

**THE EFFECTS OF FATHER INVOLVEMENT TRAINING (FIT) ON
FAMILY FUNCTIONING AND PEER RELATIONSHIPS OF 9TH GRADE
HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS**

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ABSTRACT

THE EFFECTS OF FATHER INVOLVEMENT TRAINING (FIT) ON FAMILY FUNCTIONING AND PEER RELATIONSHIPS OF 9TH GRADE HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

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The purpose of the present study was twofold: (a) to design and determine the effect of Father Involvement Training (FIT), which is based on social-cognitive theory principals, on family functioning in father-adolescent relationships, and (b) to examine the effect of Father Involvement Training (FIT) on the quality of the peer relationships of 9th grade high school students, whose fathers participated in the study.. The sample composed of twenty- six 9th grade students' fathers. The 2x3 experimental design examined pre-training, post-training and six-month follow-up measurements of an experimental group and control group. Experimental group received a ten-week father involvement training which was developed by the researcher while the control group did not receive any training. Parent Success Indicator (PSI) was used to assess family functioning of fathers and Parent Adolescent Relationship Scale (PARS) was used to assess family functioning of children whose fathers participated in the study. In order to assess peer relationships of children, Peer Relationship Scale (PRS) was used. Data were analyzed by employing Mann Whitney U Test, Friedman Test, and Wilcoxon Sign Rank Test. The results revealed that the Father Involvement Training had

significant effects on the father-child relationship and family functioning of experimental group's fathers. The experimental group's fathers had gained higher total scores both at the end of the study and at the follow-up measures in PSI. The adolescents, whose fathers participated in the experimental group, improved in close-relationship and sensitivity dimensions at the end of the study. However, the improvements were not maintained after the six months follow-up measurements. In addition, ratings of the children, whose fathers participated in the experimental group, decreased from pretest to follow-up measures on meeting expectations dimension of the PARS. Lastly, there was a significant improvement in trust and identification dimension of peer relationship levels of children whose fathers received the training compared to children whose fathers did not receive the training. The experimental group fathers' evaluation reports indicated that fathers perceived improvement in different dimensions such as father child communication, behavioral changes in relationship with their children.

Keywords: Father Involvement, Family Functioning, Adolescents, Peer Relationship

ÖZ

BABA KATILIM EĞİTİMİNİN AİLE İŞLEVLERİNE VE LİSE 9. SINIF ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN AKRAN İLİŞKİLERİNE ETKİSİ

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Bu çalışmanın iki amacı vardır: (a) sosyal bilişsel kuram temellerine dayandırılmış bir “Baba Katılım Eğitimi’nin” dizayn edilmesi, (b) bu eğitimin aile işlevlerine ve lise 9’uncu sınıf öğrencilerinin akran ilişkilerine etkisini araştırmaktır. Araştırmanın örneklemini, lise 9. sınıf öğrencilerinin babaları oluşturmuştur. Baba katılım eğitimine 26 baba, gönüllü olarak katılmıştır. Araştırmada deney ve kontrol grubu ve ön-test, son-test, izleme ölçümlerinin alındığı 2x3 deneysel desen kullanılmıştır. Deney grubu, araştırmacının geliştirdiği 10 haftalık baba katılım eğitimi almış, kontrol grubu ise herhangi bir eğitim almamıştır. Babaların aile işlevlerine yönelik değerlendirmeleri Anne-Babalık Becerileri ve İletişim Ölçeği Ebeveyn Formu (ABBIÖ-EF) ile elde edilmiştir. Çalışmaya katılan babaların çocuklarının aile işlevlerine yönelik değerlendirmeleri ise Anne-Baba Ergen İlişkileri Ölçeği Baba Formu (ABEİÖ-BF) ile elde edilmiştir. Çocukların akran ilişkilerini değerlendirmek amacıyla Akran İlişkileri Ölçeği (AİÖ) kullanılmıştır. Veriler Mann Whitney-U Test, Friedman Test ve Wilcoxon İşaret Test ile analiz edilmiştir. Bulgular baba katılım eğitiminin, babaların aile işlevlerine yönelik değerlendirmelerine anlamlı bir etkisi olduğunu göstermiştir. Bununla beraber çalışmaya katılan babaların çocukları, “yakın ilişkiler” ve “duyarlılık” boyutlarında

ilerleme göstermelerine rağmen bu ilerleme 6 ay sonraki izleme ölçümlerinde korunamamıştır. Ayrıca, çocukların, Anne-Baba Ergen İlişkileri Ölçeği Baba Formu (ABEİÖ-BF) “beklentileri karşılama” alt boyutundaki puanlarında düşüş gözlenmiştir. Son olarak, baba katılım eğitimi alan babaların çocuklarının, Akran İlişkileri Ölçeği’nin “güven ve özdeşim” alt boyutunda, babaları eğitim almayan çocuklara göre ilerleme gösterdiği belirlenmiştir. Deney grubu babalarının değerlendirme formu sonuçları, bir yandan baba-çocuk ilişkilerindeki gelişimi diğer yandan da babaların, çocukları ile ilişkilerindeki davranış değişikliklerini ve ilerlemeleri algıladığını ortaya koymaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Baba Katılımı, Aile İşlevleri, Ergenler, Akran İlişkileri

To My Parents

&

My Dear Sons

Arsen & Arman

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Adolescence is a critical period of development that while children become an adult, they also experience crucial changes in relationship with their parents and social world, particularly peer relationship. Transition to adolescence is marked by an expansion in the social environments the adolescents live in. There are several developmental tasks to be accomplished by the adolescents during this transition in order to achieve adulthood and healthy psychological functioning. In view of psychosocial developmental model, the major psychological task of adolescence is “identity formation”. According to Erikson (1968), transition in the course of exploring and searching their culture’s identity file, adolescents often experiment with different roles. During this stage, adolescent identity development reveals rich insight into adolescents’ thoughts and feelings whereby youngsters encounter finding how they are going in life and who they are all about (Santrock, 2004). In identity development during adolescence, when youngsters are able to successfully cope with these conflicting roles and identity, they establish a new sense of self that is both unique and acceptable. However, when adolescents are not able to successfully resolve the identity crisis, they suffer “identity confusion”. In this situation, either they withdraw engaging themselves from peers and family, or they immerse themselves into peer group activities and lose their identity in those social activities. Identity development is the most crucial issue in this developmental period, because, failure to resolve the identity issues of adolescence may result in difficulty in establishing genuine and close relationship in adulthood (Erikson, 1968).

Developmental tasks during adolescence are achieved most effectively in families where autonomy is encouraged, conflict is effectively managed, and members feel

supported and loved. Specifically, the parental support and encouragement are crucial in determining the competence with which young people establish higher identity achievement in this major developmental period. At the same time, the need for close friends becomes crucial during adolescence. Hence, adolescence is a period of transition toward independence and emotional separation from the family (Erikson, 1968). In other words, adolescent is confronted by developmental challenges and one normative task is to achieve independence from the family while staying connected with their family and fitting into a peer group.

As the families have been considered a primary support system and socializing sources for children, families influence children in many and multifaceted ways. The contribution of families to children development has been considered important since they spent most of time with their parents at home. Moreover, the children learn and practice things first in their relationship with the family members, since the socialization of the children begins in the family. In same way, family is a major social environment that contributes to the development of the adolescent. In addition, because most adolescents are influenced by and live within a family structure, it is important to identify how family functions patterns interact with adolescent behaviors and it is significant to provide support for healthy adolescent development.

Research on family functioning is not a novel point of view, and family functioning has been studied by the different field practitioners such as psychologists, family counselors and social workers for nearly four decades. According to Olson, Russel and Sprenkle (1980), family functioning means to the quality of interactions within a family system to include balanced cohesion and flexibility as well as effective communication of the family. In another model of families, Beavers and Hampson (2000) identify two main dimensions of family functioning. First one is the family competence and second one is the family style. The family competence, which is degree of negotiation and encouragement of autonomy, includes power structure. The family style involves the extent to which the family is inward-focused or outward-focused. Healthy families are supposed to be balanced on style, between

with some activities, which are family-centered and others involving outsiders and the community. In contrast, extreme of style are only evident in unhealthy families who are low in competence. The McMaster model of family functioning identifies a number of dimensions to understand family structure, organizations and transactional patterns associated with family life. Miller, Ryan, Kietner, Bishop and Epstein (2000) described these dimensions as problem-solving, communication, roles, effective responsiveness, affective involvement and behavioral control.

Numerous studies have focused how the parent-child relationship affects child and adolescent development in various dimensions. Empirical evidence which has looked at adolescents in relations to their family members reported that there was significant relationship between family functioning and adolescents' behaviors. For instance, investigations of family dynamic on adolescent coping strategies have found that adolescent coping and family climate variables influence each other in unspecified ways, which contributes to adolescent mental health (McCubbin, Needle, & Wilson, 1985). In another study, Coker and Borders (2001) found that the effect of stable supportive interaction between parents and adolescents had a significant positive relationship with positive decision making during adolescence. Moreover, Coker and Borders also outlined that adolescent in 10th grade who reported positive familial relationship formed relationship with peer with positive values which negatively affected their choice to consume alcohol. In another distinctive study, Shek (1997) inquired 429 Chinese adolescents' and their parents' perception about the relations between family functioning and adolescent adjustment. The rating obtained from both adolescents and their parents revealed that family functioning was significantly associated with adolescents' (a) psychological well-being, (b) school adjustment, and (c) problem behavior such as smoking and drug abuse.

The need for close friends also becomes crucial during adolescence. Because, in this developmental stage, adolescents begin defining themselves by group affiliation and developing a sense of self who they are in comparison to others (Erikson, 1968). During adolescence, youngsters need to share their emotions,

thoughts, doubts, and experiences more than at any other time in their life (Savin-Williams & Berndt, 1990). Peer interactions and close friendships can make great contribution in an adolescent's development. In this point of view, a very important issue is how the family and the peer relations are related in adolescents' social development. Before the 1980s, the idea that family and peer system might operate as interrelated socialization context, each affecting the other, received very little empirical attention. This oversight was, in part, attributable to investigators' tendencies to construe the family and peer system as separate rather than interlocking domain. However, last two decades, paradigm shift occurred because researchers began to search for the origins of children's peer competence within the family (Ladd & Petit, 2002).

Much of the studies (Engels, Decovic, & Meeus, 2002) on relations between parents and peers context have shown that parents have a critical role in their children's social development by providing them with opportunities to develop social and relationship formation skills with other young children. It is considered that there are two ways in which adolescents' relationship with parents may affect their peer interaction, indirect involvement and direct involvement (Parke & Buriel, 1998).

The parents' indirect involvement is related with the general influence of parent-child relationship experiences on children's social development and peer competence (MacDonald & Parke, 1984). Parenting factors such as warmth, parental acceptance, parental attachment and family climate positively contributed to children's competence with peer group and associated with the quality of peer relationship (Ladd & Petit, 2002; MacDonald & Parke, 1984). Researchers operating from social learning, attachment, and other environmental perspective have emphasized relationship learning in the family as the means through which children acquire skills and transfer them to the peer context (Paley, Conger, & Harold, 2000). In contrast, direct involvement is related with parents' effort to socialize or "manage" children's social development especially as it pertains to the peer context (Ladd & Petit, 2002). Direct parental actions are intended to affect

children's behavior in specific social situations by instruction or coaching of social behaviors. Parke and Buriel (1998) stated the direct involvement as parents' direct role in children's friends and peer relationship through encompassing a variety of activities such as support, encouraging to social activities and spending time with their peers. According to Ladd and Petit (2002) findings pertaining to direct parental influence are organized around four key constructs; parent as designer, mediator, supervisor, advisor and consultant. It has been suggested that not only parents socialize their children's peer relationship indirectly, but also they affect their children directly as managers of children and adolescent peer relationship (Updegraff, McHale, Couter, & Kupanoff, 2001). Mounts (2002) posited that parents manage various aspects of their children's social lives, and these inputs may have different effects on children's social development.

On the basis of the evidence (Hindelang, Dwyer, & Leeming, 2001) indicating the relationship between parents and adolescents, parental involvement has been very important and has been considered as strongly connected with the parent-child relationship. Noller and Taylor (1989) described effective parenting emphasizing the mothers and the fathers learned about parenting while attempting to change their method of interaction with their children with the purpose of encouraging positive behavior in their children. According to Mahoney and Kaiser (1999), main objectives of parent training is that it is enable parents to manage children's behaviors, teaches parents strategies to stimulate children's' developmental skills, enriches parents' skills in encouraging their children in play and social interaction. As a result, researchers have developed a variety of parent training strategies designed to parents on effective parenting in order to strengthen the families, reduce the problem behaviors and support their children in social interaction with other children.

Although many different theoretical framework and studies support the notion of continuity on parent-child relationships, two theoretical frameworks, attachment theory and social cognitive theory, are the most distinctive ones to prove increasingly useful in having an insight into linkages between the quality of parent-

child relationships and children's social adjustment.

Attachment theory has been based on the proposition that children differ in the degree of emotional security and type of internal working model they derive from attachment relationship. Furthermore, this development structure influences their approach and expectations about other nonparental relationship (Bowlby, 1969). Social Cognitive Theory, earlier referred to as Social Learning Theory, emphasizes observation and modeling as the key mechanism by which the individual learns. In social cognitive theory, learning occurs through imitation, identification, and modeling or through the association of behavior with its consequences (Bandura, 1986). Identification with role models, observation of those role models and emulations of the role models' characteristics facilitate children's ability to engage in social learning. Through this theoretical point of view, studies operating from social learning have emphasized relationship learning in the family as the means through which children acquire skills and transfer them to the peer context (Ladd & Petit, 2002; Parke & Bruel, 1998). In addition, Golding (2000) indicated that social learning assumption is a distinctive model for the adequate of parenting in order to facilitate the treatment of childhood behavior disorder or improve the emotional care of children. For instance, Patterson and his colleagues at the Oregon Social Learning Center developed one of the earliest and most extensively studied models of family influences on adolescent risk behavior. Patterson advances a developmental model of antisocial behavior (Patterson, 1976, 1986). This model emphasizes family interactions and parental monitoring as starting points in the development of antisocial behaviors. According to Patterson's model, family interactions contribute to problem behavior through harsh and inconsistent discipline, lack of positive parent-child interaction, and inadequate supervision of the child's activities. Besides, some studies outlining social learning theory is useful and adequate model for dealing adolescent concerns. Updegraff, Madden-Dertrich, Estrada, Sales, and Leonard, (2002) investigated the connection between young adolescent's perception on emotional qualities of relationship with their parents and their experiences with their best friends based on social learning theory and structural family theory. Findings yielded that girls who described their parents

as warm and accepting indicated that they had more intimate with their best friends. For boys description of open communication with and acceptance by their father were associated with more intimacy with their best friends.

It is a well known fact that, until recently, parent training programs have been designed to account extensively for the relationship between the mother and child. Levant and Doyle (1983) outlined that parent education for fathers was a neglected area and that studies on child development mainly focused on the relationship between mother and their children. The father's roles in child development and outcomes have received limited attention in educational and psychological research studies. Traditionally, parent education programs have aimed at supporting women in their roles as mothers; therefore, these programs failed to meet the needs of fathers as they attempted to become more involved in raising their children (Easterbrooks & Goldberg, 1984).

The societal standards and expectations which discouraged fathers participation in child-rearing has been slowly changing since the 1970's which Lamb (1979) called an "era of paternal rediscovery". During the last two decades, fathers may not be the primary source of income for the family; and due to full or part time employment, most mothers no longer stay at home with the children (Lamb, 1997; Marsiglio, 1995). In many families, mothers and fathers may not reside in the same home due to the decrease in the number of marriages, high divorce rates and the growing popularity of nonmarital childrearing (Eggeberg & Knoester, 2001). Because of mother's employment status many fathers are more involved in the daily care taking of the children (Darling-Fisher & Tiedje, 1990). The historical perception of the father's role as the breadwinner of the family and as a moral support for the mother has no longer valid in guiding the development of such parent training programs.

Due to these alterations in the structure of the family and in family roles, more studies have been focused on the father and his various roles in the family for two decades (Cooksey & Fondell, 1996). Research on father-child relationship has followed three lines. Initial studies centered on the comparison of the relationship

children establish with their father and mother. For instance, in assessing adolescents' perception of relationship with their families, mother was perceived to be more available than father by son and daughter for discussing problems on a variety of issues (Brody, Pillegrini, & Sigel, 1986). In addition, Meyers (1993) emphasized that while father had not typically assumed as much responsibility for child care as had mother, they had significant interaction with children in infancy, childhood and adolescence that influence socialization.

The other types of studies have tented to examine role of fathers in terms of their absence on the development of psychological problems of children. Regardless of whether or not they live in the same home, fathers may influence children directly as well as indirectly through their influence on the overall parental support, monitoring and family conflict experienced by their children (Salem, Zimmerman, & Notaro, 1998). On the other hand, some of the studies considered the noninvolvement fathers (often defined as father absence) have been linked to psychological maladjustment, behavioral disorders and educational problems. Veneziano and Rohnar (1998) found that the impact of nonresident father involvement varied depending on the adolescent's race and gender. They found that white adolescent males who lived with single mothers and had no contact with non resident father reported higher levels of delinquency and substance use than those who lived with both parents or with single mothers and were in contact with their nonresident fathers.

In addition to the above mentioned the studies, current ones have been extended to emphasize specific characteristics of the father-child interaction and its influence on diverse areas of the child's development. For instance, Fagan and Iglesias, (1999) indicated that father involvement and nurturance were also positively associated with the intellectual development, internal locus of control and social competence of children. Researchers also pointed out the positive influence of father involvement on the cognitive and intellectual development of white American children (Williams & Radin, 1999), on their academic achievement (Evans & McCarter, 1997), and on their psychological adjustment (Veneziano &

Rohner, 1998). The results of these studies have increasingly shown that the father is not only a provider of economic resources for the family, but also an active member of the family who contributes to the cognitive, emotional, and social development of the children. It is inevitable that many authors have argued recently that fathers must become actively involved in child-rearing in order to ensure healthy child development (McBride, 1989; Russell & Russell, 1987; Volling & Belsky, 1991). In addition, some of the salient authors (Lamb, 1997; Levant, 1988; Palkovitz, 2002) who have studied fatherhood and father involvement for a long time argue that more rigorous research studies are needed to be able to account for the nature of the father-child relationship to mediate the impact of fathers.

According to Zimmerman, Salem and Maton (1995), fathers have also an important role in adolescents' lives. A growing body of research suggests that adolescents' relationship with their fathers was related to healthier psychosocial outcomes. Dekovic and Meuss (1997) stated that fathers' relationship with their children and spending time with their children as well as fathers' support and monitoring were viewed as significant role in adolescents' development.

The family context, specifically father interaction processes, may interrelate with adolescent regulatory actions in the development of identity. This theoretical framework is consistent with literature of adolescent as Erickson (1968) stated that the major psychological task of adolescence is identity development. In addition, some research has found adolescent identity development and increases in self-esteem when (a) fathers behave in ways that challenge the youth's autonomy and relatedness; and (b) fathers express their feelings to the youth about the importance of him or her being both independent of and yet involved with the family (Allen, Hauser, Eickholt, Bell, & O'Connor, 1994).

Furthermore, the examination of the relationship between father and adolescents shows that father-child relationship associate in a similar way with adolescents' relationship with peers. As it is stated previously, Social Learning Theory emphasizes observation as the key mechanism by which the individual learns. Parents, specifically fathers, are power role model for children and due to the

changes in today fathers, many fathers allocate more time to their children in indirect interaction, which results in more opportunities for children to observe and learn from their fathers (McBride & Rane, 1997; Rane & McBride, 2000). Recent studies have outlined that children transfer the behavioral and relationship patterns to peer domain how they have learned in relationship with their fathers. Children's social competence with peers occurs by means of imitation of an adult model (Schneider, 1999), in other words, by modeling or imitating their father children would learn both a dyadic style of interaction and the social responses associated with their father and would use those skills in their interaction with peer. In their study Dekovic and Meuss (1997) indicated that father's behavior toward the adolescent is more important than the mother in terms of self-concept development and the development of peer relations. Furthermore, after the effect of self-concept had been removed, findings of the study concluded that paternal child-rearing style had an independent effect on the adolescents' involvement with peers that is not accounted for by the adolescents' self-concept.

In Turkey, there has been limited studies relates with effect of parents on adolescent development. Majority of studies carried out with parents having pre-school and/or elementary school children. For instance, the effect of a parental involvement in the academic and social skills of children was explored and a parental involvement program was developed for the 6th grade students whose parents were actively involved (Utku, 1999). Likewise, Akkök, Kökdemir and Öğütürk (1998) conducted a study with elementary school students' parents to improve the student's self-esteem, social and academic development. Through the study, parents were informed about their children's development, activities done in the class and how to help their children at home for an academic year. On the other hand, some other small-scale studies on adolescent and family relationship indicated that adolescents' healthy relationship with their family was contributive to the decreases adolescent's level of stress and the increases in their adaptation levels (Eryüksel, 1996). In line with this, Banaz (1992) pointed out a negative relationship between adolescents' perceptions of family support and their level of stress. Özeke-Kocabaş (2005) examined the effect of parent training on different

dimension of parent-adolescent relationship and communication skills of parent. The qualitative findings revealed that the training help parents to develop more positive interaction with their children. Furthermore, results of the limited number of investigations on parent-training in Turkey indicate that they are rather supporting women in their roles as mothers than men as fathers (Aydın, 2003).

Findings of the studies in Turkey are consistent with literature which have indicated that parent education program have aimed at supporting women in their roles as mothers (Aydın, 2003; McBride,1991) and the parent education for fathers have been a neglected area (Levant, 1988). On the contrary, father involvement activities are strongly needed to help fathers to have more information about development of their children and to know importance of father-child relationship on child development. In other words, the societal standards and expectations which in the past discouraged father involvement in child development have been changing increasingly in recent years. Hence, a specific parent education program for fathers has become a considerable demand at present (Levant, 1988; Mc Bride, 1991; Meyers, 1993). In addition, Levant (1988) suggested that fathers' education program through which fathers can learn a new role that departs radically from the role of their fathers and involves skills such as sensitivity to children, nurturance, expressivity and child management.

In conclusion, in the light of research evidence one can assume that developing parent training, especially for fathers, and assessing their differential effect on parent-adolescent relationship and adolescents' peer relationship appear to be important. Research studies have recently shown that increased father involvement influences children whereby the father may get a chance to get to know his children better and form a closer relationship with children, thus become a more effective parent (Parke, 2002). In addition, father as a role model provides more opportunities for adolescents to observe and learn from their fathers. Social Cognitive Learning theory as a training approach, earlier referred as "Social Learning Theory", has been useful in providing a theoretical background to understand the linkage between the parent-child relationship and children's social

development and competence (Paley, Conger, & Harold, 2000; Patterson, 1976; Updegraff, McHale, Crouter, & Kupanoff, 2001). Some recent studies on Social Cognitive Theory suggest that social learning principals of instruction, modeling, rehearsal and feedback/reinforcement have appeared as more promising approach to parent involvement training (Golding, 2000; Johnson, Kent, & Leather, 2005; Şahin, 2006).

Hence, grounded in Social-Cognitive Theory, Father Involvement Training may help fathers to acquire the knowledge and behavior required to improve relationship with their children (e.g. better use of time, more information on their children) and encourage them on their children's interactions in peer group, thus contributing effectively to the family communication and interaction.

1.2 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this experimental study is twofold: (a) to design and determine the effect of Father Involvement Training (FIT), which is based on social-cognitive theory principals, on family functioning in father-adolescent relationships (eg. better use time, confidence), (b) to examine the effect of Father Involvement Training (FIT) on the quality of the peer relationship of 9th grade high school students, whose fathers were in either the experimental group or the control group.

1.3 Significance of the Study

Father Involvement Training is a proposed way of helping fathers in learning to establish relationship with their children, and understand their children's developmental needs. Trained fathers can gain awareness of their relationship with their children, and be more informed about characteristics of adolescents. In this way, fathers may become more conscious in raising their children, learn to better ways to communicate with them, which in turn may affect the entire family atmosphere. In addition as indicated in the literature Father Involvement Training seems potentially beneficial and valuable intervention for adolescents to prevent occurrence of more serious problems in the future years and by facilitating healthy adolescent development (Cookston & Finlay, 2006).

There are certain developmental periods in adolescence aspects of physical, emotional, social changes emerge and adaptation to these changes can be stressful for both adolescents and their parents. Parents may worry about their child's experimenting with drugs, alcohol, smoking, sexual activity or becoming involved with criminal activities. On the other hand, parents have also critical role on the adolescent to overcome these stressful experiences and healthy development of the adolescents. There is a growing interest in the literature relates to the significant contributions of fathers to their children's social development in diverse areas (Palkovitz, 2002). However, in Turkey, there has been insufficient empirical evidence to understand father involvement in adolescence period. Beside, research in this area is usually confined to elementary and preschool children (Aydın, 2003). It is expected that the present study would contribute to the understanding of father-adolescents relationship and its influences on diverse areas of adolescent development, and constitute a base for future studies.

In adolescent period, their social interactions outside the family environment increase and the peers become more influential in social life and activities. Children and adolescents with adequate peer relationships are more likely to maximize the social aspects of achievement, school performance, and ultimately, occupational performance. Interactions with parents can be a context for learning specific skills that adolescents can apply in their relationship with other youth. Moreover, helping parents and adolescents to strive for more autonomy in their relationship may enable youth to establish close relationships outside the family as well. In this critical developmental process, how the father and peer system are related that is very important point of view on the adolescent socialization. The large number of the studies mentioned that adolescent's peer relationships and competence are strongly affected by father's characteristics and skills (Updegraff, McHale, Crouter, & Kupanoff, 2001). However, the effects of the father on adolescent's social development and competence have not received the deserved attention of Turkish researchers. The present study may provide a point of view to the importance of father-adolescent relationship on adolescents' peer interaction.

Many studies' findings agree that children have more achievements and competence when parents are involved in their children's school life (Göksan, 2003; Griffith, 1996). At the same time, families have a great influence on children's learning; therefore it seems very crucial to have parent involvement in children's education. Many families, however, may not understand the degree to which family factors influence a child's learning, or the critical importance of their involvement in their child's education and development (Riley, Peterson, Moreno, Goode, & Menahem, 2000). Since parents are the main figures in development of their children's healthy personalities, parent involvement is offered as primary prevention in the hopes of avoiding emotional and social difficulties in children

Children depend on their parents to maintain their well-being and fathers today consider that time spent with their children helps to strengthen and maintain family unity (Cooksey & Fondell, 1996). Today many authors (Parke, 2002; Rane & McBride, 2000) have focused on the important role of the father in child healthy development. This new insight into fatherhood underlines the importance of the father's role as well as that of the mother in their children's lives. In addition, it is clear that parent training programs and social support available to help mothers develop parenting skills are not available to men as fathers (Levant, 1988). Because of limited social support and lack of preparation for fatherhood, fathers do not have abilities to meet changing expectations for paternal involvement. Therefore, a lot of fathers have failed to take an active role in child development. Family and parent educators need to be aware of this changing role of fathers and its relationship to paternal involvement as they develop and implement parent education and support trainings designed specifically for fathers. Nevertheless, while numbers of father involvement training have been widely reported abroad, there were few studies for father training for children and adolescent in Turkey (Aydın, 2003; Şahin, 2006). Therefore, the present study is considered to provide empirical evidence that developing and implementing a new parent training for fathers of adolescents and aims at contributing to the literature and provides an initial step for further studies.

It is expected that the present study may contribute to the field of education and

counseling by creating an example of effective father involvement training. Furthermore, this study would be a distinctive empirical study, which used group-based training as an intervention method for the fathers of adolescents. From this point of view, Father Involvement Training can be considered as a useful activity for school counselors when they deal with family, father and child relationship and other parental issues.

1.4 Definition of Terms

Family Functioning: It refers to the nature and quality of family dynamics and a relationship between father and children (Salem, Zimmermann, & Notaro, 1998) in aspect of communication, satisfaction, confidence and spending time and leisure time activities as well as positive association.

Father Involvement: The concept of father involvement was defined as communication, caring, monitoring, shared activities...etc, that father is assumed to be more involve in their own children development (Palkovitz, 1997). In the present study, the term father involvement and paternal involvement were at times used interchangeably, as it is in the literature.

Father Involvement Training: F.I.T. attempts to increase involvement of father in children social development and support the father's communication with children as the appropriate family functioning (Palkovitz, 1997).

Peer Relationship: Peer relationship is a various kind of peer interaction as commitment, trust, self-disclosure and loyalty that facilitates adolescents' interaction in their peer group (Kaner, 2002).

The next chapter is devoted to the presentation of review of the literature related to the family functioning and father involvement. In the third chapter, the specific research questions and methods used for sample selection, design of data collection instruments, data collection procedure, training material and procedure, and data analysis are presented. The results are presented in the fourth chapter and discussion is presented in the final fifth chapter.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter summarizes the literature relevant to the present study. It begins with a presentation of family functioning and parental influence on adolescent development, adolescent's peer interaction, and follows with an overview of studies on parent involvement in adolescent development. Next, it follows with a description on changing roles of fathers, father involvement in adolescent development and adolescent's peer interaction, and training for fathers. Finally, the chapter concludes with a presentation of studies related to parent training and father involvement in Turkey.

2.1 Family Functioning

Families have historically played a crucial part in the life and development of people in terms of "life satisfaction" and "adaptation to the society" where they live in. As a system, family provides the family members with opportunity for increasing their life satisfaction, sense of responsibility, need of belongingness and self-confidence (Gladding, 1998).

The family has long been recognized as the primary support system and socializing institution for children; the better the family operates, the more likely that a child will develop in a healthy manner. Effective communication skills, family relations and family functioning patterns provide a support for positive child and adolescent development (Gable, 2003; McCreary & Dancy, 2004). Understanding the nature of relationship within the family, including family characteristic, cohesion and satisfaction, provides more information for understanding between family and adolescents relationship.

A substantial number of studies have tried to explain the role of family functioning on child and adolescent development. Coercion theory developed by Patterson

(1986) suggested that family functioning influences the interpersonal style of an adolescent and has a direct effect on an adolescent's involvement with peer group characteristics whether deviant peer and delinquent behavior or not. Furthermore, the path of family influence or effect begins with family functioning and ends with child characteristics that determine success or failure within the peer group. In other words, the family influences an adolescent's interpersonal behaviors with other adolescents tending to replicate family patterns in their peer relationship (Bell, Cornwell, & Bell, 1988). Patterson (1986) also revealed that disruptive family management skills led to an adolescent developing a coercive and antisocial interpersonal style. This coercive interpersonal style may lead to a rejection by conventional peer groups and resulting in increased involvement with peers who shared this aggressive and coercive interpersonal style (Dishion, Patterson, Stoolmiller, & Skinner, 1991).

According to Olson (2000) the family functioning means to the quality of interaction within a family system to include cohesion, flexibility, and communication of the family. Bulut (1989) stated that family functioning was a sign of the quality of relationship between the family members and reflected the contribution of family members to life quality. Although family functioning is conceptualized in a number of different ways, three outstanding models appear to be the most comprehensive approaches to explain family functioning: Olson's Circumplex Model (Olson, 2000), Beavers' System Model (Beavers & Hampson, 2000), and the McMaster Model (Miller, Ryan, Kietner, Bishop, & Epstein, 2000). These salient models ultimately have two aims: to describe the most important dimensions of family functioning, and to describe the discrimination between healthy and poorly functioning families.

2.1.1 Olson's Circumplex Model

Olson, Sprenkle, and Russel (1980) attempted to integrate many of the diverse concepts from the healthy family literature through their circumplex model. Authors considered three dimensions of family interaction as a basis for identifying healthy or pathological family functioning. The dimensions were; cohesion,

flexibility, and communication (Olson, 2000).

The first dimension, family cohesion, represents the emotional bond between family members. The family cohesion was categorized into four levels ranging from disengaged (very low) to separate (low to moderate) to connected (moderate to high) to enmeshed (very high). At the extreme high of family cohesion (enmeshment) dimension, there is over-identification between the family members which results in an emotional, intellectual or physical closeness (Olson, Sprenkle, & Russel, 1980). The low extreme of cohesion (disengagement) results in emotional, intellectual or physical isolation from family. On the other hand, when the levels of cohesion are balanced, there is a more functional balance of the issues identified and the family deals more effectively with situational stress and developmental change. In another study, Olson, Russel and Sprenkle (2000) stressed that separated and connected levels of cohesion (balanced) are most viable for family functioning because individuals are able to experience and balance being independent from their family as well as connect to them.

Family flexibility, earlier referred as adaptability, is the second major dimension and includes leadership negotiation styles, role relationship and relationship rules among family members (Olson, 2000). As with cohesion, family flexibility was categorized into four levels range from rigid (very low) to structured (low to moderate) to flexible (moderate to high) to chaotic (very high). Olson (2000) suggested that structured and flexible levels of flexibility (balanced) are more contributive to healthy family functioning. In contrast, the extreme levels of flexibility (rigid or chaotic) are the most troublesome for families as they move through their life-times. Olson (2000) also stated that adolescent families with low levels of stress and high levels of satisfaction were balanced in terms of flexibility. That is, families that cope well with the transition to adulthood are close and supportive, but also flexible in their approach to solving family problems.

The last dimension is family communication. According to Olson, Russel and Sprankle (1980) many practitioners have begun to isolate the specific components of effective marital and family communications and have created skill development

workshop to facilitate family communications. In addition, Olson (2000) indicated that communication as third and facilitating dimension on the other two dimensions. In other words, while balanced systems tend to have very good communication, unbalanced systems tend to have poor communication. The family communication might be observed by a variety of remarkable skills such as listening skills, speaking skills, self-disclosure, clarity, continuity tracking, and respect and regard (Olson, 2000). Given the three basic functions in families, the amount of time individuals spend with each other in their families and the impact that the family has on adolescents undoubtedly preparing them for adult life. It is obvious that the families is very important in aspects of the environment and their functions in which adolescent grow up.

2.1.2 Beavers' System Model

Beavers' System model is another model of family functioning that identifies two main dimensions: "family competence" and "family style". The former includes power structures, degree of negotiation and adaptive flexibility of the family. High family competence (flexible and adaptive family) means that family has the ability to negotiate and to manage stressful situations effectively (Beavers & Hampson, 2000). On the other hand, the latter is associated with stylistic quality of interaction within family and involves the extent to which the family is inward-focused or outward-focused. Inward-focused families (centripetal families) view most relationship satisfactions as coming not from the outer world but from within family. Conversely, for outward-focused families (centrifugal families) outside world is greater source of satisfaction (Goldenberg & Goldenberg, 2000). For example, a family with small children is appropriately more centripetal. As the family matures and children reach late adolescence, a more centrifugal pattern is expected to be optimally adaptive.

Beaver's ideas are of special interest to researchers and practitioners, because Beavers and colleagues (Beavers & Hampson, 2000) see family style as relevant to the type of psychopathology likely develop in some family members. Adolescent in inward-focused families (centripetal) tend to develop internally focused symptoms

such as schizophrenia and depression. Those in outward-focused (centrifugal) families are more likely to develop externally focused symptoms such as delinquent behaviors.

In Beavers system model, competent families change and adapt in various ways in order to meet individual members' needs. In addition, healthy families are balanced on style, with some activities being family-centered and others involving outsiders and the community. In contrast, extreme of style are only evident in unhealthy families who are low in competence. These families tend to be either strongly inward-focused (centripetal), with intense family loyalties and activities generally centered in the family, or strongly outward-focused (centrifugal) with weak family bonds and activities centered outside the family (Goldenberg & Goldenberg, 2000).

2.1.3 McMaster Model

Family life in nature and the General System Theory describes the family as a system of interacting personalities (Nichols & Schwartz, 2001). The General System Theory first proposed by Ludwig von Bertalanffy in the 1940's describes the interaction of all living organisms. Bertalanffy stressed the relationship between the parts of a system and the various components are to be understood as functions of the total system (Goldenberg & Goldenberg, 2000). This theory explains systems by the way they are organized and by the independence of their parts. The McMaster Model of Family Functioning, proposed by the work of Nathan Epstein and his colleagues, is derived from General System Theory. The McMaster Model of Family Functioning is a problem-centered approach. It was this model that identified the family resources that supported healthy family functioning.

The McMaster Model does not cover all aspects of family functioning, but a family can be evaluated to determine the effectiveness of its functioning with respect to each dimensions. To understand the family structures, organization and transactional patterns associated with family difficulties, the McMaster model focuses on assessing and formulating six dimensions of family life; problem-solving, communications, roles, affective responsiveness, affective involvement

and behavior control (Miller, Ryan, Kietner, Bishop, & Epstein, 2000).

In the McMaster model, Epstein suggested that healthy family is one where closeness is moderate and the control of behavior is flexible. All necessary roles are assigned to competent individuals who are accountable for their performance and communication is clear and direct. Emotions are expressed at a level appropriate to the situation and problem-solving is effective. As a result, models of the healthy family environment emphasized that family environment where individuality and autonomy are encouraged, and adolescents are likely to receive all the love and support they need (as cited in Nichols & Schwarz, 2001).

2.2 Parental Influences on Adolescent Development

Adolescence is crucial in the developmental stage that may render adolescents more vulnerable than younger children or adults by rapid physical, emotional, cognitive and social changes. Parent-child interaction at adolescent period changes together with the physical, cognitive, and emotional changes arising in adolescence. Therefore, developmental stage of adolescence is generally a stressful time for transitions for the parents and the adolescents. Paramount to this developmental stage is the task of developing an independent in relations to others. Specifically, Erikson's (1968) hierarchical stage psychosocial model describes development through the life-span as the reconciliation of stage specific crisis that are centered within each person's relationship to the social environment. While normative development theorists, like Erikson, have traditionally described the tasks, identifying markers and outcomes of development, more recent models have shifted focus to understanding the relational process that facilitate optimal development rather than describing only outcomes. These relational models (Grotevant & Cooper, 1985) explore aspect of adolescent functioning in relation to the quality of parental and peer relationship. In particular, they come to focus on the quality of parental relationship as they relate to the adolescent developmental task of individuation.

Grotevant and Cooper (1985) present a model of individuation that is considered a

function of the quality of dyadic relationships between parent and adolescent. According to researchers individuation can be observed through communication patterns. They proposed that the co-occurrence of individuality and connectedness in family relationships contribute to the adolescent's ability to explore identity formation. Authors defined that the individuality consists of two dimensions. The first dimension is self-assertion, being able to hold and communicate a frame of reference. The second dimension is separateness, the using communication skills in order to show differences between ones' self and others. As with individuality, connectedness has also two dimensions. First one is mutuality, being sensitive to and respecting others' point of views. The second one is permeability, being open to others' perspectives (Grotevant & Cooper, 1998). The individuation process involves a reciprocal relationship between parents and adolescent that provides a secure base for adolescent's asserting and independence while both parents and adolescent without losing their mutual connection and healthy communication (Sartor & Youniss, 2002). Stating differently, while young people must establish a sense of self as an individual, they also keep connection to their family that are the most important developmental processes for identity development (Grotevant & Cooper, 1998).

Grotevant and Cooper (1998) believed an adolescent's identity formation is strongly related to family environment that enhances both individuality and connectedness. It is outlined that parents' knowledge about adolescents' daily activities and parents' emotional support were positively associated with identity achievement. According to Grotevant and Cooper's (1985) family relationship, which encourages adolescent to develop their own point of view and provide a secure base from which they explore the social world, enhances the identity formation of an adolescent. A vast number of studies (Sartor & Younis, 2002; Thoubourou & Gregg, 2001) outlined that family relationship affect the successes through which young people negotiate the important developmental tasks of adolescence. Namely, close relationship, love and support seem to be particularly important for encouraging autonomy, independence, and identity achievement.

A typical model of family influence that guides much of the recent research in adolescent development is Baumrind's (1966, 2005) model of parenting. Baumrind's model identifies two dimensions on which parents vary: responsiveness and demandingness. Responsiveness refers to the degree to which parents provide warmth and encourage independence and autonomy. Demandingness refers to the expectations that parents set, as well as parental monitoring of their children's activities. Based on two dimensions, Baumrind classifies parents into one of three categories: authoritative, authoritarian or permissive. High level of both responsiveness and demandingness characterize authoritative parenting. Authoritative parents establish clear rules and expectations, provide explanations for the rules, and include the adolescent in the decision-making process, with the parents reserving the authority to make final decisions. Authoritarian parents, in contrast, have rules without explanations or warmth. They discourage adolescent autonomy, seeking to control their children through rules. In Baumrind's model, permissive parents include all parents low in demandingness. These parents have rules and allow an excessive amount of autonomy. According to Baumrind, permissive may or may not high levels of responsiveness (Baumrind, 2005). In 1983, Maccoby and Martin identified two forms of permissive parenting style, and named as neglectful and indulgent parenting. Neglectful parents exhibit low levels of responsiveness and low levels of demandingness. Indulgent parents have high levels of responsiveness in conjunction with low levels of demandingness (as cited in Baumrind, 2005). In her investigation, Baumrind examined the relationship between parenting styles and social competence in adolescence. The comprehensive assessment involved observations and interview with 139, 14-year age boys and girls, and their parents. More than any other factor, the responsiveness of parents was related to the adolescence social competence. Furthermore, when parents had problem behaviors themselves adolescents were more likely to have problems and show decrease in social competence (as cited in Santrock, 2004).

Over the year a vast number of the studies have tried to explore the effect of parents on adolescent development. The available research suggests that parents

who are warm, supportive, and consistent in their behavior and style of discipline can effectively reduce the probability that their child/adolescent engage in risk-taking behaviors. For instance, quality family relationships have been consistently found to be important predictors of adolescent problem behaviors, including smoking, other substance use and alcohol use (Coker & Borders, 2001). Dysfunctional family structure, inadequate parenting skills, and lack of parental attention are strongly associated with the adolescent's selection of substance-using friends and with the tendency (Hindelang, Dwyer, & Leeming, 2001). Ackard and his colleagues (2006) showed a significant relationship between adolescent behavioral and emotional health and adolescent's perception of low parental caring, difficulty talking to their parents about problems, and valuing their friends' opinions for serious decisions. Ohennessian, Lerner, Lerner, and Von Eye (1994) found family interactions influenced the adolescent, and the adolescent behavior moderated the family relationship. In their longitudinal study with early adolescent, researchers also stated that the choices of coping behaviors were found to influence the relationship between family functioning and emotional adjustment.

Consequently, it is obvious that effective parenting practices today reflect the agreement and cooperation of both parents in many areas of child rearing, and can create a good emotional environment in which adolescent can grow and develop.

2.3 Parental Influences on Adolescent's Peer Interaction

In developmental psychology literature, adolescence is characterized as a time of increasing autonomy from parents. As youth prepare for adulthood, they struggle to establish their own identities and rely less upon their parents for support and guidance. Adolescent years is identified as a time of striving for independence while also feeling quite unsure about separation from one's parents (Conger & Galambos, 1997). As it is indicated previously, researchers have termed this process as individuation (Grotevant & Cooper, 1985) that involves a separation from reliance on parental standards for behavior and definition of right and wrong.

It is inevitable that the quality of the relationship displayed in interaction between

parents and children is an important signal of social competence with other children as well. Social interactions within the family have a stronger influence on the socialization of children and the ability to interact successfully with peers is an important aspect of a child's development (Field, Diego, & Sanders, 2002). Peer interaction may begin to fulfill many of the needs that parental relations once served in childhood such as those of companionship, affection, and intimacy. In other words, part of the separation process is thought to involve a re-structuring of a child's social network from reliance on parents to increasing reliance on friendship for emotional support.

A considerable body of research on adolescents' social development has been devoted to investigating the link between adolescents' experiences with their parents and their functioning in peer relationships. For instance, both Decovic and Meeus (1997), and Szinovacz (2003) suggest that family environment influences an adolescent's interpersonal styles, which in turn influences peer group interactions. In the same vein, Parke (2002) pointed out skills, behaviors, and knowledge obtained by interacting with the family members were regarded as mainly predictors of adolescent's ability to develop supportive and close relationship with other adolescent.

A number of models of support have been proposed to describe the relative importance of parent versus peer relationship for the well-being of adolescent. The first model suggests that the need for support from parents declines during adolescence while the need for support from friendship increases. The better an adolescent is able to gain autonomy from their parents and to find the emotional support they need from their peer group. In this view, parents and peer are seen as opposing each other, and support from parents and peer are expected to be negatively correlated. This has been called "conflict hypothesis" (Steinberg & Silverberg, 1986) but it has recently been modified into "compensation model" by Helsen, Vollebergh, and Meeus (2000). This compensation model suggested that an adolescent who gets little support from parents may compensate for this by maintaining good relationship with friends. Whether it is called the compensate

model, this view predicts that the adolescents who are the most well-adjusted will increase their support from friends and decrease their reliance on parents for support during adolescence. In another model, called the “additive model”, relationships with parents and peer are thought to occupy separate social worlds that are unrelated. Support from parents is largely independent of support from friends; an adolescent may have support from parents, from peers, from both, or neither. In this additive model, both parental and peer support should have separate contribution to the adolescent development (Helsen, Vollebergh, & Meeus, 2000). Lastly, in the “reinforcement model”, support from parents and peer is expected to be positively correlated. In this view, effective relationships with parents provide the model for relationship with peer. Those young people who have been given warmth and support from their parents are better able to form healthy and nurturing relationship with friends (Helsen, Vollebergh, & Meeus, 2000). The reinforcement model proposes that parents influence their children’s peer interactions indirectly through the impact of parent-child relationship experiences on children’ social development and peer competence.

In addition to the above mentioned model, research studies on the connection between parent and peer relationship are also grounded in the assumptions of either attachment or social learning theory. Two theoretical frameworks, attachment theory and social learning theory, are the most distinctive ones to prove increasingly useful in having a perspective about linkages between the quality of parent-child relationships and children's social adjustment (Ladd & Petit, 2002). Basic assumption of social cognitive-learning theoretical framework is that, parents influence their children’s social development and peer interaction indirectly via the parents-children relationship with an impact on children’s social development and competence

Social learning theory (Bandura, 1977. 1986) predicts that children who learn specific social behaviors from their parents about how to behave in social situations and to provide emotional support are more likely to engage in positive social interaction with in their peer group. Parents influence children’s interaction with

their peer both by shaping social behavior (through reinforcement and coaching) and by serving as models of appropriate social interaction. In line with the tenets of Social Learning theory, it can be argued that warmth, close relationship and sensitivity in the parent-adolescent relationship establish the stages for adolescents in their social interaction. Parents are often very influential particularly in adolescents' social development by encouraging their interaction with other adolescents. Thus, they can provide them with important perspective and information to develop social cognitive and relationship formation skills. From this perspective, adolescents emulate the social styles of their parent, which can range from, warm, supportive or involved to hostile or coercive. Studies of young children's peer relationships indicate that children benefit from more frequent and more positive interactions with peers and higher levels of social acceptance when parents are involved in those relationships (Cashwell & Vacc, 1996). In their study Field, Diego, and Sanders (2002) stated that adolescent who reported high parent and high peer relationship scores, had more friends, family togetherness, lower level of depression and drug use, and higher grade point average. As a result, Social Learning theory posits that children's interaction with peer may be influenced by reinforcement and coaching. Thus, Social Learning Theory's predictions about family-peer links are two-fold. First, children who receive instruction from their parents about how to behave in social situation and are reinforced for appropriate social behavior, are more likely to engage in positive social interaction with peers. Second, children imitate the social behavior of their parents and interact with their peers in the same manner as their parents have interacted with them (Bandura, 1977).

The importance of parent and peer relationship for adolescent has been investigated in many studies recently. There is substantial evidence in the literature that family behaviors seem to have an influence on children and their peer interaction in adolescence period. For instance, some studies have outlined contribution of warm, communication skills, and supportive style of parenting to satisfactory peer relationship in adolescents' peer activities (Engels, Dekovic, & Meeus, 2002). Lieberman, Doyle, and Markiewicz (1999) have noted young adolescents' strong

attachment to parent leads primarily to the quality of their close peer relationship and lack of conflict with their best friends. Bell, Avery, Jenkins, Field, and Schoenrock (1985) investigated association between family relationship in terms of closeness to parents and siblings, and perceived social competence with 2313 freshmen university students. The results of the study indicated that there was a significant positive relationship between family bonds and social competence with satisfying peer relationship during adolescence. Tilton-Weaver and Galambos (2003) suggested that parenting styles were indirectly influential on the adolescent's peer interaction, and parents who were able to maintain healthy empathic communications with their children significantly effect their children in dealing with difficult aspects of growing up. Furthermore, researchers stated that parental behaviors seem to be less restrictive parenting and more interested in children's friendships that are contributing to a better integration of their children into peer relationship. A further study by Field, Lang, Yando, and Bendel (1995) outlined that adolescents who reported high scores on measures of both peer and parent attachment were found to be the best adjusted. Moreover adolescent who reported low scores on both measures were the least well-adjusted.

On the other hand, in response to difficulties at home, children depend heavily on their peers for support when their parents display no effective parental skills or when they are disengaged by their parents (Updegraff, McHale, Gruter, & Kupanoff, 2001). According to Coercion theory by Patterson (1986), family environment influences the interpersonal style of an adolescent and has a direct effect on an adolescent's involvement with peer group characteristics whether deviant peer and delinquent behavior or not. Patterson studies have generally supported that disruptive or restrictive parenting practices are causally related to adolescents developing a coercive and anti-social behavior. Coercive interpersonal style may lead to a rejection by conventional peer groups resulting in increased involvement with peers who shared this aggressive and coercive interpersonal style (Dishion, Patterson, Stoolmiller, & Skinner, 1991). In addition to this way, Krappmann and Uhlenhof (1999) outlined that less interest in children's friendship as well as intensive restrictive parenting was a predictor for weak integration of

children into peer relationship and feelings of loneliness.

In conclusion, these findings suggested that parent-adolescent relationship influence adolescents' peer relationship. Namely, these studies emphasized the positive aspects of peer relations: closeness to peers, satisfaction with peer relations, and acceptance by peers as well as success in school all of which seem to bear with a positive quality of the parent-child relationship. Specifically, parents' behaviors supporting peer activities of their children, parental educational attitudes, and parents' own social relationship are expected to be relevant for children's social integration into a network of friends as well as for children healthy development.

2.4 Parental Involvement

Active parental involvement has been very important in parent-child studies and has been considered as strongly connected with healthy child development. The parental involvement consists of serial of activities, including all ways of parent-adolescent relations, school-parents interaction, and parent-peer link in adolescent development (Balli, Demo, & Wedman, 1991).

The terms of involvement are defined variously as participation, engagement, healthy child care, child rearing, sharing activities, and it is conceptualized and measured in a variety of ways (Doherty, Kouneski, & Erikcson, 1998). Outstanding attention in literature, there is an agreement of terminology across theoretical or empirical point of view and there is little consensus concerning just what involvement is, how to conceptualize it, how to measure it, and how to compare different people's engagement in it (Palkovitz, 1997). The purpose of the parent involvement described as "foster the parent's role as the principal influence on the child's development and as the child primary educators, nurturer and educators" (Federal Register, 1996, November 5, as cited in Fagan & Iglesias, 1999, p. 244)

Parental involvement in adolescents' life is also linked to positive outcomes in development during adolescence, and parents and adolescents relationship is crucial to this process as adolescent's self-development. As adolescents progress,

young people must be given sufficient freedom from parental authority and control in order to experience themselves as individuals with needs and feeling of their own, to make decision about their own lives, and to take responsibility for the consequences of those decisions. Adolescents want parents to demonstrate an “emotional connectedness” (support, involvement, personal relationship) and a “sense of separateness” (autonomy, uniqueness, freedom of personal expression) toward their problems in a tolerance (Sabatelli & Anderson, 1991). A significant aspect of the lack of involvement between parents and teenagers results from a lack of understanding and appreciation that each has for the other. Although parents may strongly desire to maintain contact with their emerging adolescent, unless some vehicle is created that stimulate involvement, each of them may continue to withdraw from the other (Paley, Conger, & Harold, 2000). Although conflicts and discrepancies between parents and adolescents tend to increase during this process, at least in early adolescence, adolescents continue to keep an intimate and close relationship with their parents. In other words, Conger and Galambos (1997) stated that adolescents continue to need their parents’ guidance and supports while they have some conflict in relationship with their parent.

The basic underpinning of the parent involvement suggests that parents are the main figure in their child’s development. Because of these reasons, 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 improve of a number of childhood problems (Hindelang, Dwyer, & Leeming, 2001). Parent training is one of the traditional ways which involves parents actively in children development with a dynamic process (Gestwicki, 2004). All efforts of parent involvement were referred as parent training in some studies (Özeke-Kocabaş, 2005) in terms of supporting and transmitting knowledge to parents to increase parental effectiveness.

Several of the training programs identified in the literature target the family as the primary focus of intervention. Common assumption that parent training programs have been based on is that parents are crucial figure in their children’s

development. Therefore, parent training programs propose a learning climate for the parent to enhance or facilitate their roles in shaping a child's attitude, confidence and skills in engaging the world. Focusing on parent training, the various approaches can be classified in terms of their pedagogical method and theoretical orientation. Given the theoretical orientation, Smith, Perou, and Lesesne (2002) grouped parent training programs into three categories; Rogerian, Adlerian, and behavioral programs. According to Smith, Perou, and Lesesne (2002), these three parent training programs aim to enhance parenting effectiveness by providing a clear parenting theoretical background, and a set of skills and strategies. In addition, these three approaches, which were originally developed in the 1960s, have strongly influenced subsequent models of parent-child interventions.

First, widely used approach to teaching parenting information and skills are based on the Adlerian concept of Individual Psychology. Adlerian parent study groups are designed to help parent learn more effective strategies for understanding and deal with their children's behavior (Kottman & Wilborn, 1992). The Adlerian program are formed to help parent understand and work with the cognitive and affective elements of dealing with their children and to develop effective methods of relaxing with them. In this perspective, the most specific and attractive programs is Systematic Training for Effective Parenting (STEP) that was develop by Dreikurs and Soltz. S.T.E.P tends to deal with problem-solving and negotiation strategies in family and includes the concepts of natural and logical consequences (as cited in Nollar & Taylor, 1989). It has also agreed that participation in Adlerian parent study groups tended to bring about positive changes in parental attitudes towards children, in children's behaviors, and in family relationships (Smith, Perou, & Lesesne, 2002).

Another example of effective education program that is Parent Effectiveness Training (P.E.T) is based on philosophy of Carl Rogers. PET was developed at the end of the 1960s by Thomas Gordon (Gordon, 1970) and formally structured course of eight training sessions. Three basic technique, active listening, I messages, and no lose method were taught in this approach. According to PET, an

effective parent training would be genuine, self-disclosure, accepting and respectful of the feeling, ideas and values of parents and children, and using influence persuasion rather power to meet personal needs (Gordon, 1970). In briefly, the main emphasis is on the teaching of communication skills such as active listening and problem-solving skills (Noller & Taylor, 1989). In addition, in their study compared the effectiveness of P.E.T. and S.T.E.P, Nooler and Taylor (1989) stated that the courses were generally perceived as improving family functioning by the families and there were no difference between the two courses, suggesting that they were seen as equality effective. Another program which was also based on the client-centered approach Guerny's 'Filial Therapy' (as cited in Johnson, Kent, & Leather, 2005). It concentrated on teaching parents to be child-centred play therapists for their own children at home and combined psycho-educational empowerment and play therapy methods. Guernay regarded parents as co-therapist and he directly trained parents with therapeutic skills so that they could use these skills with their child (Smith, Perou, & Lesesne, 2002).

Haffey and Levant (1984) noted that skills training programs have valued the potential for parent training. Skills training programs typically are comprised of the following components; (a) identification of explicit behavioral objectives, (b) practices of specific skills, (c) group discussion, (d) understanding the rationale for the use of specific skills, (e) sequential presentation of skills, (f) active trainee participation, (g) use of modeling techniques, and (h) use of immediate feedback. In addition, Haffey and Levant emphasized two types of skill training approaches in parent training research; behavioral skill training and communication skill training approaches. Behavioral skill training is based on the social learning theory principles as parents pertain to child management, with the aim of producing behavior change. The goals of most behavior skills training groups are to: (1) train parents to focus on observable and measurable behavior, (2) teach parents learning theory concepts, and (3) help parents apply these concepts to their behavior with their children (Gordon & Davidson, 1991). On the contrary, communication skills training groups are based on Rogerian approach necessary and sufficient conditions for therapeutic growth; empathy, congruence or genuineness, and unconditional

positive regards. Parents in Rogerian approach typically are taught how to identify and respond to their child's feelings, how to determine whether parent or child is most responsible for problem's ultimate solution, and how to promote adaptive communication between parent and child (Haffey & Levant, 1984).

Behavioral parenting programs are based on the theories of Skinner. Confident parenting was designed in the early 1970s by behavioral psychologist Aitchison. Specifically, confident parenting program represents a social conditioning or social learning theory approach to parent training. The program included a set of parenting skills to increase positive interaction between parents and children, and to improve positive interaction within the family members (Smith, Pareou, & Lesesne, 2002). A great deal of emphasis was placed on helping parents use more specific rather than global description of their child's behavior. The program was implicated that an effective parent was one who was successful at management the consequences of their children's behavior, and parents were instructed how to eliminate unwanted behaviors and promote desired behaviors in their children (Levant, 1988).

A number of theoretical models have attempted to increase the adequacy of parenting in order to facilitate the treatment of childhood behavior disorder and improve the physical and emotional care of children. These models have drawn upon theories as diverse as attachment theory, social learning theory, social construction theory, and the information processing models (Golding, 2000). These models seek to explain the behavior, emotions and cognitive development of the child in relation to the family. According to Golding (2000) these models stand out a background of the role of parenting adequacy on the child adjustment and development. They could, therefore, guide interventions aimed at promoting parenting adequacy.

Among these models, Social Cognitive Learning theory as a training approach has been useful in setting a theoretical underpinning for the linkages between the parent-child relationships and children's social adjustment. For instance, Wierson and Forehand (1994) suggested a parent training program, which is based on social

learning principles, and focuses on teaching parents a set of effective parenting behaviors. According to researchers, social learning holds that children learn noncompliant behavior via an interaction of reinforcement processes and modeling from other people in the environment. As the most significant people in a child's environment, parents serve as the first and most important teachers of their children. Parent behavioral training based on social learning principles, focuses on teaching parents a set of effective parenting behaviors. Each skill first is presented in a didactic format to the parents without the child present, followed by modeling by the therapist, and then role playing by the parents with the therapist. The parents then are observed in the clinic as they practice the skill with their child; during this practice, the therapist provides guided verbal feedback to the parents. Following the treatment session, the parents complete homework assignments designed to increase use of the parenting techniques in the home setting. At each subsequent session, homework assignments are also reviewed. Although the entire behavioral training program is designed to take 8 to 10 sessions, skills are practiced until they are being implemented successfully by the parents (Wierson & Forehand, 1994).

As summarized above, the general aim of parent involvement training is to improve positive child behavior, strengthen social interaction, and increase peer acceptance of normally developed children as well as decrease negative child behavior by improving parenting. In general, until the late 1970's, a small percentage of parents attended parent involvement training as couples. In other words, mothers attended parent training program rather than fathers (Noller & Taylor, 1989). Clark-Stewart (1978) indicated that the traditional role of mothers and effect of maternal behavior on children were well studied. In addition, she focused on a question "what do we know of the comparable role of father and their contributions to child development". Lamb (1997) also claimed that father were forgotten contributors to child development until 1970s. Therefore, it was suggested that careful and systematic observation of children and their fathers was needed in order to discover how fathers act and affect their families (Clark-Stewart, 1978). Fatherhood has been a distinctive topic for social scientists for two decades because of change in

the traditional role of fathers. In fact in a historical perspective, role of fathers has been changing steadily for two hundred years.

2.5 Changing Roles of Fathers

Until the Industrial Revolution the father's role had been centered mainly on being a teacher of values and morals to his children. Fathers instilled appropriate values and morals in their children through religious teaching with the expectation that the children would have these desirable traits later in life as adults (Lamb 1997; Parke, 1996). As the industrial production increased and the father fulfilled his role as economic provider, his time with the family decreased along with his influence and control of the children and because of this reason, the mother was assumed as the powerful agent in developing child personality (Doherty, Kouneski, & Erickson, 1998; Eggebeen & Knoester, 2001).

The role of women as nurturers and men as economic providers came to represent the acceptable gender roles society attributed to women and men from the mid-19th century to at the end of World War II. The term "dad" was used as early as the 1960s, but had not yet acquired its modern meaning of male parent who is playmate and chum of the child (Pleck & Pleck, 1997). In many families mothers and fathers might not have been reside in the same home due to the decrease in the number of marriages, increase in divorce, and subsequent decrease in marriage following divorce. At the same time, families might not have been the benefit of close relatives nearby for needed help with the children. For these reasons, the fathers were expected to be involved both in childrearing for the sake of the child and in daily care taking of the children (Russell & Russell, 1987).

There were many themes and events that relates with involved dad or father until 1970s. Nevertheless, a new understanding of fatherhood, starting in the 1970s, made a path for fundamentally new model (Levant, 1988, Palkovitz, 2002). This new understanding of fatherhood encourages fathers to be involved as part of an egalitarian relationship between husbands and wives. This new model was influenced by feminism, making the father as co-parent and central them to coequal

responsibility for parenting (Pleck & Pleck, 1997). The co-parent father in the 1970s was expected not only to take on more responsibilities in the physical care of the child but also to be an equal participant with his wife in their children development. Due to these alterations in the father's roles and the structure of family, father's role now includes nurturing, care giving and emotional support in both direct and indirect ways rather than being economic provider of the family. By this new perspective, many researchers point out that more studies need to focus on the father and his various roles in the family and child development (Cooksey & Fondell, 1996;).

At the same time, there was a parallel developing line of research on fatherhood that examines fathers' effect on children. When it is looked at the literature, three types of studies on fatherhood have been designed to explore fathers' effects on children; correlational studies, studies of father's absence, and studies of father involvement (Lamb & Tamis-Lemonda, 2004). First, many of the studies of paternal influences were designed to identify correlation between paternal and filial characteristics. The vast majority of these studies were conducted on the father's role as a sex-role model and the impact of this sex-role model particularly on sons. In fact, the quality of father-son relationship proved to be a crucial mediating variable; if the masculine fathers' relationship with their sons were good, the boys were indeed more masculine. However, subsequent research suggested that relationship quality between the father and the child was more important than the masculinity of the father (Lamb & Tamis-Lemonda, 2004). When the boys have a warm and sensitive relationship with their father, they appeared to conform to the sex-role standard of their culture regardless of how masculine the father was. According to Lamb and Tamis-Lemonda (2004), father and mother influenced children in similar ways by virtues of nurturant personal and social characteristics, and the same characteristics were important with regard to maternal influences. Paternal warmth or closeness gainful, in contrast paternal masculinity appears to be irrelevant. For instance, Salem, Zimmerman, and Notaro (1998) indicated that father appeared to have somewhat distinct influences on the development of their sons and daughters. Father involvement may be most relevant for helping sons

avoid problem behavior, whereas for daughters it may be more integral in preventing psychological distress. In briefly, as a parent the characteristics of the father appear to be more significant than characteristics of the father as a man (Lamb & Tamis-LeMonda, 2004).

Second, in addition to this correlational research, another body of literature mentions that, the rising number of children who live in families without fathers has led to considerable interest in the effect of family structure on child development. Those studies that have considered the role of father in the development of psychosocial problems have tended to study them only in terms of their absence. However, a growing literature suggested that father absence from the home could not be equated with absence from their children's lives. These studies have tried to explain that different forms of paternal deprivations are associated with later development problems in children, adolescents and adults. With this "deficit model", children in father-absent homes are compared to children in father-present homes without directly measuring what fathers may actually contribute to their children's lives (Snarey, 1993). A study on Norwegian sailors, who were away from home for many months at a time, it was shown that their sons were less popular and had less satisfying peer-group relationships when compared with the boys whose fathers were regularly available. Furthermore, results of the study stated that boys who were brought up without their fathers had less chance to learn the behavior related with their culture context than other boys (Parke, 1996). They might tend to be shy, timid, and reluctant to play rough games might not make a boy popular with his peers. Moreover, the evidence of the study suggested that father absence might have been harmful because many paternal roles as economic provider, social, and emotional supporter were unfilled or inappropriately filled in these families.

Lastly, in the 1980's several researchers sought to identify the effects of increased paternal involvement on child development. It is obvious that an impressive body of literature appearing during the 1980s, advanced the way fatherhood has been conceptualized and theorized aspects of father involvement in their children's lives.

Indeed, fathers have not been the primary source of income for the family for a long time; and because of the full or part-time employment, most mothers no longer stay at home with the children (Lamb, 1997; Marsiglio, 1995). As a result, the roles of the fathers have changed in recent years, many fathers are being asked to become more involved in child development. Due to these alternations in the structure of the family and in family roles, more studies need to focus on the father involvement and his various roles in the family and child development (Cooksey & Fondell, 1996).

2.6 Father Involvement

While the traditional view of parenting presumed that fathers have a peripheral role in the child development, recent studies have pointed out the important effect of the fathers on their children development and outcomes. Today, many researchers (e.g., Nord & Brimhall, 1998) argue that fathers must become actively involved in childrearing in order to ensure healthy child development. In addition, different dimensions of father involvement have been reported in the literature such as how much time fathers allocate to their children, fathers' day-to-day supervising of their children, playing with their children, feeding their children, educating their children, and disciplining their children (Ahmeduzzaman & Roopnarine, 1992; Mazza, 2002; Salem, Zimmerman, & Notaro, 1998). Several researchers also pointed the positive influence of father involvement on the cognitive and intellectual development of White American children (Radin, as cited in Veneziano & Rohner, 1998; Lamb, 1997), on academic achievement (Freedman & Montgomery, 1994), on children ability to empathize and their gender-role orientation (Salem, Zimmerman, & Notaro, 1998), on psychological adjustment of children (Veneziano & Rohner, 1998), and their competency at problem-solving tasks (Paley, Conger, & Harold, 2000). In addition, there is an increased likelihood that mothers maltreat their children when fathers are uninvolved in child rearing, whereas the father's presence and support can contribute to the mother's emotional health by reducing her stress level in the context of shared parenting

responsibilities (Hogue, Liddle, Becker, & Johnson-Leckrone, 2002; Salem, Zimmerman, & Notaro, 1998).

Most recent developments in family relationship involve attempts to refine and expand conceptualization of father involvement that provide opportunities to the fathers to influence their children's lives by a variety of relationship and interaction. For instance, in a social constructivist point of view that when conceptualizing of paternal involvement is broadened, the diversity of life course and relationship between fathers and children need to be recognized (Marsiglio, 1991). Therefore, a focus on family process provides opportunities to examine the ways fathers' develop, negotiate, and maintain their rights, privileges, and responsibilities as fathers in variety of family structures. This type of approach is consistent with an appreciation for the increasingly complex set of social, cultural and legal forces associated with the multiple pathways to paternity, social fatherhood and responsible fathering (Marsiglio, 1995).

Other salient theorists have examined fatherhood using the concept of social capital (Marsiglio, Amato, & Day, 2000). The quality of the relationship between fathers and children such as paternal warmth and supports represent one specific example of social capital. Fathers also support their children's development through their connections with other individual and organization in the community (Eggebeen & Knoester, 2001; Furstenberg, 1998). In addition, Amato (1998) stated that social capital was provided when father were involved with institutions in the social relationship for their children such as school, sports team, and neighborhood organization in which their children participate.

Another important approach is generative fathering. Snarey (1993) borrowed the term generativity from the work of Erik Erikson and applied that particular psychosocial framework to activities or work involving fathers. According to Snarey (1993) paternal generativity was the particular ways for fathers in order to care constructively for their daughters and sons in childhood and adolescence and promote their children's social-emotional, intellectual-academic and physical-athletic development". Generativity theorists suggested that the generative work of

fathers involves a sense of responsible caring, a desire to facilitate the needs of the next generation, and attention to fostering a fit between men's activities and children's need (Grishwold, 1997; Palkovitz, 1997).

As a result, a substantial body of research concerned with father-child relationships has focused on fathers' involvement in child care since the early 1980s. As it is outlined, several conceptual and theoretical perspectives have been focused on fatherhood recently, however the most important impact on fatherhood or father involvement was revealed by Lamb's theoretical perspective.

Although there are distinctive approaches or theories for paternal involvement, one of the most frequently cited theory suggested by Lamb and his colleagues (1997). Lamb's approach has three main dimensions; engagement or interaction, responsibility, and accessibility (Lamb, 1997).

Engagement is direct contact with the child and includes one-on-one interaction between the father and the child. Examples are part of the daily caregiving routine and leisure activities which could be dressing the child, getting breakfast for him/her, spending time with him/her at bedtime, reading a story to him/her, playing a special game, taking the child on a special trip (McBride, 1989). Practice and experience are needed to attain competent parenting skills, and through engagement, fathers are able to accomplish these skills. However, the quantity of paternal engagement with their children appears to be mainly decided by the fathers (Lamb, 1997; Marsiglio, 1991).

Activities that fathers undertake which are distinct and separate from everyday caregiving and leisure activities are described as responsibility for the child. Father responsibility comprises caretaking behaviors that are distinct from the everyday caregiving activities. Some examples of these activities include determining when to take the child to the doctor, taking the child to school, getting the child from school, determining an appropriate bedtime for the child, and attending parent-teacher conferences (Lamb, 1997). Men who are fathers are tended to be more satisfied with their life in general and more interested in their health and well being

because of the responsibility associated with fatherhood (Cooksey & Fondell, 1996).

The last one is that availability of the father to the child comprises the accessibility component of the father involvement. Accessibility includes the time the father spends in close proximity to the child with no direct paternal interaction with the child. Being available to the child if the need arises, monitoring solitary play activities, or playing with other children are examples of accessibility. The hours per day during the week and the hours per day during the weekend the father is with and available to the child, which is the measure to gauge paternal accessibility (Doherty, Kouneski, & Erickson, 1998; Lamb, 1997).

A child's development is affected by both mother and father for it is through interaction with both parents that children acquire the skills needed for better development. Numerous studies suggested that research on family relationships during adolescence has frequently examined differences between mother and father relationships with their adolescent children. In their study, Russell and Russell (1987), having examined parent-child relationship during middle childhood reported that mothers were found to be more significantly available to their children than were fathers, and mothers spent significantly more time alone with sons and daughters. In assessing adolescents' perceptions of relationship with their families, mothers were perceived by sons and daughters to be more available than fathers for discussing problems on a variety of issues (Brody, Pillegrini, & Sigel, 1986).

However, fathers provide a unique contribution to the development of their children through their interactions, and fathers participate significantly more than mothers in some other areas such as outings or everyday activities and outdoor games. Montemayor and Brownlee (1987) reported that when adolescents were with their fathers, they were more likely to be participating in activities which were enjoyable such as leisure or meals. Parke (2002) outlined that although paternal involvement during infancy and childhood is quantitatively less than maternal involvement, fathers still have an impact on children's development. In other

words, as emphasized by Meyers (1993), while fathers had not typically assumed as much responsibility for child care as had women, they had significant interactions with children in infancy, childhood, and adolescence, which influences socialization.

In their study, Darling-Fisher and Tiedja (1990) investigated that how the maternal employment characteristics influence fathers' participation in child care. The results of the study indicated that when their views were employed, fathers were more involved in child care. Nevertheless, women still remained the primary caregivers regardless of their employment status. Parke (1996) indicated parallel findings that when the mother had work load, father more involved child care and mothers' work hours was the most important predictor of paternal involvement in infant care.

Through changing role of the fathers, a substantial number of fathers have motivated to be more involved in relationship with heir children. Motivation alone do not being ensured increase involvement, skills and self-confidence are also necessary. Therefore, most of the studies carried out in paternal effect on children revealed that close relationship between father children was a crucial determinants the fathers' impact on child development and adjustment (Biller & Kimpton, 1997). Another factor influencing paternal behavior is support, specifically support within the family from the mother. Several researchers stressed that a majority of men wanting to be more involved for a stable marriage and because the wife is happier if the husband is strongly involved with the children (Baruch & Barnett, 1986). Nevertheless, institutional practices affect paternal involvement with the barriers imposed by the work place ranked by father as among the most important reason for low levels of paternal involvement (Eggebeen & Knoester, 2001). This is an important issue for many fathers that are expected to take responsibility as their primary breadwinner role. Thus, the pressures of work have a significant effect on paternal involvement (Harris & Marmer, 1996).

2.6.1 Father Influence on Adolescent Development

The literature indicated two controversial perspectives about the father's importance on adolescent development (Amato, 1994). First one suggested a minimal role of fathers in child development and lives, and second one suggested that father involvement contribute positively to children's well-being and development.

Considering the first perspective, several studies reported that fathers were not involved in parenting as much as mothers. For instance, in a study of communication and connectedness and parent-child relationships, Montemayor and Brownlee (1987) examined the involvement and satisfaction of adolescents with their fathers and mothers through telephone interviews. They found that fewer activities were done with fathers than mothers and that adolescents spent the least amount of time with fathers alone. However, adolescents were more satisfied when involved in activities with their fathers than with their mothers (Montemayor & Brownlee, 1987). The general picture from findings of more recent studies suggests that the father-adolescent relationship is characterized by physical and emotional distance while the mother-adolescent relationship is characterized by attachment and intimacy. According to Hosley and Montemayor (1997), this distance which characterizes the father-adolescent relationship indicates the possibility that fathers therefore have less of an impact on adolescent attributes and behaviors.

In contrast, a vast number of studies supporting the second perspective have tried to explain the role of father as an independent contribution to children's development and well-being. A longitudinal study by Wu and Kandel showed that fathers have a greater effect than mothers do on adolescent antisocial behaviors (as cited in Sim, 2003). One of the most frequently cited study carried out by Amato (1994) revealed that when the children were closer to their fathers, they were more satisfied, happier and less distressed regardless of the relationship between mother and child. Furthermore, researcher also concluded that close father-child relationship facilitates children's psychological well-being which was true for both sons and daughters.

During adolescence, both parents' encouragement and support are vital to identity development and individuation in family context. Parents provide communication patterns and a secure base through healthy parent-adolescent relationship so that adolescents may have an opportunity to establish autonomy without losing their relatedness (Allen, Hauser, Bell, Eickholt, & O'Conner, 1994). Both reciprocal relationship between parents and adolescent, and also parent's encourage, sensitivity and support are crucial for adolescents' identity development. Shulman and Klein indicated that fathers provided better models for a balance between separateness and connectedness, which was important for healthy adolescent development (cited in Sim, 2003). Grotevant and Cooper's (1985) study of interaction patterns as they relate to identity exploration also found a significant paternal effect. Adolescents' interactions with their father were most strongly associated with identity exploration, albeit differently for sons and daughters. For sons, the father-son communication variables accounted for 58.4% of the variance, the daughters-fathers relationship was also the strongest predictor of identity exploration. Lamb (1997) stated that fathers who provided security, reciprocity and sensitivity in their relationship with their children were much more likely to have children who were well-adjusted psychologically than fathers who did not share these characteristics in their relationship with their children. He also noted that it was not so much the amount of time spent, but how the time was spent that was important.

A vast literature also indicates that positively involved fathers can foster their adolescent's healthy long-term psychological adjustment (Lamb, 1997; Shapiro, Diamond, & Greenberg, 1995). The literature, for example, demonstrates that father involvement have a positive effects reducing some externalizing behavioral problems among adolescents including delinquency, substance use, anxiety and depression. Supportive for this framework, Radin outlined that adequate father involvement contributed to adolescent childrens' cognitive competence, empathy skills and internal locus of control. On the other hand, these adolescents had less gender-stereotyped beliefs (as cited in Marsiglio, 1995). In addition, Zimmerman, Salem, and Maton (1995) concluded that for African American male adolescents,

spending time with their fathers was important regarding two dimensions. First, spending time with their father was associated with lower level of depression and anxiety. Second, fathers' emotional support was associated with greater life satisfaction, self-esteem, and lower level of depression. In their study Almeida and Galambos (1991) revealed that fathers, who were more involved with their children (spending more time, taking care of and doing things with the child), subsequently become more accepting of their children when compared to father who were initially less involved.

In the light of the research evidence, several characteristics of father-adolescent interaction (communication, close relations, satisfaction, spent time together, sensitivity,) are associated with desirable outcomes in adolescents' development. Supportive father-adolescent relationship leads to closeness, intimacy, substantial communication and satisfaction as well as the adolescents' psychologically well-being. Although increase has been made in exploring the courses of paternal involvement, several areas have received little attention, and adolescent-father relationship need much more study than has been done (Pleck, 1997).

2.6.2 Father Influence on Adolescents-Peer Interaction

According to traditional developmental theories (Erikson, 1968), adolescence is a time of transition toward independence and emotional separation from the family. Peer relationships also play a critical role in this transition. Adolescent peer groups provide an arena for exploring new ideas, asserting independence, and interacting in social environment in the search for identity. During this period, a very important issue is how the family and the peer relations are related in adolescents' social development. An increasing body of literature provides support for the idea that children's social competence with peers is highly influenced by family characteristics and process (Ladd & Petit, 2002; Updegraff, McHale, Couter, & Kupanoff, 2001). Stating differently, as well as skills, behaviors, and knowledge acquired through interactions with family members, parents' guidance and support are crucial issues for adolescents to develop close and supportive relationship with other adolescents (Parke, 2002).

Researchers have also examined the impact of the nature of relationship between father and adolescents' on their peer interactions. An impressive amount of studies focusing on unique style of fathers' interaction with their adolescent children suggested that fathers have an impact in special ways to adolescent children's social adjustment (Yeung, Sandberg, Davis-Kean, & Hofferth, 2001).

An increasing body of literature provides that different models have been developed to describe the relation between father and child on children's interactions with peers. An outstanding model called internal working model, has emphasized the mechanism by which those processes are internalized and transferred from the family to the peer context (Parke, Burks, Carson, Neville, & Boyum, 1994). The model describes the connecting pathways between the family and peer systems and integrates both the type of behavioral processes and the mechanisms of transference from one social context to the other. In this model, the first and most basic question is whether there is evidence to support the idea that there is significant relation between the interaction of a child with his/her father and later interactions with peers. The second question addresses an important conceptual methodological issue. Is the children's interaction with peers best predicted by individual father behaviors, or by the interactional style of the father-child dyad or dyadic relationship? The final question is concerned with the mechanisms that allow the connections between children's interaction with fathers and with peers. According to this model, children may learn specific individual behaviors or dyadic styles of relationship from interaction with their father. Those individual or dyadic processes are internalized by the child as individual skills, dyadic interactional skills, and as a set of background about social interactions. This internalization process is mediated by several possible mechanisms, such as modeling, coaching, acquisition of a role, or development of an internal working model. Finally, the model suggested that children transfer what they have internalized to their social interactions with peer (Parke, Burks, Carson, Neville, & Boyum, 1994).

In another parenting processes model, Parke and Buriel (1998) suggested that parents have a significant role in their children's social development by providing them with opportunities to develop social interaction with other young children. Studies in this area (MacBride, 1990; Parke & Buriel, 1998) have stated that fathers have multiple role in families context and influence their children's peer relationship in significant two pathways; direct and indirect involvement. In the first pathway, fathers affect directly their children's peer relationship through encompassing a variety of activities such as supporting, encouraging, monitoring their social live, and spending time with their peers (Parke & Buriel, 1998). In the second pathway, as suggested by attachment social cognitive perspective, fathers affect indirectly their children's peer relationship. In other words, fathers' interaction such as acceptance, warmth, and sensitivity, positively influence their adolescent children's social development and peer relationships (MacDonald & Parke, 1984; Updegraff, McHale, Couter, & Kupanoff, 2001). Parke and O'Neil suggested that in the social-cognitive learning tradition, face-to-face interactions between children and fathers might help children learn social skills (as cited in Parke et al., 2004). Fathers are powerful role models for children and due to the changes in today's families, which results in more opportunities for children to observe and learn from their fathers (McBride & Rane, 1997; Rane & McBride, 2000).

The literature contains a great deal of empirical evidence regarding the positive effects of father-adolescents relations on adolescents' peer interaction and social competence. It includes also evidence of the influence of paternal social competencies, and paternal attitude on children's social competencies. Gottman (1998) found that fathers' acceptance of and assistance with their children's sadness and anger at five years of age was related to the children's social competence with their peer three years later at age eight. Furthermore, children with fathers high on sensitivity in challenging may learn better how to deal constructively with challenging situations and problems. Kindler and Grossman (1997) examined the paternal sensitivity in children's social competence and coping strategies from toddlerhood to adolescence. Longitudinal outcomes showed

that long time-interval of 14 years paternal sensitivity in challenging proved to be related to multiple indices of children's peer competence and competent coping strategies. In other words, children's ability to experience friendship as incorporating emotional closeness as well as the usage of mental coping strategies showed clearer relations to indices of paternal sensitivity in challenging for, particularly, male adolescents. Researcher concluded that being sensitive might have been an important feature of a supportive father, who was effectively serving as a link between child and outside world. Therefore, sensitivity in challenging might have been an important qualitative aspect of fathering behavior.

Several studies have been focused recently that whether mothers' and fathers' involvement explained unique variance in the qualities of adolescents' friendship and peer experiences. For instance, Dekovic and Meeus (1997) assessed the relationship between parenting behavior (acceptance, attachment, involvement, responsiveness, love withdrawal and monitoring of the child) and self-concept of adolescent in association with the quality of peer relations. Findings of the study showed that the father's behavior had a stronger correlation to the adolescent's self-concept and that self-concept had a mediating influence on subsequent functioning with peers. Furthermore, the father's behavior had an independence effect on peer relationship that was not accounted for by self-concept. In addition, the findings suggested that fathers' interaction with their adolescent children was more important in terms of the self-concept and the competence in peer relationship than mothers'. The authors concluded that this finding contradicted with usual assumption about mother and father influence on adolescent's peer interaction: mothers spent more time with their adolescents children in day-to-day interactions than did fathers, and mothers had a stronger contribution to the adolescents' developmental outcomes than did fathers. The parallel findings were emphasized in different studies. According to Parke and Buriel (1998), while fathers seemed to be less involved than mothers, they appeared to encourage more autonomy and independence and to treat their children as they were peers, had crucial role in supporting peer relationship during adolescence.

In another study, Lieberman, Doyle and Markiewicz (1999) investigated the two dimension of attachment security which is “parental availability” and “child dependency on parent” and their association with peer relations in the late childhood and early adolescence. The findings of the study suggested that attachment to both mother and father was associated with children’s perception about positive friendship and lack of conflict with their best friends. Furthermore, “father availability” was particularly significant predictors of lower conflict with best friends. According to Lieberman, Doyle, and Markiewicz (1999), available fathers spends time in play interactions with their children, contributing to the learning of emotion regulations.

Consequently, based on these frameworks, both families specifically fathers have an important role on the peer relationship and psychosocial development of adolescents. Family and peer are two important dimensions during adolescence, and Meyers (1993) reminded that fathers should be knowledgeable about the role of peers in the life of their adolescent children.

2.7 Training Program for Fathers

As it is emphasized previously parent education for fathers has been a neglected area. Furthermore, scant attention in the literature paid on parent education and training for fathers until late 1970’s (Levant & Doyle, 1983). According to McBride (1990) two factors contributed to this situation. First one was a lack of preparation for fatherhood. Many men felt unprepared to assume an active paternal role, as a result, were reluctant to become deeply involved in the raising of their children. Second, constraining factor might have been the lack of social and institutional support for the paternal role. Boys were not given opportunities to gain skills required to become a nurturing parent (Shapiro, Diamond & Greenberg, 1995). Further, when these boys reached adulthood and were ready to start their own families, they can find the social support and educational systems available to help mothers develop parenting.

On the contrary, in the last two decades, studies on fatherhood have outlined that role of the fathers have changed in recent years, many fathers are being asked to become more involved in child development and education program for father started to gain importance (Levant, 1988). A review of the literature has emphasized that fathers' role in the families has been increasingly recognized and some forms of father involvement in parent education have been developed for father (Levant, 1988).

A review of the literature mentioned two outstanding form of father involvement in parent training. The first one was extended to provide education for fathers of infants from birth to preschool age (Aydın, 2003; Fagan & Iglesias, 1999). Second one was concerned with school-aged and adolescent of parenting (Levant & Doyle, 1983). It concentrated on enhancing the dyadic relationship of father and their adolescent children by teaching communication skills. Father of adolescents face challenges unique to this age level, yet their active participation in child rearing can have a significant positive impact on their adolescent children. In other words, these types of programs were not just father education, but the focus was on enhancing the dyadic relations of father and their children by teaching communication skills to both.

Over the years, a vast number of skills-training programs were designed to provide education for fathers that were concerned with the relationship of parent and adolescent. One of the most frequently cited skills-training programs called Parent Adolescent Relationship Development (PARD) was developed by Grando and Ginsberg (1976). The primary aim of the program was to improve expressive communication skills, general communication patterns in the home, and quality of the father-adolescent relationship. The PARD program has been designed to establish a close relationship between fathers and sons in order to help them how to improve their communication and how to increase trust within their relationship. The PARD program was based on two basic communication skills on matters relevant to the father-adolescent relationship. First one was openness that includes elements of genuineness, congruence, and self-disclosure. Second one was

empathy that includes elements of warmth, genuineness, and concreteness. Grando and Ginsberg also stated other communication skills that were democratic techniques and avoidance of potentially negative techniques. Democratic techniques provided them opportunity to understand each other for compromising through “taking turns speaking”, “hearing out the other person”, and “respecting divergent views”. Potentially negative techniques related with communication blocks such as accusing, making demands, and questioning (Grando & Ginsberg, 1976).

Another similar skills training program was Boston University Fatherhood Project (Levant & Doyle, 1983) that emphasized the development of communication and conflict resolution skills by focusing on: (a) listening and responding to children, and (b) speaking for oneself and acceptance. Meyers (1993) indicated that Boston University Fatherhood Project included the encouragement of fathers learn to listen to the content of their child’s speech correctly and to paraphrase or reflect the child’s messages.

As a result, the skill-training programs aimed at improvement of fathers’ communication skills, specifically a significant increase in overall sensitivity, a significant reduction in the use of undesirable responses, a trend toward increased use of desirable responses, and a trend toward increased acceptance of the child’s expression of feeling (Levant, 1988). In addition, skills training approaches allow for a more systematic presentation of program content and make possible more controlled studies of skill acquisition and program impact (Haffey & Levant, 1984).

In the 1990s, the main theme of training programs has turned into creating responsible fathers and raising the standards for fatherhood. Palm (1997) stated the certain assumptions of education programs for fathers as (a) knowledge of child development, (b) the male role of father, (c) development of effective communication skills, (d) increasing father involvement, (e) responsible fatherhood, (f) supports for fathers in difficult situations, (g) fathers of children

with special needs, (h) fathers as teachers and socializing agents, and (i) fathers as moral leaders.

Meyers (1993) also outlined that salient topics for education programs for fathers included increasing knowledge about caregiving, increasing involvement with children, providing social support, enhancing marital communications skills, and enhancing father-child communication skills. Furthermore, parent education programs for fathers need to focus on providing fathers with information regarding child development so the education program entails supplementary reading assigned about child development as homework (Balli, Demo & Wedman, 1998). Lastly, parent education need to create an environment where men feel both comfortable and welcome (Palm & Palkovitz, 1988), and also both the locations and durations of the programs must be convenient for fathers in order to maintain attendance after enrollment (Meyers, 1993).

A noteworthy study outlined by Fagan and Iglesias (1999) was conducted to examine the effects of a father involvement intervention program for fathers and their children. One hundred and forty-six fathers and father figures (55 comparison group and 91 intervention group) were recruited for this study. The father involvement consisted of “father volunteering in the classroom”, “weekly father’s day programs in each Head Start site”, “father sensitivity training for early childhood staff members”, “fathers’ support groups”, and “father-child recreation activities”. The results of the study showed that intervention group fathers, who were highly involved in the program, made the greatest gains the time allocated for their children, direct interaction, accessibility, and support for learning. Namely, the results of the study were also noteworthy with direct interaction with children and support for children’s learning.

Most of researchers agree that parent education or training for father must be structurally available and functionally appropriate to paternal needs in order to change the traditional picture in which mothers attend parent education courses more than father (Fagan & Iglesias, 1999; Levant & Doyle, 1983; McBride, 1991). Adolescence is a critical time period that adolescents assert their autonomy, seek

independence and control over their lives, and struggle with their own sense of identity. When fathers are actively and positively engaged in the lives of their adolescent children, they can play an important role in helping them overcome risk factors that are associated with adolescent development. The programs that focus on father of adolescents are needed as well as programs targeted for fathers of infants, preschoolers and school aged children. According to Lamb and Lutz (2004) a concerted effort is needed to develop, implement, and evaluate programs that can help fathers be better prepared to face the challenges that they will be confronted with as their children go through teenage their years.

2.8 Father Involvement Studies in Turkey

The review of literature suggests that the studies regarding parent-children relationship in Turkey, mostly focus on the needs of parents of small and young children, and few studies have explored the families and their effects on adolescent development. Among them Türküm, Kızıldaş, Bıyık, and Yemeneci (2005) explored the adolescents' perception about the relationship between family functioning and their problems in daily lives. In their study with Turkish university students, researchers revealed that adolescents, who considered their families' functioning as unhealthy, reported problems with their family members, friends from opposite sex, boy/girl friends, sexual life, and academic and economic restrictions. Another study carried out by Uruk and Demir (2003) tried to predict loneliness in adolescent in terms of peer relations, family structure and demographic variables with ninth-grade high school students in Ankara. The findings of the study emphasized that the peer relation was the most important predictor, and family structure was the second significant predictor of loneliness. Moreover, authors stated that among the family structure variables in their study while "communication" was the only variable significantly correlated with loneliness, "cohesion", "emotional bonding" and "power" were not. In addition, results of the some other studies supported these conclusion that adolescents' positive relationship with their families impact on their positive social adaptation (Şakir, 1987), and also adolescents' healthy relationship with their families was as

contributive to the decrease in adolescents' level of stress and the increase in their adaptation level (Eryüksel, 1996).

In the same vein, several studies have shown that social and identity development of adolescent in Turkish culture are mostly regulated by their families. For instance, in their qualitative study, Güneri, Sümer, and Yıldırım (1999) stated that families have a significant impact on adolescent's identity and behaviors. The adolescents reported that conservative principles limited their initiative in many areas, specifically relationship with their friends. However, they perceived their parents as "caring", "loving", and "warm", and some of them stated their parents as good role models. Karadayı (1994) investigated impacts of the parents' relationship with their adolescent children and their disciplinary styles on the personality characteristics of Turkish late adolescents. Results of the study revealed that good and close relationship with parents was positively related to "optimism", "joyfulness", "calmness", "self-reliance", "self-esteem", and "dependency on parents". On the other hand, strict parental discipline was related to "pessimism", "shyness", "skillfulness", and "dependency on friends".

Similarly, Tunç (2002) investigated the relationship between perceptions of parental attitudes and self-esteem among 755 high school students. The findings pointed out that adolescents who perceived their parents as "authoritarian" had a relatively low level of self-esteem when compared to those who perceived their parents as "authoritative", "permissive" or "indulgent". Another study related to parents of adolescents explored the effects of a parental guidance program on preventing negative identity development in adolescents (Akkök, Kararımak, Özeke-Kocabaş, & Toker, 2003). The findings of the study stressed positive results in terms of developing better communications with adolescents and parents' self-understanding based on the self-evaluation of parents.

In another study, parental attitudes in four identity status was carried out by Çakır and Aydın (2005) with a total of 403 eleventh grade high school students from low and middle socioeconomic status regions in Ankara. The results yielded that adolescents who perceived their parents as authoritative or permissive were more

foreclosed than those who perceived their parents as neglectful. According to researchers, this result was consistent with typical characteristics of close relationship between adolescents and parents. Namely, adolescents who perceived their relationship with their parents as warm and close typically had tendency to adopt their parents' values and belief system without much questioning. In addition to this suggestion, researchers outlined alternative explanation about this result focusing permissive parents who provide little guidance to their adolescent children to make their own decision. Because of style of permissive parents, adolescents had no opportunity to consider alternatives and might be tend to foreclose on their parents' preferences (Çakır & Aydın, 2005).

There are some studies in Turkey that describe the importance of family involvement, describing the activities conducted under training programs. A highly well-known parent education program is "The Mother-Child Education Program" (MOCEP) organized by Mother-Child Education Foundation with the collaboration of UNICEF and the Turkish Ministry of National Education. The aim of the program is positive development of the child and the empowerment of the mother as well as concentrated both on preschool education and mother education (Yeşililetten, 2001). The origins of the program lays in the "Turkish Early Enrichment Project", which included early childhood enrichment and mother training in low socioeconomic areas in Istanbul, conducted by Kağıtçıbaşı, Bekman, and Sunar (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1996). Turkish Early Enrichment Project had a period of 10 years (1982-1992). The original study was a four year intervention program. The follow-up study was carried out six years after the end of the original study. The study was both center-based and home-based, and also mother training was a program to realize social, personal and cognitive development of the children. The children, whose mothers received training, had improvement in all developmental areas when compared to children whose mothers did not trained. The trained mothers communicated more effectively with their children, achieved better relations with the family members, and created a more positive environment for the development of the children. It was also stated that the program had a positive effect on the self-perception of mothers (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1996).

There were several studies conducted and evaluated by Mother Child Education Foundation (AÇEV, www.acev.org) for children and their parents. The evaluation of programs revealed more positive results on academic and social skills of children. They also contributed to positive mother-child relationship. Furthermore, the parents who participated in the programs affected positively, in terms of changing their child rearing styles, understanding themselves and their environment and more cooperating with school teachers.

Özeke-Kocabaş (2005) examined the effects of parent training on different dimensions of parent-adolescent relationships and communication skills of parents. A five-session training program (biweekly, 1.5 hour sessions) was administered to parents of ninth- and tenth-grade students that consisted of activities aimed at improving parent-child relationships. The study focused on developing parental social skills in order to improve parental communication, increase parent satisfaction and improve parenting skills (e.g. time management, obtaining more information about their children). Although no significant quantitative differences were found between groups as a result of the training, qualitative findings revealed that the training helped parents to develop more positive interactions with their children.

Despite a growing interest on understanding educational needs of parents, communication between parents and adolescents and importance of peer relations, father involvement has not been yet recognized sufficiently in Turkey. Scant attention in the literature has been paid to the involvement patterns of Turkish fathers.

In her study, Güngörmüş (1986) examined the effects of father absence on adolescents' self-concept. Results of the study revealed that adolescents who lost their fathers were more likely to have a negative self-image than adolescents living with their fathers. Further, adolescents having a negative self-image inclined to experience more conflict in peer relations than other adolescents. Similarly, Albukrek (2003) studied the relationship between fathers' attitude, as perceived by the mother, father and children, and children's self-concept. Findings of the study

indicated that when children perceived their fathers as neglectful and rejected, they tended to develop negative self-concept. Evans investigated the fathering roles, the division of labor in the family regarding child care as well as the important aspects of the involvement patterns of Turkish fathers as perceived by the father from low socio-economic background (cited in Yılmazçetin, 2003). One year later, a similar study was carried out by Ögüt (1998) to investigate the upper and middle SES Turkish fathers' involvement with preschool children in terms of intensity of engagement and responsibility, and also to examine the effect of the gender and age of children, being a middle or upper class father. Findings of both studies revealed that fathers accepted physical care of children as the mothers' deals with, whereas they regarded financial provision as the most important aspect of their own role.

Limited number of studies has been reported about the relationship between parents and adolescents' social competence and satisfying peer relationship during adolescence in Turkey. In their study, Hortaçsu and Gençöz compared the Turkish early adolescents', (aged 12-17 years) perception about their peer interaction and parent relationship. Teenagers revealed their thoughts and feeling about their peer group interaction and parent relationship in closeness, loyalty and commitment dimensions. Teenagers reported that they were more close to their peers than their parents in closeness dimension, and more committed to their fathers than their peer groups in commitment dimension. In addition, there was no significant difference regarding teenagers' perception about relationship with their mother and father but father role was more important figure in teenagers' life more than peer groups (as cited in Hortaçsu, 2002).

In addition to this result, Yılmazçetin (2003) investigated a sample of fathers from middle and upper-middle socio economic status, and examined the relationship between the levels of fathers' involvement and behavioral problems of preadolescents. The significant relationship was found between total father involvement and total behavioral problems of preadolescents. Furthermore, research results claimed that there was a negative relationship between total father

involvement and preadolescents' external problems which comprise delinquent and aggressive behavior.

Nevertheless, while father involvement training has been widely reported abroad, there has been limited number of training procedures for father in Turkey. Stating differently, studies of training programs for father were found to be very rare (Aydın, 2003; Şahin, 2006).

In Turkey, one of the first systematic parents training called "The Father Enrichment Program" focusing on fathers was initiated by The Mother Child Education Foundation (MOCEF) in 1996 (Mother Child Education Foundation, www.acev.org, 2007). The program aimed to provide fathers with support in the development of their children by increasing fathers' awareness of their children's needs, and of their importance in their child lives. Moreover, The Father Enrichment Program has been implemented since 1997 in order to support both the infant and the family's physical and psychological health during the pregnancy and fathers on the healthy child development. The program also includes information about pregnancy, nutrition and care of the infant, and focused on the need for fathers to be involved-child-care and child development.

Sucuoğlu, Küçükler, and Kanık (1994) prepared a structured parent education program that was based on the behavioral approach and supported with a parent guidebook and videotape. The program was implemented as a group work study, which allowed parents of children with mentally retardation, to share their experiences and knowledge about the subjects by interacting with each other. Fathers and mothers participating in the study were grouped separately. Feedback from parents revealed that they enjoyed and benefited from the program and applied the knowledge obtained in the program in their daily lives.

In another study, Şahin (1998) suggested an educational program according to the needs of fathers and evaluated the outcomes of the program by fathers. Developmental characteristics of their children, appropriate communication skills, dealing with inappropriate behavior of their children, and the importance of father-

child relationship were determined as the needs of father in this education program. Findings of the study yielded that at the end of the education program there was a significant difference between the two groups in the items that is related with the father-child relationship.

In her study in 2003, Aydın investigated the effect of father involvement training on the involvement level and perceptions of fathering role. The study consisted of experimental and control group of 10 fathers each all of whom had children enrolled in pre-school or kindergarten at METU. Specifically, the study aimed to help fathers become aware their importance in the lives of their children, realize their children's needs, and support developmentally appropriate parenting skills. Results of the study demonstrated that there was an increase in the fathers' level of involvement in interaction and responsibility. They also gained higher scores in the perceptions of fathering at the end of the training in the experimental group.

In another outstanding study, Koçak (2004) investigated the effects of the Father Support Program on fathers' experiences, relations and perceptions of their role on child development. The aim of the program was to inform and support fathers about child development and to create an awareness regarding their importance in child education. Three pilot studies of the program were carried out from 1996 to 1999, and the program was implemented on a larger scale in İstanbul and Kocaeli. Findings of the study showed that program fulfilled its aim in creating an awareness and consciousness in fathers regarding their child development and education.

In a recent study, Şahin (2006) examined the impacts of a parent education on children's social skills. The sample of the study composed of twenty nine third grade students' parents. The experimental group which was designed with two training groups (experimental I group - father involved and experimental II group - father uninvolved) received a ten-week parent education. The results revealed that parent education which involved fathers had a significant effect on children's self-control dimension and total social skills scores. In addition, father involved group

improved in self-control and responsibility dimension and the improvements maintained after three months follow-up.

In conclusions, although there has been growing interest in parent training programs for fathers, there have not been sufficient programs and studies about father involvement training and their effects on adolescents and their parents. There is growing need in Turkey to develop more training and programs for fathers to increase their active involvement in the development of their children.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

This chapter details the methodological procedures utilized in this research and includes information on the following: design of the study, research questions, variables, population and sample selection, data collection instruments and procedures, training procedures and materials, data analysis procedures, and limitations of the study.

3.1 Design of the Study

This study aimed to design and investigate the effects of Father Involvement Training (FIT) on family functioning in father-adolescent relationships, and on the quality of the peer relationships of ninth-grade Turkish high-school students.

An experimental design (2X3) with one experimental and one control group and three measurements (pre-test, post-test and follow-up) was used. The sample composed of 26 volunteer fathers of 9th grade high school students. Experimental group comprised of fathers who underwent a 10-week training and a control group comprised of fathers who received no training, but who were provided with the written material used in the training during a subsequent follow-up session. Data were collected using three instruments: the “Parent Success Indicator” (PSI), the “Parent Adolescent Relationship Scale” (PARS), and the “Peer Relationship Scale” (PRS). Non-parametric analysis was conducted by using Mann-Whitney U Test, Friedman Test, and Wilcoxon Sign Tests.

3.2 Research Questions

This study was designed to answer two main research questions and sub-questions, as follows:

1) What is the effect of Father Involvement Training on family functioning in father-adolescent relationships as indicated by the individual dimension and total Parent Success Indicator (PSI) scores of fathers and Parent Adolescent Relationship Scale (PARS) scores of their ninth-grade children?

a) Are there any significant differences in father family functioning as indicated by the Parent Success Indicator (PSI) pre-test, post-test and follow-up dimensional and/or total scores between the experimental and control groups?

b) Are there any significant differences in adolescent family functioning as indicated by the Parent Adolescent Relationship Scale (PARS) pre-test, post-test and follow-up dimensional and/or total scores between children whose fathers were in the experimental group and children whose fathers were in the control group?

c) Are there any significant differences among the pre-test, post-test and follow-up PSI dimensional and/or total scores of the fathers in the experimental group?

d) Are there any significant differences among the pre-test, post-test and follow-up PSI dimensional and/or total scores of the fathers in the control group?

e) Are there any significant differences among the pre-test, post-test and follow-up PARS dimensional and total scores of children whose fathers were in the experimental group?

f) Are there any significant differences among the pre-test, post-test and follow-up PARS dimensional and total scores of children whose fathers were in the control group?

2) What is the effect of Father Involvement Training on their children's peer relationships as indicated by the individual dimension and total Peer Relationship

Scale (PRS) scores of ninth-grade students?

a) Are there any significant differences in PRS pre-test, post-test and follow-up dimensional and/or total scores of children whose fathers were in the experimental group when compared to those children whose fathers were in the control group?

b) Are there any significant differences among the pre-test, post-test and follow-up PRS dimensional and/or total scores of children whose fathers were in the experimental group?

c) Are there any significant differences among the pre-test, post-test and follow-up PRS dimensional and/or total scores of children whose fathers were in the control group?

3.3 Variables

Family functioning and adolescent peer interaction were the dependent variables in the current study, whereas participation in the Father Involvement Training was the independent variable.

The dimensions of father family functioning refers to the individual scores on the five PSI subscales of Communication, Satisfaction, Use of Time, Confidence and Information Needs, and total Father Family Functioning refers to the PSI total score. The dimensions of adolescent family functioning refers to the individual scores on the eight PARS subscales of Norm Regulation, Monitoring, Home Rules, Love and Trust, Sensitivity, Close Relationships, Meeting Expectations, and Involvement in Activities, and total Adolescent Family Functioning refers to the PARS total score. The dimensions of Peer Relationships refers to the individual scores on the four PRS subscales of Attachment, Trust and Identification, Self-disclosure, and Loyalty, and the total Peer Relationship refers to the PRS total score.

The Father Involvement Training Group (Experimental Group) refers to the group of fathers who were assigned to and participated in a 10-week training, whereas the Control Group refers to the group of fathers who were not subject to any training.

3.4 Population and Sample Selection

The study population was comprised of all fathers of ninth-grade students enrolled in public high schools in the Ankara metropolitan area. In order to increase the participation of fathers living in different districts within Ankara, the Mamak Anatolian High School, which enrolls students from districts throughout the city, was selected for the study.

In order to identify the subjects, who would benefit more from the father involvement training, the following sample selection procedure was used. First, the researcher made contact with the school counselor of the selected school. Then, in collaboration with the school counseling service, the “Problem List”, which consists of six statements about problems related to the adolescent-father relationships, was administered to all ninth grade high school students (n=158), and the “Family Relationship List”, which consists of five statements regarding the adolescent-father relationship problems, was sent to fathers of adolescents to be completed (n=158). After examining the completed and collected forms, father and his adolescent child, who checked at least one problem statement, were considered to be in need of training. Finally, a total of 112 fathers and their children were identified. Letters that provide information about the study and asked if they would be willing to participate in the 10-week Father Involvement Training, were sent to fathers. Of the 84 fathers (75%) who replied using the envelope provided, 32 indicated their willingness to participate in the training by checking the corresponding option on the enclosed information form.

A subsequent preparatory meeting was arranged for the 32 fathers who met the criteria for inclusion in the study, namely: (a) in need of training; (b) volunteer to participate in Father Involvement Training, and (c) did not receive any parenting training. During the preparatory meeting, the researcher introduced himself and explained that the aim of the study was to determine the effects of family relationships and functioning on adolescent development. Fathers provided the necessary contact information and were ensured of the confidentiality of the remainder of the study.

Due to the intensive nature and the mandatory 10-week participation requirements, only 14 fathers were able to take part in the training and were thus assigned to the experimental group, whereas 14 of the remaining 18 fathers were randomly assigned to the control group. However, one father in the experimental group quit after the third training session; therefore, one father from the control group was randomly excluded from the study. The study completed with 13 fathers in the experimental group and 13 fathers in the control group.

The demographic characteristics of remaining 26 participants are provided in Table 3.1. Over half of the participants (57.6%) had two children, the majority of whom were girls (65.4%). In general, educational levels of fathers were high, with the majority (77%) university graduates employed at public institutions (38.4%). Most fathers (69.2%) were in the 40-49 year age group (Range= 35-53 years; M= 43.2 years, SD= 4.97). Children's ages ranged from 15-17 years (M= 15.84 years, SD= .46). Significantly, 42.3 percent of participating fathers had working wives, whereas the wives of the remaining 57.6 percent did not work. All subjects were the biological fathers, and all lived in the same household as their spouses and children.

Table 3.1. Demographic Characteristics of Fathers						
Characteristic	Experimental Group		Control Group		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Gender of child						
Male	5	19.2	4	15.4	9	34.6
Female	8	30.8	9	34.6	17	65.4
Age of child						
15	3	11.6	2	7.6	5	19.2
16	10	38.4	10	38.4	20	76.9
17	-		1		1	3.8
Number of children						
1	3	11.6	2	7.6	5	19.2
2	7	26.9	8	30.7	15	57.6
3	3	11.6	3	11.6	6	23.2
Education level						
Middle School Graduate	1	3.8			1	3.8
High School Graduate	1	3.8	4	15.4	5	19.2
University Graduate	11	42.3	9	34.6	20	76.9
Occupation						
Engineer	3	11.6	1	3.8	4	15.4
Executive manager	-	-	3	11.6	3	11.6
Civil servant	7	26.9	3	11.6	10	38.5
Military officer	2	7.6	3	11.6	5	19.2
Tradesman	1	3.8	3	11.6	4	15.4
Age of father						
30-39	4	15.4	2	7.6	6	23
40-49	8	30.7	10	38.5	18	69.2
50+	1	3.8	1	3.8	2	7.6

3.5 Data Collection Instruments

3.5.1 Parent Success Indicator (PSI)

The PSI, developed by Strom and Strom, was used to assess the quality of various dimensions of the father-child relationship (as cited in Özeke-Kocabaş, 2005). The original PSI form consisted of 60 Likert-Scale questions divided equally into six dimensions emphasizing different aspects of parental development, namely Communication (skills of advising children and learning from them); Use of Time (making decisions regarding time management); Teaching (scope of child guidance expected of parents); Frustration (attitudes and behaviors of children that are

disturbing to parents); Satisfaction (aspects of being a parent that bring satisfaction); and Information Needs (things that parents need to know about their children) (as cited in Özeke-Kocabaş, 2005).

A Turkish version of the PSI (Appendix A) was piloted by Özeke-Kocabaş (2005) on approximately 570 eighth- and tenth-grade students and their parents. The data obtained was subjected to factor analysis, and an adapted Turkish PSI parent form consisting of 59 items converging under five meaningful dimensions was developed, as follows: Communication (15 items, factor loading: .33-.68); Satisfaction (11 items, factor loading: .35-.63); Information Needs (6 items, factor loading: .46-.86); Confidence (4 items, factor loading: .62-.76); and Use of Time (6 items, factor loading: .30-.62). Whereas the factor Confidence included in the Turkish version did not exist in the original PSI form, the factors Teaching and Frustration included in the original PSI were not present in the Turkish version.

Reliability and internal consistency of the PSI parent form were assessed by computing Cronbach's alpha coefficients, which were as follows: Total Scale: .90; Communication: .86; Use of Time: .70; Satisfaction: .82; Confidence: .75; and Information Needs: .78. PSI items are rated on a four-point Likert Scale and weighted from 1 (never) to 4 (always). Total PSI scores range from a low of 42 to a high of 168, with dimensional scores ranging as follows: Communication: 15-60; Satisfaction: 11-44; Information Needs: 6-24; Confidence: 4-16; and Use of Time: 6-24 (Özeke-Kocabaş, 2005).

3.5.2 Parent-Adolescent Relationship Scale (PARS)

The PARS consists of two forms developed by Kaner (2002) to assess adolescent perceptions of parental relationships with their parents. The original study conducted by Kaner (2002) included 843 ninth- and tenth-grade students (ages 15-18) from high schools in different districts within Ankara. Adolescents' answers regarding fathers and mothers were separately subjected to principal component analysis with varimax rotations. Factor analysis yielded seven factors with regards to adolescent-mother relationships and eight factors for adolescent-father

relationships. This study utilized the father form only.

The PARS Father Form (Appendix B) consists of 54 items converging under eight meaningful dimensions, as follows: Close Relationships (8 items, factor loading between .501-.734); Sensitivity (6 items, factor loading between .515-.765); Involvement Activities (5 items, factor loading between .597-.773); Norm Regulations (6 items, factor loading between .489-.780); Love and Trust (4 items, factor loading between .538-.770); Monitoring (4 items, factor loading between .534-.719); Meeting Expectations (2 items, factor loading between .763-.772); Home Rules (2 items, factor loading between .680-.698) (Kaner, 2002).

Reliability and internal consistency of the PARS father form were assessed by computing Cronbach's alpha coefficients, which were as follows: Total Scale: .93; Close Relationships: .86; Involvement Activities: .85; Sensitivity: .83; Love and Trust: .80; Monitoring: .64; Norm Regulations: .78; Meeting Expectations: .74; Home Regulations: .52. PARS items are rated on a five-point Likert Scale and weighted from 1 (never) to 5 (always). Total PARS scores range from a low of 37 to a high of 185, with dimensional scores ranging as follows: Close Relationship: 8-40; Sensitivity: 6-30; Involvement Activities: 5-25; Norm Regulation: 6-30; Love and Trust: 4-20; Monitoring: 4-20; Meeting Expectation: 2-10, and Home Rules: 2-10 (Kaner, 2002).

3.5.3 Peer Relationship Scale (PRS)

The PRS was developed by Kaner (2002) to investigate adolescent peer relationships (Appendix C) and was based on a study conducted with 1,648 ninth- and tenth-grade high school students (ages 14-18) in Ankara. Principal component analysis with varimax rotation yielded 37 items, and subsequent analysis found 18 items converged under four meaningful dimensions, as follows: Attachment (8 items, factor loading: .538-.760); Trust and Identification (4 items, factor loading: .413-.783); Self-disclosure (3 items, factor loading: .542-.742); Loyalty (3 items, factor loading: .534-.807).

Reliability and internal consistency of the PRS form were assessed by computing Cronbach's alpha coefficients, which were as follows: Total Scale: .86; Attachment: .86; Trust and Identification: .69; Self-disclosure: .58; Loyalty: .58. PRS items are rated on a five-point Likert Scale and weighted from 1 (never) to 5 (always). Total PRS scores range from a low of 15 to a high of 90, with dimensional scores ranging as follows: Attachment: 8-40; Trust and identification: 4-20; Self-disclosure: 3-15, and Loyalty: 3-15 (Kaner, 2002).

3.5.4 Evaluation Form

The Evaluation Form (Appendix D) was administered at the end of the training. Participants were asked to evaluate the training and the trainer by responding to 13 evaluation questions based on criteria taken from Merrit and Walley (1977). Questions on the Evaluation Form are rated on a four-point Likert Scale and weighted from 1 (poor) to 4 (very good). The first part of the Evaluation Form addresses the training in terms of content/topics, written materials/handouts, exercises and group discussion, and the trainer in terms of information delivery, establishing an appropriate training environment, effective listening, meeting participants' needs, relationship-building, implementation of appropriate and interesting activities, and appreciation of participants' ideas. In the second part of the Evaluation Form, fathers were asked to evaluate the training by responding to the four open-ended questions.

3.6 Data Collection Procedures

In the present study, data were collected using pre-test, post-test and follow-up PSI's administered by the researcher at group meetings held with the fathers in both the experimental group and the control group before, immediately after, and six months following the Father Involvement Training. Data were also collected from the children of the fathers in both groups using pre-test, post-test and follow-up PARS's and PRS's.

In addition, data on the training was collected from the experimental group using

an Evaluation Form administered at the last session of the Father Involvement Training.

3.7 Training Procedure

The Father Involvement Training was implemented in 10 two-hour sessions held once a week. Scheduling was determined by the fathers in the experimental group, and sessions were held on Saturdays at 10:00 a.m. in a meeting room at the Turkish Electricity Management Corporation (TEİAŞ) social facilities in order to create an environment where fathers feel both comfortable and welcomed, in line with observations by Fagan and Iglesias (1999).

Over the course of the training, 14 separate skills were introduced. Each session was comprised of a brief discussion of homework assignments, introduction of the session theme and a related scenario, a discussion of skills strategies included in the scenario, and a discussion of similarities and differences in the participating fathers' experiences with their children.

Following each training session, the researcher and his supervisor reviewed the session and discussed plans and strategies for the next session. The third, fifth and sixth sessions were also video recorded for purposes of supervision.

3.7.1 Training Materials

Training materials consisted of "The Father Involvement Training", which was developed by the researcher, aimed to help fathers acquire the knowledge and behaviors necessary to improve their relationships with their children and to teach their children the social skills necessary for successful peer group interaction. Social Cognitive Theory provided the framework for determining the guiding principles of the training, which was comprised of instruction, rehearsal, feedback and homework.

Instruction: Based on the evidence in the related literature, lectures were used to review and discuss the target skills in each session. Scenarios written by the

researcher were also used to introduce and teach specific skills to fathers. The use of scenarios was assumed to provide strategies for utilizing relationship and communication skills, teaching model behaviors and facilitating recall and maintenance of desired behaviors.

A two-step process was utilized to test the validity of the scenarios. First, a high school teacher and a high school counselor were asked to assess whether the language and content of the scenarios were appropriate for the developmental level of the participating students. Scenarios were revised based on this feedback, and the revised scenarios were then reviewed by an academician specializing in Psychological Counseling.

Rehearsal: Patterson (1976) has suggested that children acquire skills and behaviors during interaction with family members through modeling and observational learning. Given this assumption, scenarios were written with the aim of showing how fathers could teach a specific skill to their children in a positive and healthy manner. Scenarios were written focusing on hypothetical events and situations that fathers would be likely to encounter, and the training participants were asked to share their responses to the scenarios with the group. Some scenarios (parenting style and father-child activities) included role-playing exercises in order to rehearse appropriate model behaviors and stimulate fathers to practice the skills being taught in real-life situations. Following each exercise, fathers were instructed to share their feelings and thoughts with the group members. In addition, at the end of the sessions, homework was assigned to the fathers to rehearse the obtained skills in order to improve their relationships with their children in their daily lives. At the beginning of the next session, fathers were allowed to share and express their experience with their children

Feedback: Whenever possible, in discussing cases and responses to hypothetical scenarios posed during the training, the trainer used reinforcement to strengthen the appropriate verbal and non-verbal responses and encouraged reinforcement by fathers. Fathers also provided feedback by explaining their thoughts and feelings

about the training material to the group.

Homework: Homework was assigned at the end of each session to facilitate their ability to generalize and transfer learning from the training sessions to real life. Homework assignments also aimed to help participants practice the behaviors modeled in the training sessions and teach the targeted skill to their children. Corrective feedback and reinforcement were provided during the discussion of each assignment.

3.7.2 Overview of the Training Sessions

According to the literature, salient topics for interventions with fathers must reflect the unique context and styles of father-child interactions and may include increasing knowledge about child development, increasing involvement with children, providing social support, enhancing father-child communication skills and using time for social activities (McBride, 1990; Meyers, 1993). Table 3.2 provides a general outline of the structure of the Father Involvement Training.

Session	Content	Purpose	Techniques
1	Introductions and getting acquainted, information about group process, group norms, clarification of training goals	Education Skills training Self-Knowledge	Lecture Discussion Role-playing Games Illustration Homework
2	Parenting styles, adolescent development, father-child relationship		
3	Communication skills		
4	Effective listening, empathic understanding in communication		
5	Non-verbal communication		
6	Father-child relationship, social skills development		
7	Positive discipline method		
8	Natural consequences discipline method		
9	Father-child leisure time activities, peer relationships		
10	Conclusion		

Session I

The first session began with a warm-up activity as a means of introducing fathers to the training process and to the other group members. Fathers introduced themselves to the group and learned each other's name through a "Learning names" (Corey, Corey, Callahan, & Russell, 1992) warm-up exercise that allows participants to introduce themselves by name and state anything about themselves they would like the other group members to know. Before participants introduce themselves, they are asked to repeat the names of all those who have introduced themselves previously. Fathers were also asked how they felt about the training and were given an opportunity to discuss their expectations from the training. During this session, group norms were outlined and general rules agreed.

In the next part of the session, fathers were given the opportunity to discuss their roles as fathers by addressing questions such as, "What influence do fathers have on their adolescent children?" and, "What is their role in child development?" The main purpose of this activity was to bring to light the importance of fathers in the lives of adolescents and on their development. The researcher then provided participants with introductory written material about adolescent development (Appendix E) prepared by the researcher. The first session ended by an activity entitled "10 Adjectives for Your Children" (Beale, 1999) that this activity was designed to allowed fathers to examine their awareness of their children skills and capabilities, and asked fathers about their children's positive attributes, particularly in terms of attitude and behavior. Lastly, a hand-out that included information about different types of families to be reviewed during the next training session was distributed.

Session II

During the first half of the session, fathers shared their thoughts and feelings regarding the homework assignment "10 Adjectives for Your Children." During the second half of the session, parenting styles were reviewed, and fathers were allowed to express their thoughts about "authoritative", "authoritarian" and

“neglectful/permissive” parenting styles (Baumrind, 1966; 2005). Emphasis was placed on the “authoritative-democratic” parenting style and the general characteristics of parents who employ this style. A general overview of the “authoritative-democratic” style was presented by having fathers actively participate in a role-playing activity aimed at clarifying the characteristics of the different parenting styles. Participants were paired off and assigned roles as “father” or “child” in scenarios representing how “authoritative”, “authoritarian” and “permissive/neglectful” parenting styles affect father-child relationships in the response to situations occurring in daily life. Following the activity, participants shared their feelings and experiences in acting the roles of father and child.

At the end of the session, homework was assigned to allow fathers to implement an “authoritative” parenting style in order to improve their relationships with their children in their daily lives.

Session III

This session provided fathers instruction in effective communication skills (Gordon, 1970; Korkut-Owen, n.d.) in order to help fathers communicate more effectively with their children.

After reviewing the importance of effective communication in the father-child relationship, the trainer provided brief information and a definition of father-child communication. Fathers were then asked about which style of communication they employed with their children and about their thoughts regarding effective communication.

During the second part of the session, the activity “Expressing Feelings” (Appendix F) was conducted to help fathers understand their children’s feelings and express their own feelings effectively. Examples and practical ideas related to expressing feelings were shared with fathers. The role of expressing feelings in effective communication was discussed, and “I messages” were introduced. Effective ways of using “I messages” to deal with children’s behaviors were discussed, with emphasis placed on “I messages” as a more effective method of

influencing children to modify unacceptable behavior (Gordon, 1970). Fathers were encouraged to respond with “I messages” in an activity designed to allow participants to practice in hypothetical situations using the components of “I messages,” a technique that was stressed throughout this session.

Once introduced to the topic of communication skills and “I messages,” participants stated that they had not been effectively or adequately involved in relationships with family members. The researcher concluded the training session by explaining that the next session would introduce effective communication techniques.

Session IV

At the beginning of the session, effective communication skills were reviewed, and fathers discussed their use of effective communication in daily life. This session stressed teaching fathers communication skills, in particular, how to listen and respond to children’s feelings and how to express their own feelings through the constructive use of “I messages.”

In the first activity, “What are feelings?” (Begun, 1996), feelings such as anger, happiness, fear, embarrassment and confusion were discussed, with emphasis placed on the importance of empathic response in communication. The aim of this activity was to establish effective empathic communication and encourage fathers in supporting their children in specific situations. Both the positive and negative aspects of responding empathically in relationships with children were reviewed and discussed.

The remainder of the session was devoted to a role-playing activity designed to provide clear examples of how fathers can use their empathic skills in daily life. Again, participants worked in pairs to role-play father-child relationships characterized by effective, positive components of communication such as empathizing, questioning and active listening as well as relationships characterized by a lack of effective communication components.

In other activities, fathers were presented with hypothetical situations involving their children and then asked to identify what feelings their children might experience in such situations. In line with the assumption that fathers can be effective models for their children by employing an empathic response in their relationships with their children, the researcher encouraged the participants to put these skills to use in their interactions with their children.

Session V

At the start of the session, fathers shared their experiences in conducting their homework assignments, stating how they tried to respond empathically towards their children. Participants reported that their children enjoyed their fathers' interest and the attention paid to their feelings. Ways in which fathers could improve their empathic skills were also reviewed.

The second part of the session emphasized non-verbal communication in the father-child relationship. In an effort to raise participants' awareness regarding the quality of their communication with their children, the session underscored the importance of paying attention not only to the verbal content of the message, but to the manner in which it is presented as well. In this regard, fathers were asked to become aware of their body language and other non-verbal forms of communication.

Once a definition of non-verbal communication was given and the importance of non-verbal communication in father-child relationships was stressed, fathers mentioned that they had been unaware of the role of non-verbal messages in relationships.

Participants then took part in an activity aimed at helping them focus more on non-verbal communication and body language. The activity utilized a hand-out with three pictures of fathers and children engaged in conversations. Training participants were divided into three groups, and each group was asked to think about the type of father-child communication being represented and what the father and child might be thinking and feeling, and then to develop scenarios based on the

non-verbal evidence they could gather from the pictures. Through this activity, fathers indicated that they recognized the importance of non-verbal as well as verbal communication.

At the end of the session, homework was assigned to help fathers effectively put non-verbal communication skills into practice with their children.

Session VI

Non-verbal communication skills were reviewed at the beginning of the session, with fathers explaining how they had previously failed to realize the extent to which they employed non-verbal means of communication in their relationships.

In order to enhance fathers' involvement in their children's lives and play more positive roles in their children's development, this session focused on how fathers can assist their children in developing social skills. Particular emphasis was placed on learning how to provide constructive support and assistance to children.

With the aim of increasing participants' sensitivity to their children's needs and enhancing their acquisition of developmentally appropriate skills, fathers were provided with information on adolescent physical, cognitive and psycho-social development. Participants discussed the importance of the father's role during adolescence, the father-child relationship, how father's support adolescent development and the importance of the father as an adolescent role model. In the second half of the session, two activities –“Ways to Praise Our Kids and Encouragement” (Webster-Stratton, 1999)– were used to help fathers support their children in troubling situations, after which participants stated the ways in which they provided encouragement and support to their own children.

At the end of the session, homework was assigned on the topic of encouraging and supporting children in daily life. Fathers were also given a “Friendship” (Appendix G) hand-out aimed at both enhancing their discussions about friendship with their children and supporting them in their efforts to help their children make and keep a friendship over the next week

Session VII

The previous week's homework assignment "Friendship" was reviewed and a discussion was held about the important roles of friendships and peer groups for adolescents.

Considering that one of the most important aims of this training was to support fathers in their relationships with their children by teaching positive disciplinary methods (Dinkmeyer & McKay, 1994; Herbert, 1996), this subject formed the topic of a brief lecture presented at the start of the session.

Before the lecture, participants were asked to think about their children's undesirable behaviors and their own experiences in dealing with them; about the effectiveness of their responses in terms of whether or not they were able to adequately resolve conflicts; and whether or not their children were able to constructively modify their experiences and acquire new behaviors. In discussing their own situations with the group, participants revealed that they had experienced some difficulties in using positive disciplinary methods to instruct their children.

Following the lecture "Setting Limits" (Herbert, 1996) on methods of increasing positive discipline, participants reviewed and discussed sample conversations, and the researcher emphasized the importance of encouraging children's appropriate and positive behavior by developing positive discipline.

At the end of the session, the homework "Setting Limits" on positive disciplinary methods was assigned to improve the participants' use of positive disciplinary methods by encouraging or supporting the appropriate and positive behaviors of their children in their daily lives.

Session VIII

The first half of the session was devoted to sharing participants' experiences in implementing the homework assignment on "Setting Limits" methods.

Following the brief presentation of a definition of "Natural Consequences" and

their importance (Dinkmeyer, & McKay, 1994), sample conversations were examined and fathers allowed discussing their thoughts and feelings regarding the situations covered in the examples provided.

Next, the researcher divided participants into two groups and gave each group a hand-out with information on some events related to the father-child relationship. For the remainder of the session, fathers discussed the concept of “natural consequences” and what types of behavior were required on their own part if they were to witness the positive behaviors they expected from their children. In sharing their feelings at the end of the related activities, fathers stated that this method allowed children the opportunity to make their own decisions and take responsibility for their own behavior.

At the end of the session, a homework assignment was given to implement the “natural consequences” method in order to improve positive discipline by encouraging and supporting the appropriate and positive behavior of their children in their daily lives.

Session IX

This session provided fathers with several practical ideas for effectively supporting child development during limited time periods in order to raise participants’ awareness of the quality of the time spent with their children.

The researcher presented a lecture on the importance of time fathers spend with children (Palkovitz, 1997) in order to increase the participants’ sensitivity to children’s needs and to foster developmentally appropriate skills.

The importance of the time fathers spend with their children was again emphasized in “Father-Child Activities” (Appendix H), which was designed by the researcher specifically to increase participants’ awareness of the importance of the time they spend with their children.

For the remainder of the session, participants discussed their feelings about the above-mentioned activities. One father mentioned that he had had difficulty in

finding appropriate activities to engage in with his child, but that he believed this exercise would help him to more comfortably spend time with his child. Considering that the training aimed to involve fathers in their children's lives and activities, the researcher encouraged the participants to spend a far greater amount of time with their children.

Session X

This session concluded the training with a number of different evaluation activities. In the first activity, fathers assessed their relationships with their children as well as the fatherhood skills they had had prior to the training and the new skills they had acquired by the end of the training. In the second activity, fathers were asked to express how they felt about participating the training and what they considered to be the most important issue during the group process. The aim of both evaluation activities was to increase participants' awareness of what they had gained from the group as well as what they had contributed to the training process. In addition to these two activities, participants were asked to discuss their thoughts regarding their contributions to their children's development. At the end of the session, the training leader and training participants provided each other with feedback as to their feelings regarding their experiences during the training process.

The week following the conclusion of the training, participants and their children attended a breakfast ceremony in which children distributed attendance certificates to their fathers for having participated in the training.

3.8 Data Analysis

Non-parametric analysis was conducted using Mann-Whitney U Test, Friedman Test and Wilcoxon Tests. Although Repeated Measures of MANOVA testing had been initially planned by the researcher, results of the data obtained did not meet the necessary criteria for MANOVA; therefore, non-parametric testing was used as an alternative. As Green, Salkind, and Akey (2000) have shown, non-parametric procedures can be applied to problems involving interval or ratio data when distributional assumptions associated with parametric procedures have not been

met.

The Mann-Whitney U Test is a non-parametric alternative for two independent samples that evaluates whether medians of test variables differ significantly between two groups (Green, Salkind, & Akey, 2000). Therefore, Mann-Whitney *U* tests were used in this study to evaluate differences in pre-test, post-test and follow-up PSI, PARS, and PRS scores between the experimental and control groups.

The Friedman Test is used to test hypotheses involving several measurements obtained from the same group (Green, Salkind, & Akey, 2000). In this study, Friedman tests were used to determine whether or not differences existed in pre-test, post-test and follow-up PSI, PARS, and PRS scores for either group. Wilcoxon Sign Rank tests were used for post-hoc analysis of significant differences in pre-test, post-test, and follow-up scores between groups.

Additionally, the Evaluation Forms asking fathers to evaluate the training and trainer relied on descriptive statistics and content analysis. All statistical analyses were conducted using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) for Windows 13.00.

3.9 Limitations of the Study

The present study assumes that father involvement explains not only the father-child relationship, but also has an effect on the peer relationships of ninth-grade high school students; other possible theoretical explanations were not considered.

Participants were not selected randomly, but from among individuals who volunteered to participate in father involvement training; therefore, it is not possible to generalize the results of the present study to all fathers. Similarly, the study sample was limited to only urban ninth-grade students with fathers between 35-53 years of age, most of whom had university degrees; therefore, study results may not be replicated in other psycho-social and cultural contexts.

Another limitation is related to the training implemented in the study, which was

based on social-cognitive learning theory and limited to 10 sessions.

Family functioning and adolescent peer relationships were assessed based on the perceptions of fathers and children only; other assessments, such as mothers' perceptions, were not obtained. This is an important limitation of the present study, in that a comparison of children's interactions with both parents would have allowed for a comparison of mothers' and fathers' contributions to the same aspects of adolescent social development.

Lastly, the post-test measures were obtained from the experimental group subjects at the last session of the training.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of the study which were obtained by analyzing the data through some non-parametric statistical techniques described in the preceding chapter. In the first section, the results concerning the effect of the Father Involvement Training on family functioning are presented. In the second section, the results concerning the effect of Father Involvement Training on children's peer relationship are presented. In the third section, the experimental group fathers' reports derived from the training evaluation forms are presented.

4.1 Results concerning the effect of the Father Involvement Training on the family functioning.

In this section, results concerning the effect of Father Involvement Training on family functioning as indicated by the individual dimension and total Parent Success Indicator (PSI) scores of fathers and Parent Adolescent Relationship Scale (PARS) scores of their adolescent children are presented.

4.1.1 Results concerning the differences in father family functioning scores between the experimental and control groups.

Three separate Mann-Whitney U tests were used to test the differences between the experimental and control groups' pre-test, post-test and follow-up scores Parent Success Indicator (PSI).

The first Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to evaluate the differences between the pre-test Parent Success Indicator (PSI) scores of the experimental and control group. The results of the Mann-Whitney U test are presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 The Mean Ranks of the Experimental and Control Group Fathers for Pre-test Scores of Parent Success Indicator (PSI)

		Mann-Whitney U Test					
Dimensions of PSI	Groups	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Rank	<i>U</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>
Communication	Experimental	13	12.150	158.000	67.000	-.901	.368
	Control	13	14.850	193.000			
Use of time	Experimental	13	12.270	159.500	68.500	-.833	.405
	Control	13	14.730	191.500			
Satisfaction	Experimental	13	13.770	179.000	81.000	-.180	.857
	Control	13	13.230	172.000			
Confidence	Experimental	13	15.460	201.000	59.000	-1.326	.185
	Control	13	11.540	150.000			
Information need	Experimental	13	15.270	198.500	61.500	-1.187	.235
	Control	13	11.730	152.500			
Total	Experimental	13	13.620	177.000	83.000	-.077	.939
	Control	13	13.380	174.000			

The results of the Mann-Whitney U tests indicated no significant difference between the experimental and control group for pre-test scores on each dimension and total scores of the PSI ($z = -.901$, $p = .368$ for communication; $z = -.833$, $p = .405$ for use of time; $z = -.180$, $p = .857$ for satisfaction; $z = -1.326$, $p = .185$ for confidence; $z = -1.187$, $p = .235$ for information need, and $z = -.077$, $p = .939$ for total score). The results revealed that the mean rank of the experimental and control groups on the five dimensions and total scores of PSI were equal before implementing Father Involvement Training.

The second Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to investigate the differences between the post-test PSI scores of the experimental and control group. Table 4.2 shows the results of the Mann-Whitney U test comparing the experimental and the control group fathers' post-test scores gathered from PSI.

Table 4.2 The Mean Ranks of the Experimental and Control Group Fathers for Post-test Scores of Parent Success Indicator (PSI)

Mann-Whitney U Test							
Dimensions of PSI	Groups	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Rank	<i>U</i>	<i>Z</i>	<i>p</i>
Communication	Experimental	13	16.040	208.500	51.500	-1.698	.090
	Control	13	10.960	142.500			
Use of time	Experimental	13	14.080	183.000	77.000	-.389	.697
	Control	13	12.920	168.000			
Satisfaction	Experimental	13	16.190	210.500	49.500	-1.811	.070
	Control	13	10.810	140.500			
Confidence	Experimental	13	15.730	204.500	55.500	-1.498	.134
	Control	13	11.270	146.500			
Information need	Experimental	13	15.500	201.500	58.500	-1.339	.181
	Control	13	11.500	149.500			
Total	Experimental	13	16.460	214.000	46.000	-1.977	.048
	Control	13	10.540	137.000			

The Mann-Whitney U test revealed a significant difference between the experimental and control groups for posttest total scores of the PSI, $z = -1.977$, $p < .05$. However, the results revealed no significant difference between the experimental and control groups for the post-test scores on the five dimensions ($z = -1.698$, $p = .090$ for communication; $z = -.389$, $p = .697$ for use of time; $z = -1.811$, $p = .070$ for satisfaction; $z = -1.498$, $p = .134$ for confidence; $z = -1.339$, $p = .181$ for information need). As shown in Table 4.2, the Father Involvement Training had a significant effect on the total PSI posttest scores of the experimental group fathers.

The last Mann-Whitney U test was carried out to evaluate the difference between the experimental and control groups for follow-up scores of PSI. Table 4.3 shows the results comparing the follow-up scores of the experimental and control group gathered from the PSI.

Table 4.3 The Mean Ranks of the Experimental and Control Group Fathers for Follow-up Scores of Parent Success Indicator (PSI)

Mann-Whitney U Test							
Dimensions of PSI	Groups	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Rank	<i>U</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>
Communication	Experimental	13	14.730	191.500	68.500	-.824	.410
	Control	13	12.270	159.500			
Use of time	Experimental	13	14.620	190.000	70.000	-.756	.450
	Control	13	12.380	161.000			
Satisfaction	Experimental	13	15.920	207.000	53.000	-1.624	.104
	Control	13	11.080	144.000			
Confidence	Experimental	13	16.080	209.000	51.000	-1.736	.083
	Control	13	10.920	142.000			
Information need	Experimental	13	16.420	213.500	46.500	-1.960	.050
	Control	13	10.580	137.500			
Total	Experimental	13	16.850	219.000	41.000	-2.233	.026
	Control	13	10.150	132.000			

The results of the Mann-Whitney U test revealed no significant difference between the experimental and the control groups for follow-up scores on the five dimensions of PSI, ($z = -.824$, $p = .410$ for communication; $z = -.756$, $p = .450$ for use of time; $z = -1.624$, $p = .104$ for satisfaction; $z = -1.736$, $p = .083$ for confidence; $z = -1.960$, $p = .050$ for information need). The results revealed that there was a significant difference between the experimental and control groups for follow-up total scores of PSI ($z = -2.233$, $p < .05$). As shown in Table 4.3, the Father Involvement Training had a significant effect on the total PSI follow-up scores of experimental group fathers.

4.1.2 Results concerning the differences in adolescent family functioning scores between the experimental and control groups.

In this section, the results of three Mann-Whitney U tests that were performed in order to determine the effect of the Father Involvement Training on the Parent Adolescent Relationship Scale (PARS) scores of children whose fathers were in the experimental and control group, are presented.

The first Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to evaluate the differences between pretest Parent Adolescent Relationship Scale (PARS) scores of the children whose

fathers were in the experimental and control group, and the results are presented in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4 The Mean Ranks of the Children of Experimental and Control Group Fathers for Pre-test Scores of Parent Adolescent Relationship Scale (PARS)

Mann-Whitney U Test							
Dimensions of PARS	Groups of Father	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Rank	<i>U</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>
Norm Regulations	Experimental	13	15.460	201.000	59.000	-1.321	.186
	Control	13	11.540	150.000			
Monitoring	Experimental	13	15.230	198.000	62.000	-1.161	.246
	Control	13	11.770	153.000			
Home Rules	Experimental	13	12.460	162.000	71.000	-.705	.481
	Control	13	14.540	189.000			
Love and Trust	Experimental	13	14.650	190.500	69.500	-.788	.431
	Control	13	12.350	160.500			
Sensitivity	Experimental	13	15.420	200.500	59.500	-1.293	.196
	Control	13	11.580	150.500			
Close Relationship	Experimental	13	15.000	195.000	65.000	-1.002	.317
	Control	13	12.000	156.000			
Meeting Expectations	Experimental	13	15.920	207.000	53.000	-1.651	.099
	Control	13	11.080	144.000			
Involvement Activities	Experimental	13	12.730	165.500	74.500	-.515	.606
	Control	13	14.270	185.000			
Total	Experimental	13	15.230	198.000	62.000	-1.154	.248
	Control	13	11.770	153.000			

The results of the Mann-Whitney U tests yielded no significant difference between the children whose fathers were in the experimental and of those in the control group in terms of the pre-test scores on the eight dimensions and total scores of the PARS, ($z=-1.321$, $p=.186$ for norm regulations; $z= -1.161$, $p=.246$ for monitoring; $z=-.705$, $p=.481$ for home rules; $z=-.788$, $p=.431$ for love and trust; $z=-1.293$, $p=.196$ for sensitivity; $z=-1.002$, $p=.317$ for close relationship; $z=-1.651$, $p=.099$ for meeting expectations; $z=-.515$, $p=.606$ for involvement activities; $z=-1.154$, $p=.248$ for the total score). These results indicated that the mean ranks of the scores of the children of experimental and control group fathers for pre-test dimensional and total scores of PARS were equal before implementing the Father Involvement Training.

The second Mann-Whitney U test was employed to evaluate the differences between the children whose fathers were in experimental group and of those in the control group for post-test scores of Parent Adolescent Relationship Scale (PARS). Table 4.5 presents the results of the Mann-Whitney U test, comparing the post-test PARS scores of the children.

Table 4.5 The Mean Ranks of the Children of Experimental and Control Group Fathers for Post-test of Parent Adolescent Relationship Scale (PARS)

Mann-Whitney U Test							
Dimensions of PARS	Groups of Fathers	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Rank	<i>U</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>
Norm Regulations	Experimental	13	15.270	198.500	61.500	-1.188	.235
	Control	13	11.730	152.500			
Monitoring	Experimental	13	14.080	183.000	77.000	-.389	.697
	Control	13	12.920	168.000			
Home Rules	Experimental	13	13.650	177.500	82.500	-.104	.917
	Control	13	13.350	173.500			
Love and Trust	Experimental	13	14.620	190.000	70.000	-.754	.451
	Control	13	12.380	161.000			
Sensitivity	Experimental	13	15.960	207.000	52.500	-1.648	.099
	Control	13	11.040	143.000			
Close Relationship	Experimental	13	16.730	217.500	42.500	-2.160	.031
	Control	13	10.270	133.270			
Meeting Expectations	Experimental	13	15.880	206.000	53.500	-1.650	.099
	Control	13	11.120	144.500			
Involvement Activities	Experimental	13	14.620	190.000	70.000	-.750	.453
	Control	13	12.380	161.000			
Total	Experimental	13	15.310	199.000	61.000	-1.206	.228
	Control	13	11.690	152.000			

The results indicated that there was a significant difference between the children of experimental and control group fathers for post-test scores on the close relationship dimension of PARS, $z = -2.160$, $p < .05$. However, the Mann-Whitney U test revealed no significant difference between the children of experimental and control group fathers for post-test scores on total and other dimensions of PARS ($z = -1.188$, $p = .235$ for norm regulations; $z = -.389$, $p = .697$ for monitoring; $z = -.104$, $p = .917$ for home rules; $z = -.754$, $p = .451$ for love and trust; $z = -1.648$, $p = .099$ for sensitivity; $z =$

1.650, $p=.099$ for meeting expectations; $z=-.750$, $p=.453$ for involvement activities; $z=-1.206$, $p=.228$ for total score). As shown in Table 4.5, the Father Involvement Training had a significant effect on the post-test close relationship dimension scores of the children whose fathers were in the experimental group.

The third Mann-Whitney U test was carried out to evaluate the differences between the children whose fathers were in the experimental group and control group for follow-up scores of PARS. Table 4.6 presents the results of the Mann-Whitney U test, comparing the children's follow-up scores obtained from the PARS.

Table 4.6 The Mean Ranks of the Children of Experimental and Control Group for Follow-up Scores of Parent Adolescent Relationship Scale (PARS)

Mann-Whitney U Test							
Dimensions of PARS	Groups of Father	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Rank	<i>U</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>
Norm Regulations	Experimental	13	13.960	181.500	78.500	-.311	.756
	Control	13	13.040	169.500			
Monitoring	Experimental	13	14.310	186.000	74.000	-.543	.587
	Control	13	12.690	165.000			
Home Rules	Experimental	13	13.690	178.000	82.000	-.134	.894
	Control	13	13.310	173.000			
Love and Trust	Experimental	13	15.540	202.000	58.000	-1.374	.170
	Control	13	11.460	149.000			
Sensitivity	Experimental	13	16.380	213.000	47.000	-1.949	.051
	Control	13	10.620	138.000			
Close Relationship	Experimental	13	15.000	195.000	65.000	-1.003	.316
	Control	13	12.000	156.000			
Meeting Expectations	Experimental	13	13.380	174.000	83.000	-.079	.937
	Control	13	13.620	177.000			
Involvement Activities	Experimental	13	13.000	169.000	78.000	-.335	.738
	Control	13	14.000	182.000			
Total	Experimental	13	16.040	208.500	51.500	-1.693	.090
	Control	13	10.960	142.500			

The results of the Mann-Whitney U test yielded no significant differences between the children of experimental and the control groups fathers for follow-up total and dimension scores of PARS ($z=-.311$, $p=.756$ for norm regulations; $z= -.543$, $p=.587$

for monitoring; $z=-.134$, $p=.894$ for home rules; $z=-1.374$, $p=.140$ for love and trust; $z=-1.949$, $p=.196$ for sensitivity; $z=-1.003$, $p=.316$ for close relationship; $z=-.079$, $p=.937$ for meeting expectations; $z=-.335$, $p=.738$ for involvement activities; $z=-1.693$, $p=.090$ for the total score).

4.1.3 Results concerning the differences among pre-test, post-test and follow-up father family functioning scores in the experimental group.

In order to identify the differences among pretest, posttest and follow-up measures of the experimental group fathers' ratings on the five dimensions and the total scores of PSI, a Friedman test was used. Table 4.7 shows the changes in the experimental group fathers' PSI scores from pre-test to follow-up measures.

Table 4.7 The Mean Ranks of the Experimental Group Father for Pre-test, Post-test, and Follow-up Scores of Parent Success Indicator (PSI).

Dimensions of PSI	Measures	N	Mean	Sd	Mean rank	χ^2	df	p
Communication	Pretest	13	2.89	.44	1.54	6.00	2	.050
	Posttest	13	3.40	.96	2.46			
	Follow-up	13	3.10	.45	2.00			
Use of time	Pretest	13	2.85	.50	1.62	3.81	2	.148
	Posttest	13	3.12	.34	2.08			
	Follow-up	13	3.15	.35	2.31			
Satisfaction	Pretest	13	3.30	.60	1.81	1.85	2	.395
	Posttest	13	3.62	.29	2.27			
	Follow-up	13	3.52	.33	1.92			
Confidence	Pretest	13	3.13	.68	.69	5.24	2	.073
	Posttest	13	3.36	.50	2.42			
	Follow-up	13	3.23	.55	1.88			
Information need	Pretest	13	2.62	.86	1.73	2.17	2	.337
	Posttest	13	3.06	1.61	2.00			
	Follow-up	13	2.96	.74	2.27			
Total	Pretest	13	2.97	.48	1.62	5.167	2	.076
	Posttest	13	3.34	.43	2.46			
	Follow-up	13	3.31	.26	1.92			

As shown in Table 4.7, the results of the Friedman test revealed that there was no significant improvement for the five dimensions and total scores of the experimental group from pretest to follow-up measures.

4.1.4 Results concerning the differences among pre-test, post-test and follow-up father family functioning scores in the control group

A similar statistical procedure was followed for the control group. A Friedman test was conducted to evaluate whether control group fathers demonstrated any significant improvement in their pre-test and follow-up measures of PSI. Table 4.8 shows the changes in the control group fathers' PSI scores from pre-test to follow up measures.

Table 4.8 The Mean Ranks of the Control Group Fathers for Pre-test, Post-test, and Follow-up Scores of Parent Success Indicator (PSI)

Dimensions of PSI	Measures	N	Mean	Sd	Mean rank	χ^2	df	p
Communication	Pretest	13	3.01	.40	1.92	167	2	.920
	Posttest	13	2.95	.39	2.04			
	Follow-up	13	2.97	.40	2.04			
Use of time	Pretest	13	3.01	.47	1.88	.60	2	.739
	Posttest	13	3.12	.41	2.15			
	Follow-up	13	3.06	.33	1.96			
Satisfaction	Pretest	13	3.33	.50	2.19	5.20	2	.074
	Posttest	13	3.24	.54	2.23			
	Follow-up	13	3.23	.47	1.58			
Confidence	Pretest	13	2.75	.81	1.96	1.36	2	.504
	Posttest	13	2.84	.89	2.15			
	Follow-up	13	2.75	.75	1.88			
Information need	Pretest	13	2.24	.83	1.92	.250	2	.882
	Posttest	13	2.32	.81	2.00			
	Follow-up	13	2.32	.82	2.08			
Total	Pretest	13	2.96	.37	2.19	3.75	2	.153
	Posttest	13	2.95	.38	2.19			
	Follow-up	13	2.93	.33	1.62			

According to the Friedman test results presented in Table 4.8, there was no significant improvement in the control group fathers' PSI scores from pre-test to follow-up measures.

4.1.5 Results concerning the differences among pre-test, post-test and follow-up adolescent family functioning scores in the experimental group.

In order to reveal the differences among pre-test, post-test and follow-up dimensional and total scores of PARS for children whose fathers were in the experimental group, a Friedman test was used. Table 4.9 shows the changes in PARS scores of children from pre-test to follow-up measures.

Table 4.9 The Mean Ranks of the Children of Experimental Group Fathers for Pre-test, Post-test and Follow-up Scores of Parent Adolescent Relationship Scale (PARS)

Dimensions of PARS	Measures	N	Mean	Sd	Mean rank	χ^2	df	p
Norm Regulations	Pretest	13	4.14	.69	1.92	2.36	2	.307
	Posttest	13	4.34	.63	2.27			
	Follow-up	13	4.25	.32	1.81			
Monitoring	Pretest	13	3.30	.95	1.88	.684	2	.710
	Posttest	13	3.40	1.16	2.15			
	Follow-up	13	3.26	.83	1.96			
Home Rules	Pretest	13	3.57	.99	1.81	3.61	2	.206
	Posttest	13	3.86	.86	2.31			
	Follow-up	13	3.73	.59	1.88			
Love and Trust	Pretest	13	4.34	.76	1.85	.735	2	.682
	Posttest	13	4.38	.66	2.12			
	Follow-up	13	4.30	.84	2.04			
Sensitivity	Pretest	13	4.14	.61	1.50	7.13	2	.028
	Posttest	13	4.29	.71	2.46			
	Follow-up	13	4.23	.90	2.04			
Close Relationship	Pretest	13	3.15	.87	1.85	4.87	2	.088
	Posttest	13	3.63	.80	2.46			
	Follow-up	13	3.12	.99	1.69			
Meeting Expectations	Pretest	13	3.80	.66	2.12	6.46	2	.039
	Posttest	13	3.84	1.125	2.13			
	Follow-up	13	3.26	1.11	1.58			
Involvement Activities	Pretest	13	3.64	1.04	2.04	4.53	2	.104
	Posttest	13	4.01	.98	2.38			
	Follow-up	13	3.46	1.03	1.58			
Total	Pretest	13	3.74	.64	1.92	3.36	2	.186
	Posttest	13	3.98	.67	2.38			
	Follow-up	13	3.71	.69	1.69			

As seen in Table 4.9, there was a significant difference in the scores of children of experimental group fathers for the sensitivity and meeting expectations dimensions from pretest to follow-up measures; $\chi^2(df=2, N=13)=7.13, p<.05$ and $\chi^2(df=2, N=13)=6.46, p<.05$, respectively. The results indicated no gain in other dimensions and the total score of PARS.

In order to determine the difference among the pretest, posttest and follow-up measures of the children of experimental and control group fathers, a Wilcoxon Signed Rank test was used as a post-hoc procedure for the children's sensitivity and meeting expectations scores.

Table 4.10 The Results of Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test for Pre-test Post-test and Follow-up Sensitivity Dimension Scores of the Children of Experimental Group Fathers

Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Signed Test						
Posttest-Pretest		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	z	p
	- Ranks	1	11.00	11.00	-1.962	.050
	+ Ranks	10	5.50	55.00		
	Ties	2				
	Total	13				
Follow-up-	- Ranks	6	4.50	27.00	-.534	.593
	+ Ranks	3	6.00	18.00		
	Ties	4				
	Total					
Follow-up-	- Ranks	4	6.50	26.00	-1.024	.306
	+ Ranks	8	6.50	52.00		
	Ties	1				
	Total					

Although the Friedman test revealed significant differences among pretest, posttest and follow-up scores of sensitivity dimension, scores, the Wilcoxon Signed Rank test yielded no significant difference between the pre-test-post-test ($z= -1.962, p=.05$), post-test-follow-up ($z= -.534, p= .593$), and pre-test-follow-up ($z= -1.024, p=.306$) measures.

Table 4.11 The Results of Wilcoxon Signed Rank Tests for Pre-test Post-test and Follow-up Meeting Expectations Dimension Scores of the Children of Experimental Group Fathers

Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Signed Test						
Posttest-Pretest		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	z	p
	- Ranks	2	6.25	12.50	-.259	.796
	+ Ranks	5	3.10	15.50		
	Ties	6				
	Total	13				
Follow-up-	- Ranks	6	4.50	27.00	-2.238	.025
	+ Ranks	1	1.00	1.00		
	Ties	6				
	Total	13				
Follow-up-Pretest	- Ranks	7	4.86	34.00	-2.263	.024
	+ Ranks	1	2.00	2.00		
	Ties	2				
	Total	13				

The results yielded a significant difference between the posttest and follow-up meeting expectations dimension scores of the PARS in the experimental group fathers' children, $z=-2.238$, $p< .05$. The negative mean rank of the meeting expectations dimension between the posttest and follow-up score was 4.50 and the positive mean rank was 1.0. The result shows that one child whose father received training reported an increase in their meeting expectations scores; while six children reported a decrease in their meeting expectations scores after their fathers received Father Involvement Training.

Furthermore, the results revealed that there was a significant difference between the pretest and follow-up meeting expectations dimension scores of PARS in the experimental group fathers' children ($z= -2.263$, $p< .05$). The negative mean rank of the meeting expectations subscale between pretest and follow-up score was 4.86 and the positive mean rank was 2.0. The result showed that one experimental group father's child reported an increase in their meeting expectations score, while seven children reported a decrease their expectations scores. However, there was no significant difference between the pretest and posttest measures of the meeting expectations dimension ($z= -.259$, $p= .796$) for the children of experimental group fathers.

4.1.6 Results concerning the differences among pre-test, post-test and follow-up adolescent family functioning scores in the control group.

In order to analyze whether the control group fathers' children showed any significant improvement in their PARS scores from pretest to follow up measures, a Friedman test was employed. Table 4.12 shows the changes from pretest to follow up measures of the PARS scores of children whose fathers were in the control group.

Table 4.12 The Mean Ranks of the Children of Control Group Fathers for Pretest, Posttest and Follow-up Scores of Parent Adolescent Relationship Scale (PARS)

Dimensions of PARS	Measures	N	Mean	Sd	Mean rank	χ^2	df	p
Norm Regulations	Pretest	13	3.83	.76	1.73	2.130	2	.345
	Posttest	13	3.97	.87	2.00			
	Follow-up	13	4.25	.43	2.27			
Monitoring	Pretest	13	3.00	.61	1.96	.341	2	.843
	Posttest	13	3.28	.84	2.12			
	Follow-up	13	3.15	.71	1.92			
Home Rules	Pretest	13	3.92	.67	2.12	1.08	2	.581
	Posttest	13	3.84	.92	2.08			
	Follow-up	13	3.80	.63	1.81			
Love and Trust	Pretest	13	3.90	1.19	1.96	5.16	2	.076
	Posttest	13	4.05	.93	2.42			
	Follow-up	13	3.84	1.02	1.62			
Sensitivity	Pretest	13	3.93	.69	1.92	.174	2	.917
	Posttest	13	3.89	.77	2.00			
	Follow-up	13	3.88	.92	2.08			
Close Relationship	Pretest	13	2.76	1.15	1.81	1.59	2	.465
	Posttest	13	2.98	.84	2.27			
	Follow-up	13	2.98	.87	1.92			
Meeting Expectations	Pretest	13	3.19	1.05	1.77	2.93	2	.231
	Posttest	13	3.38	.79	2.35			
	Follow-up	13	3.26	1.34	1.88			
Involvement Activities	Pretest	13	3.84	.84	2.08	.286	2	.867
	Posttest	13	3.83	.83	2.04			
	Follow-up	13	3.50	1.29	1.88			
Total	Pretest	13	3.50	.62	1.81	5.26	2	.072
	Posttest	13	3.67	.71	2.50			
	Follow-up	13	3.39	.55	1.69			

According to the results of the Friedman test shown in Table 4.12, there was no significant improvement in PARS dimensional and the total scores of children whose fathers were in the control group.

4.2 Results concerning the effect of Father Involvement Training on children’s peer relationship.

In this section, results concerning the effect of Father Involvement Training on peer relationship as indicated by the individual dimension and total Peer Relationship Scale (PRS) scores of children whose fathers participated in the study are presented.

4.2.1 Results concerning the differences in children’s peer relationship scores between the experimental and control groups.

The first Mann-Whitney U test was employed to evaluate the differences between the pre-test Peer Relationship Scale (PRS) scores of the children whose fathers were in the experimental and control groups. The results are reported in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13 The Mean Ranks of the Children of Experimental and Control Group Fathers for Pretest Scores of Peer Relationship Scale (PRS)

Dimensions of PRS	Groups of Fathers	Mann-Whitney U Test					
		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Rank	<i>U</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>
Attachment	Experimental	13	14.540	189.000	71.000	-.700	.484
	Control	13	12.460	162.000			
Trust and Identification	Experimental	13	15.540	202.000	58.000	-1.383	.167
	Control	13	11.460	149.000			
Self-Disclosure	Experimental	13	11.310	147.000	56.000	-1.479	.139
	Control	13	15.690	204.000			
Loyalty	Experimental	13	12.690	165.000	74.000	-.546	.585
	Control	13	14.310	186.000			
Total	Experimental	13	13.380	174.000	83.000	-.077	.938
	Control	13	13.620	177.000			

The results of the Mann-Whitney U test indicated no significant difference between the children of experimental and control group fathers for pretest dimensional and

total scores of PRS ($z = -.700$, $p = .484$ for attachment; $z = -1.383$, $p = .167$ for trust and identification; $z = -1.479$, $p = .139$ for self-disclosure; $z = -.546$, $p = .584$ for loyalty; $z = -.077$, $p = .938$ for total score). These results emphasized that the mean ranks of the children of experimental and control group fathers for pre-test dimensional and total scores of PRS were equal before implementing the Father Involvement Training.

A further Mann-Whitney U test was carried out to investigate the differences between the children of experimental and control group fathers for post-test dimensional and total scores of PRS. Table 4.14 presents the results of the Mann-Whitney U test comparing the scores of children obtained from the PRS.

Table 4.14 The Mean Ranks of the Children of Experimental and Control group Fathers for Post-test Scores of Peer Relationship Scale (PRS)

		Mann-Whitney U Test					
Dimensions of PRS	Groups of Fathers	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Rank	<i>U</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>
Attachment	Experimental	13	13.690	178.000	82.000	-.129	.897
	Control	13	13.310	173.000			
Trust and Identification	Experimental	13	13.880	180.500	79.500	-.261	.794
	Control	13	13.120	170.500			
Self-Disclosure	Experimental	13	10.620	138.000	47.000	-1.942	.052
	Control	13	16.380	213.000			
Loyalty	Experimental	13	11.080	144.000	53.000	-1.648	.099
	Control	13	15.920	207.000			
Total	Experimental	13	10.960	142.500	51.500	-1.698	.089
	Control	13	16.040	208.500			

These results indicated that there was no significant difference between the children whose fathers were in the experimental and children whose fathers were in the control group for post-test total and dimensional scores of the PRS ($z = -.129$, $p = .897$ for attachment; $z = -.261$, $p = .794$ for trust and identification; $z = -1.942$, $p = .052$ for self-disclosure; $z = -1.648$, $p = .099$ for Loyalty; $z = -1.698$, $p = .089$ for the total score).

The third and the final Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to evaluate the difference between children whose fathers were in the experimental group and

children whose fathers were in the control groups for follow-up scores of PRS. Table 4.15 shows the results of the Mann-Whitney U test comparing the follow-up scores of children obtained from the PRS.

Table 4.15 The Mean Ranks of the Children of Experimental and Control Group for Follow-up Scores of Peer Relationship Scale (PRS)

Mann-Whitney U Test							
Dimensions of PRS	Groups of Fathers	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Rank	<i>U</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>
Attachment	Experimental	13	15.380	200.000	60.000	-1.267	.205
	Control	13	11.620	151.000			
Trust and Identification	Experimental	13	16.500	214.500	45.500	-2.032	.042
	Control	13	10.500	136.500			
Self-Disclosure	Experimental	13	12.500	162.500	71.500	.675	.500
	Control	13	14.500	188.500			
Loyalty	Experimental	13	12.650	164.500	73.500	.569	.570
	Control	13	14.350	186.500			
Total	Experimental	13	14.190	184.500	75.500	-.464	.643
	Control	13	12.810	166.500			

The results showed that there was a significant difference between the ratings of children whose fathers were in the experimental group and children whose fathers were in the control group in terms of follow-up scores on the trust and identification dimension of PRS ($z = -2.032$, $p < .05$). Nevertheless, the Mann-Whitney U test revealed no significant difference between the children of experimental and control group fathers for follow-up scores on the total and other dimensions of PRS ($z = -1.267$, $p = .205$ for attachment; $z = -.675$, $p = .500$ for self-disclosure; $z = -.569$, $p = .570$ for loyalty; $z = -.464$, $p = .643$ for total score). As shown in Table 4.15, the Father Involvement Training had a significant effect on the trust and identification dimension follow-up scores of children whose fathers were in the experimental group.

4.2.2 Results concerning the differences among pre-test, post-test, and follow-up children's peer relationship scores in the experimental group

The Friedman Test was carried out to investigate the differences among pretest, posttest and follow-up measures of ratings of children whose fathers were in the

experimental group for dimensional and total scores of Peer Relationship Scale (PRS).

Table 4.16 shows the changes in the PRS scores of children whose fathers were in the experimental from pretest to follow-up measures.

Table 4.16 The Mean Ranks of the Children of Experimental Group Fathers for Pre-test, Post-test and Follow-up Scores of Peer Relationship Scale (PRS)

Dimensions of PRS	Measures	N	Mean	Sd	Mean rank	χ^2	df	p
Attachment	Pretest	13	4.34	.33	2.15	1.60	2	.44
	Posttest	13	4.33	.43	2.12			
	Follow-up	13	4.23	.59	1.73			
Trust and Identification	Pretest	13	4.07	.54	2.31	2.53	2	.28
	Posttest	13	3.80	.62	1.77			
	Follow-up	13	3.94	.92	1.92			
Self-Disclosure	Pretest	13	3.69	.82	1.88	1.89	2	.38
	Posttest	13	3.66	.69	1.85			
	Follow-up	13	3.76	.77	2.27			
Loyalty	Pretest	13	3.05	1.04	1.88	1.60	2	.44
	Posttest	13	3.12	.56	2.27			
	Follow-up	13	3.00	1.21	1.85			
Total	Pretest	13	3.96	.28	2.15	.55	2	.75
	Posttest	13	3.84	.37	1.88			
	Follow-up	13	3.88	.67	1.96			

As shown in Table 4.16, the Friedman test revealed no significant differences in PRS pretest, posttest and follow-up scores of children whose fathers were in the experimental group.

4.2.3 Results concerning the differences among pre-test, post-test, and follow-up children's peer relationship scores in the control group

The last Friedman test was conducted to evaluate whether the ratings of children whose fathers were in the control group showed any significant improvement in PRS scores from pretest to follow-up measures. Table 4.17 presents the changes in the PRS scores of children of control group fathers, from pretest to follow up measures.

Table 4.17 The Mean Ranks of the Children of Control Group Fathers for Pre-test, Post-test and Follow-up Scores of Peer Relationship Scale (PRS)

Dimensions of PRS	Measures	N	Mean	Sd	Mean rank	χ^2	df	p
Attachment	Pretest	13	4.12	.64	1.85	2.44	2	.29
	Posttest	13	4.27	.57	2.35			
	Follow-up	13	4.00	.33	1.81			
Trust and Identification	Pretest	13	3.63	.79	2.00	.047	2	.97
	Posttest	13	3.80	.35	2.04			
	Follow-up	13	3.65	.37	1.96			
Self-Disclosure	Pretest	13	4.17	.83	2.27	4.15	2	.12
	Posttest	13	4.20	.73	2.12			
	Follow-up	13	3.97	.65	1.62			
Loyalty	Pretest	13	3.23	1.08	1.85	1.72	2	.42
	Posttest	13	3.56	.61	2.25			
	Follow-up	13	3.15	1.04	1.88			
Total	Pretest	13	3.87	.60	1.96	1.75	2	.41
	Posttest	13	4.06	.50	2.27			
	Follow-up	13	3.78	.34	1.77			

As Table 4.17 indicates, the results revealed no significant difference in PRS pre-test, post-test and follow-up scores of children whose fathers were in the control group.

4.3 Experimental group father's evaluation of Father Involvement Training

At the end of the last session, the experimental group fathers filled out an Evaluation Form designed to evaluate the training process and the trainer.

The first part of the Evaluation Form consists of 13 items which were adopted from Merrit and Walley's (1977) criteria for father involvement training. In that part, fathers were asked to evaluate the training and trainer on a 4 point scale ranging from 1 (poor) to 4 (very good). In the second part of the evaluation form, fathers were asked whether they found the training effective or not through responding to four questions. Table 4.18 presents the results of the descriptive statistics relating to the responses given to the first part of the evaluation form.

Table 4.18 Experimental Group Fathers' Ratings of the Training and the Trainers

Evaluation of the Training By Fathers	<u>Very good</u>		<u>Good</u>		<u>Not good</u>		<u>Poor</u>	
	f(n)	%	f(n)	%	f(n)	%	f(n)	%
Content-topics	13	100						
Written materials & handouts	9	69	4	31				
Exercise	8	62	5	38				
Group discussion	7	54	6	46				
<hr/>								
Evaluation of the Trainer By Fathers								
Give information	10	77	3	23				
Set appropriate environment	9	69	4	31				
Be sensitive to the needs of participants	10	77	3	23				
Meet the needs of participants	10	77	3	23				
Relationship with participants	12	92	1	8				
Apply appropriate and interesting exercises	7	54	6	46				
Depend on process and content	10	77	3	23				
Listen actively	10	77	3	23				
Appreciate the participants' ideas	12	92	1	8				

As shown in Table 4.18, fathers rated the training as satisfactory, especially with the *content-topics*, in other words, they found the training “very good” in terms of its content and topics. Fathers rated other criteria (written materials and handouts, exercises, and group discussion) from “very good” to “good”.

Regarding the evaluation of the trainer, the table also shows that almost all of the participants rated the trainer as very good for *the trainers' relationship with the participants* and *appreciating the participants' ideas*. In addition, most of the fathers rated the trainer at very good level on *giving information, being sensitive to the needs of participants, meeting the needs of participants, depending on process and content, and listening actively*. Regarding *the appropriate and interesting activities*, almost half of the fathers rated it as good.

In the second part of the Evaluation form, fathers were asked to evaluate the training by answering the following four open-ended questions:

1. In what ways have you been affected by the group work?

2. Could you please explain your thoughts and emotions during the meetings?
3. What was the most important or valuable topic for you in the training? Why?
4. What have you learned about yourself as a father and your interaction or relationship with your children?

The Evaluation Form was completed by the fathers at the end of the last session of the training. Then, content analysis was performed on the information obtained. The content analysis enables researchers to define the qualitative data and to reveal the hidden information. The related concepts and themes are grouped to interpret for the readers that they can be understood easily (Yıldırım & Simsek, 2003). In this study, data from the evaluation forms were organized under the general headings of “Reflections about the training”, “Relationship with adolescents”, “Feelings About Themselves”.

Reflections about the training

All group members emphasized that Father Involvement Training had affected them in positive ways. They felt that seeing fathers who had the same concerns helped them to understand that they were not the only one who is having the same difficulties in the relationship with their children. They felt they were not alone. Sharing their own experiences, behaviors and feelings with the other members of the group and being accepted by others helped them to understand their relationship with their children.

Most of the group members found that the amount of the content outlined was sufficient to gain an idea about the father-adolescent bond/relationship and to develop a greater awareness of the role that attitudes and behaviors play in the relationship between father and adolescent. The examples below illustrate this idea.

“The training was so helpful and nice that I found it pleasant to discuss the related material with other fathers and understand the importance of a positive perspective in dealing with our problems.”

“In the meetings I was encouraged to think about my behaviors and my relationship as a result of the opinions of other parents about their children.”

The father training involves supporting and encouraging fathers to use what they know, share their experience with other fathers or parents, support what they are doing and reveal to them new ideas they have not considered before. One father stated that the training made him realize the importance of the relationship between fathers and adolescent children, and that the group provided an environment for him to feel comfortable in sharing relationship difficulties with their children. The quotations related to this dimension are as follows:

“The training help me become aware of the fact that the problems could be handled with in different ways. I had opportunity to share my ideas with other fathers.”

“I should express the training very beneficial for sharing problems, learning new things, and becoming more aware.”

In relation with the group atmosphere, the fathers expressed that they had understood difficulties and problems in communication with children were similar. They reported that discussing the important topics about their problems and communication with their children helped them to understand that they were not alone in experiencing those problems, and that this sharing brought emotional relaxation. One father stated that “encouraging” in the group atmosphere was a required condition and achieving this made him participate in the meetings regularly. An example about the theme is given below.

“Encouraging in the group activities was very important for me and achieving this helped me in participating in the meetings regularly.”

Relationship with adolescents

Almost all group members found the amount of the content delivered was sufficient to learn about father involvement and to better understand the relationship with their children. On the other hand, fathers expressed the need for more information on the father-child relationship, especially close-relationship and they were satisfied with

high level of the relationship with their children. Therefore, they expressed that they needed more information on the high level relationship dimension of the training.

The most salient topics of the training were communication activities and relationship with children issues that were reported by the fathers. In addition, fathers stated that their children developed an indirect way of communication or that the mother had the role of mediator between father and children before the training, but that after the father involvement training fathers were satisfied that their children had direct interaction about their concerns with their fathers. This direct relationship or interaction facilitated improvement in their relationship and in this way fathers felt easier about expressing their feelings and sharing their experiences and thoughts with their children.

Fathers reported that they were familiar with effective communication skills, but they did not know how they could use communication skills effectively before the training. They now realized the importance of these skills and how to use them effectively in their relationship. They also stated that active listening, body language and “I language” were spectacular skills for establishing a close relationship with their children.

The fathers also reported some changes in their behaviors and viewpoints, like establishing better communication with their children, increased calmness, patience and tolerance, and being objective about their behavior and attitudes. Some responses related with this theme are given below:

“I think the training was helpful. I started to be more patient and tolerant in relationship with my children.”

“I found training facilitative in establishing better communication with my child.”

Fathers revealed that the training helped them to understand their children better, and to understand how to communicate with them. They mentioned that the topic of expressing themselves positively was very helpful, and they expressed that they became aware of many positive behaviors of their children that they had not recognized before. Examples of expressions for this question are as follows:

“I had opportunity to develop more positive ways dealing with the problems with my children.”

“I understood that establishing to effective communicate with an adolescent child professional help was needed. The training help me on those ways to improve the effective skills.”

“I learned about the ways of expressing my feeling and thoughts to my children and family members.”

Feelings About Themselves

According to the fathers, the most important impact of the group was that the members’ understandings of the problems were similar during adolescence. For instance, one participant listed problems common to that age group, like not studying, computer addiction, and conflicts with parents. A father said:

“I understood that the complaints and problems shared in the meetings were the same for that age group of adolescents.”

All group members thought it was difficult to deal with their teenage children’s concerns and previously they had not been able to be patient in their interaction. After the characteristics and uniqueness of adolescents was introduced to fathers, they eventually reported to be more tolerant and easier in their interaction, and they expressed that this was an opportunity for improving the relationship with their children. Fathers reported that they became more tolerant to their children and family and that they felt more relaxed and confident after the training. They stated that they started to see the problems from a more positive perspective and would be more careful and sensitive in reflecting their feelings to their children. Some of examples about the theme are listed below.

“I feel more relaxed and confident in relationship with my family. I am more tolerant to my children as well as all members of my family.”

“...I had opportunities to think about myself and relationship with my children as a result of the experiences of other parents with their children.”

Although the quantitative findings showed that Father Involvement Training had no significant effect on time spent with their children, fathers stated that time spent with children and leisure time activities might be outstanding opportunities for interaction between fathers and their children. Fathers reported that positive changes in themselves and relations with their children affected the whole family atmosphere. A father mentioned his increased effort to spend more time with the children as follows:

“The entire family member tried to have more leisure time activities together. We also tried to have more time with children and create a pleasant atmosphere for all. Going to movies together, going shopping, for example.”

To sum up, fathers reported overall changes in their communication skills, parenting styles and their relationship with their adolescent children. Furthermore, fathers emphasized that they became more aware of their responsibilities and their unique role in the development of their children in adolescence.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

This final chapter consists of two sections. In the first section, discussions regarding the statistical findings and fathers' evaluation reports are presented. In the second section, conclusions drawn from the data and implications and recommendations for practice and further research are presented.

5.1 Discussion of the Findings

The first purpose of the present study was to design and determine the effect of Father Involvement Training (FIT) on the family functioning in father-adolescent relationship.

Results of the current study identified that the Father Involvement Training had significant effects on the father-child relationship and family functioning of experimental group fathers. In other words, although there was no significant difference between the experimental and control group in terms of the communication, use of time, satisfaction, confidence and information need dimensions of the family functioning assessed in this study, results supported that experimental group fathers had gained higher total scores both at the end of the study and at the follow-up measures in PSI compared to control group fathers.

These results are consistent with several remarkable studies in the literature and may contribute to the body of literature focusing on effects and outcomes of training. For instance, Levant (1988) outlined that education and support programs designed specifically for fathers can have a positive impact on various aspects of family life and children's development. McBride (1990) investigated the effect of a 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 results of the study showed that the training was effective on experimental group

fathers' responsibility and their perceived sense of competence in parenting skills. Salem, Zimmerman and Notaro (1998) stated that regardless of whether or not they live in the same home, fathers might influence their children directly, also through their influence on the overall parental support, and family conflict experienced by their children. In a study by Levant and Doyle (1983), fathers of school-aged children participated in an 8-week parent education program and the parent education program for fathers was evaluated in terms of communication skills. Results showed that there was a significant increase in the relationship and a significant reduction in the use of undesirable responses between fathers and children in their relationship.

The findings of the present study appear to be in line with the studies related to fathers in Turkey. A study by Aydın (2003) supports the findings of the present study regarding improvement. The researcher investigated the effect of paternal involvement training, which was considered to give fathers information about the physical, cognitive, and social development of children and about communication skills with their children, on the level of fathers' involvement in childrearing. The subjects of research consisted of twenty fathers of preschool-aged children. The study outlined that the paternal involvement training had an effect on fathers' involvement in interaction and responsibility, and they gained high scores in the perception of fathering at the end of the training (Aydın, 2003).

To sum up, the findings of the present study appear to be consistent with training, which have recently been designed for fathers, and resulted in positive contributions to the relationship between fathers and children as well as family life (Aydın, 2003; Fagan & Iglesias, 1999). Several explanations for this result can be stated.

First, this result can be accounted for by the changing role of women and men in the Turkish family with the change in social and economical conditions. Although studies on the family describe the Turkish family as a traditional structure in which fathers are dominant and have authority over all family members, the nature and meaning of fatherhood in Turkey has undergone some changes due to other shifts

in social and economical factors (Sever, 2002). According to Fişek (1982), these changes have created an egalitarian style between spouses especially in the life of families living in urban areas. Several studies indicated that when parents are highly educated, are dual earner families, and have a middle income, fathers' involvement in childcare and housework increases (Ahmeduzzaman & Roopnarine, 1992). In addition, in her study Yılmazçetin (2003) showed that fathers of working wives showed higher levels of total involvement than those whose wives were not working. In recent years, some studies have shown that training fathers seem to increase their involvement in taking care of and rearing children, and move slowly toward more equal participation with their wives (Aydın, 2003; Furstenberg, 1998; Yılmazçetin, 2003). In the present study, the fathers of the experimental group were highly educated and had a regular job. This may demonstrate that fathers underwent positive changes in their relationship with their children during the training. This may be interpreted as an explanation for the improvement of fathers' total gain in the relationship with their children.

Second, qualitative findings revealed that the training helped fathers to develop more positive interactions with their children. Fathers reported in the evaluation form that they attempted to apply new communication skills in the relation with their children. Specifically, fathers indicated that new communication skills such as "I messages", "active listening", "body language" and "expressing feelings" were useful techniques to be applied in the relation with their children. It is obvious that fathers gained greater insight into the relationship with their children. These results may also indicate that the training encouraged fathers to apply their communication skills to the relationship with their children. That is, the emphasis of the training was on practical skills to motivate fathers to focus on interaction with their children through the use of techniques that call on both fathers and their adolescent children to consider each other's interests, characteristics, and qualities.

In addition, the results of the study indicated that there was a significant improvement in the total PSI score of fathers in the experimental group, but father involvement training was not effective in changing fathers' relationship with their

children on the five PSI dimensions of communication, satisfaction, use of time, confidence and information needs when compared to the control group. In the same vein, the results of the study showed that FIT was not significantly effective on improving the family functioning scores of fathers in the experimental group from pretest to follow-up measures. This may be due to two reasons.

First, according to Gestwicki (2004), in determining the effects of parent training it is difficult to evaluate whether the goal of facilitating positive interactions is met or not. The reason for the inconclusive results of research, which aims to evaluate effects of parent training, is based on the fact that many dimensions of parent training suggest the long-term results of the increased knowledge, status and changed behavior.

Second, although there was a follow-up measure six months after the FIT, this time period does not seem to be sufficient to explore the improvements in fathers' behaviors in their relationship with their children. It is probable that this result represents a partial mastery of the fathering skills, wherein fathers have learned what constitutes an effective relationship with their adolescent children. The qualitative data supported the idea that fathers explored their experiences and efforts to change their behaviors in the relationship with their children, and expressed positive changes in the short term. However, those changes in attitudes, knowledge and relationship with children may need more time to be shaped into complete behavior change.

The results obtained from the children whose fathers were in the experimental group and received FIT, perceived positive changes in their relationship with their fathers as seen in the PARS scores. When the children's ratings were compared, it was observed that there was a significant effect of the training on the close relationship in the posttest measures of children whose father received FIT. However, the gain was not maintained in the follow-up six months later. This result showed that the gained skills were not displayed or observed after some time. In other words, while there was significant difference between the experimental and

control group in close-relationship subscale scores in the posttest, this difference did not last until the six months later follow-up measures.

In addition to this result, the findings of the study also revealed that father involvement practices had an effect on children ratings of the sensitivity subscale in three measures of the PARS scores. For the children whose father participated in the study, the sensitivity subscale scores increased from pretest to posttests, but not from pretest to follow-up or posttest to follow-up measures of the PARS. The improvement observed in the sensitivity subscale of the experimental group children in posttest also did not appear in follow-up measures.

Several explanations for these results could be stated. Firstly, one of the objectives of the father involvement training developed in the present study was to make fathers reinforce the socially skilled behaviors of their children. Based on the findings, the significant difference in the post-test scores might indicate that some skills (effective communication, close-relationship) were taught in the natural settings but fathers might have not continued to reinforce the taught skills.

Secondly, although there was a follow-up measure after six months, the time does not seem to be sufficient to explore the improvements in the behavior of adolescent children whose fathers were in the experimental group. According to Gestwicki (2004) the effects of parent training were difficult to evaluate whether the goal of facilitating positive interactions was met or not. The short term attitudinal change in and positive effects of training on the behaviors of children may have been created after the training but it may not be reflected after a long time. The qualitative data supported this idea. Fathers explored their experiences and efforts to change their behaviors in communicating with their children, and expressed positive changes in the short term. Furthermore, those changes in attitudes, knowledge and relationship between fathers and children may require more time to turn into behavioral change.

The results of the study also indicated that in the ratings of children whose fathers were in the experimental group, the meeting expectations dimension scores

decreased from posttests to follow-up and from pretest to follow-up measures of the PARS. Namely, children feel that they do not meet their father's expectations and they are not the kind of child their father desires. Interestingly, children feel that they do not meet their father's expectations and they are not the kind of child their father desires while there was a very close and sensitive relationship between fathers and children in terms of fathers' ratings. These findings reveal that adolescent children may have a different perception of their relationship with their father. This discrepancy can be explained by Grotevant and Cooper's (1985) model of "individuation" that views both adolescent individuation and connectedness to the family as being important during adolescence. The individuation process is a cooperative endeavor between parent and child that involves the child asserting and parents granting independence while both parent and adolescents maintain their connection. During adolescence, young people must establish a sense of self as an individual and maintain a connection to their family (Grotevant & Cooper, 1998). This emerging general picture is that discrepancy in adolescent perception of their father-child relationship may be important and even necessary for the successful completion of primary and specific development tasks during adolescence, such as the development of identity and independence.

In addition, this finding of the present study appears to be in line with those of Kağıtçıbaşı and Ataca (2005). In a nation-wide study from the mid-1970s to 2003 on the value of children in Turkey, the child-raising values of the parents and their expectations from the child in Turkish culture were investigated. Three decades ago, the research findings of Kağıtçıbaşı (1981) clearly revealed what was expected of children in Turkey. The expectation regarding "independence" was considered the least preferred characteristic in children whereas "obeying parents" and "being a good person" were considered to be the most desirable characteristics in children. In their recent study, Kağıtçıbaşı and Ataca (2005) revealed that the desired qualities of children have been changing over three decades compared with 1975. "Being a good person" still is the most desirable characteristic in children, but "obeying parents" is not, and it is more important among the urban low socioeconomic status and rural families than among the urban high SES families.

Nevertheless, independence/self-reliance was not an important desired quality of children in 1975; however, today it has started to emerge as a desired child quality, especially for the urban high SES families (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2005). In other words, this change in parenting orientations reflects the emergence of autonomy in child rearing together with changing lifestyles. It should be noted that Kağıtçıbaşı and Ataca (2005) outlined that this change implies neither the inclusion of a separate-self typical of the Western individualistic family pattern, nor the related-self typical of the traditional collectivistic (low SES/rural) family. This emerging different pattern of family relations combines the emotional interdependence (close-relationship, love) with independence and self-reliance. This change was posited by Kağıtçıbaşı (1996) as “Family Change Model” to provide a great deal of information and insight into understanding the current situation and the dynamics of change in the Turkish society. In the present study, the decrease in children’s expectation score can be explained with independence and self-reliance concepts of Kağıtçıbaşı’s family change model. When there is a close and sensitive relationship between father and child, child may not feel to perform the ideal child role that his/her father expects. Besides, very close and sensitive father-child relationships may promote the development of independence and self-reliance of child. Hence, child may not feel to meet the father’s expectations and desires.

Furthermore, “parenting style” may be offered as an explanation of this finding. Although the parenting style was not assessed in the present study, “authoritative parenting” was one of the most important goals during the training. Reports by fathers in this study indicated a positive change in their parenting styles as a result of training. This result is consistent with a study by Wolfe and Hirsch (2003) that reported more authoritative parenting practice among fathers who received training when compared to those who did not receive training. Furthermore, studies generally revealed that adolescents who perceived their parents as authoritative were at the higher level school achievement and the highest measures of psychosocial competence and maturity (Chen, Dong & Zhou, 1997). On the other hand, there were some activities that fathers began to practice after training, such as spending time together, encouraging them in social competencies, as indicated in

qualitative findings. Children's developing and expressing their own viewpoints may have been a result of the intervention in fathers' improvement in their authoritative parenting styles. In other words, youths who show high levels of identity explorations, live in families wherein there is an opportunity and support to express and develop their own viewpoints. This is in line with Sagi's (1982) study with younger children, which indicated that father involvement might be important for the development of an internal locus of control and independence.

The results of the study indicated that father involvement training was effective in increasing the adolescent children's perception about the relationship with their fathers, but the increase was not high enough to create a significant improvement. Fathers have been viewed primarily as breadwinners, figures of authority and prestige, and the ones to control the norms of tradition for family members in Turkish culture (Sever, 2002). Therefore, changing such a stable entity through ten sessions of father training may not be feasible. Another possible explanation of findings no improvement in the children ratings might be due to the several shortcomings of the training. In this study, children's expectations in relationship with their fathers were not considered before implementing the training. Children just included in data collection procedure, and pre-test, post-test and follow-up measures of the study. The findings of the study suggested that expectations and needs of the adolescent children in relationship with their fathers might have been considered to improve effectiveness of the training before the study.

The second purpose of the study was to examine the effect of Father Involvement Training on the quality of peer relationships of adolescents.

There was a significant improvement in one of the dimensions of peer relationship skill levels of adolescent children whose fathers participated in the training compared to children whose fathers did not receive training. Results of the current study revealed that there was a significant difference between children, whose fathers were in the experimental group, and children whose fathers were in the control group, in the trust and identification dimension of the Peer Relationship Scale (PRS) scores in the follow-up measure. In other words, the father

involvement practices in the experimental group had an effect on adolescent's interaction in their peer group relationship on the trust and identification dimension.

This finding of the study confirms the existing literature that points at the effect of effective fathering practices on children peer group interaction. According to McBride and Rane (1997) parents, especially fathers, are powerful role models for children and many fathers establish an adequate relationship with their children in mutual interaction, which results in more opportunities for children to observe and learn from their fathers. In line with this, Updegraff et al. (2002) indicated that adolescents who described their parents as warm and accepting had more intimate relationships with their best friends. Particularly boys' descriptions of open communication with and acceptance by their father were associated with more intimacy with their best friends.

A possible interpretation of this outcome can be formed by referring to Patterson's coercion theory (Patterson, 1986). In this theory, Patterson explained that adolescents tend to replicate their family patterns in their peer relationship. The ability to develop trust and identification dimensions within the peer group in the present study may be considered to depend on the skills, behavior and knowledge acquired through interaction with fathers. Interaction with fathers can be a context for learning specific skills that young adolescents can apply in their peer group relationship. The current study suggests that opportunities to communicate openly with fathers, expressing one's beliefs and feelings, learning to understand each other's viewpoint in empathic ways, and spending time together, may be beneficial as adolescents strive to establish close relationships with other youth.

Alternatively, it is possible that the significant improvement in the trust and identification shows that children were overpowered by the main strategy of the training. That is, children and adolescents may have difficulty in their peer relationships because they lack appropriate social cognitive skills and one investigation explored the possibility that social cognitive skill deficits characterize children who have peer-related difficulties (Asarnov & Callan, as cited in Santrock,

2004). The present study consists of a demonstration or modeling of appropriate social skills, discussion, and reasoning about the social skills as well as the use of reinforcement to improve children's social skills. This finding of the study may be the result of the training's emphasis on social cognitive skills to motivate fathers to improve their children's social skills in actual social situations.

Although children whose fathers were in experimental group reported a significant improvement in the trust and identification dimension of the PRS as mentioned above, the training was not effective in changing children's peer relationship skills on the PRS dimensions of attachment, self-disclosure, and loyalty.

This result may be due to the possibility that the children of the experimental group fathers in the present study were not encouraged to perform and could not find the necessary environmental conditions to show their newly acquired skills in their peer interaction. This result appears to be line with Gresham's concept of performance deficits. Gresham (1982), stated the performance deficits as "children who may have the social skills for effective social interaction, but do not perform these skills at appropriate levels". According to Gresham (1982), due to several environmental conditions, these children might have difficulties in displaying the gained skills. In other words, peer groups must be socially competent and provide reinforcement for new behaviors. The argument that the children in the present study may not have been encouraged to perform the skills they have gained in their peer and social environment could be offered as an explanation of the findings.

Furthermore, the results of the study indicated that adolescent children whose fathers were in the experimental group reflected an improvement in both the total and five dimensions of the PRS from pre-test to follow-up measures, however the improvement was not high enough to create a significant difference in both the total and five dimensions of the PRS.

Based on the findings of the study, there was no significant improvement in both the total and five dimensions of the PRS from pre-test to follow-up measures. It is possible that children, who do acquire skills through their relationship with their

father, are not able to exhibit them. Stating differently, children have improved their relationship with their fathers, but have not yet to consolidate their relationship skills and abilities to establish an effective relationship in practice in their peer groups. As indicated previously that due to the environmental conditions, children may not perform these skills at the appropriate level, and these children might have difficulties in displaying the gained skills or not be able find the necessary environmental conditions to display the skills. In other words, the children in the present study may not have been encouraged to perform their newly acquired skills in their school and in their peer groups.

5.2 Conclusion

The purpose of the present study was to investigate the effects of Father Involvement Training on the family functioning in the father-adolescent relationship, and peer relationships of ninth-grade Turkish high-school students.

Results of the study showed that father involvement training was effective in terms of improving the overall family functioning of fathers. A particular strength of the training seems to be the ability to encourage fathers to apply skills in their relationship with their adolescent children. Results of the current study might be valuable for identifying the dimensions of the parents–adolescent relationships that could be targeted in prevention and intervention programs. Furthermore, the results of this study also adequately encourage continued efforts to develop and implement similar parent education or training programs to promote both parent-children, and peer relationships in adolescence. In addition, due to economical, political and social changes in Turkey, the traditional and authoritarian family structure has been undergoing several changes such as the increase in the number of employed mothers, nuclear families, and the educational level of individuals (Fişek, 1982). These changes have created an egalitarian style between couples, especially in the life of families living in urban areas. Two decades ago, fathers involved in children’s education only as authority figures and disciplining individuals, today they have started to involve in childcare and education actively (Aydın, 2003). In other words, fathers and mothers try to make joint-decisions, agree on childrearing

activities, and share roles regarding household tasks. Because of the changing role of fathers in Turkish families, educators should develop and implement trainings and programs specifically for targeting the role and responsibility of fathers in child rearing.

Furthermore, the results revealed that children, whose father was involved in the training marked an improvement in the trust and identification dimension in their peer interaction. This finding is also consistent with studies that suggested that fathers have an impact on the development of their children's peer interaction (Decovic & Meeus 1997). However, the training was not effective in changing adolescent children's peer relationship skills in the PRS dimensions of attachment, self-disclosure and loyalty.

Several explanations related with the training can be stated. One possible explanation is that obtaining too many skills within a short period may impede the generalization and maintenance of the skills. Therefore, duration of the training should be extended. It appears that extending training periods may provide children with opportunities to explore significant changes in their relationship with their father and other significant persons. This would also provide enough opportunities for adolescent children to interact with their peer groups, which requires application of the expected skills. Another possible explanation of this finding might have been related to the several weaknesses of the "Father Involvement Training" developed by the researcher. Firstly, the training consists of seven scenarios to teach 14 skills within 10 weeks in 2-hour sessions held once a week. It may be difficult to achieve these skills within this limited period. Secondly, post-test measures were obtained at the end of the 10th session. Post-test measurements should be taken at least ten days after the training in order to provide enough time to subjects to internalize and demonstrate the taught skills. Finally, reducing the number of skills may also be practical procedure to overcome the shortcoming of the training (Hatipoğlu-Sümer, 1999). Furthermore, the result of the present study revealed that Father Involvement Training requires revision, particularly the "positive discipline methods". It seems that positive discipline methods might not

fit the characteristics of the sample and might not be compatible with the learning styles of the participants. Additionally, this dimension (positive discipline methods) might not be consistent with the purpose of the training, which is to improve the relationship between fathers and adolescent children.

It is obvious that school and home are both important institutions in terms of adolescents' socialization and education. As King et al., (1997) have indicated, promoting generalization of learned social skills requires close collaboration of a child's all "significant others". In other words, in addition to parents, teachers and friends may contribute to the generalization of learned social skills. Therefore, school principals and teachers should understand the rationale and the importance of the student's social competence and peer interaction that promote students' social development. It is essential that new school policies that encourage students' involvement and interaction in social activities with their peer groups are formed, so that schools provide the necessary social environment for children to develop desirable social behaviors and to be able to exhibit these in their interactions with their peers and friends.

Although father involvement training was effective in terms of improving the overall family functioning of fathers, and the trust and identification dimension in the peer relationship of adolescents, it may be insufficient for improving the dimensions of family functioning in the father-adolescent relationship and peer relationships of adolescents. The following suggestions can be made to overcome the shortcomings of the training:

1. The duration of the training should be adequate to gain the targeted skills.
2. The scenarios and role-playing activities should be revised, and more scenarios and role playing activities may be incorporated into the training to allow more practice of the taught skills. This would provide an opportunity for fathers to repeatedly practice the taught skills
3. The training relies on the verbal training method and role-playing activities only. According to Kağıtçıbaşı (2000), acquisition of behavior or learning by observation and imitation has considerable effects in the Turkish culture.

The performance of these scenarios using media and visual materials, such as videotaped scenes of father-adolescents interactions, might have been incorporated into the training in order to encode the behavioral models.

4. To enhance the efficacy of the training, it is necessary that adolescents, teachers, and both fathers and mothers agree to identify the nature of the father-adolescent relationship. Culturally desirable behaviors should be taken into consideration, and the content of the training revised in order to increase the likelihood that improvements in behavior are maintained.
5. A needs assessment study should be conducted to determine the skills that fathers and adolescents need to improve in their relationship, before deciding the frame of the father training. For designing effective training, it appears to be necessary to consider their unique needs.

In the present study, training and evaluation should be viewed as a “first step” in developing training for fathers of adolescents in Turkey. It is through these efforts that researchers and practitioners alike will develop a better understanding of the modifiability of father involvement in adolescent development. This improved understanding may lead to the development and implementation of parent trainings and support programs or trainings that can effectively increase fathering options.

5.3 Implications for Counseling

1. Father Involvement Training is a father training that encompasses the father-child relationship by teaching parents interaction skills. The training also provides fathers an opportunity to learn and practice each of these skills through an instructional method. By Father Involvement Training, fathers and children learn effective communication skills, and fathers are encouraged to maintain a strong relationship bond with their adolescent child while allowing for increased autonomy and peer relationship. Therefore, school counselors should place greater emphasis on involving parents into general school activities, and offering psychosocial trainings to parents in school counseling services.

2. The results of the study may ultimately allow interventions to be designed that are geared towards improving the father-child relationship. Especially by understanding the way adolescents perceive their relationship with their fathers, school counselors may develop workshops or group training sessions in which adolescents and fathers participate in to learn various skills to help them improve the quality of their relationship, including components like communication skills, positive discipline, and social interaction management. The aim of this kind of training or education program is to strengthen the bond between adolescents and their parents, so that they can establish better interaction to overcome difficulties in this transitional period.

3. Providing father education or training, which allows fathers to come together to share and discuss different aspects of fatherhood, may be one way of fostering their feelings of identity in parenting, and helping them clarify how they feel as parents. Such education or trainings have also been found to increase fathers' perceptions of parental competence as well as some forms of involvement in their child development (Aydın, 2003). These education or training may help fathers become more comfortable with their paternal role and better prepare them to meet the demands of their children on the threshold to adolescence. As reflected in the qualitative findings, training helped them realize the importance of the relationship between fathers and adolescent children, and provided an environment for them to feel comfortable in sharing relationship difficulties with their children.

4. Furthermore, many researchers have emphasized that father involvement is essential to ensure healthy child development, cognitive and intellectual development, academic achievement, and psychological adjustment in school settings (Mazza, 2002; Nord & Brimhall, 1998; Veneziano & Rohner, 1998). Therefore, Father Involvement Training can be a useful tool for school counselors dealing with adolescents in school settings. Father education or training allows school counselors to encourage and support the involvement of fathers in their children's education. School counselors may consider developing strategies to include fathers in their training or curriculum.

5. It is clear that one of the most crucial issues dealt with in the literature on parental involvement is to assist children in becoming more successful in school by increasing family involvement so that they may contribute to their children's development. Many studies link parent involvement with a range of positive student outcomes, including higher achievement, improved school attendance, increased cooperative behavior, enhanced school retention and lower dropout rates (Balli, Demo & Wedman, 1998). The results of this study may also have implications for policy makers. In order to increase father involvement in school activities, teachers and school administrators need to revise their policies on parent involvement.

6. Moreover, high school students' peer relationships seem particularly important because of the developmental changes occurring, including identity and autonomous development, and the exploration of intimate and supportive relationships outside the family during these years. Thus, a school curriculum that supports adolescents' social development through a wide range of school-based activities can help adolescents acquire the social skills necessary for healthy development. Father involvement training would be helpful for school counselors to establish a school guidance programs in which fathers or parents' participation can help to support the socio-emotional development of their adolescent children.

5.4 Recommendations for Further Research

The current study had a number of weaknesses and strengths that further researchers should consider when studying parenting and adolescents.

The following recommendations are made for future research efforts based on the findings of this study:

1. Fathers and mothers in this research were not combined together as parents. Mothers' perceptions of the relationship between their husband and their adolescent children could have been included in the study to evaluate the outcome of the training.

2. Children's gender should be considered as a variable in further studies on father involvement and children's relationships. Studying the effect of children's gender was not within the scope of the study. There is not enough evidence about how father and child-gender interact to produce differences in father-daughter and father-son relationships. Possible differences in the ways in which fathers relate to their adolescent sons and daughters need to be described. Further studies need to address the effect of fathers on sons and daughters because fathers appear more likely to endorse a differential pattern in parental role responsibilities for a female and a male child, particularly with regard to teaching cognitive skills, teaching social skills, and teaching norms and values.

3. The present study examined the effect of the FIT on adolescents' peer interactions by using self-report measures. Previous studies of father-peer links have studied children's social competence using two main indirect measures: first, popularity ratings among peers; and second, teacher and parent estimates of children's social competence. These indirect measures have to be used to make further generalizations about the role of fathers on adolescent's social competence.

4. More quantitative studies involving more variables are needed to determine whether conclusion can be drawn. Fathers' effect on family functioning, adolescent social competence and peer relationships, and the effect of the father-adolescent relationship on adolescent development should be studied. Moreover, the effect of father involvement on diverse groups, for example, adolescent children of divorced parents, adolescents who do not live with their father, and risk groups, such as drug abusers, substance and alcohol users should be examined.

5. It is obvious that results of this study can be generalized only to other people who have the same, or at least similar characteristics as those participated in this study. The outcomes of this study are based upon highly educated, middle-income families. Specifically, what might be true for middle socioeconomic status and highly educated fathers, may not be true for low socioeconomic status and less educated fathers. Furthermore, studies conducted with fathers of adolescents aged 15-17 should not be generalized to any other group. Similarly, the findings may be

limited to the characteristics of the volunteers. The development and evaluation of similar training for groups such as absent fathers, low-economic status fathers, fathers of handicapped children will increase knowledge of the effectiveness and generalizability of such trainings. In addition, results of this study can not be generalized to another population, in another region of the country. The curricula should be culturally sensitive and flexible.

6. Researchers and practitioners should explore experimental modification concerning the direct role of fathers in modifying their children's and their wives' development. Intervention studies (e.g. Aydın, 2003; Şahin, 2006) aimed at modifying fathering behavior provide models for this type of work in Turkey. In addition, if these experimental studies are extended to include measures of child, mother and father development, they could provide evidence of the effect of changes in fathering behavior on the development of the family. Furthermore, these experimentally based interventions can serve as a vehicle to form a theoretical perspective of fatherhood for Turkish culture in the changing world.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

PARENT SUCCESS INDICATOR (PSI) (This form includes sample items of PSI)

ANNE-BABALIK BECERİLERİ VE İLETİŞİM ÖLÇEĞİ ANNE/BABA İÇİN TANIMA FORMU

Adınız: _____ Soyadınız: _____
Telefonunuz: _____

Bu formu doldururken düşündüğüm çocuğumun adı

- | | |
|--------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| (1) Çocuğum | (6) Yaşım |
| (1)___Kız | (1)___30'dan küçük |
| (2)___Erkek | (2)___30 ile 39 arasında |
| | (3)___40 ile 49 arasında |
| (2) Çocuğumun yaşı | (4)___50 yas ve üstü |
| (1)___13 | |
| (2)___14 | (7) Çocuğum okuldan eve geldiğinde |
| (3)___15 | evde bir yetişkin olur |
| (4)___16 | (1)___Her zaman |
| (5)___17 | (2)___Sık sık |
| | (3)___Ara sıra |
| (3) Çocuğumun karnesindeki not | (4)___Hiçbir zaman |
| ortalaması | |
| (1)___Ortalama üstü | (8) Bu formu doldururken düşündüğüm |
| (2)___Ortalama | çocuğumla her hafta birlikte olmak ve |
| (3)___Ortalama altı | konuşmak için geçirdiğim zaman |
| | (1)___1 saatten az |
| (4) Medeni halim | (2)___1 ile 3 saat arasında |
| (1)___Evlı | (3)___3 ile 5 saat arasında |
| (2)___Boşanmış | (4)___5 ile 10 saat arasında |
| (3)___Ayrı yaşıyor | (5)___10 saatten fazla |
| (4)___Dul | |
| | (9) İş durumum |
| (5) Bu formu doldururken | (1)___Yarı zamanlı çalışıyorum |
| düşündüğüm çocuğumun | (2)___Tam zamanlı çalışıyorum |
| (1)___Babasıyım | (3)___Çalışmıyorum |
| (2)___Annesiyim | |
| (3)___Üvey babasıyım | (10) Eğitim durumum |
| (4)___Üvey annesiyim | (1)___İlkokul mezunu |
| | (2)___Ortaokul mezunu |
| | (3)___Lise mezunu |
| | (4)___Üniversite mezunu |
| | (5)___Lisansüstü mezunu |

ANNE/BABA İÇİN

Adınız:

Çocuğunuz Adı:

Yönerge: Bu ölçek sizin yukarıda adı geçen çocuğunuza ilişkin duygularınızı anlamayı amaçlamaktadır. Her bir madde için size en uygun gelen seçeneği yuvarlak içine alınız.

1. Çocuğumla konuşurken iyi bir dinleyicimdir.

Her zaman Sık sık Ara sıra Hiçbir zaman

.....

.....

6. Çocuğumla, arkadaşlık kavramı üzerinde konuşmada iyiyimdir.

Her zaman Sık sık Ara sıra Hiçbir zaman

.....

18. Çocuğuma, yeterince zaman ayırmakta güçlük çekerim.

Her zaman Sık sık Ara sıra Hiçbir zaman

.....

20. Çocuğuma karşı sabırlı olmakta güçlük çekerim.

Her zaman Sık sık Ara sıra Hiçbir zaman

.....

28. Çocuğumun arkadaşları ile geçinme biçiminden hoşnutum.

Her zaman Sık sık Ara sıra Hiçbir zaman

29. Çocuğumun başkalarına yardım etme çabalarından hoşnutum.

Her zaman Sık sık Ara sıra Hiçbir zaman

.....

34. Çocuğumun karar verirken sonuçlarını düşünmesinden hosnutum.

Her zaman Sık sık Ara sıra Hiçbir zaman

35. Çocuğumun sorumluluk duygusundan hosnutum.

Her zaman Sık sık Ara sıra Hiçbir zaman

.....

41. Kriz ve çatışmalarla nasıl bas edeceği konusunda çocuğuma yardımcı olmak için daha fazla bilgiye ihtiyacım var.

Her zaman Sık sık Ara sıra Hiçbir zaman

42. Korku ve endişeleriyle nasıl başedeceği konusunda çocuğuma yardımcı olmak için daha fazla bilgiye ihtiyacım var.

Her zaman Sık sık Ara sıra Hiçbir zaman

APPENDIX B

PARENT ADOLESCENT RELATIONSHIP SCALE

(This form includes sample items of PARS)

ANNEBABA-ERGEN İLİŞKİLERİ ÖLÇEĞİ

Bu ölçek anne-babalar ile çocuk ve ergen gençlerin ilişkilerini ölçmek amacı ile hazırlanmıştır. Sizden, her ifadeyi dikkatle okuyup cevap kağıdına ilgili ifade için 5 seçenektan birini, hem anneniz hem de babanız için işaretlemeniz beklenmektedir.

Cevaplama şeklini daha iyi açıklamak için bir örnek verelim. İfade “ Kimlerle arkadaşlık ettiğimi bilir” olsun. Eğer babanızın, her zaman kimlerle arkadaşlık ettiğinizi bildiğini düşünüyorsanız “her zaman” seçeneğini işaretleyin. Eğer babanız her zaman olmasa bile sıkça kimlerle olduğunuzu biliyorsa “sık sık”, ara sıra biliyorsa” ara sıra”, ender olarak biliyorsa “nadiren”, hiçbir zaman bilmiyorsa “hiçbir zaman” seçeneğini işaretleyiniz.

Bazı ifadeler sadece anneler için yanıtlanacaktır. (örneğin 5. ve 19. ifadeler); Bunların dışında tüm maddeler sadece babalar düşünülerek yanıtlanacaktır. Cevaplarınızı iyice düşünerek vermeniz, araştırmanın sağlığı bakımından çok önemlidir. Lütfen hiçbir ifadeyi boş bırakmayınız.

Adı:	Soyadı:	Sınıfı:				
		Her Zaman	Sık sık	Arasıra	Nadiren	Hiçbir Zaman
3	Kiminle arkadaşlık ettiğimi bilir.	()	()	()	()	()
8	Okuldaki davranışlarımla ve başarılarımı sürekli izler.	()	()	()	()	()
10	Evdeki kurallar uymamı ister.	()	()	()	()	()
17	Kendimi ona yakın hissederim.	()	()	()	()	()
20	Onu hoşnut etmek benim için önemlidir.	()	()	()	()	()
27	Arkadaşlarımla olan sorunlarımı ona açarım	()	()	()	()	()
33	Onun beklentilerini karşıladığımı düşünüyorum	()	()	()	()	()
38	Onunla sohbet etmekten hoşlanırım	()	()	()	()	()
39	Onunla birlikte oyun oynamaktan hoşlanırım	()	()	()	()	()

APPENDIX C

PEER RELATIONSHIP SCALE

(This form includes sample items of PARS)

AKRAN İLİŞKİLERİ ÖLÇEĞİ

Bu ölçek, gençlerin arkadaşları ile ilişkilerinde yaşadıkları ve hissettiklerini ölçmek amacı ile hazırlanmıştır.

Ölçekte 18 ifade vardır. Sizden istenen her ifadeyi dikkatle okuyup, her ifade için 5 yanıt seçeneğinden birini kitapçık üzerinde ilgili yere işaretlemenizdir.

Örnek; ifade, “kendimi arkadaşlarıma yakın hissedirim” olsun. Eğer kendiniz arkadaşlarınıza her zaman yakın hissediyorsanız “her zaman” seçeneğini işaretleyiniz. Eğer kendinizi, arkadaşlarınıza her zaman değil de sık sık yakın hissediyorsanız” sık sık”, ara sıra yakın hissediyorsanız “ara sıra”, nadiren yakın hissediyorsanız “nadiren”, bu yakınlığı hiç hissetmiyorsanız “hiçbir zaman” seçeneğini işaretleyin.

Adı:	Soyadı:	Sınıfı:				
		Her Zaman	Sık sık	Arasıra	Nadiren	Hiçbir Zaman
1	Arkadaşlarım beni severler.	()	()	()	()	()
3	Arkadaşlarımı korumak gerektiğinde yalan söylerim.	()	()	()	()	()
4	Arkadaşlarım düşüncelerimi duymaktan hoşlanırlar.	()	()	()	()	()
6	Ailemle ilgili sorunlarımı arkadaşlarımla konuşurum.	()	()	()	()	()
9	Arkadaşlarıma gerçekleri söyleyecek kadar güvenirim.	()	()	()	()	()
13	Arkadaşlarım sorunlarımla ilgilenirler.	()	()	()	()	()

APPENDIX D

DEĞERLENDİRME FORMU

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

Programın	çok iyi	iyi	orta	zayıf
	4	3	2	1
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 Grup oturumlarının sizin üzerindeki etkileri konusunda düşünceleriniz nelerdir?

3 Program sürecinde fark ettiğiniz duygu ve düşünceleriniz nelerdir?

4 Toplantılarda en çok faydalandığınızı düşündüğünüz konu hangisiydi? Neden?

5 Toplantılar süresince çocuğunuz ile olan ilişkileriniz de neler öğrendiniz?

APPENDIX E

ERGENLİK DÖNEMİ

Ergenlik, on iki-on dokuz yaşları arasına denk düşen bir geçiş dönemidir, ama sık sık her iki yönde, bu yaşların ötesine taşar. Ayrıca, sosyal, fiziksel, zihinsel, duygusal ve ahlaki açılardan belli başlı gelişmelerin olduğu bir dönemdir. Ergen kendini tanıma, kim ve ne olduğunu, ne yapmak istediğini keşfedebilme arzusundadır. Kişiler arası ilişkiler, karşı cinsiyet, cinsellik, ahlaki değerler, toplumsal yapılar gibi alanlarda kendi bireyselliğini başarılı bir şekilde geliştirmek ve bir değerler sistemi oluşturmak ister.

Bu dönemin temel gelişimsel özelliği kimlik oluşturmaktır. Eğer birey daha önceki gelişimsel dönemlerini sağlıklı bir biçimde geçirmiş ise, ya da gerek ailevi gerekse sosyal ilişkilerindeki çatışmaları çözebildiyse sağlıklı bir kimlik oluşturur. Ergenliği takiben yetişkinlik ve diğer gelişimsel dönemlere de, sorumluluk sahibi, kendini ifade etmekte zorlanmayan, sosyal becerilerinin yanı sıra problem çözme becerileri gelişmiş, gelişime ve yeniliklere açık bir kişilik oluşturmuş olarak girer ve bu gelişimi sağlıklı bir biçimde sürdürür.



Kimlik oluşumu özdeşleşme ile başlar. Diğer bir deyişle, genç çevresinde gördüğü, beğendiği, etkilendiği, değerli saydığı kişileri kendisine örnek alır, onlarla özdeşleşir. Bu kişiler gencin öğretmeni, arkadaşı, kardeşi, sevdiği sanatçı ya da bir roman kahramanı olabilir. İşte genç bu kişilerin giyim tarzlarını, konuşmalarını, tavır ve davranışlarını taklit eder, onlarla bu anlamda özdeşleşir. Bu durum aşırıya kaçılmadıkça doğal bir süreçtir.

Ergenlikte grup kimliği önemlidir. Bu nedenle ergenin arkadaşları ve arkadaşları ile yaptıkları önemlidir. Akranlarına çok önem vermeleri ve onlardan büyük ölçüde etkilenmeleri ergenlerin en belirgin özelliklerinden birisidir. Ergenin, arkadaşlarını gözleyerek onun duygusal ve sosyal gelişimi hakkında bilgi sahibi olabiliriz.

Arkadaş grubu ilişkilerinde bir yer kazanmak amacıyla ergen, ilişkilerinde boyun eğmek, arkadaş grubuna uyum göstermek zorunda kalabilir. Ancak ergenlerin kendi özgürlüklerini koruyabildikleri beraberlikler olarak nitelenen akran ilişkilerinin gelişimi de ergenlik döneminin bir parçasını oluşturur ve yakın bir arkadaş bulmuş olan ergen çok değerli bir amacı da gerçekleştirmiş olur. Kısaca arkadaşlık sağlıklı gelişimin belirleyicisidir. Örneğin, bir genç arkadaşlarına aşırı derecede bağımlık duyuyorsa aile içinde çözemediği çatışmalar olabilir, sevgi ya da ilgi ihtiyacı tam olarak karşılanamıyor olabilir. Sosyal ilişkilerin gelişmesi, kendini ifade etme ve kendini arkadaş grubun ait hissetme ergenin sosyalleşmesi açısından önemlidir.

Bu dönemin en belirgin özelliklerinden bir diğeri de, ergenlerin sosyal, zihinsel, duygusal anlamda hızla değişip geliştikleridir. Ergenler, sosyal ilişkilerini etkileyeceğini hissettikleri şeyleri, dikkatle dinlerler. Bir yere kadar ben-merkezcidirler, çünkü enerjilerinin büyük bir bölümünü kendilerini anlamaya çalışmak ve sosyal çevreleri tarafından benimsenmek için harcarlar. Ergenler çoğunlukla, sanki tüm dünya kendi çevrelerinde dönüyormuş gibi bir izlenim verirler ve bu durum başkaları tarafından kabul görmeyince şaşırılmış görünürler.

Ergen psikolojisi konusunda önemli bir otorite olan David Elkind'e göre, ergenler sık sık hiç beklemedikleri ve dolayısıyla hazır olmadıkları sosyal durumlar ve değişikliklerle yüz yüze gelirler. Elkind'e göre, "Çocukluk kültüründen gençlik kültürüne geçiş, birçok açıdan bir toplumdan diğerine geçmeye benzer; ergenin karşılaştığı davranış ve tavır, ergenin ilişkilerinde kendini üç önemli ilişki boyutu (yaşıt, akran ilişkileri) içerisinde bulmasına neden olabilir". Birincisi, dışlanma boyutudur. Çocuklukta çoğu kez yakın çevrede oturanlar arasında arkadaşlık kurulur. Oysa ergenler arasında, grup üyeliği genellikle grupla birlikte yapılan etkinliklerle belirlenir. Kendini "dışarıda" hissetmek, bir arkadaşının doğum gününe davet edilmemek ya da daha kötüsü kendi doğum günü partisine kimsenin gelmemesi üzüntü veren bir deneyimdir. İkincisi, ihanet boyutudur. Çocuklar, arkadaşılarını karşılıklı güven ve sadakat üzerine kurarlar. Ergenlik çağında ise ilişkiler daha da karmaşıklaşır. Ergenler kendilerini kullanılmış ya da bir başka arkadaş tarafından bir çıkar uğruna alet edilmiş hissedebilirler. Üçüncüsü, hayal

kırıklığı boyutudur. Çocuklar genellikle arkadaşlarını oldukları gibi kabul ederler. Ancak ergenlikle birlikte birbirlerini idealleştirmeye başlarlar. Çocukken birebirlerinin pek farkına varmayan kızlar ve erkekler, artık karşı cinsle bakmaya ve onların yakınlarında olmayı ilginç bulmaya başlarlar. Ancak bu yakınlaşma sırasında ergen, karşı cinsin kendine yakın bulmadığı alışkanlık ve davranışlarını fark etmesi sonucu hayal kırıklığı yaşayabilir.



Sosyal ilişkileri ve ergenliğin getirdiği sıkıntılardan dolayı, ergenler bazı çelişki ve kaygıları birlikte yaşayabilirler. Bunlar; kendine güveni olmamak, sık sık öfkeye kapılmak, küçük şeylere üzülmek gibi kaygıların yanısıra, arkadaşları ile ilişkilerine yeterli düzeyde izin verilmemesi, çocuk yerine konması, sorunlarını ailesi ile paylaşamaması gibi aile ve ev yaşamına ilişkin kaygılar da olabilir. Bunun yanısıra, yeni tanıştığı insanlarla nasıl konuşacağını bilememek, yeterince arkadaş edinmemek gibi sosyal ilişkilerine yönelik kaygıları da yaşayabilirler.

Genel olarak ergenlik döneminde, çocukluk davranışlarının yerini, yeni ve nitelik açısından farklı düşünceler, duygular ve eylemler almaktadır. Bu durum onların kafalarını karıştırmakla birlikte, heyecan verici bir değişimdir. Ergenler, gelişimlerini sağlıklı bir şekilde sürdürebilmek için anne ve babalarının bilgilerine ve desteklerine gereksinim duyarlar. Biz babaların etkili iletişim becerilerini uygulaması, çocuklarımızın sosyal, zihinsel, duygusal gelişimlerine olumlu katkılar sağlayacaktır.

Ergenin olumlu kişilik geliştirmesine katkıda bulunabilecek önemli noktaları şöyle sıralayabiliriz:

1. Karşılıklı sevgi, saygı ve anlayışa dayalı bir iletişim geliştirelim
2. Demokratik bir tutum sergilemeye özen gösterelim
3. Ergenin yetenekleri doğrultusunda başarılı olabileceği etkinliklere yönelmesine yardımcı olmaya çalışalım
4. Kendisini, yakın arkadaş ve sosyal ilişkilerini tanımaya yardım edelim
5. Öğütten çok, bilgi sağlama; eleştirmekten çok anlayış gösterme; yargılamadan çok değerlendirme yapmaya çalışalım
6. Ödül ve cezanın kişiliğe değil davranışa yönelik olmasına özen gösterelim

7. Kişiliği zedeleyici söz ve davranışlardan kaçınalım
8. Onun değerli ve önemli olduğunu kabul edip, bunu davranışlarımızla ve sözlü ifadelerimizle gösterelim
9. Beklenen davranışları sergilemesine yönelik, doğru ve iyi örnekleri göstermeye gayret edelim.

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APPENDIX F

DUYGULARI İFADE ETME

Aşağıda birinci sütunda sekiz farklı duygu verilmiştir. Bu duygulara neden olabilecek olayları ikinci sütuna, yaşadığımız duyguları nasıl ifade edeceğimizi üçüncü sütuna yazalım.

<u>Duygu</u>	<u>Nedenleri</u>	<u>İfade Etme</u>
1. Üzüntü	----- -----	----- -----
2. Hayal kırıklığı	----- -----	----- -----
3. Telaş	----- -----	----- -----
4. Neşe	----- -----	----- -----
5. Heyecan	----- -----	----- -----
6. Kızgın	----- -----	----- -----
7. Hoşnut	----- -----	----- -----
8. Endişe	----- -----	----- -----

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APPENDIX G

ARKADAŞLIK

Ergenlik döneminde, arkadaş edinme ve arkadaşlığı sürdürme, gençlerin yaşamında önemli bir konudur. Arkadaşlık üzerinde biraz daha düşünmek amacıyla aşağıda verilen bazı sorularla çocuklarımızın arkadaşlık hakkında görüşlerini paylaşalım!

√ **Benim için arkadaşlık neden önemlidir?**

√ **Arkadaş olmak istediğimi birisiyle nasıl yakınlık kurarım?**

√ **Konuşmaya nasıl başlarım ve neler söylerim?**

√ **Arkadaşlarıma nasıl davranırım?**

√ **Arkadaşlığımı sürdürebilmek için neler yaparım**



Kostelnik, M. J., Whiren, A. P., Soderman, A. K., Stein, L. C., & Gregory, K. (2002). *Guiding children's social development. Theory to practice*. New York: Delmar-Thomson learning, Inc.

APPENDIX H

BABA-ÇOCUK ETKİNLİKLERİ

Çocuklarımızın bizimle neler yapmak istediklerini ve bizden beklentilerini düşünelim!

- Babamla en çok.....yapmak isterim
- Babamın en çok.....konusunda ilgisini çekmek isterim
- Babamla en çok.....görmek isterim
- Babamla en çok.....gitmek isterim



Kostelnik, M. J., Whiren, A. P., Soderman, A. K., Stein, L. C., & Gregory, K. (2002). *Guiding children's social development. Theory to practice*. New York: Delmar-Thomson learning, Inc.

APPENDIX I

TÜRKÇE ÖZET

BABA KATILIM EĞİTİMİNİN AİLE İŞLEVLERİNE VE LİSE 9. SINIF ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN AKRAN İLİŞKİLERİNE ETKİSİ

Ergenlik dönemi, bağımsızlaşma arayışları ve fiziksel gelişmenin yanı sıra gerek aile ile gerekse akran ilişkilerinde önemli değişimlerin yaşandığı kritik bir gelişim dönemi olduğu kabul edilir. Sağlıklı bir kişilik gelişimi ile yetişkinliğe adım atabilmek amacıyla ergenin başarılı bir şekilde tamamlaması gereken bazı gelişim süreçleri mevcuttur. Bu gelişim süreçlerinin en önemlisini Erikson (1968) “kimlik oluşturma” şeklinde tanımlamıştır. Bu süreç içerisinde ergen duygu ve düşüncelerine yönelik birçok içgörü ve farkındalık kazanarak, nasıl bir hayat süreceği, nasıl bir insan olacağı düşüncesine çözüm arayışı içerisinde mücadele verir. Rol ve kimlik çatışmasını başarılı bir şekilde çözüme ulaştıran genç bireyler, kendine özgü bir kimlikle yetişkinliğe adım atarlar. Bu süreci başarı ile tamamlayamayan ergenler “kimlik karmaşası” ile karşı karşıya kalırlar.

Birçok araştırmacıya göre; aile, bireyin kişilik ve davranışlarının gelişiminde ekonomik, kültürel ve sosyal boyutlarıyla önemli bir kurum olmasının yanı sıra bu önemli gelişim sürecinin başarıyla tamamlanmasında da önemli bir etkiye sahiptir. Özerkliğin teşvik edildiği, çatışmaların etkili bir şekilde ele alındığı, aile üyelerinin birbirlerine desteğini ve güvenini ortaya koyabildiği aile ortamlarında, ergenlerin gelişim süreçlerini başarılı bir şekilde tamamladıkları görülmektedir. Ailenin birincil sosyal çevre olduğu varsayımından hareketle, ailenin işlevlerini sağlıklı bir şekilde yerine getirmesi, ergen gelişimi açısından oldukça önemli olduğu görülmektedir. Bir başka deyişle, aile işlevleri ve aile üyelerinin karşılıklı ilişkileri ergen bireylerin yetişkinliğe hazırlanmalarında oldukça önemli bir etkiye sahip oldukları görülmektedir.

Aile işlevleri arařtırmaları, son yıllarda psikolog, aile terapistleri ve sosyal hizmet uzmanları gibi farklı alanlara mensup uzmanların dikkatini çekmektedir. Bu alanla ilgili önemli çalışmalar gerçekleřtirmiş olan Olson (2000)'a göre, aile işlevleri, aile üyeleri arasındaki baęlılık, esneklik ve iletişimin oluşturduęu ortak etkileşimin niteliğini ifade eder. Bir dięer önemli aile işlevleri modeli olan “Beaver Sistem Modeli” ise iki önemli aile işlevi tanımlamaktadır. Bunlardan birincisi, özerklięin teşvik edildięi, ilişkilerin müzakere edildięi ve saęlıklı iletişimin aile üyelerinin gelişimine bir fırsat imkânı sunabilme amacıyla etkili bir şekilde kullanıldıęı “aile yetkinlięi”dir. Dięer boyut olan “aile yaşam tarzı” ise, ailenin ilişkilerinde “ iç-merkezli” ya da “dış-merkezli” yaşam tarzlarından hangisini benimsedięini ifade etmektedir. İşlevlerini saęlıklı bir şekilde yerine getiren aileler yaşam tarzlarını yukarıda belirtilen her iki boyutta dengelemişlerdir. Bu aileler bazı aktiviteleri aile içerisinde gerçekleştirirken, dięer bazı aktiviteleri aile dışında sosyal ortamlarda gerçekleştirerek bu dengeyi saęlıklı bir şekilde kurabilmektedirler (Beavers & Hampton, 2000).

Bir dięer önemli aile işlevleri modeli olan McMaster modeli, aile üyeleri arasındaki ilişkilerin ailenin sürdüęü yaşamla etkileşimini böylelikle de aile yapısını anlamak amacıyla bir takım aile işlevleri tanımlamıştır (Miller, 2000). Bu aile işlevleri; problem çözme becerileri, iletişim, roller, duyarlılık, katılım ve davranış kontrolüdür.

İlgili literatüre incelendięinde, birçok önemli çalışma, ergen-aile ilişkilerinin, ergen gelişimi üzerinde anlamlı bir etkiye sahip olduęunu ortaya koymaktadır. Aile ilişkileri ve ergenlerin baş etme stratejileri arasındaki ilişkiyi arařtırdıęı çalışmasında McCubbin ve arkadaşları (1985), ergenlerin baş etme becerileri ile aile ortamı arasında anlamlı bir ilişki olduęunu ve bu ilişkinin ergenlerin akıl saęlığı üzerinde anlamlı bir etkiye sahip olduęunu belirtmişlerdir. Shek (1997) ergen ve aileleri üzerinde gerçekleřtirdięi arařtırmasında, ergenlerin (a) psikolojik iyi olma, (b) okul uyumları ve (c) problem davranışları ile aile işlevleri arasında anlamlı bir ilişki olduęunu ortaya koymaktadır.

Ergenlik süresince, ergenlerin yaşadıkları bir diğer önemli süreç, yakın arkadaşlık ve sağlıklı akran ilişkileridir. Daha öncede belirtildiği gibi ergenler, içinde bulunduğu gelişim sürecinde kendini tanıma ve kendini diğerleri ile karşılaştırarak yeni bir kimlik geliştirme arayışı içerisindeyler. Genç bireyler duygularını, düşüncelerini, deneyimlerini paylaşmak ihtiyacı duyarlar (Savin & Williams-Bernt, 1990). Akran ilişkileri ve yakın arkadaşlık bu ihtiyaçların karşılanmasında ergen gelişimi açısından önemli bir yere sahiptir.

Bununla birlikte, bu görüş çerçevesinde ele alındığında, aile ve akran ilişkileri ergen gelişimi üzerinde nasıl bir etkiye sahip olduğu, dikkate değer bir konu olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır. 1980'lere kadar, aile ve akran ilişkilerinin, çocuk ve ergen gelişimi üzerindeki etkileri birbirinden bağımsız olarak değerlendirilmesinin yanı sıra karşılıklı etkileşim içerisindeki bu iki sosyal sisteme yönelik ampirik çalışmaların yeterli düzeyde olmadığı görülmektedir.

Buna karşılık son yıllarda yapılan araştırmalar, çocukların akran grupları ilişkilerinin niteliklerini ve aile ilişkileri ile açıklamaya yönelik yeni modelleri ortaya koymaktadır. Bu yeni yaklaşım, ailenin teşvik edici rolü, aile içi etkili iletişim becerilerinin, çocukların sosyal gelişimleri üzerinde önemli bir etkiye sahip olduğunu vurgulamaktadır.

Bu yaklaşımın önde gelen savunucularından Parke ve arkadaşları, ailenin çocuğun akran ilişkileri üzerindeki etkisini açıklamaya yönelik iki önemli kavram ortaya koymaktadırlar; dolaylı katılım ve dolaysız katılım (McDonalds & Parke, 1984). Bağlanma ve sosyal öğrenme gibi yaklaşımlara dayalı dolaylı katılım, ailenin yakınlık, kabul gösteren ve duyarlılık gibi genel karakteristik özelliklerinin, çocuğun akran ilişkilerinde de sağlıklı ilişkiler geliştirmesine olanak sağlayan dolaylı etkisini ifade etmektedir. Sosyal öğrenme, bağlanma ve diğer çevresel faktörlerinde ele alındığı çalışmalar göstermektedir ki, aile içerisinde kazanılan iletişim ve etkileşim, akran ilişkilerine transfer edilmekte ve akran ilişkilerini etkilemektedir (Paley, Conger & Harold, 2002; Updegraff, Mchale, Crouter, & Kupanoff, 2001). Buna karşın, dolaysız katılım, ailelerin çocukların sosyal gelişimlerini, belirgin olarak akran ilişkilerini "yönetebilme" becerilerini ifade

etmektedir. Parke ve Bruel (1998) dolaysız katılımı, ailelerin çocuklarına akran ilişkilerinde rehberlik edebilme, akran ilişkilerini izleyebilme, sosyal aktivitelere olanak sağlayabilme gibi genel anlamda çocuğun sosyal yaşantılarını yönetebilme olarak tanımlamaktadır.

Anne-Baba Eğitimi

İlgili literatüre incelendiğinde, anne-babaların çocuklarının sağlıklı gelişimi üzerine etkili katılımlarını sağlamaya yönelik, birçok anne-baba eğitim programı geliştirildiği görülmektedir. Geliştirilen anne-baba eğitim çalışmalarının ortak amacı çocukların bir yandan sosyal diğer taraftan da sağlıklı gelişimlerine katkı sağlayacak anne-baba becerilerini geliştirmeye yardımcı olmaktır. Anne-baba eğitim programlarının tarihsel gelişimini incelendiğinde, üç önemli yaklaşımın öne çıktığı ve kendinden sonra gelen modelleri etkilediği görülmektedir. Bunlardan birincisi Adler'in görüşlerinden hareketle geliştirilen modellerdir ki en önemlisi Dreikurs ve Dinkmeyer'in çalışmalarına dayanmaktadır (Akt. Smith, Perou, ve Lesesne, 2002). Adlerian anne-baba programlarının genel amacı, anne-babaların çocuklarına karşı olumlu tutumlar geliştirmelerine yardımcı olmanın yanı sıra, çocukların davranışlarında da aile içi iletişime yönelik olumlu davranışların gelişmesini sağlamaktır. Bir diğer önemli model ise, Rogerian yaklaşımdan etkilenen ve Gordon'un (1970) çalışmaları ile tanınan "Etkili Anne-Baba Eğitimi"dir.

Anne-babanın çocuk gelişimi üzerindeki olumlu etkisini artırıcı birçok model ve program geliştirmiş olmasına karşın, iki önemli kuramın, çocuğun sosyal gelişimde anne babanın etkisine, diğer modellerden ya da kuramlardan, daha etkili bir vurgu yaptığı görülür. Bunlarda birincisi "Bağlanma Kuramı", ikincisi ise önceki adıyla "Sosyal Öğrenme" şimdiki adıyla "Sosyal Bilişsel Kuram" dır. Sosyal Bilişsel Kuram, role modeli ile özdeşim kurmanın, role modelini gözlemleyerek modelinin karakteristik özelliklerini taklit etmenin, çocuğun sosyal gelişimindeki önemli etkisini vurgulamıştır (Bandura, 1986).

Kuramın önemli temsilcilerinden Patterson'a (1977; 1986) göre tutarsız disiplin uygulamaları ve yetersiz aile-çocuk ilişkisi gibi anne-baba uygulamaları çocuğun olumsuz davranış geliştirmesine neden olmaktadır. Ergenler ve anne-baba ilişkisi ile ilgili yapılan bir çok araştırmaya göre, anne-babaları ile yakın, kabul gösteren ilişkiler geliştiren ergenler akran gruplarında benzer ilişkiler geliştirmektedir (Updegraff, Mchale, Crouter, ve Kupanoff, 2001). Bir başka ifade ile, ergenlerin anne-babaları ile geliştirdikleri iletişimin niteliği, ergenlerin sosyal yaşamlarında kurdukları ilişkilerin de niteliğini önemli ölçüde etkilemektedir.

Son yıllara kadar geliştirilen anne-baba eğitim programlarının daha çok annenin önemi ve çocuğun gelişimi üzerindeki role yoğunlaştığı görülmektedir. Babanın çocuk gelişimdeki rol ve etkisi, sosyal bilimciler ve eğitim bilimcilerin daha az ilgisini çekmiştir. Genel anlamda birçok araştırmacı, geliştirilen ebeveyn programlarını, annenin çocuk üzerindeki rolüne daha çok vurgu yaptıkları ve babanın çocuk üzerindeki etkisini belirtmekte yetersiz kaldıkları gerçeğiyle eleştirmişlerdir (Lamb, 1997).

Baba Katılımı

1980'li yılların başından itibaren, babanın çocuk gelişimi ve aile üzerindeki etkilerine yönelik araştırmalarda artış gözlenmeye başlanmış ve Lamb (1986) ortaya koyduğu "Baba Katılımı"(paternal involvement) tipolojisi ile babaların çocuk gelişimi üzerindeki etkilerine yönelik çalışmalara önemli bir teorik altyapı oluşturmuştur. Lamb(1979), "baba katılımı"nın üç önemli boyutunu ortaya koymaktadır. Bunlardan birincisi: sinemaya gitmek, beraber etkinliklere katılmak gibi babaların çocukları ile birlikte zaman geçirmesini ifade eden "etkileşim"dir (interaction). İkincisi: birlikte herhangi bir etkinlik gerçekleştirilmese bile, duygusal ve fiziksel yakınlık ifade eden ve çocuğun önceliklerine zaman ayırmayı ifade eden "ulaşılabilirlik"tir (accessibility). Sonuncusu ise, çocuğun sağlık gelişimi ve mutluluğu için "sorumluluk" (responsibility) üstlenmektir. Lamb'ın ortaya koyduğu model, babalar için geliştirilen birçok çalışma ve program için altyapı oluşturmuş ve son yıllarda çocuk gelişimi üzerinde baba rolü ve etkilerine ilişkin literatürde artan bir ilgiye neden olmuştur.(Mc Bride, 1990)

Babalarla ilgili yapılan çalışmaların, anne ve babanın farklı rollerinin karşılaştırılmasından, baba yoksunluğunun çocuk gelişimi üzerindeki etkilerine kadar geniş bir yelpazede olduğu gözlemlenmekle birlikte son yıllarda yapılan çalışmaların, baba-çocuk iletişiminin çocuk gelişimi üzerindeki etkilerine yoğunlaştığı görülmektedir. Örneğin; Fagan ve Iglesias (1999) baba katılımının çocuğun zihinsel ve sosyal gelişimi ile pozitif bir ilişki içinde olduğunu göstermiştir. Diğer birçok araştırmanın sonuçları da baba-çocuk ilişkisinin, çocuğun psikolojik uyum (Veneziano & Rohner, 1998), akademik başarı (Evans & Mc Carter, 1997), ve sağlıklı çocuk gelişimi üzerinde önemli etkileri olduğunu (Mc Bride, 1989) ortaya koymuştur.

Bununla birlikte, son yıllarda yapılan çalışmalarda göze çarpan önemli başlıklardan bir tanesi, baba-ergen çocuk ilişkisinin ergen gelişimi üzerindeki etkilerini incelemeye yönelik araştırmalardır. Bazı araştırma sonuçları, babanın genç çocukların özerklik (autonomy) arayışlarına yönelik olumlu tutumlarının, ergenlerin özgüven gelişimini olumlu yönde etkilediğini ortaya koymuştur (Allen, Hauser, Eickholt, Bell, & O'Connor, 1994).

Bunun yanı sıra, birçok çalışma, baba ve ergen çocukları arasındaki iletişimin, ergen çocukların akran gruplarındaki ilişkileri üzerine etkisine işaret etmektedir. Ebeveynlerin özellikle babaların, çocuklar için güçlü bir role modeli olduğu, babanın çocukları ile geçirdikleri zamanın ve dolaylı etkileşiminin, çocukların babalarını gözlemleme yoluyla birçok davranışı kazanmalarına yardımcı olduğu birçok araştırmacı tarafından ortaya konmuştur.(Mc Bride & Rane 1997; Rane & Mc Bride, 2000). Anne-baba ve ergen çocuklara yönelik araştırma bulguları, baba ve çocuk arasındaki ilişkinin niteliği, ergenlerin akran gruplarındaki ilişkilerinin niteliğini de belirleyen önemli bir faktör olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır (Updegraff, Madden-Dertrich, Estrada, Sales, & Leonard, 2002).

Türkiye’de Anne-Baba Eğitimi ve Baba Katılımı Çalışmaları

Türkiye’de anne-babaların ergen gelişimine katkılarına yönelik çalışmaların yeterli düzeyde olmadığı görülmektedir. İlgili çalışmaların büyük bir bölümünün,

ilköğretim ya da okul öncesi dönemde çocuğu olan ailelere yönelik olduđu görölmektedir. Utku (1999) geliřtirdiđi anne-baba katılımı programının 6. sınıf ilköğretim öğrencilerinin akademik ve sosyal becerilerini geliřtirmede olumlu bir etkiye sahip olduđunu göstermiřtir. Bir diđer çalışmada, Akkök, Kökdemir ve Öğetürk (1998), ilköğretim öğrencilerinin özgüven, sosyal ve akademik becerilerini geliřtirme amacıyla bir öğretim yılı boyunca öğrencilerin aileleriyle bir çalışma yürütmüřtür. Çalışmada ailelere, çocuk geliřimi hakkında bilgilendirme yapılmıř, ailelere çocukların sosyal ve akademik becerilerinin yanı sıra özgüvenlerini artırmada nasıl yardımcı olabilecekleri konusunda eğitim verilmiřtir. Çalışmanın sonuçları çocukların özgüven, sosyal beceriler ve akademik becerilerinde artış gözlendiđini belirtmektedir.

Diđer taraftan, az sayıdaki anne-baba ergen iliřkileri çalışmaları, ergenlerin anne-babaları ile kurdukları sađlıklı iliřkilerin, çocukların stres düzeylerini düşürmede ve uyum düzeylerini artırmada etkili olduđunu ortaya koymaktadır (Eryüksel, 1996).

Özeke-Kocabař (2005) ise ebeveynlere yönelik eğitim programının ebeveyn ergen iletiřimi ve iletiřim becerileri üzerindeki etkisini arařtırmıř ve çalışmanın nitel bulguları eğitimin ebeveynlerin çocuklarıyla olumlu iletiřim kurmalarına yardımcı olduđunu ortaya koymuřtur.

Son yıllarda Türkiye’de yapılan ebeveyn eğitim programları ve bunların çocukların sosyal becerileri, ebeveyn rolleri ve ebeveyn ergen iletiřimine etkisini arařtıran çalışmaların yanı sıra dođrudan baba rolünün çocuklar üzerindeki etkisini sınavan çalışmalar da yapılmıřtır.

Aydın’ın (2003) babalara yönelik uyguladıđı eğitim programının çalışmaya katılan babaların baba rollerini fark etmeleri ve farkındalıklarının artmasında ve etkili ebeveyn yöntemlerini öğrenmeleri üzerinde etkili olduđu ortaya konulmuřtur.

Bir diđer çalışmada řahin (2005), ebeveyn eğitiminin ilköğretim üçüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin sosyal beceri düzeylerine etkisini arařtırmıřtır. Çalışmaya 29, ilköğretim 3. sınıf öğrencisinin ebeveyni katılmıř, çalışmada iki deney (babanın

dahil olduđu-deney I ve babanın dahil olmadığı-deney II) ve bir kontrol grubunun kullanıldığı deneysel desen kullanılmıştır. Araştırmanın bulguları, babaların dahil olduğu grup öz-denetim ve sorumluluk boyutlarında ve babaların dahil olmadığı grup öz-denetim boyutunda ve toplam sosyal beceri puanlarında ilerleme gösterdiği sonucunu ortaya koymuştur.

Koçak (2004) yürüttüğü bir çalışmada baba rolünün çocuk gelişimi üzerindeki önemi, babaların davranışlarını ve tutumlarını fark etmelerine yardımcı olmak konusunda “ Baba Destek Programının” etkisini araştırmıştır. Program, 1996 yılında pilot bir çalışma ile başlamış ve 1999 yılına kadar İstanbul ve Kocaeli illerinde 1379 babanın katılımı ile gerçekleştirilmiştir. Nicel araştırma sonuçları, araştırmacı tarafından geliştirilen, tutum envanteri ile elde edilmiştir. Araştırmanın sonuçları programın, babaların çocuk gelişimi konusunda tutum ve davranışlarında olumlu yönde değişim algıladıklarını ve farkındalıklarının arttığını ortaya koymuştur.

Türkiye’deki ilgili literatür incelendiğinde, babaların çocuk gelişimi üzerindeki etkilerine yönelik çalışmalara ilginin arttığı görülmektedir. Buna karşın babaların, özellikler ergen çocuklar ve ergen gelişimi üzerindeki etkisini ayrıca inceleyen araştırma sayısı oldukça kısıtlıdır. Bu çalışmanın, Türkiye’de, bu alandaki çalışmaların gelişmesi için bir başlangıç olacağı ve ilgili literatürdeki boşluğu gidermede katkıda bulunacağı düşünülmektedir.

Araştırmanın Amacı

Bu çalışmanın amacı baba katılım eğitiminin aile işlevlerine ve lise 9’uncu sınıf öğrencilerinin akran ilişkilerine etkisini araştırmaktır.

YÖNTEM

Bu araştırmanın örneklemini lise 9. sınıf öğrencilerinin babalarından oluşturmaktadır. Baba katılım eğitimine 26 baba gönüllü olarak katılmıştır. Araştırmada, deney ve kontrol grubu ve ön-test, son-test, izleme ölçümlerinin alındığı, 2x3 deneysel desen kullanılmıştır. Deney grubu, araştırmacının geliştirdiği 10 haftalık baba katılım

eđitimi almıř, kontrol grubu ise herhangi bir eđitim almamıřtır. Babaların aile iřlevlerine ynelik deęerlendirmeleri Anne-Babalık Becerileri ve İletiřim leđi Ebeveyn Formu (ABBİ-EF) ile elde edilmiřtir. alıřmaya katılan babaların ocuklarının aile iřlevlerine ynelik deęerlendirmeleri ise Anne-Baba Ergen İliřkileri leđi Baba Formu (ABEİ-BF) ile elde edilmiřtir. ocukların akran iliřkilerini deęerlendirmek amacıyla Akran İliřkileri leđi (Aİ) kullanılmıřtır. Veriler, Mann Whitney-U Test, Friedman Test ve Wilcoxon İřaret Testi ile analiz edilmiřtir.

rneklem

Arařtırmanın rneklemini Mamak Anadolu Lisesi'ne devam eden 9. sınıf đrencilerinin babaları oluřturmuřtur. Katılımcıları uygun bir řekilde semek ve byle bir eđitime ihtiyaı olan babaları eđitime dahil etmek amacıyla, okul rehberlik servisi ile iřbirliđi yapılmıřtır. Daha nce okul rehberlik servisi tarafından đrencilere uygulanan "Problem Tarama Listesi" ve babalara uygulanan "Aile İliřkileri Listesi"nden (n=158) baba-ocuk arasındaki iliřkilerde problem ifade eden, toplam on bir madde hedef grubu belirlemede kriter olarak seilmiřtir. Belirlenen maddelerden en az bir tanesinin iřaretlenmesi yeterli kabul edilmiř ve toplam 112 aday baba belirlenmiřtir. 112 babaya, alıřmanın ve eđitimin amacını aıklayan bir mektup gnderilmiř ve alıřmaya gnll olarak katılmak isteyip istemedikleri sorulmuřtur. Eđitime 32 baba gnll olarak katılmak istediđini belirtmiřtir. Gnll babalarla yapılan n toplantı sonucunda, babaların alıřma ve iř kořulları nedeniyle sadece 14 baba deney grubuna dahil edilmiřtir. Kalan 18 babadan 14' ise sekisiz olarak kontrol grubuna dahil edilmiřtir. Ancak nc oturumdan sonra deney grubunda bir babanın eđitimi bırakması sonucunda, kontrol grubundan da sekisiz olarak bir baba alıřma dıřında bırakılmıřtır. alıřma toplam 26 katılımcı ile tamamlanmıřtır.

Veri Toplama Araları

Anne-Babalık Becerileri ve İletiřim leđi Strom ve Strom tarafından 1998 yılında geliřtirilmiřtir (zeke-Kocabař, 2005). Uyarlama alıřmaları zeke-Kocabař

(2005) tarafından yapılmış ve uyarlama sırasında, faktör analizi ve ölçeğin ilgili öğretim üyelerince dil ve içerik bakımından değerlendirilmesi ile kapsam ve yapı geçerliğine bakılmıştır. Faktör analizi sonuçlarına göre toplam 42 sorudan oluşan ölçek, anne babaların çocuklarıyla olan etkileşimlerini beş ayrı boyutta ölçmektedir. Bu boyutlar, iletişim, anne-baba memnuniyeti, güven, zaman kullanımı ve bilgi ihtiyacı olarak isimlendirilmiştir. Ölçeğin güvenilirliği, Cronbach alpha yöntemiyle hesaplanmış ve toplam ölçek için $\alpha = .90$ bulunmuştur. Alt ölçekler için hesaplanan değerler ise; iletişim için $\alpha = .86$, zaman kullanımı için $\alpha = .70$, anne-baba memnuniyeti için $\alpha = .82$, güven için $\alpha = .75$ ve bilgi ihtiyacı için $\alpha = .78$ olarak bulunmuştur. Ölçek, anne baba tarafından algılanan ve çocuklarıyla olan etkileşimlerini sıklığını ölçen 4'lü Likert tipi (4'den 1'e) bir ölçektir (4-Her zaman, 3-Sık sık, 2-Ara sıra, 1-Hiçbir zaman).

Anne-Baba Ergen İlişkileri Ölçeği Kaner tarafından 2002 yılında geliştirilmiştir. Anne ve baba ile ilişkilerde ayrı toplam puanlar hesaplanmasına olanak veren ölçeğin 37 maddeden oluşan baba formu kullanılmıştır. Ölçeğin geliştirilme çalışmasına 15-18 yaş grubunda 843 ergen katılmış ve ergenlerin her maddeye anne ve babaları için verdikleri yanıtlara, birbirinden bağımsız varimax rotasyonlu temel bileşenler analizi yapılmıştır. Faktör analizi sonucunda baba formu için 8 faktör tanımlanmıştır. Bu boyutlar; yakın iletişim, duyarlılık, birlikte etkinlikte bulunma, normların düzenlenmesi, sevgi ve güven, izleme, beklentileri karşılama ve ev kuralları olarak isimlendirilmiştir.

Ölçeğin güvenilirliği Cronbach alpha yöntemiyle hesaplanmış ve toplam ölçek için $\alpha = .93$ bulunmuştur. Alt ölçekler için hesaplanan değerler ise; yakın iletişim için $\alpha = .86$, duyarlılık için $\alpha = .83$, birlikte etkinlikte bulunma için $\alpha = .85$, normların düzenlenmesi için $\alpha = .78$, sevgi ve güven için $\alpha = .80$, izleme için $\alpha = .64$, beklentileri karşılama için $\alpha = .74$ ve ev kuralları için $\alpha = .52$ olarak bulunmuştur. Ölçek, ergenler tarafından algılanan ve babalarıyla olan etkileşimlerinin sıklığını ölçen 5'li Likert tipi (5'den 1'e) bir ölçektir (5-Her zaman, 4-Sık sık, 3-Ara sıra, 2-Nadiren, 1-Hiçbir zaman). Ölçeklerden yüksek puan almak ergen tarafından algılanan ilişkinin olumlu olduğuna işaret etmektedir.

Akran İlişkileri Ölçeği Kaner tarafından 2002 yılında geliştirilmiştir ve 18 maddeden oluşmaktadır. Ölçeğin geliştirilme çalışmasında veriler, 14-18 yaş grubundaki 1648 ergendenelde edilmiştir. Ölçeğin yapı geçerliliği varimaks rotasyonlu temel bileşenler analizi ile incelenmiştir. Faktör analizi sonucunda ölçeğin, ergenlerin akranları ile ilişkilerini dört boyutta ölçtüğü tespit edilmiştir. Bu boyutlar; bağlılık, güven ve özdeşim, kendini açma ve sadakat olarak isimlendirilmiştir.

Ölçeğin güvenilirliği tüm test için ve alt boyutlar için Cronbach alpha yöntemiyle hesaplanmış ve toplam ölçek için $\alpha = .86$ bulunmuştur. Alt ölçekler için hesaplanan değerler ise; bağlılık için $\alpha = .86$, güven ve özdeşim için $\alpha = .69$, kendini açma için $\alpha = .58$ ve sadakat için $\alpha = .58$ olarak bulunmuştur. Ölçek, ergenler tarafından algılanan akran ilişkilerinin sıklığını ölçen, 5'li Likert tipi (5'den 1'e) bir ölçektir (5-Her zaman, 4-Sık sık, 3-Ara sıra, 2-Nadiren, 1-Hiçbir zaman).

Deneysel çalışmanın sonunda, Merrit ve Walley tarafından 1977 yılında geliştirilen ve 13 maddeden oluşan Değerlendirme Formu uygulanmıştır. Değerlendirme formu, eğitime katılan babaların gerek eğitimin yeterliliği ile ilgili düşüncelerini gerekse eğiticinin çalışmalarını değerlendirmeye yönelik 4'lü Likert tipi (4'den 1'e) bir formdur. Ayrıca, katılımcıların eğitim süresince duygu, düşünce ve gözlemlerini değerlendirmek amacıyla açık uçlu dört soru da formda kullanılmıştır.

Baba Katılım Eğitimi

“Baba Katılım Eğitimi” çalışmada eğitsel araç olarak kullanılmıştır. Baba Katılım Eğitimi, Sosyal Bilişsel Kuram esas alınarak araştırmacı tarafından geliştirilmiştir. Eğitimin amacı, Baba Katılım Eğitimi aracılığıyla babalara, ergen çocuklarıyla etkileşimlerdeki aile işlevlerini artırmak ve çocuklarına akran ilişkilerinde gerekli olan bilgi ve davranışları kazandırmalarına yardımcı olmaktır.

Eğitimde sürecinde, Sosyal Bilişsel kurama dayalı olarak, öğretim, prova yapma, ev ödevi ve geribildirim yöntemleri kullanılmıştır.

Öğretim: Öğretim sürecinde, her oturum için belirlenen hedef beceriler hakkında babalara kuramsal özet bilgiler dosyalar halinde verilmiş ve oturumların başında bu bilgiler grup üyelerince tartışılmıştır. Hedef beceriyle ilgili araştırmacı tarafından yazılan senaryolar, ilgili oturumlarda babalar tarafından uygun şekilde canlandırılmıştır. Senaryoların canlandırılmasından hemen sonra yaşantıların, duygu ve düşüncelerin grup üyelerince paylaşılmasına olanak verilmiştir. Senaryoların öğretimsel araç olduğu kadar babalara, davranışsal model olması da hedeflenmiştir. Her senaryo, babaların çocukları ile iletişimlerinde karşılaşılabileceği bir güçlükle ilgili hipotetik bir durumu içermiş, babaların hedef becerilerini, aile işlevlerini ve ergen gelişimine katkıda bulunmalarının yollarını göstermeyi içermiştir.

Prova yapma: Her oturum sonunda babaların hedef becerileriyle ilgili ev ödevleri verilmiş ve süreçte kazanılan becerileri çocukları ile iletişimlerinde deneyimlemeleri beklenmiştir. Bu teknikle model olan davranışları gerçek yaşamda da uygulamaları amaçlanmıştır.

Geribildirim/Ev Ödevi: Her oturum sonunda verilen ev ödevlerinin, sonraki oturum da grup üyelerince paylaşılması sağlanmış ve katılımcı babalara olumlu geribildirim verme yoluyla, oturumlarda kazanılan davranışların aktarılmasının ve genellenmesinin pekiştirilmesi amaçlanmıştır.

İşlem

Deney Grubu: Eğitim, 10 hafta boyunca, 2 saatlik oturumlarda, haftada bir kez uygulanmıştır. Eğitimin içeriğinde hedeflenen beceriler şu şekilde tanımlanmıştır: Etkili ebeveyn tutumları ve sağlıklı ergen gelişimine etkileri, iletişim becerileri, olumlu disiplin geliştirme ve baba-çocuk etkileşimin çocuğun sosyal ve akran ilişkilerine katkıları. Eğitim, babaların çocukların yaşamındaki önemini anlamaları ve gerekli becerileri çocuklarına kazandırmaları konusunda babalara yardım etmeyi amaçlamıştır.

Kontrol grubu: Kontrol grubu üyelerine her hangi bir eğitim verilmemiş, ön test, son test ve izleme ölçümlerine katılmaları sağlanmıştır. Ayrıca izleme ölçümünün

sonunda, eğitim materyalleri, kontrol grubu babalarına dağıtılmış ve eğitimin amaçlarına uygun bir bilgilendirme yapılmıştır.

Verilerin Çözümlemesi

Verilerin analizinde Mann-Whitney U Test, Friedman Test ve Wilcoxon Signed Rank Testi kullanılmıştır. Deney ve kontrol grubunun ön test, son test ve izleme testleri arasında anlamlı bir fark olup olmadığını anlamak amacıyla üç ayrı Mann-Whitney U testi uygulanmıştır. Ayrıca, deney ve kontrol gruplarındaki babaların çocuklarından alınan ölçümler arasında anlamlı bir fark olup olmadığını test etmek amacıyla da üç ayrı Mann-Whitney U testi uygulanmıştır.

Her grubun ön-test, son-test ve izleme testleri arasında anlamlı bir fark olup olmadığını belirlemek amacıyla Friedman testi kullanılmış ve post-hoc test olarak Wilcoxon Signed Rank testi kullanılmıştır.

BULGULAR

“Baba Katılım Eğitimi'nin” deney ve kontrol gruplarının aile işlevlerine etkisi

Baba katılım eğitiminin etkisini test etmek amacıyla Anne-Babalık Becerileri ve İletişim Ölçeği Ebeveyn Formu (ABBİÖ-EF)'den elde edilen ön-test, son-test ve izleme puanları için üç farklı Mann-Whitney U testi yapılmıştır.

Bulgular deney ve kontrol grubunun ABBİÖ-EF'den elde edilen ön-test puanları arasında anlamlı bir fark olmadığını göstermiştir. Öte yandan grupların son-test puanlarının analizi sonucu toplam puanlar ($z = -1.977$, $p < .05$.) açısından deney grubu ve kontrol grubu arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunmuştur. Aynı şekilde, deney ve kontrol grubunun ABBİÖ-EF'den elde edilen izleme puanlarının analizi sonucunda, toplam puanlar ($z = -2.233$, $p < .05$) açısından, deney ve kontrol grupları arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunmuştur.

Ayrıca bulgular, ABBİÖ-EF'den elde edilen ön-test, son-test ve izleme puanlarının alt boyutlar açısından analizinin sonucunda, deney ve kontrol grupları arasında, anlamlı bir fark olmadığını göstermiştir.

Araştırma sonuçları, baba katılım eğitiminin, babaların toplam aile işlevleri puanları üzerine anlamlı bir etkisi olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır.

“Baba Katılım Eğitimi’nin” ergenlerin aile işlevlerine etkisi

Baba katılım eğitiminin ergenlerin aile işlevlerine etkisini test etmek amacıyla Anne-Baba Ergen İlişkileri Ölçeği Baba Formun’dan (ABEİÖ-BF) elde edilen ön-test, son-test ve izleme puanları için üç farklı Mann-Whitney U testi yapılmıştır.

Sonuçlar, babaları deney ve kontrol grubuna katılan ergenlerin, ABEİÖ-BF’den elde edilen ön-test puanları arasında anlamlı bir fark olmadığını göstermiştir. Öte yandan, grupların son-test puanlarının analizi sonucu yakın iletişim ($z = -2.160$, $p < .05$) alt boyutu açısından babaları deney grubu ve kontrol grubunda bulunan ergenlerin arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunmuştur. Ancak, ergenlerin ABEİÖ-BF’den elde edilen izleme puanları analizi sonuçları, gerek toplam puanlar, gerekse alt boyut puanları açısından, gruplar arasında anlamlı bir fark olmadığını ortaya koymaktadır.

Araştırma sonuçları incelendiğinde, ergenler açısından, baba katılım eğitiminin, ergenlerin gerek toplam aile işlevleri puanlarına, gerekse alt boyutlardan elde edilen puanlarına, anlamlı bir etkisi olmadığı bulunmuştur.

Babaların ön-test, son-test ve izleme testleri arasındaki farklar

Deney ve kontrol grubunun ABBİÖ-E formunun ön-test, son-test ve izleme ölçümlerinden aldıkları puanlar arasında anlamlı bir fark olup olmadığını ölçmek amacıyla deney ve kontrol grupları için iki ayrı Friedman testi uygulanmıştır.

ABBİÖ-E formunun ön-test, son-test ve izleme ölçümlerinden elde edilen puanların Friedman testi ile yapılan analizi sonuçlarına göre, deney grubunun ön-test, son-test ve izleme ölçümleri arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunmamıştır.

ABBİÖ-E formunun ön-test, son-test ve izleme ölçümlerinden elde ettikleri puanlarının Friedman testi ile yapılan analizi sonuçlarına göre, kontrol grubunun ön-test, son-test ve izleme ölçümleri arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunmamıştır.

Ergenlerin ön-test, son-test ve izleme testleri arasındaki farklar

Ergenlerin ABEİÖ-B formunun ön-test, son-test ve izleme ölçümlerinden aldıkları puanlar arasında anlamlı bir fark olup olmadığını test etmek amacıyla Friedman testi uygulanmıştır.

Babaları deney grubuna katılan ergenlerin ön-test, son-test ve izleme ölçümlerinden elde edilen puanların analizi duyarlılık ($p=.02<.05$) ve beklentileri karşılama ($p=.02<.05$) puanlarının üç ölçümü arasında anlamlı bir fark olduğunu ortaya koymuştur.

Posthoc testi olarak yapılan Wilcoxon Signed Rank testi, ergenlerin ön-test-izleme ($z= -2.263$, $p< .05$) ve son-test-izleme testi ($z=-2.238$, $p< .05$) puanları arasında beklentileri karşılama boyutunda anlamlı bir fark olduğunu göstermiştir. Buna karşın Friedman testi sonuçları, duyarlılık alt boyutunda ön-test, son-test ve izleme ölçümlerinden elde edilen puanlar arasında anlamlı bir fark olduğunu ortaya koymasına rağmen, posthoc testi olarak yapılan Wilcoxon Signed Rank testi sonuçlarına göre ölçümler arasında bir fark bulunamamıştır.

Babaları kontrol grubuna katılan ergenlerin ABEİÖ-B formunun ön-test, son-test ve izleme ölçümlerinden elde ettikleri puanların Friedman testi ile yapılan analizine göre bu grubun ön-test, son-test ve izleme ölçümleri arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunamamıştır.

“Baba Katılım Eğitimi’nin” ergenlerin akran ilişkilerine etkisi

Baba katılım eğitiminin ergenlerin akran ilişkilerine etkisini test etmek amacıyla Akran İlişkileri Ölçeği’nden (AİÖ) elde edilen ön-test, son-test ve izleme puanları için üç farklı Mann-Whitney U testi kullanılmıştır.

Bulgular, babaları deney ve kontrol grubuna katılan ergenlerin AİÖ’den elde edilen ön-test puanları arasında anlamlı bir fark olmadığını göstermiştir. Aynı şekilde grupların son-test puanlarının analizi sonucu da gruplar arasında anlamlı bir fark olmadığını ortaya koymuştur. Öte yandan grupların izleme puanlarının analizi

sonucu, güven ve özdeşim ($z = -2.032$, $p < .05$) alt boyutunda babaları deney grubunda bulunan ergenlerin lehine anlamlı bir fark bulunmuştur.

Ergenlerin, AİÖ ön-test, son-test ve izleme ölçüm puanları arasında anlamlı bir fark olup olmadığını ortaya çıkarmak amacıyla iki ayrı Friedman testi yapılmıştır.

Babaları deney grubuna katılan ergenlerin AİÖ'den elde ettikleri puanların Friedman testi ile yapılan analizine göre bu grubun ön-test, son-test ve izleme ölçümleri arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunamamıştır. Benzer bir biçimde, babaları kontrol grubuna katılan ergenlerin AİÖ'den elde ettikleri puanların Friedman testi ile yapılan analizine göre bu grubun da ön-test, son-test ve izleme ölçümleri arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunamamıştır.

TARTIŞMA

Araştırma bulguları, baba katılım eğitiminin, babaların çocukları ile ilişkilerindeki aile işlevlerinin artmasında etkili olduğunu göstermiştir. Eğitimin alt boyutlar üzerinde herhangi bir etkisi gözlenmemekle birlikte, deney grubu toplam aile işlevleri puanları, gerek son-test ölçümlerinde gerekse izleme ölçümlerinde kontrol grubuna göre anlamlı derecede farklı bulunmuştur.

Çalışmanın bu bulguları birkaç şekilde açıklamak mümkündür. Son yıllarda Türk aile yapısında hızlı bir değişim (Fişek, 1982) söz konusudur ve bu hızlı değişim sonucu ailede iletişimin niteliği de değişmektedir. Ailelerin gelir ve eğitim düzeyleri arttıkça, babalar eşleri ile daha eşitlikçi, çocukların bakımında eşit sorumluluk alan ve çocukları ile daha çok zaman geçiren bireyler haline gelmiştir (Yılmazçetin, 2003). Babalar için geliştirilen eğitim programlarının sonuçları da, babaların eğitimlerden sonra, çocuklarına zaman ayırmaya özen gösterdiklerini ve çocuklarının bakımında eşleri ile eşit sorumluluk aldıklarını ortaya koymuştur (Aydın, 2003). Bu çalışmanın sonuçları da benzer çalışmalar ile tutarlılık göstermektedir. Baba katılımı eğitimi süresince babalar bir takım becerileri kazanmış olabilir ve çocukları ile iletişimlerinde bu becerileri genel anlamda kullanıyor olabilirler.

Belirtilmesi gereken bir diğ er konu ise, arařtırmanın niteliksel sonuçlarının da ortaya koyduđu gibi, babalar olumlu beceriler konusunda ilerleme göstermiřlerdir. Babalar özellikle, “Ben dili”, “Etkin dinleme”, ve “Duyguları ifade etme” gibi iletiřim becerilerinin, çocukları ile iliřkilerinde olumlu katkıları olduđunu belirtmiřlerdir. Kazanılan iletiřim becerileri, babaların çocukları ile iliřkilerinde artıřın bir diğ er nedeni olarak belirtilebilir.

Babaların, alt boyutlar göz önüne alındıđında ilerleme göstermemiř olması, literatür ile de uyumlu olarak, kısa süreler içerisinde davranıř ve tutum deđiřikliđi yaratmanın zor olması, 10 haftalık eđitim süresinin olası deđiřiklikleri yansıtmak için kısa olması, gibi nedenlerle açıklanabilir (Gestwicki, 2004).

Bunun yanı sıra, arařtırmanın bulguları, baba katılım eđitiminin, ergen çocukların babaları ile iletiřimlerinde yakın iliřkiler becerilerinin artmasında etkili olduđunu göstermektedir. Ancak, eđitimden altı ay sonra yapılan izleme ölçümleri yakın iliřkiler becerilerindeki kazanımların korunamadıđını ortaya koymaktadır.

Baba katılım eđitiminin ergenlerin yakın iliřkiler becerileri üzerindeki etkisinin izleme ölçümlerinde korunamamasının bazı açıklamaları olabilir. Bu arařtırmada kullanılan baba katılım eđitimi hazırlanırken, çocuklardan beklenen becerileri dođal ortamlarında öğrenmesi hedeflenmiř ve bu süreçte babaların rolü dikkate alınarak öğrendikleri becerilerin pekiřtirilmesi amaçlanmıřtır. Babaların, çocukların becerilerinin kalıcılıđını sađlamak için gerekli olan olumlu pekiřtirenleri, çocukları ile iliřkilerinde kullanmaya devam etmemesi, kazanımların korunamamasının bir nedeni olabilir.

Arařtırmanın ergenler ile ilgili bir diğ er bulgusu ise, babaları deney grubunda bulunan ergenlerin, babaları ile iliřkilerinde beklentileri karřılama alt boyunda gözlenebilir bir düşüř ortaya koymalarıdır. Sonuçlar, babalar açısından olumlu bir artıřın olduđunu ortaya koymasına karřın ergenler açısından beklentileri karřılama puanlarının düşüř göstermesi bir çeliřki gibi görünmektedir. Ancak literatürle tutarlı olarak, bu çeliřki, ergenler açısından önemli ve gerekli bir sürecin göstergesi olarak deđerlendirilebilir. Grotevant ve Cooper (1985) ergenlerin sađlıklı kimlik

gelişimlerini “bireyselleşme” süreci ile açıklamışlardır. Araştırmacılar, bireyselleşmenin iki önemli alt boyutunu; ayrılma ve bağıllığın, aile ile ergenler arasındaki sağlıklı iletişimin bir göstergesi olduğunu ve ergenlerin özerklik ve kimlik gelişimleri için belirleyici bir süreç olduğunu belirtmişlerdir. Bu çalışmanın sonucunda beklentileri karşılama puanlarındaki düşüş, ergenlerin babaları ile devam eden olumlu iletişim süreciyle, kendini ifade etme çabası ve özerklik arayışı şeklinde açıklanabilir.

Bununla birlikte, 30 yıla yayılan ve devam eden “Çocuğun değeri” araştırmasının son bulguları, Türk aile yapısında değişen anne-baba çocuk ilişkilerinin altını çizmektedir (Kağıtçıbaşı, & Ataca, 2005). 30 yıl öncesine göre anne-babalar, artık çocuklarından en çok bekledikleri özelliğin “bağımsızlık” olduğunu belirtmişlerdir. Bu çalışma sonucunda, babalar geliştirdiklerini düşündükleri iletişim becerileri aracılığı ile ergen çocuklarının bireyselleşme ve özerklik arayışlarını desteklemiş ve pekiştirmiş olabilirler.

Bunlardan farklı olarak, çalışmanın bu sonucu eğitimden kaynaklanabilecek bir sonuç olarak da değerlendirilebilir. Bu çalışmada ergenler sadece ölçümlere katılmışlar, herhangi başka bir sürece dahil edilmemişlerdir. Eğitim çalışmasından önce ergenlerin böyle bir çalışmadan beklentilerinin belirlenmesi amacıyla bir “ihtiyaç belirleme” çalışması’nın yapılmaması da bu sonuca etki etmiş olabilir.

Araştırmanın izleme ölçümünden elde edilen bulguları baba katılım eğitiminin, ergenlerin akran ile ilişkilerinde güven ve özdeşim alt boyutu üzerinde etkili olduğunu göstermektedir.

Çalışmanın bu bulgusunu birkaç şekilde açıklamak mümkündür. Baba katılım eğitimi hazırlanırken, literatürle tutarlı olarak, baba-ergen ilişkilerinin ergenlerin sosyalleşme sürecindeki önemi dikkate alınmıştır. Eğitimde babanın ergen çocuklarına zaman ayırması, akran ilişkilerini desteklemesi ve çocuklarının bu becerilerinin pekiştirilmesi amaçlanmıştır. Ergenlerin akran gruplarındaki güven ve özdeşim boyutunda, izleme ölçümünde elde edilen bu artış, babaların bu becerileri

kalıcı hale getirmek için olumlu pekiştiricileri kullanmaya devam etmeleri ile açıklanabilir.

Buna karşın, akran ilişkilerinde toplam puanlarda ve diğer alt boyutlarda eğitimin bir etkisinin gözlenmemesi, Gresham'ın (1982) da belirttiği gibi performans yetersizliği olabilir. Gresham'a (1982) göre çocuklar bazı sosyal becerileri önceden kazanmış olabilirler ancak, bazı çevresel koşullar yüzünden bunları sergileyemeyebilirler. Eğitim ergenlerin izleme puanlarından anlaşıldığı gibi bazı akran ilişkileri becerileri kazanmalarında etkili olmuştur. Ancak, çevresel koşulların uygun olmaması yüzünden, kazandıkları bu becerileri sergileyebilecek uygun ortam bulamamış olabilirler.

Sonuç ve Öneriler

“Baba Katılım Eğitimi'nin”, babaların toplam aile işlevleri üzerinde etkisi olmasına karşın alt boyutlarda anlamlı bir etkisinin olmadığı görülmüştür. Bunun yanı sıra, ergenlerin aile işlevleri üzerinde kalıcı bir etkisi de olmamıştır. Ergenlerin akran ilişkileri üzerinde ise, güven ve özdeşim alt boyutu dışında, anlamlı bir etkisi olmadığı gözlenmiştir. Baba katılım eğitimin etkisini arttırabilmek ve kalıcılığını sağlamak amacıyla aşağıdaki öneriler getirilebilir.

1. Eğitimin süresi hedeflenen beceriler dikkate alınarak yeterli uzunlukta olmalıdır.
2. Eğitimde kullanılan senaryolar ve canlandırmalar yeniden gözden geçirilmeli, babalara daha çok deneyim yaşama fırsatı vermesi açısından senaryo ve canlandırma sayıları artırılmalıdır.
3. Eğitim, daha çok sözel eğitim teknikleri ve canlandırma tekniklerine dayandırılmıştır. Kağıtcıbaşı'nın (2000) da belirttiği gibi, davranışların kazanılmasında “gözlem” ve “taklit” Türk kültüründe iki önemli öğrenme biçimidir. Eğitimde uygulanacak senaryo ve diğer materyallerin görsel araçlar kullanılarak uygulanması, babalara beklenen hedef davranışları kazanmalarında yardımcı olabilecektir.

4. Eğitim hazırlanmadan önce, babaların içinde bulunduğu kültürün özellikleri de göz önünde bulundurulmalıdır. Kültürün özelliklerine göre belirlenecek eğitimin içeriği oluşturulurken, sadece babalar değil, anneler, çocuklar ve yakın çevrelerinde görüşleri alınmalıdır.

5. Eğitimin etkisini artırabilmek amacıyla bir “ ihtiyaç belirleme” çalışması yapılarak, gerek babaların gerekse ergenlerin eğitimden beklentilerinin belirlenmesi gerekli görülmektedir.

Bu araştırmada elde edilen bulgular ışığında yeni yapılacak araştırmalara yönelik olmak üzere bazı önerilerde bulunulabilir.

1. Bu çalışmada baba-ergen ilişkileri babalardan ve ergenlerden alınan ölçümler aracılığıyla belirlenmiştir. Annelerin ve diğer aile üyelerinin de görüşlerini almak eğitimin etkisini değerlendirme konusunda yardımcı olacaktır.

2. Bu çalışmada babaların ergen çocuklarla ilişkilerinde, çocukların cinsiyetleri göz önünde bulundurulmamıştır. Sonraki çalışmalarda çocukların cinsiyet farklarının dikkate alınması ve eğitimin babaların farklı cinsiyetteki çocuklarıyla ilişkilerine etkisinin incelenmesi bu alandaki gelişmelere katkı sağlayacaktır.

3. Ergenlerin akran ilişkileri, ergenlerin kendilerini değerlendirme ölçümleri ile elde edilmiştir. Akran grupları ilişkileri ölçümlerinde, öğretmenler, arkadaşlar ve aile üyelerinin de değerlendirmesinin alınması, eğitimin etkisini değerlendirme konusunda gerekli görülmektedir.

4. Bu çalışmada 15-17 yaş arasındaki ergenlerin babaları yer almış ve babalar hem üst eğitim düzeyinden hem de üst gelir grubundan seçilmiştir. Farklı yaş grupları ve farklı sosyo-ekonomik statüdeki gruplarla yapılacak çalışmalar, bu alandaki gelişmelere katkı sağlayacaktır.

Psikolojik danışmanlara yönelik öneriler şu başlıklar altında toplanabilir.

1. Psikolojik danışmanlar ebeveyn görüşmelerini çoğunlukla annelerle gerçekleştirmektedir. Okul danışmanlarının bu görüşmelere babaların da dahil

olmasını sađlayacak dzenlemeleri yapmaları, babaların da bu srece daha fazla dahil olmasını sađlayacaktır.

2. Ebeveynlerin katılımının dısında ergenlerin sađlıklı, duygusal ve sosyal gelişimlerini desteklemek amacıyla, öğretmenlerin sınıf içi uygulamaları ve okul rehberlik programları da önemlidir. Bu amaçla, baba katılım eğitimi ve benzer eğitimleri okul danışmanları bu tür çalışmalarda kullanabilirler.

3. Çocukların sađlıklı gelişimleri için gerekli olan sosyal ve akademik becerileri kazanabilmeleri için okul danışmanları, sadece sosyal becerileri düşük çocukların ebeveynleriyle çalışmak yerine okul geneline ve sadece anneler yerine babalara da ulaşmayı hedefleyecekleri bir okul rehberlik müfredatı geliştirmeleri yararlı olacaktır.

4. Ergenlerin sađlıklı akran gelişimlerinde ve sosyal gelişmelerinde babaların ergen çocuklarla ilişkilerinin önemi göz önünde bulundurularak, okul da yapılacak çalışma ve faaliyetlerde babaları da dahil edebilecek çalışmaların yürütülmesi yararlı olacaktır.

APPENDIX J

CURRICULUM VITAE

Ercan Kocayörük was born in 1970. He graduated from the Middle East Technical University, Department of Educational Sciences, in 1996. He received M.S. degrees in Psychological Counseling and Guidance from Ankara University in 2000. He has been working as a school counselor in Ankara since 1996.