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The Daily Dynamics of Interactions with Fathers, Fathers’ Emotional Support and Adolescents’ Self-Evaluation in Social Roles

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The Daily Dynamics of Interactions with Fathers, Fathers’ Emotional Support and Adolescents’ Self-Evaluation in Social Roles

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Abstract

This study is about adolescents’ interactions with fathers, fathers’ emotional support and self-evaluation in social roles in daily contexts of the contemporary Korean society. The present study sought to examine the daily dynamics of adolescents’ interactions with fathers, their experience of fathers’ emotional support and self-evaluation in social roles. Additionally, this study attempted to investigate how the daily dynamics varied by adolescents’ gender, grade level and family affluence.

Based on Bronfenbrenner’s process-person-context-time model, both the survey and daily diary data of 283 adolescents either in 5th or 8th grade, collected as part of the second wave of Seoul Education and Health Welfare Panel, were analyzed. The daily dynamics of self-evaluation in social roles, interactions with fathers, and the experience of fathers’ emotional support were first examined across seven consecutive days. Then, how these daily experiences varied by adolescents’ gender, grade level, and family affluence were tested. In order to investigate the connection between father-adolescent relationships and adolescent development in daily lives, a same day association between adolescents’ daily interactions with fathers and their self-evaluation in social roles was examined using hierarchical linear modeling. This was followed by a test of same day association between adolescents’ daily experience of fathers’ emotional support and self-evaluation in social roles, taking daily interactions with fathers into account. Next, a test of moderation by gender, grade level, and family affluence was carried out. For an investigation of the lagged effect in the daily processes, a lagged day association between previous day’s interactions with fathers and adolescents’ self-evaluation in
social roles was tested, followed by a test of lagged day association between previous day’s fathers’ emotional support and adolescents’ self-evaluation in social roles, taking previous day’s interactions with fathers into account. Finally, variations in the lagged day association by adolescents’ gender, grade level, and family affluence were examined.

According to the results, adolescents’ self-evaluation in social roles fluctuated within-person across seven days. The daily reports were generally higher among the 5th graders than the 8th graders. The daily interactions with fathers (i.e., conversations, dinner, watching TV, breakfast, and spending leisure time outside) among the Korean adolescents in the present study were also dynamic across days. The frequency of engaging in outside leisure and having conversations with fathers was higher among the 5th graders than the 8th graders and among the high family affluence than the low or middle family affluence group. Moreover, the adolescents experienced varying levels of fathers’ emotional support from day to day. Both the level and frequency were higher among the 5th graders than the 8th graders.

When the association between daily interactions with fathers and adolescents’ self-evaluation in social roles was tested, adolescents evaluated themselves more positively in their social roles on days in which they interacted with their fathers more than usual. Moreover, after taking adolescents’ daily interactions with fathers into account, adolescents evaluated themselves more positively in their social roles on days in which they experienced higher levels of fathers’ emotional support than usual. The interactions with fathers and self-evaluation in social roles were no longer significantly related. This same day association did not vary by gender, but the average level of self-evaluation in social
roles was higher for the 5th graders than then 8th graders. Also, the association was stronger among the low or middle family affluence than the high family affluence group. Based on the examination of lagged effect, the association between daily interactions with fathers and self-evaluation in social roles was no longer significant. However, the association between fathers’ emotional support and adolescents’ self-evaluation in social roles lasted until the next day. No individual differences were found for the lagged day association.

The daily dynamics and associations found in this study indicate that daily lives have potential to cultivate adolescents’ developmental resources. The variations found by grade level and family affluence in the daily experiences provide information about different groups of adolescents for policies and interventions. The dynamics in the within-person experiences and associations discovered in this study provide evidence for the benefits of having high levels of interactions with fathers and, particularly, fathers’ emotional support even during adolescence. This finding also highlights the importance of stable levels of these experiences across days. Further theoretical and practical implications in the Korean context and how these results compare to the international literature are discussed.

**Keywords:** fathers, adolescents, daily interactions, emotional support, self-evaluation, daily diary method, grade level, family affluence

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Chapter 1. Introduction

The contemporary Korean society is expecting the fathers to actively interact with children and express emotional support—the information that helps others believe that they are cared for and loved (Cobb, 1976)—in their daily lives. Such expectation has not been easy for the fathers to meet, because it contrasts to the emotionally restrained image of the Korean fathers of the past (Cho, 2014; Na, 2014). While the transition is under its way, the issue becomes more complicated as children enter adolescence since drastic changes occur during this developmental period. This is concerning, because daily interactions with parents characterized by the experience of emotional support especially during adolescence creates the building blocks for a positive understanding of the self. At this, the present study attempted to address this phenomenon by examining adolescents’ interactions with fathers, their experience of fathers’ emotional support and self-evaluation in daily contexts of the contemporary Korean society.

Based on Bronfenbrenner (1995)’s process-person-context time (PPCT) model, this study takes the position that adolescents’ development of self occurs through the dynamics of daily experiences that vary by individual characteristics (Bronfenbrenner, 1995; Hoffman, 2007). The PPCT model asserts that human development occurs as a function of proximal processes that interact with characteristics of person, context, and

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\(^{1}\) In this study, Korea refers to Republic of Korea
time. In this study, the *proximal processes* refer to adolescents’ daily experiences. For factors that account for the *person* and *context*, adolescents’ gender, grade level, and family affluence level will be analyzed as previous studies have consistently found differences in adolescents’ daily experiences by them (Keijsers & Poulin, 2013; Lareau, 2011; Putnam, 2016). Because this study is about short-term processes, discussions on the influence of time will be omitted.

During adolescence individuals encounter the task of self-searching and begin to reflect on themselves across different contexts to understand who they are in relation to the world around them (Erikson, 1968). They ask questions such as, “Am I a good person?” This process is called self-evaluation, and as adolescents start the journey of self-searching, they develop the ability to evaluate themselves in an increasingly multidimensional and organized manner. At this stage, self-evaluation can be made about themselves in general and in specific situations of daily lives. For instance, an adolescent who evaluates herself positively in general may feel negatively about herself as a friend on a day that she forgot her best friend’s birthday. Self-evaluation in general and specific contexts in daily lives interactively and independently play imperative roles in adolescent development (Shavelson, Hubner, & Stanton, 1976; Song, 1984; Vallacher et al., 2002; Wong, Vallacher, & Nowak, 2014). They give rise to emotions and behaviors as well as ascribe meaning, purpose and value to an
Despite the importance of both aspects, many of the previous studies have mainly focused on understanding the level of global self-evaluation, such as self-esteem. The understanding about the multidimensional and hierarchical nature of adolescents’ self-concept has been limited (Dubois & Tevendale, 1999; Shavelson, Hubner, & Stanton, 1976; Song, 1984, 2013). Under the umbrella of global self-evaluation, adolescents’ self-concept becomes differentiated into multiple categories that represent specific aspects of their daily lives (e.g., academic, social, and physical). Whereas adolescents’ self-evaluation can be made in multiple dimensions, this study focuses on self-evaluation in social roles.

Self-evaluation in social roles refers to how adolescents view themselves in their important social and familial roles in everyday lives (Song, 1984, 2013). While global self-evaluation tends to be stable over time, self-evaluation in specific aspects, such as self-evaluation in social roles, respond to each day’s unique experiences. With maturity, daily evaluation in this specific category of self-concept tends to stabilize. The stability of self-evaluation in specific contexts of daily lives—the consistency in the level of self-evaluation across days—is important to individuals’ development over and above the level of global self-evaluation (Vallacher et al., 2002). Large degrees of fluctuation indicate a lack of self-regulation and a risk for one’s well-being and relationships (Carver &
To account for both the level and fluctuation, the present study will first examine the daily dynamics of self-evaluation in social roles by measuring it multiple times within the same person over a short period of time. In order to observe the dynamic experiences within each adolescent, the daily reports across seven consecutive days will be assessed since this study centers on school-going adolescents whose school schedules tend to repeat around a week. Then, to account for who experiences these daily dynamics, a test of variations by individual characteristics (i.e., gender, grade level, and family affluence) will be followed.

The theory of reflected appraisals suggests that daily interactions with important others are the contexts in which adolescents gain information to evaluate themselves (Cooley, 1902; Harter, 1993; Mead, 1934; Sullivan, 1953). Despite the popular notion that peer influence becomes stronger during adolescence (Furman & Buhrmester, 1992; La Greca & Harrison, 2005), studies have continued to find that parents remain as the main reference adolescents turn to for the evaluation of themselves (Coombs, Paulson, Richardson, 1990; Harris et al., 2015; Harter, 2006; Hoffman, Levy-Shiff, & Ushpiz, 1993; Rosenberg, 1979; Youniss & Smollar, 1985). This applies not only to mothers, but also to fathers, a population that has started to receive attention as an important caregiver, only recently.
like” fathers who interact frequently and provide emotional support, most of the Korean fathers wished to be present, warm and nurturing (Song et al., 2010). The Korean adolescents’ perceived level of overall relationship with fathers, including fathers’ emotional availability, has also been quite high and steadily increased since 2011 (The Korea Bang Jeong-hwan Foundation, 2014). However, other statistics show that the experience of it in everyday life may take a different form. Fathers spent less than an hour over a week talking with their children (OECD, 2015). Less than 10% of elementary and middle school students included fathers in their emotional support network (The Korea Bang Jeong-hwan Foundation, 2014).

To address this discrepancy and understand father-adolescent interactions in daily lives in detail, the current study will look at the dynamics of Korean adolescents’ typical daily interactions with fathers (i.e., having breakfast or dinner, watching TV, going out to spend leisure time, and having conversations) over a short period of time. This analysis of daily dynamics of adolescents’ interactions with fathers will be followed by a test of variations by individual characteristics such as gender, grade level, and family affluence.

While frequent daily interactions with fathers are the contexts in which adolescents gain information to evaluate themselves, these interactions often encompass all of the positive, negative, and neutral qualities. According to the theory of reflected appraisals, rather than mere
acts of interactions, the emotional support from significant others experienced in daily interactions is the key factor that helps adolescents view themselves in the positive light. Parents’ emotional support, which is not limited to the acts of consolation after a stressful day, includes everyday interpersonal attitudes that involve qualities such as warmth, acceptance, and responsiveness (Boudreault-Bouchard et al., 2013). A number of cross-sectional studies have consistently supported the association between parents’ emotional support and adolescents’ self-evaluation. Adolescents who received high levels of support from parents tended to report higher levels of global self-esteem, self-concept and self-efficacy than those who received low levels of support from parents (Cooper, 2009; Harris et al., 2015; Park, 2014; Nam & Kim, 2011; Dekovic & Meeus, 1997).

Due to the predominant assumption that emotional support is mothers’ domain, less empirical studies have been available for fathers. Although the numbers are few, the existing studies have suggested meaningfully positive influence of fathers throughout adolescence (Cabrera et al., 2007; Desjardins & Leadbeater, 2011; Harris et al., 2015; Kim, 2005; Kim, 2006; Nam & Kim, 2011; Miranda et al., 2016). Intimacy with fathers or fathers’ social support predicted adolescents’ self-esteem and self-efficacy (Jeon, Kim, Kim, & Choi, 2012; Lee & Lee, 2000), sometimes even more strongly than intimacy with mothers (LeCroy, 1988). Also, in other studies, fathers explained more of the variance in self-related measures than did
mothers (Amato, 1998; Gecas & Schwalbe, 1986).

While the role of fathers in adolescents’ self-development has been found at the overall level in previous studies, fathers’ role in adolescents’ daily lives has not been addressed in detail. When adolescents’ overall perception of relationships with fathers may be positive, it is possible that each day’s experience fluctuates with some days’ level of experience more positive or negative than their usual average experience. On some days, fathers and adolescents may have dinner together and exchange pleasant conversations, while on other days the interactions may involve arguments, or no interactions may take place at all. Also, the Korean fathers tended to spend more time with adolescents on weekends than on weekdays (Song et al., 2010).

Yet, previous studies mainly measured parents’ emotional support by asking adolescents’ general perception of their parents (i.e., whether they typically viewed their parents as emotionally supportive in general), a single observation of parent-child interaction episode at a given time point, or over a long period of time (Boudreault-Bouchard et al., 2013; Hwang, 1995; Kil, 2006; Park, 1985; Parker, Tupling, & Brown, 1979; Schaefer, 1965; You & Shon, 2015). As a result, even though previous findings in the academia seem to converge on the positive influence of fathers’ emotional support at the overall level, reports from qualitative studies continue to display that Korean fathers still do not feel confident about their role in adolescents’
daily lives and identify themselves more as financial supporters than “friend-like” fathers (Yoon, 2016).

In order to address the lack of confidence in the role of fathers’ emotional support in daily lives, an accumulation of studies that provide information about the significance of fathers’ emotional support specifically in adolescents’ day-to-day lives is necessary. The existing qualitative studies have effectively portrayed the detailed accounts of everyday lives experienced by fathers and adolescents in the contemporary Korean society, which were hardly captured by survey questionnaires (Choi, Cho, & Lee, 2016; Yoon, 2016). At the same time, the degree to which the dynamics of daily experiences are related to adolescents’ development remained unexplained in the results of these qualitative studies. Therefore, the present study will analyze the daily dynamics of fathers’ emotional support with measurable and comparable values over a week. Again, this daily analysis will be followed by the examination of how they vary by adolescents’ individual characteristics of gender, grade level, and family affluence.

Adolescents’ daily interactions with fathers are likely to be associated with their self-evaluation. However, it is the emotional support experienced during these daily interactions that become the pieces of information that actually contribute to adolescents’ positive self-evaluation (Song, 2013; Swim, Pearson, & Johnston, 2007). Thus, the role of daily interactions with fathers and fathers’ daily emotional support in adolescents’
self-evaluation in social roles will be examined hierarchically. In other words, the association between adolescents’ interactions with fathers and self-evaluation in social roles reported on the same day will be tested as the first step. Then, as the next step to investigate the role of fathers’ emotional support in addition to mere interactions, the association between fathers’ emotional support and adolescents’ self-evaluation on the same day will be analyzed accounting for the role of interactions. As the final step, the variations in the daily association by gender, grade level, and family affluence will be tested.

Additionally, as reciprocal models of father-child dynamics are actively being discussed in the academia (Cabrera, Fitzgerald, Bradley, & Roggman, 2014; Zhang, 2013), testing both the concurrent (i.e., same day) and temporal (i.e., lagged day) processes of father-adolescent interactions, fathers’ emotional support and self-evaluation in social roles would be relevant. The lagged day association will provide information about the “spillover” effect of prior day’s experiences to the next day (Kiang & Buchanan, 2014). Previously, the spillover effect has been documented mainly on the experience of daily stress and was known to attenuate over time due to complex reasons such as habituation (Williams, Suls, Alliger, Learner, & Wan, 1991). Since not much has been known about the spillover effect of positive daily experiences, the results of this study will add to the existing knowledge and provide useful implications. As a result, the three
steps described for the same day association will also be carried out by replacing same day’s interactions with fathers and fathers’ emotional support with previous day’s reports.

The daily experience within each adolescent embedded in various ecological systems can be examined by a survey about adolescents’ individual characteristics and within-person data (i.e., multiple responses from an individual over time) of daily diary checklists across days. These types of data provide a multilevel dataset that allows for the examination of within-person processes and variations by individual characteristics. The data measured over seven consecutive days offers a sufficient amount of information to examine both the same day and lagged day associations.

The findings are expected to provide information relevant to, and open up discussions around, within-person experiences in everyday lives of fathers and adolescents and their connection to individual differences. Throughout the study, how adolescents of different gender, grade level and family affluence interact with fathers and experience fathers’ emotional support, and how they are associated with daily self-evaluation in social roles both on the same day and next day will be discussed within the context of the current Korean society. This dissertation will deliver a novel perspective into understanding Korean adolescents’ experience of fathers’ emotional support in relation to their self-evaluation in social roles.

Research Questions
1. Is the daily self-evaluation in social roles dynamic across a week among adolescents of various individual characteristics (i.e., gender, grade level, and family affluence)?
   1-1. Does adolescents’ daily self-evaluation in social roles vary across a week?
   1-2. Does adolescents’ daily self-evaluation in social roles vary by adolescents’ individual characteristics (i.e., gender, grade level, and family affluence)?

2. Are adolescents’ daily interactions with fathers dynamic across a week among adolescents of various individual characteristics (i.e., gender, grade level, and family affluence)?
   2-1. How frequently do adolescents interact with fathers in various daily activities across a week?
   2-2. Does the frequency of adolescents’ interactions with fathers vary by adolescents’ individual characteristics (i.e., gender, grade level, and family affluence)?

3. Is adolescents’ daily experience of fathers’ emotional support dynamic across a week among adolescents of various individual characteristics (i.e., gender, grade level, and family affluence)?
   3-3. How frequently and how much do adolescents experience fathers’ emotional support in daily lives across a week?
   3-4. Does the level and frequency of fathers’ emotional support in
daily lives vary by adolescents’ individual characteristics (i.e.,
gender, grade level, and family affluence)?

4. Are adolescents’ daily interactions with fathers and fathers’ emotional
support related to adolescents’ self-evaluation in social roles on the
same day among adolescents of various individual characteristics (i.e.,
gender, grade level, and family affluence)?

4-1. Do adolescents evaluate themselves more positively in their
social roles on days in which they interacted with their fathers
more than usual?

4-2. Do adolescents evaluate themselves more positively in their
social roles on days in which they experienced higher levels of
fathers’ emotional support than usual accounting for daily
interactions with fathers?

4-3. Does the same day association vary by individual characteristics
(i.e., gender, grade level, and family affluence)?

5. Are adolescents’ daily interactions with fathers and fathers’ emotional
support related to adolescents’ self-evaluation in social roles on the next
day among adolescents of various individual characteristics (i.e., gender,
grade level, and family affluence)?

5-1. Do adolescents evaluate themselves more positively in their
social roles on following days in which they interacted with
their fathers more than usual?
5-2. Do adolescents evaluate themselves more positively in their 
   social roles on following days in which they experienced higher 
   levels of fathers’ emotional support than usual accounting for 
   daily interactions with fathers?

5-3. Does the lagged day association vary by individual 
   characteristics (i.e., gender, grade level, and family affluence)?
Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1. Theoretical framework: Process-person-context-time (PPCT) model

Adolescents experience daily lives within multiple layers of environment. Since adolescents are the “experiencers” of daily lives, who these adolescents are and the environments in which they are embedded need to be considered harmoniously. The PPCT model is a suitable framework to place adolescents’ daily experiences and development in the context of ecological systems. The PPCT model was developed from the bioecological systems theory in an attempt to place human development in a variety of contexts. This model integrates four of the essential concepts for human development—process, person, context and time. Bronfenbrenner suggested that an individual’s development occurs as a function of these four concepts.

The process in the PPCT model is also referred to the proximal processes (Bronfenbrenner, 1995). Bronfenbrenner called the proximal processes as the mechanisms of development. He argued that the influence of person and context does not provide much information if they are not examined in relation to the processes, because the influence of personal and contextual characteristics is rather indirect and becomes effective only through the processes. The proximal processes are the very place where the development occurs through the interaction between the individual and the environment. The characteristics of a developing person (person) and the
environment (context) influence this process and contribute to individuals’ development. Bronfenbrenner has also noted that more empirical studies are needed to address the proximal processes.

Since his suggestion in 1995, efforts have been made to examine the intact interaction between an individual and the environment. However, most of these studies considered the aspect of process interchangeably with person characteristics. In other words, while process refers to the dynamic and evolving interaction between the individual and the environment, it has usually been examined as a stable environment. It is true that proximal processes characterize an enduring, repeated and patterned interactions, but they probably do not occur at exactly the same level every day. It may vary from day to day, and in order to account for the recurrent exposure and the differences in daily experiences of proximal processes, a repeated measurement across multiple days would be necessary.

The reports that capture relatively immediate experiences of fathers’ emotional support have rarely been observed or analyzed in the past. Most of the previous studies focused on the overall estimation of interaction patterns. Measuring the actual experience in daily lives will display the aspect of proximal processes that have not been observed before. In this study, taking these characteristics of proximal processes into account, processes were observed as the actual day-to-day interactions with fathers, daily experience of fathers’ emotional support and self-evaluation in
adolescents’ everyday lives.

The proximal processes occur within a developing person. The characteristics of a developing person include biological and psychological qualities such as one’s neurobiological and biochemical makeup, intelligence, global self-esteem, gender, age, temperament, and personality (Bronfenbrenner, 1995). The inclusion of person aspect of PPCT model provides information about who develops and who does not, or who develops at a greater rate than others. In this study, the role of gender and grade level will be examined as they have been identified as important characteristics that generate differences in adolescents’ daily interactions with fathers and self-evaluation (Robins & Trzesniewski, 2005; Tucker, McHale, & Crouter, 2003; Yang, 1996) These characteristics will be discussed and tested as sources of variation in adolescents’ proximal processes—the daily experiences.

In addition to providing answers to who develops and who does not, the inclusion of the context provides information about the influence of the environment on adolescents’ development. In the ecological systems theory, Bronfenbrenner introduces multiple layers of contexts that could potentially influence adolescents’ development (e.g., micro, exo, macro, etc.). Of many of the contextual factors, socioeconomic status has been identified as an important factor that may alter the daily experiences of father-adolescent interactions and adolescents’ self-evaluation (Conger et al., 1994; Gallo et
al., 2005; Twenge & Campbell, 2002). Specifically, to account for adolescents’ perception, a related concept of family affluence will be used in this study, which will be explained in detail. Again, according to the PPCT model, such context can create variations in the proximal processes in adolescents’ daily lives.

The chronosystem, *time*, is the final aspect in the PPCT model added as part of the life course perspective. Bronfenbrenner (1995) considered the influence of historical era and the timing of biological and social transitions in relation to the cultural environment. However, since the focus of this study was on short-term processes, the examination of time factor will be left out for future studies.

In sum, this study centers on the interaction of within-person experience of proximal processes in adolescents’ daily lives and variations by individual characteristics (e.g., person and context in the PPCT model). Many of the previous studies on adolescent development were interested in identifying individual differences between individuals or groups. In these designs, the within-person variations were considered as mere errors in measurement. However, the significance of within-person variations has increasingly been recognized across developmental stages. At this, the analyses of both the within-person variations or covariations and the individual differences in within-person heterogeneity have been recommended (Baltes & Nesselroade, 1979; Hoffman, 2007).
This study attempted to expand the understanding of within-person dynamics and individual differences in daily lives of Korean fathers and adolescent by viewing the daily dynamics and individual differences as interacting with each other to generate adolescent development.

2.2. Self-evaluation

The understanding of who we are in relation to the world around us is an essential part of human development. This understanding, called self-concept, is both a description and an evaluation of self that drives our lives by eliciting particular emotions and behaviors in specific situations (Arnold, 1960; Gergen, 1971; Lazarus, Averill, & Opton, 1970; Shapka & Keating, 2005). However, the descriptive and evaluative aspects of self-concept have not been clearly distinguished in past studies. Various self-related terms such as self-concept, self-identity, self-esteem, and self-evaluation, have all been used interchangeably (Shavelson et al., 1976). The interchangeable conceptualization has helped expand the general understanding of self-concept, but it now calls for a clear operationalization of any related concepts. As it is the evaluation that places value and meaning on the description of self, this study focuses on the evaluative part, which refers to self-evaluation.

The ability to evaluate oneself cannot be observed during the early
years of life; it develops as an individual matures. Initially, infants are not able to distinguish themselves from the environment. With time, self-evaluation gradually begins with the development of categorical self-concept, a distinct idea of “me” (Lewis & Brooks-Gunn, 1979; Lewis et al., 1989). Children evaluate their own behaviors as good or bad mainly according to their observation of adult reactions (Emde, Johnson, & Easterbrooks, 1987; Shavelson et al., 1976). During these early years, basic internal working models of self are formed according to their relationship with primary caregivers (Ainsworth & Bowlby, 1991; Harter, 2006). Yet, their self-concept still remains general and undistinguished from the situational experiences.

The process of self-evaluation becomes active and sensitive during adolescence, a period of self-searching (Erikson, 1968). In addition to the task of understanding self in relation to the world around them, adolescents’ social world expands and family dynamics change. As they face an increasing number of daily tasks such as making friends, achieving academic goals, and adjusting to cognitive, emotional, and physical changes, they refer to the feedback from the environment to make self-evaluations and determine who they are and the kind of person they want to become. With environmental feedback from varying sources in daily situations, adolescents develop the ability to evaluate and categorize themselves across different situations (Shavelson et al., 1976). As they mature, these categories
become unique parts of an integrated overall self. Adolescence is particularly an important developmental period to observe self-evaluation both overall and in specific dimensions since interactions between the self and the environment are most dynamic during this period and become more rigid during adulthood (Robins & Trzesniewski, 2005).

Although adolescents develop the ability to evaluate themselves in different categories, previous studies on self-evaluation have mainly focused on the global, abstract and general level of self-evaluation. One of the most popular concepts is probably self-esteem. Numerous studies have found the positive influence of self-esteem on individuals across the lifespan. Both cross-sectional and longitudinal studies highlight its importance by making connections to academic achievement, psychological and physical health, health-promoting and problem behaviors, and future economic outcomes (Brown & Marshall, 2001; Hall & Linzey, 1957; Harter, 2006; Rosenberg, 1979; Steiger et al., 2014). These studies have successfully identified the positive role of self-evaluation in general, which many of us now are familiar with.

On the other hand, there are scholars who argue that they have found little or no relationship between self-esteem and specific outcomes in life. For example, Hattie (1992) has found a very small correlation between self-esteem and academic achievement, which was only .22. In other studies, the relationship between self-esteem and various youth behaviors and health
was not strong (Crockenberg & Soby, 1989; Giblin et al., 1988; Schroeder et al., 1993). Some studies have even found high levels of self-esteem to be associated with negative outcomes, such as alcohol and drug usage, delinquent behaviors and low levels of academic achievement (Baumeister, Smart, & Boden, 1996; DeSimone, Murray, & Lester, 1994; Olmstead, Guy, & Bentler, 1991; Skaalvik & Hagtvet, 1990). These scholars have doubted the role of self-evaluation in adolescents’ development. However, others argue that it may have to do with the fact that the previous studies lacked the consideration of multidimensionality of self-evaluation (Dubois & Tevendale, 1999; Shavelson et al, 1976; Song, 1984, 2013).

The current study supports the position that adolescents’ self-evaluation can be made in multiple dimensions and argues that specific dimensions of self-evaluation also deserve attention. Furthermore, in addition to the examination of global self-evaluation that describes an overall individual, the complexity of self-evaluation within each adolescent needs to be included in the discussion. Addressing the evaluation of self in specific situations in life with the consideration of individual characteristics will shed light on explaining the missing elements in the previous literature. Thus, the present study sought to address this gap by examining a specific aspect of self-evaluation.
2.2.1. Daily self-evaluation

Adolescents’ ability to evaluate themselves across different situations demonstrates the multidimensional aspect of self-concept. As various dimensions of adolescents’ self-concepts form, these dimensions all contribute to the development of adolescents’ overall selves. This means that self-evaluation can be made both globally and in specific dimensions. While the global self-evaluation is an abstract judgment of one’s own values made based on an accumulated experiences of situational evaluations, the self-evaluation in specific dimensions are made based on specific situations of daily life.

Shavelson et al. (1976) argue that adolescents’ multidimensional self-concepts are hierarchically organized. At the top of the hierarchy is the general self-concept. The general self-concept is, then, divided into academic self-concept and non-academic self-concept. The academic self-concept is subdivided into different subject matters such as English, history, math, and science. The non-academic self-concept includes social, emotional and physical self-concepts. Under the social self-concept are self-concepts in relation to peers and significant others. For emotional self-concept, particular emotional states are included. Physical self-concept is comprised of physical ability and physical appearance. In sum, under the umbrella of general self-concept at the top of the hierarchy, there are academic and non-academic self-concepts. Under the academic and non-
academic self-concepts are the subareas of lower-level self-concepts described above, which reflect the evaluations of behaviors and states in specific situations.

The same model was empirically tested and adjusted for the Korean adolescents by Song (1982) (Figure 1). His model was also hierarchically organized. Under the general self-concept, he has identified academic and non-academic self-concepts. The academic self-concept included lower-level self-concepts such as classroom self-concept, ability self-concept and achievement self-concept. Under the ability self-concept were various subject matters such as math, language, social studies, and natural sciences. For the non-academic self-concept, there were significant other self-concept, which included social and familial self-concepts, and affective self-concept, which included emotional and physical self-concepts. The present study adopted Song's model for the examination of self-evaluation as it pertains specifically to Korean adolescents' experiences. Furthermore, as the current study is interested in addressing adolescents’ self-evaluation in specific dimensions, the focus will be drawn upon the lowest level of this model that is directly related to adolescents’ everyday lives.
The evaluations of self-concept at different levels are related but can be perceived discretely. The highest level, general self-concept, tends to be stable over time and as one moves down the hierarchy the lower-level self-concepts increasingly become susceptible to changes in the environment (Shavelson et al., 1976). At the lowest level is the evaluation of behaviors in specific situations of everyday life. The lower-level self-concepts such as class, ability, achievement, social, familial, emotional and physical self-concepts can be more easily influenced by daily lives than the general self-concept. Shavelson et al. (1976) argue that the higher-level self-concepts that are more stable tend to stabilize the fluctuations of self-evaluation in everyday life. At the same time, the evaluation of lower-level self-concepts that are not consistent with the higher-level self-concepts also contribute to changing the higher-level self-concepts. In other words, the higher-level self-concepts and lower-level self-concepts interact with one another, but
can be evaluated independently.

The discrete evaluations of specific dimensions of self-concepts have been empirically tested. Since it is difficult to address all of the aspects of self-concept together, scholars have studied the specific dimensions separately. For example, global self-related concepts (e.g., self-esteem, self-resilience) were tested with adolescents’ experience of parent-child relationship, school adjustment, peer relationships and physical attractiveness (Chung & Lee, 2011; Moon, 2012; Won & Kim, 2016). In one study, adolescents’ self-esteem was categorized into six different sub-dimensions of peers, school, family, sports/athletics, body image and global self-worth, where different self-esteem dimensions were found to be associated with different risk behaviors such as substance abuse, bullying, suicidality and sexuality among 8th and 11th graders (Wild et al., 2004).

Although these studies recognized the multidimensional nature of self-concept, higher-level and lower-level self-concepts were assessed interchangeably with no consideration of stability. These studies usually examined the experiences that were relevant to lower-level dimensions of self-concepts such as in social and familial self-concepts, classroom and physical self-concepts, but the associations were mainly made with the higher-level, general self-concept. Also, the discussions around the dynamics at the lower-level self-concepts within each adolescent remain limited in the previous literature. This may explain the currently mixed
results regarding global self-evaluation, because the stability or fluctuation in the lower-level self-concepts are also important contributors to adolescents’ well-being over and above the global level of self-evaluation (Vallacher et al., 2002).

The stability of self-evaluation across days and situations implies one’s ability to self-regulate and aids in the process of achieving coherence in self-concept. On the other hand, large fluctuations occur in self-concept areas that are inconsistent, fragmented, or less mature. They demonstrate one’s vulnerability to social feedback, which can be a threat and risk to psychological well-being (Vallacher et al., 2002). As one’s self-concept undergoes the process of development during adolescence, many of the subareas are likely to be still low in stability. Identifying the daily experiences that are associated with fluctuations in self-evaluation will provide useful information about adolescents’ development of self.

In Schwartz et al. (2011), the daily dynamics of self-concept clarity (i.e., the degree of positivity and consistency in one’s description of overall self) and identity processes were examined in relation to psychological distress among a sample of 580 Dutch adolescents. They measured self-concept clarity each day for five consecutive days at three different time points with second and third assessments after 3 and 6 months later, respectively. Fluctuations were observed and daily fluctuations in self and identity processes were found to be associated with anxiety and depression.
in the long-run. In another study, a different aspect of self, one’s ethnic identity, was also found to vary on a day-to-day basis among Chinese American adolescents (Yip, 2005; Yip & Fuligni, 2002). Both of these studies found associations between self-concepts related to ethnic identity and psychological well-being. Although these studies of similar concepts offer clues about daily dynamics of self-evaluation, their main goals were to examine the role of variations in self-related concepts in adolescents’ well-being. We know little about the daily events and experiences that are associated with the ups and downs of adolescents’ self-evaluation in specific dimensions. Especially, the lower-level self-concepts that are likely to be sensitively to daily experiences still remain under-explored. On what days do adolescents evaluate themselves more positively than other days in which dimensions of their lower-level self-concept?

2.2.2. Self-evaluation in social roles: Theory of reflected appraisals

The daily self-evaluation occurs at the lower-level self-concept areas in the hierarchical model (refer to Figure 1). There are many dimensions at the lower-level self-concepts and it is true that all of them take important parts in adolescents’ development of self. Yet, there is one aspect that has been identified as the key to construction of self—the self-evaluation in social roles under the significant other self-concept.

Above all other factors, interactions with significant others play the
main role in adolescents’ evaluation of themselves. In fact, the interactions with significant others are known to exert an influence over all other areas of self-concept. Self-evaluation in social roles under the significant other self-concept is likely to influence the incongruent, but thematically related, neighboring categories to establish coherence (Vallacher et al., 2002). The theory of reflected appraisals asserts that, as social animals, adolescents come to make sense of who they are through the way their important others view them (Sullivan, 1953). During adolescence the self that has been formed during childhood continues to develop through an active interaction with the environment (Kegan, 1982). During this process, various information gushes in and adolescents must know which information to embrace as the description and evaluation of themselves. While anyone can exert influence on adolescents’ development of self, the view of important others, or significant others, is particularly powerful (Kegan, 1982; Harter, 1993). The information from the people that adolescents have formed significant relationships with matters the most.

More specifically, the ways in which the theory of reflected appraisals applies to adolescents’ self-development can be categorized as the following principles: (1) direct reflections, (2) perceived selves, and (3) the generalized other (Rosenberg, 1979). The idea of direct reflections was mainly introduced by Veblen (1934) who argued that the congruence between others’ view of self and one’s own view of self is important for
adapting to the society. He argues that the discrepancy between the two is likely to cause problems. For example, considering self as a helpful individual when everyone else finds the person very annoying can produce difficulties in the individual’s social relationships. In this regard, Mead (1934) has emphasized the importance of taking the view of others, which most of the individuals are already unconsciously doing. The present study did not address the discrepancy between the views of others and self but it is still important to take note of this point that adolescents will take the view of others in order to adapt to their expanding social world.

Similarly, the principle of perceived self was mainly developed by Cooley (1912) who came up with the famous term “the looking-glass self.” Although this term is similar to the ideas of direct reflections, Cooley argued that it specifically refers to the imagination and perception of how one is viewed by others. In other words, rather than others’ behaviors or attitudes toward self, one’s own perceptions and interpretations of how others view him or herself are the main sources of self-evaluation. In this sense, adolescents’ viewpoint becomes an essential part of examining how significant others influence their self-development. Therefore, this study analyzed adolescents’ own perception of interactions with significant others and evaluation of self.

Another principle that explains the theory of reflected appraisals is the idea of generalized other. Mead (1934) asserted that individuals learn
about who they are through acquiring the roles of others and self in social relations. He provided an example of baseball game where the understanding of other players’ roles (i.e., the generalized others) needs to be made in order for an individual to play his or her role effectively in the game. In other words, individuals’ evaluation of self comes from the roles that the society assigns to them within the bigger picture. This suggests that adolescents would try to define who they are in relation to the world around them within their social roles.

All of the principles help understand the importance of interactions with significant others and the evaluation of self in various social roles in adolescent development. These studies support the association between interactions with significant others and adolescents’ global self-evaluation. However, according to the self-evaluation literature reviewed earlier, these interactions are likely to be most directly related to specific, lower-level self-evaluation. Particularly, the specific area of self-concept that could be associated with interactions with significant others is the significant other self-concept, which includes self-evaluation in social roles at the lowest, daily, level. Therefore, among various dimensions of self-concepts, the current study examines adolescents’ daily self-evaluation in their typical social roles, including their role as a son or daughter, a friend, and a student.
2.3. Adolescents’ interactions with fathers

According to the theory of reflected appraisals, adolescents find information to evaluate themselves in daily interactions with important others. During adolescence, one’s significant others can vary. With the expansion of adolescents’ social world, friends and possibly romantic partners become increasingly important. Still, parents continue to be the reference that adolescents turn to for self-evaluation (Gecas, 1971; Harter, 2006; Harris et al., 2015; Hoffman, Levy-Shiff, & Ushpiz, 1993; Rosenberg, 1979; Youniss & Smollar, 1985). For many adolescents, the relationship with parents is the basis for their view of the world and the self (Markiewicz et al., 2006; McClun & Merrell, 1998).

When the influence of peer relationships and parent-adolescent relationships were compared in Greenberg, Siegel, and Leitch (1983) among 213 twelve to nineteen year-old adolescents, the quality of their attachment to parents more strongly predicted adolescents’ well-being than their attachment to peers. In O’Donnell (1976), feelings toward parents more strongly predicted adolescents’ self-esteem than their feelings toward peers. They found that the influence of parents tended to decrease rather slowly starting around the eleventh grade.

While these studies have revealed the role of both fathers and mothers, adolescents’ interactions with fathers have not been addressed much in previous studies. The importance of fathers as a caregiver has emerged only
recently mainly among fathers of young children (Lamb, 2010). The role of fathers during adolescence has not been emphasized as much even though fathers still play important roles in adolescents’ lives. In order to address the gap in previous research, the current study focuses on adolescents’ daily interactions with fathers.

Of many ways that parents influence adolescents’ development, frequent shared daily activities, such as going out for shopping or having meals together, have been found to be associated with positive developmental outcomes (Crosnoe & Trinitapoli, 2008; Crouter et al., 2004; Larson et al., 1996). Of course, the mere amount of interactions cannot be an accurate predictor of developmental outcomes. Still, while interactions can be both positive, negative, or neutral, the mere interaction patterns provide opportunities for positive experiences that can lead to positive self-evaluation in daily settings. As a potential context for positive experiences, patterns of father-adolescent interactions across seven days will be analyzed, followed by how they vary by individual characteristics.

2.4. Fathers’ emotional support in Korea

While frequent interactions are important contexts for adolescents to acquire information about who they are in relation to the world around them, it is the experience of emotional support that actually help adolescents view themselves in the positive light. Emotional support is a component of social
support that distinguishes itself from the instrumental part of social support such as material assistance (Cobb, 1976). By definition, it is the information that makes others feel that they are cared for and loved (Cobb, 1976, p.300). Ganellen and Blaney (1984) defines emotional support as psychological resources an individual receives from the surrounding people that aids in satisfying the basic human needs of affection and acceptance, which also helps reduce the level of stress and the negative influence of stress. More specifically, it includes qualities such as “listening, empathizing, providing praise, affection, trust, and respect” (as cited in Yeung & Leadbeater, 2010, p.81). Emotional support is not merely an act of consolation on stressful days, but an interaction pattern that demonstrates qualities such as warmth and responsiveness (Boudreault-Bouchard et al., 2013). The current study adopted the definitions of Cobb (1976) and Ganellen and Blaney (1984) with the examples presented in Yeung and Leadbeater (2010) to operationalize parents’ emotional support. Parents’ emotional support in this study is defined as psychological resources from parents, manifested by behaviors of listening, encouraging, and providing praise and advice, that lead adolescents to know that they are cared for and loved, ultimately satisfying their basic human needs for affection.

Parents often take the primary role of providing the emotional support to meet the needs of their children (Cobb, 1976). They are the first people that a child meets in life. Their significant role in child development
has been proven through numerous sources. However, the role of emotional support is considered as the nurturing part of parenting that is often viewed as the primary responsibility of mothers. The emphasis on mothers’ nurturing role has led the important parenting theories to be mainly based on observations and experiments of mothers (e.g., attachment theory, parenting styles). Although more studies now than before examine fathers’ role as parents, there is still limited understanding toward the role of fathers’ involvement in adolescents’ development (Lamb, 2010), especially in the area of emotional support.

In Korea, it has not been very long since the society has started to expect fathers to provide emotional support to their children. Korea is one of the countries that have traditionally been influenced by the Confucianism. The ideal image of fathers has evolved over time along with the changes in the larger society. Since the role of fathers is highly contingent on social and cultural contexts (Lamb, 2010), the unique background in which the expectations for fathers has transformed in Korea needs to be understood.

Before industrialization, most of the Korean families made living through farming in which all of the family members took part. Under the influence of Confucianism, the social roles of males and females as well as fathers, mothers, and children were clearly defined (Kim & Lee, 2014). Confucianism emphasizes the vertical order of social hierarchy. More specifically, those who were male and older had the most power and
received the most respect. In this sense, fathers were viewed as the leaders of the family who were to be respected and honored. The mechanism of survival within the frame of such belief system was the inheritance of family prosperity. At the time, for a family to prosper they had to pass the national academic exam to serve as a high official. In the midst of this cultural context, fathers, in an attempt to maintain and increase family’s prosperity as leaders of the family, were highly involved in children’s education (Ham, 1997).

However, the type of involvement during this era was different from the involvement that has widely been understood in the Western literature. The ways in which Korean fathers were involved in children’s lives in the past were strict and emotionally restrained because they believed that children needed strict discipline to learn. Simultaneously, both the society and children accepted and honored fathers’ strict parenting, which was often accompanied by mothers’ care and warmth.

As time went on, global movement toward industrialization has affected the social atmosphere in Korea. Although the movement toward industrialization influenced the countries worldwide, the changes occurred rather quickly over a few decades in Korea compared to many of the Western countries that adopted the system over a couple of centuries. This phenomenon has generated the coexistence of both the old and the new values (Chang, 2001). Whereas the current fathers and the general public
still hold the image of the strict and emotionally restrained fathers, the
society is also increasingly demanding the nurturing and emotionally
supportive fathers. Traditionally, the extended families lived close to each
other and the village community participated in each family’s childrearing.
However, in the modern era where both community and family ties are
weakening, parents do not have as many social ties to share childrearing
while an increasing number of wives are working just as much as the
husbands (Kim, 2007). Therefore, fathers’ nurturing roles have become
more needed than ever before (Kim & Lee, 2014).

Recently in the Korean media, the popular image of fathers is
portrayed as friend-like figures who take the children out to play and have
meaningful conversations with them. At the same time, the media also
portrays fathers who struggle to show emotions and find the right words to
say when they are alone with their children. This reflects the apparent
discrepancy between the social expectations and the reality where both the
traditional image of fathers and the new expected roles coexist. Moreover,
the provision of emotional support seems more difficult for fathers of
adolescents than those of younger children (Song et al., 2010). Adolescents
are already struggling themselves between the emerging needs for autonomy
and intimacy in the midst of all other developmental changes that occur in
their physical, cognitive and emotional systems (Erikson, 1968). They try to
draw away from parents, yet, also want to feel accepted, loved and
supported by their parents (The Korea Bang Jeong-hwan Foundation, 2016). Simultaneously, Korean fathers also become very busy with developing their own career and may even go through mid-life crisis (Yoon, 2016). Also, the general notion that the influence of parents, especially fathers, decreases during adolescence has added to the lack of understanding and guidance for fathers’ emotional support in Korea.

Therefore, many fathers do not know what to do with their adolescent children. Previous reports have revealed how much fathers wanted to be good fathers and be friend-like fathers, but many of them did not know how to do it, and the parenting efficacy decreased as children entered adolescence (Song, et al., 2010). From adolescents’ perspective, the largest number have selected a happy family life as a requirement for happiness (The Korea Bang Jeong-hwan Foundation, 2016). They generally wanted to be cared for and supported by their fathers, but the reality was that less than a half of the adolescents in the country spent more than an hour talking to their fathers over a week (OECD, 2015).

2.4.1. Korean adolescents’ experience of emotional support in daily lives

In a recent report on Korean adolescents, the scores on their relationships with fathers, including fathers’ emotional availability, have steadily increased since 2011 (The Korea Bang Jeong-hwan Foundation, 2014). On the other hand, the percentages of adolescents who included
fathers within the emotional support network were very low (The Korea Bang Jeong-hwan Foundation, 2016). This discrepancy displayed a potential difference between adolescents’ general perception of their fathers’ emotional support and the actual experience of it in real life.

Although adolescents’ overall perception of their relationship with fathers has improved over the years, qualitative studies continue to speak of the complexities and difficulties in father-adolescent relationships in everyday lives. Choi, Cho, and Lee (2016) investigated the lived experiences of the relationship between Korean fathers and sons and found that many of the adolescent sons were struggling with weak emotional ties with fathers but still had desires for an emotional connection with them. In Yoon (2016), fathers also experienced difficulties in understanding their role in adolescent children’s development and wanted to learn about the effective ways to provide emotional support to their adolescent children. Generally, these fathers of Korean adolescents were comfortable with the financial supporter role, and were unsure of their role as an emotional supporter in daily interactions with their adolescent children.

In order to help fathers understand their role in adolescent children’s daily lives, empirical studies are needed to test the significance of fathers’ emotional support provided in daily interactions. Daily experiences with fathers are frequently overlooked because they usually seem trivial. Therefore, many of the previous studies addressed the overall perception of
relationships with their fathers. Yet, even for adolescents with generally warm and supportive fathers, this does not mean that their interactions are the same every day. On some days, this adolescent may spend the entire day with the father, while on other days they may not see each other at all. The average or the overall reports indicate that a half of the time the experience is equal to or greater than the average, while the other half of the time the experience is equal to or less than the average. Then, what does the fluctuation in daily interactions with fathers and fathers’ emotional support around the average mean? What is different about the average versus the day to day reports?

The day to day reports provide information about the ups and downs of the experience relative to one’s own average, or the usual level. This means that even among the adolescents who report low levels of average interactions with fathers or fathers’ emotional support, increases in daily interactions and fathers’ emotional support relative to one’s own average are possible in certain contexts. This is called a within-person experience, and the current study attempted to explore the dynamics that occur within each adolescent’s daily life by examining the frequency of adolescents’ typical daily interactions with fathers (e.g., breakfast, dinner, TV-watching, leisure, and conversations) since daily interactions are the contexts in which emotional support is generally experienced.

With prior understanding of father-adolescent interactions in the
daily context, the dynamics of fathers’ daily emotional support will then be analyzed. How much and how frequently do adolescents experience fathers’ emotional support? Although national data exists, the average levels reported in survey questionnaires tended to be prone to recall bias and were too abstract to be applied to everyday life settings (e.g., the OECD report that found the majority of Korean adolescents spending less than an hour talking with fathers over a week). The daily reports address these gaps, and the examination of how frequently adolescents interact with fathers across days lays out the contexts in which adolescents potentially experience fathers’ emotional support.

2.5. Daily interactions with fathers, experience of fathers’ emotional support and adolescents’ self-evaluation in social roles on the same day

Parents’ emotional support experienced in daily interactions has consistently been found to equip adolescents with a healthy view of self (Boudreault-Bouchard et al., 2013). In fact, emotional support has frequently been studied as part of other expansive concepts such as social support, communication, closeness and acceptance. In Bean et al. (2003), reports from 85 African American mothers and adolescents confirmed the influence of mothers’ acceptance on self-esteem and self-reliance. Kim (2003) assessed the association between parents’ social support and adolescents’ self-esteem and found a positive association among the 285 6th
grade and 8th grade students in Korea. These are consistent with other results from similar cross-sectional studies that examined parent-adolescent closeness and acceptance (Barber, Chadwick, & Oerter, 1992; Verschueren, Marcoen, & Schoefs, 1996; Lee, 2005). While these studies have examined similar concepts, they all boil down to a common theme of emotional support. From these studies we can assume a positive association between parents’ emotional support and adolescents’ self-evaluation. The respectful, supportive and intimate attitudes they experience are reflected in their evaluation of self as a person who is worthy of respect and support (Bean et al., 2003; Friedlander et al., 2007).

Again, these studies provide evidence to believe the positive association between fathers’ emotional support experienced in daily interactions and adolescents’ self-evaluation. However, they were not sufficient to address the role of fathers’ emotional support in daily lives and its association with a specific aspect of self-concept—self-evaluation in social roles. The experience of fathers’ emotional support in daily lives is expected to be most closely associated with self-evaluation in social roles. The interactions with fathers as a son or daughter directly influences their self-evaluation as a good son or daughter. The evaluation in this area, in turn, is likely to influence the evaluation in the thematically related neighboring categories such as their role as friends and students in the same direction since the overall structure of self strives to reach a state of congruence.
The examination of adolescents’ within-person daily experiences of fathers’ emotional support with daily interactions in this study will provide useful information about the variability of lower-level, daily self-evaluation in social roles. It will also help identify positive daily events that signify the areas of one’s strengths and potential resources for cultivating positive self-evaluation (Mruk, 2006; Repetti, Robles, & Reynolds, 2011). Accordingly, the current study limits its participants to adolescents in school, and measures daily experience over seven consecutive days since their school schedule repeats around a week.

2.6. Individual differences by gender, grade level, and family affluence

2.6.1. Gender

Each parent and adolescent child possesses genes that identify them either as male or female. In the process of adolescents’ experience of fathers’ emotional support and their daily self-evaluation, fathers’ influence may vary for boys and girls. In one study, Korean fathers were found to differ in the type of support they provided to their sons and daughters (Kim, 2005). To sons, fathers in this study were more likely to provide support by giving them information and advice. To daughters, they provided more support in daily tasks. This study did not specifically address fathers’ emotional support. However, the fact that fathers differed in the type of
support they provided to their children by gender implies that the usual interaction patterns for father-son versus father-daughter dynamics can be different. Due to the type of support sons and daughters are used to, fathers’ emotional support may be perceived differently by boys and girls.

Moreover, fathers seem to be closer to sons than daughters in general. In other studies, fathers reported a higher frequency of interaction with their sons than with their daughters (Huston, 1983; Ishii-Kuntz, 1994; Tucker, McHale, & Crouter, 2003; Yang, 1996). In a recent survey, sons’ average relationship quality with fathers was higher than that of daughters’ (The Korea Bang Jeong-hwan Foundation, 2016). By spending more time with sons and sons reporting higher quality of relationship with fathers, it is possible that boys interact with fathers in daily lives more frequently than daughters do. Also, the influence of emotional support may be higher for daughters than sons. Since daughters usually are not as close to fathers as sons, a relatively rare experience of fathers’ emotional support on some of the days may have a greater impact on how girls view themselves. On the other hand, other studies argue that fathers generally influence sons more strongly than daughters, or report no gender differences (Nam & Kim, 2011; Pleck & Masciadrelli, 2004).

However, not many studies specifically examined the role of gender in the relationship between fathers’ emotional support and adolescents’ self-evaluation. These mixed results from similar topics generate difficulties in
making assumptions about whether the relationship between fathers’ emotional support and adolescents’ daily self-evaluation varies by gender. By testing the moderating effect of gender, the degree of fathers’ influence on sons’ and daughters’ self-evaluation might become clear.

2.6.2. Grade level

Another factor that may produce variations in the degree to which daily fathers’ emotional support and self-evaluation are related is adolescents’ grade level. Differences can occur among the elementary and middle school students due to the environmental and psychosocial changes with age. Moreover, compared to elementary schools, middle schools involve more challenges in terms of academics and social tasks (Robins & Trzesniewski, 2005). Some argue that as adolescents grow older, the influence of parents attenuates as the influence of other factors, such as friends and academics, enter into adolescents’ lives (Bornstein et al., 2012). Their assertion suggests that the frequency of interactions with fathers and the influence of fathers’ emotional support in daily life may be stronger for the adolescents in elementary schools than for those in middle schools. However, at the same time, other research suggests that children’s view of themselves tends to be overly optimistic during the younger years and may not accurately and sensitively capture the influence of the environment (Harter, 2006). In other words, their reports of self-evaluation may not
accurately capture the potentially variable experience of fathers’ emotional support in daily lives. The older adolescents may be more sensitive to the events and experiences, including fathers’ emotional support. Testing the effect of grade level differences will provide implications for developmental changes with age in adolescents’ self-evaluation and experiences with fathers.

2.6.3. Family affluence

Many of the parenting literature have revealed the negative influence of low socioeconomic status on parenting quality (Whitbeck et al., 1997; Yoshikawa, Lawrence, & Williams, 2012). The family stress theory also implies the negative effect that economic stress has on parents’ emotional availability (Conger et al., 1994). A cross-sectional study conducted by Bronfenbrenner himself also displayed a negative influence of low economic status on the relationship between parental care and children’s problem behaviors (Bronfenbrenner, 1995). However, not much is known about how family affluence influences the degree to which fathers’ emotional support is associated with adolescents’ self-evaluation. Previous studies on economic stress mostly suggest that the general level of emotional support would be different for those living in low versus high socioeconomic households. They imply that the parents of low socioeconomic status lack the resources to provide emotional support
compared to the parents of high socioeconomic status. However, what if the fathers in low socioeconomic families provided as much emotional support as the fathers in high socioeconomic families to their adolescent children on some of the days? Would the influence be greater or weaker?

Studies on within-person processes of stress response offer hints to these questions. The findings of these studies have revealed a greater sensitivity to negative events among those with certain genetic characteristics or those with less financial, social and psychological resources (Gallo et al., 2005). More recently, researchers have found that they were not only more sensitive to daily negative events but also to positive events (Belsky et al., 2007) though the studies on individuals’ response to positive events have been less common. From these results, it is possible to hypothesize that the developmental proximal processes between fathers’ emotional support and self-evaluation in daily lives may be stronger for adolescents living in low socioeconomic households than their counterparts. A stronger association between fathers’ emotional support and self-evaluation would suggest greater fluctuations in daily self-evaluation according to social feedback. Some regard large fluctuations to imply vulnerability (Vallacher et al., 2002), but others view a heightened sensitivity to daily positive events as potential resources (Belsky et al., 2007). Both ways, the examination of socioeconomic status as a moderator for the proximal processes proposes a relatively novel perspective into
issues of socioeconomic disparities.

In order to measure socioeconomic status of adolescents in this study, the concept of family affluence was used. Usually, the measurement of socioeconomic status of adults involves one’s income, education or occupation. For adolescents, parents’ income, education, or occupation are generally used as proxy since adolescents themselves are often in school and develop within their parents’ economic power. However, issues occurred with using parents’ information because high percentages of adolescents did not know or were not willing to disclose the information (Molcho, Gabhainn, & Kelleher, 2007; Wardle, Robb, & Johnson, 2002). Therefore, a measure that was less sensitive to adolescents, simple to answer, and relevant to the contemporary economic contexts was needed. This led to the assessment of family affluence through the development of Family Affluence Scale (FAS). FAS is an objective measure of adolescents’ socioeconomic contexts. The scale measures items that are easily observable and directly experienced in adolescents’ everyday lives, such as the number of cars the family owns and whether the adolescent has his or her own room (For more information about the scale, refer to p.54).

The scale has been developed for the Health Behavior in School-Aged Children (HBSC), a longitudinal and cross-national survey conducted by World Health Organization. FAS has been used and validated in numerous studies among adolescents across different countries. For example,
family affluence was found to be a meaningful predictor of self-efficacy among 13-year old Polish adolescents (Mazur, Malkowska-Szkutnik, & Tabak, 2014). Also, Chinese adolescents’ self-esteem and life-satisfaction were successfully predicted by FAS (Chen, Niu, Zhang, Fan, Tian, & Zhou, 2016).

The current study analyzed family affluence to capture adolescents’ socioeconomic contexts, because adolescents’ perceived experiences of their developmental contexts were the central interest of this study. It captures the concept of context in the PPCT model relatively well. In order to assess the active interaction between the individual and the context, individuals’ experience of the social context is important. In other words, the way adolescents’ experience of daily emotional support is related to adolescents’ self-evaluation in social roles would be more closely related to their experience of having or not having certain resources that matter to them, such as their own room, or opportunities to go on family trips than the actual amount of their parents’ income. These experiences that make families’ socioeconomic status cognitively salient in their daily lives were considered to have a direct impact on adolescents’ subjective experience of fathers’ emotional support and self-evaluation in social roles. Again, living in the context characterized by a lack of resources in daily lives is expected to be associated with increased sensitivity to both negative and positive daily events (Belsky et al., 2007). Thus, low levels of family affluence are
hypothesized to strengthen the association between daily experience of fathers’ emotional support and adolescents’ self-evaluation in social roles.

2.7. Lagged day association

The discussions around the reciprocal relationship between fathers’ effect and children’s effect have been ongoing (Cabrera et al., 2014; Zhang, 2013). In the midst of these discussions, it is important to identify the causality of father-child interactions. Moreover, the test of both the same day and the lagged day associations will add to the previous literature about the “spillover” effect.

The findings from previous research are converging on the fact that stressful daily experiences have a tendency to influence the outcomes on the following day (DeLongis et al., 1998; Marco & Suls, 1993). These studies have revealed short-term effects of negative experiences in daily lives over a day, but these lagged effects tended to attenuate over time for reasons such as habituation—diminishing of psychological response to frequent and repeated stimuli (Thompson & Spencer, 1966). However, since not much is known about how daily positive experiences “spillover” to the next day, the findings of this study will expand the current understanding of how long daily experiences last and provide useful implications accordingly.

As a result, the association between previous day’s interactions with fathers and self-evaluation in social roles will first be analyzed, followed by
including the previous day’s fathers’ daily emotional support in the analysis. Then, variations in the lagged day association by gender, grade level, and family affluence will be tested.

2.8. Daily diary design

In order to examine daily father-adolescent interactions and the relationship between fathers’ emotional support and adolescents’ self-evaluation along with their variations by gender, grade level, and family affluence within the PPCT model, a daily diary method will be utilized. The daily diary method is also referred to as “intensive longitudinal methods” (Bolger & Laurenceau, 2013). This method is useful for measuring within-person (1) changes, or (2) fluctuations, often over a relatively short period of time compared to the general longitudinal studies (Hoffman, 2015). In a within-person design, measurements are taken multiple times for each individual participant to obtain enough data to observe diversity in the experiences of the same individual. The length and interval of measurements can be determined by research questions and availability of resources.

In the present study, daily diary method was selected in order to capture within-person fluctuations of the experience of both fathers’ emotional support and adolescents’ self-evaluation over a short period of time. As mentioned earlier, taking into account school-going adolescents’
schedule that tends to repeat around a week, measurements were taken across seven consecutive days. The present study benefits from daily diary study in the following ways:

First, the daily diary method is useful for capturing the instability of lower-level self-concepts that was difficult to address in survey methods. The instability and the nature of lower-level self-concepts’ direct contact with daily lives were hypothesized and addressed in a few studies (Shavelson et al., 1976; Schwartz et al., 2011; Song, 1984; Yip, 2005; Yip & Fuligni, 2002). Likewise, multiple and repeated measurements of this study will display a variety of experiences within the same individual even over a relatively short period of time.

Second, the daily diary method is fit for examining adolescents’ development within the framework of PPCT model. Considering the fact that process was originally defined as a repeated exposure to everyday interactions to the immediate environment, the daily diary data successfully captures the concept in the way Bronfenbrenner defined it. Moreover, the within-person diary data accompanied by survey data of individual characteristics addresses the consideration of within-person processes by stable individual characteristics such as person and context.

Finally, the data collected over multiple days allows for the examination of causality. It enables the test of the lasting effects of one day’s experience of fathers’ emotional support on the next day’s self-
2.9. The current study

Within the framework of PPCT model, first, the daily dynamics of self-evaluation in social roles will be examined across a week, followed by whether these dynamics vary by gender, grade level, and family affluence.

Next, the daily dynamics of interactions with fathers will be examined across a week, with the analysis of variations by gender, grade level, and family affluence. Then, the daily dynamics of fathers’ emotional support will be examined over a week, again, followed by the analysis of variations by gender, grade level, and family affluence.

As the first step of examining the relationships among interactions with fathers, fathers’ emotional support and self-evaluation in social roles on the same day, the association between adolescents’ interactions with fathers and self-evaluation in social roles will be tested. Second, the role of fathers’ emotional support in adolescents’ self-evaluation in social roles will be analyzed accounting for the role of adolescents’ interactions with fathers. Lastly, variations in the same day association by gender, grade level, and family affluence will be tested.

For the analysis of lagged day association, the same procedures will be followed as the same day association with replacements of daily interactions with fathers and fathers’ emotional support with previous day’s
values.

The study is expected to expand the current understanding of father-
adolescent relationships in daily context. Specifically, the results will
contribute to the existing knowledge about self-evaluation and the role of
daily interactions with father and fathers’ emotional support in adolescents’
daily lives.
Chapter 3: Method

3.1. Characteristics of data and sample

The current study uses the Wave 2 data of Seoul Education and Health Welfare Panel (SEHWP), a three-year (2014-2016) longitudinal study conducted in collaboration with the Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education.

The participants of the study were from 14 elementary and 12 middle schools in Seoul, Korea. The schools were selected through the purposive quota sampling. All of the students and their parents in these selected schools were contacted and asked to participate in the initial survey. At wave 1, a total of 820 students in 4th grade and 7th grade (1st grade of middle school in Korea) who agreed to participate and responded properly to the questions were included in the survey.

Among these students, those who agreed to take part in an additional daily diary study were instructed on how to follow through the study for the next seven days. The daily diary study was conducted online through a link sent to each student every night for one week. The links were sent out every evening at 7 P.M. and the students who did not complete the diary until the next morning were contacted again by an SMS message to respond to the questions before 7 P.M. the next day.

The questions in daily diary checklist included students’ daily experiences of sleep, eating, hygiene, family life, media usage, academic
life, school life, peer relationships, physical and emotional health. During the first year, a total of 452 students responded to three or more days. For the second year, a total of 303 students responded on three or more days. The present study used the second year data when the adolescents have turned 5\textsuperscript{th} grade and 8\textsuperscript{th} grade (2\textsuperscript{nd} year of middle school), respectively.

Among the total of 303 students, 283 of them reported that they lived with fathers. There were 139(49.1%) boys and 144(50.9%) girls, and 131(46.3%) were in the 5\textsuperscript{th} grade while 152(53.7%) were in 8\textsuperscript{th} grade. A total of 238(84.1%) students responded on all of the 7 days.

Their family affluence was measured by the Family Affluence Scale, 20(7.1%) fell under the category of low family affluence, 126(44.5%) were in the middle family affluence and 136(48.1%) were identified as high family affluence, with one(0.4%) missing response. Since the responses concentrated in the middle and high groups, the low and middle groups were combined. As a result, the low/middle group included 146(51.6%) of adolescents.

Fathers’ age was available for 281 fathers and the mean age was 45.83 (SD=4.05). Fathers’ ages were between 32 and 62. Nine(3.2%) were in 30s, 236(84%) were in 40s, and 36(12.8%) were in their 50s or above.

Almost all of the participants who lived with fathers reported that they also lived with their mothers (96.8%).
Table 1 Descriptive Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>139(49.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>144(50.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade level</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5th grade</td>
<td>131(46.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8th grade</td>
<td>152(53.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family affluence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low/Middle</td>
<td>146(51.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>136(48.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>1(0.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Also living with mothers</td>
<td>274(96.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>283(100)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2. Concepts and measurements of variables

3.2.1. Daily-level variables

1) Daily interactions with fathers

Typical daily interactions with fathers were measured by daily checklist that asked adolescents to respond whether they engaged in certain activities with fathers on the study day. The items were adopted from the major groupings of family activities identified by experiential sampling method in Larson, Richards, Moneta, Holmbeck, and Duckett (1996). The adolescents were asked to check off whether they engaged in each of the following activities with their fathers on the day they responded to the checklist: “had breakfast,” “had dinner,” “watched TV,” “went outside and spent leisure time,” “had a conversation.” If they reported that they engaged in the activity, it was coded 1. If not, it was coded 0. For hierarchical linear
modeling, the scores were summed so that higher scores indicated more
types of shared daily activities with fathers. The scores ranged from 0 to 5.

2) Daily fathers’ emotional support

For seven days, the adolescents responded every day on the extent to
which they experienced fathers’ emotional support. The questions were
adopted from Rohner & Khaleque (2005), Yeung and Leadbeater (2010) and
revised for the daily diary checklist format. On a 5-point Likert scale from 0
(never) to 4 (very much), the participants were asked to rate each statement.
Each statement was about their daily experiences with their fathers. The
scale included statements such as: Today, (1) my father gave me helpful
advice, (2) my father complimented me, (3) my father encouraged me and
gave me strength, and (4) my father listened to me carefully. The daily
scores of these items were averaged. The scores ranged from 0 to 4. The
higher scores indicated the experience of higher degrees of fathers’
emotional support. The reliability of the items indicated by Cronbach’s
alpha ranged from .93 to .96.

3) Previous day’s fathers’ emotional support

The variable for previous day’s fathers’ emotional support was
created by producing lagged scores of daily fathers’ emotional support for
each day. This means that a separate variable consisting previous day’s
scores was created.
4) Daily self-evaluation in social roles

Adolescents’ daily self-evaluation in social roles was measured each day for 7 days by checklist on how much they agreed on each of the statements from 0 (not at all) to 4 (very much). The checklist items of daily self-evaluation consisted of the following four statements: Today, (1) I was a good child (son/daughter), (2) I was a good student, and (3) I was a good friend. The items were devised from considering concepts and measures of similar previous studies that used daily diary measures (Kiang, 2012; Telzer & Fuligni, 2013; Yip & Fuligni, 2002). The average of the responses to the three statements was calculated for each day. A higher score indicated a more positive daily self-evaluation in social roles. This daily average was used for the level-1 (within-person) daily-level analysis. The Cronbach’s alpha of the four items ranged from .92 to .93.

5) Previous day’s self-evaluation in social roles

The variable for previous day’s self-evaluation was created by producing lagged scores of daily self-evaluation for each day. This means that a separate variable consisting previous day’s scores was created. By controlling for previous day’s self-evaluation, other factors that could have influenced daily self-evaluation are considered to have been controlled for. Therefore, a relatively pure influence of fathers’ emotional support on a specific day’s self-evaluation can be observed.
6) Weekday or weekend

Each day, whether the response was taken on a weekday or a weekend was measured. The responses on a weekday were coded 0, and the responses on a weekend were coded 1. For example, when a participant responded to the daily diary checklist on a Tuesday, it would be coded as 0, whereas responses on a Sunday would be coded as 1. To account for differences in adolescents’ and fathers’ schedule on weekdays and weekends, this variable was controlled for in all of the analyses.

3.2.2. Individual-level variables

1) Adolescents’ gender

For adolescents’ gender, female was coded 0 and male was coded 1.

2) Adolescents’ grade level

Adolescents grade level of 5th grade in elementary school was coded as 0 and 8th grade in middle school was coded as 1.

3) Adolescents’ family affluence

The family affluence of adolescents was measured by adolescents’ perception with the Family Affluence Scale (FAS). This scale is widely used in the international studies on adolescents such as Health Behavior in School-Aged Children (Currie et al., 2008). There are many, both objective and subjective, ways to measure adolescents’ socioeconomic environment. Regarding the various measures, there have been discussions on parent-
based income and occupation measures to be inadequate for capturing adolescents’ actual experience of their family affluence. Instead, the use of adolescents’ reports on the objective characteristics of their home context has been recommended.

The FAS is composed of questions regarding the parts of family environment relevant to adolescents’ lives that are tied to family affluence. The questions include the following: “Does your family own a car, van or truck?” (No=0; Yes, one=1; Yes, two or more=2) (Carstairs & Morris, 1991), “Do you have your own bedroom for yourself” (No=0; Yes=1) (Townsend, 1987), “During the past 12 months, how many times did you travel away on holiday with your family?” (Not at all=0; Once=1; Twice=2) (Townsend, 1987), “How many computers does your family own?” (None=0; One=1; Two=2; More than two=3). The scores are summed on a range of 0 to 9. According to the standards introduced and tested in previous studies, the scores from 0 to 2 were considered low family affluence, 3 to 5 was considered middle, and 6 to 9 was referred to high family affluence. For the current sample, since the distribution was skewed toward high family affluence and very few were included in low family affluence, the low and the middle groups were combined. The groups were dummy-coded with 0 indicating low or middle family affluence and 1 indicating high family affluence. Each level was dummy-coded and middle group was selected as the reference group. The scale has been validated as an appropriate self-
3.3. Data analysis plan

In order to answer the first research question, the daily dynamics of adolescents’ self-evaluation in social roles were examined, followed by the test of variations by gender, grade level, and family affluence. Then, the frequency of father-adolescent interactions across a week and variations by gender, grade level, and family affluence were analyzed. The experience of fathers’ emotional support over a week was examined after that, with the analysis of how the daily dynamics varied by adolescents’ gender, grade level, and family affluence.

Then, the daily diary data nested within individual was analyzed by employing hierarchical linear modeling with a software HLM 6.08 (HLM; Raudenbaush & Bryk, 2002). Two separate files were created for daily diary data and individual data. The analyses were carried out with the two files matched with identification numbers of participants through the HLM 6.08 software. With the two types of data, each participant’s responses were hierarchically organized.

The file with daily diary data contains information about adolescents’ daily experiences over seven days. As shown in Figure 2, this means that each participant can have up to seven responses that reflect each day’s experience. The responses may or may not vary from day to day.
depending on the daily experiences. The daily diary data are referred to daily-level, or level-1.

In the file with individual characteristics, relatively stable characteristics that do not usually change from day to day are included. Examples of individual characteristics include gender, family affluence, or an overall level of psychological well-being. This relatively stable individual characteristics are referred to individual-level, or level-2.

By including level-2 variables, the differences in the mean of dependent variable in level-1 equation, and the degree of association between level-1 daily variables can be tested. The variations in the mean of level-1 dependent variable are examined by including the level-2 variables in the intercept of the level-1 equation. The variations in the association between the level-1 variables are examined by including the level-2 variables in the slope of the level-1 equation.

Figure 2 Days Nested within Individual
3.3.1. Self-evaluation in social roles

1) Unconditional means model

   In order to examine whether daily self-evaluation in social roles varied from day to day and whether there was enough variation to conduct hierarchical linear modeling, the unconditional means model was run. By testing the unconditional means model, the intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) of daily self-evaluation in social roles can be obtained. The ICC provides information about how much variance can be explained at the between-person and within-person levels. The equation for the unconditional means model was as follows:

   Level 1 Model:
   \[ Y(\text{daily self-evaluation}) = P_0 + E \] (error term)

   Level 2 Model:
   \[ P_0 = B_{00} + R_0 \]

2) The association between same day and lagged day self-evaluation in social roles

   To examine how much the scores of dependent variable (i.e., daily self-evaluation in social roles) from one day to another were related, previous day’s score of self-evaluation in social roles was entered into the equation as the independent variable, while the following day’s score was
entered as the dependent variable. In order to test how much the changes in previous day’s self-evaluation were associated with next day’s scores, previous day’s self-evaluation in social roles was group-mean centered.

Level 1 Model:

\[ Y(\text{daily self-evaluation}) = P0 + P1(\text{previous day’s self-evaluation}) + E \] (error term)

Level 2 Model:

\[ P0 = B00 + R0 \]
\[ P1 = B10 + R1 \]

To capture the role of fathers’ daily emotional support in self-evaluation in social roles more accurately and eliminate the effect of previous day’s level of self-evaluation in social roles being carried on to the next day, previous day’s level of self-evaluation in social roles was controlled for in all of the analyses of daily associations. Controlling for previous day’s level of self-evaluation in social roles also takes into account any covariates in daily lives that may have been present and commonly influenced both previous day’s and the following day’s levels of self-evaluation in social roles.
3.3.2. Same day association between adolescents’ interactions with fathers and self-evaluation in social roles

Prior to testing the daily association between fathers’ emotional support and self-evaluation in social roles, the association between adolescents’ daily interactions with fathers and self-evaluation in social roles was first tested as a context in which emotional support may occur. For this preliminary analysis, daily self-evaluation in social roles was entered as the dependent variable in the level-1 equation. The summed scores of daily interactions with fathers were entered as the independent variable. For control variables, previous day’s level of self-evaluation, whether it was a weekday or a weekend were included. In order to test the effect of within-person variations, all of the daily variables were group-mean centered. This way, the observation of a relatively pure role of fathers in adolescents’ self-evaluation in social roles was possible. This means that each variable was centered around their own personal mean.

For the observation of within-person variations and associations, centering at the group-mean was essential (Bolger & Laurenceau, 2013; Enders & Tofighi, 2007). The group-mean centering also removes the influence of individual differences since each person’s average serves as his or her own control (Enders & Tofighi, 2007). This is similar to experimental design where almost-identical people are divided into the control group and treatment group for comparison. With group-mean centering, each
adolescent serves as his or her own control. It captures the changes from one’s own average experience. In other words, such analysis compares different situations experienced by the same person (e.g., when the level of fathers’ emotional support was experienced less than the average or more than the average considering all other factors equal). Taking these rationales into account, the level-1 equation for analyzing the association between daily interactions with fathers and adolescents’ self-evaluation in social roles was as follows:

Level 1 Model:

\[ Y(\text{daily self-evaluation}) = P_0 + P_1(\text{weekday/weekend}) + P_2(\text{previous day’s self-evaluation}) + P_3(\text{daily interactions with fathers}) + E \] (error term)

Level 2 Model:

\[ P_0 = B_{00} + R_0 \]
\[ P_2 = B_{20} + R_2 \]
\[ P_3 = B_{30} + R_3 \]

3.3.3. Same day association between fathers’ emotional support and self-evaluation in social roles

To examine whether the daily variations in fathers’ emotional support from one’s own average were related to the same day’s level of adolescents’
self-evaluation in social roles, daily self-evaluation was entered as the dependent variable in the level-1 equation. For the independent variable, daily fathers’ emotional support reported on the same day was entered into the equation. As for control variables, previous day’s level of self-evaluation, daily interactions with fathers, whether it was a weekday or a weekend were included. Again, all of the daily-level variables were group-mean centered. Taking these factors into account, the level-1 model was analyzed as following:

Level 1 Model:

\[ Y(\text{daily self-evaluation}) = P0 + P1*(\text{weekday/weekend}) + P2*(\text{previous day’s self-evaluation}) + P3*(\text{daily interactions with fathers}) + P4*(\text{fathers’ emotional support}) + E \text{ (error term)} \]

Level 2 Model:

\[
\begin{align*}
P0 &= B00 + R0 \\
P2 &= B20 + R2 \\
P3 &= B30 + R3 \\
P4 &= B40 + R4
\end{align*}
\]

In order to adjust for the normal distribution, the results were drawn from the estimation with robust standard errors.
3.3.4. Variations in same day association by gender, grade level, and family affluence

Next, in order to observe whether the association between fathers’ emotional support and adolescents’ self-evaluation in social roles (i.e., time-varying variables) varied by individual characteristics (i.e., time-invariant variables), gender, grade level and family affluence were tested as moderators at level-2 of the hierarchical linear modeling.

First, an intercept model was run to observe the direct influence of gender, grade-level, and family affluence on the average level of daily self-evaluation.

Level 1 Model:

\[
Y(\text{daily self-evaluation}) = P0 + P1*(\text{weekday/weekend}) + \\
P2*(\text{previous day’s self-evaluation}) + P3*(\text{daily interactions with fathers}) + P4*(\text{daily fathers’ emotional support}) + E \quad \text{(error term)}
\]

Level 2 Model:

\[
P0 = B00 + B01*(\text{Gender}) + B02*(\text{Grade}) + \\
B03*(\text{FAS}) + R0 \quad \text{(error term)}
\]

\[
P2 = B20 + R2
\]

\[
P3 = B30 + R3
\]

\[
P4 = B40 + R4
\]
Then, the interaction effect of gender, grade level, and family affluence was tested.

Level 1 Model:

\[ Y(\text{daily self-evaluation}) = P_0 + P_1(\text{weekday/weekend}) + P_2(\text{previous day’s self-evaluation}) + P_3(\text{daily interactions with fathers}) + P_4(\text{fathers’ emotional support}) + E \text{ (error term)} \]

Level 2 Model:

(Intercept) \[ P_0 = B_{00} + B_{01}(\text{Gender}) + B_{02}(\text{Grade}) + B_{03}(\text{FAS}) + R_0 \]

\[ P_2 = B_{20} + R_2 \]

\[ P_3 = B_{30} + R_3 \]

(Slope) \[ P_4 = B_{40} + B_{41}(\text{Gender}) + B_{42}(\text{Grade}) + B_{43}(\text{FAS}) + R_3 \]

3.3.5. Lagged day association between adolescents’ interactions with fathers and self-evaluation in social roles

In an attempt to examine the lagged or “spillover” effect of one day’s experience being carried on to the next day, and to test for causality, lagged-day association was examined. For this analysis, a lagged variable was created for daily interactions with fathers. Then its association with daily adolescents’ self-evaluation was tested to examine the lagged-day
association. Again, all of the daily variables were group-mean centered.

Level 1 Model:
\[
Y(\text{daily self-evaluation}) = P0 + P1*(\text{weekday/weekend}) + P2*(\text{previous day’s self-evaluation}) + P3*(\text{previous day’s interactions with fathers}) + E \text{ (error term)}
\]

Level 2 Model:
\[
P0 = B00 + R0 \\
P2 = B20 + R2 \\
P3 = B30 + R3
\]

3.3.6. Lagged day association between fathers’ emotional support and self-evaluation in social roles

The same procedures were followed for the association between fathers’ emotional support and self-evaluation in social roles. Again, the daily interactions with fathers were accounted for in this analysis.

Level 1 Model:
\[
Y(\text{daily self-evaluation}) = P0 + P1*(\text{weekday/weekend}) + P2*(\text{previous day’s self-evaluation}) + P3*(\text{previous interactions with fathers}) + P4*(\text{previous day’s fathers’ emotional support}) + E \text{ (error term)}
\]
3.3.7. Variations in lagged day association by gender, grade level, and family affluence

To test whether the degree to which previous days’ experiences of fathers’ emotional support influence adolescents’ self-evaluation in social roles (i.e., time-varying variables) varied by individual characteristics (i.e., time-invariant variables) The same procedure used for analyzing the variations of same day association between fathers’ emotional support and daily self-evaluation by gender, grade level, and family affluence was carried out by replacing the same day fathers’ emotional support with the lagged day fathers’ emotional support.

Level 1 Model:

\[
Y(\text{daily self-evaluation}) = P_0 + P_1(\text{weekday}/\text{weekend}) + \\
P_2(\text{previous day’s self-evaluation}) + P_3(\text{previous day’s interactions with fathers}) + P_4(\text{previous day’s fathers’ emotional support}) + E (\text{error term})
\]
Level 2 Model:

(INTERCEPT) P0 = B00 + B01*(Gender) + B02*(Grade) +
    B03*(FAS) + R0
P2 = B20 + R2
P3 = B30 + R3

(SLOPE) P4 = B40 + B41*(Gender) + B42*(Grade) +
    B43*(FAS) + R4
Chapter 4. Results

4.1. Descriptive Statistics

The key variables to be analyzed were daily self-evaluation in social roles, daily interactions with fathers, and daily fathers’ emotional support. Mean, standard deviation and range are presented in Table 2. The mean indicates a mean of all participating individuals’ 7-day mean scores from Monday to Sunday. The scores of daily self-evaluation in social roles ranged from 0 to 4 with a mean of 3.03 and a standard deviation of .75. The scores of daily interactions with fathers ranged from 0 to 5 with a mean of 1.94 and a standard deviation of 1.20. Fathers’ emotional support ranged from 0 to 4 with a mean of 2.69 and a standard deviation of .83. Daily self-evaluation in social roles was significantly correlated with daily interactions with fathers and fathers’ daily emotional support at p<.01 meaning that more frequent interactions with fathers and higher levels of emotional support were related to adolescents evaluating themselves more positively (Table 3).

Table 2 Descriptive Statistics for Daily Interactions with Fathers, Daily Fathers’ Emotional Support, and Daily Self-Evaluation in Social Roles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean(SD)</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Daily interactions with fathers</td>
<td>283</td>
<td>1.94(1.20)</td>
<td>0-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily fathers’ emotional support</td>
<td>283</td>
<td>2.69(0.83)</td>
<td>0-4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily self-evaluation in social roles</td>
<td>283</td>
<td>3.03(0.75)</td>
<td>0-4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3 Correlations among 7-Day Means of Daily Interactions with Fathers, Daily Fathers’ Emotional Support and Daily Self-Evaluation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>N=283</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Daily interactions with fathers(^1)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Daily fathers’ emotional support(^2)</td>
<td>.43**</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Daily self-evaluation in social roles</td>
<td>.37**</td>
<td>.68**</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001\)

4.2. Daily dynamics of self-evaluation in social roles and variations by gender, grade level and family affluence

When the unconditional means model of self-evaluation in social roles was conducted, the proportion of level-2 variance over total variance was .69, which was significant at \(p<.001\). Approximately 69\% of the effect can be attributed to individual differences and 31\% can be attributed to daily-level, within-person, differences. The ICC score of the dependent variable indicated that a subsequent analysis of within-person variation was appropriate.

Adolescents’ self-evaluation in social roles displayed a pattern where the scores tended to fluctuate slightly during the weekdays, and dropped as the weekend approached (Figure 9). The mean score was 3.03 (SD=0.75) out of 4, which was quite high. The average levels varied by grade level. The adolescents in 5\(^{th}\) grade reported a meaningfully higher average level than the 8\(^{th}\) graders (\(M_{5th}=3.23, SD_{5th}=0.69; M_{8th}=2.86, SD_{8th}=0.77\)). The 5\(^{th}\) graders evaluated themselves more positively than the 8\(^{th}\) graders did. The scores were lower on weekends than weekdays.
(M_{\text{weekday}}=3.06, \ SD_{\text{weekday}}=.84; \ M_{\text{weekend}}=2.96, \ SD_{\text{weekend}}=.96).

Figure 3 Daily Self-Evaluation in Social Roles across 7 Days: All, by Gender, Grade Level, and Family Affluence

Table 4 Self-Evaluation in Social Roles by All, Gender, Grade Level, and Family Affluence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Self-evaluation</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean(SD) of 7-day mean (level out of 4)</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Lowest</th>
<th>Highest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Day</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>283</td>
<td>3.03(0.75)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Su</td>
<td>2.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>3.06(.76)</td>
<td>.663</td>
<td>Su</td>
<td>2.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>3.00(.74)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Su</td>
<td>2.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5th grade</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>3.23(.69)</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>Su</td>
<td>3.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8th grade</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>2.86(.77)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Su</td>
<td>2.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low/Mid FAS</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>2.95(.71)</td>
<td>-1.93</td>
<td>Su</td>
<td>2.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High FAS</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3.12(.80)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Su</td>
<td>2.98</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

M=Monday, T=Tuesday, W=Wednesday, H=Thursday, F=Friday, Sa=Saturday, Su=Sunday
Next, the association between previous day and following day’s self-evaluation in social roles was examined. The scores were significantly correlated but were not the same. In order to account for the daily variables that may have affected self-evaluation in social roles in general, previous day’s self-evaluation in social roles was included in all of the subsequent analyses.

Table 5 The Association between Previous Day and Following Day's Self-Evaluation in Social Roles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>B(SE)</th>
<th>Variance Component</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>3.02(0.05)</td>
<td>0.55***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Previous day’s self-evaluation in social roles</td>
<td>0.08(0.04)*</td>
<td>0.09***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05

4.3. Daily dynamics of interactions with fathers and variations by gender, grade level, and family affluence

**Breakfast**

On average, adolescents in this study had breakfast with fathers on 2.00(SD=2.30) out of 7 days (Table 4). Out of 283, the number of adolescents who did not have breakfast with fathers on any of the 7 days was 82(29.0%). The number of adolescents who had breakfast on more than 3 days was even smaller (N=63, 22.3%).

The largest percentage of adolescents had breakfast with fathers on Sunday and the smallest percentage was reported at the start of the week, which was Monday to Wednesday (Figure 3, Table 4). The difference was
significant between weekdays versus weekends ($M_{\text{weekday}}=21.8\%$, $SD_{\text{weekday}}=41.3\%$; $M_{\text{weekend}}=42.8\%$; $SD_{\text{weekend}}=49.5\%$; $t=-8.56$; $p<.001$). A higher percentage of adolescents had breakfast with fathers on weekends than on weekdays.

The frequency of having breakfast with fathers over a week did not vary by gender ($M_{\text{boys}}=2.11$, $SD_{\text{boys}}=2.26$; $M_{\text{girls}}=1.89$, $SD_{\text{girls}}=2.34$), grade level ($M_{5\text{th}}=2.25$, $SD_{5\text{th}}=2.26$; $M_{8\text{th}}=1.87$, $SD_{8\text{th}}=2.34$), or family affluence ($M_{\text{low/mid}}=2.01$, $SD_{\text{low/mid}}=2.32$; $M_{\text{high}}=1.99$, $SD_{\text{high}}=2.31$). In other words, the frequency of having breakfast was relatively low across all groups, regardless of whether the adolescent was a boy or a girl, in 5\textsuperscript{th} grade or 8\textsuperscript{th} grade, or were identified as low/mid family affluence group or high family affluence group.
Dinner

The adolescents in this study ate dinner with their fathers on an average of 3.47 (SD=2.42) days out of 7 (Table 4). Out of 283, 32 (11.3%) did not have dinner with fathers on any of the 7 days, while 137 (48.4%) had dinner with fathers on more than 3 days over a week.

The largest percentage of adolescents had dinner with fathers on Sunday (68%), while the lowest was observed on Wednesday (39%) (Figure 4, Table 4). The percentages were significantly different on weekdays versus weekends ($M_{weekday}=42.9\%, \ SD_{weekday}=49.5\%; \ M_{weekend}=67.1\%; \ SD_{weekend}=47.0\%$; $t=-9.85; \ p<.001$). A higher percentage of adolescents had
dinner with fathers on weekends than on weekdays.

The frequency of having dinner with fathers over a week did not vary by gender ($M_{\text{boys}}=3.47$, $SD_{\text{boys}}=2.42$; $M_{\text{girls}}=3.37$, $SD_{\text{girls}}=2.42$), grade level ($M_{5\text{th}}=3.72$, $SD_{5\text{th}}=2.36$; $M_{8\text{th}}=3.27$, $SD_{8\text{th}}=2.46$) or family affluence ($M_{\text{low/mid}}=3.25$, $SD_{\text{low/mid}}=2.38$; $M_{\text{high}}=3.69$, $SD_{\text{high}}=2.46$). Regardless of gender, grade level or family affluence, adolescents of all background had dinner with fathers on approximately 2-3 days a week.

Figure 5 Dinner with Fathers across 7 Days: All, by Gender, Grade Level, and Family Affluence
**TV**

The adolescents in this study watched TV with fathers on an average of 2.84 (SD=2.51) days over a week. Sixty (21.2%) of them did not watch TV with fathers at all over the 7 days, and 112 (39.6%) watched TV with fathers on more than 3 days.

The largest percentage of adolescents watched TV with fathers on Saturday (55%), and the lowest on Wednesday and Thursday (34%) (Figure 5, Table 4). There was a meaningful difference in the percentages between weekdays and weekends ($M_{weekday}$=35.4%, $SD_{weekday}$=47.9%; $M_{weekend}$=54.6%; $SD_{weekend}$=49.8%; t=-7.52; p<.001).

The frequency of watching TV with fathers did not vary by gender ($M_{boys}$=2.90, $SD_{boys}$=2.59; $M_{girls}$=2.77, $SD_{girls}$=2.44), grade level ($M_{5th}$=2.95, $SD_{5th}$=2.46; $M_{8th}$=2.74, $SD_{8th}$=2.55), or family affluence ($M_{low/mid}$=2.60, $SD_{low/mid}$=2.50; $M_{high}$=3.07, $SD_{high}$=2.51). The adolescents of all gender, grade level, and family affluence watched TV with fathers on an average of 2-3 days a week.
Outdoor leisure

For going outside to spend leisure time, the adolescents in this study reported an average of 0.96 ($SD=1.49$) days out of 7 days (Table 4). Almost one half of the adolescents, 133 (47.0%) out of 283 adolescents did not go outside to spend leisure time with fathers on any of the days over a week. Only 28 (9.9%) adolescents went outside to spend leisure time with fathers on more than 3 days.

The percentage of adolescents who went outside to spend leisure time with fathers was the highest on Sunday (24%) and lowest on Tuesday (7%) (Figure 6, Table 4). The percentages were significantly higher on
weekends than on weekdays ($M_{\text{weekday}}=9.8\%, \ SD_{\text{weekday}}=29.8\%$; $M_{\text{weekend}}=23.4\%; SD_{\text{weekend}}=42.4\%; t=-6.68; p<.001$).

The frequency of going outside to spend leisure time with fathers did not vary by gender ($M_{\text{boys}}=1.07, SD_{\text{boys}}=1.62; M_{\text{girls}}=0.86, SD_{\text{girls}}=1.35$). However, it varied significantly by adolescents’ grade level. For 5th graders, they spent leisure time with fathers outside home on an average of 1.26($SD=1.70$) days out of 7 days, while it was 0.72($SD=1.24$) days for 8th graders (Table 4). This meant that the 5th graders went outside to spend leisure time with fathers on more of the days over a week than did the 8th graders. The differences were also significant by family affluence ($M_{\text{low/mid}}=0.75, SD_{\text{low/mid}}=1.27; M_{\text{high}}=1.18, SD_{\text{high}}=1.66$). Compared to the adolescents in low or middle family affluence, those in high family affluence reported a higher average frequency of going outside to spend leisure time with fathers. In sum, the frequency of outside leisure with fathers varied by grade level and family affluence.
Conversation

Over the 7 days, adolescents in this study reported that they had conversations to their fathers on an average of 4.45 (SD = 2.50) days (Table 4). A total of 29 (10.2%) did not talk to their fathers on any of the days out of 7 days, while most of them (N = 178, 62.9%) had conversations with their fathers on more than 3 days. 

The percentage of adolescents who reported that they had conversations with fathers was the highest on Saturday (76%) and the lowest on Tuesday and Thursday (58%) (Figure 7, Table 4). The percentages were significantly higher on weekends than on weekdays (\( M_{\text{weekday}} = 59.2\% \),
The frequency of having conversations did not vary by gender (M_boys = 4.42, SD_boys = 2.56; M_girls = 4.47, SD_girls = 2.45). However, the difference was significant by grade level. Fifth graders had conversations with their fathers on an average of 4.89 (SD = 2.28) days, and 8th graders did on an average of 4.08 (SD = 2.62) days a week (Table 4), indicating that the 5th graders had conversations with their fathers on more of the days than did the 8th graders. The difference was also significant for family affluence (M_low/mid = 4.10, SD_low/mid = 2.54; M_high = 4.77, SD_high = 2.42). The adolescents in high family affluence reported a higher average frequency of having conversations with fathers than did their counterparts.
4.4. Daily dynamics of fathers’ emotional support and variations by gender, grade level, and family affluence

**Daily emotional support**

The mean of all adolescents’ fathers’ emotional support experienced over 7 days was 2.69($SD=0.83$) out of 4 (Table 4). Regardless of the daily level, they reported that they experienced fathers’ emotional support on an average of 4.35($SD=2.34$) days out of the 7 days. Ten (3.5%) reported that they did not experience fathers’ emotional support on any of the 7 days, while a little more than a half (N=154, 54.4%) reported that they experienced fathers’ emotional support on 3 or more days.
The highest level of fathers’ emotional support was observed on Saturday (2.74) and the lowest level was observed on Wednesday (2.60) (Table 4). The levels did not vary on weekdays versus weekends ($M_{\text{weekday}} = 2.65$, $SD_{\text{weekday}} = .99$; $M_{\text{weekend}} = 2.72$, $SD_{\text{weekend}} = .97$; $t = -1.53$; $p = \text{n.s.}$).

The level and frequency of daily fathers’ emotional support did not vary by gender (Level: $M_{\text{boys}} = 2.71$, $SD_{\text{boys}} = .85$; $M_{\text{girls}} = 2.68$, $SD_{\text{girls}} = .81$; Frequency: $M_{\text{boys}} = 4.35$, $SD_{\text{boys}} = 2.34$; $M_{\text{girls}} = 4.37$, $SD_{\text{girls}} = 2.37$). The difference was statistically significant for both the level and frequency by grade level. For 5th graders, the average was $2.92 (SD = .80)$ with an average of $4.70 (SD = 2.16)$ days, while 8th graders’ displayed an average of $2.50 (SD = .80)$ with an average of $3.93 (SD = 2.48)$ days. This meant that the level and frequency of experiencing fathers’ emotional support was higher for the 5th graders than the 8th graders. The level and frequency of fathers’ emotional support did not vary by family affluence (Level: $M_{\text{low/mid}} = 2.61$, $SD_{\text{low/mid}} = .80$; $M_{\text{high}} = 2.78$, $SD_{\text{high}} = .85$; Frequency: $M_{\text{low/mid}} = 4.22$, $SD_{\text{low/mid}} = 2.33$; $M_{\text{high}} = 4.47$, $SD_{\text{high}} = 2.36$).
Figure 9 Daily Experience of Fathers’ Emotional Support across 7 Days: All, by Gender, Grade Level, and Family Affluence
Table 6 A Summary of Daily Interactions with Fathers and Daily Fathers’ Emotional Support by All, Gender, Grade Level, and Family Affluence (Reports from Adolescents who Responded to All 7 Days)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean(SD)</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Lowest Day</th>
<th>Lowest %</th>
<th>Highest Day</th>
<th>Highest %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>out of 7days</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Breakfast</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>283</td>
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<td></td>
<td>MTW</td>
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<td>Su</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>2.11(2.26)</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>MT</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Su</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>1.89(2.34)</td>
<td></td>
<td>W</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>Su</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5th grade</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>2.15(2.26)</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Su</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8th grade</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>1.87(2.34)</td>
<td></td>
<td>T</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>SaSu</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low/Mid FAS</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>2.01(2.32)</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>WF</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>Su</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High FAS</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>1.99(2.31)</td>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Su</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dinner</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>283</td>
<td>3.47(2.42)</td>
<td></td>
<td>W</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>Su</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>3.37(2.24)</td>
<td>-.68</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>Su</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>3.58(2.42)</td>
<td></td>
<td>H</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>Su</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5th grade</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>3.72(2.36)</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>SaSu</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8th grade</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>3.27(2.46)</td>
<td></td>
<td>WH</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>Su</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low/Mid FAS</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>3.25(2.38)</td>
<td>-1.38</td>
<td>WH</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>Sa</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High FAS</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3.69(2.46)</td>
<td></td>
<td>W</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>Su</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TV</strong></td>
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<td>WH</td>
<td>34</td>
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<td>55</td>
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<tr>
<td>Male</td>
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<td>2.90(2.59)</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>Sa</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>2.77(2.44)</td>
<td></td>
<td>WHF</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>Sa</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5th grade</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>2.95(2.46)</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>Sa</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8th grade</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>2.74(2.55)</td>
<td></td>
<td>W</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>Sa</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low/Mid FAS</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>2.60(2.50)</td>
<td>-1.45</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>Sa</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High FAS</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3.07(2.51)</td>
<td></td>
<td>H</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>Su</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Leisure</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>283</td>
<td>0.96(1.49)</td>
<td></td>
<td>T</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Su</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>1.07(1.62)</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Su</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>0.86(1.35)</td>
<td></td>
<td>TH</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Su</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5th grade</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>1.26(1.70)</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>**T</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Su</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8th grade</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>0.72(1.24)</td>
<td></td>
<td>T</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Sa</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low/Mid FAS</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>0.75(1.27)</td>
<td>-.224</td>
<td>**T</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Sa</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High FAS</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>1.18(1.66)</td>
<td></td>
<td>T</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Su</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Conversation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>283</td>
<td>4.45(2.50)</td>
<td></td>
<td>TH</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>Sa</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>4.42(2.56)</td>
<td>-.17</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>Sa</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>4.47(2.45)</td>
<td></td>
<td>W</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>SaSu</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5th grade</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>4.89(2.28)</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>TH</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>SaSu</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8th grade</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>4.08(2.62)</td>
<td></td>
<td>MWF</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>Sa</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low/Mid FAS</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>4.10(2.54)</td>
<td>-2.08</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>Sa</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High FAS</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4.77(2.42)</td>
<td></td>
<td>T</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>Su</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

M=Monday, T=Tuesday, W=Wednesday, H=Thursday, F=Friday, Sa=Saturday, Su=Sunday
Table 7 Mean Comparison of Daily Fathers' Emotional Support and Daily Interactions with Fathers on Weekdays vs. Weekends

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Weekdays Mean(SD)</th>
<th>Week Mean(SD)</th>
<th>Weekend Days</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Daily interactions with fathers</td>
<td>1.69(1.47)</td>
<td>2.62(1.60)</td>
<td>517</td>
<td>-12.00 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily fathers’ emotional support</td>
<td>2.65(.99)</td>
<td>2.72(.97)</td>
<td>514</td>
<td>-1.53</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***p<.001
*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

In summary, most frequently observed type of adolescents’ interactions with fathers was conversation (4.45 days) and dinner (3.47 days), followed by watching TV (2.84 days) and having breakfast together (2.00 days). The least frequently observed type was going outside to spend leisure time together (0.96 days). The percentage of adolescents engaging in each interaction was usually the lowest around Wednesday (i.e., breakfast,
dinner, TV) and the highest on Saturday (i.e., TV, conversation) or Sunday (i.e., breakfast, dinner, leisure).

The adolescents in this sample experienced fathers’ emotional support on majority of the days (4.35 days) of the week. However, varying levels of fathers’ emotional support were observed across 7 days. The mean was the highest on Saturday (2.74) and the lowest on Wednesday (2.60). This pattern was similar to the patterns of father-adolescent interactions over a week—decreasing as the middle of the week approaches and increasing with the approach of the weekend.

The frequency of engaging in leisure and having conversations with fathers varied by adolescents’ grade level, which were higher for the 5th graders than the 8th graders. The mean level and frequency of adolescents’ reports of fathers’ emotional support across 7 days were also higher among the 5th graders than the 8th graders. Moreover, the adolescents in low or middle family affluence group tended to engage in outside leisure and have conversations with fathers less frequently than those in high family affluence groups.

The percentages of adolescents engaging in daily interactions with fathers were higher on weekdays than weekends across all types of activities. The level of emotional support did not vary by whether it was a weekday or a weekend.
4.5. Same day association between interactions with fathers and self-evaluation in social roles

After taking into consideration whether it was a weekday or a weekend and previous day’s level of self-evaluation in social roles, on days in which adolescents engaged in more of the daily interactions with fathers than usual, they evaluated themselves more positively in their social roles ($b=0.04$, SE=.02, $p<.05$). Since all of the daily variable were group-mean centered and each person served as their own control, the coefficient can be interpreted as a pure effect of within-person changes in the amount of daily interactions with fathers from each person’s average. The previous day’s level of self-evaluation in social roles was still significantly associated with the following day’s self-evaluation in social roles ($b=0.08$, SE=.04, $p<.05$).

On days in which adolescents engaged in more of the daily interactions with fathers (e.g., having breakfast or dinner together, watching TV, going to the movies, eating out, exercising, or shopping together, and having conversations with each other) than usual, they evaluated themselves more positively in their social roles. The sharing of seemingly trivial and ordinary activities in daily life simply by having meals or chatting with fathers helped adolescents feel good about themselves as a daughter/son, friend, and a student.
Table 8 Same Day Association: Within-Person Association between Adolescents’ Interactions with Fathers and Self-Evaluation in Social Roles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Daily self-evaluation b(SE)</th>
<th>Variance component</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>3.06(0.05)***</td>
<td>0.56***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weekday/weekend</td>
<td>-0.12(0.03)</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily self-evaluation (d-1))</td>
<td>0.08(0.04)*</td>
<td>0.09***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily interactions with fathers</td>
<td>0.04(0.02)*</td>
<td>0.01***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001, weekday=0, weekend=1
Note: \(d-1\) denotes a prior day level

4.6. Same day association between fathers’ emotional support and self-evaluation in social roles

Since the current study considered adolescents’ interactions with fathers as the context in which fathers’ emotional support is experienced, the daily level of interactions with fathers was entered into the equation as control variable.

After controlling for whether it was a weekday or weekend, daily interactions with fathers and previous day’s self-evaluation, the average(intercept) of daily self-evaluation in social roles was 3.06(SE=.05) out of 4. On the same day, after taking all of the above control variables into account, daily experience of fathers’ emotional support was significantly and positively associated with the same day’s level of self-evaluation in social roles (b=.13, SE=.05, p<.001). On days in which adolescents experienced higher levels of fathers’ emotional support, they also evaluated themselves more positively in their social roles. The variance components of all the daily variables—daily interactions with fathers, previous day’s self-
evaluation in social roles, and daily fathers’ emotional support—were statistically significant, which is an indication of within-person variability. In other words, meaningfully varying levels of fathers’ emotional support and self-evaluation in social roles were experienced by each adolescent over the seven days. At the same time, the association between daily interactions with fathers was no longer significant \((b=0.02, SE=0.02, p=n.s.)\) with the presence of fathers’ daily emotional support. This implies that the association between fathers’ daily emotional support and self-evaluation in social roles was more important for adolescents’ self-evaluation in social roles than the mere interactions with fathers in daily lives.

Table 9 Same Day Association: Within-Person Association between Fathers’ Emotional Support and Self-Evaluation in Social Roles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Daily self-evaluation (b(SE))</th>
<th>Variance component</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>3.06(0.05)***</td>
<td>0.56***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weekday/weekend</td>
<td>-0.11(0.03)**</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily self-evaluation ((d-1))</td>
<td>0.06(0.03)</td>
<td>0.07***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily interactions with fathers</td>
<td>0.02(0.02)</td>
<td>0.01***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fathers’ daily emotional support</td>
<td>0.13(0.05)***</td>
<td>0.05***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001, weekday=0, weekend=1
Note: \((d-1)\) denotes a prior day level

4.7. Variations in same day association by gender, grade level and family affluence

In order to test whether the same day association varied by individual differences, gender, grade level and family affluence were included as level-2 variables in the equation. First, when the intercept model
was run, the level of self-evaluation in social roles varied only by grade level ($b=-.37$, $SE=.09$, $p<.001$). Even after taking various factors into account, 5th graders in the study scored higher on self-evaluation in social roles than then 8th graders. Fathers’ daily emotional support also remained significant ($b=.13$, $SE=.03$, $p<.001$).

Table 10 Same Day Association: Within-Person Association at the Daily Level and Variations at the Intercept by Gender, Grade Level, and Family Affluence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Daily self-evaluation b(SE)</th>
<th>Variance component</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>3.14(.09)***</td>
<td>0.52***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\times$ gender</td>
<td>.10(.09)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\times$ grade level</td>
<td>-.37(.09)***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\times$ family affluence</td>
<td>.14(.09)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weekday/weekend</td>
<td>-.11(.03)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily self-evaluation (d-1)</td>
<td>0.06(0.03)</td>
<td>0.07***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily interactions with fathers</td>
<td>0.02(0.02)</td>
<td>0.01***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily fathers’ emotional support</td>
<td>.13(.03)***</td>
<td>0.05***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001, weekday=0, weekend=1
Note: (d-1) denotes a prior day level

When all of the level-2 variables were included as moderators in the association between same days’ fathers’ emotional support and adolescents’ self-evaluation in social roles, fathers’ emotional support still remained significantly associated with adolescents’ self-evaluation in social roles ($b=.25$, $SE=.06$, $p<.001$).

However, the moderating effect was not significant for gender neither at the intercept ($b=.10$; $SE=.09$, $p=n.s.$) nor at the slope ($b=-.06$; $SE=.06$, $p=n.s.$). In other words, the mean of self-evaluation in social roles and the degree of same day association between fathers’ emotional support
and adolescents’ self-evaluation in social roles did not vary by gender.

For adolescents’ grade level, there was no moderating effect at the slope \( (b=-.03, \ SE=.06, \ p=n.s.) \), but the intercept varied significantly by grade level \( (b=-.37, \ SE=.09, \ p<.001) \). Again, this indicated that the average of daily self-evaluation in social roles was higher for the 5\textsuperscript{th} graders than for the 8\textsuperscript{th} graders.

The moderating effect of adolescents’ family affluence was examined by including dummy-coded variables for low/mid and high family affluence in the level-2 equation both in the intercept and the slope. There was no variation at the intercept, which meant that the average level of self-evaluation in social roles did not vary by family affluence. However, a significant moderation was found at the slope. High family affluence moderated the daily association between fathers’ emotional support and adolescents’ self-evaluation in social roles \( (b=-.14; \ SE=.06; \ p<.05) \). As shown in the graph below (Figure 10), the association was weaker among the adolescents in high family affluence than the low or middle family affluence groups. The experience of fathers’ emotional support in daily lives was more strongly associated with daily self-evaluation in social roles for the adolescents in low or middle family affluence than those in high family affluence.

The same day’s association was meaningfully stronger among adolescents in low and middle family affluence compared to those in high
family affluence. Considering the measurement of family affluence in mind, the adolescents identified with high affluence group were those in families with more cars, had his or her own room, traveled away on holidays with the family more frequently in the past 12 months, and who had more computers at home.

Table 11 Same Day Association: Within-Person Association at the Daily Level and Variations by Gender, Grade Level, and Family Affluence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Daily self-evaluation b(SE)</th>
<th>Variance component</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>3.14(.09)***</td>
<td>0.52***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>× gender</td>
<td>.10(.09)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>× grade level</td>
<td>-.37(.09)***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>× family affluence</td>
<td>.13(.09)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weekday/weekend</td>
<td>-.11(.03)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily self-evaluation (d-1)</td>
<td>0.06(0.03)</td>
<td>0.07***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily interactions with fathers</td>
<td>0.02(0.02)</td>
<td>0.01***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily fathers’ emotional support</td>
<td>.25(.06)***</td>
<td>0.05***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>× gender</td>
<td>-.06(.06)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>× grade level</td>
<td>-.03(.06)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>× family affluence</td>
<td>-.14(.06)*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001, weekday=0, weekend=1
Note: (d-1) denotes a prior day level

Figure 10 Moderating Effect of Family Affluence (FAS) in the Association between Fathers’ Daily Emotional Support and Adolescents’ Self-Evaluation in Social Roles
4.8. Lagged day association between interactions with fathers and self-evaluation in social roles

When the lagged day association between interactions with fathers and self-evaluation in social roles was tested, adolescents’ interactions with fathers was no longer significantly related to the next day’s self-evaluation in social roles.

Table 12 Lagged Day Association: Within-Person Association between Interactions with Fathers and Self-Evaluation in Social Roles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Daily self-evaluation</th>
<th>Variance component</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>3.06(0.05)***</td>
<td>0.56***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weekday/weekend</td>
<td>-0.10(0.03)**</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily self-evaluation (d-1)</td>
<td>0.08(0.04)*</td>
<td>0.09***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily interactions with fathers (d-1)</td>
<td>0.02(0.02)</td>
<td>0.01***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001, weekday=0, weekend=1
Note: (d-1) denotes a prior day level

4.9. Lagged day association between fathers’ emotional support and self-evaluation in social roles

When adolescents’ previous day’s experience of fathers’ emotional support was entered into the equation, it remained significantly associated with their daily self-evaluation in social roles on the next day (b=.06, SE=.03, p<.05). The average(intercept) level of self-evaluation in social roles was 3.06(SE=.05) and previous days’ interactions with fathers was not significantly associated with next day’s self-evaluation in social roles. The effect of fathers’ daily emotional support lasted until the next day.
Table 13 Lagged Day Association: Within-Person Association between Fathers’ Emotional Support and Self-Evaluation in Social Roles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Daily self-evaluation b(SE)</th>
<th>Variance component</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>3.06(0.05)***</td>
<td>0.56***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weekday/weekend</td>
<td>-0.10(0.03)**</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily self-evaluation (_{(d-1)})</td>
<td>0.06(0.04)</td>
<td>0.09***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily interactions with fathers (_{(d-1)})</td>
<td>0.01(0.01)</td>
<td>0.01***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fathers’ daily emotional support (_{(d-1)})</td>
<td>0.06(0.03)*</td>
<td>0.03***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001, weekday=0, weekend=1

Note: \(_{(d-1)}\) denotes a prior day level

4.10. Variations in lagged day association by gender, grade level and family affluence

For the test of moderation in the association between fathers’ emotional support and adolescents’ self-evaluation in social roles on the next day, gender, grade level, and family affluence were included as moderators in the level-2 equation first in the intercept. There was a significant variation at the intercept by grade level. As discovered earlier, the average level of self-evaluation in social roles was higher among the 5th graders than the 8th graders. Fathers’ daily emotional support was only marginally significantly associated (b=.06, SE=.03, p=.06)
Table 14 Lagged Day Association: Within-Person Association at the Daily Level and Variations at the Intercept by Gender, Grade Level, and Family Affluence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Daily self-evaluation b(SE)</th>
<th>Variance component</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>3.14(.09)***</td>
<td>0.52***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>× gender</td>
<td>.10(.09)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>× grade level</td>
<td>-.37(.09)***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>× family affluence</td>
<td>.13(.09)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weekday/weekend</td>
<td>-.10(.02)**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily self-evaluation ((d-1))</td>
<td>0.06(0.04)</td>
<td>0.09***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily interactions with fathers ((d-1))</td>
<td>0.01(0.02)</td>
<td>0.01***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily fathers’ emotional support ((d-1))</td>
<td>.06(.03)</td>
<td>0.03***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001, weekday=0, weekend=1
Note: \((d-1)\) denotes a prior day level

When the moderators were included in the equation both in the intercept and the slope, the experience of fathers’ daily emotional support was no longer significant and the moderating effects of gender, grade level, and family affluence were not significant, either. In other words, the lagged day association between fathers’ emotional support and adolescents’ self-evaluation in social roles did not vary by gender, grade level or family affluence. Adolescents’ grade level remained significant at the intercept, indicating that the level of self-evaluation in social roles was higher for among the 5th graders than the 8th graders.
Table 15 Lagged Day Association: Within-Person Association at the Daily Level and Variations by Gender, Grade Level, and Family Affluence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Daily self-evaluation</th>
<th>Variance component</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>3.14(.09)**</td>
<td>0.52***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>× gender</td>
<td>.10(.09)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>× grade level</td>
<td>-.37(.09)**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>× family affluence</td>
<td>.13(.09)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weekday/weekend</td>
<td>-.10(.04)**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily self-evaluation (d-1)</td>
<td>0.06(0.04)</td>
<td>0.10***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily interactions with fathers (d-1)</td>
<td>0.01(0.01)</td>
<td>0.01***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily fathers’ emotional support (d-1)</td>
<td>.01(.05)</td>
<td>0.03***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>× gender</td>
<td>0.00(.06)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>× grade level</td>
<td>0.06(.06)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>× family affluence</td>
<td>-.03(.06)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001, weekday=0, weekend=1

Note: (d-1) denotes a prior day level
4.11. Summary of results

Table 16 Summary of Results by Research Questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RQ1: Is the daily self-evaluation in social roles dynamic across a week among adolescents of various individual characteristics (i.e., gender, grade level, and family affluence)?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RQ1-1. Does adolescents’ daily self-evaluation in social roles vary across a week?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes. Adolescents’ self-evaluation in social roles demonstrated within-person variations across 7 days. Approximately 28% variability could be explained by within-person variations. The score was the highest on Tuesday (3.09) and lowest on Sunday (2.91). The scores were significantly lower on weekends than on weekdays.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RQ1-2. Does adolescents’ daily self-evaluation in social roles vary by adolescents’ individual characteristics (i.e., gender, grade level, and family affluence)?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adolescents’ daily reports of self-evaluation in social roles varied by grade level (5&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; &gt; 8&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RQ2: Are adolescents’ daily interactions with fathers dynamic across a week among adolescents of various individual characteristics (i.e., gender, grade level, and family affluence)?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RQ2-1. How frequently do adolescents interact with fathers in various daily activities across a week?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On average, adolescents had conversations with fathers on 4.45 days (SD=2.50), had dinner together on 3.47 days (SD=2.42), watched TV on 2.84 days (SD=2.51), had breakfast on 2 days (SD=2.30), and went outside to spend leisure time together on 0.96 days (SD=1.49). The percentage of engaging in daily interactions with fathers decreased toward the middle of the week and increased toward the weekend.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RQ2-2. Does the frequency of adolescents’ interactions with fathers vary by adolescents’ individual characteristics (i.e., gender, grade level, and family affluence)?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No differences were found by gender. Differences were found for the frequency of engaging in outside leisure and having conversations with fathers by grade level (5&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; &gt; 8&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;) and by family affluence (low/mid &lt; high).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### RQ3: Is adolescents’ daily experience of fathers’ emotional support dynamic across a week among adolescents of various individual characteristics (i.e., gender, grade level, and family affluence)?

**RQ3-1. How frequently and how much do adolescents experience fathers’ emotional support in daily lives across a week?**

- The adolescents experienced fathers’ daily emotional support on an average of 4.35 days (SD=2.34) and the average level was 2.69 (SD=0.83) out of 5.
- The level of emotional support was higher on weekends than weekdays.

**RQ3-2. Does the level and frequency of fathers’ emotional support in daily lives vary by adolescents’ individual characteristics (i.e., gender, grade level, and family affluence)?**

- No differences were found by gender.
- Differences were found for the level and frequency by grade level (5th > 8th).

### RQ4: Are adolescents’ daily interactions with fathers and fathers’ emotional support related to adolescents’ self-evaluation in social roles on the same day among adolescents of various individual characteristics (i.e., gender, grade level, and family affluence)?

**RQ4-1. Do adolescents evaluate themselves more positively in their social roles on days in which they interacted with their fathers more than usual?**

- Adolescents evaluated themselves more positively in their social roles on days in which they interacted with their fathers more than usual.

**RQ4-2. Do adolescents evaluate themselves more positively in their social roles on days in which they experienced higher levels of fathers’ emotional support than usual accounting for daily interactions with fathers?**

- After taking adolescents’ daily interactions with fathers into account, adolescents evaluated themselves more positively in their social roles on days in which they experienced higher levels of fathers’ emotional support. Simple interactions with fathers and previous day’s self-evaluation in social roles were no longer significantly associated.

**RQ4-3. Does the same day association vary by individual characteristics (i.e., gender, grade level, and family affluence)?**

- There were no variations by gender at the intercept and slope.
- Variation by grade level was found at the intercept (5th > 8th), but not at the slope.
- Variation by family affluence was found at the slope (low/middle > high), but not at the intercept.
RQ5: Are adolescents’ daily interactions with fathers and fathers’ emotional support related to adolescents’ self-evaluation in social roles on the next day among adolescents of various individual characteristics (i.e., gender, grade level, and family affluence)?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RQ5-1. Do adolescents evaluate themselves more positively in their social roles on following days in which they interacted with their fathers more than usual?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>o The association did not last until the next day.</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RQ5-2. Do adolescents evaluate themselves more positively in their social roles on following days in which they experienced higher levels of fathers’ emotional support than usual accounting for daily interactions with fathers?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>o Yes. Previous day’s fathers’ emotional support was associated with adolescents’ self-evaluation in social roles on the next day even after taking into account daily interactions with fathers.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RQ5-3. Does the lagged day association vary by individual characteristics (i.e., gender, grade level, and family affluence)?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>o No individual differences were found for lagged day association.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter 5. Discussion

The overarching goal of this study was to understand and examine the daily dynamics of adolescents’ interactions with fathers, experience of fathers’ emotional support and their self-evaluation in social roles in the contemporary Korean society. Based on Bronfenbrenner’s PPCT model, the present study was conducted from the perspective that adolescents’ development of self occurs through the dynamic daily experiences that vary by individual characteristics (Bronfenbrenner, 1995; Hoffman, 2007). This study was also a response to the transitioning image of ideal fathers in Korea. In the midst of the transition, the present study made an attempt to address the lack of confidence in and conversations about the role of interactions with fathers and fathers’ emotional support in adolescents’ development in the daily context. This section will present discussions and interpretations of the major findings, followed by limitations, suggestions for future studies, and implications.

5.1. Interpretation of results

First, the daily dynamics of adolescents’ self-evaluation in social roles demonstrated how adolescents’ development of self occurs through daily experiences. As a period of self-searching, one’s sense of self is relatively flexible during adolescence compared to other developmental periods (Robins & Trzesniewski, 2005), and become increasingly multidimensional and hierarchically organized (Shavelson et al., 1976). In
line with the hierarchical order of adolescents’ self-concept (Figure 1) (Shavelson et al., 1976; Song, 1984), self-evaluation in specific contexts in daily lives, such as self-evaluation in social roles, was characterized by low stability in this study and seemed to respond directly to adolescents’ daily experiences (Shavelson et al., 1976; Song, 1982; Vallacher et al., 2002). The results of this study support the argument that adolescents’ self-evaluation not only occurs at the global level, but also in specific situations of daily lives and can vary from day to day. The present study speaks to the importance of seemingly trivial everyday experiences as essential building blocks of one’s self-concept, which has been known to be pertinent to both short-term and long-term well-being and success in various aspects of life (Bai & Repetti, 2016; Robins & Trzesniewski, 2005).

Specifically, the level of self-evaluation in social roles was lower during the weekends than on weekdays. This trend was different from the patterns of daily interactions with fathers and daily experience of fathers’ emotional support that tended to be higher on weekends than on weekdays. Although additional studies are needed to identify the factors that may have caused the decline on weekends, it is possible that when the daily data was collected on a Sunday evening, they may have been reflecting on how much work they did not do over the weekend compared to the weekdays and be worried about the week ahead. As they thought about the things-to-do in the following week, they may have felt guilty about having rested over the
weekend and rated themselves less positively.

At the same time, this result should not be interpreted as adolescents’ self-evaluation becoming particularly negative during the weekends. The reports were less positive, but not necessarily negative, on weekends than on weekdays. Plus, the differences were statistically significant, but the actual scores did not change drastically. Nonetheless, subsequent studies are necessary to unfold the reasons behind the difference, keeping in mind the fact that adolescents still felt more positive about themselves even on weekends in which they experienced higher levels of emotional support from fathers than usual.

In addition to the dynamic variations in self-evaluation in social roles, variability in fathers’ emotional support over seven days also highlights the importance of experiencing fathers’ emotional support at the daily level. Whereas most of the previous studies examined the overall perception of fathers’ emotional support, previous qualitative studies and recent statistical data implied that the actual experience of fathers’ emotional support in daily lives can take a different form (Choi et al., 2016; The Korea Bang Jeong-hwan Foundation, 2014). While the overall perception would have been reported as a stable and single response, daily perception of fathers’ emotional support analyzed in this study displayed a distinct characteristic that fluctuated from day to day. Whether this is due to the actual fluctuations in fathers’ emotional support or the variations in the way
adolescents perceived it requires further investigation into fathers’
perception of their own emotional support. Still, this result serves as a piece
of evidence for the variable nature of social environment during adolescence.

Furthermore, the association found between adolescents’ experience
of fathers’ emotional support and self-evaluation in social roles confirms the
theory of reflected appraisals (Cooley, 1902; Harter, 1993; Mead, 1934;
Sullivan, 1953) and extends the understanding of PPCT model
(Bronfenbrenner, 1995) to developmental processes in daily settings. The
proximal processes in the PPCT model were often tested as a stable
developmental environment. However, not one day’s experience is the same
as the other. This is especially true of adolescents’ daily lives. Adolescents’
developmental environments, especially their social environment, are not
always stable but can change even in the short-term. The daily associations
attest to the fact that the variability in day-to-day experiences should not be
overlooked, but carefully observed and understood as one of the core
characteristics that describe the nature of proximal processes during
adolescence.

In this study, the proximal processes of PPCT model were applied
beyond concurrent relationships and stretched to temporal processes. A
micro-longitudinal analysis revealed how fathers’ emotional support
experienced on a day carried on to the next day, specifically contributing to
adolescents’ self-development. Fathers’ emotional support experienced at a
higher level than usual on the previous day affected the level of self-evaluation in social roles on the next day. This suggests the causal relationship between fathers’ emotional support and adolescents’ self-evaluation in social roles. The increased level of fathers’ emotional support preceded the increased level of adolescents’ self-evaluation in social roles. This enables the explanation beyond the concurrent correlations, and once again, suggests possible directionality of the proximal processes from fathers to their adolescent children’s daily lives and self-development.

However, the association became weaker on the next day. This is in line with previous research on the lagged or “spillover” effect of daily stress from one day to the next day (Kiang & Buchanan, 2014; Williams et al., 1991). The literature on daily stress explains the phenomenon possibly as a function of habituation—the decreased level of response to stimulus as a result of repeated and frequent exposure (Thompson & Spencer, 1966; Williams et al., 1991). A similar explanation can be applied to the lagged effect of fathers’ emotional support, but since this study was one of the few that tested the lasting influence of positive daily experiences from one day to the next, the interpretations should be made carefully and be open to further investigations and discussions.

Additionally, previous days’ self-evaluation in social roles was also no longer significant when fathers’ daily emotional support was included in both the same day and lagged day analyses. There is usually a consistency in
an individual’s perceptions and behaviors that do not change from day to day. In this study, too, previous day’s level of self-evaluation in social roles was associated with next day’s level. This held true even when fathers’ daily interactions were entered into the analysis. However, it seemed that daily experience of fathers’ emotional support was more meaningful for the same day’s self-evaluation in social roles than the influence of previous day’s level of self-evaluation in social roles. In other words, even though a less positive level of self-evaluation in social roles on a given day may be carried on to the next day, if the adolescent experienced an increased level of fathers’ emotional support on the previous day or the same day, their self-evaluation on that day was no longer affected by previous day’s self-evaluation level, but would, in fact, become more positive. The daily experience of fathers’ emotional support had a power to disconnect the association between previous day and next day’s self-evaluation in social roles.

Within the framework of PPCT model, this study adds to the understanding of the interaction between proximal processes and stable individual characteristics such as gender, grade level, and family affluence. First, the relationship between fathers’ daily emotional support and adolescents’ self-evaluation in social roles was meaningful regardless of gender. Although more positive relationship qualities and more frequent interactions were found among sons than daughters in previous studies
(Huston, 1983; Ishii-Kuntz, 1994; The Korea Bang Jeong-hwan Foundation, 2016; Tucker, McHale, & Couter, 2003; Yang, 1996), they were not true in the lives of adolescents in this study. While gender differences can be observed in other areas of adolescents’ lives, fathers’ emotional support may be equally important for both boys and girls at least for the 5th and 8th graders. Such result will particularly benefit from an additional collection of data on boys’ and girls’ narratives on their experience of fathers’ emotional support and how such experience made them feel about themselves.

The differences found by grade level provide useful information about the developmental and social changes that occur as adolescents move from elementary school to middle school. The adolescents in elementary school reported having experienced higher levels of daily interactions with fathers (i.e., frequency of engaging in conversations and outdoor leisure activities), fathers’ daily emotional support, and self-evaluation in social roles. These differences indicate that father-adolescent relationship dynamics may change as adolescents enter middle school. The 5th graders in elementary school scored higher than the 8th graders in all of the items.

Adolescents and fathers are likely to have more difficulty as adolescents enter middle school. Although the causality needs to be addressed in detail, the fact that the adolescents engaged in daily interactions with fathers less frequently and that the level of experiencing fathers’ emotional support in daily lives was lower among those in middle
schools reflects the increasing difficulties in maintaining the relationship between fathers and adolescents. It may be an indication that both adolescents and fathers become busy and encounter their own developmental challenges such as individuation and mid-life crisis (Erikson, 1986; Yoon, 2016). In middle school, adolescents’ lives become significantly more complicated with expanded academic and social engagements (Robins & Trzesniewski, 2005). Also, in an attempt to individuate, they may look like they want to draw away from their parents. However, since an increasing number of studies have confirmed the continued importance of warm and supportive interactions with parents, attention should be paid to the decreased amount of conversations and outdoor leisure among the 8th graders.

As for self-evaluation in social roles, the level was lower among the 8th graders than the 5th graders. This result supports the previous finding that during the younger years, self-evaluation tends to be more optimistic (Harter, 2006). As adolescents enter middle school from elementary school both parents and teachers should become aware of the possible decreases in adolescents’ self-evaluation in social roles and be ready to address the changes. In some parts of Korea, major college preparation processes start in middle school and the attention of parents and teachers go to adolescents’ academic achievement. However, the results of this study speak of the need to share some of the attention to their self-development. This would be...
important, because self-development during adolescence is associated with various outcomes of well-being and success both in the short-term and long-term (Harris et al., 2015).

As opposed to the argument that parents’ influence diminishes and peer influence becomes stronger as adolescents become older (Furman & Buhrmester, 1992; La Greca & Harrison, 2005), fathers’ role in adolescents’ self-evaluation remained just as effective among the 8th graders(i.e., second grade of middle school according to the Korean school system) as the 5th graders in this study. Even though the overall level of fathers’ emotional support may decrease in middle school, adolescents were equally affected by fathers’ emotional support. The frequency may have decreased, but the degree of influence may still be the same at least for 5th graders and 8th graders.

This finding supports the notion that parents remain as the main reference adolescents turn to for the evaluation of self (Coombs, Paulson, Richardson, 1990; Harris et al., 2015; Harter, 2006; Hoffman, Levy-Shiff, & Ushpiz, 1993; Rosenberg, 1979; Youniss & Smollar, 1985). The fact that the 8th graders experienced lower levels of fathers’ emotional support and interacted with fathers less, but were equally affected implies that even if the 8th graders may look like they do not want to talk or spend time with fathers, finding creative ways to continuously provide emotional support will have a positive impact on adolescents’ self-development.
This does not necessarily mean that fathers should forcefully try to interact with their children even if they do not want to. The focus should be placed more on the provision of emotional support such as saying a word of encouragement or listening to what they have to say, even if large amounts of interaction times may not be available. Moreover, the fact that the association between fathers’ daily emotional support and self-evaluation in social roles was meaningful for both 5th and 8th graders means that this is indeed a time that individuals’ sense of self becomes sensitive to daily experiences. As discussed earlier, for both parents and teachers, it would be helpful to keep in mind that adolescents tend to be sensitive to everyday experiences. They may benefit from utilizing such sensitivity to cultivate positive resources in adolescents’ daily lives.

Finally, the role of family affluence in creating the differences in father-adolescent interaction frequencies and variations in the association between fathers’ emotional support and adolescents’ self-evaluation in social roles is noteworthy. First, the differences in the frequency of conversations and outdoor leisure activities found by family affluence display the areas of disparities in family life resulting from differences in economic resources. This is partly similar to the findings in the international literature where class differences were found in verbal parenting (Putnam, 2016). In the lower social class, the frequency of verbal parenting of both encouragements and discouragements was lower than those of professional
class. Additionally, the study also found that while the frequency of encouragements surpassed the number of discouragements among the professional group, the number of discouragements was higher among the welfare group. The differences in the percentage of having family dinners also varied by parents’ education level in Putnam(2016)’s study with larger percentages reported by adolescents of parents with higher levels of education.

It is interesting to note that differences in the frequency of having conversations and engaging in outdoor leisure activities with fathers were observed by different family affluence groups in the interactions of Korean adolescents and fathers in this study, while no differences in the level and frequency of fathers’ emotional support and dinner were found. Although the data are not exactly comparable, whereas socioeconomic disparities in daily life were reflected in the number of parents’ verbal encouragement and family dinner in the United States, the disparities were more salient in the areas of daily conversation frequencies and outdoor leisure among the Korean population in this study.

Furthermore, the perceived level of family affluence level affected the way adolescents’ daily experience of fathers’ emotional support was associated with their self-evaluation in social roles. If they had less of the resources, such as their own room, traveling opportunities, family cars, and computers, they were more strongly affected when fathers encouraged them,
complimented them, gave them advice, or listened to them. This is in line with previous research on within-person responses to daily events. These studies found that those living in low family socioeconomic status with less amounts of resources tended to display a greater sensitivity to both negative and positive daily events (Belsky et al., 2007; Gallo et al., 2005). Most of the studies focused on the heightened negative effects of daily stressors, and called those sensitive to daily events as vulnerable. However, their sensitivity to positive daily events also needs to be highlighted. The results of this study add to this body of literature and suggest that those living in middle or low family affluence, compared to high family affluence are likely to respond more strongly to positive daily experiences, such as fathers’ emotional support.

Bai and Repetti (2015) discussed the role of positive daily experiences in the family environment as micro-resources that ultimately contribute to building resilience systems in the brain through biopsychological mechanisms in the long run. Although adolescents in middle or low family affluence households may lack financial resources compared to the high family affluence groups, their sensitivity to daily experiences may provide a potential area for future intervention. Their sensitivity to positive daily experiences can be utilized for building resilience.

Moreover, as opposed to some of the previous findings that
displayed lower levels of warmth and support among parents of lower socioeconomic status (Conger et al., 1994; Whitbeck et al., 1997; Yoshikawa, Lawrence, & Williams, 2012), the 7-day average of fathers’ emotional support was not significantly lower among the low or middle family affluence than the high family affluence group. The difference was also non-significant in the level of self-evaluation in social roles. This may have to do with the sample characteristic that, even though there were differences in family affluence level, most of the participants also lived with mothers who may have provided just as high levels of emotional support as the fathers. Future studies could consider the influence of co-parenting by fathers and mothers on adolescents’ self-evaluation in social roles.

At the same time, one may also assume that even in low or middle family affluence households, fathers can provide equally high levels of emotional support and as long as it is present, adolescents may not be disadvantaged in their self-evaluation. However, the results should be interpreted carefully. Both the 7-day mean of fathers’ emotional support and self-evaluation in social roles were lower among the low or middle family affluence group, although the differences were not statistically significant. Also, the frequencies of engaging in outdoor leisure activities and conversations were found to be significantly lower among low or middle family affluence group. These findings imply that socioeconomic disparities may be present but may not have become salient during this developmental
period, which calls for additional longitudinal studies. Therefore, while fathers in low or middle family affluence may benefit from being encouraged to provide daily emotional support, the challenges they may face due to the lack of socioeconomic resources should be kept in mind simultaneously.

Next, the association between previous day’s fathers’ emotional support and next day’s self-evaluation in social roles was significant but did not vary by family affluence. The variation was present only for the same day association and did not last until the next day. No previous research could be found to explain this phenomenon since the test of daily association between fathers’ emotional support and self-evaluation in social roles itself was a relatively new approach. It can be interpreted as that the context of family affluence has a stronger effect on the same day’s experience than the experience of following days. For the next day, even the influence of fathers’ daily emotional support decreased. Does this mean that the variation by family affluence is instant and only lasts for a day?

In fact, the influence of family affluence should be constant since such context does not change from day to day. The diminished effect of previous day’s fathers’ emotional support may be a better reason to explain this phenomenon. Also should be noted is that an individual’s development occurs with an accumulation of daily experiences. Just because one day’s experience is not statistically carried on to the next day it does not mean that
the experience has disappeared. Although more studies would need to be conducted to demonstrate a bigger picture, this study argues that each day’s experience is connected to other days, yet unique, and is an indelible part of the whole—human development.

5.2. Suggestions for policies and programs

Based on these findings and interpretations, a few practical suggestions can be made for related policies and programs.

First, the seemingly ordinary daily interactions, such as watching TV together, having meals together, or going out for movies and shopping with fathers, can help adolescents feel good about themselves. However, rather than simply encouraging to share daily interactions, using these daily interactions as contexts or opportunities for adolescents to experience fathers’ emotional support would contribute to adolescents' positive self-evaluation in social roles more effectively. This means that programs that attempt to enhance adolescents’ self-evaluation would benefit from educating fathers to listen attentively to adolescents, give words of encouragement and/or advice, or compliment.

In the implementation of these programs, it should also be noted that drastic fluctuations in the level of emotional support would result in drastic fluctuations in adolescents’ self-evaluation. As mentioned earlier, large fluctuations in adolescents’ self-evaluation have the potential to be
harmful for adolescents’ well-being and social relationships (Vallacher et al., 2002). Therefore, if the level of emotional support had been low in the past incremental changes are recommended in small parts of daily lives. For example, one can start by sharing daily activities as simple as saying ‘Good morning,’” or “Good night” and then gradually providing increasing amounts of emotional support over time. It would be ideal if the level of support could be high and stable over time.

Second, both 5th or 6th grade adolescents and fathers may benefit from attending education programs to prepare themselves for the various changes to occur as the children enter middle school. The information found in this study would be helpful for organizing some of the contents. Also, specific campaigns and programs that raise the awareness of the importance of daily experiences in adolescents’ developmental task of self-searching would be useful. For instance, since large fluctuations in self-evaluation has been found to be a risk factor for adolescent development (Vallacher et al., 2002), parents and teachers can be advised to provide stability and consistency in their daily interactions as adolescents’ developmental environment. Adolescents themselves can also be educated about their self-development and how this process is sensitive to their daily experiences especially during this developmental period. All of these information can also be conveniently incorporated into the programs related to career development and self-regulation.
Third, while more in-depth studies are needed to identify the factors that may have caused the differences in the experience by family affluence, fathers and adolescents in low or middle family affluence group would benefit from the provision of resources for outdoor activities (e.g., movie tickets, coupons for popular restaurants) and education of conversation skills (e.g., finding a good time to talk, finding good topics of talk about, learning about the trendy expressions, popular interests among adolescents and fathers, skills for listening, complimenting, and empathizing). These efforts may narrow the socioeconomic disparities that may enlarge as adolescents grow older. If fathers find difficulty participating in these programs, other creative ways such as web-based programs could be developed and implemented (Yoon, 2016). Moreover, government and companies should also be aware of the importance of fathers being present for their adolescents. This awareness should lead to developing family-friendly policies and social and working cultures for both men and women.

Still, as is the case in similar East Asian countries such as Japan and China, the scene of hegemonic corporate culture and gender ideology heavily influenced by Confucianism is common in Korea (Ishii-Kuntz, 2015). Although changes are slowly taking place at the government level with the promotion of paternal leave, corporate cultures are still not very welcoming toward it. Also, the paternal leaves only apply to fathers of young children, and once the children become adolescents, companies
usually do not recognize the changed but still important roles of fathers in their children’s lives. Family-related policies and programs should take into consideration the important roles that fathers play in their children’s lives even during adolescence.

5.3. Limitations and directions for future research

The current study has a few limitations to be considered. First, although this study examined the day to day experiences, it lacked the narratives of the participants. The details of daily experiences spoken or expressed by the participants would have enhanced the understanding of fathers’ and adolescents’ daily experiences. Future studies may benefit from utilizing mixed methods by collecting both quantitative and qualitative data about the daily experiences of fathers and adolescents. Particularly, additional information about the actual words, facial expressions, and the episodes that adolescents remember about their fathers’ emotional support will contribute to comprehending the experience better and be used as useful data for developing programs to promote fathers’ emotional support.

Second, the current study was mainly focused on positive daily experiences with fathers. How negative daily experiences specifically with fathers interacted with adolescents’ self-evaluation in social roles needs to be addressed. As the occurrence of both positive and negative experiences within a day are highly likely, the assessment of both aspects will provide a
more realistic and fuller picture of father-adolescent interactions in Korea.

Third, whereas adolescents’ evaluation of self in social roles was assessed at specific dimensions such as sons/daughter, friend, or student, fathers’ emotional support in this study did not address the specific areas of fathers’ emotional support. For example, the current study did not distinguish between fathers’ words of encouragement in the area of peer relationships or academics. Future studies could benefit from including different categories or areas of life that fathers offered emotional support to their adolescent children.

Fourth, the contemporary Korean society is going through a highly digital era. Many fathers and adolescents interact through online sources such as text messages, emails, and SNS. The current study was not able to capture this aspect of father-adolescent interactions, which should be included in future studies on father-adolescent interactions in Korea.

Lastly, while focusing on its attention to fathers the current study did not take the influence of mothers into account. Comparison between the roles of mothers’ and fathers’ emotional support in adolescents’ self-evaluation is suggested for future studies. This way, the interaction between parents’ gender and adolescents’ gender during adolescence could also be examined.
5.4. Contributions and implications

Despite the shortcomings, the current study contributes to the body of existing research and provides several implications.

First, this study addressed within-person complexities of self-evaluation in daily lives of adolescents. The level of self-evaluation in social roles did indeed vary from day to day. The experience of emotional support from fathers was found to be associated with adolescents’ evaluation of self in various social roles, not only as a son or daughter, but also as a friend and a student. The findings imply, as Vallacher et al. (2002) mentioned, that the positive evaluation of self in one area influences the evaluation of self in thematically related neighboring self-concept areas.

Second, the dynamics of adolescents’ daily interactions with fathers were identified. The data and results from previous studies and statistics provided useful information, but the findings of this study offer the dynamics that were hidden under the average scores. These dynamics open up the discussions for within-person experiences that occur especially during adolescence as many of the changes take place in their daily lives. Furthermore, the current study also showed that the dynamics of our daily lives should not be overlooked as trivial and ordinary.

Third, this research addressed the lack of father research in Korea, especially on the topic of emotional support during adolescence. The provision of emotional support has often been viewed as the responsibility
of mothers, and most of the father research were focused on their involvement in taking care of and playing with the young children. As fathers are increasingly expected to continue with their involvement in child development throughout adolescence, recently as emotional supporters, it is hoped that this study triggered more conversations around the role of fathers’ emotional support in adolescents’ development.

Fourth, the current study identified possible intervention points for addressing low levels of self-evaluation in social roles at the daily level. The fact that individuals with low levels of resources tended to be more sensitive to daily experiences could be utilized as positive prevention and intervention points. According to Belsky et al. (2007) and Gallo et al. (2005), these individuals may be more sensitive to negative experiences, but are also likely to be more easily influenced by the positive events. Deriving from the arguments made by Bai and Repetti (2015), the current study proposes continued research on the mechanisms of how positive experiences in seemingly routine daily lives become adolescents’ developmental resources from the emotional, social, cognitive and biological perspectives.

Fifth, the current study provided specific guidance for Korean fathers on how to positively contribute to their adolescent children’s positive self-development. The findings also provided strong statistical information to believe the meaningful and impactful role of fathers in adolescents’ daily lives and their development.
Lastly, it is hoped that the discoveries of this dissertation expanded the existing knowledge about fathers-adolescent interactions and adolescent development through the consideration of how within-person variations and individual differences are related.
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국문초록

아버지와의 상호작용 및 아버지의 정서적 지지와 청소년의 사회적 역할에 대한 자기평가의 일상적 역동

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본 연구의 목적은 현대 한국사회에서 청소년이 경험하는 아버지와의 상호작용, 아버지의 정서적 지지, 그리고 청소년의 사회적 역할에 대한 자기평가를 일상생활의 맥락에서 살펴보는 것이다. 특히, 아버지와의 상호작용 및 아버지의 정서적 지지와 청소년의 사회적 역할에 대한 자기평가의 일상적 역동에 주목하고, 이러한 일상적 역동이 청소년의 성별, 학년, 그리고 가구풍요도에 따라 어떻게 달라지는지 살펴보고자 하였다.

이를 위하여, 서울교육건강복지패널의 2차년도 조사에서 수집된 초등학교 5학년과 중학교 2학년 청소년 283명의 설문조사와 일상다이어리자료를 브룬벤브레너의 process-person-context-time 모델에 근거하여 분석하였다. 먼저, 연속된 7일간 청소년의 사회적 역할에 대한 자기평가, 아버지와의 상호작용 및 아버지의 정서적 지지의 일상적 역동을 살펴보았다. 그 후, 이와 같은 일상에서의 경험에 청소년의 성별, 학년, 그리고 가구풍요도에 따라 어떻게 달라지는지 분석하였다. 일상에서 아버지와의 상호작용과 같은 날 청소년의 사회적 역할에 대한 자기평가의 관계를 살펴보기 위하여 위계적선형모형 분석을 실시하였다. 다음으로, 아버지와의 상호작용을 공식에 포함하여, 같은 날
경험한 아버지의 정서적 지지와 청소년의 사회적 역할에 대한 자기평가의 관계를 분석하였고, 이에 대한 성별, 학년, 가구풍요도의 조절효과를 살펴보았다. 일상경험의 지연효과를 살펴보기 위하여, 전날 아버지와의 상호작용과 청소년의 사회적 역할에 대한 자기평가의 관계를 분석하였다. 다음으로, 전날 아버지와의 상호작용을 공식에 포함하여, 전날 아버지의 정서적 지지와 청소년의 사회적 역할에 대한 자기평가의 관계를 살펴보았다. 그리고 이러한 일상경험이 성별, 학년, 가구풍요도에 따라 차이가 있는지 알아보았다.

분석결과, 청소년의 사회적 역할에 대한 자기평가는 7일 동안 변동이 있었다. 일상에서 보고된 점수는 보통 중학교 2학년보다 초등학교 5학년이 높았다. 본 연구에 참여한 한국 청소년들이 경험한 7일간 아버지와의 상호작용 (대화, 저녁식사, TV시청, 아침식사, 외출하여 여가)에도 역동성이 존재했다. 특히, 외출하여 여가시간을 보낸 날과 대화를 한 날의 빈도는 중학교 2학년보다 초등학교 5학년이 높은 가구풍요도에 속한 청소년이 중간 또는 낮은 가구풍요도에 속한 청소년보다 더 높게 보고하였다. 더불어, 청소년은 매일 다른 수준의 아버지의 정서적 지지를 경험하였는데, 평균적으로 경험하는 아버지의 정서적 지지수준과 경험한 날의 빈도 모두 초등학교 5학년이 중학교 2학년보다 높았다.

같은 날 경험한 아버지와의 상호작용과 청소년의 사회적 역할에 대한 자기평가를 살펴보았을 때, 청소년은 평소보다 아버지와 상호작용을 더 많이 한 날 자신을 더 긍정적으로 평가하였다. 더불어, 아버지의 정서적 지지를 평소보다 더 높은 수준으로 경험한 날 청소년의 사회적 역할에 대한 자기평가가 더 긍정적인 것으로 나타났다. 이때, 아버지의 정서적 지지와 청소년의 사회적 역할에 대한 자기평가의 관계는 성별에 따른 차이가 없었지만, 사회적 역할에 대한 자기평가의 평균은 중학교 2학년보다 초등학교 5학년이 더 높았다. 또, 아버지의 정서적 지지를
평소보다 더 높은 수준으로 경험한 날 중간 또는 낮은 가구풍요도에 속한 청소년이 높은 가구풍요도에 속한 청소년보다 사회적 역할에 대한 자기평가가 더 큰 폭으로 증가하는 것으로 나타났다. 이에 대한 지연효과를 분석한 결과, 아버지와의 상호작용과 청소년의 사회적 역할에 대한 자기평가의 관계는 다음날까지 지속되지 않았다. 그러나, 전날 경험한 아버지의 정서적 지지는 다음날 청소년의 사회적 역할에 대한 자기평가와 정적인 관계가 있었다. 이러한 지연효과에 있어 성별, 학년, 가구풍요도에 따른 차이는 발견되지 않았다.

본 연구에서 살펴 본 아버지와의 상호작용 및 아버지의 정서적 지지와 청소년의 사회적 역할에 대한 자기평가의 역동성은 일상생활이 잠재적으로 발달자원을 일으킬 수 있는 영역임을 나타낸다. 학년과 가구풍요도에 따른 일상경험의 차이는 정책적 개입이 필요한 점단에 대한 정보를 제공한다. 또한, 본 연구에서 발견된 개인 내 경험의 역동성과 관계는 청소년기에도 높은 수준의 아버지와의 상호작용과 특허, 아버지와의 정서적지지 경험이 유익하다는 점을 시사하며, 이러한 경험이 안정적으로 제공되어야 할 필요성을 나타낸다. 이에 따라, 한국의 문화적 맥락에서 이론 및 실천적 적용방안을 제시하고, 이러한 결과가 국제적으로 어떻게 비교될 수 있을지에 대하여 논의하였다.

주요어: 아버지, 청소년, 일상, 상호작용, 정서적 지지, 자기평가, 일상다이어리 기법, 학년, 가구풍요도

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