**Examining Outcomes of Participants in Fatherhood Programs:
Do Gender, Race, and Class Composition Make a Difference?**

by

Ami Goolsby Landers

A dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty of
Auburn University
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

Auburn, Alabama
December 12, 2020

Keywords: fatherhood programs, females, subgroups, baseline differences, class composition

Approved by

Dr. Maria Witte, Chair, Professor of Educational Foundations, Leadership and Technology
Dr. Francesca Adler-Baeder, Co-Chair, Professor of Human Development and Family Studies
Dr. James Witte, Professor of Educational Foundations, Leadership and Technology
Dr. Jane Teel, Associate Clinical Professor of Educational Foundations,
Leadership and Technology

Abstract

For nearly two decades, there has been a powerful movement for fathers to become more involved in their children's lives, resulting in an increased number of fatherhood programs. These programs focus on various outcomes and can reduce the risk of child maltreatment. Four outcomes are measured in this study: interpersonal competence, parental involvement, child academic adjustment, and financial responsibility. While the evaluation of fatherhood programs is expanding, published documentation remains greatly limited. Very few have considered demographic factors that may influence program outcomes. Additionally, the current study is a novel test of class composition and its effects on program outcomes. This study explored fatherhood program participants' baseline differences and tested whether immediate post-program changes in target outcomes differ based on the gender, race, and class composition of fatherhood program participants. The sample consisted of 723 participants, both male and female, from across the state of Alabama. Findings indicate enhanced benefits for participants in four groups immediately following program participation compared to baseline results in all targeted outcomes.

The current study reflects some key takeaway findings. Results indicate there were no statistically significant baseline differences in gender. However, when examining baseline differences for race, Black participants reported higher levels of parental involvement and financial responsibility on average than White participants. All fatherhood program participants, regardless of gender and race, experienced statistically significant change in the desired direction immediately following program participation. Additionally, results do not indicate class

composition influences participant outcomes. Male participants in a "males only" class changed similarly to males in a "mixed class" comprised of males and females. Results support the notion that female participants in the class do not have a negative impact on male participants in the same class.

The current study supports previous findings that fatherhood programs positively influence both male *and* female participants' individual and relational skills and knowledge. The current study also advances the literature by discovering some variations at program start in specific fatherhood program outcomes based on demographic factors. These findings serve to inform practitioners to consider characteristics that may enhance or impede program effectiveness.

reviewing my work! Things truly do come full circle. To my chair, Dr. Maria Witte, endless thanks. You never doubted me, always encouraged me, and constantly reminded me of the ultimate goal. I owe immense gratitude and thanks to Dr. Francesca Adler-Baeder: my co-chair, my mentor, my role model, and my friend. Your relentless support and unconditional belief in me and my ability helped me to believe in myself. I will forever be grateful for your guidance and friendship.

Finally, but most importantly, I would like to thank God for sustaining me every step of the way throughout this journey. I feel I am nothing without Him, and He most definitely blessed me far more than I deserved in so many ways, especially to complete this dissertation. My desire is to use His blessings and be a positive influence for others. I pray this accomplishment will provide me opportunities to achieve His plan for me.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

List of Abbreviations

ACF — Administration for Children and Families

ADCANP — Alabama Department of Child Abuse and Neglect Prevention

ANOVA — Analysis of Variance

CTF — Children's Trust Fund (also known as ADCANP)

DHR — Department of Human Resources

H1 — Hypothesis One

IRB — Internal Review Board

NFI — National Fatherhood Initiative

OFA — Office of Family Assistance

RMANCOVA — Repeated Measures Analysis of Covariance

RQ — Research Question

SFPFF — Strengthening Families™ Protective Factor Framework

TANF — Temporary Assistance for Needy Families

CHAPTER I

Introduction

According to the 2013 U.S. Census Bureau, approximately one in three children live in homes without their biological father (Dion, Zaveri, & Holcomb, 2015). Due to the increasing availability of adult education, including fatherhood programs, the current ratio has slightly decreased in that one out of four children live in a home without their father (U.S. Census, 2019; U.S.H.H.S., 2020). Unfortunately, much work remains. In recent years, there has been a powerful movement for fathers to become more involved in their children's lives since they uniquely contribute to children's development (Fagan, Day, Lamb, & Cabrera, 2014; Gadsden, 1995; Lamb, 2000). Nevertheless, poor socioeconomic conditions and minimal resources often inhibit fathers from being part of their children's lives (Pruett, Cowan, Cowan, & Pruett, 2009), as it is understood that fathers play a significant role in children's development (Fagan et al., 2014), and detriments to child development are marked by father absences (Gadsden, 1995; Pruett et al., 2009). Due to fathers' importance in children's lives, hundreds of fatherhood programs are currently active throughout the United States (Dion et al., 2015), although they vary greatly in design (Dion, Zaveri, & Holcomb, 2015; Pearson, 2018).

The increased attention to fathers and the effect of responsible fathering on children's well-being, creating the expansion of fatherhood programs, were likely due to various factors. One likely factor is a shift in gender roles and the increase in women being active members of the paid labor force (Coltrane, 1996). This factor created fathers' need to assume different parenting responsibilities as they had in previous generations (Coles, 2001). Additionally, the

1

increased percentages in divorce, remarriages, and births to non-married parents also created new contexts, and often new challenges, to the development and sustainment of father-child relationships (Anderson, Kohler, & Letiecq, 2002). While evaluation of fatherhood programs remains in the early stages, increasing literature does reflect what fathering means to different groups of men (Allen & Doherty, 1998) and an increasing a common perception is that active, involved, "responsible" fathers significantly contribute to the lives of children (Anderson et al., 2002).

Background

Since 2006, fatherhood programs have received federal funds in the form of a discretionary grant from the United States Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families (ACF), Office of Family Assistance (OFA) to implement father-focused programs and activities (ACF, 2012). The Responsible Fatherhood research literature supports the claim that a loving and nurturing father improves outcomes for children, families, and communities (ACF, 2012; OFA, 2020). Further studies consider children with involved, loving fathers are significantly more likely to do well in school, have healthy self-esteem, exhibit empathy, and prosocial behavior, and avoid high-risk behaviors such as drug use, truancy, and criminal activity compared to children who have uninvolved fathers. Studies on parent-child relationships and child well-being show that a father's love is an essential factor in predicting children's and young adults' social, emotional, and cognitive development and functioning. Overall, implementers of fatherhood initiatives and programs are hopeful that participation fosters an increased amount of time fathers spend with their children, improved parenting and coparenting behaviors, increased economic security for their children, and healthier partner and coparenting relationships (Fagan &

2

Kaufman, 2015; Holcomb, Max, Young, Valdovinos, D'Angelo, Friend, Clary, & Johnson, 2015; Kim & Yang, 2018; McHale, Waller, & Pearson, 2012).

To conceptually understand the nature of fatherhood programs, one must first understand the necessary and foundational components of adult education programs. The andragogical adult education theory by Knowles (1970), including the transformative learning theory developed by Mezirow (1991), further supports the framework of community-based fatherhood programs. Many fatherhood programs encompass these fundamental components and encourage participants to be actively engaged in their learning process (National Fatherhood Initiative, 2015). Like adult education programs, fatherhood programs possess self-directed learning opportunities for their success. Case management is a program component often provided to fatherhood program participants. This additional yet necessary component provided to participants fosters a safe environment for them to express their goals, ideas, and expectations for their future, thus taking an active role in the decision-making process for their lives (J. Jordan, Personal Communication, June 20, 2020). Within the case management component, the fatherhood programs in the current study incorporated a needs assessment to determine the learners' needs within their own community. Fatherhood program curriculum and content includes information and skills needed by participants within the community to apply what is learned to their everyday life immediately. A needs assessment, most often conducted through initial case management, aids in ensuring fatherhood programs' success (National Fatherhood Initiative, 2020; OFA, 2020).

The participants reflected in the current study participated in 20 fatherhood programs funded by the Alabama Department of Child Abuse and Neglect Prevention (ADCANP). One of Alabama's most influential partnerships and collaborative relationships is between the ADCANP

and the Alabama Department of Human Resources (DHR). The partnership has a cohesive history of collaboration and partnership on behalf of fathers, children, and families. DHR serves as the state's child welfare agency and handles child protective services, childcare, child support, Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program (SNAP), and Temporary Assistance to Needy Families (TANF). ADCANP is the only state agency created by the Alabama Legislature to promote healthy families and address the state's growing problem of child maltreatment. The agency's mission is to secure resources to fund evidence-based community programs committed to the prevention of child abuse and neglect, as well as advocate for children and the strengthening of families. For the past ten years, utilizing TANF funding, DHR has had an inter-agency agreement with ADCANP to provide services to fathers through father-focused programs. ADCANP funded, monitored, and evaluated 151 community-based prevention programs across the state awarded to various nonprofits, school systems, family resource centers, and other relevant community partners through a competitive grant application process. The primary types of child abuse and neglect prevention programs funded include fatherhood, parent education and support, home visiting, youth mentoring, respite, and community awareness (A.D.C.A.N.P., 2019). The fatherhood programs assessed in the present study are programs funded by ADCANP.

Statement of the Problem

While responsible fatherhood programs are prevalent and relevant, there have been minimal evaluation studies of fatherhood programs published, leaving a significant research gap. Further, the limited research on these programs also lacks information focused on the differences in program outcomes that may exist based on demographic (gender and race) factors. For example, few researchers of fatherhood programs have investigated baseline differences upon

program entry, or the influence of race and gender (i.e., black, white, male, female) on baseline differences upon program entry, or program outcomes following program participation. Considering these factors may be especially important since females participate in fatherhood programs. In adherence to federal guidelines that states no program will discriminate based on race, gender, or sexual orientation, females are eligible to participate in community-based fatherhood programs and cannot be discriminated against (Unites States Department of Health and Human Services, 2020).

Additionally, after several personal interviews with fatherhood program facilitators across Alabama, information suggests that community-based fatherhood programs often serve a dual role (C. Hunter, A. Lightsey, Y Adams., Personal Communication, June 19, 2020). These programs provide father-focused program services and parenting and co-parenting education and resources within the community, resulting in a growing number of females participating in fatherhood programs. With limited options for other available parenting programs in some communities, women often attend fatherhood programs to receive some information and resources instead of none. Exploring demographic factors such as gender and race, and their impact on fatherhood program outcomes (if any), could inform practitioners and create more nuanced fatherhood program services.

While responsible fatherhood programs are prevalent, the research needs expanding to include information to establish a research-based, best practices programmatic outline, and the evaluation of these programs. Evaluating fatherhood programs that offer much-needed skills and resources to program participants can make a positive impact on the communities in which they are offered and drive social change and create a positive economic impact for the participants and their communities (Dion, Zaveri, & Holcomb, 2015;Fagan & Kauffman, 2015).

The research specifically lacks information focused on the differences in program outcomes based on participants' demographic factors: gender, race, and the interaction of gender and race. Additionally, research lacks attention to class composition, and if the class composition affects program outcomes. Do men in a male-only class composition reflect more considerable change than men in a mixed class composition that includes females? The current study assessed participants' mean level scores in four targeted outcomes, controlling for demographic and class composition factors across two time points: baseline (program entry) and immediate post-program.

The current study is primarily supported by the adult education theoretical perspective that assumes the adult learning process is andragogical, self-directed, and guided by the learner (Knowles, 1984; Tough, 1971). Adult participants also have amassed various life experiences establishing their need for more information. Adults are ready and motivated to learn and want to immediately apply the knowledge obtained in their current situation, making their learning experience relevant and applicable to their current situation in life (Houle, 1192; Knowles, 1975; Tough, 1971. The current study is also supported by an eco-cultural theoretical perspective (Phenice, Griffore, Hakoyama, & Silvey, 2009) that assumes culture influences relational dynamics and individual behaviors and outcomes.

Purpose of the Study

The current study's primary purpose was to examine changes in outcomes within four of the five protective factors of the Strengthening Families™ Protective Factor Framework (SFPFF). The framework emphasizes five vital protective factors: *parent/family resilience, social connections, knowledge of parenting and child development, social and emotional competence of children,* and *concrete support in times of need*. The framework is a research-

informed approach used to help community-based child abuse prevention programs working with children and families focus on protective factors. Theoretically, the framework parallels the fatherhood program's target outcomes (Fagan & Kaufman, 2015; James Bell Associates, 2010). In an effort to reduce the likelihood of child abuse and neglect, the goal of Strengthening Families™ is to enhance child development and increase family strengths. The present study examined change in four outcomes within the SFPFF: interpersonal competence *(social connections)*, parental involvement (*knowledge of parenting and child development)*, child academic adjustment (*social and emotional competence of children)*, and financial responsibility (*concrete support in times of need)* following participation in a fatherhood program. This study also explored differences in change in the four outcomes by gender, race, the interaction of gender and race, and class composition.

Research Questions

The following research questions were used to guide this study:

RQ1: Do fatherhood program participant groups (male and female) differ at baseline?

RQ2: Do fatherhood program participants demonstrate significant improvement across two time points (from preprogram to immediate post-program) in family strength outcomes of the Strengthening Families™ Protective Factor Framework (SFPFF) (i.e., *interpersonal competence, parental involvement, child academic adjustment, and financial responsibility*)?

RQ3: Does change in indicators of family strength outcomes following immediate program (time 2) participation differ based on:

- o   Gender alone
- o   Race alone
- o   Interaction of gender and race

H1: Based on the review of the literature regarding class composition and potential impact on outcomes, a hypothesis was formulated to reflect male program participants would show a greater amount of change in outcomes following program participation in a male-only class composition as compared to males in a mixed class (males *and* females) composition.

Definition of Terms

The following terms are defined to help the reader understand the context of terms used throughout the current study.

Adult is a term used in the current study that describes the participants in the study. Typically, an adult is defined as a person who is fully grown and/or developed. For the purpose of the current study, and adult is also defined as a person whose social role (such as being a father) categorizes them as being an adult. Additionally, the assumptions of an adult learner (self-concept, experience, readiness to learn, orientation to learning, relevance, and motivated to learn as described by Malcolm Knowles (1984)) is also used when describing adult participants in the current study.

Adult Education is a term used with a few different yet related meanings. Lyman Bryson defined adult education as "all the activities with an educational purpose that are carried on by people engaged in the ordinary business of life" (1936, pp. 3-4). Broadly defined, adult education "is the process of adults learning" (Knowles, 1980, p. 25). It is a process comprised of all the experiences adults have when they obtain new knowledge and information, acquire new skills, beliefs, and values. It is a process of self-development (Knowles, 1980). Adult education in a technical sense "describes a set of organized activities carried on by a wide variety of instructions for the accomplishment of specific educational objectives" (Knowles, 1980, p. 25).

Andragogy is defined by Malcolm Knowles as the "art and science of helping adults learn" (Knowles, 1980, p. 43). The Greek definition of andragogy means man-leading compared to the definition of pedagogy meaning, child-leading (Knowles, 1977). Andragogy encompasses the concept that adults seek our learning something on their own, which is synonymous with self-directed learning (Houle, 1984; Tough, 1971).

Baseline is a term used in the current study that represents the current characteristics of program participants at the time they enter and begin the program. Baseline characteristics (e.g., gender, race) and differences are considered and presented as research questions in the current study.

Class composition is a term used in the present study that refers to the makeup of a class of fatherhood program participants. For the current study, the change in outcomes following program participation in a male-only class composition as compared to males in a mixed class (males *and* females) composition was examined.

Community-based programs is a term used throughout the current study to describe programs established in a particular region or area. Communities have unique traits that are both similar to other communities, yet different. Contextual factors within a community such as culture, race, and gender are specifics characteristics unique to that community.

Demographics is a term used in the current study to reflect characteristics such as gender, race, employment status, education, relationship status, and annual household income. The demographics of the sample in the current study is reflected in Chapter 3 of the current study.

Fatherhood programs is the term used throughout the currents study that describes the type of community-based programs that focus on providing fathers with skills and resources to improve parenting and coparenting skills, improved quality of father-child engagement,

improved frequency of father-child engagement, increased financial responsibility of fathers, and progress toward greater economic stability, including increased skill attainment and employment. Fatherhood program objective were established by the Administration for Children and Families within the Healthy and Human Services Department of the United States (ACF, 2012; National Fatherhood Initiative, 2015).

Healthy Marriage and Responsible Fatherhood (HMRF) Initiative is the federal discretionary grant program designed to "foster economically secure households and communities for the well-being and long-term success of children and families" (OFA, 2020).

National Fatherhood Initiative is a non-profit human service organization whose mission is to engage and serve fathers intentionally and proactively. The organization has worked with various collaborative partners (e.g., community organizations, correctional facilities, military organizations, and state and federal government entities) to create sustainable fatherhood programs and initiatives (National Fatherhood Initiative, 2020).

Outcomes is the term used throughout the current study to signify the program specific goals and objectives of adult education programs, specifically fatherhood programs. Targeted outcomes in the current study align with those established by the Administration of Children and Families (2012) for Responsible Fatherhood programs.

Pedagogy is the term used and describes a learning theory that is not learner-centered (Knowles, 1977). It focuses on the subject matter to be learned and favors predetermined course content as opposed to incorporating the various content that students can bring to the learning experience (Knowles, 1980).

Role of a mother is a term used in the current study that defines and describes the activities and responsibilities of a female caregiver of their child (Ainsworth, 1982; Bowlby,

1988). More insight into how the role of a mother is developed, including infant mother attachment is outlined in the literature review in Chapter two.

Role of a father a term used in the current study that defines and describes the activities and responsibilities of a male caregiver of their child. Only recently has the familial role of a father been examined by researchers as an important factor in a child's well-being (Cabrera et al., 2003; Gadsden, 1995).

Social change is a term used in various fields and can be defined differently in each. For the current study, social change is defined as changes or alterations made within an individual, group, or community over time.

Societal attitudes are a term defined in the current study as the beliefs, assumptions, and expectations a community or society has toward a particular topic, such as the role of a father or mother.

Sub-groups is the term used in the present study that acknowledges additional, differing characteristics of the group are similar thus creating a sub-group within the whole group. The current study examined four sub-groups: black females, black males, while females, and white males within the whole group of fatherhood participants in the study sample.

Transformative learning is an additional adult learning theory that encompasses cognitive, behavioral, and emotional reflection change that establishes a lasting transformation in an individual (Mezirow, 1991). Transformative learning and andragogy are the most prominent adult education learning theories.

Significance of the Study

The current study and its findings lend essential information to not only the research of fatherhood program participants and their outcomes but also fatherhood program outcomes and

their potential impact on reducing the risk of child maltreatment. This study's significance provides empirical evidence substantiating fatherhood programs' impact on subgroups of male and female fatherhood program participants. With an increasing number of female program participants participating in fatherhood programs, it is essential to determine if fatherhood programs that include multiple factors that reduce child maltreatment benefit all program participants regardless of their gender. The current study looked at the participants as a whole group to determine change in outcomes and looked at demographically different subgroups to determine differences in change between the participants. Assuming that gender and individual culture may influence outcomes, the current study explored variations in outcomes based on fatherhood program participants' gender and race. Additionally, it is equally significant to determine if men who participate in a fatherhood class composed of only males indicate change and how much change in outcomes compared to men who participate in a mixed fatherhood class comprised of males and females. Practitioners and fatherhood program designs may benefit from research that reflects an intentional review of demographically different subgroups and their outcomes upon fatherhood program completion and class composition and its impact on outcomes. The findings can inform fatherhood program providers of the possible varied needs of participants upon program entry.

Organization of the Study

The present study is organized into five chapters. Chapter I introduces the current study, presents the problem, states the study's purpose, and asks the research questions. Chapter II re-states the study's purpose and research questions and is a review of the literature that includes a review of the adult education theoretical perspective and how it correlates with fatherhood programs. It also includes a review of the literature concerning the role of the father and mother

in the family dynamic; societal attitudes towards each role; literature on gender and class composition and their impact on outcomes; the Strengthening Families™ Protective Factor Framework (SFPFF), fatherhood program outcomes, specifically *interpersonal competence, parental involvement, child academic adjustment, and financial literacy* and goals of the present study. Chapter III reports the setting and design of the present study, the recruitment into the study, data collection procedures, target population and sample, measures and their validity and reliability, and summary. Chapter IV includes the purpose of the study, the research questions, an overview of the evaluation design, a description of the instrument used in the present study, the data analysis plan, the present study's results and findings, and the summary of the chapter. Chapter V includes an introduction, the purpose of the study, the research questions, a review and discussion of the findings, the strengths and limitations of the present study, the conclusions and implications of the findings for practice, and the recommendations for future studies.

CHAPTER II

Literature Review

The review of the literature focused on the following main topics: 1) review of adult education theoretical perspective, 2) the role of a father and mother in the family dynamic, 3) societal attitudes toward the roles of father and mothers 4) gender and class composition and their impact on outcomes, and 5) the Strengthening Families™ Protective Factor Framework (SFPFF) and fatherhood program outcomes, specifically *interpersonal competence, parental involvement, child academic adjustment, and financial literacy*.

Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of this study was to examine changes in outcomes within four of the five protective factors of the Strengthening Families™ Protective Factor Framework (SFPFF). The framework emphasizes five vital protective factors: *parent/family resilience, social connections, knowledge of parenting and child development, social and emotional competence of children,* and *concrete support in times of need*. The framework is a research-informed approach used to help community-based child abuse prevention programs working with children and families focus on protective factors. The protective factors within the SFPFF are the basis for all community-based programs funded by the ADCANP and theoretically align with fatherhood program target outcomes (Fagan & Kaufman, 2015; James Bell Associates, 2010). In an effort to reduce the likelihood of child abuse and neglect, the goal of Strengthening Families™ is to enhance child development and increase family strengths. By incorporating the SFPFF model

into the instruction of skills and resources provided to individuals who participate in fatherhood programs, the mission of the ADCANP to reduce the risk of child maltreatment is further enhanced. Also, fatherhood program participants receive resources and information that could positively impact them and their families and their communities. The current study examined fatherhood program participants' changes in four outcomes within the SFPFF: interpersonal competence *(social connections)*, parental involvement (*knowledge of parenting and child development)*, child academic adjustment (*social and emotional competence of children)*, and financial responsibility (*concrete support in times of need)* immediately following participation in a fatherhood program. This study also explored differences in change in the four outcomes by gender, race, the interaction of gender and race, and class composition.

Research Questions

The following research questions were used to guide this study:

RQ1: Do fatherhood program participant groups (male and female) differ at baseline?

RQ2: Do fatherhood program participants demonstrate significant improvement across two time points (from preprogram to immediate post-program) in family strength outcomes of the Strengthening Families[TM] Protective Factor Framework (SFPFF) (i.e., *interpersonal competence, parental involvement, child academic adjustment, and financial responsibility*)?

RQ3: Does change in indicators of family strength outcomes following immediate program (time 2) participation differ based on:

- o Gender alone

- o Race alone

- o Interaction of gender and race (4 groups):

H1: Based on early literature regarding class composition and its potential impact on outcomes, a hypothesis was formulated to reflect male program participants would show a greater amount of change in outcomes following program participation in a male-only class composition as compared to males in a mixed class (males *and* females) composition.

Introduction

In the present study, the assumption was that race and individual culture might influence program participation outcomes. Therefore, the present study explored variations in outcomes by race and gender and the intersectionality of gender and community culture. In conducting the literature review for the present study, only one study was found to have explored differences in individual outcomes after fatherhood program participation by race (Adler-Baeder, McGill, Landers, Odomes, & Chan, 2019). However, other studies have assessed individual outcomes within specific racial subgroups (e.g., Latino fathers, Concha, Villar, Tafur-Salgado, Ibanez, & Azevedo, 2016; Black fathers, Roy & Dyson, 2010), while another assessed racial differences among fathers non-compliant in child support (Walker, Reid, & Logan, 2010). In 2015, Holcomb and colleagues conducted a qualitative evaluation of mostly Black (84%) fatherhood program participants that indicated men who participated in the Parents and Children Together (PACT) evaluation experienced childhoods marked by financial and family instability suggesting Black fathers may be especially prone to enter fatherhood programs with economic challenges. It is crucial to assess racial differences, especially regarding Black fathers, because there is evidence to suggest father involvement differs by race (e.g., Perry & Bright, 2012; Shears, 2007). Some studies suggest more active engagement in caregiving and social skills activities by African American fathers compared to other ethnicities (e.g., Shears, 2007), while other studies

16

document less father involvement of African American fathers due to institutionalized barriers, such as higher rates of incarceration (e.g., Perry & Bright, 2012).

Fatherhood program participants tend to enter the program with a unique set of barriers and challenges, thus reflecting their need for services (Holcomb et al., 2015). Extenuating factors and barriers, such as expanding poverty and shrinking resources, often keep fathers from participating in their children's lives (Pruett et al., 2009). Fathers play an essential role in children's lives and contribute to a child's development (Fagan, Day, Lamb, & Cabrera, 2014; Lamb, 2000). Furthermore, the prevalence of child neglect and other forms of child maltreatment decreases due to father involvement (Pruett et al., 2009). Fatherhood programs are prevalent, however, there is not much reflected in fatherhood program literature and research regarding an evidence-based, best practices programmatic outline, or the evaluation of these programs (Dion, Zaveri, & Holcomb, 2015; Fagan & Kauffman, 2015).

The research lacks clear findings focused on the differences at baseline (program start points) and program outcomes based on gender, race, the interaction of gender and race, and class composition (males only class vs. a mixed class of male and female participants). One recent study utilized a large, diverse sample and followed fatherhood program participants over one year. The study considered the experiences of subgroups over time, particularly regarding the geographic setting of the program (rural or non-rural), the race of the father, and the sequencing of services (case management or curriculum instruction first) (Adler-Baeder et al., 2019). The key finding from the 2019 study was that the average father sustained positive and sustained benefits over time in multiple areas related to individual and family strengths. However, the study assessed male program participants' changes moderated by various factors, including race, but not gender, since all program participants reflected in the study were male.

17

The present study will look at both male and female fatherhood program participant subgroups and examine differences (if any) in targeted outcomes.

Review of Adult Education Theoretical Perspective

Educational programs for adult learners are quite different from educational programs for children and youth (Holton, Swanson, & Naquin, 2001; Knowles, 1984; Zemke, 2002). Children typically rely on the teacher or organization to determine what is learned. They tend to accept the information at face value and expect they will use what they are learning in their distant future (Knowles, 1977; Knowles, 1980; Kuhn & Pease, 2006). However, adults tend to decide for themselves what they should learn. They expect that what they are learning will be useful to them sooner rather than later, and they have past experiences from which to draw from in their learning experience.

Andragogical ideas and concepts were influenced by various educationalists which then influenced Malcolm Knowles' theory of adult learning in the United States. The term andragogy was first coined and used by the German educationalist Alexander Knapp (Howard, 1993). Eduard Lindeman then extended the philosophical assumptions of adult education and concept (Gessner, 1956; Smith, 2004; Zmeyov, 1998). The American psychologist and educator John Dewey, who developed the concepts of experimental and pragmatic learning (Zmeyov, 1998), also contributed to the theory of adult learning. These concepts, theories, and assumptions, combined with Maslow's hierarchy of needs for individuals (Maslow, 1943), as well as psychologist Carl Rogers' idea that individuals should have the primary role in their own learning experience established the foundation and basis for Malcolm Knowles' theory of adult learning (Chan, 2010; Knowles, 1980; Rogers, 1986; Savicevic, 1991; Zmeyov, 1998).

Malcolm Knowles defined andragogy as the "art and science of helping adults learn" (Knowles, 1980, p. 43). The Greek definition of andragogy means man-leading compared to the definition of pedagogy meaning, child-leading (Knowles, 1977). Known as the "Father of Andragogy" in adult education (Cooke, 1994; Tough, 1993), Knowles emphasized that adult learners are different from youth learners in many ways. However, the most fundamental components of adult learning are that adults are self-directed and take responsibility for their learning experiences (Knowles, 1972; Tough, 1971).

Various fields of study, such as the fields of education, medicine, management, law enforcement and criminal justice, have incorporated Knowles' andragogical approach into their specific disciplines (Bedi, 2004; Birzer, 2004; Bolton, 2006; Chan, 2010; Forrest & Peterson, 2006). While each field varies in their discipline and their program components, all aforementioned fields have applied the assumptions of the andragogical leaner to their specific course of study (Bedi, 2004; Birzer, 2004; Bolton, 2006; Chan, 2010; Forrest & Peterson, 2006).

In the field of education, using rubrics and grading templates that appeal to adult learners' need for understanding why something is important establishes problems solving strategies for learners (Bolton, 2006). Bolton stated that "rubrics are especially valuable to students because they clearly link the assignment to the outcomes as well as the objectives" (2006, p. 5). Rubrics often increase a student's motivation-they know the expectation and are ready to learn which is an assumption of adult education learners (Knowles, 1984; Bolton, 2006).

In medicine, when a physician and patient have shared meaning, allowing the patient to contribute to the development of the course of treatment, the andragogical approach is reflected (Bedi, 2004). Bedi describes the historical approach in the medical field as one "lacking in support structures and fueled by a sense of achievement rather than understanding" (2004, p. 95).

The author states that by effectively communicating with the patient and collectively determining the course of treatment, the patient clearly understands what needs to occur, and treatment becomes more self-directed (Bedi, 2004).

Forrest and Peterson (2006) observe history long pedagogical applications in management practices and surmised that better leaders evolve in the management field when management programs focus more on the learner and center instruction around the learner as opposed to viewing management students as children who are dependent on their instruction. Historically, the management field has predicated on management students knowing very little about the subject matter and depending on the instructors to provide information. However, a recent shift in teaching management is encouraging students to become aware of themselves and their needs in order to contribute to their learning experience (Forrest & Peterson, 2006).

In the criminal justice field, specifically law enforcement, the use of self-evaluation accompanied by evaluating the instructor results in students absorbing a greater amount of knowledge in critical thinking strategies, holistic learning approaches, and general problem-solving skills (Birzer, 2004). Birzer states that a criminal justice or law enforcement educator should "not only facilitate new knowledge but also help students learn how to identify contemporary criminal justice problems, then facilitate the development of solutions by allowing the student to use his or her own creative abilities within certain parameters" (2004, p. 398). This concept aligns with the assumption that adult learners should draw from their past experiences (Knowles, 1984; Tough, 1971).

Due to differences between adult and child learners, Malcolm Knowles (1984) suggested six critical assumptions, also considered as distinguishing characteristics, in adult education and adult education programs. The six assumptions of an adult learner that Knowles' suggests are:

self-concept, experience, readiness to learn, orientation to learning, relevance, and motivated to learn. Acknowledging the differences between adult and child learners, then applying these assumptions to adult learning experiences is not only vital to the success of the adult learning program, but also the satisfaction of the learner (Blondy, 2007; Knowles; 1980; Kuhn & Pease, 2006; Rosenblum & Darkenwald, 1983).

Knowles' first assumption to make with adult learners is self-concept. Adult learners have a developed self-concept as compared to children (Houle, 1984). Adults are older and typically more mature, so they are capable (more than children) of taking part in guiding and directing their own educational needs. Adults tend to know what they want to know and seek out opportunities to have that experience so that it can be immediately applies to their current situation (Sheckley & Bell, 2006). Due to their age and maturation, adults no longer depend on others and have developed independence and autonomy. As a child grows into an adult, "…they experience a deep psychological need to be perceived and treated by others as being capable for taking responsibility for themselves" (Knowles, 1984, p. 6.5).

Aligning with Knowles' first assumption of adult learners, a developed self-concept, adult education is also self-directed learning (Brockett & Donaghy, 2005; Houle, 1961; Tough, 1971). Self-directed learning (SDL) is an adult learning model that emphasizes that learning experiences should be guided by the learner (Houle, 1961; Merriam, 2001; Tough, 1971). The learner knows what they want and need to learn. Therefore, they actively seek out and engage in those learning opportunities (Merriam, 2001; Tough, 1971). Tough provided "the first comprehensive description of self-directed learning as a form of study" (Merriam, 2001, p. 8). Tough conducted a research study with adults who planned their own learning projects and

21

documented that the adults learned in an organized manner yet did not depend on an instructor for their learning experience (Merriam, 2001; Tough, 1971).

While Malcolm Knowles is the more well-known theorist of adult learning, self-directed learning, and andragogy in the United States, other researchers contributed to the popularity of the adult learning theory. An earlier author and researcher influenced self-directed learning-Cyril Houle. Houle was the instructor of both Malcolm Knowles and Allen Tough and unintentionally influenced both Knowles' and Tough's fields of study which is known today as Andragogy and Self-Directed Learning (Brockett & Donaghy, 2005; Merriam, 2001). In Houle's book *The Design of Education,* he defines adult education as "… the process by which men and women (alone, in groups, or in institutional settings) seek to improve themselves or their society by increasing their skill, knowledge, or sensitiveness; or it is any process by which individuals, groups, or institutions try to help men and women improve in these ways" (1972, p. 32). Both Tough and Knowles have acknowledged each other as contributors to their fields, yet both were influenced and built upon initial influences of Cyril Houle (Brockett & Donaghy, 2005; Knowles, 1975; Merriam, 2001).

The second assumption is experience. Adults have multiple life experiences from which they can reflect upon and apply to their current learning experiences as compared to children (Knowles, 1980). Adults are older in age than children and youth and therefore have many more life experiences, both good and bad, they can consider when making choices that impact their lives. Their life experiences can play a vital role in their participation and possibly impact outcomes. Children have very little ability to be a knowledgeable resource for themselves or others due to their age and lack of life experiences (Knowles, 1980: Knowles & Associates, 1984). However, with multiple life experiences from which adults draw from in their adult

education, preconceived biases and notions regarding certain topics can have an impact in their learning journey (Taylor, Angelique, & Kyle, 2003).

A third assumption is that adults are ready to learn; they realize the importance of knowledge and educational experiences and are interested in learning content with immediate application in their lives (Sheckley & Bell, 2006). Adults encounter specific instances and situations that provide the need for additional learning opportunities and experiences (Petty & Thomas, 2014; Tough 1971). Specific to this assumption, Knowles stated "an adult comes into an educational activity largely because he is experiencing some inadequacy in coping with their current life problems" (Knowles, 1972, p. 36). For example, an adult with no prior computer or technological experience, who obtains a career change or employment which requires the use of computers, may determine the need for and seek out educational opportunities (Houle, 1961) that will provide the adult with a foundation in computer skills and technology (Petty & Thomas, 2004).

The fourth assumption, and another prominent hypothesis formulated about adult education, is orientation to learning. Learning that takes place in a later stage in life is pragmatic, meaning it simply makes sense (Brookfield, 2001). Adults tend to view educational experiences as practical and specific to problem-solving such as a wood-working course for an adult who wishes to build a piece of furniture for their home or learning another language in order to better communicate with their new neighbor. Adults who engage in adult education programs typically enroll of their own accord and their participation is voluntary (Chan, 2010). However, Knowles acknowledged their voluntary participation is not always possible (Knowles, 1984).

A fifth assumption of adult learners is relevance- they need to know and understand the reasons for obtaining additional knowledge and skills. It is common for children to accept with

little resistance that their lessons in school is important and that they need to learn and commit to memory the information a teacher provides to them. The Alabama State Department of Education even establishes weekly standards to assists parents and teachers alike to provide information of established expectations and standards for students (Alabama State Department of Education, 2020). However, receiving instruction that is teacher imposed rather than self-directed is not often enticing to an adult learner. "It is seldom convincing for them to be told by someone (like the boss) that it would be good for them" (Knowles, 1987, p. 170).

The final assumption is in direct contrast to youth learners- adult learners are motivated. While children are typically rewarded for learning or punished for achieving a less than the desired outcome (examples of external motivation), adults tend to have something that motivates them to learn or seek out a learning opportunity or experience (Knowles, 1970; Knowles, 1972; Knowles, 1980). Motivation for adults evolves internally, driven by individual societal and social roles rather than external motivation (Knowles, Elwood and Swanson, 2015). Motivation can be a key element of the success of learning activities (Maslow, 1943).

Knowles' six assumptions in the andragogical learning approach are also fundamental and parallel concepts in the transformative learning theory developed by Jack Mezirow. (Boyd & Meyers, 1998; Cranton, 2006; Mezirow, 1981; Taylor, 2007). Transformative learning, learning that establishes a lasting change, incorporates Knowles' assumptions of adult learners and provides a framework that emphasizes developmental, behavioral, and emotional reflection changes that establish the lasting cognitive transformation (Mezirow, 1991; Taylor, 1998).

Transformative learning is an additional adult learning theory that encompasses cognitive, behavioral, and emotional reflection change that establishes a lasting transformation in an individual (Merriam & Bierema, 2014; Mezirow, 1991) and is a prominent and notable

24

learning theory in adult education (Mälkki, 2010; Taylor 2008). Mezirow theorized that autonomy in one's thoughts and feelings would supersede and guide changes in one's learning rather than acknowledging and applying others' beliefs (Mezirow, 2000). According to author Edward Taylor, transformative learning has "replaced andragogy as the dominant educational philosophy of adult education, offering teaching practices grounded in empirical research and supported by sound theoretical assumptions" (Taylor, 2008, p.5). Mezirow's theory parallels with Knowles' assumption of adult learners that life experiences impact the learning process (Knowles, 1984; Mezirow, 1996). Like Knowles' assumption that multiple life experiences guide the adult learner, Mezirow also believed that life experiences impact adult learners. He elaborated this assumption and theorized that adult learners who cognitively reflect on extraordinary life experiences may begin to question their individual beliefs about themselves and possibly those around them, thus initiating the process of transformative learning (Merriam & Bierema, 2014; Mezirow, 1981).

Mezirow initially described the transformative learning process that included 10 steps to achieve perspective transformation (Merriam & Bierema, 2014; Mezirow, 1978). He theorized that an adult learner experiences a change in their perspective toward a specific circumstance which may ultimately "transform our taken-for granted frames of reference (meaning schemes, habits of mind, mindsets) to make them more inclusive, discriminating, open, emotionally capable of change, and reflective so that they may generate beliefs and opinions that will prove more true or justified to guide actions" (Mezirow, 1978, p. 8; Merriam & Bierema, 2014).

The andragogical adult education theory by Knowles (1984), coupled with Mezirow's transformative learning theory (1978) further supports the framework of community-based adult education programs. Both theories outline assumptions (Knowles, 1984) and steps (Mezirow,

1978) in the adult learning process that exhibits changes in a person that can be evident to not only the learner, but others around them (e.g., family, friends, etc.) as well (Merriam & Bierema, 2014). Communities themselves can be a "site of transformative learning" when individuals engage in transforming their ideas which may inevitably transform the communities in which they live (Merriam & Bierema, 2014, p. 94).

After considering the six assumptions one makes of adult learners by incorporating andragogical learning theory (Knowles, 1980) and considering the transformative learning theory (Mezirow, 1991), how can this information influence or guide adult learning programs? From Knowles's theory of andragogy, several principles emerged that educators should consider when teaching adult learners. As stated above, adult learners have a higher self-concept; therefore, they should think about what they learn and the process in which they learn (Dirkx, 1998; Knowles, 1984, Taylor, 2007). Additionally, based on the assumption that adults bring various life experiences to their learning experience, adult learning should enhance their current knowledge based on what they have already learned. Since adult learning makes sense (Brookfield, 2001) and appeals to adult learners' practical aspects, the content of what they learn should resonate with them on a personal or professional level (Holton et al., 2001). The information gained should be applicable and pertain to their current life experiences.

An important principle of adult learning should render solutions to problems or issues pertinent to their cognitive abilities rather than focus on memorizing unnecessary or irrelevant material (Merriam, Caffarella, & Baumgartner, 2007; Merriam, 2017). In their book, *Learning in Adulthood: A Comprehensive Guide,* the authors explain that cognitive abilities are developed and reinforced in adult education learning experiences, and that "by observing others, people

acquire knowledge, rules, skills, strategies, beliefs and attitudes" (Jackson, 2009; Merriam et al., 2007).

After considering the assumptions and principles of adult learning, one must also consider the various characteristics and attitudes that are vitally important to adult learning programs' success. In some of their early literature, adult learning authors Lindeman, Houle, Tough, Knowles surmised that one of the greatest challenges of our era pertained to how we interconnect with others. They further expressed the importance of every leader of various groups should focus on the experience and characteristics of the learner. (Houle, 1984; Knowles, 1980; Tough, 1971). He also believed that successful adult learning programs should, at the very least, achieve specific outcomes. The outcomes adult learners should possess after engaging in an adult learning experience is a better understanding of themselves. Self-reflection is not an easy task yet acknowledging and embracing all the various components of one's self is important in the adult learning process (Knowles, 1984, Mezirow, 1991).

Another characteristic or attitude that is a key component of adult learning programs is differentiating people and their ideas. Adult learners should learn to accept the ideas of others, even if they differ from their own while still accepting and respecting them as a person. Knowles believed this attitude could deepen into genuine empathy and a yearning to help other people (Knowles, 1975; Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 2015).

Adult learning experiences should also foster an environment of change. Life is not linear; it has multiple moving parts. Adult learners should embrace change, such as a new learning opportunity, and apply the concept to themselves as continually evolving. Adult learners should also achieve the skill of reacting "…to the causes, not the symptoms, of behavior."

(Knowles, 1980, p. 10). He believed that solutions to most problems are found in the *cause* of the problem, not necessarily the issue's symptom.

Knowles believed that adult learning should drive social change which could potentially have an impact on society (Freire, 1970; Knowles, 1984). In addition, transformative learning can be considered social change. As defined in Chapter 1, social change is a term used in various fields and can be defined differently in each. In the current study, social change is defined as changes or alterations made within an individual, group, or community over time. In order to impact changes in society, adults must be aware of and engaged in the social environment around them, regardless of their socioeconomic status or position (Freire, 1970; Knowles 1980). The idea of social change also incorporates the theory of transformative learning- adults experience cognitive reflection with the goal to "challenge and transform oppressive structures in society" (Merriam & Bierema, 2014, p. 88). Freire believed people must first acknowledge those who have unjust power and control over their lives (oppression), then engage in thoughts and behaviors to alter that control (Freire, 1970; Merriam & Bierema, 2014). Thus, transformative, adult learning occurs not only within the individual, but also within society (Merriam & Bierema, 2014).

After reviewing the core principles of andragogy and the characteristics and attitudes of an adult learner after participating in an adult learning experience, how are adult learning programs positively impacting communities? What implementation and programmatic strategies ensure their success? One crucial component of a successful adult learning experience is a good leader. A good leader has motives, values, and needs, which are aligned with those they are trying to lead. If they are not in alignment, the success of the activity or skill being mastered is greatly diminished. (McCauley, Hammer, & Hinojosa, 2017). Yet, as authors Collinson and

Collinson determined, good leaders seek out opinions and perspectives from those around them to establish a collaborative relationship between employees and employers where employees contribute their ideas to the workplace (2009). This study further supports Knowles' assumptions of adult learners and the transformative learning theory (Knowles, 1984; Mezirow, 1991).

Moreover, one of the assumptions of andragogy outlined by Knowles established an approach to learning guided by the learner, *not* the teacher. Therefore, the leader or facilitator of an adult learning experience is merely a *guide* for the learners and incorporates the learner's ideas and goals into the learning experience. Adults have a higher capacity to separate another person's ideas from that person's personality (Pratt & Associates, 1998).

Adult education programs are vitally important to all adults seeking to enhance their knowledge. Due to increasing advancements in technology and other societal changes and shifts in the workforce, participants need strategies and educational programs to bridge the gap and attain more knowledge to keep up with the changing times (Petty & Thomas, 2014). Even the "Father of Andragogy" Malcolm Knowles valued the importance of learning continually in order to persevere (Knowles, 1984). As neuroscience and technology developments evolved, he revised his publications to enhance further human resource development and the adult learner (Knowles et al., 2015; Taylor 2007). He also states that the level of commitment to a learning activity is directly related to how much they contributed to planning the activity (Conti, 1985; Knowles, 1990). This is evident in research indicating adult education programs that include workforce development services (i.e., career development, computer, and technology skills, job readiness skills) are directly related to enhancing career and employability for disadvantaged adults (Champagne, 1987). Unfortunately, other research reflects racial discrimination, and

inequalities in employment, and discrimination in low-wage labor markets are also prevalent (Pager, 2007; Pager & Shepard, 2008; Pager, Western, & Bonikowski, 2009).

<center>**Roles of the Father and Mother in the Family Dynamic**</center>

Familial expectations and roles have changed throughout cultural and social groups for the duration of the family's history. Historically, *mothers* have been the family member to take on the primary caregiver role and have been stereotyped as the caregiver expert, (Valiquette-Tessier, Gosseline, Young, & Thomassin, 2018), tend to be more responsive to young children (Berman, 1980), and represent the stable emotional guide for the family (Jordan-Zachary, 2009), although women tend to be emotionally evaluated more favorably than men (Eagly, Mladinic, & Otto, 1991). Numerous research studies (Ainsworth, 1982; Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978; Bokhorst, Bakermans-Kranenburg, Pasco Fearon, Van Ijzendoorn, & Schuengel, 2003; Bowlby, 1988; Bus & Van Ijzendoorn, 1995; Main, 1999; O'Connor & Croft, 2001; O'Connor, Croft, & Steele, 2000; Van Ijzendoorn, Schuengel, & Bakermans-Kranenburg, 1999) discuss the importance of infants' attachment with their mothers.

Both Ainsworth (1982) and Bowlby (1988) research describes social interaction phases when a mother and infant face each other, as well as the reaction of the infant when disengagement occurs. Bowlby particularly describes how the mother and infant adapt to each other and how a "mother's intuitive readiness" (p. 9) eventually establishes the infant's rhythm. Another study regarding linked the role of a mother and the mother-child attachment to literacy and how well the child will read depending upon the security of the mother-child attachment (Bus & Van Ijzendoorn, 1995).

Another prominent figure in history, Sigmund Freud, the psychoanalyst, has also contributed significantly to research with his theory of early social development (Thomas,

<center>30</center>

2000). In the book *Fatherhood* by Ross Parke, the author surmised that at the time Freud was developing the social development theory in 1905, fathers were not even considered as a prominent role in the theory much less examined (1996). Parke stated that fathers were intentionally "ignored because it was assumed that they were less important than mothers in influencing the child development" (Parke, 1996, p. 6). This supports Bowlby's idea that a child can only have one primary attachment figure, the mother (Bowlby, 1988; Parke, 1996).

However, few studies have focused on the effects of the father-infant attachment as compared to mother-infant attachment, (Lundy, 2002; Pipp, Easterbrooks. & Brown, 1993; Van Ijzenddorn & De Wolff, 1997; Volling & Belsky, 1992). Only within the past fifty years have researchers focused on familial roles and expectations, specifically the roles of a father, since the divorce boom in the 1960s and 1970s (Cabrera, Moore, Bronte-Tinkew, Halle, West, Brooks-Gunn, 2003; Fagan, Day, Lamb, & Cabrera, 2014; Gadsden, 1995; Lamb, 2000) . That point in American history saw a growing number of fatherless homes, increasing the need for research on the effects of absent fathers on the home, including the children. Society, as a whole, became more interested in the subject, pushing social researchers to understand the effects on concepts regarding fathers and their children, like father involvement and father-child engagement, which is one of the outcomes of the present study. These social scientists began focusing less on masculinity and dominance in the family. They focused more on fathers' time spent with their children and the quality of time fathers spent with their families (Lamb, 2000; Fagan, Day, Lamb, & Cabrera, 2014).

It is also influential to program evaluators and developers to understand why fathers' and mother's parenting dimensions are different and how they link to child outcomes (Smetana, 2017). Researchers Fagan, Day, Lamb, and Cabrera (2014) discussed whether fathers' and

mothers' parenting behaviors should be different conceptually. Knowing these differences is vital to fatherhood program developers to follow the construct that mothers' and fathers' parenting behaviors are different or have differing effects on the lives of children and their families as a whole. The study suggests that mother's and fathers' parenting behaviors, if similar, have no differing effects on their children and could affect evaluation processes. Most fatherhood program developers would follow the construct that absent or inconsistent fathers would affect their children's lives, just as an absent or inconsistent mother would have a similar effect. However, the fatherhood programs' focus gives fathers a cohort to vent to, learn from, and grow together while learning positive prosocial behaviors (Fagan et al., 2014).

Another study (Bastaits, Ponnet, & Mortelmans, 2012) examined the parenting dimensions of divorced parents and investigated differences between them as compared to married parents. They surmised that married parents tend to have a more natural reinforcement of each other as compared to non-residential fathers and custodial mothers. They observed questionnaires from nearly 600 adolescents regarding self-esteem and discovered that married fathers and fathers who shared custody of the adolescents were more supportive and less controlling than non-residential fathers who lived outside of the home. The study results indicated that supportive fathers, regardless of divorce, can positively impact a child's self-esteem (Bastaits et al., 2012). The study further substantiates the need for more evaluative studies that probe deeper into why mothers' and fathers' parenting dimensions are different, especially those who are unmarried and do not inhabit the same home. Additionally, with a greater understanding of why parenting dimensions vary from mother to father, program developers can strategically address these differences, link them to specific child outcomes, and focus more on positive outcomes (Smatena, 2017).

Societal Attitudes toward Fatherhood Role

To fully grasp the complexity of societal attitudes toward fathers, their roles, and fatherhood programs, as well as the possible outcomes after participating in a fatherhood program, one must look at the various components that impact the specific field of study. More recently, researchers have examined the roles of fathers within subgroups, such as white, black and other minority fathers in rural and non-rural communities, career-oriented men, rural families, and non-rural families (Adler-Baeder et al., 2019; Amatea, Cross, Clark, & Bobby, 1986; Elder & Conger, 2000; Gore, Wilburn, Treadway, & Plaut, 2011; Lemke, Lichtenberg & Arachtingi, 1992). Fatherhood programs focus on several aspects to improve familial relations and parental involvement, including mental health, employability, masculinity, and child support, among other topics. Research (Cooper, Ross, Dues, Golden, & Burnett, 2019; Lamb, 2000; Fagan, Day, Lamb, & Cabrera, 2014) has focused on many of these topics, especially regarding the role these aspects of life play in society, fatherhood, and familial life.

The Life Role Salience Scales have aided researchers and developers of family support programs, including fatherhood programs, to understand participants' expectations of roles within their own families and improve familial relationships and role expectations (Amatea et al., 1986). While reviewing research on subgroups of families and understanding particular families' dynamics, program developers can create and improve programs to focus on target-participant specific topics. The Life Roles Salience Scales were developed to help determine men's and women's assumptions regarding four different aspects of their lives: occupation, marriage, parental, and homecare. The scales evolved through researching what life roles seemed to be more or less important to society and families with career-driven parents. According to researchers Amatea, Cross, Clark, and Bobby (1986), two facets of personal expectations were

weighed on the following two scales: "the personal importance or value attributed to participation in a particular role, and the intended level of commitment of personal time and energy resources to the enactment of a role" (p. 835). This particular study focused on career-driven families and helps one understand what and how each participant expects the life-roles in their home and relationship. However, the Life Role Salience Scale applies to other subgroups of cultures.

In regard to parental involvement, the Child-Parent Relationship Scale is often used throughout fatherhood programs serving a diverse group of participants. It can be a valuable tool in evaluating individual participants' success in fatherhood programs regarding child-parent relationships and other program goals (Pianta, 1992). The scale is useful to adult education environments, especially fatherhood programs, to determine success in the program and the positive influences on relationships for participants and their children. Furthermore, understanding learning strategies and motivation processes gained throughout education, beginning in childhood, allows fatherhood programs to model their programs on what strategies work best for the particular target audience. Adult education can also learn from these strategies and motivation processes to ensure the program's effectiveness. Fatherhood program developers who understand positive learning strategies and motivational processes increase the probability of program effectiveness as well as educational aspects from early education through adult education (Ames & Archer, 1988). Additionally, fatherhood program participants have stated that one of the most significant motivating factors for participating in the program is their child. In a recent fatherhood program study through FRPN, qualitative interviews revealed that modeling behavior is an essential tool to influence their children's behavior (Adler-Baeder et al., 2019). In the interviews, fathers in the study expressed their desire to model good behavior and

be a good dad for their children (Adler-Baeder et al., 2019).

Additionally, the concept of parental involvement has expanded since fatherhood programs have become more available and accessible within communities. Social perceptions and the meaning of a caring father have evolved to coincide with intergenerational parenting differences (Morman & Floyd, 2002; Palkovitz, 1997). Fathers have become increasingly more engaged in their child's life, contradicting earlier perceptions of seeming invisible (Saracho & Spodek, 2008) due to work conflicts, co-parenting conflict, or worse, incarceration. Other studies regarding parental involvement with respect to race shed specific light on Black fathers and the undergirding concept regarding Black fathers' parental involvement with their children across the studies was enhanced, effective communication with the child's other parent (Coley & Chase-Landsdale, 1999; Cooper, Ross, Dues, Golden, & Burnett, 2019; Julion, Barclay-McLaughlin, & Fogg, 2007; Sheppard, Sims-Boykin, Zambrana, & Adams, 2004;). Another study noted discrepancies between mothers and fathers regarding parental involvement. Lower levels of father involvement were consistently reported by mothers when compared to the fathers' report (Coley & Morris, 2002), although the mothers' and fathers' reports were similar. Through enhanced communication skills and interpersonal competence skills provided by fatherhood programs, a more accurate description of parental involvement can be documented. A recent study addressed three dimensions of involvement (engagement, accessibility, and responsibility) through qualitative interviews with nonresidential, low-income fathers and provided literature that described the extent of parental involvement (Levine, Kauffman, Hammar, & Fagan, 2015). However, research remains limited in describing the extent of parental involvement of fatherhood program participants with their children.

To enhance and strengthen protective factors for children and reduce the risk of child maltreatment, fatherhood program developers also gain information and guidance from other aspects of familial research, including research focused on children and adolescents. Youth-focused programs that have an aspect of prevention or understanding of certain parental behaviors due to the research regarding children and adolescents were reviewed. To note, relationship education for adolescents has been recognized as a protective factor to avoid detrimental behaviors in the future, especially regarding fatherhood behavior. According to researchers Adler-Baeder, Kerpelman, Schramm, Higginbotham, and Paulk (2007), relationship education during adolescence predicts positive relationships later in life, increasing the possibility of positive parental behavior and decreasing the possibility of negative relationships in the future, including those with spouses, co-parents, and children. A review of another published study reflected that participants in fatherhood programs showed an increase in the quality of the relationship between the participant and the child (Adler-Baeder et al., 2019). Enhanced parent-child relationship quality also serves as a protective factor in the SFPFF and reduces the risk of child maltreatment (Browne, 2014; C.S.S.P., 2018).

Fatherhood programs have also benefitted from adolescent research by understanding interpersonal competence, especially in peer relationships, as competence in peer relationships in adolescents is often carried over into adulthood. Buhrmester, Furman, Wittenburg, and Reis (1988) determined five specific interpersonal competence domains in peer relationships by investigating three studies on college students. Those who develop and review fatherhood programs can use this research to understand the five domains determined within the particular investigation—initiating relationships, self-disclosure, asserting displeasure with others' actions, providing emotional support, and managing interpersonal conflicts—and use them within their

programs. These five domains do not only apply to peers, but also all relationships throughout adulthood, including spousal and parent-child relationships

Social support is an essential aspect of family, and parental influence on adolescent involvement in community activities is a significant predictor of social support and positive familial relationships. One research study showed that youth involvement in extracurricular activities reflects both family socialization influences and civic development. Behavioral models from parents and personal reinforcement of children's actions have significant effects on students' extracurricular activities (Fletcher, Elder, & Mekos, 2000). Parents who do not engage in community activities are consequential to children's extracurricular activities and community engagement. Therefore, fatherhood programs can focus on community involvement and social support by increasing encouragement and involvement in children's extracurricular activities to improve relationships with parents and children, their families, and their community. Fatherhood programs can also increase social and community support, predicting positive relationships in participants' relationships and their children's future relationships (Cooper, Ross, Dues, Golden, & Burnett, 2019; Lamb, 2000; Fagan, Day, Lamb, & Cabrera, 2014).

Influence of Gender and Class Composition

In the last twenty years of education, schools have implemented instructional strategies to improve or enhance student learning and achievement. Research literature, specific to adolescent and youth education, has prompted educators and school systems to recognize student differences and learning styles (Cable & Spradlin, 2008; Viets, 2009). The evaluation of one particular learning style has gained attention in recent education literature: gender and same-sex classrooms (Novotney, 2011). According to a study by Barton and Cohen (2004), classrooms separated and categorized based on gender are beneficial academically. They surmised that

37

gender should be considered an important factor in a student's learning. In a separate study, researchers Younger and Warrington (2004) reported that boys' performance in English and foreign languages were significantly boosted in a single-sex classroom format. Comparatively, girls' performance in math and science was remarkably improved in the single-sex classroom format. Additionally, the National Association for Single-Sex Public Education reported the benefits of single-sex schools as being more than academic in nature (2006). The report also reflects that single-sex education allows students the freedom to explore their individual strengths and broaden their horizons beyond gender stereotypes.

Another study (Shi, He, Wang, & Huan, 2015) observed the effects of lab group sex composition on learning physics. The study's aim was to observe the effects (if any) on students' quiz scores based on their designation into a same-sex physics laboratory grouping or co-ed laboratory group. For the males in the study, there were no statistically significant differences in their quiz scores for either group- the same-sex lab group or the co-ed lab group. However, for the females in the study, those who belonged to a same-sex lab group had higher quiz scores than the females who were in a lab group with males. The study results clearly show that for females, belonging to a same-sex lab group in a physics course is more beneficial to them than belonging to a co-ed lab group (Shi et al., 2015).

With various studies reflecting the benefit of single-sex education in youth classrooms, a search of the literature was conducted to discover evidence of an impact on outcomes of single-sex education in adult learning classrooms, such as fatherhood programs. Studies assessing the difference in the change in outcomes for males compared to females were obscure. However, one adult education scholar, Dr. K. Patricia Cross (1981), examined the demographic, social, and technological trends that encourage the availability of learning opportunities such as fatherhood

programs. In her book, *Adults as Learners: Increasing Participation and Facilitating Learning,* Dr. Cross describes conclusions drawn from her extensive review of survey data collected from male and female participants in adult learning programs. She also depicts the characteristics of adult learners and not only examines who participates in adult learning opportunities but also why one participates (1981). After her extended review of adult education research and findings, Dr. Cross surmised that adult learners' preferences and interest in the subject matter of the learning activity directly impacts how well participants learn. Of particular interest to the current study was Dr. Cross's conclusion that of the survey data reviewed, males are typically more interested in job-related and occupational learning activities and reflect greater outcomes when grouped with other males. Additionally, males were least interested in learning activities that included subject matter pertaining to home and family. In contrast, females showed significantly more interest in home and family learning activities when grouped with other females (Cross, 1981). After an extensive review of literature, others research studies that observed class composition and its effect on program outcomes were not detected.

Although Cross' findings (1981) do not reflect specific examples of fatherhood program outcomes, her findings in part-time adult learners establish the basis for the hypothesis of the current study that male fatherhood program participants would show a greater amount of change in outcomes following program participation in a male-only class composition as compared to males in a mixed class (males *and* females) composition. Traditionally, fatherhood programs are typically father-focused, yet often engage female participants. Since one of the intended outcomes of a fatherhood program enhanced and improved parenting skills and practices, females often attend fatherhood programs, especially if there is a lack of other available parenting programs in the community (ACF, 2012). The findings of the current study regarding

39

class composition in relation to participant outcomes can potentially inform future programmatic fatherhood services.

Fatherhood Programs and Outcomes, SFPFF, and Program Evaluations

As stated previously, the Strengthening Families™ Protective Factors Framework (SFPFF) (Browne, 2014; C.S.S.P., 2018) used by child abuse prevention agencies such as ADCANP, theoretically align well with target outcomes for fatherhood programs (Fagan & Kaufman, 2015; James Bell Associates, 2010). The Strengthening Families™ Protective Factors Framework (SFPFF) is a research-informed, strengths-based *approach* that teaches skills, attitudes, and strategies that prevent child abuse and neglect by focusing on the well-being of all families and helping them identify and build on their own protective factors. It is a program for adults, both professionals and parents that provides participants with a framework of skills and strategies to build parenting practices and strengthen families. The approach is delivered in a series of sessions that primarily address responsible parenting and promoting/sustaining healthy marriages and relationships.

The Strengthening Families framework includes five protective factors: *Parental Resilience,* the ability to recover from difficult life experiences and often to be strengthened by transformed by these experiences; *Social Connections,* the ability and opportunity to develop positive relationships that lessen stress and isolation and help to build a supportive network; *Knowledge of Parenting and Child Development,* the ability to exercise parenting strategies to guide and know what to expect as children develop in multiple domains (physical, cognitive, language, social and emotional); *Social and Emotional Competence of Children,* family and child connections that help children develop the ability to communicate clearly, recognize and regulate their emotions and establish and maintain relationships; *Concrete Support in Times of Need,*

access to supports and services that reduce stress and help to make families stronger (Browne, 2014; C.S.S.P., 2018).

Recent literature has discussed theory and outcome measures for fatherhood programs, which is important for fatherhood program developers to understand the effectiveness of specific theoretic frameworks. Fagan and Kaufman (2015) provide three theoretical frameworks for fatherhood programs to focus on in order to increase the effectiveness of the program and improve participants' relationships with their children and includes the attachment theory mentioned previously. Responsible fatherhood programs exist throughout the United States, but Fagan and Kaufman (2015) suggest current evaluation processes are inadequate to provide proper feedback. If current fatherhood programs integrate proposed theoretical frameworks, program efficacy could increase, as long as the frameworks correspond with target participants' goals. To further the research and literature specific to fatherhood programs, Fagan established the Fatherhood Research and Practice Network (FRPN), which released a request for proposal earlier this year. The proposal specifically attracted state and local fatherhood programs to understand better how various programs implemented services across the nation. Several final reports of studies awarded from the FRPN request for proposal have emerged and provided further findings of variations and results of fatherhood program goals, including parenting, co-parenting relationships, and skills to enhance to employability. Additionally, FRPN has identified extant gaps in the research of fatherhood programs in an effort to encourage future research (Osborne, Austin, Dion, Dyer, Fagan, Harris, Hayes, Mellgren, Pearson, & Scott, 2014).

One particular study, based in a northern state, evaluated the mother and nonresidential father engagement through co-parenting services in a fatherhood program. A prevalent barrier in father-child engagement is a poor relationship with the child's mother. The lack of effective

communication skills, scarce conflict management skills, and trust issues between the parents are just a few factors that lead to maternal gatekeeping- defined as when moms control the father's interactions with the child (Fagan & Barnett, 2003; Whitton, Sperber, Ludwig, Vissman, & Howard, 2018). A key finding of the study concluded that co-parenting services should be incorporated into fatherhood programs. In order to attract and better serve mothers and engage them in co-parenting services, a level of trust must be established with them (Whitton et al., 2018). The programs in the present study identified with this specific need within their communities and encouraged participation of females. Additionally, since several of the fatherhood programs serve as the only parenting program in the community, it is critical to understand the possible challenges of engaging males and females in the same program setting.

Historically, fatherhood programs have focused on employability (ACF, 2012), increasing positive influences in many aspects of life. Longitudinal research regarding childhood behavior and later employability in adulthood has been beneficial to fatherhood program developers, including Kokko and Pulkkinen's (2000) study *Aggression in Childhood and Long-Term Unemployment in Adulthood.* Employment skills and understanding the relationship between aggression in childhood and future unemployment can increase fatherhood programs' positive effects on participants. As this study finds, child-centered parenting and prosocial tendencies in an aggressive child lowered his or her probability of long-term unemployment later in life. Fatherhood programs aim to provide participants with positive parenting skills and other protective factors, like financial stability and responsibility, to prevent a cycle of childhood aggression and future long-term unemployment (Kokko & Pulkkinen, 2000). In a similar study, participants who enrolled and completed the Georgia Fatherhood Program benefitted more from the program services if they were unemployed when first entering the program. The study and its

effect on participants' employment and wages earned are significant to use as a base point of evaluating other fatherhood programs that include employment as a key focus area (Bloomer & Sipe, 2003).

There are factors that often impact program participation and ultimately impact outcomes. Emotional difficulties are often associated with unemployment in adulthood (Kokko & Pulkkinen, 2000) and more distant parenting (Spector, 2006). Mental well-being is an uncomfortable topic in many communities. However, as mental health becomes a more manageable topic to discuss within families, communities, and social circles, mental health has become an important factor in many adult education programs, including fatherhood programs. Anderson, Kohler, and Letiecq (2005) studied predictors of depression in low-income fathers, as depression can influence and even harm familial relationships, especially between nonresidential fathers and their children. The study found that 56% of 127 predominantly African American participants in non-rural and rural fatherhood programs reported depressive symptoms (Anderson et al., 2005). The study also found that other resource challenges that these fathers faced (i.e., the inability to pay child support, unemployment, limited access to transportation, criminal conviction history, rural or urban residence, level of social support) played a significant role in predicting a father's depression. These findings can be used to address the predictive factors of depression that emerge in parent-child relationships (Anderson et al., 2005) and possibly enhance program participation and facilitate learning.

Another factor related to program participation, thus impacting program outcomes such as employability and financial responsibility, as well as parental involvement, is masculinity. Masculinity is defined differently within the African-American and white communities. Black masculinity is a prevalent topic in research as it provides social scientists the ability to

understand why and how differing definitions came to be. Researchers have come to understand that life experiences and social constructs have created the differing definitions of masculinity within black and white communities and can affect the positive outcomes that can come from fatherhood programs (Aronson, Whitehead, & Baber, 2003; Coltrane, 1994; Roy & Dyson, 2010; Staples, 1982). Often, male participants are less likely to seek out services, even if they are in dire need of them. Factors such as previous negative experiences with help-seeking, social norms related to masculinity (Wahler & Cummings, 2020), or minimizing the severity of their problems or need of services contribute to hesitance in program participation (Dupere, O'Neill, & DeKoninck, 2012). In contrast, other studies have reflected that low-income black fathers want to care and provide for their children (Harris, Torres, & Allender, 1994; Jarrett, Roy, & Burton, 2002) yet are often denied opportunities to support their families (Staples, 1982) which inhibits their feelings of masculinity (Roy & Dyson, 2010).

Adult education programs, such as the fatherhood programs mentioned in this chapter, are vitally important to all adults seeking to enhance their knowledge. This concept is especially true for participants who wish to learn employability and job enhancement skills offered in fatherhood programs (Martinson & Nightingale, 2008). This is evident in research indicating adult education such as fatherhood programs that include workforce development services (i.e., career development, computer, and technology skills, job readiness skills) are directly related to enhancing career and employability for disadvantaged adults (Champagne, 1987). Unfortunately, other research reflects racial discrimination, and inequalities in employment are also prevalent (Pager & Shepard, 2008). Therefore, programs that improve employability skills of all participants, regardless of race or gender, have the potential to minimize racial discrimination in employment, yield participant success stories, and are vital within fatherhood program services

and implementation (Champagne, 1987; Martinson & Nightingale, 2008).

Initially, those involved in the Fatherhood Initiative advocated for a strengths-based approach, rather than a punitive approach, to support fathers in their efforts to be involved with their children, communicate effectively with the child's other parent, and to demonstrate financial responsibility (ACF, 2012). Economic stability, which includes financial responsibility outcomes, employability, the ability to pay child support, and the commitment to pay child support, is also a focus of fatherhood programs since as many participants are nonresidential parents, particularly fathers. Program participants often find financial responsibility and child support difficult topics to discuss because many factors come into play regarding saving money for the future or the ability (or inability) to pay full child support ordered. If a father is unemployed, underemployed, or lacks skills to enhance employability, the idea of saving money for the future or paying child support could be problematic (Anderson et al., 2005; Cancian, Meyer, & Wood, 2019; Threlfall & Kohl, 2015; Walker et al., 2010).

In Threlfall and Kohl's (2015) *Addressing Child Support in Fatherhood Programs*, the authors discuss ways to address child support. Factors such as employment status and their relationship with the custodial parent can impact a nonresidential father's life in many ways. Understanding how these factors affect a nonresidential parent's ability or inability to save money and obtain financial responsibility or pay child support can aid fatherhood program developers with information to discuss these concerns within their programs while understanding participants' points of view. Many nonresidential fathers not paying child support are often referred to local fatherhood programs to help them gain employment. Prior to the availability of fatherhood programs, placing a father in jail was a common consequence of fathers who did not pay court-ordered child support. Rather than placing a father in jail for nonpayment,

participating in a fatherhood program is a better alternative and benefits not only the father but also the child. Fatherhood programs that offer economic stability resources, job searches, job applications, resume preparation services, and job readiness skills, significantly decrease the non-compliance of nonresidential fathers. Fathers are empowered to seek employment, thus providing them financial resources to be financially responsible and comply with child support orders. Better understanding these efforts is of critical importance to the research literature on fatherhood programs. Documenting program effectiveness and identifying the process variables that contribute to program effects will inform recommendations on the treatment of non-payers in the child support system.

Another study (Cowan, Cowan, & Knox 2010) observed unmarried couples and father-child relationships and examined national policies that impact fragile families. Their study noted policy reform that encouraged and promoted programs to strengthen couple relationships and positive father-child engagement including paying financial support. The study further noted that with the establishment of the Healthy Marriage and Responsible Fatherhood Initiatives in 2001, in response to the Personal Responsibility and Work Opportunity Reconciliation Act of 1996 (PRWORA), family-focused programs, particularly those which strengthened the parent-child relationship, could provide fragile families with skills to obtain employment resulting in child support compliance. (Curran, 2003; Cowan, Cowan, & Knox 2010; Personal Responsibility and Work Opportunity Reconciliation Act. 1996).

While fatherhood programs vary in design (Dion, Zaveri, & Holcomb, 2015; Pearson, 2018), most programs strive to enhance a participant's interpersonal competence skills. In a more recent fatherhood program evaluation, the measures used in the present study to assess interpersonal competence were measured as separate, distinct outcomes of communication skills

and conflict management skills (Adler-Baeder et al., 2019). Participant's communication skills were measured using items from the Huston and Vangelisti (1991) Positive Interactions Scale, and conflict management was measured using items from the Interpersonal Competence Scale (Burhmeister, Furman, Wittenberg, & Reis, 1988) to assess conflict management skills in participants' relationships with other adults. According to Bochner and Kelly, interpersonal competence is achieved when a learner acquires the ability to foster and maintain healthy interactions with others (1974). Fatherhood programs provide activities to encourage and enhance effective communication and conflict management skills, which aid in overall interpersonal competence. When enhanced, interpersonal competence can reduce the risk of child maltreatment and is considered in the social skills protective factor of the SFPFF. One of the targeted outcomes of fatherhood programs in the present study, interpersonal competence, directly relates to the assumption that adult learners have a more mature self-concept. A combination of effective communication skills and conflict management skills taught to fatherhood program participants enhances participants' ability to differentiate between people and their ideas to enhance one's own interpersonal competence and can enhance healthy interactions with others (Bochner & Kelly, 1974).

The fatherhood programs in the current study taught effective communication and conflict management skills through various activities. One activity included the implementation of the 24/7 DAD® curriculum. Choosing an appropriate and beneficial curriculum that teaches fathers' the desired skills and strategies is an important component of fatherhood programs. The basis for selecting criteria for the curriculum in the current study consisted of several components. First, the curriculum addresses several specified activities from categories endorsed by the National Fatherhood Initiative: *(1) to promote or sustain healthy*

relationships and marriage (2) to provide responsible parenting activities including

information about good parenting practices and promote increased father-child

engagement; and (3) to provide activities that foster economic stability skills such as

enhanced job search, job training, job retention, and job enhancement as well as extensive

case management services (National Fatherhood Initiative, 2020; OFA, 2020). The 24/7

DAD® curriculum utilized in the current study's fatherhood program activities is evidence-

based and utilizes a skills-based approach with participants. Additionally, the curriculum

contains a design that improves the short-term outcomes: *improved parenting and*

coparenting skills; improved quality of father-child engagement; improved frequency of father-

child engagement; increased financial responsibility of fathers; and progress toward greater

economic stability, including increased skill attainment and employment (OFA, 2020).

Furthermore, the curriculum selected promotes improvement in long-term outcomes for

fatherhood program participants, including *improved couple relationships, parenting, and*

coparenting relationships, improved adult and child well-being; increased economic stability

and mobility; and reduced poverty (National Fatherhood Initiative, 2020; OFA, 2020).

However, long-term outcomes were not assessed in the present study due to the availability

of additional time points beyond the baseline and immediate post-program.

      Other critical components considered in curricula selection: 1) curricula is father-focused,

2) promotes positive relationships, including father-child, father-spouse/partner, or father/co-

parent interactions; 3) is culturally and linguistically appropriate to the target population, and 4)

supports fatherhood program goals and outcomes. Assessing mean level changes in outcomes

based on gender could provide father-focused curriculum developers, such as 24/7 DAD®,

insight as to the impact the curriculum has on female fatherhood program participants.

Program Evaluations

Evaluating adult education programs, such as fatherhood programs that offer much-needed skills and resources to program participants, can make a positive impact on the communities in which they are offered (Avellar et al., 2018; Concha et al., 2018). Since diverse groups of fathers participate in various settings and different communities, an increase in fatherhood program evaluations will not only create more effective program designs in the future but may also provide more program specific information to program directors and facilitators (Adler-Bader et al., 2019).

Program evaluations are essential to understanding which tactics of the program are successful and effective to improve overall program effectiveness. To understand why a program is considered scientifically effective or ineffective, developers and evaluators must understand the several types of evaluation techniques. One type of evaluation method used to evaluate quasi-experimental study design program impact is retrospective pre-post questionnaire. A review of using retrospective pre-post questionnaires to determine program effectiveness determined that pre-post questionnaires can be effective when used for the right programs (Davis, 2003). Many adult education programs have successfully used a retrospective pre/post survey to measure program outcomes (Adler-Baeder, et al., 2019). A retrospective pre/post survey simultaneously assesses retrospective pre-reports (participants reflect on and provide a score for their preprogram level) and post-program reports (participants provide their current level) (Pratt, McGuigan, & Katzev, 2000). Fatherhood program developers and evaluators can use pre-post questionnaires to improve fatherhood program content and to determine program impact and program effectiveness (Davis, 2003).

Furthermore, researchers that have studied the use of retrospective pretest methodology, states that retrospective pretests provide more accurate feedback than traditional pretest-posttest methods (Davis, 2003; Pratt et al., 2000; Rockwell & Kohn, 1989). Before participants have had formal instruction in a particular content area, they generally overestimate their skill levels if given a true pretest. Therefore, a retrospective pre-post questionnaire may reflect a more accurate assessment of learning throughout a class cycle (Davis, 2003; Rockwell & Kohn, 1989). This concept is essential for current fatherhood program developers to understand what specific evaluations and methods work for their target population, which can vary across program participants based on the program's theoretical framework.

Summary

 In summary, the vast review of literature presented in this chapter establishes several components of the current study of community-based fatherhood programs. The review supports and explains the andragogical learning approach (Knowles 1984) and the transformative learning theory (Cranton, 2006; Mezirow, 2000; Taylor, 2007) which illustrates the primary components of the theoretical perspective that supports the framework of community-based fatherhood programs. Fatherhood program implementation incorporates the assumptions of adult learners (Chan, 2010; Knowles, 1980; Rogers, 1986; Zmeyov, 1998) and provides resources and skills to enhance their lives, all guided by their intrinsic motivation.

Parallel to adult education programs, the achieved success of a fatherhood program comes from the participants themselves. Gleaning insight from participants' life experiences adds tangible and practical applications to others in the class. Valuable insight is shed on various subject content. Nevertheless, fatherhood participants must feel empowered to share this insight in a group setting. A good leader or facilitator can foster a safe, welcoming environment where

participants feel comfortable and confident sharing their life experiences with others (McCauley et al., 2017). Fatherhood programs foster individual learning guided by the learner and create an environment where everyone can express their points of view without fear of judgment or ridicule. Therefore, it is important to consider a cohort design in fatherhood program implementation to enhance participants' benefit. As evidenced by the Parents and Children Together (PACT) study, fathers who enter a program and continue in the program *together* (cohort) promotes greater program participation, potentially yielding better outcomes and changes in the desired direction of those outcomes (Dion et al., 2015). Many fatherhood program participants participate in the program in cohorts, or groups that are representative of different perspectives that possibly enhance conversation and healthy interaction with other individuals. Fatherhood programs that promote an environment of inclusivity for participants have been documented as a strength (Adler-Baeder, et al., 2019) of fatherhood programs.

Another trait acquired by adult learners and reinforced within fatherhood programs is the ability to reach individual potential. To some degree, everyone has a level of potential. Tapping into one's inner self and acquiring skills to achieve one's full potential in life can and should be taught in adult learning experiences (Kroth, & Boverie, 2000). Adults should also fully comprehend the values of our life-long experiences. The American poet, Maya Angelou, whose works explored various themes including economic and racial oppression, said, "You can't really know where you are going until you know where you have been." ("Maya Angelou Biography," 2020). Human experiences are intertwined with past and present cultures, traditions, and wisdom from others around us, as well as those who have gone before us. Adult learners can embrace these values to be a catalyst for enhancing tomorrow.

This chapter also presented relevant findings in the literature differentiating between the roles of the father and mother in the family dynamic. The findings presented variations in these roles and how they have shifted throughout cultural and social groups, specifically highlighting contributing factors such as parent-infant attachment and the and parenting dimensions.

The review of literature further addressed societal attitudes toward fathers, their roles, and community-based fatherhood programs with specific reference to interpersonal competence, parental involvement, and financial responsibility as protective factors to reduce the risk of child maltreatment- all goals and targeted outcomes of community-based fatherhood programs.

Additionally, to support the current' study's hypothesis that male fatherhood program participants would show a greater statistically significant change in the desired direction in a men-only class compared to males in a mixed class (males *and* females) following immediate program participation, a review of relevant research specific class composition based on gender was presented.

Lastly, the final section of the literature review presented in Chapter 2 explained fatherhood programs outcomes, including the outcomes observed in the current study (i.e., interpersonal competence, parental involvement, child academic adjustment, and financial responsibility), and the Strengthening Families$^{\text{TM}}$ Protective Factor Framework (S.F.P.F.F.). This section also described the type of quantitative evaluation utilized in the current study.

After extensive review, research specific to sub-groups of fatherhood program participant outcomes moderated by gender and race is minimal, thus establishing the intrigue for the current study's research questions and outcomes. Fatherhood program developers, facilitators, adult educators, practitioners, and researchers would greatly benefit from the results of the current study.

CHAPTER III

Methods

Introduction

In the present study, the assumption was that race and individual culture might influence program participation outcomes of fatherhood programs. Therefore, the present study explored variations in outcomes by race and gender and the intersectionality of gender and community culture. Chapter 1 of the current study provided a background and overview of the study, the purpose of the study, as well as stated the problem, the significance, and finally the organization of the study. Chapter 2 presented a thorough review of existing literature documenting fatherhood programs, with specific attention to gender and class composition, and established a correlation of the adult education theoretical perspective to fatherhood programs. Additionally, the literature review discussed the four outcomes of fatherhood programs in the current study that are linked with individual, relational, and family well-being for fathers and children and consistent with assessments in other fatherhood program evaluations (e.g., Avellar, Covington, Moore, Patnaik, & Wu, 2018; Fagan & Kaufman, 2015).

Chapter III presents the current study's research methods, specifically including the setting and description of the fatherhood programs, the process of participant recruitment into the fatherhood programs, data collection procedures, and the target population and demographics of the sample. Chapter III also presents the measures of the current study, the origin of the items used for each measure, each measure's reliability with their respective Cronbach's alpha

coefficient, and the examples of survey questions and response anchors used to assess the measures.

Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of the present study was to examine changes in outcomes within four of the five protective factors of the Strengthening Families Protective Factor Framework (SFPFF). The framework emphasizes five vital protective factors: *parent/family resilience, social connections, knowledge of parenting and child development, social and emotional competence of children,* and *concrete support in times of need*. The framework is a research-informed approach used to help community-based child abuse prevention programs working with children and families focus on protective factors. Theoretically, the framework parallels with fatherhood program target outcomes (Fagan & Kaufman, 2015; James Bell Associates, 2010). In an effort to reduce the likelihood of child abuse and neglect, the goal of Strengthening Families™ is to enhance child development and increase family strengths. The present study examined change in four outcomes within the SFPFF: interpersonal competence *(*protective factor: *social connections)*, parental involvement (protective factor: *knowledge of parenting and child development)*, child academic adjustment (protective factor: *social and emotional competence of children)*, and financial responsibility (protective factor: *concrete support in times of need)* following participation in a fatherhood program. This study also explored differences in change in the four outcomes by gender, race, the interaction of gender and race, and class composition.

Research Questions

The following research questions were used to guide this study:

RQ1: Do fatherhood program participant groups (male and female) differ at baseline?

RQ2: Do fatherhood program participants demonstrate significant improvement across two time points (from preprogram to immediate postprogram) in family strength outcomes of the Strengthening Families™ Protective Factor Framework (SFPFF) (i.e., *interpersonal competence, parental involvement, child academic adjustment, and financial responsibility*)?

RQ3: Does change in indicators of family strength outcomes following immediate program (time 2) participation differ based on:

- o Gender alone

- o Race alone

- o Interaction of gender and race (4 groups):

H1: Based on early literature regarding class composition and its potential impact on outcomes, a hypothesis was formulated to reflect male program participants would show a greater amount of change in outcomes following program participation in a male-only class composition as compared to males in a mixed class (males *and* females) composition.

Methods

Setting and Description of the Fatherhood Programs

The Alabama Department of Child Abuse and Neglect Prevention (ADCANP) is a state agency that obtains and provides resources to fund programs in the community committed to preventing the maltreatment of children (2020). Sources of funding vary (e.g., federal, state, competitive grants), and prevention programs vary in type: parenting/home visitation, respite care, youth mentoring, school-based youth programs, community awareness presentations, and fatherhood programs. Recognizing that supporting parents, particularly noncustodial fathers, and enhancing their economic stability, child development, and parenting knowledge, and support systems not only enhances child well-being and strengthens families but also reduces the risks of

child maltreatment, ADCANP became a natural partner with the Alabama Department of Human Resources (DHR). The DHR administers the state Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF) funds and currently earmarks TANF funds for fatherhood programs in Alabama. This interagency recognition of the joint goal of family strengthening, particularly for more vulnerable fathers and families, is an excellent example of pooling resources to further shared mission and goals. As previously stated, the Strengthening Families™ Protective Factors Framework (SFPFF) (Browne, 2014; CSSP, 2018) used by DCANP aligns well with target outcomes for fatherhood programs (Fagan & Kaufman, 2015; James Bell Associates, 2010).

Using the TANF funds received from DHR through an interagency collaboration, ADCANP provides grants to well-established community agencies that have a portfolio of funding sources and provide a menu of programs, along with support services, and are linked to other complementary programs and services through many formal partnerships (e.g. local DHR, United Way, Children's Policy Councils). Across Alabama, the 20 geographically diverse partnering sites for the fatherhood programs in the current study have a history of reliable funding by DHR through ADCANP, a solid presence in the communities they serve, and strong program attendance records. Auburn University serves as the independent evaluator for various types of community-based programs awarded by ADCANP through a competitive grant process (Alabama Department of Child Abuse and Neglect Prevention, The Children's Trust Fund, 2019).

The Strengthening Families framework includes five protective factors: *Parental Resilience,* the ability to recover from difficult life experiences and often to be strengthened by transformed by these experiences; *Social Connections,* the ability and opportunity to develop positive relationships that lessen stress and isolation and help to build a supportive network;

Knowledge of Parenting and Child Development, the ability to exercise parenting strategies to guide and know what to expect as children develop in multiple domains (physical, cognitive, language, social and emotional); *Social and Emotional Competence of Children,* family and child connections that help children develop the ability to communicate clearly, recognize and regulate their emotions and establish and maintain relationships; *Concrete Support in Times of Need,* access to supports and services that reduce stress and help to make families stronger (CSSP, 2018).

As stated previously, fatherhood programs vary greatly in design (Dion et al., 2015; Pearson, 2018). The fatherhood programs in the current study varied in terms of program delivery, however there was commonality across sites. Each program provided the core components of fatherhood programs as established by ADCANP for a minimum of four to six weeks. All programs included the 24/7 Dad® curricula-based instruction that focuses mainly on parenting, coparenting and case management (one-on-one needs assessment and plan development for other services needed and oversight of those services). Additional components such as job training skills and follow-up case management was also available to all participants.

Recruitment into the Study

Fathers were invited to participate in the study if they were not currently incarcerated and a father or primary caregiver of a child under the age of 19. While some fathers participate in programs due to court mandates, other fatherhood participants attend voluntarily. Exact numbers of each were not included in the data provided. Fathers were recruited into programs through broad strategies including information displays and staff attendance at community affairs and events; brochure and flyer distribution; social media and website exposure; print, radio, and broadcast media; orientation with local service agencies; and word-of-mouth client referrals.

Sites also utilized ADCANP's marketing video that explains the goals of the fatherhood program, shows actual classes, and includes participant testimonies (see www.ctf.alabama.gov). Efforts targeted both potential program participants, as well as staff of community partner organizations/agencies at regularly scheduled meetings/conferences to boost referrals. Direct recruitment also occurred through local partnerships/referral partners that include child support offices, family court judges, child welfare workers, family assistance workers, housing programs, and mental health agencies. In addition, many participants were internally referred and recruited to fatherhood programs through other programs offered by the implementation partner sites (e.g., GED classes). Former participants of the fatherhood programs (i.e., friends and family), particularly in the smaller, rural communities, also recruited participants through word-of-mouth and conversational recruitment with other fathers. The strategies mentioned above align with successful recruitment themes and strategies of successful fatherhood programs (Stahlschmidt, Threlfall, Seay, Lewis, & Kohl, 2013).

The research team at Auburn University provided training on guidelines for ethical data collection procedures to the partner agencies' staff based on the approved Institutional Review Board (IRB) protocol (see Appendix 3). Trained agency staff were responsible for inviting fatherhood participants to be involved in the study and collected retrospective pre-post surveys at program completion. Data were sent to the research team at Auburn University for processing.

Data Collection

Auburn University's Internal Review Board (IRB) determined the current study did not fall under the category of human subjects research and approved the current dissertation study before any statistical analysis was conducted on the data (see Appendix 3). However, the process in which the data was originally collected by the fatherhood programs is described below.

The surveys (both the intake and the retrospective pre-post) were approved by Auburn University's Internal Review Board (IRB) and adhered to ethical data collection procedures and guidelines. An informed consent letter, required by IRB, was signed by each participant and documented their agreement to participate in the study. The participants were given the option to complete both the intake (which asked demographic and socioeconomic questions) upon enrolling in the program and the retrospective pre- and post-program survey administered after program completion specific to program content. Trained facilitators at each of the community-based resources centers administered the intake and retrospective pre-post and assigned each participant a seven-digit participant code. Facilitators administered paper surveys to program participants and read aloud the questions on the surveys for participants who were not capable of reading the survey and completing it on their own. The intake was administered to each participant upon entry into the class after participant ID codes were assigned and recorded. The retrospective pre-post was administered at the conclusion of the program. At the conclusion of each agency's class cycle, facilitators prepared the data packets in accordance with Auburn University's IRB protocol. Two separate envelopes were used to mail each class cycle's data: the first envelope contained informed consents and participant record forms, and the second envelope contained intakes and retrospective pre-posts only designated by participant ID codes. Envelopes were labeled accordingly to reflect the contents of each envelope. Each agency was assigned a three-digit program code unique to them and the code was included in each envelope. All data packets were mailed to the CTF/ADCANP evaluation lab at Auburn University. Auburn University's IRB protocol for research on human subjects was strictly followed during initial data collection.

Target Population and Sample

The target population of the present study is derived from 20 community-based fatherhood programs conducted at family resource centers in Alabama. Inclusion criteria included individuals who wanted to participate in a fatherhood program, consented to provide a demographic and retrospective pre-post survey, and who were not incarcerated. Fatherhood programs across the state do not discriminate against participation and are not gender specific only to males. Therefore, both males and females are represented in the sample. The current study sample contains 723 participants. Participant surveys were coded with unique participant identification codes at the time they were originally collected, therefore their data were unidentifiable to the present researcher. The researcher was granted permission to use the data from the Principal Investigator of the original study. The Internal Review Board (IRB) at Auburn University determined the data used in the present study is not a systematic investigation and IRB review was not required.

Participants in the study were recruited from 20 community-based fatherhood programs conducted at family resource centers and community agencies in Alabama. The current total study's sample includes data from 507 male participants (70%) and 216 female participants (30%) for a total of 723 fatherhood program participants who were not incarcerated during program participation. The mean age of the sample was 35.3 years old ($SD = 11.17$). Of the sample, 29% never finished high school, only 55% had a high school diploma/GED, 12% had a trade school/technical certificate or associate degree, and 4% had a bachelor's degree or higher. Approximately 50% were currently unemployed, and 75% reported an annual household income of less than $10,000. The sample is racially diverse. The options for race on the survey were as follows: "1" represented American Indian/Alaska Native, "2" represented "Asian", "3"

represented Black, "4" represented Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander, "5" represented White, and "6" represented Other. Most of the participants (94%) in the initial sample of 769 either selected "3" for Black or "5" for White, therefore only Black and White participants are represented in the sample of the current study. Of the 723 sample of participants represented in the current study, 59% were Black, 41% were White. Most of the sample was single and never married (41%), 17% were in a committed relationship and not married, 18% were married, 12% were divorced, 10% were separated, and 2% were widowed.

Program participants received the 24/7 Dad® curricula focused on self-awareness, caring for self, fathering skills, parenting skills, relationship skills and educational resources and employment services (i.e., job skills training and job search assistance) from skilled educators at 20 community-based family centers across the state funded by ADCANP. Program participants were largely recruited through word of mouth, client referrals, and through broad recruitment strategies (e.g., social media exposure, brochure and flyer distribution, and website exposure). Participation in program services averaged 8-12 weeks and at the conclusion of services, participants received surveys, which assessed their perceptions of change from pre- to post-program in parenting behaviors, commitment to romantic relationship, financial strain, and economic stability (specifically their commitment to making child support payments). All participants were informed of the voluntary nature of survey completion. While surveys are a useful tool in evaluating program efficacy and outcomes, participants were not required to complete the Intake survey and the retrospective pre/post survey upon program completion.

Measures

Each of the four outcomes of interest in this study are linked with individual, relational, and family well-being for fathers and children and consistent with assessments in other

fatherhood program evaluations (e.g., Avellar, Covington, Moore, Patnaik, & Wu, 2018; Fagan & Kaufman, 2015). They also can be conceptually framed by the Protective Factors model developed by the Strengthening Families™ program (Browne, 2014; CSSP, 2018) and thus can be considered as important deterrents to child maltreatment: social connections, parent/family resilience, concrete support in times of need, knowledge of parenting and child development, and social and emotional competence of children (Child Welfare Information Gateway, 2014). All measures were presented in the form of a retrospective pre-post survey in which simultaneously assesses retrospective pre- reports (respondents reflect back on and provide a score for their pre-program level) and post-program reports (respondents provide their current level) (Pratt et al., 2000). The current study measured each scale's reliability, or internal consistency, by Cronbach's alpha. All outcome scales met the threshold of acceptable reliability of greater than .07 (Cronbach, 1951).

Unfortunately, missing data existed in the sample dataset of the current study. Means scores were used for each measure within the composite scale if the participant reported on at least one item of the scale However, if a participant did not respond to any of the items in the composite scale, the absence of all responses within the scale results in missing data on the composite scale. The statistical analysis software used in the current study, SPSS, addresses this scenario by excluding cases with missing data using listwise deletion.

Analysis was conducted to determine the amount of missing data for each of the outcomes at baseline and at retrospective pre/post timepoints. Frequencies conducted at the baseline timepoint determined 58 out of 723 participants (8%) had missing data for the interpersonal competence outcome. Frequencies conducted at baseline determined 58 out of 723 participants (8%) had missing data for the parental involvement outcome. Frequencies conducted

at baseline determined 143 out of 723 participants (20%) had missing data for the child academic adjustment outcome. Frequencies conducted at baseline determined 24 out of 723 participants (3%) had missing data for the financial responsibility outcome. Frequencies conducted at the postprogram timepoint determined 88 out of 723 participants (12%) had missing data for the interpersonal competence outcome. Frequencies conducted at the postprogram timepoint determined 87 out of 723 participants (12%) had missing data for the parental involvement outcome. Frequencies conducted at the post-program timepoint determined 164 out of 723 participants (23%) had missing data for the child academic adjustment outcome. Frequencies conducted at the postprogram timepoint determined 54 out of 723 participants (8%) had missing data for the financial responsibility outcome.

Possible rationale for missing data, specifically for the *child academic adjustment* outcome measure, could be due to participants being unable to answer the questions, or did not possess enough information in order to accurately answer the questions contained in the measure. Therefore, the participants did not answer the questions. At least 20% of the program participants (143 out of 723) did not respond to any of the questions contained in the *child academic adjustment* measure. The participants may not have been aware of how their children were performing and therefore could not provide accurate or knowledgeable responses to those questions.

Protective Factor: Social Connections

Interpersonal Competence: *Interpersonal Competence* was measured by combining six items to create a composite variable. The first three items were from the Interpersonal Competence Scale (Burhmeister, Furman, Wittenberg, & Reis, 1988) to assess conflict management skills in participants' relationships with other adults. An example item is, "When

63

angry, I am able to accept that the other person has their own point of view even if I don't agree with that view." Response anchors range from 1 indicating "Not at all" and 7 indicating "Very much." The additional three items for *interpersonal competence* were items from the Huston and Vangelisti (1991) Positive Interactions Scale, including, "I am a good and sensitive listener" and "I tell my partner things I appreciate about her/him and how much I care about her/him." Response anchors range from 1 indicating "Not at all" to 7 indicating "Very much." Mean scores were created and the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for internal consistency was good ($\alpha = 0.86$) at baseline.

Protective Factor: Knowledge of Parenting and Child Development

Parental involvement. Both mother's and father's level of involvement was measured using three items from the Life Role Salience Scale (LRSS; Bosch, de Bruin, Kgaladi, de Bruin, 2012). An example includes, "I expect to devote a significant amount of my time and energy to raising my children." Response anchors range from 1 indicating "Not at all" to 7 indicating "Very much." Mean scores were created and the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for internal consistency was good ($\alpha = 0.79$) at baseline. Initially, the *parental involvement* outcome measure outlined in the researcher's dissertation proposal included four questions. However, reliability analysis was conducted including all four questions and the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for internal consistency was not acceptable ($a = .51$). Further analysis indicated a stronger internal consistency if one of the questions was factored out of the measure. Therefore, one of the questions was eliminated from the scale which resulted in a higher Cronbach's alpha coefficient for internal consistency ($\alpha = 0.79$).

Protective Factor: Social and Emotional Competence of Children

Child academic adjustment. The child's academic adjustment was measured using two items assessing participants' knowledge of their child's academic progress. An example item includes, "My child(ren) is/are performing well in school." Response anchors range from 1 indicating "Not at all" to 7 indicating "Very much." Mean scores were created and the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for internal consistency was good ($\alpha = 0.71$) at baseline.

Protective Factor: Concrete Support in Times of Need

Financial responsibility. Financial responsibility was measured using two items from the Assets for Financial Independence initiative (Mills & McKernan, 2016) assessing participants' beliefs about saving money and tracking spending habits. An example item includes, "I believe that it is important to save money from every paycheck." Response anchors range from 1 indicating "Not at all" to 7 indicating "Very much." Mean scores were created and the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for internal consistency was good ($\alpha = 0.86$) at baseline.

Once data were received in the lab, the data were processed and responses from the intakes and retrospective pre-post surveys were entered into a database using TeleForm. TeleForm is a scanning software and significantly reduces the amount of time needed to hand enter data and has been shown to be as accurate as a manual entry (Jørgensen & Karlsmose, 1998). Standard SPSS data operations, explained in greater detail in Chapter IV, were run to measure the mixed, between-within covariance between the groups in the present study- males and females and their differences based on gender, race, and the interaction of gender and race.

Moderators were used in the data analysis of the current study. Two demographic moderators were used – gender and race. Categorical variables such as gender (male and female) and race (Black and White) were coded with a numeric value for the present study. Males were coded as a "0" and females were coded as a "1" in the dataset. For race, participants were given

the option of choosing one of six races coded with numerical values from 1 to 6 in the original study. As previously stated, less than 6% of the original study sample selected a race other than Black or White. Therefore, only Black and White participants are used in the current sample. The researcher used the same coding system as in the original study. Black participants were coded as "3" and White participants were coded as "5."

An additional moderator, class composition, was also used in the current study. Using class and participant identification codes, male participants in the sample of the current study were coded by class composition. Using the class and participant identification codes within the data set, males who only participated in a fatherhood program with all males were coded as "0" in the dataset. Males who only participated in a fatherhood program in a mixed class, with both males and females combined, were coded as a "1" in the dataset.

Of the participants in the current study's dataset, there were two primary groups identified- Black and White participants. However, since females participated in the fatherhood programs and data was collected on female participants, four additional sub-groups were created: Black males, Black females, White males, and White females. The percentage of each sub-group proportional to the total number of participants represented in the sample of the current study reflects that 332 out of 723 (46%) are Black males, 94 out of 723 (13%) are Black females, 174 out of 723 (24%) are White males, and 123 out of 723 (17%) are white females. These percentages reflect 100% of the 723 total participants in the current study's data sample.

Two additional sub-groups were represented in the male participants reflected in the dataset with class composition as the moderator. Gender (males only) and class composition were variables of interest in testing the hypothesis of the current study. Of the total of 507 males in the dataset, the proportion of males who participated in a fatherhood program in a "males

only" class setting was 311, or 61%. The proportion of males who participated in fatherhood program in a "mixed class" setting (both males and females) was 196 out of 507, or 39%.

Summary

In summary, this chapter re-stated the purpose of the present study, research questions and hypothesis, and the setting and description of the fatherhood programs in the study. This chapter also described the data collection procedures, the target population and sample, as well as the measures on the retrospective pre-post survey utilized in the study, including demographic moderators. This chapter also acknowledged missing data in the database and how it was handled. Prior to conducting any analysis, the use of the data previously collected, and the analysis plan of the data were pre-approved by the university's Institutional Review Board (IRB).

CHAPTER IV

Results

Introduction

As previously stated, Chapter I introduced the current study, presented the problem, stated the study's purpose, and asked the research questions. Chapter II re-stated the study's purpose and research questions and provided a review of the literature that included a review of the adult education theoretical perspective and how it correlates with fatherhood programs. It also included a review of the literature concerning the role of the father and mother in the family dynamic; societal attitudes towards each role; literature on gender and class composition and their impact on outcomes; the Strengthening Families^{TM} Protective Factor Framework (SFPFF), fatherhood program outcomes, specifically *interpersonal competence, parental involvement, child academic adjustment, and financial literacy* and goals of the present study. Chapter III restated the purpose of the study and the research questions, reported the methods section of the current study including: the setting and description of the fatherhood programs, the recruitment procedures of the participants into the study, data collection procedures, target population and sample, and the validity and reliability of the outcome measures. The composite scales were also explained as well as missing data and demographic moderators.

The information contained in Chapter IV restates the current study's purpose, the research questions used to guide the current study, the importance of the evaluation of fatherhood programs, a description of the instrument used in the study, and the data analysis plan that depicts the statistical analysis used for each of the research questions. Chapter IV also

presents the data associated with each of the research questions, as well as the results and findings of the statistical analysis conducted for each research question and hypothesis.

Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of this study was to examine changes in outcomes within four of the five protective factors of the Strengthening Families Protective Factor Framework (SFPFF). The framework emphasizes five vital protective factors: *parent/family resilience, social connections, knowledge of parenting and child development, social and emotional competence of children,* and *concrete support in times of need*. The framework is a research-informed approach used to help community-based child abuse prevention programs working with children and families focus on protective factors. Theoretically, the framework parallels with fatherhood program target outcomes (Fagan & Kaufman, 2015; James Bell Associates, 2010). In an effort to reduce the likelihood of child abuse and neglect, the goal of Strengthening Families™ is to enhance child development and increase family strengths. This study examined change in four outcomes within the SFPFF: interpersonal competence *(social connections)*, parental involvement (*knowledge of parenting and child development)*, child academic adjustment (*social and emotional competence of children)*, and financial responsibility (*concrete support in times of need)* following participation in a fatherhood program. This study also explored differences in change in the four outcomes by gender, race, the interaction of gender and race, and class composition.

Research Questions

The following research questions were used to guide this study:

RQ1: Do fatherhood program participant groups (male and female) differ at baseline?

RQ2: Do fatherhood program participants demonstrate significant improvement across two time points (from preprogram to immediate post program) in family strength outcomes of the Strengthening Families™ Protective Factor Framework (SFPFF) (i.e. *interpersonal competence, parental involvement, child academic adjustment, and financial responsibility*)?

RQ3: Does change in indicators of family strength outcomes following immediate program (time 2) participation differ based on:

- ○   Gender alone

- ○   Race alone

- ○   Interaction of gender and race (4 groups):

H1: Based on early literature regarding class composition and its potential impact on outcomes, a hypothesis was formulated to reflect male program participants would show a greater amount of change in outcomes following program participation in a male only class composition as compared to males in a mixed class (males *and* females) composition.

Evaluation

Researching the theoretical perspective used to review or evaluate adult learning programs was very important in the present study. Despite the prevalence of responsible fatherhood programs, evaluation of these programs is only in the early stages (Dion et al., 2015). In addition to limited evidence of programs' efficacy, process evaluations that examine factors related to successful program design are scarce. Evaluative research of these programs will help to create more effective and successful program designs in the future and could serve to inform efforts to develop best practice models.

There are several ways to evaluate and review the success and effectiveness of adult education programs, and the present study looked at the literature to better understand which

ways work best for which programs. One type of research to evaluate the effectiveness of programs is qualitative research. According to McLeod (2008), qualitative research and analyses are beneficial since the data is reported in the informant's language. In 2007, researchers Roy and Young reported in their qualitative study information that came directly from fatherhood participants and their perspectives. Conceptually, qualitative data is concerned with understanding human behavior from the participants' perspective. Data are collected through participant observations and interviews. However, conducting qualitative research was not a viable possibility in the present study due to not having access to the program participants since their participation in the program is complete. Obtaining the participants' personal contact information violates the I.R.B. approval for the present study and does not adhere to guidelines regarding sensitive and confidential information. Therefore, no qualitative data analysis was conducted for the current study.

Quantitative research and analyses focus on discovering issues about social phenomena and assume a fixed and measurable reality (McLeod, 2008). A quantitative research design is how a researcher gathers data from participants within a sample population, studies the information received, and applies a generalization to the population, or explains a distinct phenomenon (Babbie, 1998). However, the researcher Peter Jarvis (1999) suggests that to inform practice, collaborative action research should be comprised of qualitative case studies that link descriptive evidence from studies to documented, quantitative analysis (Jarvis, 1999). The present study employs quantitative methods and analysis due to the availability of a large, diverse group of data on fatherhood program participants in various settings in programs with different designs.

Instrumentation

The type of evaluation utilized in the current study is a retrospective pre-post questionnaire. In a review of using retrospective pre-post questionnaires to determine program effectiveness, an Extension Specialist determined that pre-post questionnaires can be effective when used for the right programs (Davis, 2003). Many adult education programs have successfully used a retrospective pre-post survey to measure program outcomes, and fatherhood programs are no exception. A retrospective pre-post survey simultaneously assesses retrospective pre-reports (participants reflect back on and provide a score for their preprogram level) and post program reports (participants provide their current level) (Pratt et al., 2000).

The four outcomes in this study were measured using the retrospective pre-post survey currently used by fatherhood programs across Alabama. Responses to the questions were rated on a 7-point Likert scale from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 7 ("strongly agree"). The internal consistency, or reliability, of the instrument will be reflected by using L. J. Cronbach's alpha. Each of the four outcomes of interest proposed in this study is linked with individual, relational, and family well-being for fathers and children and consistent with assessments in other fatherhood program evaluations (Avellar, et al., 2018; Fagan & Kaufman, 2015).

Furthermore, all participants in the current study were given the option to complete a survey. However, survey completion was entirely voluntary and did not directly correlate to their ability to participate in the program. Participants had various options in completing the survey instruments. Participants could complete the survey in its entirety; participants could not answer question(s) if the question made them feel uncomfortable; and participants could choose not to answer any question that did not apply to them. Participants were instructed to skip questions that did not apply to them and leave them blank.

Data Analysis Plan

Descriptive statistics were conducted on the data to include mean, median, mode, standard deviation, normal distribution, skew, kurtosis, and homogeneity of variance. Bivariate correlations of baseline outcome measures and predictors of interest were also conducted. Results are presented in Tables 1 and 2.

To address RQ1, whether there were differences in level of target outcomes at the retrospective-baseline assessment based on participants' gender (male or female), race (Black or White), or the interaction of gender and race, a series of one-way ANOVAs were utilized to test group differences in baseline mean levels of target outcomes. Results of the one-way ANOVAs testing baseline differences by gender are presented in Table 3. Results of the one-way ANOVAs testing baseline differences by race are presented in Table 4. Results of the one-way ANOVAs testing baseline differences by the combination of gender and race are presented in Table 5.

To address RQ2, whether fatherhood program participants demonstrate significant improvement in family strength outcomes (interpersonal competence, parental involvement, child academic adjustment, and financial responsibility) of the Strengthening Families™ Protective Factor Framework (SFPFF), paired samples t –tests were conducted on the independent sample to compare males and females improvement across two time points-preprogram to immediate post program for changes in interpersonal competence, parental involvement, child academic adjustment, and financial responsibility. The paired samples t-test results of the sample for mean change over time are presented in Table 6.

To address RQ3, examining the influence of gender (controlling for race), race (controlling for gender), and the interaction of gender and race on levels of improvements in target outcomes immediately following program participation, a mixed between-within repeated

measures analysis of covariance (RMANCOVAs) (T1-T2) were conducted to test time X group

interaction effects for changes in interpersonal competence, parental involvement, child

academic adjustment, and financial responsibility. The first test results conducted testing T1 to

T2 differences based on gender as a grouping variable, controlling for race, are presented in

Table 7. The second test results conducted testing T1 to T2 differences based on race as a

grouping variable, controlling for gender, are presented in Table 8. The third test results

conducted testing T1 to T2 differences based on the interaction of gender and race presented in

Table 9. The sample of the current study had ample number of participants with data at both the

preprogram and postprogram timepoints to accurately conduct repeated measures analysis,

although fewer participants are needed than in randomized control experimental designs "when

the effects of certain variables can be measured across the same set of participants" (Keselman et

al., 1998, p. 364). Another benefit of using repeated measures analysis of covariance

(RMANCOVA) is that by measuring potential group differences, the variability due to individual

differences is accounted for. If differences among subgroups do exist, they are easier to detect

(Keselman et al., 1998). Paired samples *t*-tests detect mean level changes within groups, however

RMANCOVAs have the capacity to include a predictor of change or moderator of change to test

between group differences.

　　　To determine if H1 proved true, examining the influence of class composition (males

only class vs. a mixed class of male and female participants) on the amount of improvement in

target outcomes for men, a series of mixed-between-within repeated measures analysis of

variance (RMANOVAs) (T1-T2) were conducted on male participants using reported scores in

each area at each time point (baseline and immediate post-program). The test results conducted

testing T1 to T2 differences based on class composition are presented in Table 10.

Results and Findings

Preliminary Analysis

Descriptive statistics of the target outcome variables at baseline and immediate post-program are presented in Table 1. At retrospective pre-assessment, the outcomes of interest were normally distributed (George & Mallery, 2010). Bivariate correlations were conducted to assess correlations among variables of interest. Results (presented in Table 2) indicate significant correlations among outcome variables. In addition, the results indicate statistically significant associations between moderators of interest and outcome measures. Specifically, race is negatively correlated with reports of *parental involvement* ($r = -.088$, $p < .05$) and *financial responsibility* ($r = -.077$, $p < .05$) at retrospective pre-assessment. Specifically, being White is associated with lower levels of the parental involvement and financial responsibility outcomes.

Research Question 1: **Do fatherhood program participant groups (male and female) differ at baseline?**

Gender. In order to determine if there were differences between male and female fatherhood program participants upon program entry (baseline) in the target outcomes *interpersonal competence, parental involvement, child academic adjustment, and financial responsibility*, a series of individual one-way ANOVAs by gender were conducted. Results (presented in Table 3) do not indicate statistically significant mean level differences based on gender in any of the four outcomes.

Race. In order to determine if there were differences between male and female fatherhood program participants upon program entry (baseline) in the target outcomes *interpersonal competence, parental involvement, child academic adjustment, and financial responsibility*, a series of individual one-way ANOVAs by race were conducted. Results

(presented in Table 4) indicate statistically significant mean level differences based on race in two of the four outcomes. Black fatherhood program participants (*parental involvement M = 5.53, SD = 1.26; financial responsibility M = 5.99, SD = 1.61*) reported a higher mean level of *parental involvement* [$F_{1,\ 664}$ = 5.141, *p* =.02], and *financial responsibility* [$F_{1,\ 698}$ = 4.183, *p* =.04] upon program entry as compared to white fatherhood program participants (*parental involvement M = 5.31, SD = 1.15; financial responsibility M = 5.72, SD = 1.80*).

Interaction of gender and race. To determine if there were differences among subgroups of gender and race (Black males, Black females, White males, and White females) upon program entry (baseline) in the target outcomes *interpersonal competence, parental involvement, child academic adjustment, and financial responsibility*, a series of univariate general linear model two-way ANOVAs were conducted to assess an interaction between the two independent variables, gender and race, on the dependent variables. Results (presented in Table 5) did not indicate statistically significant mean level differences based on the interaction of gender and race in any of the four outcomes: *interpersonal competence* [$F_{1,\ 664}$ = .084, *p* = .772], *parental involvement* [$F_{1,\ 664}$ = .618, *p* = .432], *child academic adjustment* [$F_{1,\ 579}$ = .211, *p* = .646], and *financial responsibility* [$F_{1,\ 698}$ = .130, *p* = .719].

Research Question 2: Do fatherhood program participants demonstrate significant improvement across two time points (from preprogram to immediate post-program) in family strength outcomes of the Strengthening Families[TM] Protective Factor Framework (SFPFF) (i.e. *interpersonal competence, parental involvement, child academic adjustment, and financial responsibility*)?

Immediate post-program results revealed that for all four outcomes, the mean level scores reported by participants after program completion were significantly different from their

retrospective reports of pre-program scores; changes were in the desirable direction (*interpersonal competence t = -9.350, p < .001; parental involvement t = -9.082, < .001; child academic adjustment t = -7.268, < .001; financial responsibility t = -11.699, < .001;* presented in Table 6). That is, there were statistically significant improvements reported by participants completing a fatherhood program in *interpersonal competence, parental involvement, child academic adjustment, and financial responsibility.* Effect sizes were calculated sizes using an appropriate formula for paired samples: Cohen's $d = M_1 - M_2 / SD_{pooled}$. The Cohen's d effect sizes ranged from .27 to .56 ($M = .42$), with most effect sizes in the small to moderate range (i.e., .20 – small, .50 – moderate, and .80 – large; Cohen, 1977). According to Frederic M. Wolf (1986), the effect sizes in all four outcomes are above the threshold of .25 for "meaningful change" following an educational program experience and are comparable to results from other fatherhood programs (Holmes, Brotherson & Roy, 2012; Holmes, Galovan, Yoshida, & Hawkins, 2010; Holmes, Hawkins, Egginton, Robbins, & Shafer, 2018).

Research Question 3: Does change in indicators of family strength outcomes following immediate program (time 2) participation differ based on gender alone, race alone and the interaction of gender and race to include four groups (*black males, black females, white males, and white females*)?

Gender, controlling for race. To test for main effects, a mixed between-within repeated measures analysis of covariance (RMANCOVA) was utilized. The first analysis conducted tested gender as a grouping variable while controlling for race. Immediate post-program results (presented in Table 7) did not indicate statistically significant mean level differences based on gender, controlling for race, in any of the four targeted outcome variables: *interpersonal competence* [$F_{1,632} = .133, p = .716$], *parental involvement* [$F_{1,632} = .156, p = .693$], *child*

academic adjustment [$F_{1,550}$ = .001, *p* = .973], and *financial responsibility* [$F_{1,665}$ = 2.559, *p* = .110]. Due to the lack of statistically significant mean level differences based on race, controlling for gender, no post-hoc analysis was conducted.

Race, controlling for gender. To test for main effects, a mixed between-within repeated measures analysis of covariance (RMANCOVA) was utilized. The second analysis conducted tested race as a grouping variable while controlling for gender. Immediate post-program results (presented in Table 8) did not indicate statistically significant mean level differences based on race, controlling for gender, for any of the four targeted outcome variables: *interpersonal competence* [$F_{1,632}$ = 3.522, *p* = .061], *parental involvement* [$F_{1,632}$ = 1.165, *p* = .281], *child academic adjustment* [$F_{1,549}$ = 2.477, *p* = .116], and *financial responsibility* [$F_{1,665}$ = 3.256, *p* = .072]. Due to the lack of statistically significant mean level differences based on race, controlling for gender, no post-hoc analysis was conducted.

The Interaction of Gender and Race. To test for the interaction of gender and race, a mixed between-within repeated measures analysis of covariance (RMANCOVA) was utilized. Immediate post-program results (presented in Table 9) did not indicate statistically significant mean level differences based on the interaction of gender and race for any of the four targeted outcome variables: *interpersonal competence* [$F_{1, 630}$ = 1.369, *p* = .242], *parental involvement* [$F_{1, 631}$ = .302, *p* = .583], *child academic adjustment* [$F_{1, 548}$ = .008, *p* = .930], and *financial responsibility [$F_{1, 663}$ = 2.356, *p* = .125].* Due to the lack of statistically significant mean level differences based on the interaction of gender and race, posthoc analysis was not needed and therefore not conducted.

Hypothesis 1: Based on research regarding class composition and its impact on program outcomes, the researcher hypothesized that male fatherhood program

participants would show greater statistically significant change in the desired direction in a "males only" class as compared to males in a mixed class (males *and* females) following immediate program participation.

Immediate Post-Program. To test for main effects for males based on class composition, a mixed between-within repeated measures analysis of variance (RMANOVA) was utilized. Immediate post-program results (presented in Table 10) did not indicate statistically significant mean level differences for men based on class composition for any of the four targeted outcome variables: *interpersonal competence* [$F_{1,440}$ = 3.354, *p* = .068], *parental involvement* [$F_{1,440}$ = 2.510, *p* = .114], *child academic adjustment* [$F_{1,383}$ = .108, *p* = .743], and *financial responsibility* [$F_{1,464}$ = 1.704, *p* = .192]. Due to the lack of statistically significant mean level differences for men based on class composition, posthoc analysis was not needed and therefore not conducted. Therefore, based on the results of the RMANCOVAs testing T1 to T2 differences based on class composition, the hypothesis formulated is not supported.

Summary

Despite the lack of statistically significant change in outcomes from baseline to immediate post-program within the sample when moderated by demographic factors such as gender, race, and the interaction of gender and race, results from the paired samples t-tests indicate *all* participants show a change in the desired direction from program start to immediately following program participation in all four outcomes. Additionally, results do not indicate statistically significant differences when moderated by class composition. Males in a "males only" fatherhood program class changed similarly to males in a "mixed class" fatherhood program.

CHAPTER V

Strength and Limitations, Conclusions and Implications for Practice, and Recommendations for Future Studies

Introduction

The first chapter of the current study presented the background and overview of fatherhood programs, highlighted the study's purpose and significance, and articulated the research questions used to guide the study. Chapter II presented a review of the literature of fatherhood programs, the adult education theoretical perspective in correlation to fatherhood programs, and an overview of fatherhood program outcomes and the impact, if any, gender and class composition has on those outcomes. Chapter III presented the methods and of the current study and described the current study's fatherhood programs such as setting, description, recruitment into the study, data collection procedures, the target population, and demographics of the sample. Additional information specific to the measures in the current study, including example survey questions, response anchors, and reliability of each measure were also depicted in Chapter III. Chapter IV provided a description of the evaluation and type of instrumentation used in the current study, the statistical analysis conducted for each research questions, and the findings and results of the completed analysis. The final chapter, Chapter V, presents a discussion of the findings, the strengths and limitations of the current study, the researcher's conclusions based on the analysis of the data, and the implications for practice. Chapter V also summarizes the researcher's recommendations for future studies.

Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of this study was to examine changes in outcomes within four of the five protective factors of the Strengthening Families Protective Factor Framework (SFPFF). The framework emphasizes five vital protective factors: parent/family resilience, social connections, knowledge of parenting and child development, social and emotional competence of children, and concrete support in times of need to lower the risk of child maltreatment. The framework is a research-informed approach used to help community-based child abuse prevention programs working with children and families focus on protective factors. Theoretically, the framework parallels with fatherhood program target outcomes (Fagan & Kaufman, 2015; James Bell Associates, 2010). In an effort to reduce the likelihood of child abuse and neglect, the goal of Strengthening Families[TM] is to enhance child development and increase family strengths. This study examined the change in four outcomes within the SFPFF: *interpersonal competence* (social connections), *parental involvement* (knowledge of parenting and child development), *child academic adjustment* (social and emotional competence of children)*, and financial responsibility* (concrete support in times of need) following participation in a fatherhood program. This study also explored differences in change in the four outcomes by gender, race, the interaction of gender and race, and class composition*.

Research Questions

The following research questions were used to guide this study:

RQ1: Do fatherhood program participant groups (male and female) differ at baseline?

RQ2: Do fatherhood program participants demonstrate significant improvement across two time points (from preprogram to immediate postprogram) in family strength outcomes of the

Strengthening Families™ Protective Factor Framework (SFPFF) (i.e. *interpersonal competence, parental involvement, child academic adjustment, and financial responsibility*)?

RQ3: Does change in indicators of family strength outcomes following immediate program (time 2) participation differ based on:

- o   Gender alone

- o   Race alone

- o   Interaction of gender and race (4 groups):

H1: Based on early literature regarding class composition and its potential impact on outcomes, a hypothesis was formulated to reflect male program participants would show a greater amount of change in outcomes following program participation in a male only class composition as compared to males in a mixed class (males *and* females) composition.

Discussion of Findings

The current study provides useful information about individual differences among fatherhood program participants. Findings for RQ1 suggest that there are no baseline differences between male and female fatherhood program participants or black and white fatherhood program participants. Additionally, findings do not reflect baseline differences between sub-groups (Black males, Black females, White males, and White females).

Results of the paired samples *t*-test reflect that program participants' means scores changed in the desired direction from pre-program to post-program in all targeted outcomes. With regard to RQ3, findings from the current study do not reflect statistically significant differences in changes over time (from preprogram to postprogram) based on gender, or race, or the interaction of gender and race. The hypothesis that males in a male only class would show

greater statistically significant change than males in a mixed class was not supported by the current study's findings.

As previously outlined in the literature review in Chapter Two of the current dissertation, the six assumptions of the adult learning theory that Knowles (1984) suggested, the transformative learning theory developed by Mezirow (1991), are also the guiding principles of community-based fatherhood programs. Considering the assumptions associated with adult learners (self-concept, experience, readiness to learn, orientation to learning, relevance, and motivated to learn), the findings of the current study reflect fatherhood program participants and adult education programs align theoretically.

Like another andragogical assumption of an adult learner- motivation- fatherhood program participants are also motivated to learn. Often a father is labeled as a deadbeat dad which is a common complaint among fatherhood program participants (Threlfall & Kohl, 2015). Fatherhood program participants are motivated to learn and, as this study confirms, acquire new skills and information that could help ease the stigma or negative connotation about them.

Another critical component of a successful fatherhood program comes from the participants themselves. Gleaning insight from participants' life experiences adds tangible and practical applications to others in the class, which also aligns with the adult learner's assumption of experience. Adults have multiple life experiences from which they can reflect upon and apply to their current learning experiences as compared to children (Knowles, 1980). Valuable insight is shed on various subject content in fatherhood programs. Nevertheless, fatherhood participants must feel empowered to share this insight in a group setting. As mentioned in Chapter II, good leader or facilitator can foster a safe, welcoming environment where participants feel comfortable and confident sharing their life experiences with others (McCauley et al., 2017).

The current results suggest that an atmosphere conducive to positive outcomes is attainable regardless of the composition of genders in a classroom, although we did not explore participant reports' of classroom climate and this should be studied in the future. Additionally, it is important to consider a cohort design in fatherhood program implementation to enhance participants' benefit. As evidenced by the Parents and Children Together (PACT) study, fathers who enter a program and continue in the program *together* (cohort) promotes greater program participation, potentially yielding better outcomes and changes in the desired direction of those outcomes (Dion et al., 2015).

With regard to *interpersonal competence,* the composite scale created for that outcome consists of questions measures pertaining to conflict management skills and effective communication skills. The targeted outcome *interpersonal competence* can be viewed as part of an adult learner's development of their self-concept. In an effort to "be perceived and treated by others as being capable for taking responsibility for themselves" (Knowles, 1984, p. 6.5), adult learners must demonstrate their independence and autonomy. Fatherhood program participants and adult learners are similar in that the learning is self-directed. Fatherhood program participants choose to participate and are engaged in making decision on the course of their learning through interactions with program facilitators and through case management services offered through the program.

Although the results of the one-way ANOVAs testing baseline differences by gender, race, and the interaction of gender and race did not show statistically significant results, observed means scores did show a change in the desired direction after program participation. These results indicate participants begin fatherhood programs at similar skill or knowledge levels regardless of their gender, race, or the interaction of gender and race. Noting the insignificance

of the results can reassure fatherhood program facilitators and developers need not be overly concerned regarding the demographics of participants in their fatherhood programs.

Likewise, the results of the RMANCOVAs testing T1 to T2 differences based on gender, controlling for race, the results of the RMANCOVAs testing T1 to T2 differences based on race, controlling for gender, and the RMANCOVAs testing T1 to T2 differences based on the interaction of gender and race were not statistically significant. This is not necessarily an unwelcome finding for fatherhood programs, facilitators, and evaluators. In fact, since all the groups changed from preprogram to postprogram, one can infer that fatherhood programs are making a positive impact on fatherhood program participants.

Furthermore, the results of the RMANCOVAs testing T1 to T2 differences based on class composition were not statistically significant. Male participants in a "males only" class changed similarly to males in a "mixed class" comprised of males and females. These results can inform fatherhood program design, noting that both groups showed change in the desired direction from preprogram to postprogram regardless of class composition. Therefore, a fatherhood program that includes females as participants in the class, do not seem to influence the outcomes of the males negatively or positively in the class based on the findings of the current study.

Strengths and Limitations

The current study possesses several strengths. First, the current study assessed reported changes in four areas of functioning from pre-program to post-program for a large, diverse group of fatherhood program participants. Secondly, it is the one of first evaluations of fatherhood programs to consider the moderating role of both gender and cultural influences on participants' functioning at program entry and at immediate post-program. Rather than focusing only on the "average" experience, controlling for gender and race, this study explored possible differences

between subgroups of fatherhood program participants taking into account female program participants, paving the way for more refined approaches to the study of program effectiveness. This study also aggregated data from fatherhood program participants across various, multiple sites, providing a more comprehensive picture of the experience of program participants in diverse programs across the state.

Although there are several strengths to the current study, there are some limitations to consider, as well. The current study's assessment of changes at immediate post-program participation time cannot be definitively attributed to participation in the fatherhood programs since a comparison group of similar, nonparticipant males and females were not utilized in order to observe normative trajectories in these measures. While the current study's findings cannot be noted as evidence of program impact, one can reasonably acknowledge the small to moderate effect sizes of the change post-program as indicators of meaningful shifts that are likely due to program experiences (Wolf, 1986). Although challenging to implement in practical and realistic settings, particularly when some fatherhood program participants do not attend programs voluntarily, a random assignment design using a waitlist could more appropriately test program efficacy.

The unbalanced number in the two gender groups is noted as a potential factor in the limited evidence that was observed for differences between male and female fatherhood program participants. Although the total sample observed was large (723 fatherhood program participants), just 30% of the fatherhood program participants are female, whereas the remaining 70% are male fatherhood program participants. With a more balanced sample, the statistical power for detecting group differences (if they exist) is greatly enhanced.

Another limitation of the current study is that only two time points were measured: baseline and immediate post-program. Long-terms goals of programs are measured over time, therefore only short-term goals of fatherhood programs are evident in the current study. Future studies with observation and data analysis at additional time points such as six and twelve-month (or longer) follow-up for males and females would enhance the literature and provide a more accurate assessment of long-term outcomes.

An additional limitation of the current study is also noted in the measures. Although self-report measures are the most common form of data collection in program evaluation studies, particularly with large samples, they represent subjective assessments in comparison to more objective observed or administrative data. Previous research reflects that court records (Dykema & Schaeffer, 2000), administrative data maintained by state agencies (including records from child support agencies), and other sources of information (Tein, Roosa, & Michaels, 1994) may provide more precise information and data, particularly regarding financial and economic measures. Measures of this type were used in both the Parents and Children Together, or PACT, (Avellar et al., 2018; Dion et.al, 2015) and Child Support Noncustodial Parent Employment Demonstration (CSNPED) (Cancian et al., 2019) evaluation projects. A more accurate picture of fatherhood program participants' financial responsibility could be gathered from extrinsic sources such as these. While the outcomes informed by the objective observed or administrative data mentioned above were not targeted outcomes in the current study, the researcher acknowledges the limitation of self-report measures. Future research that utilizes both objective and subjective assessments of functioning and economic conditions of fatherhood program participants from various sources of information is encouraged.

Additionally, response bias is directly related to self-report measures. While the intended use of retrospective pre-post surveys is to reduce the amount of response bias (since respondents use the same context to answer both the before and after questions) and provide a more accurate assessment from pre- to post-program (Davis, 2003; Pratt et al., 2000; Rockwell & Kohn, 1989), the current study acknowledges the possibility of response bias in the self-report measures.

Indications from program facilitators were that coparent dyads did not attend programs and provide data. However, because we do not have confirmation on the surveys that parents attended singly, there is the possibility that coparent dyads exist in the data which would violate the assumption of independence. As such, the results should be interpreted with caution.

Conclusions and Implications for Practice

The current study provides validation that a diverse group of fatherhood program participants, differing in gender and race, experienced change in the desired direction following program participation in four target outcomes related to family strengthening and protection of children from maltreatment. Additionally, the assumption was made before analysis was conducted that male fatherhood program participants in a "male only" class composition would have greater enhancements after receiving program services than male fatherhood program participants in a mixed class composition that included females. The current study's findings do not support the hypothesis formulated prior to analysis: male program participants would show a greater amount of change in outcomes following program participation in a male only class composition as compared to males in a mixed class (males *and* females) composition. The mean level differences for men, based on class composition, were not statistically significant. Findings indicate that men in a "males only" class composition do not show greater change in the desired direction from program start to immediately following program participation than men in a

88

"mixed" class composition including females (presented in Table 10). Both groups changed similarly in the desired direction.

One could conclude from the findings of the current study that females do not have a negative impact on the outcomes of male participants in the same fatherhood program since all participants, differing by race and gender, showed change in the desired direction. Due to federal guidelines, females cannot be excluded from participating in fatherhood programs even though their design is father focused. Literature is limited in reflecting the presence of females in the same fatherhood program as males in regard to targeted outcomes, or if female presence has any impact on those outcomes, positive or negative. The current study suggests class composition (the presence of female participants) has no influence on program outcomes. The current study also provides a better understanding of fatherhood programs based on cultural and gender differences, and that both males *and* females reflect statistically significant change in mean level scores immediately following program participation (presented in Table 6). Future research can delve deeper into the differences between other, additional outcomes and possibly utilize a comparison group with data retrieved at additional time points to determine statistically significant differences in the groups over time and to assess the realization of long-term goals of fatherhood programs.

Recommendations for Future Studies

Despite financial and community support continuing to grow for fatherhood programs (e.g., Dion et al., 2015), the evaluation of programs is still limited. The current study adds to the growing empirical evidence in several ways and provides some useful information to inform best practice program models in the field. Among a large group of diverse fatherhood program participants, both male and female, participating in programs across 20 sites in the state of

Alabama, evidence of change in the desired direction was found from preprogram to immediate post program in all four outcomes of the current study related to family strengths that serve as protective factors for children (Browne, 2014). The four protective factors are: social connections, knowledge of parenting and child development; social and emotional competence of children; and concrete supports in times of need. Comparable to other studies (Adler-Baeder, et al, 2019; Phenice et al., 2009), the current study considered and explored possible variations in start-points and change patterns based on gender, race, the interaction of gender and race, and class composition.

While the positive benefits experienced by the participants from program entry to immediately following program participation in four target areas related to individual and family strengths remains a key finding of the present study, no statistically significant information is provided in the current study on greater vulnerability and benefit for any of the four sub-groups (Black males, Black females, White males, and White females). However, when examining baseline differences for race, Black participants reported higher levels of Parental Involvement and Financial Responsibility. Results of the one-way ANOVAs testing baseline differences by the interaction of gender and race did not show statistically significant results. Noting the insignificance of the results regarding gender, fatherhood program facilitators and developers need not be overly concerned whether men and women are entering the program at different levels of functioning in these outcome areas. Also noting that all the groups changed in the desired direction from preprogram to postprogram in a similar manner regardless of demographic factors such as gender and race. This information may serve to inform practitioners' and policymakers' efforts to continue providing and sustaining fatherhood programs to better meet

the needs of all fatherhood program participants regardless of demographic factors such as gender and race.

Furthermore, the results found in this study also lend viability to current fatherhood programs regarding class composition. The findings indicate that the fatherhood programs in the present study reflect a change in outcomes in the desired direction regardless of the class composition. Although the 24/7 DAD® curriculum is father-focused, the current study's findings reflect that females show positive change in outcomes and benefit from participation in fatherhood programs. In essence, females benefit from fatherhood programs and showed greater enhancements from program entry to immediately following program participation in parental involvement and child academic adjustment than males.

In summary, the current study does not reflect statistically significant mean level differences in outcomes immediately following participation in fatherhood programs when moderated by gender, race, the interaction of gender and race, or class composition. However, all participants show statistically significant improvements in the desired direction in *all four outcomes* from program entry to immediately following participation in a fatherhood program. As evidenced by the current study, fatherhood program participation can reduce the risk of child maltreatment.

References

Adler-Baeder, F. M., Kerpelman, J. L., Schramm, D. G., Higginbotham, B., & Paulk, A. (2007). The impact of relationship education on adolescents of diverse backgrounds. *Family Relations, 56,* 291-303.

Adler-Baeder, F., McGill, J., Landers, A., Odomes, R. Chan, A. (2019). *FRPN grantee report: Considering Contextual Influences on Fatherhood Program Participants' Experiences in Alabama.* Report prepared for the Fatherhood Research and Practice Network. Retrieved from https://www.frpn.org/asset/frpn-grantee-report-considering-contextual-influences-fatherhood-program-participants

Administration for Children and Families. (2012). National Responsible Fatherhood Clearinghouse: Factsheet. Retrieved from: https://www.fatherhood.gov/sites/default/files/files-for-pages/nrfc-factsheet_08.01.2012.pdf

Administration for Children and Families, Office of Family Assistance (OFA). (2020), *Funding Opportunity Announcement.* Washington, D.C. Retrieved from: https://www.acf.hhs.gov/grants/ HHS-2020-ACF-OFA-ZJ-1846

Ainsworth, M. D. S. (1982). Attachment: Retrospect and prospect. In C. M. Parkes & J. Stevenson-Hinde (TCis.), *The place of attachment in human behavior* (pp. 3-30). New York: Basic Books.

Ainsworth, M. D. S., Blehar, M. C., Waters, E., & Wall, S. (1978). Patterns of attachment: A psychological study of the strange situation. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Alabama Department of Child Abuse and Neglect Prevention, The Children's Trust Fund.

   (2019). Retrieved from: https://ctf.alabama.gov/wp-content/uploads/2019/10/2018-2019-

   Evaluation-Report-10.11.19.pdf

Alabama State Department of Education. (2018). Communications: All Standards of the Week.

   Retrieved from https://www.alsde.edu/sec/comm/Pages/standardoftheweek-all.aspx

Allen, W.D., & Doherty, W.J. (1998). ''Being there'': The perception of fatherhood among a

   group of African American adolescent fathers. In H.I. McCubbin, E.A. Thompson, A.L.

   Thompson, & J.A. Furtrell (Eds.), Resiliency in African American families (pp. 207–

   244). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Amatea, E. S., Cross, E. G., Clark, J. E., & Bobby, C. L. (1986). Assessing the work and family

   role expectations of career-oriented men and women: The life role salience

   scales. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, *48,* 831-838.

Ames, C., & Archer, J. (1988). Achievement goals in the classroom: Students' learning strategies

   and motivation processes. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 80,* 260-267.

Anderson, E. A., Kohler, J. K., & Letiecq, B. L. (2005). Predictors of depression among low-

   income, nonresidential fathers. *Journal of Family Issues*, *26*(5), 547-567.

Anderson, E., Kohler, J., Letiecq, B. (2002). Low-income fathers and "responsible fatherhood"

   programs: A qualitative investigation of participants' experiences. *Family Relations,*

   51(2), 148–155.

Aronson, R.E., Whitehead, T.L., & Baber, W.L. (2003). Challenges to masculine transformation

   among urban low-income African American males. *American Journal of Public Health,*

   93, 732–741.

Avellar, S., Covington, R., Moore, Q., Patnaik, A., & Wu, A. (2018). *Parents and Children*

Together: Effects of four responsible fatherhood programs for low-income fathers (OPRE

Report No. 2018-50). Washington, DC: Office of Planning, Research and Evaluation

Administration for Children and Families. Retrieved from https://www.mathematica.org/-

/media/publications/p ... /pact-hm-impacts.pdf

Babbie, Earl. (1998). *The Practice of Social Research*. Eighth Edition. Wadsworth Publishing

Company.

Barton, B. K., & Cohen, R. (2004). Classroom gender composition and children's peer

relations. *Child Study Journal, 34,* 29 – 45.

Bastaits, K., Ponnet, K., & Mortelmans, D. (2012). Parenting of Divorced Fathers and the

Association with Children's Self-Esteem. *Journal of Youth Adolescence, 41,* 1643-1656.

Bedi, A. (2004). An andragogical approach to teaching styles. *Education for Primary Care, 15*,

93-108.

Berman, P. W. (1980). Are women more responsive than men to the young? A review of

developmental and situational variables. *Psychological Bulletin, 88*(3), 668–

695. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.88.3.668

Birzer, M. L. (2003). The theory of andragogy applied to police training. *International Journal

of Police Strategies and Management, 26*(1), 29-42.

Birzer, M. L. (2004). Andragogy: Student centered classrooms in criminal justice programs.

Journal of Criminal Justice Education, 15(2), 393-411.

Blondy, L.C. (2007). Evaluation and application of andragogical assumptions to the adult online

learning environment. *Journal of Interactive Online Learning, 6*(2), 116-130

Bloomer, S. R., & Sipe, T. A. (2003). The impact of the Georgia Fatherhood Program on

employment and wages. *Journal of Social Service Research*, *29*(4), 53-65.

Bochner, A. P., & Kelly, C. W. (1974). Interpersonal competence: Rationale, philosophy, and

implementation of a conceptual framework. *The Speech Teacher, 23*(4), 279–301.

https://doi. org/10.1080/03634527409378103

Bokhorst, C.L., Bakermans-Kranenburg, M.J., Pasco Fearon, R. M., Van Ijzendoorn, M.H.,

Fonagy, P., & Schuengel, C. (2003). The Importance of Shared Environment in Mother–

Infant Attachment Security: A Behavioral Genetic Study. *Child Development, 74,* 1769-

1782.

Bolton, F. C. (2006). Rubrics and adult learners: Andragogy and assessment. *Assessment Update,*

18(3), 5-6.

Bosch, A., de Bruin, G. P., Kgaladi, B., de Bruin, K. (2012). Life role salience among black

African dual-career couples in the South African context. *The International Journal of*

Human Resource Management, 23(14), 2835–2853.

Bowlby, J. (1988). A secure base: Parent-child attachment and healthy human development. New

York: Basic Books.

Boyd, R. D., & Myers, J. G. (1998). Transformative education. *International Journal of Lifelong*

Education, 7(4), 261-284.

Brockett, R. G., & Donaghy, R. C. (2005). Beyond The Inquiring Mind: Cyril Houle's

connection to self-directed learning. *Proceedings from AERC, 5.*

Brookfield, S. (2001). Repositioning Ideology Critique in a Critical Theory of Adult

Learning. *Adult Education Quarterly, 52*(1), 7-22.

https://doi.org/10.1177/07417130122087368

Browne, C.H. (2014) *The Strengthening Families Approach and Protective Factors Framework:*

Branching out and reaching deeper. Washington, DC: Center for the Study of Social

Policy. Retrieved from https://cssp.org/wp-content/uploads/2018/11/Branching-Out-and-Reaching-Deeper.pdf.

Bryson, L. (1936). *Adult Education.* New York, NY: American Book.

Buhrmester, D., Furman, W., Wittenberg, M. T., & Reis, H. T. (1988). Five domains of interpersonal competence in peer relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *55*(6), 991-1008.

Bus, A., & Van Ijzendoorn, M. (1995). Mothers Reading to Their 3-Year-Olds: The Role of Mother-Child Attachment Security in Becoming Literate. *Reading Research Quarterly, 30*(4), 998-1015. doi:10.2307/748207

Cable, K., & Spradlin, T. E. (2008). Single sex education in the 21st century. Retrieved from https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED503856

Cabrera, N., Moore, K., Bronte-Tinkew, J., Halle, T., West, J., Brooks-Gunn, J., et al. (2003). The DADS initiative: Measuring father involvement in large-scale surveys. In R.D. Day & M.E. Lamb (Eds.), Conceptualizing and measuring father Involvement (pp. 417–452). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Cancian, M., Meyer, D. R., & Wood, R. G. (2019). Final impact findings from the Child Support Noncustodial Parent Employment Demonstration (CSPED). Washington, DC: Office of Child Support Enforcement Administration for Children and Families.

Center for the Study of Social Policy. (2018). About strengthening families and the protective factors framework. https://www.cssp.org/

Champagne, D. E. (1987). Disadvantaged Adult Learners: Can Career Counseling Enhance Adult Education Program Effectiveness? *Adult Education Quarterly*, *37*(2), 63–77. https://doi.org/10.1177/0001848187037002001

Chan, S. (2010). Applications of Andragogy in Multi-Disciplined Teaching and Learning. *Journal of Adult Education, 39*(2), 25-35. Retrieved from: https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ930244.pdf

Child Welfare Information Gateway. (2014). *Protective factors approaches in child welfare.* Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Retrieved from https://www.childwelfare.gov/pubPDFs/protective_factors.pdf

Coles, R.L. (2001). The parenting roles and goals of single Black full-time fathers. *The Western Journal of Black Studies, 25,* 101–116.

Coley, R.L., & Chase-Landsdale, P.L. (1999). Stability and change in paternal involvement among urban African American fathers. *Journal of Family Psychology, 13*, 415–435.

Coley, R.L., & Morris, J. E. (2002). Comparing father and mother reports of father involvement among low income minority families. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 64,* 982–997.

Collinson, D. and Collinson, M. (2009). 'Blended leadership': employee perspectives on effective leadership in the UK further education sector. *Leadership, 5*, 365–380. Retrieved from https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/pdf/10.1177/1742715009337766

Coltrane, S. (1996). *Family man: Fatherhood, housework, and gender equity*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Concha, M., Villar, M. E., Tafur-Salgado, R., Ibanez, S., & Azevedo, L. (2016). Fatherhood education from a cultural perspective: evolving roles and identities after a fatherhood intervention for Latinos in south Florida. *Journal of Latinos and Education*, *15*(3), 170–179.

Conti, G. (1985). The relationship between teaching style and adult student learning. *Adult Education Quarterly,* 35, 4, 220-228.

Cooke, J. C. (1994), *Malcolm Shepherd Knowles, the father of American andragogy: A biographical study,* University of North Texas, Denton, Texas, Unpublished Doctor of Philosophy Dissertation.

Cooper, S., Ross, L., Dues, A., Golden, A., & Burnett, M. (2019). Intergenerational Factors, Fatherhood Beliefs, and African American Fathers' Involvement: Building the Case for a Mediated Pathway. *Journal of Family Issues, 40* (5), 2047-2075. doi: https://doi.org/10.1177/0192513X19849629

Cowan, P.A., Cowan, C.P., & Know, V. (2010). Marriage and Fatherhood Programs. *The Future of Children, 20*(2), 205-230.

Cranton, P. (2006) *Understanding and Promoting Transformative Learning: A Guide for Educators of Adults* (2nd ed.). San Francisco, CA: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Cronbach, L.J. (1951). Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests. *Psychometrika, 16*, 297–334. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02310555

Cross, K. P. (1981). *Adults as Learners: Increasing Participation and Facilitating Learning.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Incorporated.

Curran, L. (2003). Social work and fathers: Child support and fathering programs. *Social Work, 48*, 219-227.

Davis, G. (2003). Using a retrospective pre-post questionnaire to determine program impact. *Journal of Extension, 41*(4). Retrieved from http://www.joe.org/joe2003august/tt4.shtm

Dion, M. R., Zaveri, H., & Holcomb, P. (2015). Responsible fatherhood programs in the parents and children together (pact) evaluation. *Family Court Review, 53*(2), 292–303.

Dupere, S., O'Neill, M., & DeKoninck, M. (2012). *Why men experiencing deep poverty in Montreal avoid using health and social services in times of crisis. Journal of Health Care for the Poor and Underserved, 23(2),* 781–796. https://doi.org/10.1353/hpu.2012.0071

Dion, M. R., Zaveri, H., & Holcomb, P. (2015). Responsible fatherhood programs in the parents and children together (PACT) evaluation. *Family Court Review*, *53*(2), 292-303.

Dirkx, J.M. (1998). Transformative Learning Theory in the Practice of Adult Education: An Overview. *PAACE Journal of Lifelong Learning, 1998*(7), 1–14.

Dykema, J. & Schaeffer, N. C. (2000). Events, instruments, and reporting errors. *American Sociological Review, 65*(4), 619–629.

Eagly, A. H., Mladinic, A., & Otto, S. (1991). Are Women Evaluated More Favorably Than Men? : An Analysis of Attitudes, Beliefs, and Emotions. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, *15*(2), 203–216. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1471-6402.1991.tb00792.x

Elder, G. H., & Conger, R. D. (2000). *Children of the land: Adversity and success in rural America.* Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Fagan, J. & Barnett, M. (2003). The relationship between maternal gatekeeping, paternal competence, mothers' attitudes about the father role, and the father involvement. *Journal of Family Issues, 24*(8), 1020–1043.

Fagan, J., Day, R., Lamb, M. E., & Cabrera, N. J. (2014). Should researchers conceptualize differently the dimensions of parenting for fathers and mothers? *Journal of Family Theory and Review, 6,* 390-405.

Fagan, J., & Kaufman, R. (2015). Reflections on theory and outcome measures for fatherhood programs. *Families In Society*, *96*(2), 133-140.

Fletcher, A. C., Elder, G. J., & Mekos, D. (2000). Parental influences on adolescent involvement in community activities. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, *10*(1), 29-48.

Freire, P. (1970, 1993). *Pedagogy of the oppressed*. London: ENG. Penguin Books.

Forrest, S. P., III, & Peterson, T.O. (2006). It's called andragogy. *Academy of Management Learning and Education, 5*(1), 113-122.

Gadsden, V.L. (1995). The absence of father: Effects on children's development and family functioning. University of Pennsylvania, National Center on Fathers and Families. Retrieved from http://www.ncoff.gse.upenn.edu/wrkppr/abfather.pdf

George, D., & Mallery, M. (2010). *SPSS for Windows Step by Step: A Simple Guide and Reference, 17.0 update* (10th ed.). Boston: Pearson.

Gessner, R. (1956). The Democratic Man: *Selected Writings of Eduard C. Lindeman*. Beacon, Boston.

Gore, J. S., Wilburn, K. R., Treadway, J., & Plaut, V. (2011). Regional collectivism in Appalachia and academic attitudes. *Cross-Cultural Research: The Journal of Comparative Social Science*, *45*(4), 376-398.

Harris, I., Torres, J., & Allender, D. (1994). The responses of African American men to dominant norms of masculinity within the United States. *Sex Roles, 31*, 703–719.

Henschke, J. A. (2008). "A Global Perspective on Andragogy: An Update." In *Proceedings of the Commission on International Adult Education [CIAE] Pre-Conference, American Association for Adult and Continuing Education [AAACE] Conference,* Boucouvalas, M. [Ed]. *1*, 43-94.

Holcomb, P., Edin, K., Max, J., Young Jr., A., Valdovinos D'Angelo, A., Friend, D., Clary, E., & Johnson Jr., W. E. (2015). *In their own voices: The hopes and struggles of responsible*

fatherhood program participants in the Parents and Children Together evaluation (OPRE Report No. 2015-67). Washington, DC: Office of Planning, Research and Evaluation Administration for Children and Families.

Holmes, E. K., Galovan, A. M., Yoshida, K., & Hawkins, A. J. (2010). Meta-analysis of the effectiveness of resident fathering programs: Are family life educators interested in fathers? *Family Relations: An Interdisciplinary Journal of Applied Family Studies, 59*(3), 240–252.

Holmes, E. K., Brotherson, S. E., and Roy, K. (2012). Community-based programs for serving fathers. *Fathering: A Journal of Research, Theory, and Practice about Men as Fathers: Special Issue on Community Father Involvement Programs, 10*(1), 3–5.

Holmes, E., Hawkins, A., Egginton, B., Robbins, N., & Shafer, K. (2018). *FRPN grantee report: Do responsible fatherhood programs work? A comprehensive meta-analytic study.* Report prepared for the Fatherhood Research and Practice Network. Retrieved from https://www.frpn.org/asset/frpn-grantee-report-do-responsible-fatherhood-programs-work-comprehensive-meta-analytic-study

Holton, E. F., Swanson, R. A., and Naquin, S. S. (2001). "Andragogy in Practice: Clarifying the Andragogical Model of Adult Learning." *Performance Improvement Quarterly*, *14*(1), 118–143.

Houle, C. O. (1961). *The Inquiring Mind*. Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin Press.

Houle, C. O. (1984). *Patterns of Learning: New Perspectives on Life-Span Education.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Houle, C. O. (1996). *The Design of Education.* (2nd ed.) San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Howard, S. (1993). Accreditation of prior learning: Andragogy in action or a 'cut price'

approach to education? *Journal of Advanced Nursing, 18*(11), 1817-1824.

Hurst, S. A. (2008). Vulnerability in Research and Health Care; Describing the Elephant in the

Room? *Bioethics, 22*(4), 191-202. doi:10.1111/j.1467-8519.2008.00631.x

Huston, T. L., & Vangelisti, A. L. (1991). Socioemotional behavior and satisfaction in marital

relationships: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 61*(5),

721–733.

Jackson, L. D. (2009). Revisiting adult learning theory through the lens of an adult

learner. *Adult Learning*, *20*(3/4), 20–22. Retrieved from

https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/pdf/10.1177/104515950902000307

James Bell Associates (2010). Evaluation Resource Guide for Responsible Fatherhood Programs.

U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and

Families. Retrieved from: https://www.fatherhood.gov/library-resource/evaluation-

resource-guide-responsible-fatherhood-programs

Jarrett, R., Roy, K., & Burton, L. (2002). Fathers in the 'hood: Qualitative research on African

American men. In C. Tamis-LeMonda & N. Cabrera (Eds.), *Handbook of father

involvement: Multidisciplinary perspectives* (pp. 211–248). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence

Erlbaum.

Jarvis, P. (1999). *The Practitioner-Researcher: Developing Theory from Practice.* San

Francisco, CA. Josey-Bass.

Jordan-Zachery, J. S. (2009). *Black Women, Cultural Images, and Social Policy.* New York, NY.

Routledge.

Jørgensen, C. K., & Karlsmose, B. (1998). Validation of automated forms processing: A

comparison of *Teleform* with manual data entry. *Computers in Biology and Medicine, 28,*

659-667.

Julion, W., Gross. D., Barclay-McLaughlin, G., Fogg, L. (2007). "It's Not Just About

MOMMAS": African-American Non-Resident Fathers' Views of Paternal Involvement.

Research in Nursing and Health, 30, 595-610.

Keselman, H. J., Huberty, C. J., Lix, L. M., Olejnik, S., Cribbie, R. A., Donohue, B.,

Kowalchuk, R., Lowman, L, Petosky, M., Keselman, J., Levin, J. (1998). Statistical

practices of educational researchers: An analysis of their ANOVA, MANOVA, and

ANCOVA techniques. *Review of Educational Research, 68*(3), 350-386.

Kim, Y.-I., & Jang, S. J. (2018). *A randomized controlled trial of the effectiveness of a*

responsible fatherhood program: The case of TYRO Dads. Report prepared for the

Fatherhood Research and Practice Network. Retrieved

from https://www.frpn.org/asset/frpn-grantee-report-randomized-controlled-trial-the-

effectiveness-responsible-fatherhood

Kliegel, M., & Altgassen, M. (2006). Interindividual Differences in Learning Performance: The

Effects of Age, Intelligence, and Strategic Task Approach. *Educational*

Gerontology, *32*(2), 111-124

Knowles, M.S. (n.d.). How Children and Adults Learn. Retrieved from

http://thepeakperformancecenter.com/educational-learning/learning/principles-of-

learning/adult-learning/children-adults-learn/

Knowles, M. S. (1950). *Informal Adult Education.* New York: Association Press.

Knowles, M. S. (1970). *The modern practice of adult education: Andragogy versus pedagogy*.

New York, NY: Association Press.

Knowles, M.S. (1972). Innovations in Teaching Styles and Approaches Based Upon Adult
Learning. *Journal of Education for Social Work, 8*(2), 32-39.

Knowles, M. S. (1975). *Self-directed learning: A guide for learners and teachers*. New York,
NY: Association Press.

Knowles, M.S. (1977). Adult learning processes: Pedagogy and andragogy. *Religious Education,
72*(2), 202-211. doi: 10.1080/0034408770720210

Knowles, M.S. (1980). *The modern practice of adult education: From pedagogy to andragogy.*
Chicago: Follett.

Knowles, M. S. (1984). Adult learning: theory and practice. In L. Nadler (ed.), The Handbook of
Human Resource Development. New York: John Wiley and Sons. (pp. 6.1 – 6.23).

Knowles, M. S. (1984). *Andragogy in action: Applying Modern Principles of Adult Learning*.
San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Knowles, M. S. (1988). *The modern practice of adult education: Andragogy versus
pedagogy* (Revised edition). Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall/Cambridge.

Knowles, M. S. (1990). *The adult learner: A neglected species.* (4th ed.). Houston, TX: Gulf.

Knowles, M. S., Holton, E. F., III, & Swanson, R. A. (2015). *The adult learner: The definitive
classic in adult education and human resource development* (8th ed.). Burlington, MA:
Elsevier. Merriam, S. B.

Kokko, K., & Pulkkinen, L. (2000). Aggression in childhood and long-term unemployment in
adulthood: a cycle of maladaptation and some protective factors. *Developmental
psychology*, *36*(4), 463-472.

Kroth, M., & Boverie, P. (2000). Life Mission and Adult Learning. *Adult Education
Quarterly*, *50*(2), 134–149. https://doi.org/10.1177/07417130022086955

Kuhn, D. & Pease, M. (2006). Do Children and Adults Learn Differently? *Journal of Cognition and Development, 7*(3), 279-293.

Lamb, M. E. (2000). The history of research on father involvement. *Marriage & Family Review*, *29*, 23-42, doi: 10.1300/J002v29n02_03

Lemke, L. A., Lichetneberg, J.W., & Arachtingi, B.M. (1992). Differences in social support between rural and urban communities. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 348587). Retrieved from www.ericfacility.net/databases/ERICDigests/ed348587.htm

Levine, E., Kaufman, R., Hammar, C., Fagan, J. (2015). FRPN Research Brief: How Involved are Fathers with Their Children? A Study of Fatherhood Programs. Retrieved from https://www.frpn.org/sites/default/files/Involvement%20Research%20Brief%201%20page_102115.pdf

Lundy, B.L. (2002). Paternal Socio-psychological Factors and Infant attachment: The Mediating Role of Synchrony in Father-infant Interactions. *Infant Behavior and Development, 25,* 221-236.

Main, M. (1999). Attachment theory: Eighteen points with suggestions for future studies. In J. Cassidy & P. R. Shaver (Eds.), *Handbook of attachment: Theory, research, and clinical applications* (pp. 845 – 888). New York: Guilford.

Mälkki, K. (2010). Building on Mezirow's Theory of Transformative Learning: Theorizing the Challenges to Reflection. *Journal of Transformative Education, 8*(1), 42-62. Retrieved from https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/pdf/10.1177/1541344611403315

Martinson, K. & Nightingale, D.S. (2008). *Ten key findings from responsible fatherhood programs.* Washington, DC: Urban Institute Press. Retrieved from

https://www.urban.org/sites/default/files/publication/31516/411623-Ten-Key-Findings-from-Responsible-Fatherhood-Initiatives.PDF

Maslow, A. H. (1943). A theory of human motivation. *Psychological Review, 50*(4), 370–396.

Maya Angelou Biography (2020). Retrieved from https://www.biography.com/writer/maya-angelou

McCauley, K. D., Hammer, E. & Hinojosa, A. S. (2017). An Andragogical Approach to Teaching Leadership. *Management Teaching Review, 2*(4), 312-324. https://doi.org/10.1177/2379298117736885

McLeod, S. A. (2008). Qualitative Quantitative. Retrieved from www.simplypsychology.org/qualitative-quantitative.html

McHale, J., Waller, M., & Pearson, J. (2012). Coparenting interventions for fragile families: What do we know and where do we need to go next? *Family Process, 51,* 284–306.

Merriam, S. B. (2001). *Andragogy and Self-Directed Learning: Pillars of Adult Learning Theory*. *2001*(89), 3–14. https://doi.org/10.1002/ace.3

Merriam, S., Caffarella, R., Baumgartner, L. (2007). *Learning in Adulthood: A Comprehensive Guide* (3rd ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Merriam, S. B., & Bierema, L. L. (2014). *Adult learning: Linking theory to practice.* Jossey-Bass. Retrieved from https://auburnuniversity.on.worldcat.org/oclc/899588445

Mezirow, J. (1978). Perspective Transformation. *Adult Education*, *28*(2), 100–110. https://doi.org/10.1177/074171367802800202

Mezirow, J. (1981). A critical theory of adult learning and education. *Adult Education, 32*, 3-24.

Mezirow, J. (1991). *Transformative Dimensions of Adult Learning* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Mezirow, J. (1996). Contemporary Paradigms of Learning. *Adult Education Quarterly, 46***,** 158–172.

Mezirow, J. (2000). Learning to Think like an Adult. In J. Mezirow and Associates (eds.) *Learning as Transformation* (San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass), pp. 3–33.

Mills, G. & McKernan, S.M. (2016). *Building Savings for Success Early Impacts from the Assets for Independence Program Randomized Evaluation. Retrieved from Office of Planning, Research and Evaluation.* Retrieved from https://www.acf.hhs.gov/opre/resource/building-savings-for-success-early-impacts-from-the-assets-for-independence-program-randomized-evaluation

Morman, M. T., & Floyd, K. (2002). A 'changing culture of fatherhood': effects on affectionate communication, closeness, and satisfaction in men's relationships with their fathers and their sons. *Western Journal of Communication*, 66: 395–411.

Mushinski, D., Bernasek, A., & Weiler, S. (2015). Job lock in rural versus urban labor markets. *Growth & Change*, *46*(2), 253-273.

National Association for Single Sex Public Education (NASSPE). NASSPE: Schools and classrooms. Updated 2006. Retrieved from www.singlesexschools.org   December 2, 2008.

National Fatherhood Initiative. (2015). 24/7 DAD® Program Info Sheet. https://www.fatherhood.org/free-resources/24/7-dad-fatherhood-program

National Fatherhood Initiative. (2020). About Us. Retrieved from https://www.fatherhood.org/about-us

Newton. E.S. (1977). Andragogy: understanding the adult as learner. *Journal of Reading, 20*(5), 361-363.

Novotney, A. (2011). Coed versus single-sex ed. *American Psychological Association, 42*(2), 58-59. Retrieved from https://www.apa.org/monitor/2011/02/coed

O'Connor, T.G, & Croft, C. M. (2001). A twin study of attachment in preschool children. *Child Development, 72*, 1501 – 1511.

O'Connor, T.G, Croft, C. M., & Steele, H. (2000). The contributions of behavioral genetic studies to attachment theory. *Attachment & Human Development, 2*, 107 – 122.

Osborne, C., Austin, J., Dion, M. R., Dyer, J., Fagan, J., Harris, K. E., Hayes, M., Mellgren, L., Pearson, J., & Scott, M. E. (2014). *Framing the future of responsible fatherhood evaluation research for the Fatherhood Research and Practice Network.* Retrieved from http://www.frpn.org

Ozuah, P. O. First, there was pedagogy and then came andragogy. *Einstein Journal of Biology & Medicine, 21*(2), 83-87.

Pager, D. (2007). The Use of Field Experiments for Studies of Employment Discrimination: Contributions, Critiques, and Directions for the Future. *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 609*, 103-33.

Pager, D. & Shepard, H. (2008). The sociology of discrimination: Racial discrimination in employment, housing, credit, and consumer markets. *Annual Review of Sociology, 34*, 181–209.

Pager, D., Western, B., and Bonikowski, B. (2009). Discrimination in a low-wage labor market: A field experiment. *American Sociological Review, 74*(5), 777-799.

Palkovitz, R. (1997). Reconstructing ''involvement'': Expanding conceptualizations of men's caring in contemporary families. In A.J. Hawkins & D.C. Dollahite (Eds.), *Generative fathering: Beyond deficit perspectives* (pp. 200–216). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Parke, R.D. (1996). *Fatherhood.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Pearson, J. (2018*). State approaches to including fathers in programs and policies dealing with children and families*. Denver: Center for Policy Research. Retrieved from http://centerforpolicyresearch.org/wp-content/uploads/FINAL-FRPN_StateApproaches-Brief_052918_R2-2.pdf

Perry, A. R. & Bright, M. (2012). African American fathers and incarceration: Paternal Involvement and child outcomes. *Social Work in Public Health, 27,* 187–203.

Personal Responsibility and Work Opportunity Reconciliation Act of 1996, P.L. 104-193, 110 Stat. 2105. Retrieved from https://www.ssa.gov/OP_Home/comp2/F104-193.html

Petty, T., & Thomas, C. (2014). Approaches to a Successful Adult Education Program. *College Student Journal. 3*(8), 473-480. Retrieved from https://www.ingentaconnect.com/content/prin/csj/2014/00000048/00000003/art00016

Phenice, L. A., Griffore, R. J., Hakoyama, M. and Silvey, L. A. (2009). Ecocultural adaptive research: A synthesis of ecocultural theory, participatory research, and adaptive designs. *Family and Consumer Sciences Research Journal, 37*, 298–309.

Pianta, R. C. (1992). Child-parent relationship scale. *Unpublished measure, University of Virginia*

Pipp, S., Easterbrooks, M.A., & Brown, S.R. (1993). Attachment status and complexity of infants' self- and other knowledge when tested with mother and father. *Social Development, 2,* 1-14.

Pratt, C. C., McGuigan, W. M., & Katzev, A. R. (2000). Measuring program outcomes: Using retrospective pretest methodology. *American Journal of Evaluation*, 21(3), 341–349. doi:10.1016/S1098-2140(00)00089-8

Pratt, D. D., & Associates. (1998). *Five perspectives on teaching in adult and higher education*. Malabar, FL: Krieger.

Pruett, M. K., Cowan, C. P., Cowan, P. A., & Pruett, K. (2009). Lessons learned from the supporting father involvement study: a cross-cultural preventive intervention for low-income families with young children. *Journal of Social Service Research*, *35*(2), 163-179.

Rockwell, S. K., & Kohn, H. (1989). Post-then-pre evaluation. Journal of Extension, 27(2). Retrieved from http://www.joe.org/joe/1989summer/a5.html

Rogers, C. R., (1969). *Freedom to learn*. Columbus, OH: Merrill.

Rogers, C. R. (1986). Carl Rogers on the development of the person-centered approach. *Person-Centered Review, 1*(3), 257–259.

Rosenblum, S. & Darkenwald, G.C. (1983). Effects of adult learner participation in course planning on achievement and satisfaction. *Adult Education Quarterly, 33*(3), 147-153.

Roy, K. M., & Young In, K. (2007). Qualitative insights and methodological challenges: next steps in research on low-income fathering. *Applied Developmental Science*, *11*(4), 234-238.

Roy, K. M., & Dyson, O. (2010). Making daddies into fathers: community-based fatherhood programs and the construction of masculinities for low-income African American men. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, *45*(1/2), 139-154.

Saracho, O. N. & Spodek, B. (2008). Fathers: the 'invisible' parent. *Early Child Development and Care, 178,* p. 7-8. DOI: 10.1080/03004430802352244

Savicevic, D. M. (1991). Modern conceptions of andragogy: A European framework. *Studies in the Education of Adults, 23*(2), 179.

Shears, J. K. (2007). Understanding differences in fathering activities across race and ethnicity. *Journal of Early Childhood Research, 5*(3), 245–261.

Sheckley, B. & Bell, S., (2006). Experience, Consciousness, and Learning: Implications for Instruction. *New Directions for Adult & Continuing Education, 110*, 43-52.

Sheppard, V. B., Sims-Boykin, S. D., Zambrana, R. E., Adams, I. (2004). Low-income African American fathers' perceptions and experiences in a fatherhood support program. *Journal of Applied Social Science, 21*, 30–50.

Shi, W.Z., He, X., Wang, Y., & Huan, W. (2015). Effects of Lab Group Sex Composition on Physics Learning. *Eurasia Journal of Mathematics, Science, and Technology Education, 11*(1), 87-92.

Smetana, J.G., 2017. Current research on parenting styles, dimensions, and beliefs. *Current Opinion in Psychology, 15*, 19–25. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1016/j.copsyc.2017.02.012

Smith, M. K. (1997, 2004, 2020) 'Eduard Lindeman and the Meaning of Adult Education', *infed.org*. Retrieved from: http://www.infed.org/thinkers/et-lind.htm

Spector, A. Z. (2006). Fatherhood and depression: A review of risks, effects, and clinical application. *Issues in Mental Health Nursing, 27*(8), 867–883.

Stahlschmidt, M. J., Threlfall, J., Seay, K. D., Lewis, E. M., & Kohl, P. L. (2013). Recruiting Fathers to Parenting Programs: Advice from Dads and Fatherhood Program Providers. *Children and youth services review, 35*(10), 1734–1741. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2013.07.004

Staples, R. (1982). *Black masculinity: The Black male's role in American society.* San Francisco, CA: The Black Scholar Press.

Taylor, E. D. (1997). Building upon the theoretical debate: A critical review of the empirical studies of Mezirow's transformative learning theory. *Adult Education Quarterly, 48*, 34-59.

Taylor, E. W. (2000). Analyzing research on transformative learning theory. In J. Mezirow and Associates (Eds.), *Learning as transformation. Critical perspectives on a theory in progress* (pp. 258–328). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass

Taylor, E.W. (2007). An Update of Transformative Learning Theory: A Critical Review of the Empirical Research (1999–2005). *International Journal of Lifelong Education, 26(*2), 173-191. DOI: 10.1080/02601370701219475

Taylor, E. W. (2008). Transformative learning theory. *New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education, 119*, 5-16.

Taylor, E., Angelique, H., & Kyle, K. (2003). Rising to the occasion: Publishing diversity-focused scholarship in adult education. *International Journal of Lifelong Education, 22*(4), 407-421.

Tein, J., Roosa, M. W., & Michaels, M. (1994). Agreement between parent and child reports on parental behaviors. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 56*(2), 341–355.

Threlfall, J. M., & Kohl, P. L. (2015). Addressing child support in fatherhood programs: Perspectives of fathers and service providers. *Family Relations, 64,* 291-304.

Tough, A. (1971). *The Adult's Learning Projects: A fresh approach to theory and practice in Adult Learning.* Toronto: CA. Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.

Tough, A. (1976). Self-planned learning and major personal change. In R.M. Smith (Ed.), *Adult learning: Issues and innovations.* DeKalb, IL: Eric Clearinghouse in Career Education.

Tough, A. (1991). *Critical Questions About the Future.* Lanham, MD: University Press of

America.

Tough, A. (1993). What Future Generations Need from Us. *Futures, 1,* 1041-1050.

United States Census Bureau. (2019). America's families and living arrangements: 2019.

Retrieved from:

https://data.census.gov/cedsci/table?q=FamiliesandHouseholdCharacteristics&tid=ACS

ST1Y2018.S1101&vintage=2018

United States Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and

Families, Office of Family Assistance (OFA). (2020), *Funding Opportunity*

Announcement. Washington, D.C. Retrieved from: https://www.acf.hhs.gov/grants/

HHS-2020-ACF-OFA-ZJ-1846

United States Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and

Families, Office of Family Assistance (OFA). (2020). *Healthy Marriage and*

Responsible Fatherhood. Washington, D.C. Retrieved from:

https://www.acf.hhs.gov/ofa/programs/healthy-marriage

Valiquette-Tessier, S.C., Gosselin, J., Young, M. & Thomassin, K. (2019) A Literature Review

of Cultural Stereotypes Associated with Motherhood and Fatherhood, *Marriage &*

Family Review, 55(4), 299-329.

doi: 10.1080/01494929.2018.1469567

Van Ijzendoorn, M. H & De Wolff, M.S. (1997), IN Search of the Absent Father- Meta-Analyses

if Infant-Father Attachment: A Rejoinder to Our Discussants. *Child Development, 68*(4),

604-609.

Van Ijzendoorn, M. H., Schuengel, C., & Bakermans-Kranenburg, M. J. (1999). Disorganized attachment in early childhood: Meta-analysis of precursors, concomitants, and sequelae. *Development and Psychopathology, 11*, 225 – 249.

Viets, A. (2009). *Same gender classrooms and student achievement* (Order No. 3372345). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (305079348). Retrieved from http://spot.lib.auburn.edu/login?url=https://search.proquest.com/docview/305079348?accountid=8421

Volling, B.L., & Belsky, J. (1992). Infant, father, and marital antecedents of infant-father attachment security in dual-earner and single-earner families. *International Journal of Behavioral Development, 15,* 83-100.

Wahler, E. A., & Cummings, C. E. (2020). Getting Ahead in a Just-Gettin'-By World: Gender Differences in Intake Characteristics and Poorer Outcomes Observed for Men. *The Journal of Men's Studies*. https://doi.org/10.1177/1060826520923345

Walker, R., Reid, C. E., & Logan, T. K. (2010). Race differences among noncustodial fathers noncompliant in child support: Involvement and self-perceptions of fathering. *Journal of Family Studies, 16*(1), 48–61.

Whitton, S., Sperber, K., Ludwig, K., Vissman, A., Howard, H. (2018). *FRPN grantee report: Evaluating mother and nonresidential father engagement in coparenting services in a fatherhood program.* Report prepared for the Fatherhood Research and Practice Network. Retrieved from https://www.frpn.org/asset/frpn-grantee-report-evaluating-mother-and-nonresidential-father-engagement-in-coparenting

Wolf, F. M. (1986). *Meta-analysis: Quantitative methods for research synthesis*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Zemke, R. (2002). "Who Needs Learning Theory Anyway?" *Training, 39*(9), 86–91.

Zmeyov, S. I. (1998). Andragogy: Origins, developments and trends. *International Review Education, 44*(1), 103-108.

Table 1

RQ1: *Descriptive Statistics on Outcome Measures Across Time.*

Outcome	Baseline (Time 1)			Immediate Post-Program (Time 2)		
	N	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*
Interpersonal Competence	665	6.11	1.324	635	6.57	.953
Parental Involvement	665	5.44	1.222	636	5.82	1.036
Child Academic Adjustment	580	6.15	1.298	559	6.45	1.051
Financial Responsibility	699	5.88	1.692	669	6.63	.974

N = Number of participants; *M* = Mean; *SD* = Standard Deviation

Table 2

Correlations of Baseline Outcome Measures and Predictors of Interest (N = 723)

Outcome Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Location (rural or non-rural)	1.00								
2. Race	-.130**	1.00							
3. Gender	-.125**	.219**	1.00						
4. Age	-.021	-.095*	-.146**	1.00					
5. Income	-.014	.240**	-.131**	.026	1.00				
6. Interpersonal Competence	-.029	.011	.048	-.102**	.067	1.00			
7. Parental Involvement	-.059	-.088*	-.028	-.064	.029	.795**	1.00		
8. Child Academic Adjustment	-.027	.003	.035	-.010	.055	.473**	.390**	1.00	
9. Financial Responsibility	.027	-.077*	-.057	.030	.022	.422**	.312**	.249**	1.00

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$
N = Number of participants in data sample

Table 3

RQ1: *Results of one-way ANOVAs testing baseline differences by gender.*

	N	n	M (SD)	n	M (SD)	F	df
			Male		Female		
	N	*n*	*M (SD)*	*n*	*M (SD)*	*F*	*df*
Interpersonal Competence	665	463	6.07 (1.32)	202	6.21 (1.34)	1.52	664
Parental Involvement	665	463	5.46 (1.23)	202	5.39 (1.20)	.519	664
Child Academic Adjustment	580	406	6.12 (1.29)	174	6.22 (1.33)	.725	579
Financial Responsibility	699	490	5.94 (1.65)	209	5.73 (1.79)	2.287	698

Note: * *p* < .05

N = Number of participants in data sample*; n* = Number of participants in sub-group sample*; M* = Mean*; SD* = Standard Deviation; *F* = Fisher's F ratio

Table 4

RQ1: *Results of one-way ANOVAs testing baseline differences by race.*

	N	n	Black M (SD)	n	White M (SD)	F	df
Interpersonal Competence	665	390	6.10 (1.33)	275	6.13 (1.32)	.078	664
Parental Involvement	665	390	5.53 (1.26)	275	5.31 (1.15)	5.141*	664
Child Academic Adjustment	580	355	6.15 (1.26)	225	6.15 (1.35)	.006	579
Financial Responsibility	699	412	5.99 (1.61)	287	5.72 (1.80)	4.183*	698

Note: * $p < .05$

N = Number of participants in data sample; n = Number of participants in sub-group sample; M = Mean; SD = Standard Deviation; F = Fisher's F ratio

Table 5

RQ1: *Results of one-way ANOVAs testing baseline differences by the combination of gender and race.*

	N	Black Male		Black Female		White Male		White Female		F	df
		n	*M (SD)*	*n*	*M (SD)*	*n*	*M (SD)*	*n*	*M (SD)*		
Interpersonal Competence	665	303	6.06 (1.34)	87	6.23 (1.27)	160	6.09 (1.28)	115	6.19 (1.39)	.084	664
Parental Involvement	665	303	5.52 (1.28)	87	5.57 (1.20)	160	5.36 (1.13)	115	5.25 (1.19)	.618	664
Child Academic Adjustment	580	276	6.11 (1.28)	79	6.27 (1.20)	130	6.13 (1.30)	95	6.18 (1.43)	.211	579
Financial Responsibility	699	324	6.03 (1.58)	88	5.82 (1.70)	166	5.77 (1.75)	121	5.66 (1.86)	.130	698

N = Number of participants in sample*; n* = Number of participants in sub-group*; M* = Mean*; SD* = Standard Deviation;
F = Fisher's F ratio

Table 6

RQ2: *Paired sample t-test results for mean change over time of sample.*

	Baseline (Time 1)		Immediate Post-Program (Time 2)				Cohen's
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*df*	*t*	*d*
Interpersonal Competence	6.11	1.32	6.57	.953	633	-9.350***	0.40
Parental Involvement	5.43	1.22	5.82	1.04	634	-9.082***	0.34
Child Academic Adjustment	6.14	1.30	6.46	1.03	551	-7.268***	0.27
Financial Responsibility	5.85	1.71	6.63	.976	666	-11.699***	0.56

Note: *** $p < .001$

M = Mean*; SD* = Standard Deviation*; df* = Degrees of Freedom; Cohen's *d* reported in absolute values.

Table 7

RQ3: *Results of RMANCOVAs testing T1 – T2 differences based on gender, controlling for race.*

		Male Time 1		Male Time 2		Female Time 1		Female Time 2		Time	Time x Sex	
	N	n	M (SD)	n	M (SD)	n	M (SD)	n	M (SD)	F	F	p
Interpersonal Competence	634	442	6.09 (1.30)	442	6.52 (.975)	192	6.18 (1.37)	192	6.69 (.889)	.235	.133	.176
Parental Involvement	635	442	5.46 (1.22)	442	5.84 (1.05)	193	5.36 (1.22)	193	5.80 (1.02)	1.379	.156	.693
Child Academic Adjustment	552	385	6.11 (1.29)	385	6.42 (1.02)	167	6.21 (1.34)	167	6.55 (.895)	0.061	.001	.973
Financial Responsibility	667	486	5.92 (1.67)	486	6.61 (.977)	201	5.68 (1.81)	201	6.67 (.974)	1.542	2.559	.110

Note: * $p < .05$
N = Number of participants in sample; n = Number of participants in sub-group; M = Mean; SD = Standard Deviation;
F = Fisher's F ratio; p = significance level

Table 8

RQ3: Results of RMANCOVAs testing T1 – T2 differences based on race, controlling for gender.

		Black Time 1		Black Time 2		White Time 1		White Time 2		Time	Time x Race	
	N	*n*	*M (SD)*	*n*	*M (SD)*	*n*	*M (SD)*	*n*	*M (SD)*	*F*	*F*	*p*
Interpersonal Competence	634	367	6.10 (1.31)	367	6.48 (1.02)	267	6.13 (1.33)	267	6.70 (.831)	58.069***	3.522	.061
Parental Involvement	635	368	5.53 (1.25)	368	5.88 (1.010	267	5.29 (1.15)	267	5.75 (.935)	52.730***	1.165	.281
Child Academic Adjustment	552	333	6.14 (1.26)	333	6.39 (1.07)	219	6.15 (1.36)	219	6.56 (.942)	36.812***	2.477	.116
Financial Responsibility	667	388	5.95 (1.64)	388	6.60 (1.03)	279	5.71 (1.81)	279	6.66 (.900)	78.499***	3.256	.072

Note: *** p < .001

N = Number of participants in sample; *n* = Number of participants in sub-group; *M* = Mean; *SD* = Standard Deviation;

F = Fisher's F ratio; *p* = significance level

Table 9

RQ3: *Results of RMANCOVAs testing T1 – T2 differences based on the interaction of gender and race.*

| | Black Male | | | | Black Female | | | | White Male | | | | White Female | | | | Time | Time x Race x Sex | |
| | Time 1 | | Time 2 | | Time 1 | | Time 2 | | Time 1 | | Time 2 | | Time 1 | | Time 2 | | | | |
	n	*M (SD)*	*n*	*M (SD)*	*n*	*M (SD)*	*n*	*M (SD)*	*n*	*M (SD)*	*n*	*M (SD)*	*n*	*M (SD)*	*n*	*M (SD)*	*F*	*F*	*p*
Interpersonal Competence (*N* = 634)	287	6.08 (1.32)	287	6.42 (1.08)	80	6.18 (1.31)	80	6.69 (.745)	155	5.34 (1.13)	155	5.80 (.915)	112	5.23 (1.19)	112	5.67 (.961)	82.210 ***	1.369	.242
Parental Involvement (*N* = 635)	287	5.53 (1.26)	287	5.86 (1.11)	81	5.53 (1.23)	81	5.96 (1.07)	122	5.33 (1.13)	122	5.82 (.900)	93	5.29 (1.21)	93	5.82 (.900)	73.625 ***	.302	.583
Child Academic Adjustment (*N* = 552)	259	6.10 (1.28)	259	6.36 (1.10)	74	6.26 (1.20)	74	6.53 (.948)	126	6.14 (1.30)	126	6.55 (.882)	93	6.16 (1.44)	93	6.56 (1.02)	46.897 ***	.008	.930
Financial Responsibility (*N* = 667)	305	6.00 (1.61)	305	6.56 (1.10)	83	5.76 (1.73)	83	6.78 (.686)	161	5.76 (1.76)	161	6.71 (.684)	118	5.63 (1.87)	118	6.59 (1.13)	138.214 ***	2.356	.125

Note: *** $p < .001$

N = Number of participants in sample*; n* = Number of participants in sub-group*; M* = Mean*; SD* = Standard Deviation;

*F* = Fisher's F ratio; *p* = significance level

Table 10

H1: *Results of RMANCOVAs testing T1 – T2 differences based on class composition.*

| | | Men in "Males Only" Class | | | | Men In "Mixed" Class | | | | Time | Time x Class Composition | |
| | | Time 1 | | Time 2 | | Time 1 | | Time 2 | | | | |
	N	*n*	*M (SD)*	*n*	*M (SD)*	*n*	*M (SD)*	*n*	*M (SD)*	*F*	*F*	*p*
Interpersonal Competence	442	267	5.99 (1.38)	267	6.50 (1.02)	175	6.24 (1.11)	175	6.54 (.909)	51.811***	3.354	.068
Parental Involvement	442	267	5.31 (1.26)	267	5.75 (1.09)	175	5.69 (1.11)	175	5.97 (.959)	50.701***	2.510	.114
Child Academic Adjustment	385	229	6.03 (1.30)	229	6.36 (1.10)	156	6.24 (1.26)	156	6.53 (.942)	37.908***	.108	.743
Financial Responsibility	466	284	5.85 (1.73)	284	6.63 (.944)	182	6.02 (1.56)	182	6.58 (1.03)	70.180***	1.704	.192

Note: *** p < .001
N = Number of participants in sample; *n* = Number of participants in sub-group; *M* = Mean; *SD* = Standard Deviation;
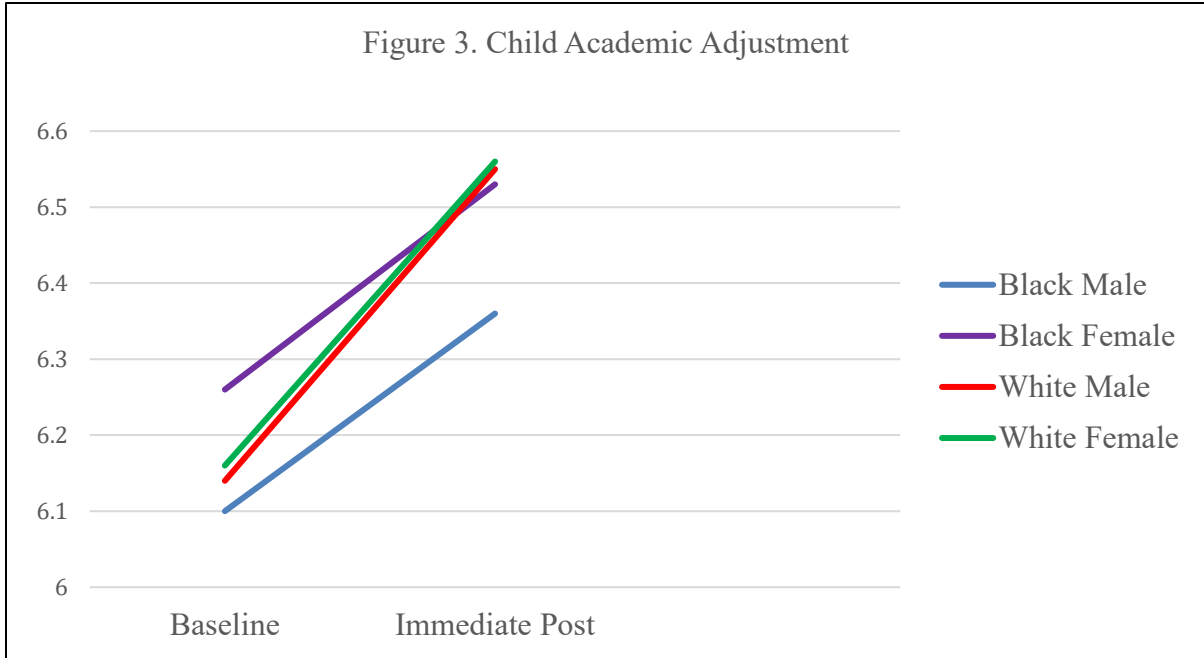*F* = Fisher's *F* ratio; *p* = significance level

Figure 1. Interpersonal Competence
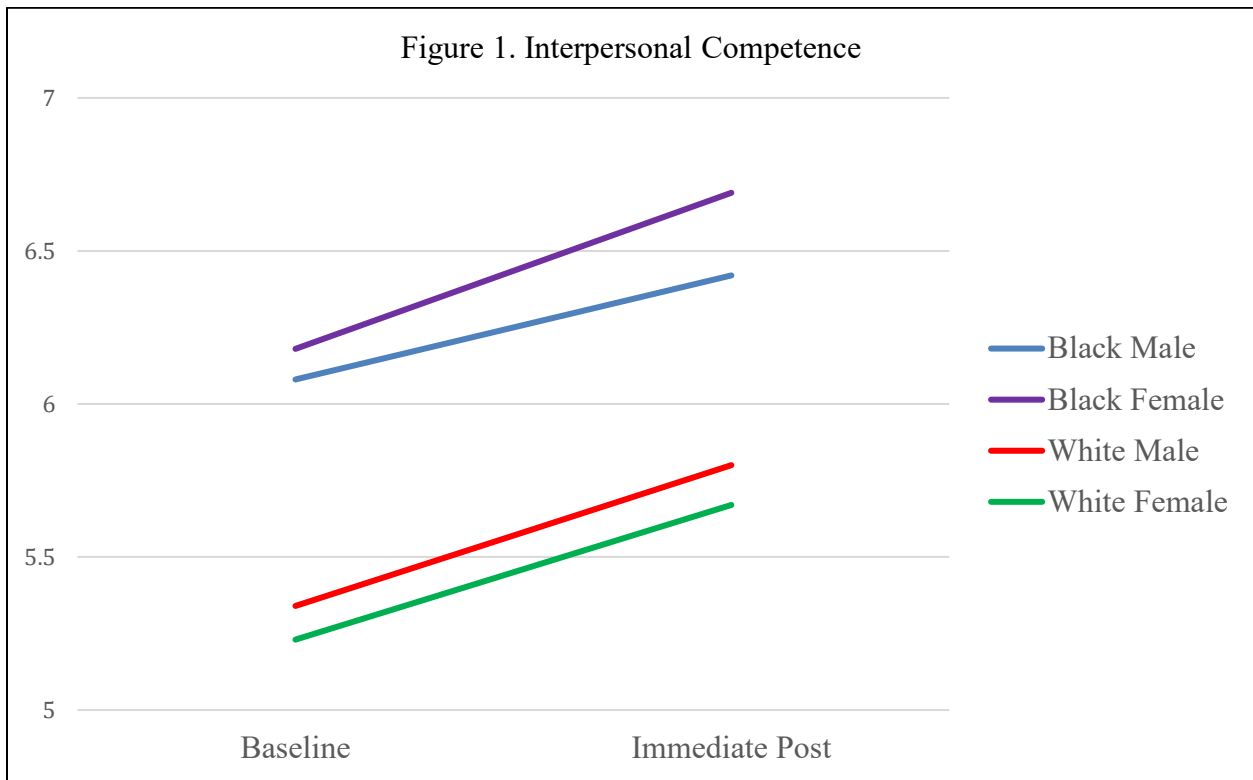
Interpersonal Competence

Figure 1. Differences in the amount of change between male and female fatherhood program participants, by race, in *interpersonal competence* from baseline to immediate post-program.
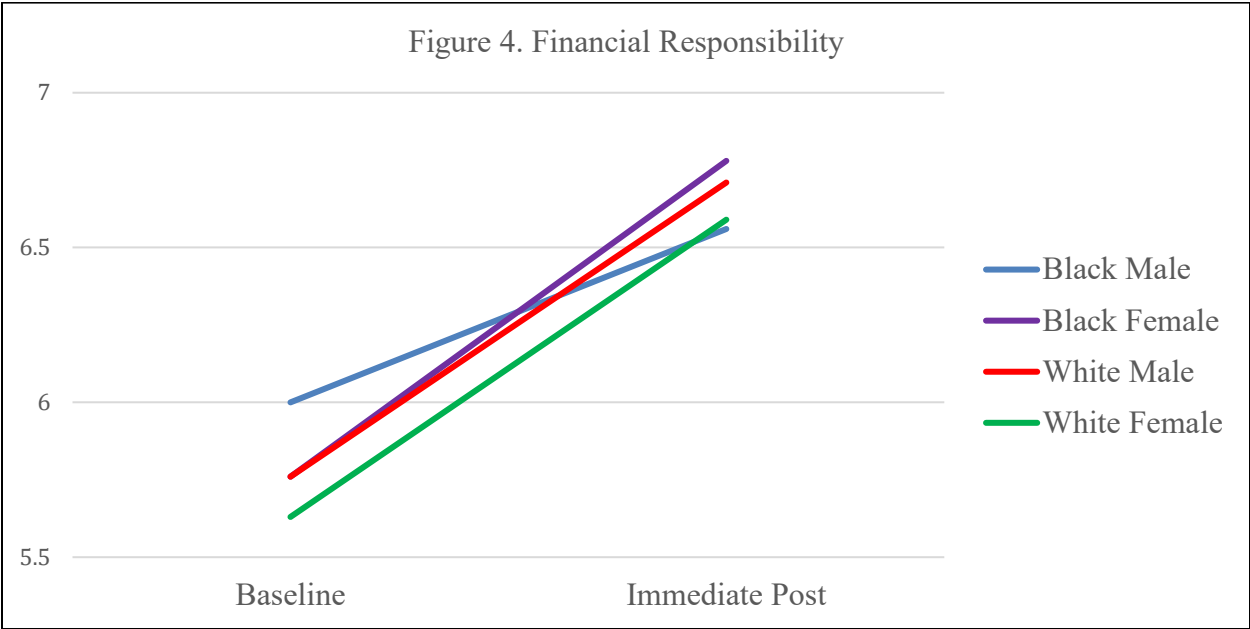
Figure 2. Parental Involvement
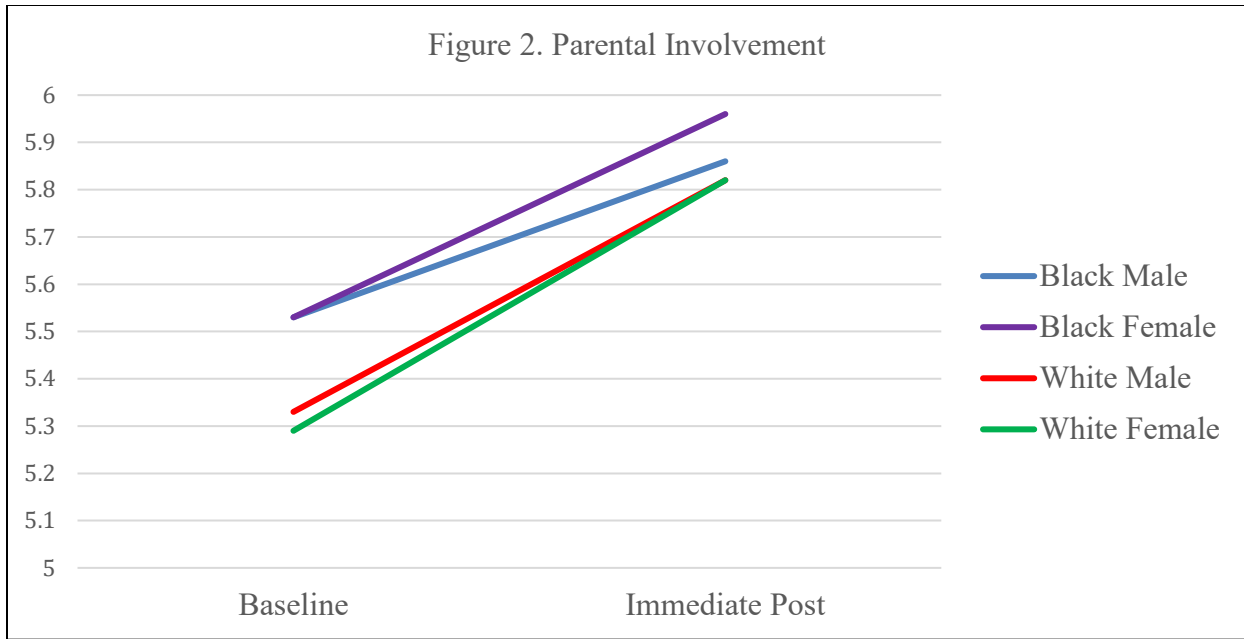
Parental Involvement

Figure 2. Differences in the amount of change between male and female fatherhood program participants, by race, in *parental involvement* from baseline to immediate post-program.
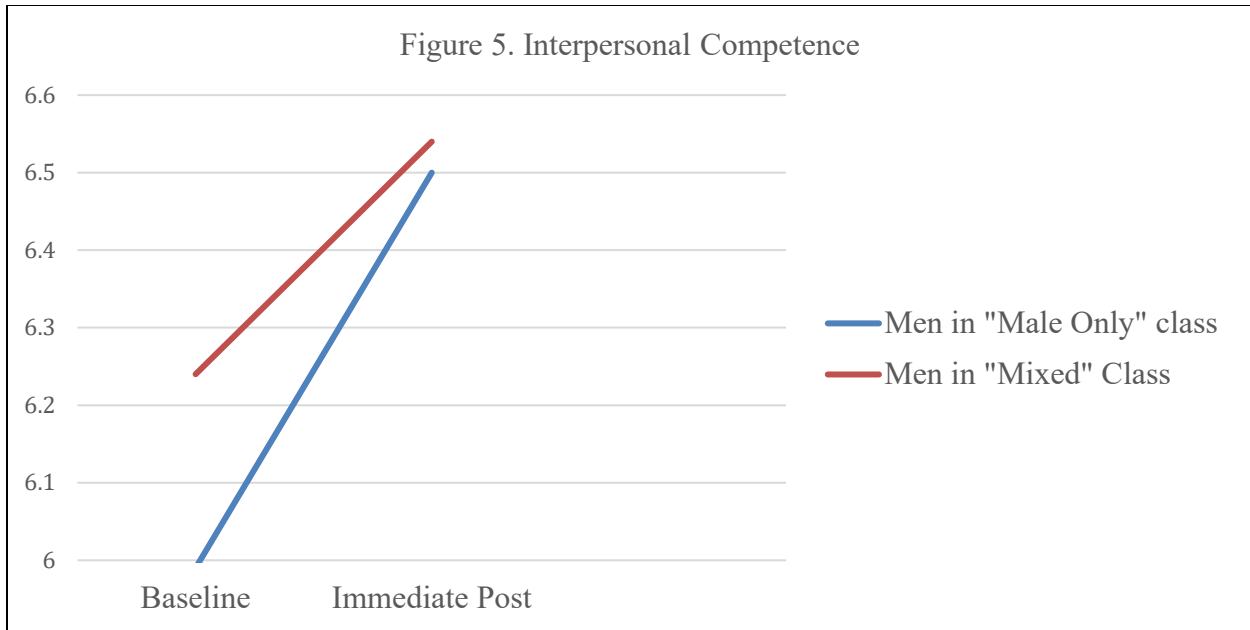
Figure 3. Child Academic Adjustment

Child Academic Adjustment

Figure 3. Differences in the amount of change between male and female fatherhood program participants, by race, in *child academic adjustment* from baseline to immediate post-program.
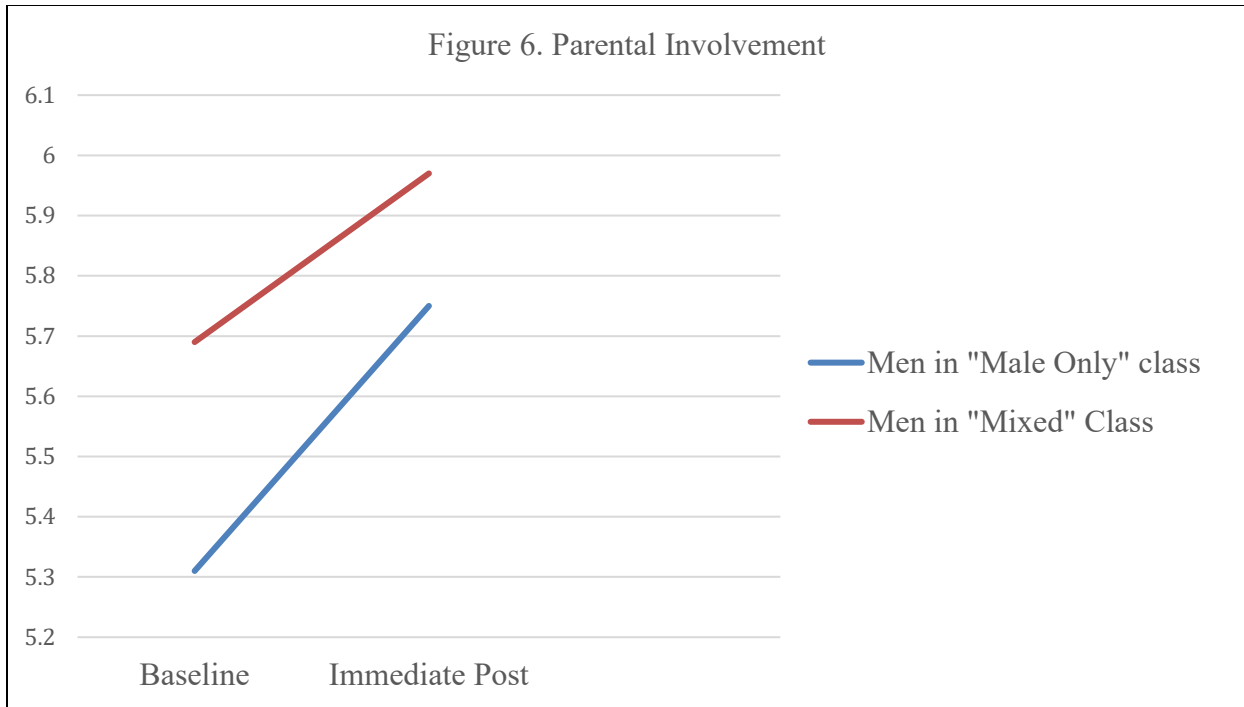
Figure 4. Financial Responsibility

Financial Responsibility

Figure 4. Differences in the amount of change between male and female fatherhood program participants, by race, in *financial responsibility* from baseline to immediate post-program.

Figure 5. Interpersonal Competence

Interpersonal Competence

Figure 5. Differences in the amount of change for men in fatherhood programs by class composition in *interpersonal competence* from baseline to immediate post-program.

Figure 6. Parental Involvement

Parental Involvement

Figure 6. Differences in the amount of change for men in fatherhood programs by class composition in *parental involvement* from baseline to immediate post-program.

Figure 7. Child Academic Adjustment
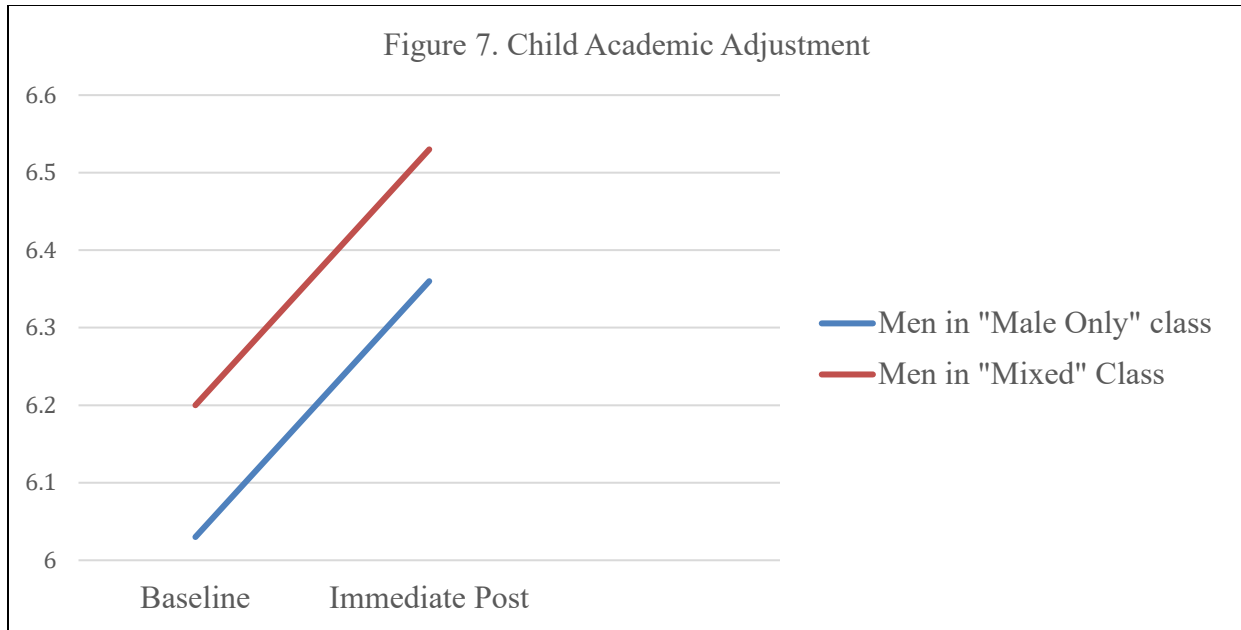
Child Academic Adjustment

Figure 7. Differences in the amount of change for men in fatherhood programs by class composition in *child academic adjustment* from baseline to immediate post-program.

Figure 8. Financial Responsibility

Financial Responsibility

Figure 8. Differences in the amount of change for men in fatherhood programs by class composition in *financial responsibility* from baseline to immediate post-program.