

THE EFFECT OF FATHER INVOLVEMENT TRAINING ON THE FATHERS'  
INVOLVEMENT LEVEL AND PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR FATHERING ROLES

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## ABSTRACT

### THE EFFECT OF FATHER INVOLVEMENT TRAINING ON THE FATHERS' INVOLVEMENT LEVEL AND PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR FATHERING ROLES

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Recent studies show that actively involved fathers have positive effects on the development of children. If we consider the family as a whole unit which consists of mother, father and children, we should support the fathers to make them actively involved in their children's life. Unfortunately, both in the world and in our country there is lack of programs which are designed specifically for fathers.

The aim of this study is twofold, first is to create an example of father involvement training for fathers of preschool children and second is to investigate the effects of father involvement training on the involvement level and perceptions of fathering role.

The subjects of this study were from O.D.T.Ü preschool and kindergarten, which is located in the university campus. Twenty fathers, ten for experimental, ten for control group participated in the study. The experimental design was used, in which 2 groups were compared on pretest and posttest measures by using the Father Involvement Test and the Role of The Father Questionnaire. The experimental group was given a 6 week involvement training.

In order to explore who do the activities about childrearing, descriptive statistics were used. In order to explore the differences between two groups, nonparametric statistics, Mann Whitney U test and Wilcoxon tests were used. The results revealed that there was significant differences between posttest Role of The Father Questionnaire scores of subjects in experimental and control group conditions. Moreover, according to evaluations that were done at the end of the training, it could be stated that the program contributed positively to the communication between fathers and children.

Keywords: Father Involvement, Father Involvement Training, Perceptions of Fathering Roles

## ÖZ

### BABA KATILIM EĞİTİMİNİN BABALARIN KATILIM DÜZEYLERİNE VE BABALIK ROLLERİNİ ALGILAYIŞLARINA ETKİSİ

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Son yıllarda yapılan çalışmalar, babaların çocuk gelişiminde aktif rol aldıklarında, çocuk gelişiminin olumlu yönde etkilendiğini göstermektedir. Aileyi, anne, baba ve çocuklardan oluşan bir bütün olduğu düşünülürse, babaların da anne kadar çocuğun eğitiminde ve çocuklarının yaşamlarında olumlu etki yaratmaları hususunda desteklenmeleri gerekmektedir. Ancak gerek dünyada, gerekse Türkiye’de babaları destekleyecek, tamamen babalara yönelik programlar yok denilecek kadar azdır.

Bu çalışma, babaların çocuklarının bakım sürecine aktif ve etkili olarak katılmaları için, örnek bir program oluşturmayı ve programın babaların katılım düzeylerine ve rollerini algılayışlarına etkisini araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır.

Denekler Ankara'da ODTÜ Yuva ve Anaokulu'nda üç-altı yaş arası çocukları olan babalar arasından seçilmiştir. Bu araştırmaya 10 deney , 10 kontrol grubunda olmak üzere 20 baba katılmıştır. Deneysel araştırma modeli kullanılmış, deney grubuna 6 haftalık bir baba katılım eğitimi uygulanmıştır. Deney ve kontrol grubu babaları, Baba Katılım Ölçme Aracı ve Babalık Roller Anketinden alınan öntest ve sontest sonuçlarına göre karşılaştırılmıştır. Deney grubu babaları ise aynı testlerden alınan öntest ve sontest sonuçlarına göre karşılaştırılmıştır.

Deney ve kontrol grubu babalarının katılım derecelerini ortaya koyabilmek amacıyla tanımsal istatistiksel yöntemler kullanılmıştır. Sonuçlar, çocukla ilgili işlerin ailede kimler tarafından yapıldığını göstermektedir. Deney ve kontrol grubu babalarının arasındaki rolleri algılayış farklılıklarını ortaya koyabilmek için parametrik olmayan istatistiksel yöntemlerden Mann-Whitney U Testi ve Wilcoxon Testi kullanılmıştır. Sonuçlar iki grubun sontestleri arasında anlamlı bir fark olduğunu göstermiştir.

Bununla birlikte, babaların eğitim sürecini değerlendirmeleri dikkate alınarak, programın baba-çocuk arasındaki iletişime bazı olumlu etkileri olduğu söylenebilir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Baba Katılımı, Baba Katılım Programı, Babalık Rolü Algılanışı

To my father

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I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work.

Date:

Signature:

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## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION

#### **1.1. Background to the Study**

As we approach the 21<sup>st</sup> century, the roles of parents have been changing due to the recent interrelated changes in the demographic profile of modern families , women's increased visibility in the labor force that makes fathers being asked to take on more responsibilities in the household and the intensified policy debates over the well-being of children especially those residing in single parent households after divorce.

This shift in roles makes the fatherhood a very significant topic for social scientists. The traditional role of the father begins to change because of these changes in society. Today, good fathering is much more than being the distant breadwinner; they are now viewed as a significant factor to the intellectual and emotional well-being of their children. Fathers are more involved in rearing of their children than a generation ago. In other words, many of them are being forced to develop family relationships that are quite different from those they had with their own fathers. Today's fathers report feeling closer and more intimate with their children than their own fathers were with them (Marsiglio,1993).



Fathers are encouraged to express love and care for their children. When fathers assume an active role with their children, they can have a positive influence on all aspects of their children's development (McBride & Mills, 1993). Research literature indicates that even though fathers might be increasing their involvement in childrearing, mothers are still involved with children at much higher rates than fathers are (Darling-Fisher & Tiedje, 1990; LaRossa, 1988).

The most influential approach distinguishing among various types of father involvement offered by Lamb and his colleagues has three main components; engagement or interaction, accessibility, and responsibility (Lamb, 1986). Engagement is time spent interacting with a child on a one to one basis through care giving and shared activities such as reading to the child and bathing the child. Accessibility does not include actual interaction with the child but focuses on the father's potential availability for interaction by spending time in child-related housework and proximity to the child. Responsibility refers to the role the father takes for child care and makes arrangements for resources to be available for the child both inside and outside the home.

Research on fathers with the exceptions, demonstrates the importance of positive involvement which means "high engagement, accessibility, and responsibility" (Pleck, 1997) or spending quality and quantity time with children. The general idea is that children who have positively involved fathers tend to do better socially, emotionally, and academically than children whose fathers are not positively involved because the positive involvement sends strong messages that a father cares and values them.

A multifactor approach to father involvement is necessary because a variety of factors determines the degree of father involvement. Lamb et al. (1987; Pleck et al., 1986) grouped these factors as motivation, skills and self-confidence, social support, and institutionalized factors or practices. Child characteristics such as gender, age and birth order, paternal sociodemographic characteristics such as education, occupational prestige, developmental history, personality characteristics, mothers' employment and maternal characteristics, marital dynamics are the factors or sources that are analyzed for their influence on the level of paternal involvement.

A notable issue in paternal involvement is how important the father feels his role is in childrearing. According to Palkovitz (1984), if the father perceived his role with his child as important, he was more likely to be actively involved in childrearing. The perception of his role will influence the amount and type of involvement a father will have with his children (Palkovitz, 1984). Fathers who perceived they were more skilled at child-care were more likely to participate in child-care activities.

Since fathers' role is more than that of economic provider of the past and now includes nurturing and caregiving, studies about the consequences of paternal involvement on children becomes popular. Most research on the consequences of paternal involvement focuses on direct effects especially consequences for children. However, other studies indicate that paternal involvement can also have indirect effects through its effects on mothers, marriage and the fathers.

Until very recently, parent education for fathers have been a badly neglected area (Levant, 1988). Traditionally parent education programs have been aimed at supporting women in their roles as mothers (Powell,

1986). But then, the increasing recognition of the father's role in the family leads the development of education programs for new fathers. Not only the increasing recognition of the father's role but also the gap between the expectations for fathers to be more involved and their actual levels of involvement is reason for the development of education programs for new fathers. Because, the roles of fathers have been changing rapidly in recent years, yet many fathers are finding themselves unprepared to assume an active role. It is now expected that fathers will learn a new role that departs radically from the role of their fathers, and one that involves skills such as sensitivity to children, nurturance, expressivity, and child management that cannot be assumed to be part of men's existing repertoire (Levant, 1988).

Therefore, the creation of parent education and support programs designed especially for fathers may be one of the ways to bridge this gap between the culture and the conduct of fatherhood, as well as to increase the parenting options of fathers (McBride, 1991). Developing parent programs designed specifically for men may be one way to provide fathers with support mechanisms that are traditionally available only to mothers, and as a means of encouraging them to assume a more active role in raising their young children (McBride, 1991).

There are three types of such programs. The first involves the inclusion of fathers in traditional childbirth education classes. The second type extends through the preschool years, and involves fathers and their children in various activities. Preschool-aged children and their fathers are being identified as group subjects in these programs for three reasons: a) the rapid growth and development that children experience at this age, b) the lack of preparation for effective parenting by many men during this important period of their child's development, and c) the scarcity of research examining the impact of intervention programs with fathers of preschool-aged children or older (Levant, 1988). The third focuses on the growing number of teenage fathers, and aims at supporting the teenager's relationship his young family.

Findings of the few studies of programs for men of preschool-aged children and older suggest they can be effective in increasing fathers' perceptions of parental competence and some forms of paternal involvement (McBride, 1990), in increasing communication skills with their children (Levant & Doyle, 1983).

In Turkey, studies focusing on fathers are almost non-existent, although the recent interest on an international level suggests the importance of such studies and of intervention programs. Still, many parenting programs are only implemented with mothers because they are easier to reach and are seen as the primary caregivers. "Mother-Father School Project" which was designed by Yavuzer has been continued since 1989. In this program, not only mothers but also the fathers were the target group by giving information about child development, communication skills and their influences on children's success at the school.

In addition to this, the importance of Parental Involvement- involving parents to improve their children's self-esteem, social and academic development- in our educational system has been recently emphasized. An example of Parental Involvement Project has been conducted by Akkök (1998) at TED Ankara College. Partnership between parents and teachers helped the students to improve their social and academic development.

The first attempt to fulfill a need in Turkey for parent education program focusing on fathers was made by AÇEV in 1996. The Father Enrichment Program developed by the Mother Child Education Foundation aimed to support fathers in the development of their children 3-9 years of age. Since the mothers who attended in the Mother Child Education Program expressed the need for their husbands' behavior to change to be

harmony and consistency in the family, especially in regard to the discipline of their children. Moreover, in 2000 MOCEF organized a symposium called “Çocuğun Yaşamında Babanın Rolü ve Önemi” with the participation of Lamb –the most famous researcher in this field. These attempts by the MOCEF paved the way for other organizations to focus on the need for fathers to be involved in child-care and child development.

This study is yet another attempt to create an example of a paternal involvement training that includes discussions, information about child development and communication skills for preschool-aged children’s fathers and the purpose of this study is to investigate the effects of paternal involvement training on fathers’ involvement level and perceptions of their fathering roles.

### **1.2. Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study is twofold, first is to create an example of a paternal training and second is to investigate the effects of a six weeks Paternal Involvement Training on the level of fathers’ involvement in childrearing.

This training, firstly aims to increase fathers’ awareness of their children’s needs in order to increase their participation in their children’s development by giving information about the physical, cognitive, and social development of children and by imparting practical ideas on how they can support their child’s development in limited time. Secondly, aims to support fathers in their relationships with their children by teaching them positive disciplinary methods and by incorporating communication skills that can be applied for all their relationships especially with their children and wives.

### **1.3. Hypotheses of The Study**

1. The paternal involvement training has a significant effect on the involvement level of the experimental group fathers.
2. The paternal involvement training has a significant effect on how the experimental group fathers perceive their role.

3. There is no significant difference between the experimental and control group fathers on the involvement level in the pretest score.
4. There is no significant difference between the experimental and control group fathers on the perception of their roles in the pretest score.
5. There is a significant difference between the experimental and control group fathers on the involvement level in the posttest score.
6. There is a significant difference between the experimental and control group fathers on the perception of their roles in the posttest score.

#### 1.4. Significance of the Study

Contrary to the traditional view in which mothers have a significant impact on children's development as primary caregivers, fathers like mothers, have a significant impact on children's development if they take an active role in their children's life.

Fathers have a significant role and responsibility in their children's development and well-being. Fathers can positively affect their children's development, if they take an active role in their lives and involved in contributing to their development.

However, they have little exposure to paternal role models, few social opportunities to prepare for fatherhood, limited institutional supports for the paternal role, and a lack of father-child interactions. Today's fathers are being challenged to alter their parenting roles to accommodate new norms for fathering. Meanwhile many of them are having problems adjusting to these confusing and often conflicting sets of parenting expectations. Therefore, they need support and resources that will enable them to fulfill their responsibility effectively.

Creating parent education and support programs for fathers can be effective means of providing men with the family adaptive resources which allow them to effectively deal with the stressors and strains in their parental role by increasing fathers' perceptions of parental competence as well as some forms of involvement in child rearing (McBride, 1989).

Those programs help men to understand their roles and responsibilities of rearing a child, learn about child development, find out alternative disciplinary methods and appropriate communication skills.

The effects of of parent education and support programs designed specifically for fathers has been found to be effective on paternal involvement and perceptions of parental competence.

However, in Turkey, the importance of paternal involvement has not yet been recognized. Therefore, this study is considered to be significant contribution to focus the educators' attention on firstly how to create training specifically for men in order to provide them with support mechanisms as a means of encouraging them to assume a more active role in raising their young children. Secondly, on how to create the training for the unique needs of father, in other words, the appropriate adaptation of education programs that are designed abroad.

This study is considered to help counselors in reaching out and involving fathers in the parenting activities of the school by creating an example of enriching a kind of educational program for fathers with preschool-aged children.

In addition to this, this training can be considered as life-life learning for fathers; they learn new skills and methods, broaden their repertoire about activities they can do with their children. Moreover, relieving the burden of the mothers and marital satisfaction in the family can be considered as indirect effects of the training.

### **1.5. Definition of Terms**

Paternal involvement: Paternal involvement includes engagement (one-to one interaction), accessibility (potential availability for interaction),and

responsibility (make arrangements for resources to be available for the child) (Lamb, 1986). In this study, it is operationally defined and measured by the Father Involvement Test.

Perceptions of Fathering: Perceptions of fathering has two aspects. One is their perceptions of the general importance of their role in children's development. The second aspect is fathers' beliefs about their actual participation in their children's lives (Palkovitz, 1984). In this study, it is operationally studied and measured by the Role of the Father Questionnaire.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

#### **2.1. Changing Roles of Fathers**

For many years, social scientists have long ignored fathers in the family context, focusing on mothers as the significant figure in infant



development. Most theories of child development have not explicitly integrated the father's role into a family perspective. As a result, fathers were seen secondary and at most played a supporting role for the father.

On the other hand, research indicates that maternal caretaking is not biologically fixed, nor are fathers necessarily restricted to a secondary role in childcare. Turning away from well-worn theories in favor of direct observation, modern studies have revealed a substantial amount about how fathers behave with their children, how this behavior differs from maternal behavior, and how it affects children (Russell & Russell, 1987; Grossman, Pollack & Golding, 1988; Alison & Stewart; 1978).

Traditionally, fathers have been portrayed as uninvolved in child care. Their role as family breadwinner provided a strong but distant model for their children and moral and material support for their wives. Traditional portrait of uninvolved father is oversimplified (Parke, 1996; Lamb, 1997). Today and in earlier times as well, there is no single type of father. Some fathers remain uninvolved, others are active participants, and some fathers are even raising children by themselves.

A variety of technological, economic and ideological changes in our society are redefining what it is to be a father. A new ideology of fatherhood has begun to make inroads into the old stereotype (Parke, 1996; Marsiglio, 1993; LaRossa, 1988; ). A new cultural image of fatherhood has emerged that has pushed aside the earlier portrait of the uninvolved father. Now, many fathers are active partners in parenting and a direct influence on their children's development.

Although the traditional family arrangement with mother as primary homemaker and caregiver and father as breadwinner is one possible of family organizations, in modern society, families exist in a variety of forms (Parke,1996, Cabrera et al, 2000).Changes in the demographic profile of modern families and women increased labor force participation lead new family organizations (Marsiglio, 1993, LaRossa, 1988, Eggebeen &

Uhlenberg, 1985). For instance, high divorce rate creates many single-parent families, and in many families both parents work, and in a few families mother and father reverse roles so that the mother works outside the home and the father stays home with the children. This also leads changes in parent roles, especially the fathers' roles. Although the breadwinner role is still dominant, its importance has changed with being a "sex-role model", and "nurturer".

Changes in the family and in work/family patterns have influenced research on actual father involvement in child rearing, on predictors of fathers' involvement, and on barriers to increased involvement by fathers ( McBride & Rane, 1997). Research on father involvement in these families is especially critical given the dramatic increase in the number of mothers entering the paid labor force in recent decades and in view of increasing societal expectations for fathers to be more actively involved in the care and nurturing of their own children. Societal expectations for fatherhood in the 1900s have shifted from and distant breadwinner of previous generations , to that of the father as equal co-parent. These changes are viewed as being positive for fathers by parents while account for some of the negative perceptions of the impact of changes in societal expectations for mothers (McBride & Rane, 1997). Because economic realities dictate that a majority of today's families will not have the option of one parent, traditionally the mother, staying at home to raise the children

Research on child-father relationships has followed two lines of the study, establishing that infants become attached to their fathers and suggesting that father involvement in child rearing influences child development. How active and involved fathers are in child-care is the one kind of the study that focused on paternal behavior recently. Proving that fathers are as good at parenting as mothers is the main aim of such research. Studies have shown that children can have

equal attachments with both parents as well as show partiality for the father (Lamb, 1977). Children need and appreciate both parents in their lives (Lamb, 1979) when either parent is absent, children are deprived of exposure to an important role model (Lamb, 1979). Parke (1996) considered the father-child relationship within the "family system" and the wider society. Using the "life course" view of fathers that has emerged in recent years, he demonstrated that men enact their fatherhood in a variety of ways in response to their particular social and cultural circumstances. And while it is becoming clear that fathers play an important role in their children's lives, it is also becoming clear that fathering is good for men.

Contemporary research on fathers focuses on the new "culture of fatherhood" (LaRossa, 1998) which highlights the importance of nurturant role of the fathers and the contribution that many fathers make to their families such as providing economic necessities is not acknowledged. Christiansen and Palkovitz (2001) suggested reasons that providing has been overlooked as a form of paternal involvement. These were; a) the assumption that fathers should provide, b) the invisible nature of providing, c) the negative connotations of the traditional provider role and, d) the inadequate conceptualizing of providing. However, providing should be a necessary and important part of the paternal involvement because of its effects on father, child and family well-being and future empirical work on fathers' development should concentrate on the links between providing and other domains of paternal involvement. (Christiansen & Palkovitz, 2001).

In the last twenty years, psychologists and other researchers have examined a long list of questions concerning how involved fathers are with their children, how fathers actually behave with their children, and what

effects this behavior seems to have on the children's development. Moreover, how society influences fathers and fathering, what forms of support are available for fathers to help them learn their roles and perform them effectively, what are the barriers to father's involvement should be explored. Individual, relational, societal, and cultural factors all need to be considered.

It is fact that a father is critical to the optimal development and well-being of a child. Father's role is more than that of economic provider of the past and now includes nurturing , caregiving, and emotional support in both direct and indirect ways.

## **2.2. Lamb's Framework of Paternal Involvement**

There is no clear and consistent definition of father involvement. This lack of consensus in the definitions has become a major obstacle to research on the paternal role. First, Lamb and his colleagues (1986) have proposed a definition of paternal involvement that acknowledges the various forms father participation in childrearing may take.

Category 1 of this model (paternal engagement) involves time spent in actual one-to one interaction with the child. These interactions may include things such as playing with them and feeding them. The engagement was divided into two sub-categories in the study of Lewis (1999); caregiving and play activities. Caregiving activities include changing clothes, bathing the child and feeding the child. Play activities include singing to the child, reading to the child and other stimulating games.

Some studies indicated that in two-parent families, mothers are still the primary figures in the lives of most young children, regardless of

whether they are home all day with children or not (Darling, Fisher & Tiedje, 1990; Lamb, 1979; McBride and Mills, 1993). Even when fathers are capable and present, mothers still perform the majority of care-giving responsibilities. Analyses revealed that mothers interacted with their children more, were more directive, and were more involved in caregiving, whereas fathers' interactions occurred more frequently in the context of play (Russell & Russell, 1987). Studies using African-American samples found that husbands spent a third as much time as their wives did in caregiving activities, which was hardly egalitarian (Ahmeduzzaman & Roopnarine, 1992). Although fathers are less involved in care-giving activities, it is important to note that fathers are skillful at soothing and comforting their distressed infants (Akande, 1994). 1982).

Fathers' and mothers' play styles have been found to differ as well. Fathers were more likely to engage in rough and tumble play and other physically stimulating games with their children (Parke, 1996). In fact, infants appeared to get more enjoyment from physically stimulating games than conventional games (Ninio & Rinott, 1988). Fathers enjoyed playing with their infants and spent more of their engagement time in play than care-giving activities, which was the reverse of typical maternal pattern (McBride & Mills, 1993; Tiedje & Darling-Fisher, 1993).

To sum up, fathers tend to engage in less caregiving activities than mothers although they are fully capable of performing these duties. Instead, fathers spend most of their time engaging in play such as rough and tumble activities with children while mothers are more likely to engage in caregiving activities and less stimulating games. Both fathers and mothers have important and somewhat unique influences on their children's lives.

In Category 2 (accessibility) the father may or may not be directly engaged in interaction but is still physically and psychologically available to his child. Parental accessibility includes time spent in child-related works or time spent in proximity to the child, but does not include interaction with the child. In other words, accessibility is the kind of involvement whereby the parent is doing one thing but ready or available to respond to the child, if the need arises (LaRossa, 1988). For example, the parent might be watching TV while the child plays in the next room.

In Category 3 (Responsibility) the father assumes responsibility for the welfare and care of his child such as making child-care or baby-sitting arrangements. According to Lamb (1986), this is the hardest component to define, but perhaps it is the most important. It does not necessarily involve direct interaction with the child. It includes knowing when the child needs to go to the doctor, making the appointment, and making sure the child gets there. It also involves making sure the child has clothes to wear and attending parent conferences at school. It has been hard for researchers to obtain much information about fathers' involvement in responsibility. The main reason for this is because responsibility is frequently done without interaction with the child such as worrying, planning, thinking. Although fathers' responsibility is hard to observe and gather information on, it is a very critical part of living. Some studies suggested that responsibility is the category in which there is the least participation by fathers (Baruch & Barnett, 1986a; McBride & Mills, 1993). Overall, fathers seem to spend much less time in responsibility roles than mothers do. Baruch and Barnett (1986a, 1986b) found that fathers reported low levels of responsibility. Out of 160 fathers, 113 (71%) reported that they did not take part responsibility

for their children. Fagan (1994) studied mother and father responsibility in child-care center. Transportation and parent-caregiver interaction were examined. It was found that fathers were less involved in transporting their children than mothers.

This model has been influential in recent research on father involvement. Then, Marsiglio (1995) suggests that a multidimensional view of paternal participation in child rearing is needed to advance fatherhood scholarship, and overcome the limitations of previous definitions used for father involvement. Then, Lamb et al. (1987) multidimensional model was used to operationalize father involvement.

### **2.3. Determinants of Father Involvement**

The role of the father has multiple determinants and many factors need to be considered in order to make sense of variations in father's involvement. Parke (1997) claimed that fathers do not simply decide to be involved or uninvolved; rather their participation in family routines evolves out of a system of influences that involve several levels of determinants. Pleck (1997) reviewed studies of paternal involvement by the child's characteristics and paternal characteristics and noted a complex picture. These are individual, family, extrafamilial, formal and cultural influences which do not operate independently but act upon each other in determining father's level of involvement. In addition to this, Lamb has proposed a four component model of determinants of father involvement. These are motivation, skills and self-confidence, support, and institutional factors. With the same aim, the basic model by Belsky (1984) was chosen to guide many studies (Volling & Belsky, 1991). The domains of Belsky's model included a) the characteristics of the father (e.g., personality, attitudes toward

childrearing), b) the characteristics of the child (e.g., age, sex), c) contextual sources of stress and support (e.g., the marital relationship, social network contacts, and occupational experiences)

With respect to fathers' characteristics, several studies indicated that more androgynous and feminine men were more involved with their children than men with more traditional sex-role orientations (Palkovitz, 1984; Deutsch, Lussier & Servis, 1993). Consistent with this evidence were findings indicated that fathers described as more affiliative, caring and nurturant appeared more playful in interaction with their 9-month-old infants (Levy-Shiff & Israelashvili, 1988). In brief, fathers' personality, childrearing attitudes, and sex-role orientation appeared to influence involvement with their children.

The quality of the relationships that fathers have with their own mothers and fathers may be viewed as a possible determinant of their involvement with their own children. There are two main views that guide this inquiry. Social learning theory claims a modeling hypothesis which suggests that men model themselves after their fathers, and that this process will be enhanced if their fathers are nurturant and accessible. Their fathering skills and attitudes are learned from their own fathers. A number of studies suggest that positive relationships with fathers in childhood are related to higher level of involvement as fathers later on. On the other hand, a compensatory or reworking hypothesis claims that fathers tend to compensate or make up for deficiencies in their childhood relationships with their own fathers by becoming more involved when they themselves in this role. Daly's study (1993) was designed to examine how fathers of young children socially constructed and defined the fatherhood identity as they



have emerged from the experiences of fathers themselves. Fathers of young children were interviewed about the sources of their role models for their own fatherhood identity. Results supported the view that some fathers emulated their own fathers while others compensated; still others reported that their fathers had influenced as models. There was no simple or single route to develop an identity as father.

Moreover, the association of paternal involvement with education, occupation, income and socioeconomic status can indicate other important factors that influence the paternal involvement. The data revealed that higher levels of education and family income were associated with greater father involvement in the socialization and care of preschoolers (Ahmeduzzaman & Roopnarine, 1992).

Institutional practices mainly in the workplace is yet another main factor that affects paternal involvement. Fathers' employment characteristics, fathers' work family conflicts and effects of work place policies and practices need to receive attention to see the institution impacting on fathers' involvement. The pressures of work have significant effects. Fathers' work demands are another determinant of involvement. As many studies have found fathers who are highly committed to work and who spend long hours on the job tend to be less involved in fathering activities (Volling & Belsky, 1991; Greenberg & O'Neil, 1990). The study by Yeung et. al. (200 examined children's involvement with their fathers in intact families as measured through time spent together indicated that fathers' wages and work hours have a negative relationship with the time they spend with a child on weekdays, but not on weekends. One explanation for the different time allocation patterns during weekends

offered by authors was that parents still view child rearing responsibility for mothers and only a secondary role for fathers. Only on weekends, when fathers were not constrained by their market work, did fathers share the child rearing responsibilities in a substantial way. The impact of the quality and nature of work on fathers' behavior have been addressed. For instance the positive work experiences, and job's satisfaction may associate with the quality of fathering.

Developmental psychologists have long recognized that parental involvement with children varies by a child age and gender as well as by the parent's life-course stage. In addition to father attributes, characteristics of the child were likely to influence father involvement. Among the most consistent findings in the literature was the lower level of parental involvement with older children (Barnett & Baruch, 1987; Marsiglio, 1991; Pleck, 1997). Studies generally supported the conclusion of earlier reviews that fathers were more involved with sons than with daughters and fathers' involvement declines proportionally less than mothers' as children got older. The study by De Luccie and Davis (1991) examined variations in fathering and father-child relationship from the preschool years through mid-adolescence. One hundred seventy seven fathers with first born children ages 4,8,12,16 years responded to 5 sets of questionnaires tapping four domains of child rearing; practices, attitudes, parental role involvement and role satisfaction. A multivariate analysis of variance identified significant variability among the four age groups in fathers' use of acceptance in childrearing practices, role involvement, satisfaction with paternal role performance and attitudes about the modifiability of child behavior. This study provided additional support for the view of parenting

as dynamic and responsive to the development level and gender-related characteristics of the child. Harris and Morgon (1991) examined cross-sectional differences in fathers' involvement with their adolescent children by using data from The National Survey of Children. The analysis focused on 184 sibpairs and identified factors associated with reliability both within and between siblings. The results presented evidence showing that fathers were more involved with sons than with daughters. However, this gender inequality varied by the gender composition of the resident sibship. The presence of sons drew the father into more active parenting and this greater involvement benefited daughters, who in turn received more but unequal attention from their father. The generalization of fathers' great involvement with sons and age requires some further specification. Other child characteristics that have potentiality to influence paternal involvement have received little attention, therefore, future researchers can study the influences of child characteristics on paternal involvement in debt.

Marital relationship is one of the most important relationship for understanding fathering. Several studies (Brody, Pilliegrini & Sigel, 1986) have revealed that the quality of the marital relationship was an important determinant of fathers' involvement with their children. Supportive marital relationship had important influences because the extent to which the mother permitted participation determined the father's level of participation. The results showed that fathers who perceived their wives as evaluating them positively as fathers were more likely to report higher levels of involvement in child-related activities and place greater importance on the father role identity (Pasley, Futris & Skinner, 2002)

Beside them, maternal employment characteristics can have important roles on the factors of paternal involvement. Mothers' work hours was the single most important predictor of paternal involvement in child-care (Barnett & Baruch, 1987; Deutsch, Lüscher & Servis, 1993). Results indicated that maternal employment moderated the relationship between particular determinants and particular forms of paternal involvement. For example, in dual-earner families, wives' work related variables and sex-role attitudes predicted fathers' participation. Explanation for these results may be that once mothers are out in the paid labor force, the extent of their time in the work force may drive the creation of family structure in which fathers' participation in child care is required.

The next important factor is support, especially support within the family from the mother. Surveys revealed that while many mothers would like their partners to do more and encourage them to be more involved some of them are satisfied with the range and type of activities in which fathers involve, moreover they view breadwinner as a crucial role. Consistent with a family systems view, maternal attitudes should be considered in determining how involved fathers are likely to be with their children. The results showed that fathers who perceived their wives as evaluating them positively as fathers were more likely to report higher level of involvement in child-related activities and placed greater importance on the father role identity (Pasley, Futris & Skinner, 2002).

As Lamb et. al (1987) claimed that mothers have gatekeeping role, either supporting or inhibiting fathers' involvement with their infants. Maternal gatekeeping was defined as a collection of beliefs and behaviors that ultimately inhibit a collaborative effort between men and women in

family work by limiting men's opportunities for learning and growing through caring for home and children. Moreover, in the study of Allen and Hawkins (1999) maternal gatekeeping was conceptualized within the framework of the social construction of gender and was defined as having three dimensions. These dimensions were mothers' reluctance to relinquish responsibility over family matters by setting rigid standards, external validation of a mothering identity, and differentiated conceptions of family roles. These three conceptual dimensions of gate-keeping were operationalized with modest reliability and tested with a confirmatory factor analysis on a sample of 622 dual-earner mothers. With cluster analyses, 21% of the mothers were classified as gatekeepers. Gatekeepers did 5 more hours of family work per week and had less equal divisions of labor than women classified as collaborators. Fathers' involvement is positively related to wives' views of their husbands' competence as caregivers. Viewing their male partners as competent may facilitate their involvement or competent men may be more involved with children which, in turn, shape their wives' attitudes about their competence (Parke, 1997).

Another important support system may be childrearing advice from kin and friends. The significant others in man's life are common sources of general information on parenting (Riley & Cochran, 1985). Friends and relatives provide more specific feedback on one's own parenting, direct help in child care when needed, social support of male involvement in the parenting role, and models for observational learning (Cochran & Brassard, 1979). The social networks of 96 fathers were surveyed by asking "who did men get their childrearing advice, how much men differed in the use of their everyday relationships for childrearing advices." According to survey

results, about a fourth of the men reported no one among their important relationships from whom they derived childrearing advices. Two plausible explanations were offered by the researcher; the first was that these fathers simply were uninvolved in childrearing, the second was that these fathers elected not to or were discouraged from utilizing advices for child rearing advices. Correlations indicated that the men who had the greatest number of interpersonal sources of childrearing advice had large social networks; used a relatively high percentage of their network member for advice were relatively inexperienced parent; were high in salience of the parental role.

All the factors discussed above influenced the motivation of the fathers. According to Lamb (1996) motivation alone cannot guarantee increased involvement. Skills and self-confidence are also necessary. Lack of skills were often complaint of motivated men since it prevented increased involvement and closeness. Since fathers' holding positive beliefs about men's competence with children and men's ability to be close to children can predict the involvement.

By participating formal skill-development programs, relevant skills can be obtained. Several interventions to promote parenting skills among fathers have increased involvement (Levant& Doyle, 1983; McBride, 1990). Educational programs for new fathers that targeted their child-rearing beliefs by focusing on their children's needs and capacities might be also beneficial. Since men have fewer opportunities to acquire and practice skills that are central to caregiving activities during socialization and therefore may benefit more than women from guidance and emotional support (Parke, 1997).

Moreover, fathers need activities that they can involve informally to enjoy doing together. These activities were important since they encourage self-confidence and enjoyment thereby promoted further involvement and sensitivity. According to Lamb (1991) sensitivity and self-confidence are probably more important than specific skills.

Parke (1996) showed the cultural influences as major determinants of father involvement since it is fact that culture we live in provide goals, expectations and norms for our life. Cultural messages begin in childhood shape differences in how men and women approach the task of parenting. Differences in play and work according to a child's gender may influence interests, skills and competencies as we approach adulthood and parenthood.

Contemporary culture offers a new version of the involved father by television, movies and magazines. Films like "Kramer vs Kramer" and "Mr Mom" showed how people around the world were considering the possibilities of modern fatherhood. There are shifts in cultural messages to men concerning the appropriateness of their involvement with their children. It is clear that the cultural ideal of new modern father is at odds with the reality of modern father's involvement. As LaRossa (1988) claimed there is a asynchrony between the cultural and actual worlds of fatherhood which emphasizes the gap between goals and reality has potential negative impact. The number of fathers who feel ambivalent and to a certain extent guilty about their performance has increased. Moreover, it is the middle class fathers who are likely to feel the most ambivalent and suffer from the most guilt. Another consequences of the asynchrony between the modern culture of fatherhood and the traditional conduct of fatherhood are the

emergence of technically present but functionally absent father and an increase in marital conflict in childbearing and childrearing families (LaRossa, 1988). Although this asynchrony has negative impact, it may change and aid in men toward greater involvement as fathers.

#### **2.4. Effects of Father Involvement**

In order to summarize the literature on paternal influences, Lamb (1996) distinguished three research traditions, each of which has contributed in important ways to understanding of paternal roles. These are correlational studies, studies of father absence and divorce and increased involvement. Although these studies indicated their results by using different methods at different times, they have commonalities by underlining the importance of the characteristics of the father as a father rather than the characteristics of the father as a man. Moreover, these studies underscore the variation in the relative importance of different paternal functions or roles across familial, cultural and historical concepts (Lamb, 1996). And Pleck (1996) grouped the research in terms of the consequences of paternal involvement; consequences for children, consequences for mothers and for marriage and consequences for fathers. In recent years, child outcomes associated with paternal warmth, masculinity, socialization practices and relationship characteristics are the main discussion topics.

One of the most important reasons for studying fathers is to examine how their level and particular type of conduct are related to children's emotional, psychological and financial well-being.

Research on the consequences of paternal involvement focuses on both direct and indirect effects. Empirical research on fathering in the 1970s and 1980s concluded that men's positive involvement in children's lives



yields positive results for children's development (Pleck, 1997). Studies noted the positive impact on the child's cognitive development including verbal intelligence and academic achievement (Crockett, Eggebeen & Hawkins, 1993).

In terms of social and emotional development, effects were seen on peer relations, internal locus of control, empathy, gender-role development and identification (McBride, 1989). Akande (1994) illustrated the importance role that fathers played in the infants' social and emotional development. Not only are infants more socially responsive when they were securely attached to both the mother and the father, but it also appeared that a secure attachment to the father can help to prevent harmful consequences. Amato and Rivera (1999) examined associations between paternal involvement and children's outcomes by controlling maternal involvement and therefore by avoiding same-source bias. Structural equation models revealed that positive paternal and maternal involvement were significantly associated with children's behavior problems. In other words, paternal involvement was negatively related to the number of behavior problems exhibited by their children.

The relation between fathers' participation in family work (child-care, home chores) and children's sex role attitudes was examined in an interview study of 160 Caucasian middle-class families (Baruch & Barnett, 1986). Children were stratified by age level, sex and maternal employment status. The direct effects of paternal participation on children's attitudes were weak. Consistent with expectation, there were some evidence in the study, specifically in the multiple regression analyses, that father's performance of traditionally feminine chores was more strongly associated

with reduced stereotyping than were other forms of part. Consistent with this study, Carlson (1984) indicated that fathers who were active in child care were found to be more nurturant and to partake in more housework. Fewer stereotypes about the maternal role were held by girls than by boys; and boys whose parents shared responsibility for child care held fewer stereotypes about paternal role than did boys from traditional families. Another study by Edwards (1987) observed that the common assumption was that boys raised by their mothers and who therefore lack an effective father figure were more likely to score lower on measures of masculinity and to have masculine self concepts and sex-role associations, less aggressive and less competent in peer relation than those whose fathers were present.

It is important to remember that it is the level and type of involvement that benefits the child, not the time the father spends interacting with him (Easterbrooks & Goldberg, 1984). Easterbrooks and Goldberg (1984) investigated associations between characteristics of fathering and toddler development by assessing attitudes, behaviors and extent of father involvement in childrearing. The relative impact of qualitative (attitudes, behavioral sensitivity) and quantitative (amount of time spent with child participation in care-giving act) aspects of fathering was explored. Analyses examining associations among father involvement, parenting characteristic and toddler development demonstrated significant relationships. Results highlighted the salience of qualitative characteristics rather than quantitative characteristics of parenting for toddler development.

For mothers, increased paternal participation evidently will not bring equivalent and unambiguously positive effects for all women; many women

are likely to feel ambivalent about increased paternal involvement because increased involvement, while increasing the woman's opportunities and flexibility, also threatens her status in the one area where her domination and power has been assured (Lamb, Pleck & Levine, 1987).

In terms of indirect effects, the quality of marital relationship is seen to affect father child interaction where it has been found that the more positive the marital relationship, the more involved the father will be in child care.

Marital satisfaction and adjustment may have been viewed as both source and consequence of paternal involvement. Baruch and Barnett (1986) concluded that greater involvement lead fathers to view their wives as less competent parents. If paternal involvement was a cause rather than a result of perceiving low maternal competence, father involvement could be associated with marital conflict.

Concerning mothers perceptions, in the study of Baruch and Barnett (1986) wives reported satisfaction with fathers amount of time with the children when fathers were more involved, fathers themselves perceived their wives as being more dissatisfied with them. Another study by Kalmijn (1999) showed that when fathers were more involved in childrearing, they had stable marriage. According to Kalmijn (1999) involved fathers had a stable marriages, not because they have much investment to lose after a possible breakup, but because the wife was happier if the husband was strongly involved with children. To sum up, we can claim that increased paternal involvement entails both costs and benefits for marriage.

In terms of effects for fathers, it is a fact that involvement influence fathers' well-being. For fathers, higher levels of participation were associated with feeling more involved and competent as a parent (Baruch & Barnett, 1986). The study by Eggebeen and Knoester (2001) explored possible effects on the lives and well-being of men for a range of fatherhood experiences. Data drawn from the National Survey of Families and Households showed strong evidence that fathers differed from nonfathers in their social connections, family relationships and work behavior and the effects of father involvement on men was found to be most significant for those who were living with their own children.

In fathers of preschoolers, work-family role strain was lowest when their pattern of role commitments entails low work commitment and high parental commitment (Greenberg & O'Neil, 1990). When job role quality and marital role quality was controlled, fathers' parental role quality was an important predictor of psychological distress. Although high involvement was associated with desirable outcomes, these outcomes did not occur in all context. Fathers were more likely to experience the problems of parenting as well as its pleasures (Baruch & Barnett, 1986). While an active father gained rewards from his involvement, he was likely to experience some disappointing consequences, as well. The study by Hawkins and Belsky (1989) found that fathers of boys decreased in self-esteem across the transition to parenthood. This change in self-esteem was predicted by father involvement with his child, with more involved fathers declining most in self-esteem. The difficulties of involved parenthood, however ultimately may serve as catalysts to healthy adult development (Hawkins & Belsky, 1989).

More involved fathers felt that they lack time for their careers and their family responsibilities interfered with their work, but they also felt less strain in their family role performance (Baruch & Barnett, 1986; Barnett, Marshall & Pleck, 1992). In dual earner families, more involved fathers experience more work-family stress, although in single earner families they report less stress (Volling & Belsky, 1991).

Another study (Hawkins & Belsky, 1989) indicated that fathers of boys generally declined in self-esteem over the transition while the fathers of girls increased in self-esteem and the opposite pattern on a measure of interpersonal affect is shown. One possible explanation of the decline in the self-esteem among fathers of boys is that boys are more difficult to care for and fathers of boys are more involved with them.

To sum up, increased paternal involvement promises both advantages and disadvantages to fathers themselves. Increased paternal involvement exacts some cost for fathers in the short run such as increased levels of work-family conflict and decreased self-esteem. However, in the long term, high involvement has a greater positive effect on the potential for personal fulfilment through closer, richer relationships to one's children (Lamb, Pleck & Levine, 1987). As in the case of mothers, the relative evaluation of the costs and benefits depends on the individual's values and aspirations as well as both economic and social circumstances.

## **2.5. Parent Education**

Parent education is a complex field with a long history. The need for effective parenting skills has led to the development of approaches to train parents in skills seen as necessary for a harmonious parent-child

relationship and for the amelioration of a number of childhood problems. It includes educational efforts that attempt to enhance or facilitate parent behaviors. Effective parenting requires a significant investment of time and energy on the part of the parent. Because parents should meet the essential needs of life such as food, clothing, health care, nurturance and love. Moreover, they have an important role in shaping a child's attitude, confidence and skills in engaging the world. Common assumption that parent-education programs have been based on is that parent play a central role in the their children's development, they need additional information and support to assist them in this role. Parent education is distinguished from clinical or counseling approach to helping parents by its focus on building strengths in families in order to prevent subsequent problems (Smith, Perou & Lesesne, 2002)

Realizing and acknowledging that there is no job as important as parenting to the welfare of the society, dramatic cultural and social changes and increase in the knowledge of child development and the importance of effective parenting practices on positive outcomes for children are three important contributions to the widespread interest in parenting education that have occurred in the United States over the last century (Smith, Perou & Lesesne, 2002).

The major expansion in this field was in the 1970's, when attractive programs were designed to improve parenting effectiveness by providing a clear parenting philosophy and a set of skills and strategies. Example of some of these programs are Parent Effectiveness Training (P.E.T) developed by Gordon (1975) who made use of the concepts and

techniques of Carl Rogers and Systematic Training for Effective Parenting (S.T.E.P) that draws on the work of the Adlerian Rudolf Dreikurs.

Focusing on groups which educate parents in groups, the various approaches can be classified according to their pedagogical method and theoretical orientation. There is no single model of parent education. It involves a wide range of strategies. With regard to method, while some emphasize group discussion and didactic methods, some others emphasize the systematic development of skill through a combination of didactic and experiential processes. In didactical discussion, more time is spent in a structured presentation of didactic material when compared with discussion groups. The philosophical or theoretical foundation of the program is an important factor that may be considered when looking at parent education. With regard to theoretical orientation, programs have been developed from client-centered to behavioral. Smith and colleagues (2002) grouped universal programs into three broad categories; reflective, Adlerian and behavioral.

Reflective programs are based on philosophy of Carl Rogers. By this approach, parents learn to recognize, understand and accept their children's feelings and resolve conflicts using no-blame approach. Three basic techniques- active listening, I-messages, and the no-lose method- are taught in this approach. One example of such program is Parent Effectiveness Training P.E.T. which was created by Thomas Gordon in the 1960's. This was one of the original parenting education programs in the United States. It is a formally structured course of eight 3-hour training sessions. It begins by teaching parents to understand their children's

behavior as acceptable or unacceptable, and emphasizes therapeutic or active listening skills.

Adlerian parenting programs are based on the theories of Alfred Adler. Dreikus and Dinkmeyer applied Adlerian theories to childrearing in developing their parenting programs. In Adlerian programs, parents are encouraged to establish democratic households with firm, clear and consistent family rules. The STEP program is based on the assumptions of Adlerian theory that all behavior occurs for a special purpose and that people are decision making social beings. STEP includes the concepts of natural and logical consequences. It is a formally structured course of nine 2-hour sessions. It teaches a philosophy of family life and a set of childrearing skills that are intended to promote cooperation in the family, positive relationships, and independence in the children.

Behavioral parenting programs are based on the theories of B.F. Skinner. These programs utilize behaviorists theories and practices to modify child behaviors. Parents are taught how to eliminate unwanted behaviors and promote desired behaviors in their children. In general, these programs teach a philosophy of social behavior and a set of parenting skills to decrease negative and disturbing interactions between parents and children and to increase positive interactions. A great deal of emphasis is placed on helping parents use more specific rather than global descriptions of their child's behavior.

The study by Pinsker & Geoffroy (1981) was designed to make comparison using the behavior modification program and the communication training program (Parent Effectiveness Training) developed by Gordon (1970). The results of this study indicated that the Behavior



Modification workshop effectively reduced deviant child behaviors and parental perceptions of problem child behaviors, while the parent Effectiveness Training group effectively increased family cohesion and decreased family conflict. Both groups significantly increased respective knowledge of the techniques involved. It is the authors opinion that one type of parent training approach does not comprehensively remediate all difficulties that can occur with child management. Another study done by Noller and Taylor (1989) indicated that either in Parent Effectiveness Training P.E.T., or in Systematic Training for Effective Parenting, STEP, courses were generally seen as beneficial, and there were no differences in perceived effectiveness between P.E.T. and STEP. Couples where both members were participated perceive the course as no more effective than do those where only one member participated and low marital adjustment subjects rate their relationships as improved over the course.

#### 2.6. Parent Education Programs For Fathers

Since fathers were seen as breadwinner and perhaps assistant parents, mothers became the primary audience, and fathers were perceived to benefit from a trickle down of knowledge and skills through mothers. In general, many more mothers attend parent education courses than fathers, a small percentage of parents attend as couples (Noller & Taylor, 1989).

Until very recently parent education for fathers has been a badly neglected area (Levant, 1988). There are few published parent education and support programs geared specifically for fathers. Even less work has been done of an empirical nature examining the impact of such programs (Levant, 1988).

In the past few years, this picture has begun to change. Changes began in the late 1970s when a number of different programs for fathers in special programs were created to help support and educate fathers. The 1980s became a time to include fathers in programs by adopting an androgynous or generic concept of parenthood. This approach included fathers not by stressing their unique needs based on family structure by accepting fathers as copartners. The thrust of programs during the 1980s was the support of more involved and nurturant fathers. The themes in the 1990s are creating responsible fathers and raising the standards for fatherhood.

Since the roles of fathers have been changing rapidly in recent years, they are being asked to become more involved in childrearing, however they have found themselves unprepared to assume an active parental role because of less experience than have women in taking care of young children and insufficient foundation for parenting. Palkovitz (1984) has suggested several reasons why fathers might be unprepared for an active parental role; little exposure to paternal role models, few social opportunities to prepare for fatherhood, limited institutional supports for the paternal role, and a lack of father-child interactions.

This lack of preparation and social support contributes to the stress they experience in the parental role that may be critical when fathers attempt to become more involved in child-rearing activities and work at becoming more comfortable and confident as parents (McBride, 1989a; Levant, 1988). Therefore, providing men with the family adaptive resources which allow them to effectively deal with the stressors and strains in their parental role by increasing fathers' perceptions of parental competence as

well as some forms of involvement in child rearing is the most important reason of creating parent education and support programs for fathers (McBride, 1989a). The study of McBride (1989b) examined the relationship between the stress fathers are experiencing in their parental role and their perceived sense of competence in parenting skills. Data collected from 94 fathers revealed significant relationships between various parental stress factors and the fathers' perceptions of competence in parenting. Regression analyses suggested the fathers' sense of depression in their parental role and perceptions of their children's demandingness to be the best predictors of their perceived parental competence.

Another important reason of parent education and support programs for fathers is to bridge the gap between the expectations for fathers to be more involved (the culture of fatherhood) and their actual levels of involvement (the conduct of fatherhood) as well as to increase the parenting options for fathers (McBride, 1989a). Since, the asynchrony between the expectations for fathers to be more involved and their actual levels of involvement leads feelings of ambivalence on the part of the fathers (LaRossa, 1988).

The findings of the study by McBride (1991) that had the aim of examining the impact of parent education and support programs designed specifically for fathers on paternal involvement and perceptions of paternal competence suggested that such programs may be an effective means of increasing the amount of participation men have in childrearing activities. Significant program effects were found for responsibility forms of involvement, as well as for non-workday accessibility categories of

involvement. In addition to this, effects were found on the fathers' perceived sense of competence in parenting.

One of the few studies specifically examining the effects of parent education for fathers on their involvement level with their children appears to hold promise for such programs. In the study of Levant and Doyle (1983), the fathers of school-aged children (6-12 years old) participated in an 8-week parent education program. Significant improvement occurred in the fathers' communication skills with their children and in the children's perceptions of father-child relationships.

A clearer understanding of the antecedents of paternal involvement, and redefining of fatherhood in light of changing societal perceptions is needed to develop and implement programs specifically for fathers. The perception of the fathers' role as breadwinner and supporter for the mother is no longer valid in guiding the development of such programs. Moreover, such programs should reflect fathers' concerns and be sensitive to fathers' needs, since they have different goals, styles, skills and knowledge bases. Because there are some positive characteristics that men bring to parenting from their socialization as males. These are playfulness, promoting risk taking, encouraging problem solving, and providing sense of security. According to Palm (1997) instead of labeling fathers as deadbeat dads and punishing them, developing support and education services should help them move toward generative fathering.

Therefore, the curricula of parent education classes for men need to reflect fathers' unique styles of parent-child interaction and must reflect the context in which fathers and children interact by avoiding the tendency to see the characteristics of female socialization as the only model for good

model (Meyers, 1993). The main topics may be increasing knowledge about caregiving, increasing involvement with children, providing social support, and enhancing communication skills for both marital and child-father relation. Knowledge about caregiving is needed due to fathers' lack of preparatory socialization experiences (Levant & Doyle, 1983).

According to Levant (1988) attention to the father's role has become evident in all three fields of parent education- pre-parent programs, new parent programs and child rearing programs. Pre-parent programs provide education for parenthood for young adults. Childcare classes for school aged boys and programs that encourage adult male involvement in the school setting are two newer types of these programs. An indication of the increasing recognition of the father's role in the family is the development of education programs for new fathers (Levant, 1988). There are three types of such programs; the first involves the inclusion of fathers in childbirth education classes whereas the second type involves fathers and their preschool-aged children in various activities. The third focuses on the growing number of teenage fathers by aiming to support their relationship to his family. On the other hand, childrearing programs for fathers include discussion groups, didactic/discussion program and skill-training programs. Discussion groups have emerged and sponsored by parent centers reaching out to fathers, and informally by group of fathers themselves. Didactic/discussion programs combine discussion with didactic input. The skills-training programs, which seek to enhance parenting skills through direct training, include both client-centered and behavioral approaches. The client-centered approach includes Levant's Personal Development Program (Levant & Doyle, 1983) and The Parent-Adolescent Relationship

Development Program, or PARD (Grando & Ginsberg, 1976), which will be discussed in more detail in the previous pages. The behavioral approach, known as Behavioral Parent Training (BPT) involves the use of parent training as a method of treating emotionally disturbed children.

Findings of the few studies of programs for men of preschool-aged children and older suggest they can be effective in increasing fathers' perceptions of parental competence and some forms of paternal involvement (McBride, 1990, 1991), in increasing communication skills with their children (Levant & Doyle, 1983), and in decreasing the amount of stress they experience.

Since play is a comfortable mode of paternal interaction, parent education programs can incorporate play-based intervention procedures to teach communication skills and sensitivity to child behavior. McBride (1990) investigated the effects of parent education/ play group program on the types of involvement fathers have with their children and on their perceived sense of competence in parenting skills. The treatment group father-child pairs in this study participated in a parent education/ play group program that met for 2 hours on 10 consecutive sessions. This program had two major components; group discussion and father-child play time. At the father-child play time, fathers and their children participated in structured and non-structured preschool-type of activities. This portion of the program allowed the fathers to explore and discover different ways of interacting with their children and to develop sensitivity to the needs of their children. Pilot work of this study revealed that fathers viewed this time with their children as an opportunity to experience first hand some of the developmental patterns.

One way to provide social support is to encourage the discussion of fathers' child rearing difficulties and to foster a supportive environment within the context of the program. In the study mentioned above, McBride (1990) utilized a discussion group format as one component in his caregiver education program for fathers. One hour of each weekly treatment session was spent in group discussions. Each discussion session was designed to address one or more types of paternal involvement. A discussion group format for this portion of the treatment was selected due to the tendency of other more didactic parent education programs such as Parent Effectiveness Training (P.E.T.), Adlerian, and Behavioral approaches. The discussion group format allowed the curriculum to be adapted to the fathers' background experiences, concerns and perceptions thus keeping the fatherhood as the primary focus. The fathers actively participated in discussions on topics such as discipline, education, sibling rivalry ages and stages of development, and in the process, contributed their own personal feelings and experiences as parents. Findings of this study indicated the significant increases in fathers' sense of competence on the Value/Comfort subscale by taking these discussions with the support provided by other fathers in the group into account.

Education programs should also focus on the enhancement of communication skills between parent and child as mechanism for conveying greater sensitivity to the child's needs and feelings. For instance, Parent effectiveness Training (Gordon, 1970) is a national parent education program in which specific skills are demonstrated and modeled by the instructor and then by the participants. Therefore, parents learn to use facilitative communication skills in responding to their children and are

taught to utilize passive listening skills, open-ended questions, and active listening skills. The principles of Parent Effectiveness Training have been adopted by Grando and Ginsberg (1976) for fathers. The parent-Adolescent Relationship Development (PARD) program teaches fathers and their adolescent sons communication skills including openness and empathy. Besides improving communication and relationship the PARD program is seen as meeting individual and family developmental needs and the consequent adjustment in relationship (Grando & Ginsberg, 1976). Similarly, the Boston University Fatherhood Project (Levant & Doyle, 1983) which offered a course for married and single fathers emphasizes the development of communication and conflict resolution skills by focusing on : a) listening and responding to children b) speaking for oneself and acceptance. This course teach fathers communication skills- particularly learning to listen, respond to their children's feelings and to express their own feelings in a constructive manner. In addition it teaches fathers about child development and child management. The Fatherhood Course has been evaluated (Levant & Doyle, 1983). Experimental group fathers, their wives and one of their children were compared to control group families before and after training on several paper-and-pencil measures. The evaluation found that training resulted in an improvement in fathers' communication skills-specifically, a significant increase in overall sensitivity, a significant reduction in the use of undesirable responses, and a trend toward increased acceptance of the child's expression of feelings.

All studies specifically examined the effects of parent education for fathers indicated us that parent education programs must be structurally amenable and functionally pertinent to paternal needs in order to change



the traditional picture in which more mothers attend parent education courses more than father (Grando & Ginsberg,1976; Fagan & Iglesias, 1999; McBride, 1990; McBride, 1991; McBride, 1989a; McBride,1989b; Levant & Doyle, 1983; Beale, 1999). Changes in the content and structure of parent training curricula are needed. Curricula should address issues including enhancing child communication skills, providing social support, increasing paternal involvement, and providing child-care knowledge. In addition to this, active and strategic recruitment efforts should be used in order to increase male participation in parent education program. Palm and Palkovitz (1988) encouraged family life educators to plan advertisement carefully as an initial step. And a second step was to arrange convenient locations and time of classes for fathers to maximize attendance after enrollment.

#### 2.7. Parent Education Programs for Fathers in Turkey

Although the recent interest on an international level suggests the importance of such studies and of intervention programs, studies focusing on fathers are almost non-existent In Turkey.

In Turkey, firstly the importance of Parental Involvement has been emphasized. A longitudinal study was conducted by Kağıtçıbaşı (1991) over a period of 4-year for preschool children on the effects of Parental Involvement on the students' academic and social performance.

Another project has been conducted at TED Ankara College by Akkök (1998), in the elementary school by involving parents to improve the student's self-esteem, social and academic development. In this study, parents were informed about their child development, activities done in the class and how to help their children at home for an academic year.

On this way, Utku (1999) developed an example of a parental involvement program for the 6<sup>th</sup> grade students whose parents were actively involved and explored the effects of a Parental Involvement in the academic and social skills of those children. Results showed that there was a significant difference between the gain scores of experimental and control group in the Turkish academic achievement test. Although, other results show no difference between two groups, the observations that were collected from teachers and parent stated that the program contributed positively to the children's social and academic achievement.

Still, many parenting programs are only implemented with mothers because they are easier to reach and are seen as the primary caregivers. "Ana-Baba Okulu Projesi" which was designed by Yavuzer has been continued since 1989. In this program, not only mothers but also the fathers were the target group by giving information about child development, communication skills and their influences on children's success at the school.

For the first time in Turkey, education program named "Baba Aday Eğitim Programı" was implemented from 1997 to 2000 in order to support both the infant and the family's physical and psychological health during the pregnancy, birth and for the first years after the birth (Molzan, 2001). Therefore, the program included information about pregnancy, pregnancy control, nutrition and care of the infant.

In 1996, The Mother Child Education Foundation (MOCEF) developed The Father Enrichment Program to support fathers in the development of their children 3-9 years of age. The Father Enrichment Program had the purpose to fulfill a need in Turkey for parent education programs focusing on fathers that will not only benefit children but also other members in the family. This attempt by MOCEF has paved the way for other researchers and educators

to focus on the need for fathers to be involved in child care and child development.

The main goals of the program were to help the fathers realize that they are very important in their children's lives, to increase fathers' awareness of their children's needs, and to increase father's participation in their children's development. Various topics included in the program were implemented in the form of group discussions, games, and role-playing. The program consisted of twelve sessions for two hours with approximately fifteen fathers.

By group discussions, the importance of fathers in the child's life and development was imparted. Moreover, the program aimed to provide several practical ideas to the father in how he can support the child's development during limited time periods, because fathers often complain about not seeing their children and that they therefore cannot be active or effective enough in their children's life because of the work outside the home for long hours. The information is given about the physical, cognitive and personality development of children in order to make the father aware of his own child's needs so that he can see what he can do to meet these needs appropriately. The program also aims to support fathers in their relationships with their children by teaching them positive disciplinary methods and communication skills.

Furthermore, Şahin (1998) also prepared an educational program according to the needs of fathers and evaluated the outcomes of this program on fathers. The needs of fathers in this education program have developmental properties of their children, appropriate communication skills, dealing with inappropriate behavior of their children and the importance of father-child relations. The results of this study indicated that

at the end of the education program it was found that there were a significant differences between the two groups in the items that is related with the father-child relationship.

All of these implications indicate that the parent education program for fathers started to gain importance; both civil and public organizations attended the importance of father role in child development. Yet, this was a new field and need culturally appropriate implementations.

## CHAPTER 3

### METHOD

In the previous chapters, problems hypotheses of the study were presented, related literature was reviewed accordingly and the significance of the study was justified. In the following chapter, sampling, description of the variables, instruments of the study, procedure methods used to analyze and assumptions and limitations will be explained briefly.

This study investigated the effects of paternal involvement training on the involvement level of fathers and the perceptions of their fathering roles.

The experimental design was used in which 2 groups were compared on pre-test and post-test measures. The experimental group was given a six-week training whereas the control group was not given a training.

#### **3.1. Population and Sample Selection**

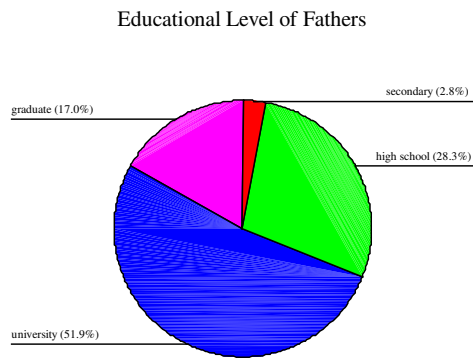
The sample of this study was composed of 20 fathers (10 treatment, 10 control). This study was carried out at O.D.T.Ü preschool and kindergarten which only accepts the children of the faculty member, administrative staff and graduates of METU at the university campus.

Fathers of preschool-aged children were identified as target group subjects for three reasons: 1. The rapid growth and development that children experience at this age, along with the impact of familial influences

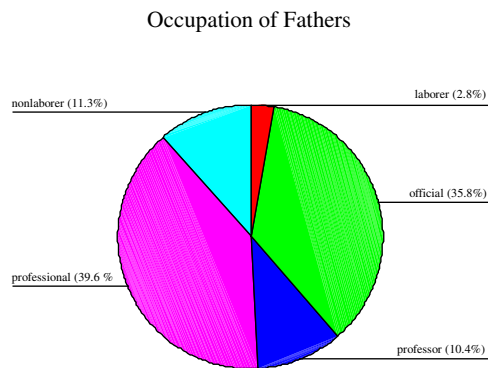
on this development (Minuchin, 1987); 2. The lack of preparation for effective parenting by many men during this important period of their child's development (Klinman & Vukelich, 1985); and 3. The scarcity of research examining the impact of intervention trainings with fathers of preschool-aged children or older (Levant, 1988).

There are 185 children aged between 3 to 6 and their parents at school. One hundred eighty-five questionnaires were sent home with children and mothers. Fathers were asked to fill them out. Only, one hundred and six fathers filled out the questionnaires and returned them in the reply envelope provided. Figure 3.1 and Figure 3.2 describe educational level and occupation of the population respectively. Demographic information form collected from 106 parents described that the mean age for fathers was 38.68 years (range, 29 to 52 years), and the mean age of the mothers was 35.17 years (range, 24 to 44). Fifty-five fathers (51.9%) of the pilot study had two, forty-eight (45.3%) had only one child, and 3 (2.8) had three children. Fifty-three (51%) of them were girls and the fifty-one (49%) of them were boys.

The education level of fathers was high. 17% had advanced degrees, 51.9% were university graduates. Thirty-eight (35.8%) were officials at the university campus, eleven (10.4%) were professors and forty (39.6%) were employed as a professional outside the university. The most considerable result was that 92.5% of fathers had working wives.



**Figure 3.1** Frequencies of Educational Level of Fathers



**Figure 3.2** Frequencies of Occupation of Fathers

Subjects were volunteered to participate in the study identified through flyers in M.E.T.U preschool where the study took place. A “wait-list” control group technique was intended to be used in order to control for the “intent” of those fathers who expressed a desire to participate in the intervention training. Among the one hundred and six fathers who have returned the forms, only ten volunteered to participate in the study. Since this study required the intense contribution and involvement of the fathers for six weeks, the control group was chosen randomly from the rest. The

written materials given through the training were distributed to control group fathers with the post-tests.

The Table 3.1 represents the characteristics of the sample. Mean age for the subjects in the experimental group was 38.7 with a range of 32 to 45. Mean age for the children was 68.4 months. The education level was high; two of them had an advanced degree, five of them were university graduates while two of them were high school and only one was secondary school graduates. All fathers except one were working at university campus; six of them were officials, two of them were laborers and academicians respectively. Among these fathers, only one of them had an irregular work.

All men participating in the training were the natural fathers, and all were living with their children's mothers. All of the fathers had spouses who were employed outside the home.

The control group consisted of ten fathers. The mean age for the fathers in experimental group was 38.9 and the mean age for the children 64,4 months. The education level was high; two of them had advanced levels, six of them had university degrees and the rest had high school diplomas. All fathers worked at the university campus as officials, technicians and academicians. Among these fathers, only two of them had an irregular work. All men in the control group were natural fathers and all were living with their children's mothers.



**Table 3.1** Characteristics of the Sample

Variable	Experimental n	Control n	Combined n/%
<b>Gender of child</b>			
boy	6	5	11 (55%)
girl	4	5	9 (45%)
<b>Total children</b>			
1	7	4	11 (55%)
2	3	5	8 (40%)
3		1	1 (5%)
<b>Fathers' education</b>			
secondary	1		1 (5%)
highschool	2	2	4 (20%)
university	5	6	11 (55%)
advanced	2	2	4 (20%)
<b>Mothers' education</b>			
primary		1	1 (5%)
secondary	1		1 (5%)
highschool	3	3	6 (30%)
university	6	5	11 (55%)
advanced		1	1 (5%)
<b>Maternal Employment</b>			
Yes	10	7	17 (85%)
No		3	3 (15%)
<b>Fathers' age (years)</b>	M=38.7 SD=4.24	M=38.9 SD=5.91	M=38.8 (32-52) SD=5.01
<b>Child's age (months)</b>	M=64.8 SD=6.5	M=64.4 SD=10.1	M=64.6 (49-77) SD=8.32
<b>Time in job (hours)</b>	M=10.10 SD=.57	M=10.50 SD= 1.27	M=10.30 (9-12) SD=.98

### 3.2. Data Collection Instruments

#### 3.2.1 Demographic Information

Demographic information (Appendix A) regarding the age, educational level and occupational status of both parents were collected. In addition to this, time in job was considered by asking the time parents arrived at and left their job. These findings were used to describe the profile of the sample.

### **3.2.2 Father Involvement Level Test**

The questions of this test were included in an interview that was developed by Evans (1997), containing predominantly structured questions to establish fathers' attitudes and involvement in their fatherhood role. Fathers were asked about their involvement to the division of family labor between husband and wife for certain child-rearing activities. The extent of fathers' involvement in child-related family activities and role sharing was divided into sections according to Lamb's taxonomy (Lamb, 1987). Thus sections were divided according to whether behavior could be categorized as: engagement (types of interaction), availability (physical and psychological presence) and responsibility (remembering, planning and scheduling activities and events for the child). They were asked who should have the main responsibility for child care activities such as bathing and dressing the child, who is the responsible for controlling the behavior of the child, who makes decisions about the child's future education and occupation. Responses were categorical and fell into the categories "father", "mother", "both parents", or "other".

Some of these questions were also used in the study of Şahin (1998) to assess the level of father involvement after the implication of the training.

The Father Involvement Test (Appendix B) was used in this study to find out fathers' degree of involvement in child-care activities by asking in what ways they were involved different caregiving tasks. The items in the test such as calming down the children, talking to child, playing with the child, taking to the doctor were similar to ones in The Child Care Scale

(Hossain & Roopnarine, 1993) which was used in the study of Lewis (1999) to find out fathers degree of involvement in caretaking activities and play.

These questions were firstly used in the pilot study by the researcher. One hundred and eighty-five questionnaires were sent home with children. Both fathers and mothers were asked to fill them out separately. 58% of the questionnaires were completed and returned in the reply envelope provided. The Cronbach's alpha for pilot study is calculated as 0.75 for 25 questions. The findings indicated that reliability of the Father Involvement Level Test was on the acceptable level.

### **3.2.3 The Role of The Father Questionnaire**

The role of the Father Questionnaire (ROFQ) was developed by Palkovitz (1984). This questionnaire measures the extent that a parent believed the father's role was important to child development. The ROFQ is 15-item Likert scales ranging from agree strongly (5) to disagree strongly (1). The participant indicated a level of agreement or disagreement along a 5- point Likert scale to each statement. Total scores on this scale could range from 15 to 75. Higher scores reflect an attitude that fathers are capable of and should show involvement with and sensitivity to their children.

A revised version of the ROFQ adapted for the preschool-aged children. In this version, the word baby was changed to young children so the differences in the two measures were slight. Internal consistency of the adapted measure was 0.77 for fathers. Construct validity was also supported by statistical significant correlations between the ROFQ and fathers' level of involvement in child rearing.

Two items, number 2 and 10 were removed in the Lewis' study (1999) to increase the scale's internal consistency. Once these items were taken out the reliability was found 0.73. Hence the total ROFQ scores could range from 13 to 65.

The items of the questionnaire were adapted into Turkish in order to assess how fathers perceive their roles in child development. Each item was translated to Turkish by the three research assistants who were both competent in English and Turkish, then English and Turkish forms were compared by the two other researchers and wording of problematic words were evaluated and corrected carefully. After translation studies, the test was given to fathers of children at M.E.T.U. preschool. 106 fathers out of 185 filled out the questionnaire voluntarily and returned them in the reply envelope provided. The Cronbach's alpha for pilot study is calculated as 0.64. The findings indicated that reliability of the ROFQ was on the acceptable level.

The Role of The Father Questionnaire (Appendix C) was used in this study to reflect the perceptions that fathers were capable of and should show involvement with and sensitivity to their children.

### **3.3 Procedure**

As Palm and Palkovitz (1988) encouraged parent educators to plan advertisement carefully and distribute this information through strategic channels, before the study began, a variety of procedures were used to recruit fathers from the M.E.T.U Preschool. The researcher 1) distributed notices to fathers and mothers invite them to participate, 2) contacted

fathers, 3) made announcement about the training program on the bulletin of the preschool, 4) sought help from teachers of the preschool.

Fathers who agreed to participate in the training program were given an appointment for the first meeting. 12 fathers participated for the first meeting.

Implementation of the training took 6 weeks. The implementation was carried out once in a week. The time of the training was a crucial point because most of the fathers were working as an official at M.E.T.U. Since the locations and times of classes must be convenient for fathers in order to maximize attendance after enrollment (Meyers, 1993); the time of the sessions was decided to be at the lunch break. The sessions generally took 90 minutes. As Palm and Palkovitz (1988) claimed that parent educators need to create an environment where men will feel both comfortable and welcome, the practice class especially designed for early childhood education was used in all the meetings.

In general, the training aimed to help the fathers realize that they are very important in their children's lives, to increase fathers' participation in their children's development, to increase fathers' awareness of their children's needs and to increase their sensitivity to children's needs and fostering developmentally appropriate parenting skills. Therefore, the most salient topics for the training were increasing involvement with children, increasing knowledge about child development and enhancing father-child communication skills and promoting alternative discipline methods.

Increasing knowledge about child development was crucial in this training in the light of information that many fathers experience a greater need due to their lack of preparatory socialization experiences (Levant &

Doyle, 1983). Another potential goal was to increase fathers' involvement to the level they aspired because many fathers have the desire to participate in their children's lives (Meyers, 1993). Training not only explained the benefits of positive paternal involvement but also provided fathers with interesting activities that enhance levels of interaction between father and child. Furthermore, it stressed the importance of participating in mutually enjoyable activities on a regular basis, promoted the establishment of daily rituals between father and child. By this way, the training aimed to encourage fathers to devote more time to their children.

As many reflective education programs focused on the enhancement of communication skills between parent and child as mechanism for conveying greater sensitivity to the child's needs and feelings, this program included enhancement of communication skills for the need for the development of expressive skills for fathers. On the basis of Parent Effectiveness Training (Gordon, 1970) fathers were taught to use facilitative communication skills in responding to their children and to utilize passive listening skills, open-ended questions, and active listening. Furthermore they learned to confront children's unacceptable behavior by using statements that are limited to the fathers' own feelings (I-messages).

The training consisted of group discussions, games, role-playing. Introduction and definition of a particular skill was given in a brief lecture, then practice of the skill was done in role-play exercises. The goal of the role-plays is to have the father learn the skills and apply them to his interaction with his child. The intent when the father role plays child is to help the father develop an appreciation of the child's point of view, and also to learn how his child experiences. This learning can be quite profound in

helping fathers modify their approach their children (Levant, 1988). Homework assignments were given to transfer the skill to the interaction with their children.

In the 6 week training, first week was considered as the warm up session and the last week as a closing session. The training was offered as an educational training. It was not held out as counseling; they were not required to talk about their feelings. However, the training allowed fathers to come together to share and discuss different aspects of being a father. According to McBride (1989) this may be seen as a way of alleviating sources of parental sources.

The instruments the Father Involvement Test and the Role of The Father Questionnaire were administered as pre and post-tests before and after the training.

### **3.4 Overview of the Sessions**

#### **First Session**

The main purpose of this session is to impart the importance of fathers in the child's life and development. The first half of the session began with the warm-up activity called "Pikniğe Gidiyoruz" (Acar, 2002). The purpose of the first activity was to give them a chance to introduce themselves to other group members. Then the training was introduced to the group members by the file (Appendix D) prepared by the researcher. Before introducing the training, each father had expressed his expectations from the training. The guidelines that everyone in the group can agree to live by were set up.

On the second half of the session, discussion on the changing roles of the fathers and view of their own fathers and their own fatherhood was conducted. Then, they compared their roles with their wives in the child development. This discussion was supported with the cartoon (Appendix E) drawn by Madra (2001).

Since the aim of this session was to impart the importance of father role in child development, a brief lecture about the importance of fathers in child development was given within the group discussion. Handout (Appendix F) about the importance of the father in child development was distributed to the participants.

At the end of the session, "How Well Do You Know Your Child" (Beale, 1999) questionnaire (Appendix G) was given as a homework assignment. This was a fun activity designed to assist fathers in assessing their level of understanding of their children in an interactive and informative way (Beale, 1999). The activity allowed fathers to test their awareness of their children's preferences and values. The participants were asked to answer 25 questions about their children's likes, dislikes and daily habits. In order to determine which of their answers were correct, they must have consulted with their sons and daughters. After the fathers had answered all the questions, they were asked to interview their children to determine the correct answers.

This session was ended by asking fathers to think about the three most important wishes in their relationship with their children.



## Second Session

Since the training aims to make fathers aware of the quality of time they spend with their children, several practical ideas were given to the father to support the child's development effectively during limited periods. By this way, the training was designed to increase fathers' participation in their children's development.

Before the practical ideas were shared with fathers, the story called "Bir Hikaye" (Appendix H) (Ailelere İpuçu, 2000) was read aloud to fathers in order to help them to be aware of the importance of the time they spent with children. The message that was intended to be given by children was discussed in the group. Generally, fathers expressed that the child in this story wanted to spend much time with his father. Then the researcher asked them what they would do if they had come across with the same response. They expressed that they would be shocked but would try to compensate time they could not have spend with their children. Then the importance of the time they spend with their children was underlined again with the cartoons drawn by Madra (2001) .

In the second half of the session, the information about the physical, cognitive, psychosocial development of children was given to fathers in order to increase their sensitivity to children's needs and to foster developmentally appropriate skills. These information were taken from the popular books written for parents and educators (Yavuzer, 2002; Yörükoğlu,2002; 36-72 Aylık Çocuklar İçin Okul Öncesi Eğitim Programı, 2002). Through this process, the father should be aware of his own child needs to let them see what they could do appropriately to meet these needs.

After this brief lecture, the practical ideas were suggested to fathers with the guide “Çocuğumla Paylaşabileceklerim” (Appendix I) prepared by the researcher. This guide included many activities that fathers could use in their free time with their children (Canay, 2001; Darıca, 2003).

Then the homework assignment “Baba Kayıt Çizelgesi” (Appendix J) was given to fathers. In this activity fathers were asked to fill the chart during the whole week. Firstly, they were asked to write the activity they did with their children, then what they felt during this activity and lastly, their observations and comments were reported in this chart.

### Third Session

At the first half of the session, homework assignments were shared among the fathers. Fathers who had done the “How Well Do You Know Your Child” reported that their children enjoyed fathers’ interest and attention given their attitudes and feelings. Moreover, they appreciated the guide that was prepared in order to give them practical ideas. One of the fathers mentioned that he had difficulties in finding the appropriate activities to do with his child, but with the help of this guide he spent his time with his child comfortably.

Then brief information was provided about the definition and importance of the communication in father-child relationship. In order to make them aware of that all parents are persons who will have two kinds of feelings toward their children -acceptance and non-acceptance from time to time, the researcher asked them to draw a rectangular area which represented all of their child’s possible behaviors. Then, in order to represent some behaviors they can readily accept and some they cannot, the researcher

asked them to divide this rectangle into an area of acceptance and an area of nonacceptance. After this, the fathers chose one of the behavior and discussed what conditions influenced their acceptance area.

At the rest of the session, “Communication Blocks” (Gordon, 1978) were introduced in the format of role-playing. The researcher divided the group in threes; in each there was one listener, one teller, and one observer. Each listener chose the paper from the bag that introduced which communication block they were going to use while they were listening to their partner. Then the roles were changed, and the same activity with different blocks was carried on. At the end of this activity, the observer tried to find the name of the block and the listener and the teller shared their feelings at the situation both they used and came across with the communication blocks. They expressed that communication blocks had negative effect on them; they made them stop talking, they made them feel they were not being understood and they made them feel they have been interrupted. Through this, they recognized that if the “Communication Blocks” had these effects on them in their relations with others, they would probably have the same effects on their children.

After the introduction of “Communication Blocks”, fathers expressed that they became aware of that almost every responses they gave to their children could be classified as communication blocks. To make them feel relaxed, the researcher mentioned the situations when these were not seen as communication blocks, moreover the researcher told that effective ways of communication were going to be introduced at the next session.

## Fourth Session

Since the training aimed to support fathers in their relationships with their children, this session included teaching communication skills; particularly learning to listen and respond to their children's feelings and to express their own feelings in a constructive manner.

At the beginning of the fourth session, the communication blocks were reviewed and the father shared that they realized how much they relied on the "Communication Blocks". Therefore, the aim of this session was to introduce them the alternative responses such as passive listening to show acceptance, communicating acceptance verbally, simple door openers and active listening. The handout about the active listening was distributed to the group members.

At the rest of the session, the effective ways - "I-messages"- that fathers can use to deal with children's behavior that interferes with their own needs were discussed. To show them the differences between ineffective and effective ways of confronting children, the researcher asked them to examine the ineffective messages they used until that time. They were surprised to discover that almost all begin with the word "You" or contain that word. Then, the researcher briefly explained the differences between "you-messages" and "I-messages". In addition to this, why "I-messages" are more effective was discussed with the fathers in group. It helped them appreciate the importance of "I-messages".

Although "I-messages" are more effective in influencing a child to modify behavior that is unacceptable to parents (Gordon, 1970), they have some difficulties in trying to put "I-messages" to work. In order to increase

this skill, teaching the components of “I-messages” and allowing them to practice has important function in this session.

In the light of information that fathers have difficulties in expressing their feelings, activities in this session aimed to help them to be aware of their feelings. The activities “Duygu Zarı” (Erkan, 1999) and “Yüz İfadeleri” were used in order to actualize this aim. In the first activity “Duygu Zarı”, fathers rolled a dice in which each number represented a feeling such as anger, happiness, unhappiness, fear, embarrassment and confusion, and then they shared the event that made them feel like that. At the second activity, paper that consisted of many facial expressions was distributed. Then the researcher asked them to write as many feelings as they could for each facial expression.

To sum up, this part and to make them aware of not only their feelings but also their children’s feelings, situations were created for them to imagine that their children in and then asked them to find the feelings that children may experience in this situation .Since the researcher believed in that “I”-messages” used by fathers could be a good model for their children, the researcher encouraged them to use this skill with their children. Moreover, handouts were distributed about the ways and suggested activities (Akkök, 2003) that they can use in order to help their children to express their own feelings.

At the end of the session, two homework were assigned for the coming session about active listening and “I-messages” in order to help them to internalize these new skills and to put them work comfortably.

## Fifth Session

At the beginning of the session, the assignments were discussed with the group. Then positive discipline methods were taught in a brief lecture, since one of the most important aims of this training was to support fathers in their relationship with their children with teaching positive disciplinary methods.

Before the brief lecture, the fathers were asked them to think about the conflict they experienced with their children. Through this, they were let them to accept the fact that conflict was a part of life and not necessarily bad, and to help them realize that they think of conflict resolution in terms of someone winning and someone losing. Then, the two win-lose approaches that involves one person winning and the other person losing were discussed.

Then a brief lecture was given about “no-lose” method as an alternative for resolving conflicts. Handouts about 3 methods for resolving conflicts suggested by Gordon (1970) at P.E.T were distributed. In order to intensify the lecture, conversation examples, which represented each method, were given and then the researcher let them to discuss the differences among each other. In addition to this, the group discussed the Method III “no-lose” in detail by reading its dialogue example aloud.

Role-playing was done to make the picture clear and to allow them to put this new method to work. There were three fathers in each group; one was “the father”, the other two were “the child” and “the observer” respectively. In this activity, each group acted according to conflict case which represented a daily conflict at home between the father and the child. The researcher asked to “the father” to act according to needs of the father

in this case while “the child” was acting according to his/her needs. Then a time was given to them to resolve this conflict. At this stage, “the observer” was asked to determine the conflict and the needs of the two sides. After this activity, group members realized that they used the two-win lose approaches generally. At the end of this activity, each member shared their feelings they experienced in this role and in the situation. Then, one of these conflict situations was solved with group discussion by following each step of the “no-lose” method.

At the end of the session, the homework about the implementation of “no-lose” method to solve the conflict they experienced with their children in their daily life was assigned.

### Sixth Session

Although discussing the topic about discipline and other discipline methods were planned at the fifth session, because of the time limitations were discussed at the sixth session with a brief lecture that was intensified by handouts. At the first half of the session, the homework about the implementation of the “no-lose” method was shared with fathers in the group.

The session and the training were terminated with the ending activities such as “Skill Mix” and “ Gruba Verilenlerin Bir Doğru Üzerinde Gösterilmesi” (Appendix K). Both activities aimed to make the group members aware of their gains from the group and their contributions to the group process. In the first activity, fathers were asked to draw a bowl to represent the skills they already had and the new ones they gained at the end of the training. In the second one, they were asked to evaluate their

contributions on the line which had “O” as the lowest point and “100” as the highest point. Through this process, the fathers realized that their contributions were important for the effectiveness of the training. After this, the evaluation forms (Appendix L) were distributed to participants to evaluate both the effectiveness of the training and the group trainer. At the end of the session, “Best Wishes” activity was carried on in order to make them leave the group with positive feelings. In this activity, each group member expressed his best wishes to other group members in terms of the father-child relationship. Finally, certificates (Appendix M) were distributed to fathers for their attendance and participation all through the training.



## **CHAPTER 4**

### **RESULTS**

This chapter is divided into three different sessions. First section deals with the descriptive statistics. The second section presents inferential statistics in which the null hypotheses are tested. Finally, the last section summarizes the findings of the study.

#### **4.1 Descriptive Statistics**

##### **4.1.1 Descriptive Statistics of The Father Involvement Level Test**

Descriptive statistics related to fathers' responses on the Father Involvement Level Test were presented in Appendix N. This part aimed to assess who in the family did the tasks about childrearing. These tasks were categorized as engagement, responsibility and accessibility according to Lamb's framework. Appendix N shows responses to all the questions in the Father Involvement Level Test.

In order to summarize the data, three tables are presented; Table 4.1 and Table 4.2 show the activities that are shared by parents both in experimental and control groups. Table 4.3 represents the activities that

most mothers performed on their own and Table 4.4 shows the activities most fathers undertook on their own.

Activities that are shared by parents are, mainly, those which involve responsibilities about child's education, TV type and extent and bed time. These responsibilities were reported as shared by more than six fathers (60%). In addition to this, more than eight fathers (80%) in the experimental group indicated that responsibilities about child's health such as taking to the doctor, health check ups and attending when ill was shared between mothers and fathers. Table 4.1 and Table 4.2 shows which activities are mainly shared by parents in experimental and control group respectively. Table 4.2 indicates that fifteen tasks (60%) out of twenty-five were shared between parents in the control group, nineteen (76%) tasks out of twenty-five were shared in experimental group. Tasks, except attending when ill, helping the child get dressed, reading and teaching singing song were common in both groups. All the fathers (100%) both in experimental and control group said that both parents are listening to and talking to the child.

**Table 4.1** Activities Most Parents In Experimental Group Shared

Question: Number/description	n+n*	%	Following Category
Q1 education	6	60	Father=1 (10%) All=3 (30%)
Q2 child's future	7	70	All=3 (30%)
Q4 child's bed time	7	70	Father=1(10%) Mother=1(10%) Child=(10%)
Q5 Tv type & extent	5+3=8	80	Child=2 (20%)
Q6 take to doctor	7+1=8	80	Father=2 (20%) Mother=1 (10%)
Q7 health check up	8+1=9	90	Mother=1 (10%)
Q8 attend to when ill	4+4=8	80	Mother=2 (20%)
Q12 help the child to get dressed	1+6=7	70	Mother=2 (20%) Child=1 (10%)
Q13 teach about health care	5+2=7	70	Mother=2 (20%) Father=1 (10%)

Table 4.1 continued

Question: Number/description	n+n*	%	Following Category
Q14 talk about behaviors	5+3=8	80	Father=1 (10%) Mother=1 (10%)
Q15 take outside	4+4=8	80	Father=2 (20%)
Q17 read	7+2=9	90	Mother=1 (10%)
Q18 choose toys	2+5=7	70	Child=1 (10%) Other=2 (20%)
Q19 talk	3+4=7	70	Father=2 (20%) Mother=1 (10%)
Q20 calm down	6+3=9	90	Father=1 (10%)
Q21 listen & talk	5+5=10	100	
Q23 answer questions	3+4=7	70	Father=2 (20%) Mother=1 (10%)
Q24 teach singing	1+6=7	70	Father=1 (10%) Mother=1 (10%) Other=1 (10%)
Q25 teach numbers, hours	5+4=9	90	Other=1 (10%)

**Table 4.2** Activities Most Parents In Control Group Shared

Question: Number/description	n+n*	%	Following Category
Q1 education	7	70	All=3 (30%)
Q2 child's future	8	80	All=2 (20%)
Q3 nutrition	5+1=6	60	Mother=2 (20%) father=1 (10%) child=1 (10%)
Q5 Tv type & extent	4+2=6	60	Father=1 (10%) Mother=1(10%) Child=1 (10%) All=1(10%)
Q6 take to doctor	5+3=8	80	Father=2 (20%)
Q7 health check up	4+2=6	60	Mother=2 (20%) Father=2 (20%)
Q13 teach about health	7+1=8	80	Father=1 (10%) Other=1 (10%)
Q14 talk about behaviors	4+6=10	100	
Q15 take outside	5+2=7	70	Father=1 (10%) Mother=1 (10%)
Q18 choose toys	2+6=8	80	Child=1 (10%) Mother=1 (20%)
Q19 talk	3+6=9	90	Mother=1 (10%)
Q20 calm down	4+3=7	70	Father=3 (30%)
Q21 listen & talk	5+5=10	100	
Q23 answer questions	2+4=6	60	Father=4 (40%)
Q25 teach numbers, hours & letters	2+4=6	60	Father=2 (20%) Other=2 (20%)

\*n+n= the first is the frequency of fathers who responded "parents together" and the second those who chose the category "either parent"

Activities that fall into the mother’s domain can be seen in Table 4.3. Most of these activities involve the physical care of the child. The physical care activities are the following: preparing the meal and the bathing the child. 14 (45%) fathers in the sample said that mothers prepare the meal in their family. Nine (45%) fathers reported that in their family, mothers are arranging the room of the child. As shown in Table 4.3, although more fathers reported that these activities are in the mothers ‘ domain, some of them mentioned that these activities are shared by both parents.

Table 4.4 shows that only two activities were performed by the fathers and both involve one-to one interaction with the child. These activities are play and answering the questions. Their percentage is not higher than 50%.

**Table 4.3** Activities That Most Mothers Performed On Their Own

Question: number and description	Experimental group			Control group		
	N	%	Following category	N	%	Following category
Q.3 nutrition decisions	4	40	Shared: 4 (40%) Child: 2 (20%)	2	20	Shared: 6 (60%) Father: 1 (10%) Other: 1 (10%)
Q.8 attend to when ill	2	20	Shared: 8 (80%)	3	30	Shared: 5 (50%) Other: 2 (20%)
Q.9 arrange	4	40	Shared: 4 (40%) Child: 2 (20%)	5	50	Shared: 3 (30%) Child: 1 (10%) Other: 1 (10%)
Q.11 prepare meal	6	60	Father: 2 (20%) Other: 2 (20%)	8	80	Shared: 1 (10%) Other: 1 (10%)
Q10 bath the child	6	60	Shared: 4 (40%)	2	20	Shared: 5 (50%) Father: 2 (20%)
Q.22 attend at night	4	40	Shared: 4 (40%) Father: 2 (20%)	1	10	Father: 3 (30%) Shared: 5 (50) Other:1 (10%)

**Table 4.4** Activities Most Fathers Undertake On Their Own

Question: number and description	Experimental group			Control group		
	N	%	Following category	N	%	Following category
Q.16 play	5	50	Mother: 3 (30%) Shared: 2 (20%)	4	40	Shared: 4 (40%) Other: 2 (20%)
Q. 23 answer the questions	2	20	Shared: 7 (70%) Mother: 1 (10%)	4	40	Shared: 6 (60%)

#### 4.1.2 Descriptive Statistics of the Role of The Father Questionnaires

Descriptive statistics of perceptions of fathers about their roles measured by ROFQ were presented in Table 4.5. Fathers' perceptions about their roles could range from 13 to 65 in which higher score mean reflects an attitude that fathers were capable of and should involvement with and sensitivity to their children. As Table 4.5 indicated, the mean score of the fathers in experimental group is slightly higher than that of fathers in control group. While the fathers in experimental group had a mean of 54.2, fathers in control group had a mean of 52.5. This result indicates that fathers in the experimental group believe themselves slightly more than fathers in control group that they can be capable of, show involvement with and sensitivity to their children.

**Table 4.5** Basic Descriptive Statistics Related to The Role of The Father Questionnaire

	Exp	Control	Total
N	10	10	20
Mean	54.2	52.5	53.5
S.D	3.99	2.95	3.53
Minimum	48	46	46
Maximum	60	57	60

#### 4.1.3 Descriptive Statistics of The Father Involvement Test After The Training

Descriptive statistics related to fathers' responses on the Father Involvement Level Test after the training were presented in Appendix O.

Two tables summarize the data; Table 4.6 represents the activities that are shared by parents after the training. Table 4.7 represents the activities that fathers start to be involved after the training.

As Table 4.6 represents 12 (48%) activities out of 25 are shared by parents in the experimental group after training. Before the training, nineteen (76%) tasks out of twenty-five were shared. Although the number of activities decreases, the number of fathers who reported that activities were shared increased. The main changes among fathers in experimental group after the treatment are shown in Table 4.7.

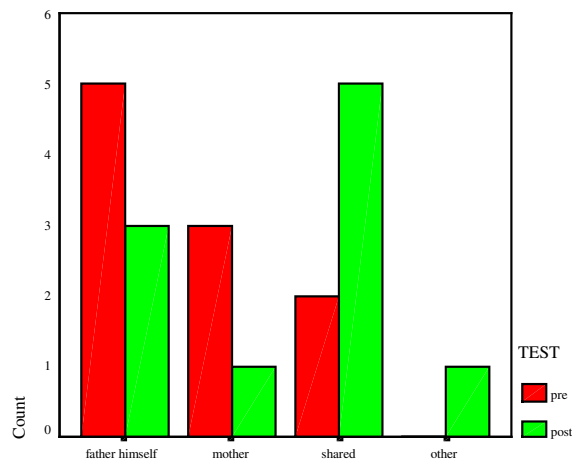
**Table 4.6** Activities Most Parents In Experimental Group Shared After The Training

Shared by parents: sum of "parents together" and "either parent" categories			
Question: Number/description	n+n*	%	Following Category
Q6 take to doctor	6+2=8	80	Father=2 (20%)
Q7 health check up	7+2=9	90	Father=1 (10%)
Q8 attend to when ill	6+2=8	80	Father=1 (10%)
Q13 teach about health care	4+3=7	70	Mother=2 (20%) Father=1 (10%)
Q14 talk about behaviors	6+3=9	90	Other=1 (10%)
Q15 take outside	3+5=8	80	Father=1 (10%) Other=1 (10%)
Q17 read	8	80	Father=1 (10%) Other=1 (10%)
Q19 talk	3+5=8	80	Father=2 (20%)
Q20 calm down	5+3=8	80	Father=2 (10%)
Q21 listen & talk	6+3=9	90	Father=1 (10%)
Q23 answer questions	3+3=6	60	Father=4 (40%)
Q25 teach numbers, hours and letters	3+5=9	80	Father=1 (10%) Other=1 (10%)

**Table 4.7** Activities That Fathers Start To Be Involved After The Training

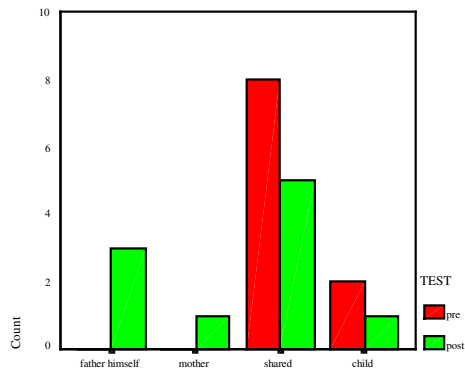
Question	Before the training (N)	After the training (N)
Q2 Child's future	-	1
Q5 TV program & duration	-	3
Q8 Attend to when ill	-	1
Q16 Play	5	3
Q17 Read	-	1
Q20 Calm down	1	2
Q21 Listen & talk	-	1
Q23 Answer the questions	2	4
Q25 Teach numbers, hours and letters	-	1

As Table 4.7 shows the most striking changes are seen in Q5 and Q23. The figures 4.2 and 4.3 show the same changes in more detail. After the training, three fathers started to be involved in decisions about television program and duration. In addition to this, the number of fathers increases in answering the questions of children, two more fathers responded that they answered the questions of their children. On the other hand, As Table 4.7 indicates after the training, the numbers of fathers who play with children decreased. While there were five fathers who played with their children before the training, there were three fathers after the training. As Figure 4.1 indicates the number of fathers mentioning that both parents played with the children increased. While three fathers mentioned that both parents played with children, after the training five fathers mentioned that this activity was shared by parents.

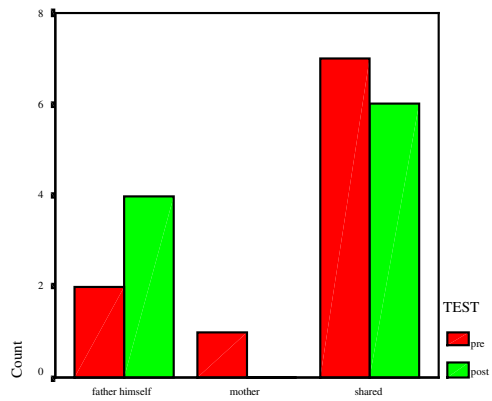


**Figure 4.1** Pre-Post Test Result of Question 16 For Experimental Group Fathers



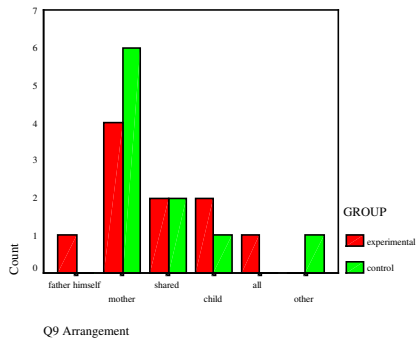


**Figure 4.2** The Frequencies Of Responses to Question 5 After The Training

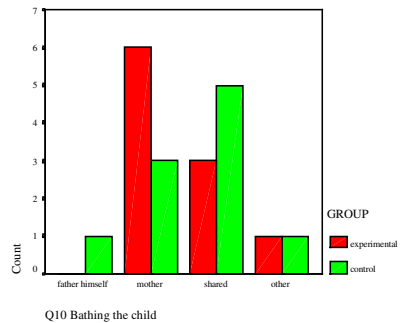


**Figure 4.3** The Frequencies of Responses to Question 23 After The Training

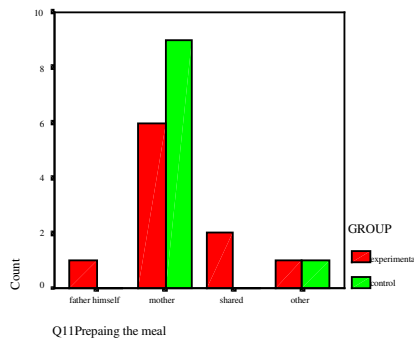
After the training, there are some activities that were performed mostly by mothers. Figure 4.4-4.7 present these activities.



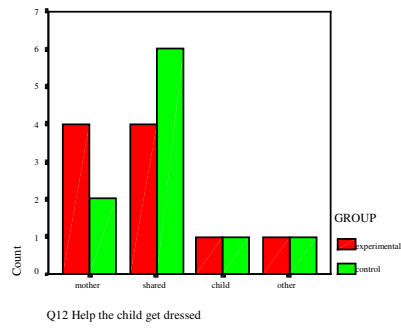
**Figure 4.4** The Frequencies of Responses to Q9 After The Training



**Figure 4.5** The Frequencies of Responses to Q10 After The Training



**Figure 4.6** The Frequencies of Responses to Q11 After The Training



**Figure 4.7** The Frequencies of Responses to Q12 After The Training

As Figures 4.4-4.7 indicate that mostly mothers perform activities that involve care such as arranging the room of the child, bathing the child and helping the child get dressed. Moreover, among these activities, bathing the child and helping the child get dressed are not performed by fathers alone.

#### 4.1.4 Basic Descriptive Statistics Related To The Role Of The Father Questionnaire After The Training

Descriptive statistics of perceptions of fathers about their roles measured by ROFQ after the training were presented in Table 4.8. Fathers' perceptions about their roles could range from 13 to 65 in which higher score mean reflect an attitude that fathers were capable of and should involvement with and sensitivity to their children. As Table 4.8 indicates, the mean score of the fathers in the experimental group is slightly higher than that of fathers in control group. While the fathers in experimental group had a mean of 56.4, fathers in control group had a mean of 53.0. Moreover, comparing with Table 4.5 that represents pretest scores, it can be said that mean score of the fathers in the experimental group increases slightly after

the training. The mean score of the pretest is 52.4; the mean of the posttest is 56.4. On the other hand, the mean score of the control group does not change. The mean score of the pretest is 52.5; the mean score of the posttest is 53.0.

**Table 4.8** Basic Descriptive Statistics Related to The Role of The Father Questionnaire After The Training

	Exp	Control	Total
N	10	10	20
Mean	56.4	53.0	54.7
S.D	3.74	2.45	3.54
Minimum	50	51	50
Maximum	61	57	61

## 4.2 Inferential Statistics

In order to explore the changes in pretest and posttest scores of experimental and control group for scores in ROFQ, a non-parametric statistical analysis, Mann Whitney U Test was used. In order to explore the differences within each group, experimental and control group, a non-parametric analysis, Wilcoxon Test was used.

### 4.2.1. Mann-Whitney U Test

In SPSS 10.0 “Two Independent Samples” was used to compare the distribution of two independent variables. It is a test of null hypothesis that there is no difference in the distribution of scores of populations from which two samples come from. It is anon-parametric alternative to the test for independent samples.

### 4.2.2. Wilcoxon Test

In SPSS 10.0 “two related Samples” was used to compare the distribution of two related variables. Wilcoxon Test tests the hypothesis that there is no significance difference in the distributions of the populations

from which the sample comes from. It is commonly applied to the pretest-posttest research design, when it is not suitable to use t-test for dependent samples.

### 4.3. Results

The hypotheses that were stated in Chapter one tested at the significance level of  $\alpha = 0.05$  and SPSS 10.0 was used to analyze data.

#### Hypothesis 1

There is no significant difference between the scores of experimental and control group for ROFQ scores in pretest.

Table 4.9 reports the Mann-Whitney-U test output to compare the scores of experimental and control group in ROFQ in pretest.

Mann Whitney-U test output for the significant level of  $\alpha = 0.05$  that  $p = .404 > 0.05$  and it could be said that there was no significant difference between the scores of experimental and control group in pretest.

**Table 4.9** Mann-Whitney U Test For Experimental and Control Group For Fathers ROFQ Scores In Pretest

Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Experimental	10	11.60	116.0
Control	10	9.40	94.0
U= 39.0 W=94.0 Z= -.835 p=.404			

#### Hypothesis 2

There is no significant difference between the scores of experimental and control group in RFQ scores in posttest.

Table 4.10 reports the Mann-Whitney U Test output to compare the scores of experimental and control group in ROFQ in posttest.

**Table 4.10** Mann-Whitney U Test For Experimental and Control Group For Fathers ROFQ Scores In Posttest

Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Experimental	10	13.15	131.5
Control	10	7.85	78.5
U= 23.5    W=78.5    Z=-2.018    p=.044			

Output for the significance level of  $\alpha = 0.05$  showed that  $p = .044 < 0.05$  and  $Z = -2.018$  that is smaller than the critical value of  $-1.96$  so it could be stated that there was a significant difference between scores of experimental and control group in posttest scores.

### Hypothesis 3

There is no significant difference between pre and post scores of ROFQ of experimental group.

Table 4.11 reports the Wilcoxon test output for comparing pretest and posttest scores of experimental group in ROFQ.

**Table 4.11** Wilcoxon Test For Pre and Posttest scores of Experimental Group in ROFQ scores

Ranks	N	Mean Rank	Sum Of Rank
Negative	2 <sup>a</sup>	3.00	6
Positive	5 <sup>b</sup>	4.40	22.0
Ties	3 <sup>c</sup>		
Total	10		
Z= -1.352    p=.176			

Note. a= Post<Pre, b=Post>Pre, c= Pre=Post

Wilcoxon output showed that  $p = .176 > 0.05$  and  $z = -1.352$ , that is greater than the critical value of  $-1.96$  and it could be said that there was

no significant difference between pre and post-test scores of experimental group for ROFQ.

Hypothesis 4

There is no significant difference between pre and post-test scores of control group for ROFQ.

Table 4.12 reports the Wilcoxon test output for comparing pretest and post test scores of experimental group in ratings of teacher.

Wilcoxon output showed that  $p = .750 > 0.05$  and  $z = -.318$ , that is greater than the critical value of  $-1.96$  and it could be said that there was no significant difference between pre and post-test scores of control group.

**Table 4.12** Wilcoxon Test For For Pre and Posttest scores of Control Group in ROFQ Scores

Ranks	N	Mean Rank	Sum Of Rank
Negative	3 <sup>a</sup>	3.50	10.50
Positive	4 <sup>b</sup>	4.38	17.50
Ties	3 <sup>c</sup>		
Total	10		
Z= -.598		p=.550	

Note. a= Post<Pre, b=Post>Pre, c= Pre=Post

**4.4 Parents' Evaluations**

At the end of the last session, an Evaluation Form (Appendix M) was given in order to evaluate the training program in terms of process and the trainer. Participants were asked to rate the training program and the trainer on some criteria some of which were taken from the Group Leader and Group Counseling Evaluation Scale ( Merritt & Walley, 1977)

The evaluation of the training involved criteria such as contents-topics, written materials- handouts, exercises and group discussion. Participants were asked to rate each criterion from 1-poor to 4-very good. The Table 4.13 indicated that fathers were satisfied with the training program specifically with the contents-topics. This criterion was rated as very good by all the participants.

Table 4.13  
Evaluation of The Training Program By Fathers

Criterion	Mean	SD
Contents-topics	4.00	.00
Written materials & Handouts	3.70	.48
Exercises	3.60	.52
Group discussion	3.50	.53

The evaluation of the trainer involved criteria such as how the trainer gave the information, set the environment appropriately, listened actively, was sensitive to the needs of participants, met the needs of participants, constructed the relationship well, applied the appropriate and interesting activities, and appreciated the ideas of participants. The participants were asked to rate each criterion on the scale from 1-poor to 4-very good. The Table 4.14 showed that all the participants rated the relationship of the trainer with the participants as very good. And the other criteria were rated at a satisfied level.

Participants were asked whether they found the training program useful or not; if yes, in what ways they found the training useful. All the participants stated that they found the training program useful in terms of given information, applicable methods and new communication methods. Moreover, they stated that the program was useful because it set the environment in which many fathers shared thier valuable experiences and ideas.

Table 4.14 **Evaluation of The Trainer By Fathers**

Criterion	Mean	SD
Information giving	3.80	.42
Set appropriate environment	3.70	.48
Be sensitive to the needsof participants	3.80	.63
Meet the needs of	3.70	.48

participants		
Relationship with participants	4.00	.00
Apply appropriate and interesting exercises	3.50	.53
Depend on process and content	3.90	.32
Listen actively	3.80	.42
Appreciate the participants' ideas	3.90	.32

Then, they were asked about the topic they made use of; eight participants out of ten stated that they benefited from the topic about the effective communication skills. Others stated that they recognized the importance of their children's emotional state and the positive discipline methods.

Among the six sessions, they most liked the one in which the communication skills were discussed and exercises applied while the first and the last session were the least liked sessions. One participant found the first session in which the importance of father's role was discussed unnecessary because of the belief that all fathers participated voluntarily and they recognized how important role they had in their children's life. The last session was liked least because it was the last time father could share their experiences with other fathers.

At the end of the evaluation form, fathers were asked for suggestions for the future implications. All the participants stated that the duration of the training and the number of the sessions should be extended. One of the participants offered to have this kind of the program in the winter session. Since these fathers recognized the importance of this program, they suggested to make it widespread and to reach more fathers. Suggestions for the content of the training were also given. They stated that the number of exercises and authentic examples could be more in the future. Their suggestion of the participation of their wives and children in the training was interesting.



## CHAPTER 5

### DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the summary of the research study, conclusions and discussion of the results, internal and external validity of the study, and finally announces the implications of the study and recommendations for further studies.

#### **5.1 Discussion on Statistical Results**

In the previous chapter, some results obtained by testing the hypothesis were presented. Hypotheses were examined to test whether there was a significant difference between the experimental and control group in the Role of the Father Questionnaire after the paternal involvement training. In addition to this, some changes in the experimental group fathers on the Father Involvement Questionnaire after the training were presented by descriptive statistics.

Although some of the results showed no significant difference, evaluations carried on at the last session indicated positive impressions.

There are several types of studies related with the paternal involvement programs and their outcome effects on paternal involvement. These studies emphasized that parent education and support programs designed specifically for fathers can have a positive impact on various aspects of

family life. For example, McBride (1991) examined the impact of parent education and support programs designed specifically for fathers on paternal involvement and perceptions of parental competence. The results of the study showed significant program effects for responsibility of involvement. Moreover, significant program effects were revealed on the fathers' perceived sense of competence in parenting. The results are similar to this study since in the present study, there was an increase in the fathers' level of involvement in interaction and responsibility, they and gained higher scores in the perceptions of fathering at the end of the training.

There is another study done by Levant and Doyle (1983) to evaluate a parent education program for fathers of school-aged children in terms of communication skills. The results of the study indicated an improvement in fathers' communication skills, with an increase in general sensitivity and a reduction in undesirable responses. In addition to this, more experimental than control group children perceived positive changes in their relationships in their relationships with their fathers. These results can be combined with the present study and suggested that perceptions of children about their relationship with their fathers may have been added in the study to evaluate the outcome effects of programs.

Studies in Turkey indicated positive changes in father-child relationship. For example, Father Enrichment Program developed by AÇEV indicated changes in three main areas; a) comprehensive and conscious support, b) decrease in use of power and punishment, c) considering new methods that strength the communication (Kimmert, 2001, 2003). There was also significantly increase in activities such as playing and reading with the child. In addition to this, participant fathers reported that positive discipline

methods and new communication skills such as “I-message” and “active listening” were bean to be applied in relation with their children. These changes may indicate that fathers began to consider the quality of time as well as the quantity of the time they spent with their children. Although, this study did not indicate changes in the same areas, fathers reported in the evaluation forms that they tried to apply new communication skills in relation with their children.

### Involvement

The Father Involvement Test was conceptualized according to Lamb’s framework of involvement wich suggested three components; interaction, availability, and responsibility. The test was used to assess who performed activities about childrearing. The descriptive statistics presented which were shared by parents, were performed mostly by mothers and performed only by fathers.

There are general differences in the quantity of involvement for mothers and fathers, and there are important qualitative differences as well. It is important to distinguish among domains of involvement as fathers and mothers vary in their distribution of time across different child and household activities.

On one face of fatherhood, fathers seem to be increasing their involvement and moving slowly toward more equal participation with their wives in the care and rearing of children ( Furstenberg, 1988, cited in Parke, 2002). As Russell and Russell (1987) found, both parents reported that they were involved on a regular basis in a variety of caregiving activities even though mothers were higher in their frequencies. For example, fathers participate less than mothers in caregiving but spend a greater percentage of the time available for interaction in play activities than

mothers do. The results are similar to this study since in the present study fathers reported that they were involved on a regular basis in a variety of caregiving activities even though mothers were higher in their frequencies. Study of Afrikan American fathers (Hossain & Roopnarine, 1994) indicated that fathers spend more of their time in play with children. For example, African American fathers spent 54% of their time in play compared with only 38% for mothers. In this study, 50% of the experimental group fathers played with their child compared with only 40% for mothers. The other studies indicated differences in the quality of play activities (Power & Parke, 1982, Lamb, 1977; Russell & Russell, 1987). In all studies, similar pattern was yielded; fathers were tactile and physical whereas mothers tended to be verbal, didactic and toy mediated in their play. These results can be combined with the present study and suggested that observations on father-child play may have been added in this study to indicate the differences in the quality of the play activities.

In the present study, the fathers of the experimental group were highly educated, had a regular job and were from dual-earner families. Several studies indicated that when parents are highly educated, dual-earner families and middle income, fathers' involvement increases in childcare and housework (Ahmeduzzaman & Roopnarine, 1992; Barnett & Baruch, 1987; Deutsch et al, 1993; Volling & Belsky, 1991). For example, the study of Darling-Fisher and Tiedje (1990) revealed that fathers were more involved in childcare when their wives were employed. It should be kept in mind that the relation between maternal employment and father involvement is, in part, dependent on fathers' childrearing beliefs (Parke, 2002).

Moreover, in terms of quantity, several studies found that fathers who are employed for more hours were less involved in caregiving than fathers who worked fewer hours (NICHD Early Child Care Network, cited in Parke, 2002). Yeung et al (2001, p.148) made the following estimate: “for every hour a father is at a work, there is an associated one minute decrease in time a child spent with him on weekdays.”. In this study, the mean of time in regular jobs for experimental group fathers was 10.10. It may be claimed that they had an adequate time to spend with their children. However, recent estimates of father involvement have usually distinguished between weekdays and weekends because both types of activities and level of father involvement vary as a function of the time period being assessed (Yeung et al., 2001). These results suggested that level of father involvement and types of activities at weekdays and weekend separately may have been added in this study.

These results also seem consistent with the findings of the present study. In this study, as well as the experimental group fathers, the control group fathers mentioned that most of the activities were shared between parents. There were limited activities that were performed by only mothers. It may be claimed that these were relatively egalitarian families since seventeen mothers out of twenty were employed outside the home. However, there were still some activities that are performed by only mothers. Caregiving activities such as preparing the meal, bathing the child and helping the child get dressed were performed mostly by mothers. These results seem consistent with the previous research (McBride & Mills, 1993; Tiedje & Darling-Fisher, 1993) that caregiving activities were on the mothers' domain. These activities were still performed by mothers after the

training. Since, the training did not involve information specifically for fathers about childcare, these results were expected by the researcher.

On the other hand, there were some activities that fathers began to be involved in after the training. Among these activities, playing, reading, calming down and answering the questions were important. These findings may have been consequence of the intervention program's emphasis on positive types of involvement such as playing with and reading to children. The emphasis of the training was on practical ideas to motivate fathers to focus on interaction rather than on children's daily care needs. These results may also indicate that the training encouraged fathers to apply their communication skills and practical ideas to their relationship with their children.

However, the training that emphasized increased paternal involvement may be insufficient for improving fathers' childrearing behaviors and skills. Evidence comes from intervention studies that skill-oriented training increases the level of father involvement. These studies show that who receive training in caregiving and play increased their skill engage in higher levels of involvement with their infants (Dickie & Gerber, 1980; Palm, 1997) Therefore, intervention programs that have the potential to improve fathers' parenting competencies as well as to increase the amount of fathers' involvement with the child should be studied in the future.

Fathers in the experimental group have already been involved in their children's development. This may be the reflection of the high perceptions about their childrearing roles. According to Palkovitz (1984), how important the father perceives his role in childrearing is an important issue in paternal involvement. The perception of their role may influence

the amount and type of involvement fathers have with their children. This was also reflected clearly on the fifth questionnaire of ROFQ. Many have reported that fatherhood is very rewarding. Palm and Palkovitz (1988) claimed that when fathers do participate in their children's lives, many have reported that fatherhood is very rewarding.

Fathers in the experimental group have made progress towards higher father involvement. It is hoped that fathers' involvement will continue to increase, but it should be kept in mind that it is a slow gradual process of individual fathers becoming more involved in their children's lives ( Seibold, 1995, cited in Lewis, 1999).

However, the concept "paternal involvement" needs to be reconstructed to look at the larger picture. The definition employed in this study leave some issues ambiguous and the categories do not seem to allow a comprehensive consideration of involvement (Palkovitz,1997). This measure includes some common misconceptions. These misconceptions should be taken into account in order to develop more appropriate measures.

According to Palkovitz (1997), these misconceptions are; a) more involvement is better, b) involvement requires proximity, c) involvement can always be observed and counted, d) involvement levels are static and therefore concurrently and prospectively predictive, e) patterns of involvement should look at the same regardless of culture, subculture or social class f) women are more involved with their children than are men.

Among these misconceptions, involvement requires proximity, involvement always be observed and counted, and involvement levels are static and therefore concurrently and prospectively predictive are the ones that need to be evaluated especially in this study.

Behavioral assessment is asked more in this study. However, cognitive and affective involvement may not translate directly into the observable changes. Palkovitz (1997) asserted that both the unobservable and the observable activities represent a level of involvement. In addition to this, it is assumed that once a particular aspect of how involved a father is measured, a comprehensive view of how involved he is now and how involved he is likely to be at a later time can be predicted. However, involvement is multiply determined and some changes in observed involvement levels are due to the changes in one of these determinants.

In addition to this, items in the Father Involvement Test may include a wide array of ways to be included without classifying them into categories that would not get credit in typical assessments of involvement, yet to the fathers represent significant expenditures of time, affect, energy and so forth.

Perhaps observational procedures of fathering could be included in order to get a better picture of fathers' actual development with their children. Observations are important since they allow for the opportunity to see things that may routinely escape conscious awareness and avoid the problems of fathers misinterpreting items on the questionnaire would be avoided. Moreover, it allows to give ideas about the quality of the father-child relationship.

#### Perception

How the father perceives his role is an important component of childrearing. Therefore, the Role Of The Questionnaire is used in this study to assess fathers' perceptions of their parenting role. The total scores on this scale could range from 13 to 65. In the experimental group, the range of pre-test scores was from 48 to 60 with a mean of 54.2 while the range for



the control group was from 46 to 57 with a mean of 52.5. Higher scores reflected an attitude that fathers were capable of and should show involvement with and sensitivity to their children (Palkovitz, 1984). Thus, the fathers in the experimental group had higher perceptions on their roles as fathers than had the fathers in the control group.

The mean of the experimental group was slightly higher than the control group fathers. This slight difference may be due to the motivation of the experimental group fathers. Since the experimental group fathers were volunteers, it may be claimed that they had higher motivational level for doing well and they may have some idea about the purpose of the study, therefore they may represent themselves in the positive manner.

After the training, the Role of the Father Questionnaire was administered as post-test. In the experimental group, the range was from 50 to 61 with a mean of 56.4 while the range for the control group was from 51 to 57 with a mean of 53.0. The fathers in the experimental group had had moderately higher perceptions on their roles as fathers than had the fathers in the control group. The statistical analysis revealed that there was a significant difference between the scores of experimental and control group fathers in the post-test scores. This significant difference may be explained with the effects of the training. Upon completion of the training, experimental group fathers could feel more capable, more knowledgeable about parenting and more comfortable with their parenting roles than control group fathers.

Moreover, one question on the ROFQ asked whether fathers felt spending time interacting and playing with their child was essential for the

child's well-being. Most fathers strongly agreed with this statement. Another question on the perceptions of fathering scale was on whether the most important thing a father could invest his time and energy into was his family. All the fathers in the sample strongly agreed with this statement. These responses may indicate that they were aware of the general importance of their role for children's development and they wanted to be involved in their children's life.

While the mean of the pretest scores of experimental group was 54.2, the mean of the posttest score was 56.4. However, the statistical analysis did not show a significant difference between the pre and post test scores of experimental group fathers. It may be explained with the short-period of training which may be not enough to change the perceptions of their parenting role. It could be indicated that the training could have become significantly effective, if the sample was randomly selected and carried out for a longer period than six-week sessions.

In addition to this, The Role of The Father Questionnaire to measure fathers' perceptions of fathering may not be clear since it is not clear whether the questions pertained to all fathers or just the ones who filled the questionnaire. It needs to be improved. Thus, further work should also be done to improve the reliability of this measure.

To sum up, fathers' ROFQ were relatively high. These fathers had high perceptions about their childrearing roles. It is very important to keep in mind that the measure used needed to be improved and the fathers in the sample responded socially desirable since they were volunteers and knew the purpose of the study.

In this study, parents were mainly similar in terms of some sociodemographic characteristics. Since the sample consisted of volunteer parents they were already interested in their children's development. They were aware of how important roles they had in their children's life.

Therefore, this may have affected the results of the study in the sense of involvement with their children.

## **5.2 Discussion Regarding the Observations**

Beside the statistical results, the observations made by the researcher and the evaluations made by the fathers provided some contributions to this study.

All observations carried by the researcher stated that participant fathers were very enthusiastic and wanted to take an important part in the rearing of their children. Moreover, they were aware that they have lack of some communication skills and practical ideas to increase their participation in children's development during a limited time and to behave appropriately.

Evaluation carried on at the last session stated that sessions allowed men to come together to share and discuss different aspects of being a father. The training encouraged them to apply their skills and practical ideas to their relationship with their children.

## **5.3 Internal Validity Of the Study**

Internal validity means that the observed differences on the dependent variable are directly related to the dependent variable, not due to some other extraneous variable. Possible threats to internal validity and the methods used to cope with them are discussed in this section.

One of the possible threats may be selection. Groups of subjects were not assigned randomly, since, the study required the intense contribution and involvement of the fathers in experimental group for six weeks. On the other hand, using volunteers for the experimental group is the main problem of this study. Because the volunteer group may be more

motivated; they would respond differently to the treatment or questions from the way a non-volunteer group would respond. Moreover, they may show changes in behavior in response to the research situation, since they may have some ideas about the purpose of the study and the motivation for doing well. They may want to represent themselves in the most positive manner. Thus, there may be positive self-presentation, social desirability, or a belief that certain responses are expected.

Another possible threat may be history which refers to unplanned or extraneous events that occur during the research and affect results. Although, the time between measures did not increase, history can be a threat within the study as subjects are affected by events that happen after the treatment, or outside of the research setting. Specifically in terms of involvement level, some changes in observed levels may be due to the change in developmental status of parent, child, or both. Paternal involvement is likely to vary across time in relation to other components of the social and life circumstances.

Experimenter effects may be another threat to internal validity. Since the characteristics of the researcher such as age, sex, marital status and educational level may affect subjects' responses and behaviors.

#### **5.4 External Validity of the Study**

External validity refers to the generalizability of the results. Results of this study can be generalized only to other people who have the same, or at least similar characteristics as those used in this study. Because the outcomes of this study were based upon a well educated, middle income family. In other words, what might be true for middle socioeconomic and high level of education fathers may not be true for low socioeconomic fathers. Similarly, study conducted with fathers of preschool aged should

not be generalized to primary school children and adolescents. Moreover, the findings may be limited to the characteristics of the volunteers.

Another threat to external validity of this study may be ecological external validity which refers to the conditions of the research and the extent to which generalizing the results is limited to similar conditions. If the training was applied at another time of day such as evening or weekends or at the another time of a year such as winter, the results could have been different.

In addition to this, results of this study cannot be generalized to another population at the another region of the country. The curricula should be culturally sensitive and flexible.

### **5.5 Implications of the Study**

Based on the findings of this study and previous research following suggestions can be offered for early childhood educators, parents and counselors:

1. An affirmative approach is necessary to reach and invite fathers as individuals to participate such programs. Based on this, recognizing and acknowledging the differences relates to the socialization process, interactional styles, communication styles and style of discipline is the first and the most important step.
2. More low-cost quality programs need to be provided by government agencies and private industry to facilitate fathers taking more responsibility for the well-being of their children.

3. Active and strategic recruitment efforts can be made to increase male participation.
4. Programs can be applied after classes during weekends or evenings at their working location to maximize attendance.
5. Counselors can include fathers in parent consultation which is an important part of the elementary school counselor's role.
6. Early childhood educators can work together with counseling professionals to help fathers focus on the developmental and educational interests of their children. They can encourage fathers to be involved in their children's child care centers, schools and in the completion of the educational projects with their children.
7. Educators can adapt content, methods and goals to include male needs and parenting strengths.
8. Educators can display cultural sensitivity and flexibility when designing curricula.

### **5.6 Recommendations for Further Research**

Current study has suggested a variety of useful topics for further studies. These are briefly as follows:

1. Future studies should focus on the long-term impact of similar training. Evaluation should include the follow-up assessment (three-to six months) after the intervention.

2. The future studies can evaluate the impact of such training with more diverse and representative samples of fathers. In other words, future studies can expand services to larger circles of fathers. They can focus on specific groups of men such as divorced fathers and low-income fathers.
3. The further research can evaluate the impact of program participation on the quality and types of father-child interactions. On this way, developmentally appropriate measures for use with younger children can be developed for the assessment of children's perceptions. Perceptions of children about their relationship with their fathers may have been added in the study to evaluate the outcome of effects.
4. The concept of involvement can be reconstructed in order to design effective interventions especially for at-risk families.
5. Individual interviews and observations may be used to look at the larger picture in terms of involvement.
6. The future curricula can incorporate play-based intervention procedures. More specific interventions targeting play and interactional behavior with children in order to produce positive results in children' social skills.
7. Future research can be performed as a replication of this study for different age levels.

8. Future research can be performed as a replication of this study with male family educators.
9. Further research should be done to improve the measures. Further work should be done to improve the reliability of both the Father Involvement Test and the Role of The Father Questionnaire.
10. The future research can use multivariate design to capture the simultaneous impact of multiple events on fathering activities.

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## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX A

#### Baba Bilgi Formu

Sevgili Baba,

Aşağıdaki bilgi formunu dikkatle doldurmanızı bekliyoruz. Zaman ayırdığınız için çok teşekkür ediyoruz.

1. Adınız ve soyadınız:
2. Kaç çocuğunuz var?
3. Okul öncesi dönemdeki (yuvadaki) çocuğunuzun adı ve soyadı:
4. Okul öncesi dönemdeki çocuğunuzun doğum tarihi:
5. Okul öncesi dönemdeki çocuğunuzun cinsiyeti: Erkek / Kız
6. Yaşınız:
7. Eşinizin yaşı:
8. Eğitim durumunuz:
9. Eşinizin eğitim durumu:
10. Mesleğiniz:
11. Sabah saat kaçta işe gidiyorsunuz ve kaçta eve dönüyorsunuz?



gidiş: dönüş:

12. Eşiniz çalışıyor mu? Evet / Hayır

13. Eşinizin mesleği:

14. Eşiniz sabah saat kaçta işe gidiyor ve kaçta eve dönüyor?

gidiş: dönüş:

## APPENDIX B

### BABA KATILIM ÖLÇME ARACI

#### Sevgili Baba,

Aşağıda ailenizde çocuğunuzla ilgili alınan kararlar, bir çocuğun ihtiyaçları ve bu ihtiyaçlardan ailede en fazla kimin sorumlu olduğu, çocuğun bazı ihtiyaçlarının kim tarafından karşılandığını içeren sorular bulunmaktadır. Soruları dikkatlice okuyup, eşinize danışmadan, sizin için en uygun olan şıkkı işaretleyiniz.

Zaman ayırdığınız için çok teşekkür ederiz.

1. Ailenizde çocuğunuzun eğitimi ile ilgili kararları kim verir?
  - a. Ben
  - b. Eşim
  - c. İkimiz birlikte
  - d. Fark etmez, eşim ya da ben
  - e. Çocuğun kendisi
  - f. Eşim, ben ve çocuğumuz birlikte
  - g. Diğer (belirtiniz)
2. Çocuğunuzun geleceği ile ilgili kararları ailenizde kim verir?
  - a. Ben
  - b. Eşim
  - c. İkimiz birlikte
  - d. Fark etmez, eşim ya da ben
  - e. Çocuğun kendisi

- f. Eşim, ben ve çocuğumuz birlikte  
g. Diğer (belirtiniz)
3. Ailenizde çocuğunuzun beslenmesi ile ilgili kararları ( mesela ne kadar süt içmeli, ne tür ve ne kadar yemek yemeli gibi) kim verir?  
a. Ben  
b. Eşim  
c. İkimiz birlikte  
d. Fark etmez, eşim ya da ben  
e. Çocuğun kendisi  
f. Diğer (belirtiniz)
4. Ailenizde çocuğunuzun akşam saat kaçta yatmasına kim karar verir?  
a. Ben  
b. Eşim  
c. İkimiz birlikte  
d. Fark etmez, eşim ya da ben  
e. Çocuğun kendisi  
f. Diğer (belirtiniz)
5. Ailenizde çocuğunuzun ne kadar süreyle ve ne tür televizyon programları izlemesi gerektiğine kim karar verir?  
a. Ben  
b. Eşim  
c. İkimiz birlikte  
d. Fark etmez, eşim ya da ben  
e. Çocuğun kendisi  
f. Çocuğun kendisi, ancak son söz eşimde  
g. Çocuğun kendisi, ancak son söz bende  
h. Diğer (belirtiniz)
6. Çocuğunuz hasta olduğunda onu doktora kim götürür?  
a. Ben  
b. Eşim  
c. İkimiz birlikte  
d. Fark etmez, eşim ya da ben  
e. Diğer (belirtiniz)
7. Ailenizde, çocuğunuzun genel sağlık kontrolüne gitmesinden mesela aşılarının yapılması gibi kim sorumludur?  
a. Ben  
b. Eşim  
c. İkimiz birlikte  
d. Fark etmez, eşim ya da ben  
e. Diğer (belirtiniz)
8. Çocuğunuz hastalandığında ona ailede kim bakar?  
a. Ben  
b. Eşim  
c. İkimiz birlikte  
d. Fark etmez, eşim ya da ben  
e. Diğer (belirtiniz)

9. Çocuğunuzun oyuncaklarının ve giysilerinin toplanması ve düzenlenmesinden ailenizde kim sorumludur?
- Ben
  - Eşim
  - İkimiz birlikte
  - Fark etmez, eşim ya da ben
  - Çocuğun kendisi
  - Diğer (belirtiniz)
10. Çocuğunuzun banyosunu ailede kim yaptırır?
- Ben
  - Eşim
  - İkimiz birlikte
  - Fark etmez, eşim ya da ben
  - Diğer (belirtiniz)
11. Çocuğunuzun yemeğini ailenizde kim hazırlar?
- Ben
  - Eşim
  - İkimiz birlikte
  - Fark etmez, eşim ya da ben
  - Diğer (belirtiniz)
12. Çocuğunuzun giyinmesine ailenizde kim yardım eder?
- Ben
  - Eşim
  - İkimiz birlikte
  - Fark etmez, eşim ya da ben
  - Kendisi giyinir
  - Diğer (belirtiniz)
13. Çocuğunuza temizlik alışkanlıkları ile ilgili (mesela yemekten önce ve sonra ellerini yıkaması gibi) kuralları ailenizde kim öğretir?
- Ben
  - Eşim
  - İkimiz birlikte
  - Fark etmez, eşim ya da ben
  - Diğer (belirtiniz)
14. Çocuğunuzun davranışının yanlış olduğunu düşündüğünüzde nasıl davranması gerektiği hakkında onunla kim görüşür?
- Ben
  - Eşim
  - İkimiz birlikte
  - Fark etmez, eşim ya da ben
  - Diğer (belirtiniz)
15. Ailenizde çocuğu gezmeye veya parkta oynamaya kim götürür?
- Ben
  - Eşim
  - İkimiz birlikte
  - Fark etmez, eşim ya da ben
  - Diğer (belirtiniz)

16. Ailenizde çoğunlukla çocukla kim oyun oynar?  
a. Ben  
b. Eşim  
c. İkimiz birlikte  
d. Fark etmez, eşim ya da ben  
e. Diğer (belirtiniz)
17. Çocuğa ailenizde kim kitap okur?  
a. Ben  
b. Eşim  
c. İkimiz birlikte  
d. Fark etmez, eşim ya da ben  
e. Diğer (belirtiniz)
18. Ailenizde çocuğun oynayacağı oyuncakları kim seçip alır?  
a. Ben  
b. Eşim  
c. İkimiz birlikte  
d. Fark etmez, eşim ya da ben  
e. Diğer (belirtiniz)
19. Çocuğunuz çok üzgün ve biriyle konuşmak istiyor. Böyle bir durumda onunla ailede kim konuşur?  
a. Ben  
b. Eşim  
c. İkimiz birlikte  
d. Fark etmez, eşim ya da ben  
e. Diğer (belirtiniz)
20. Çocuğunuz bir şeyden korktu ve ağlamaya başladı. Böyle bir durumda çocuğunuzla kim ilgilenir?  
a. Ben  
b. Eşim  
c. İkimiz birlikte  
d. Fark etmez, eşim ya da ben  
e. Diğer (belirtiniz)
21. Çocuğunuz bir şeyler anlattığı zaman kim onu dinleyip, onunla konuşur?  
a. Ben  
b. Eşim  
c. İkimiz birlikte  
d. Fark etmez, eşim ya da ben  
e. Diğer (belirtiniz)
22. Çocuğunuz yattıktan sonra bir ihtiyacı olduğu zaman (mesela ağladığı, su istediği, korktuğu gibi) kalkıp onunla kim ilgilenir?  
a. Ben  
b. Eşim  
c. İkimiz birlikte  
d. Fark etmez, eşim ya da ben

- e. Diğer (belirtiniz)
23. Bazen çocuklar cevaplanması zor sorular sorarlar. Bu gibi soruları çocuğa ailede kim açıklar?
- Ben
  - Eşim
  - İkimiz birlikte
  - Farketmez, eşim ya da ben
  - Diğer (belirtiniz)
24. Ailenizde çocuğa şarkı söylemeyi ya da şiir okumayı kim öğretir?
- Ben
  - Eşim
  - İkimiz birlikte
  - Fark etmez, eşim ya da ben
  - Diğer (belirtiniz)
25. Ailenizde çocuğa sayı saymayı, saatleri veya harfleri kim öğretir?
- Ben
  - Eşim
  - İkimiz birlikte
  - Fark etmez, eşim ya da ben
  - Diğer (belirtiniz)

## APPENDIX C

### BABALIK GÖREVLERİ ANKETİ

#### **Sevgili Baba,**

Aşağıda baba-çocuk ilişkisi ve çocuğun gelişiminde babanın rolü ile ilgili çeşitli cümleler bulunmaktadır. Her cümleyi dikkatlice okuduktan sonra “Kesinlikle katılıyorum” “Katılıyorum”, “Kararsızım”, “Katılmıyorum”, “Kesinlikle katılmıyorum” seçeneklerinden sizin için uygun olanını (x) şeklinde işaretleyiniz.

Değerli görüşlerinizi bizlerle paylaştığınız için çok teşekkür ederiz.

3) Babalar çocuğun kişilik gelişiminde temel bir role sahiptir.					
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4) Babalar büyük bir rol oynarlar. Çocuk için zamanı baba olarak geçiren çocuklara güven verilir.					
5) Babalar çocukları büyüdükçe ve daha az bakıma					
15) Her şey göz önünde tutulduğunda, baba olmak çok doyurucu bir deneyimdir.					
12) Anne baba ilişkisinde baba içinde çocuk duygularını ifade etmesi önemlidir.					
7) Küçük çocuklar, yetişkinlerin ruh hallerinden ve duygularından etkilenirler. Örneğin, öfkeliyseniz, çocuk incinebilir.					
2) Erkekler için küçük çocuklara sevgi ve şefkat duygularını ifade etmek zordur.					

8) Bir erkeğin zamanını ve enerjisini harcayabileceği en önemli şey ailesidir.					
9) Bir baba çocuğunun bakımıyla anne kadar yakından ilgilenmelidir.					
13) Küçük çocuk her ağladığında onunla hemen ilgilenmek önemlidir.					

#### APPENDIX D



## BABA KATILIM PROGRAMI

# NİSAN- MAYIS

## Program

### **1. Hafta**

Tanıřma ve Grup Kontratı  
Babanın Rolü, Önemi ve Çocuđun Üzerindeki Etkileri

### **2. Hafta**

Çocuđun Geliřim Özellikleri-Bilgilendirme  
Çocuđunuz Ne Kadar İyi Tanıyorsunuz?  
"Çocuđumla Paylaşabileceklerim"

### **3. Hafta**

Çocuklarla İletişim Nasıl Kurulur? I  
İletişim Becerileri  
Çocuđun Davranışlarını Kabul Etme ve Etkin Dinleme

### **4. Hafta**

Çocuklarla İletişim Nasıl Kurulur? II  
Ben" Dili  
Çatışma ve Çatışma Çözme Yöntemleri

### **5. Hafta**

Olumlu Disiplin Yöntemleri  
Disiplin Modelleri ve Yaklaşımları

### **6. Hafta**

Genel Deđerlendirme

APPENDIX E



## APPENDIX F



### **Sevgili Baba,**

Çocuğunuzun ilk beş yılı hem fiziki gelişim açısından hem de kişiliğinin oluşumu, gelişimi, insan ilişkilerinin düzenlenmesi, kendini

ve dünyayı tanıması açısından çok önemli bir dönemdir. Bu önemli dönemin en önemli kişileri de siz babalar ve annelersiniz.

Uzun yıllar boyunca çocuk –anne-baba ilişkisi ele alındığında “ebeveyn” olarak değerlendirilen hep anneler olmuştur, bu yüzden zaman zaman kendinizi ikinci planda kalmış gibi hissetmeniz çok doğaldır. Ancak büyük bir hızla değişen günümüz toplumunda anne-baba rolleri de değişmektedir. Çocukluk dönemlerinizde kendi babanız ile olan ilişkinizi bir hatırlamaya çalışın. Kendi çocuğunuzla olan ilişkiniz ile olan benzerlikleri ve farklılıkları bulmanız hiç de zor olmayacaktır.

Bu değişimin başlıca nedenleri politik, ekonomik, sosyal alandaki değişiklikler, çalışan anne sayısının ve tek başına çocuklarının sorumluluklarını üstlenen ebeveyn sayısının artması ve geleneksel aile yapısının çekirdek aileye dönüşmesidir.

Yapılan araştırmalar, siz babaların da anneler kadar çocuğun gelişiminde çok önemli ve etkin bir rol oynadığını göstermektedir. Siz babaların, eşlerinizle uyumlu ve dengeli olarak çocuğunuzun yetişmesinde ve tüm gereksinimlerinin karşılanmasında sorumluluk alması, çocuğunuzun kendisi ve dünya ile barışık, mutlu bir birey olmasına katkıda bulunur.

Çocuğunuz ile kurduğunuz ilişkiyi annesiyle kurduğu ilişki ile karşılaştırdığınız zaman hem nitelik hem de nicelik olarak bazı farklılıklar gözlemleyebilirsiniz. Anneler bu dönemlerde çocuklarıyla daha çok vakit geçirirler. Fakat onlarla geçirdiğiniz sürenin daha az olması çocuklarınız üzerindeki etkinin de az olması anlamına gelmez. Çocuğunuzla beraber geçirdiğiniz vaktin nicelik yönünden çok nitelik diğer bir deyişle geçirdiğiniz sürenin kaliteli olması çok daha önemlidir.

Çocucuğunuzla ilişkisinde en önemli hususlardan birisi çocuğunuzla yaptığınız paylaşımdır. Özellikle hafta sonları sizin ile zaman geçirmek çocuğunuz için son derece önemlidir. Birlikte yapabileceğiniz bir yürüyüş, sinema yada tiyatro planı onu çok mutlu edecektir.

Anne ve baba olarak çocuklarınızı yetiştirmekte üstlendiğiniz roller farklı olsa da birbirlerini tamamlar niteliktedir. Çocuğunuzun yetişmesinde gösterdiğiniz katılımın çocuğunuz, eşiniz ve kendiniz üzerinde birçok etkisi vardır. Babalık çocuğunuzun doğumu ile başlayan bir süreç olduğu için

çocuğunuz üzerindeki etkileriniz de doğum anından itibaren başlar. Bu etkileri çok genel olarak üç temel gelişim alanında toparlayabiliriz: bilişsel, psiko-seksüel ve kişilik.

Sizler çocuğunuzun gereksinim duyduğu uyaranları sağlayan bireylerden biri olduğunuz için çocuğunuzun bilişsel gelişiminde de etkin bir rolünüz vardır. Babalı ve babsız çocukların değerlendirilmesinin yapıldığı bir araştırma babasız çocukların diğer gruptan farklılık gösterdiğini; diğer şartlarla bağlantılı olarak bu farkın babasız çocukların aleyhinde olduğunu göstermektedir.

Pek çok araştırmacı, siz babaların özellikle erkek çocukların maskülen yani erkeksi davranışı kazanması açısından çok önemli bir rolünüz olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır. Çünkü erkek çocukları bu davranışı sizinle özdeşleşerek ve sizi taklit ederek kazanırlar. Sizin veya etrafında model alabilecek bir baba modelinin olmaması durumunda cinsel rol gelişimleri bundan olumsuz olarak etkilenebilir. Yalnız erkek çocukları değil, kız çocukları da özdeşim ve etkilşim de bulunacakları bir baba rolüne ihtiyaç duyarlar.

Varlığınızın çocuğunuzun benlik kavramını (fiziksel, duygusal ve sosyal özellikler ve başarıları hakkındaki inançlarının toplamı) olumlu olarak etkilediğini ve bunun çocuklarınızın yaşlıları ile ilişkilerinde daha dengeli olmalarına fırsat hazırladığına ilişkin çalışma sonuçları bulunmaktadır.

Şimdiye kadar zaman zaman ikinci planda kaldığınızı hissettiğiniz için çocuklarınız üzerindeki etkinizin farkında olmayabilirsiniz. Çocuklarınızla daha çok vakit geçirmek istemekle beraber bunu nasıl gerçekleştireceğiniz konusunda bilgilendirmeye ve rehberliğe ihtiyaç duyabilirsiniz.

Öncelikle çocuklarınızın hayatında anneler kadar önemli ve etkin bir rolünüz olduğuna inanmaya çalışın. **İyi baba olarak doğulmaz; iyi baba olmak sevgi, deneyim, sabır ve bilgilene işidir.**

Gelin beraber çocuklarınızla beraberken geçirdiğiniz zamanı nicelik ve nitelik olarak arttırmak için neler yapabiliriz beraber bulmaya çalışalım.



## APPENDIX G

### **Çocuğunuzu Ne Kadar İyi Tanıyorsunuz ?**

- Çocuğunuzun en sevdiği öğretmeninin ismi?
- Çocuğunuzun en sevdiği televizyon programı?
- Çocuğunuzun en sevdiği yemek ?
- Çocuğunuzun en sevdiği çizgi film kahramanı?

- Sizce çocuđunuz büyüđünce astronot mu, öğretmen mi, hayvan terbiyecisi olmak ister?
- Eğer evinize bir evcil hayvan alacak olsanız, çocuđunuz hangi evcil hayvanı seçerdi?
- Çocuđunuzun en sevdiđi arkadaşının ismi?
- Çocuđunuzu en çok korkutan şey nedir?
- Çocuđunuzun en sevdiđi renk?
- Çocuđunuzun en sevdiđi hikaye kitabı?
- Çocuđunuz büyüđünce ne olmak istiyor?
- Çocuđunuzun en sevdiđi spor?
- Çocuđunuzun en sevdiđi oyun?
- Çocuđunuzun sizinle beraber yapmaktan en çok zevk aldıđı etkinlik nedir ?
  
- Çocuđunuzun en az sevdiđi yemek?
- Çocuđunuz řu anda para harcıyor olabilseydi kendine ne satın almak isterdi?
- Çocuđunuzun aileniz dışındaki kişilerden sevdiđi kiři?
- Çocuđunuzun en iyi yaptıđına inandıđı şey ne olabilir?
- Çocuđunuzun bu seneki yaz tatilinde gitmek isteyeceđi yer neresi olabilir?
- Çocuđunuzun okulda yapmaktan en çok hoşlandıđı şey nedir?

## APPENDIX H

### **BİR HİKAYE.....**

Bir gün baba eve geldiğinde, oğlunu kapının kenarında oturmuş kendisini beklerken bulur. Baba oğluna bu durumun nedeni sorar. Çocuk babasına bir günde kaç lira kazandığını sorar. Baba düşündükten sonra cevap verir.Bunu duyan oğlu babasından bir miktar para ister.

Baba, ođluna nedenini sormadan, herşeyinin olduđunu, birşeye ihtiyacı olmadığını ifade ederek ođlunun isteđini kızgın bir biçimde reddeder.

Üzgün bir şekilde odasına giden ođlunun arkasından, ođlunun bu isteđinin nedenini sormadan geri çevirdiđi ve kızdıđı için üzülen baba, ođlunun belki de gerçekten bu paraya ihtiyacı olabileceđini düşünür ve onun yanına gider. Ođlunun üzüntüsünü gidermek için, parayı çıkarıp, ođluna verirken bu parayı ne yapacađını sorar. Sevindiđi her halinden belli olan ođlu, odasında çekmecesinden bir kutu çıkararak biriktirdiđi paraları sayar ve babasından aldıđı parayı da üzerine ekleyerek “Babacıđım işte bir günde kazandıđın para. Senin bir gününü satın alıyorum.” cevabını verir.

***Çocuđunuz için ayıracađınız zaman onun için en büyük ödüdür.***

## APPENDIX I



### ÇOCUĞUMLA PAYLAŞABİLECEKLERİM

Baba Katılım Programımız kapsamında sizlere ev ortamında çocuğunuzla birlikte yapabileceğiniz çeşitli etkinlik önerileri sunuyoruz. Sizler kendi ev ortamınıza ve zamanınıza göre bunları çeşitlendirebilir, değiştirebilir ve geliştirebilirsiniz. Bu etkinliklerin çocuklarınızla iletişiminizi geliştirmenize katkısı olacağını inanıyoruz.

Çocuğunuzla birlikte hafta sonu planları yapmaya, onun zevk alacağı etkinliklere öncelik vermeye ne dersiniz?



### **Çocuđunuzla beraber neler yapabilirsiniz ? İŖte size birkaç öneri...**

Çocuđunuzla beraber iecek bir Ŗeyler hazırlayarak onunla birlikte iip ve evinizin en sevdiđiniz kŖesine oturup sohbet etmeye ne dersiniz?

Çocuđunuz ona ne kadar bydđn sylediđinizde ok mutlu olacaktır. Bunun iin arada bir onun boyunu lmeye ve belli bir yere iŖaretlemeye ne dersiniz?

Çocuđunuza yatmadan nce bir masal kitabı okumayı dŖnr msnz?

Çocuđunuza odasını toplamasına yardım etmeye ne dersiniz?

Çocuđunuzun okuluna gidip, đretmeni ile o gn okulda yaptıkları etkinlikler hakkında konuŖup, daha sonra benzer etkinlikleri pekiŖmeleri iin evde denemeye ne dersiniz?

Çocuđunuzla onun grŖlerine yer verebileceđiniz bir oyun olan "Sen Olsan Ne Yapardın?" oyununu oynamaya ne dersiniz? Ona gnlk yaŖantınızda karŖılaŖtıđınız ve onun anlayabileceđi bir ikilemi anlatıp, kendinizin kara veremediđi yere gelince "Sen Olsan Ne Yapardın?" diye sorabilirsiniz.

APPENDIX J

## APPENDIX K

## APPENDIX L

### PROGRAM DEĞERLENDİRME

1. Aşağıdaki başlıkları tüm grup sürecini göz önünde bulundurarak değerlendirmeye çalışınız.

	4	3	2	1			
			çok iyi	iyi	orta	zayıf	
İçerik/Konular							
Yazılı materyaller							
Uygulamalar							
Tartışmalar							
Program yöneticisinin;							
Bilgi Aktarımı							
Uygun tartışma ortamı hazırlaması							
Katılımcıların ihtiyaçlarına duyarlı olması							

Katılımcıların ihtiyaçlarını karşılaması

Katılımcılar ile kurduğu ilişki

Uygun ve ilginç etkinlikler uygulaması

Program sürecine ve oturumların içeriğine uygun davranması

Katılımcıları dinlemesi

Katılımcıların fikirlerine değer vermesi

2. Programın faydalı olduğunu düşünüyor musunuz?

a) Cevabınız **Evet** ise, programın ne şekilde faydalı olduğunu yazarmısınız?

b) Cevabınız **Hayır** ise, programın eksik bulduğunuz yanlarını belirtirmisiniz?

3. Toplantılarda en çok faydalandığınızı düşündüğünüz konu neydi? Neden?

4. Programın en çok beğendiğiniz oturumu/toplantısı hangiydi? Neden?

5. Programın en az beğendiniz oturumu/toplantısı hangiydi? Neden?

6. Programın daha sonraki uygulamalarının daha etkili ve verimli olabilmesi için programı hazırlayanlara programın içeriği ve uygulanışı hakkında hangi önerilerde bulunursunuz?

## **APPENDIX M**

APPENDIX N

FATHER INVOLVEMENT TEST RESULT BEFORE THE TRAINING

Table 1

Distribution of parental responsibility :

Decisions about the child's education

Q1. Education	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father	1 (10%)	
Mother	-	-
Both parents	6 (60%)	7 (70%)
Either parent	-	-
All	3 (30%)	3 (30%)
Child	-	-
Other	-	-
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

Table 2

Distribution of parental responsibility :  
Decisions about the child's future

Q2. Child's future	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father	-	-
Mother	-	-
Both parents	7 (70%)	8 (80%)
Either parent	-	-
All	3 (30%)	2 (20%)
Child	-	-
Other	-	-
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

Table 3

Distribution of parental responsibility :

Decisions about the child's nutritional needs

Q.3 Nutrition	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father	-	1 (10%)
Mother	4 (40%)	2 (20%)
Both parents	2 (20%)	5 (50%)
Either parent	2 (20%)	1 (10%)
All	-	-
Child	2 (20%)	-
Other	-	1 (10%)
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

Table 4

Distribution of parental responsibility :

Decisions about the child's bed time

Q4. Decide on bed time	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father	1 (10%)	2 (20%)
Mother	1 (10%)	1 (10%)
Both parents	7 (70%)	3 (30%)
Either parent		2 (20%)
All		
Child	1 (10%)	2 (20%)
Other		
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

Table 5

Distribution of parental responsibility :

Control what kind of and how much TV the child watches

Q5.TV-program & duration	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father		1 (10%)
Mother		1 (10%)
Both parents	5 (50%)	4 (40%)
Either parent	3 (30%)	2 (20%)
All		1 (10%)
Child	2 (20%)	1 (10%)
Other		
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

Table 6

Distribution of parental responsibility :

Take the child to the doctor

Q6. Take to the doctor	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father	2 (20%)	2 (20%)
Mother		
Both parents	7 (70%)	5 (50%)
Either parent	1 (10%)	3 (30%)
All		
Child		
Other		
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

Table 7

Distribution of parental responsibility :

Decide child need health check up

Q7. Health check ups	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father	1 (10%)	2 (20%)
Mother		2 (20%)
Both parents	8 (80%)	4 (40%)
Either parent	1 (10%)	2 (20%)
All		
Child		

Other		
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

Table 8

Distribution of parental responsibility

Attend to when ill

Q8. Attend to when ill	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father		
Mother	2 (20%)	3 (30%)
Both parent	4 (40%)	3 (30%)
Either paren	4 (40%)	2 (20%)
All		
Child		
Other		2 (20%)
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

Table 9

Distribution of the parental responsibility:

Arrange the clothes and toys of the child

Q9. Arrange	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father		
Mother	4 (40%)	5 (50%)
Both parents	2 (20%)	2 (20%)
Either parent	2 (20%)	1 (10%)
All		
Child	2 (20%)	1 (10%)
Other		1 (10%)
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)



Table 10  
Distribution of child care:  
Bath the child

Q10. Bathing	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father		2 (20%)
Mother	6 (60%)	2 (20%)
Both parents	3 (30%)	2 (20%)
Either parent	1 (10%)	3 (30%)
All		
Child		
Other		1 (10%)
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

Table 11  
Distribution of child care:

Prepare the meal

Q11. Preparing the meal	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father	2 (20%)	
Mother	6 (60%)	8 (80%)
Both parents	1 (10%)	
Either parent	1 (10%)	1 (10%)
All		
Child		
Other		1 (10%)
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

Table 12  
Distribution of child care:  
Help the child to get dressed

Q12. Help the child to get dressed	Experimental group	Control Group (n/%)

	(n/%)	
Father		
Mother	2 (20%)	3 (30%)
Both parents	1 (10%)	1 (10%)
Either parent	6 (60%)	4 (40%)
All		
Child		1 (10%)
Other		1 (10%)
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

Table 13

Distribution of the parental engagement  
Teach about health care

Q13. Teach about health care	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father	1 (10%)	1 (10%)
Mother	2 (20%)	
Both parents	5 (50%)	7 (70%)
Either parent	2 (20%)	1 (50%)
All		
Child		
Other		1 (10%)
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

Table 14

Distribution of engagement  
Talk about the appropriate behavior

Q14. Talk about behaviors	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father	1 (10%)	
Mother	1 (10%)	
Both parents	5 (50%)	4 (40%)
Either parent	3 (30%)	6 (60%)
All		
Child		
Other		
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

parent		
All		
Child		
Other		2 (20%)
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

Table 17

Distribution of parental engagement.

Read to the child

Q17. Read	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father	1 (10%)	1 (10%)
Mother		5 (50%)
Both parents	2 (20%)	
Either parent	7 (70%)	2 (20%)
All		
Child		
Other	1 (10%)	2 (20%)
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

Table 15  
Distribution of engagement:

Take the child outside

Q15. Take the child to outside	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father	2 (20%)	1 (10%)
Mother		1 (10%)
Both parents	4 (40%)	5 (50%)
Either parent	4 (40%)	2 (20%)
All		
Child		
Other		1 (10%)
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

Table 18

Distribution of parental responsibility:  
Choose the child's toys

Q18. Choose toys	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father	2 (20%)	
Mother	1 (10%)	1 (10%)
Both parents	3 (30%)	3 (30%)
Either parent	4 (40%)	6 (60%)
All		
Child		
Other		
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

Table 16  
Distribution of parental engagement .:

Play with the child

Q16. Play	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father	5 (50%)	4 (40%)
Mother	3 (30%)	
Both parents	1 (10%)	
Either	1 (10%)	4 (40%)

Table 19

Distribution of the parental engagement:  
Talk with child when s/he is sad

Q19. Talk the child	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father		2 (20%)
Mother		
Both parents	5 (50%)	2 (20%)
Either parent	4 (40%)	4 (40%)
All		
Child		
Other	1 (10%)	2 (20%)
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

Table 21

Distribution of paternal engagement:  
Listen and talk to the child

Q21. Listen and talk	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father		
Mother		
Both parents	5 (50%)	5 (50%)
Either parent	5 (50%)	5 (50%)
All		
Child		
Other		
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

Table 20

Distribution of paternal engagement:  
Comfort when cry

Q20. Calm down	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father	1 (10%)	3 (30%)
Mother		
Both parents	6 (60%)	4 (40%)
Either parent	3 (30%)	3 (30%)
All		
Child		
Other		
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

Table 23

Distribution of paternal engagement:  
Answer the questions

Q23. Answer the questions	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father	2 (20%)	4 (40%)
Mother	1 (10%)	
Both parents	3 (30%)	2 (20%)
Either parent	4 (40%)	4 (40%)
All		
Child		
Other		
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

Table 22

Distribution of paternal responsibility:

attend to at night

Q22. Interest the needs	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father	2 (20%)	3 (30%)
Mother	4 (40%)	1 (10%)

Both parents		
Either parent	4 (40%)	5 (50%)
All		
Child		
Other		1 (10%)
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

Table 24  
Distribution of parental engagement:  
Teach singing

singing	I group (n/%)	Group (n/%)
Father	1 (10%)	
Mother	1 (10%)	4 (40%)
Both parents	1 (10%)	1 (10%)
Either parent	6 (60%)	4 (40%)
All		
Child		
Other	1 (10%)	1 (10%)
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

Q24. Teach	Experimenta	Control
------------	-------------	---------

Table 25

Distribution of parental engagement.

Teach numbers, hours and letters

Q25. Teach numbers, hours and letters	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father		2 (20%)
Mother		
Both parents	5 (50%)	2 (20%)
Either parent	4 (40%)	4 (40%)
All		
Child		
Other	1 (10%)	2 (20%)
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

### FATHER INVOLVEMENT TEST RESULT AFTER THE TRAINING

Table1

Distribution of parental responsibility :

Decisions about the child's education

Q1. Education	Experime ntal group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father	1 (10%)	

Mother	-	-
Both parents	5 (50%)	9 (90%)
Either parent	-	-
All	3 (30%)	1 (10%)
Child	1 (10%)	-
Other	-	-
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

**Table 2**  
Distribution of parental responsibility :  
Decisions about the child's future

Q2. Child's future	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father	1 (10%)	-
Mother	-	-
Both parents	5 (50%)	9 (90%)
Either parent	-	-
All	3 (30%)	1 (10%)
Child	1 (10%)	-
Other	-	-
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

**Table 3**  
Distribution of parental responsibility :

Decisions about the child's nutritional needs

Q.3 Nutrition	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father	-	-
Mother	3 (30%)	3(30%)
Both parents	3 (30%)	3 (30%)
Either parent	2 (20%)	3 (30%)
All	-	-
Child	1 (10%)	-
Other	1 (10%)	1 (10%)
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

**Table 4**  
Distribution of parental responsibility :

Decisions about the child's bed time

Q4. Decide on bed time	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father	1 (10%)	-
Mother	1 (10%)	-
Both parents	4 (40%)	6 (60%)
Either parent	1 (10%)	3 (30%)
All	-	-
Child	1 (10%)	1 (10%)
Other	1 (10%)	-
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

**Table 5**  
Distribution of parental responsibility :

Control what kind of and how much TV the child watches

Q5.TV-program& duration	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father	3 (30%)	2 (20%)
Mother	1 (10%)	3 (30%)
Both parents	4 (40%)	3 (30%)
Either parent	1 (10%)	1 (10%)
All	-	1 (10%)
Child	1 (10%)	-
Other	-	-
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

**Table 6**  
Distribution of parental responsibility :

Take the child to the doctor

Q6. Take to the doctor	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father	2 (20%)	1 (10%)
Mother	-	-
Both parents	6 (60%)	6 (60%)
Either parent	2 (20%)	3 (30%)
All	-	-
Child	-	-
Other	-	-
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

**Table 7**  
Distribution of parental responsibility :

Decide child need health check up

Q7. Health check ups	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father	1 (10%)	
Mother		3 (30%)
Both parents	7 (70%)	5 (50%)
Either parent	2 (20%)	2 (20%)
All		
Child		
Other		
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

Table 8

Distribution of parental responsibility

Take care of when the child is ill

Q8. Take care of	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father	1	
Mother		2 (20%)
Both parents	6 (60%)	4 (40%)
Either parent	2 (20%)	2 (20%)
All		
Child		
Other		2 (20%)
Total	10 (100%)	10

Table 9

Distribution of the parental responsibility:

Table 11

Distribution of child care:

Prepare the meal

Q11. Preparing the meal	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father	1 (10%)	
Mother	6 (60%)	9 (90%)
Both parents	1 (10%)	
Either parent	1 (10%)	
All		
Child		

Table 12

Distribution of child care:  
Help the child to get dressed

Q12. Help the child to get dressed	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father		

Arrange the clothes and toys of the child

Q9. Arrange	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father	1 (10%)	
Mother	4 (40%)	6 (60%)
Both parents	1 (10%)	1 (10%)
Either parent	1 (10%)	1 (10%)
All	1 (10%)	
Child	2 (20%)	1 (10%)
Other		1 (10%)
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

Table 10

Distribution of child care:  
Bath the child

Q10. Bathing	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father		1 (10%)
Mother	6 (60%)	3 (30%)
Both parents	1 (10%)	2 (20%)
Either parent	2 (20%)	3 (30%)
All		
Child		
Other	1 (10%)	1 (10%)
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

Other	1 (10%)	1 (10%)
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

Mother	4 (40%)	2 (20%)
Both parents	1 (10%)	
Either parent	3 (30%)	6 (60%)
All		
Child	1 (10%)	1 (10%)
Other	1 (10%)	1 (10%)
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

Table 13

Distribution of the parental engagement  
Teach about health care

Q13. Teaching about health care	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father	1 (10%)	
Mother	2 (20%)	1 (10%)
Both parents	4 (40%)	5 (50%)
Either parent	3 (30%)	3 (30%)
All		
Child		
Other		1 (10%)
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

Table 14

Distribution of engagement  
Talk about the appropriate behavior

Q14. Talk about behaviors	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father		
Mother		1 (10%)
Both parents	6 (60%)	4 (40%)
Either parent	3 (30%)	5 (50%)
All		
Child		
Other	1 (10%)	
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

Table 15

Distribution of engagement:

Take the child outside

Q15. Take the child to outside	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father	1 (10%)	2 (20%)
Mother		
Both parents	3 (30%)	4 (40%)
Either parent	5 (50%)	3 (30%)
All		
Child		
Other	1 (10%)	1 (10%)
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

Table 16

Distribution of parental engagement :

Play with the child

Q16. Play	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father	3 (30%)	4 (40%)
Mother	1 (10%)	
Both parents	1 (10%)	
Either parent	4 (40%)	5 (50%)
All		
Child		
Other	1 (10%)	1 (10%)
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

Table 17

Distribution of parental engagement.  
Read to the child

Q17. Read	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father	1 (10%)	
Mother	1 (10%)	5 (50%)
Both parents		1 (10%)
Either parent	8 (80%)	4 (40%)
All		
Child		
Other		
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

Table 19

Distribution of the parental engagement.  
Talk with child when s/he is sad

Q19. Talk the child	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father	2 (20%)	
Mother		2 (20%)
Both parents	3 (30%)	5 (50%)
Either parent	5 (50%)	2 (20%)
All		
Child		
Other		1 (10%)
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

Table 18

Distribution of parental responsibility:  
Choose the child's toys

Q18. Choose toys	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father		1 (10%)
Mother	2 (20%)	3 (30%)
Both parents	1 (10%)	3 (30%)
Either parent	4 (40%)	3 (30%)
All		
Child	1 (10%)	
Other	2 (20%)	
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

Table 20

Distribution of paternal engagement:  
Calm down the child

Q20. Calm down	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father	2 (10%)	2 (20%)
Mother		1 (10%)
Both parents	5 (60%)	6 (60%)
Either parent	3 (30%)	1 (10%)
All		
Child		
Other		
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)



Table 21

Distribution of paternal engagement:  
Listen and talk to the child

Q21. Listen and talk	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father	1 (10%)	
Mother		
Both parents	3 (30%)	4 (40%)
Either parent	6 (60%)	6 (60%)
All		
Child		
Other		
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

Table 22

Distribution of paternal responsibility:

Interest with the needs of child at night

Q22. Interest the needs	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father	1 (10%)	3 (30%)
Mother	3 (30%)	2 (20%)
Both parents		
Either parent	5 (50%)	4 (40%)
All		
Child		
Other	1 (10%)	1 (10%)
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

Table 23

Distribution of paternal engagement:  
Answer the questions

Q23. Answer the questions	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father	4 (40%)	2 (20%)
Mother		
Both parents	3 (30%)	4 (40%)
Either parent	3 (30%)	4 (40%)
All		
Child		

Other		
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

Table 24  
Distribution of parental engagement:  
Teach singing

Q24. Teach singing	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father		
Mother	4 (40%)	5 (50%)
Both parents	2 (20%)	1 (10%)
Either parent	2 (20%)	3 (30%)
All		
Child		
Other	2 (20%)	1 (10%)
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)

Table 25  
Distribution of parental engagement.

Teach numbers, hours and letters

Q25. Teach numbers, hours and letters	Experimental group (n/%)	Control Group (n/%)
Father	1 (10%)	1 (10%)
Mother		2 (20%)
Both parents	3 (30%)	3 (30%)
Either parent	5 (50%)	3 (30%)
All		
Child		
Other	1 (10%)	1 (10%)
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)