CHARACTERISTICS OF GIRLS AND
FATHERS’ INVOLVEMENT

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Abstract:
The study examined the relationship between fathers’ involvement and girls’ characteristics. A sample of 106 families was engaged in the study consisting of 212 participants; 106 fathers and children. Self-reported data collected by questionnaires were used to examine the relationship between fathers’ involvement and girls’ characteristics. The study showed that the temperament of girls and schools they attended profoundly influenced fathers’ engagement, interaction, and involvement in their daughters’ education. It also illustrated that within the temperament characteristics of girls, child surgency and effortful control affected how fathers managed their engagement, interaction, and involvement with their daughters amidst the temperament characteristics. It was however recommended that parental education programs should be established to sensitize fathers on fathers’ involvement hindrances and solutions and that child temperament characteristics should be carefully considered in all dealings with children among fathers.

Keywords: fathers, girls, involvement.

1. Introduction

Fathers’ involvement in child development and family in general had had stunning historical conceptions. Father-related literature illustrated that fathers’ involvement in child development had changed significantly since the 16th, through the 17th, 18th to the 21st century. The emergence of father-related studies during the centuries described fathers’ involvement in child development as moral guidance, teaching, and coaching. Fathers were considered involved in childcare and development if they modelled, coached, and taught children morality in society (Lamb, 1997b; Pleck, 1997; Demos, 1982).

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This implied that fatherhood was orientated towards moral obedience in society during the stated historic time. This constituted the first conceptualized aspect of fathers’ involvement in childcare and development in the 16/17th centuries.

In the mid-19th century, fatherhood literature illustrated that fathers’ roles in childcare and development as moral guidance and teaching had changed. The historic period constituted the emergence of the world’s industrialization. The industrialized status of the world shifted focuses of fathers’ roles from moral guidance to breadwinning. This emanated from the desire of societies and individuals to be individually, industrially, and economically independent and satisfied. The industrialization of the world affected the social and economic well-being of individuals, as such, all individuals in one respect or the other especially at family levels strove to be industrially and economically autonomous. Social scientists and researchers studying fathers’ involvement focused on and considered fathers’ roles as providers and breadwinners within their families (Lamb, 2010, 2000; Pleck & Pleck, 1997).

The World War II yet saw another conceptualization of fathers’ roles. Although fathers’ roles as moral teachers and providers were acknowledged in society, the depression suffered by the world and its people during the period of the War founded the focuses of fathers’ roles as sex-role models and sexual security for females. The 1930/40s can be attested a period which when inadequacy of men was experienced due to the World War II. As such, fathers were assumed to sex-role model their sons and provide sexual security for females (Lamb, 2000; Strecker, 1946; Levy, 1943; Wylie, 1942). Social scientists as revealed by fatherhood literature switched focuses on fathers’ roles as moral teachers and breadwinners to sex-role modeling and sexual security for females due to the desired presence of men (fathers) in society.

Although fathers’ roles; moral teaching, breadwinning, and sex-role modelling were recognized aspects of fathering during the 1970s, the exuberant roles of females gaining grounds in society formed the rationale behind the new emphasis of fathers’ roles as the new nurturant fathering. Fathers’ roles as sex-role modeling prevailed for nearly 30 years in the fatherhood literature until social scientists realized the interactive activities among fathers in bringing up children. It was then held that fathers could not just be substitutes for mothers and that the interactions that take place in the process of children’s development commanded nurturing among fathers. The childcare activities, plays, among others undertaken by fathers in the process of children’s development could not replicate only motherly assistance. But the phenomenon could attest that fathers could be ‘true co-parents’ (Lamb, 2010, 2000; Griswold, 1995; Pleck, 1981).

In the process of child development and education, the fatherly day-to-day interactions recorded comprised the prose that fathers could be nurturing with regard to their children’s successful development. Among the premised criticisms was the argument that both fathers and mothers were the determinants of the family climate, as such, fathers could not just be substitutes for mothers but can be nurturing. Child nurture commensurate fathers’ involvement within families. Fathers’ involvement in child development irrespective of gender can be affected by various factors.
Among them, include men’s attitudes towards fathering, child gender and age, factors related to job stress, and perceptions of shared parenting and fathering (McBride and Rane, 1998, 1997; Marsiglio, 1995). These factors constitute the Belsky’s Parenting Process (Belsky 1984) model which formed the bedrock of diverse studies that investigated factors affecting fathers’ involvement in child development. The model since its foundation had been a central platform for studies in father-related research (Grimm-Thomas & Perry-Jenkins, 1994; Belsky et al., 1991; DeLuccie & Davis, 1991; McBride and Rane, 1998).

Studies investigating factors that affect fathers’ involvement in child development illustrated that child gender and temperament constituted profound child characteristics that hinder or enhance the process. Some studies found that fathers interacted and engaged in activities with boys than girls and more differently between boys and girls (Elizabeth & Julia, 2016; Pleck & Hofferth, 2008; Manlove & Vernon-Feagans, 2002). Such studies contended that fathers were more compatible with their young boys than girls illustrated by the verge of activities undertaken with boys versus girls. In addition, other studies illustrated that fathers in terms of temperament interacted and were engaged with easy temperamental girls than boys (Frodi et al., 1982). This implied that fathers with easy tempered girls were privileged compared to difficult temperamental boys, as such engaged with them more easily in activities than their boy counterparts. These activities may include play, putting to bed, waking up, hygiene; bathing, brushing teeth, dressing, among others.

Controversially, a study, two decades later found that girls of low sociability and temperament instead experienced less interactions and engagement with their fathers (McBride et al., 2002). Although this could be attributed to the context of time and setting of the study, temperamentally difficult children could post interaction challenges among fathers irrespective of gender. However, an earlier study found that general child characteristics including temperament affected fathers’ involvement (Cummings et al., 2000). This certified that child characteristics; gender and temperament possess involvement challenges among both parents in children’s activities. Not only fathers that might be affected but mothers also as both parents are key determinants of the family climate (McBride et al., 2002). Both fathers and mothers averagely take part in the day-to-day activities in the process of child development and logically encounter the temperament characteristics children regardless of gender are made of.

Various studies have drawn conclusions that accessed findings indicated fathers were involved in their daughters less than they do with their sons. While other studies found interestingly, differences in gender temperament among fathers in dealing with their children, some studies indicated that fathers sometimes do well with temperament easy daughters than boys but in turn interact with boys more compared to daughters. As child characteristics are concerned, fathers’ involvement in childcare activities can be affected (Lamb, 2000; Pleck, 1997; Marsiglio, 1991; Palkovitz, 1984).
Illustrated by previous findings, child gender and temperament were key child characteristics that affected fathers’ roles in childcare activities in diverse contexts. In this regard, the current study investigated the relationship between girls’ characteristics; temperament and fathers’ involvement in the Ghanaian context. The researcher sought to find out how girls’ temperament affected fathers’ involvement within the said context as illustrated by studies that fathers interact less with their daughters in the process of carrying out their childcare activities.

Diverse studies in varied contexts stressed that fathers interacted less with their daughters than sons (Elizabeth & Julia, 2016; Pleck & Hofferth, 2008; Manlove & Vernon-Feagans, 2002; Lamb, 2000; Pleck, 1997; Marsiglio, 1991; Palkovitz, 1984). The current study therefore addressed how girls’ characteristics; temperament influenced fathers’ involvement. The study aimed to find out whether girls’ characteristics affected fathers’ involvement since fathers have been found to interact less with their daughters than boys in diverse contexts. The study was guided by the Belsky’s Parenting Process model (Belsky, 1984) which suggested that fathers’ involvement in childcare was affected by fathers and children’s characteristics; men’s attitudes towards fathering, child gender, age, and temperament, factors related to job stress, and perceptions of shared parenting and fathering (McBride and Rane, 1998, 1997; Marsiglio, 1995 Belsky, 1984). For the purpose of the study, child characteristic, temperament was considered as factor that affected fathers’ involvement in childcare.

2. Child Temperament

Although there constituted minimally accessed literature on the influence tendencies of child temperament on fathers’ roles, the innate personality trait; temperament among children had been found to influence fathers’ roles in diverse contexts. Temperament to a larger extend could pose various levels of difficulties to fathers who get involved in the day-to-day activities of children. Accessed studies illustrated that easy tempered children are easy to be dealt with as compared to the difficult tempered counterparts (McBride et al., 2002; Rothbart & Bates, 1998; Mangelsdorf et al., 1990; Scarr & McCartney, 1983). Implacably, fathers of easy tempered children can be privileged with easy fathering roles while difficult children connote difficulties in carrying out fathering roles among fathers. As much as low quantity of fathers’ roles among difficult tempered children may be observed so as its quality may be affected.

Child temperament-related studies illustrated that diverse temperament characteristics can be observed among children that may hinder or enhance fathers’ involvement in childcare. Among them included difficult temperament, activity level, and sociability which were found in varied research contexts to possess significant effects on fathers’ involvement process in childcare. The mentioned factors are correlative with the emotionality, sociability, and activity level characteristics of children (McBride et al., 2002; Buss & Plomin, 1984). Constructive researches have associated parental involvement problems with difficult temperament in later studies.
The temperament characteristic had been intensively researched in relation to the general parental involvement initiative. There had been little emphases on the activity level and sociability as temperament characteristics of children (Clark et al., 2000; Rothbart & Bates, 1998).

Negative maternal behaviors which include but not limited to lower maternal responses have been found in recent researches to be associated with the difficult temperament characteristics of children. Young children have been argued to spend much time with mothers than fathers and that mothers’ reluctance to adapt adequate teaching strategies and responsiveness to child temperament often yields difficult temperament in children (McBride et al., 2002; Maccoby et al., 1984; Campbell, 1979). Controversially, as fathers are a primary agent alongside mothers in securing a good family climate (McBride et al., 2002), it is arguable that only mothers spend longer hours with young children. It could be due to work vs. family conditions, scheduling among others. As such, the current study investigated whether such research claims originated from the temperament characteristics of children with focuses on girls. The study examined the relationship between girls’ temperament characteristics and fathers’ involvement.

2.1 Belsky’s Parenting Process Model (Belsky, 1984)

The study was grounded on the Belsky’s (1984) Parenting Process model. The model had been the platform on which numerous studies that examined the factors that affect father’s involvement in childcare took place (McBride et al., 2002; Belsky, 1984). Within the framework of the model, factors that affect fathers’ involvement in childcare were categorized into characteristics of the father (father’s personality, attitudes toward childrearing), characteristics of the child; temperament, age, and gender) and the contextual sources of stress and support; marital relationships, social support networks, and occupational experience (McBride et al., 2002; McBride and Rane, 1998; Belsky’s 1984). The discussed variables constituted the basic characteristics of the Belsky’s (1984) parenting process model. Examining the model, it cuts across series of possible factors that possess significant effects (both positive and negative effects) on parent-child relationship.

The Belsky’s parenting process (Belsky, 1984) model constituted the foundation for diverse studies that examined father-related studies in children’s lives. Some of the investigations included ‘men’s attitudes towards fathering roles, ages of children, and gender, job related stress factors, perceptions of marital quality, and perceptions of shared parenting and fathering roles’ (McBride and Rane, 1997; Perry-Jenkins and Crouter, 1990; DeLuccie & Davis, 1991; Grimm-Thomas & Perry-Jenkins, 1994; Belsky et al., 1991; McBride and Rane, 1998). It is worth noting that the model had been tested in diverse contextual studies. However, in the context of the current study, only the characteristics of the child (temperament, age, and gender) were examined in relation to fathers’ involvement.
Illustrated earlier, studies confirmed that most fathers had good relations with their sons than daughters (Elizabeth & Julia, 2016; Pleck & Hofferth, 2008; Manlove & Vernon-Feagans, 2002; Lamb, 2000; Pleck, 1997; Marsiglio, 1991; Palkovitz, 1984), this formed the basis of the current study.

3. Methods and Materials

3.1 Participants
A total of 106 families were recruited to participate in the study. The researcher recruited the participants through the local news articles, announcements in the local media and through posters on billboards at vantage points. The participants were 212; 106 fathers and children. Families were recruited on condition that they lived together with their biological daughter who attended a kindergarten school at the time of the study. Expected families were intended to have both biological parents alive with a daughter. The targeted children were between 4 to 6 years as the study was focused on kindergarten children. A final condition on which the participants were engaged was that they were willing to accept an hour home-visit by the researcher to complete the questionnaires.

The study showed mean age of 33.5 years for fathers and 5 years 1 month for children (girls) respectively. With regard to the ages of fathers, the study showed that (49) representing a percentage of 46.2 were between the ages of 31 to 40, as 39 (36.8%) of them were aged 21 to 30 years while 17.0% indicating 18 of the fathers were aged 41 – 50 years old. It was also revealed from the study that 37 of the children, proportionately 34.9% were aged 5 to 5 years, 5 months old, 28.3% indicating 30 children were between 5 years, 5 months to 6 years old, 24 constituting 22.6% of children were also within the age ranges of 4.5 years to 5 years old while those between 4 years and 4 years, 5 months old were only 15 (14.2%).

The study also revealed a participant data of 60 (56.6%) children who were in kindergarten two and 46 (43.4%) in kindergarten one. Apart from the ages of the children, 53 (50.0%) of them attended public and private kindergarten schools respectively. In addition, 33.0 percent of the families representing 35 families had a family size of 5, 34 (32.1%) had more than 5 members in their families, 25 (23.6%), 4 members, and only 12 (11.3%) of the families had 3 members. Among the demographics of the families encompassed the occupation of fathers. The study revealed that 30 fathers (28.3%) were into businesses or self-employed, 25 (23.6%) of them, teaching occupation, 23 (21.7%) Health, while 19 (17.9%) were farmers and 8.5 percent (9 fathers) were in the security or forces.

Finally, the demographic data of the families revealed that a percentage of 41.5 representing 44 families had monthly incomes between 700 and 900 US dollars, 34 (32.1%), 400 to 600 US dollars, 17 (16.0%), 1000 US dollars and above while 11 families (10.4%) had monthly incomes between 100 and 300 US dollars.
3.2 Procedure
Self-reported data from the participants was collected for the study. The researchers used questionnaires to collect data on child temperament and the fathers’ responsibility scales. The data from the child temperament scale was used as the characteristics of girls while that of the fathers’ responsibility represented the fathers’ involvement. The researchers phoned participants a week before the home-visit. This was to reaffirm that they met the inclusion criterion and were ready to participate in the study. As participants confirmed their readiness and that they met the criterion for the study, the researchers scheduled a home-visit where fathers completed the questionnaires. This was usually done during the weekends to ensure working fathers were at home.

3.3 Measures
A. Child temperament
The researchers used the Very-Short Form of Children’s Behavior Questionnaire (CBQ) which was developed by Mary Rothbart (Rothbart, 1981) to collect the data for child temperament. The child characteristic was considered a factor that affected fathers’ involvement within the framework of the Belsky’s Parenting Process model (Belsky, 1984). The scale had 36 items that illustrated the temperament characteristics of children at home and was intended for children aged 3 to 7 years (Rothbart et al., 2001, 1994; Rothbart, 1998; Kochanska et al., 1994). The Very-Short Form of Children’s Behavior Questionnaire (CBQ) was derived from the standard form of the Child Behavior Questionnaire through scale-level factor analysis (Rothbart et al., 2001) and measures 3 broad categories of child temperament.

The 3 broad dimensions of the temperament measured included Surgency, Effortful control and Negative affect. Emerged from the standard form, the first dimension, Surgency constituted factor loadings such as Impulsivity, High-Intensity Pleasure, Activity Level, negativity, and Shyness constituted 12 items (“Often rushes into new situations”, “Prefers quiet activities to active games”). Effortful control, the next dimension which also had 12 items illustrated the loadings of Low Intensity Pleasure, Inhibitory Control, Attentional Focusing, Smiling/Laughter and Perceptual Sensitivity (example; “Prepares for trips and outings by planning things s/he will need”, “When drawing or coloring in a book, shows strong concentration”).

Negative affect constituted the last dimension which had factor loadings of negative emotions but controversially excluded Shyness. Example included “Tends to become sad if the family’s plans don't work out”. The Very-Short Form of Children’s Behavior Questionnaire (CBQ) rated child temperament characteristics on a 7-point Likert scale from (extremely untrue of your child) to 7 (extremely true of your child). The scale also had a “not applicable” function if fathers contend a statement not to describe a behavioral trait of their child (Rothbart et al., 2001; Mangelsdorf et al., 2000; Buur et al., 1999; Martin, 1988).

Higher order factors of the Child Behavior Questionnaire (CBQ) have illustrated similar internal consistency reliability demonstrated by Cronbach’s alphas between .61
and .94 (Sleddens et al., 2011; Majdandžić & Van den Boom, 2007; Rothbart et al., 2001; Kochanska et al., 1994; Ahadi et al., 1993) in diverse contexts.

The Very-Short Form of Children's Behavior Questionnaire (CBQ) also in varied contexts revealed moderate internal consistency illustrated by Cronbach’s alphas between .63 and .67 (surgency), .65 and .79 for negative affect, .67 and .74 for effortful control (Sleddens et al., 2011; O’Connor et al., 2010; Hughes et al., 2008; Ward et al., 2008; Putnam & Rothbart, 2006).

B. Fathers Responsibility
The Parental Responsibility scale developed by McBride & Mills (1993) was used to collect the data that investigated fathers’ involvement. Fathers’ involvement was measured using the Parental responsibility scale. The scale of measure contained 14 items that illustrated common childcare activities that fathers of kindergarten-going girls often engaged in. Some of the items included “Take the child to preventive healthcare clinic”, “buys child’s toys, clothes” among others. The Parental responsibility scale consisted of 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (mother almost always) to 5 (father almost always). The instrument was designed to portray which parent had primary responsibility for each task. Controversially, responsibility and involvement for fathers could include but not limited to ‘remembering, planning, and scheduling children’s tasks as it was assumed fathers can be responsible for activities but did not really execute it (McBride et al., 2002). In diverse contexts, the Parental Responsibility scale revealed moderate internal consistency illustrated Cronbach alphas between .77 and .79 respectively.

4. Results and Discussion
The results were reported from Linear Multiple Regressions conducted on demographic factors and child temperament characteristics to examine the relationship between fathers’ involvement and girls’ characteristics that merited fathers’ involvement with boys than girls as found by diverse studies.

4.1 Preliminary Analysis
The researchers conducted a One-way ANOVA analysis based on the demographic data of the children (girls) and fathers in the earlier analysis. It was revealed that a statistical significance was found between fathers’ involvement and their income levels; [F (19, 86) = 2.43, p < .05]. However, ages of fathers and children, children’s grades and types of school, jobs of fathers and family size illustrated no statistical significance (See Table 3).

4.2 Regressions on the demographic and temperament characteristics of girls
Regressions were further conducted to identify the relationship between fathers’ involvement and girls’ characteristics. This was the first analysis strategy considered; the researchers computed the regression to identify from the data collected which
factors shared significant relationships with fathers’ involvement. The findings revealed that child (girls) temperament statistically predicted fathers’ involvement; [F(1, 105) = 4148.8, p, <.001] with an R2 of .975 illustrating a statistical coefficient significance of (β = .988, p = .000) and children’s (girls’) type of school also was statistically significant illustrated by a regression equation of [F(2, 104) = 2329.3, p, <.001] with an R2 of .978 illustrating a statistical coefficient significance of (β = .841, p = .000), See Table 1.

4.3 Regressions on the Temperament Characteristics of girls and fathers’ involvement
The study showed that girls’ Effortful control predicted fathers’ involvement demonstrated by a statistically significant equation; [F(1, 105) = 4012.7, p, <.001] with an R2 of .975 illustrating a statistical coefficient significance of (β = .987, p = .000) and girls’ Surgency predicted fathers’ involvement by the statistic significant equation; [F(2, 104) = 2219.6, p, <.000] with an R2 of .977 illustrating a statistical coefficient significance of (β = .690, p = .000), See Table 2.

5. Discussion of Findings
The purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between girls’ temperament characteristics and fathers’ involvement. The study revealed that ages of fathers and children, children’s grades and types of school, jobs of fathers and family size had no relationship with fathers’ involvement in girls. This elaborated that how old the fathers or children were, the classes of children and the schools they attended as well as jobs fathers did and the number of people within each family among the group of families and children investigated did not play any role in how fathers related with their young daughters. The mentioned factors did not possess any effects on why fathers engaged with boys more than girls.

However, the income levels of families were found to determine how fathers involved with their daughters’ lives. The statistical significance found among income levels of families and fathers’ involvement in girls illustrated that, in order for fathers to interact or relate well with their young daughters, there was the need for a functional financial background. Fathers needed to be financially stable in order to relate well with their young daughters.

In addition, the study illustrated from the regressions conducted that fathers’ involvement in girls among the families investigated was affected by child temperament and girls’ type of schools attended. Illustrated by R Squared values of 97.5% and 97.8 and Beta values of 98.8% and 84.1% for child temperament and type of schools respectively, the factors demonstrated their closed relationships with fathers’ involvement in their young girls.

Child (girls) temperament which emerged as a determining factor of fathers’ relations with their girls meant that either girls were easy or difficult tempered at those tender ages, fathers’ interactions and general relations with them were improved or hindered. Logically, easy tempered girls may connote close relations between them and their fathers compared to their difficult tempered counterparts.
On the aspect of the type of school, particularly in Ghana, schools are categorized into public and private institutions where the public institutions are free from the Kindergarten to Junior high and the private counterparts very expensive. Demonstrated by the children’s national examinations scores, the private institutions however have proven to be better in terms of performances than the public institutions. Although expensive, most parents prefer their children to attend the best schools for a brighter future. As such, if one’s child attends either of the schools, their relations in terms of provisions for their school fees, healthcare, basic needs would definitely vary. For instance, some private schools are boarding houses, meaning that, children report to school at the beginning of the semester and only return home during vacations. Consequently, fathers’ interactions, relations with their young daughters (girls) may shrink due to this phenomenon.

Illustrated by R Squared values of more than 97% for both factors, it implied that both factors exhibited very close relationships with how fathers interacted, engaged with, and assisted their young girls in the process of their development. It can therefore be interpreted that among the fathers investigated, about 97% chances of their interactions, engagement, and involvement in their girls’ lives were determined by the temperament of their daughters and the schools they attended. Revealed by positive Beta values in both factors, it implied that a one-unit change in each of the factors will result in an equal positive increase in their effects. It can be argued therefore that girls’ temperament is a contributing factor to why factors tend to engage more with boys than girls.

On the other hand, it was further realized that within the temperament characteristics of girls, effortful control and surgency of girls contributed more to their father-daughter relationship than negative affect. Illustrated by more than 97% R Squared values for both factors, it explained their closed relationship with fathers’ involvement. Positive Beta values of 98.7% and 69.0% were obtained which indicated that a one-unit change; increase or decrease in either of the factors would result to a positive increase in the effects on fathers’ involvement.

6. Conclusion

The study examined the relationship between fathers’ involvement and girls’ characteristics at the kindergarten level. It was found that the temperament of girls and the schools they attended influenced the relationship between fathers’ involvement and daughters. This implied that either girls were easy or difficult tempered, it affected their interaction, engagement, and involvement relationship with their fathers.

It can therefore be concluded that fathers get along with their sons than girls due to their temperament characteristics and the schools they attended. It was also realized that within the framework of the child temperament characteristics, child surgency and effortful control shared relationships with how fathers managed the temperament of their daughters.
6.1 Recommendation

- It was recommended that parental education programs should be established to sensitize fathers on fathers' involvement hinderances and solutions.
- It was also recommended that child temperament characteristics should be carefully considered in all dealings with children among fathers.

References


**Lists of Tables**

**Table 1**: Regressions on the demographic and temperament characteristics of girls

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Sig. (P)</th>
<th>Beta(β)</th>
<th>Sig. F Change</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Child Temperament</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4148.8</td>
<td>.975</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.988</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of School</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2329.3</td>
<td>.978</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.841</td>
<td>.000</td>
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</table>

*Note: Regression was significant at *p<.01*

**Table 2**: Regressions on the Temperament Characteristics of girls and fathers’ involvement

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Sig. (P)</th>
<th>Beta(β)</th>
<th>Sig. F Change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Effortful Control</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4012.7</td>
<td>.975</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.987</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surgency</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2219.6</td>
<td>.977</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.690</td>
<td>.000</td>
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*Note: Regression was significant at *p<.01*

**Table 3**: One-way ANOVA analysis

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<td>7.686</td>
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<td>.405</td>
<td>.770</td>
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<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>18.298</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>.963</td>
<td>.918</td>
<td>.564</td>
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<td>Ages of Children</td>
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<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>90.268</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>1.050</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>108.566</td>
<td>105</td>
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<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
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<td>.261</td>
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<td>Grade of Children</td>
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<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>21.069</td>
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<td>Total</td>
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<td>Between Groups</td>
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<td>.202</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Within Groups</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>Total</td>
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<td><strong>Income Level of Family</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>.264</td>
<td>26.500</td>
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<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
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<td>31.662</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>52.469</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>.610</td>
<td>80.651</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>44.099</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>2.321</td>
<td>52.469</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Number of People per Family</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>120.778</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>1.404</td>
<td>171.478</td>
<td>105</td>
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<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>9.177</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>.483</td>
<td>9.656</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
| **Note:** ANOVA was significant at .05**

Total: 95.700, 86, 1.113

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