

BEING FATHERED AND BEING A FATHER:  
EXAMINATION OF THE GENERAL PATTERN OF TURKISH FATHERS'  
AND THEIR OWN FATHERS' INVOLVEMENT LEVEL FOR CHILDREN  
BETWEEN THE AGES OF 0-8

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## **ABSTRACT**

**BEING FATHERED AND BEING A FATHER:  
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Three purposes of this study are (1) to explore the general pattern of Turkish fathers' and their own fathers' involvement level, (2) to investigate the possible effect of perceived own father involvement level on fathers own involvement level to their 0-8 year-old children's lives (3) to examine the determinants of fathers' involvement into their 0-8 year old children.

The participants in this study were 528 biological-resident fathers, who live in different districts of Ankara, the central city of Turkey. All of these fathers have at least one child who is between the ages of 0 and 8.

The data of this study were collected through three different scales, Fatherhood Scale (Dick, 2000), Inventory of Father Involvement (Hawkins et al., 2002) and Suppose Support Scale (Yıldırım, 2004). In addition to these scales a

demographic information form was also sent to fathers. The data were examined through a statistical analysis program.

The results of descriptive analysis illustrated that fathers of both generation mostly engage in activities related to their provider role and their least engagement occurs in activities related with availability. MANOVA results indicated that there is a mean differences among three groups of fathers in the IFI 1 (Mother support and teaching) and IFI 3 (Availability) variable. On the other hand, Multiple Linear Regression Analysis indicated that only fathers' age, their age of being father and their perceptions about how their suppose support them are significant predictors of fathers' involvement level in their 0-8 year-old children's lives.

Results of this study suggest the following implications. First, fathers, mothers or even children should be educated about the importance of paternal involvement. Second, in the current study two scales related with father involvement were adapted to Turkish culture. These two scales can be used in further research. Third, since different factor structures have been yielded through EFA from original factor structure, this study supported the idea that father involvement and fatherhood is a cultural issue. Although cultural issues were considered during adaptation process, since scales about father involvement were developed in Western cultures, evaluations about fathers' involvement were done according to Western criteria. This study can encourage researchers to develop a cultural conceptualization of fatherhood and father involvement

**Keywords:** Fatherhood, early childhood, father involvement.

## ÖZ

### BABAMIN ÇOCUĞU, ÇOCUĞUMUN BABASI OLMAK: 0-8 YAŞ ARALIĞINDA ÇOCUĞU OLAN BABALARIN VE ONLARIN KENDİ BABALARININ ÇOCUK BAKIMINA KATILIM PATERNLERİNİN İNCELENMESİ

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Bu çalışmada 0-8 yaş aralığında çocuğu olan babaların ve onların babalarının çocuk bakımına katılımlarının genel yapısının, babaların oğullarının babalık davranışlarına etkisinin ve babanın çocuğun bakımına katılımını etkileyen faktörlerin incelenmesi amaçlanmıştır.

Çalışmaya 0-8 yaş aralığında en az bir çocuğu olan ve bu çocuğu ile aynı evi paylaşan 528 baba katılmıştır. Katılımcıların tümü Türkiye'nin başkenti olan Ankara'nın farklı bölgelerinde yaşamaktadır.

Bu çalışmanın verileri üç farklı anketle toplanmıştır. Bunlar, Babalık Ölçeği (Dick, 2000), Baba Katılım Ölçeği ( Hawkins et al., 2002) ve Eş destek Ölçeğidir (Yıldırım,2004). Babalık Ölçeği ve Baba Katılım Ölçeği araştırmacı tarafından Türkçe'ye adapte edilmiştir. Bu ölçeklerin yanı sıra katılımcılarla ilgili gerekli demografik bilgilerin toplanması için araştırmacı tarafından geliştirilen

“Demografik Bilgi Formu” da babalara yollanmıştır. Elde edilen veriler bir istatistiksel analiz programı ile analiz edilmiştir.

Araştırmanın betimsel sonuçları hem katılımcı babaların hem de katılımcıların kendi babalarının en sık geçim sağlama rollerine ilişkin etkinliklere, en az ise ulaşılabilirlik alt boyutundaki etkinliklere katıldığını göstermiştir. Yapılan MANOVA testi babanın kendi babası ile yaşadığı ilişkiyi algılayış biçiminin, kendi çocuğunun bakımına katılımını etkilediğini göstermiştir. Son olarak yapılan Çoklu Regresyon Analizinde babanın yaşının, babanın baba olma yaşının ve eşinden gördüğü desteğin, babanın 0-8 yaş aralığındaki çocuğunun bakımına katılma düzeyini etkileyen faktörler olduğu bulunmuştur.

Bu çalışmanın sonuçları birçok alana faydalı olmuştur. Öncelikle, çalışmanın sonuçları çocuğunun bakımına yüksek oranda katılan babaların özellikle erkek çocuklarının ebeveynlik özelliklerini etkilediğini göstermiştir. Yani bugünün babaları gelecek nesillerin babalık karakteristiklerinin belirlenmesinde etkili unsurlardır. Bu nedenle başta babalar daha sonra da anne ve hatta çocuklar, baba katılımının etkisi ve önemi üzerine eğitilmelidir. Bu eğitimler doğum öncesinde hastaneler tarafından, ya da kreşler anaokulları ve ya ilkokullar tarafından da aile eğitim programları şeklinde verilebilir. Diğer taraftan, çalışma kapsamında iki farklı ölçek, Babalık Ölçeği ve Baba Katılım Ölçeği, Türkçeye adapte edilmiştir. Gelecekte yapılacak çalışmalarda bu iki ölçek kullanılabilir. Son olarak bahsedilen ölçeklerin adaptasyonu sırasında yapılan Açıklayıcı Faktör Analizi orijinal faktör yapılarından daha farklı faktör yapıları ortaya çıkarmıştır. Bu durum ise babalık kavramının ve baba katılımı kavramının kültüre bağlı olarak değiştiği fikrini doğrulamaktadır. Bu nedenle bu çalışma babalık ya da baba katılımı kavramlarının kültürel tanımlamasını yapmak isteyen araştırmacıları cesaretlendirebilir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Babalık, Erken Çocukluk, Baba katılımı.

To My Family....

To B. Zeynep Erdiller-Akn....

To Uğur Çetin....



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## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

**FS:** Fatherhood Scale

**IFI:** Inventory of Father Involvement

**SSS:** Spouse Support Scale

**EFA:** Explanatory Factor Analysis

**MANOVA:** Multivariate Analysis of Variance

## **CHAPTER 1**

### **INTRODUCTION**

We, human beings are also social beings and family is the first social system that we are involved in right from birth. Right after birth human infants become ready to build a vital relationship with their primary caregivers as they are already equipped with all the necessary skills to communicate, to bond and to attach and the family that they born or settled into provides them with the major stream that will enable them to survive and develop as healthy and social beings.

While there is not a universal definition of the family, but rather there are many appropriate definitions (Petzold, 1998) and modern society and social sciences require a multi-perspective approach and yet perspectives on what constitutes family vary greatly, in its basic form a family can be defined as a group of people affiliated by consanguinity, affinity, or co-residence, and in most societies regarded as the principal institution and social setting for the socialization and education of children.

From primitive cultures to modern society, all societies require their new members to learn skills of survival, the rules and regulations of the society in which they live in, and the values by which their society functions (Frost, 1966). In this respect, family itself is the smallest unit of society which is bounded by common rules, regulations and values of the larger society but yet a discrete social system as each family has its own values, culture, morality and ethical issues.

In this smallest but the basic social system, parents are the most important sources for their children. Children learn about social norms, rules, and about their cultures by interacting with their parents, siblings and other family members before engaging in

more complex social structures (Berk, 2006). While the interaction and relationship between parents and children are very crucial for children's development and their later life experiences, what is more crucial is that these relationships affect their own parenting styles and attitudes that they are going to display in the future when they become parents themselves (Beaton & Doherty, 2007).

Although all developmental theories and research highlighted the significance of the family and particularly the parents' role on children's development and outcomes, most of this research focused only on the mothers and was conducted to determine the effect and importance of mothers' relationships with their children, their involvement in children's caring activities and children's outcomes. The main drive behind this interest in the mother-child relationship was the dominant viewpoint of the society that saw the mother as the primary caregiver and the father as the breadwinner of the family (Kay, 2006). This widely accepted viewpoint led researchers to emphasize the mothers' role in their children's development more than that of the fathers'. But as a side effect, it also resulted in an underestimation of the importance of fathers' involvement in their children's lives and limited their function to being only the provider for the family. However, women rights movement and the increasing number of women entering to labor force, created some changes in women's traditional role as being only the caregiver in the family and eventually altered these traditional viewpoints of societies. As a result, father involvement has begun to take the attention it deserved (LaRossa, 1988; Pleck, 1997).

Deeper examination of father involvement led researchers to draw a clear picture of the definition and history of fatherhood, definition and conceptualization of father involvement, and determinants of father involvement as well as its effects on children's life. Rotundo (1985) and Pleck (1997) have deeply examined the history of fatherhood and concluded that the dominant figure of fatherhood had changed

continuously during the history and this affected the definition and conceptualization of father involvement, as well.

Lamb, Pleck, Charnov, Levine (1985) was the first to conceptualize father involvement and identified three types of father involvement in their research which are engagement, accessibility and responsibility. Even though later on this conceptualization was improved by McBride (1990), Radin (1984), Volling and Belsky (1991), researchers who studied father involvement mostly used Lamb et.al (1985)'s conceptualization.

In 1997 Palkovitz claimed that father involvement is not a uni-dimensional issue, which only includes observable behaviors of father; but rather it is a multidimensional term which has cognitive, behavioral and affective domains. He identified fifteen different father involvement types and with this change in conceptualization of father involvement, there has been a shift in father involvement studies, as well.

At first, father involvement studies were interested in the “amount of time” that the fathers spent with their children. Then they began to focus on some additional aspects of involvement such as responsibility, accessibility and engagement as suggested by Lamb (Pleck, 2007). These studies found a positive relationship between father involvement and child outcomes. For instance, Cabrera, Shannon and Tamis-Le Monda (2007) found that supportive fathering was positively related to children's cognitive and language outcomes across ages. Moreover in the same study father supportiveness was found to be important for children's social and emotional development particularly at the early ages. Similarly, in their meta analyses, Sarkadi, Kristiansson, Bremberg (2007) have found that father's engagement with the child affects the child's social, behavioral, cognitive and psychological development positively.

In addition to these studies which were interested in father involvement level and its effects on children's development, some other studies emphasized on the determinants of father involvement. Lamb, Pleck, Charnov and Levine (1985) suggested five different factors that affect the fathers' level of involvement, which are biogenetic factors, motivation, skills, social support and institutional factors. Similarly a considerable amount of studies (Ahmeduzzaman and Roopnaire, 1993; Brain, 1993; Cooney et al., 1993; Daniels and Weingarten, 1982; Marsiglio, 1991; Radin and Goldsmith, 1983; Pedersen, Indelicato & Palkovitz, 1993) found a relationship between age related motivational factors factors such as *fathers' age*, *fathers' age of being father* and father involvement level.

In addition to age related motivational factors factors, social support factors such as *marital satisfaction* (Cowan & Cowan, 1987; Feldman, Nash, & Aschenbenner, 1983; Levy-Shiff & Israelashvili ,1988; NICHD Early Child Care Research Network, 2000; Nugent, 1991; Volling & Belsky, 1991), *wives' hours of working and working condition* were found to be related to fathers' involvement level ( Bailey, 1994; Barnett and Baruch, 1987; Brayfield, 1995; Crouter, Perry-Jenkins, Huston and Mchale, 1987; Erkal, Copur, Dogan, & Safak, 2007; Equal Opportunities Commission, 2006; Finley, Mira, & Schwartz, 2008; Lewin- Epstein, Stier, Braun, 2006; O'Connell , 1993; Peterson & Gerson, 1992; Pleck, 1997; Thomas & Hildingsson, 2009; Yeung, Sandberg, Davis-Kean& Hofferth, 2001; Volling & Belsky, 1991).

Also institutional factors such as *fathers' working hours*, *and the right for paternal leave* found to be associated with father involvement (Ahmeduzzaman & Roopnarine, 1992; Brain, 1993; Goldscheider & Waite, 1991; Ishii-Kuntz & Coltrane, 1992; Lewin- Epstein, Stier & Braun , 2006; Marsiglio, 1991;Pleck's ,1985; Tanaka & Waldfogel ,2007)

In addition to factors that were suggested by Lamb et al. (1985), *child characteristics (child age & gender)* and also *paternal socio economic status (paternal income)* were examined in terms of their effects on fathers' involvement level. Although there were some exceptions, a relationship between *child's age* (Bulanda, 2004; Coley and Morris, 2002; Danziger and Radin, 1990; Volling and Belsky, 1991; Yeung et al., 2001), *child gender* (Barnett & Baruch, 1987; Coley & Morris, 2002; Harris, Furstenberg, and Marmer, 1998; Marsiglio, 1991; Palkovitz, 1984; Peterson and Gerson, 1992; Rendina & Dickerscheid, 1976; Snarey, 1993; Tasch, 1952; Yeung, Sanberg, Davis-Kean & Hofferth, 2001), *paternal income* and father's involvement level (Ahmeduzzaman & Roopnarine, 1992; Blair et al., 1994; Goldscheider & Waite, 1991; Haas, 1988; Pleck, 1983; Roopnarine & Ahmeduzzaman, 1993) was found.

Beside all of these variables that were found to be associated with fathers' involvement level, there are a few studies which suggested that the father's relationship with his own father can also have an influence on his level of involvement in his children's lives in many ways. Although this influence can be explained by most of the developmental theories, the current study mainly considers two developmental theories, which are Freud's Psychosexual Theory, and Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory, to explain how parents, particularly fathers, affect their sons' paternal characteristics.

## **1.1. Purpose and Significance of the Study**

### **1.1.1. Purpose of the Study**

There are three main purposes of this study. The first one is to investigate the general pattern of fathers' and their own fathers' involvement in their children's lives. The second purpose of the current study is to explore the relationship between fathers' own fathers' involvement and their own involvement in their 0-8 year-old children's



lives. The third and the last purpose of this study is to examine the possible effects of age related motivational factors, social support and institutional factors, child characteristics and paternal income on fathers' involvement level. There are three main research questions of this study;

*R.Q.1. What is the general pattern of fathers' and their own fathers' involvement into their children's lives?*

*R.Q.2. Do fathers' relationships with their own father affect their involvement level in their 0-8 year old children?*

*R.Q.3. What are the possible effects of Age related motivational factors, social support, institutional factors as well as child characteristics and paternal income level on fathers' involvement level to their 0-8 eight years old children?*

### **1.1.2. Significance of the Study**

Today, the number of research studies on father involvement is gradually increasing because there happened to be strong evidence which suggested that father involvement in child development are associated with positive child outcomes. However, there are few available research that examined Turkish fathers' involvement in their children's caring. Also, very few studies examined some possible determinants of fathers' involvement in Turkey. Since this study presents detailed information about father involvement and its determinants in Turkish culture, this study provides serious contribution to the literature in Turkey. Results of this study can be helpful in terms of establishing some policies that lead higher father involvement such as paternal leave. Also results of this study can be considered by teacher education institutions and they can adapt their education program in order to teach ways of increasing father involvement to prospective teachers. In addition to teacher education programs, early childhood education centers can benefit from this

study as well. Based on the results of the current study, early childhood education centers can design and develop father education programs in order to increase father involvement level to 0-8 years old children's' caring.

## **1.2. Assumptions and Limitations of the Study**

### **1.2.1. Assumptions of the Study**

The study is based on the following assumptions:

1. The sample reflects the target population.
2. The adapted scales are qualified enough to serve the purpose of the study.
3. Participants of the study responded to the items sincerely and impartially reflected their actual level of involvement, their actual perceptions about their fathers' involvement and their perceptions about support that their wives provide them.

### **1.2.2. Limitations of the Study**

1. Recruiting to fathers was very difficult for this study. According to Daly (1992) "Men have traditionally been difficult to recruit for research studies and this was no exception (p.515)." To overcome this limitation approximately 1500 scale was distributed through neighborhoods, preschools and elementary schools who were contacted personally. However, only 528 data have been returned.
2. Because of being a quantitative research, the first aim was to reach a large sample. However, it was impossible to make all fathers to come together and fill all scales at the same time and at the same place. Therefore, all scales that were filled by fathers were sent to their homes. According to Marsiglio et al. (2000) these type of data gathering procedure may not give accurate information about the family life.
3. The study is limited in that data were collected only from the biological-resident fathers of children between the ages of 0-8 who live in Ankara.

4. Four measurements – demographical information form, Inventory of Father Involvement, Fatherhood Scale and Suppose Support Scale- were sent to fathers. All of these scales were filled by a single-source, father. Also these scales were self-report scales. Therefore, obtained information about fathers’ own involvement, their fathers’ involvement and the level of suppose support were depend on participants subjective evaluations.

5. Obtained data provided information about only quantity of paternal involvement and there is not any information about quality of this involvement.

6. In the current study, adapted versions of two scales (Fatherhood Scale & Inventory of Father Involvement) were used. Since these scales were developed in Western Cultures, Turkish fathers’ involvement level was evaluated by Western criteria’s about father involvement.

### **1.2.3. Threats to Internal Validity of the Study**

In the current study biological-resident fathers of 0-8 year-old children who live in different districts of Ankara were included, but some other characteristics such as their age, educational level could not be controlled. According to Freankel and Wallen (2006) researchers select a group of subject by depending on their specific characteristics; however the chosen group may differ in terms of other important characteristics that may affect the results of the study. Therefore, subject characteristics may be one of the threats to internal validity of this study.

In some studies loosing subjects or failure to collect all scales that were distributed create mortality threat. According to Freankel and Wallen (2006) approximately 20% of mortality is expected in all studies. To overcome this situation much more scales

than needed were distributed, therefore mortality could not be a threat for the current study, although mortality rate is 64.8 %.

Locations in which participants fill out the instruments of the study may generate different explanations for the results of the study (Freankel and Wallen, 2006). In the present study all instruments of the study were sent to participants' home through different sources. Therefore, it is assumed that all participants have filled instruments at their homes. Also, since there is not any manipulation in the study; location is not as essential as for experimental studies. As a result location could not be a threat for this study.

The ways in which instruments were applied may bring some risks for internal validity (Freankel and Wallen, 2006). Instrumentation decay is one of the threats to internal validity. To overcome this situation all scales were printed in the same format to ease the scoring process. Additionally, characteristics of person who gathered the data may affect the results. In the current study, scales were sent to participants' home. Therefore, there was no direct interaction between data collector and participants in the study. However, who sent the instruments to participants may create a difference among results. For instance, some fathers were reached through familiar people while some fathers were reached through preschool by the help of children's teacher. Fathers may give more importance filling the scale when they were reached by teachers, because there were items related with parent involvement and fathers may tend to give more acceptable responds. To overcome this situation, all instruments were sent in an envelope and an information form was added to the scales. This form informed participants about the aim of the study, the importance of their participation and the name of the researcher and advisor. Also, in this form it was pointed out that responses of participants will be kept confidential. Data collector bias is another threat relate to instrumentation. Data collectors may consciously or unconsciously affect the responses of participants (Freankel and Wallen, 2006). In the

current study, participants did not meet any data collector; therefore, data collector bias could not be a threat for this study's internal validity.

In some studies, during data collection processes participants may be alerted to what is being studied by pretests. As a result participants may spend more effort in terms of studied area and this may result in an improvement in the post-test. This is called testing threat (Freankel and Wallen, 2006). In this study, testing could not be a because of not having any manipulation and using instruments for only one time.

Experiencing an unplanned event which might affect responses of participants can be a threat for internal validity. This threat is called history by Freankel and Wallen (2006). History may be threat for the current study because there was not any information about when and how participants fill the instruments of the study.

Passing of time may create changes in participants responds, and this is called as maturation (Freankel and Wallen, 2006). Maturation is not a threat for the current study because there was no condition for passing time. Also, how participants view the study and whether they think that participating that study is important affect their responses. This threat is called attitudes of subjects (Freankel and Wallen, 2006). Subject attitudes may be a threat for the current study, because the current study included only self-report scales. Therefore, participants who think that the study is beneficial or important may give more reliable information, or they may read all items more carefully while others may not give accurate responds to items of the study. To overcome this situation, participants were informed about how their volunteer participation and accurate responds affect the results of the study through information form at the first page of the scales.

### **1.3. Definition of important terms**

**1.3.1. Father:** A male parent who reside with his biological children and the mother of those children in the same home.

**1.3.2. Father involvement:** In the current study, Palkovitz conceptualization about father involvement is used. According to Palkovitz (1997) there are fifteen types of father involvement. Depending on this idea Hawkins, Palkovitz, Bradford, Christiansen, Day and Call (2002) have developed a measurement in which there are different forms of father involvement, called Inventory of Father Involvement (IFI). The current study uses IFI to measure father involvement.

**1.3.3. Relationship between father and his own father:** In the present study how fathers perceive their relationships with their fathers is measured through Fatherhood Scale (Dick, 2000) retrospectively.

**1.3.4. Determinants of father involvement:** Factors that affect fathers' involvement levels. In the present study they are age related motivational factors (fathers' age & age of being father), social support (mothers' work condition, working hours and marital satisfaction), institutional factors (fathers' working hours), child characteristics (age & gender) and paternal income.

**1.3.5. Provider Role of Father:** According to Palkovitz (1997) fathers engagement in activities such as financing, housing, clothing, providing food, medical care, education, safe transportation, needed documentation(birth certificates,social security),furnishing, developmentally appropriate toys and equipments, helping the child to find a job are all related to fathers provider role.

**1.3.6. Availability of the Father:** Fathers' attending to events related with their children, leading activities, spending time with their children, allowing/encouraging child to enter into leisure activities, being with a child when s/he won't go alone and baking cookies for child's activities are all considered as fathers' availability (Palkovitz, 1997).

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE**

In this chapter related literature about the current study is presented. There are six main parts in this chapter. In the first part, different definitions and functions of family are touched upon. Moreover, previous studies that investigated the effect of family on children's social-emotional, language and literacy, cognitive development and their academic achievement are presented in detailed. The second part includes theoretical background of the study. In the third part information about fatherhood studies are touched upon. Previous studies about history of fatherhood and definition of father involvement are reviewed in this part. In the fourth part benefits of father involvement for children, previous research about determinants of father involvement are reviewed in detail. In the fifth part fatherhood and conducted father involvement studies are reviewed and in the last part a summary for this chapter is provided.

#### **2.1. Family**

##### **2.1.1 Definition of the Family**

Family is a very significant concept in a child's life and other than being able to talk and think, it is what makes us humans different than the other living creatures. Unlike animals human infants come to the world in a relatively unfinished state and totally depend on their parents for survival and development. So, the family that they are born into or arrived to, functions as a mother's womb in order to provide the infant with her ongoing needs that will continue until adulthood. In most cases the infant meets with his/her family right after birth and begins a life within a group, which has its own rules, culture and characteristics. While the family is extending, most of the



characteristics of this group and its members constitute some permanent parts of the child's personality. Having an intact family in which children live with father, mother and -if they have- siblings and conformity within the family is very significant in terms of appropriate child development (Sürücü, 2005). However, as mentioned in the first chapter there is not a consensus over the universal definition of the family (Petzold, 1998). More importantly the definition of the family mostly depends on one's paradigm of social interaction and purpose in defining the term.

Mostly known definition of the family addresses two different family types; nuclear family, which includes one man and one woman and children who are living in one household; and the extended family which includes more than one nuclear family, such as including grandmother and grandfather (Murdock, 1949; as cited in Trost, 1993). In addition to these two widely known definitions, states, lawyers, economists, developmentalists, sociologists, psychologists and also society as a whole define the term family differently because the definition of this important term affects lots of issues in these specific areas such as housing regulations; health and life insurance services; education and even recreation services (Diem, 2008 ; "What is Family?", n.d.).

Differences among definitions of the family are not mainly in the definition itself. Instead they are on the focus of the definition. For instance, the focus of the definition for institutionalists is biological relationship among family members; for interactionists it is the family related role behaviors; for stitutionalists it is "social, cultural and physical forces beyond the individual's control which compel individuals to assume family-related role behaviors"; for psychoanalysts it is the stage in which an individual is in and his unconscious needs; for developmentalists it is physical growth and maturity whereas for economists the focus is the activities that are related with production and consumption and for the state the focus is creating authoritative and legal definition (Diem, 2008, pp. 1-2).

Although there is a great deal of definitions of family, these definitions are commonly categorized into two main types; structural definitions and functional definitions. “Structural definitions of the family characteristically define the characteristics of family members such as families share a place of residence, or they are related through blood ties or legal contracts” (“What is Family?”, n.d., p.20). According to the most commonly used structural definition of family, family is a group that includes one male and one female parent who are connected with marriages and their biological children. This family type is also called nuclear family (Çiftçi & Biçici, 2005). Gidden’s (1997; as cited in Yıldırım, 2005) definition is also an example of the structural definition. According to him family is a group in which people are connected to each other with blood relation and adults take responsibility for their children’s lives. Although this type of definition is an adequate way of defining family, it ignores some relationships that we can observe in many families (“What is Family?”, n.d.). For example, families which contain a grandparent who does not live in the same house with the family but only cares for the child of the family, or families in which there is a noncustodial parent. Therefore the need for functional definitions has occurred.

Functional definitions emphasize the functions that families perform and they mostly include “sharing of resources and economic property; a caring and supportive relationships; identification with other family members or commitment to them; preparation of births and bringing them up to become adult members of the society” (“What is Family?”, n.d., p.21). Önal (1990) used a functional definition and defined family as a social unit that sustains human species, actualizes first socialization of its members, transforms social and cultural values to the next generation, and meets spiritual needs of human beings. Likewise, Yıldırım (2005) defined family as an area that has a lot of functions for an individual to gain his/her social consciousness with its biological, cultural, sociological and psychological features. Turkish Language Association uses a structural definition and family is defined as the smallest unit in

the society that is formed through blood and marital relationship among father, mother and their children by this association.

In addition to intact families defined by different institutions, there are families which include step-parents or single-parents, adoptive children, or two same-sex parents. Turkish Statistical Association reported that between 2007 and 2008 the number of divorce increased from 94.219 to 99.663. This indicates that in Turkey the number of single parent families is increasing. Also, this information may be a clue for the fact that the number of families in which there is a step-parent is also increasing day to day. In addition to single and step parent families, there are adoptive families. Adoption “is a legal process which builds family membership for children through the transfer of parental rights from the biological parents to the adoptive parents” (Allor, 1983, p.28). Although these families are seen as different from biological families, they have some similarities with biological families, as well. As biological families, adoptive families also succeed same developmental tasks with biological families. Also they achieve same unique interpersonal dynamics and family functioning (Allor, 1983). In addition to adoptive families, there are some families that are established by two same-sex individuals who are gays or lesbians. Although in Turkey, like Cyprus and Belarus having a marriage with a same-sex partner is not legal, there are some countries in which two same-sex partners can marry and have a child through adoption or other ways such as Holland, Denmark or Ukrainian. Since the current study is interested in intact-biological families no detail information about these family types is given here but it should be noted that these families should not be ignored when the term family is considered.

After examining different definitions of family it is clearly seen that finding only one and precise definition for the term family is almost impossible. However, it should be pointed out that all of these different definitions of the family share some common characteristics. Firstly all definitions include a “group of people” which mostly

includes father-mother and children; secondly all of them explicitly or implicitly mention that there should be relationship among family members that can be either biological or social. Also all definitions of family imply that due to being a group family has its own values and rules. Furthermore, since family is defined by different institutions differently, it can be inferred that family is affected from the culture or characteristics of the institution which define it, so it is a living and changing social unit.

Considering all the definitions provided above the current study defines family in a structural manner. In this study family is perceived as “the group in which there are at least one child under the age of 9, one mother and one father who are biologically related with each other”.

### **2.1.2. The Functions of the Family**

There are many functions of the family for its members and for the whole society. For society, family’s main function is providing reproduction of human beings. Also, family serves as an association in which social culture is transmitted to one generation to the next. Additionally, family is a fundamental educational area in which individuals learn how to be socialized (Çiftçi & Biçici, 2005).

When family members are considered, the function of the family can be described as providing psychological and spiritual satisfaction and providing social safety without any expectation (Çiftçi & Biçici, 2005). Family is initially responsible for its members, especially the young ones. When these responsibilities are examined in detailed, the significance of the family is understood easily. A child’s physical and psychological well-being begins in the womb of its mother, and after birth family environment is the place in which a child’s personality is generated (Çiftçi & Biçici, 2005). Moreover family is an institution in which children’s development and behaviors are affected and guided physiologically, economically, culturally and

sociologically and the effect of the family begins before birth and continues during the whole life of the child (Erbil, Divan and Onder,2006).

The family in which a child is raised and relationships between the members of this family have a very critical role in the development of the child (Çiftçi,1991). An individual spends his/her early years in his/her family environment with other family members and it is for sure that this time course is very crucial for appropriate personality development for its young members (Gültekin-Akduman , Akduman, & Cantürk ,2007).

For young members of family, parents are the most prominent figures in the family. They are responsible for meeting the needs of the child such as food, shelter and safety (Berk, 2006). Later, social and psychological needs become dominant in the child's life and this time family serves as a group in which a child learns to survive in the social life, learns about how to interact with others, and how to handle different social roles such as femininity and masculinity (Yıldırım, 2005). However, the effects of the family are not limited to social development or physical development of the child (Çiftçi & Biçici, 2005). The effect of family, family environment and parents on children's whole developmental areas are discussed deeply in the following paragraph.

### **2.1.3. Family and Child Outcomes**

There is a great deal of research that is interested in the effects of family and family environment on children's development. Most of them indicated that family, relationship among family members and family atmosphere affect children's development as a whole either in positive or negative ways. Previous studies indicated that family is the first social environment in which children learn about their own cultures, social norms and rules (Kandır & Alpan, 2008; Şentürk, 2008; Yıldırım, 2005). That is to say, family is the first place in which children socialize.

Especially when young children's social development is considered, the most influential members of the family are parents. Children spend most of their time with their parents; they observe and learn the ways parents use in their social interactions. Moreover, through modeling they use their parent's ways of interacting with others, even they hold their parents' attitudes (Bandura, 1977 as cited in Zimet & Jacob, 2001; Güven & Öncü, 2006; Tezel-Sahin & Ozbey, 2009). For example, children whose parents have marital conflicts have similar conflicts in their sibling or peer relations. (Stocker & Youngblade, 1999). Most of studies found that positive family environment in which there is a warm and close relationship between parents and children resulted in better self representation, greater internalizing with parents, better self regulation, lower emotional and behavioral problems (Bowes, Maughan, Caspi, Moffitt & Arseneault, 2010; Gamble & Modry- Mandel, 2008; Kochanska, Aksan, Prisco, & Adam, 2008).

Positive home environment and close family relationships also found to be effective in terms of children's language and literacy development. It is known that language development begins in the womb (Caulfield, 2002). Since language is one of the fundamental ability that can be learned through interaction with others, family has a very crucial role in regard to children's language development (Taylor & Strickland, 1989). Home-literacy environment, expectations and characteristics of parents, richness of family environment in terms of written materials, number of books, frequency of library visits done with the child and the amount of exposure to printed materials were found to be associated with better language-literacy development of children (Roberts, Jurgens & Burchinal, 2005; Rodriguez et al., 2009; Sénéchal, LeFevre, Hudson, and Lawson, 1996; Storch & Whitehurst, 2001). Language development is also seen as complementary for cognitive development. National Institution of Child Health and Human Development (1997) reported that children who were cared positively in an environment in which there were lots of language stimulation performed better on language tests and also cognitive test when they

became 15, 24, 36 months of age. That is to say, family, relationships among its members and environment in which family live have a significant effect on children's cognitive development.

When it comes to cognitive development it is a well known fact that first years of life are vital for brain development (Berk, 2006). Naturally, infants are born with a high brain capacity in order to gather given information; however nature, i.e. innate characteristics and capacity of an individual, should be supported by nurture, i.e. environmental characteristics that a child is reared up (Shored, 1997). Casas (2001) argued that earliest relationships and experiences of infants significantly contribute to their brain development. When Bradley et al. (1989) examined the effect of home environment on children's cognitive development in the first years of life using HOME which is a measurement in which the higher scores were found strongly related with higher developmental outcomes. Similarly, Lugo-Gil and Tamis-Lemonda (2008) studied with 2,089 low-income families and infants and they found that children's cognitive ability were associated with family resources and the quality of parenting that children's experience regardless of the age differences. Likewise, in their study Buckhalt, El-Sheikh, Keller, and Kelly (2009) found that "children from higher SES backgrounds, including higher family income and greater mother and father education, tend to have higher scores for cognitive performance and academic achievement" (p.882).

Academic achievement is another area that is affected by family environment. Previous research indicated that there is a clear relationship between family related factors and children's academic success (Hauser-Cram, 2009; Sirin, 2005; White, 1982). Living in a biological family (Heard, 2007), income level of the family, parent's educational levels (Buckhalt, El-Sheikh, Keller, & Kelly, 2009; Rech & Stevens, 2001; Dubow, Boxer, & Huesmann, 2009), parents behaviors such as book reading, involving children's school processes, parent believes and attitudes (Huaser-

Cram, 2009), and parental encouragement (Ferry, Fouad & Smith, 2000) were found to be positively associated with children's academic achievement.

In contrast to close, warm and nurturing relationships between parents and children, cold, harsh and negative relationships between them have resulted in negative child outcomes. For example, harsh parenting was found to be related with children's aggressiveness (Weiss, Dodge, Bates & Pettit, 1992), child externalizing behaviors (Erath, El-Sheikh & Cummings, 2009), and children's using proactive aggression, aggression which is "*described as instrumental and goal oriented and motivated by the anticipation of reward* (Dodge,1991)", and reactive aggression, aggression is "*conceptualized as hostile and frustrated behavior in response to threat or provocation* (Dodge,1991)" during their interaction with peers (Xu, Farver, & Zhang., 2009, p. 246). Unfortunately, as it is for positive outcomes, negative outcomes are enduring and consistent (Thompson, 1998). Longitudinal studies indicated that negative effects of relationship among children and parents pass from one generation to the next. For example, Hops, Davis, Leve and Sheeber (2003) have studied with three generations in terms of transition of aggressive parenting behavior from one generation to the next and they found a significant correlation between aggressive parenting behaviors of generation 1 and same type of parenting behaviors in generation 2. In other words, parents (G2) whose parents (G1) demonstrate aggressive parenting behaviors also behave aggressively to their own children (G3). Similarly in their longitudinal study Smith and Ferrington (2004) found that antisocial mothers as well as fathers lead some conduct problems in their children and indirectly in their grand children.

In the light of these empirical studies, it is not surprising to say that family characteristics, parent related issues and relationships between family members contribute to the child's whole development either positively or negatively. All of the studies that have been reviewed indicated the important role of family in which a



child is reared up. However, unfortunately most of these studies have gathered data from mothers in behalf of the family. When family related issues are considered, mothers are seen as core person to gather data. In addition to using mothers in behalf of the family, there are numbers of studies in which mothers' sole effect on children's social development ( Horwitz & Briggs-Gowan, Storfer-Isser, & Carter, 2009; Jaser, et. al.,2008; Kochanska & Murray, 2000; Leerkes, Blankson, & O'Brien, 2009; Padilla-Walker, 2007; Uji, Kitamura, & Nagata, 2009;), cognitive development (Cornelius, 2009; Evans et. al., 2010; Kiernan & Huerta, 2008; Lundberg, et. al., 2010; Page, Wilhelm, Gamble, & Card, 2010; Schachter, 1981; Sohr-Preston, & Scaramella, 2006), and language development (Clarke-Stewart, 1973; Elardo, Bradley, & Caldwell, 1977; Deckner, Adamson & Bakeman, 2006; Gros-Luis, 2006; Hammer & Weiss, 1999; Jihyun & Hui-Chin, 2009; Keown, Woodward, & Field, 2001; McCabe, Peterson, Connors, 2006; McGowan, et.al., 2008; Murray & Yingling, 2000; Raikes et.al., 2006; Stein, et. al., 2008; Westerlund & Lagerberg, 2008) have been examined. Unfortunately, this trend, overemphasizing mothers effect on children's development leads a deficiency in literature which is related with nuclear family's third element, fathers. However, most of child development theories emphasize family as a whole and they can also be used to explain the significance of fathers' role in children's development.

## **2.2. Theoretical Framework for the Study**

Sigmund Freud's Psychoanalytic Theory and Albert Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory are chosen as two major theories in addition to extensive body of research on fatherhood and father involvement conducted mainly by Michael Lamb and Joseph H. Pleck which comprise the theoretical framework for the study.

### **2.2.1. Psychosexual Theory:**

According to Freud development occurs in stages which are critical periods of development (Berk, 2006) and there are five different stages in this theory including

Oral Stage, Anal Stage, Phallic Stage, Latency Stage, and Genital Stage. Each of these stages is critical period to gain some specific parts of personality (Kilmer & Shahinfar, 2006). In the first stage children achieve the ability of integrating external objects to themselves, in the second stage children acquire personal power and control. While the third stage is the critical period for the development of children's sexual identity, fourth stage is critical for children to expand their social relationships beyond their family, gain masculine and feminine personalities and to learn appropriate sex-role habits. The last stage is critical for children to establish patterns of mature heterosexual functioning (Kilmer & Shahinfar, 2006).

How parents affect their children's personalities as well as their future paternal characteristics was mainly highlighted in the third stage called phallic stage. According to this theory, parents are the key people for children in this stage (Morrison, 1998) and in this period children learn about socially accepted sex-roles from their parents. Moreover, through Oedipal complex, children identify with their same-sex parent (Baumeister & Maner, 2006). In this process, children feel a strong attachment to their opposite-sex parent and they wish to exclude same-sex parent from the father-mother-child dyad. Disapproval of other parent creates an anxiety in the child and this anxiety is very strong in males. According to Baumeister and Maner (2006) "with boys, the father's disapproval of the love for the mother takes the form of an implied threat to castrate the boy, and the boy's resulting fear is so strong that the entire pattern of infantile sexuality gets repressed" (p.24). Due to its strength, threat to castrate is resulted in identification with same-sex parents. According to Freud, then, gender identity is established as a result of the resolution of Oedipus complex. During the resolution process of Oedipus complex, children acquire their same-sex parents' behaviors, attitudes, and values (Shelton, 2003). It can be concluded that children hold their parents in their bodies, and they consciously or unconsciously behave and think as their parents do. Therefore, how male children have been fathered affect how a father they will be in the future.

### **2.2.2. Social Cognitive Theory**

Another theoretical perspective that we can use to explain the influence of father's relationship with his own father on his own fathering behavior towards his children is Albert Bandura's (1986, 1997) Social Cognitive Theory. As Bandura (1986) mentioned social environment is a crucial element for learning and learning does not only occur through internal states or the effect of external factors, but also through observing others and their behaviors' consequences. In Social Cognitive Theory, this process is called "vicarious learning" or "modeling" (Thomas, 1996). To learn vicariously or to model someone there are five requirements. The first one is paying attention. Children mostly model people who are salient for them like parents or teachers. The second requirement is coding for memory. Children need to record a "visual image" or a "semantic code" for the behavior that they are exposed to (Thomas, 1996, p.199). The difference between imitation and modeling is associated with these symbolic codes of observed behaviors. Children can spontaneously imitate their parents' behaviors, however to model their parents children need to code and retain parent's behaviors so that they can use them in the future. The third requirement for vicarious learning is retaining observed behaviors in the memory. Children should not forget observed behaviors. Otherwise, they cannot use them in the future. Therefore, the frequency of being exposed to the same behavior and also the opportunity to observe same person frequently or for a long time is important for children to model that behavior. The fourth requirement for modeling is reproducing the observed behaviors. Unless children have the opportunity to reproduce the observed behavior, modeling does not occur. The last requirement is to be motivated to carry out the observed behavior. The motivation, in the social cognitive theory, is associated with consequences of observed behaviors. According to Bandura (1986) consequences inform the observer about whether a behavior includes a pleasant or unpleasant outcome and depending on this information observer may model the behavior or s/he may avoid behaving in the same way in the future. That is, "children

will more likely try to learn modeled behavior if they value the consequences the behavior seems to produce.” (Thomas, 1996, p. 201).

When this theory is considered in terms of parent involvement, it can be clearly said that parents are very important models for their children. First, they are salient for the children in order to be modeled by them. Secondly, children can easily generate visual or symbolic codes for their parents’ behaviors. Thirdly, because of being together for very long period retaining parents’ parenting behaviors in the memory is easy for children. Fourthly, when sons or daughters become parent, they can carry out their parents’ parenting behaviors. Lastly, it is easy for children to see the consequences of their parents’ parenting behaviors on the part of their parents and also themselves. This may lead children to model their parents’ parenting behaviors when they have children, too. If this theory is demoted to paternal involvement, it can be clearly stated that fathers affect their sons’ paternal behaviors. Sons of highly involved, warmth and close fathers are expected to be more likely to have warm, close relationship with his children and to be an involved father than sons of distant low involved fathers.

Research on fatherhood and father involvement (Lamb et al, 1985; LaRosssa, 1988; Pleck, 1983 Pleck, 1997; Plack & Pleck, 1997; Rotundo, 1985) which the current study also uses as a reference point will be touched upon in further sections in detail.

### **2.3. Fatherhood & Father Involvement**

Fathers, their characteristics and their involvements’ effects have been undervalued by researchers until few centuries ago. However, now, it is widely known that fatherhood has a strong history; fathers are also important figures in their children’s lives; there are various father involvement types; fathers’ involvement is important for their children’s development and there are some predictors that affect fathers

involvement level, as much as mothers' one. In the following parts, these issues about fathers will be examined in detail.

In order to talk about fathers in deep, the term "fatherhood" should be clarified initially; therefore how fatherhood is defined becomes the core point. However, according to Daly (1993) "fatherhood is changeable and reflects the shifting context within which it is experienced" (p. 513) and its definition is continuously changed by fathers of that day as a result of observation, negotiation and communication. According to Larossa (1988) the concept of fatherhood includes two different parts; the conduct and the culture which refers to how male parents behave, what they do in real and their paternal behaviors and norms that are shared by all society, values, and beliefs about fatherhood, respectively. General assumption about the culture and the conduct of an institution claims that these two changes synchronously; however, conversely, the issue is not valid for the fatherhood institution; the conduct of it follows culture of the fatherhood (LaRossa, 1988). This refers to rapid change in beliefs, values and expectations of fatherhood and a slow change in the paternal behaviors of male parents. Both the culture and the conduct of fatherhood have changed during history which leads to a change in the definition of fatherhood, as well. According to Lamb (1986) during the last two decades, the dominant meaning of fatherhood has changed conspicuously. In 60s, the most dominant feature of the fatherhood was related with his moral teaching role, then breadwinner role of fathers substitute the moral teacher role. Due to the increase in women's engagement of labor force and their sharing husbands' breadwinner role, fathers' most dominant feature was replaced with being a sex-role model for their children. Lastly being a nurturing father became the most dominant property of the fatherhood (Lamb, 1986). In order to understand how fatherhood term has reached its current meaning, its history should be considered in detail. The following part includes deeper information about the history of the fatherhood.

### **2.3.1. History of Fatherhood**

One of the main studies related to the history of the fatherhood was conducted by Rotundo in 1985. In his article, Rotundo (1985) analyzed why changes in fatherhood occurred, what processes caused these changes, the frequency of changes and the forms of fatherhood. Lastly he found that till 1985 there were two types of fatherhood which dominated in the American society. These were “Patriarchal Fatherhood” which began in 1620 and ended up in 1800s and “Modern Fatherhood” which dominated between the years of 1800 and 1985. Lastly he defined a new type of fatherhood which was called “Androgynous Fatherhood” that emerged during the years of his study was conducted (p.7).

Patriarchal Fatherhood period included fathers who were stentorian figure in their family life, because families were basic economic units of the society in which people earned from cultivation, each family member even young children were contributing their families in order to hold their family alive under the leadership of the father who was the owner and controller of all the family havings. Therefore, fathers were in a towering and the most powerful position in their families. This position was also supported by the right of fathers to decide their children’s marriages, i.e. fathers were the last person to decide when and with whom his daughter or son could marry (Rotundo, 1985).

Their great power leaded fathers to take the biggest responsibility about their children’s life, as well. They were the people who were expected to meet the children’s physical needs for life and provide their children for life’s work and to teach, particularly to their boys, about farming or business and guide their children morally, spiritually, and also to discipline them. Simultaneously, father-child relationship had an emotional base which was not too warm; fathers were interested in both their sons and daughters especially during infancy without taking

responsibility in their feeding or caring. After children came up to an age in which they could understand their parents, they became their fathers' students for morality. Especially sons were thought to be children of the father whereas daughters were thought to be mothers'. However, fathers indicated affection to their daughters more than to their sons for not leading their sons to be pampered (Rotundo, 1985).

The power of fathers gradually decreased because of having smaller land areas for cultivation (Rotundo, 1985). Fathers could not bequeath large amounts to their sons, and their towering position lost its value. In the last few decades of 1700s, ideas about "stringent" parenting shifted with the increase in the role of parents as moral guiders. Due to the fact that women were seen as innately moral and more tender than males, the role of mothers became more dominant in the "late eighteenth century" (Rotundo, 1985, p.10).

Progresses in last few decades of 1700s and at beginning of 1800s, firstly made the fathers less powerful, and then made them work out of their homes, a new type of fatherhood, modern fatherhood, emerged. During this period, people began to manufacture "cash crops". A new commerce system emerged, and middle class families were removed from their homes in order to gather money. Farmer fathers had not been out of the home for long times they had to come around of their homes most of the time during the day whereas businessman, clerk or lawyer fathers left the home at the morning and came home in the evening. Therefore they began to be absent in their children's life when compared to the fathers of last centuries. Mother and the children were staying at home during the day and mothers were doing the biggest part of the household and child care. Mothers were left alone with children, so they began to be better moral teachers than the children's fathers. Therefore, mothers in this century shaped their sons' personalities in addition to their daughters' personalities. Fathers on the other hand became rivals of their sons because in this

century sons began to be more powerful than their fathers because “they had waited on the power and authority of their fathers” (Rotundo, 1985, p.11).

Although fathers’ towering position in the family is not still there, their new role which leads them to provide for their families make them still very important for the family life. They are still the disciplinarian of their children, corporal punishments that are less than the last century are decided by them, and they helped mothers to teach their children about morality issue. Especially fathers are seen as the first morality teachers who are mostly involved in their children’s lives. In this century there is a gender difference in terms of fathers’ involvement. Fathers involve in their sons’ lives more than their daughters’ ones. Fathers were responsible for their sons learning about politics, finance and surviving out of the home. The most dominant role of the father is related with teaching their sons being a man, i.e. fathers are sons’ sex-role models. Similarly in patriarchal fatherhood period, fathers are again more affectionate to their daughters than to their sons. (Rotundo, 1985).

Between the period of 1880s and 1980s, modern image of father who is expected to be the primary provider of the family and the morality teacher of his children preserved its importance. Although basic form of fatherhood changed and differences occurred among different ethnic, social, and economic classes, it went on to grow and spread. However, in late nineteenth century, internal paradoxes of modern fatherhood began to make sense in the society. Fathers of this period were expected not to be involved into their children’s lives as much as patriarchal fathers. In other words, they were expected to be remote providers of their families. On the contrary, these fathers were not expected to be formal, and strict as the previous one, so they could show more interest, warmth and love to their children. These two antithetical components of modern fatherhood led people to think about fathers’ absence or their involvement. Some fathers’ preferred to establish more close and warm relationship with their children after “patriarchal formality” had lost its importance,



while others preferred to be absent physically because of their business trips or they preferred to be absent psychologically because of their responsibility to provide for the family and fathers left all responsibilities of children care to their spouses (Rotundo, 1985, p.14). This confusing situation disappeared during the period of Great Depression and World War II, lots of fathers left their homes and the wives began to provide for their families, so the core feature of modern fatherhood, breadwinner father, began to disappear. However, after the war fathers again became the primary provider for their families and modern fatherhood again came up with its two contradictory poles. In one pole, fathers only provided for their families and they are moral guiders basically for their sons without showing great affection. In the other pole, fathers were friends for their children, they were trying to involve in their children's routine caring activities such as feeding. They were teaching especially their sons about "home repair and yard work", and at beginning of the "Little League sports" fathers were coaching their children in sports and 1970s witnessed to a new fatherhood type, "Androgynous Fatherhood" (Rotundo, 1985, p. 15-16).

Androgynous fatherhood occurred in the wake of a new ideology about sex-roles that maximized equality between genders, raised divorce rates. This created families whose fathers were utterly absent, and increased the number of the mothers who were working out of the home. Thus, some of mothers' burden for child care was left to husbands' shoulders. This new fatherhood type demanded males who were the part of his child's daily caring, were more expressive and intimate in their relationships with their children. They were more active in children's socialization than their own fathers or grandfathers. Fathers in this period were expected to encourage their daughters to be "assertive achievers" and their sons to be "nurturant as well as assertive" (Rotundo, 1985, p.17).

Rotundo (1985) pointed out that this new version of fatherhood could be accepted by some fathers, especially the ones who are from upper-middle class and rejected by

others. As a result of this condition, two contradictory poles of modern fatherhood would be preceded by the next generation. Some children would grow without their fathers. Therefore, they want to be more warm and intimate with their children when they become father. Fathers who had close relationship with his father imitate him in his fathering. On the other hand, remaining fathers become absent fathers because of their fatherlessness.

In addition to Rotundo (1985), and Pleck (1987) investigated the history of fatherhood. According to them there were three different historical periods in which fatherhood's dominant feature changed. The first period began in 18<sup>th</sup> century and lasted till the early 19<sup>th</sup> century, it was similar to "patriarchal fatherhood" period of Rotundo (1985, p.8). During this period fathers were seen as "moral overseer" and they were expected to be their children's moral teachers who mostly would give information about God, and teach reading and writing to their children if they knew, and guide their male children to an occupational area. Moreover these fathers made decisions if a marriage is appropriate or not for their male and female children (Pleck, 1987, p.84). During those periods in which fathers were seen as moral overseers, children on the other hand were seen as sinful individuals to be ruled by external forces. Fathers were seen the most important external force. The emotional component of the relationship between fathers and their especially male children was dominant in this period. In addition, during this period fathers would have been the parent who had the right of custody of the children if a divorce had occurred (Pleck, 1987).

Second period commenced at the early 19<sup>th</sup> century and expelled to mid-twenty century in which fathers were seen as "distant breadwinners" dominantly (Pleck, 1987, p. 86). Because of giving more importance to mothers, identifying females as more pure and unselfish in terms of child rearing, and deeper understanding about the importance of mother during especially infancy and early childhood periods, the

power over the child shifted to the mother. The mothers became the primary persons who took the custody of the child after a divorce situation. In accordance with the increased importance of mothers in those dates, fathers' work conditions changed, too. Fathers began to work out of the home and they had to be distant from their families at least for hours because of industrialization. As a result, the time that a father directly had involved with their children and their authority decreased. The reason of this change was mainly related to the fathers' way of gaining money, and the transition from being a farmer to being a businessman (Pleck & Pleck, 1997). Those fathers were expected to be the primary person who provided money and security for his family.

Third period occurred between 1940s and 1965s and males' dominant characteristics as fathers became sex-role modeling. In the second period in which fathers were distant breadwinners, the bulk of child rearing was under the responsibility of mothers. After, the World War II negative consequences of this exaggerated mother involvement and fathers' lack of involvement were taken into account and even mothers were blamed for causing "the battle breakdowns and other problems of American fighting man" (Strecker, 1948; as cited in Pleck, 1987, p. 90). On the other hand, fathers went to war and unfortunately many of them did not turn back to their homes. Mothers who were alone after their husband joined the army during war times were obliged to gather money for the family and they gained more independence from their husbands. Partly because of this situation, divorce rates increased after demobilization. Even if the father was physically present at home they were still passive partners of mothers.

All of these circumstances led researchers to be curious about what happened when fathers were absent or passive in a child's life. Simultaneously, a theory about gender alleged the fact that males needed a masculine personality, but because of high levels of identification of mother during early years and lack of involved or

active fathers especially male children had difficulties while establishing their masculine identity. In other words, this theory claimed that fathers should be sex-role model both for their male and female children (Pleck, 1987). This new dominant feature of fatherhood could not be a really dominant rather breadwinner role of the fatherhood remained dominant in society's mind and actual behaviors of men, as well (Pleck, 1987).

Pleck (1997) lastly introduced another new type of fatherhood which was called "co-parent father" which began in 1970s (p.45). These fathers of 1970s were expected to equally participate in their children's day-to-day caring with their wives, and be present in the birth of the child, be equally involved with both his male and female children. In this period being a sex-role model for their sons became less important for fathers rather they should be models for their sons in order to make them more neutral and less gender-stereotyped. This type of fathering was encouraged by feminists approach and people from this point of view argued that males were not innately clumsy in regards to childrearing rather they were socially clumsy (Pleck, 1997).

Another reason of new emergent fathering was the increasing number of employed women, as well. The percentage of employed women who were also living with their husbands increased 15 % between the years of 1950 and 1990 (Pleck, 1997). Another change occurred in the males beliefs about their provider role. According to Wilkie (1993) the percentage of males who believed that they were the sole breadwinners of their family was 69 % in 1972 but there was an important change. The percentage of these males decreased to 47% in 1989. However, on the other hand, this new type fathering was widely accepted by upper-middle-class males but not all males. Controversially, another new type of fathering emerged simultaneously with co-parent fathering, which was called "deadbeat fathering" and it referred to fathers who

did not reside and involve with their children, and support his child (Furstenberg, 1988; as cited in Pleck & Pleck, 1997).

According to Pleck and Pleck (1997) although the culture of fatherhood changed through history, the provider role remained dominant. The only similarity among definitions of fatherhood was related to cultural expectations. In each period, culture expected fathers to involve their children's lives. However, the degree of expected involvement differed among these periods. Labeling fathers as good or bad was dependent to their level of engagement in expected fathering behaviors. However, cultural expectations changed rapidly.

LaRossa (1988) claimed that the culture of the fatherhood, which refers to the expectations of culture about how a father should behave, changed more rapidly than the conduct of fatherhood, which refers to actual involvement of fathers. The analysis of advice seeking letters written by fathers and mothers to Angelo Patri during the period of 1920s and 1930s -the period of Great Depression- revealed that the changing culture of fatherhood only affected mothers' evaluations of their husbands and their ideas about fatherhood. However, it did not affect the fathers' thinking about their involvement and their level of involvement inside the home (Larossa & Reitzes, 1993). Similarly, Mechiling (1975) reported that during the 1930s the most effective thing which shaped fathers' fathering behaviors was the way that how that period's fathers were fathered by their own fathers, i.e. the conduct of fatherhood, it was not the cerebral writings of that period which encourages more involved fathering, i.e., the culture of the fatherhood.

Due to rapid change of "fatherhood culture" but slow change of "fatherhood conduct", defining father involvement became a challenging and very important issue for fatherhood researchers. The following part will provide information about how different researchers defined father involvement.

### **2.3.2 Definition of Father Involvement**

In parallel with its history, fatherhood studies, therefore the definition of involved father changed direction during history. At first, after the period of World War II and Great Depression, in which lots of fathers were absent in their homes, researchers emphasized on father absence and how fatherlessness affected children's development (Pleck & Pleck, 1997). Then, because of increased number of working women with children, fathers' active involvement was required for their children. When the wives were working outside the home, fathers became another salient person who also took responsibility of their children's daily caring (Easterbrooks & Goldberg, 1984). This situation took researchers' attention to benefits and types of fathers' active involvement.

The definition of involved fathering has been changed through history with the changed meaning of fatherhood. As mentioned, in colonial period involved father referred to father engagement in activities that guided children morally. In that period involved fathers were reading Bible to their children or they were teaching, how to read it, in addition they were teaching farming especially to their sons. If fathers had guided their children morally, and had taught them about farming, they would have perceived as involved fathers (Pleck, 1983). However, with the shift in the dominant figure of fatherhood to "distant breadwinner", the meaning of involved father changed again. Fathers who provided his family appropriately were perceived as involved and good fathers. Later sex-role modeling motif of fatherhood became dominant. Fathers who were successful models to their children especially to their sons were perceived as highly involved fathers (Pleck & Pleck, 1997). Then, fathers were expected to involve with their children in more nurturing way and fathers who engage in day-to-day activities with their children such as feeding their babies, dressing and undressing their children were considered as involved ones (Pleck & Pleck, 1997).

Since the definition of fatherhood changed dramatically through its history, the definition of the father involvement also changed. However, it was difficult to compare father involvement level among different periods and also cultures because of lacking a common conceptualization of father involvement (Lamb, Pleck, Charnov & Levine, 1985). Therefore, researchers tried to conceptualize father involvement. The first and the most accepted conceptualization of father involvement came from Lamb and his colleagues in 1985. Lamb, Pleck, Charnov and Levine (1985) defined father involvement as a term that was constituted by three different components; interaction, availability and responsibility. *Interaction* pointed out the first involvement type in which fathers and children engage in direct contact with each other. *Availability*, on the other hand, referred to fathers' presence or accessibility to the child, although there was not any direct interaction between two. Lastly, *responsibility* referred "to the role father took in making sure that the child was taken care of and he arranged resources available for the child" (Lamb et al., 1985, p. 884). In order to make it clear it is better to give examples about these three types of father involvement.

In the first involvement type, fathers engage interaction, while they are playing games with children, while they are feeding or bathing their children. While watching TV or reading newspapers, if fathers respond to the child when s/he is in need, these fathers are in second type of involvement, availability. Lastly, fathers who bring their children to the doctor or school, and fathers who provide food, clothes or toys for his children without engaging one-to-one interaction with their children while being accessible to them engage in the third involvement type, responsibility (Lamb et al., 1985).

This conceptualization depends on the “time” that a father spends in all of these three involvement types. Lots of father involvement studies have relied on this conceptualization or improved version of it. Especially, studies that have been interested in quantitative part of father involvement, the time that fathers spend with their children, mostly emphasized on interaction and availability components (Bianchi, 2000; Brayfield, 1995; Pleck, 1997; Yeung, Sandberg, Davis-Kean, & Hofferth, 2001; Sandberg & Hofferth, 2001). Almost all of these studies have found that mothers engage in child-caring activities more than fathers though their wives’ employment status affect fathers’ time that they spend with their children. Fathers’ of children whose mothers work out of the home were found to involve more to their children’s lives at weekend days more than fathers of children whose mother do not work out of the home (Hofferth, Pleck, Stueve, Bianchi, & Sayer, 2002). These studies will be investigated in detail in the next part which is related to the determinants of father involvement.

Along with studies that indicated positive effect of father involvement on children’s development as much as quantitative component of involvement, qualitative art of this involvement began to take attention of researchers. Therefore, researchers began to use and to develop other kinds of measures in order to learn about paternal involvement or they have added some new domains to Lamb et al.’s conceptualization.

McBride (1990; McBride & Mills, 1993, as cited in Pleck, 1997) discriminated four different engagement subcategories (using play, transitional, parallel and functional) in Interaction/Accessibility Time Chart. In 1984, Norma Radin suggested five different father involvement types. These are statement of involvement, child-care responsibility, socialization responsibility, influence in childrearing decisions, and accessibility. Then, he developed Paternal Index of Child Care Involvement (PICCI) depending on the idea that “many investigators supplemented or elaborated the



involvement concept to include other elements such as father's proportion of involvement and specific activities such as play" (Pleck, 1997, p. 68). This measure was used for understanding about overall time that the father spends with his child and also specific activities that the father engages in and promotes his child's development (Cabrera, Tamis-LeMonda, Lamb, & Boller, 1999). Items that were included in PICCI's socialization subscale such as "helping children with personal problems" or "helping children to learn", and items of childrearing decision subscale such as "deciding when children are old enough to learn new things" directly refers positive paternal involvement rather giving information about "involvement in the original, content-free sense" (Pleck, 1997, p. 68).

Volling and Belsky (1991) have created five different codes about fathers' interaction with their children. The first one is "respond". It refers to the responds of father to his infants' verbal or nonverbal behavior (Volling & Belsky, 1991). For instance, if a father responds to his infant vocalization or if he shows a toy because of his infant's indication of that toy, this is coded under the component of responds. The second component is labeled as "stimulate/ arouse" in which a father take the baby's attention to a specific point in the environment, for instance fathers' lifting the baby up in the air or holding a toy to make his baby grab are coded in this component. Third component is called "caregiving" and it includes fathers' behaviors of feeding, bathing or clothing the child. Fourth component is related with the fathers' expression of positive feelings through kissing, hugging or smiling to the child and it is named as "positive affection". The fifth and the last component is associated with fathers' accessibility. It is called "read/watch TV" (Volling & Belsky, 1991, p. 465). Depending on this conceptualization they used a new kind of measurement called "Observed Father Infant Interaction". In 1997, Palkovitz claimed that fatherhood is a multidimensional issue. He pointed out that parent involvement includes affective, cognitive and behavioral domains and so does father involvement. He claimed that there are at least 15 father involvement types. These are; *Communication, Teaching,*

*Monitoring, Thought Processes, Errands, Caregiving, Child-Related Maintenance, Shared Interests, Availability, Planning, Shared Activities, Providing, Affection, Protection, Supporting Emotionality.* These are the ways that a father can involve to his child's life (Palkovitz, 1997). Appendix A indicates activities involved in these 15 ways of involvement.

After attempts to measure the quality of the father involvement as much as quantity of it, Hawkins and Palkovitz (1999) claimed that all of developed measurements and studies that used those measurements emphasized on father involvement types that were temporal and mostly observable. Moreover, they claimed that as a multidimensional construct, father involvement is compromised by affective, cognitive and ethical components along with the observable behavioral component. Also it included indirect involvement types such as providing or supporting the mother of the child (Hawkins & Palkovitz, 1999). Then, Hawkins, Palkovitz, Bradford, Christiansen, Day and Call (2002) developed an instrument in which there were different forms of father involvement. It was called "Inventory of Father Involvement". Another new issue for this scale was related with its respondents. Up to this scale, information about fathers' involvement was gathered by mothers or children. There were few studies in which fathers responded about their own involvement. This measurement also provided fathers to report their own involvement level through a self-report scale. In the current study, this instrument was adapted to the Turkish and it was used to understand Turkish fathers' involvement levels.

## **2.4. Father Involvement Research**

### **2.4.1. Father Involvement and Child Outcomes**

Conceptualizations and common definitions about father involvement that was reached among researchers, led them to study the benefits of father involvement on children's development. Most of studies were done in this topic and almost all of them indicated that father involvement was associated with positive outcomes in terms of social-emotional, cognitive, behavioral and psychological domains of child development (Marsiglio et al., 2000; Sarkadi, Kristiansson, & Bremberg, 2007;). Although positive effect of fathers' and their involvement on children's development was proved through empirical studies, these studies suffered from the lack of theoretical bases (Pleck, 2007). Although there were lots of theories which especially emphasized on mothers and their presence positive effects on child's development like Attachment Theory, it was difficult to find these kinds of theories that solely depended on fathers' positive effects on their children's development. However, with a deeper analyzing, Pleck (2007) identified four theories that partly or directly indicated the significance of father in children's lives.

The first one is Bowlby's Attachment Theory. Although this theory mostly emphasizes on primary caregivers of children (Berk, 2006) and when it is said primary caregiver, mothers are generally taken into account, Pleck (2007) claimed that this theory can be also beneficial to explain fathers' importance in their children's life because it has been recognized that "infants form attachment relationships with fathers and other care giving adults besides mothers (Kotelchuk, 1967)" (pp.197-198). Therefore, the relationship between child-father and child-mother contributes differently to children's development.

Social Capital Theory of Coleman (1988) is another one that can be beneficially used to indicate fathers' importance in children's lives. This theory regulates that there are

two different types of capitals that are provided by parents; financial capital and social capital which is constituted by two sub-capitals, as well; family social capital and community social capital. Fathers are important people in their families to provide material for their children such as food, shelter; family social capital through contributing their children's socialization and community social capital by being link between larger world and their children (Pleck, 2007).

Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Theory is the other one that Pleck (2007) has emphasized. According to this theory a child's world is formed by five different interference layers (Berk, 2006). This theory introduces microsystem as the first and the most influential layer in the child's life in which family members, teachers, other adults that child establishes face-to-face interaction are included (Pleck, 2007). Second layer is called as mesosystem and it includes relationships between two different micro system such as parents and teachers (Morrison, 1998). The third layer is exosystem that does not contain the child directly but contains relationships that affect the child indirectly such as relationship between child's parents and their bosses (Paquette & Ryan, 2001). Macro system is the fourth layer in which issues that indirectly affect the quality of child's life are included, such as social policies of the country in which child is reared up; for example parental leave policies (Berk, 2006). The fifth and the largest layer is called chrono system and it covers "the dimension of time as it relates to a child's environment"; for example the older the child, the better s/he determines how a change in his life affect him/her (Paquette & Ryan, 2001, p.2). As a result, fathers according to this theory are important people as much as mothers because of being situated in the micro system and interacting directly with the child. All these three theories indicate that fathers and their relationships with children may have positive or negative outcomes for children, and this conclusion is supported by a lot of empirical researches, as well.

Fathers may serve as material capital providers for their children as mentioned in the Social Capital Theory (Pleck, 2007). Therefore it can be said that providing money for his children is one way of fathers to contribute their children's well-being. Kaplan, Lancaster and Anderson (1998) have found a positive association between fathers' earning and children's educational attainments. Similarly, Amato (1998) have found a positive association between fathers' income level and their young adults children's psychological well-being. Fathers also provide family social capital for their children and they affect their children's socialization (Pleck, 2007). Marsiglio et al. (2000) have analyzed 72 studies and have found that these studies indicate a negative moderate correlation between paternal authoritative parenting and behavior problems of children. Similarly Zimmerman, Salem, and Maton (1995) have found that the time that children spend with their fathers and emotional support that they receive from their fathers leads positive outcomes for children, regardless of their family type.

The last theory is called "essential father theory" and according to this theory fathers are essential parts of both their sons' and daughters' lives because of being gender role model (Pleck, 2007). Male gender role identity paradigm suggests that "sons are especially in need of fathering, that the primary mechanism of paternal influence is identification or modeling, and that the primary consequences of inadequate fathering are either hypermasculinity, or effeminacy and homosexuality", on the contrary essential father theory emphasize not only sons but also daughters as "beneficiaries of fathering" (Pleck, 2007, p. 200).

As all mentioned theories but particularly theories of Bowlby and Bronfenbrenner informed, fathers are people with whom children establish face-to-face interaction and children are affected from the quality of their relationship with their fathers (Pleck, 2007). Research indicates that children who spend more time with their fathers, show less psychological symptoms such as less depression and less anxiety;

additionally children who receive more emotional support from their fathers have found to be in better psychological well-being and these children have found to be “related to less delinquency and marijuana use” (Zimmerman et al, 1995, p. 1607). Same study indicates that children who see their fathers as role models for themselves have less school dropouts. Additionally, Young, Miller, Noton and Hill (1995) have studied with 640 male and female children between the ages of 12 and 16. They have found that children of fathers who provide encouragement and talk about problems with their children have high levels of life satisfaction. Only spending time with the father at dinners or in cinemas have not been to be related with those children’s life satisfaction level. This result points out the importance of father involvement’s quality rather than quantity.

Cebrera, Shannon, and Tamis-Le Monda (2007) have found that regardless of the child age fathers’ involvement level is positively related with the children’s cognitive and language development. Especially in early years of life having a highly involved father is associated with positive social-emotional development for children. Gecas and Schwalbe (1986) have studied with 128 families in which a father, a mother and an adolescent who is between the ages of 17 and 19 in order to learn the relationship between adolescents’ perceptions about their parents’ behaviors and their self-esteem. Results have stressed out the importance of father behaviors. It has been found that fathers are related with adolescent’s self-esteem more than mothers. Similarly Salem, Zimmerman, and Notaro (1998) have studied with 679 African American adolescent whose age range from 14 to 17 to examine the relationship between family processes and psychosocial outcomes of children. They have found that time spends with father and seeing them as significant figures in their lives is associated with psychosocial outcomes for both genders.

Higher levels of father involvement and the higher quality of the involvement are associated with positive outcomes. On the contrary, lower levels of involvement and

lower quality in the relationship between father and child are related with negative outcomes, as well. For instance, Cookstone and Finlay (2006) have studied with 2,387 adolescents with the mean age 15.49 and have found that father involvement is related with delinquency, alcohol use and depression among these adolescents. Similarly, study of Salem et al. (1998) have indicated that the lesser the time that a child spend with his/her father and the lower quality of the relationship, the more externalizing behaviors the boys engaged in and the more externalizing and also internalizing behaviors the girls engaged. Similarly, Carson and Parke (1996) have studied with 41 four-five years old children and their parents, and they have found that children of fathers who “respond to their children’s negative affect displays with negative affect displays of their own” have been found to be less socially skilled, share less with others, more verbally and physically aggressive than their other peers (p.2221).

Furthermore, Foster, Reese-Weber, and Kahn (2007) have studied with fathers of 148 preschool aged boys and they have found that sons of fathers who express their negative emotions more often at home in the presence of their sons, which is called negative expressiveness of the father, are perceived as more aggressive and disruptive by their teachers. In their study Jaffee, Moffitt, Caspi and Taylor (2003) have found that it is the quality of the time that determines the effect of father involvement. In their study, 1,116 five year old children have participated and results have revealed that children indicate lower levels of conduct problems only if they spend greater time with their fathers who engage in less antisocial behaviors. Otherwise, if fathers engage in higher antisocial behaviors, spending more time with fathers have resulted in more conduct problems for children.

Another area that father involvement benefits children is academic achievement (Blendis, 1982). The academic performance of the children whose father involve in their schooling, school activities and school work have been found to be better than

the others whose father involve less with their academic life. In one study, fathers have reported that their own fathers have been very effective in their academic achievement in helping them or teaching lessons in a positive manner (Blendis, 1982).

Apart from these studies that have shown short-term positive effect of father involvement, there are some studies that indicate long-term positive outcomes of father involvement for children. For instance, Franz et al. (1991) have found that paternal warmth that have been reported by 5-year-olds mothers is a strong predictor of those child's marital success and supportive social networks when they are 41 year old. Congruently, Amato and Booth (1997; as cited in Marsiglio et al., 2000) have stated that children of parents who reported high paternal involvement in 1980, were found more socially integrated in 1992. Similarly, Hosley, Canfield, O'Donnell and Roid (2008) have studied with 993 married adult males and they examine the effect of father closeness on these men's non-marital sexual behaviors, marital and family satisfaction. They have found that males who felt close to their fathers engage in less non-marital sexual behaviors, and they have been found to have higher levels of marital and family satisfaction. Also, studies that are done with fathers have indicated that fathers who reported their fathers as close and highly involved also involve more with their own children and have closer relationship with their children (Blendis, 1982; Daly, 1993; Lewis, 1984; Radin & Goldsmith, 1983).

#### **2.4.2. Determinants of Father Involvement**

Reviewed studies have indicated the importance of father involvement and how it affects children's development clearly. However, as mentioned in the studies there are some differences among fathers' involvement levels. The reasons of these differences have been investigated in detail, as well. According to Lamb, Pleck, Charnov and Levine (1985) there are five different factors that affect the level of involvement of fathers. The first one and the least emphasized one is biogenetic



factors in which Lamb et al. (1985) have discussed the effect of “ultimate (i.e. evolutionary)” or “proximal (i.e. hormonal)” factors (p.887). Since this factor is mostly related with biological bases of males and females, it is not pointed out here deeply. Other four factors include motivation, skills, social support and institutional factors. Motivation refers to the fathers’ wish to involve in children’s day-to-day caring. According to Lamb et. al (1985), all fathers do not desire to involve in their children’s caring or in the household labor as much as their wives. Of course there are some factors that affect fathers’ motivation to involve with their children. The first one is their attitudes toward gender-roles and the other one is their own fathers’ involvement level. Therefore, in this study the main emphasis is fathers’ relationship with their own fathers. Skill, on the other hand, refers to fathers’ perceived ability to relate with child care activities. According to Lamb et al. (1985), although both males and females have equal capacity in regards to caring a child, males are not exposed to such activities; therefore, they are perceived as less skillful in child related activities. However, Lamb et al. (1985) claimed that both male and female parents learn to care a child “on the job” (p. 889).

Other factor that affects the level of fathers’ involvement is social support. Lamb et al (1985) have claimed that “high paternal involvement is unlikely to occur and it is maintained unless significant others- mothers, relatives, friends, workmates- approve of this behavior.” (p. 889). LaRossa (1988) pointed out the fact that ideas about how a father should be and reality of fathering, i.e., what fathers do, are conflicted with each other. In other words, society can easily accept new versions of fatherhood in which fathers are defined as more involved with their children; however, fathers cannot change as rapidly as society’s expects. There are three different consequences of this situation.

Firstly, fathers become “technically present but functionally absent” in their children’s life (p.456). Secondly, due to the fact that society and mothers reinforce

new and more involved fathers , fathers and mothers of young children experience more conflict in sharing responsibility of rearing their children and marital conflicts increase; and lastly because of getting stuck between two conflicted fathering type, traditional and new expected modern and more involved fathering, fathers “feel ambivalent and guilty about their performance as fathers” (p.456), although they report that they are fathering their children as they should do. Also marital quality of couples, mothers’ employment status, their working hours, educational levels and some other characteristics such as their age and their own history with their fathers are all considered as issues that are related with the social support factor (Pleck, 1997). Last factor is called as “institutional factor” and it points out issues that are related with work conditions of fathers (Lamb et al., 1985). Fathers’ working hours, their opportunities to have parental leave, their occupational prestige, job satisfaction and work schedule are investigated under the topic of institutional factors that affects fathers involvement levels (Pleck, 1997).

There are a lot of empirical studies that have examined the effect of mentioned factors. Results consistently have indicated that father involvement level is influenced by these factors positively or negatively. In the next section, results of the empirical studies that are related with fathers’ involvement and its determinants will be reviewed in detail.

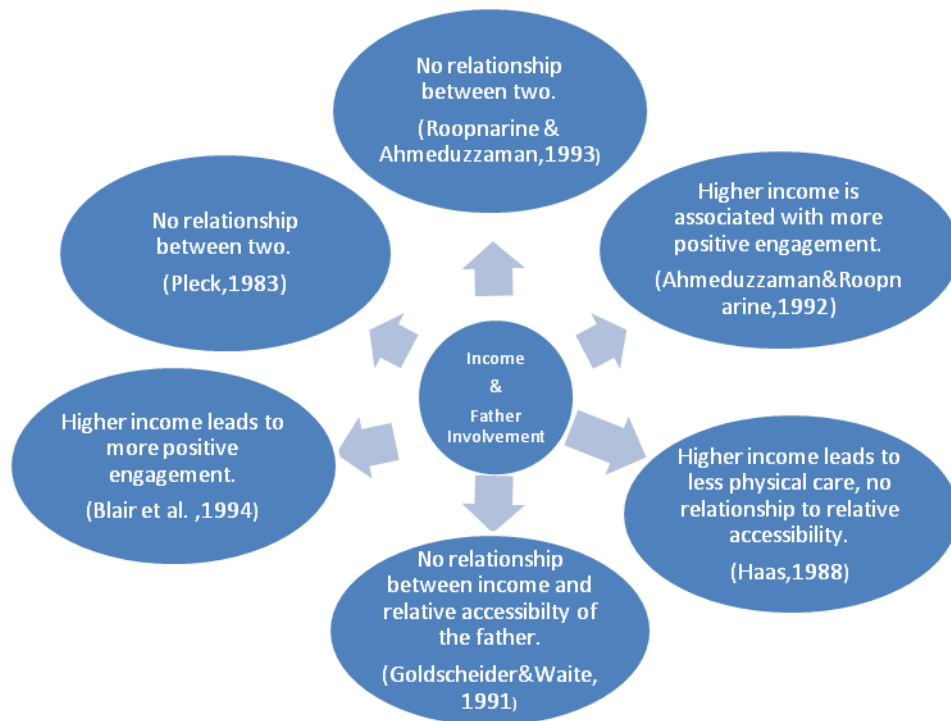
#### **2.4.2.1. Child Characteristics and Paternal Socio-demographic Characteristics**

##### **2.4.2.1.1. Fathers’ income level**

During the history of fatherhood, it is obviously seen that provider or breadwinner role of the father is more salient (LaRossa, 1988; Pleck, 1987; Rotundo, 1985). Therefore, how a father makes his family survive financially is very important. LaRossa & Reitzes (1993) studied with parent letters that were written between the years 1920s and 1930s, the period in which Great Depression had occurred in

America, and they compared father and mother involvement levels. Their study indicated the fact that during and after the period of depression, fathers involvement with their children “in physical (face to face) sense had decreased ... and these findings also clearly indicate that father involvement is affected by economical conditions than cultural changes in regards to father involvement ideals” (LaRosaa & Reitzes, 1993, p.465). During the Great Depression period, some fathers were not employed and some of them were underemployed. This led them to experience hopelessness, inwardness and anger; even some fathers abandoned their families totally. During this period, children whose father experienced these kinds of feelings and unemployment had negative feelings about their fathers. All of the results of Great Depression period indicated that the most important role of the father both for fathers themselves and also their children was provider role (Pleck, 1997). Fathers failure in providing role has been always seen as the sign of bad dad, though they are involved or not (Pleck & Pleck, 1997).

One of the results of a more salient provider role is uninvolved or less involved fathers. The more a father work to earn money, the less he involve with his child. Marks (1977) and LaRossa (1983) have supported this results, in their studies they have found that when fathers mostly committed on their provider or breadwinner role, they cannot find time for anything else, even interacting with their children,. Therefore, there are many studies which examined the relationship with fathers’ income level and their involvement levels. Results are not consistent with each other. In some studies higher income level has found to be related with higher involvement among fathers while some studies have not found any evidence to say that higher income level leads higher father involvement (Pleck, 1997). *Figure 2.1* summarizes studies in which researchers have looked for the relationship between father income level and their involvement level.



**Figure 2.1: Father Income Level and Father Involvement**

Source; Pleck, J. H. (1997). Paternal involvement: Levels, sources, consequences. In M. E. Lamb (Ed.), *The role of the father in child development* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed., pp. 66-103,325-332). New York: Willey.

In the present study it is expected that higher income level leads fathers to involve more with their children. Being economically advantaged may result in being more open to change, reaching more written materials, and even having higher levels of education. These opportunities that a person has make him/her to be more aware of current issues in child development.

In one study, middle-class parents are said to be more open to change in accordance with culture because of being most likely to read books and popular magazines about child-rearing (LaRossa & Reitzes, 1993). The knowledge that was gathered by fathers may lead them to involve more with their young children.

#### **2.4.2.1.2. Fathers' education**

Middle-class families have found to be involved in their children's schooling more than working class families. One reason for this result has been found those families' educational levels. Middle-class parents have higher educational levels, mostly college graduations whereas working class parents only graduated from high school or even dropout from high school. Therefore middle-class parents feel themselves as competent as their children's teacher whereas working class parents see themselves not competent as much as their children's teachers and they completely leave all responsibility for children's education to their teachers (Lareau, 1987). The same reason may reveal higher involvement levels among fathers who have higher education, while it reveals lower involvement levels among fathers who have lower educational level. Although in one study no difference has been found between fathers who have college degree and only high school graduation in terms of reading to their children (Marsiglio, 1991). There are some studies that indicated a relationship between educational levels and involvement levels of fathers. For instance, in their study Ahmeduzzaman and Roopnaire (1992) have found a significant relationship between fathers' involvement levels and their educational level. Fathers who have higher educational levels have been found to be more likely to involve with their preschool children (Ahmeduzzaman & Roopnaire, 1992). Other studies examined the relation between fathers' educational level and their involvement levels are listed below, in *Figure 2.2*.

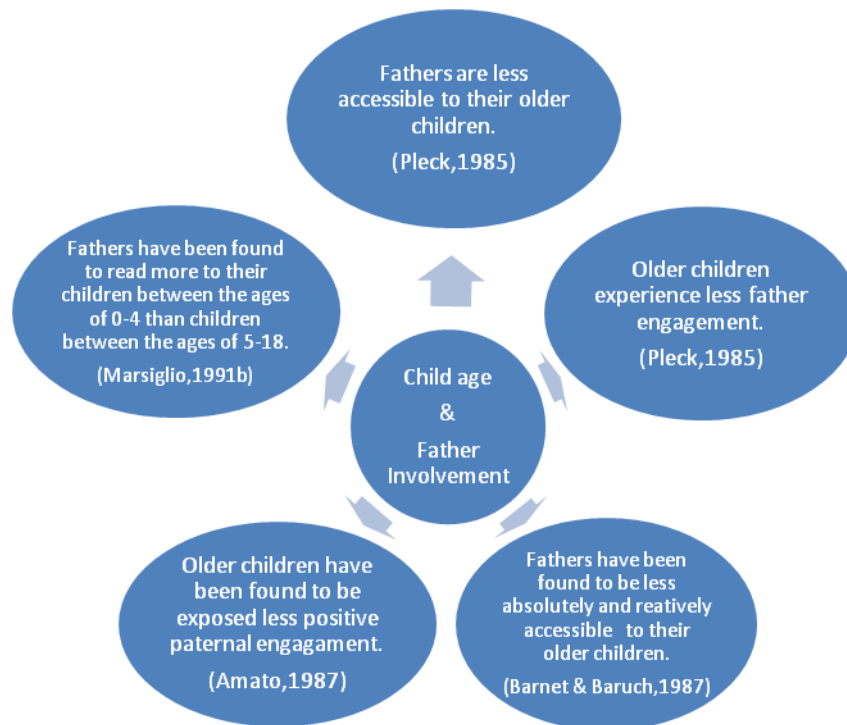


**Figure 2.2: Fathers’ educational Level and Father Involvement**

Source; Pleck, J. H. (1997). Paternal involvement: Levels, sources, consequences. In M. E.Lamb (Ed.), *The role of the father in child development* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed., pp. 66-103, 325-332). New York: Willey.

#### **2.4.2.1.3. Child Age**

The age of children has been found to be negatively related to fathers' involvement level. That is to say, when their children get older, fathers involvement decrease (Lamb, Pleck, Charnov, & Levine, 1986). Similarly, LaRossa and LaRossa (1981; as cited in Larossa, 1988) found that fathers were involved in activities more when their children were three-month old than the time when their children were six-months-old. Those fathers before having a baby had reported not to be an absent father, as well. Additionally, Brayfield (1995) found that fathers spent more time with their youngest children in the condition that their wives were not there. The percentage of fathers' level of availability decreased from 71% to 60% when their children's age got older (Brayfield, 1995). Pleck (1997) also suggested that the absolute levels of fathers' engagement and accessibility decreased when their children became adolescent. That is to say, fathers were more accessible and engageable to their young children rather than their adolescent children. Similarly, Radin and Goldsmith (1983) found that fathers' involvement level decreased when their children got older. Moreover, there are some studies in which the effect of child age on fathers' involvement was examined. *Figure 2.3* gives information about their results of those studies.



**Figure 2.3: Child age and father Involvement**

Source; Pleck, J. H. (1997). Paternal involvement: Levels, sources, consequences. In M.E.Lamb (Ed.), *The role of the father in child development* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed., pp.66-103,325-332). New York: Willey.

In addition to these studies more recent studies also found similar results. For instance Danziger and Radin (1990), Yeung et al. (2001), Bulanda (2004) pointed out the fact that higher father involvement was experienced when the child is younger and the level of involvement decreases with the increased age of the child.



Although majority of mentioned studies found a positive relationship between children's age and father involvement, there are some recent studies which have found negative relationship between these two. For instance, Volling and Belsky (1991) studied with fathers longitudinally. They gathered their data when the child is 3 months old and 9 months old. Results did not reveal any difference between this time periods in regards to fathers involvement. Furthermore, more recent study that was conducted by Coley and Morris (2002) indicated that child age as an insignificant predictor of the father involvement level.

#### **2.4.2.1.4.. Gender of the Child & Number of the Child**

It was found that U.S. fathers engaged with their sons more than their daughters (Pleck, 1997). According to Tasch (1952; as cited in Barnett & Baruch, 1987) fathers might set up a connection with male children easily because of sharing “a larger repertoire of commonly enjoyed and familiar activities” (p.30). In their study Barnett and Baruch (1987) found that fathers' of male children spent more time in one-to-one interaction with their children. It was found that male children's fathers engage in child-care tasks alone more than female children's fathers. Also Yeung, Sanberg, Davis-Kean, and Hofferth (2001) and Harris, Furstenberg, and Marmer (1998) found that male children experienced more father involvement than female children. On the other hand, some studies have concluded that there was not a significant difference between fathers involvement to their male or female children's lives (Coley & Morris, 2002; Marsiglio, 1991; Palkovitz, 1984; Rendina & Dickerscheid, 1976; Snarey, 1993)

Another issue that has been found to be related with involvement levels of fathers is the number of child that a father has. Peterson and Gerson (1992) found that male parents' responsibility in regards to child care increased when the number of children in the household increases. Similarly, in the study of Barnett and Baruch (1987) the number of children was found to be a predictor variable for fathers' solo interaction

time and proportional interaction time, especially when their wives were unemployed. Fathers who had more children spent more solo and proportional interacting time with his children (Barnett & Baruch, 1987).

#### **2.4.2.2. Institutional Factors**

##### **2.4.2.2.1 Working Hours of Father**

In addition to income level of fathers, their work conditions have been mentioned as effective in regards to fathers' involvement levels. Some studies found a significant relationship between fathers' work hours and their involvement level. For example, Marsiglio (1991) studied with 394 fathers who had children under five-year-olds and found that fathers who worked longer hours read to their children less than fathers who worked fewer hours. Similarly, another study that was conducted by Ishii-Kuntz and Coltrane (1992) mentioned that fathers' who spent longer hours in their jobs were less accessible to their children. The same result was found in Pleck's (1985; as cited in Pleck 1997) study, and he concluded that longer hours fathers spent in work led them to be less accessible to their child. Similarly, delayed fathers relationships with their children were found to be interdependent with their work conditions more than younger fathers' (Brain, 1993).

These results were grounded on delayed fathers' work conditions; presumably these fathers had higher careers and they had to work longer hours than young fathers. Consequently, this resulted in lower involvement with their children (Brain, 1993).

Another study that was conducted by Tanaka and Waldfogel (2007) indicated a significant relationship between fathers' work hours and their involvement in their 8-12 month-old babies caring activities. Tanaka and Waldfogel (2007) found that longer work hours led fathers to involve less with their babies than fathers who work shorter hours. Fathers working longer hours were "17% less likely to look after

the baby, 18% less likely to change diapers, 22% less likely to feed the baby, and 10% less likely to get up night” in order to meet their babies’ need (p. 420).

Moreover, Lewin- Epstein, Stier and Braun (2006) found that time that a father spent in work was negatively related with his time at home. In spite of these results, Pleck (1997, p.91) mentioned that the length of fathers’ working hours was found to be “significantly related” with their involvement level in majority of the studies. For example, in one study 45 African-American fathers’ socio-demographic characteristics and their involvement level were examined and it failed to find a significant relationship between fathers’ involvement level and their work hours (Ahmeduzzaman & Roopnarine, 1992). Moreover, Goldscheider and Waite (1991; as cited in Pleck, 1997) found no relationship between fathers work hours and their involvement levels. Due to these inconsistent results, the current study will also examine if there is a relationship between fathers’ work hours and their involvement level. It is hypothesized that fathers who work longer hours involve less than fathers who work fewer hours in their children’s caring.

### **2.4.2.3. Social Support Factor**

#### **2.4.2.3.1. Wives’ employment status and working hours**

One of the important elements that lead fathers to involve in their children’s caring is their wives’ occupational condition. In general, it has been found that male and female partners do not equally hold responsibilities about domestic issues. Most of the studies have indicated that females ‘take a greater responsibility for the care of children’ (Equal Opportunities Commission, 2006; Finley, Mira, & Schwartz, 2008). For instance, O’Connell (1993) found that only 23% of fathers whose wives were working outside the home were reported as the primary individuals who provided care for their children under the age of 5, by their wives. However, males’ involvement in domestic work increased with his wife’s employment condition.

Results of a study that was done in Sweden indicated that after their wives returned to full-time working, husbands began to involve fairly equally in domestic households (Thomas & Hildingsson, 2009). Another study that compared household labor division in German and Israeli found that in both culture women engaged in domestic work more than men, but increasing working hours led women to engage less in household work which also resulted in more male involvement in domestic works (Lewin- Epstein, Stier, Braun, 2006). Another study which was conducted in Turkey also revealed consistent results. According to this study mothers did more than fathers in child care (Erkal, Copur, Dogan, & Safak, 2007).

According to Barnett and Baruch (1987) one of the most important issues that led researchers to study fathers' involvement with their children was the increased number of working women, especially women with children, and their length of working hours. When mothers were employed and especially work long hours, responsibility was seen as a burden of both parents. A need for more involved father emerges and more involvement patterns were observed within fathers who had working wives (Peterson & Gerson, 1992; Pleck, 1997). Crouter, Perry-Jenkins, Huston and Mchale (1987) found that fathers in dual earner families involve more in child care than single- earner fathers. Similarly lots of studies revealed that when mothers' working hours increased, their husbands' level of involvement increased, as well (Brayfield, 1995; Volling & Belsky, 1991; Yeung, Sandberg, Davis-Kean & Hofferth, 2001;). Also, Barnett and Baruch (1987) found that fathers' total interaction time with their children was influenced by mothers' work hours whereas the solo time that a father and a child spent together was not influenced by mothers' work hours. In addition, they found that husbands of employed women engage in child-care tasks alone more than husbands of unemployed women. Therefore, they concluded that "the more hours the wife worked, the more time the father spent interacting with children..... the greater the father's proportion of interaction time relative to hers" (p.36). Another study found that mothers' long work hours led them to be less

responsible in terms of child-care arrangements. As a result their husbands' level of responsibility increased (Peterson & Gerson, 1992). Similarly in his longitudinal study Bailey (1994) have found that fathers' involvement in child-care activities positively associated with mothers' work hours as child was an infant and s/he gets older. Thomas and Hildingsson (2009) examined the effect of parental leave of mothers on the division of child-care responsibility among fathers and mothers, and they found that only when their wives began to work full-time, fathers shared "fairly equally in child-care" (p.147)

#### **2.4.2.3.2. Wives' education**

"Women have often encouraged a change in fathering, but men have been promoters of new ideals of fatherhood, as well." (Pleck & Pleck, 1997, p. 48) As widely known, education increases all peoples' conscious level. Mothers, who are highly educated, are expected to know about the importance of father involvement and therefore they are expected to encourage their husbands to involve more in their children's caring.

Also, education may change both males and females gender role attitudes and this can also affect mothers' educational attainments' effect on fathers' involvement. It was found that higher educated women had more egalitarian gender role attitudes when compared with lower educated women (Mason, Arber, & Czajka, 1976; Van Snippenburg, Voert, & Janssen, 1990; Tallichet & Willits, 1986; Thornton & Freedman, 1979).

Similarly, in their studies, Thornton, Alwin and Camburn (1983) found that women's educational attainment was highly correlated with their educational levels. Moreover, Morgan and Walker (1983) found that traditional sex-role attitudes were widely accepted by women who were less educated. Other studies, on the other hand, indicated that the more women hold egalitarian gender role attitudes, the more their husbands involved in household and child care (Maume, 2008). Similarly, Greenstein

(1996) reported that amount of males' contribution to household labor was shaped through both spouses gender ideologies.

Also gender role attitudes were related with women's perception about the fairness of division of labor house including child care ( Blair & Johnson, 1992). In a study it was found that women who had less traditional gender role attitudes was satisfied with the division of domestic labor between her and her husband less than women who had more traditional gender role attitudes (Blair & Johnson, 1992).

Few studies found a relation between higher education of women and higher levels of father involvement (Pleck, 1997), but education increases the consciousness of women about the importance of father involvement and it shifts gender role attitude of women from traditional view to more egalitarian view. In this study it is hypothesized that fathers' who have higher educated wives involve more in his children's caring.

#### **2.4.2.3.3.. The Quality of Marital Relationship**

Despite conflicting results, majority of the studies indicated a positive relationship between marital satisfaction and father involvement level. Harris and Morgan (1991), Deutsch, Lussier, and Servis (1993), McBride and Mills (1993), Woodworth, Belsky, and Crnic (1996), Grych and Clark (1999) and some other longitudinal studies found no relationship between father involvement and marital satisfaction. However, in the contrary majority of longitudinal studies found negative relationship between these two.

In their longitudinal study Belsky et al. (1989) studied with 173 couple and they found that how a male partner satisfy with his marriage affected his involvement level to his children's lives. Males who experienced more satisfaction in his marriage involved more to their children's lives. Later longitudinal studies also supported this

results and found positive relationship between marital satisfaction and paternal involvement (Cowan & Cowan, 1987; Feldman, Nash, & Aschenbenner, 1983; Levy-Shiff & Israelashvili, 1988; NICHD Early Child Care Research Network, 2000; Nugent, 1991; Volling & Belsky, 1991). Same results have been found from cross-sectional studies.

In their cross-sectional studies, also, Boney, Kelley and Levant (1999), King (2003) and also Blair et al. (1994) found that higher marital satisfaction led to higher father involvement. More recently Lee and Doherty (2007) found that fathers' marital satisfaction was positively related with their involvement level through a longitudinal study. That is to say, the higher the father perceives his marital relationship, the higher the father involves with his children. In this study marital satisfaction is considered as perceived spouse support which is measured by Spouse Support Scale (SSS) developed by İbrahim Yıldırım.

#### **2.4.2.4. Age Related Motivational Factors**

##### **2.4.2.4.1. Fathers' Age**

The effect of fathers' age on their involvement levels with their children is speculative. There are some conflicted results. For example, Marsiglio (1991) did not find any significant relationship between age of the father and his paternal involvement with his preschool and school-aged children. Similarly, Ahmeduzzaman and Roopnaire (1993) failed to find a significant relationship between fathers' involvement levels and their ages. However, Radin and Goldsmith (1983) found that older fathers involved with their children more than their younger counterparts.

The older fathers may be more traditional when compared with younger ones and they are affected less than young fathers by social changes in regards to father

involvement. The current study hypothesizes that younger fathers in Turkey involve more than older fathers with their children.

#### **2.4.2.4.2. Timing of Being Father**

According to Daniels and Weingarten (1982; as cited in Cooney, Pedersen, Indelicato & Palkovitz, 1993) males who became father in their older ages backed mouth things that were related with their jobs and they had the opportunity to commit their paternal and family roles if they wanted. Similarly, Cooney et al. (1993) claimed that males who were at their 30s, most probably, had solved problems that were related with their jobs, career or provider role. Therefore, they might be more active in their paternal behaviors. According to Cooney et al. (1993) the number of the studies that examined the effect of the age of being father was very limited and most of them indicated a positive relationship between paternal involvement and being father at older ages. In their study in which 307 males participated, males who became father between the ages of 17 and 23 were called “Early father”; the males who became father between the ages of 30 and 40 were called “Late Fathers” and the males who became father between the ages of 24 and 29 were called “On-time Fathers” (p.208). Results of this study firstly indicated that educational level, duration of marriage, age of wife, education of wife rose with age. Late fathers were found to have higher educational level, longer marriages, older and more educated wives than on-time fathers. Moreover, on-time fathers do so than early fathers. On the other hand, on-time fathers and early fathers gathered “significantly higher scores on the depression scale” (pp.209-210). Lastly, a significant difference in terms of involvement rate was found between early and on-time fathers and late fathers. In other words, late fathers involve more with their children than early and on-time fathers.

Similarly, according to Brain (1993) males who became father after their 30 years old became more independent from their relatives and traditional view of child development. They had more complex attitudes about child development and they



had less traditional point of view about child development than younger fathers. According to Brain (1993) delayed fathers engaged in more cognitively arousing activities, they engaged in verbal exchanging activities and less psychically stimulating their children while younger fathers engaged more in physical arousal while playing their children and used less verbal exchanges. Older fathers' verbal style increased the chance of children stimulating cognitively while playing with their fathers and in the future this may lead children to be more successful at the school whereas, younger fathers' children have the opportunity to learn about necessary social skills for playing and interacting with peers as a result of their fathers affective arousal during play (Brain, 1993). However, he did not find any difference in terms of the perception of breadwinner roles of young and delayed fathers.

#### **2.4.2.4.3. Fathers' Relationship with Their Own Fathers**

According to Bandura's social learning theory, individuals do not depend solely on direct interaction or active participation to learn new things rather they can choose another way in which they learn through observation and modeling others ( Berk, 2006).

Another theory that emphasizes parents' importance for their children's personality development is Freud's Psychoanalytic Theory. In his theory, he pointed out that children learn about social and gender roles from their parents through identification (Berk, 2006). According to Freud's theory, there are four developmental stages and there are some critical periods experienced by the child. Oedipus and Electra complexes that were experienced by girls and boys, respectively, are very important terms of Freudian theory (Morrison, 1998). During this process sons who feel love to his mother identifies with his father to take his mothers' attention while daughters who feel love to her father identifies with her mother to take attention of her father (Berk, 2006). Through identification, sons consciously or unconsciously imitate their fathers whereas daughters imitate their mothers. During identification process, a

parent becomes “an embodiment of what the child would like to be” and child begins to strive to be like his father or her mother (Berson, 1968, p. 169). For instance, a son who is in the process of identifying with his father, imitate his fathers’ behaviors; he begins to respect and concern for his father, acquires an ability to predict his father’s actions and reactions subconsciously and lastly induced imitative behaviors became a way of feeling good for the child and identification becomes a process which is intrinsically rewarded (Berson, 1968). As a result of identification process each person “carries his parents around inside” (Berson, 1968, p. 169). Briefly, Freudian Psychoanalytic Theory as Bandura’s Social Learning Theory, supports the claim that fathers as role model affect their children’s, particularly, their sons personalities and their own way of fathering.

According to Benson (1968) fathers are masculine role models for their children. Both sons and daughters learn about masculinity, male gender roles particularly from their fathers. Although fathers are important for their children regardless of their gender, their importance for their sons is a bit different from its importance for female children, because through modeling sons not only learn about masculinity or gender roles but also they learn “how to be a father in another family” ( Benson, 1968, p. 169 ). Similarly, Ahlberg and Sandnabba (1998) mentioned that fathers are important role models for their children, especially for their sons in order to decide their own way of parenting. According to Chadorov (1978), who have psychoanalytic point of view, fathers are gender role models for their children and they affect their children’s parenting capacity; and if children experience fatherlessness or motherlessness their future parenting capacity would reduced. Lastly, Chodorow (1978) claimed that the reason of reduced parenting capacity of males is their fatherlessness. That is to say, male children are mothered more than they have been fathered. In general, Psychoanalytic Approach claims that male individuals have difficulties when they are trying to commit their fathering role, because they do not have appropriate role models (Daly, 1993). Moreover, research indicated that

fatherless boys had problems about their sex-role development and establishing their gender identity. On the other hand, these kinds of problems were not found among boys who grew up with their father (Adams, Milner, & Schrepf, 1984; as cited in Daly, 1993). Studies interested in the effects of type of being fathered to being a father found similar results, as well.

Sagi (1982; as cited in Blendis, 1982) studied with fathers in order to understand their fathers' effect on their own fathering behaviors and he proposed two different hypotheses at this point. One of them claimed that some fathers modeled their own fathers' high or low involvement while involving with their own children. For instance, if a male had a father who was highly involved with him, he might model his fathers' way and involved highly in his own children's care. On the contrary, another male who had lower involved father modeled his own father and involved less with his child. The other hypotheses, on the other hand, claimed that males might "compensate for their fathers' lack of involvement" and it was assumed that compensation would only occur if the fathers' involvement level was low. (Pleck, 1997, p.80).

Blendis, in 1982, tested the hypotheses of Sagi (1982). He studied with 60 fathers in two different groups. In the first group there were 30 fathers, those fathers were asked a superficial question about their relationship with their own fathers, and more than half of the group said that they had negative relationship with their fathers, and there was no warmth or closeness. Seven male reported that they had warm relationship with their fathers, "but with reservation" (p.201). Although those males felt that they had warm relationship, they, on the other hand, thought that their relationship was not warm as it should have been. Only three male responded this question in a positive way and uttered that they had really warm relationship with their fathers and they felt close to him.

In the second group there were again 30 fathers and they both filled Bem's sex- role inventory and were asked more detailed questions about their relationships with their fathers and mothers, as well and some demographical information about themselves and their parents were gathered. As a result, only seven men were found to have "close intimate relationships suggestive of involvement in caretaking, such as telling stories or romping" (p.203). Majority of those males in the second group saw their fathers as peripheral member of the family, lots of the respondents reported that their fathers were the symbol of power in the home, hence they feared from their fathers. Some men in this group identified their fathers as people who should have been respected because of their morality aspect. Ten of those 30 males mentioned that they mainly shared sport activities with their fathers; this could probably be a result of the fact that the sport was considered as masculine activity and those fathers who engaged mostly in sport activities might try to encourage their children to model them (Blendis, 1982).

Another area, in which fathers reported that their fathers were highly involved, was their school work. Most of the males in this study indicated that their fathers were really interested in their school works, homework and reading to them. Their fathers' higher involvement in their academic life was reported as beneficial by some male participant. However, some of those participants reported that the results of their fathers' higher involvement in their school work were not positive because of not being able to correspond to their fathers' expectations (Blendis, 1982).

Masculinity is another manner in which fathers have been effective on their sons. It has ben postulated that female and male children initially adopt their behaviors to "feminine-maternal ways", but then boys' cognitive maps begin to include a male role during the ages of three or four, and they adopt their behaviors to this male sex- role (Sears, Rau, & Alpert, 1966; as cited in Blendis, 1982). However, in order to accept their fathers as role models, male children need to perceive their relationship

with their fathers as a good, involved and warmth one (Mussen & Rutherford,1963; Payne and Mussen,1956; as cited in Blendis, 1982). In his study Blendis (1982) found similar results, fathers evaluated their fathers as strong stereotypes in terms of masculinity. Most of the participants, even those who had warmth relationship with their fathers, reported that their fathers as a person who were not affectionate emotionally, which was seen as masculine feature. They reported that they knew that their fathers loved them but they could not indicate this love to his children.

As a result Blendis (1982) supported the Sagi's hypotheses and he found that fathers who had distant and cold relationship with their fathers saw themselves very different from him and reported more involvement with their own children. Also, there were males who saw their fathers and themselves very similar, and these males reported their father as highly involved, warm and nurturing parent. However, in this study, how participants perceive their mothers' parenting was assessed, as well. These two group of fathers reported nurturing, warm and close relationship with their mothers. Therefore, Blendis (1982) claimed that fathers who reported cold relationship with his father but warm relationship with his mother might model their mothers rather than compensating their fathers.

Sagi's hypotheses were confirmed by Radin and Goldsmith (1983), as well. They found that fathers, who reported positive relationships with their own fathers, involve more with their children both when their children were preschooler and also when they came to school age. According to Radin and Goldsmith (1983) "modeling paradigm appeared to be operative ..... they (fathers) were replicating, to some extent, the behaviors observed in their family of origin" (p.16).

Later, Lewis (1984) studied with fathers in order to understand their fathers' effect on his participants fathering behaviors and he, also, found the same results. In his study, majority of the fathers reported that they involved more than their own fathers with their children. 42 of 100 participant reported that their fathers were only a playmate

for them and he did not involve in their daily caring, 35 of them reported their fathers as a parent who indicated no interest or he was only involved in special occasions with them, and only 14 participants remembered that their fathers were involved with them. However, 73 of 100 fathers reported that they involved at least one child care activities such as feeding or bathing their child, although their fathers did not do so. In this study, 54% of fathers reported that they were more child-centered than their own fathers. This result may be interpreted as an evidence for Sagi's hypothesis. Reports of fathers indicated that they are doing more in child care activities than their fathers. Namely, majority of them compensate their fathers' lack of involvement whereas few of them who receive nurturing care from their fathers model him and involve his child's caring as his own father.

Nine years later, Daly (1993) studied with fathers in order to learn how they establish their fathering role and he found that fathers experienced difficulties while identifying their role model in terms of fathering. Their responses indicated that they did not have appropriate and good role model; they saw their own fathers as bad role model and claimed that their father taught them how a father should not be. Additionally, fathers' responses revealed that they involved in the caring of children more than their own fathers and they dedicated this situation to the changes of society's expectations. Their own fathers were expected to be a good breadwinner and work a lot while they were expected to involve more in their children's caring.

Men in this study reported that they were "strongly influenced by the role of their fathers as instrumental ambassadors of the outside world" (p.521); some of those men clearly reported that their father did not care about if his child liked him or not, he only wanted them to respect him and exhibited authoritarian fathering. Very few fathers stated that their own father was a good role model and reported that they were trying to imitate their own fathers while interacting with their children. Because of not experiencing with appropriate role models before being a father, feeling prepared

to be father, evaluating their decisions about or behaviors toward their children as good or not was the most difficult issue for fathers, according to Daly (1993). Although fathers agreed with this difficulty, they reported that they involve more than their fathers. Depending on these results, Daly concluded that fathers might use multiple sources rather than only modeling or compensating their fathers as Sagi (1982, as cited in Blendis, 1982) hypothesized or being affected from their nurturing, warm mothers as Blendis (1982) hypothesized.

Although there are different hypotheses in regards to how fathers construct their fathering behaviors, for example via modeling their nurturing mothers or modeling multiple sources, Sagi's hypotheses are still seem to be most effective one. Most of studies that examined fathers' influence on their sons' fathering behaviors found that fathers were affected from their own fathers in terms of fathering their own children.

For instance, Ahlberg and Sandnabba (1998) studied with ninety-four father who had five years old children and concluded that paternal care that those men experienced with their own father significantly affected their paternal nurturance. Another study, similarly, indicated that fathers, who held negative attitudes toward the quality of their relationship with their own fathers while they were young, spent more time with their children in one-to-one and proportional interaction (Barnett & Baruch, 1987). Results of Flouri and Buchanan's (2002) study indicated that fathers who were affectionate and close in their relationships with their sons led their adult sons to be good fathers and involve more with their children. These males' sons also perceived their fathers as affectionate and close.

Though modeling or compensating hypotheses seems very strong, according to Pleck (1997) there is a need for better theoretical background. He suggested that fathers' affective evaluations about their relationships with their own fathers can be a "key

moderator: The son models his father's level of involvement when the son's affective response to it is positive but compensates for it when his response is negative" (p.81).

Thus, in this study, through using Fatherhood Scale (FS) how fathers perceive their relationships with their own fathers and their own involvement level will be examined. It is hypothesized that fathers who perceive their fathers as highly involved and nurturing, reports higher levels of involvement with their own children than fathers who perceive their fathers as less involved and less nurturing.

### **2.5. Fatherhood and Father Involvement Research in Turkey**

As mentioned above fatherhood studies began to take attention of researchers only few decades ago. This situation is, unfortunately, valid for Turkey, as well. The reason for this may be the patriarchal characteristics of Turkish culture. Since in a patriarchal culture fathers are mainly seen as the breadwinner of the family, disciplinarian for their children and authority figure of the family (Ivrendi & Isikoğlu, 2010) and woman "bear most of the burden of household responsibilities" (Doğruöz & Rogow, 2009) it is not unexpected to underestimate fathers' significance in their children's lives. However, this situation began to change slowly because of increased number of women engaging in labor force, changing gender norms (Berker, Doğruöz & Rogow, 2009) and changing family dynamics and family roles (Kağıtçıbaşı & Ataca, 2005).

Although recent years faced with a decreased in women entrance to labor force because of Economical Depression experienced in 2001 (Berber & Yılmaz-Eser, 2008; Gürol, 2007; State Planning Organization, 2009) the number of women who work out of the home has increased between the years of 1955 and 2000 in Turkey. The number of women who engage in labor force was increased from 5.261.709 to 10.164.540 between the years of 1955 and 2000 (Berber & Yılmaz-Esen, 2008). Increased number of working women created a change in family life along with



urbanization and industrialization. According to Kağıtçıbaşı and Ataca (2005) in last three decades because of urbanization some important changes was observed in society. Urban population was 36 % in the early 1970s while it became 65 % in 2005. Also, similar changes observed in industrialization and levels of education (Kağıtçıbaşı & Ataca, 2005). For instance, female literacy rate increased from 72 % to 82 % between the years of 1996 and 2006 (Zahir, 2006). All of these changes lead family dynamics to change, as well. For instance, according to Kağıtçıbaşı and Ataca (2005), family type, the value that is given to children, family's preferences about child gender changed dramatically among three decades. They found that over the last three decades economic/utilitarian values given to children which refers to "children's material benefits both while they are young and also when they grow up to be adults" decreased and psychological value -"psychological benefits of having children such as the joy, fun, companionship, pride, and the sense of accomplishment parents gain from having children"- given to them increased through three decades (p. 318). Again in the same study it has been found that in 1975 75 % of mothers preferred to have a son while in 2003 only 25 % of mothers prefer to have a daughter. This result was speculated as a clue for decreasing in patriarchal characteristics of the Turkey, because son preference, according to Kağıtçıbaşı and Ataca (2005), "goes hand in hand with patriarchal family pattern" (p. 334).

In the light of these changes that are related with social norms, perceptions about gender roles and family types have led researchers and national governmental organizations to emphasize fathers. In 1996, Mother Child Education Foundation (AÇEV) organized a "Father Support Program". It was found that this program influenced fathers' involvement into their children's lives positively. The positive effect of father education programs on fathers' involvement level was supported by a lot of research (Aydın, 2003; Şahin, 1998; Taşkın & Erkan, 2009). Later, a few researchers were particularly interested in father involvement level. For example, Evans (1997) examined Turkish fathers' attitudes towards their fathering role and

their actual involvement patterns. She studied with fathers who have low socio-economic status and found that these fathers saw physical caregiving as the mothers' job. According to these fathers their most important role is providing for their family and indicating love and affection to their children. According to Evans (1997) these fathers hold highly traditional attitudes about fathers' role. When fathers' actual involvement was examined according to Lamb's conceptualization, it was found that fathers were available mainly in meal times and they had low levels of engagement to their children's lives. Additionally, Evans (1997) examined the effects of child gender and mothers' employment status on these low SES fathers. Child gender was not found as an influential factor on both attitudes and actual involvement levels of fathers and mother employment status was found as influential factor for fathers' attitudes but fathers' actual involvement level was not associated with their wives' employment status.

Later, Oğüt (1998) have examined upper and middle SES fathers' intensity of engagement and share responsibility. Similarly with Evans (1997), Oğüt (1998) also examined the effect of child age and gender and mothers' employment status and on fathers' intensity of engagement and sharing responsibility. She studied with 80 fathers' of children between the ages of 3.5 and 6.5. Fathers reported that they share child-care responsibility with their wives, they mostly share responsibility about long-term decisions about the child and they "displayed lowest amount of sharing responsibility for items related to basic care of the child" (p.105). Gender and age of the child along with mothers' employment status yielded significant difference in terms of fathers' involvement level. When intensity of engagement was considered, it was found that fathers frequently engaged with their children and least frequent engagement occurred in activities related with routine care of the child and the most frequent engagement of fathers was found to be related with special care of the child particularly "when the child is sick, cries at night, falls down or wets his pants" (Oğüt, 1998, p. 114). For some activities engagement levels of fathers was found to

be effected by child's gender and child's age, but not mothers' employment status. In addition to these two studies few studies examined the fathers' attitudes towards their fathering role (Seçer, Çeliköz & Yaşa, 2007); views about fathers' involvement into their children's play (Ivrendi & Işikoğlu, 2010).

As can be seen there is a very limited research about father involvement in Turkey. Mentioned studies mainly included fathers of children between the ages of three to six. Also, one of the main factors which was consistently found influential for fathers' involvement level, fathers' relationship with their own fathers, was not considered by those studies. Also previous studies did not consider the generational difference in father involvement level. Therefore, this study aims to fill this gap in Turkish literature and tries to understand generational differences in fathers' involvement level by examining fathers' as well as their own fathers' involvement level and through looking the effect of fathers' own fathers' involvement level on their own involvement into their children's lives. Another difference of this study is related with ages of children whose fathers were included in the study. In Turkey early childhood period was considered as the period between the ages of zero to six (Göçer, 2006; Ölçer, 2004; Özdemir, Bacanlı, Sözer, 2007), but international criteria includes children between the ages of 0-8 (Maggi, Irwin, Siddiqi, Poureslami, Hertzman, & Hertzman, 2005). Therefore, in this study, early childhood period referred to a period between the ages of zero and eight. Since previous studies indicated that during infancy period children mainly depend on mothers and during adolescent children frequently experience relationship between their peers, teachers and people around them rather than family members, fathers' involvement become more salient for preschoolers (Pleck, 1997), in this study fathers of children between the ages of 0-8 are included. Next chapter contains detailed information about participants, and the ways how participants were reached for the study.

## 2.6. Summary

The main points of this chapter can be reviewed as:

- It should be noted again that there is not a stable and strict definition of family. Each institution in a society can define the term family differently and each definition focuses on a different function of the family.
- Most of the research indicated that family and relationships among family members affect children's all developmental areas. Hence, majority of these research mainly gathered their data from mother-child dyads or they mainly emphasized on mothers' effect in behalf of the family.
- Since the number of mothers who work out-of-the home increased and females began to share breadwinner role of their husbands, researchers' attention shifted to fathers and their involvement types as well as the effect of paternal involvement and its determinants.
- "Determinants of Father Involvement" (Lamb et al., 1985) were identified as age related factors, social support and institutional factors.
- Additionally studies that were conducted to investigate the relationship between child age, child gender and paternal income and father involvement level were also reviewed in this chapter.
- Lastly fatherhood and father involvement research that were conducted in Turkey were reviewed.

## CHAPTER 3

### METHODOLOGY

The main aim of the current study is to examine the effect of fathers' relationship with their own fathers on their involvement level in child care activities when their children are at the ages of 0 to 8, in Turkey. Also, the possible effects of age related motivational factors (fathers' age, age of being father), social support (wives' employment status and employment hours, and perceived spouse support), institutional factors (fathers' work hours), child characteristics (child age, child gender) and some socio-demographical characteristics of fathers (fathers' income level) were also investigated during the study. Therefore, there are three main research questions of this study, and they are given below;

*R.Q.1. What is the general pattern of fathers' and their own fathers' involvement level in their children's lives?*

*R.Q.2. Do fathers' relationships with their own father affect their involvement level in their 0-8 year old children?*

*R.Q.3. What are the possible effects of age related motivational factors, social support, institutional factors as well as child characteristics and paternal income level on fathers' involvement level to their 0-8 eight years old children?*

The present study tries to understand the nature of father involvement and determinants of it in Turkey. There is almost no study which is specifically interested

in general and national trend of father involvement in this country. Few researchers looked for the effect of some educational programs that were prepared for specifically fathers to increase their involvement in their children's lives (Aydın, 2003; Şahin, 1998).

For instance, Şahin (1998) and Aydın (2003) prepared an educational program for fathers and examined its effect on fathers' involvement levels. Both studies revealed consistent results and they have found that educational programs affected fathers' involvement levels positively. That is to say, fathers' involvement level in child care activities increased as a result of educational programs that were prepared for fathers specifically. Another study that was conducted by Secer, Celikoz, and Yasa (2007) examined some characteristics of fathers whose children were attending to early childhood education centers, and their attitudes toward fatherhood role. However, there is not almost any specific study which aims to understand general trend among fathers in regards to their involvement level in child care activities and its determinants. Therefore, this study aims to understand how fathers involve in their 0-8 years old children's caring, and it is aimed to investigate mainly the effect of fathers' relationship with their own fathers and some other demographical characteristics on their involvement level.

By using quantitative method, this study provide information about general pattern of Turkish fathers' involvement to their 0-8 years old children's lives, some possible predictors of their involvement level and the effect of their own fathers' involvement level on their own involvement level.

## **3.2. Population and Subjects**

### **3.2.1. Major Characteristics of the Target and Accessible Population**

According to West (2007) there are four main challenges in regards to methodology of studying fathers. The first one is related with the researchers' definition of father. In order to decide target and accessible population of the study, initially the definition of the term "father" for the current study was clarified.

West (2007) has mentioned that initially a researcher should decide "who to include and not to include as fathers" (p.230). As mentioned in the second chapter, today there are different kinds of families in which there are father figures such as grandfathers or there are step-fathers who are not biological father of the child or families that do not include any father ("What is Family?", n.d.). Due to this variety in family types, how fathers are defined as participant of the study is very important. Tamis-LeMonda and Cebrera (1999) have mentioned that a father can be social, biological, legal or non-legal. A social father refers to a male family member who serves the father role to the child of the family in spite of being the biological father of that child. Grandfathers, mothers' male partners or step fathers can be categorized as social fathers (Tamis-LeMonda & Cebrera, 1999). On the other hand, biological father is the person who becomes father "through either paternity establishment or self-report that identifies a child as his own" (Tamis-LeMonda & Cebrera, 1999, p. 2). Residency status of fathers is another issue that should be considered while choosing a sample among fathers (West, 2007). Residency status of fathers is important because with the increase of divorce rate, there are a lot of father-child dyads who reside different homes. For example, in U.S.A 38% of school-age children and 23% of children under the age of 18 were reported to live apart from their biological fathers (West, 2007). A similar situation is valid for Turkish children.

According to Turkish Statistics Association (2010) a number of families that experience divorce increased from 94.219 to 99.663 between the years of 2007 and 2008. That is, only in one year 5.444 couples have divorced. Again same statistics indicate that only 3.9% of those divorces have occurred during the first year of the marriage, 37.4 % of them have occurred during the first five years; 21, 4 % of them have occurred between the 6<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> year of marriage, 13.9 % of them have occurred between the 11<sup>th</sup> and 15<sup>th</sup> years of marriage and 23.1 % of marriages have resulted in divorce during or after its 16<sup>th</sup> year (Family Structure Survey, 2006). Also same statistics indicate that 86.4 % of first marriages of males and females occur between the ages of 18 and 29 and 69 % of children has born from women who are between the ages of 15 and 29 in 2008 (Family Structure Survey, 2006). These results make it easy to say that most of the families that have experienced divorce include at least one child and these children of divorced families experience some level of fatherlessness. However, dual-parent families are dominant in Turkey, in which there is a biological father; biological mother and at least one child reside at the same home all together. Therefore, the term father is defined as a biological-resident father who lives at the same house with his wife and biological children in this study and data have been collected from those biological-resident fathers.

The target population of the study includes all biological-resident fathers who have children under the age of 8 in Ankara. However, it is impossible to reach all fathers in the country and the accessible population has been defined as biological-resident fathers with at least one child between the ages of 0-8 who live in differet districts of Ankara. Unfortunately, all fathers who reside in Ankara and meet the criteria to be included in the study could not be reached. Convenience sampling in which “a group of individuals who (conveniently) are available for study” was used to reach biological-resident fathers who have children between the ages of 0-8 (Frankel & Wallen, 2006, p. 100). West (2007) has mentioned that the second most important challenge is related with identifying fathers. Generally, researchers who want to study



with fathers firstly reach mothers and through them they try to recruit fathers (West, 2007). Similarly, the current studies have used mothers as people who helped researcher to reach their husbands. Additionally to mothers, kindergarten or elementary school teachers are requested to send scales to their students' fathers. Schools were contacted through personal communication and schools of which administrators accepted to be involved in the study were included in the study.

According to West (2007) although fathers seem to be interested in engaging studies that are related with their family especially about their spouse and children, most of time their respond rate is very low. Same situation is experienced in the current study, as well. At the end, approximately 1500 scales have distributed to fathers through familiar people and kindergarten/elementary schools who were contacted personally- therefore the ethical issues of this study mainly depend on personal contact and consent form-. However, only 528 of them were returned. In order to increase response rate people who helped to reach fathers were informed about the importance of reaching more fathers. Therefore a detailed text was added to consent form to encourage more fathers to participate to the study. However, response rate is approximately 35.2 %.

As a result, the sample of the study includes 528 biological-resident fathers who live in different districts of Ankara (Major characteristics of them are given in Table 1). These fathers have filled posted scales in their home environment and left them to the school. Researcher collected them back from school after two weeks from distribution. This process lasts totally 3 months.

**Table 1: Major characteristics of participants in Percentages**

<b>Fathers' Age</b>	Ranges from 22 to 55 <i>M</i> =35.68	
<b>Fathers' Age of Being Father</b>	Ranges from 17 to 53 <i>M</i> = 27, 32	
<b>Fathers' Income</b>	< 500,	N=27 (5.7 %)
	500-1000 TL,	N=149 (29.3 %)
	1000-1500 TL,	N=132 (26 %)
	1500-2000 TL,	N=93 (18.3 %)
	2000-3000 TL,	N=55 (10.8 %)
	3000 TL or more,	N=50 (9.8 %)
<b>Fathers' Education</b>	Primary School,	N=63 (12.2%)
	Elementary School,	N=76 (14.7%)
	High School,	N= 185 (35.9%)
	2 Year University,	N=45 (8.7%)
	4 Year University,	N=112 (21, 7%)
	Ms/ Doctorate,	N=35 (6.8 %)
<b>Mother Employment Status</b>	Hausewife,	N=291 (60.4%)
	Working,	N=191 (39.6%)
<b>Mother s' Work Hours</b>	Ranges from 0 to 15 <i>M</i> =4.66	
<b>Fathers' Work Hours</b>	Ranged from 0 to 26 <i>M</i> =10.03	
<b>Child age</b>	Ranges from 0 to 8 <i>M</i> = 4.61	
<b>Number of the Child in the Family</b>	One Child,	N=182 (% 34.7)
	Two Children,	N=265 (% 50.6)
	More than Three,	N=77 (% 14.7)
<b>Child Gender</b>	Male,	N=287, ( %55.3)
	Female,	N=232,( %44.7)

### **3.3. Data Collection Instruments**

According to West (2007), the fourth challenge is measuring fathers' involvement. It is important to decide which party of the family was used to measure father involvement. Generally data about fathers' involvement was recruited from the mothers of the children (Hawkins et. al., 2000); therefore some areas of father involvement such as fathers' feelings about their fathering or their attitudes toward their fathering role could not be measured and the validity of information that was gathered from mothers became problematic (West, 2007). Also to understand about fathers' involvement some scales that were developed and used to understand mother involvement were distributed to fathers (Hawkins et al., 2007). To overcome this situation, during the current study two father involvement scales have been translated into Turkish and their adaptations were done after needed permissions were obtained from the developer of the scales through e-mails.

One of these scales was "Fatherhood Scale". It was developed by Dick in 2004. The aim of this scale was to be able to gain information about how individuals perceive their relationship with their own fathers retrospectively. The second scale that was also translated into and adapted to Turkish was called "Inventory of Father Involvement". This scale was developed by Hawkins, Palkovitz, Bradford, Christiansen, Day and Call (2002) to learn fathers' perceptions about their own involvement. More detailed information about these scales was provided in following parts. All information that was gathered through these scales was obtained from fathers themselves.

Additional two questionnaires were used in the current study. The first one of them is demographical information form. This form was developed by the researcher in order to gather needed information about fathers such as age of father, working hours of fathers and mother, spouses' working conditions, child age and gender, marital

condition. Appendix B includes Demographic Information Form. This form was requested to be filled by fathers themselves. The second one is Suppose Support Scale and detailed information about this scale is given in the following paragraph.

### **3.4.2. Suppose Support Scale**

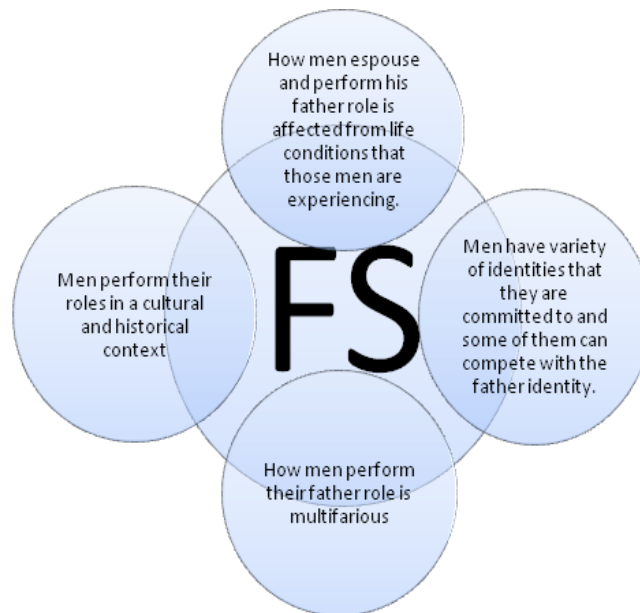
This scale was developed by Yildirim (2004) in Turkish culture. Its initial aim is measure one of the most important social supports, suppose support. This scale is a 3 likert-type scale which has 27 items (two reverse items). It has four sub-scales, however Yildirim suggested that higher score gathered from this scale indicate higher perceived suppose support. That is to say, total score of this scale can be used. The Cronbach's Alpha level of the scale is  $\alpha=.95$  and the reliability coefficient of test-retest is .89. After necessary permissions were gathered from Yildirim, 3 likert Type Scale (1= Appropriate to me, 2=I am not sure, 3= Inappropriate to me) was modified to a 5 Likert Type Scale (1=Never, 2=rarely,3=sometimes, 4=frequently, 5=everytime). A reliability analysis conducted with this new modified form and Cronbach's Alpha Value was found .88 for the current sample.

### **3.4.3. Fatherhood Scale**

#### **3.4.3.1. The Original Fatherhood Scale**

The original Fatherhood Scale was developed by Gary Dick (2000) in order to “assess the type of paternal relationship male adults had with their fathers during their formative years” (p. 80). According to Dick (2004) Fatherhood Scale (FS) is useful to measure different kinds of father involvement, fathers' roles that they engage in, “the degree to which the behaviors occurred”, and how individuals perceive the quality of their relationships with their fathers (p. 80). This scale was developed especially for social workers who study with men. The scale help social workers to learn about their male patients' relationships with their fathers during their childhood or adolescents, to prepare a treatment plan for them through understanding strengths

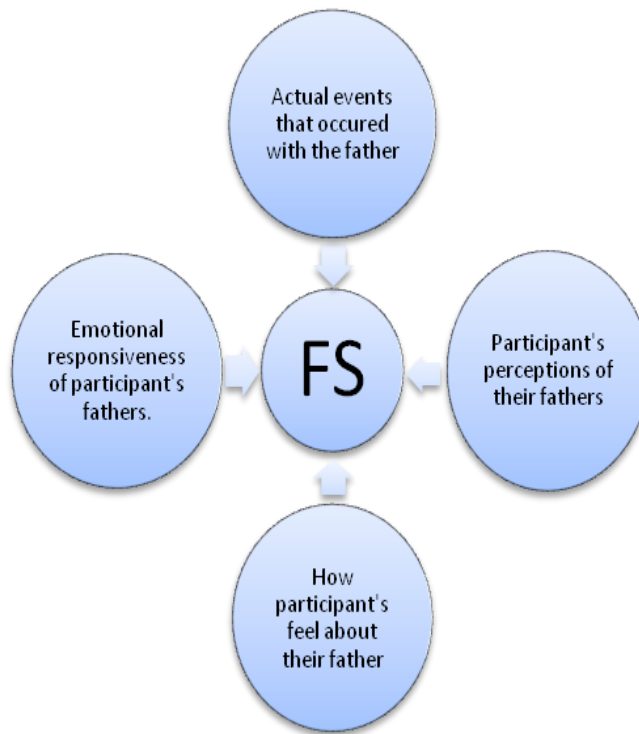
and weaknesses of their relationships with their fathers. Moreover, through this scale, men can understand about their relationship with their own father so that social workers can help those men to “construct the kind of role they want to have with their own children” (p. 82). FS items were developed by depending on some frameworks; these frameworks are shown in *Figure 3.1*.



***Figure 3.1: Frameworks of FS***

Another issue that was considered during item development for FS is making domain-sampling method. In domain sampling method “multiple items could be chosen to represent a hypothetical domain” (Dick, 2004, p.82). The process of domain-sampling method begins with selecting each construct initially and then

developing the most suitable items which fit the definition of selected constructs. In other words, in order to develop FS items four different and important domains were assigned and then items that fit to these domains were developed. *Figure 3.2* demonstrates four domains of FS.



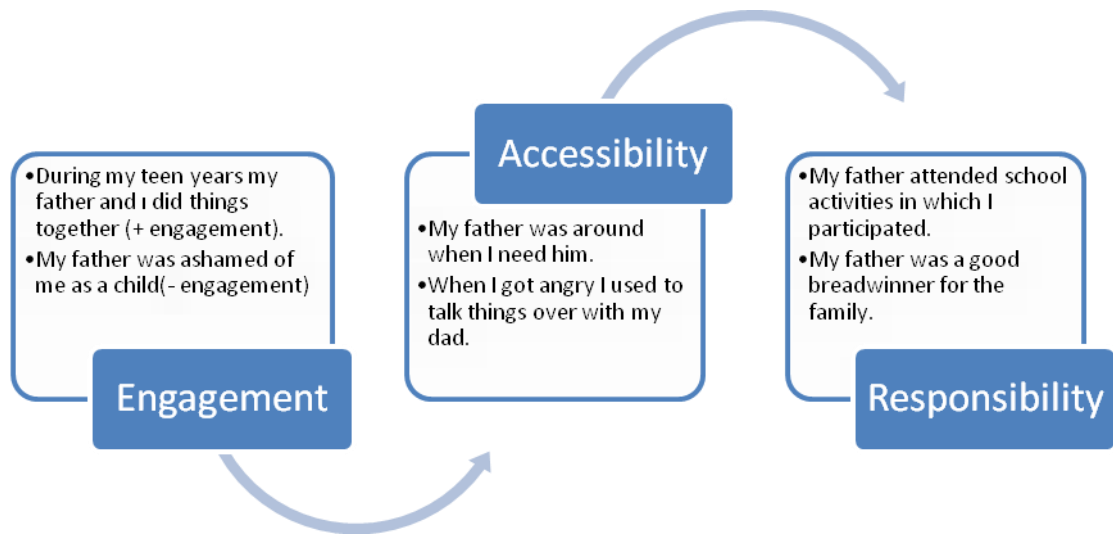
***Figure 3.2; Domains of FS.***

These four domains were determined by depending on some theories about self, personality, child development and fatherhood. Self-psychological theory that was

developed by Kohut (1977, as cited in Dick,2004) assumes that for a child having an empathic relationship with parents has crucial importance to his/her development of self. Not empirically but theoretically, this theory yields information about how fathers , as much as mothers, can affect and shape a child's sense of self by regarding child's relationship with father as self-objects that have mirroring, idealizing, and twinship functions. Mirroring function of a self-object, in here the relationship between children and father, refers to the need of being accepted, recognizing and appreciated by a loving and emotionally responsive parent; idealizing function of self-objects means children's "need to be a part of ,or linked to, an admired and respected other" (Bacal, 1992). Twinship function is used for referring the need to be similar with "a stable, wise, and calm idealized other" (Dick, 2004, pp. 83). In the light of these assumptions of the self-psychological theory, it can be said that there is a need for a child to be linked to an admired, a stable, calm and wise father. Children who have this kind of relationship with their fathers become more self-confident person whereas a reverse relationship leads a person to have low self-esteem. Therefore, FS items were developed in order to understand the kind of relationship that an adult child has with his/her father (Dick, 2004).

In addition to self-psychological theory, Lamb's conceptualization of the paternal involvement was considered during the development of FS. According to Lamb (1987) there were three main paternal involvement types; engagement, accessibility and responsibility. Engagement refers to one-to one interaction of the father with his child, accessibility refers to physically availability of the father when his child needs him, but not a direct interaction. Responsibility means father's accountability for the child's welfare and care (Dick, 2004). Positive engagement of the father was asked through items such as " My father liked to spend time with me" ; negative engagement of the father, on the other hand was asked through items such as "I saw my father hit my mother" or " My father used to say things that hurt my feelings". In order to understand the accessibility of participant's fathers, items such as "My dad

would cook meals” or “my father read to me as a child” were included in the FS. Furthermore, items that indicate whether a participant have a responsible father or not, such as “My father bring me to the doctor” or “My father attended school conferences” were included, as well (Dick, 2004). *Figure 3.3* indicates these three types of paternal involvement and some examples of FS items that are related with those types.



**Figure 3.3. Paternal Involvement Types & FS items.**

FS was designed to measure some of paternal roles like moral father role, gender role model and the good provider role and androgynous role. Through using all of the frameworks that are given above, Fatherhood Scale (FS), which has 64 items, was generated. Each of those 64 items were ranked on a 5 point scale (1=never, 2= rarely, 3=sometimes, 4=often, 5=always) and 11 of them were needed to be reversely coded. Thereafter, scale was applied to convenience purposeful sample of 311 males, who

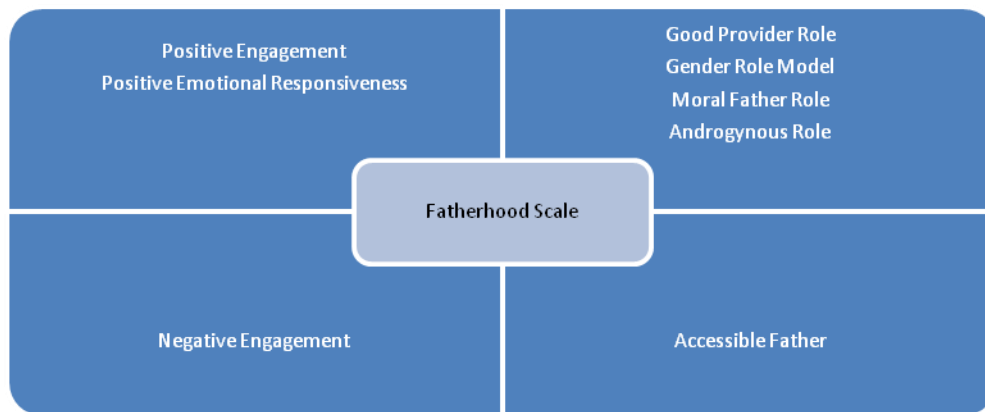


were assumed to have negative or positive relationship with their fathers. Reliability and validity tests and factor analyses were done with the data that was gathered from these participants.

Firstly, reliabilities of nine constructs determined at the beginning of the scale development procedure were established by basing on Cronbach's alpha coefficient values and it was found that all of the subscales' Cronbach's alpha coefficient were equal to 0.80 or above, which is recommended level of reliability for comparing groups, according to Nunnally and Bernstein (1994; as cited in Dick, 2004). This indicated that FS's current form had strong internal consistency.

Secondly, factor analysis which is a technique used for data reduction and understanding basic structure of a scale was done through Principal Component Analyses with quartimax rotation in order to "determine if the relations among the variables reflected the constructs on which the scale was developed" (Dick, 2004, pp.86). It was hypothesized that there would be two general factors. One of them is positive and the other one is negative fathering and within these two factors there are variables that are related with roles of father. As a result, principle component analyses with quartimax rotation method generated 13 factors of which eigenvalues are equal to one or above. These 13 factors account for 75% of variance. The first factor, Positive Emotional Engagement, elucidates 41% of total variance, each factor include items that have loading of 0.33 or above (Dick, 2004). This factor is divided into three subscales called "the positive paternal engagement, positive paternal emotional responsiveness and the responsible father; and then other three factors that are related with negative fathering, physically abusive, emotional abuse and wife abuser, combined and called as negative fathering, lastly factors of emotionally expressive and androgynous father became one factor whereas factor 13 which has only one item, called hated father, was eliminated from the factor . As a conclusion,

nine subscales of Fatherhood Scale was originated (Dick, 2004). *Figure 3.4* indicates nine subscales of Fatherhood Scale.



**Figure 3.4: Subscales of Fatherhood Scale**

### **3.4.3.2. Adaptation of Fatherhood Scale into Turkish**

During adaptation process, initially needed permissions were obtained from the developer of the scale through e-mails and 64 items of Fatherhood Scale were translated into Turkish by five different research assistants who are good at both in English and in Turkish. One of the five translators was the researcher herself, two of the other translators were blind to the area of early childhood development and other two of them were familiar with the area of early childhood education.

Secondly, the researcher constructed a questionnaire which includes those five different translations of each item in one column and the original item in another one. This form was distributed to the 15 research assistants from different departments of

METU. All research assistants were good at both English and Turkish and they choose the best appropriate Turkish version of the item from the five translations. Translations that were assigned as the most appropriate to their original meaning were included in the scale's Turkish form.

Thirdly another questionnaire was constructed in order to distribute to a different group of experts who are god at both in English and Turkish. In this questionnaire each item was rated according to their appropriateness to both Turkish language and Turkish culture; in this questionnaire there were three columns. The first one included the original English version; the second column included numbers from 1 to 10; and in the third column there was the Turkish version of the each item. Participants read both English and Turkish form of the item and they rated the Turkish version of each item according to its appropriateness to Turkish language and Turkish culture. Ten experts filled this questionnaire and they rated each item from one to ten. The average points of translated items were ranged from 8 to 10. All experts had been requested to think about cultural appropriateness of the questionnaire, as well. According to the suggestions of these experts, some changes were done in the Turkish form of the items and the Fatherhood Scale-Turkish Form was totally generated.

In the second step of translation, Turkish form of the Fatherhood Scale was translated back to English by another expert who is expert both in English and Turkish and who is, also, blind to the original scale. After her back translation of Fatherhood Scale Turkish Form into English, researcher and back translator came together and differences among original form and translated form were examined. Then, some necessary changes were done until an acceptable compromise was reached. This process lasted one month.

### **3.4.3.3. Validity of Fatherhood Scale-Turkish Form**

“Validity refers to the appropriateness, meaningfulness, correctness, and usefulness of the specific inferences researchers make based on the data they collect.” (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006, p. 151). Researchers collect their data through an instrument that helps them make inferences. Therefore the validity of an instrument is also important. As widely known to be a valid instrument, it should measure what it intends to measure (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). In the definition of Fraenkel & Wallen (2006), which is given above, it is highlighted that inferences which are concluded from the obtained data should be appropriate, and related with the purpose of the study, and meaningful. It should include something about the meaning of the information- and should be useful, –helpful to “make a decision related to what they trying to find out”- (p.151). On the other hand, the quantity and the variety of the evidence that supports researchers’ interpretations that are drawn from the acquired data compromise the basis for validity. Hence, a researcher should collect different types of evidences in order to indicate that his/her interpretations which depend on the obtained data are valid.

There are different ways to give evidence about validity; content-related evidence of validity, criterion-related evidence of validity and construct-related evidence of validity. Content-related evidence of validity includes evidences about the content and the format of an instrument; criterion-related evidence of validity is ensured through comparing the results of instruments that measure the same thing whereas construct-related validity gives information about “the nature of the psychological construct or characteristic being measured by the instrument” (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006, p. 151). In the adaptation process of Fatherhood Scale two types of evidences, content-related evidence and construct-related evidence have been gathered.

Content-related evidence of validity is mostly related with clarity of printing, size of type, appropriateness of language, clarity of directions, etc. In other words, the appropriateness of the instruments' format is the main issue while considering the instruments' content-related evidence of validity.

In order to claim that an instrument has validity evidences in terms of its content, the best and the most commonly used way is asking its content-related issues to an individual who is an expert who has necessary information about what is intended to measure with that instrument (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). As mentioned above, during the adaptation process of The Fatherhood Scale into Turkish, each step was controlled by different experts and in each step all experts evaluated the scale in terms of its language, items' cultural adequacy and the format of the scale.

As a result, only during translation period except translators and the researcher 25 experts assessed both the scales' format and its language and cultural adequacy. At the end of the translation process, two experts from the Department of Early Childhood Education of METU, who are also advisors' of this study, investigated the last form of the scale separately and they identified items that have ambiguous meanings or that are still inappropriate to the culture. After their evaluations, these two experts and the researcher came together and through discussion, changes that are considered necessary were done to constitute the last form of the scale (see Appendix C).

In order to measure the construct-validity of Fatherhood Scale-Turkish Form, a factor analysis has been applied to the gathered data. Factor analysis has been defined as "statistical technique applied to a single set of variables when the researcher is interested in discovering which variables in the set form coherent subsets that are relatively independent of one another" (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007, p. 607). The main aim of applying factor analysis to a set of variable is collecting highly related

variables together under the same roof with the purpose of conditioning complex data to a more simple form. There are two types of factor analysis called explanatory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis.

In explanatory factor analysis the aim is to “describe and summarize data by grouping together variables that are correlated” while in confirmatory factor analysis researchers has the aim of “testing a theory about latent processes” (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007, p. 609). Due to the fact that the Turkish Form of Fatherhood Scale was adapted to a new culture and fatherhood has really a cultural concept, an explanatory factor analysis was conducted to obtain evidence about its construct-related validity. In order to conduct EFA, firstly item total correlations of 64 items were investigated. Item-total correlation indicates each items’ correlation with total scale and it is necessary to drop items of which correlation with total scale is very small (Garson, 2010). Table 2 indicates item total correlation for each item.

**Table 2: Item-Total Statistics of Fatherhood Scales**

	Corrected Item-Total Correlation		Corrected Item-Total Correlation		Corrected Item-Total Correlation		Corrected Item-Total Correlation
<b>fat1</b>	0,532	<b>fat19</b>	0,458	<b>fat37</b>	0,263	<b>fat55</b>	0,787
<b>fat2</b>	0,636	<b>fat20</b>	0,023	<b>fat38</b>	0,604	<b>fat56</b>	0,710
<b>fat3</b>	0,570	<b>fat21</b>	0,505	<b>fat39</b>	0,369	<b>fat57</b>	0,488
<b>fat4</b>	0,632	<b>fat22</b>	0,782	<b>fat40</b>	0,761	<b>fat58</b>	0,664
<b>fat5</b>	0,609	<b>fat23</b>	0,705	<b>fat41</b>	0,569	<b>fat59</b>	0,767
<b>fat6</b>	0,699	<b>fat24</b>	0,332	<b>fat42</b>	0,667	<b>fat60</b>	0,201
<b>fat7</b>	0,531	<b>fat25</b>	0,461	<b>fat43</b>	0,545	<b>fat61</b>	0,588
<b>fat8</b>	0,652	<b>fat26</b>	0,080	<b>fat44</b>	0,090	<b>fat62</b>	0,407
<b>fat9</b>	0,574	<b>fat27</b>	0,777	<b>fat45</b>	0,615	<b>fat63</b>	0,542
<b>fat10</b>	0,730	<b>fat28</b>	0,257	<b>fat46</b>	0,434	<b>fat64</b>	0,359
<b>fat11</b>	0,256	<b>fat29</b>	0,766	<b>fat47</b>	0,587		
<b>fat12</b>	0,685	<b>fat30</b>	0,663	<b>fat48</b>	0,720		

**Table 2 (continued)**

	Corrected Item-Total Correlation		Corrected Item-Total Correlation		Corrected Item-Total Correlation		Corrected Item-Total Correlation
<b>fat13</b>	0,407	<b>fat31</b>	0,752	<b>fat49</b>	0,332		
<b>fat14</b>	0,633	<b>fat32</b>	0,639	<b>fat50</b>	0,461		
<b>fat15</b>	0,240	<b>fat33</b>	0,741	<b>fat51</b>	0,156		
<b>fat16</b>	0,616	<b>fat34</b>	-0,021	<b>fat52</b>	0,619		
<b>fat17</b>	0,495	<b>fat35</b>	0,371	<b>fat53</b>	0,621		
<b>fat18</b>	0,548	<b>fat36</b>	0,276	<b>fat54</b>	0,584		

As seen in the Table 1 some items have very low correlation with the total scale. According to Garson (2010) if an item has lower item-total score ( $< .3$  for large samples), the item is little correlated with the overall scale. Therefore, researchers should think about dropping it from the scale. Items that have item-total correlation under  $.3$  constitute 17 % of the scale. Although some items have lower item-total correlation, i.e. lower correlation with overall scale, they can be correlated with each other. For instance, item 11, 15, 34, 37, 44, 60 were correlated with each other theoretically according to the original EFA results. They were items of negative engagement subscale of original Fatherhood Scale. In other words, dropping all items that had item-total correlation under 0.3 might constrict the factors of new version of the scale; therefore, only items that had the lowest item-total correlation ( $< .2$ ) were dropped before inserting all variables into the factor analysis. As a result, item 20, 26, 34, 44 and 51 were dropped and explanatory factor analysis has been conducted with 51 remained items.

In order to combine correlated items together to generate simpler factors, Principle Component Analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation was conducted to the sample of five hundred twenty eight fathers. The aim of the PCA is to “extract maximum

variances from the data set with each component”, in the PCA the first component has the most variance while the last component has the least component (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007, p. 635). Varimax rotation has been chosen, because it is mostly used rotation technique and it makes interpretation of the factors easier through reducing intricacy of factors through enlarging variances of loadings on each factor. Items that were decided to be excluded from the study due to their lower item-total correlation value were also retained for the first factor analysis in order to see their factor loadings. Therefore, the first factor analysis was run with original 64 items.

In order to apply factor analysis to a group of variable, some assumptions should be validated. The first one is related with sample size. Although there are different recommendations about the appropriate sample size to run a factor analysis, most commonly used recommendation was the one suggested by Comrey and Lee (1992). According to their guide, sample size of 50 is evaluated as very poor, 100 as poor, 200 as fair, 300 as good, 500 as very good and 1000 as excellent. Also, Tabachnick & Fidell (2007) highlighted that there should be at least 300 cases in order to make factor analysis results meaningful. On the other hand, MacCallum, Widaman, Zhang and Hong (1999) have suggested that there are different indicators of good factor analysis solutions except sample size. They have recommended that higher communalities of variables ( $> .60$ ) and larger levels of number of item and number of factor ratio decrease the importance of sample size. They have suggested that if one has variables of which communalities in the range of  $.5$ , and if the ratio of number of factors and number of variables is high sample size of 100 to 200 is enough to have good recovery from factor analysis. In the current study, only three items had communality values under  $0.5$  (see Table 3), and sample size was very large then it might be said that the first assumption related with sample size was validated in order to run the factor analysis.



**Table 3: Communalities of FS items**

	Initial	Extraction		Initial	Extraction
<i>fat1</i>	1,000	<b>0,693</b>	<i>fat33</i>	1,000	<b>0,692</b>
<i>fat2</i>	1,000	<b>0,622</b>	<i>fat34</i>	1,000	<b>0,802</b>
<i>fat3</i>	1,000	<b>0,613</b>	<i>fat35</i>	1,000	<b>0,443</b>
<i>fat4</i>	1,000	<b>0,754</b>	<i>fat36</i>	1,000	<b>0,648</b>
<i>fat5</i>	1,000	<b>0,630</b>	<i>fat37</i>	1,000	<b>0,603</b>
<i>fat6</i>	1,000	<b>0,672</b>	<i>fat38</i>	1,000	<b>0,603</b>
<i>fat7</i>	1,000	<b>0,607</b>	<i>fat39</i>	1,000	<b>0,514</b>
<i>fat8</i>	1,000	<b>0,668</b>	<i>fat40</i>	1,000	<b>0,678</b>
<i>fat9</i>	1,000	<b>0,588</b>	<i>fat41</i>	1,000	<b>0,699</b>
<i>fat10</i>	1,000	<b>0,679</b>	<i>fat42</i>	1,000	<b>0,710</b>
<i>fat11</i>	1,000	<b>0,629</b>	<i>fat43</i>	1,000	<b>0,571</b>
<i>fat12</i>	1,000	<b>0,669</b>	<i>fat44</i>	1,000	<b>0,501</b>
<i>fat13</i>	1,000	<b>0,721</b>	<i>fat45</i>	1,000	<b>0,631</b>
<i>fat14</i>	1,000	<b>0,592</b>	<i>fat46</i>	1,000	<b>0,702</b>
<i>fat15</i>	1,000	<b>0,542</b>	<i>fat47</i>	1,000	<b>0,677</b>
<i>fat16</i>	1,000	<b>0,620</b>	<i>fat48</i>	1,000	<b>0,599</b>
<i>fat17</i>	1,000	<b>0,519</b>	<i>fat49</i>	1,000	<b>0,581</b>
<i>fat18</i>	1,000	<b>0,581</b>	<i>fat50</i>	1,000	<b>0,567</b>
<i>fat19</i>	1,000	<b>0,622</b>	<i>fat51</i>	1,000	<b>0,595</b>
<i>fat20</i>	1,000	<b>0,718</b>	<i>fat52</i>	1,000	<b>0,711</b>
<i>fat21</i>	1,000	<b>0,711</b>	<i>fat53</i>	1,000	<b>0,548</b>
<i>fat22</i>	1,000	<b>0,693</b>	<i>fat54</i>	1,000	<b>0,668</b>
<i>fat23</i>	1,000	<b>0,654</b>	<i>fat55</i>	1,000	<b>0,726</b>
<i>fat24</i>	1,000	<b>0,651</b>	<i>fat56</i>	1,000	<b>0,656</b>
<i>fat25</i>	1,000	<b>0,618</b>	<i>fat57</i>	1,000	<b>0,613</b>
<i>fat26</i>	1,000	<b>0,765</b>	<i>fat58</i>	1,000	<b>0,642</b>
<i>fat27</i>	1,000	<b>0,705</b>	<i>fat59</i>	1,000	<b>0,692</b>
<i>fat28</i>	1,000	<b>0,573</b>	<i>fat60</i>	1,000	<b>0,499</b>
<i>fat29</i>	1,000	<b>0,716</b>	<i>fat61</i>	1,000	<b>0,661</b>
<i>fat30</i>	1,000	<b>0,661</b>	<i>fat62</i>	1,000	<b>0,759</b>
<i>fat31</i>	1,000	<b>0,706</b>	<i>fat63</i>	1,000	<b>0,585</b>
<i>fat32</i>	1,000	<b>0,726</b>	<i>fat64</i>	1,000	<b>0,488</b>

The second issue that should be considered before running factor analysis is having recommended values of Kaiser’s Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) and Barlet’s Test of Sphericity. KMO is related with the sample size and it is required to be higher than .60. On the other hand, Barlet’s Test of Sphericity is a hypothesis that tests if the correlations in a correlation matrix are zero. It is required to have a significant result to say that all items have correlated with each other (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Table 4 indicates KMO and Barlet’s test of sphericity values.

**Table 4: KMO and Bartlett's Test fot FS**

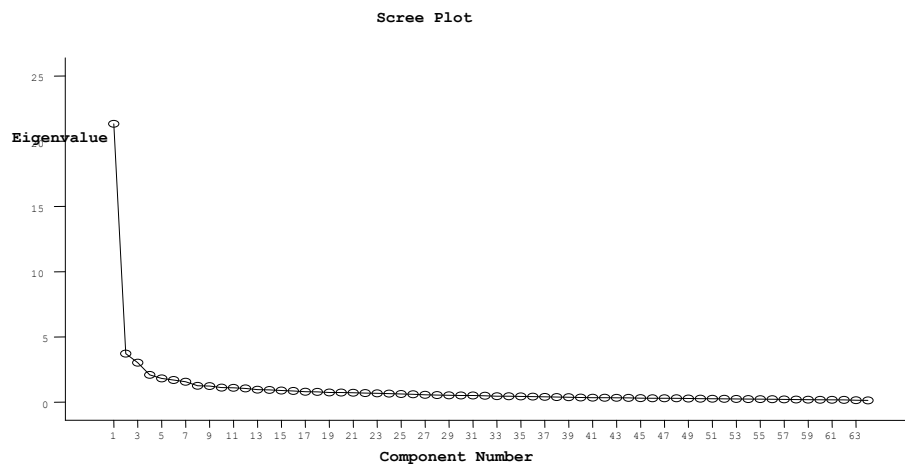
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		,953
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	18640,729
	Df	2016
	Sig.	,000

As seen in the table, KMO value is very high; the value of .95 indicates that the data set is suitable for factor analysis. On the other hand, Barlet’s Test of Sphericity has been found significant which means that there is a high correlation between variables of the scale. After necessary assumptions have been validated, principle component analysis with varimax rotation has been chosen. As a result, 12 factors based on the Kaiser criterion of eigenvalues >1.0 have been yielded in the principle component analysis and these factors explained 64 % of the variance.

However, according to Costello and Osbrone (2005) using eigenvalues grater than 1 to decide number of factors is “the least accurate method” in the literature, rather it is

suggested to use scree test, Velicer's MAP or parallel analyses. Due to the fact that the latter two methods are calculated by hand and they are not accessible in SPSS software, scree test is the best choice to use while deciding factor numbers (Costello & Osbrone, 2005). Scree test visualized yielded factors and indicate a break point among them after which the curve becomes unrounded. According to Costello and Osbrone (2005) factors that are above the break point should be retained. Table 5 indicates scree test results. According to the results, after 7<sup>th</sup> factor, the curve has really flattened. Therefore, only six factors have been retained by depending on the scree test.

**Table 5: Scree Test for FS**



Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) have claimed that items loaded to a factor with a greater loading value are pure measures of the loaded factor. Factor loading means

the correlation between item and the factor. General rule of thumb is accepting items which have factor loadings above .32. According to Comrey and Lee (1992) items that are loaded to a factor with .32 are called poor measures of that factor; the value of .45 is evaluated as fair; .55 as good; .63 as very good and .71 or above as excellent. Therefore, in the current study only items have factor loading greater than .4 have been included in a factor.

Rotated Component Matrix also gives similar results with Scree Test. According to Rotated Component Matrix the last six factors, these are 7<sup>th</sup>, 8<sup>th</sup>, 9<sup>th</sup>, 10<sup>th</sup>, 11<sup>th</sup>, 12<sup>nd</sup> factors, are very ambiguous to explain in terms of their item number and content. According to Costello and Osborne (2005), if five or more items come together under one factor with higher loadings (.5 or higher), that factor can be evaluated as solid, valid and desirable. The 7<sup>th</sup> factor has three items, each item has moderate loading .56, .48 and .47, respectively. Also these three items are uncorrelated theoretically. Remaining five factors have only two or one item therefore these six factors with their loaded items have not been evaluated during the following analyses.

As a result of the factor analysis ten items (57, 58, 50, 25, 35, 34, 26, 49, 51, 20) were excluded from the study. Items that have lowest communalities (20, 26, 34, and 51) were also excluded from the study during this process, as well. Only item 44 retained because of its factor loading of .494 to a factor. On the other hand because of not loading any factor with the factor loading of .4, item 15 and 53 were excluded from the further analysis. At the end 52 items retained in the scale.

The second factor analysis was done with those remaining 52 items. The number of factors restricted to 6. The first factor explained % 37 of the variance with 22 items; the second factor explained % 6.45 percent of the variance with 8 items; third factor explained 5.45 % of the variance with 8 items; the fourth factor explained 3.56 % of the variance with 8 items and the last two factors explained 3.33 % and 2.86 % of the

variance respectively. The last two factors had three items with high loadings. Totally the six factors explained the 58.99 % of the variance

**Table 6: Rotated Component Matrix of FS**

	Sub-Scale 1	Sub-Scale 2	Sub-Scale 3	Sub-Scale 4	Sub-Scale 5	Sub-Scale 6
Fat4	.798					
Fat5	.714					
Fat42	.713					
Fat8	.689					
Fat47	.664					
Fat29	.664					
Fat10	.649					
Fat33	.639					
Fat31	.614					
Fat12	.613					
Fat55	.608					
Fat27	.587					
Fat6	.557					
Fat40	.554					
Fat14	.550					
Fat22	.519					
Fat23	.491					
Fat30	.490					
Fat2	.488					
Fat59	.480					
Fat48	.460					
Fat16	.453					
Fat1		.741				
Fat41		.740				
Fat61		.692				

**Table 6 (continued)**

	Sub-Scale 1	Sub-Scale 2	Sub-Scale 3	Sub-Scale 4	Sub-Scale 5	Sub-Scale 6
Fat61		.692				
Fat18		.667				
Fat3		.666				
Fat54		.619				
Fat7		.617				
Fat9		.405				
Fat21			.784			
Fat19			.733			
Fat28			.731			
Fat17			.605			
Fat43			.590			
Fat45			.497			
Fat63			.466			
Fat38			.459			
Fat11				.742		
Fat13				.691		
Fat46				.664		
Fat39				.639		
Fat37				.627		
Fat64				.622		
Fat60				.472		
Fat44				.471		
Fat32					.712	
Fat52					.699	
Fat56					.402	
Fat62						.787
Fat36						.739
Fat24						.652

Factors and items loaded to those factors have given through Table 7- 12.

**Table 7: Factor 1 of FS**

---

- 2.My father talked to me about my personal problems.
  - 4.My father told to me that he loved me.
  - 5.My father told to me that I was a good boy.
  - 6.My father is a caring person.
  - 8.During my childhood I felt close to my father.
  - 10.My father liked to spend time with me.
  - 12.I felt close to my father as a teenager.
  - 14.I know my father cared about me.
  - 16.My dad taught me to fight back.
  - 22.My father helped me solve my problems.
  - 23.I could talk to my father about anything.
  - 27.My father comforted me when I was feeling bad.
  - 29.My father made me feel special.
  - 30.When I got angry, I used to talk things over with my dad.
  - 31.My father and I enjoyed time together.
  - 33.My father was loving toward me.
  - 42.My father hugged me.
  - 55.My father and I had good times together.
-

**Table 8: Factor 2 of FS**

- 
- 
- 1. My father helped me with my homework.
  - 3. My father took me on activities.
  - 7. My father attended school conferences.
  - 9. During my teen years my father and I did things together.
  - 18. My father read to me as a child.
  - 41. My father showed interest in my schoolwork.
  - 54. My father attended sporting events in which I played.
  - 61. My father attended school activities in which I participated.
- 

**Table 9: Factor 3 of FS**

- 
- 
- 17. My father made sure I had things I needed like clothing and toys.
  - 19. My father provided well for us financially.
  - 21. My father was a good breadwinner for the family.
  - 28. My father was always employed while I was growing up.
  - 38. I have warm feelings from my father.
  - 43. My father is a good man.
  - 45. My father taught me right from wrong.
  - 63. My father show concern when I got hurt.
-



---

**Table 10: Factor 4 of FS**

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- 11. My father spanked me.
  - 13. My father hit my mother.
  - 37. When I was a child my father shouted at me if I did something wrong.
  - 39. My father used to say things to hurt my feelings.
  - 44. When I got in trouble my father would punish me physically.
  - 46. I saw my father beat my mother.
  - 60. My father used to get angry and say he did not like me.
  - 64. I saw my father hit one of my siblings.
- 

---

**Table 11: Factor 5 of FS**

---

- 32. My father would talk to me about things going on in the world.
  - 52. My father talked to me about events that are happening in the world.
  - 56. My father instilled important values on me.
- 

---

**Table 12: Factor 6 of FS**

---

- 24. My father went to mosque with me. (original item: My father went to church with me)
  - 36. My father used to pray during mealtimes. (original item: My father used to say grace at mealtime)
  - 62. My father talked to me about God.
-

Due to the fact that the fatherhood is highly related with culture (Palkovitz, 1997), it has been expected to have different factors and different contents among factors when compared with original scale's factor structure. Results of factor analysis have supported this expectation. Factor numbers of both form of the scale has differed. In the original scale nine factors have been yielded whereas in Turkish form of the scale, principle component analysis yielded six meaningful factors. Although the content of the factors are not same, there are some similarities between factor structures of both form of the scale with some nuances. These nuances may be result of the differences among two cultures. For example, in the first subscale of the Fatherhood Scale-Turkish Form, some items that are originally included in different factors in the original scale have come together in the Turkish form. Lots of the items that were originally included in the Androgynous Role subscale did not work in the scale's Turkish form; they had to be excluded from the study due to their low communalities and their meaningless loadings. Similarly, for instance, only items of original "Moral Father Role" that were related with religious came together as a result of principle component analysis and composite one independent factor in the Turkish form of the scale. Although there could be various reasons for this, the main reason might be the cultural differences in the meaning and the practice of the fatherhood.

The next step after establishing factor structures was interpretation and labeling of the yielded factors. In order to label the factors marker variables of each factor were taken into account. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) there should be five or six variables that are "thought to be a relatively pure measure of the factor" (p.612). These variables are called as marker variables and they load only one factor rather than loading one or more factor simultaneously. On the other hand, it has been mentioned that factors that are loaded above .63 are interpreted as very good (Comrey & Lee, 1992). Therefore, in order to name the factor the first items that were loaded above .63 were taken into consideration.

Factor names were originated by depending on Palkovitz's (1997) conceptualization. As mentioned in Chapter 2, according to him father involvement is a multidimensional term and there are 15 different father involvement categories. Factor names are given in the Table 13.

**Table 13: Factor Names of Fatherhood Scale's Turkish form**

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Factor 1: Communication & Affection
Factor 2: Monitoring & Availability
Factor 3: Providing
Factor 4: Negative Emotional Expressiveness
Factor 5: Teaching
Factor 6: Religious Father

---

---

The results of the factor analysis of Fatherhood Scale-Turkish Form indicated that this scale measured perceived father involvement as a multidimensional issue. All factors of Fatherhood Scale-Turkish Form had consistency with the definition of Palkovitz's paternal involvement types. According to Palkovitz (1997) fathers who engage in identified 15 paternal involvement types highly can be referred as highly involved father whereas lower levels of behaviors that are consistent with his categories indicates lower levels of paternal involvement. All factors had items that were consistent with Palkovitz's (1997) conceptualizations, i.e. all indicates positive paternal involvements. Only items of Negative Emotional Expressiveness had negative meaning, but they were reversed. Therefore, higher total scores can be evaluated as a positive perception about father involvement.

In addition, Dick (2004) have informed that if an individual gives four or five to his father about an item, this means that he has a positive perception about his fathers' involvement but if an individual who gives 2 or 1 to his father for an item, this indicates that his perception about fathers' involvement is negative. By multiplying item number with 4 (which means frequently in the scale) Dick (2004) set a criteria of 256 point for a positive paternal involvement and by multiplying total item number with 2 (which means rarely in the scale) he set a criteria of 128 for low paternal involvement. The same procedure was applied to the scale's Turkish Form which had only 52 items and 208 was set as the criteria for higher paternal involvement and 104 as lower paternal involvement. As a result, the relationship between fathers with their own fathers was evaluated with a total score that was gathered through the scale. Fathers who have total score which was equal to 208 and higher would be called as "*fathers who have highly involved fathers*"; fathers who gathered a total score of 104 and below would be called as "*fathers who have low involved father*" and fathers who gathered a total score between 104 and 208 will be called as "*father who have moderately involved father*" during the further analyses.

#### **3.4.3.4. Reliability of Fatherhood Scale-Turkish Form**

After gathering evidences that were related with construct and content related validity of the scale, reliability of the scale was computed. Reliability of an instrument is related with consistency of the scores gathered by that instrument (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). In short, reliability of an instrument is related with the correlation among variables and the consistency of the scores (Garson, 2010). Various ways have been used to measure instruments reliability and Cronbach's alpha is the most commonly used estimation of reliability. Cronbach's alpha value is expected to be between zero and one, values approaching to zero refers to a low internal consistency among variables whereas values approaching to one refers to high internal consistency (Garson, 2010).

A scale that have Cronbach's alpha value which is higher than .70 are identified as reliable. Values higher than .80 indicate a good scale in terms of reliability (Garson, 2010). George and Mallery (2003) have created some categories for Cronbach's alpha. According to them it is unacceptable to have Cronbach's alpha level which is under .5. Cronbach's alpha which is greater than .5 is evaluated as poor; > .6 as questionable; > .7 as acceptable; > .8 as good; > .9 as excellent. Table 14 indicates Cronbach's alpha values for both whole Fatherhood Scale-Turkish Form and for its subscales.

**Table 14: Reliability Statistics of Subscales of Fatherhood Scale-Turkish Form**

Subscale	$\alpha$	M	SD	N of Items
Factor 1: Communication & Affection	.95	58.65	16.94	18
Factor 2: Monitoring & Availability	.87	18.34	7.27	8
Factor 3: Providing	.85	34.75	5.56	8
Factor 4: Negative Emotional Expressiveness	.79	33.05	5.29	8
Factor 5: Teaching	.82	9.90	3.18	3
Factor 6: Religious Father	.76	8.84	3.42	3
Total Fatherhood Scale Turkish Form	.96	175.76	36.33	52

As seen in the Table 14, for the Fatherhood Scale's Turkish Form, the total Cronbach alpha level is .96. Due to the fact that Fatherhood Scale was a multidimensional scale and factor analysis indicated that the Fatherhood Scale Turkish Form had six different factors, Cronbach's alpha values were calculated for all factors separately. It was found that Cronbach's alpha values of factors ranged from .76 to .95 which indicates

that all factors could be evaluated as acceptable, good and excellent in terms of their Cronbach's Alpha values. As a result, it can be inferred that Fatherhood Scale-Turkish Form and its subscales are valid and reliable measurements which could be used for understanding fathers' perceptions about their relationships with their own fathers. Therefore, factor scores for each individual were calculated and further analyses were done with those factor scores.

### **3.4.4. Inventory of Father Involvement**

#### **3.4.4.1. The Original Inventory of Father Involvement**

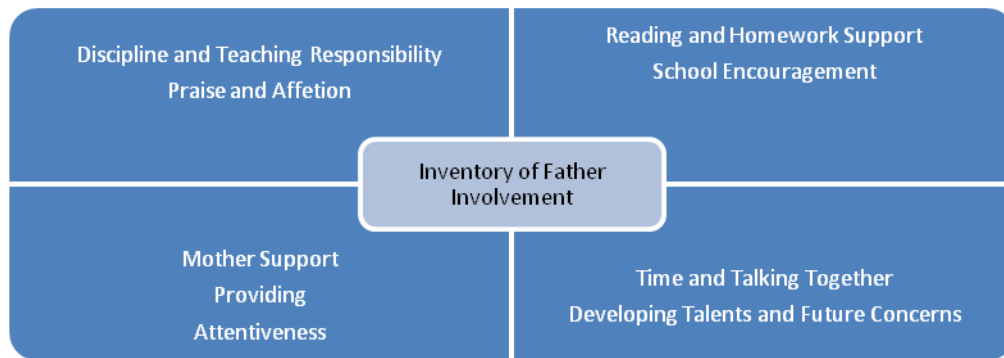
Inventory of Father Involvement was a scale that was developed in 2002 by Hawkins, Bradford, Palkovitz, Christiansen, Day and Call to "create a measure to sensitive to affective, cognitive and direct and indirect behavioral components of involvement" (Hawkins et. al., 2002, p. 183). Inventory of Father Involvement was an instrument that required fathers' responses about their own involvement level.

In order to develop Inventory of Father Involvement, Hawkins and her colleagues initially worked with a group of graduate students in order to generate "potential items" of the scale (Hawkins et al., 2002, p. 185). At first approximately 100 items were originated about father involvement and then items reduced to the number of 43 and Inventory of Father Involvement (IFI) was composed. Retained items were considered to be related with behavioral, cognitive and affective domain as well as direct and indirect forms of father involvement.

Originally, IFI was a 7 Likert type scale that asked fathers to evaluate their fathering job. IFI asked fathers to rate themselves about "how good a job" they did during past twelve months through a continuum that began with zero and ended with 6 (Hawkins et al., 2002, p. 185). Zero meant "very poor" while seven meant "excellent".

In the original form participants were also asked to rate each item in terms of their importance to be a good father, and fathers were requested to grade themselves on seven different father involvement indicators. In the last request, fathers grade themselves from A to F (A, B, C, D, and F) as in the university grading. If they thought that they were very good at that type of father involvement they graded themselves with A and if they thought that they did not good at that involvement indicator they graded themselves with F. The latter two parts of the scale was not used in the Turkish form. The 43-item IFI was applied to 723 fathers for initial analyses.

In order to assess the validity of the measurement, firstly Hawkins et al. (2002) generated one focus group from fathers and they gathered feedbacks from those fathers who engaged in focus group about items. Gathered feedbacks were positive and fathers reported that items of IFI were understandable and straightforward. Secondly, in order to assess construct validity of the measurement explanatory factor analysis was done through principle component analysis with a promax rotation. Nine factors were yielded of which eigen values were higher than one. During factor analysis four item were dropped because of not being loaded well to any factor. Original factors of the IFI were given in the *Figure 3.5*.



**Figure 3.5. Factors of Inventory of Father Involvement (IFI)**

After explanatory factor analysis, Hawkins et al. (2002) did confirmatory factor analysis and they reported that “although there were not large differences in goodness of fit between the various models tested, the most parsimonious as well as the best fitting model was the model depicting nine first-order factors indicating a single, global second-order factors of father involvement” (p. 187). However, during confirmatory factor analysis four additional items were dropped from the scale because their disturbance terms were also correlated with various other terms and dropping them from the scale did not affect the “conceptual richness” of the scale (p.187). At the end IFI became a scale which contained 35 items. Also, researchers created a short version of the IFI, which was also used in the current study, with 26 items and again nine- first –order factors. In the short form of the IFI, all eight factors had three items and only one factor which was called as providing included two items which were highly correlated with each other. All factors and the whole scale had high values of Cronbach’s alpha. Additionally, IFI had high reliability. Factors Cronbach’s Alpha values ranged between .69 and .87.



#### **3.4.4.2. Adaptation of Inventory of Father Involvement into Turkish**

During adaptation process, initially needed permissions were gathered from Alan Hawkins in behalf of developers of the scale and 26 items of IFI were translated into Turkish by five different research assistants who are good at both in English and in Turkish, as well. One of five translators was the researchers herself, two of the other translators were blind to the area of early childhood development and other two of them were familiar with the area of early childhood education.

Secondly, a questionnaire was constructed by the researcher by considering those five different translations of each item in one column and the original item in another column for each item This form was distributed to the 15 research assistants from different departments of the METU whose English and Turkish is in advanced level. All research assistants were good at both English and Turkish and they were asked to choose the best appropriate Turkish version of the items from the five translations. For each item, mostly chosen Turkish translation was assigned and the Turkish form of the scale was constructed initially.

Thirdly another questionnaire was constructed in order to distribute it to a different group of experts who are good at in English and Turkish. In this questionnaire each item will be rated according to their appropriateness to both Turkish language and Turkish culture. In this questionnaire there were three columns. The first column included original English version; the second column included numbers from 1 to 10; and in the third column there was the Turkish version of the item. Participants have read both English and Turkish form of the item and they rated the Turkish version of each item according to its appropriateness to Turkish language and Turkish culture. Ten experts were filled this questionnaire and they rated each item from one to ten. The average points of translated items were ranged from 8 to 10. All experts had been requested to think about cultural appropriateness of the questionnaire, as well.

According to the suggestions of these experts, some changes were done in the Turkish form of the items and the final form of Inventory of Father Involvement was totally generated.

In the second step of translation, Turkish form of the Inventory of Father Involvement was translated back to English by another expert who is native both in English and Turkish and who is blind to the original scale. After back translation of Inventory of Father Involvement to English, differences among original form and translated form was examined. Necessary changes were done until an acceptable compromise was reached. This process lasts one month.

After the last form was reached, it was applied to fifty fathers. When responds of those fathers have examined it was realized that all fathers evaluated themselves as excellent. Later accessible five fathers were asked to evaluate the whole scale and the items of it. All of the five fathers reported that all items were understandable, but they also said that after reading first few items they gained the general idea of the scale and they did not read whole items separately because they thought that they did their job excellent when they had time to do it. This situation was also experienced in the original scale development process by Hawkins and her colleagues. In their focus group fathers have reported that when they have enough time to do things that were asked in the IFI, they did that job excellently therefore although they did not engage in asked activities they had answered all items by thinking like this (Hawkins et al., 2002).

Originally, IFI is a self-evaluation measurement in which fathers evaluate their own behaviors and normally fathers felt that they were excellent in times that they engage in those activities that were asked in the IFI. However, the aim of the current study was to understand how much fathers involve to their children's' caring. Therefore it was decided to shift the IFI to a 5 Likert type instrument I which 1 referred to "never",

2 referred to “rarely”, 3 referred to “sometimes”, 4 referred to “frequently” and lastly 5 referred to “every time” taken from . Necessary permission for this change was taken from Alan Hawkins via communications. Fathers were expected to give more objective responds to the items in this new version of the scale. After completing translation process of adaptation, gathered data was analyzed in order to understand scale’s reliability and validity.

#### **3.4.4.3. Validity of Inventory of Father Involvement -Turkish Form**

Content-related validity and construct-related validity of the scale was examined. According to Fraenkel and Wallen (2006) the best way for understanding about content-related validity of an instrument is asking about its content-related issues to an individual who is an expert on related topic. As mentioned, each step of adaptation process has been controlled by different experts. These experts had been asked to evaluate the scale in terms of its language, items’ cultural adequacy and the format of the scale.

As a result, only during translation period except translators and researcher 25 experts have assessed both of the scales’ format and its language and cultural adequacy. At the end of the translation process, two experts from the Department of Early Childhood Education of METU, who are also advisors’ of this study, have investigated the last form of the scale separately and they identified items that have ambiguous meanings or that are still inappropriate to the culture.

After their evaluations, these two experts and researcher came together and through discussion, changes that are considered necessary has been done to complete the last form of the scale (see Appendix D). The last form of the scale was applied to 528 fathers.

Moreover, construct-validity of IFI-Turkish Form was examined through principle component analysis with varimax rotation. An explanatory factor analysis (EFA) has been conducted in order to obtain evidence about its construct-related validity. In order to conduct EFA, firstly item total correlations of 26 items have been investigated. Table 15 indicates item total correlations.

**Table 15: Item-Total Statistics of Inventory of Father Involvement**

	Corrected Item-Total Correlation
<b>fatinv1</b>	0,323
<b>fatinv2</b>	0,212
<b>fatinv3</b>	0,550
<b>fatinv4</b>	0,371
<b>fatinv5</b>	0,518
<b>fatinv6</b>	0,394
<b>fatinv7</b>	0,544
<b>fatinv8</b>	0,395
<b>fatinv9</b>	0,522
<b>fatinv10</b>	0,447
<b>fatinv11</b>	0,301
<b>fatinv12</b>	0,523
<b>fatinv13</b>	0,117
<b>fatinv14</b>	0,397
<b>fatinv15</b>	0,440
<b>fatinv16</b>	0,481
<b>fatinv17</b>	0,433
<b>fatinv18</b>	0,553
<b>fatinv19</b>	0,360
<b>fatinv20</b>	0,317
<b>fatinv21</b>	0,372
<b>fatinv22</b>	0,402
<b>fatinv23</b>	0,583
<b>fatinv24</b>	0,573
<b>fatinv25</b>	0,427
<b>fatinv26</b>	0,309

Items that have the lowest item-total correlation ( $< .2$ ) have been dropped before inserting all variables into the factor analysis. As a result, only item 13 have been eliminated because of its lowest item-total correlation value.

Only few items have communality value under .5. Because of large sample size it can be said that assumption related to sample size is validated. Moreover, KMO and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity values have been investigated. KMO value has been found as .879 which indicates sample size of the study is appropriate for explanatory factor analysis. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity value is found significant as required. Table 16 indicates these values.

**Table 16: KMO and Bartlett's Test of IFI**

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.879
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	3003,266
	Df	300
	Sig.	,000

After necessary assumptions have been validated, principle component analysis with varimax rotation has been run. 6 factors based on the Kaiser criterion of eigenvalues  $>1.0$  was yielded in the principle component analysis (See Table 17). 6 factors explain 52.8 % of the total variance.

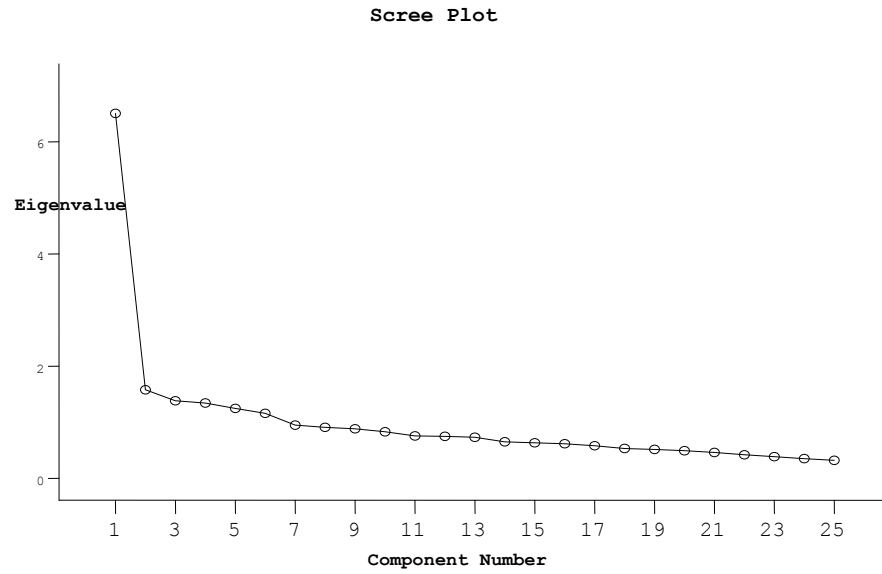
In addition to eigenvalues, scree test has examined .Table 18 indicates scree test results. It is seen that after 7<sup>th</sup> factor, the curve has really flattened. Therefore, only

six factors have been retained by depending on scree test, the same factor number was gathered though criteria of eigenvalues.

Both of the criterias, Kaiser's eigenvalues and Scree test (see Table 17) indicated six factors that encompass 52.8 percent of the variance. Therefore, the original nine-factor Inventory of Father Involvement was adapted to Turkish culture as a six-factor scale. The first factor clarifies 26% percent of the variance with 8 items; the second factor clarifies 6.31% percent of the variance with 5 items; the third factor clarifies 5.53% percent of the variance with four items; the fourth one clarifies % 5.53 of the variance with 3 items; the fifth one clarifies % 4.98 with 2 items and the last factor clarifies 4.63% percent of the variance with 2 items.

Results of Principle Component Analysis with varimax rotation are indicated in Table 18. Cut off criteria for factor loadings have been defined as .4. Therefore, in the current study only items those have fair loadings will be retained.

**Table 17: Scree Test Results of IFI-Turkish Form**



**Table 18: Rotated Component Matrix for IFI**

	Sub-Scale 1	Sub-Scale 2	Sub-Scale 3	Sub-Scale 4	Sub-Scale 5	Sub-Scale 6
Fatinv7	.736					
Fatinv5	.705					
Fatinv16	.687					
Fatinv9	.607					
Fatinv3	.559					
Fatinv18	.521					
Fatinv10	.495					
Fatinv23	.469					
Fatinv15						
Fatinv14		.649				

	Sub-Scale 1	Sub-Scale 2	Sub-Scale 3	Sub-Scale 4	Sub-Scale 5	Sub-Scale 6
Fatinv19		.620				
<b>Table 18 (continued)</b>						
Fatinv21	.592					
Fatinv12	.558					
Fatinv22	.539					
Fatinv17			.711			
Fatinv6			.666			
Fatinv24			.500			
Fatinv1			.495			
Fatinv26				.806		
Fatinv20				.771		
Fatinv25				.414		
Fatinv8					.762	
Fatinv4					.738	
Fatinv2						.755
Fatinv11						.662

Rotated Component Matrix yielded six meaningful factors. The last two factors have only two items. According to Costello and Osborne (2005), if five or more items come together under one factor with higher loadings (.5 or higher), that factor can be evaluated as solid, valid and desirable. On the other hand, Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) have mentioned that there should be at least three item for each factor but if there is a high correlation between items, a factor which includes only two items can be evaluated as a solid factor.

As seen in the rotated component matrix there is not any problem with the first three factors. 4<sup>th</sup> factor has three items that are factor loadings greater than .4. Only 5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> factors have two items but they are highly correlated with each other and their



factor loadings are approximately excellent. Therefore, in addition to item 13 which has very low correlation with the whole scale item 15 also excluded from the study because it did not load any factor with a value of .4.

The second factor analysis was done with remaining 24 items. Due to the fact that results of Eigenvalues, Scree test are consistent and both of them indicated 6 distinct factors in the second factor analysis number of factors fixed to 6. Table 19 indicates second rotated component matrix and factors and their item structures are given through Table 20 to 25.

**Table 19: 2<sup>nd</sup> Rotated Component Matrix of IFI**

	Sub-Scale 1	Sub-Scale 2	Sub-Scale 3	Sub-Scale 4	Sub-Scale 5	Sub-Scale 6
Fatinv7	.736					
Fatinv5	.705					
Fatinv16	.687					
Fatinv9	.606					
Fatinv3	.558					
Fatinv18	.521					
Fatinv10	.494					
Fatinv23	.468					
Fatinv14		.638				
Fatinv19		.638				
Fatinv21		.586				
Fatinv12		.558				
Fatinv22		.549				
Fatinv17			.714			
Fatinv6			.668			
Fatinv24			.500			
Fatinv1			.498			
Fatinv26				.804		
Fatinv20				.772		
Fatinv25				.412		
Fatinv8					.762	
Fatinv4					.743	
Fatinv2						.759
Fatinv11						.656

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**Table 20: Factor 1 of IFI**

- 
- 
- 3. I encourage my child to read.
  - 5. I give my children's mother encouragement and emotional support
  - 7. I lead my children know that their mothers is an important and special person.
  - 9. I encourage my children to succeed in preschool/elementary school
  - 10. I am a pal or friend to my children
  - 16. I cooperate with my children's mother in the rearing of my children.
  - 18. I teach my child to follow rules at school
  - 23. I encourage my child to develop their talents.
- 
- 

**Table 21: Factor 2 of IFI**

- 
- 
- 12. I encourage my children to do their homeworks.
  - 14. I know where my children go and what they do with their friends
  - 19. I encourage my child to continue schooling beyond high school
  - 21. I help my older child with their homework.
  - 22. I plan for my children's future (education, training).
- 
- 

**Table 22: Factor 3 of IFI**

- 
- 
- 1. I attend events my children participated in (school activities, sport activities, school trips etc)
  - 6. I am involved in the daily or regular routine of taking care of my children's basic needs or activities (feeding, driving them places etc)
  - 17. I read to my younger children.
  - 24. I spend time with my children doing things they like to do.
- 
-

**Table 23: Factor 4 of IFI**

- 
- 
- 20. I discipline my children.
  - 25. I encourage my children to do their chores
  - 26. I set rules and limits to for my children's behaviors.
- 
- 

**Table 24: Factor 5 of IFI**

- 
- 
- 4. I praise my children for being good or doing the right thing.
  - 8. I praise my children for something they have done well.
- 
- 

**Table 25: Factor 6 of IFI**

- 
- 
- 2. I provide my children's basic needs ( food, cloth, shelter etc.)
  - 11. I accept responsibility for the financial support of the children I have fathered.
- 
-

After factors' structures are broken down, they have labeled according to Palkovitz's (1997) conceptualization. Factor labels are given in the Table 26.

**Table 26: Factor Names of Inventory of Father Involvement Turkish form**

---

Factor 1: Mother Support & Teaching
Factor 2: Monitoring & Planning
Factor 3: Availability
Factor 4: Disciplining
Factor 5: Supporting Emotionality
Factor 6: Providing

---

---

#### **3.4.4.4. Reliability of Inventory of Father Involvement - Turkish Form**

After gathering evidences that are related with construct and content related validity of the IFI-Turkish Form, reliability of the scale has been computed. Reliability of an instrument is related with consistency of the scores gathered by that instrument (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). In short, reliability of an instrument is related with correlation among variables and consistency of the scores (Garson, 2010).

In order to examine reliability of Inventory of Father Involvement, Cronbach's alpha value was calculated. Table 27 indicates each factors reliability and total scales reliability, as well

**Table 27: Reliability Statistics of Subscales of Inventory of Father Involvement-Turkish Form**

Subscale	$\alpha$	M	SD	N of Items
Factor 1: Mother Support & Teaching	.82	35.49	4.67	8
Factor 2: Monitoring & Planning	.65	22.94	3.19	5
Factor 3: Availability	.61	14.77	3.22	4
Factor 4: Disciplining	.55	12.14	2.24	3
Factor 5: Supporting Emotionality	.59	8.91	1.32	2
Factor 6: Providing	.46	9.68	.77	2
Total Inventory of Father Involvement-TF	.86	104.47	11.15	25

As seen in the Table 27, for the Inventory of Father Involvement - Turkish Form, the total Cronbach alpha level is .86. Due to the fact that Inventory of Father Involvement is depend on the idea that father involvement is a multidimensional phenomena and factor analysis has indicated that the Inventory of Father Involvement-Turkish Form has six different factors, Cronbach's alpha values were calculated for all factors separately. It has been found that Cronbach's alpha values of factors ranges from .46 to .82. Except the first factor, reliabilities of other factors are under the level of .7 which indicates poor reliability. This situation can be explained through the number of items. As it is completely defined, reliability is mostly related with the number of items that are included in the scale or in the factor (Garson, 2010). Therefore, it is not an extraordinary situation to having lower reliability when the number of items in a subscale is two or three. This problem encountered for the 4<sup>th</sup>, 5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> factor of the IFI-Turkish Form in which there are three and two items, respectively.

#### **3.4.4. Analysis of the Data**

In this study initially general pattern of fathers' involvement and their own fathers' involvement will be examined through descriptive analysis. Secondly, the effect of fathers' fathers' involvement on fathers' own involvement level will be examined through inferential statistical techniques. To examine differences among fathers' involvement level with respect to their own fathers' involvement one-way MANOVA will be run. Lastly, to understand possible effects of age related motivational factors (fathers' age, age of being father), social support (wives' employment status and employment hours, and perceived spouse support), institutional factors (fathers' work hours), child characteristics (child age, child gender) and some socio-demographical characteristics of fathers (fathers' income level) on fathers' involvement level to their 0-8 years old children's lives, a Multiple Regression Analysis will be conducted to the data.

## CHAPTER 4

### RESULTS

As mentioned in the second chapter in detailed, the main aim of the current study is examining the effect of fathers' relationship with their own fathers on their involvement level to child care activities when their children are at the ages of 0 to 8, in Turkey. Also, the effect of some socio-demographical characteristics of fathers will be investigated during the study such as fathers' age; age of being father; child age; child gender and number of children that a father has; fathers' income level; wives' employment status and employment hours; wives' education level, and fathers' educational level and their work hours. Therefore, there are two main research questions which are given below;

***R.Q.1.** What is the general pattern of fathers' and their own fathers' involvement in their children's lives?*

***R.Q.2.** Do fathers' relationships with their own father affect their involvement level in their 0-8 year old children?*

***R.Q.3.** What is the possible effect of age related motivational factors, social support, institutional factors as well as child characteristics and paternal income level on fathers' involvement level to their 0-8 eight years old children?*



#### 4.1. Results for the 1st Research Question

As mentioned above, the first research question of this study deals with the general pattern of Turkish fathers' involvement levels to their 0-8 years old children's lives. In the current study there are 528 fathers. All fathers have voluntarily completed the Inventory of Father Involvement Scale- Turkish Form. The IFI-Turkish Form is a 5-Likert Type scale (in which 1= never, 2 = rarely, 3 = sometimes; 4 = frequently, and 5 = always). There are six sub-scales in the IFI-Turkish Form. Table 28 indicates mean scores and the value of standard deviation of sample for each sub-scale of the IFI-Turkish form.

**Table 28; Descriptive Statistics for IFI Sub-Scales**

Name of the Sub-Scale	<i>M</i>	<i>S.D</i>	N
Mother Support & Teaching	4.31	0,71	526
Monitoring & Planning	3.95	1.14	525
Availability	3.52	0.85	526
Disciplining	3.90	0.83	524
Supporting Emotionality	4.39	0.76	526
Providing	4.80	0.54	526

As seen in the Table 28, the participants gathered the lowest score from the “Availability” sub-scale ( $M = 3.52$ ,  $S.D = 0.85$ ) whereas the highest score was gathered from the “Providing” sub-scale ( $M = 4.80$ ,  $S.D = 0.54$ ). That is fathers always engage in activities related with providing subscale like financing children, providing needed clothes, foods, or financial support for their children and they sometimes engage in activities related with availability sub-scale such as engaging in activities with children, making sport with their children, engaging school

conferences and etc. Fathers have been reported that they are almost frequently engage in activities that are related to sub-scales of “*Mother Support & Teaching*” ( $M = 4.31, S.D = 0.71$ ); “*Monitoring & Planning*” ( $M = 3.95, S.D = 1.14$ ); “*Disciplining*” ( $M = 3.90, S.D = 0.83$ ); and “*Supporting Emotionality*” ( $M = 4.39, S.D = 0.76$ ). When fathers’ fathers’ involvement pattern is examined through fathers’ retrospective reports, it has been seen that there is a consistency between fathers’ and their son’s involvement to child related activities.

Fathers’ fathers’ involvement level was reported by participating fathers through Fatherhood Scale-Turkish Form. This scale, as IFI-Turkish Form, is a 5-Likert Type Scale in which 1 = never, 2 = rarely, 3= sometimes, 4= frequently and 5 = always. Fathers’ report their own fathers’ involvement through this scale, retrospectively. According to the reports of participating fathers, fathers’ fathers mostly involved in activities related with “*Providing*” Sub-scale ( $M = 4.35, S.D. = 0.71$ ) and the least involvement occurred in “*Monitoring & Availability*” sub-scale ( $M = 2.33, S.D. = 0.95$ ). Fathers’ reports indicate that their own fathers “sometimes” engaged in activities related to Communication & Affection ( $M = 3.27, S.D. = 0.95$ ), Negative Emotional Expressiveness ( $M = 4.13, S.D. = 0.66$ ), Teaching ( $M = 3.28, S.D. = 1.08$ ), and Religious Father ( $M = 2.95, S.D. = 1.15$ ) sub-scales. Table 29 includes detailed information.

**Table 29: Descriptive Statistics For Fathers' Own Fathers' Involvement**

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Communication & Affection	3.27	0.95	517
Monitoring & Availability	2.33	0.94	516
Providing	4.35	0.71	517
Negative Emotional Expressiveness	4.13	0.66	516
Teaching	3.28	1.08	517
Religious Father	2.95	1.15	517

#### **4.2. Results for the 2nd Research Question**

In order to test the first hypothesis of the current study, one-way multivariate analysis of variances (MANOVA) has been used as statistical analysis method. MANOVA is very similar to ANOVA except the number of dependent variables that are used during analysis. In MANOVA there are two or more dependent variables that were affected from one categorical independent variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). In this study there are two reasons for preferring MANOVA as statistical analysis method;

\*There are more than one dependent variables and,

\*Using MANOVA rather than separate ANOVAs for each DVs decreases the risk for Type I error.

In MANOVA there should be one categorical independent variable (Everitt, 2005). In this study this variable is fathers' perceptions about their relationship with their own fathers. To create this categorical independent variable (IV), scores that were gathered from the Fatherhood Scale-Turkish Form were divided into three categories.

Scores of 104 and below have been evaluated as having less involved father; scores between 104 and 207 have been evaluated as having moderately involved father and scores of 208 and above have been evaluated as having highly involved father.

The second major requirement of the MANOVA is having two or more continuous dependent variables (DVs) (Everitt, 2005). In the current study, six subscales of the Inventory of Father Involvement-Turkish Form were treated as different DVs of the study. Therefore, for the first research question MANOVA has tested the mean differences of three groups of fathers on IFI-Turkish Form's six subscales.

For the first research question, it is hypothesized that fathers who have highly involved fathers gather higher scores on the subscales of IFI-Turkish Form than fathers who have moderately or less involved fathers. In other words, by using MANOVA mean difference among these three groups of fathers' involvement levels was assessed.

MANOVA because of its complexity have a lot of assumptions. These assumptions are;

- \*Sample size
- \*Normality
- \*Outliers
- \*Linearity
- \*Homogeneity of regression
- \*Multicollinearity and singularity
- \*Homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices

#### 4. 2.1. Assumptions of Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA)

##### 4. 2.1.1.. Sample Size

According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) in order to conduct MANOVA as statistical analysis the number of cases in each cell should be more than the number of dependent variables of the study. In the current study there are six different dependent variables and in the least case number in cells is 20. Fathers were divided into three groups depending on Dick's (2000) criteria. Fathers who gathered the total score of 104 and below from FS were included in Group I and called "fathers who have low involved father" and fathers who gathered the total score of 208 and above were included in Group III and called "fathers who have highly involved father". Lastly, remaining fathers were included in the Group II and called "fathers who have moderately involved father". Table 30 indicates case number per cell.

**Table 30; Between-Subjects Factors**

		N
LEVELFS	Group 1	22
	Group 2	375
	Group 3	111

Group I= Fathers who have low involved fathers  
Group II= Fathers who have moderately involved fathers  
Group III= Fathers who have highly involved fathers

#### **4.2.1.2. Normality & Outliers**

Normality refers to a distribution where greatest scores are in the middle and smaller frequencies of scores are in the extremes that creates a bell shaped, symmetrical curve. Normality can be evaluated by examining skewness and kurtosis values for each dependent variable in each group. In addition to skewness and kurtosis values histograms were examined to assess normality. Table 31 indicates skewness and kurtosis values for each dependent variable in each group.

**Table 31: Skewness and kurtosis values for the dependent variables in each group**

		IFI 1	IFI 2	IFI 3	IFI 4	IFI 5	IFI 6
GroupI	Skewness	-1.337	-1.407	-.062	-.298	-.479	-3.122
	Kurtosis	1.442	1.615	-1.053	-.996	-.963	10.726
GroupII	Skewness	- 1.100	-.870	-.304	-.439	-1.209	-2.475
	Kurtosis	1.488	.238	-.325	-.354	1.615	6.284
GroupII	Skewness	-2.714	-1.097	-.414	-.966	-1.470	- 4.633
	Kurtosis	11.081	.935	-.194	1.203	1.292	25.155

Skewness and kurtosis values indicate the normality of the distribution if they are between the values of +2 and -2. As seen in the Table 32 skewness and kurtosis values of dependent variables in the current study mostly between required ranges however there are some exceptions which indicate there is a non-normal distribution. In order to make those distributions being closer to normality some transformations have been applied to those variables. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) there are some formulas for transforming values to being closer to the normal

distribution. They have suggested that for substantial negative skewness can be corrected through this formula.

$$NEWX=LG10 (K-X)$$

In this formula K is “a constant from which each score is subtracted so that the smallest score is 1: usually equal to the largest score plus one”, for this current study the K value was 6 which the value that correspond to largest score plus one (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007, p. 89). This formula was used to transform scores of IFI6 for all groups. The new variable was called as LIFI 6 and further analysis have done with this new score. Table 32 indicates new skewness and kurtosis values for each group for sixth factor of the IFI.

**Table 32: Skewness and kurtosis values for each group**

		IFI 6
Group I	Skewness	2.325
	Kurtosis	5.640
Group II	Skewness	1.926
	Kurtosis	2.753
Group III	Skewness	3.603
	Kurtosis	14.249

Although not all new values are in acceptable range, according to Mardia (1971, as cited in Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007, p. 251) the least case number in each cell is equal to 20, robustness is ensured and this means there is no threat for normality.

Due to the fact that in each cell there are at least 20 cases, normality assumption has been violated in the current study.

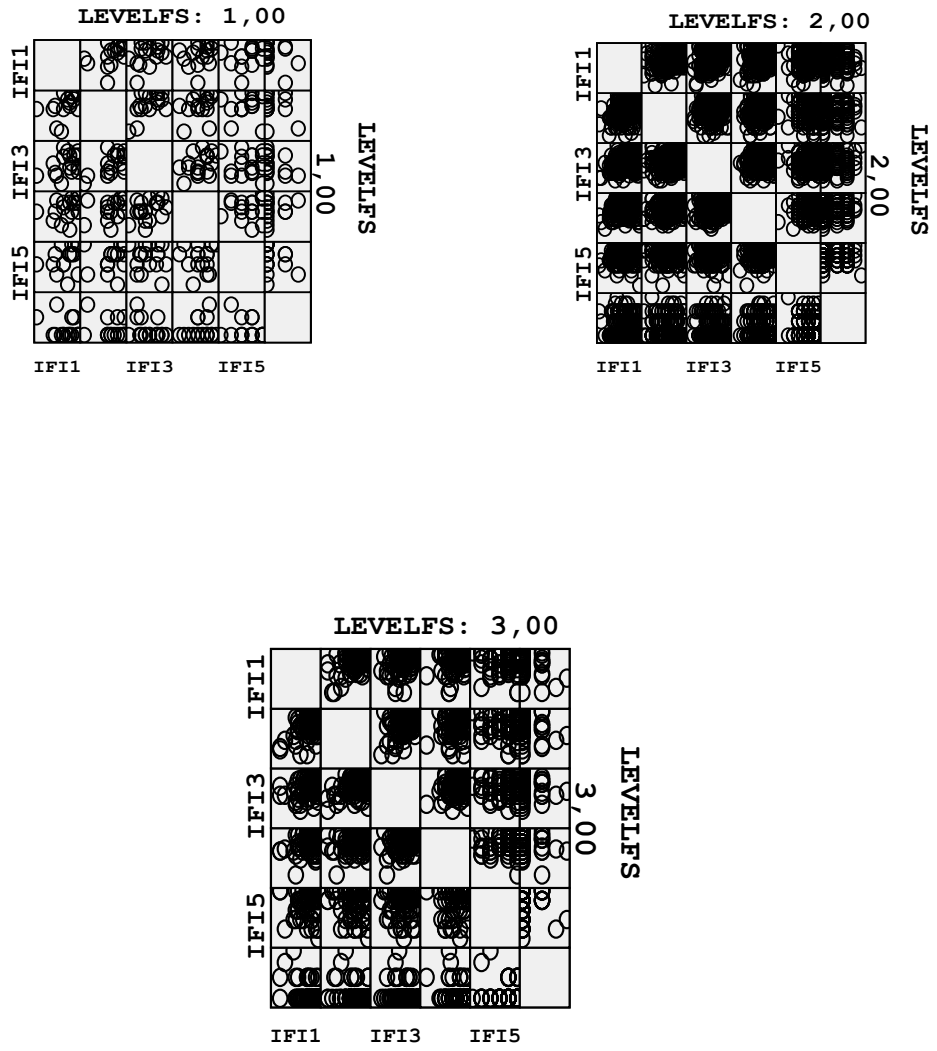
While using MANOVA as a statistical analysis method in addition to univariate normality one should control the data for its multivariate normality. To do so, Mahalanobis distances have been calculated for each case. This process gives information about outliers, as well (Pallant, 2001). Maximum value for Mahalanobis Distance was 43.93. This value was compared with the critical value of 22.46 that was obtained from Chi-Square table (Pallant, 2001, p.221). Values exceeding the critical value of 22.46 were excluded from the further analyses so that there was no threat of multivariate outliers. 15 cases, as a result of this process, have been excluded from the study and the maximum value for Mahalanobis Distance has reached to 21.21 which is under the critical value.

#### **4. 2.1.3. Linearity**

Separate scatter plots for each group (Group I, Group II and Group III) have been generated to examine the linearity which refers to a straight-line relationship. For three groups totally 45 scatterplots have been generated. As seen in Table 33 that indicates scatterplots for each group, there are no serious violations of linearity assumption.



Table 33: Scatterplots for each group



#### **4.2.1.4. Homogeneity of Regression**

According to Pallant (2001) this assumption is important if there is a reason to order dependent variables according to some theories or conceptualizations. In the current study making a stepdown analysis which requires ordering dependent variables is not necessary so this assumption is violated.

#### **4.2.1.5. Multicollinearity and Singularity**

According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) highly positive correlation or a correlation which is near zero among DVs can cause multicollinearity or singularity in the data set. On the other hand Pallant (2001) have mentioned that correlation among DVs that exceeds 0.8 leads this assumption to be violated and moderately correlated DVs in either direction have been labeled as acceptable by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). Table 34 indicates correlations among DVs or whole sample and for each groups.

**Table 34: Correlations coefficients for the dependent variables**

		IFI1	IFI2	IFI3	IFI4	IFI5	LIFI6
Whole sample	IFI1	1	-	-	-	-	-
	IFI2	.508(*)	1	-	-	-	-
	IFI3	.405	.597(*)	1	-	-	-
	IFI4	.345	.375	.417	1	-	-
	IFI5	.347	.271	-.064	.093	1	-
	LIFI6	-.343	-.304	-.345	.161	-.263	1

**Table 34 (continued)**

		IFI1	IFI2	IFI3	IFI4	IFI5	LIFI6
Group I	IFI1	1	-	-	-	-	-
	IFI2	.790(**)	1	-	-	-	-
	IFI3	.615(**)	.719(**)	1	-	-	-
	IFI4	.520(*)	.533(*)	.551(*)	1	-	-
	IFI5	.613(**)	.572(*)	.270	.346	1	-
	LIFI6	-.373	-.348	-.438	-.232	-.415	1
Group II	IFI1	1	-	-	-	-	-
	IFI2	.488(**)	1	-	-	-	-
	IFI3	.513(**)	.396(**)	1	-	-	-
	IFI4	.345(**)	.399(**)	.309(**)	1	-	-
	IFI5	.406(**)	.308(**)	.278(**)	.262(**)	1	-
	LIFI6	-.245(**)	-.231(**)	-.155(**)	-.154(**)	-.176(**)	1
Group III	IFI1	1	-	-	-	-	-
	IFI2	.623(**)	1	-	-	-	-
	IFI3	.440(**)	.468(**)	1	-	-	-
	IFI4	.338(**)	.283(**)	.307(**)	1	-	-
	IFI5	.155	.089	.208(*)	.239(*)	1	-
	LIFI6	-.280(**)	-.143	-.181	-.234(*)	-.231(*)	1

As seen in the Table 34, correlations among DVs are in the acceptable range. There is no risk for multicollinearity or singularity.

#### **4.2.1.6. Homogeneity of variance- covariance matrices**

“The assumption is that variance-covariance matrices within each cell of the design are sampled from the same population variance-covariance matrix and can reasonably be pooled to create a single estimate of error” (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007, p. 252). To test this assumption, Box’s M test is examined. It tests the null hypothesis which claims the observed covariance matrices of the dependent variables are equal across groups. Box’s M test should not be significant at  $p < 0.001$  if sample sizes are unequal. Table 35 gives results of Box’s M test.

**Table 35: Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices (a)**

Box's M	F	df1	df2	Sig.
66.668	1.484	42	10635.124	.023

As seen in the table above, Box’s M test have indicated that this assumption is not violated because of having Sig. value that is larger than .001. In addition to Box’s M test, Levene’s Tests of Equality of error Variances which indicates that the assumption of equality of variance for each variable is examined. All Sig. values are required to be larger than 0.05. Table 36 indicates Levene’s Test of Equality of Error Variances

**Table 36: Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances**

	F	df1	df2	Sig.(p)
IFI1	2.277	2	482	.104
IFI2	4.048	2	482	.018
IFI3	1.017	2	482	.363
IFI4	.012	2	482	.988
IFI5	1.676	2	482	.188
LIFI6	16.071	2	482	.000

Levene's Test, in addition to Box's *M* Tests, tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups. However, as seen in the Table 38, with only two exceptions Sig. Value for each variable are larger than .05 which indicates that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups. The assumption of homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices is not violated.

#### **4.2.1.7. Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA)**

One-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted to examine the effects of involvement types of fathers' own fathers on fathers' involvement level to their children's caring. According to Tabachnick & Fidell (2007) if some assumptions for multivariate analysis of variance have not been met, then Pillai's Trace rather than Wilks' Lambda should be used. As it was mentioned in assumptions part the data have not failed to meet some assumptions for MANOVA; therefore Wilks' Lambda can be used to use to evaluate multivariate significance. The results have indicated that own fathers' involvement level have a statistically significant effect on the combined dependent variable as indicated in Table 37, Wilks' Lambda =0.950,  $F(12, 954)= 2.081$ ,  $p=0.016$ . The multivariate partial  $\eta^2$  value based on Pillai's Trace was 0.026 which refers to the fact that only 2.6 % of multivariate of

the dependent variables was explained through own fathers' involvement level. These results indicate that there was a significant difference in terms of their involvement level to their 0-8 year old children's caring between three groups of father.

**Table 37: Multivariate Test**

	Wilks' Lambda	F	Sig.	Partial Squared	Eta
Fathers' own fathers' involvement level	.950	2.081(b)	.016	.026	

After reaching statistically main effect of fathers' relationship with their own father on their involvement level to their own children, follow-up univariate analysis were conducted to determine on which DVs those three groups of father have differed. According to Pallant (2001) in order to understand on which dependent variables that groups have differed through reducing the chance of Type I error in which one may find significant difference although there is no difference in fact, Benferonni adjustment should be done. Therefore in order to find more reliable results, by doing Benferonni adjustment a new alpha value has been found by dividing original alpha level to the number of dependent variable. When our original alpha level of 0.05 has been divided to 6, the number of dependent variable, the value of 0.008 has been found as a new alpha values for the current study. As presented in the Table 38, univariate statistics revealed statistically significant mean difference on most of the dependent variables by perceived relationship with own father.

**Table 38: Follow-up univariate results**

Source	Dependent Variable	df	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
LEVELFS	IFI1	2	8.872	.000	.036
	IFI2	2	3.544	.030	.014
	IFI3	2	6.706	.001	.027
	IFI4	2	2.623	.074	.011
	IFI5	2	2.282	.103	.009
	LIFI6	2	3.500	.031	.014

\*Analysis was performed with the significance level of  $\alpha = 0.05$ .

As seen in the Table 38, fathers' relationship with their own father has an effect on their own involvement levels to their 0-8 year old children's caring on the dependent variables of IFI1 and IFI3; mother support and teaching level and the level of availability, respectively. On the other hand, IFI2, IFI4, IFI5 and IFI6, respectively, monitoring and planning, disciplining, supporting emotionality, and providing sub-scales have not been affected from fathers' perceived own father involvement.

#### **4. 2.1.8. Follow-up ANOVA Results for IFI 1- Mother support & Teaching-**

MANOVA results has indicated that there is a mean differences among three groups of fathers in IFI 1 (Mother support and teaching),  $F(2,482) = 8.872$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .036$ . In order to understand, which groups have differed from other a follow-up univariate analysis of variances has been conducted. Table 39 indicates that the third group significantly differs from second group of father in terms of mother support and teaching variable, but the difference between the third group and the first group is not statistically significant. That is, fathers who have highly involved father support their wife and teach to their children more than fathers who have moderately involved fathers but there is not any significant difference between fathers who have highly and low involved father.

**Table 39: Multiple comparisons - Tukey HSD**

Dependent Variable	(I) LEVELFS	(J) LEVELFS	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
IFI1	1	2	-.03084	.10733	.956
		3	-.26630	.11417	.052
	2	1	.03084	.10733	.956
		3	-.23545 <sup>(*)</sup>	.05380	.000
	3	1	.26630	.11417	.052
		2	.23545 <sup>(*)</sup>	.05380	.000

\* The mean difference is significant at the .008 level

#### **4. 2.1.9. Follow-up ANOVA Results for IFI 2- Monitoring and Planning-**

MANOVA results have not indicated a statistically significant difference among groups in terms of IFI 2 –Monitoring and Planning- at the alpha level of .008. That is, having a highly involved or moderately involved or even low involved father does not affect fathers’ monitoring level of their own children’s’ life and their level of planning for their children’s.

**Table 40: Multiple comparisons -Tukey HSD-**

Dependent Variable	(I) LEVELFS	(J) LEVELFS	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
IFI2	1	2	-.08611	.11745	.744
		3	-.25008	.12485	.113
	2	1	.08611	.11745	.744
		3	-.16396	.05899	.016
	3	1	.25008	.12485	.113
		2	.16396	.05899	.016

\* The mean difference is not significant at the .008 level.



**4.2.1.10. Follow-up ANOVA Results for IFI 3 - Availability –**

MANOVA results indicate that there is a mean differences among three groups of fathers in the IFI 3 (Availability) variable,  $F(2,482) = 6,706, p < 0.001, \eta^2 = .027$ . In order to understand, which groups have differed from others a follow-up univariate analysis of variances has been conducted. Table 41 indicates that the third group significantly differs from first and second group of father in terms of availability variable. That is fathers who have highly involved fathers are available to their 0-8 year old children more than fathers who have moderately involved fathers but there is not any significant difference between fathers who have highly involved and low involved fathers.

**Table 41: Multiple Comparisons for IFI3 -Tukey HSD-**

Dependent Variable	(I) LEVELFS	(J) LEVELFS	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
IFI3	1	2	-.20088	.15940	.418
		3	-.46765(*)	.16982	.017
	2	1	.20088	.15940	.418
		3	-.26677(*)	.08124	.003
	3	1	.46765(*)	.16982	.017
		2	.26677(*)	.08124	.003

\* The mean difference is significant at the .008 level.

**4.2.1.11. Follow-up ANOVA Results for IFI 4- Disciplining–**

MANOVA results have not indicated a statistically significant difference among groups in terms of IFI 4 –disciplining- at the alpha level of .008. This result indicates that fathers’ own fathers’ involvement level does not affect fathers’ level of involvement to their children’s disciplining

**Table 42: Multiple Comparisons - Tukey HSD-**

Dependent Variable	(I) LEVELFS	(J) LEVELFS	Mean Difference ( I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
IFI4	1	2	-,01453	,15469	,995
		3	-,19695	,16467	,456
	2	1	,01453	,15469	,995
		3	-,18241	,07780	,051
	3	1	,19695	,16467	,456
		2	,18241	,07780	,051

\* The mean difference is not significant at the .008 level

#### **4. 2.1.12. Follow-up ANOVA Results for IFI 5 -Supporting Emotionality-**

MANOVA results have not indicated a statistically significant difference among groups in terms of IFI 5 –supporting emotionality- at the alpha level of .008. This result indicates that fathers’ own fathers’ involvement level does not affect the level of fathers’ support to their children’s emotionality.

**Table 43: Multiple Comparison -Tukey HSD-**

Dependent Variable	(I) LEVELFS	(J) LEVELFS	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
IFI5	1	2	-.9177	.14137	.793
		3	-.26202	.15038	.191
	2	1	.09177	.14137	.793
		3	-.17025	.07086	.044
	3	1	.26202	.15038	.191
		2	.17025	.07086	.044

\* The mean difference is not significant at the .008 level.

#### **4.2.1.13. Follow-up ANOVA Results for IFI 6 -Providing-**

MANOVA results have not indicated a statistically significant difference among groups in terms of IFI 6 –providing- at the alpha level of .008. This result indicates that fathers’ own fathers’ involvement level does not affect the level of fathers’ involvement level to the providing of their own children’s needs.

**Table 44: Multiple Comparisons - Tukey HSD-**

Dependent Variable	(I) LEVELFS	(J) LEVELFS	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
LIFI6	1	2	.01392	.02080	.781
		3	.04288	.02210	.129
	2	1	-.01392	.02080	.781
		3	.02896	.01039	.015
	3	1	-.04288	.02210	.129
		2	-.02896	.01039	.015

\* The mean difference is not significant at the .008 level.

In conclusion, one-way MANOVA results have indicated that fathers’ own fathers’ involvement level only affects their involvement level in terms of mother support and teaching, and availability variables. Fathers who have highly involved father gives more support to his wife and he teaches more to their children and also he becomes more available to his own children than fathers’ who have moderately or low involved fathers.

#### **4.3. Results for the 3rd Research Question**

The third research question of this study aims to explore the effect of variables related to age related motivational factors factors, social support factors, institutional factors, and child characteristics on the level of fathers’ involvement to their 0-8 years old children’s life.

For the current research question age related motivational factors as suggested by Lamb et. al. (1985) includes fathers' age, fathers' age of being father. Because in the previous research question the effect of perceived own father involvement have been examined in detailed this variable has not been included to present analysis. Variables related with social support factor are wife's working condition (if she is working or not); wife hours of working per day and perceived wife support. Variables included in institutional factors are fathers' working hours and their income level and child related variables that will be entered to the analysis are child age and child gender.

In order to examine these variables' possible effect on the fathers' involvement level to their 0-8 years old children's life a Standard Multiple Linear Regression analysis have been run by using SPSS. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) there are six main assumptions for Multiple Linear Regression and these assumptions will be assessed during following parts.

#### **4. 3.1. Assumptions of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis**

##### **4. 3.1.1. Ratio of Cases to IVs**

In order to examine the third research question a standard multiple regression have been run. The minimum case number to run this analysis should be 114 ( $N \geq 50 + 8*m$ ) to test the multiple correlation and 112 ( $N \geq 104 + m$ ) to test individual predictors ( $m$  is the number of IVs, which is 8 for the current analysis, Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007, p. 123). In the current data there are 528 cases and this assumption has not been violated.

#### **4. 3.1.2. Absence of outliers among the IVs and the DV**

Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) have been mentioned that outliers among the IVs and the DV have an important effect on the regression analysis. Hence univariate and multivariate outliers should be found and they should be deleted, rescored or variable transformed; however, this process can be done “either prior to a regression run or through a residuals analysis after an initial regression run” ( Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007, p.124). For the current study both univariate and multivariate outliers will be examined through residuals analysis.

#### **4. 3.1.3. Absence of Multicollinearity and Singularity**

Multicollinearity refers to the high correlation which is above .9 between independent variables where singularity refers to the condition in which one IV is combination of some other IVs that are also entered to the equation (Pallant, 2001, pp. 136-137). For the current study only correlation between mother work hours and mother job condition exceeds .9. Therefore, only mother work hours is entered in the regression analysis.

In addition to partial correlation, Tolerance value and VIF values gives information about multicollinearity. Tolerance value should be greater than .20 and VIF value should be less than 10 for the IVs (Tabachnick & Fidell,2007) and Table 45 indicates Tolerance and VIF values for IVs.

**Table 45; Tolerance & VIF Values for Each Independent Variable**

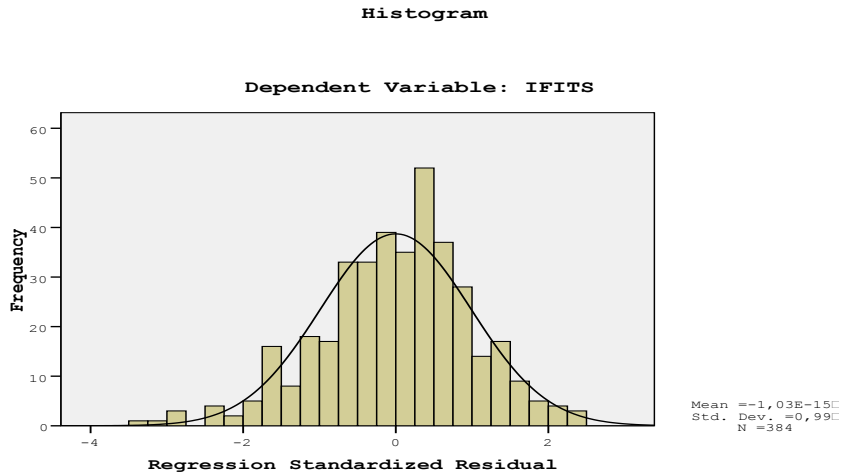
<b>Variabables</b>	<b>Tolerace</b>	<b>VIF</b>
Perceived Suppose Support	.965	1.04
Father Age	.635	1.58
Father Work Hour	.977	1.02
Mother Work Hour	.790	1.27
Father Income	.777	1.29
Child Gender	.983	1.02
Child Age	.821	1.22
Age of Being Father	.612	1.63

As seen in the Table 45, all values for Tolerance values are greater than .02 and for VIF values less than 10. This means that the assumption of multicollinearity is not violated. On the other hand there is not any IV that also includes others which means that there no risk in the current variables for singularity. Therefore this assumption is not violated.

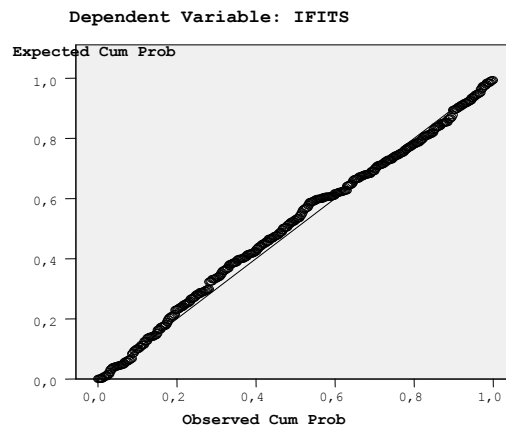
#### **4. 3.1.4. Normality, Linearity, Homoscedasticity of Residuals**

Residuals scatterplots and Normal probability Plot ( P-P) are examined to assess normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity (Pallant,2007). Histograms indicate if there is a normal distribution for the data. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) there should be a rectangular shape in the scatterplot and there should not be any point which is exceeds +/- 3.3. Normal P-P plot, on the other hand, is expected to include a straight diagonal line from bottom left to top right on which points lie and histogram is expected to show a normal distribution. Table 46, includes Histogram, Normal P-P Plot and Residual Scatterplot.

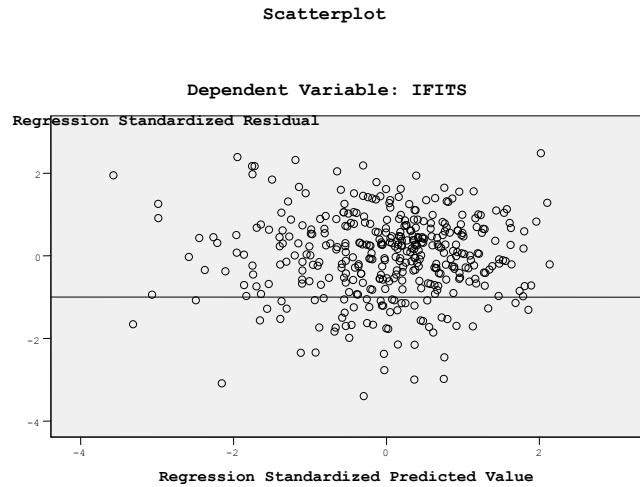
**Table 46; Regression Standardised Residual, Residuals Scatterplots and Normal Probability Plot (P-P)**



**Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual**



**Table 46 (Continued)**



As seen in the Table 46, Histogram, Residual Scatter Plot and Normal P-P Plot indicate no violation of the Normality, Linearity and Homoscedasticity assumption.

#### **4.3.1.5. Independence of Errors**

According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) , to meet this assumption Durbin-Watson value is needed to be between 1,5 and 2,5, and the closer values to two are better ( Field,2009) . For the current analysis, Durbin-Watson value is 2.005 which indicate that the assumption has been met.



**Table 47: Durbin –Watson Value**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R square change	F change	df1	df2	Sig. F change	Durbin-Watson
1	.456	.208	.191	.38	.208	12.308	8	375	.000	2.005

Predictors: (Constant), ageofbeingfather, childage, childgender, SSSTS

Dependent Variable: IFITS

#### **4. 3.1.6. Absence of outliers in the solution**

Cases in the data that have larger residuals are called as outliers in the solution (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Outliers can be identified from both residual plot and by looking Mahalanobis Distances and Cooks' Distances. Table 46 indicates Residuals Plots, according to this plot there are few outliers, later Mahalanobis Distances have been examined. According to Chi-Square Table that indicates critical values for Mahalanobis Distances with respect to the number of IVs, the critical value for the current study is 15.51. When Mah. Distances are examined it is seen that 43 cases exceeds this critical value with the maximum value of 98.071. Because of sensitiveness of Multiple Linear Regression to outliers (Field, 2009), these 45 cases that exceeds critical Chi-Square value are removed from the further analysis. In addition to Mahalanobis Distances, Cook's distances have been examined. The maximum value for Cook's Distance, after outliers have been excluded from the study, is 0.58. Examination of Residual Plots, Mahalanobis Distances and Cook's Distance indicate that this assumption has been met. Table 48 shows maximum Mahalanobis Distance and Cook's Distance levels.

**Table 48: Residual Statistics**

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Mahal. Distance	1.975	19.859	7.979	3.767	384
Cook's Distance	.000	.058	.003	.006	384

After all assumptions have been examined and no major violation have been found, ANOVA table have been examined. This table informs researcher about the significance of the model. The Table 49 indicates ANOVA table.

**Table 49: ANOVA Table for the Whole Model**

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	14.203	8	1.775	12.308	.000
Residual	54.093	375	.144		
Total	68.296	383			

Predictors: (Constant), ageofbeingfather, childage, childgender, SSSTS

Dependent Variable: IFITS

According to the ANOVA results, this model predicted scores on father involvement level in some significant level; therefore regression analysis can be conducted.

#### **4.3.2. Results of Standard Multiple Linear Regression**

A Standard multiple linear regression was conducted to determine the possible effects of age related motivational factors factors , social support factors, institutional and child caharacteristics on fathers' involvement to their 0-8 years old children's life.

Pearson correlations were examined to determine the relationship between father age, fathers' age of being father, fathers' perceptions about their own father's involvement, their wife's working condition, working hours and fathers' perceptions about their wife's support to themselves, child age and gender, fathers' own working hours per day and their income level on fathers involvement level to their children's life.

The overall model was significant,  $R^2 = .208$ ,  $F(8,375) = 12,308$ ,  $p < .05$ . The effect size indicates that the model accounted for 20.8 % of the variance in fathers' involvement level to their 0-8 years old children's life. In the model, perceived suppose support ( $\beta = .382$ ,  $p = .000$ ); age of being father ( $\beta = .186$ ,  $p = .002$ ); fathers' age ( $\beta = -.137$ ,  $p = .018$ ) have been found as significant predictors. Mothers' hours of working ( $\beta = .056$ ,  $p = .281$ ); fathers' hours of working ( $\beta = -.032$ ,  $p = .497$ ); child gender ( $\beta = -.066$ ,  $p = .156$ ); child age ( $\beta = -.003$ ,  $p = .949$ ); and father income ( $\beta = .100$ ,  $p = .056$ ) were found as insignificant predictors of father involvement level to their 0-8 years old children's life when considered together.

Although it has been found that fathers' age, their age of being father, and fathers' perceptions about the support that their wife give to them are statistically significant predictors of the level of fathers' involvement to their 0-8 years old children's life, the model is very limited because of its small effect size. Further research should consider this issue while using this model for their research. Table 50 includes a summary of the regression model.

**Table 50; Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Father Involvement Level (N = 384)**

	<b>B</b>	<b>SE B</b>	<b>β</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Constant	2.797	.288	-----	.000
Perceived Suppose Support	.337	.041	.382	.000
Father Age	.013	.005	-.137	.018
Father Work Hour	-.004	.006	-.032	.497
Mother Work Hour	.005	.005	.056	.281
Father Income	.030	.016	.100	.056
Child Gender	-.056	.039	-.066	.156
Child Age	-.001	.011	-.003	.949
Age of Being Father	.022	.007	.186	.002

The regression equation for predicting the level of father involvement is represented below:

$$\hat{Y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1X_1 + \beta_2X_2 + \beta_3X_3$$

$$\hat{Y} = 2.797 + 0.022 (\text{Age of Being Father}) - 0.013 (\text{Fathers' age}) + 0.337(\text{Perceived Wife Support})$$

$\hat{Y}$  is the dependent variable (Fathers' involvement level to their 0-8 year old child life);  $\beta_0$  is the intercept before any response;  $\beta_1$ ,  $\beta_2$ ,  $\beta_3$ ,  $\beta_4$  represent slopes for each of the independent variables that have been measured.  $X_1$ ,  $X_2$ ,  $X_3$  and  $X_4$  are independent variables that are age of being father, fathers' age, and perceived wife support, respectively. According to the results, the intercept before response on the SIM ( $\beta_0$ ) was 2.797. The standard multiple linear regression analysis in this study found that independent variables that have been measured have accounted for 19.1 %

of the variance in father involvement level when all independent variables were included in the model.

### **4.3.3. Generalizability of Results**

According to Field (2009) the *Adjusted R<sup>2</sup>* gives information about “how much variance in Y would be accounted for if the model had been derived from the population from which the sample was taken” (p.221). As an output SPSS provide an Adjusted R<sup>2</sup> which is calculated with Wherry’s equation; however, because of criticisms to this equation Field (2009) have suggested Stern’s formula for calculating Adjusted R<sup>2</sup>, which is given below;

$$\text{Adjusted } R^2 = 1 - \left[ \left( \frac{n-1}{n-k-1} \right) \left( \frac{n-2}{n-k-2} \right) \left( \frac{n+1}{n} \right) \right] (1 - R^2)$$

In this formula sample size is symbolized with n (=384); the number of independent variable is symbolized with k (=8) and R<sup>2</sup> is the value that is provided by SPSS as an output, 0.208 for the current study. When applying this formula to the current data Adjusted R<sup>2</sup> has been found 0.177, which indicate that this model will account for the % 18 of the total variance in the level of father involvement, when applied to a different data set. This result indicates that the variance that is explained with this model in a different data set is very moderate. Therefore caution should be taken when generalizing this model to another population.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **DISCUSSION**

This study aimed to examine the general pattern of fathers' and their own fathers' involvement level, how father's involvement in their 0-8 years old children's lives is affected by some factors such as age related motivational factors, social support, and institutional factors that were identified by Lamb et al. (1985) and some child characteristics and paternal socio-demographic characteristics. Also, the sole effect of fathers' perceptions about their relationship with their fathers on their involvement level was examined.

In order to understand the general pattern of Turkish fathers' involvement, firstly a descriptive analysis has been done. Secondly, to examine if there is a difference among fathers' involvement level with respect to their relationship with their own fathers, one –way MANOVA has been run. Thirdly, the effect of age related motivational factors factors, social support and institutional factors, child characteristics and paternal socio-economic condition were examined through Standard Multiple Regression. In this section, the results of the current study are discussed.

#### **5.1. General Pattern of Fathers' and Their Own Fathers' Involvement Level**

##### **5.1.1. Fathers' Own Involvement Level**

The first research question of the current study aimed to examine the general pattern of father's and also their own fathers' involvement level. To do so, descriptive analyses has been done and mean scores of fathers on each sub-scale of Inventory of

Father Involvement- Turkish Form and Fatherhood Scale Turkish Form was calculated.

The highest mean score was acquired from “Providing” sub-scale. This situation is consistent with the literature. Most of the researchers interested in father involvement mentioned that provider role of the fathers has been more salient than other roles during the history and how a father gets on his family have been the most important issue for both fathers themselves and for their families (LaRossa, 1988, Pleck, 1987, Rotundo, 1985).

Pleck (1997) examined studies that were conducted during the great depression period and pointed out the fact that the most important role of the father was providing role for fathers and for their children. While good provider fathers were seen as good fathers; others, who could not provide for his family, were recognized as bad fathers regardless of their high involvement (Pleck & Pleck, 1997). The results of the current study indicate that, Turkish fathers approximately always engage in activities that belong to provider role. This is consisted with the characteristics of the sample. As mentioned in previous sections, the majority of the fathers have wives who do not work, i.e. they are from single-earner families, and fathers are the sole breadwinner of their family.

Again consistently with both literature and sample characteristics, the least mean score have been acquired from “Availability” sub-scale. This result is consisted with the previously mentioned result. Fathers, who work longer hours to provide their families well, are less accessible to their children because of their intense commitment to their providing role (Ishii-Kuntz & Coltrane, 1992; LaRossa, 1983; Lewin- Epstein, Stier & Braun, 2006; Marks, 1977; Pleck, 1985, as cited in Pleck 1997). In addition to the literature, characteristics of the current sample also normalize these results. The results of the current revealed that the mean working

hours of fathers per day was 10, on the contrary, the mean hour for whole mothers was 4.66 and most of the mothers were housewives. In consequence, it can be said that most of the participating fathers spend their time out of the home for working; therefore they may not find enough time to involve in their children's lives. Since mothers work shorter times than fathers they are more available to their children than fathers. Although fathers have gathered the lowest mean score from the "availability" sub-scale, they have reported that they are almost frequently available to their children. That is to say, the mean score is not very low when the highest score is considered. The same situation is valid for other subscales (*Monitoring & Planning, Disciplining, Supporting Emotionality, Providing*) of IFI-Turkish Form.

Fathers have been reported that they are almost frequently engaged in activities that were given under the "Mother Support & Teaching"; "Disciplining"; "Monitoring & Planning"; and "Emotional Support" sub-scales. In general, only 6 fathers have reported themselves as "low involved", 208 of fathers have said that they are moderately involved and the remaining 312 fathers have reported that they are highly involved into their 0-8 year old children's lives.

Results of descriptive analyses have indicated higher mean scores from each sub-scale and high involvement scores for total scale. These results are consisted with the results of original scale in which all fathers gathered higher scores. As mentioned in Chapter 3, the original scale was a 7-Likert type scale. This scale requested fathers to evaluate their involvement quality in a continuum which range from zero referring "very poor" to 7 referring "excellent". However, Hawkins et al. (2002) concluded that the lowest score gathered by fathers was 4. According to a father from focus group of Hawkins et al., this might be the result of the fact that fathers rated their involvement quality in high levels, although they involved in limited times to their children's lives. The same father pointed out that he could not engage in lots of activities that were included in IFI; however, when he engaged he made his fathering job excellently,



therefore the least score that he gave himself was 6 (Hawkins et al., 2002). This situation has been experienced with the Turkish form of the Inventory of Father Involvement.

While translating, IFI was shifted to a 5 Likert type which asks fathers to give information about “*how much time*” they engaged given child related activities, rather than asking for quality of their engagement. In the adapted form of IFI, fathers have marked numbers from 1(never), 2 (rarely), 3 (sometimes), 4 (frequently) and 5 (always). It was expected to gather more accurate information about fathers’ involvement level through this modification. However, in spite of this modification, results have been indicated similar to the results of the study done with IFI-original form. The structure of the scale may affect the results of the study. Both original and Turkish form of the scale was self-report scale and self-report scales have some disadvantages.

There are discrepant criticisms for self-report scales. On one hand, some researchers thought that self-report scales are very credible due to the fact that information about respondents is taken from the initial source (Paulhus & Vazire, 2007; Thornberry & Krohn, 2000); on the other hand, according to Paulhus (1991) there are some problems in terms of using self-reports. One of them is called “socially desirable responding”, respondents presents themselves in a more positive way rather reflecting their actual thinks or behaviors. In addition to socially desirable responding, extreme responding is another problem of self-report scales. It refers to over ratings of respondents to scale items (Paulhus & Vazire, 2007). Extreme responding might be experienced in the current study, because in the current study higher mean scores from the six-subcales of the IFI- Turkish form were gathered by fathers though their long working hours. This may be caused by the structure of the scale, which allows fathers to give specious responds to the provided items.

When descriptive results about fathers own fathers' involvement were considered, it has been found that majority of the sample perceive their own fathers as "moderately involved" (N=375) and the second majority of the sample (N=111) perceive their own fathers as "*highly involved*". Only 22 fathers out of 528 have reported that their fathers were "less involved". These results are surprisingly inconsistent with the related literature in which fathers' reports indicated that their fathers' had failed to be highly involved, warm and close father who is an appropriate role model (Blendis, 1982; Chadorov, 1978; Daly, 1993; Lewis, 1984; Radin & Goldsmith, 1983). Adversely, majority of the fathers in this study reported that they have moderately or highly involved father, whereas a very few fathers reported their own fathers as low involved. There may be two possible reasons for this situation. One of them may be cultural differences about family relationships and fatherhood. According to Palkovitz (1997) most of the studies and professionals saw and defined fatherhood and involved father with Western eyes. However, fatherhood is highly cultural. Therefore, how a man displays his involvement highly depends on his interpretation of culture of fatherhood (LaRossa, 1988) in his own culture (Palkovitz, 1997). There are two main culture types; individualistic and collectivistic (Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Triandis, 1989). Western cultures are considered as individualistic. For individualistic cultures, independence and autonomy of individuals in society is preferred. In these cultures the ideal person is the one who is separate from others, able to promote one's own goals and who feel positive about oneself (Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Shweder & Bourne, 1982). Values such as autonomy, independence, privacy and self-reliance are strongly emphasized (Triandis, McCusker, & Hui, 1990). On the contrary, for collectivistic cultures, the priority is given to interdependence of one to others (Gelfand & Christakopoulou, 1999). In these cultures, individuals give high priority to other's thoughts, feelings, and perceptions about him/herself and see him/herself as a part of an "encompassing relationship" if s/he experiences interdependence to a collective (Markus & Kitayama, 1991, p.226). Because of these characteristics, maintaining relatedness, adjustment to a relationship

that a person is embedded and *promotion of others' needs* is the focus of individuals (Shweder & Bourne, 1982). These types of beliefs lead the interdependence of parent and child relationship to continue over life span (Rubin & Chung, 2006). Cingoz-Ulu and Lalonde (2006) mentioned that countries such as U.S, Great Britain, Australia and Canada have gathered the highest scores, respectively, in the study of Hofstede's (2001). Turkey was the 28<sup>th</sup> among 53 countries. In this study, higher scores indicated individualism and lower scores indicated collectivism in this continuum. This result indicated that Turkish culture is relatively collectivistic (Cingoz-Ulu & Lalonde, 2006). Sagi (1982), Blendis (1982) Radin and Goldsmith (1983), Lewis, (1984) and Daly (1993) conducted their research in U.S.A, a Western culture identified as highly individualistic, while the current study has been conducted in Turkish culture which is more close to collectivistic culture. Therefore, the inconsistent finding of the current study may be interpreted as the result of this cultural difference.

The second reason of fathers' reports that represented their own fathers as moderately or highly involved may be related with the period passed between previous studies and the current study. The reached nearest study examined the effect of fathers' relationship with their own fathers was conducted by Daly in 1993. This refers at least 17 years gap between these studies and the current one. As mentioned previously, culture of fatherhood change quickly and this affects the conduct of fatherhood; however conduct of fatherhood needs more time to change (LaRossa, 1988). According to Pleck (1997) and Rotundo (1985) a new image for fatherhood has emerged in 1970s, which is called "co-parent father" and "Androgynous Father", respectively. These fathers were expected to share their child's day-to-day caring with their wives equally (Pleck, 1997). Majority of mentioned studies (Blendis, 1982; Chadorov, 1978; Daly, 1993; Lewis, 1984; Radin & Goldsmith, 1983) were done in 1980s, a date which is very early to make the conduct of fathering change. By comparison, the data of the current study were gathered in 2009 almost after 40 years from the emergence of the new image for fatherhood. This forty years interval may

be adequate to enable the conduct of fatherhood to change. Therefore, the number of fathers who report their father as moderately and highly involved has been found more than the number of fathers who report his own father as low involved when compared with mentioned previous studies.

The third reason for this surprising result may be related with salience of providing role for both fathers themselves and their children. All over the history, providing role of fathers became the most important and salient domain of fatherhood (LaRossa, 1988; Pleck, 1987; Rotundo, 1985). In their study LaRossa & Reitzes (1993) concluded that children whose fathers fail to provide for his family well had negative feelings about their fathers. That is to say, providing role of the fathers is the most important domain of fathering for both fathers themselves and their children, as well. The highest mean score gathered from the Fatherhood Scale Turkish Form belongs to providing sub-scale. In other words, participants perceived their own fathers as good providers. As suggested by Pleck (1997) and LaRossa & Reitzes (1993) fathers' positive perceptions about their fathers' involvement to providing role may lead them to evaluate their fathers' involvement more positively. In the following part descriptive results of Fatherhood Scale Turkish Form will be examined in detail.

### **5.1.2. Father's Fathers' Involvement Level**

After fathers' own involvement, fathers own fathers' involvement is examined in detailed. As previously mentioned, there are six subscales of FS; Communication & Affection, Monitoring & Availability, Providing, Negative Emotional Expressiveness, Teaching, and Religious Father. Fathers' have reported that their fathers' were highly involved in "Providing" sub-scale and their fathers' involvement was lowest in "Monitoring & Availability" sub-scale ( $M = 2.33$ ). That is to say, fathers reported that their fathers frequently engaged in activities that were included by providing sub-scale. Contrary to this, fathers have reported that their fathers rarely

engaged in activities that were included in monitoring and availability sub-scale. Moreover, fathers have reported that their fathers sometimes engage in activities which were belong to the first sub-scale of the FS which was called “Communication and Affection” (M = 3,29). When the fourth sub-scale is taken into consideration, it is seen that fathers own fathers almost frequently engaged activities that were related with this sub-scale called “Negative Emotional Expressiveness” (M = 4,14). However, all items in this sub-scale have reversed initially to the analysis; therefore the high mean score should be interpreted as opposite direction. That is to say, participating fathers’ fathers *rarely* (while reversing items the score of 2 reversed to the score of 4 and visa versa, therefore the mean score 4 corresponds to the mean score of two) engaged in activities related with negative emotional expressiveness sub-scale. For the fifth sub-scale of Fatherhood Scale the mean score was calculated as 3,30, referring the fact that fathers report their own fathers as *sometimes* engaged in activities under the heading of “Teaching” sub-scale. Descriptive analysis results have indicated that fathers’ own fathers in this sample *sometimes* engage in activities in “Religious Father” sub-scale. At this point one thing should be pointed out. In this scale there was not a choice that gives fathers to respond like “Not Applicable”. Therefore fathers were a bit forced to give an answer to the items of the scale. Some items like “my father hit my mother, I saw my father while beating one of my sibling” and etc. were related to personal life and lack of “not applicable” choice may lead participants to say “never” and this may created a bias among results.

Descriptive results for both fathers’ own involvement level and fathers own fathers’ involvement level have indicated that, the number of moderately involved father for fathers’ fathers’ is much more than the number of highly involved fathers and the number of highly involved fathers for fathers own involvement is more than number of moderately and low involved fathers. Comparison of fathers own fathers and their involvement levels also released interesting results.

Most of the fathers (N = 251) have reported that their involvement to their children's lives is neither lower nor higher than their fathers' involvement to their own lives. On the other hand, 256 fathers have reported that they involve more than their own father while remaining 28 fathers reported that their own fathers' involvement level to their lives while they were young was higher than their own involvement to their 0-8 year-old children. These results are consistent with the literature to a certain degree, but there are some important differences. In previous studies, fathers reported that they involved more than their own fathers without any exception (Blendis, 1982; Chadorov, 1978; Daly, 1993; Lewis, 1984; Radin & Goldsmith, 1983). The same result has been found in the current sample. However, the number of fathers who reported that their involvement level is very similar to his fathers' one is much more than the number of fathers' who reported that they are more involved than their own fathers. These results may indicate that participants of the study perceive their own fathering behaviors and their fathers' one similar. Therefore it can be said that in the current study fathers model their own fathers' paternal characteristics. Moreover, in spite of its small number (6 out of 528), some fathers surprisingly reported that their own involvement level is less than their fathers' one. These surprising descriptive results may be the result of Turkish culture. As mentioned previously, Turkish culture is a patriarchal and collectivistic one in which fathers are seen the breadwinner and the authority of the family. Since participants reported that both their own fathers and they do their best in provider role, fathers of both generations are found as moderately or highly involved.

## **5.2. The Sole Effect of Perceived Father Involvement on Fathers' Involvement Level**

The second research question of the study aimed to explore the effect of perceived own father involvement on fathers' own involvement to their 0-8 years old children's lives. To do so, a one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) has been applied to the data. Results have indicated that there is a significant difference among

fathers' involvement in their 0-8 year-old children's lives with respect to their own fathers' involvement. That is to say, fathers who have highly involved fathers also involve highly to their 0-8 years old children's lives more than fathers who have moderately involved fathers with respect to Mother support & Teaching; Monitoring & Planning; Availability; Emotional Support; and Providing sub-scales at  $p \leq .05$ . However, to find more reliable results alpha level which was .05 have divided into 6 (the number of DVs) and our new adjusted alpha level have been found .008. Therefore, results of MANOVA have been evaluated according to this new alpha value. When group differences have been examined according to this new alpha value, again it has been seen that there is a significant mean differences among fathers in terms of Mother Support & Teaching sub-scale and Availability sub-scale.

Accordingly, fathers who have highly involved fathers are much more available to their 0-8 year-old children than fathers' who have moderately involved fathers and low involved fathers. Moreover, it has been concluded that fathers who have highly involved fathers engage in activities that were included in Mother Support & Teaching sub-scale than fathers who have moderately involved father, but no significant mean difference have been found between fathers who have highly involved fathers and low involved fathers.

Consistently with previous studies (Ahlberg & Sandnabba,1998; Barnett & Baruch, 1987; Blendis, 1982; Daly, 1993; Flouri and Buchanan, 2002; Lewis, 1984; Radin & Goldsmith, 1983; Sagi, 1982) this study indicated that fathers' own fathers' involvement is an influential factor for fathers' involvement in their 0-8 years old children's' lives. Results supported the hypothesis of Sagi (1982) which claims that fathers learn fathering through modeling or compensating their own fathers. Turkish fathers have been found to model or compensate their own fathers' involvement. For instance, fathers have been found to model their own fathers' high or low availability during their own fathering. Highly available fathers' leded their sons to be more

available to their own 0-8 year-old children than moderately and low involved fathers. On the other hand, there is no statistically significant difference between fathers who have highly and low involved fathers in regards to mother support & teaching sub-scale. That is to say, while highly involved fathers' sons model their own father in this domain of involvement, low involved fathers' sons compensate their own fathers' involvement and no significant difference have been found between these two. In short, results of the current study clearly indicated that Sagi's modeling and compensating hypothesis was supported by the current study and it has been found that Turkish fathers, also, model their own fathers' high or low availability while they either model their own fathers' high engagement to activities related to Mother support and teaching sub-scale or compensate their fathers' low engagement to this sub-scale, as well.

In the first research question some descriptive analysis have been done to learn about fathers' own fathers and their own involvement levels while in the second research question the sole effect of father involvement on his sons' fathering was examined. Results of these two research questions indicated that there is a parallelism between fathers' own fathers' involvement to their lives and their own involvement to their 0-8 year-old children's lives. However, as mentioned in Chapter 2, fathers' own fathers' involvement level is not only factor that is related with fathers' own involvement level. According to Lamb et al. (1987) there some other factors which affect father involvement. Lamb et. al. (1987) has mentioned that there are some age related motivational factors factors, social support factors and institutional factors. Some characteristics such as age, age of being father and fathers' own relationship with his father are considered under the age related motivational factors factors; while some others such as wives working condition, working hours or perceived suppose support have considered as factors related with social support. Other factors such as working hours of fathers, their occupational prestige, income and flexibility of their working schedule or their availability to paternal leave are considered as institutional



factors that affect fathers' involvement level (Lamb et al., 1987). In addition to these factors that were identified by Lamb et.al. (1987), there are some child related factors such as gender and age of the child (Pleck, 1997).

### **5.3. Determinants of Turkish Fathers' Involvement**

The third research question of the study, then, aimed to identify predictors of Turkish fathers' involvement. To do so, a standard multiple regression analysis have been done with eight independent variables ( fathers' age; fathers' age of being father; perceived suppose support; suppose working hours; fathers' working hours; fathers' income per month; child age and gender). Consequently, all age related motivational factors factors and perceived suppose support have been found as significant predictors for fathers' involvement levels. On the other hand child related characteristics, income level, fathers' working hours and wives' working hours have not been found as significant predictors. In the following part effect of each individual predictor will be discussed in detailed.

#### **5.3.1. Age Related Motivational Factors**

Studies examined the effect of fathers' age on their involvement level found some speculative results. Some studies failed to find any significant relationship between father involvement level and their age (Marsiglio,1991; Ahmeduzzaman & Roopnaire, 1993),on the other hand, one study has indicated that older fathers involve more than the younger ones (Radin & Goldsmith, 1983). The current study also concluded that age of the father in the current sample is negatively associated with their involvement level ( $\beta = -.137, p = .018$ ). That is to say, when fathers gets older their involvement level decreases; and younger fathers involve more to their 0-8 years old children's lives more than the older fathers. There may be different reasons for this result. For instance, older fathers may have more situated presumptions regarding with paternal roles (Coley & Morris, 2002) and this may lead them to be more traditional than younger fathers. As mentioned in Chapter 2, traditional fathers leave

all child-related activities to their wives and prefer to be a distant breadwinner for their family (Rotundo, 1985; Pleck, 1997). These presumptions may keep older fathers away from involving their children's lives actively. On the other hand, young fathers may have more contemporary presumptions about paternal roles which lead them to involve their 0-8 year-old children's lives more actively than older fathers. That is to say the conduct and the culture of fatherhood may be different for older and younger fathers. According to LaRossa (1988), culture of the fatherhood, what society expect from fathers, change more rapidly than conduct of fatherhood, what fathers actually do at their homes. Occurred changes in the culture of fatherhood may affect younger fathers' more easily than older ones and attuning changes in fatherhood may be more difficult for older fathers.

Another reason for low involvement of older fathers may be related with their family structure. For example, in the current study most of the elderly fathers (fathers between the ages of 40 and above, for the current study) have more than one child (15 fathers have only one; 64 fathers have two; 30 fathers have three; and 7 fathers have 4 or more children). Because there was a note for participants at the beginning of the scales which request them to fill the scale by considering their younger children, it may be assumed that there is at least one more child who can take care of his younger sibling except mother and father, as well. In these families, older siblings may share some of responsibility of child care with their mother and this situation may decreases fathers' involvement level. On the other hand, most of the young fathers in the current study ( 22 to 29) have one or mostly two child ( there are 21 fathers have only one child and 10 fathers have two child and only 1 father who have three child). This means that wives of younger fathers may need more help than wives of older fathers in the family, and this may lead younger fathers to involve more to their children's lives. Furthermore, increased number of children may lead fathers to spread their parenting resources to their multiple children, therefore their involvement to their youngest children may be low (Coley & Morris, 2002), while younger

fathers' attention, parenting resources and their time may not be divided into multiple children. Moreover, younger fathers' higher involvement may be related with the salience of parenting role. Perhaps, for younger fathers fathering role may be more salient than older fathers who is fathering for longer years and this may lead younger fathers to involve more to their children's lives. Therefore, in addition to current age of fathers, the age of being father also should be examined.

Previous studies have found that being a father in older ages lead fathers to involve more in child-related activities (Daniels and Weingarten, 1982; as cited in Cooney, Pedersen, Indelicato & Palkovitz, 1993; Cooney et al., 1993; Brain, 1993). Similarly, in the current study, age of being father has been found a statistically significant predictor of fathers' involvement levels. That is, fathers who became father in his older ages involve more to his 0-8 years old child's live more than fathers who became father in his younger ages. There may be different reasons for this result. According to Cooney et al. (1993) older fathers have better occupational status; they have higher educational level; longer marriages; older and more educated wives. The current data have been split according to age of being father to examine Cooney et al.'s suggestion. Similar results were obtained. Fathers who became father at their 17-23's were entered as early fathers (EF); fathers who became father on their 24-29's entered as on-time fathers (OF) and remaining fathers who became fathers between the ages of 30 and above were entered as Late fathers (LF) as suggested by Cooney et al. (1993). Differences between these three groups have been examined. Similar patterns have observed in the present sample. Older fathers, in the present sample, have wives who have higher educational level. Most EF have wives who have primary school graduation, while most OF have wives who have high-school graduation and most LF have wives who have university education. As Cooney et al (1993) suggested, late fathers have wives who have higher educational level. Furthermore, fathers own educational level differed among groups. Most of the LF has university graduation while most of the EF and OF have high school graduation.

Similarly, income level of LF is higher than of EF and OF's one. Most of the fathers in EF and OF group earns 500-1000 Turkish Lira (TL) per month while most of LF earns 1000- 1500 TL per month. These results yields that late fathers have better life standards than early and on time fathers. This may be the reason for why age of being father is positively associated with fathers' involvement levels.

### **5.3.2. Social Support Factors**

Besides age related motivational factors factors, the possible effects of some social support factors on fathers' involvement level have been examined in the current study. Spouses' working hours and participating fathers' perceptions about their wives' support have examined under social support factor and only perceived suppose support have been found as significant predictor of fathers' involvement to their 0-8 year old children's lives. Most of the studies have examined the effect of mother work hours on fathers involvement level have pointed out that the longer hours the mother works, the more the fathers involve to their children's life (Barnett & Baruch ,1987; Brayfield, 1995; Crouter, Perry-Jenkins, Huston and Mchale, 1987 ; Davis-Kean& Hofferth, 2001; Erkal, Copur, Dogan, & Safak, 2007; Lewin- Epstein, Stier, Braun, 2006; Peterson & Gerson,1992; Pleck,1997; Thomas & Hildingsson, 2009; Yeung, Sandberg,Volling & Belsky, 1991). Surprisingly, the present study has failed to find this variable as a significant predictor of fathers' involvement to their 0-8 year-old children's lives. This result, on the other hand, is consistent with results of Coley and Morris (2002) and Yeung, Sandberg, Davis-Kean and Hofferth (2001). In their studies, mothers work hours had not been found as significant predictor for their husbands' involvement, as well. There may be different reasons for this result.

One possible reason for this surprising result may be related with children's engagement to a preschool or elementary school. 80% of children whose mother works out of the home have been found to engage in preschool or elementary school. That is to say, children's engagement to a school during the day time, at which

mothers also work outside the home, may decrease the requirement for more father involvement to child care activities. Another reason for this result may be related with other variables that were entered to the model. When only age related motivational factors and social support factors were entered to the model (are not reported here), it has been found that mothers work hours revealed as a significant predictor of paternal involvement. However, when other variables such as child characteristics, and institutional factors were added to the model, the significant effect of mothers working hours has been disappeared. This may indicate that, the effect of mothers working hours is affected from the child characteristics and institutional factors. For instance, fathers' income level and mothers working hours have been found to be correlated.

As much as working hours of wives', perceived spouse support was found to be related with father involvement level. In the current study, perceived spouse support was used in order to marital satisfaction level of fathers. Although few studies found negative relationship between marital satisfaction and father involvement (Deutsch, Lussier, & Servis, 1993; Grych & Clark, 1999; Harris & Morgan, 1991; McBride & Mills, 1993; Woodworth, Belsky & Crnic, 1996;), majority of studies found a positive association between these two variables (Belsky et al., 1989; Blair et al., 1994; Boney, Kelley and Levant, 1999; Cowan & Cowan, 1987; Feldman, Nash, & Aschenbender, 1983; Levy-Shiff & Israelashvili, 1988; NICHD Early Child Care Research Network, 2000; Nugent, 1991; King, 2003; Volling & Belsky, 1991). Consistently with previous studies, in the current study marital satisfaction, i.e. perceived spouse support, has been found as a significant predictor of paternal involvement. Results indicated that fathers' who perceive their wives as more supportive involve more to his 0-8 years old children's lives than fathers who perceive their spouses as less supportive. Fathers who have more supportive wives may satisfy with their marriages than fathers who have less supportive wives, this may result in higher involvement in their 0-8 year old children's lives. Also,

supportive wives may encourage their husbands more than less supportive wives so that their husbands feel more competent in child related activities.

### **5.3.3. Institutional Factors**

In addition to age related motivational factors and social support factors, institutional factors, have been examined in the current study. There are some contradictory results in regards to these variables. Studies considering the effect of paternal work hours on paternal involvement level have revealed inconsistent results. A great deal of research found that fathers' longer working hours made them less accessible to their children. Also, these fathers were found to be involved in their children's lives less than fathers who worked shorter hours or who had flexible work schedule (Bulanda, 2004; Ishii-Kuntz & Coltrane, 1992; Lewin-Epstein et al., 2006; Marsiglio, 1991; Pleck, 1985; Tanata & Woldfogel, 2007; Yeung et al., 2001). On the contrary, other studies failed to find a significant relationship between fathers working hours and their involvement level (Ahmedduzzaman & Roopnarine, 1992; Goldscheider & White, 1991; Pleck, 1997). Consistent with previous studies, fathers' daily working hours has not been found as significant predictor of their involvement level in the current study. Although results of multiple regression analysis have indicated that the effect of fathers working hours is negative, that is, the longer the father works the less he involves into his children's lives, this negative relationship; however, is not statistically significant.

### **5.3.4. Child Characteristics & Paternal Income**

The effects of child characteristics and paternal income level on father involvement are ambiguous. Although most of the studies concluded that fathers involve more to their male children's lives than their female children's lives (Pleck, 1997; Barnett & Baruch, 1987; Yeung, Sanberg, Davis-Kean, & Hofferth, 2001; Harris, Furstenberg, & Marmer, 1998), there are also some studies that failed to find a significant relationship between child gender and father involvement (Coley & Morris, 2002;

Marsiglio, 1991; Palkovitz, 1984; Rendina & Dickerscheid, 1976; Snarey, 1993). Coherently with previous studies, the current study has revealed no relationship between child gender and father involvement level. Although multiple regression analysis results indicated that fathers involve more to their male children's lives, this result was not statistically significant.

Similarly, the effect of child age on fathers' involvement level is speculative. Although majority of the studies found a significant negative relationship between father involvement and child age, i.e. fathers involve more to their young children's lives and this involvement decreases when the child get older (Amato, 1987; Barnett & Baruch, 1987; Brayfield, 1995; Bulanda, 2004; Charnov, & Levine, 1986; Danziger & Radin, 1990; Lamb, Pleck, LaRossa & LaRossa, 1981; Marsiglio, 1991b; Pleck, 1985; Pleck, 1997; Radin & Goldsmith, 1983; Yeung et al ., 2001), there are also some studies that failed to find child age as a significant predictor of father involvement level (Coley & Morris, 2002; Volling & Belsky, 1991). Results of current study support previous study results in the literature. Child age and child gender, have not been found as significant predictors of father involvement level. One possible reason for this may be the age range of children in the current study. Majority of mentioned studies, which found a significant relationship between father involvement level and child age, had a very large age range. For instance, Marsiglio (1991b) have studied with children between the ages of zero to 18. This may lead her to compare the involvement level of fathers whose children is at preschool age, elementary school age or high school age at the same time. According to Pleck (1997) higher father involvement is observed during the period of preschool because during infancy children are mostly interdependent to their mothers and during late childhood and early adolescence they need less parental involvement because of their enlarged environment. Therefore, studies of which participants were fathers of infants or children from different age ranges may found child age as a significant predictor. On the other hand, the age range in the current study was not as large as previous

studies. Current study included fathers of children who are in early childhood period. This period has been mentioned as the period that fathers engage more with their children. Although partial correlation between child age and fathers involvement level indicated a negative effect of child age on father involvement, which is consistent with previous literature, multiple linear regression analysis have concluded and the results indicated that child age is not a statistically significant predictor of fathers involvement level.

The possible effect of paternal income per month has also examined but no significant effect of it has been found. Fathers providing role, as mentioned previously, always became the most salient role of them (LaRossa, 1988, Pleck, 1987, Rotundo, 1985). Fathers who could not provide for his family well, mostly called as bad father and their children perceived them as low involved (LaRossa & Reitzes, 1993). Fathers' income is the most important variable that indicates how well they provide for their family. Therefore, the relationship between paternal income and involvement level was examined by lots of researchers and speculative results were yielded. While some researchers found that there was a positive relationship between fathers' income levels and their involvement (Ahmeduzzaman & Roopnarine, 1992; Blair et al., 1994), some other researcher found no relationship between these two variables (Goldscheider & Waite, 1991; Pleck, 1983; Roopnarine & Ahmeduzzaman, 1993). Moreover, some other studies revealed that higher income level leaded fathers to involve less in their children's lives (Haas, 1998). Consistently with the literature that found no relationship between paternal income and involvement level, results of the current study have indicated that paternal income is not a significant predictor of paternal involvement. However, it should be noted that  $p$  value for the effect of paternal income is so close to the significant level with  $p=0.056$  and its beta value of paternal income indicated a positive relationship between paternal income and involvement. That is, higher paternal income leads fathers to involve more into their children's lives. One possible reason for insignificance of



paternal income may be the range of income level. In the current data, few fathers reported very low income and few of them have reported very high income. Majority of the participants earn similar amount of money. Therefore, it may be assumed that they have similar opportunities to reach related resources. Another possible reason may be the fact that fathers in the current study had reported that they mostly engage in providing role. This means that all fathers in the sample perceive themselves as good providers although their income level is low. This situation may underestimate the effect of income level on fathers' involvement level.

In conclusion, performed Standard Multiple Linear Regression analyses have indicated that fathers' age of being father, their current age and how much supportive that they perceive their spouse are significant predictors of fathers' involvement level and each independent variable predict father involvement level positively except fathers' age. On the other hand, institutional factors, mothers' working hours, child related characteristics and paternal income level have not been found as significant predictors for fathers' involvement level. Generated model explains 19.1 % of the variance of fathers' involvement levels and according to Stern's formula it can explain 18 % of the variance of fathers' involvement when it is applied to another sample.

#### **5.4. Implications of the study**

This study is the one of the first steps which tried to understand the general pattern of father involvement, the effect of father involvement level to his sons' future paternal involvement and to understand about predictors of father involvement in our culture. According to Marsiglio et al. (2000) and Palkovitz (1997) how parents perceive their parental roles and responsibilities and also how their parental behaviors are shaped differ in different cultures or even different subcultures. Therefore, this study is very important to determine about father involvement levels of our society. Also, this

study may pave the way for other researchers who want to be interested in fatherhood, its types or its consequences for both fathers and children.

Although a general pattern of father involvement in Turkish culture, was presented in the current study, since information about fathers' involvement level were gathered from only fathers, this information is mainly subjective and there is a need for deeper examination of fathers' involvement in their children's lives. Therefore, this study may provide a basis for researchers who wish to present deeper examination of Turkish fathers' involvement.

In the current study, two new scales were adapted into Turkish. Although there were some adapted scales that are used to measure parental involvement, there was not any available and specific instrument to measure father involvement which was adapted to Turkish culture. These two scales are very beneficial for social workers, psychologists, and also teachers. They can use these adapted version of scalesto learn about fathers' involvement in their children's lives. At this point, the current study may fill a gap in the literature. Furthermore, there is not any available research which interested in investigating the possible effects of father involvement on children's developmental areas in our culture. Therefore, these two scales can smooth the way for researchers who are interested in the effect of fathers' involvement on their children's development. Also, during the adaptation process, since different factor structures have been found through explanatory factor analysis, the idea which says fatherhood is highly cultural (LaRossa, 1988, Palkovitz, 1997) has been supported. This may lead future researchers to search for cultural definition and conceptualization of fatherhood and also father involvement.

Moreover, this study indicated that today's fathers' involvement impact the involvement level of fathers of next generations. Up to now, lots of study results indicated that higher father involvement have positive outcomes on children.

Therefore, to increase father involvement level of next generation, this study may suggested that initially today's fathers' involvement level should be increased. This can be done through father education programs, written or visual media or even through some policies. For example, although ACEV (Mother Child Education Institution) has a "Father Support Program", only fathers who know about this program can join the program and it is available only two times in a year for just a group of 15-20 fathers. Therefore, initially these kinds of programs should be advertised through written or visual media and the number of these programs should be increased. As mentioned previously it is difficult to recruit fathers into these kinds of educational programs or even research. Hence these educational programs should be universalized so that each father can reach and join easily. For example, beginning with prenatal period, fathers can be informed about importance of their high involvement's positive effects on their coming baby's future in hospitals. Also, in preschools or even elementary and high schools through parent education programs fathers, mothers and even children can be educated about the issue of father involvement and its effects.

As mentioned in Chapter 2, the conduct of fatherhood changes slowly than culture of fatherhood (LaRossa, 1988). However, the changed fatherhood culture leads the conduct of fatherhood to change, as well. Therefore, through media and policies the culture of fatherhood may try to be changed. If social policy makers are educated about the positive effects of father involvement, they may be encouraged to make social policies to increase paternal involvement. For example, the right for paternal leave can be provided to fathers so that fathers can spend more time with their infants. Teacher education departments of universities, on the other hand, are other important institutions which have the responsibility of creating more conscious people. Therefore, teacher education programs in universities should consider the results of this study. They may emphasize the importance of father involvement through providing courses related with fathers, their significance in children's lives

and the outcomes of higher father involvement. Also, particularly academicians and generally whole universities may collaborate with non-governmental organizations (NGO) to increase father involvement level and to make people more aware of the importance of father involvement, its types and its effects on children's development.

### **5.5. Recommendation for Future Research**

In the current study, participants have different backgrounds, economical conditions and they live different areas of Ankara, the central city of the Turkey. However, still it cannot be said that this sample is wholly representative. Firstly, only biological-resident fathers were participated in the study. It is widely known that there are lots of family types in Turkey in which there is a step-father, or there is no father because of divorce or any other reasons. Therefore, there is a need for studying with these fathers to understand their involvement level, as well. Future researchers can include these fathers in their studies, so that they can make more reliable and meaningful generalizations. Also, all of these fathers can be studied separately to indicate differences between their involvement level and biological-resident fathers' involvement level.

Results of the current study also indicated that majority of the participated fathers and their own fathers were moderately or highly involved. However, information about fathers' own involvement levels and about their own fathers' involvement level were obtained from fathers' themselves. According to Marsiglio et al. (2000), situations like this have a risk of "Shared-method Variance" which may exaggerate the correlations between variables; and it makes results to be interpreted inaccurately because of not having a clear explanation about if this high correlation "have an objective basis or exist entirely within the minds of the informants" (Marsiglio et al., 2000, p.1179). Therefore, it would be better if future studies could include multiple informants. That is to say, information about father involvement may be obtained from fathers and also from their wives, children, and related relatives or even from

teachers of children. Moreover, in this study because of using self-report scales only fathers' *subjective* evaluations about their own involvement, their fathers' involvement and their wife's support level were obtained. Nevertheless, there are some disadvantages of self-report scales such as socially desirable responding and extreme responding (Paulhus, 1991; Paulhus & Vazire, 2007). Therefore, fathers may respond to items of distributed scales by depending on some ideals rather than actual amount of their own involvement level. Some situations may be valid for fathers own fathers' involvement level and their wife's support. Also they may give exaggerated responds to these scales. Therefore, future researchers can add some other types of measurements. For instance, they may use video-recordings to understand about fathers own involvement during a specific period, they can use some open-ended questions and make deep interviews with fathers to reach a deeper understanding about fathers' ideas related with their own fathers' involvement as well as support that their suppose provide them, also about their own involvement level.

Information obtained in this study is related with the quantity of the father involvement. According to Pleck (1997) looking only for the level of paternal involvement without integrating it with quality and the context of fatherhood makes those studies incomplete. Unfortunately, in this study data about quality of paternal involvement or the context of fatherhood was not gathered. Future studies can add some methods that help them to understand about the quality of father involvement. To do so, they can use some qualitative research methods like observations of father-child interaction, the context or making interviews with children, mothers and the fathers and they can bring fatherhood studies beyond this stage in our country.

To conduct the present study two scales were adapted to Turkish. One of them was fatherhood scale through which information about fathers' perception about their own fathers' involvement was gathered. The other one was Inventory of Father Involvement which was used to obtain information about fathers' own involvement

level. However, it should be noted that both of the scales were developed in Western Cultures and thus their results have evaluated in terms of Western cultures' criteria. As mentioned previously, fatherhood and the term "involved father" are highly cultural terms (Palkovitz, 1997). "Involved fathers" or "high father involvement" may be perceived differently in our culture. Therefore, with a deeper search how Turkish people think about fatherhood, how they define involved fathering or high father involvement can be understood and a cultural conceptualization of fatherhood or father involvement can be developed. By doing so, perhaps some new scales that are appropriate to Turkish culture can be developed, as well.

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**Appendix A: A Sample List of Activities Related to 15 Ways of Father  
Involvement**

<p><b>COMMUNICATION</b></p> <p>Listening Talking Writing notes Making scrapbook Calling on phone when away Expressing love Expressive forgiveness Showing Genuine interest in day, friends, interests, feelings thoughts, aspirations, etc.</p>	<p><b>TEACHING</b></p> <p>Advising Role modeling Problem solving Disciplining Teaching spiritual development, praying together, etc. Fostering independence Assisting in gaining new skills (teach to ride bike, swim,drive) Answering questions</p>	<p><b>MONITORING</b></p> <p>Friendships Dating partners Whereabouts Health Schoolwork Checking on sleeping child Going t parent/teacher conferences Rides to or from places</p>	<p><b>THOUGH PROCESSES</b></p> <p>Worrying Planning Dreaming Hoping Evaluating Praying for child “Being there”</p>	<p><b>ERRANDS</b></p> <p>Driving Picking up items Making calls for</p>
<p><b>CAREGIVING</b></p> <p>Feeding Bathing Clothing Reaching things for children Caring for sick child Tucking into bed</p>	<p><b>CHILD-RELATED MAINTENANCE</b></p> <p>Cleaning Repairing Ironing Cooking Pet care Creating child-centered spaces</p>	<p><b>SHARED INTEREST</b></p> <p>Developing expertise Providing for instruction Reading together</p>	<p><b>AVAILABILITY</b></p> <p>Attending events Leading activities Spending time together Allowing/encouragin g child to enter into leisure activities Backing cookies for child’s activities</p>	<p><b>PLANNING</b></p> <p>Birthdays Vacations Education Trips Holidays Saving for future</p>
<p><b>SHARED ACTIVITIES</b></p> <p>Exercising Shopping Picnicking Movie going Parks Eating meals Playing together Building forts Celebrating holidays Working together Dancing together Chaperoning events</p>	<p><b>PROVIDING</b></p> <p>Financing Housing Clothing Food Medical care Education Safe transportation Needed documentation(birth certificates, social security,etc) Help in finding job Furnishings Developmentally appropriate toys or equipments</p>	<p><b>AFFECTION</b></p> <p>Loving Hugging Kissing Cuddling Tickling Making eye contact Smiling Genuine friendship with child</p>	<p><b>PROTECTION</b></p> <p>Arranging environment Monitoring safety Providing bike helmets, life jackets,etc.</p>	<p><b>SUPPORTING EMOTIONALLY</b></p> <p>Encouraging Developing interests</p>



## **Appendix B: Demographic Information Form**

## **Sevgili Baba;**

Bu çalışma, ODTÜ İlköğretim Bölümü öğretim üyesi Dr. Refika OLGAN ve Arş. Gör. Şenil ÜNLÜ tarafından yürütülmektedir. Çalışmanın amacı, 0-8 yaş arasında çocuğu olan babaların, babalarıyla yaşadıkları ilişkinin ve sahip oldukları bazı demografik özelliklerin, onların kendi çocukları ile kurduđu iletişimi ve çocuklarıyla ilgili sorumluluklarını yerine getirme oranlarını nasıl etkilediđini arařtırmaktır. Çalışmaya katılım tamamıyla gönüllülük temelindedir. Ankette, sizden kimlik belirleyici hiçbir bilgi istenmemektedir. Cevaplarınız tamamen gizli tutulacak ve sadece arařtırmacılar tarafından deđerlendirilecektir; elde edilecek bilgiler bilimsel yayınlarda kullanılacaktır. Anket, genel olarak kişisel rahatsızlık verecek sorular içermemektedir. Ancak, katılım sırasında sorulardan ya da herhangi başka bir nedenden ötürü kendinizi rahatsız hissederseniz cevaplama işini yarıda bırakıp çıkmakta serbestsiniz. Bu çalışmaya katıldığınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz. Çalışma hakkında daha fazla bilgi almak için İlköğretim Bölümü öğretim üyelerinden Dr. Refika OLGAN (e-mail: rolgan@metu.edu.tr; Tel: 210 36 71; ya da Araş. Gör. Şenil ÜNLÜ (e-mail:usenil@metu.edu.tr, Tel: 210 75 06) ile iletişim kurabilirsiniz.

***Bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum ve istediğim zaman yarıda kesip çıkabileceğimi biliyorum. Verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı yayınlarda kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum.*** (Formu doldurup imzaladıktan sonra uygulayıcıya geri gönderiniz).

İsim Soyad

Tarih

İmza

## BABA BİLGİ FORMU

1.Yaşınız:

2.Yaşadığınız şehir ve ilçe:

3.Medeni durumunuz:

Evli (Çocuğumun öz annesi ile evliyim)

Evli ( Çocuğumun öz annesinden farklı biri ile evliyim)

Bekar (boşandım)

Bekar (eşimi kaybettim)

4.Mesleğiniz:

Sizin:.....

Eşinizin:.....

5.İşe gidiş ve eve geliş saatlerinizi belirtiniz

Gidiş: ..... Dönüş:..... Çalışma saatlerim bana bağlı: ....

Eşinizin işe gidiş ve eve geliş saatlerini belirtiniz

Gidiş: ..... Dönüş:..... Çalışma saatleri eşime bağlı:.....

6.Aylık geliriniz:

<500 TL

500- 1000 TL

1000-1500 TL

1500-2000 TL

2000-3000 TL

3000TL +

**7.Eđitim Düzeyiniz:**

	Sizin	Babanızın	Eşinizin
İlk Okul mezunu			
Orta okul Mezunu			
Lise mezunu			
2 yıllık üniversite(yüksek okul) mezunu			
4 yıllık üniversite mezunu			
Y.lisans/doktora mezunu			

**8.Sahip olduğunuz çocuk sayısı: .....**

**9.Çocuğunuzun yaşı ve cinsiyeti (lütfen aşağıdaki kutuya çocuğunuzun yaşını yazınız ve cinsiyetini belirtiniz);**

	Yaşı	Cinsiyeti
1.çocuk		
2.çocuk		
3.çocuk		
En küçük çocuk		

**10.Kaç yaşında baba oldunuz? .....**

**11.Çocuğunuz okula/kreşe gidiyor mu?**

**EVET: ..... HAYIR:.....**

**Appendix C: Fatherhood Scale Turkish Form**

### **BABALIK ÖLÇEĞİ**

Çocukluk ve gençlik dönemlerinizde babanızla yaşadığımız ilişkiyi düşününüz. Aşağıda verilen her cümleyi bu ilişkiyi düşünerek 1 ile 5 (1=hiçbir zaman; 5=her zaman) arasında derecelendiriniz. Lütfen, tüm maddeleri cevaplarken sizin babanızla olan ilişkinizi en iyi ve en gerçekçi yansıtan cevabı işaretlemeye özen gösteriniz.

	Hiçbir zaman	Çok nadir	Bazen	Sıklıkla	Her zaman
1. Babam ödevlerimde bana yardımcı olurdu.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Babam benimle kişisel sorunlarımla ilgili konuşurdu.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Babam beni etkinliklere götürürdü.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Babam bana beni sevdiğini söylerdi	1	2	3	4	5
5. Babam bana iyi bir çocuk olduğumu söylerdi.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Babam ilgili bir insandı.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Babam veli/okul toplantılarına katılırdı.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Çocukken kendimi babama yakın hissederdim.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Ergenlik yıllarımda babamla birlikte bir şeyler yapardık.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Babam benimle vakit geçirmeyi severdi.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Babam beni döverdi	1	2	3	4	5
12. Bir ergen olarak, kendimi babama yakın hissederdim.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Babam anneme vururdu.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Babamın beni önemseddiğini bilirdim.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Babam bana hakkımı savunmayı öğretti	1	2	3	4	5
17. Babam ihtiyacım olan giyecek&oyuncak gibi şeyleri temin ederdi	1	2	3	4	5
18. Babam çocukken bana kitap okurdu	1	2	3	4	5
19. Babam bizim maddi olarak rahat geçinmemizi sağlardı.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Babam ailesine ekonomik anlamda iyi bakardı.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Babam sorunlarımı çözmemde bana yardımcı olurdu.	1	2	3	4	5

	Hiçbir zaman	Çok nadir	Bazen	Sıklıkla	Her zaman
23. Babamla her şeyi konuşabilirdim.	1	2	3	4	5
24. Babamla birlikte camiye giderdik.	1	2	3	4	5
27.Kötü hissettiğim zamanlarda babam beni rahatlatırdı	1	2	3	4	5
28. Ben büyürken babamın eve para getirebilecek bir işi vardı.	1	2	3	4	5
29. Babam bana özel biri olduğumu hissettirirdi.	1	2	3	4	5
30. Bir şeye sinirlendiğimde bunu babamla konuşurdum.	1	2	3	4	5
31. Babam ve ben beraber zaman geçirmekten hoşlanırdık.	1	2	3	4	5
32. Babam benimle dünyada olup bitenler hakkında konuşurdu.	1	2	3	4	5
33. Babam bana karşı sevecendi.	1	2	3	4	5
36.Babam yemek duası ederdi	1	2	3	4	5
37.Çocukken yanlış bir şey yaptığım zaman babam bana bağırdı.	1	2	3	4	5
38. Babama karşı sıcak duygulara sahibim.	1	2	3	4	5
39. Babam duygularımı incitecek şeyler söylerdi	1	2	3	4	5
40. Babam hissettiklerimi dile getirmem konusunda beni cesaretlendirirdi.	1	2	3	4	5
41.Babam derslerimle ilgilenirdi	1	2	3	4	5
42.Babam bana sarılırdı	1	2	3	4	5
43. Babam iyi bir insandır.	1	2	3	4	5
44. Başımı belaya soktuğum zamanlarda, babam beni fiziksel olarak cezalandırırdı.	1	2	3	4	5
45. Babam bana doğruyla yanlış ayırt etmeyi öğretti.	1	2	3	4	5
46. Babamın annemi dövdüğünü görürdüm.	1	2	3	4	5
47. Babama onu sevdiğimi söyledim.	1	2	3	4	5
48. Babama ihtiyaç duyduğumda, o hep yakınlarımda olurdu.	1	2	3	4	5

	Hiçbir zaman	Çok nadir	Bazen	Sıklıkla	Her zaman
52.Babam benimle dünyada yaşanan olaylar hakkında konuşurdu.	1	2	3	4	5
54.Babam katıldığım spor etkinliklerini izlemeye gelirdi.	1	2	3	4	5
55.Babamla birlikte iyi vakit geçirirdik.	1	2	3	4	5
56.Babam bana önemli değerler aşıları.	1	2	3	4	5
59.Babam beni anlardı.	1	2	3	4	5
60.Babam sinirlenirdi ve beni sevmediğini söylerdi	1	2	3	4	5
61.Babam katıldığım okul etkinliklerimi izlemeye gelirdi.	1	2	3	4	5
62.Babam benimle Allah hakkında konuşurdu	1	2	3	4	5
63.Babam yaralanıp, incindiğim zaman endişelenirdi..	1	2	3	4	5
64.Babamın kardeşlerimden birine vurduğunu gördüm.	1	2	3	4	5



**Appendix D: Inventory of Father Involvement-Turkish Form**

### BABA KATILIM ÖLÇEĞİ

Lütfen, son 12 ayda baba olarak yaşadığınız tecrübelerinizi düşününüz ve aşağıda listelenen her maddeyi, bu davranışı ne kadar yaptığınızı düşünerek cevaplandırınız.

	Hiçbir zaman	Çok nadir	Bazen	Sıklıkla	Her zaman	Bana Uygun değil
Çocuğumun katıldığı etkinliklere (okul /kreş etkinlikleri, spor, geziler vb.) katılırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Çocuğumun temel ihtiyaçlarını sağlarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Çocuğumu kitap okumak için cesaretlendiririm.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Çocuğumu iyi olduğu ve doğru şeyler yaptığı için överim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Çocuğumun annesine, duygusal destek ve cesaret veririm.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Çocuğumla ilgili günlük/rutin işleri yaparım. (çocuğun beslenmesi, bir yerden başka bir yere götürülmesi)	1	2	3	4	5	6
Çocuğumun, annesinin önemli ve özel bir insan olduğunu anlamasında yardımcı olurum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Çocuğumu iyi bir şey yaptığında ödüllendiririm.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Çocuğumu okulda/ kreşte başarılı olma konusunda cesaretlendiririm.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Çocuğuma dost ve arkadaş olurum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Çocuğumun finansal desteğini sağlamakta sorumluluk alırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Çocuğumun ev ödevlerini yapmasında onu cesaretlendiririm.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Çocuğuma onu sevdiğinizi söylerim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Çocuğumun arkadaşları ile nerelere gittiğini ve neler yaptığını bilirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Çocuğum benimle konuşmak istediğinde sadece onunla konuşmak için zaman harcarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Çocuğumu yetiştirmede, annesi ile işbirliği yaparım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Küçük yaştaki çocuğuma kitap okurum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Çocuğuma okul /kreş kurallarına uyulması gerektiğini öğretirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6

	Hiçbir zaman	Çok nadir	Bazen	Sıklıkla	Her zaman	Bana Uygun değil
Çocuğumu liseden sonra da okuması için cesaretlendiririm.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Çocuğumu disipline ederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Büyük yaştaki çocuğumun ödevlerinde ona yardım ederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Çocuğumun geleceğini planlarım. (eğitim, evlilik, iş vb)	1	2	3	4	5	6
Çocuğumun yeteneklerini geliştirmesi için ona destek olurum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Çocuğumun yapmaktan hoşlandığı şeylerde onunla vakit geçiririm.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Çocuğumu ev işleri yapması için cesaretlendiririm.	1	2	3	4	5	6

## **Appendix E: Suppose Support Scale**

**EŞ DESTEK ÖLÇEĞİ (EDÖ)**

Lütfen eşinizin size yönelik genel tutumlarını düşünerek, aşağıdaki maddeleri 1'den 5'e kadar derecelendiriniz.

	Hiçbir zaman	Çok nadir	Bazen	Sıklıkla	Her zaman
1.Bana hoş espriler yapar	1	2	3	4	5
2.Yaptıklarımı destekler	1	2	3	4	5
3.Benimle olmak için zaman yaratmaya çalışır	1	2	3	4	5
4.Kazancımı ve tüm eşyalarımı benimle paylaşır	1	2	3	4	5
5.Başarılarımı takdir eder	1	2	3	4	5
6.Bana sarılır, üzerime titrer	1	2	3	4	5
7.Evimizle ilgili her türlü sorunla ilgilenir	1	2	3	4	5
8.Benimle sohbet eder, dertleşir	1	2	3	4	5
9.Bana yanımda olduğunu hissettirir	1	2	3	4	5
10.Bana suçlayıcı, yargılayıcı davranır	1	2	3	4	5
11.Beni hoş, eğleneceğim yerlere götürür	1	2	3	4	5
12.Bana şefkat gösterir	1	2	3	4	5
13.Hastalık, taşınma, gibi durumlarda bana yardım eder	1	2	3	4	5
14.Hatalarımı bana nazikçe gösterir	1	2	3	4	5
15.Benimle alışverişe, sinemaya veya gezmeye gelir	1	2	3	4	5
16.Beni sever, okşar	1	2	3	4	5
17.Evimizle ilgili işlerde bana yardım eder	1	2	3	4	5
18.Benim üstün, güçlü yönlerimi vurgular	1	2	3	4	5
19.Görüş ve isteklerime önem verir	1	2	3	4	5
20.Beni gerçekten anlamaz	1	2	3	4	5
21.Bana gerçekten değer verir	1	2	3	4	5
22.Bana değer verdiğini başkalarına hissettirir	1	2	3	4	5

	Hiçbir zaman	Çok nadir	Bazen	Sıklıkla	Her zaman
23.Beni üstün ve zayıf yönlerimle kabul eder	1	2	3	4	5
24.Pek çok şeyini benden gizler, benimle paylaşmaz	1	2	3	4	5
25.Sorunlarla başa çıkamamda bana yardım eder	1	2	3	4	5
26.Verdiğim kararları destekler	1	2	3	4	5
27.Sağlığımla yakından ilgilenir	1	2	3	4	5