Erickson, M. F. (1998). Responsible fathering: An overview and conceptual framework. *Journal of Marriage & the Family, 60*, 277-292.
- Doll, B. (1992). Review of the Child Behavior Checklist. From J. C. Impara & B. S. Plake (Eds.). *The thirteenth mental measurements yearbook* [Electronic version]. Retrieved August 28, 2003, from the Mental Measurements Yearbook Database.

- Duhig, A. M., Phares, V., & Birkeland, R. W. (2002). Involvement of fathers in therapy: A survey of clinicians. *Professional Psychology: Research & Practice*, 33, 389-395.
- Eagly, A. H. (1995). The science and politics of comparing women and men. *American Psychologist*, 50, 145-158.
- Easterbrooks, M. A. & Biringen, Z. (2000). Guest editors' introduction to the special issue: Mapping the terrain of emotional availability and attachment. *Attachment & Human Development*, 2, 123-129.
- Ehrenberg, M. F., Gearing-Small, M., Hunter, M. A., & Small, B. J. (2001). Childcare task division and shared parenting attitudes in dual-earner families with young children. *Family Relations: Interdisciplinary Journal of Applied Family Studies*, 50, 143-153.
- Elster, A. B. & Lamb, M. E. (1982). Adolescent fathers: A group potentially at risk for parenting failure. *Infant Mental Health Journal*, 3, 148-155.
- Emde, R. N. (2000). Next steps in emotional availability research. *Attachment & Human Development*, 2, 242-248.
- Fleishman, J. A. (1988). The effects of decision framing and others' behavior on cooperation in a social dilemma. *Journal of Conflict Resolution*, 32, 162-181.
- Fry, P. S. & Grover, S. C. (1983). An exploration of the child's perspective: Children's perceptions of parental treatment, personal anxiety and attributions of blame in single-parent families. *Journal of Psychiatric Treatment & Evaluation*, 5, 353-362.
- Furlong, M. J. & Wood, M. (1992). Review of the Child Behavior Checklist. From J. C. Impara & B. S. Plake (Eds.). *The thirteenth mental measurements yearbook* [Electronic version]. Retrieved August 28, 2003, from the Mental Measurements Yearbook Database.
- Galambos, N. L., Barker, E. T., & Almeida, D. M. (2003). Parents do matter: Trajectories of change in externalizing and internalizing problems in early adolescence. *Child Development*, 74, 578-594.
- Gallo, L. C., Smith, T. W., & Ruiz, J. M. (2003). An interpersonal analysis of adult attachment style: Circumplex descriptions, recalled developmental experiences, self-representations and interpersonal functioning in adulthood. *Journal of Personality*, 71, 141-181.
- Ganzach, Y. & Karsahi, N. (1995). Message framing and buying behavior: A field experiment. *Journal of Business Research*, 32, 11-17.

- Gattuso, J., Hinds, P., Tong, X, & Srivastava, K. (2006). Monitoring child and parent refusals to enroll in clinical research protocols. *Journal of Advanced Nursing, 53*, 319-326.
- Gershen, J. A. & McCreary, C. P. (1983). Personality comparisons of responders and nonresponders to a mailed personality inventory. *Psychological Reports, 52*, 555-562.
- Grewal, D., Gotlieb, J. & Marmorstein, H. (1994). The moderating effects of message framing and source credibility on the price-perceived risk relationship. *Journal of Consumer Research, 21*, 145-153.
- Griswold, R. L. (1993). *Fatherhood in America: A history*. New York: Basic Books.
- Hans, D. G. (2001). Emotional availability of fathers and capacity for intimacy in their adult gay sons. *Dissertation Abstracts International, 61*(8-B), 4474.
- Harel, J., Eshel, Y. & Ganor, O. (2002). Antecedents of mirror self-recognition of toddlers: Emotional availability, birth order and gender. *Infant Mental Health Journal, 23*, 293-309.
- Hofferth, S. L., Pleck, J., Stueve, J. L., Bianchi, S., & Sayer, L. (2002). The demography of fathers: What do fathers do?
- Homer, P. M. & Yoon, S. (1992). Message framing and the interrelationships among ad-based feelings, affect, and cognition. *Journal of Advertising, 21*, 19-32.
- Hops, H., & Seeley, J. R. (1992). Parent participation in studies of family interaction: Methodological and substantive considerations. *Behavioral Assessment, 14*, 229-243.
- Jacob, T. & Windle, M. (1999). Family assessment: Instrument dimensionality and correspondence across family reporters. *Journal of Family Psychology, 13*, 339-354.
- Jaffee, S. R., Moffitt, T. E., Caspi, A., & Taylor, A. (2003). Life with (or without) father: The benefits of living with two biological parents depend on the father's antisocial behavior. *Child Development, 74*, 109-126.
- Janus, M., & Goldberg, S. (1997). Factors influencing family participation in a longitudinal study: Comparison of pediatric and health samples. *Journal of Pediatric Psychology, 22*, 245-262.
- Judd, C. M., Smith, E. R., & Kidder, L. H. (1991). *Research methods in social relations: Sixth edition*. Orlando, FL. Harcourt Brace

- Juster, F. T. (1985). A note on recent changes in time use. In F. T. Juster & F. Stafford (Eds.), *Time, goods, and well-being* (pp. 313-332). Ann Arbor, MI: Institute for Social Research.
- Kahneman, D., Knetsch, J., & Thaler, r. H. (1990). Experimental tests of the endowment effect and the Coase Theorem. *Journal of Political Economy*, 98, 1325-1348.
- Kaufman, A. S. (1990). *Assessing adolescent and adult intelligence*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc.
- Koch, N. S. & Emrey, J. A. (2001). The internet and opinion measurement: Surveying marginalized populations. *Social Science Quarterly*, 82, 131-138.
- Kuehner, C., Angermeyer, M. C., & Veiel, H. O. F. (1996). Cognitive-behavioral group intervention as a means of tertiary prevention in depressed patients: Acceptance and short-term efficacy. *Cognitive Therapy & Research*, 20, 391-409.
- Lamb, M. E. (1986). *The father's role: Applied perspectives*. New York: J. Wiley.
- Lamb, M. E. (2000). The history of research on father involvement: An overview. *Marriage & Family Review*, 29, 23-42.
- Lamb, M. E. (2004). *The role of the father in child development (4th ed.)*. New York: Wiley.
- LaRossa, R., Gordon, B. A., Wilson, R. J., Bairan, A., & Jaret, C. (1991). The fluctuating image of the 20th century American father. *Journal of Marriage and the Family* 53, 987-997.
- LaRossa, R., Jaret, C., Gadgil, M., & Wynn, G. R. (2000). The changing culture of fatherhood in comic-strip families: A six-decade analysis. *Journal of Marriage & the Family*, 62, 375-387.
- Levin, I. P. (1987). Associative effects of information framing. *Bulletin of the Psychonomic Society*, 25, 85-86.
- Levin, I. P., & Gaeth, G. J. (1988). How consumers are affected by the framing of attribute information before and after consuming the product. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 15, 374-378.
- Levin, I. P., Snyder, M. A., & Chapman, D. P. (1988). The interaction of experiential and situational factors and gender in a simulated risky decision-making task. *Journal of Psychology*, 122, 173-181.

- Levin, I. P., Schneider, S. L., & Gaeth, G. J. (1998). All frames are not created equal: A typology and critical analysis of framing effects. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 76, 149-188.
- Lewis, C. & Lamb, M. E. (2003). Fathers' influence on children's development: The evidence from two-parent families. *European Journal of Psychology of Education - EJPE*, 18, 212-217.
- Lovas, G. S. (2002). Early gender development in the context of parent/toddler interactions: Emotional availability and language development. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 63(5-B), 2622.
- Lum, J. J. & Phares, V. (2005). Assessing the emotional availability of parents. *Journal of Psychopathology and Behavioral Assessment*, 27, 211-226..
- Lum, J. J., Phares, V., & Roberts, M. K. (1996, August). Development and validation of the Lum Emotional Availability of Parenting (LEAP) Scale. Poster presented at the American Psychological Association Annual Meeting, Toronto, Canada.
- Mallinckrodt, B. (1992). Childhood emotional bonds with parents, development of adult social competencies, and availability of social support. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 39, 453-461.
- McBride, B. A. & Rane, T. R. (1997). Role identity, role investments, and paternal involvement: Implications for parenting programs for men. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 12, 173-197.
- McCusker, C. & Carnevale, P. J. (1995). Framing in resource dilemmas: Loss aversion and the moderating effects of sanctions. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 61, 190-201.
- Meyerowitz, B. E., & Chaiken, S. (1987). The effect of message framing on breast self-examination attitudes, intentions, and behavior. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, 52, 500-510.
- Miller, J. B. & Lane, M. (1991). Relations between young adults and their parents. *Journal of Adolescence*, 14, 179-194.
- Morris, B. (2002). Most powerful women in business: Trophy husbands. Fortune Magazine. Retrieved October 2002, from <http://www.fortune.com/fortune/women/articles/0%2C15114%2C370514%2C00.html>.
- Noll, R. B., Zeller, M. H., Vannatta, K. Bukowski, W. M., & Davies, W. Hobart (1997). Potential bias in classroom research: Comparison of children with

permission and those who do not receive permission to participate. *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology*, 26, 36-42.

Oyen, A., Landy, S., & Hilburn-Cobb, C. (2000). Maternal attachment and sensitivity in an at-risk sample. *Attachment & Human Development*, 2, 203-217.

Parke, R. D. (1996). *Fatherhood*. London, England: Cambridge University Press.

Parke, R. D. (2000). Father involvement: A developmental psychological perspective. In H. E. Peters, G. W. Peterson, S. K. Steinmetz, & R. D. Day (Eds.), *Fatherhood: Research, interventions and policies* (pp. 43-58). New York: The Haworth Press, Inc.

Parke, R. D. & Brott, A. A. (1999). *Throwaway dads: The myths and barriers that keep men from being the fathers they want to be*. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Pasley, K. Futris, T., G., & Skinner, M. L. (2002). Effects of commitment and psychological centrality on fathering. *Journal of Marriage & Family*, 64, 130-138.

Phares, V. (1992). Where's Poppa? The relative lack of attention to the role of fathers in child and adolescent psychopathology. *American Psychologist*, 47, 656-664.

Phares, V. (1995). Fathers' and mothers' participation in research. *Adolescence*, 30, 593-602.

Phares, V. (1999). *"Poppa" psychology: the role of fathers in children's mental well-being*. Westport, Connecticut: Praeger.

Phares, V., & Compas, B. E. (1992). The role of fathers in child and adolescent psychopathology: Make room for daddy. *Psychological Bulletin*, 111, 387-412.

Phares, V., Fields, S., Kamboukos, D., & Lopez, E. (2005). Still looking for Poppa: The continued lack of attention to the role of fathers in developmental psychopathology. *American Psychologist*, 60, 735-736.

Phares, V., Lopez, E., Fields, S., Kamboukos, D., & Duhig, A. M. (2005). Are fathers involved in pediatric psychology research and treatment? *Journal of Pediatric Psychology*, 30, 631-643.

- Pleck, J. H. (1997). Paternal involvement: levels, sources, and consequences. In M. E. Lamb (Ed.). *The role of the father in child development - Third Edition* (pp. 66-103). New York: Wiley.
- Pleck, J. H. & Masciadrelli, B. P. (2004). Paternal involvement by U.S. residential fathers: Levels, sources and consequences. In M. E. Lamb (Ed.), *The role of the father in child development* (4th ed., p. 222-271). New York: Wiley.
- Pleck, E. H. & Pleck, J. H. (1997). Fatherhood ideals in the United States: Historical dimensions. In M. E. Lamb (Ed.). *The role of the father in child development - Third Edition* (pp. 33-48). New York: Wiley.
- Pohl, J. M., Martinelli, A., & Antonakos, C. (1998). Predictors of participation in a smoking cessation intervention group among low-income women. *Addictive Behaviors, 23*, 699-704.
- Ramich, C. W. (2002). Sample composition in research with parents and children: Comparing recruitment strategies and target populations. *Dissertation Abstracts International, 62*(7-B), p 3387.
- Robinson, J. & Little, C. (1994). Emotional availability in mother-twin dyads: Effects on the organization of relationships. *Psychiatry: Interpersonal & Biological Processes, 57*, 222-231.
- Rogers, S. J., & White, L. K. (1998). Satisfaction with parenting: The role of marital happiness, family structure, and parents' gender. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 60*, 293-308.
- Rosenthal, R., & Rosnow, R. L. (1975). *The volunteer subject*. New York: John Wiley.
- Rosnow, R. L. (1993). The volunteer problem revisited. In P. D. Blanck (Ed.), *Interpersonal expectations: Theory, research, and applications. Studies in emotion and social interaction* (pp 418-436). New York: Cambridge University Press
- Rowe, G. Poortinga, W. & Pidgeon, N. (2006). A comparison of responses to internet and postal surveys in a public engagement context. *Science Communication, 27*, 352-375.
- Russell, G. (1986). Shared parenting: A new childrearing trend? *Early Child Development & Care, 24*, 139-153.

- Sattler, J. M. (1992). *Assessment of children: Revised and updated (Third ed.)*. San Diego, California: Jerome M. Sattler, Publisher, Inc.
- Schaefer, E. S. (1965). Children's reports of parental behavior: An inventory. *Child Development, 36*, 413-424.
- Schludermann, E. & Schludermann, S. (1970). Replicability of factors in children's report of parent behavior (CRPBI). *Journal of Psychology, 76*, 239-249.
- Schoorman, F. D., Mayer, R. C., Douglas, C. A., & Hetrick, C. T. (1994). Escalation of commitment and the framing effect: An empirical investigation. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 24*, 509-528.
- Silverstein, L. B. (2002). Fathers and families. In J. P. McHale & W. S. Grolnick (Eds.), *Retrospect and prospect in the psychological study of families* (pp. 35-64). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Skitka, L. J. and Sargis, E. G. (2006). The internet as psychological laboratory. *Annual Review of Psychology, 57*, 529-555.
- Smith, H. L., & Morgan, S. P. (1994). Children's closeness to father as reported by mothers, sons and daughters: Evaluating subjective assessments with the Rasch Model. *Journal of Family Issues, 15*, 3-29.
- Stryker, S. & Serpe, R. T. (1994). Identity salience and psychological centrality: Equivalent, overlapping, or complementary concepts? *Social Psychology Quarterly, 57*, 16-36.
- Thompson, B. & Curry, S. J. (1994). Characteristics and predictors of participation and success in a televised smoking cessation activity. *American Journal of Health Promotion, 8*, 175-177.
- Tversky, A., & Kahneman, D. (1981). The framing of decisions and the psychology of choice. *Science, 211*, 453-458.
- Vogel, C. R. (1998). Paternal emotional availability and relatedness in toddler sons. *Dissertation Abstracts International, 59*(2-B), 0898.
- Volling, B., McElwain, N., Notaro, P. C., & Herrera, C. (2002). Parents' emotional availability and infant emotional competence: Predictors of parent-infant attachment and emerging self-regulation. *Journal of Family Psychology, 16*, 447-465.

- Waite, B. M., Claffey, R., & Hillbrand, M. (1998). Differences between volunteers and nonvolunteers in a high-demand self-recording study. *Psychological Reports, 83*, 199-210.
- Weathers, P. L., Furlong, M. J., & Solorzano, D. (1993). Mail survey research in counseling psychology: Current practice and suggested guidelines. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 40*, 238-244.
- Woollett, A., White, D. G., & Lyon, M. L. (1982). Studies involving fathers: Subject refusal, attrition and sampling bias. *Current Psychological Reviews, 2*, 193-212.
- Zelenski, J. M., Rusting, C. L., & Larsen, R. J. (2003). Consistency in time of experiment participation and personality correlates: A methodological note. *Personality & Individual Differences, 34*, 547-558.
- Ziv, Y., Aviezer, O., Gini, M., Sagi, A. & Koren-Karie, N. (2000). Emotional availability in the mother-infant dyad as related to the quality of infant-mother attachment relationship. *Attachment & Human Development, 2*, 149-169.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Request to Participate Cover Letter: Positive/Gain Valence/Academic

Department of Psychology
PCD 4118G

Date: _____

Dear Mr./Ms. _____

This letter is a request for your participation in a study on families and children's academic outcomes. Although your child does not have to be in school for you to participate in this study, your child must be between the ages of 6 and 18 years of age. As I'm sure you are aware, family research has led to many discoveries. These discoveries have helped families to understand themselves better and make better decisions in the future. It is important to note that without the help of willing parents, family research would not have progressed as far as it has today. We are asking for your assistance because:

- Participation in family research studies can ultimately lead to more happy children and well-adjusted families.
- Participation in family research studies can help to enhance parenting skills and improve children's developmental outcomes.
- Participation in family research studies may lead to improvements in academic outcomes and may contribute to lower levels of disruptive school behaviors for children who experience difficulties in these areas.
- Participation in family research studies can lead to a gain in critical information for designing effective interventions for the enhancement of children's social skills, resistance to peer pressure, sportsmanship, and decision making.
- Participation in family research studies can eventually contribute to improvements in children's adult outcomes in employment, family functioning, and mental health.

We, as researchers, value our participants and the important information they provide to us. This is why we are asking you to participate in our study. We ask that you complete the enclosed postcard to let us know whether or not you are interested in participating in a research project examining families and children's academic outcomes. If you agree to participate, you will be sent a set of questionnaires to be completed and returned via campus mail. You are under no obligation to participate in this research study. Please allow us to thank you in advance for your time, consideration, and attention to our request.

Sincerely,

David Clay, M. A.
Ph.D. Candidate
University of South Florida,
Department of Psychology
PCD 4119G, 4202 E. Fowler Ave.
Tampa, FL 33620
(813) 974-9222 (Research Lab)
dclay2@mail.usf.edu

APPENDIX B

Request to Participate Cover Letter: Negative/Loss Valence/Academic

USF Department of Psychology
PCD 4118G

Date: _____

Dear Mr./Ms. _____

This letter is a request for your participation in a study on families and children's academic outcomes. Although your child does not have to be in school for you to participate in this study, your child must be between the ages of 6 and 18 years of age. As I'm sure you are aware, family research has led to many discoveries. These discoveries have helped families to understand themselves better and make better decisions in the future. It is important to note that without the help of willing parents, family research would not have progressed as far as it has today. We are asking for your assistance because:

- Not participating in family research studies can ultimately lead to more unnecessary suffering among children and poorly adjusted families.
- Not participating in family research studies can allow the continuation of poor parenting skills and contribute to children's negative developmental outcomes.
- Not participating in family research studies may prevent improvements in academic outcomes and may maintain higher levels of disruptive school behaviors for children who experience difficulties in these areas.
- Not participating in family research studies can result in a loss of critical information for designing effective interventions for the enhancement of children's social skills, resistance to peer pressure, sportsmanship, and decision making.
- Not participating in family research studies can eventually contribute to deficiencies in children's adult outcomes in employment, family functioning, and mental health.

We, as researchers, value our participants and the important information they provide to us. This is why we are asking you to participate in our study. We ask that you complete the enclosed postcard to let us know whether or not you are interested in participating in a research project examining families and children's academic outcomes. If you agree to participate, you will be sent a set of questionnaires to be completed and returned via campus mail. You are under no obligation to participate in this research study. Please allow us to thank you in advance for your time, consideration, and attention to our request.

Sincerely,

David Clay, M. A.
Ph.D. Candidate
University of South Florida,
Department of Psychology
PCD 4119G, 4202 E. Fowler Ave.
Tampa, FL 33620
(813) 974-9222 (Research Lab)
dclay2@mail.usf.edu

APPENDIX C

Request to Participate Cover Letter: Control Group/AcademicUSF Department of Psychology
PCD 4118G

Date: _____

Dear Mr./Ms. _____

This letter is a request for your participation in a study on families and children's academic outcomes. Although your child does not have to be in school for you to participate in this study, your child must be between the ages of 6 and 18 years of age. As I'm sure you are aware, family research has led to many discoveries. These discoveries have helped families to understand themselves better and make better decisions in the future. It is important to note that without the help of willing parents, family research would not have progressed as far as it has today. We are asking for your assistance.

We, as researchers, value our participants and the important information they provide to us. This is why we are asking you to participate in our study. We ask that you complete the enclosed postcard to let us know whether or not you are interested in participating in a research project examining families and children's academic outcomes. If you agree to participate, you will be sent a set of questionnaires to be completed and returned via campus mail. You are under no obligation to participate in this research study. Please allow us to thank you in advance for your time, consideration, and attention to our request.

Sincerely,

David Clay, M. A.
Ph.D. Candidate
University of South Florida,
Department of Psychology
PCD 4119G, 4202 E. Fowler Ave.
Tampa, FL 33620
(813) 974-9222 (Research Lab)
dclay2@mail.usf.edu

APPENDIX D

Request to Participate Cover Letter: Positive/Gain Valence/Child Behavior

Department of Psychology
PCD 4118G

Date: _____

Dear Mr./Ms. _____

This letter is a request for your participation in a study on families and their children's behavior. Although your child does not have to be seeing a counselor of some kind or experiencing unusual behavioral or emotional difficulties, your child must be between the ages of 6 and 18 years of age. As I'm sure you are aware, family research has led to many important discoveries that have helped families understand themselves better and make better decisions in the future. It is important to note that without the help of willing parents, family research would not have progressed as far as it has today. We are asking for your assistance because:

- Participation in family research studies can ultimately lead to more happy children and well-adjusted families.
- Participation in family research studies can help to enhance parenting skills and improve children's developmental outcomes.
- Participation in family research studies may lead to improvements in academic outcomes and may contribute to lower levels of disruptive school behaviors for children who experience difficulties in these areas.
- Participation in family research studies can lead to a gain in critical information for designing effective interventions for the enhancement of children's social skills, resistance to peer pressure, sportsmanship, and decision making.
- Participation in family research studies can eventually contribute to improvements in children's adult outcomes in employment, family functioning, and mental health.

We, as researchers, value our participants and the important information they provide to us. This is why we are asking you to participate in our study. We ask that you complete the enclosed postcard to let us know whether or not you are interested in participating in a research project examining families and children's behavior. If you agree to participate, you will be sent a set of questionnaires to be completed and returned via campus mail. You are under no obligation to participate in this research study. Please allow us to thank you in advance for your time, consideration, and attention to our request.

Sincerely,

David Clay, M.A.
Ph.D. Candidate
University of South Florida,
Department of Psychology
PCD 4119G, 4202 E. Fowler Ave.
Tampa, FL 33620
(813) 974-9222 (Research Lab)
dclay2@mail.usf.edu

APPENDIX E

Request to Participate Cover Letter: Negative/Gain Valence/Child Behavior

Department of Psychology
PCD 4118G

Date: _____

Dear Mr./Ms. _____

This letter is a request for your participation in a study on families and their children's behavior. Although your child does not have to be seeing a counselor of some kind or experiencing unusual behavioral or emotional difficulties, your child must be between the ages of 6 and 18 years of age. As I'm sure you are aware, family research has led to many important discoveries that have helped families understand themselves better and make better decisions in the future. It is important to note that without the help of willing parents, family research would not have progressed as far as it has today. We are asking for your assistance because:

- Not participating in family research studies can ultimately lead to more unnecessary suffering among children and poorly adjusted families.
- Not participating in family research studies can allow the continuation of poor parenting skills and contribute to children's negative developmental outcomes.
- Not participating in family research studies may prevent improvements in academic outcomes and may maintain higher levels of disruptive school behaviors for children who experience difficulties in these areas.
- Not participating in family research studies can result in a loss of critical information for designing effective interventions for the enhancement of children's social skills, resistance to peer pressure, sportsmanship, and decision making.
- Not participating in family research studies can eventually contribute to deficiencies in children's adult outcomes in employment, family functioning, and mental health.

We, as researchers, value our participants and the important information they provide to us. This is why we are asking you to participate in our study. We ask that you complete the enclosed postcard to let us know whether or not you are interested in participating in a research project examining families and children's behavior. If you agree to participate, you will be sent a set of questionnaires to be completed and returned via campus mail. You are under no obligation to participate in this research study. Please allow us to thank you in advance for your time, consideration, and attention to our request.

Sincerely,

David Clay, M.A.
Ph.D. Candidate
University of South Florida,
Department of Psychology
PCD 4119G, 4202 E. Fowler Ave.
Tampa, FL 33620
(813) 974-9222 (Research Lab)
dclay2@mail.usf.edu

APPENDIX F

Request to Participate Cover Letter: Control Group/Child Behavior

Department of Psychology
PCD 4118G

Date: _____

Dear Mr./Ms. _____

This letter is a request for your participation in a study on families and their children's behavior. Although your child does not have to be seeing a counselor of some kind or experiencing unusual behavioral or emotional difficulties, your child must be between the ages of 6 and 18 years of age. As I'm sure you are aware, family research has led to many important discoveries that have helped families understand themselves better and make better decisions in the future. It is important to note that without the help of willing parents, family research would not have progressed as far as it has today. We are asking for your assistance.

We, as researchers, value our participants and the important information they provide to us. This is why we are asking you to participate in our study. We ask that you complete the enclosed postcard to let us know whether or not you are interested in participating in a research project examining families and children's behavior. If you agree to participate, you will be sent a set of questionnaires to be completed and returned via campus mail. You are under no obligation to participate in this research study. Please allow us to thank you in advance for your time, consideration, and attention to our request.

Sincerely,

David Clay, M. A.
Ph.D. Candidate
University of South Florida,
Department of Psychology
PCD 4119G, 4202 E. Fowler Ave.
Tampa, FL 33620
(813) 974-9222 (Research Lab)
dclay2@mail.usf.edu

APPENDIX G

Request to Participate Cover Letter: Positive/Gain Valence/Athletics

Department of Psychology
PCD 4118G

Date: _____

Dear Mr./Ms. _____

This letter is a request for your participation in a study on families and their children's athletic participation. Although your child does not have to be involved in athletics either now or in the past, your child must be between the ages of 6 and 18 years of age. As I'm sure you are aware, family research has led to many important discoveries that have helped families understand themselves better and make better decisions in the future. It is important to note that without the help of willing parents, family research would not have progressed as far as it has today. We are asking for your assistance because:

- Participation in family research studies can ultimately lead to more happy children and well-adjusted families.
- Participation in family research studies can help to enhance parenting skills and improve children's developmental outcomes.
- Participation in family research studies may lead to improvements in academic outcomes and may contribute to lower levels of disruptive school behaviors for children who experience difficulties in these areas.
- Participation in family research studies can lead to a gain in critical information for designing effective interventions for the enhancement of children's social skills, resistance to peer pressure, sportsmanship, and decision making.
- Participation in family research studies can eventually contribute to improvements in children's adult outcomes in employment, family functioning, and mental health.

We, as researchers, value our participants and the important information they provide to us. This is why we are asking you to participate in our study. We ask that you complete the enclosed postcard to let us know whether or not you are interested in participating in a research project examining families and children's athletics. If you agree to participate, you will be sent a set of questionnaires to be completed and returned via campus mail. You are under no obligation to participate in this research study. Please allow us to thank you in advance for your time, consideration, and attention to our request.

Sincerely,

David Clay, M.A.
Ph.D. Candidate
University of South Florida,
Department of Psychology
PCD 4119G, 4202 E. Fowler Ave.
Tampa, FL 33620
(813) 974-9222 (Research Lab)
dclay2@mail.usf.edu

APPENDIX H

Request to Participate Cover Letter: Negative/Gain Valence/Athletics

Department of Psychology
PCD 4118G

Date: _____

Dear Mr./Ms. _____

This letter is a request for your participation in a study on families and their children's athletic participation. Although your child does not have to be involved in athletics either now or in the past, your child must be between the ages of 6 and 18 years of age. As I'm sure you are aware, family research has led to many important discoveries that have helped families understand themselves better and make better decisions in the future. It is important to note that without the help of willing parents, family research would not have progressed as far as it has today. We are asking for your assistance because:

- Not participating in family research studies can ultimately lead to more unnecessary suffering among children and poorly adjusted families.
- Not participating in family research studies can allow the continuation of poor parenting skills and contribute to children's negative developmental outcomes.
- Not participating in family research studies may prevent improvements in academic outcomes and may maintain higher levels of disruptive school behaviors for children who experience difficulties in these areas.
- Not participating in family research studies can result in a loss of critical information for designing effective interventions for the enhancement of children's social skills, resistance to peer pressure, sportsmanship, and decision making.
- Not participating in family research studies can eventually contribute to deficiencies in children's adult outcomes in employment, family functioning, and mental health.

We, as researchers, value our participants and the important information they provide to us. This is why we are asking you to participate in our study. We ask that you complete the enclosed postcard to let us know whether or not you are interested in participating in a research project examining families and children's athletics. If you agree to participate, you will be sent a set of questionnaires to be completed and returned via campus mail. You are under no obligation to participate in this research study. Please allow us to thank you in advance for your time, consideration, and attention to our request.

Sincerely,

David Clay, M.A.
Ph.D. Candidate
University of South Florida,
Department of Psychology
PCD 4119G, 4202 E. Fowler Ave.
Tampa, FL 33620
(813) 974-9222 (Research Lab)
dclay2@mail.usf.edu

APPENDIX I

Request to Participate Cover Letter: Control/Gain Valence/Athletics

Department of Psychology
PCD 4118G

Date: _____

Dear Mr./Ms. _____

This letter is a request for your participation in a study on families and their children's athletic participation. Although your child does not have to be involved in athletics either now or in the past, your child must be between the ages of 6 and 18 years of age. As I'm sure you are aware, family research has led to many important discoveries that have helped families understand themselves better and make better decisions in the future. It is important to note that without the help of willing parents, family research would not have progressed as far as it has today. We are asking for your assistance.

We, as researchers, value our participants and the important information they provide to us. This is why we are asking you to participate in our study. We ask that you complete the enclosed postcard to let us know whether or not you are interested in participating in a research project examining families and children's athletics. If you agree to participate, you will be sent a set of questionnaires to be completed and returned via campus mail. You are under no obligation to participate in this research study. Please allow us to thank you in advance for your time, consideration, and attention to our request.

Sincerely,

David Clay, M.A.
Ph.D. Candidate
University of South Florida,
Department of Psychology
PCD 4119G, 4202 E. Fowler Ave.
Tampa, FL 33620
(813) 974-9222 (Research Lab)
dclay2@mail.usf.edu

APPENDIX J

Sample Email Cover Letter

Request to Participate Email Cover Letter: Positive/Gain Valence/Academic

To: STUDY PARTICIPANT (ID No.)

Email Subject: DISSERTATION RESEARCH REQUEST

Dear Sir/Madam:

This research request has been approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB#103055) of the University of South Florida and the Institutional Review Board of Florida State University (HSC No. 2005.974). If you should have any questions about this study, please contact the undersigned, the USF IRB (813) 974-5638, or the FSU IRB office at (850) 644-8673.

PLEASE RESPOND TO QUESTIONS BELOW EVEN IF YOU DO NOT WANT TO PARTICIPATE IN THE STUDY.

This letter is a request for your participation in a study on families and children's academic outcomes. Although your child does not have to be in school for you to participate in this study, your child must be between the ages of 6 and 18 years of age. As I'm sure you are aware, family research has led to many discoveries. These discoveries have helped families to understand themselves better and make better decisions in the future. It is important to note that without the help of willing parents, family research would not have progressed as far as it has today. We are asking for your assistance because:

- Participation in family research studies can ultimately lead to more happy children and well-adjusted families.
- Participation in family research studies can help to enhance parenting skills and improve children's developmental outcomes.
- Participation in family research studies may lead to improvements in academic outcomes and may contribute to lower levels of disruptive school behaviors for children who experience difficulties in these areas.
- Participation in family research studies can lead to a gain in critical information for designing effective interventions for the enhancement of children's social skills, resistance to peer pressure, sportsmanship, and decision making.
- Participation in family research studies can eventually contribute to improvements in children's adult outcomes in employment, family functioning, and mental health.

We, as researchers, value our participants and the important information they provide to us. This is why we are asking you to participate in our study. We ask that you reply via email to the questions below so we will know whether or not you are interested in participating in a research project examining families and children's academic outcomes. Please reply to this email even if you do not want to participate in the study. If you agree to participate, you will be sent instructions on how to access the web site to complete the questionnaires. You are under no obligation to participate in this research study. Please allow us to thank you in advance for your time, consideration, and attention to our request.

APPENDIX J (Continued)
Sample Email Cover Letter

Sincerely,

David Clay, M. A.
Ph.D. Candidate
University of South Florida,
Department of Psychology
PCD 4119G, 4202 E. Fowler Ave.
Tampa, FL 33620
(813) 974-9222 (Research Lab)
dclay2@mail.usf.edu

1. Do you have at least one child between the ages of 6 and 18 (regardless of where they live)?
Yes _____
No _____
2. Would you be willing to participate in a research project studying families and their children's **academic outcomes/family functioning/athletics**?
Yes _____
No _____

Please respond by email to dclay2@mail.usf.edu

APPENDIX K

Response Postcard (Front)

1. Do you have at least one child between the ages of 6 and 18 (regardless of where they live)?
Yes _____
No _____
2. Would you be willing to participate in a research project studying families and their children's **academic outcomes/family functioning/athletics**?
Yes _____
No _____

PLEASE RETURN THIS POST CARD REGARDLESS OF YOUR ANSWERS
ABOVE. THANK YOU!

Response Postcard (Rear)

ID

No: _____

Return to:

University of South Florida
CAMPUS MAIL STOP: PCD 4118G
Attention: David Clay, M.A.

APPENDIX L

Reminder Postcard (Front)

A short while ago you were sent a letter requesting your participation in a study. We have not received a response from you regarding your willingness to participate in the study. Please answer the questions below and drop this post card in the closest campus mail drop. Thank you.

1. Do you have at least one child between the ages of 6 and 18 (regardless of where they live)?
Yes _____
No _____
2. Would you be willing to participate in a research project studying families and their children's **academic outcomes/family functioning/athletics**?
Yes _____
No _____

PLEASE RETURN THIS POST CARD REGARDLESS OF YOUR ANSWERS ABOVE. THANK YOU!

Reminder Postcard (Rear)

ID
No: _____

Return to:

University of South Florida
CAMPUS MAIL STOP: PCD 4118G
Attention: David Clay, M.A.

APPENDIX M

Reminder Email

To: STUDY PARTICIPANT (ID No.)

Email Subject: DISSERTATION RESEARCH REQUEST

This research request has been approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB#103055) of the University of South Florida and the Institutional Review Board of Florida State University (HSC No. 2005.974). If you should have any questions about this study, please contact the undersigned, the USF IRB (813) 974-5638, or the FSU IRB office at (850) 644-8673.

PLEASE RETURN THIS EMAIL REGARDLESS OF YOUR ANSWERS. THANK YOU!

A short while ago you were sent an email requesting your participation in a study. We have not received a response from you regarding your willingness to participate in the study. Please answer the questions below and return this email to the sender. Thank you.

Sincerely,

David Clay, M. A.
 Ph.D. Candidate
 University of South Florida
 Department of Psychology
 PCD 4119G, 4202 E. Fowler Ave.
 Tampa, FL 33620
 (813) 974-9222 (Research Lab)
dclay2@mail.usf.edu

1. Do you have at least one child between the ages of 6 and 18 (regardless of where they live)?
 Yes _____
 No _____
2. Would you be willing to participate in a research project studying families and their children's **academic outcomes/family functioning/athletics**?
 Yes _____
 No _____

Please respond by email to dclay2@mail.usf.edu

APPENDIX N

Family Information Form

Think of one of your children between the ages of 6 and 18 and answer the following questions as they pertain to that child:

1. Are you a (please check as many as apply):

- Mother Stepmother Adoptive mother Grandmother
 Father Stepfather Adoptive father Grandfather
 Guardian Other (please specify: _____)

2. What is your relationship with the child you have selected to answer questions about?

- Mother Stepmother Adoptive mother Grandmother
 Father Stepfather Adoptive father Grandfather
 Guardian Other (please specify: _____)

3. How old are you? _____

4. What is your race/ethnicity (Please check one)?

- Caucasian African American Latino/a Native American
 Asian Multiracial (please specify: _____)
 Other (please specify: _____)

5. How many children (biological, stepchildren, and other children) are **presently living** in your home? _____

6. List the ages of all children who are presently living in your home:

7. In all, how many children (biological, stepchildren, and others) do you have? _____

8. Are you:

- Married Single, living with a partner Single, not living with a partner
 Separated Divorced Widowed
 Other (please specify: _____)

9. Your employment status. (Please complete for both mother/female guardian and father/male guardian):

Mother or Female Guardian

- Employed as _____
 Unemployed
 Retired
 Other _____

Father or Male Guardian

- Employed as _____
 Unemployed
 Retired
 Other _____

APPENDIX N (Continued)

Family Information Form

10. Number of years of education (including school, college and/or university):

Mother/Female Guardian _____
 Father/Male Guardian _____

11. Highest educational level **completed**. (Please complete for both mother/female guardian and father/male guardian:

Mother/Female Guardian

___ Some High School (Highest grade: _____)
 ___ Graduated High School/G.E.D.: _____
 ___ Some college (Years in college: _____)
 ___ Associates Degree (Field: _____)
 ___ Bachelors Degree (Field: _____)
 ___ Masters Degree (Field: _____)
 ___ Doctorate Degree (Field: _____)

Father/Male Guardian

___ Some High School (Highest grade: _____)
 ___ Graduated High School/G.E.D.: _____
 ___ Some college (Years in college: _____)
 ___ Associates Degree (Field: _____)
 ___ Bachelors Degree (Field: _____)
 ___ Masters Degree (Field: _____)
 ___ Doctorate Degree (Field: _____)

12. Total household income per year (Optional): \$ _____

We would like to get a picture of how much time you spend with your child and what you do when you are together. We are looking for your estimate of a typical weekday and a typical weekend day. We understand that this will represent the time you spend with this child on average rather than reflecting times of less or more time involvement.

DIRECTIONS: If you have more than one child between the ages of 6-18 (including biological, adopted, step-children, etc.), write down the name of the child whose first name comes first alphabetically. If you only have one child, please write down that child's name: _____. All future questions regarding you and your child will refer to the child you have just listed above.

Think of a typical day during the work week and a typical day during the weekend. For the questions below, please estimate how much time (in minutes or hours) that you spend with your child. Please DO NOT include time during the night when you are both sleeping.

13. Average hours per week you spend at work and/or school, including commuting time?

14. Please select one of the following:

- ___ I live with my child (**Please go to question 15**)
- ___ I do not live with my child (**please skip question 153 and go to question 164**)

APPENDIX N (Continued)

Family Information Form

15. **If you currently live with your child or have daily contact with your child**, please estimate how much time you spend with your child. Think of a typical day during the workweek and a typical day during the weekend.

a. **Direct interaction with child** (e.g., talking, playing a game, doing homework together)

— AVERAGE WEEKDAY TIME: _____ (Hours) _____ (Minutes)
 — AVERAGE WEEKEND DAY TIME: _____ (Hours) _____ (Minutes)

b. **Accessibility to child** (i.e., when you are in the same room as your child, but you are not actively engaged in conversation or any other type of interaction. For example, when you watch T.V. together without talking, when you are in the house together but involved in different activities)

— AVERAGE WEEKDAY TIME: _____ (Hours) _____ (Minutes)
 — AVERAGE WEEKEND DAY TIME: _____ (Hours) _____ (Minutes)

16. **If you do not currently live with your child or do not have daily contact with your child**, please answer the following questions by estimating the amount of time per month you spend with your child.

a. **Direct interaction with child** (e.g., talking, playing a game, doing homework together)

— AVERAGE TIME PER MONTH: _____ (Hours) _____ (Minutes)

b. **Accessibility to child** (i.e., when you are in the same room as your child, but you are not actively engaged in conversation or any other type of interaction. For example, when you watch T.V. together without talking, when you are in the house together but involved in different activities)

— AVERAGE TIME PER MONTH: _____ (Hours) _____ (Minutes)

17. In general, who takes RESPONSIBILITY for this child with regard to:

SCHOOL WORK	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	Mother Does It All			Mother and Father Do It About Equally			Father Does It All		
DISCIPLINE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	Mother Does It All			Mother and Father Do It About Equally			Father Does It All		
DAILY CARE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	Mother Does It All			Mother and Father Do It About Equally			Father Does It All		

APPENDIX N (Continued)

Family Information Form

FUN ACTIVITIES	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	Mother Does It All			Mother and Father Do It About Equally			Father Does It All		

18. In general, how satisfied are you with the way that you and the child's other parent divide family tasks and responsibilities?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Very Dissatisfied			Neutral			Very Satisfied		

19. Does your child participate in athletic activities (Circle Answer)?

- a. Yes
- b. No (**Go to Question 23**)

20. List the different athletic activities that your child participates in:

21. Who is **responsible** for making sure that your child gets to participate in his/her athletic events?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Mother Does It All			Mother and Father Do It About Equally			Father Does It All		

22. On average, how does your child perform in these activities when compared to other children who are similar in age and gender?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Below Average			Average			Above Average		

(AFTER COMPLETING THIS QUESTION, SKIP TO QUESTION 25)

23. Is your child interested in participating in athletic activities?

- a. Yes
- b. No

24. Are you willing to allow your child to participate in athletic activities?

- a. Yes
- b. No

25. Does your child have the chance to participate in athletic activities at school?

- a. Yes
- b. No

APPENDIX N (Continued)

Family Information Form

26. What is your child's grade point average during the last reporting period? _____
 (estimate if you are uncertain)

27. How would you classify your child's interest in school when compared to children who are similar in age?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Below Average			Average			Above Average		

28. How would you describe your child's work school related work habits?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Below Average			Average			Above Average		

29. Does your child ever get into trouble while in school?

- a. Yes
- b. No

APPENDIX O

Parent Report of Parental Behavior Inventory - Revised (PRPBI-R)

On the following pages you will find a series of statement which might be used to describe you. Read each statement and decide which answer most closely describes the way you have acted toward your child.

		Very Much Unlike Me	Unlike Me	Somewhat Like Me	Like Me	Very Much Like Me
1	I make my child feel better after talking over his/her worries with him/her.	1	2	3	4	5
2	I am not very patient with my child.	1	2	3	4	5
3	I see to it that my child knows exactly what he/she may or may not do.	1	2	3	4	5
4	I will not talk to my child when he/she displeases me.	1	2	3	4	5
5	I almost always speak to my child with a warm and friendly voice.	1	2	3	4	5
6	I believe in having a lot of rules and sticking to them.	1	2	3	4	5
7	I tell my child how much I love him/her.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Sometimes when I disapprove, I don't say anything but I am cold and distant for a while.	1	2	3	4	5
9	I forget to help my child when he/she needs it.	1	2	3	4	5
10	I believe that all of my child's bad behavior should be punished in some way.	1	2	3	4	5
11	I believe in showing my love for my child.	1	2	3	4	5
12	I smile at my child very often.	1	2	3	4	5
13	I am always getting after my child.	1	2	3	4	5
14	I am less friendly with my child if he/she doesn't see things my way.	1	2	3	4	5
15	I am able to make my child feel better when he/she is upset.	1	2	3	4	5
16	I almost always complain about what my child does.	1	2	3	4	5
17	I always listen to my child's ideas and opinions.	1	2	3	4	5
18	I enjoy doing things with my child.	1	2	3	4	5
19	I get cross and angry about little things my child does.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX O (Continued)
Parent Report of Parental Behavior Inventory - Revised (PRPBI-R)

		Very Much Unlike Me	Unlike Me	Somewhat Like Me	Like Me	Very Much Like Me
20	I will avoid looking at my child when he/she has disappointed me.	1	2	3	4	5
21	I often praise my child.	1	2	3	4	5
22	I do not work with my child.	1	2	3	4	5
23	I insist that my child must do exactly as he/she is told.	1	2	3	4	5
24	I cheer up my child when he/she is sad.	1	2	3	4	5
25	I often speak of the good things my child does.	1	2	3	4	5
26	I don't seem to know what my child needs or wants.	1	2	3	4	5
27	I am happy to see my child when he/she comes home from school or play.	1	2	3	4	5
28	If my child hurts my feelings, I stop talking to him/her until he/she pleases me again.	1	2	3	4	5
29	I hugged or kissed my child goodnight when he/she was small.	1	2	3	4	5
30	I am proud of the things my child does.	1	2	3	4	5
31	My child had certain jobs to do and was not allowed to do anything else until they were done.	1	2	3	4	5
32	I am very interested in what my child is learning at school.	1	2	3	4	5
33	I make my child feel unloved.	1	2	3	4	5
34	I say that my child makes me happy.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX P

Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL) Sample Questions

Instructions: Below is a list of items that describe children and youth. For each item that describes your child now or within the past 6 months, please check the 2 if the item is very true or often true of your child. Check the 1 if the item is somewhat or sometimes true of your child. If the item is not true of your child, check the 0. Please answer all items as well as you can, even if some do not seem to apply to your child.

Questions	0 Not True (as far as you know)	1 Somewhat or sometimes true	2 Very True of often true
Acts too young for age			
Drinks alcohol without parent's approval			
Argues a lot			
Fails to finish things he/she starts			
There is very little he/she enjoys			

APPENDIX Q

Lum Emotional Availability of Parents Scale (LEAP)

Instructions: In this questionnaire, you will read statements about parents. You will be asked to rate YOUR PARTNER'S and YOUR OWN behavior. For all questions, answer the statement as to how each of you act toward your child and circle your answer.

Never 1 Rarely 2 Sometimes 3 Often 4 Very Often 5 Always 6

Please rate YOUR PARTNER'S and YOUR OWN behavior toward your child by circling your answer.

	MOTHER						FATHER					
1. Supports him/her	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Consoles him/her when he/she is upset (Example: pays attention and is curious about him/her)	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Show I care about him/her	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Show a genuine interest in him/her (Example: pays attention and is curious about him/her)	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Remember things that are important to him/her	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Am available to talk at any time	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Ask questions in a caring manner	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Spend extra time with him/her just because I want to	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Am willing to talk about his/her troubles	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. Pursue talking with him/her about his/her interests (Example: tries to talk to him/her about what he/she likes)	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. Values him/her input (Example: cares about him/her ideas)	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. Am emotionally available to him/her	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. Makes him/her feel wanted	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. Praise him/her (Example: tells him/her good things about himself/herself)	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. Am understanding	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX R

Future Contact Form

Dear Research Participant,

Thank you for your participation in this research project. Your time and attention has been greatly valued and it will be of great help to us. With any luck, we are likely to continue research in this and other areas involving families. Project designs may require one or multiple family members to participate. We would like to ask you a few questions about your possible participation in these future research projects.

PLEASE MARK ONE OF THE TWO STATEMENTS BELOW.

No, I'm not interested in participating in future research projects (**STOP**).

Yes, I'm interested in participating in future research projects.

PLEASE PLACE A CHECK NEXT TO ONE OF THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS:

Yes, I would be willing to have **my family** participate in future research projects (if they are interested).

No, I am not willing to have **my family** participate in future research projects.

APPENDIX S

Questionnaire Cover Letter

Dear Research Participant,

We would like to thank you for your willingness to participate in our research project. You will find in this packet a set of questionnaires that we would like for you to complete. **Please be sure to answer all questions as they relate to your oldest child between the ages of 6 and 18.** In addition, we ask that you complete these questionnaires without assistance from others. If you have any questions do not hesitate to call us at (813) 974-9222.

Thank You,

David Clay, M.A.

APPENDIX T

Debriefing Letter

Dear Research Participant:

We would like to thank you for your willingness to participate in a family research study. Your completed questionnaires have been received and stored in a secure location. Our research team is interested in how families function across an array of domains. However, an often overlooked area of family research is parental participation in studies on the family. Some researchers have provided a starting point for this area of research and we hope that our study can advance knowledge. We're also interested in evaluating the impact of the type of request parents receive when solicited for their participation in family research. The way in which a request is framed may or may not be an important component in increasing parental participation in family research, however, framing has been found to be important in other areas of research (studies of consumer behavior and social helpfulness).

If you should happen to experience any adverse effects as a result of your participation in this study or if you would like the results of this study at its conclusion, we may be contacted at 974-9222 . Once again, we thank you for your participation and the following references should be reviewed for information related to our research topic.

Hops, H., & Seeley, J. R. (1992). Parent participation in studies of family interaction: Methodological and substantive considerations. Behavioral Assessment, 14, 229-243.

Ganzach, Y. & Karsahi, N. (1995). Message framing and buying behavior: A field experiment. Journal of Business Research, 32(1), 11-17.

Levin, I. P., Schneider, S. L., & Gaeth, G. J. (1998). All frames are not created equal: A typology and critical analysis of framing effects. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 76(2).

Sincerely,

David Clay, M.A.

APPENDIX U

Informed Consent Letter (Sent Via Interdepartmental Mail)

Dear Sir/Madam:

The Department of Psychology at the University of South Florida (USF) is conducting a study of child and family functioning. We need your help in carrying out this study. The study's purpose is to help determine the influence of various factors on the functioning of children and their parents.

Participation in this research will involve mothers (or female guardians) or fathers (or male guardians) who will complete a brief set of questionnaires. You are being asked to complete the enclosed questionnaire and return it through campus mail in the envelope that has been included for your convenience. The duration of the study (your participation time) is 30 minutes; the approximate amount of time we anticipate that it will take you to complete the questionnaires.

There are no known risks to you or your family that would result you're your participation in this study. All information will be kept strictly confidential to the fullest extent of the law. Only a specific code number will appear on the information you provide to the team. Please DO NOT put your name on any of the paperwork that you return to the research team. None of the information collected will be shared with any other agency or individual, however, employees of the Department of Health and Human Services and the USF Institutional Review Board may inspect the records from this research project. Let me reiterate that your name will not be used on the questionnaire. As noted above, code numbers will be assigned to each research participant and all of the information you provide to us will be kept in a locked file cabinet, in a locked room. The results of this study may be published. However, the data obtained from you will be combined with data from other people in the publication. The published results will not include your name or any other information that would in any way personally identify you.

Participation in this study is strictly voluntary. You can choose not to complete the enclosed questionnaire. If you choose not to participate, there will be no penalty. The benefit of being in this study is in knowing that you may have provided information that will help others to understand how families function. It is expected that this study poses minimal risk to participants. Some of the questions may be distressful to some participants. Therefore, you will receive a debriefing letter containing information about the study and referrals for counseling services should you feel the need to talk to someone about any distress you may experience as a result of participating in this study.

APPENDIX U (Continued)

Informed Consent Letter (Sent Via Interdepartmental Mail)

If you have any questions regarding this study or this letter, please contact David Clay at the University of South Florida (813-974-9222 or dclay2@mail.usf.edu). This research project/study and letter was reviewed and approved by the University of South Florida Institutional Review Board for the protection of human subjects. If you have questions about your rights as a person who is taking part in a research study, you may contact a member of the Division of Research Compliance at the University of South Florida at 813-974-5638. If you agree to participate, please print out this informed consent for your records and then click the continue button to proceed to the questionnaires. Thanks in advance for your help in completing this study.

Sincerely,

David Clay, M. A.
Ph.D. Candidate
University of South Florida
Department of Psychology
PCD 4119G, 4202 E. Fowler Ave.
Tampa, FL 33620
(813) 974-9222 (Research Lab)
dclay2@mail.usf.edu

APPENDIX V

Informed Consent Letter (Sent Via Email)

The Department of Psychology at the University of South Florida (USF) is conducting a study of child and family functioning. We need your help in carrying out this study. The study's purpose is to help determine the influence of various factors on the functioning of children and their parents.

Participation in this research will involve mothers (or female guardians) or fathers (or male guardians) who will complete a brief set of questionnaires. You are being asked to complete the enclosed questionnaire and return it through campus mail in the envelope that has been included for your convenience. The duration of the study (your participation time) is 30 minutes. This is the approximate amount of time that it will take you to complete the study.

There are no known risks to you or your family that would result from your participation in this study. All information will be kept strictly confidential to the fullest extent of the law. None of the information collected will be shared with any other agency or individual, however, employees of the Department of Health and Human Services and the USF Institutional Review Board may inspect the records from this research project. Let me reiterate that your name will not be used on the questionnaire. As noted above, code numbers will be assigned to each research participant and all of the information you provide to us will be kept in a locked file cabinet, in a locked room. The results of this study may be published. However, the data obtained from you will be combined with data from other people in the study. The published results will not include your name or any other information that would in any way personally identify you.

Participation in this study is strictly voluntary. You can choose not to complete the study. If you choose not to participate, there will be no penalty. The benefit of being in this study is in knowing that you may have provided information that will help others to understand how families function. It is expected that this study poses minimal risk to participants. Some of the questions may be distressful to some participants. Therefore, you will receive a debriefing letter containing information about the study and referrals for counseling services should you feel the need to talk to someone about any distress you may experience as a result of participating in this study.

APPENDIX V (Continued)

Informed Consent Letter (Sent Via Email)

If you have any questions regarding this study or this letter, please contact David Clay at the University of South Florida (813-974-9222 or 850-663-4004 or dclay2@mail.usf.edu). This research project/study and letter was reviewed and approved by the University of South Florida Institutional Review Board for the protection of human subjects. If you have questions about your rights as a person who is taking part in a research study, you may contact a member of the Division of Research Compliance at the University of South Florida at 813-974-5638. If you are an employee of Florida State University, please be advised that if you have questions about your rights as a subject/participant in this research or if you feel you have been placed at risk, the Office of the Vice President for Research, at (850) 644-8633. Please print out this informed consent for your records. Thanks in advance for your help in completing this study.

Sincerely,

David Clay, M. A.
Ph.D. Candidate
University of South Florida
Department of Psychology
PCD 4119G, 4202 E. Fowler Ave.
Tampa, FL 33620
(813) 974-9222 (Research Lab)
dclay2@mail.usf.edu

APPENDIX W

Email Instructions on How to Complete the On-line Survey

Thank you for your willingness to participate in our study. In order to complete the questionnaires, please go to the following website: <http://www.zoomerang.com/survey.zgi?p=WEB2252PYHRWMC>. You will find instructions there on how to complete the study. Below you will find a copy of the informed consent form. Please review the informed consent information below prior to completing the study.

APPENDIX X

Discontinuation Web Page for On-line Survey

Dear Sir/Madam,

We are sorry that you have decided to discontinue your participation in the study. If you should happen to change your mind at any time in the future, please do not hesitate to return to the site and complete the questionnaires. Thank you for your time.

Sincerely,

David Clay, M. A.
Ph.D. Candidate
University of South Florida
Department of Psychology
PCD 4119G, 4202 E. Fowler Ave.
Tampa, FL 33620
(813) 974-9222 (Research Lab)
dclay2@mail.usf.edu

APPENDIX Y

Sample Characteristics

This section is provided in order to allow a more thorough review of the sample. The salary average for the total sample was \$43,067.47. See Table 2 for average annual salaries. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) revealed significant differences in average annual salary between study sites, $F(2, 11,316) = 583.31; p < .001$. See Table 24 for the one-way ANOVA of annual salary by institution. Bonferroni post hoc analyses revealed a higher average salary for FSU employees when compared to average salaries for USF ($p < .001$) and UCF employees ($p < .001$). Average salaries for USF and UCF employees were not significantly different ($p > .05$). A review of the highest and lowest salaries by institution revealed that some faculty at UCF were classified as having some of the lowest annual salaries (\$261.00).

Table 24 One Way ANOVA of Salary by Institution

	<i>Sum of Squares</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Between Groups	789697596149.13	2	394848798074.6	584.31	.001
Within Groups	7645405626815.88	11314	675747359.63		
Total	8435103222965.02	11316			

APPENDIX Y (Continued)
Sample Characteristics

Chi-Square analyses were used to evaluate differences in Goal Framing, Research Type, Place of Employment (USF, UCF, or FSU), Gender, Race, Pay Plan, and Education Level and their relationship to the Responders vs. Nonresponders, Qualified–Willing vs. Qualified–Unwilling, and Agreed–Complete vs. Agreed–Incomplete categories. T-tests were used to test for differences in Annual Salary and Age in the Responders vs. Nonresponders, Qualified–Willing vs. Qualified–Unwilling, and Agreed–Complete vs. Agreed–Incomplete categories. The results of these various analyses are presented below.

Responders vs. Nonresponders

Overall, USF had 2,032 (61.65%) Responders and 1,264 (38.35%) Nonresponders, FSU had 180 (6.92%) Responders and 2,423 (93.08%) Nonresponders, and UCF had 260 (4.79%) Responders and 5,163 (95.21%) Nonresponders. Analyses for Responders vs. Nonresponders yielded significant Chi-Square results for University Employment (χ^2 (n = 11,322) = 4323.805, df = 2, p < .001), Race (χ^2 (n = 8,719) = 118.99, df = 5, p < .001), Education Level (χ^2 (n = 8,720) = 1059.756, df = 6, p < .001), and Pay Plan (χ^2 (n = 8,026) = 62.16, df = 5, p < .001).

An evaluation of Race revealed that there were more Responders who were Caucasian than any other racial group. However, Whites had a lower overall response rate than other racial groups. See Table 25 for frequency distribution for Responders by Race.

A review of the analyses for Education Level shows the largest number of Responders as not having an Education Level specified within the database. Individuals with a baccalaureate degree had the second highest rate of responding. See Table 26 for the frequency distribution of Education Level. Finally, Pay Plan also yielded significant results; however, it is possible that these data are a result of a truncated sample. USF would not provide data for faculty members and since USF had the highest number of Responders; it would not be unexpected to have higher response rates for A&P Regular and USPS when compared to faculty and other Pay Plan categories. Additionally, FSU did not provide Pay Plan information on its employees. See Table 27 for frequency distribution of Responders by Pay Plan.

T-tests were computed to evaluate Salary and Age differences for Responders versus Nonresponders. Results yielded a significant difference for Salary ($t = 4.93$, $df = 11,314$, $p < .001$), but not for Age ($t = .009$, $df = 3,288$, $p > .05$).

Nonresponders were found to have a higher overall average Salary than Responders. No age differences were noted for Responders vs.

Nonresponders, however, it should be noted that Age was only available for one study site. See Table 28 for mean Responder scores for Age and Annual Salary.

APPENDIX Y (Continued)
Sample Characteristics

Table 25 Frequency Distribution for Responders and Nonresponders by Race

Race	N			Response Rate by Race			Response Rate by Responders vs. Nonresponders			Response Rate for Total Sample		
	Responded to Contact			Responded to Contact			Responded to Contact			Responded to Contact		
	No	Yes	Total	No	Yes	Total	No	Yes	Total	No	Yes	Total
American Indian/Alaskan Native	26	11	37	70.27%	29.73%	100.0%	0.41%	0.48%	0.42%	0.29%	0.13%	0.42%
Asian/Pacific Islander	521	97	618	84.30%	15.70%	100.0%	8.11%	4.23%	7.09%	5.98%	1.11%	7.08%
Black	628	372	1000	62.80%	37.20%	100.0%	9.77%	16.23%	11.47%	7.20%	4.27%	11.47%
Hispanic/ Latino/ Latina	691	223	914	75.60%	24.40%	100.0%	10.75%	9.73%	10.48%	7.92%	2.56%	10.48%
Not Reported	14	20	34	41.18%	58.82%	100.0%	0.22%	.87%	0.39%	.17%	0.22%	0.39%
White	4547	1569	6116	74.35%	25.65%	100.0%	70.75%	68.46%	70.15%	52.15%	18.00%	70.15%
Total	6427	2292	8719	73.71%	26.29%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	73.71%	26.29%	100.0%

Note: Data is missing for 2,608 (23.02% of 11,328) potential participants.

Table 26 Frequency Distribution for Responders and Nonresponders by Education Level

Education Level	N			Response Rate by Education			Response Rate by Responders vs. Nonresponders			Response Rate for Total Sample		
	Responded to Contact			Responded to Contact			Responded to Contact			Responded to Contact		
	No	Yes	Total	No	Yes	Total	No	Yes	Total	No	Yes	Total
Not Reported	1817	1114	2931	62.99%	37.01%	100.0%	28.27%	48.60%	33.61%	20.84%	12.78%	33.61%
AA degree	728	71	799	91.11%	8.89%	100.0%	11.32%	3.10%	9.16%	8.35%	0.81%	9.16%
H.S. Diploma/G.E.D.	73	138	211	34.60%	65.40%	100.0%	1.14%	6.02%	2.42%	0.84%	1.58%	2.42%
Masters Degree	163	248	411	39.66%	60.34%	100.0%	2.54%	10.82%	4.71%	1.87%	2.84%	4.71%
Baccalaureate Degree	3630	677	4307	84.28%	15.72%	100.0%	56.47%	29.54%	49.39%	41.63%	7.76%	49.39%
Doctorate	15	38	53	28.30%	71.69%	100.0%	0.23%	1.66%	0.61%	0.17%	0.44%	0.61%
Medical Degree	2	6	8	25.00%	75.00%	100.0%	0.03%	0.26%	0.09%	0.02%	0.07%	0.09%
Total	6428	2292	8720	73.71%	26.29%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	73.72%	26.28%	100.00%

Note: Data is missing for 2,608 (23.02% of 11,328) potential participants.

Table 27 Frequency Distribution for Responders and Nonresponders by Pay Plan

PAYPLAN	N			Response Rate by Pay Plan			Response Rate by Responders vs. Nonresponders			Response Rate for Total Sample		
	Responded to Contact			Responded to Contact			Responded to Contact			Responded to Contact		
	No	Yes	Total	No	Yes	Total	No	Yes	Total	No	Yes	Total
Faculty	1785	102	1887	94.59%	5.41%	100.00%	23.53%	23.18%	23.51%	22.24%	1.27%	23.51%
A&P Regular	1843	172	2015	91.46%	8.54%	100.00%	24.29%	39.09%	25.11%	22.96%	2.14%	25.11%
USPS	2701	134	2835	95.27%	4.73%	100.00%	35.61%	30.45%	35.32%	33.65%	1.67%	35.32%
OPS Hourly	1213	30	1243	97.59%	2.41%	100.00%	15.99%	6.82%	15.49%	15.11%	0.37%	15.49%
Dual Comp	41	2	43	95.35%	4.65%	100.00%	0.54%	0.45%	0.54%	0.51%	0.02%	0.54%
Executive Service	3	0	3	100.00%	0.00%	100.00%	0.04%	0.00%	0.04%	0.04%	0.00%	0.04%
Total	7586	440	8026	94.52%	5.48%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	94.52%	5.48%	100.00%

Note: Data is missing for 3,302 (29.15% of 11,328) potential participants.

Table 28 Responders' and Nonresponders' Mean Age and Annual Salary

		Responded to contact	
		No	Yes
Annual Salary	Mean	\$43,735.30	\$38,772.23
	Median	\$37,552.38	\$33,000.00
	Standard Deviation	\$28,070.11	\$23,116.22
	N	8846	2470
Age	Mean	42.09	42.08
	Median	45.00	45.00
	Standard Deviation	10.88	10.78
	N	1260	2030

Note 1: For Age, data is missing for 2,608 (23.02% of 11,328) potential participants.

Note 2: For Annual Salary, data is missing for 12 (< .00% of 11,328) potential participants

APPENDIX Y (Continued)
Sample Characteristics

Qualified–Willing vs. Qualified–Unwilling

Analyses of Qualified–Willing vs. Qualified–Unwilling yielded significant Chi-Square results for University Employment (χ^2 (n = 547) = 33.60, $df = 2$, $p < .001$), and Pay Plan (χ^2 (n = 148) = 11.42, $df = 3$, $p < .01$). Nonsignificant results were found for Race (χ^2 (n = 467) = 2.56, $df = 5$, $p > .05$) and Education Level (χ^2 (n = 467) = 5.48, $df = 6$, $p > .05$).

Analysis of University Employment revealed that there were more Qualified–Willing Responders from USF than from FSU and UCF. There were more FSU Responders who were Qualified–Willing than FSU Responders who were Qualified–Unwilling (n = 72 and n = 8 respectively). Although a similar outcome was found for UCF, the contrast was not as large (n = 44 and n = 24 respectively). See Table 29 for University Employment frequency distribution. Gender was also found to have a significant Chi-Square result. The last significant Chi-Square result revealed differences in Pay Plan and an individual's willingness to participate in the study. Participants classified as A&P Regular and USPS responded more often as Qualified–Willing than Faculty and OPS Hourly participants. As mentioned earlier in the Responders vs. Nonresponders analysis, this outcome is not surprising given the higher participation rate at USF where a truncated potential participant list was obtained from the study site (i.e., there was no data received for faculty at that site). See Table 30 for Pay Plan

APPENDIX Y (Continued)
Sample Characteristics

frequency distribution. See Tables 31 for Race and Table 32 for Education Level frequency distributions.

T-tests were computed to evaluate Annual Salary and Age differences for Qualified–Willing and Qualified–Unwilling respondents. Results did not yield a significant difference for either Annual Salary ($t = 1.20$, $df = 545$, $p > .05$) or Age ($t = 1.37$, $df = 397$, $p > .05$). Thus, there were no notable differences in Age or Annual Salary between individuals who were qualified to participate in the study and said that they would do so and individuals who were qualified for the study and indicated that they were not interested in participating. See Table 33 for mean Annual Salary and Mean Age values for this category of responders.

APPENDIX Y (Continued)
Sample Characteristics

Table 29 Frequency Distribution for Individuals Who Qualified for Inclusion in the Study and their Willingness to Participate by University Employment

University Employment	N			Response Rate by University Employment			Response Rate by Willingness to Participate			Response Rate for Total Qualified Sample		
	Willing to Participate			Willing to Participate			Willing to Participate			Willing to Participate		
	No	Yes	Total	No	Yes	Total	No	Yes	Total	No	Yes	Total
USF	177	222	399	44.36%	55.64%	100.00%	84.69%	65.68%	72.94%	32.36%	40.59%	72.94%
FSU	8	72	80	10.00%	90.00%	100.00%	3.83%	21.30%	14.63%	1.46%	13.16%	14.63%
UCF	24	44	68	35.29%	64.71%	100.00%	11.48%	13.02%	12.43%	4.39%	8.04%	12.43%
Total	209	338	547	38.21%	61.79%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	38.21%	61.79%	100.00%

Note: Data is missing for 2 (< 1% of 549) potential participants.

Table 30 Frequency Distribution for Individuals Who Qualified for Inclusion in the Study and their Willingness to Participate by Pay Plan

Pay Plan	N			Response Rate by Pay Plan			Response Rate by Willingness to Participate			Response Rate for Total Qualified Sample		
	Willing to Participate			Willing to Participate			Willing to Participate			Willing to Participate		
	No	Yes	Total	No	Yes	Total	No	Yes	Total	No	Yes	Total
Faculty	12	16	28	42.86%	57.14%	100.00%	37.50%	13.79%	18.92%	8.11%	10.81%	18.92%
A&P Regular	7	50	57	12.28%	87.72%	100.00%	21.88%	43.10%	38.51%	4.73%	33.78%	38.51%
USPS	10	44	54	18.52%	81.48%	100.00%	31.25%	37.93%	36.49%	6.76%	29.73%	36.49%
OPS Hourly	3	6	9	33.33%	66.67%	100.00%	9.38%	5.17%	6.08%	2.03%	4.05%	6.08%
Total	32	116	148	21.62%	78.38%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	21.62%	78.38%	100.00%

Note: Data is missing for 401 (73.04% of 549) potential participants.

APPENDIX Y (Continued)
Sample Characteristics

Table 31 Frequency Distribution for Individuals Who Qualified for Inclusion in the Study and their Willingness to Participate by Race

Race	N			Response Rate by Race			Response Rate by Willingness to Participate			Response Rate for Total Qualified Sample		
	Willing to Participate			Willing to Participate			Willing to Participate			Willing to Participate		
	No	Yes	Total	No	Yes	Total	No	Yes	Total	No	Yes	Total
American Indian/Alaskan Native	1	0	1	100.00%	0.00%	100.00%	0.50%	0.00%	0.21%	0.21%	0.00%	0.21%
Asian/Pacific Islander	9	11	20	45.00%	55.00%	100.00%	4.48%	4.14%	4.28%	1.93%	2.36%	4.28%
Black	27	40	67	40.30%	59.70%	100.00%	13.43%	15.04%	14.35%	5.78%	8.57%	14.35%
Hispanic	27	28	55	49.09%	50.91%	100.00%	13.43%	10.53%	11.78%	5.78%	6.00%	11.78%
Not Reported	2	2	4	50.00%	50.00%	100.00%	1.00%	0.75%	0.86%	0.43%	0.43%	0.86%
White	135	185	320	42.19%	57.81%	100.00%	67.16%	69.55%	68.52%	28.91%	39.61%	68.52%
Total	201	266	467	43.04%	56.96%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	43.04%	56.96%	100.00%

Note: Data is missing for 82 (14.93% of 549) potential participants.

Table 32 Frequency Distribution for Individuals Who Qualified for Inclusion in the Study and their Willingness to Participate by Education Level

Education Level	N			Response Rate by Education Level			Response Rate by Willingness to Participate			Response Rate for Total Qualified Sample		
	Willing to Participate			Willing to Participate			Willing to Participate			Willing to Participate		
	No	Yes	Total	No	Yes	Total	No	Yes	Total	No	Yes	Total
Not Reported	93	124	217	42.86%	57.14%	100.00%	46.27%	46.62%	46.47%	19.91%	26.55%	46.47%
AA degree	4	10	14	28.57%	71.43%	100.00%	1.99%	3.76%	3.00%	0.86%	2.14%	3.00%
H.S. Diploma/G.E.D.	8	16	24	33.33%	66.67%	100.00%	3.98%	6.02%	5.14%	1.71%	3.43%	5.14%
Masters Degree	19	32	51	37.25%	62.75%	100.00%	9.45%	12.03%	10.92%	4.07%	6.85%	10.92%
Baccalaureate Degree	72	76	148	48.65%	51.35%	100.00%	35.82%	28.57%	31.69%	15.42%	16.27%	31.69%
Doctorate	5	7	12	41.67%	58.33%	100.00%	2.49%	2.63%	2.57%	1.07%	1.50%	2.57%
Medical Degree	0	1	1	0.00%	100.00%	100.00%	0.00%	0.38%	0.21%	0.00%	0.21%	0.21%
Total	201	266	467	43.04%	56.96%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	43.04%	56.96%	100.00%

Note: Data is missing for 82 (14.93% of 549) potential participants.

APPENDIX Y (Continued)
Sample Characteristics

Table 33 Mean Annual Salary and Age for Individuals Who Qualified for Inclusion in the Study by Willingness to Participate Status

		Willing to Participate	
		No	Yes
Annual Salary	Mean	\$42,079.41	\$45,339.69
	Median	\$35,115.00	\$38,383.00
	SD	\$24,378.55	\$34,170.25
	N	209	338
Age	Mean	40.76	42.12
	Median	40.00	45.00
	SD	9.69	9.92
	N	177	222

Note 1: For Age, data is missing for 150 (27.32% of 549) potential participants.

Note 2: For Annual Salary, data is missing for 2 (< 1% of 549) potential participant

APPENDIX Y (Continued)
Sample Characteristics**Agreed–Complete vs. Agreed–Incomplete**

Analyses for Agreed–Complete vs. Agreed–Incomplete yielded significant Chi-Square results for University Employment (χ^2 (n = 338) = 8.42, $df = 2$, $p < .01$). See Table 34 for University Employment frequency distribution. There were no significant differences found for Race (χ^2 (n = 266) = 4.18, $df = 4$, $p > .05$), Pay Plan (χ^2 (n = 116) = 2.34, $df = 3$, $p > .05$), or Education Level (χ^2 (n = 266) = 3.308, $df = 6$, $p > .05$). See Tables 35 – 37 for Race, Pay Plan, and Education Level frequency distributions, respectively. There was no difference between the total number of Agreed–Complete (n = 162, 47.93%) and the total number of Agreed–Incomplete (n = 176, 52.07%). However, there were more participants from USF than from FSU and UCF. A review of participation rates reveals similar completion rates.

T-tests were computed to evaluate Annual Salary and Age differences for Agreed–Complete vs. Agreed–Incomplete groups. Results did not yield a significant difference for either Annual Salary ($t = -1.78$, $df = 336$, $p > .05$) or Age ($t = -.297$, $df = 220$, $p > .05$). Thus, there were no notable differences in Annual Salary or Age of individuals who agreed to participate in the study and who actually did so and individuals who agreed to participate in the study and did not follow through.

APPENDIX Y (Continued)
Sample Characteristics

Overall, results reveal that the samples across sites were predominately similar on the variables available for analysis. There were more responders from USF than from the other two sites, FSU and UCF. People who responded to the request for their participation in the study tended to be middle class, well educated, Caucasian, and older. Although more of the responders were Caucasian, other ethnic groups had higher overall response rates than Caucasians. Additionally, when individuals who met the study's inclusion criteria responded to the study participation request, age, salary, ethnicity and education levels were similar for individuals who indicated that they would be willing to participate in the study and for individuals who indicated that they would be unwilling to participate in the study. The same was true for individuals who agreed to complete the study and either did participate or failed to participate in the study. There were no differences found between these two groups in their age, salary, ethnicity, and education levels.

APPENDIX Y (Continued)
Sample Characteristics

Table 34 Frequency Distribution for Individuals Who Agreed to Participate in the Study by University Employment and Completion Status

University Employment	N			Response Rate by University Employment			Response Rate by Completion Status			Response Rate for Total of Individuals Who Agreed to Participate		
	Study Completion Status			Study Completion Status			Study Completion Status			Study Completion Status		
	Incomplete	Completed	Total	Incomplete	Completed	Total	Incomplete	Completed	Total	Incomplete	Completed	Total
USF	103	119	222	46.40%	53.60%	100.00%	58.52%	73.46%	65.68%	30.47%	35.21%	65.68%
FSU	46	26	72	63.89%	36.11%	100.00%	26.14%	16.05%	21.30%	13.61%	7.69%	21.30%
UCF	27	17	44	61.36%	38.64%	100.00%	15.34%	10.49%	13.02%	7.99%	5.03%	13.02%
Total	176	162	338	52.07%	47.93%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	52.07%	47.93%	100.00%

Note: Data is missing for 2 (< 1% of 340) potential participants.

Table 35 Frequency Distribution for Individuals Who Agreed to Participate in the Study by Race and Completion Status

Race	N			Response Rate by Race			Response Rate by Completion Status			Response Rate for Total of Individuals Who Agreed to Participate		
	Study Completion Status			Study Completion Status			Study Completion Status			Study Completion Status		
	INC	COM	Total	INC	COM	Total	INC	COM	Total	INC	COM	Total
Asian/Pacific Islander	6	5	11	54.55%	45.45%	100.00%	4.62%	3.68%	4.14%	2.26%	1.88%	4.14%
Black	15	25	40	37.50%	62.50%	100.00%	11.54%	18.38%	15.04%	5.64%	9.40%	15.04%
Hispanic/Latino/ Latina	11	17	28	39.29%	60.71%	100.00%	8.46%	12.50%	10.53%	4.14%	6.39%	10.53%
Not Reported	1	1	2	50.00%	50.00%	100.00%	0.77%	0.74%	0.75%	0.38%	0.38%	0.75%
White	97	88	185	52.43%	47.57%	100.00%	74.62%	64.71%	69.55%	36.47%	33.08%	69.55%
Total	130	136	266	48.87%	51.13%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	48.87%	51.13%	100.00%

*INC = Incomplete, COM = Complete

Note: Data is missing for 74 (21.76% of 340) potential participants.

APPENDIX Y (Continued)
Sample Characteristics

Table 36 Frequency Distribution for Individuals Who Agreed to Participate in the Study by Pay Plan and Completion Status

Pay Plan	N			Response Rate by Pay Plan			Response Rate by Completion Status			Response Rate for Total of Individuals Who Agreed to Participate		
	Study Completion Status			Study Completion Status			Study Completion Status			Study Completion Status		
	INC	COM	Total	INC	COM	Total	INC	COM	Total	INC	COM	Total
Faculty	12	4	16	75.00%	25.00%	100.00%	16.44%	9.30%	13.79%	10.34%	3.45%	13.79%
A&P Regular	33	17	50	66.00%	34.00%	100.00%	45.21%	39.53%	43.10%	28.45%	14.66%	43.10%
USPS	25	19	44	56.82%	43.18%	100.00%	34.25%	44.19%	37.93%	21.55%	16.38%	37.93%
OPS Hourly	3	3	6	50.00%	50.00%	100.00%	4.11%	6.98%	5.17%	2.59%	2.59%	5.17%
Total	73	43	116	62.93%	37.07%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	62.93%	37.07%	100.00%

Note: Data is missing for 224 (65.88% of 549) potential participants.

APPENDIX Y (Continued)
Sample Characteristics

Table 37 Frequency Distribution for Individuals Who Agreed to Participate in the Study by Education Level and Completion Status

Education Level	N			Response Rate by Education Level			Response Rate by Completion Status			Response Rate for Total of Individuals Who Agreed to Participate		
	Study Completion Status*	Study Completion Status*	Study Completion Status*	Study Completion Status*	Study Completion Status*	Study Completion Status*	Study Completion Status*	Study Completion Status*	Study Completion Status*	Study Completion Status*	Study Completion Status*	
	INC	COM	Total	INC	COM	Total	INC	COM	Total	INC	COM	Total
Not Reported	57	67	124	45.97%	54.03%	100.00%	43.85%	49.26%	46.62%	21.43%	25.19%	46.62%
AA degree	4	6	10	40.00%	60.00%	100.00%	3.08%	4.41%	3.76%	1.50%	2.26%	3.76%
H.S. Diploma/GED	7	9	16	43.75%	56.25%	100.00%	5.38%	6.62%	6.02%	2.63%	3.38%	6.02%
Masters Degree	16	16	32	50.00%	50.00%	100.00%	12.31%	11.76%	12.03%	6.02%	6.02%	12.03%
Baccalaureate Degree	42	34	76	55.26%	44.74%	100.00%	32.31%	25.00%	28.57%	15.79%	12.78%	28.57%
Doctorate	3	4	7	42.86%	57.14%	100.00%	2.31%	2.94%	2.63%	1.13%	1.50%	2.63%
Medical Degree	1	0	1	100.00%	0.00%	100.00%	0.77%	0.00%	0.38%	0.38%	0.00%	0.38%
Total	130	136	266	48.87%	51.13%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	48.87%	51.13%	100.00%

*INC=Incomplete, COM = Completed

Note: Data is missing for 74 (21.76% of 549) potential participants.

APPENDIX Y (Continued)
Sample Characteristics

Table 38 Mean Age and Annual Salary for Individuals who completed the Study and those who did not complete the study.

		Study Completion Status	
		Incomplete	Completed
Age	Mean	42.33	41.93
	Median	40.00	45.00
	SD	10.24	9.68
	N	103	119
Base Salary	Mean	\$48,509.10	\$41,896.39
	Median	\$41,880.00	\$36,669.50
	SD	\$15,029	\$23,185.55
	N	176	162

Note 1: For Age, data is missing for 118 (34.71% of 340) potential participants.

Note 2: For Annual Salary, data is missing for 2 (< 1% of 340) potential participants.

About the Author

A native of Philadelphia, PA, David Clay is a 1988 graduate of George Washington High School. After graduating from high school, David joined the United States Marine Corps and served his country honorably for five years of active duty and three years of individual ready reserve. During his inactive military time, David attended Morehouse College in Atlanta, GA. He graduated with his B.A. in Psychology in 1997. He attended graduate school at the University of South Florida in the fall of 1997 and continued in the Clinical Psychology program until the fall of 2006. He was married to M. Monica Watkins-Clay on May 30, 2004. After completing his internship at the Florida State Hospital in the summer of 2005, he stayed there to continue his professional development.