

FATHERS MATTER:
AN EXPLORATION OF FATHERS' PERCEPTION OF THEIR INVOLVEMENT
AND THEIR PRESCHOOL CHILDREN'S SELF-REGULATION
IN TAYTAY, RIZAL, PHILIPPINES

BY

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PHD IN HOLISTIC CHILD DEVELOPMENT



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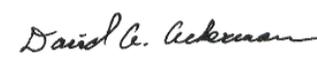
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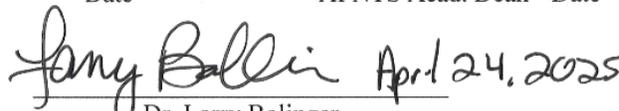
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ABSTRACT

With self-regulation associated by some researchers with later success and with interest in the role of fathers in child development increasing, a mixed method study was conducted among twenty-six fathers of preschool children residing or studying in Taytay, Rizal to determine the relationship between child self-regulation and father involvement. A quantitative survey measured father involvement and child self-regulation using standardized tests. The Father Research and Practice Network (FRPN) Father Engagement Scale was used to measure father involvement quantity, and the Child-Parent Relationship Scale-Short Form (CPRS-SF) was used to measure father involvement quality, while the Child Self-Regulation and Behavior Questionnaire (CSBQ) was used to measure cognitive, behavioral and emotional self-regulation. The Spearman Rank was used to correlate father involvement and child self-regulation at five percent confidence interval, and the Mann Whitney U test was used to compare the self-regulation scores of children with high father involvement and children with low father involvement at five percent confidence interval.

Results show no significant correlation between father involvement quantity and child self-regulation scores but reveal a significant difference between self-regulation scores of children with high father involvement quantity and low father involvement quantity. More specifically, a significant correlation was found between father involvement quantity and a child's cognitive and behavioral regulation. A significant difference in child self-regulation scores of children with high father involvement and children with low father involvement.

Further, a significant and strong positive correlation between father involvement quality and overall child self-regulation was found, and a significant difference was found between child self-regulation scores of children with high father involvement quality and low father quality. A significant positive correlation was found between father involvement quality and cognitive, behavioral and emotional self-regulation. A significant difference was found between behavioral and emotional self-regulation scores of children with high father involvement quality and children with low father involvement quality.

Elements of father involvement related to cognitive self-regulation were verbal explanation upon discipline and guidance. Elements of father involvement related to behavioral self-regulation were giving rewards, setting boundaries or limits and discipline through spanking. Elements of father involvement related to emotional self-regulation were the child's expression of extreme emotion, apology from the father, teasing or playful banter, and physical expression of affection. Play pervades all components of self-regulation.

Father involvement quality is significantly correlated to overall self-regulation and all its components while father involvement quantity is significantly correlated only to cognitive and behavioral self-regulation. Significant differences between overall self-regulation, behavioral and emotional self-regulation were found between children with high father involvement quality and low father involvement quality.

A qualitative interview with a family that scored high in father involvement and high child self-regulation was conducted to identify components of father involvement that may be significant in encouraging high self-regulation in children. A thematic

analysis was conducted using MAXQDA to identify resounding components of father involvement.

Programs by individuals and institutions that are involved in the care and education of children are challenged and encouraged to strengthen self-regulation of children by increasing father involvement quantity, and, more importantly, father involvement quality. Initiatives for the replication in other contexts and expansion of the size of the sample and geographical location are recommended.

CERTIFICATION OF PROOFREADING

I, Lynne Grace C. Hernandez, certify that this dissertation has undergone proofreading and editing by Ruthie Maye R. Padilla, an authorized proofreader of the Asia-Pacific Nazarene Theological Seminary.



Signature of Researcher

12 April 2025
Date



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DECLARATION

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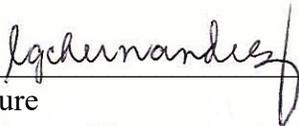
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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my late mother who served as my first nurturer and carer and my father who has given me space to regulate as a young child and explore my passion as an adult. It is dedicated to all children I have taught who have given me a better understanding of their development and their needs, and all children I will teach in the future who inspire me to become a better educator and person. This is dedicated to teachers I have worked with who have challenged me to become a better professional, and mentors who have challenged me to deepen my thinking and broaden my impact. Above all, this work is dedicated to God Almighty, the loving Father, Giver of Wisdom and Master Teacher who has called and enabled.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM AND ITS BACKGROUND

Introduction

The postmodern period has challenged Christianity through revolutions in science, philosophy and communication. In the rise of multiple worldviews that promote relativity, Biblical truth has become one of many options and reduced to mere “suggestion.” Because these challenges are introduced through media and education, its impact on the youth will have implications on the proclamation of the Gospel (Catorce 2013).

Through Biblical history, the pursuit of truth is a common theme with the burden initially placed on the shoulders of parents, particularly fathers. The nation of Israel was born of the encounter with and obedience to God of the patriarchs Abraham, Isaac and Jacob. Genesis 18:19 details God’s intent in choosing Abraham, saying, “For I have chosen him, so that he will direct his children and his household after him to keep the way of the Lord by doing what is right and just” (Genesis 18:19a). The most striking display of his faith was when he, despite reason and paternal affection, obeyed God’s command to sacrifice his son. Isaac, albeit deceived, blessed his sons in the name of God Almighty (Genesis 27:28-29; 28:3-4). Jacob, despite extreme favoritism, in the same way gave prophetic blessings to his sons before his last breath (Genesis 49:1-33).

Just as the Biblical patriarchs have passed on God's Word to their children and the children after them, Paul passed godly standards of living to Titus whom he was mentoring, referring to him as "my son true son in our common faith" in Titus 1:4. The apostle Paul gave Titus instructions for succession in church leadership, describing a leader to be commendable in conduct and character. An overseer, he said, must be "blameless—not overbearing, not quick-tempered, not given to drunkenness, not violent, not pursuing dishonest gain. Rather, he must be hospitable, one who loves what is good, who is self-controlled, upright, holy and disciplined" (Titus 1:7-8). The standards for living passed on by Paul to Titus as he sends him off to minister to a morally fluid audience placed "self-control" and "discipline" alongside being "good," "upright," and "holy."

Shifting to the post-modern setting where many Christian leaders have been seen to fall, one might wonder how the ancient gives light to the present. With science and research being at the forefront of knowledge, Biblical wisdom may shed light on how to enable an individual to command one's faculties to abide by the seemingly obsolete, yet unchanging truth of the Bible. With the charge to teach children given to the fathers, how their involvement plays into their development, particularly that of self-control and discipline is worth exploring.

Background of the Problem

Multiple difficulties that arise in adolescence and adulthood that impede personal and social function may be traced to one's childhood. Issues like poor school performance, delinquency, problematic relationships, poor health or eating habits, addictions and mismanaged finances may be traced to failure to regulate one's

behavior and emotion (Eiden et al. 2007, 2; Barutchu et al. 2013, 1; Chéca et al. 2014, 10).

The researcher is a practitioner in early childhood education, both in the church and school context. A common observation among middle-class urban children is their fleeting attention span, extreme frustration to challenges, extreme emotional outbursts, lack of accountability and low self-help skills. While this does not apply to all and the still developing faculties of the children are acknowledged, the effects of failure to address these cognitive, behavioral and emotional challenges have been observed and the question of how the adult environment influences these is raised.

Albert Bandura is noted for proposing the “Social Cognitive Theory” (Santrock 2007, 46-47). He makes a powerful statement in saying, “Miseries people inflict upon themselves and others arise from dysfunctions in the self-regulatory systems” (Bandura 1991, 273-274). Difficulties in different areas of a person’s life he attributes to failure to effectively and efficiently self-regulate. Defined as a person’s capacity to control initial impulse and redirect into socially acceptable behavior to attain a goal aligned with a personally defined standard (Baumeister and Vohs 2007, 17), self-regulation is found to be critical in an individual’s behavior, moral choices and social interaction. With interest in the contribution of fathers to child development increasing, some studies have presented evidence of positive associations between father involvement and child self-regulation.

A recent study initiated by a group of researchers from the University of Wollongong Australia did an extensive meta-analysis of 150 studies on self-regulation with a collective sample size of 215,212 to determine the extent to which preschool (four

years old) self-regulation predicts outcomes for latter stages: early school years (eight years old), later school years (thirteen years old) and adulthood (thirty-eight years old). Results of the study confirmed that preschool self-regulation was a predictor of physical and mental health and well-being, achievement, and social function across different stages (Robson, Allen, and Howard 2020, 1-31). Details of the results of this study will be discussed more extensively in the next chapter.

Commonly mentioned in literature is father involvement in the form of play and its contributions to the development of the child. A study of Australian fathers explored the associations between toy and physical play (rough-and-tumble play), among other objectives, with their children who were between thirty-two and forty-six months old to emotional function, behavioral function and self-regulation. Researchers expected both types of play to be related to the three child outcomes and found that the types of play were associated with different child outcomes. Father intrusiveness in play predicted poorer self-regulation in children (George, Fletcher, and Palazzi 2017, 4-22).

While there is evidence in literature of the importance of self-regulation in different areas of adult function, there is also evidence of the role fathers play in its development. In its publication “Men in Families and Family Policy in a Changing World,” the United Nations look at trends across the globe. A segment discusses the fathering and child development, it states, “throughout their development, children convey the importance of their fathers in their lives and seek their company and approval” (United Nations 2011, 57). The World Health Organization notes the benefits of father involvement not only for children, but for mothers and fathers themselves (World Health Organization 2007, 9).

A doctoral dissertation by Chary explores the “interactive effects of fathering quantity and quality on child self-regulation,” particularly on executive function and effortful control (measure of emotional regulation). Through research-based evidence, the author conducts the study among American families with children between three and five years old, with the premise that higher father involvement quality is associated with higher positive qualities of fathering and lower negative qualities of fathering. Further, it assumes that “when the father-child relationship is emotionally positive and marked by behavioral monitoring, sensitivity, autonomy support, and adaptive cognitive stimulation, it provides social learning opportunities for children to take action and self-monitor their behavior and engage appropriately with the environment, facilitating optimal development.” Results proved father involvement quantity was a better predictor of executive function and effortful control, but only with high levels of observed positivity. When negativity was high, increased father involvement quantity and quality were associated with lower executive function and effortful control (Chary 2020, 1-39). These results suggest the importance of both the quantity and quality components of father involvement.

Using the family systems perspective, Lauren Altenburger considers the changing family structures and looks at how the quality and quantity of parenting for resident and non-resident fathers predicted their children’s self-regulation. Quality was categorized as authoritative or harsh, with spanking descriptive of harsh parenting. Scores were measured at two points: the first when children were between two and four years old, and the second when the children were between three and six years old. Overall, both quantity and quality of father involvement predicted child self-regulation but differed between

resident and non-resident fathers. Among households with resident fathers, harsh parenting was associated with lower self-regulation in children, but quantity of father involvement was not. On the other hand, among households with non-resident fathers, harsh parenting was not associated with child self-regulation, but quantity of father involvement was (Altenburger 2022, 1-10). These results provide evidence on the link between quantity and quality of father involvement to children's self-regulation both in resident and non-resident father contexts.

Jesus, fully man as he was fully God, was described as a boy who grew in the same way in the different areas of development. Luke 2:52 says he “increased in wisdom and stature, and in favor with God and man.” While these domains are natural for all individuals, the degree and direction of development differ, even for those who profess the same faith. Man's sinful nature necessitates commands to adhere thought, emotion and behavior to God's standards. The apostle Paul challenges the Corinthians to “take captive every thought to make it obedient to Christ” (2 Corinthians 10:5) and the Romans to “be transformed by the renewing of [their] mind” (Romans 12:2). Natural as emotions are, Philippians 4:4-6 commands believers to rejoice and not be anxious, and Proverbs 16:32 commends the person who is patient and has self-control over one who is able to conquer cities. Further, godly conduct sets the believer apart. Galatians 5:16 instructs the believer to “live by the Spirit” so as not to “gratify the desire of the flesh” and Ephesians four gives detailed instructions on Christian living. Because the Christian life is a call against the natural, an exploration of the interplay between paternal involvement and one's cognitive, emotional and behavioral self-regulation will give insight from a developmental and social perspective.

The next section presents trends in different areas of adult functions that may be addressed with strong regulatory functions. A more effective command of adult cognitive, behavioral and emotional function may be a preventive factor to these pervading issues that concern not just educational institutions, but families, individuals and the Church of Christ as a whole.

Trends

Various societal difficulties that arise are translations of an individual's ability to manage thinking, behavior and emotions. Worthy of attention is a person's individual function which is dependent on one's health—physical, mental, and socioemotional. Further, local and global data indicates moral and spiritual decline. These establish the setting where the Christian presents the Gospel and sustains Christian living. Trends in these domains will be discussed to establish areas where self-regulation may play a role.

Physical Health

First Corinthians 6:19 describes our bodies as the “temple of the Holy Spirit.” While there are genetic illnesses and injuries that are beyond one's control, some physical conditions may be avoided with healthy lifestyle choices, albeit difficult. For instance, unhealthy food intake, low physical activity and obesity are affecting a larger number of the population. Children with higher self-regulation were found to have lower body mass index (MBI) during adolescence and adulthood (Robson, Allen, and Howard 2020, 38).

The World Health Organization (WHO) makes recommendations on the types and levels of food intake, particularly calling for an increase in fruit and vegetable intake and a decrease in consumption of sugars, fat and salt. Physical activity is proven to lessen

risks for noncommunicable diseases as well as anxiety and depression. It improves cognitive function and overall well-being. WHO raises concern over statistics that reveal that twenty-five percent of the global population do not engage in necessary physical activity, with women and residents of high-income countries scoring higher in inactivity than their counterparts. Consequently, lack of physical activity has implications for mental and emotional function (WHO 2022).

Obesity and related diseases are affected by lifestyle choices such as physical activity and dietary intake and may result in higher risks for cardiovascular diseases, diabetes, musculoskeletal disorders and some cancers. Despite being preventable, thirty-nine percent of adults were overweight, and thirteen percent were obese globally in 2016 (WHO 2021).

In the Philippines, a rise in the prevalence of obesity among adults has been observed as the prevalence increased from 20.2 percent in 1998 to 36.6 in 2019. While the government implements programs and policies for improved health, the Department of Health (DOH) recognizes that “individual lifestyle choices” contribute to the condition and integrates promoting behavioral change and environments that support these changes (UNICEF 2022). Basic recommendation to patients is the management of diet and increased physical activity, but health professionals also call for assessment and treatment of psychological conditions of patients as the condition may be a coping mechanism for mental health issues (National Nutrition Council 2018).

One’s lifestyle is a function of one’s ability to align impulses and inclinations with what will reap the best health results. Any adjustment requires behavioral change and the regulation that comes with it.

Mental Health

Philippians 4:6-7 redirects our anxiety to prayer, petition and thanksgiving. It is commanded as circumstances that cause worry, anxiety and fear will come. Redirection of thought and attention requires effective cognitive function, and managing negative emotions requires regulation. Sadly, statistics for those affected by mental health issues are increasing.

With mental health considered as “an integral part of our general health and well-being and a basic human right,” WHO raises concern over the high demand but “insufficient and inadequate” responses to mental health concerns in the 2022 World Mental Health Report. WHO reports that one in eight individuals suffer from a mental disorder and suicide is responsible for one out of every one hundred deaths. Suicide is the leading cause of death among youth and mental disorders are the main cause of years lived with disability (YLD). Despite the rising statistics, approximately half of the global population has one psychiatrist for every 200,000 citizens. These conditions have implications not only at the personal level but at the social and economic level as well (WHO 2022, xiv-xv).

At the local level, a “rising epidemic of mental health crisis” across the country and across socioeconomic groups was noted by the Philippine Mental Health Association Inc. (PMHA) on October 9, 2023, calling for increased attention to mental health issues. Approximately 3.6 million Filipinos deal with mental health concerns. The prevalence has been exacerbated by the pandemic and is not adequately mitigated because of limited mental health services and service providers. The ratio of mental health workers to citizens at 1:100,000 reveals significant need for mental health providers (Philippine

News Agency 2023) and may be compensated if individuals are able to deal with issues better with emotional, cognitive and behavioral regulation. At present, free counseling and mental health services are being offered by institutions to equip individuals with skills on how to manage their psychological and mental well-being.

Cognitive Function

In Philippians 9:1-10, Paul prays for “knowledge and discernment” for the Philippians. With false teachings permeating communities then, and conflicting worldviews accepted and promoted at present, the effective use of thought and reason is critical. While these permeate daily functions in even the smallest task, it is commonly measured through standardized tests and academic performance.

Performance of Filipino students in standardized tests causes concern regarding their cognitive ability. While there can be contentions on the accuracy of tests as indicators, the standardized tests claim to measure different cognitive ability in various subject areas.

Performance of students based on national scores are also low, raising a concern on learning conditions of children. In the Philippines, the overall average (Math, English, Science) for the National Achievement Test for Grade Six students decreased for 2016-2017 at 39.95 percent from 69.71 percent in school year 2014-2015. A decrease was also reported among Grade Ten students whose overall scores of 49.48 in school year 2014-2015 went down to 44.008 in school year 2016-2017 (Philippine Statistics Authority 2019, 108 to 109).

Performance of the Philippines in international tests is also alarming. In the 2018 Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), Filipino learners fared among

the lowest in mathematics, reading and science. Further, almost eighty percent of fifteen-year-old Filipino learners only had basic reading proficiency (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development 2019). Results of 2022 were almost the same, still falling below the average. More than assessing mere memory, PISA measures higher order thinking skills such as their ability to “solve complex problems, think critically and communicate effectively.”

Congruently, the 2019 results of the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) by the Boston College Lynch School of Education show that the Philippines ranked lowest among all countries in the International Mathematics Achievement Scores for Fourth Grade, scoring 297 while Singapore scored highest at 625. The country’s performance was the same in science, ranking the lowest at 249 with Singapore ranking highest at 595 (Mullis et al. 2020).

While the role that economics plays should not be neglected, the function of self-regulation in school performance and learning is also significant. Multiple studies show a relationship between self-regulation and school performance, as well as overall cognitive function. People with healthy self-regulation are better at cognitive tasks and are more likely to succeed in school (Barutchu et al. 2013, 1; Baumeister and Vohs 2007, 1; Baumeister et al. 2009, 4) and those who do not find a hard time establishing social relationships in school (Checa 2014, 2). When parental involvement had positive trends, performance in mathematics was more stable and improved (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development 2023).

Social Function

The second of the greatest commandments calls for the love of neighbor, a task requiring as much skill and grace, considering everyone's weaknesses and differences. Existing within a larger community requires a minimum level of social function, but being ambassadors of Christ will require more. Sadly, societal issues pervade all areas of society and may be prevented through the strengthening of regulatory functions.

An individual's social function comes at different levels and can be observed in how they function as members of different institutions such as the family, immediate and larger community, and the nation. Substance abuse (Barutchu et al. 2013, 1), juvenile delinquency, sexual misbehavior and financial challenges are more likely to be observed in people with poor self-regulation (Baumeister et al. 2009, 3-5).

Substance Abuse

Substance abuse is given top priority by the previous Philippine government among issues to be addressed. In the 2017 Philippine Statistical Yearbook, drug or substance abuse shows an increasing trend from 5,965 in 2002 to 6,079 in 2016. Most common substance used is Methamphetamine Hydrochloride (Philippine Statistics Authority 2017, 17-16) which is said to have "euphoric effects" but can also result in "paranoia, aggression, hallucinations, mood disturbances, and delusions" (Davis 2018) which can lead to actions and behaviors that are detrimental to oneself and harmful to others.

Teenage Pregnancies

Developing regions are most affected by teen pregnancies with twelve million girls ages fifteen to nineteen giving birth a year, ten million of which were unintended. Adding to the statistics are 777,000 births by girls younger than fifteen. Abortions in the fifteen to nineteen age group are at an annual rate of 5.6 million, approximately seventy percent of which are unsafe (WHO 2020). The third Sustainable Development Goal seeks to “ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages.” A decrease in adolescent fertility rate seen from 2000 (fifty-six per 1000) to 2018 (forty-four per 1000) is indicative of improvement in adolescent health where the “leading cause of death is complications during pregnancy and live birth” (UN 2020).

In the Philippines ten percent of females between ages fifteen to nineteen are mothers (UNICEF 2018). Data published by the Philippine Statistics Authority (PSA) show that in 2013, 2.2 percent of females ages fifteen to twenty-four have had their first sexual intercourse before age fifteen, and 19.9 percent of females ages twenty to twenty-four have had sexual intercourse before reaching age eighteen (PSA 2013). Ten percent of the fifteen to nineteen female age group and forty-six percent of the twenty to twenty-four female age group have either given birth or are pregnant with their first child (PSA 2013).

These pose not only health hazards to both mother and child but also economic implications. The potential of youth for economic growth is not realized, keeping them in the cycle of poverty. Losses due to teenage pregnancy may amount to 33 million pesos and are therefore considered an economic threat leading the National Economic and

Development Authority to declare a state of National Social Emergency (UNOCHA 2019).

Separation and Divorce

Attributing to the Biblical phrase “What God has put together, let no man separate” (Matthew 19:6), the Philippines remains to be the only country in the world that does not legalize divorce. Nonetheless, the phenomenon still exists and a motion for it to be legalized is in process. The unit within which the individual usually thrives, the family, is not spared from changes, some of which have negative implications on the individual. According to a 2018 report released by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), the rate of marriages is declining while the rate of divorce is increasing. Though OECD countries have differing trends, crude divorce rates (CDRs), or the number of people divorcing per 1000 people, are still considered relatively high (OECD 2018, 3).

According to Abalos (2017), there is an increase in the number of married couples separating, both legally and informally. According to the Office of the Solicitor-General (OSG), there is a 146 percent increase in the number of annulment cases filed in 2011 (4,520 cases) to 2014 (11,135 cases). Abalos presents comparative data from the National Philippine Census per decade and illustrates that in 1960, the same percentage of men and women were married or cohabiting (forty-nine percent), while in 2010, there was an almost negligible increase (51.3 percent women and 50.2 percent men). There is an increase in the percentage of both men and women who are separated. In 1960, 0.6 percent of women and 0.3 percent of men were separated. This increased to 1.6 percent and 0.9 percent respectively in 2010 (Abalos 2017, 1522).

Because self-regulation is associated with emotional stability and control, those who have developed strong self-regulation skills are less likely to externalize behaviors (Checa 2014, 2), manifest anger, aggression (Baumeister and Stillman 2013, 5) and disruptive behavior (Checa 2014, 2). They have better self-esteem and a greater capacity to manage emotions, understand others and adjust (Baumeister et al. 2009, 4), they are better able to manage relationships (Baumeister and Vohs 2007, 7; Baumeister and Stillman 2013, 1-4, Baumeister et al. 2009, 4) and resolve conflicts (Baumeister and Stillman 2013, 4; Baumeister et al. 2009, 4). They will then be able to better manage conflicts within the marriage.

Moral and Spiritual Practice

Howard's concept of self-regulation comprises initiating and eliminating components. It is the capacity to direct and act upon what an individual finds aligned to one's objectives, and being able to do so "despite any impulses or distractions to the contrary" (Howard et al. 2020, 2). With the Christian call to be set apart and abide by Biblical principles, seemingly obsolete and unreasonable for the common person, it requires the capacity to say "no" to what is natural, acceptable and popular to go against the grain.

Most social issues have a moral element, as actions and behaviors are facilitated by one's values system. Values are often associated with religious and spiritual practice, as most religious belief systems have specific advocated values. Not only is self-regulation significant to an individual's behavior and social interaction, but to one's moral choices as well (Baumeister, Schmeichel, and Vohs 2009, 17). The goals that direct alteration of thought, behavior and emotions have a social and moral component to

it. To be able to live with the larger community, one has to choose what is acceptable, which is typically what is perceived to be correct. It will then be very difficult to “be blameless and pure” (Philippians 2:15) for those who are unable to initiate good works or manage natural impulses.

Physical Abuse

The lockdown placed Filipino children at greater risk for domestic abuse. Physical abuse has increased due to pandemic-induced stress. In addition, online sexual exploitation of children has been reported to increase since lockdowns were implemented. Reported cases of said abuse (983,734 cases) in March 2019 increased by 106 percent (2,202,520 cases) in March 2020 when most nations were already on lockdown (Brewster 2020). There is increased observed activity due to increased demand for online sexual services in the Philippines, which is considered the “epicenter” of said crime, according to the International Justice Mission (Sullivan 2020).

Crimes

In the Philippines, reported crimes against the rights of women are rapidly increasing. In 2008, the number of cases reported was 7,864. This increased to 49,883 in 2014. Increase in six years is at an alarming rate of 534 percent (Philippine Statistics Authority 2017, 17-14). Reported crimes against children in 2008 were 8,588. The number increased to 38,269 in 2014, an equally alarming 345 percent rate of increase (Philippine Statistics Authority 2017, 17-15). Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) identifies self-control, a component of self-regulation, as the most important factor in crimes.

The 2020 Report of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights raises concerns on human rights violations in the Philippines. According to the report, there has been a violation of “human rights, due process, the rule of law and accountability.” Among which are allegations on the violent measures taken as efforts to combat substance abuse (Human Rights Council 2020, 3-6). While investigations are ongoing, debates on both truth and acceptability of allegations call for moral evaluation.

Religious Practice

Considering concerns about moral decisions, both at the personal and national level, perception on religion and religious practice gives understanding. The Pew Research Center reports a “rapid” decline in Christianity in America from 2009 to 2019. The number of adults who identified themselves as “Christian” went down from seventy-seven percent to sixty-five percent, while those who did not affiliate with any religion increased from seventeen percent to twenty-six percent. Further, church attendance is also on a downward trend. Those who report attending church once or twice a month decreased from fifty-two percent to forty-five percent, while those who report attending a few times a year or less increased from forty-seven percent to fifty-four percent (Pew Research Center 2019, 3-5). Data from the Social Weather Station (SWS) reveal that the local Philippine scenario similarly shows a decline from 2015 to 2019. While seventy-three percent of adult Filipinos believe that religion is “very important” in 2019, it declined by ten points from the eighty-three percent result in 2015. Attendance to weekly services also declined and is “down to only minority since 2013.” In 1991, 66 percent attended religious services weekly. By the end of 2019, it was at forty-five percent (SWS 2020, 3-8).

With these pervading concerns at the global and national level, capacities that could either prevent or mitigate its impact will prove to be beneficial at the large scale. More specifically, this study is localized to the researcher's area of business and ministry, Taytay, Rizal. Its population is similar to that of the National Capital Region, which has the largest population among regions in the Philippines.

The Family Factor

The Bible reflects the importance of the family: members of the Trinity are called by familial roles (Matthew 28:19), the nation of Israel originated from the family of Abraham who was called to be "father of many nations" (Genesis 17:5), and New Testament believers were regarded as "members of his household" (Ephesians 2:19). As the nation of Israel possessed the promised land, they were given God's commands not only for themselves to observe but for their children to be taught (Deuteronomy 6:1-9).

Because the family is usually the first setting where learning occurs, its role in the development of individuals cannot be discounted. The parents especially, who are regarded as the first teachers, play a significant role in children's development as adults. Child-factors like temperament, cognitive capacity, age and gender interact with parent-factors like level of education, economic stability, temperament and socialization practice (Pleck 2007, 198-200). With changes in the societal landscape also come changes in the family structure and dynamics that contribute to children's development.

The University of the Philippines Population Institute shows provide evidence that an increasing number of Filipino children grow up in single family homes. Only sixty-five to sixty-eight percent live with biological parents, seven percent with neither

biological parent. Living conditions are due to parental employment, separation or death (University of the Philippines Population Institute 2022).

Views and data on the impact of the changing family structures, particularly non-resident father households, are conflicted. Organizations like The Father Involvement Research Alliance (FIRA) present statistics on “fatherlessness” and advocate for father presence and involvement.

Children with involved fathers are commonly expected to be at a physical, cognitive, emotional, social and economic advantage. The Father Involvement Research Alliance (FIRA) claims, “Children of involved fathers are more likely to have higher levels of economic and educational achievement, career success, occupational competency, better educational outcomes, higher educational expectations, higher educational attainment, and psychological well-being” (Carstens 2014, 15).

In his book *The World Needs a Father*, Kassie Carstens raises alarm over detrimental impacts of fatherlessness. Data from fathersforlife.org shows the following percentages of children coming from homes without fathers: “sixty-three percent of suicides, eighty percent of rapists, seventy percent of juveniles, eighty-five percent of children with behavioral problems, ninety percent of homeless children and seventy-one percent of children who do not finish school” (Carstens 2014, 10-11).

Some researchers, however, present contradicting data. A 1985 publication by Lamb, Pleck, and Levine warns against romanticizing increased father involvement as reviews of studies show no clear benefits of its benefit for children or influence in sex roles but may have indirect impact on child development mediated by other factors like its impact on the mother. While it results in closer relationships with children, they are

also perceived to be more punitive by their children. They also claim to have no solid evidence that children in mother-only or father-only homes are at a disadvantage, so long as socioeconomic support was available. Positive impact of father involvement is achieved if the conditions are aligned with the preferences and values of the family members (Lamb, Pleck, and Levine 1985, 229-260).

In their article “Deconstructing the Essential Father,” Silverstein and Auberbach contend the belief that “fathers are essential to positive child development” (Silverstein and Auberbach 1999, 1-2, 6). Little evidence supports that the distinct role of fathers, especially for male children, are necessary for the establishment of clear gender identity and that maternal and paternal roles are interchangeable. They cite research by Lamb that shows no significant difference between the parenting behaviors of mothers and fathers (Lamb 1987, 3-25). Claiming that neither parent is essential, the researchers highlight the need for “positive emotional connection” that may be provided by any caregiving adult (Silverstein and Auberbach 1999, 1-2, 6).

Adult-child relationships are essential in the development of preschool competencies, among which is self-regulation (Pianta 1997, 11). Self-regulation is the ability to adjust one’s behavior and affect to conform to a standard or achieve a goal and has been found to be a predictor of adult success and social integration. It develops during preschool years as an interplay of internal and external factors. The home environment, specifically one’s dynamics with parents, is crucial to its development.

Concerns in different domains of adult function are on the rise. Given the importance of self-regulation to development as functioning adults and fewer research made on fathers as compared to mothers despite seeming importance, research on the

relationship between father involvement and the development of self-regulation in early childhood may deem to be important.

Purpose of the Study

The study aims to explore quantitatively and qualitatively father involvement and the development of preschool children's self-regulation. It correlated via statistical analysis the self-regulation scores of children and father involvement scores, and tested for significant differences between self-regulation scores of children whose fathers are involved and those who are not. This study also explored qualitatively the elements of father involvement that may contribute to self-regulation.

Understanding how fathers specifically influence a preschool child's self-regulation will provide a basis for recommendations on how to equip fathers to maximize their influence in helping children successfully regulate themselves and how to empower members of father-absent families in strengthening children's self-regulation.

Statement of the Problem

The need for self-regulation cuts across sectors and domains and may prove beneficial to address societal concerns. This study seeks to explore the main question: what are the perceptions of select fathers in Taytay, Rizal, Philippines on their involvement and their preschool children's self-regulation? This research explores how father involvement is related to the development of self-regulation in preschool children and discover elements of father involvement that may play a role. Father involvement in terms of quantity and quality are explored, just as three components of self-regulation are considered—cognitive, behavioral and emotional.

Research Questions

This mixed quantitative and qualitative study answers the following questions:

1. How are father involvement quantity scores related to child self-regulation scores?
 - 1.1. How are father involvement quantity scores related to child cognitive self-regulation scores?
 - 1.2. How are father involvement quantity scores related to child behavioral self-regulation scores?
 - 1.3. How are father involvement quantity scores related to child emotional self-regulation scores?
2. How are father involvement quality scores related to child self-regulation scores?
 - 2.1. How are father involvement quality scores related to child cognitive self-regulation scores?
 - 2.2. How are father involvement quality scores related to child behavioral self-regulation scores?
 - 2.3. How are father involvement quality scores related to child emotional self-regulation scores?
3. Do children whose fathers have higher father involvement quantity scores have higher self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have lower father involvement quantity scores?
 - 3.1. Do children whose fathers have higher father involvement quantity scores have higher cognitive self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have lower father involvement quantity scores?

- 3.2. Do children whose fathers have higher father involvement quantity scores have higher behavioral self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have lower father involvement quantity scores?
- 3.3. Do children whose fathers have higher father involvement quantity scores have higher emotional self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have lower father involvement quantity scores?
4. Do children whose fathers have higher father involvement quality scores have higher self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have lower father involvement quality scores?
 - 4.1. Do children whose fathers have higher father involvement quality scores have higher cognitive self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have lower father involvement quality scores?
 - 4.2. Do children whose fathers have higher father involvement quality scores have higher behavioral self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have lower father involvement quality scores?
 - 4.3. Do children whose fathers have higher father involvement quality scores have higher emotional self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have lower father involvement quality scores?
5. What elements of father-child interaction contribute to the development of child self-regulation?

Null Hypotheses of the Study

In the quantitative comparison of self-regulation scores of low father involvement and high father involvement group, the following hypotheses were tested:

1. There is no significant relationship between father involvement quantity scores and child overall self-regulation scores.
 - 1.1. There is no significant relationship between father involvement quantity scores and child cognitive self-regulation scores.
 - 1.2. There is no significant relationship between father involvement quantity scores and child behavioral self-regulation scores.
 - 1.3. There is no significant relationship between father involvement quantity scores and child emotional self-regulation scores.
2. There is no significant relationship between father involvement quality scores and child overall self-regulation scores.
 - 2.1. There is no significant relationship between father involvement quality scores and child cognitive self-regulation scores.
 - 2.2. There is no significant relationship between father involvement quality scores and child behavioral self-regulation scores.
 - 2.3. There is no significant relationship between father involvement quality scores and child emotional self-regulation scores.
3. Children whose fathers have high father involvement quantity scores do not have significantly higher overall self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quantity scores.
 - 3.1. Children whose fathers have high father involvement quantity scores do not have significantly higher cognitive self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quantity scores.

- 3.2. Children whose fathers have high father involvement quantity scores do not have significantly higher behavioral self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quantity scores.
- 3.3. Children whose fathers have high father involvement quantity scores do not have significantly higher emotional self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quantity scores.
4. Children whose fathers have high father involvement quality scores do not have significantly higher overall self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quality scores.
 - 4.1. Children whose fathers have high father involvement quality scores do not have significantly higher cognitive self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quality scores.
 - 4.2. Children whose fathers have high father involvement quality scores do not have significantly higher behavioral self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quality scores.
 - 4.3. Children whose fathers have high father involvement quality scores do not have significantly higher emotional self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quality scores.

Should any of the null hypotheses be rejected as results of statistical analysis, the corresponding alternative hypotheses will be accepted:

There is a significant positive relationship between father involvement quantity scores and child overall self-regulation scores.

1. There is a significant positive relationship between father involvement quantity scores and child overall self-regulation scores.
 - 1.1. There is a significant positive relationship between father involvement quantity scores and child cognitive self-regulation scores.
 - 1.2. There is a significant positive relationship between father involvement quantity scores and child behavioral self-regulation scores.
 - 1.3. There is a significant positive relationship between father involvement quantity scores and child emotional self-regulation scores.
2. There is a significant positive relationship between father involvement quality scores and child overall self-regulation scores.
 - 2.1 There is a significant positive relationship between father involvement quality scores and child cognitive self-regulation scores.
 - 2.2 There is a significant positive relationship between father involvement quality scores and child behavioral self-regulation scores.
 - 2.3 There is a significant positive relationship between father involvement quality scores and child emotional self-regulation scores.
3. Children whose fathers have high father involvement quantity scores have significantly higher self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quantity scores.
 - 3.1 Children whose fathers have high father involvement quantity scores have significantly higher cognitive self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quantity scores.

- 3.2 Children whose fathers have high father involvement quantity scores have significantly higher behavioral self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quantity scores.
- 3.3 Children whose fathers have high father involvement quantity scores have significantly higher emotional self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quantity scores.
4. Children whose fathers have high father involvement quality scores have significantly higher overall self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quality scores.
- 4.1 Children whose fathers have high father involvement quality scores have significantly higher cognitive self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quality scores.
- 4.2 Children whose fathers have high father involvement quality scores have significantly higher behavioral self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quality scores.
- 4.3 Children whose fathers have high father involvement quality scores have significantly higher emotional self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quality scores.

Theoretical Framework

To understand the interaction between the concepts, independent theories for self-regulation and paternal involvement are used. An integrated model that shows the relationship between variables is presented.

Howard's Concept of Self-Regulation

The concept of self-regulation has been explored by several scholars including the late Albert Bandura. His work, which will be discussed in more detail in the next chapter, has been expanded to further account for components that were deemed limited in his proposition. This research will be using Steven Howard's concept of self-regulation, a refinement of Baumeister's theory which was grounded on Bandura's foundational work.

Baumeister's theory of self-regulation is similar to Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory of Self-Regulation in that it explicitly identifies two of Bandura's subprocesses: standards and monitoring. Willpower is a combination of the self-reaction subprocess and self-efficacy mechanism, and motivation is integrated across Bandura's three subprocesses.

Baumeister expands Bandura's theory by proposing that motivation is not only an influence but is actually the fourth element of self-regulation. While Bandura describes it as a linear process, Baumeister and Vohs consider these components or "ingredients" that are all necessary but may also compensate for each other. Baumeister and Vohs find that high motivation may compensate for low willpower but may not be enough to compensate for unclear standards. Motivational levels are influenced by circumstance just as willpower may also be depleted (Baumeister and Vohs 2007, 116-118).

A review of literature on self-regulation conducted by Baumesiter and Vohs reveals that it is described more often as a restraint of motivation. While motivation may serve its purpose, the need for self-regulation becomes necessary when "motivational conflict" arises, most commonly arising from natural instincts and sociocultural expectations. Culture puts in place systems for the benefit of the group. While it may

come at a cost for the individual at times, social connections are necessary for survival. Further, the authors introduce the concept of *ego depletion*, acknowledging that the capacity to self-regulate may temporarily be depleted by effortful choice (Baumeister and Vohs 2007, 115-126).

This model, albeit commonly used in the fields of education, psychology and research, is limited in that it covers only the “behavioral, social and emotional features of self-regulation” but fails to integrate the cognitive component. Hoffman and colleagues propose that “executive functions provide the ability to control attention and remain goal-directed despite competing stimuli and interests.” In the same way, this model is limited because it contributes only to the “capacity component.”

Howard and colleagues from Early Start, University of Wollongong in New South Wales, Australia have engaged in in-depth research on self-regulation to develop and make available assessment tools to accurately measure self-regulation in preschool children and recommended practices for adults. They define *self-regulation* as “the ability to control our attention and thinking, behaviors, emotional reactions, and social interactions, despite any impulses or distractions to the contrary (also termed self-control).” In early childhood, this is exhibited in directing and maintaining attention, rejecting distractions, persevering despite difficulty, initiating or resisting behaviors that are not aligned with goals. These abilities have been found to be predictors of positive outcomes in physical and mental health, academic performance and socioeconomic measures (Howard et al. 2020, 2).

With the overarching impact of the cognitive (executive function), emotional and behavioral constructs established by the meta-analysis conducted by Howard and

colleagues (Korucu et al. 2002, 9-11), the multifactorial concept of self-regulation was utilized for this study. The cognitive, behavioral and emotional components were used in the statistical analyses and discussions.

Noting that approaches that are focused on dysregulation or curricular in nature are inadequate and unsustainable, the researchers propose an approach that addresses all elements and integrates developmental knowledge. The Preschool Situational Self-Regulation Toolkit (PRSIST) is based on the belief that a child's social context, including adult practices, sets the conditions for the development of self-regulation. Approach should be "fun and playful" to sustain interest and motivation, accessible (free) and implementable by those who work directly with children. This approach seeks to address theoretical limitations of previously mentioned approaches, covering the cognitive, behavioral and emotional components of self-regulation. Specifically, the PRSIST program "provides educators with online professional development, to foster practices that set the conditions for optimal self-regulation" (Howard et al. 2020, 2-4).

Integrated Ecological-Parental Capital Theory

In 2007, Pleck proposed an improvement to the original Lamb-Pleck paternal involvement construct that focused on time spent with children to integrate a specific qualitative component and referred to the construct as "positive paternal involvement" (Pleck 2007, 196-197). Calling for an integrative approach, Pleck presents the following theoretical perspectives on possible benefits of father involvement for children: 1) Attachment Theory; 2) Social Capital Theory; 3) Ecological Theory; and 4) Essential Father Theory. The *Attachment Theory* posits that the formation of secure attachments in infancy through the "sensitivity" and "responsiveness" of caregivers is foundational to

future adult relationships. Previously assumed that children only form attachment with mothers, the Attachment Theory now recognizes that children not only form attachments with fathers but benefit from secure father-child attachments that result in positive outcomes in the child's cognitive and social development. This theory is limited in that the influence of father involvement applies only to early childhood and is "too narrow in its inherent scope" (Pleck 2007, 197-198).

Paquette, however, associates the Attachment Theory with the nurture and comfort provided by mothers, and proposes the *Activation Theory* that credits the father's "tendency to excite, surprise, and momentarily destabilize children" for positive interactions. Father-child bond is fostered by opening the child to the world physically and socially. Fathers provide opportunities for risk-taking through active play, thereby encouraging exploration, increasing self-confidence, understanding competition, regulating aggressive impulses, and dealing with threats all while ensuring safety through boundaries and limits established (Paquette 2004, 193-219).

The *Social Capital Theory* identifies the father to provide 1) financial and 2) social capital that comes in the form of parenting that results in socialization and community social capital through networks made accessible through them. Fathers' contribution is high for material capital, low for socialization and unclear for community network (Pleck 2007, 198-199).

Urie Bronfenbrenner's *Ecological Theory* defines systems that impact the child at different levels: microsystems, mesosystems, ecosystems, macrosystems and chronosystems. Within the microsystem which comprises the child's immediate relationships and interactions, Bronfenbrenner identifies "proximal processes" as

interactions between “an active, evolving, biopsychological human organism” and its surroundings undergoing “a process of progressively more complex, reciprocal interactions” (Bronfenbrenner 1994, 1644). Fathers interact with the child within the microsystem and may provide positive proximal processes through interactions that are “unique” to fathers, such as rough-and-tumble play (Pleck 2007, 199-200).

The *Essential Father Theory* asserts that gender difference in parenting exists and that marriage assures that men will take paternity responsibly and that male role models are necessary for masculine identity. Silverstein and Auberbach claim that these propositions are oversimplified and unsupported by empirical data. Neither parent is essential, and positive outcomes are attributed to consistency of relationship with a responsible and responsive adult, regardless of gender or biological relationship. Disadvantages of divorce may be more socioeconomic than paternal involvement-related (Silverstein and Auberbach 1999, 1-22).

Pleck continued the reconceptualization of the fatherhood construct, shifting focus from total amount of involvement to “positive engagement activities,” integrating a qualitative component. The original 1985 Lamb-Pleck model enumerates the following three components of paternal involvement: 1) paternal engagement, 2) accessibility and 3) responsibility (Lamb et al. 1985), while the reconceptualization shifts its focus to 1) warmth and responsiveness; 2) control; 3) responsibility (Pleck 2010, 67). *Warmth and responsiveness* are related to the frequency of the father’s positive activity with the child. *Control* involves monitoring and decision-making (Pleck 2010, 63-65). *Responsibility* is “the role father takes in making sure that the child is taken care of and arranging for

resources available for the child” (Lamb et al. 1985, 884) and involves indirect care and process responsibility as subdomains (Pleck 2010, 65-66).

Pleck adds *Parental Style Research* as a theoretical basis to understanding the reconstructed concept of father involvement. Broader in developmental scope than the Attachment Theory, the Parental Style Approach investigates the responsiveness and control dimensions of parenting. It is limited in providing the rationale behind its developmental benefits (Pleck 2010, 82).

Based on these theoretical foundations, Pleck proposes an integration through the *Parental Capital Model*. The theory identifies how the three components of paternal involvement (positive engagement activities, warmth and responsiveness, control) reflect the Authoritative Parenting Style and result in proximal processes that lead to positive child development outcomes (Pleck 2010, 84-87). Authoritative Parenting Style according to Baurind allows for independence while establishing limits and boundaries (Santrock 2007, 465-466). Financial capital is a form of indirect care through purchase of material necessities and coordinating access to services. Social capital is provided through the three components as proximal processes, as well as indirect care, considered “the key mediator of the extent to which the child gets the benefits of social financial capital,” through facilitating peer relationships (Pleck 2010, 86). Parental community capital extends beyond peer interactions and comes in the form of advocacy, provision of network access and sharing of knowledge. Advocacy and provision of network access come in the form of indirect care through facilitating non-peer community relations. Knowledge about entry into adult life is provided through the three components as part of the proximal process. This perspective differs from the Social Capital Theory in that it

considers the process by which information is taught by the parent, more than mere content. Process responsibility, which entails ensuring that the other components are provided for the child, results in indirect effects (Pleck 2010, 84-87).

Conceptual Framework

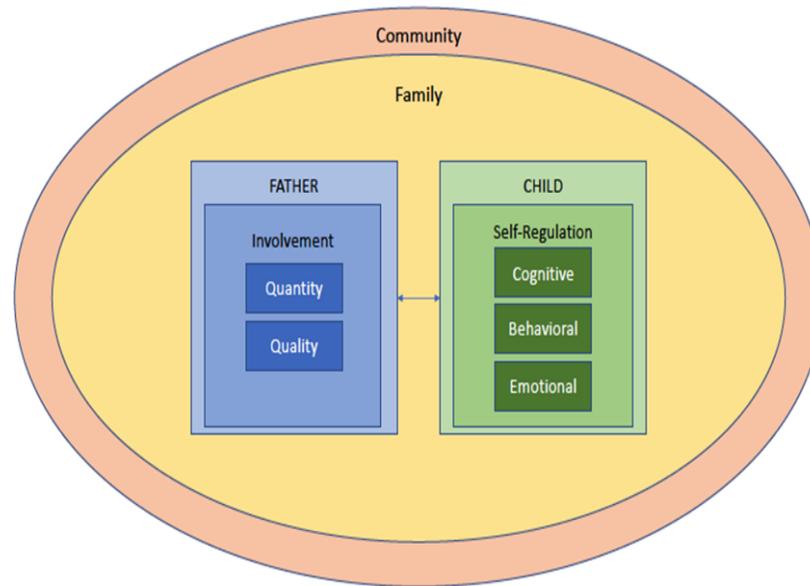


Figure 1. Conceptual Framework

A child's self-regulation, which operates the control of one's thoughts, behaviors and emotions to meet a goal, is impacted by the quantity and quality of a father's involvement. The quantitative component of father involvement covers the frequency of the father's engagement in tasks involving the child, while the qualitative component is described by father-child closeness. The father-child interaction is bidirectional, but only the possible influence of father involvement on the development of child self-regulation is covered in this study. The father-child unit exists within the family context, influenced

by its interactions with other sub-units. Further, other factors within society may also impact the interaction between father involvement and child-self-regulation.

Brief Description of Research Design

The study was conducted using a mixed quantitative and qualitative approach. Child self-regulation and father involvement were measured quantitatively via respective tools and analyzed statistically. Father involvement was measured in terms of quantitative involvement and quality in terms of closeness. Qualitative elements of father involvement were gathered via interviews with a family that scored high in father involvement and child self-regulation. The interview was conducted with the father, validated by an interview with the mother and child of the family with high child self-regulation and high father involvement scores.

A purposive selection of schools and participants was conducted to target the specific sample profile. Private Christian schools in Taytay were identified. Upon being granted permission to conduct the research, the father survey was distributed among fathers of preschool children either residing or enrolled in Taytay in the Rizal province.

Though father involvement has initially been attributed to quantity, research over the years has established the importance of the quality of father-child interactions when looking at father involvement. This study, then, looked both the quantity and quality of father-child interactions and its specific impact on the development of the child's self-regulatory functions.

Significance of the Study

Self-regulation is found to have pervasive effects on an individual. Starting its development in infancy through early childhood, it is said to have an impact on different areas on adult function and therefore has implications on individual functioning, such as maintaining good physical and mental health and maximizing cognitive ability and school performance. Moreover, effective self-regulation benefits the larger community through healthy social function, excellent performance at work, and unlikely criminal behavior and delinquency.

Early childhood is the critical period of development for self-regulation (LaVoie et al. 1976, 23-25; Montroy et al. 2016, 303; Kochanska, Murray, and Harlan 2000, 220-232; Dan 2016, 189; Berthelsen et al. 2017, 1-2) with significant changes observed to occur. It is therefore during this time that interventions might be most effective (Howard and Neilsen-Hewett 2018, 2).

This study looked at the relationship of father involvement and the development of self-regulation in children ages four (4). Self-control begins to appear as language develops around age five. Because executive attention develops significantly during the preschool years (Bridgett et al. 2013, 49), it should serve as preparation for higher demands of kindergarten and beyond (Eiden 2007, 2; Bocknek 2017, 106-109).

Psychological research on self-esteem and self-concept has been available but the importance of self-regulation has only been recently explored. In a study on self-control using delay gratification, children who showed stronger self-control through delay gratification were more socially competent, sexually restrained and encountered less behavioral and emotional difficulty (Mischel, Shoda, and Pecke 1989, 935-936). Hence,

the development of healthy self-regulation paves the way for future success (Baumeister et al. 2019, 5).

Because the relationship between levels of self-regulation and academic performance, physical health, substance abuse, delinquent behavior remains even after controlling for individual and contextual factors, Howard and Williams regard self-regulation as a potential target for intervention (Howard and Williams 2018, 489-496). McClelland and Cameron agree that long-term success in school may be achieved by strengthening self-regulatory behaviors and that low levels of self-regulation puts children at higher risk for difficulties (McClelland and Cameron 2011, 136-142).

The role of the family is undeniable. In recent years, a call for more research on the impact of fathers on its development is arising, especially with the increase of children growing up without their fathers, data to be beneficial to help manage and maximize self-regulation despite changing structures. Volling and colleagues recommend further study exploring how levels and quality of parent engagement contributes to the development of self-control. Similarly, they believe that the role of fathers in the development of self-regulation should be considered in future research (Volling et al. 2002, 447-465).

While research on parental influence on child behavior is a rich field, most studies involve mothers (Fitzgerald and Montanez 2001, 25-28; Driscoll and Pianta 2011, 6). Focus on mothers is a function of the “traditional” gendered expectations of fathers to provide financially for the family and of mothers to do the caregiving. However, structural societal changes have disrupted the traditional views of fatherhood and find fathers increasing in involvement with their children (Cabrera et al. 2000, 127-136).

Culture and economy are also areas that influence the transformation of the traditional function of the family, particularly the increase of women joining the labor force, acceptable non-marital living arrangements, and the availability of childcare (Cabrera et al. 1999, 1-14). As working women increase, more males become unemployed. As female profit increases, male wages are decreasing. The traditional male-earning family has transitioned to become dual-earning, changing the gender-determined roles within the family (Doucet 2020, 1-17).

The study of father involvement and its implications on child development is an area that has expanded over the past thirty years. Nonetheless, there remains a need for more literature that tackles specific elements of it, particularly its impact on child self-regulation. Children's self-regulation poses an area of fatherhood research that needs more attention (Blair and Diamond 2008, 899-911). The lack of attention given to paternal education (Levant 1988, 253-275) as well as the significance of their role may be the root of mental and psychological issues (Trowell 2003, 17).

Studies on father involvement should include both quantitative and qualitative elements (Cabrera et al. 1999, 5-8). Because their role and influences may be unique, for instance a higher level of engagement in physical play, their role in the development of self-regulation is worth exploring (Volling et al. 2002, 447-465).

The influence of father involvement should not be taken in isolation but within the ethnic and cultural context (Volker 2014, 6). The need for research is greater for Filipino fathers as only a few have been conducted (Alampay and Jocson 2011, 163-176).

Therefore, this study that investigated the quantitative and qualitative aspects of Filipino fathers' involvement on their preschool children's self-regulation is expected to be beneficial to the following sectors:

Children

Results of this study will allow practitioners to determine if, and in what way, father involvement makes a difference in the development of children's self-regulation. It will provide an understanding of specific ways a child's self-regulation may be influenced by fathers and serve as basis for recommendations for child carers on how self-regulation can be strengthened. Data from the study on the relationship of father involvement quantity and father involvement quality on a child's self-regulation will provide insight to individuals and groups that work directly with children and families for consideration in their programs and approaches, thereby benefiting the child indirectly.

With literature provided on the importance of early childhood in the development of self-regulation, attention and care to this age as a critical period will provide preschoolers more opportunities and interactions that promote self-regulation both within and outside the home context. The child will be able to maximize this period to strengthen their self-regulatory skills and reap later benefits that may contribute to their success.

Fathers and Father Surrogates

Results of the study have identified how quantity and quality of father involvement is related to the development of child self-regulation. The results will allow fathers to assess the quantity and quality of their involvement with their children and

adjust as necessary to better support the development of self-regulation in their children. Insights on the relationship of father involvement quality and quantity may guide fathers in deciding on their long-term priorities and details of their involvement with their children. Elements of father involvement shared by the interviewee family will inform and guide fathers on approaches that support the development of children's self-regulation and avoid practices that do not. These may be integrated in their overall approach to parenting and the simple daily interactions with the children.

Further, information presented on the relationship between the quantity and quality of father involvement gives insight not only to resident fathers but non-resident fathers as well. While the debate on the detrimental effects of having non-resident fathers continues, the size of the non-resident father population continues to rise (University of the Philippines Population Institute 2022). Quantitative findings of this study will inform nonresident fathers on how the frequency of their interactions and closeness with their children can promote the development of self-regulation despite not living with them. Given that father involvement quality is a greater risk factor, the elements of father involvement quality from the interview family can guide them on specific ways to father their children and maximize their time and interactions with them. Evidence-based approaches will increase their confidence in their parenting.

While the findings benefit non-resident fathers, these will also inform father surrogates such as grandfathers, uncles, cousins and stepfathers on ways that they can interact with preschool children with non-resident fathers, such that the impact of father involvement may be supplemented. While children's relationships with them might be in

a different form altogether, there are components of interactions and closeness with the child that can be augmented.

Mothers

Studies show that maternal expectations and attitudes influence paternal involvement. In the same way, father involvement indirectly benefits the child through its impact on the mother. Positive outcomes of father involvement occur when it is welcomed by the mother and perceived as helpful (Lamb et al. 1985, 3-25). Results of this study will inform and guide mothers on the specific relationship of father involvement quantity and quality, allowing them to adjust their attitude and mediating role accordingly. Results of the study might also dispel myths about father involvement that hamper benefits for children and give light to the justifiability of gender role expectations.

In the same way that the findings of the study may inform and encourage non-resident fathers, these will also inform and encourage single mothers in possible ways their children's fathers still may contribute to the development of their self-regulation. The relationship of father involvement quantity may inform them in deciding on custody or visitation arrangements. The importance of father involvement quality in the form of father-child closeness will inform them on areas they can either encourage more father-child involvement or where to step back to allow more meaningful father-child interactions.

The Family

The father-child unit operates within the family context. Data from this study will inform and guide the rest of the family members and relatives on how father involvement is related to the development of the preschool child's self-regulation. This will allow them to reflect on their own attitudes, behaviors and expectations both on father involvement and the development of the child's self-regulation and identify ways to specifically support both child and father. The findings of this study will allow other family members who exist in the Philippine context and likely influences by Filipino gender expectations on parenting to create or allow opportunities for increased frequency in father involvement and deeper father-child closeness.

In non-resident father households, other family members might take on the roles typically attributed to the father. Being informed on the value of father-child interactions, both in frequency and closeness, will make them more comfortable and encouraging in allowing non-resident fathers to have access to their children. The qualitative elements of father involvement that surfaced may dispel myths on parenting and gender expectations, allowing them to support the father-child dyad in ways that particularly encourage self-regulation.

Community

According to Urie Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Theory, larger system of the community exerts influence on the father-child unit (Bronfenbrenner 1994, 1644) and will therefore benefit from data collected that can specify ways of the relationship, if any, between father involvement and child self-regulation. To be discussed in the next chapter are perspectives and expectations the Filipino culture holds and promotes about family,

parenting and child development. Findings of this study may be used in evaluating approaches and attitudes that promote the development of healthy self-regulation and challenge those that do not. With this information, judgment on non-traditional approaches may be avoided or reduced. This will allow the community to provide the support needed by the evolving family for the development of healthier self-regulation of the child.

Child-Care Service Providers, Educators and Educational Institutions

With families transitioning to becoming dual earners (Lorenzo 1993, 50), the task of caring for the child is commonly given to childcare and educational institutions. While the study is specifically on father involvement, principles that prove to enhance the development of self-regulation may be adopted by educators and child-care practitioners. Findings on the qualitative elements of father involvement that support the development of strong self-regulation may also be beneficial to the children if adopted by other adult caregivers, particularly those in childcare centers, who at times also serve as surrogate parents.

Additionally, staff and the administration will benefit from the data as it will inform them of the relationship between father involvement and development of self-regulation. This can be considered in their design and implementation of family programs. With early childhood care typically attributed to the mothers, programs for both parents can provide information on the relationship of the frequency of father-child interactions and their closeness and provide concrete ways on how the fathers can

promote the development of self-regulation in children, and how mothers can support this.

Employers

Employers will have a basis for the review of how their company guidelines and policies directly impact the family and indirectly impact the development of self-regulation of the future workforce. Many employees are parents that balance between family and professional demands, and data from this study may guide employers on how work environment and expectations can be adjusted to support the father, traditionally attributed the provider role, to better be able to contribute to the development of healthy child self-regulation.

Health Care Professionals

As mentioned, and to be further discussed in the next chapter, poor self-regulation has implications on physical and mental health (Robson, Allen, and Howard 2020, 1-31). Understanding the development of self-regulation and the influence of father involvement on its development will guide health professionals in identifying possible non-medical causes of issues and take preventive measures for the individual and families. This study's findings, along with professional medical knowledge and experience, may guide the design and implementation of child and family programs by medical institutions. It may also promote partnership and collaboration between health care practitioners and the home and educational professionals.

Religious Institutions

Religious institutions have their own beliefs about the family, roles of their members and values that dictate their practices. Research-based information will create a common baseline on what attitudes and expectations should be promoted to help children better regulate themselves, and the position the father should take in terms of involvement. While most religious institutions view persons as spiritual beings, the other domains cannot be neglected. A perspective that integrates knowledge on other domains will open for a holistic approach to spirituality.

Considering that self-regulation has moral implications (Baumeister, Schmeichel, and Vohs 2009, 17), data may be used in evaluating current evangelism and mission programs, especially on the value given to early childhood and fathers. Although the concept may seem unrelated to theological concerns and spiritual objectives that drive structures and programs, results of the study may challenge certain priorities and approaches. Since self-regulation is found to be related to moral choices, knowledge on its development will allow religious leaders to expand programs to include young children, fathers and the family. Strengthening current child and family programs or creating new programs to promote healthy self-regulation in children as a means of strengthening their moral function may seem unconventional but might prove to be strategic.

Policy-Makers

Because the family exists and operates within the larger context of the nation (Bronfenbrenner 1994, 1644), socioeconomic and political factors influence both father and child. With concern of policy-makers being the collective well-being of the citizens,

data on long-term implications of the interaction of fathering and the development of child self-regulation will be useful in maximizing the nation's citizenry as well as address issues that can be prevented by early intervention through policies that not only take these factors into account but promote the elements that are helpful.

Findings call for emphasis on the early childhood period. This has implications on early childhood education and family programs currently offered to the public. The findings may serve evaluative and directional purposes to policy makers on objectives and approaches that will reap long-term benefits for the larger nation.

The Researcher

With more than a decade of experience of working with children, the researcher has observed challenges brought about by the failure to regulate one's thoughts, behavior and emotions. There are challenges in sustaining attention and making logical connections, establishing clear identity while interacting meaningfully with peers, and dealing with both positive and negative emotions. Further, the changing family structure and dynamics led to a desire to understand how self-regulation can be strengthened through immediate family interactions. This will be considered in the creation and implementation of child, parent and teacher programs to help create an environment that promotes and supports the development of healthy self-regulation in children who are hoped to be contributing members of society.

Assumptions of the Study

Results of multiple studies showing the relationship between self-regulation and different dimensions of development at different stages of development (childhood,

adolescence, and adulthood) and at different levels (personal and social) are bases for the significance and importance of a healthy self-regulation to develop during its critical period in early childhood. While the relationship of father involvement and development of child-self-regulation are variables specifically under study, the dyad is not taken in isolation. The parents, other family members and other factors within their environment are assumed to have an impact.

The researcher also recognizes that the recent COVID-nineteen pandemic creates a unique circumstance for families and children. Some elements, such as attitudes, emotions and behaviors, that may surface during data collection may be a result of changes and challenges brought by the global pandemic, during which the children in study were born.

This research is conducted with the following assumptions based on empirical data and expert opinion. Development of healthy self-regulation is critical during preschool years (VanDerhei 2017, 1-172; Watts, Duncan, and Quann 2018, 1159-1177; Mischel, Shoda, and Rodriguez 1989, 933-938; Berthelsen et al. 2017). Self-regulation develops in the context of family relationships and is influenced by its dynamics (Baumeister and Stillman 2013, 9). The following factors have influence in the development of self-regulation of children:

1. Gender of the child (Eiden et al. 2007, 51; Dereli 2016, 15; Montroy 2016, 3; Berthelsen et al. 2017, 10; Basten et al. 2016, 26)
2. Age (Mischel, Shoda, and Rodriguez 1989, 933-938; Berthelsen et al. 2017, 9)
3. Family composition (Baumeister and Stillman 2013, 8-9; Fitzpatrick 2009, 37; Bocknek 2017, 125; Guttentag and Alex 1997, 1-13)

4. Religion (Mendez and Jocano 1974, 273-275)
5. Socioeconomic factors (Dereli 2016, 51; Fitzpatrick 2009, 37; McClelland and Tominey 2011, 355-359)
6. Parents' level of education (Basten 2014, 26; Montroy 2016, 4; Watts, Duncan, and Quan 2018, 1160)

These assumptions were considered in the pursuit of this study. They were collected as part of the demographic data. All were used as selection criteria for participants, except for gender of the child which was used to describe self-regulation and father involvement levels.

Definition of Terms

Early Childhood- the period between three to five years old.

Family- group of people living together with the child and father participant who may or not be biologically related to each other.

Father- male parent of child participant, married or living together with mother of the child during time of data collection.

Father involvement- quantity and quality of father's involvement and engagement with his preschool child.

Father Involvement Quality- father self-report scores on their closeness with their preschool child as measured by the Child-Parent Relationship Scale Short Form and elements of father involvement as reported through interviews with fathers, mothers and children.

Father Involvement Quantity- frequency of father's involvement in tasks related to the child as measured by the FRPN Father Engagement Scale.

Non-Resident Fathers- male parent not living in the same household as the preschool child.

Parenting Style- “patterns of paternal authority” as classified by Baumrind into 1) Authoritative; 2) Authoritarian; and 3) Permissive (Baumrind 1971, 22-23).

Pre-Kinder- preschool level for four years old; children may already be four years old upon enrollment or will turn four within the school’s cut off period.

Resident Fathers- male parent living in the same household as the preschool child and the child’s mother.

Self-regulation- a child’s ability to direct thought, emotion and action toward a goal despite contradicting stimuli (Howard et al. 2020, 2); measured through the CSBQ scores.

Suburban Preschool Child in Taytay- a male or female child between ages enrolled in the Pre-Kinder level for School Year 2023-2024 who either resides in or is enrolled in a Christian preschool in Taytay, Rizal in the Philippines; age ranges between three to five years old.

Scope and Delimitations of the Study

The study explores the relationship between father involvement and the development of a child’s self-regulation. Father involvement was categorized into the quantity (frequency) and quality (father-child closeness) of father involvement. It covers cognitive, behavioral and emotional regulation as captured by standardized tools. Self-regulation in children is limited to scores that measure that measure cognitive, behavioral and emotional regulation in the Child Self-Regulation and Behaviour Questionnaire (CSBQ) and was not broken down into independent elements like attention, inhibition,

motivation, etc. Further, it is limited to father-report ratings collected in the online survey forms.

Father involvement covers the frequency of interactions as measured by the FRPN Father Engagement Scale but will not measure duration of interactions. Quality of the father-child interactions were measured through the Child-Parent Relationship Scale Short Form (CPRS-SF). This tool, established to have stable ratings, measures overall quality of relationships in terms of closeness and conflict (Driscoll and Pianta 2011, 2). This study, however, limits father involvement quality to scores for the closeness scale and does not include conflict.

Though tools are standardized, and pilot tests were conducted, there may be limitations when used in the Filipino family context. While the mother's perspective was gathered in the qualitative interview, information was used to validate father responses and further understand the involvement of the father with the child from a third-party perspective. This study will not cover the quantity and quality of mother involvement, nor will there be a comparison between father and mother involvement. Further, data analysis will not differentiate between male and female children.

The study is limited to Filipino fathers of male or female children aged four during time of enrollment for School Year 2023-2024 and enrolled in a private Christian school in the municipality of Taytay located in the province of Rizal in Region IV-A (CALABARZON). The specific locale was selected for better understanding of the researcher's work and ministry context. Further, the study is limited to families that adhere to the Christian religion to control for child rearing practices that might be related to religious practice and tradition.

This study is limited to preschool children aged four upon enrollment to a PreKinder class in Taytay. This age group was selected as rapid development occurs during this period (Berthelsen et al. 2017, 9). The study was limited to one level as age may pose as a factor in self-regulation because of its rapid development at this stage. Younger children might be limited in communication skills, both receptive and expressive, as well as comprehension in understanding questions and instructions. Older children, on the other hand, will have better self-regulation as a function of age.

Recognizing that family structure and dynamics have an impact on children, only fathers who are married or living together with the mother of the child and currently living with the child were considered. Non-resident father structures may be distinctly different in terms of father involvement, particularly in frequency. While economic factors may be a factor, this study comprises of a sample across household incomes due to availability of participants. Survey respondents who had lower than an associate degree were not included.

The Father Survey results are limited to fathers from the schools that have responded after several invitations through different modes (multiple email invites, printed letter, messages to social media accounts. In the same way, qualitative interview respondent is limited to one as sample has been exhausted. Respondents invited to the family interviews were only those who indicated willingness to participate in an interview in the Father Survey and those that fit the sampling criteria. Interview participants were limited to only the family with high child self-regulation and high father involvement scores. The group that rendered 1) low father involvement and high child self-regulation and 2) low father involvement and low child self-regulation were not

represented in the interviews as the respondents stopped responding after initial contact and agreement with the researcher to participate. None of the survey respondents who indicated willingness to be interviewed were from the low father involvement and high self-regulation group. The interviews were held in the researcher's workplace, as agreed upon by the respondent. Only children and mothers whose fathers or husbands expressed consent to take part in the study will be considered for the interview.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND STUDIES

Introduction

While self-regulation is found to be significant in child behavior, the concept pervades developmental stages and domains in terms of its impact. This chapter will discuss its definition, significance to adult development and theories explaining its mechanisms and functions. Factors that contribute to the development of self-regulation and tools designed to measure it will also be discussed.

In addition, father involvement in the context of the Filipino family—its description and dynamics—will be discussed thoroughly. Trends that have implications for the family will be presented. Further, a discussion of theories on the form and impact of father development will be done. With this study exploring the two concepts, and their relationship, studies showing the interplay of the two factors will conclude this chapter and give foundation for the research design in the next chapter.

Self-Regulation

Definition and Importance

As interest in self-regulation expands, multiple definitions are proposed. Baumeister, who has studied the concept of self-regulation extensively, defines it as the human capacity to alter behaviors to align with goals. Response or behavior is replaced with action that is not the likely recourse but regarded as more desirable by the individual

and, often, by the environment (Baumeister, Schmeichel, and Vohs 2007, 5; Baumeister and Stillman 2013, 1).

Considered as a person's capacity to control initial impulse and redirect into socially acceptable behavior to attain a goal aligned in consideration of future impact with a personally defined standard (Baumeister and Vohs 2007, 17; Bodrova and Leong 2005, 32), self-regulation is found to be critical to an individual's behavior, moral choices and social interactions. While the concept of "impulse control" is a common assumption for self-regulation, what is controlled is not necessarily the automatic impulse but the behavioral response to it (Baumeister, Schmeichel, and Vohs 2009, 17).

Some researchers like LaVoie (1976) use "self-regulation" and "self-control" interchangeably, but Baumeister and Stillman differentiate *self-regulation* to be conducted both consciously and unconsciously to align oneself with a standard, whereas *self-control* is the "conscious control of impulses" (Baumeister and Stillman 2013, 1). Duckworth understands self-regulation to cover a broader set of processes involved in goal attainment than self-control, motivation being one of the concepts (Duckworth et al. 2019, 375). Self-control is "self-initiated" and is only applicable to choices that are both relevant, with one having a higher value to the individual than the other.

Stephen Howard and colleagues from The University of Wollongong give an expanded definition of self-regulation as "the ability to control our attention and thinking, behaviors, emotional reactions, and social interactions, despite any impulses or distractions to the contrary" (Howard et al. 2020, 2). In early childhood, this is often observed as the ability to direct and sustain attention, reject distraction, and persevere in

difficult tasks. Moreover, it involved both initiating and eliminating actions that are incongruent with one's immediate objectives (Howard et al. 2020, 2).

As with Howard, Ludwig defines the broad concept of self-regulation to refer to three processes: 1) cognitive self-regulation; 2) behavioral self-regulation; and 3) emotional self-regulation (Ludwig 2017, 17-18). Guttentag and Alex validate the latter two (Guttentag and Alex 1997, 25). Nigg defines *cognitive self-regulation* as the directing and sustaining of attention (Nigg 2017, 361-383). *Behavioral self-regulation* is the control and alteration of response to impulses into acceptable actions (Denham et al. 2012, 386-404; Nigg 2017, 361-383). *Emotional self-regulation* is the “modulation, experience and expression of emotions” (Gross 2014, 3-20; Morris et al. 2007, 361-388). It is important to treat each type independently as they may predict different outcomes. For instance, advanced learners were found to be higher in cognitive self-regulation but lower in behavioral self-regulation (Howard and Vasseleu 2020, 7).

A group of researchers, among them was Howard, recently conducted a comprehensive meta-analysis of 150 studies revealed the predicting ability of preschool self-regulation across developmental stages in four categories: 1) achievement; 2) interpersonal behaviors; 3) mental health; and 4) healthy living. Childhood self-regulation is positively related to academic performance, mathematical or literacy or vocabulary skills, intelligence, school engagement, completion of tertiary education, social competence, sleep, physical activity and overall physical health. Self-regulation was found to be negatively related to unemployment, being victimized by peers, internalizing and externalizing problems, aggression and criminal behavior, symptoms of anxiety, depression and suicidal thoughts, body mass, and use and abuse of alcohol,

cigarettes and substances. More specifically, preschool self-regulation at age four was analyzed to determine associations relating to achievement, personal wellness and social function. Children who had high self-regulation during preschool at age four were more likely to have higher social competency, school engagement and academic performance and less likely to have internalized and externalized problems and become victims of peers at age eight. They are more likely to have better academic achievement, less aggressive behaviors and depressive symptoms, less delinquent behaviors and lower use of substance, and less likely to be obese at age thirteen. As thirty-eight-year-old adults, they are less likely to be unemployed or obese, and less likely to exhibit symptoms of physical illness, depressive and aggressive behaviors, criminal activity, and less likely to be observed smoking, alcohol and substance (Robson, Allen, and Howard 2020, 2-47). These results provide evidence for the importance of child self-regulation to later adult outcomes.

A linked concept to self-regulation and self-control is one's capacity to postpone satisfaction of a need to achieve a higher goal called "Delay of Gratification." Mischel, Shoda and Rodriguez (1989) initiated the classic "Marshmallow Test" in an effort to understand the individual child, viewed by society from the Freudian lens as driven by impulse, unaware of reality, and because is operating on the pleasure principle, is unable to delay gratification of desires (Mischel, Shoda, and Rodriguez 1989, 933; Santrock 2007, 39). Delay of Gratification (DoG) is essential to self-regulation and is defined as "postponing immediately available gratification in order to attain delayed but more valued outcomes." The exercise of this intentional goal-oriented ability that is incongruent with impulses has created interest in developmentalists, especially that it

seems to be linked to mental health, resilience, social function, addictions and aggression. It is also interesting how some who exercise said capacity for most circumstances fail at others (Mischel, Shoda, and Rodriguez 1989, 933-938).

The four-year-olds who could wait were reported ten years after to fare better than their counterparts and are described to perform better academically, cognitively and socioemotionally. They were stronger in the following cognitive abilities: directing and sustaining attention, communicating and expressing ideas, rationality, planning and competence. Further, they were found to be more mature socioemotionally, particularly in the following abilities: interacting socially, coping with frustration, resisting temptation, dealing with stress, and being assured of oneself (Mischel, Shoda, and Rodriguez 1989, 933-938).

Interestingly, a few seconds of delaying gratification during preschool translated to higher points for the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT). Some weaknesses in the study, however, are pointed out by Watts and team. The experiment being done in the Stanford community limits its generalizability. Among children who were able to wait, those who were successful in future methods were only those who completed the task without any aid in coping, the size of the sample being small. Although variance was significant, scores were also found to be related to other competencies (Mischel, Shoda, and Rodriguez 1989, 933-938).

Functions

“Self-regulatory systems lie at the very heart of causal processes. They not only mediate the effects of most external influences but provide the very basis for purposeful action” (Bandura 1991, 248-249). Forethought is a cognitive mechanism that enables

purpose through the cognitive representation of effects of actions, identifying benefits and serving as a guide (Bandura 1991, 248-249).

In a study of 932 ethnically diverse American preschool children, Korucu and colleagues deconstructed self-regulation to identify its compositional structure. Using a bifactor model, they measured as independent constructs the children's executive function, behavioral regulation and emotional regulation and explored how it predicts academic achievement and socioemotional skills and if an overarching construct was at play. Data was collected through child task performances, adult checklist reports, and achievement tests and analyzed using bifactor models. Statistical results showed an overarching construct albeit unclear what but also reflected that executive function and emotional regulation had distinct variances (Korucu et al. 2022, 1-14).

Cognitive

A study on the cognitive function of adolescents shows that high attaining maximum performance of the executive function is better addressed during early childhood than waiting until adolescence. Strengthening self-regulation during early childhood may prove to be beneficial in adolescence (Berthelsen et al. 2017, 9-10). Schmeichel and colleagues assert that depletion of self-regulatory resources may weaken cognitive functioning that requires transformation of ideas but does not affect "simple forms of thinking." In addition, an individual's capacity for "self-involvement in memory" is also reduced (Baumeister, Schmeichel, and Vohs 2009, 37-38).

A study by Duckworth and Seligman (2005) shows self-regulation to predict academic performance better than intelligence (Jaramillo et al. 2017, 1-9; Baumeister and Stillman n.d., 1). Specific areas of cognitive function that are found to be related to self-

regulatory function are “language, mathematics, reading and literacy skills” (Jaramillo et al. 2017, 1). Similarly, a quantitative study with a sample of 210 children in first and second grade from Pakistan revealed that self-regulation skills had a significant impact on the children’s academic performance (Kathawala and Bhamani 2015, 37-42).

Behavioral

A child’s ability to regulate emotions at age four is found to be related to their capacity to adhere to teacher instruction at age six and think reflectively in middle and high school. If poor regulation manifested is assumed to be simply due to developmental maturity, ADHD or aggression, and therefore not appropriately addressed, impulsive behaviors may persist (Bodrova and Leong 2005, 32-33). A study that monitored the impact of a classroom program intended to strengthen self-regulation in kindergarten children identified to have “highly impulsive behavior and difficulties in self-regulation” revealed an improved self-regulatory function in the children, an indication that adult intervention have a positive effect, even for those whose challenging behaviors have exceeded normative levels (Dan 2016, 198).

A study of 199 elementary school children showed that regulation and emotionality predicted the likelihood of problem behaviors. Data on regulation, emotionality and problem behavior were collected through parent and teacher reports and laboratory child observations. An association between low regulation and high frequency of problem behaviors was found (Eisenberg et al. 1996, 145-160).

Associations between self-regulation and academic achievement surface in literature. Recent research by McClelland and others identifies self-regulation as a predictive factor to academic achievement. However, the researchers claim that the

pathways are yet to be validated, acknowledging the complex compounded effects of other factors. An article by McClelland and Tominey discusses various research on the development of self-regulation during childhood and its impact on academic success. Contributory factors to academic success that surfaced were “attention, social and emotional responses and quality of relationship with the teacher” (McClelland and Tominey 2011, 355-359).

Similarly, Duckworth and colleagues discuss the role of self-control in one’s academic achievement and define self-control as “self-initiated regulation of thoughts, feelings, and actions when enduringly valued goals conflict with momentarily more gratifying goals.” This definition is analogous to Howard’s definition of self-regulation. It is important in academic achievement because its future benefits of good performance are valuable, though tasks relevant to it may not be enjoyable to the student at the moment. The use of social media, for example, may be gratifying for the individual now, but not as valuable as one’s desire to become a doctor in the future, hereon labeled as Academic Goal. Actions that help achieve the goal (Academic Goal Congruent/ACG) are weighed against actions that do not help attaining the goal (Academic Goal Incongruent/AGI). Examples of ACGs are reviewing for exams, finishing homework, attending classes and working on projects, while examples of AGIs are socializing with friends, watching TV or Netflix, skipping class or resting. Though distractions have always competed with schoolwork, it has evolved with the entertainment made available by technology, particularly the use of mobile phones. Impulse response proceeds in a loop that involves four stages, according to Duckworth and colleagues: 1) presentation of a situation; 2) directing attention to an element of the situation; 3) appraisal of the

element paid attention to in relation to the goal; and 4) “direct modulation of response.” Self-control strategies are applied progressively to each stage if ineffective in the previous stage (Duckworth et al. 2019, 373-399).

Contrary to findings of McClelland and Tominey, and Duckworth et al., results of Degol’s study show that self-regulation in children did not predict positive academic outcomes nor good quality romantic relationships or desirable workplace behaviors, even after controlling for relevant factors. The researcher attributes the result not to the possibility of other factors collectively impacting the child until adolescence such that self-regulation may not reflect to have impact on adolescent outcomes but may have been an element along the way. There was also no indication that teacher-child relationship moderated a child’s academic involvement, nor that parent-child relationship moderated an adolescent’s quality of romantic relationships (Degol 2013, 1-132).

With the assumption that obesity is a function of behavior and choice, a comparison of two intervention programs intended to prevent obesity was proposed to be conducted among 600 low-income preschoolers. Evidence-based approaches were to be used in both interventions. One intervention utilized obesity prevention behaviors. The other intervention utilized the same behavior combined with another evidence-based approach that strengthened self-regulation (Miller et al. 2012, 1-9). However, results from the actual implementation showed that while there was an improvement in preschool self-regulation in the intervention group that targeted both obesity and self-regulation, there was no significant decrease in obesity in that group (Lumeng et al. 2017, 1).

In addition, self-regulation serves as a moral agent in deciding on behavior that is considered by the person and/or society as “transgression.” When an individual’s personal moral standards are violated, emotions are triggered, especially if the behavior is harmful (Bandura 1991, 275-277).

Several behaviors that Howard and colleagues have found self-regulation to predict have moral elements. Victimizing peers and externalized behaviors at eight years old can be predicted by early childhood self-regulation. Children with higher self-regulation were less likely to victimize peers and show problematic behaviors. Use of substances, manifestation of aggression and criminal behaviors at thirteen years old and thirty-eight years old are also predicted. Children with higher self-regulation are less likely to use substances such as cigarettes, alcohol and drugs, and less likely to manifest aggression and be convicted of crimes (Robson, Allen, and Howard 2020, 2-47; VanDerhei 2017, 1-172).

Koniar finds that convicted criminal psychopaths were found to have low self-regulation. The cognitive and behavioral dysfunctions were associated with psychophysical defects that lead to “disinhibited antisocial and violent behavior” (Koniar et al. 2015, 1-7).

By definition, self-regulation alters behavior to allow better function within a social group. Social function is then enhanced by self-regulation by mitigating behaviors that are considered unacceptable as they lead to social rejection. The cognitive function of self-regulation plays into the assessment of information and the impact of one’s decisions or actions. Values may be influenced by the “personal standards” one sets based on this assessment (Bandura 1991, 253-256).

Emotional

Self-regulation mechanisms have an affective impact through how it influences motivation for performance and “psychological well-being.” As Bandura claims, a large portion of human difficulties are in a way self-inflicted through inefficient use of self-regulatory processes. Unreasonable and unrealistic standards set for oneself result in stress, discouragement and a low view of oneself. Further, the same measures are used to evaluate the performance of others. Low levels of aspirations and evaluation of an individual’s performance leads to low levels of motivation, interest, confidence in one’s capacity and dependence on internal over external factors more (Bandura 1991, 273-274).

Research shows that people who are poor at self-regulation are more prone to depression. Inaccurate perception of their attainments and memories thereof lead to feeling discouraged and inadequate. A person is likely to fall into depression when “personal standards of merit are set well above one’s perceived self-efficacy to attain them.” Depression then becomes a function of high personal standards and low view of self. People more prone to depression are more prone to self-blame in comparison and self-depreciation (Bandura 1991, 274). On the contrary, individuals with high self-regulation show higher self-satisfaction and better quality of life (Jaramillo et al. 2017, 1).

Self-regulation is speculated to serve an evolutionary function for survival. Belonging to a group, which is necessary for survival, requires an individual to manage his behavior to sustain acceptance in the group. Inability to restrain oneself in favor of the group terminates membership, often leading to expulsion from the group. Self-regulation facilitates relationships by enabling an individual to restrain impulses that may be

harmful and engage in activities that are helpful. While there are no studies on the genetics of self-control at the moment, social exclusion is still observed in cases where an individual fails to adhere to group behavior (incarceration, negative attitudes received) (Baumeister and Stillman 2013, 5).

Self-regulation facilitates social interactions in several ways. It influences what and how a person projects an image of oneself to others. It also enables an individual to maintain relationships by accepting negativity, sharing credit and keeping committed. It also plays a role in keeping one's stance and overcoming stereotypes. Just as self-regulation is necessary for inclusion functions, efforts to exclude others require self-regulation as well (Baumeister, Schmeichel, and Vohs 2009, 41-48).

While the home environment is found to be a significant factor in a child's development, a child's behavior is also a contributory factor to the well-being of the family and its members as determined by the Systems theory. Baumeister and Stillman observe that the relationship between self-regulation and close relationships is bidirectional: good self-regulation is helpful in close relationships, and close relationships strengthen self-regulation (Baumeister and Stillman 2013, 1).

Self-regulation is essential to attaining organizational goals. Success in achieving set outcomes is dependent on the management's effective assignment of manpower according to skill and increasing effort through guidance and motivation. Organizational belief systems may also affect the level of self-regulation utilized for motivation and action (Bandura 1991, 265-266). In a call to establish firm guidelines and standards for chiropractors, Perle and Cole call on fellow professionals to exercise self-regulation in

their profession. They appeal, “We are expected to police ourselves with respect to fraud, abuse and unethical behavior” (Perle and Cole 2007, 1-5).

McClelland proposes an understanding of self-regulation in the context of a culture, presenting a bidirectional influence between the individual and culture it exists in: culture affects individual self-regulation through expectations just as how one self-regulates affects one’s context. Different cultures communicate different expectations and values. In the West, for example, verbal expression of emotions and opinions are encouraged, while in the east, interpersonal harmony is more valuable (Jaramillo et al. 2017, 1-9).

Children who effectively regulate themselves have higher social competence. When children are unable to develop the capacity to self-regulate, they are prone to social rejection (Jaramillo et al. 2017, 1-9) and problematic behavior as adults such as crimes, substance abuse, unemployment and mental illness (Flanders et al. 2010, 357-367).

Theories

Implicit Bargain Theory

The Implicit Bargain Theory, where a trade-off is the primary mechanism, explains self-control as intentional effort and mindful sacrifice of elements beneficial to oneself in exchange for the group acceptance that comes with it. Certain “freedoms” are surrendered for social benefits. Individuals unable to control themselves are rejected by the group in the same way that rejection can also negatively impact the capacity to control oneself (Baumeister and Stillman 2013, 15).

Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory of Self-Regulation

Albert Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory of Self-Regulation provides significant insight to understanding self-regulation. It discusses internal and external influences and expressions, considering their interplay and highlighting motivational and self-efficacy mechanisms. Bandura describes self-regulation as a cognitive function that enables an individual to change behavior through three subfunctions: 1) self-monitoring; 2) judgment; and 3) self-reactive influences (Bandura 1991, 250-253).

The *Self-Monitoring Subfunction* regulates performance by providing information needed for the attainment and evaluation of goals. Information is taken depending on its importance to the attainment of the goal and processed using "pre-existing cognitive structure and beliefs" that determine the attention given, perception and organization of information. This subfunction serves the purposes of (1) self-diagnosis and (2) self-motivation. The observation of one's thoughts, emotions and actions as well as contextual information serves the self-diagnosis function by surfacing patterns and irregularities that start a cycle of "corrective change" until goals are attained. This then leads to "goals for progressive improvement." While there are different ways people set goals, a comparison of those who set goals and those who do not shows that those who set more challenging personal goals had an increase in effort exerted. Factors that influence the impact of the performance feedback on self-directed change are (1) its informativeness, (2) temporal proximity, (3) motivational level, and (4) valence of the behavior. Information that shows there is clear progress, consequence that is closer to the behavior, desire to change behavior, and high value placed on the behavior will lead to more likely result in change. Individuals differ in orientations with those with a firm self-identity more likely to be

internally directed by personal standards and others to be more externally directed by social cues (Bandura 1991, 250-253).

Information collected through the first sub-function does not in itself produce self-reactive change but goes through the *Judgmental Subfunction* that are determined by (1) personal standards, (2) “social referential comparisons,” (3) significance, and (4) “perceived performance determinants.” Personal standards are developed through reactions of significant persons, social sanctions, direct instruction, and modeling. Social referential comparisons place one’s performance against others in similar positions (*social comparison*), one’s past behavior (*self-comparison*) and group performance (*collective comparison*). Activities that are significant to one’s welfare and self-esteem will likely lead to self-evaluative reactions. Performance associated with personal activities or efforts are more likely to elicit stronger self-satisfaction, and therefore more self-reactions, than those deemed to be due to external support (Bandura 1991, 253-256).

These performance judgments are then subject to *Self-Reactive Influences*. According to Bandura, “self-regulatory control is achieved by creating incentives for one’s own actions and by anticipative affective reactions to one’s own behavior depending on how it measures up to an internal standard.” Positive self-reactions are pursued while self-censure is avoided. Self-incentives, tangible or intangible, serve a motivational function. Anticipated satisfaction increases the likelihood of attaining the performance goal, while anticipated dissatisfaction decreases this likelihood. Success in regulating both motivation and behavior is determined by the effective use of self-incentives (Bandura 1991, 256-257).

Self-Regulatory Strength Theory

Resources are required to sustain self-regulation or self-control. When these resources are low due to an intense or consistent task that requires self-regulation, the likelihood of failing to regulate is high. To replenish depleted resources, time without resource requirement is needed (Baumeister, Schmeichel, and Vohs n.d., 1-55). High cognitive functioning results in faster depletion of resources; hence tasks that are “well-learned” require less resources (Barutchu et al. 2013, 1-10).

Test-Operate-Test-Exit (TOTE) System

The Test-Operate-Test-Exit illustrates self-regulation as a cyclical process. The first **Test** phase is an assessment of one’s situation in relation to the goal where there can be a comparison of the present state with the desired state. The process is terminated if there is no difference but proceeds to the **Operate** phase otherwise. The individual acts toward attainment of the goal. Because this step is conscious and intentional, it requires self-regulatory functions. Another **Test** is done to evaluate if the action was effective to bring oneself closer to the goal. If discrepancy is still detected, the individual reverts back to operate and will **Exit** only if the state and goal are the same (Baumeister and Stillman 2013, 2-3).

Development

A developmental approach to self-regulation is important to its understanding. In children especially, the capacity for self-regulation varies distinctly at each stage (VanDenhei 2017, 7). Using data from National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD), VanDerhei looked at data at the same three phases Watts and

colleagues did, adding a fourth phase during 3rd to 5th grade. Data from the first three phases indicate that self-regulation is rather stable across childhood. Adolescent adjustment was predicted by a child's self-regulation during early and middle childhood. Self-regulation during early childhood was related to (1) positive attitude about school, (2) aggressive behaviors and (3) antisocial behaviors but proved to be related to demographic characteristics. Academic achievement, on the other hand, is predicted by self-regulation during middle childhood. Nonetheless, the impact of self-regulation during childhood may be considered an indicator of later adolescent adjustment (VanDerhei 2017, 1-172).

Development of self-regulation begins in infancy throughout childhood but with rapid development at ages four to five (Berthelsen et al. 2017, 9). In a study looking specifically at the development of self-regulation in childhood and its trajectory curves, Montroy and colleagues gathered a sample of 1,386 children aged three to seven as literature indicates that during this time children “typically progress from reactive or coregulated behavior to more advanced, cognitive-behavioral forms of behavior.” The method used was the HTKS (Head, Toes, Knees, Shoulder) Task where the child was asked to touch a part of the body different from what was identified. The task was intended to measure attention (directing and sustaining focus on a stimulus), working memory (the ability to process the current trial while holding a rule or set of rules in mind), and inhibition (resisting a natural or learned response to respond otherwise). To control effects of language, vocabulary ability was determined using validated tests—the Picture Vocabulary subtest of the Woodcock Johnson III and the Test of Preschool Early Literacy picture vocabulary subtest. Findings show that behavior self-regulation develops

exponentially, not in a linear fashion, validating previous studies that most rapid development occurred during preschool years and continue to develop as they progress to kindergarten (Montroy et al. 2016, 1-7).

Child Factors

Age

A study of toddlers across ten years revealed that increased externalizing behaviors at age two may be a predictor of emotional, academic and social problems at age ten. Results of the study proved the eight-year span from two to ten as critical in the development of strong self-regulation that will equip them to handle more challenging emotional, relational and social demands (Perry 2018, 1548-1551).

With age comes the development of cognitive processes. Children also become aware and learn how to use strategies for self-regulation. Another Stanford study of four-year old children showed that there was a movement from preferring less effective strategies to more effective ones within a year. In another study of older children (six to twelve), children's awareness of strategies enabled them to delay gratification longer (Mischel, Shoda, and Rodriguez 1989, 933-938). Further, the preschool age is critical to their development of emotional understanding and regulation (Dereli 2016, 43).

While some studies suggest that dysregulation (clinically defined in DSM-V) emerges after seven years old, a factor analysis of conditions that emerge in children ages two to five pose the possibility of its emergence during the preschool age (Basten 2014, 29). Manifestation of poor regulation can be *internalized* (i.e. anxiety, depression) or *externalized* (aggression, hyperactivity, impulsivity, etc.). Internalized and externalized behaviors are not only found to be "co-occurrent," but to be stable from age 1.5 to age six.

Further, it was also found that co-occurrence is related to stability of behaviors. Seventy percent of three-year-old children who showed both internalizing and externalizing behavior still showed the same behaviors at age six. This period should be noted in intervention and prevention (Basten 2014, 102-117).

In a study of parent-child responsiveness, Wilson and Durbin found that children's response to parent requests increased with age (Wilson and Durbin 2013, 249-279). Similarly, a study among American parents of children between ages two and eight showed that older children exhibited less regulatory problems than younger children (Piotrowski, Lapierre, and Linebarger 2013, 429).

Gender

Gender seems to be a factor as girls seem to show better self-regulation than boys (Eiden et al. 2007, 51; Dereli 2016, 15; Montroy 2016, 3; Berthelsen et al. 2017, 10; Piotrowski, Lapierre, and Linebarger 2013, 429). Research by Basten on children exhibiting emotional and behavioral difficulties confirms this as results of the study show boys to score higher in dysregulation (Basten et al. 2016, 26).

Probable reason for the discrepancy is the difference in cultural expectations from males and females. A study of ninety toddlers showed girls to be more compliant both to mothers and fathers, more involved and engaged socially in play. Concurrently, fathers were observed to show significantly more warmth and sensitivity to daughters than to sons, while there was no difference between mothers' treatment of girls and boys (Feldman and Klein 2003, 685). Aligned with this are results of Easterbrooks and Goldberg's (1984) study that found, in addition to the significance of father involvement in the development of toddlers, a negative correlation between father involvement and

encouragement of independence only for boys, and not for girls (Easterbrooks and Goldberg 1984, 740-752).

A study on the trajectory of the development of self-regulation shows that girls show rapid growth earlier than boys, implying a need for support for boys in the development of self-regulation skills needed for kindergarten. Gender differences in two of the three samples emerged across kindergarten and later years (Montroy 2016, 3). In addition, boys may respond to adverse experiences more negatively than girls. The advantage, however, reverses in adolescence (Berthelsen et al. 2017, 10).

Verbal ability

Language is proposed to be an effective tool to help young children develop self-regulation and make positive independent choices (Cheyney 2013, 11-17). According to Vygotsky, language equips the child to “organize and modify thoughts and behaviors.” It allows a child to identify his or her current state (i.e. label emotion), and adjust one’s thinking and action (Montroy 2016, 4; Stosny 1998, 55). Receptive language at age four to five is related to a child’s level of self-regulation (Berthelsen et al. 2017, 9), and in the same way, children who can express themselves are also better able to self-regulate. A reciprocal interaction between self-regulation and vocabulary is observed (Uka 2017, 89; Montroy 2016, 4, 13; Berthelsen et al. 2017, 9).

In relation, children scoring high in the Child Behavior Checklist Dysregulation Profile (CBCL-DP) scored lower in non-verbal intelligence compared to non-problematic children and those with other problem behaviors. Researchers chose tasks that did not require verbal ability to eliminate differences due to language comprehension and expression. It must be noted, however, that though the size of the sample makes the study

strong, low scores in non-verbal intelligence may be due to difficulty in motivation and attention. Low scores were not, however, linked to conditions like Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) or Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD) and make them at risk for academic difficulty. The possibility of dysregulation and non-verbal intelligence to be linked neurodevelopmentally is proposed (Basten 2016, 60-73).

Cognitive ability

Intelligence was found to be bidirectionally linked to inhibitory control, though no relationship was observed between intelligence and other elements of self-regulation. This indicates that intelligence may enhance the development of self-regulation over time, and that self-regulation may enhance intelligence over time (Uka 2017, 90-92).

Attention, a cognitive function, is identified by Mischel, Shoda and Rodriguez (1989) as crucial to self-control, validating earlier claims that it was the “crux of self-control.” It was initially hypothesized that children utilize attention toward the desired outcome to sustain delay; however, follow up studies show shorter delays when the more desirable reward is visible or directed toward verbally. Children who were able to delay in the task were observed to direct their attention (through vision) away from the treat and distracted themselves by talking, singing, playing with their hands or feet or attempting to sleep (Mischel, Shoda, and Rodriguez 1989, 933-938; Berthelsen et al. 2017, 2). Another factor is their ability to represent rewards symbolically in their minds. Children who were directed toward abstract elements of the rewards were able to wait an average of an additional thirteen minutes (Mischel, Shoda, and Rodriguez 1989, 933-938).

Neural functions

In a study on neural mechanisms, Chéca and associates found that a more efficient engagement of the Executive Attention Network (EAN) leads to better self-regulation (Chéca et al. 2014, 1-13). Together with choice, it comprises an individual's executive function that allows him or her to have a degree of control of himself and the environment (Stosny 1998, 109). More specifically, the development of self-regulation is associated with the development of the prefrontal cortex, which is the same neurological faculty associated with "intelligence and academic skills" (Anderson 2002).

A study of the neural activity of criminal psychopaths, most of whom score low in self-regulation, shows an improvement in self-regulation skills after "Slow Cortical Potential (SCP) Training." The region of the brain trained is the fronto-central area, which is associated with regulatory functions. Training of said area gave the criminals a greater control of "cortical activity" (Konicar et al. 2015, 1-7).

Temperament

Literature notes that early negative emotionality is a risk factor to poor regulation, making children more prone to later problematic behaviors. Mary Rothbart, however, challenges the concept of "difficult temperaments" in infants that were presented by Thomas, Chess and Korn raising questions about methodology and connotations. She calls for a focus on specific behaviors instead (Rothbart 1982, 35-40).

Zenter and Bates present a review of the five common approaches to child temperament as basis to a proposed integrated approach: 1) The Child Psychiatric Approach by Alexander Thomas and Stella Chess; 2) Criterial Approach to Temperament by Buss and Plomin; 3) Temperament as Variability in Developing Emotion Systems by

Goldsmith and Campos; 4) Neurobiological Developmental Approach by Rothbart, and Biotypical Approach to Temperament by Kagan. Based on criteria based on the different approaches, Zentner and Bates identify the following traits as components of temperament: 1) behavioral inhibition (fear); 2) irritability or frustration; 3) positive emotionality; 4) activity level; 5) attention or persistence; and 6) sensory sensitivity. The researchers hope to such insights will help child carers better understand children's temperament and thereby equip them in overcoming challenges pertinent to their temperaments as some problems may not necessarily be due to the child's temperament itself but the "lack of fit between the children's temperamental characteristics and the caretakers' responses." (Zentner and Bates 2008, 7-30).

Parent Factors

Educational attainment of parents

A study of self-regulation in early childhood identified parent educational levels to be among family risk factors to self-regulation (Cadima et al. 2016, 349). Congruently, Basten observed that children who scored high in dysregulation, majority of which were males, had mothers reported to have a lower educational attainment (Basten 2014, 26). Particularly, educational attainment of mothers is seen as an indicator of the family's socioeconomic status, hence a lower maternal educational attainment is associated with lower self-regulation in children.

Educational attainment of mothers is linked to other factors that are also linked to self-regulation, among them are expressions of warmth, responsiveness, use of rich language and capacity to sustain a child's attention. Children who showed earliest development in self-regulation had mothers who had the highest educational attainment,

which influences the quality of a child's environment that facilitates regulatory development (Montroy 2016, 4). This may be a consideration in the replication conducted by Watts and colleagues of Mischel and colleagues' study on delay gratification where they focused on performance of children whose mothers did not finish college (Watts, Duncan and Quan 2018, 1160).

A longitudinal study of children from low-income families at one year, two years, and PreKINDER, showed that the educational attainment of resident fathers was a predictor of cognitive abilities, language, emotional regulation and orientation engagement. In addition, the level of supportiveness of fathers was a predictor of cognitive capacity, language, social and emotional development during younger years (Cabrera, Shannon, and LeMonda 2007, 211-212).

Filipino parental involvement varies according to parent educational attainment. Parents with non-formal education are involved through provision of basic needs, with little intentionality on child socialization. Parents are permissive with young children but implement stricter discipline when they start engaging children in economic activities by age seven. Parents with college degrees balance between practicality and morality. Their education makes them more intentional in their approach of their children's character development secularly (Mendez and Jocano 1974, 273-275).

Family structure

The marital status of parents is also related to boys' self-regulation: boys who live with both parents show better self-regulation (Fitzpatrick 2009, 37). In addition to warm relationships, the predictability brought by structure and routine contributes to positive self-regulation (Bocknek 2017, 125). Guttentag and Alex found that both parent-child

interaction and marital interaction are predictors of a child's behavior and affect (Guttentag and Alex 1997, 1-13). Father involvement in the marital dyad is asserted by Bailey (1994) as the important factor it brings in infant mental health (Bailey 1994, 331-339).

Further, the home structure and routines also serve as contributing factors to self-regulation. In a study of children between six and sixty months, daily activities were recorded to describe structure and routines and relate to the development of self-regulation. Results showed that settings with structure and routines in place encouraged more regulated behavior (Taylor 2011, 1-136).

Substance use and mental health

Fathers' alcoholism indirectly affects children's externalizing of behavior problems during kindergarten, which may be a function of the child's poor self-regulation during preschool (Eiden, Edwards and Leonard 2007, 1-25). Basten observes that child dysregulation is associated with psychiatric problems in both parents (Basten 2014, 30). Results of findings of study by Berthelsen and colleagues, however, show no significant relationship between mothers' mental health and children's regulation (Berthelsen et al. 2017, 7).

Among three contributory elements to externalizing behaviors among children explored by Fitzpatrick, previous externalizing by parents was found to be of greater influence than parenting and child self-regulation (Fitzpatrick 2009, 1-89). Further, household chaos was inversely related to a preschooler child's emotional and behavioral self-regulation, but not to cognitive self-regulation (Ludwig 2017, 25).

Parental attachment

Bowlby's Attachment Theory asserts that the establishment of secure attachment in infancy through the caregiving system is critical to later academic and social success (Bowlby 1982). It also leads to lower levels of anxiety and emotional barriers in learning and better peer relations (Wood 2007, 223-242). A study by Drobetz and colleagues showed a link between the duration of breastfeeding, which is an element in parent-child attachment, and child emotional regulation (Drobetz, Maercker, and Spiess 2012, 1-37).

Self-regulation emerges during infancy and is first observed in the practice of compliance in infant-mother interaction. Kopp marks the child's second year to be when self-control is attained (Kopp 1982, 199-214), and Kochanska identifies its initial manifestation to be internalization through compliance, which are distinct motivationally (Kochanska 1995, 236-254). "Situational compliance" is adherence to parent request without internalization, while "committed compliance," where a child has internalized the request and therefore acts volitionally, develops during preschool age. Internalization of parental rules is found to be related to parenting styles, with children responding more in compliance with higher levels of sensitivity and limits (Feldman and Klein 2003, 680).

Parenting style

In a study that investigated factors related to self-regulation of children between two and eight years old, correlations between self-regulation and Baumrind's three parenting styles were determined (Piotrowski, Lapierre, and Linebarger 2013, 423).

Diana Baumrind from the University of California, Berkeley published a monograph in 1971 where she identifies "patterns of paternal authority" that are referred to at present as "parenting styles." To distinguish between the parenting behaviors among 146 families

and its impact on preschool children's behaviors, Baumrind identified three distinct patterns: 1) Authoritarian; 2) Authoritative; and 3) Permissive. Authoritarian Parenting is associated with control, compliance with set standards, punishment and force to achieve compliance. It involves “inculcating beliefs,” imposition of parent’s views and gives little room for dialogue. Authoritative Parenting is associated with guidance, reason, and verbal dialogue. The authoritative parent balances between “autonomous self-will and disciplined authority.” There is an acknowledgment of the child’s capacity and establishment of reasonable standards as guide. Permissive Parenting, on the other hand, is associated with tolerance and affirmation of the child’s impulses, desires and actions. The parent consults with the child on decisions and does not require responsibility from the child and does not impose control (Baumrind 1971, 22-23).

Guided by this framework, a meta-analysis of 41 studies involving preschoolers explored associations between self-regulation and parental control and responsiveness. Parenting was categorized into positive control, negative control and responsiveness. Self-regulation was categorized into compliance, inhibition and emotion regulation. A preschool child’s self-regulation was significantly associated with positive and negative parental control but was not significantly associated with responsiveness. More specifically, negative control had significant negative associations with compliance but was not significantly associated with inhibition and emotion regulation. Positive control was significantly positively correlated with compliance but was not significantly associated with inhibition and emotion regulation (Karreman et al. 2006, 561-575).

A study among infants measured negative emotionality at seven months, their responsiveness at fifteen months and their self-regulated compliance at 25 months later.

Results indicated negative emotionality as a moderating factor to compliance. Responses of children with high emotional negativity differed, however, showed higher self-regulation in responsive relationships than in nonresponsive relationships. Children prone only to emotional negativity showed no association between their responses and self-regulation. Children prone to negative emotionality were more responsive to the quality of maternal care. Interestingly, the study found that “in mutually positive, reciprocal mother-infant dyads, remarkably, highly emotionally negative infants outperformed those who were less negative.” While the results show only associations for mother-child dyads as they were observed to more attuned to and supportive of infant cues, this validates that while children may have propensity toward certain behaviors, environmental factors such as parent-child interaction contexts may alter these propensities (Kim and Kochanska 2012, 1-13)

In a sample of third grade students and their parents, Grolnick and Ryan explored how parenting styles in the form of support for autonomy, involvement and provision of structure support the development of children’s self-regulation and school competence. They found that an authoritative parental approach results in more “self-reliant and independent” children, while an authoritarian approach results in children who are “withdrawn and discontent.” Among the three components, support for autonomy was most consistently related to autonomous self-regulation, competence and adjustment. Results showed that the greater the parental support for autonomy led to higher autonomous self-regulation, better school performance and less acting out in their children. While there was no significant overall effect of parental involvement that surfaced, it was noted that involvement of mothers were more important predictors of

self-regulation and competence. This is attributed to their higher involvement and more active interactions with toddlers and young children (Grolnick and Ryan 1989, 143-154).

In an interesting study of the impact of positive and negative parenting on abused children, children who received positive parenting (apart from the abuse) can regulate better (Kim et al. 2012, 1-23). Harsh discipline was inversely related to a preschooler child's cognitive and emotional self-regulation, but unrelated to behavioral self-regulation. Inversely, a positive relationship was found between child-centered communication and a preschooler child's cognitive and behavioral self-regulation, with no indicated relation to emotional self-regulation (Ludwig 2017, 26).

A doctoral dissertation by Katja Ute Ludwig (2017) explores self-regulation in pre-school children through the discussion of three of her publications. The first publication shows variability in intrapersonal self-regulation. The second publication shows a positive association between physical activity and positive affect at the interpersonal level. No direct associations between physical activity and self-regulation were found at both levels, while positive associations between positive affect and self-regulation were found at both levels. The third publication shows that parenting has an impact on self-regulation (Ludwig 2017, 6-35).

Congruently, parental harshness, though not maltreatment, affects children's emotion regulation and aggression more because of the anger communicated. Specifically, mother's harshness is positively correlated with children's emotion regulation while father's harshness is associated more with aggression, especially for sons (Chang et al. 2003, 598-606). Children found to be highly dysregulated have parents who score high in affective symptoms and hostility (Basten 2014, 28). On the contrary,

results of Ludwig's and Berthelsen et al. study show parental warmth and inconsistent expression of discipline to have no evidenced link to any form of self-regulation in the preschool child (Ludwig 2017, 26; Berthelsen et al. 2017, 7).

Chang and colleagues find in a Chinese setting that harsh parenting affects a child's self-regulation and aggression, the former more affected by maternal harshness and the latter more affected by paternal harshness. Harsh parenting is described as "harsh, overactive, emotionally negative, coercive, controlling or authoritarian." Parenting behaviors are generally classified into "coercive acts" and "negative emotion expressions." Maternal harshness affects both males and females, while paternal harshness affects male children more than female children. Harsh parenting serves as a model of dysregulation to children (Chang et al. 2003, 1-15).

A longitudinal study on maternal intrusiveness had thirty-seven participants whose mothers were high in intrusiveness, interference and inconsideration in infancy. Results supported previous findings that associated high intrusiveness with maladaptation in early school years, with risk being higher for boys as it prevents mutual regulation (Egeland, Pianta, and O' Brien 1993, 363-367).

A longitudinal study that examined the relationship between overcontrolling parenting and emotional regulation and inhibitory control to determine the implications of parenting in toddlerhood on the child's transition to adolescence. "Overcontrolling" or "intrusive parenting" hampers a child's development of self-regulation because parental intervention is provided before children can regulate their own emotion or behavior (Fox and Calkins 2003, 7-26). Results of the study show that overcontrolling parenting is negatively associated with emotional regulation and inhibitory control at age five. The

same group of children have greater difficulty in managing demands and transitioning to preadolescence, posing more difficulties socially, emotionally and academically (Perry 2018, 1551).

Other External Factors

Socio-economic status

Other external factors significant in the development of self-regulation have been identified. Family income is a risk factor (Dereli 2016, 51; Fitzpatrick 2009, 37; McClelland and Tominey 2011, 355-359) while quality of classroom interactions is a protective factor (Cadima et al. 2016, 352). Ludwig's study shows a positive association between socioeconomic status and a preschooler and adolescent child's cognitive self-regulation (Ludwig 2017, 26; Berthelsen et al. 2017, 3, 9).

Culture

Jaramillo and colleagues raise concern over the fact that most research and theory on self-regulation are from Western contexts and call for attention to the cultural aspect in the development of self-regulation. The researchers attribute this to the typical developmental approach to understanding self-regulation and failure to consider the evolutionary need to live in larger groups, thereby having more need to understand the needs and behavior of the larger group. The concept of the "ideal self" by Higgins is largely influenced by the values and practices of a culture and influences personal goals that become a consideration when regulating. Upon thorough discussions of cultural elements in the development of emotional regulation, behavioral regulation, executive function, attention and display of attention, the researchers call for a cultural approach to

understanding the factors contributing to self-regulation which is a function of socialization (Jaramillo et al. 2017, 2-7).

Exercise of self-regulation involves alteration of impulse response to a socially acceptable or desirable behavior. One's propensity to exercise this capacity may be affected by how much an individual values social appraisal and adherence to the demands of society (Baumeister, Schmeichel, and Vohs 2009, 50).

Parenting practices influence both motivation and expectation of children. For instance, "rules, rituals and roles" will facilitate self-regulation in interdependent cultures but might be misconstrued to coerce and undermine autonomy in more independent cultures (Trommsdorff 2009, 687-701). Regulation of behaviors are directed to promoting harmony in Asian cultures and promoting autonomy in Western cultures (Trommsdorff 2011, 19-26).

Parenting on the cultural dimension is classified either as independent or interdependent in terms of priorities. Directionality of *independent parenting* socializes the child into a "self-contained and unique agent," while *interdependent parenting* directs children into their roles and interactions in the larger groups. Independent parenting is observed by urban segments of Western society that are more educated and financially able, while interdependent society is observed more in rural areas where people are less educated and have fewer financial resources. Direct interactions and body contact differ with different goals of socialization. Eye contact and positive emotions promote the child's self-concept necessary to becoming an independent entity; while physical closeness promotes interdependence (Eickhorst et al. 2008, 92-107). Societies that value smooth interpersonal relations call for higher self-regulation skills (Baumeister,

Schmeichel, and Vohs 2009, 50). Belen Medina observes Filipino parents to be “shifting their childrearing orientation from dependency to independence, from restrictiveness to permissiveness, from extreme control to autonomy, and from authoritarianism to liberalism and individuality” (Medina 2001, 237).

Self-Regulation Measures

Self-regulation may be tested through the conduct of an experiment or having a questionnaire answered. Different stimuli or tasks that will elicit use of self-regulation are presented in the laboratory. Self-report questionnaires are attractive because of ease of conduct but are subject to bias (VanDerhei 2017, 13).

“Go/No Go” Task

For the “Go/No Go Task,” participants are given instruction to perform an action given a certain stimulus and withhold an action given another stimulus (VanDerhei 2017, 14). The classic game “Simon Says,” where the participant is to do the action expressed by the leader if the sentence begins with “Simon says . . .” but to refrain from any action if it is a plain imperative sentence.

Stroop Paradigm

MacLeod (1991) as cited by VanDerhei (2017) describes the Stroop Method is where a participant is asked to only focus on one aspect or element of a stimuli, striving to ignore other input (VanDerhei 2017, 14). The Head-Toes-Knees-Shoulders (HKTS) Test may be classified under the Stroop Paradigm. The Head-Toes-Knees-Shoulders (HKTS) Test has been used to measure self-regulation in children (Cadima et al. 2006, 347; Duncan, McClelland, and Acock 2017, 21-30). It comes in three parts where the

children are asked to touch their head, toes, knees and shoulders using different instructions. For the first part they are asked to touch their toes when the word “head” is called out and the other way around. The second part has the same instructions where knees and shoulders are interchanged. The last part combines the two portions and swaps the matches. Three skills classified as executive function are necessary to perform the motor task: 1) attention; 2) working memory; and 3) inhibition (Lewis and McClelland 2015, 1-7).

Child Behavior Checklist Dysregulation Profile (CBCL-DP)

Developed by Thomas Achenbach, the Child Behavior Checklist is a widely used parent-report measure used to evaluate externalizing and internalizing behaviors in children (Inter-University Consortium for Political and Social Research, n.d.). In a compilation of studies on self-regulation, Maartje Basten published an extensive study of children with poor self-regulation where they related how children with “juvenile bipolar disorder” scored high in poor regulation of emotions, attention and behavior in the Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL) but did not manifest manic behavior. Due to this, they cannot be classified into bipolar disorder, hence resulting into the condition being classified as “dysregulation.” Because of lack of research in dysregulation in young children, research was done with children from five to seven years old (Basten 2014, 9-10). Results of CBCL-DP show likelihood of being inherited and consistent through development, being associated with later problematic behaviors, including propensity toward suicide. The researchers concluded that children who scored high in the test also proved to be problematic via DSM assessment and other reports (Basten 2014, 61, 130).

Pre-School Self-Regulation Assessment and Emotion Regulation Checklist

Cadima used the Pre-School Self-Regulation Assessment (PRSA) by Smith et al. (2007) and Emotion Regulation Checklist (Cadima et al. 2006, 348). The Pre-School Self-Regulation Assessment was designed and standardized by Radiah Smith-Donald, Cybel Raver, Tiffany Hayes and Breeze Richardson for implementation in the preschool context. A child is asked to perform tasks to evaluate regulation of emotion, attention and behavior (Institute of Human Development and Change 2019). Unlike the PRSA that measures multiple domains of regulation, the Emotion Regulation Checklist is designed to measure “intrapersonal competencies” for older children (ages 6-12) through scales reported by adults (RAND Corporation 2019).

Child Self-Regulation and Behavior Questionnaire (CSBQ)

The Child Self-Regulation and Behavior Questionnaire (CSBQ) is part of the Early Years Toolbox (EYT) that was developed by Howard and colleagues at the Early Start Program at University of Wollongong, New South Wales, Australia as a response to the lack of an appropriate and standardized tool that is appropriate and sensitive to the developmental needs and capacities of young children. Its length is appropriate for young children and the format is playful and engaging. Valid and reliable for use with young children, the tool is also potentially applicable to international populations (Howard and Melhuish 2017, 259).

The EYT captures self-regulation (cognitive, behavioral, emotional), executive function, as well as language and social capacities. To address current issues in assessment, the duration, instructions and mechanisms were made appropriate to the

young child. Apart from being developmentally appropriate and sensitive, it also maximizes technology for engagement. In 2017, Howard and Melhuish conducted an evaluation of the tool with a sample of 1,794 preschool children aged 2.5-5 across four Australian states that replicated the Australian socioeconomic, parent educational and racial distribution. Results “indicated very good reliability, convergent validity with high-profile existing measures, and developmental sensitivity across half-year age groups” (Howard and Melhuish 2017, 259-269).

Preschool Situational Self-Assessment Toolkit (PRSIST)

Developed by the same group who created the CSBQ, the Preschool Situational Self-Regulation Toolkit (PRSIST) is an observational tool designed to measure the 1) cognitive; 2) behavioral; and 3) social components of self-regulation (Howard, Nielsen-Hewett, and Vasseleu n.d., 1-43), as covered in this study. It is part of the Early Start Program at University of Wollongong that provides resources and recommends activities for children and practices for adults to strengthen child self-regulation through play-based and low-cost approaches by providing materials for both adults and children. It seeks to promote and assess a child’s behavioral, cognitive and socio-emotional self-regulation (PRSIST n.d.). The Preschool Situational Self-Regulation Toolkit (PRSIST) Assessment measures self-regulation in the following domains: 1) cognitive; 2) behavioral; and 3) socioemotional. It comprises of two tasks: 1) a memory game; and 2) curiosity boxes. (PRSIST n.d.).

The *Memory Game* requires a group of four children to go around in turns clockwise flipping only two cards to find a pair and move to the next person should their choices not match. The *Curiosity Boxes*, on the other hand, is done one-on-one by the

adult with the child. The PRSIST Formative Assessment Tool enumerates nine questions about the child's performance in the Memory Game and Curiosity Boxes. Observer rating ranges from one (low) to seven (high). An online training for users is provided with an interrater score.

The program comprises instructional videos and twenty-eight play-based child activities. An assessment of the PRSIST program among 473 three to five-year-old children from fifty randomly selected preschools and tested against a control group using typical practice and found that showed a significant improvement in executive function in the test group that implemented the program over a course of six months. Self-regulation and school readiness also increased but not significantly (Howard et al. 2020, 2-12).

Child self-regulation has been found to pervade several areas of adult development and success and developed through the interplay of different factors. It is found to serve multiple functions and can be measured using different tools. With these established for one of this study's two variables, the next section proceeds to discuss the second variable.

Father Involvement

The Biblical Patriarchs

With the origins of God's people, the nation of Israel, traced to the patriarchs, looking into their involvement as fathers will give Biblical insight to the socio-developmental concept in study. The lives and experiences of Abraham, Isaac and Jacob is explored in terms of paternal practice and its impact on their children.

The involvement of Abraham, referred to as the "father of many nations" (Genesis 17:5), is observed to be different between his sons Ishmael and Isaac. For Isaac,

it was in the form of attention, provision, and intervention in finding for him a wife. For Ishmael, it was through prayer and religious instruction. For both, Abraham modeled faith and provided religious education (Bunge 2001, 8-9). Paternal failure was in the form of unequal privileges between Isaac and Ishmael, seemingly abusive behavior in the binding of Isaac (Somerstein 2008, 13), and lack of provision for Ishmael when he was sent away.

In a similar way, Isaac as a father modeled devotion to God and affection, particularly to Jacob, one of his twin sons. His paternal failure was in the form of passiveness when he dug old wells instead of finding new ones (Somerstein 2008, 11), and silence when Esau married pagan women (Genesis 26:35) and when Jacob stole Esau's birth right (Genesis 27:1-46).

Jacob, as a father, generally paid attention to details of his children's lives and called out bad behavior. However, he showed extreme favoritism between his wives, loving Rachel more than Leah (Genesis 29:31). Jacob also showed extreme favoritism among his sons, causing jealousy by loving Joseph more than his other sons (Genesis 37:3-4) and being silent when Joseph should have been corrected for his attitude, making his other sons more resentful. Nonetheless, he modeled perseverance and faith, like Abraham and Isaac. Further, in his final words to his sons, he called out bad behavior and he directed them to the future through his blessings (Genesis 49:1-33).

About God's commands to His people, Moses instructs the Israelites to "teach them diligently to [their] children" (Deuteronomy 6:7). According to Scripture, parents were to fulfill several responsibilities. Ephesians 6:4 says that fathers are to "bring them up in the training and instruction of the Lord." This includes "to lead, pray, dedicate,

provide, love, enjoy, model, worship, discipline, encourage and teach.” Explicit instruction on God’s character, works and commands as well as godly behavior are among their roles (Zuck 1996, 107-143).

The Filipino Family

The family is identified by Bronfenbrenner as influential to development as one of the microsystems where key interactions occur (Bronfenbrenner 1994, 1644). In early childhood, “children’s social world is highly condensed around their parents” (Fereira et al. 2018, 731-743). Their concept of themselves, which is foundational to an “individual’s psychological structure” and future social interactions, is developed in this context and “will determine the breadth and depth of the child’s social and relational world” (Simonič 2015, 109-121).

The concept of the family has evolved with changing trends in economic and social conditions. Conventional components that require common residences, purposes of reproduction and economic sustainability, sexual relations, and the structural roles of parents and children, have now given way to the recognition of nontraditional family structures like the single parent and migrant families (Medina 2001, 12-14).

The Filipino family, called “*mag-anak*,” integrates the family of origin and procreation in the sharing of resources, responsibilities, and residence. Non-blood related members such as household helpers may also be accommodated into the unit (Medina 2001, 17-20).

Filipinos have been noted to be “family-oriented.” Zaide published in 1989 a study about Filipinos from the lowlands. He described the Filipino family to be typically nuclear and Christian. Some families are made bigger by extended family members via

lateral or generational relations. For the Filipino, happiness is rooted at home. Such is the regard for the family that monogamy is the norm and no legal dissolution of the marriage because it is regarded to be permanent (Zaide 1989, 29-37; Mendez and Jocano 1974, 51). With family being a resounding theme in the Filipino culture, understanding its distinct characteristics will help in the understanding of the Filipino child.

Roles

Literature is mixed in the discussion of family dynamics distinctly affected by roles. “Traditional” roles of childcare for the mother, and breadwinning for the father is still prevalent in current research, though evidence of movement toward more egalitarian non-gendered roles is also surfacing.

Theoretically, Filipinos believe in egalitarian parenting. Fathers are expected to provide financially but also help in caregiving. However, even when mothers have expanded their role to include breadwinning, they remain to be the primary caregiver, resulting in more emotional and psychological connection with their children (Liwag, Dela Cruz, and Macapagal 1998, 27-30). Although expectations of Filipino mothers vary from financial management and domestic maintenance (Zaide 1989, 30-31), the caregiving role may also be shared by grandparents, relatives and household helpers due to more women joining the labor force (Medina 2001, 218-221).

According to Zaide, the Filipino father is seen as the theoretical nominal head who makes major decisions, giving the family a sense of security through his provision of basic needs and implementation of discipline. In practice, however, the mother is the center of family affection and operation (Zaide 1989, 30-31; Mendez and Jocano 1974, 49, 272). A study by Dalisay (1983) shows 45 percent of fathers with infants below one

year old to be involved in child rearing. Final behavioral discipline is also commonly delegated to fathers (David 1994, 78).

Studies that evidence the traditional roles of mothers and fathers are referenced, but research that shows “more egalitarian gender roles” from parents with higher education and income are also discussed. Fathers who are “younger and more educated” to be more involved in childcare. In comparison, however, mothers hold more modern views in childrearing than fathers. Mothers, who may be more exposed to modern childrearing practices, were more likely to allow children independence and self-expression. Nonetheless, both mothers and fathers hold to the same authoritarian attitudes (Alampay and Jocson 2011, 163-176).

Birth, for Fox (2009), markedly delineates the distinction between maternal and paternal roles due to the biological aspects of pregnancy, childbirth and breastfeeding that are all heavily on the mothers, making the family a “gendered institution” (Eerola 2014, 308-324). The Child and Youth Welfare Code of 1976 directs to the parents the responsibility to educate and discipline children (Medina 2001, 218-221).

Gender socialization starts with parental modeling. Despite demands in time and energy, dual earner families may hold more egalitarian views and may exert greater effort to attain balance hence may show little difference in involvement of mothers and fathers (Fereira et al. 2018, 731-743).

Lamb, Pleck and colleagues, on top of their attempt to deconstruct the “Essential Father Theory,” asserts that fathers may just be as competent as mothers in childcare but lack the opportunity to practice strengthening this skill. Compared to other species,

human fathers are more involved in childcare and compared to mothers, they spend 25-35 percent of their time in direct child involvement (Lamb et al. 1985, 883-895).

Gender Expectations

Gender of both parent and child is a pervading factor in parent-child interactions. Mothers and fathers treat their sons and daughters differently. Mothers' involvement was more in caregiving while that of fathers was more in physical play (Driscoll and Pianta 2011, 6-7). Fathers are reported to be less involved with their children, reflecting traditional expectations for mothers to fulfill caregiving roles despite the capacity of both parents to do so (Eerola 2014, 308-324; Moon and Hoffman 2008, 261-279). Review of past studies reveals a difference both in quantity and quality of parent-child relations (Driscoll and Pianta 2011, 7).

While the concept of gender (femininity or masculinity) has traditionally been associated with sex (woman or man), results of Valledor-Lukey's study show otherwise. There was no significant difference between males and females in almost all feminine and masculine subscales, meaning both men and women can exhibit both feminine and masculine traits. However, the Filipino concept of self is largely influenced by expectations attributed to their role as man or woman. Valledor-Lukey states, "The language used to characterize Filipino masculinity and femininity continue to promote stereotyped views and expectations of men and women in the collectivist Filipino society" (Valledor-Lukey 2012, 77-79). The Filipino gender concept was expounded by Jimenez, attributing to femininity behavioral attributes of being "modest, refined and demure" and to masculinity physical attributes such as being strong, muscular and healthy (Jimenez 1983, 91-100).

Medina notes how male children are raised with breadwinning as goal, and female children to become wives and mothers (Medina 2001, 227). On the other hand, Liwag and colleagues observe both to be aspired to be provided with education (Liwag, Dela Cruz, Macapagal 1998, 5). Further, Guthrie and Jacob observe an equal treatment between both genders until age five (Guthrie and Jacobs 1966). Gender differences appear in play, tasks and discipline. Girls do domestic-related play (role-playing household characters, doing chores) while boys do “rougher, more daring, and more action-filled activities” (Jocano 1988). Girls are given indoor tasks like preparing meals, washing clothes and taking care of younger siblings, while boys are given outdoor tasks that require strength like drawing water and helping in farming or fishing (Liwag, Dela Cruz, and Macapagal 1998, 20-24). While archival data mostly reveal an equal treatment in discipline, those that do reflect harsher and more physical punishment for boys (Liwag, Dela Cruz, and Macapagal 1998, 20-24).

Bantug (1996) found that children have “occupational stereotypes,” associating occupations that involve strength and protection with males and occupations that involve nurturing and home management with females. Such limitations and responsibilities may place female children at a disadvantage (Liwag, Dela Cruz, and Macapagal 1998, 34-35).

Child Rearing

For the Filipino, marriage is directed toward having children, which is seen to be its primary purpose and meaning. Parents project to children ambitions they hope to attain. Value accorded to children is evident in their centrality and participation in family affairs (Zaide 1989, 147-148).

Zaide observes that the nurture Filipino children receive make them more “pampered” compared to their Western counterparts. They are given room to grow into more demanding responsibilities and are rarely reprimanded when young. They are entitled not only to education but to help from parents in school. From birth until two years, the rural mother is vigilant in meeting the child’s needs and forgiving of misbehavior because of the notion “*wala pa siyang malay*” (“he or she is not yet aware or is ignorant”), until ages four to five where they are perceived to develop sense. On the other hand, children are expected to obey, be grateful and eventually take care of parents when they are older (Alampay 2014, 109; Zaide 1989, 32, 148; Mendez and Jocano 1974, 50, 115).

A study by Guthrie and Jacobs (1971) compares childrearing in America and the Philippines. In the American context, obedience had practical motivation, requirement of chores was more lenient, and discipline was implemented through rewards or withholding of privileges. In the Philippine context, obedience is due to social expectation, domestic involvement is a necessity and discipline is implemented through bribes and corporal punishment (Zaide 1989, 152-153; Mendez and Jocano 1974, 323). In America, only the parents are figures requiring obedience, but in the Philippines, other older individuals are also accorded obedience (Zaide 1989, 152-153; Mendez and Jocano 1974, 51).

A study in the Filipino rural setting shows that while fathers express their preference of male children, their fondness is greater for their daughters and their wives for their sons. Though parents aim to treat their children fairly, the eldest and youngest children are given favorable inheritance (Mendez and Jocano 1974, 50). Paternal preference of daughters is confirmed by Feldman and Klein (2003), but no difference was

observed in maternal treatment of sons and daughters (Feldman and Klein 2003, 685). Perceived closeness and conflict were higher for mothers than fathers for both sons and daughters. Perceived paternal closeness was higher for daughters than sons across preschool to first grade, with perception of closeness increasing throughout this period (Driscoll and Pianta 2011, 13-16). On the contrary, Bailey finds no difference in father involvement with sons and daughters with daughters (Bailey 1994, 331-339).

Parent-child interactions in the Filipino urban setting are characterized by affection, support and discipline, though urban parents in the study of Mendez and Jocano were found to be more on the permissive spectrum (Mendez and Jocano 1974, 273-275). Alampay and Jocson found that Filipino parents are moving toward a more “progressive” attitude where children are allowed to think and act for themselves (Alampay and Jocson 2011, 163-176).

Forms of Father Involvement

Father involvement is a concept defined using different measures and explored from different perspectives. Lamb and Pleck’s early concept of father involvement was quantitatively defined as “the amount of time spent in activities involving the child.” Involvement consisted of the degree of actual interaction, availability and responsibility engaged in by fathers and influenced by genetic factors and psychosocial factors such as motivation, skills, support received and institutional/employment factors (Lamb et al. 1985, 883-895).

In the 1970s the American concept of the “new father” elevated expectations of fathers which Townsend describes as to require more emotional involvement (Townsend 2002, 102-103). A decade later, societal changes transformed the definition of “good

fathers” to accommodate more involvement and participation (Eerola 2014, 308-324). Despite the intent of having more involvement, paternal contribution is still low, compared to mothers who spend twice as much time in caregiving and household tasks (Gottzén 2011, 619-634; Spruijt and Duindam 2002, 683-696).

A longitudinal study engaged for the United States Department of Education published in 2013 reveal discovered that father involvement came in the form of 1) instrumental activities; and 2) enrichment and play activities. Instrumental activities comprised of practical caregiving tasks like feeding and attending to hygiene needs, while enrichment activities involved tasks that promote cognitive and social development like reading books and playing. It was found that father involvement in both instrumental and enrichment activities with both male and female daughters was stable across the data collection periods at 9 months, 2 years and preschool (Meece 2013, 5-12).

A longitudinal study of father involvement during infancy and at five years old shows that across time, fathers are more engaged in social interaction than caregiving activities, but caregiving increased over time (Bailey 1994, 331-339). Another study observed father involvement has been observed to increase during preschool years. Comparing the trajectory of involvement, however, fathers’ involvement increased more significantly over time as compared to mothers whose involvement was stable (Wilson and Durbin 2013, 249-279). Increase in fathers’ involvement in caregiving is confirmed by Bailey (Bailey 1994, 331-339).

To determine if there was an increase in caring fatherhood in the Dutch context in the 1990s, a comparison of two longitudinal studies from 1991 to 1997 was made by Spruijt and Duindam. Findings show that the father’s context and experience in family of

origin are elements necessary to increase caring fatherhood (Spruijt and Duindam 2002, 683-696).

In a study by Eerola of fathers in Finland, where both policy and culture are “father-friendly,” interviews yield an emphasis on father involvement during early years. *Nurturing* was a recurring theme and regarded as “basis of paternal responsibility.” It covers physical, emotional and psychological presence provided by fathers. Fathers did not stress a differentiation between parental roles but stressed the importance of time spent with children. Compared to Filipino fathers, Finnish fathers are more involved as 80 percent of fathers avail of two weeks paternity leave after birth. Seven of the sixteen fathers interviewed extended their paternal leaves to provide for the childcare of both parents, strengthen bond with the child and provide support for the mother. Nonetheless, breadwinning continues to be regarded as an element of paternal duty but is regarded as non-gender specific responsibility for both parents and as foundations for bond between father and child. As the child grows, moral “upbringing” into responsible citizens is attributed to paternal duty, part of which is setting boundaries (Eerola 2014, 308-324). Similarly, Germans promote independent parenting (Eickhorst 2008, 92-107).

Gender Differences in Parent Involvement

A study on Australian fathers and their toy and physical play with their children between 32 and 46 months old showed significant gender differences between boys and girls. Parent engagement (mothers and fathers) was higher for girls than boys. Father connectedness was higher for girls while father detachment was higher with boys (George, Fletcher, and Palazzi 2017, 4-10).

A study of toddler regulated interactions with mothers, fathers and caregivers showed gender differences in interactions for fathers. There was no difference in warm control strategies used by mothers and sensitive regulation between male and female children. However, a significant difference was observed in fathers' use of warm control strategies and sensitive regulation for sons and daughters, with scores significantly higher in father interactions with daughters. In the same way, gendered child responses were also observed. Girls showed higher regulated compliance to both mothers and fathers than boys. Results suggest that internalized compliance with toddlers was related to emotional warm control and sensitive regulation. Toddlers seem to respond to "adult discipline styles that combine dialogue and limits" (Feldman and Klein 2003, 685).

Moon and Hoffman explored expectancies and parent-behaviors in preschool children below four years old and found that physical care, emotional support and parenting behavior is perceived to be more appropriate for mothers and engaged in more by mothers. In the segment where both perception and involvement were measured, physical care, emotional support and personal interaction were perceived as more appropriate and involved in more than mothers. Further, fathers' involvement in personal interaction was found to be significantly lower for daughters than for sons (Moon and Hoffman 2008, 261-279).

A study among Australian fathers and their toddler children, however, showed that level of physical play with girls and boys were not significantly different and were, in fact, both high. In toy play, however, fathers showed more responsiveness and sensitivity to girls and more authoritarianism with boys (George, Fletcher, and Palazzi 2016, 14-15).

With caregiving responsibilities translating to more time spent with children, mothers are found to be more responsive to infants, initiate more interactions and direct more instructions than fathers. During preschool and middle school, however, directionality shifts to the father. Mothers and fathers showed the same level of responsiveness, but mothers were found to engage in more social and emotional interactions with children while fathers elicited more control and discipline (Kochanska and Aksan 2004, 1657-1676).

A comparison of toddler interaction with mothers and fathers reveals no significant difference in interactions. Past research report of discrepancies in length and content of interactions. Interactions may differ in specific behaviors, but general structures do not. Differences were found in the content (Vandell 1979, 299-312).

Review of research on parental interactions with children by Cabrera show similarity in how mothers and fathers interact with their children, showing “no consistent stylistic differences in a variety of measures.” Both show responsiveness, sensitivity, adjustment to developmental stage, nurturing. Nonetheless, fathers are more likely than mothers to promote rough-and-tumble play, risk taking and gender roles (Cabrera et al. 2014, 336-354).

A comparison of interaction behaviors between German fathers and their three-month old infant children within a twenty-five-year interval (1977/78 to 2001) shows that paternal behaviors have become more inclined toward promoting independence and autonomy. Results show that differences in parenting behaviors are not only “intercultural” but “intracultural,” and that gender differences in parenting still persist (Eickhorst et al. 2008, 92-107).

Though some contest the distinction between maternal and paternal treatment of children, Hewlett (1992) suggests that direct encounters with fathers' natural or socially acquired masculine behaviors may cause children to "be competitive and independent and to take risks." Children may also benefit from the presence of fathers indirectly through positive impacts of "marital harmony" and financial provision, while those with uninvolved fathers will have "dire consequences" on their development. Attention must also be given to circumstances when parent involvement will be more detrimental to the child, like when abuse or violence is involved (Cabrera et al. 2000, 127-136; Cabrera et al. 2014, 336-354). Though some scholars posit that influence of fathers on child development is indirect through his interaction with the mother, more research on this claim and on the specific influence of fathers on child development is needed. To explore this, Easterbrooks and Goldberg studied the impact of father involvement on interactions between child and both parents and found that time spent alone with child was positively correlated to involvement in caregiving activities (Easterbrooks and Goldberg 1984, 740-752).

Trends

Consumerism has pulled women, especially degree holders, outside of the home to play a dual role as breadwinner and homemaker. Mothers are not able to give as much attention to the children (Lorenzo 1993, 49-50), hence fathers are becoming more involved in childcare (Easterbrooks and Goldberg 1984, 740-752). Adding to the mothers' movement to work outside of the home, the children themselves are sent to school by age three. Early exposure to life out of the home further decreases time as a

family that should have established identity, affection and acceptance amongst its members (Lorenzo 1993, 50).

The urban setting poses influences on the Filipino family in different ways. Instead of establishing relationships with the children, parents who are commonly both working leave the child to the care of the “*yaya*” (nanny) or in front of the television. This challenges the parents’ position as authority. Children’s education, which used to be primarily the parents’ role, is delegated to helpers, the television and the school. Emotional connection is weakened as the time working outside the home increases and family time decreases. Lorenzo finds that the culture of materialism may explain parents’ lack of concern for these changes (Lorenzo 1993, 47-49).

With the increase in father absence increasing over the decades, McWayne and colleagues view fatherhood from the proximal perspective, such that “more direct forms of involvement are anticipated to have the most immediate consequences for children’s learning” (McWayne et al. 2013, 898-922). In the same light, the National Fatherhood Initiative is an American organization that seeks to “end father absence” and promote involvement of fathers in the lives of their children. In collaboration with the Center for the Study of Social Policy, it conceptualized the Strengthening Families TM framework for the development of programs for the equipping and protection of children and families by the identification of “Five Protective Factors” all of which, though directing the family, investigate father needs as well. Father factors are specifically addressed by “parental resilience” and “social and emotional competence of children,” and child factors are addressed by “social and emotional competence of children.” Both parents and children are sought to be strengthened by the program, believing that should these skills

be developed, the negative impact of prevalent concerns will be reduced (National Fatherhood Initiative 2017, 1-13). In addition, the National Fatherhood Initiative also published “Guide to Mentoring Fathers” in pursuit of its vision “for every child to grow up with an involved, responsible, and committed father” (National Fatherhood Initiative 2018, 1-11).

As the current labor force composition and family structure continue to change, there is also an increase in cultural diversity and involvement of fathers. The traditional regard of mothers as caregivers equated to little recognition of fathers’ impact on a child’s development (Cabrera et al. 2000, 127-136; Appl, Brown, and Stone 2008, 127-134). In a longitudinal study of father involvement, maternal employment was found to have a significant influence (Bailey 1994, 331-339).

Changes in society, especially the increase of children living in single-parent homes, led roles and expectations of fathers to evolve from being distant to being more involved in the lives of their children. The increase in involvement of fathers in intact nuclear families may be a function of changing work demands and cultural diversity due to migration (Cabrera et al. 2000, 127-136). Seltzer projects that half of children will experience being in a “non-marital home” before they reach adulthood (Seltzer 1994, 89-96). In the same way, Cabrera and colleagues, based on various research on father involvement, anticipate a continued increase in disparity “between involved and uninvolved fathers” (Cabrera et al. 2000, 127-136).

Data from the University of the Philippines Population Institute shows that a third of Filipino youth grow up without both biological parents. According to the 2021 Young Adult Fertility and Sexuality Study (YAFSS) sixty-five to sixty-eight percent of young

people ages twenty-four and below are raised with both parents, eighteen percent in mother-only homes and four percent in father-only homes. The remaining seven percent live with neither biological parent, mostly with grandparents. Children raised with one or neither biological parent were placed in such conditions due to employment of parents, separation or death. While the decline in the number of “youth raised by both parents” is observed across regions, it is lowest in regions that fare best economically. The regions with the lowest number of youth raised by both parents are Central Luzon (38.3%), National Capital Region (57.7%), and CALABARZON (61.3%). With the youth considered a critical period in the formation of an individual’s “values, attitudes, and behaviors,” data reveal that those raised with neither biological parent are more prone to social conditions such as school dropout, teen pregnancy and cohabitation, and personal conditions such as lower self-esteem, life conditions, and happiness levels (University of the Philippines Population Institute 2022).

Filipino fathers are entitled to seven days paternity leave (Philippine Commission on Women 2009). Filipino fathers, hence, are allowed less involvement during the period immediately after birth, unlike in countries like Finland where they are given two weeks. Compared to Filipino fathers, Finnish fathers are more involved as 80 percent of fathers avail of two weeks paternity leave after birth (Eerola 2014, 308-324).

Father Involvement Measures

Father involvement is measured by different scholars using different dimensions or variables. Cabrera et al. (2000) identifies three dimensions of fatherhood 1) presence and availability (*accessibility*); 2) direct interaction and involvement in care (*engagement*); and 3) performance of tasks pertaining to the child’s needs (*responsibility*)

(Cabrera et al. 2000, 127-136; Eerola 2014, 310). Lamb (1986) highlights “responsibility” as the most important element of father involvement. Quality of interactions is also significant (Cabrera et al. 2000, 127-136). Doucet (2006), however, argues that “responsibility” pervades all aspects of fatherhood and therefore should not be taken as an individual element. Morgan distinguishes between “caring for” children as the practical engagement in caregiving activities and “caring about” children as emotional engagement (Morgan 1996, 97-98). Townsend enumerates “four facets of fatherhood” as “emotional closeness, provision, protection and endowment” (Townsend 2002, 50-80). Christiansen and Palkovitz assert that providing for children should not be dismissed as an element for involvement as it has emotional and psychological elements to it (Christiansen and Palkovitz 2001, 84-106).

Bokneck and colleagues measured father involvement through his engagement in 1) preparation for meals and bedtime; 2) non-physical interaction; and 3) active physical play (Bocknek et al. 2017, 111-114) as it covers caregiving capacities and both physical and non-physical interaction (Wilson and Durbin 2013, 249-279). In the same way, Volling looked at actual interaction between father and child but also measured the father’s availability for possible interaction and his degree of responsibility for the child (Volling 2002, 447-465).

Kellerman and Katz identified five subscales of parent involvement: “1) educational guidance, 2) physical caretaking, 3) emotional support, 4) discipline—administrative, and 5) active-recreational” (Kellerman and Katz 1978, 505-512). Moon and Hoffman added “personal interaction” as the sixth element. Parent gender difference in perceived parent appropriateness and engagement surfaced for physical caretaking,

emotional support and personal interaction. Parent and gender differences surfaced for personal interaction, where fathers scored lower in their involvement with their daughters than their sons (Moon and Hoffman 2008, 261-279).

The Parenting Interactions with Children: Checklist of Observations Linked to Outcomes (PICCOLO-D) covers four areas of positive parenting: “affection, responsiveness, encouragement and teaching.” Anderson et al. (2013) evaluated its validity and reliability and found it to be a sound measure of interactions between fathers and children (Anderson et al. 2013, 339-351).

The Fatherhood Research and Practice Network (FRPN) has come up with a self-report scale that measures father engagement in one- to six-year-old youngest children of families (FRPN 2019). The FRPN Father Engagement Scale is a set of ten questions that measures the father’s interaction with a child through a father’s indication of frequency of enumerated activities (FRPN 2015). Similar to this are questionnaires used by Easterbrooks and Goldberg (Easterbrooks and Goldberg 1984, 740-752).

Pianta directs interest to parent-child relationships describing it as, “patterns of interactions, expectations, beliefs and affects organized at a level more abstract than observable behaviors (Pianta 1997, 14). The Child-Parent Relationship Scale (CPRS) is a fifteen-item parent self-report designed to measure the relational elements of conflict and closeness within parent-child pairs, capturing both negative and positive components of the relationship through a five-point Likert scale. Eight items measured conflict while the remaining seven items measured closeness. It was derived from the Student Teacher Relationship Scale, also developed by Pianta, that measures relational perceptions of teachers, with the attachment theory and previous research as bases. Driscoll and Pianta

(2011) investigated the stability of ratings of the items, finding them somewhat stable, with significant correlations, and moderately consistent across the three-year investigation period with the sample (N=563). Cronbach alpha for closeness at fifty-four months was 0.69 for mothers and 0.72 for fathers, and in first grade was 0.64 for mothers and 0.74 for fathers. Cronbach alpha for conflict at fifty-four months was 0.84 for mothers and 0.80 for fathers, and in first grade was 0.84 for mothers and 0.78 for fathers. The correlation between the conflict and closeness subscales was 0.16, indicative of distinctiveness of scales. To determine validity, coded observation scores were correlated with parent report scores, revealing significant associations, albeit small. Mothers and fathers show significant agreement in both subscales, scoring higher for conflict (Driscoll and Pianta 2011, 6-15).

While measures of father involvement may differ in some elements, all studies use both physical or practical and emotional or psychological dimensions. Common elements are performance of caregiving activities, time spent with children, responsiveness and quality of interactions. Measures to be used will be based on the objectives of the study.

Father Involvement and Child Self-Regulation

The parent-child interaction is the context where self-regulation is first exercised (Chang et al. 2003, 1-15; Feldman and Klein 2003, 680), unsurprisingly as it is the microsystem within which the child primarily exists (Bronfenbrenner 1994, 1644). An analysis of father involvement associates mothers with caregiving and fathers with play (Lamb et al. 1985, 891-892).

A strong contention for the role of fathers is the development of self-regulation is their distinct role in active play which gives them opportunity to experience and exercise management of extreme arousal and emotion (Bocknek 2017, 106-108). Distinct contributions of fathers through play are in the form of stimulation and boundaries they provide (Bocknek 2017, 105-134) and the teacher-guide role they play (Appl, Brown, and Stone 2008, 127-134). In addition, play may also facilitate father involvement as it is found to be positively associated with caregiving activities and time spent alone with the child (Easterbrooks and Goldberg 1984, 740-752). While Paquette theorizes that the father's excitable and stimulating interactions with their children promote the development of self-regulation by "destabilizing" children while keeping them safe, he argues that father involvement in play is overemphasized (Paquette 2004, 193-219).

While Lev Vygotsky popularly claims, "In play, the child is free" (Vygotsky 1966, 62-76), such freedom may be illusory because in play, rules that children adhere to exist. Hence, the setting requires a child to exercise self-regulation to fulfill roles and follow rules. A child acts intentionally and volitionally in accordance to both the roles and rules the kind of play requires. Five-year-olds when observed to exhibit higher self-regulation in the play context, providing evidence for Vygotsky's claim that because play "creates the zone of proximal development," certain skills manifest in play before they do in other contexts (Manuilenko 1975, 65-116). Elkonin, however, believes that this happens only at the level of "mature play" where it is directed toward his interaction with others (Elkonin 2005, 22-48). In mature play, children use objects symbolically, specific roles are defined, and consistent themes are observed (Bodrova, Germeroth, and Leong

2013, 113-116). Feldman and Klein find that a child's compliance is related to sensitivity exhibited by parents during free play (Feldman and Klein 2003, 685).

Bowlby regards play as significant to the formation of attachment. It contributes to a child's security in exploring new and difficult challenges in confidence (Cosentino 2017, 42-47). With the premise that play is a context where self-regulation is observed (Bocknek 2017, 105-134), a study was conducted in Quebec, Canada on the relationship of RTB and later aggressive behavior in 2001. Rough-and-tumble play (RTP) is a form of play observed more commonly between children and their fathers (Cabrera et al. 2014, 336-354; Flanders et al. 2009, 285-295).

Play is essential to a child's development and socialization. Carson and Parke believe RTP to be a setting for the development of "emotion regulation" and "emotion-encoding." It comes in different forms and with different individuals but for both male and female children in RTB, "the father is the favorite playmate" (Carson and Parke 1996, 2217-2226; Easterbrooks and Goldberg 1984, 740-752). RTP with fathers is at its height in the latter preschool ages. During RTP, fathers impart to their children's social rules, self-control, and sensitivity. How a father establishes authority and sets limits turns the possible physically strenuous interaction into a secure setting. Flanders and colleagues found that as father and child compete for dominance in RTP, children whose fathers exerted more dominance were less aggressive in daily function (Flanders et al. 2009, 285-295). Findings were confirmed in a follow-up study assessing aggression and emotion regulation five years later in 2006. Fathers who assert dominance become models of how to control and pacify themselves and have children who are less aggressive in everyday function. Hence, findings of both studies show that children

whose fathers were less dominant during RTP remained to be more aggressive than children whose fathers were more dominant during RTP even five years after (Flanders et al. 2010, 357-367).

Father Involvement and Cognitive Self-Regulation

A meta-analysis of twenty-one studies conducted between 1998 and 2008 explored the relationship between direct father involvement and early learning in children aged three to eight. Direct father involvement was measured in terms of 1) quantity of positive engagement activities; and 2) quality of parenting. Albeit small, a significant correlation was found between the two variables. Both quantity and quality of father involvement showed positive correlations with cognitive skills and self-regulation. Positive correlations with prosocial behavior were positively correlated with quality alone, and externalizing behaviors were unexpectedly found to be positively correlated with the quantity of positive engagement activities. Results lead the researchers to acknowledge the importance of both quantity and quality of father involvement (McWayne et al. 2013, 898-922).

Positive cognitive benefits have been observed for children whose fathers are more involved (Fagan and Inglesias 1999, 243-269). An observational study of toddlers revealed that father involvement quantity and quality were related to toddler development, particularly, problem-solving. While both were significant, influence was more pronounced with father involvement quality than it was for quantity. Further, more secure attachment with fathers was associated with better problem-solving (Easterbrooks and Goldberg 1984, 740-752).

Results of a more recent observational study of toddlers at three months and twenty-four months show evidence of influence of qualitative elements of father involvement on child cognition. Children whose fathers showed higher sensitivity and engagement demonstrated better cognitive skills. On the contrary, children whose fathers were more withdrawn and depressive demonstrated lower cognitive skills (Sethna et al. 2017, 383-386).

A study of two-year-old children from low-income households shows that a “Responsive-Didactic” approach by fathers is likely to result in “Playful-Communicative” and “Social” behaviors in children. A “Responsive-Didactic” approach was described to be “positive in affect, responsive, and emotionally attuned to children” while a “Negative-Intrusive” approach was characterized by “father-driven achievement-orientation, high structuring, negative verbal statements, intrusiveness, and inflexibility.” A child’s “Playful-Communicative” mode was characterized by the complex use of language and play (Shannon et al. 2002, 77-104). Similarly, another observational study of three-year-old children shows that young children’s executive function is positively associated with fathers’ support of autonomy but negatively associated with father control (Meuwissen and Carlson 2015, 12).

An observation of children between ages three and five established father involvement as a predictor of a children’s executive function and effortful control. The direction, however, is determined by the positivity in the father-child relationships. High positivity resulted in positive associations while low positivity resulted in negative associations (Chary 2020, 28-35).

Research by Cabrera and colleagues showed that father engagement observed in a free play context, measured in sensitivity, positive regard, and cognitive stimulation, has effects on a child's cognitive ability, particularly that of language (Cabrera, Shannon, and LeMonda 2007, 208-213). Though preterm infants are found to score lower than full-term infants in developmental scales, those whose parents were more responsive and sensitive scored higher for expressive language (Loudová and Lašek 2015, 1274-1254). When a parent responds to a child's attempt to connect, even in the non-verbal phase, belongingness is communicated, hence increasing a child's willingness to please the parent that eventually leads to internalization of rules and regulated behavior (Wilson and Durbin 2013, 249-279).

Father Involvement and Behavioral Self-Regulation

According to the 2001 National Child Development Study, greater father involvement is associated with better social and behavioral outcomes. The children grow up to have less problematic behavior in adolescents and more satisfying relationships as adults. They are less likely to exhibit delinquent behavior and show greater motivation in school (Geddes 2008, 402).

Advocates of father presence like the Fatherhood Institute raise concern for children who grow up without father presence. They present data showing large percentages of children with problematic behaviors to come from fatherless homes. To cite, eighty-five percent of children exhibiting behavioral problems, seventy percent of youth convicted of juvenile crimes, and sixty percent of those who commit suicide come from fatherless homes (Carstens 2014, 10-11).

A cohort study among Pacific families in New Zealand report a significant negative relationship between father involvement and behavioral problems in their children, both internalized and externalized (Tautolo, Schluter, and Paterson 2015, 3502). Congruent findings were found among two-parent families in the United Kingdom. Frequency of engaging in creative play at five years old is father involvement element found to be negatively associated with behavior problems (Kroll et al. 2016, 11).

Similar to the study of Kroll and colleagues (Kroll et al. 2016, 13), a study of self-regulated compliance of toddlers showed a difference in their responses to mothers and fathers. Toddlers showed more regulated compliance with fathers while they showed more social involvement with mothers (Feldman and Klein 2003, 685). Impact of father involvement on strength on self-identity is more evident in male children (Geddes 2008, 405). This may have social significance as majority of crimes are perpetrated by men (Carstens 2014, 10). Rates of substance abuse, poor performance in school, unemployment and conviction is higher for children with uninvolved fathers (Cosentino 2017, 42-47), but non-residential fathers were found to give higher value to time spent with children than those who were not separated (Halme, Kurki, and Tarkka 2009, 103-119).

Paquette's *Father Activation Theory* would attribute these behavioral challenges to the unique contribution that stimulating father-child interactions has on child development. Through interactions that unsettle the children in some form, fathers introduce them to unfamiliar physical and social settings, allowing them to find ways to cope but maintaining safety "by imposing disciplinary limits." Among the skills learned

through father-child interactions are regulating aggressive impulses, interacting within boundaries and limits, and dealing with competition (Paquette 2004, 193-219).

On the contrary, Volling and colleagues call for more research looking into the role of fathers in the development of a child's self-regulation, as their results of parent-infant interactions revealed that infants showed more "committed compliance" with their fathers, which is a more advanced form of self-regulation, and more "situational compliance" with their mothers (Volling et al. 2002, 447-465). Findings of one of two parts of the study of LeVant and colleagues, however, saying that involvement of fathers are risk factors for participants who exhibited more problematic behaviors (LeVant et al. 2014, 202).

Father Involvement and Emotional Self-Regulation

While mothers were more emotionally available than fathers, infants whose fathers were more emotionally available were also higher in emotional competence (Volling et al. 2002, 447-465). Children's positive interactions with peers are related to how fathers manage their emotions, but not related to how mothers do (Gottman, Katz, and Hooven 1997, n.p.).

In cases of parental separation, father impact serves as a "protective factor" against negative psychological effects (Volling 2006, 460-461; Geddes 2008, 402). Domestic absence of parents is initially evaluated in terms of its financial implications for the child. Involvement of fathers, however, can attenuate the negative impacts of living in single parent homes (Cosentino 2017, 42-47).

With interest in the impact of father involvement in play increasing, Erika Bockneck and colleagues find a curvilinear relationship between the level of active play

with fathers and developmental benefits for children measured using the Emotion Regulation Subscale and Orientation and Engagement subscales in the Bayley Scales of Infant Development. Moderate amounts of active play during toddlerhood were most beneficial to children at kindergarten, while too high and too low levels resulted in poor outcomes, especially with more emotionally reactive children. Findings support claims that father contribution through engagement in active play is significantly related to the development of emotional regulation of young children. In the active play context, fathers are able to guide the emotionally aroused child on how to regulate in ways that are appropriate (Bocknek et al. 2017, 105-134).

A study of father-child play behaviors at two years old explored its influence on children's emotional regulation through observation. More specifically, it looked at fathers' levels of emotion amplification, intrusiveness, and use of positive regard. High father intrusiveness was associated with lower child emotional self-regulation, while high emotion amplification and positive regard from fathers was associated with high child self-regulation at three years old. No association was found between father's emotion amplification and child emotional regulation (Hagman 2014, 51-72).

To identify factors that predict the development of emotional regulation, personal, family and parent-child factors were explored in a quantitative study was among 423 Turkish preschool children between ages four and five. A positive correlation was found between closeness with parent and emotional self-regulation, while a negative correlation was found between conflict and emotional self-regulation, leading to a conclusion that parent-child relationships are predictors of emotional self-regulation (Dereli 2016, 42-46).

On the other hand, a systematic review of ten studies involving children ages zero to five, showed no direct links were found between father involvement and the emotional regulation of children. Only one study presented evidence of direct linkage. This may be because the level of father involvement, both in quantity and quality, may not equal maternal involvement that reaches a level of significant influence. Nonetheless, direct links were detected when factors relating to the assessment of the variables and the characteristics of fathers and children were taken into account (Puglisi et al. 2024, 10-11).

In addition, results found by Levant's group, show father involvement to be a risk factor (Levant et al. 2014, 195). This can be resolved through the further investigation of interactions between fathers and infants and the role of fathers in the development of emotional regulation, which seems to be "unchartered territory" (Volling 2006, 460-461).

Summary

The growing body of research on self-regulation provides information on its mechanism, development and importance to healthy functioning as adults. Self-regulation, a skill that develops during preschool years, proves necessary to attain personal and social goals. It is comprised of the cognitive, behavioral and emotional components. Individuals with high self-regulation in childhood are more likely to attain positive outcomes in adulthood in academic, professional and social settings, and physical and mental well-being, among others. Varied factors contribute to its development. Child factors are age, gender, verbal ability, cognitive ability, neural functions, and temperament. Parent factors are the educational attainment of parents, family structure, substance use and mental health of parents, parental attachment, and parenting style. Other factors are socio-economic status and culture. Several

measurement tools are available, depending on the definition of self-regulation and components that the tool is intended to capture.

In the same way, interest in fathers as parents significant to child development is also increasing thereby providing more information on its impact on child development. The family has been established as a necessary factor in the different domains of development and socialization in one's cultural context. The Filipino family is particularly family-oriented, with gender being a factor to parental roles and child treatment. As the family structure and societal demands change, perception of parental responsibilities and care shift from traditional to more egalitarian. Father involvement has been defined by some in purely quantitative others, but recent concepts have integrated a qualitative element. Varied measures of father involvement have been developed using different definitions as basis.

With the number of children with non-resident fathers increasing, interest in the unique contribution of fathers to self-regulation has also increased. Several studies show a positive association between father involvement and the development of self-regulation, though some report none or negative impact. Father interaction, particularly in play, is found to be context to an unthreatening exercise of self-regulatory function. Associations between father involvement and cognitive, behavioral and emotional regulation are evidenced by several studies among young children. A quantitative and qualitative exploration on father involvement and child self-regulation within the Philippine context will add to the currently growing body of knowledge in these areas.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES

Overview

This mixed method study explored the relationship between father involvement and the development of self-regulation in children ages four and five in private Christian preschools in Taytay, Rizal in the province of Region IV-A (CALABARZON), Philippines. Measured scores for father involvement and child self-regulation as reported by fathers were analyzed statistically. Interviews with the father, child and mother who scored high in father involvement and self-regulation were also conducted to identify and explore qualitative elements of the interaction between the two variables. Data were organized and analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively.

Research Approach

This study explored the relationship between father involvement and the development of a child's cognitive, behavioral and socioemotional self-regulation. Father involvement and child self-regulation were measured using standardized quantitative instruments and processed using appropriate statistical methods. Relationships and differences between factors were determined. This study also explored the qualitative elements of high father involvement that may contribute to high child self-regulation.

A mixed-method approach was employed to yield richer insight through integration of data. The qualitative data gave insight on father involvement elements

employed by fathers who scored high in involvement and whose children scored high in self-regulation. Insights were gathered on the instruments used as implemented with the sample (Creswell and Creswell 2023, 388-390). The quantitative survey results determined the relationship between child self-regulation and father involvement, while the qualitative interview data explored qualitative components that help expand understanding of father involvement.

Research Procedures

This study was implemented in three phases. Phase I involved the preliminary preparations where permissions to use existing quantitative tools were acquired and interview guides were crafted. Identification of research sites and request for permission to conduct the survey were also included in the initial phase of the study. Phase II comprised the actual data collection through the dissemination of an online father survey, sourcing and conduct of interviews. Phase III involved the organization, analysis and interpretation of data, culminating in the writing of the report.

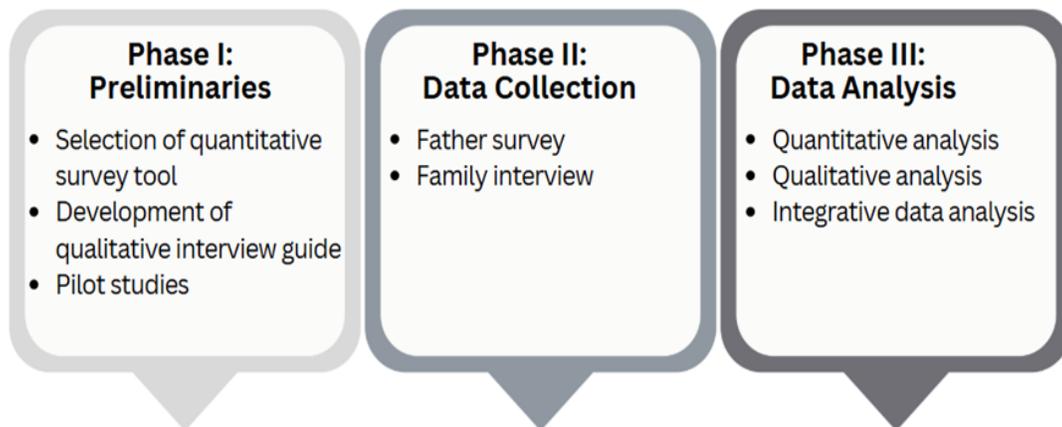


Figure 2. Data Collection Process Flow

Research Design

Phase I consisted of preparatory steps. Upon approval of the research design, participant schools for the survey were identified and letters of request to conduct the Father Survey were prepared. The tools that were in the form of questionnaires were converted to digital format using Google Forms. A shortened link and QR code were generated for easy access.

Phase II was the actual data collection. The first step was distributing the letters of request addressed to school heads for permission to conduct the father survey, along with a copy of the detailed introduction letter for fathers that contained the link and QR code to the survey. The list of schools was expanded upon observing a low turnout in survey responses among the initial five schools identified. With sufficient respondents gathered, quantitative analysis of the data was conducted with the services of a statistician to identify participants for the qualitative family interviews. Invitations to participate in the family interview were sent and interviews were scheduled. Multiple invitations were sent via different means. An interview was conducted with one family that scored high in father involvement and high in child self-regulation and was willing and available.

Phase III consisted of statistical analysis of quantitative data from surveys that measure child self-regulation and father involvement to determine significant relationships. Results were interpreted and validated through the interviews. Interview data was organized and analyzed thematically. Results were presented through tables, and the formal research report was written.

Sampling Design

A purposive sampling design was employed to identify participants that meet participant criteria for the research. A group that meets the specified criteria that controls extraneous characteristics were identified. In purposive sampling, selection stops once the required number of participants are met (Johnson and Christensen 2014, 364).

Initially, five Christian schools were selected, four from Taytay and one from Antipolo. Because of the low response rate, the invitation to all Christian preschools instead. Private Christian preschools in the Taytay areas in Rizal were identified using the Department of Education's listing of private schools in Taytay. Because the list only reflects schools that had recognition or permit to operate preschools from the Department of Education, a search for preschools was done via the Google search engine and Facebook to determine preschools within the municipality. A request for a list of private preschools in Taytay was also requested online via the Freedom of Information (FOI) website but a response was not received. A total of thirty schools were identified. Invitation to take the Father Survey was requested and sent through school administration. Responses were filtered to retain responses of fathers who met the selection criteria.

Survey respondents were grouped according to their scores in father involvement and child self-regulation. Among them, those who have expressed willingness to take part in a family interview were identified. Invitations were sent via email, text message and call.

Sample Size

The population of four-year-old Christian children in Taytay, Rizal was determined from available statistics. From the population of the CALABARZON Region and the province of Rizal, population of the municipality of Taytay was identified. Using the percent population ages one to four, population of four-year-olds were estimated using the annual growth rate. Finally, the percentage of the population adhering to Christianity-related religions was identified at eighty-eight percent (Philippine Statistics Office 2022), yielding a population of 5,562.

To determine the minimum sample size for this study, an academic statistician was consulted and use of the Sample Size Calculation for proportions found in **Open Source Epidemiologic Statistics for Public Health (OpenEpi)** was recommended. While the website is intended for medical use, the formula employed for “Sample Size for a Proportion” may also be used for Social Studies and other fields. It calculates for the minimum sample size upon providing the population size, anticipated percentage frequency, confidence limits and design effect (Sullivan 2003, 1-2).

For this study, the following assumptions were considered:

1. Based on the statistics, there are around 5,562 four-year old Christian children in Taytay, Rizal for 2024.
2. The confidence limit is set at ninety percent.
3. The margin of error is set at ten percent.
4. The response rate in this survey is around ten percent, based on observations.

Given these, the minimum sample size for this study per the “Sample Size for a Proportion” calculation is twenty-five. A total of thirty-three fathers filled in the survey, but only twenty-six met the selection criteria. Multiple efforts to source participants and increase the size of the sample were made between February and June 2024. The initial number of target schools were expanded to include all private Christian preschools in the municipality of Taytay to make school sample exhaustive. Direct contact with heads of school was initiated by the researcher and facilitated by contacts. Letters of request were sent via different modes (email, Facebook pages, hand-delivered printed copies). Multiple follow-ups were made via the same modes and direct endorsements with school heads were done by contacts. Finally, a paid social media callout was posted with the target audience specified.

For purposes of analysis and identification of participants for the qualitative interviews, survey respondents were classified into the following groups according to their father involvement scores and child self-regulation scores, targeting one participant family (father, mother, and preschool child) from each group to be interviewed:

1. Quadrant 1 (Q1): low father involvement, low child self-regulation
2. Quadrant 2 (Q2): high father involvement, low child self-regulation
3. Quadrant 3 (Q3): low father involvement, high child self-regulation
4. Quadrant 4 (Q4): high father involvement, high child self-regulation

None of the participants fell in Q3 (low father involvement, high child self-regulation). Nine of the twenty-six respondents expressed their willingness to take part in a Family Interview, one expressed interest but wanted to know more. They gave their

contact details and were contacted via email and mobile phone. All were sent more information about the study, given researcher contact should they need more information, and invited to take part in the Family Interview.

Target number of participant families for the qualitative interviews were four—one from each father involvement-child self-regulation group. Because no respondents fell in one category, the target was three. Among the ten interested respondents, one from each of the other three quadrants (Q1, Q2, and Q4) responded to the invitation for a Family Interview. They were sent a list of interview questions and were scheduled. Despite initial agreement and multiple follow-ups, however, only one family participated. Respondents from Q2 and Q4 did not come to the interview scheduled and no longer responded thereafter.

The National Center for Research Methods published a collation of opinions of research experts regarding the number of qualitative interviews deemed sufficient. Patricia and Peter Adler, experienced lecturers and practitioners on qualitative research, raise several considerations in sampling than giving an outright recommendation. A larger sample size is needed for research whose subjects are common and easy to find, when the sample has subcategories, and when the research is funded. In general, they recommend a mean number of thirty as ideal number, but states, “the number of people required to make an adequate sample for a qualitative research project can vary from one to a hundred or more.” To the same question, Harry Wolcott, a pioneer in qualitative research, responds, “The answer, as with all things qualitative, is ‘it depends’” (Baker and Edwards 2012, 3-11).

While it is ideal to more participants interviewed, the characteristics of the sole participant family make them a rich source of insight and experience. The qualitative research problem seeks to identify elements of father involvement that may be a factor to the development of self-regulation. Because the respondent family scored high in both constructs, their responses describe how father involvement that results in high self-regulation looks like and what components are salient, thereby still addressing research objectives. The only other source for dynamics that lead to high self-regulation would have been from Q3, which turned out to be none. Further, extensive measures have been taken to source more participants to no avail, likely because of the specific criteria defined in the purposive sampling design. Hence, given these considerations and upon consultation with an academic statistician, the participant family was considered an acceptable source of qualitative descriptive data for this study.

Sampling Criteria

Selection of the location and socio-economic group was strategically and purposively designed to cater to the context where the researcher conducts ministry and business. Because the study has specific characteristics of interest, purposive sampling was used. Unlike in random sampling where all members of the population have equal chances of getting selected, a group that meets the selection criteria was identified (Johnson and Christensen 2014, 364). The sample for the father survey were strategically selected based on the following characteristics:

Age of child

Studies show that early childhood is critical to the development of self-regulation (VanDerhei 2017, 1-172; Watts, Duncan, and Quann 2018, 1159-1177; Mischel, Shoda, and Rodriguez 1989, 933-938) but Berthelsen et al. (2017) specifically identifies ages 4-5 as the period when self-regulation develops rapidly. Self-regulation interventions in early childhood are expected to improve physical health, financial health and social function (Howard and Neilsen-Hewett 2018, 2).

Hence, the Father Survey was distributed to parents of children from pre-kinder classes, who were four-years-olds upon enrollment or turning four within a few months. While most respondents were fathers of four-year-olds, some respondents have children who have turned five over the course of the school year.

Place of residence or school attended

Rizal is situated in the CALABARZON Region which ranks third among the regions with the lowest number of children living with both parents (University of the Philippines Population Institute 2022). Its population is similar to that of the National Capital Region (NCR), the region with the largest population in the Philippines. As of 2015, Region IV-A had a larger population than NCR. While its poverty threshold is lower, its unemployment rate is the same as the capital (Philippine Statistical Yearbook 2019). Further, the municipality of Taytay was selected because it was the researcher's location of business and ministry.

Religion

This study is limited to the Christian population which comprises the majority (eighty-eight percent) of the Philippine population based on the 2018 Philippine statistics (Philippine Statistical Yearbook 2019). This group comprises Roman Catholics, protestant Christians, evangelicals and other religions that recognize Jesus as God. Other religions were not included as they may have different parenting practices dictated by their belief system.

Living arrangement

Family structures are found to have an impact on father involvement and child-self-regulation (Fitzpatrick 2009, 37; Guttentag and Alex 1997, 1-13), hence only families with parents living together (legally married or otherwise) with their preschool child were considered in the study. Among the thirty-three fathers who answered the survey, three were not living with their partners and one was not living with their preschool child and therefore disqualified.

Father's educational attainment

Parents' level of education has been found to be a risk factor to a child's self-regulation (Cadima et al. 2016, 349) and has an influence on local parenting approach (Mendez and Jocano 1974, 273-275). This study included only families with fathers completing at least an associate degree.

To explore qualitative elements of father involvement of respondent who scored high in father involvement and whose child scored high in self-regulation, those who indicated willingness to take part in an interview in the Father Survey were invited via

email and mobile message for a family interview. An interview with the mother and four-year old child of the respondent was conducted for validation.

Sample

A total of thirty-three fathers answered the online quantitative Father Survey, twenty-six of whom met the following sampling criteria:

1. Has a preschool child (enrolled to the pre-kinder level for four-year-olds upon enrollment for School Year 2024-2025).
2. Residence or child's school of enrollment is located in Taytay, Rizal.
3. Adheres to a Christian religion.
4. Lives with his preschool child and the mother of the child.
5. Has attained at least an associate degree.

The survey was distributed among fathers of children in the pre-kinder level.

Among the respondents, one had a three-year-old, thirteen had four-year-olds, and twelve had five-year-olds. All respondents resided in the province of Rizal. Twenty were from the municipality of Taytay, three from Cainta, two from Antipolo, and one from Binangonan. All respondents, including those who were not selected as part of the sample, adhered to a Christianity-related religion. None indicated that they were affiliated with Iglesia ni Cristo, Islam, or other religions. Sixty-two percent of the sample were Roman Catholics while thirty-eight percent were Evangelicals or Protestants or Born Again Christians.

The average age of the respondent fathers was thirty-seven years old, and the average number of children was two. Of the twenty-six qualified respondents, the majority (twenty percent) were bachelor's degree holders, one was an associate degree

holder, four were graduate degree holders, and one was a doctoral degree holder. Six of the respondents had a monthly household income of more than Php150,000 while five had a monthly family income of Php24,000 or less. Four families earned between Php24,000-50,000, another four earned between Php51,000-75,000, three earned between Php76,000-100,000, one between Php101,000-125,000 and three earned between Php126,000-150,000. Sixteen of the twenty-six respondents had male preschool children, while ten had female preschool children.

Table 1. Baseline Demographic Characteristics

Characteristics	Values
Age (years)	37.23 ± 5.5
Number of Children	2.04 ± 1.25
Marital Status	
Married/Living Together	26 (100%)
Educational Attainment	
College/Bachelor's Degree	20 (77%)
Graduate/Master's Degree	4 (15%)
Associate Degree	1 (4%)
Post-Graduate/Doctoral Degree	1 (4%)
Religion	
Roman Catholic	16 (62%)
Evangelical/Protestant/Born Again Christian	10 (38%)
Living Arrangement	
Currently Living with Preschool	26 (100%)
Monthly Household Income	
Less than P24,000	5 (19%)
P25,000-50,000	4 (15%)
P51,000-75,000	4 (15%)
P76,000-100,000	3 (12%)
P101,000-125,000	1 (4%)
P126,000-P150,000	3 (12%)
More than P150,000	6 (23%)
Sex of Child	
Male	16 (62%)
Female	10 (38%)

The interviewed family comprised of a twenty-nine-year-old father of three boys, married to the children's mother for six years. His eldest son was four years old at the

time of the interview which he joined. The two youngest children live with their paternal grandmother in the province, along with some cousins. The second son was turning three and the youngest was one and a half years old. Both the father and mother are educators. The father taught elementary (first to sixth grade) for four years and had been teaching at the tertiary level for two years at the time of the interview.

The two eldest boys were first to be brought to the province and followed by the youngest in December 2023. The eldest, who will be the focus of the study, was brought to the province to recover from negative experiences from a nanny and be cared for by the grandmother. He was brought back to Manila for caregiving challenges. Every month, the parents and the eldest child would go home to the province for the whole family to be together. During the time of the interview, the parents indicated their intention to get the two children from the province to live with them.

Phase I: Preliminaries

To measure the constructs of 1) child self-regulation; and 2) father involvement, standardized tools were utilized, and interview guides were developed to validate data from the standardized tools.

Though the three standard tools used were all available online for public access, permission to use was requested from and granted by the authors. All tools were converted to digital format for convenient dissemination. Further, approval for an Initial Review of Human Subjects Research with the Institutional Review Board (IRB) was obtained (See Appendix A: Notification of Review Approval).

A Pilot Run was conducted with both the quantitative and qualitative data collection tools. Twelve respondents filled out the online questionnaire while two

families were interviewed. One question in the interview guide was adjusted to make it more easily understandable.

Simultaneously, respondent schools were identified. A list of private Christian schools was compiled using different sources, and a request to implement the Father Survey was sent. A summary of the study, a link to the online survey and a copy of the interview questions were included as attachments.

Selection and Development of Instruments

Child self-regulation measures

To measure child self-regulation, the Child Self-Regulation and Behavior Questionnaire (CSBQ) administered to parents or educators was utilized. Permission was acquired from the authors through Dr. Steven Howard (Appendix B: Written Permission to Use CSBQ). The tool which comes in a digital and paper format is part of the Early Years Toolkit (EYT) which also measures language and communication skills, executive function and social behavior (Howard and Melhuish 2017, 259) (See Appendix C: Child Self-Regulation and Behavior Questionnaire Paper Version).

The CBSQ captures behavioral, cognitive and emotional self-regulation of children, as well as social behaviors such as “sociability, externalizing, internalizing and prosocial behavior” through thirty-four statements which the adult rater chooses between a scale of one to five with one rating the statement as “not true” and five rating the statement as “very true” (Early Years Toolbox). Seventeen of the thirty-four items measure self-regulation. Specifically, six measure behavioral self-regulation, five measure cognitive self-regulation and six measure emotional self-regulation (Howard 2024). Results of assessment of the tool yielded a Cronbach alpha reliability score of 0.83

for emotional self-regulation, 0.87 for cognitive self-regulation, and 0.89 for behavioral self-regulation, proving to be a more reliable assessment tool than counterparts (Howard and Melhuish 2017, 264).

With the recently developed adult-report tool now available, the CSBQ is deemed more appropriate to this study given its time and resource constraints and its high reliability. In addition to granting permission to use the tool, Dr. Steven Howard, upon understanding the researcher's interest in self-regulation, identified the items in the tool that specifically measured behavioral, cognitive and emotional regulation.

1. Behavioral Self-Regulation: Items 7 (reversed), 13, 15, 29 (reversed), 30, 31 (reversed)
2. Cognitive Self-Regulation: Items 5, 6, 8, 12, 18
3. Emotional Self-Regulation: Items 2, 10, 11 (reversed), 14 (reversed, 23 (reversed), 26 (reversed) (Appendix C: Permission to use CSBQ)

While all the items in the CSBQ were included in the Father Survey, only the self-regulation items identified by the author from the test were used for this study. The quantitative self-reports allowed for child self-regulation data to be immediately available with the father involvement scores, reducing the logistical demand and strengthening data through a possibly larger sample size. While self-reports are prone to bias, they are also reported to have higher ecological validity (Robson, Allen, and Howard, 2020, 10). In this study, bias was mitigated by validating self-report scores via a qualitative interview with both mother and father.

The CSBQ was developed in the Australian context. Despite its high reliability, this tool was selected considering similarity of the Australian family culture with that of

Filipinos. In a research exploring traditional Australian family and child rearing practices, four themes were identified to be significant in child rearing: 1) interdependence within community; 2) allowing children freedom to explore; 3) importance of elderly family members; and 4) coping with challenges through spirituality (Lohoar, Butera, and Kennedy 2014, 1-20). The first, third and fourth theme resonate with the Filipino family life. At the core of the Filipino psyche is the concept of “*kapwa*” where other people are seen as an extension of oneself (Yacat 2013, 12) is first practiced within the family. Alampay describes the Filipinos to “strongly value, prioritize, and intentionally cultivate strong relational bonds, especially within the family,” promoting the respect for elders and authority. Among a parent’s primary roles is to teach their children the “fear of God” (Alampay 2014, 108-111). The extended Filipino family plays an important role in childrearing as grandparents commonly help in childcare, and other male members of the family serve the paternal role in the absence of the biological father (Medina 2001, 218-221). With these family values congruent and the tested reliability of the instrument high, the Australian tool was considered applicable to the Filipino context.

Father involvement measures

To measure father involvement, standardized tools to measure engagement frequency and relational quality of the father involvement were used. Permission was acquired from Dr. Robert Pianta, author of the Child-Parent Relationship Scale (Appendix D: Written Permission to Use CPRS). The Father Engagement Scale by the Fatherhood Research and Practice Network (FRPN) was utilized as it was available for public download on the FRPN website under measurement resources. Nonetheless, permission was requested and obtained from the author after the fact (Appendix E: Written Permission to Use FRPN Father Engagement Scale). Both tools were converted to a digital questionnaire format. A segment on demographics and permissions were included for further selection of participants.

The Child-Parent Relationship Scale (CPRS) developed by Robert Pianta, on the other hand, is a quantitative self-report on the quality of parent-child interactions. The original form comprises thirty (30) items measuring parent perception of closeness, conflict and dependence with their child while the Short Form (CPRS-SF) is a compressed version with only fifteen (15) questions. Since fathers were asked to answer two (2) questionnaires, the CPRS-SF was used in the study to keep the number of questions at a minimum. The tool is designed for parents of children ages three (3) to twelve (12) years old by indicating perceptions using a five-point Likert scale. The conflict component yielded an alpha value of 0.72 while the positive aspects yielded a lower value of 0.58 (Appendix F: Child-Parent Relationship Scale Short Form).

The Fatherhood Research and Practice Network (FRPN) Father Engagement Scale developed by Dyer, Kaufman, Cabrera, Fagan, and Pearson (2015) measures

frequency of interaction for fathers whose youngest children are between one (1) and six (6) years old. Fathers reported the frequency of different forms of activities done with their child over the past thirty (30) days. The five-scale responses ranged from ‘never’ to ‘almost every day.’ The tool was pretested psychometrically to a group with the same characteristics as the group the organization caters to (Appendix G: Fatherhood Research and Practice Network (FRPN) Father Engagement Scale and Scoring Guide).

Contents of 1) CSBQ; 2) the FRPN Father Engagement Scale; 3) CPRS-SF; and 4) CSBQ were converted into a Google Form with respective segments and referred to as the “Father Survey.” All instructions and questions included a translation to the vernacular and was accessed via a link or QR Code (Appendix H: Father Survey).

Qualitative interview guide

To validate responses to the Father Survey and identify qualitative elements of father involvement, a researcher-designed Father Interview was crafted and pre-tested. It was then administered to fathers who meet selection criteria and agree to have their wives and children take part in the study as well (Appendix J: Father Interview Guide). The following components were covered:

1. General interaction
2. Perception of child
3. Closeness
4. Conflict

One question explored each topic, closing with a final question that describes himself as a father in one word. A “Concise” version of the interview guide enumerates the five general questions was sent along with the invitation for a family interview. An

“Expanded” version of the interview guide included two to three follow up questions per item was available to the researcher, to be asked depending on the interviewee’s initial answers.

A third-party validation by the mother who lives within the same context was conducted using a Mother Interview Guide. Its contents were the same as the Father Interview Guide but gathered the mother’s perspective on the father’s engagement and relationship with the child. Similarly, it had a “Concise” and “Expanded” version (Appendix J: Mother Interview Guide).

A “Me and Dad” portrait drawing Activity was conducted to initiate the conversation with the child. The child was first asked about his/her willingness to draw him/herself with his/her father on a regular day and do so if they are. Expressive and less threatening methods such as drawing allow children with limited language to more accurately share their experience, thoughts and feelings, thereby providing significant research data (Coyne and Carter 2018, 79-85). The child was asked to talk about their drawing and later asked questions parallel to the Father and Mother Interview Guides to capture the children’s perspective on their closeness and conflict with their father. In the same way, the Child Interview Guide had a “Concise” and “Expanded” version available (Appendix K: Me and Dad Portrait Instructions and Child Interview Guide).

Pilot Studies

To ensure applicability of the tools to the sample, the survey and interview were implemented with a similar group. The survey was distributed to parents of Nursery, Pre-Kinder and Kinder students in a preschool in Taytay, Rizal that also had a branch in Pasig City. Children were between ages three and five upon enrollment. The questionnaire was

distributed to forty-seven parents. A total of twelve fathers answered the survey with five expressing willingness to take part in a family interview and two requesting to know more about the research.

The pilot survey included questions about the time it took to fill up the survey, clarity of the questions and suggestions for improvement. Only one answered indicating eight minutes as the duration of answering the survey and that the questions were clear. This was asked in the interview as well. Both interviewees who took part in the pilot study indicated that it was clear.

Interviews with two families were conducted on a Saturday. Based on the conduct of the interview, most questions were understood and answered accurately. It was observed, however, that one question in the father interview was vague, because both fathers and mothers asked for clarification.

In the Father Interview Guide, the question that stated, “Describe a time when you felt close to your child” was revised to, “How close would you say you and your child are? When and in what way do you observe deep closeness with him or her?” Similarly, in the Mother Interview Guide, the question that stated, “Describe a time when you observed deep closeness between your child and your husband” was revised to “How close would you say your husband or partner and your child are? When do you observe deep closeness between them?”

Phase II: Data Collection

Father Survey

Upon identification of target participant schools, contact persons and contact details, letters of request were sent to administrators to request for permission to conduct

the online Father Survey among fathers of Pre-Kinder (four-year-old) students (Appendix L: Letter of Request to Conduct Study). A copy of the introductory letter and link to the Father Survey was included for reference and dissemination (Appendix M: Introductory Letter for Father Survey).

Messages and letters to the initial five schools identified were sent out February 24, 2024. Because respondents were low, the sample was expanded to include all Christian preschools in the municipality to make sampling exhaustive. Per the research proposal, number of schools will be increased until the target sample size was reached. Letters of request to conduct the survey were sent via email on May 4, 2024, and followed up on May 10, 2024. One school declined due to minimal contact with fathers and being occupied with year-end activities. Another school directed the researcher to another address. On the thirteenth and fourteenth of May 2024, signed hard copies of the letter of request were sent to the schools. Further, messages were sent via the Facebook accounts of twenty (20) schools who had active accounts on June 8, 2024. The researcher also reached out to the principal of one of the identified schools, Harris Memorial College. With endorsement of the principal, the registrar sent out the introduction letter to fathers of the four-year-olds. A social media callout was posted as a paid advertisement via the Facebook page of the researcher's preschool on June 20, 2024, with targeted geographical area.

Among those who indicated willingness to take part in the interview, results of the scores yielded one potential family for Q1, four for Q2, none for Q3 and four for Q4. Only one from Q1, Q2, and Q4 responded to the invitation to be interviewed.

Family Interviews

Those who indicated willingness to be interviewed whose scores fell in the identified quadrants were sent an invitation via email and text message on July 4, 2024. Candidate participants from Q1 responded that he is unable to participate due to being in the province. Follow-up emails and text messages were sent on July 24, with no response received. Upon another follow up email and text message on August 22, 2024, one participant for each of the three quadrants with participants responded and were immediately scheduled for family interviews.

The interview was conducted at the participant's preferred time at the researcher's suggested location at a preschool in the locality. The father, mother and child were interviewed consecutively. The family was welcomed in the classroom. Interviews with the father, mother and child were conducted separately. First to be interviewed was the father, followed by the mother, and the child last. They were invited for their turn to be interviewed in the office, which can be seen from the classroom through a glass door and window. A short brief on the nature of the study was given to the parents. They were thanked and given pastries as a token.

Phase III: Data Analysis

Quantitative Analysis

Scores in father engagement and child-parent relationship collected from the Father Survey were analyzed against the child self-regulation scores with services of an academic statistician who provided recommendations on sampling and analysis, processing of data and guidance in interpretation. Scores were categorized into high and low through frequency of their responses. Correlations between child self-regulation

scores (emotional, cognitive, and behavioral) and father involvement (quantity and quality) were determined using Spearman rank. P-values less than 0.05 indicated significant correlations. Correlation strength was determined using Coefficient Intervals (CI) and classified into Very Weak (CI=0.00-0.199), Weak (CI=0.20-0.399), Moderate (CI=0.40-0.599), Strong (CI=0.60-0.799), and Very Strong (CI=0.80-1.000). Correlations were computed separately for father involvement quantity and father involvement quality.

Further, Odds Ratio at ninety-five percent confidence interval was used to determine if father involvement is a risk factor to child self-regulation. Odds greater than one indicated father involvement as a risk factor to self-regulation. Ratios that had a p-value less than 0.05 were considered significant.

To determine if there is a difference between self-regulation scores of high father involvement and low father involvement groups, the Mann-Whitney test was used. Values used were median, instead of mean and standard deviation, as data is in Likert scale. Further, father involvement scores and self-regulation scores of male and female children were compared using the same test and parameters.

Qualitative Analysis

Elements of father involvement were identified from respective answers in the 1) father interviews; 2) mother interviews; and 3) child interviews. Data was organized and coded using MAXQDA. Themes were identified and organized into elements that were explicit and implicit in the interviews.

Integrative Data Analysis

Processed quantitative and qualitative data were integrated for a richer understanding of the constructs and their interactions. The qualitative data was explored to confirm or disconfirm quantitative data through the side-by-side approach (Creswell and Creswell 2023, 394).

Interview respondents belonged to the high father-involvement, high child self-regulation group. Statements and themes from the interviews were categorized into the component of self-regulation that it likely contributes to—cognitive, behavioral, and social self-regulation. Results and themes were also analyzed alongside previous studies.

Summary

To explore the relationship between father involvement and child self-regulation, a quantitative survey and qualitative interviews were conducted. Fathers of preschoolers from the municipality of Taytay, Rizal filled in a questionnaire to report on their perceived involvement and their children's self-regulation. Standardized and researcher-developed tools were pre-tested and adopted for data collection. Survey respondents who expressed willingness were invited for a family interview. The family of a respondent who scored high in father involvement and whose child scored high in self-regulation came for an interview. Thirty-three fathers answered the Father Survey, but only twenty-six were considered. One family comprised of the father, mother and preschool child took part in the qualitative interview. Quantitative data were analyzed statistically, and qualitative data were processed thematically, after which, collected data were integrated.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS, AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

This study seeks to understand the relationship between father involvement and child self-regulation. Results of standardized measures for these constructs, as well as statistical correlations and comparisons are discussed. Discussion and analysis of the results against existing studies follow. Results of the qualitative exploration of the father involvement elements of a father who scored high in involvement whose child scored high in self-regulation are also presented and discussed.

Presentation of Quantitative Data

Child Self-Regulation

The CSBQ is comprised of seventeen items that measure self-regulation. Seven items measured emotional self-regulation, five items measured cognitive self-regulation, and six items measured behavioral self-regulation. Answers were indicated through a multiple choice five-item Likert scale with one as “Not True,” three as “Partly True” and five “Very True.”

Table 2. Self-Regulation Levels

Self Regulation	1 (Not True)	2	3 (Partly True)	4 (True)	5 (Very True)
Cognitive Self-Regulation					
Persists with difficult tasks	2 (8%)	5 (19%)	10 (38%)	7 (27%)	2 (8%)
Chooses activities on their own	0 (0%)	1 (4%)	6 (23%)	11 (42%)	8 (31%)
Does not need much help with tasks	0 (0%)	8 (31%)	13 (50%)	4 (15%)	1 (4%)
Persists with tasks until completed	1 (4%)	3 (12%)	10 (38%)	8 (31%)	4 (15%)
Likes to work things out for self	2 (8%)	5 (19%)	7 (27%)	8 (31%)	4 (15%)
Behavioral Self-Regulation					
Regularly unable to sustain attention	8 (31%)	9 (35%)	7 (27%)	2 (8%)	0 (0%)
Waits their turn in activities	0 (0%)	6 (23%)	6 (23%)	11 (42%)	3 (12%)
Good at following instructions	0 (0%)	4 (15%)	8 (31%)	6 (23%)	8 (31%)
Not able to sit still when necessary	11 (42%)	10 (38%)	2 (8%)	3 (12%)	0 (0%)
Is cooperative	0 (0%)	1 (4%)	8 (31%)	6 (23%)	11 (42%)
Is impulsive	11 (42%)	7 (27%)	5 (19%)	3 (12%)	0 (0%)
Emotional Self-Regulation					
Calm and easygoing	1 (4%)	3 (12%)	11 (42%)	6 (23%)	5 (19%)
Gets over being upset quickly	0 (0%)	6 (23%)	10 (38%)	7 (27%)	3 (12%)
Easily upset over small events	3 (12%)	8 (31%)	11 (42%)	4 (15%)	0 (0%)
Gets over excitement	1 (4%)	2 (8%)	8 (31%)	12 (46%)	3 (12%)
Most days will lose temper	13 (50%)	8 (31%)	2 (8%)	2 (8%)	1 (4%)
Shows wide mood swings	13 (50%)	7 (27%)	4 (15%)	1 (4%)	1 (4%)

Cognitive Self-Regulation

Cognitive self-regulation was measured by asking fathers to describe how true the following statements describe their preschool child: “persists with difficult tasks,” “chooses activities on their own,” “does not need much help with tasks,” “persists until tasks are completed,” and “likes to work things out for oneself” (PRISIST n.d.). Following are the respondents’ reported ratings of their children’s cognitive self-regulation.

In “persisting with difficult tasks,” thirty-eight percent of the respondents gave their children a rating of *three*, twenty-seven percent gave a rating of *four*, nineteen percent gave a rating of *two*, and eight percent each gave a rating of *one* and *five*. In “choosing activities on their own,” forty-two percent rated their children *four*, thirty-one percent rated their children *five*, twenty-three percent rated their children *three*, and four percent rated their children *two*. None of the respondents rated their children *one*. Half of

the respondents rated their children *three* in “does not need much help with tasks,” while thirty-one percent gave a rating of *two*, fifteen percent gave a rating of *four*, and four percent gave a rating of *five*. None of the respondents gave a rating of *one*. Thirty-eight percent rated their children *three* in “persisting until tasks are completed.” Thirty-one percent gave a rating of *four*, fifteen percent gave a rating of *five*, twelve percent gave a rating of *two*, and four percent gave a rating of *one*. In describing their children to “liking to work things out for themselves,” thirty-one percent gave a rating of *four*, twenty-seven percent gave a rating of *three*, nineteen percent gave a rating of *two*, fifteen percent gave a rating of *five*, and eight percent gave a rating of *one*.

Most respondents regard as *partly true* statements that describe their child to persist in tasks despite difficulty, to not need help in tasks, and to persist until tasks are completed. Choosing their own activity and working things out for themselves is *true* for most of the respondents. None of the respondents rated as *not true* that their children independently choose activities and do not need much help in tasks, indicating need for guidance, even for those who scored high in self-regulation.

Behavioral Self-Regulation

Behavioral self-regulation was measured by asking fathers to describe how true the following statements describe their preschool child: “is regularly unable to sustain attention,” “waits their turn in activities,” “is good at following instructions,” “is not able to sit still when necessary,” “is cooperative,” and “is impulsive” (PRISIST n.d.). Following are the respondents’ reported ratings of their children’s behavioral self-regulation.

In observing their children to be “regularly unable to sustain attention,” thirty-five percent gave a rating of *two*, thirty-one percent gave a rating of *one*, twenty-seven percent gave a rating of *three*, and eight percent gave a rating of *four*. None of the respondents gave a rating of *five*. Forty-two percent of the respondents rated their children *four* in “waiting their turn in activities,” while twenty-three percent each rated their children *two* and *three* respectively. Twelve percent gave a rating of *five* while none gave a rating of *one*. Thirty-one percent gave a rating of *three* for their children being “good at following instructions,” with an equal number giving a rating of *five*. Twenty-three percent gave a rating of *four* and fifteen percent gave a rating of *two*. None of the respondents gave their children a rating of *one*. Forty-two percent of the respondents gave a rating of *one* for their children in “not being able to sit still when necessary.” Thirty-eight percent rated their children *two*, twelve percent rated their children *four*, while eight percent rated their children *three*. None of the respondents rated their children *five*. In being cooperative, forty-two percent of the respondents gave a rating of *five*, thirty-one percent gave a rating of *three*, twenty-three percent gave a rating of *four* and four percent gave a rating of *two*. None of the respondents gave a rating of *one*. In being impulsive, forty-two percent gave a rating of *one* twenty-seven percent gave a rating of *two*, nineteen percent gave a rating of *three*, twelve percent gave a rating of *four* and none gave a rating of *five*.

Among all components of self-regulation, responses of the majority for behavioral self-regulation were most spread across categories. Most respondents reported as *very true* that their child is cooperative. Most reported as *true* that their child waits for their turn. The number of respondents saying that the statement that their child is very good at following instructions is *very true* and *partly true* are equal. Most respondents answered

between not true and partly true to describe their child as “regularly able to sustain attention.” Most of the respondents say that it is not true that their child “is not able to sit still when necessary” or is “impulsive.”

Emotional Self-Regulation

Emotional self-regulation was measured by asking fathers to describe how true the following statements describe their preschool child: “is calm and easygoing,” “gets over being upset quicky,” “easily gets upset over small events,” “gets over excitement,” “most days will lose temper,” and “shows wide mood swings” (PRSIST n.d.). Following are the respondents’ reported ratings of their children’s emotional self-regulation.

Among the respondents, forty-two percent rated their children as being “calm and easy-going” as *three*, twenty-three percent as *four*, nineteen percent as *five*, twelve percent as *three*, and four percent as *one*. Thirty-eight percent of the respondents rated their children in “getting over being upset quicky” as *three*, twenty-seven percent as *four*, twenty-three percent as *two*, and twelve percent as *five*. None of the respondents gave their children a rating of *one*. Forty-two of the respondents rated their children as *three* in “getting easily upset over small events,” thirty-one percent as *two*, fifteen percent as *four*, and twelve percent as *one*. None of the respondents rated their children in this area as *five*. Forty-six percent of the respondents rated their children as *four* in “getting over excitement,” thirty-one percent as *three*, twelve percent as *five*, eight percent as *two*, and four percent as *one*. In observing their children to lose temper most days, half of the respondents gave their children a rating of *one*, while thirty-one percent gave rating of *two*. Eight percent gave their children a rating of *three* with an equal number giving a rating of *four*. Four percent gave a rating of *five*. Similarly, half of the respondents rated

their children *one* in “showing wide mood swings.” Twenty-seven percent rated their children *two*, fifteen percent rated their children *three*, and an equal number of one percent rated their children *four* and *five* respectively.

Most of the respondents describe their children to “be calm and easygoing,” “get over being upset quickly,” and “being easily upset over small events as *partly true*. Most say it is *true* that their child “gets over excitement.” Half of the respondents report that it is *not true* that their children “most days will lose temper” and that they “show wide mood swings.”

Levels

To categorize self-regulation scores as “High” and “Low,” responses from *one to three* were given one point, and responses of four to five were given two points. All points were added and those that scored nine and below were categorized as “Low Child Self-Regulation,” while those that had a total score higher than nine were categorized as “High Child Self-Regulation.” Fifteen respondents fell in the “Low Child Self-Regulation” group, while eleven fell in the “High Child Self-Regulation” group.

Father Involvement Quantity

The FRPN Father Engagement Scale measured frequency of father engagement in a Likert scale with the following categorical levels in increasing frequency: “never,” “one to two days a Month,” “three to four days a month,” “two to three days a week,” and “daily.” Sixty-two percent of father respondents reported the frequency of playing toys with their children to be *daily*, nineteen percent for *two to three days a week*, twelve percent for *three to four days a month*, and eight percent for *one to two days a month*.

None report to *never* play toys with their children. Seventy-seven percent of the respondents had meals with their children *daily*, while twelve percent did so *two to three times a week*, eight percent for *one to two days a month* and four percent for *three to four days a month*. None of the respondents report *never* having meals with their children. Eighty-five percent of respondent participants hug their child *daily*, and eight percent do for *one to two days a month*. Four percent hug their children for *two to three days a week*, with an equal number doing so for *three to four days a month*. None of the respondents *never* hug their children. Seventy-seven percent of the respondent fathers watch over or care for their preschool child *daily*. Twelve percent do so for *two to three days a week*, eight percent for *one to two days a month*, and four percent for *three to four days a month*. None of the respondents *never* watch over their children. Rough-and-tumble play is done by forty-two percent of fathers *daily*, by thirty-eight percent for *two to three times a week*, and by twelve percent for *one to two days a month*. Four percent does so for *three to four days a month* while the remaining four percent *never* does. Thirty-eight percent read with their children *two to three times a week*, and twenty-seven percent do for *three to four days a month*. Nineteen percent read to their children *daily*, twelve percent for *one to two days a month* and four percent *never*. Teaching their children to take turns or wait for rewards was done *daily* by forty-six percent, and *two to three days a week* by twenty-three percent. Fifteen percent do so for *three to four days a month*, and the other fifteen percent for *one to two days a month*. None of the respondents responded “*never*.”

Seventy-seven percent of the fathers tell their children that they love them *daily*, twelve percent for *two to three days a week*, eight percent for *one to two days a month*, and four percent for *three to four days a month*. None of the respondents *never* tell their children

that they love them. Eighty-eight percent of the fathers talk to their children *daily*, eight percent for *one to two days a month*, and four percent for *two to three days a week*. None of the father respondents *never* talk to their children, and none in the frequency of *three to four days a month*. Seventy-seven percent of the respondents encourage their children *daily*, twelve percent for *two to three days a week*, eight percent for *one to two days a month* and four percent for *three to four days a month*. None of the respondents *never* encourage their children.

Of the ten items that measured frequency, majority of the respondents reported to do the following nine activities with their children *daily*: playing toys (sixty-two percent), having meals (seventy-seven percent), hugging (eighty-five percent), watching over or caring for (seventy-seven percent), played rough-and-tumble (forty-two percent), teaching their child to take turns and wait for rewards (forty-six percent), telling their child he loved him or her (seventy-seven percent), talking (eighty-eight percent), and encouraging their child (seventy-seven percent). Most reported reading a book to their child for *two to three days a week*. Almost none of the activities were never done with the children, except for playing rough-and-tumble play and reading with the child which had one response each.

Table 3. Father Involvement Quantity

	Never	1-2 days a month	3-4 days a month	2-3 days a week	Daily
How often have you played toys with your child?	0 (0%)	2 (8%)	3 (12%)	5 (19%)	16 (62%)
How often have you had meals with your child?	0 (0%)	2 (8%)	1 (4%)	3 (12%)	20 (77%)
How often have you hugged your child?	0 (0%)	2 (8%)	1 (4%)	1 (4%)	22 (85%)
How often have you watched over/cared for your child?	0 (0%)	2 (8%)	1 (4%)	3 (12%)	20 (77%)
How often have you played rough-and-tumble or roughhoused with your child?	1 (4%)	3 (12%)	1 (4%)	10 (38%)	11 (42%)
How often have you read with your child?	1 (4%)	3 (12%)	7 (27%)	10 (38%)	5 (19%)
How often have you taught your child to take turns or to wait for rewards?	0 (0%)	4 (15%)	4 (15%)	6 (23%)	12 (46%)
How often have you told your child that you loved him/her?	0 (0%)	2 (8%)	1 (4%)	3 (12%)	20 (77%)
How often have you talked with your child?	0 (0%)	2 (8%)	0 (0%)	1 (4%)	23 (88%)
How often have you encouraged your child?	0 (0%)	2 (8%)	1 (4%)	3 (12%)	20 (77%)

Father-Child Relationship Quality

Seven items from the CPRS that captured closeness were used to measure Father involvement quality. Responses came in a five-point Likert scale with the following categorical levels that measured applicability of the statements: “definitely does not apply,” “not really applies,” “not sure or neutral,” “somewhat applies,” and “definitely applies.”

For eighty-one percent of the respondents report that “sharing a warm and affectionate relationship with their children” *definitely applies*. It *applies somewhat* to twelve percent and *not really* to eight percent. None of the respondents say that it *definitely does not apply* nor that they are *not sure or neutral*. Thirty-eight percent of the respondents say that their child seeking comfort from them when upset *definitely applies*, while a close number of thirty five percent say that it *applies somewhat*. Fifteen percent say that they are *not sure or neutral* while the remaining twelve percent say it *not really*

applies. None of the respondents say that it *definitely does not apply*. The statement “my child values his or her relationship with me *definitely applies* to eighty-five percent of respondents, and *not really* to eight percent. Four percent say it *applies somewhat*, and the other four percent say they are *not sure or neutral*. None of the respondents say that it *definitely does not apply*. Sixty-nine percent of the respondent says that the statement, “when I praise my child, he or she beams with pride” *definitely applies*. Nineteen percent say it *applies somewhat*, eight percent say *not really*, and four percent say they are *not sure or neutral*. Eighty-one percent of the respondents say that their child spontaneously sharing information with them *definitely applies*. Twelve percent say it *applies somewhat* and eight percent say *not really*. None of the respondents say they are *not sure or neutral* or that it *definitely does not apply*. Finding it easy to be in tune with their child’s feelings *definitely applies* to half of the respondents and *applies somewhat* to twenty-seven percent. Fifteen percent are *not sure/neutral* and eight percent say it does *not really* apply. None of the respondents say that it *definitely does not apply*. That their child “openly shares experiences with them” *definitely applies* to sixty-nine percent of the respondents and *applies somewhat* to twelve percent. Eight percent say they are *not sure or neutral* while the remaining twelve percent say it does *not really* apply. None of the respondents say that it *definitely does not apply*.

For father-child closeness, most respondents reported that all seven statements “definitely applies.” They share a warm affection relationship with their child (eighty-one percent); their child seeks comfort from them when upset (thirty-eight percent); their child values their relationship (eighty-five percent); their child beams with pride when praised (sixty-nine percent); their child shares information spontaneously about himself

or herself (eighty-one percent); they are in tune with what their child feels (fifty percent); and their child openly shares feelings and experiences with them (sixty-nine percent).

Moreover, none of the statements were reported to “definitely not apply.”

Table 4. Father Involvement Quality

	Definitely does not apply	Not really	Not sure /Neutral	Applies Somewhat	Definitely applies
1 I share a warm affectionate relationship with my child.	0 (0%)	2 (8%)	0 (0%)	3 (12%)	21 (81%)
3 If upset, my child will seek comfort from me.	0 (0%)	3 (12%)	4 (15%)	9 (35%)	10 (38%)
5 My child values his/her relationship with me.	0 (0%)	2 (8%)	1 (4%)	1 (4%)	22 (85%)
6 When I praise my child, he/she beams with pride.	0 (0%)	2 (8%)	1 (4%)	5 (19%)	18 (69%)
7 My child spontaneously shares information about	0 (0%)	2 (8%)	0 (0%)	3 (12%)	21 (81%)
9 It is easy to be in tune with what my child is feeling.	0 (0%)	2 (8%)	4 (15%)	7 (27%)	13 (50%)
15 My child openly shares his/her feelings and experiences with me.	0 (0%)	3 (12%)	2 (8%)	3 (12%)	18 (69%)

Just as the child self-regulation scores were categorized, father involvement scores were also categorized into “High” and “Low.” For father involvement quantity, those who responded *never*, *one to two days a month*, and *three to four days a month* were credited with one point, while those who responded *two to three days a week* and *daily* were given two points. For father involvement quality, those who responded *definitely does not apply*, *not really applies*, and *not sure or neutral* were credited one point, and those who answered *applies somewhat* and *definitely applies* were given two points. Respondents who received a total score of twenty-five points and below were categorized into the “Low Father Involvement” group, while those who had a total score greater than twenty-five were categorized in the “High Father Involvement” group. Only two respondents fell in the “Low Father Involvement” group and the remaining twenty-four fell in the “High Father Involvement” group.

Levels

The respondents were further grouped into four categories for the selection of participants for the qualitative interviews. Categories were as follows:

Quadrant 1 (Q1): Low Father Involvement, Low Child Self-Regulation

Quadrant 2 (Q2): High Father Involvement, Low Child Self-Regulation

Quadrant 3 (Q3): Low Father Involvement, High Child Self-Regulation

Quadrant 4 (Q4): High Father Involvement, High Child Self-Regulation.

Two respondents (eight percent) fell in Quadrant 1, 12 (forty-six percent) fell in Quadrant 2, and 11 (forty-two percent) fell in Quadrant 4. No respondent fell in Quadrant 3.

Table 5. Survey Respondent Categories

CHILD SELF – REGULATION SCORES	FATHER INVOLVEMENT SCORES		
	LOW	HIGH	TOTAL
LOW	Quadrant 1 (Q1) 2	Quadrant 2 (Q2) 13	15
HIGH	Quadrant 3 (Q3) 0	Quadrant 4 (Q4) 11	11
TOTAL	2	24	26

Analysis of Quantitative Data

Child self-regulation scores and father involvement scores were treated statistically to test the null hypotheses. The Spearman Rho was employed to determine correlations between variables, and the Mann Whitney U test was employed to compare

and test for significant difference between groups. Further, Odds Ratio was used to determine if father involvement quantity and father involvement quality were risk factors to child overall, cognitive, behavioral and emotional self-regulation.

For purposes of comparison, self-regulation scores of male and female children as reported by their fathers were compared. There were no significant differences in their overall, cognitive, and behavioral self-regulation, but there was a significant difference in their emotional self-regulation scores. Several studies show a difference between girls and boys in overall self-regulation, as their respective studies did not measure the components separately (Eiden et al. 2007, 51; Dereli 2016, 15; Montroy 2016, 3; Berthelsen et al. 2017, 10; Piotrowski, Lapierre, and Linebarger 2013, 429). Results of the gender comparison validated Basten's findings that being male was a risk factor to being highly problematic, but not that it was a risk factor to being emotionally reactive (Basten 2014, 26) as the current findings show no difference for emotional regulation.

Unlike Bailey's study that did not yield a difference in father involvement with sons and daughters (Bailey 1994, 331-339), statistical results of this study show that father involvement quantity with male and female children was significantly different. Fathers spent significantly more time with sons than with daughters. Difference may be attributed to the difference in definition of father involvement as Bailey's study was limited to caregiving and this study captures other elements of father involvement quantity in addition to caregiving.

Father involvement quality, on the other hand, was equal for male and female children. These results are not congruent with findings that fathers show preference for daughters (Feldman and Klein 2003, 685), that perceived closeness was higher for

daughters (Driscoll and Pianta 2011, 13-16), and that father connectedness was higher for girls and father detachment was higher for boys (George, Fletcher, and Palazzi 2017, 4-10). There is an indication of possible gender differences in both self-regulation and father involvement but will not be discussed as delimited in this study. Further study is recommended to explore gender differences both in self-regulation and father involvement.

Correlation Between Child Self-Regulation and Father Involvement

Father Involvement Quantity

Father involvement quantity was not significantly correlated to overall self-regulation, with a p-value of 0.214 and a coefficient interval (CI) of 0.48. Among self-regulation components, father involvement quantity was not significantly correlated to emotional self-regulation (p-value=0.214, CI=0.38), but had significant, medium positive correlation to both cognitive self-regulation (p-value=0.044, CI=0.53) and behavioral self-regulation (p-value=0.031, CI=0.57).

Table 6. Correlation Between Child Self-Regulation and Father Involvement Quantity

	Father Involvement Quantity	
	Correlation	p-value
Overall Self Regulation	0.48	0.214
Cognitive Self-Regulation	0.53	0.044*
Behavioral Self-Regulation	0.57	0.031*
Emotional Self-Regulation	0.38	0.095

**Significant at 0.05*

These results lead to the following decisions for Null Hypothesis 1 and its sub-hypotheses. Null Hypothesis 1 stating that there is no significant relationship between father involvement quantity scores and child overall self-regulation scores is accepted. However, two of its three sub-hypotheses are rejected. Null Hypothesis 1.1 stating that there is no significant relationship between father involvement scores and child cognitive self-regulation scores is rejected. Its alternative hypothesis that there is a significant positive relationship between father involvement quantity scores and child cognitive self-regulation scores is then accepted. Null Hypothesis 1.2 stating that there is no significant relationship between father involvement quantity scores and child behavioral self-regulation scores is rejected. Its alternative hypothesis stating that there is a significant positive relationship between father involvement quantity scores and child behavioral self-regulation scores is then accepted. Null Hypothesis 1.3 stating that there is no significant difference between father involvement quantity scores and child emotional self-regulation scores is accepted.

Table 7. Hypotheses Decisions on the Relationship Between Father Involvement Quantity and Child Self-Regulation Scores

Hypothesis Number	Null Hypothesis	Result	Alternative Hypothesis Accepted
1	There is no significant relationship between father involvement quantity scores and child overall self-regulation scores.	Accepted	None
1.1	There is no significant relationship between father involvement quantity scores and child cognitive self-regulation scores.	Rejected	There is a significant positive relationship between father involvement quantity scores and child cognitive self-regulation scores.

1.2	There is no significant relationship between father involvement quantity scores and child behavioral self-regulation scores.	Rejected	There is a significant positive relationship between father involvement quantity scores and child behavioral self-regulation scores.
1.3	There is no significant relationship between father involvement quantity scores and child emotional self-regulation scores.	Accepted	None

Father Involvement Quality

Father involvement quality was significantly and strongly correlated to overall self-regulation with its p-value at 0.031 and coefficient interval at 0.66. Further, father involvement quality was strongly and significantly correlated with cognitive self-regulation (CI=69, 0.011), behavioral self-regulation (CI=0.65, p-value=0.024), and emotional self-regulation (CI=0.58, p-value=0.39). All correlations were positive.

Table 8. Correlation Between Child Self-Regulation and Father Involvement Quality

	Fathers Involvement Quality	
	Correlation	p-value
Overall Self Regulation	0.66	0.031*
Cognitive Self-Regulation	0.69	0.011*
Emotional Self-Regulation	0.58	0.039*
Behavioral Self-Regulation	0.65	0.024*
<i>*Significant at 0.05</i>		

These results lead to the following decisions regarding Null Hypothesis 2 and its sub-hypotheses. Null Hypothesis 2 stating that there is no significant relationship

between father involvement quality scores and child overall self-regulation scores is rejected. Its alternative hypothesis that there is a significant positive relationship between father involvement quality scores and child overall self-regulation scores is accepted. Further, Null Hypotheses 2.1, 2.2 and 2.3 stating that there is no significant relationship between father involvement quality scores and child cognitive, behavioral and emotional self-regulation scores, respectively, are rejected. Alternative Hypothesis 2.1 stating that there is a significant positive relationship between father involvement quality scores and child cognitive self-regulation scores is accepted. Alternative Hypothesis 2.2 stating that there is a significant positive relationship between father involvement quality scores and child behavioral self-regulation scores is accepted. Likewise, Alternative Hypothesis 2.3 stating that there is a significant positive relationship between father involvement quality scores and child emotional self-regulation scores is accepted.

Table 9. Hypotheses Decisions on the Relationship Between Father Involvement Quality and Child Self-Regulation Scores

Hypothesis Number	Null Hypothesis	Result	Alternative Hypothesis Accepted
2	There is no significant relationship between father involvement quality scores and child overall self-regulation scores.	Rejected	There is a significant positive relationship between father involvement quality scores and child overall self-regulation scores.
2.1	There is no significant relationship between father involvement quality scores and child cognitive self-regulation scores.	Rejected	There is a significant positive relationship between father involvement quality scores and child cognitive self-regulation scores.

2.2	There is no significant relationship between father involvement quality scores and child behavioral self-regulation scores.	Rejected	There is a significant positive relationship between father involvement quality scores and child behavioral self-regulation scores.
2.3	There is no significant relationship between father involvement quality scores and child emotional self-regulation scores.	Rejected	There is a significant positive relationship between father involvement quality scores and child emotional self-regulation scores.

Interpretation of Quantitative Data

Results of the correlational analyses validate findings by Easterbrooks and Goldberg that both father involvement quantity and father involvement quality are positively correlated to cognitive function. Similarly, association was stronger for father involvement quality than father involvement quantity. Specifically, the qualitative element of sensitivity in problem-solving tasks were related to toddlers being autonomous and persistent in tasks. Further, father-child attachment was related to better task orientation (Easterbrooks and Goldberg 1984, 740-752). Current results show significant medium positive correlation between cognitive self-regulation and father involvement quantity, and strong positive correlation with father involvement quality.

Specific cognitive capacity found related to self-regulation are “language, mathematics, reading and literacy skills” (Jaramillo et al. 2017, 1). Interestingly, among the ten father involvement quantity items, only "reading with your child” was not done daily by most of the respondents. Further, it is one of the two items that had one response that said they “never” do the activity with their child and is the item that had most

responses that indicated frequency of three to four days a month and less. Among the self-regulation components, it is in cognitive self-regulation that high father involvement and low father involvement groups do not show significant differences. The involvement in reading activities may be a factor.

The medium and non-significant correlation between overall child self-regulation and father involvement quantity may mean that the relationship between the two variables is nonlinear and that other factors may be at play. Unlike father involvement quantity, father involvement quality is strongly and positively correlated with child overall self-regulation. This means that an increase in father involvement quality will increase a child's overall self-regulation. Should there be intention to increase child self-regulation, father involvement quality may be used as a tool for the approach.

Father involvement quantity and quality were significantly correlated to cognitive self-regulation, but correlation was medium and strong respectively. These results validate findings of Fagan and Inglesias on the positive correlation between father involvement quantity and cognitive self-regulation (Fagan and Inglesias 1999, 243-269). Quality component of father-child relationships through positivity is also found to be positively related to executive function and effortful control (Chary 2020, 28-35). Fagan and Palm identify four roles of fathers as 1) playmates; 2) followers; 3) observers; and 4) teachers or guides (Fagan and Palm 2003, n.p.). Being teacher or guide not only gives information but allows space to direct and sustain attention, and exercise problem-solving. The cognitive stimulation that happens in the play context strengthens cognitive ability and language use for children (Cabrera, Shannon, and LeMonda 2007, 208-213).

Results also validate findings of McWayne and colleagues indicating small but significant positive correlations between both father involvement quantity and father involvement quality and cognitive self-regulation (McWayne et al. 2013, 898-922). Findings from an observational study of toddlers reveal that both quantity and quality are linked to problem-solving ability. Quantity was measured through time spent alone with the child and time spent playing with the child. Combined as measures of father involvement, they were found to be related to task orientation. While this study reveals a stronger relationship of child outcomes to father involvement quality, father involvement quantity remains important (Easterbrooks and Goldberg 1984, 740-752). Similarly, correlations were stronger between cognitive self-regulation and father involvement quality.

As with cognitive self-regulation, correlations between behavioral self-regulation and father involvement quantity and father involvement quality were medium and strong respectively. Studies on impact of behavioral self-regulation looked more at delinquent behaviors, associating high father involvement with lower behavior problems such as poor academic performance, substance abuse, unemployment, delinquent behaviors and committing crimes (Cosentino 2017, 42-47; Geddes 2008, 402; Tautolo, Schluter, and Paterson 2015, 3502).

The Fatherhood Institute raises concern over the large percentages of children and juveniles coming from fatherless homes (Carstens 2014, 10-11). Data, however, did not provide information on the father involvement quantity, and more importantly, father involvement quality, but simply at the presence and absence of fathers. These results may

not be conclusive because they observe non-resident fathers to give higher value to time spent with their children (Halme, Kurki, and Tarkka 2009, 103-119).

In the Philippines, the fathers are traditionally delegated with the disciplinarian role. Part of it includes teaching prescribing behavior that is acceptable not only to the family but to the larger community. Another is deterring unacceptable behavior through consequences (Zaide 1989, 30-31). Given the results, positive behavioral outcomes can be expected when father involvement is high, with the father having more opportunity to exercise these roles.

Results show that the relationships between father involvement and emotional self-regulation was weaker than it was with cognitive and behavioral self-regulation. Among the three components of self-regulation, it is with emotional self-regulation that father involvement influence is more mixed. Results of previous studies are congruent with current results that father involvement quality is positively related to emotional regulation while father involvement quantity is not.

Bocknek shows positive relations between father involvement with child cognitive outcomes if father engagement through active play is at moderate levels. Moving to either extreme reverses the results (Bocknek et al. 2017, 105-134). Hagman's findings that emotion amplification and positive regard prove to be positively related to emotional self-regulation, while intrusiveness is negatively correlated (Hagman 2014, 51-72), show that quality of father involvement is critical to its impact to emotional regulation. In the same way, father closeness, which was the indicator used for father involvement quality in this study, positively correlated with emotional regulation (Dereli 2016, 42-46). Out of ten studies reviewed by Puglisi and team, only one showed a direct

association between father involvement and children's emotional regulation (Puglisi et al. 2024, 10-11).

Overall self-regulation resulted in the similar correlations with father involvement as emotional self-regulation. It is not significantly correlated to father involvement quantity but is strongly and significantly correlated with father involvement quality. The mother caregiving role that is attributed to attachment may be a factor in the non-significant correlation between father involvement and child emotional regulation, especially in early childhood where mother engagement is typically higher.

In their attempt to debunking of the Essential Father Theory that claims that marriage is necessary and father presence is important to serve as male role models, Silverstein and Auberbach argues that it is not the mere presence or absence of fathers (quantity) that makes their role critical but the consistency of a child's relationship with a responsive adult, regardless of whether it is the mother, father or another significant adult (Silverstein and Auberbach 1999, 1-22), implying greater importance of father involvement quality to children. This is congruent with Pleck's proposal to reconceptualize the fatherhood construct to direct it toward qualitative components.

These results support the argument of researchers who have called for the expansion of the father involvement definition (Moon and Hoffman 2008, 261-279; Morgan 1996, 97-98; Townsend 2002, 50-80), proposing for inclusion of qualitative elements as these have more significant linkages with child development. While father involvement quality shows stronger associations with child self-regulation, the influence of father involvement quantity cannot be discounted, and therefore should still be

considered in efforts to strengthen self-regulation, especially the cognitive and behavioral components. It is in the quantity that the quality is strengthened.

Comparison of Children with High Father Involvement and Children with Low Father Involvement

Comparison of self-regulation scores were conducted using the Mann Whitney U Test at ninety-five percent confidence interval. Self-regulation scores of children with high father involvement quantity and children with low father involvement quantity were compared. In the same way, self-regulation scores of children with high father involvement quality and low father involvement quality were compared.

Table 10. Comparison of Children with High Father Involvement and Children with Low Father Involvement

Factors	Overall Self Regulation	Cognitive Self-Regulation	Behavioral Self-Regulation	Emotional Self-Regulation
Father Involvement Quantity				
Low	3 (3.0-4.5)	3 (3.0-4.5)	2 (2.0-3.0)	2.5 (2.0-3.5)
High	4 (4.0 - 5.0)	3.5 (3.0 - 4.0)	3.5 (3.0 - 5.0)	4 (3.5 - 5.0)
p-value	0.014*	0.362	<0.001*	<0.001*
Father Involvement Quality				
Low	2.5 (2.0-4.0)	3.5 (3.0-4.5)	2.5 (2.0-4.0)	3.0 (2.0-4.5)
High	4.5 (4.0 - 5.0)	4.0 (3.0 - 5.0)	4.0 (3.0 - 5.0)	4 (3.5 - 5.0)
p-value	<0.001*	0.063	<0.001*	0.042*
*Significant at 0.05				

Father Involvement Quantity

Results show a significant difference between overall self-regulation scores of children with high father involvement quantity and children with low father involvement quantity with p-value at 0.014. Taking the components separately, emotional and behavioral self-regulation scores of children with high father involvement quantity and children with low father quantity were found to be significantly different with p-values

for both at <0.001 . Cognitive self-regulation scores of the two groups were not significantly different.

Given these results, Null Hypothesis 3 stating that children whose fathers have high father involvement quantity scores do not have significantly higher self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quantity scores is rejected. Its corresponding Alternative Hypothesis 3 stating that children whose fathers have high father involvement quantity scores have significantly higher self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quantity scores is accepted. Null Hypothesis 3.1 stating that children whose fathers have high father involvement quantity scores do not have significantly higher cognitive self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quantity scores is accepted. Null Hypothesis 3.2 that states that children whose fathers have high father involvement quantity scores do not have significantly higher behavioral self-regulation than those whose fathers have low father involvement quantity scores, and Null Hypothesis 3.3 that states that children whose fathers have high father involvement quantity scores do not have significantly higher emotional self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quantity scores are both rejected. Consequently, Alternative Hypotheses 3.2 and 3.3 claiming that the high father involvement quality group have significantly higher behavioral and emotional self-regulation scores than the low father involvement quality group are accepted.

Table 11. Hypotheses Decisions on the Difference Between Self-regulation Scores of Children with High Father Involvement Quantity and Children with Low Father Involvement Quantity

Hypothesis Number	Null Hypothesis	Result	Alternative Hypothesis Accepted
3	Children whose fathers have high father involvement quantity scores do not have significantly higher overall self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quantity scores.	Reject	Children whose fathers have high father involvement quantity scores have significantly higher overall self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quantity scores.
3.1	Children whose fathers have high father involvement quantity scores do not have significantly higher cognitive self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quantity scores.	Accept	None
3.2	Children whose fathers have high father involvement quantity scores do not have significantly higher behavioral self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quantity scores.	Reject	Children whose fathers have high father involvement quantity scores have significantly higher behavioral self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quantity scores.
3.3	Children whose fathers have high father involvement quantity scores do not have significantly higher emotional self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quantity scores.	Reject	Children whose fathers have high father involvement quantity scores have significantly higher emotional self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quantity scores.

Father Involvement Quality

In the same way, results show a significant difference in overall self-regulation scores of children with high father involvement quality and children with low father involvement quality with p-value at <0.001 . As with father involvement quantity, emotional and behavioral self-regulation scores of children with high father involvement quality and children with low father involvement quality were significantly different with p-values at 0.042 and <0.001 respectively. Cognitive self-regulation scores of the two groups were not significantly different.

These results lead to the rejection of Null Hypothesis 4 stating that children whose fathers have high father involvement quality scores do not have significantly higher overall self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quality scores and accept Alternative Hypothesis 4 that claims that the former group scores significantly higher than the latter group. Null Hypothesis 4.1 that states no difference between the high father involvement and low father involvement group in their cognitive self-regulation scores is accepted. On the other hand, Hypotheses 4.2 and 4.3 that claim that there is no significant difference in the behavioral and emotional self-regulation scores, respectively, of the two groups. Consequently, Alternative Hypothesis 4.2 stating that children whose fathers have high father involvement quality have significantly higher behavioral self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quality scores is accepted. Similarly, Alternative Hypothesis 4.3 stating that children whose fathers have high father involvement quality scores have significantly higher emotional self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quality scores is likewise accepted.

Table 12. Hypotheses Decisions on the Difference Between Self-Regulation Scores of Children with High Father Involvement Quality and Children with Low Father Involvement Quality

Hypothesis Number	Null Hypothesis	Result	Alternative Hypothesis Accepted
4	Children whose fathers have high father involvement quality scores do not have significantly higher overall self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quality scores.	Rejected	Children whose fathers have high father involvement quality scores have significantly higher overall self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quality scores.
4.1	Children whose fathers have high father involvement quality scores do not have significantly higher cognitive self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quality scores.	Accepted	None
4.2	Children whose fathers have high father involvement quality scores do not have significantly higher behavioral self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quality scores.	Rejected	Children whose fathers have high father involvement quality scores have significantly higher behavioral self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quality scores.
4.3	Children whose fathers have high father involvement quality scores do not have significantly higher emotional self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quality scores.	Rejected	Children whose fathers have high father involvement quality scores have significantly higher emotional self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quality scores.

Discussion

After exploring relationships between father involvement and self-regulation, a comparison of self-regulation scores of children of fathers with high father involvement and children of fathers with low father involvement was conducted. A significant difference was found between the groups in their scores in overall self-regulation, behavioral self-regulation and emotional self-regulation. They were not significantly different only in cognitive self-regulation. It is important to note, however, that while the sample size was deemed sufficient, size of comparison groups may not necessarily be comparable given that the low involvement group comprises only two. Mann Whitney U accounts for differences in group size but nonetheless may have an impact on accurate comparisons.

Current results are congruent with results from an observational study of toddlers support the findings that qualitative father elements influence cognitive skills of children. Fathers who demonstrated high sensitivity and engagement had children with better cognitive skills, unlike children whose fathers were depressed and withdrawn (Sethna et al. 2017, 383-386). Infants whose fathers were more emotionally involved also scored higher in emotional competence (Volling et al. 2002, 447-465).

On the other hand, mother engagement was related only to cognitive outcomes. In contrast, the negative element of both mother and father intrusiveness was negatively correlated with cognitive outcomes and language at older ages (Cabrera, Shannon, and LeMonda 2007, 208-213). This influence of mothers on cognitive self-regulation may be a factor that accounts for the non-significant difference in cognitive self-regulation scores of the high father involvement and low father involvement groups.

A study by Bocknek and colleagues reveal significant insights about the interaction of father involvement and emotional regulation. First is that kindergarten is a critical period for the development of emotional regulation. Second is that father engagement in active play supports self-regulation. Lastly, the curvilinear results lead to the conclusion that moderate amounts of active play are most beneficial to children. Otherwise, excessively or low levels will lead to detriments (Bocknek et al. 2017, 105-134). Comparing therefore means of groups from two ends might be affected by this behavior, especially in emotional self-regulation.

While father involvement quantity is not significantly correlated to overall self-regulation, it is still considered important to children's self-regulation as there is a significant difference between the overall self-regulation scores of high father involvement quantity and low father involvement quantity. The early concept of father involvement by Lamb and Pleck quantifies the amount of time spent with the child (Lamb et al. 1985, 883-891). The father involvement quantity measurement tool measures the frequency of childcare activities, play and interaction with the child and gives and provides context for where the qualitative element occurs. Including qualitative components to the measurement of father involvement, especially considering its influence on child development, may prove to be necessary, given the significant differences yielded between the high father involvement and low father involvement groups.

Father Involvement as a Factor to Child Self-Regulation

Father involvement quantity was a risk factor to overall self-regulation with an Odds Ratio of 1.04. It was also a risk factor to cognitive self-regulation (Odds=1.10) and

behavioral self-regulation (Odds=1.06), but only significantly to cognitive self-regulation. Father involvement quantity was not a risk factor for emotional self-regulation (Odds=0.95).

Father involvement quality was a risk factor to overall self-regulation (Odds=1.08), as well as cognitive self-regulation (1.15), behavioral self-regulation (Odds=1.21), and emotional self-regulation (Odds=1.04). Odds were significant only for cognitive and behavioral self-regulation.

Table 13. Father Involvement as a Factor to Self-Regulation

Factors	Odds Ratio (95% CI)			
	Overall Self Regulation	Cognitive Self-Regulation	Behavioral Self-Regulation	Emotional Self-Regulation
Fathers Involvement High Quantity	1.04 (0.93 - 1.78)	1.10(1.01 - 2.69)*	1.06(0.8 - 3.10)	0.95 (0.41 - 1.02)
Fathers Involvement High Quality	1.08(0.95 - 2.79)	1.15(1.04 - 3.55)*	1.21 (1.04 - 4.17)*	1.04 (0.36-1.55)
* significant at 0.05				

Given the odds, children whose fathers have high father involvement quantity have four percent higher chances of developing higher overall self-regulation, ten percent higher chances of developing high cognitive self-regulation and six percent higher chances of developing high behavioral self-regulation compared to children whose fathers have low quantity involvement. Similarly, children whose fathers have high father involvement quality have an eight percent higher chance of developing high overall self-regulation, four percent higher chance of developing higher emotional self-regulation, fifteen percent higher chance of developing higher cognitive self-regulation, and twenty-one percent higher chance of developing higher behavioral self-regulation.

These results show that father involvement quantity is a factor in the development of a child's overall self-regulation. Its specific contributions will be discussed specifically

for cognitive, behavioral and emotional correlation respectively. One factor that may come into play is the mother's amount of time and frequency of interaction with the child. Asked to describe a typical day with their family, the mother responded, “*Actually, buong maghapon nasa akin si [child]*” (“Actually, my child is with me the whole day.”). Her husband brings them to and from the school where she works. The child stays in her office or joins some classes informally. During weekends, the child is also with the mother as the father is currently enrolled in graduate school that meets on a Saturday. While the majority of the respondents indicated a daily frequency for - nine out of ten father involvement activities, the mother’s interaction may still be more given the nature of her role, even with breadwinner duties (Liwag, Dela Cruz and Macapagal 1998, 27-30). Further, for some whose involvement is equal, content is different (Vandell 1979, 299-312; Cabrera et al. 2014, 336-354).

Father involvement quantity is a significant risk factor only to cognitive self-regulation. Father involvement quality, however, is a significant risk factor to cognitive and behavioral self-regulation at fifteen percent and twenty percent respectively. Children with high father involvement quality are fifteen percent more likely to have high cognitive self-regulation and twenty one percent more likely to have high behavioral self-regulation. A study of toddlers showed that fathers who employed the “Responsive-Didactic” approach were more likely to exhibit complex language and play. These fathers were “positive in affect, responsive, and emotionally attuned to children” (Shannon et al. 2002, 77-104). Those who scored high in father involvement quality in the current study report to have the same characteristics. It is then not surprising that father involvement quality yields a high odds-ratio.

Congruent to results of this study, a longitudinal observational study that measured father engagement through three components of positive parenting (sensitivity, positive regard, and cognitive stimulation) found that their levels of father engagement and supportiveness affect children's cognitive ability, especially language during early years (Kim et al. 2012, 1-12).

A study of Pacific families in New Zealand looked into the relationship between father involvement and behavioral problems in children. Father involvement was measured using a tool that captures both quantitative and qualitative elements of father involvement. Results show that father involvement was significantly related to exhibiting both internalized and externalized problem behaviors. It is worth noting, however, that since sample families were part of the minority group, their fathers may have higher involvement than the others, and their children may be exhibiting more problematic behaviors due to this (Tautolo, Schluter, and Paterson 2015, 3497-3505). Further, lower involvement of fathers was a predictor of later difficulties such as low school performance, unemployment, substance abuse and conviction of crimes (Cosentino 2017, 42-47).

The longitudinal study of low-income children by Cabrera and colleagues shows that in addition to cognitive capacities, father engagement and level of supportiveness were predictors of emotional regulation and orientation at early ages. Father supportiveness proved to be predictors of social and emotional development, while mother supportiveness was not (Cabrera, Shannon, and LeMonda 2007, 211-212).

Table 14. Summary of Quantitative Analysis Results

SELF-REGULATION	FATHER INVOLVEMENT					
	QUANTITY			QUALITY		
	CORRELATION	RISK FACTOR	DIFFERENCE	CORRELATION	RISK FACTOR	DIFFERENCE
OVERALL	Medium	Yes	Significant*	Strong*	Yes	Significant*
COGNITIVE	Medium*	Yes*	Not significant	Strong*	Yes*	Not significant
BEHAVIORAL	Medium*	Yes	Significant*	Strong*	Yes*	Significant*
EMOTIONAL	Weak	No	Significant*	Medium*	Yes	Significant*
*significant at 0.05						

For Father Involvement Quantity, correlations were moderate for a child's overall, cognitive and behavioral self-regulation, but was significant only for cognitive and behavioral self-regulation. Father involvement quantity was a risk factor to overall, cognitive and behavioral self-regulation but significant only to cognitive self-regulation. Significant difference was found between the high father involvement quantity and low father involvement quantity groups in overall, behavioral and emotional self-regulation.

Father involvement quantity shows influence on overall self-regulation only through comparative differences between low and high father involvement quantity groups. Among self-regulation components, father involvement quantity indicated influence on cognitive self-regulation through a significant moderate correlation and as a significant risk factor to it. Among self-regulation components, father involvement quantity appears to have least influence on emotional self-regulation, showing only significant comparative difference between low and high father involvement groups in this area.

Father involvement quality, on the other hand, showed stronger and more consistent influence on child self-regulation. It yielded significant correlations with overall self-regulation as well as all its three components. Correlations were strong with overall, cognitive and behavioral self-regulation, and moderate with emotional self-

regulation. Comparative differences yielded were similar to that of father involvement quantity, showing significance for overall, behavioral and emotional self-regulation. Father involvement quality is a risk factor to overall self-regulation and all its components but is significant only to cognitive and behavioral self-regulation.

Father involvement quality poses as an influence on overall self-regulation through strong significant correlation with it, significant comparative difference between low and light involvement groups, and being a risk factor to it albeit insignificant. It shows influence on cognitive self-regulation through strong significant correlations and by being a significant risk factor to it. Father involvement quality shows the strongest and most consistent influence on behavioral self-regulation, with which it has a strong significant correlation, significant comparative difference between high and low influence groups, and by being a significant risk factor. Among the self-regulation components, it shows weakest influence on emotional self-regulation through a significant but moderate correlation and a significant comparative difference between high and low father involvement quality groups.

Between father involvement quantity and quality, correlations with self-regulation are stronger and more significant with father involvement quality. Comparative differences between low and high involvement groups are the same for father involvement quantity and quality. Father involvement quality is a greater risk factor to self-regulation than father involvement quantity.

Overall self-regulation is more strongly influenced by father involvement quality than quantity. In the same way, the cognitive, behavioral and emotional components of self-regulation are influenced more by father involvement quality than it is by father

involvement quantity. Among components of self-regulation, behavioral self-regulation appears to be the component most influenced by father involvement.

While father involvement quantity cannot be dismissed as an influencing factor to child self-regulation, father involvement quality shows more consistent influence. Among self-regulation components, behavioral self-regulation is influenced most by father involvement.

Father involvement quantity was not significantly correlated to the overall self-regulation of the child. Given the odds, it is a risk factor to overall self-regulation but not significantly. However, overall self-regulation scores of children with high father involvement quantity were significantly different from overall self-regulation scores of children with low father involvement quantity.

These results show that father involvement quantity, though not as strongly as father involvement quality, remains to be factor in the development of a child's overall self-regulation. Its specific contributions will be discussed specifically for cognitive, behavioral and emotional correlation respectively. The medium and non-significant correlation between overall child self-regulation and father involvement quality may mean that the relationship between the two variables is nonlinear and that other factors may be at play. It is also worth noting that data was gathered post-pandemic, where some have shifted to more flexible work arrangements that may allow the fathers more time to engage with their children and be involved in caregiving tasks, and with daily interaction more common.

The early concept of father involvement by Lamb and Pleck quantifies the amount of time spent with the child (Lamb et al. 1985, 883-891). The father involvement quantity

measurement tool measures the frequency of childcare activities, play and interaction with the child and gives and provides context for where the qualitative element occurs.

Father involvement quality was significantly correlated to the overall self-regulation of the child. In the same manner, overall self-regulation scores of children with high father involvement quality were significantly different from overall self-regulation scores of children with low father involvement quality.

Unlike father involvement quantity, father involvement quality is strongly and positively correlated with child overall self-regulation. This means that an increase in father involvement quality will increase a child's overall self-regulation. Should there be intention to increase child self-regulation, father involvement quality may be used as a tool for the approach. Its odds-ratio value shows that children with high father involvement quality have eight percent chance of developing higher self-regulation than those whose fathers have low involvement quality.

These results place children with high father involvement quality at an advantage over those who do not. It is congruent with previous findings that parent involvement strengthens self-control in children (Fereira et al. 2018, 731-743). Further, it validates findings that report better social, behavioral and cognitive outcomes for those who have higher father involvement (Geddes 2008, 402).

One factor that may come into play is the observed gender role expectation from the mother's perspective. Believing that discipline should be implemented by the father, she gives way and encourages her husband in this area. While the father is also involved in caregiving and household tasks, most caregiving tasks like feeding, bathing, and preparing for school, are usually done by the mother. This reflects the traditional gender

role expectations in Filipino gender role expectations within the family as described by Zaide. The father provides needs and implements discipline, while the mother provides affection (Zaide 1989, 30-31).

Another is the amount and type of conflict within the interactions. While not part of this study, the tool measures the negative element of conflict between father and child, recognizing conflict as a factor in child-parent relationships. This may be a factor why no significant correlations were found.

Presentation of Qualitative Data

Family Profile and Structure

The father respondent who was interviewed is a twenty-nine-year-old father of three boys, the oldest of which is his four-year-old son who was with him during the interview. His second son was turning three and the youngest was one and a half years old during the time of the interview. He lives with his eldest son and wife to whom he has been married for six years.

Family Routines

The family schedule is dictated by the schedules of both parents. The mother must be in school by 7:00 a.m., so the family wakes up early to be able to leave by around 5:00 a.m. The father brings his wife and eldest child to his wife's school employment at around 5:30-6:00 a.m. The mother's shift is from 12:00-6:00 p.m. but they prefer riding with the father to avoid the difficult commute.

Preparing the child for the day is usually the mother's task with the father stepping in to help when they are late. Both of the parents bathe the child. Other self-help

tasks, like bathing, brushing teeth and dressing up, and chores are taught to the child so he can do it on his own. Upon arrival at school in the morning, the child usually does activities, working on printer exercises or playing with cars. He usually uses his gadgets but is limited and encouraged to play with his toy cars and do activities instead. At times, he sleeps in the morning, but most of the time he sleeps in the afternoon while his mother does classes. At night, the child sleeps between his parents. They have a prayer time before bed, then he watches videos until he falls asleep.

During weekends, the father tries to take his child to the playground or go jogging at a nearby sports complex. However, because the father has recently started his master's classes, it is mostly the mother and the child together at home.

The Child

The child is the eldest of three boys. His interest in cars was reported by both parents and him. He is also fond of watching videos using the mobile phone, watching "Roblox," "Ms. Rachel," and "Blippi." His use of gadgets is currently being limited and reduced by the parents. His father indicated his interest in physical activities like jogging, running, basketball and volleyball. Both parents report that he shows lack of interest in writing, often refusing writing activities, or doing it only with rewards.

The child's mother shares that he would like to be a chef, since he likes cooking, or a policeman. According to the father, the strength of his eldest son is being able to do things on his own, guided verbally and asking for help only when necessary. This includes self-care activities like going to the toilet and dressing himself, as well as simple chores like folding clothes and sweeping the floor. The father reports that while his son is able, he is "lazy" to do hygiene tasks like brushing his teeth and taking a bath. The

mother refers to his child's ability to relate and show respect to strangers and adults as his strength. The child likes his things organized and becomes upset when disarranged. On the other hand, she observes her son to be "hesitant" to try out new tasks, especially in unfamiliar environments, wanting them to help him initially. This was observed during the child interview where he said "*hindi ko alam*" ("I do not know how") when asked to draw his family.

The child was described by both parents positively. His father described him as "kind" because he sees potential in his child to listen and focus on what they say. In the same way, his mother described him as "sweet" because he openly expresses his affection both physically and verbally and shows thoughtfulness by bringing food.

Both parents mentioned that the child experienced physical abuse from a former nanny. He did not report to his parents, but they observed distress and fear when they would leave for work and also observed bruises and pick marks in his body. Both parents report that he has recovered after staying in the province and that they regularly talk to the child to process.

Child's Cognitive Self-Regulation

Survey responses were validated with interview data. The father indicated as "True" or "Very True" the cognitive self-regulation items in the CBSQ. His son scored one point higher than the general score of most of the sample in all cognitive self-regulation items. During the interview, the father shared an observation, "*Nakitaan ko po siya ng potential ng nakikinig at ng parang focused lang din po siya sa mga sinasabi naming*" ("I have observed in him the potential to listen and focus on what we say").

In the parent interview, the father identified his son's strength as being able to do things on his own. The father seemed to be pleased that his son can do self-help tasks independently such as going to the toilet and washing after himself, and volunteers to help in chores. The father shared about an instance when his son needed to go to the toilet. He asked for water, but the father directed him where and how to get the water. The father shows preference for verbal instructions, saying, "*Mas maganda yung verbal mo na nasabi sa kanya, nakinig siya sa direction*" ("Better to tell him verbally, he listens to directions").

The father reports, "*Yung sa sarili niya, kaya niyang gawin ang lahat ng bagay na kapag ginuide mo siya, magagawa din po niya talaga*" ("To him, he can do anything and with guidance, he can really do it"). The father says verbal instructions are enough. This reflects the teacher role, but is different in the forms observed by Appl, Brown and Stone most likely because of the younger children in their sample (Appl, Brown, and Stone, 2008, 130-133).

A cognitive self-regulation function is persisting despite the difficulty of task. The father shares that at times when he would invite his son to go jogging, he would say, "*Ayoko*" ("I don't like."). Then he shared, "*Pero kapag niyaya mo na siya, Ma'am, sasabihin namin, 'Magbihis ka na,' pupunta na 'yan*" ("But when we call him, Ma'am, and we say, 'Change your clothes,' he comes."). The child is able to comply despite initial refusal. During the child interview, the child's capacity to do tasks despite initial refusal was observed. When asked to draw him and his father, the child said, "*Hindi ko alam*" ("I do not know how"). With encouragement and prompting, he did so, drawing his other family members as well. At times, the child would do the task only when the

parents got angry or began to do a countdown. This shows that he is able to direct his attention and perform the task despite initial apprehension or refusal.

The mother, on the other hand, identified her son's weakness as being hesitant to try new experiences. The discrepancy might be in the context of the new task, the hesitation arising when the environment is unfamiliar. The father relates how his child would refuse to get up for jogging but does so with prodding. Even writing and other tasks he was lazy or disinterested in, the child would finish with either encouragement, reward, or threat.

Behavioral Self-Regulation

The father reported behavioral self-regulation items as "True" and "Very True." The child is able to wait his turn just like the sample. Compared to the majority of the sample, he is less able to sustain attention and is much more impulsive. However, he is better at following instructions than the majority of the sample.

In the parent interviews, both the father and mother mentioned observing a potential in his child to listen and focus and described how his son is able to follow instructions verbally. Further, he described how his son would initially refuse tasks or instructions but eventually do so with guidance or firmness. The mother related how the son would follow her co-teachers when they ask him to take a nap even when he did not want to. Both parents say, "*nakikinig naman*" ("he listens"). His mother considers his capacity for social interaction as a strength. He shows respect to elders and salutes guards.

Emotional Self-Regulation

Reports of both parents reflect that the child shows extreme emotions and expresses them both verbally and physically. In the self-regulation portion of the Father Survey, the father answered four (between partly true and very true) for being “calm and easygoing” and having “extreme mood swings.” Compared to the majority of the sample, the child is more calm and easygoing and gets over being upset more quickly. Further, he also more easily gets upset over small events, gets over excitement more, loses temper most days and shows wide mood swings more. As related by both parents, he shows extreme emotions but also resolves easily. Findings in the parent interview validated scores of the child, with the mother identifying “temper” as one of her child’s weaknesses.

He expresses his emotions, as well as his affection, through hugging, kissing and saying, “I love you.” At the same time, when he is upset, he expresses his anger through tantrums, tumbling things over and hitting people, and verbally by yelling “*Ayoko sa ‘yo!*” (“I don’t like you!”) or “I hate you!” When extremely sad, he says his heart is “*basag*” (broken) or “*sakit*” (painful). The mother observes, “*Yung nakikita ko ngayon, kapag nagagalit, talagang inaano niya sarili nya. Tapos parang galit na galit talaga siya. Parang nilalabas niya yung unang galit niya. Pero kasi kapag pinapakalma, ‘inhale, exhale. . .’ doon na, makakausap na*” (“What I observe now, when he is angry, he really [lets himself out]. Then it is like he is extremely angry. It is like he is letting out his initial anger. But when he is asked to calm down, ‘inhale, exhale,’ then we are able to talk to him”). She adds, “*Ayaw niya na nagugulo ang gamit niya. Pag nakalat, nagtatrantrums na yan. Naku lahat nang madaanan niyan, tumba lahat yan, kahit*

electric fan” (“He does not like his things rearranged. When they are disorganized, he throws tantrums. All things in his way, he topples over, even the electric fan”).

When he cools down, he is teased until he laughs but the parents make sure that they are able to explain that what happened is not right. While his temper is considered a weakness by his parents, the mother reports that he gets over his emotions quickly, especially after talking about it with either parent.

A study by Chang and colleagues showed an association between paternal harshness and child aggression. While it was not maltreatment, items in the Parental Acceptance Rejection Questionnaire included items like the scolding and hitting (Chang et al. 2003, 1-15). Both parents report that the father spansks the child when not compliant. When asked to describe how he looked like when angry, the father said, “*Yung parang gusto mo talaga siyang paluin nang paluin, yung parang ituturing mo siyang teenager pero naisip ko pa rin siya na, ‘Ay kasalanan ko pa rin.’ ‘Yung mga ganun kasi, Ma’am, kapag inis na inis talaga ako, parang hindi ko talaga ma-control ang sarili ko*” (“It is like I want to spank him repeatedly and treat him like a teenager, but I thought, ‘It is still my fault.’ When I am extremely annoyed, Ma’am, it is like I cannot control myself”). The spanking always comes with explanation and, at times, an apology, and the other elements of the father’s involvement are not “overactive” and “emotionally negative” (Chang et al. 2003, 1-15). Nonetheless, the father’s spanking may be detected as harshness and may be a factor to the child’s hitting his father and tumbling objects when angry, and lead to emotional regulation challenges.

The Father

A summary of the how the father is viewed by himself, his wife and his sin is made. Results of the “Me and Dad” portrait and interview are discussed in detail. The father-child quantitative and qualitative interactions are then described.

Father Perspective

When asked to describe himself as a father in one word, he said “lovable.” He says he gets hurt when he is not able to provide for his family or has to spank his children. He cries when his children cry. Based on his description, however, the term “loving” showed to be more apt. Part of being father to his son is being angry when his son does not follow his instructions.

He brings and picks up his wife and child from school. He guides his children on self-help tasks and acceptable social behavior, telling his son, “*Kasi ano na lang sasabihin sa iyo ng ibang tao*” (“Because what will other people say about you”). He also lets his son join him in doing chores. He rewards compliance and disciplines unacceptable behavior, describing himself as “*maluwag*” (lenient) with his son.

Thinking about his role as provider and implementer of discipline makes him emotional. This is typical of the traditional parenting gender expectations (Zaide 1989, 30-31; Mendez and Jocano 1974, 49, 272). As he was describing himself as “lov[ing]” father, he said, “*Ako din po kasi mababaw ang luha ko sa mga ganiyang bagay*. For example po, *hindi ko naibibigay ‘yung mga gusto din po nila, parang nasasaktan din po ako as a father. Lalong lalo kapag mga more on food na kailangan nilang kainin, mga needs din po nila*” (“I cry easily about those things. For example, I am not able to give

what they want, I hurt as a father. Especially if it is about food they need to eat, and also their needs”). He says he picks this up from his mother who was a vendor but was able to put him through school. He says, “*Kasi po, as a son po of a vendor, vendor lang po ang nanay ko, nai-provide niya rin po ang mga pangangailangan namin. So ganoon din po ‘yung love ko rin po sa mga anak ko, na kahit anong hirap po, ibibigay ko ‘yung mga dapat na para sa kanila*” (“Because as a son of a vendor, my mother was only a vendor, she was able to provide our needs. So, my love for my children is the same, that no matter how difficult, I will give them what is due them”). He thinks that showing love to his son makes his son show the same attitude toward his playmates and brothers.

Mother Perspective

While the wife does most caregiving tasks, she describes her husband as “*mapagmahal*” (loving). Though he does not express his affection verbally, he makes sure that his family’s needs are provided and that he takes care of them. His wife describes him as “very hands on” and as the more diligent parent. She says, “*Actually, [siya] naman ‘yung mas matiyagang mag-alaga. Sila naglalaro*” (“Actually, he is more diligent in caring for the children. They play together”). She also relates how he minimizes the child’s use of gadgets and makes time for physical activities.

The respondent family reflects the changing views in childrearing where the fathers have increased involvement in childcare (Alampay and Jocson 2011, 163-176). When she was breastfeeding her children, the mother reports that her husband is more actively engaged with the children, “*Sa pag-aalaga, siya nga yung ma-hele. Ako kasi kapag ako ang magbabantay, nakahiga lang ako. Pero pag siya, talagang karga, tapos pag magpapatulog ma-ganun din siya. Pati sa pagpapakain, actually, mas ma-ano siya . .*

. *Mas maasikaso kasi siya, yung pagluluto talagang gusto niya mine-make sure niya na nakakakain kami*” (“In taking care of the children, he is the one who rocks them. When I am the one watching over them, I just lie down, but he really carries them, even when he puts them to sleep. Even in feeding, he is more . . . He is more attentive; in cooking he makes sure we are able to eat”). This validates the claim of Lamb and colleagues that fathers may just be as competent as mothers in childrearing (Lamb et al. 1985, 883-895). In this case, the father is regarded by the mother as the more capable parent in the area of childcare.

She describes extensively the playful and bantering nature of the father-son relationship, “*Ewan ko diyan, lagi nilang inaasar ang isa’t isa*” (“I do not know, they always tease each other”). She shares how the child enjoys playing pranks on his father, but when he is the one pranked, gets angry at his father. She then steps in as go-between, saying, “*Minsan nga napapagod na ako sa kanila, parang naiinis na*” (“Sometimes I get tired of them, almost annoyed”).

She describes their play to comprise of tickling each other, laughing and showing affection. The mother also describes his husband as “*masyado nagtitiwala sa sinasabi ng anak*” (too trusting of what his child says). The mother reports that the most common cause of conflict is the child’s use of gadgets and the father’s restriction on the use. The father spansks and raises his voice.

The mother exhibits the traditional Filipino gender expectations (David 1994, 78) by relegating discipline to her husband, saying, “*Kasi dahil lalaki. . . makita niya yung responsibility ng tatay sa kanila. So as much as possible . . . yung pag-impose ng discipline [sa kanya] manggaling*” (“Because [the child] is male, that he sees the

responsibility of their father to them. As much as possible that the imposition of discipline comes from the father”). She encourages her husband to speak with their son, saying, “*Kapag may ganoon na, ‘O kausapin mo siya.’ Nag-uusap naman sila. Pag nag-uusap na sila, nag-ano na ako, kasi ayokong mag-butt in kung anong pag-uusap nila*” (“When that happens, [I say,] ‘Speak with [the child].’ They talk. When they talk, I do not want to butt in their conversation”).

Child Perspective

To capture the relationship between father and son from the child’s perspective, the child interview started by asking the child to do a “Me and Dad Portrait.” When first asked, the child said, “*Hindi ko alam*” (“I do not know how”). With some prompting and encouragement, he drew his family.

First, he drew his father, saying, “*Si Tatay malaki*” (“Father is big”). Then he drew himself, saying, “[Name], [Name] *malaki* ulo like this. *Mata* like this” (“[Name], [Name] big head like this. Eyes like this”). He laughs at his drawing, saying, “It is funny.” He drew his mom next. He identified figures in his drawing his father, himself, and his mom (from left to right). When asked what they were doing, he replied, “Walking, walking *sa labas*” (“Walking outside”). When asked again what they were doing, he said, “*Tatay at Nanay ay go sa bahay, diba? Yun ay punta sa labas, ay walking. Punta sa SM*” (“Father and Mother went to the house, right? We went outside, walking. Went to SM”). By house he refers to their house in Manila, and by SM he meant McDonald’s as clarified by the mother. He then points to his father and says, “*Tatay is go sa work*” (“Father goes to work”). Then he draws his two brothers (below father, himself and mother), describing them as “small.” He said they were in Tuguegarao, their

province, playing with their cousins, while he was with his parents. When asked what they were doing, he answered, “*Laro, kain, at punta sa SM (McDonald’s)*” (“Play, eat, and go to SM”). After sharing that he liked to eat ice cream, chicken and rice, he went to draw his grandmother and cousins using a different colored crayon (bottom row).

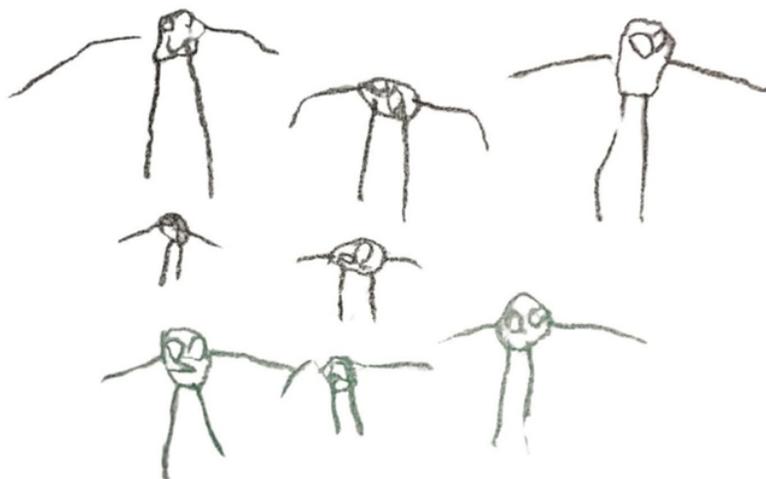


Figure 3. Family Portrait by Child

When asked about when he was happy (shown a happy face drawing), he said, “*I go sa bahay pati tawa-tawa ni Tatay*” (“I go to the house and laugh with Father”). This is understood as being happy when he is at his parents’ house, as he previously stayed with his grandmother. When asked when they laugh, he say, “*Sa bahay, pagpatay lights*” (“At home, when lights are turned off”). This is validated by the father’s report that they laugh and banter even when they are about to go to bed. When asked why, the child said, “*Kasi Tatay is funny*” (“Because Father is funny”). When clarified by the researcher, the child said, “*Ako, ako funny*” (“Me, I am funny”).

When asked when he was sad at home, he said, “*Yung may kasama si Tatay at si Nanay*” (“When they are with others”). He said he was angry at home “*Kasi Tatay is*

angry like this” (“Because Tatay is angry like this”) (points to angry face). When asked why, he said, “*Kasi si Tatay hindi kinig sa akin*” (“Because Father does not listen to me”). When the researcher clarified who was not listening, he said loudly, “*Ako!*” (“Me!”). The researcher then asked which among the faces he felt when his father was angry, and the child pointed to the sad face. When asked what his father needed to do to make him happy again, he said, “Sorry.” Upon clarification, the child validated that he feels happy again when his father says sorry. He gave the same answer when asked what he thinks of when he thinks of his father.

Lastly, the child was asked what his favorite activity with his father was. He said, “Funny.” Asked who was funny, he said, “Funny *ako*” (“I am funny”). Asked if his father was funny, he said, “*Hindi. Happy*” (“No. Happy”). He confirmed the researcher’s understanding that his father was happy because he was funny.

In summary, significant to the child is going home to their house, eating out and playing with his father. Being funny and laughing with his father are also significant. He is aware of his father’s anger when he does not listen but quickly responded that he feels happy again when his father apologizes.

Father Involvement Quantity

All items in the FRPN Father Involvement scale were marked to be done every day by the father except reading and teaching his child to take turns or wait for rewards. Specifically mentioned in the interview is how he played rough with his child, talked with him, encouraged him in tasks, watched over him or cared for him and had meals with him every day. He gives his son a bath, banter with him (“*asaran*”) and plays physically (“*harutan*”). Further, he brings his wife and son to school during weekdays,

tries to take his son to a sports complex during Saturday, and goes to church with his family during Sunday. Both parents mention the intentionality of the father in spending time with his children.

He brings his son to join him in physical activities like jogging and sports. He also involves his son with chores, with his child volunteering without being asked. Both parents mention “*usap*” (talking) multiple times as something the father does when his son does something wrong. The mother says her husband expresses his affection through service, giving mindful attention to their needs. He also does chores like cooking and doing the laundry.

Father Involvement Quality

Description of Father-Child Interaction

The father says he lets his child initiate activities he wanted to do, how he wanted to play and what he wanted to watch. Banter or teasing (“*asaran*”) is part of their dynamics. Their banter happens every day, every part of the day, even while they are traveling via motorcycle and even when they are in bed before going to sleep. The teasing can be initiated by the child but is also sometimes initiated by the father. Teasing from the child comes in statements like, “*Pangit ka, Tatay!*” (“You are ugly, Father!”), “*Ayoko na sa iyo, Tatay!*” (“I do not like you anymore, Father!”). On the other hand, the father also teases by calling him a “baby” to which the child protests, or by saying, “*Itatapon ko na ang toys mo*” (“I will throw away your toys”).

The father-child interaction also includes physical play with tickling and playing ball. At times, they play tag or run in a sports field. The father also lets his child join him in doing chores like sweeping the floor or washing the motorcycle.

The interaction includes direct instruction on academic tasks like writing, self-care, family practices, values and spiritual truth. To encourage writing, the child is given guidance and rewards. He is given verbal instructions on self-help tasks like brushing his teeth, taking a bath, cleaning himself after going to the toilet and dressing up.

The child is taught to share with his siblings and love them, also to attend to them before other people. The father encourages his son to express his love physically through hugging. In relating to other people, the child is taught to love and not pick fights. He is also taught to forgive those who hurt him in the past. He is taught not to shout or hit others when he is corrected or reprimanded. The father teaches his son to be generous and loving, and to respect women. The mother explicitly relegates discipline to her husband as a function of his role as father, and as model to their children who are male. She expresses that the role should be for the father, encouraging her husband to talk to their son after conflicts or episodes.

He is taught that Jesus loves him, and that he should love Jesus. When he expresses having “evil” in his heart, he is taught to not entertain and keep Jesus in his heart so his heart will be happy instead of broken or hurt.

Closeness

The quality of father involvement was measured by closeness. The father rated as “Definitely Applies” all items pertaining to closeness, except finding it easy to be in tune to his child’s feelings. The survey response that says the father definitely shares a warm and affectionate feeling with his son is validated in the parent interviews. When asked to describe how close father and son were, the father says they were “*sobrang* close” (very close) and the mother ranked it numerically at “ten.” The father says his son’s treatment

of him is really that of a father and that his son is responsive to conversations. He feels particularly close to his son when going outside or just staying at home and they run after each other to tickle. The mother says her husband is intentional in making sure their children feel that both of them are there for them.

Conflict

Cause. Conflicts can be triggered with either the father or son getting upset or angry. The child gets angry when his possessions, especially toys, are disorganized. He also gets upset when limited in the use of the mobile phone or when internet data is slow. While he likes playing pranks on his father, he gets angry when he is tricked.

The common cause of the father's anger is when his son does not do what he says and waits for him to do a countdown. He also gets angry when his child does not share or fights with his siblings. Further, he also does not tolerate his child's use of gadgets on the table during mealtimes and hitting when upset. He also gets annoyed when he asks his son to do self-help tasks, like putting on his shoes, and simple tasks like closing the door, and he either could not or refuses.

During the child interview, the child was asked when his father gets angry (shown an angry face drawing). He easily said it is when he does not listen, but that he becomes happy again (pointed to a happy face) when his father says sorry.

Description. Conflicts between father and son are expressed physically and verbally. When the child is upset or angry, he freely expresses his feelings physically by throwing a tantrum, throwing or tumbling objects, and hitting his father. He expresses himself verbally through statements like "*Ayoko na sa 'yo, Tatay!*" ("I do not like you anymore, Father!"), "*Ikaw kasi, Tatay!*" ("It is your fault, Father!"), "I hate you," "I do

not love you,” “*Evil na ang nasa heart ko*” (“Evil is in my heart”) or “*My heart is basag na*” (“My heart is broken already”).

On the other hand, when the father gets upset when his son does not listen, he gives an ultimatum through a countdown. He also spansks but tries to avoid it so that his child will not get scared. The mother reports that during intense arguments, his husband and son part ways. While the father feels the desire to hit incessantly, he manages his temper by reminding himself that his child does not understand because of his age. The father gives an apology when he spanked harder than he should have.

Resolution. While conflicts are common and frequent between father and son, they do not last long and are resolved immediately. Some are resolved lightly by teasing to make the child laugh or hugging to calm the child down. Mentioned by the father, mother and child during the interviews were 1) apology from the father; and 2) talking with the child and explaining the reason for the correction or discipline. The father calls out a behavior as “bad,” or helps the child to realize his fault in the incident and the reason he was reprimanded by asking what he think he did that got him spanked (“*Ano ba ang ginawa mo, bakit ka napalo?*”) or if what he is doing is correct (“*Tama ba ‘yang ginagawa mo?*”).

The parent involved in the conflict is the parent who speaks with the child in private. However, the mother expressed her belief that discipline should be implemented by the father hence encouraging her husband to talk to their son when there are conflicts.

Analysis and Interpretation of Qualitative Data

Qualitative data was analyzed by identifying themes to identify qualitative components of fathers with high involvement that have children with high self-regulation.

Data from interviews with a father, mother and child from Q3 (High Father Involvement, High Child Self-Regulation) were coded to identify surfacing themes. Themes surfaced both explicitly and implicitly. Father involvement qualitative elements that were *explicit* were 1) the child's expression of extreme emotions; 2) verbal explanation upon discipline; 3) apology from the father; 4) giving rewards; 5) teasing or playful banter; and 4) play. Elements that were *implicit* were 1) verbal instructions; 2) physical affection; 3) setting boundaries or limits; and 4) discipline through spanking.

The themes were then analyzed and categorized into which component of self-regulation it influences, with the descriptions of each component as described by the CBSQ. *Cognitive self-regulation* allows children to persist despite difficulty and until completion of tasks, initiate activities, work with minimal help and solve problems on their own. *Behavioral self-regulation* is manifested by being able to sustain attention, follow instructions, sit still as needed, control impulses and cooperate. *Emotional self-regulation* is expressed in the ability to be calm and manage excitement, frustrations, mood, temper and negative emotions.

Among the father involvement elements that surfaced, the following were identified to be influencing factors to *cognitive self-regulation*: 1) play; 2) verbal explanation upon discipline; and 3) guidance. *Behavioral self-regulation* is presumed to be influenced by 1) play; 2) giving rewards; 3) setting boundaries or limits; and 4) discipline through spanking. *Emotional self-regulation* may be influenced by 1) play; 2) a child's expression of extreme emotion; 3) apology from the father; 4) teasing or playful banter; and 5) physical affection.

Further, the elements were discussed in light of the forms of capital provided by parents (financial, social, and community) in the *Parental Capital Theory*. However, because these are specifically qualitative elements of father involvement, financial capital provided is not included in the discussion.

Table 15. Father Involvement Elements to Self-Regulation Components

Father Involvement Elements to Self-Regulation Components		
Cognitive Self-Regulation	Behavioral Self-Regulation	Emotional Self-Regulation
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Play 2. Verbal explanation upon discipline 3. Guidance 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Play 2. Giving rewards 3. Setting boundaries or limits 4. Discipline through spanking 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Play 2. Child's expression of extreme emotions 3. Apology from the father 4. Teasing or playful banter 5. Physical affection

The correlational and comparative quantitative analyses give insight to father involvement as a factor to child self-regulation. Data from the father, mother and child interviews allow for better understanding of the qualitative elements of father involvement that may contribute to the different components of self-regulation. Among the elements, play pervades all components of self-regulation. Play described by the father had different characteristics. Some were large movement play, with a lot of physical activity. Others are interest-based, waiting for cue from the child on the type of play that interests him. At times, he lets his son join what he is doing.

The father feels extra close to his son when they are outside playing. They play tag then tickle each other. Sometimes, his son approaches him just to tickle him. The father considers the interests of his son in play. Talking about their regular day, he said,

“binibigay ko rin po yung parang mga activities na gusto niya–maghabol-habulan, lalung lalo na nung last Saturday, pumunta kami dun sa oval nagtakbuhan” (“I also give the activities that he likes, like playing tag, especially last Saturday when we went to the oval to run around together”). Further he says, *“Minsan nga, pupunta lang, tatabi lang yung sa akin. Kikilitiin niya yung sa leeg ko, sa kili-kili ko”* (“At times, he would just come to me, he would sit beside me. He would tickle my neck and armpit”).

In play, children exercise cognitive self-regulation through the representation of symbols and taking on roles (Bodrova, Germeroth, and Leong 2013, 113-116). Understanding of rules and adhering to them bring the children to Vygotsky’s “zone of proximal development” (Manilenko 1975, 65-116). For example, the game hide-and-seek requires a child to hold off looking until the countdown is done and also exercises memory and observation skills. Further, there are rules to adhere to like counting up to ten and shouting “it” once a player is caught.

Behaviorally, play gives the opportunity for extreme arousal and emotion. This context becomes opportunity for the father to set boundaries (Bocknek 2017, 105-134), teach and guide (Appl, Brown, and Stone 2008, 127-134), and strengthen self-regulation through “destabilization” (Paquette 2004, 193-219). The father’s sensitivity in the play context is related to the child’s compliance (Feldman and Klein 2003, 685). The father’s exertion of dominance in the RTP context is found to be negatively related to child aggression (Flanders et al. 2010, 357-367). The father plays physical with the child.

Bowlby acknowledges the important role of play in the formation of attachment. The gain confidence in exploring new experiences and overcoming challenges (Cosentino 2017, 42-47). Specifically, RTP is critical for regulating emotions and encoding

emotions. When asked to talk about his father, the child says, “*tawa-tawa*” (“laughing”). This fosters positive relations with the child, that becomes foundational when discipline is implemented.

Play provides opportunity for physical development and an unthreatening environment for new sensory experiences and social situations. It gives the opportunity to resolve conflicts (emotional), apply concepts learned (cognitive) and explore interactions (behavioral).

Vygotsy believed it “creates the zone for proximal development” (Bodrova, Germeroth, and Leong 2013, 113-116). It provides a platform for the formation of emotional attachment, giving confidence in exploring new experiences (Cosentino 2017, 42-47). Rough-and-tumble play, along with risk-taking and gender role taking is associated with the father (Cabrera et al. 2014, 336-354). While some scholars warn against overemphasis on the role of fathers in play (Eickhorst et al. 2008, 92-107), results of this study validate the significance of father-child play interactions.

According to the *Parental Capital Theory*, parents provide financial, social and community capital. In addition to the role that play serves in the development of cognitive, behavioral and emotional self-regulation, it also serves provides social capital and community capital for the child. Through play, the child is able to regulate initial responses to observe social and behavioral practices acceptable to function within the community. It may bring in community capital should the father bring in other members of the community into their play, connecting the child to other members of the community in a non-formal context.

Father Involvement Elements to Cognitive Self-Regulation

Fagan and Inglesia acknowledge the role of father involvement in a child's cognitive development (Fagan and Geddes 2008, 402). The father-child dynamics reveal elements of father involvement that may have impact on the child's ability to direct and sustain attention and direct thoughts that lead to accomplishment of goals.

Verbal Explanation Upon Discipline

Resounding in the responses of both father and mother was the intentional verbal explanation on the reason that comes after simple correction, verbal reprimand and spanking. It involved identifying the wrong behavior and directly explaining why it was wrong or asking questions to allow the child to realize his fault on his own. Once, while the child was hitting his father, the father said, "*Okay, 'Nak, bad yang ginagawa mo sa akin na pagpalo*" (Okay, Son, what you are doing, hitting me is bad"). He also related a conversation he had with his son following a spanking where he said, "*Okay, sorry na. Alam mo kung bakit kita pinalo? Kasi fault mo lang din 'yun, 'nak. Fault mo lang din yun, ikaw ang ang may kasalanan. Pero pinalo ka ni Tatay dahil nga mahal kita. Para naman sa iyo 'to*" ("Okay, sorry. Do you know why I spanked you? Because it is your fault, son. It is your fault; you are the one with an offense, but I spanked you because I love you. This is for you"). He shared another instance when he spanked his child for hitting him and he explained, "*Kapag naiiyak ka, si Tatay rin na-hu-hurt*" ("When you cry, I also get hurt"). Further, the mother also shares how she encourages her husband to talk to their son when there is a behavioral concern.

Considered to be part of discipline, the mother nominates her husband to talk to the child. The explanation is intended to cause the child to understand the reasons why he is reprimanded, and in so doing have an impact on how he feels about the circumstance and how he will react. This approach seems to support the cognitive, behavioral and emotional regulation of the child.

Guidance

The father-child interaction includes a lot of verbal instructions. Content is on 1) self-care; 2) family practices; 3) values; and 4) spiritual truths. The father instructs his son verbally how to brush his teeth, clean up after using the toilet and dress up. The father shares, “*Tinuturuan po namin kung paano maligo, mag-toothbrush, magbihis mag-isa*” (“We teach him how to take a bath, brush his teeth, [and] put on his clothes on his own”).

He is guided verbally how to relate to his siblings and relatives. He is told to share toys and not fight with his siblings, and to listen to his grandmother. He is reminded not to hit or shout. Values taught are love, respect, forgiveness, to be generous and not pick fights. Both mother and father shared how they teach their child about Jesus and have a prayer time every night. The father says, “*Anak, si Jesus lang ang love natin, yung nasa puso natin* because Jesus loves every person like you” (“Son, we love only Jesus and have him in our hearts because Jesus loves every person like you”). When upset, the child says, “*Ayoko na kay Jesus. Si evil na ang nasa heart ko*” (“I don’t like Jesus anymore; evil is now in my heart”). The father comforts him by saying, “*Anak, nasa puso natin, hindi yan evil, dapat Jesus*” (“Son, evil should not be in our heart, but Jesus”).

Verbal instructions challenge a child to understand and carry out instructions, and work on tasks on his own. Father engagement impacts a child's cognitive ability, particularly language (Cabrera, Shannon, and LeMonda 2007, 208-213). The father's interview shows that instructions given by the father are mostly about self-care tasks, such as putting on his shoes, dressing up, or cleaning up after himself after using the toilet. He relates in detail how he would guide his son verbally what to do to clean himself up while the father was doing something else. This display of autonomy may be beneficial to the child's development of self-regulation (Grolnick and Ryan 1989, 143-154).

An observational study of father-son dyads was conducted by Appl and colleagues explored the teaching behaviors of fathers. They found that fathers taught their toddlers by modeling, "hand-over-hand assistance," and questioning (Appl, Brown, and Stone 2008, 127-134). These methods are different from the instructive approach described by the father respondent, likely because his son is four years old, while the observational study was of toddlers who are limited in both receptive and expressive language.

The father also teaches spiritual truths by correcting perceptions or beliefs and explicitly stating Bible truths, just as the Biblical patriarchs. These support cognitive and behavioral self-regulation. Like other forms of verbal guidance, this provides opportunity to expand vocabulary and develop use of language.

The deliberate and intentional teaching of information, instructions or acceptable practice serves as a social capital. It equips the child with the capacity to adjust both perspective and behavior in ways that will help him become a functional member of their

immediate community. Both the father and mother interviewees mentioned about teaching Biblical truth to their son and going to church as a family. In addition to the input on what and why to believe, and how to practice, linking the child with the local church community provides community capital by linking the child to a community having the same faith, strengthening their conviction.

Further, he allows his son to join him in what he is doing sports like jogging, basketball or volleyball, or doing chores like sweeping the floor, doing the laundry or washing the motorcycle. The child volunteers without being asked, saying, “*Tatay, I [will] help you.*” Instead of verbal instructions, learning the tasks happen through modelling and experiencing, but still provide social capital for the child.

Father Involvement Elements to Behavioral Self-Regulation

Giving Rewards

The father mentioned several times about giving rewards to make his son do certain tasks like take a nap or do his writing activities. This comes from his background as an educator, believing that children learn through rewards and that children appreciate receiving rewards. Intended to strengthen acceptable behavior and eliminate undesirable behaviors, giving rewards directs the child on what is acceptable or not in their community.

While the father was sharing about challenges in teaching the child to read and write, he shared, “*Tapos ayun nga po ang maganda po sa kanya, Ma’am, kapag binigyan mo yung parang, for example, nagpasulat ka sa kanya, nagpa-color, dapat po may reward din talaga na ibigay sa kanya. Kasi, as a teacher po, or as a parent po, dun lang po matututo yung mga bata po natin. Na, kahit sa konting rewards, at least, na-*

appreciate naman po nila na, 'O dapat ko gawin ito.' ” (“Then a good thing about him, Ma’am, if for example you asked him to write or color, you should have a reward to give him. Because as a teacher or as a parent, [I believe] that is the only way our children will learn—that even through small rewards, at least they appreciate that they have to do it”). Literacy and language are aspects of community function that have to be learned by individuals in order to be able to interact effectively in the community, thereby achieving both individual and community objectives.

Effective rewards for the child respondent are taking him out to eat and buying him simple toy cars. The father says even if the rewards are not of value, the child appreciates so long as he is given a reward. He says, *“Kahit mumurahin lang, basta bigya mo siya ng pasunod o reward, Ma’am, natutuwa naman siya.”* (“Though inexpensive, so long as you give him a reward, Ma’am, he is happy”).

Rewards are intended to give motivation for action. In the case of the family interviewed, rewards for the child are either a simple toy car or having a meal outside of the home, typically at a fast-food chain. The father believes that this is an effective way to make his son follow instructions or do tasks and makes sure he has rewards or conditions when asking his child to do something.

Albert Bandura identifies “self-incentives” to serve motivational functions. These are incentives that have “affective reactions” depending on “how it measured up to a personal standard” (Bandura 1991, 256-257). In the child interview, the child says he is sad when his father is angry. The father’s approval, therefore, serves as a personal incentive and may motivate acceptable behavior as defined by the father.

Further, rewards may aid a child's cognitive self-regulation, motivating them to persist in difficult tasks, and behavioral self-regulation, giving opportunity to sustain instruction, follow instructions and cooperate. Some are wary of using rewards in the fear of less intrinsic motivations causing little learning. In the same note, God is also called a "Rewarder" (Hebrews 11:6) and promises to "reward every man according to his work" (Matthew 16:27).

Setting Boundaries or Limits

Most common boundary mentioned was about the use of gadgets. The child is given time limits, as evident in the conversation at bedtime that the father shared, "*For example, Ma'am, gusto niyang mag-cellphone. 'O meron kang five minutes lang para mag-cellphone. After that, 'Nak ah, pwede ka nang matulog.*" ("For example, Ma'am, he wants to use the cellphone. [I say,] 'You have five more minutes to use the cellphone. After that, son, please go to sleep"). When the child refuses to eat because he is using the cellphone, his father tells him, "*Kumain ka muna bago mag-cellphone kasi once na hindi mo nakain o naubos 'yung pagkain mo, hindi ko ibibigay 'yung cellphone mo*" ("Eat first before you use your phone because if you do not eat or finish your food, I will not give your cellphone back"). To this the child complies.

Boundaries are evident in negotiations that transpire. When the child is asked to do a task he refuses, the father offers incentives. For example, when the child refuses to do coloring and writing activities, the father says, "*Sige, gawin mo muna ito. Tapos after niyan, pwede ka na maglaro or pwede ka na maghawak ng cellphone.*" ("Alright, do this first. After that, you may play, or you may use the cellphone").

The father described an instance when the child requested to eat out. He told his son, “*Anak, bibigyan kita ng ganito, or bibilhin natin yung gusto mo, per sa isang kondisyon.... kapag may sinabi kami, gagawin mo.*” (“Son, I will give you that, or we will buy what you want, but on one condition. When we ask you to do something, you will do it”).

Limits are also established in defining his interactions with his siblings, instructing him to share with his brothers first before he shares with others when he refuses to. He is also given directed on how to relate to others, to not yell or hit. In enforcing compliance, the father is known to set boundaries and limits, giving ultimatums through countdowns. The father states, “*Kapag binilangan mo na siya, Ma’am, or itaas mo na din yung isang daliri mo, pumupunta na po siya, Ma’am.*” (“When you give him a countdown, Ma’am, or you raise on finger, he comes, Ma’am”).

When boundaries are crossed, the child is spanked. When the child hits his father, he is called out with his father saying, “*Ok ‘nak, bad yang ginagawa mo sa akin na pagpalo.*” (“Alright son, hitting me is bad”). Self-regulation is found to be a predictor of aggressive and antisocial behaviors (VanDerhei 2017, 1-172). This firm correction by the father is intended to deter such behaviors, serving as social capital for the child.

The father shares his difficulty, “. . . *Sa age po niya [siya] ay masyado makulit, minsan hindi nakikinig. For example, Ma’am, sinabihan mo siya talaga, hindi niya gagawin yun unless may reward ka or unless pupuntahan mo siya, ‘Nak mabibilang na ako, pupuntahan mo ba o gagawin mo na?’*” (“At his age sometimes he is very excitable, at times he does not listen. For example, you ask him to do something, he will not do it unless there is a reward or unless I go to him and say, ‘Son, I will count. Are you going

there or are you going to do it?’’). When the child locks himself in the room, the father says, “*Ayaw mong buksan? Kapag nakulong ka riyan huwag ka nang sasama sa amin*” (“You don’t want to open the door? If you get locked in, you cannot come with us”).

Through this the son complies and opens the door.

Moral upbringing is traditionally expected of fathers, part of which is setting boundaries (Eerola 2014, 308-324). The father respondent was explicit about limits and boundaries he sets for behaviors and tasks. He states what is acceptable and what the child can or cannot do in specific instances. He also states consequences for when the child does not follow or violates the limits. Through this, his child learns to persist despite tasks he does not like or is lazy to do, such as writing or bathing, and cooperate, possibly supporting both cognitive and behavioral self-regulation.

By definition, self-regulation is the ability to alter behaviors to align to personal goals. The goals are based on personal standards that are often influenced by the environment (Baumeister, Schmeichel, and Vohs 2007, 5; Baumeister and Stillman 2013, 1). With the father stating clear expectations, the child is able to decide more easily on behaviors whether it is aligned with his or her goal of maintaining a positive relationship with his or her parent. Results of behaviors can be assessed immediately, without having to guess which behaviors are acceptable and to what degree, because the expectations have clearly been drawn. Low aspirations lead to low motivation to perform a task (Bandura 1991, 273-274). While self-regulation is internally motivated, the external standards set by fathers may bring up one’s level of aspiration, thereby increasing one’s motivation and success in regulating. The survival function of self-regulation

(Baumeister and Stillman 2013, 5) compels a child to comply with the standards set by the father, a significant figure to a child.

The child's social function was of concern to the father. They call out as "bad" behaviors that hurt or disturb other people. He gives guidance on how to share and forgive others, as well as not harboring "evil" in his heart. In the statement, "*Ano na lang ang sasabihin sa 'yo ng mga tao?*" ("What will other people say about you?"), the father shows regard for other people's opinions of his child.

Gender role expectation did not surface as a theme in the father interview but was prominent in the responses of the mother. The mother explicitly said that she encourages her husband to implement discipline and model being a man to her children. She said, "*Pero as much as possible gusto ko yung discipline ay kay [Tatay] manggaling. Yung instruction sa Tatay. Kasi gusto kong maano . . . Kasi nga dahil lalaki para pag ano niya at least makikita niya yung responsibility ng tatay sa kanila . . . Yung pag-impose ng discipline ay kay [Tatay] manggaling*" ("But as much as possible I want the discipline to come from [my husband]. Because I want. . . Because [the children] are male, they will see the responsibility of their father. The imposition of discipline should be from their father"). This statement reveals how the mother intentionally relegates tasks that are discipline related to the father, as observed in Filipino families. Activities or interactions that might support emotional regulation could be more common between the mother-child dyad.

Discipline Through Spanking

In addition, spanking was a part of the father's discipline. When asked to describe how he looked like when angry at his son, he says he wants to hit him but holds himself

back because he does not want to traumatize his son, and he does not want him to do when he has children of his own. He shared, however, how he used to spank his nephews and nieces but does it less with his children. In the conversations, a lot of the discussions with the son were after being spanked. Reasons for being spanked are not following what the parents say, fighting with his siblings and hitting his father. Further, he says he apologizes to his son when he spanked harder than he should and does self-reflection afterward.

When correcting the child for wrong behavior, the parents talk to him individually. They ask why he did what he knew was wrong and told, “*Nak, mali yung ginawa mo . . . Anak, huwag mo nang uulitin ‘yun. Once na ginawa mo pa ulit yun, papaluin ka namin ulit*” (“Son, what you did was wrong . . . Son, do not do it again. Once you do it again, we will spank you again”).

Nonetheless, the father expressed regret when he spanks his son hard, asking himself why he hit his son hard. He shares how he apologizes and explains why his son is spanked. He shared saying, “*Sorry, napalo kita nang malakas. Ayaw kong nakikita na umiiyak ka. . . Kapag naiiyak ka, si Tatay din na-hu-hurt*” (“Sorry, I spanked you hard. I do not like seeing you cry. When you cry, I am also hurt”).

Spanking was a consequence implemented by the father, mostly when fighting happens between his sons. It is intended to deter unacceptable behaviors. Professionals, especially from the Christian faith, are split on their stand. Some believe it is advocated in the Bible through Proverbs 13:24 that says, “Whoever spares the rod hates their children, but the one who loves their children disciplines them.” The rod is interpreted to mean literal spanking. Others, on the other hand, regard it as abuse and provide evidence

of its detrimental effects on children (Somerstein 2008, 13). It is worth noting that the child, albeit spanked, exhibits high self-regulation. This may be attributed to the intentional explanation, typically by the father, about the implementation of discipline. Both parents report that the child, despite not expressing verbally, shows indication that he understands.

The Parental Capital Theory attribute positive child outcomes to the three components of father involvement—positive engagement activities, warmth and responsiveness, and control. Spanking may be categorized as a form of control exerted by the father on the child and considered as a form of social capital. Deterring behaviors or attitudes considered unacceptable through spanking equips a child for healthy peer relations.

Father Involvement Elements to Emotional Self-Regulation

Child's Expression of Extreme Emotions

The most resounding theme that was identified by both the father and mother, as well as surfaced in the thematic analysis, was allowing the child to express extreme emotions, whether positive or negative. When asked to describe his child's feeling toward him, the father described himself as "*maluwag*" (lenient) and went to describe how his son would openly express his feelings, like "I hate you, *Tatay*," ("I hate you, Father") or "*Tatay, 'yung heart ko na-bi-break kasi pinapalo mo ako or pinapagalitan mo ako*" ("Father, my heart is breaking because you are spanking or scolding me"). Further, his son would say, "*Evil na ang nasa heart ko*" ("Evil is already in my heart"). When extremely upset, the child would say, "*Ayoko na sa 'yo, Tatay!*" ("I do not like you anymore, Father!") or blame the father by saying, "*Ikaw kasi, Tatay!*" (It is your fault,

Father!"). The mother shared how they let their son let out his extreme emotions, since he is able to express his emotions freely with them only now. They report that the episodes do not last long as the child calms down with their guidance, hug or explanation.

Expression of extreme emotion allows the child to experience the emotion in its intensity and given the opportunity to regulate oneself. The mother acknowledges the child's need to express his emotions fully, and the father considers himself lenient in this area. At times, the child expresses not only disapproval or dislike, but hatred. These are expressed physically through hitting, punching, or kicking, or verbally through statements like "*Ayoko na sa 'yo, Tatay!*" ("I don't like you anymore, Father!") or "I hate you, Tatay!" During outbursts, they teach the child to inhale and exhale or hug him to calm him down, and make sure they explain the reasons or circumstances around the incident.

"Empathetic parenting" understands children's expressions of their experiences and feelings, establishes trust and helps the child to cope (Simonič 2015, 109-121). Further, it is a form of co-regulation where the adult guides a child on how to regulate. Both parents describe extreme emotion in the child but also say that he resolves it quickly. This opportunity to express may be a factor in the child's high self-regulation. After emotions have been expressed, the child then decides what to do in response, in the process exercising self-regulation. Both parents say that the child is able to calm down easily after outbursts.

Expression of extreme emotion might be misconstrued as unacceptable, yet we find David, the "man after God's own heart" (1 Samuel 13:14; Acts 13:22), being in the opposite ends of the spectrum. David expressed extreme joy when he danced and

worshiped God in his undergarments (2 Samuel 6:14-15), and extreme sorrow in his lament, “why are you downcast, O my soul” (Psalm 42:5a, ESV). Nonetheless, he was regarded as “a man after God’s own heart” (1 Samuel 13:14; Acts 13:22, KJV).

Apology from the Father

The third component, the father acknowledging his fault or apologizing, was mentioned by the father, mother and child. The father’s first mention of himself apologizing is while describing a regular day with his son, which included reprimanding his son for not doing what he was asked, his son getting upset, and him hugging his son and apologizing. The father shares, “*Kasi sa amin din po, Ma’am, kapag may, for example, nagawan ko siya ng kasalanan or mali or pinalo, Ma’am, parang nagtatampo tapos hindi na ako kakausapin. Kaso ang ginagawa ko, Ma’am, sabi ko, “Okay, sorry na. Alam mo ba kung bakit kita pinalo?”* (“Because at home, Ma’am, if, for example, I do him wrong or spank him, Ma’am, it’s like he sulks and would not talk to me. What I do, Ma’am, is I say, ‘Ok, I am sorry. Do you know why I spanked you?’”). The father goes on to share that he explains why the child is spanked, that he loves his child and that it is for the child’s good.

Another instance this was mentioned by the father was when asked to describe his closeness to his son. He shares in instance when he reprimanded his son for not doing a task, the child got upset, saying, “I hate you!” The father says he is able to resolve by hugging the child and saying sorry. This is validated in the mother’s statement that her husband apologizes to their son when he is at fault, saying, “*Tsaka kung siya rin naman ang may mali, ‘Okay, sorry na.’ So, sorry din naman yung tatay kung halimbawa may nasabi o ano. Kasi minsan din naman siya ang nag-uumpisa*” (“And when he [husband]

is the one at fault, he says ‘Okay, sorry.’ So, the father is also sorry if for example he said something or so, because sometimes he is the one who starts it”).

During the child interview, the child was asked about when he felt certain emotions toward his father. He said he was happy (shown happy face) when they laugh before bedtime. He said that he was sad (shown sad face) when his father would get angry at him for not listening. He was shown a happy face and asked when he feels like that again. The child said, “cars.” When clarified if playing with cars or being given cars makes him happy, the child said, “meron cars” (“have cars”), meaning he is given cars. When he shared that his mother buys him cars, he was asked again what makes him happy (shown happy face) when his father was angry (shown angry face). He said, “sorry.” Upon clarification, he validated that he feels happy again when his father apologizes to him.

Because the apology acknowledges one’s fault, anger or pain felt by the child is addressed. Apologies may support emotional self-regulation, at the same time alleviating negative feelings in conflicts and strengthening closeness between the father and child. Reconciliation between God and humans is facilitated by repentance—an acknowledgment of one’s fault or wrongdoing. In the same way, a father’s apology may facilitate restoration of his relationship with his child and strengthen closeness.

Teasing or Playful Banter

Teasing or playful banter (“*asaran*”) is mentioned by the father with fondness and the mother with frustration as a common part of the father-child interaction. The mother reports this to happen every day, and all times of the day, even while they travel via motorcycle or lying in bed to sleep. The father describes their closeness as “*asaran*”

(teasing or playful banter) where he jokingly tells his son, “I hate you,” or when his son says, “*Pangit ka, Tatay!*” (“You are ugly, Father!”). The banter is mutual, with the mother having to mediate when they get upset with each other. She observes, “*Parang kasama na sa bonding nila ang pag-aasaran*” (“Playful banter is part of their bonding.”).

Banter and humor are typical in Filipino relationships. In a discussion of “*Sikolohiyang Pilipino*” (Filipino Psychology) whose proponent was Virgilio Enriquez, Jay Yacat illustrates levels of Filipino values. At the core is “*kapwa*,” best described as the self and others as one. In maintaining smooth interpersonal relations, “*biro*” (banter or humor) is a behavior related to the societal value of “*karangalan*” or dignity (Yacat 2013, 12). It is employed to preserve dignity and protect relations by avoiding negative emotions. It addresses conflict indirectly, attempting to avoid awkward or hurtful confrontations.

There are times that banter leads to offense or irritation, as the mother described her husband and son to often be, giving opportunity to manage both emotions and behavior. Nonetheless, the banter described by the respondent family promotes positive emotions. When the child was asked when he felt happy with his father, the child replied, “*tawa-tawa*” (“laughing”). Unlike other forms of social capital provided by the father that either promotes acceptable behavior or deters negative behavior, banter promotes friendship between father and child, possibly being precedent to future friendships.

Physical Affection

Interactions between the family members are interluded by hugs. The child expresses affection through hugging and kissing both parents, just like his siblings. The parents hug the child to calm him down during outbursts and the father asks his son to

hug to show his love. The child sleeps hugging either parent. Because it is an expression of affection, it may support emotional self-regulation.

Physical affection, particularly hugging, is mentioned by the father as a means of resolving conflicts, and by the mother as a means of calming down their son when emotions are intense. Talking about their closeness as father and son, the father shares that when they offend one another, at times he will just hug his son. Other times, his son will also just hug him. He shares, “*Pinapakita po niya yung love, yung love language niya sa pagyakap po.*” (“He shows his love, his love language is hugging”).

Both parents describe their son to express his affection through hugging and kissing. They sleep together with the child hugging either parent. The mother describes her son as “sweet,” expressing his affection physically and verbally. More than being part of conflict resolution, hugging is part of the family’s interaction. The father says about when he spans his children, “*Ayaw ko pong nakikita silang umiiyak, nasasaktan po. So ang gagawin na lang, yayakapin na lang*” (“I do not like seeing them crying or hurt. So what I do, I just hug them”).

Discussion

Father involvement elements were identified from the qualitative interviews and categorized into which component of self-regulation they most likely play a factor in. These were discussed considering previous studies but will further be discussed in its entirety.

While associations were present between child-self-regulation and 1) father involvement quantity; and 2) father involvement quality, associations were stronger for father involvement quality. The significant correlations between father involvement

quantity and two of three components of self-regulation were medium at best. On the other hand, correlations between father involvement quality and overall self-regulation as well as all its components were all strong except for emotional self-regulation.

The relationship between father involvement (quantity and quality) and overall self-regulation may not be significant, but the difference in self-regulation scores between children with high father involvement and children with low father involvement was significant. The non-relationship may be due to a non-linear relationship and the influence of other factors. A factor that may contribute is the interaction with the mother of both father and child. This gives some insight to what Volling has described as “unchartered territory,” but a more extensive study on the role of fathers in the development of self-regulation will allow more understanding.

Both in local and global contexts, the mother is associated with the caregiving role. A study by Volling and colleagues shows that while a mother is more emotionally available, children whose fathers were emotionally available had higher emotional competence (Volling et al. 2002, 447-465). On top of the difference in role expectations, the mother also plays a mediator role, as related in the qualitative interview. When the father and child are in conflict, both come to her with the dilemma which she helps resolve.

Father involvement quantity seems to have strongest influence on cognitive and behavioral self-regulation, and the weakest on emotional self-regulation. On the other hand, father involvement quality seems to have the greatest influence on behavioral self-regulation but also reflects strong influence on overall self-regulation and other components.

The self-regulation component showing strongest links to both father involvement quantity and father involvement quality is behavioral self-regulation. All statistical tests resulted in significance, except as a risk factor which turned out positive but not significantly.

These results imply that to achieve high overall child self-regulation and its long-term benefits for the child, providing high father involvement quality will be beneficial. Overall self-regulation may also benefit from high father involvement quantity. To strengthen both cognitive and behavioral self-regulation, both high father involvement quantity and high father involvement quality will be beneficial. To strengthen emotional self-regulation, the child will most likely benefit from high father involvement quality and possibly benefit from high father involvement quantity.

Baumrind identifies three parenting approaches as 1) authoritative; 2) authoritarian; and 3) permissive (Baumrind 1971, 22-23). Further, it is associated with “close, nurturing relationship between parents and children.” The parents clearly define expectations, guide on how to meet them, and discipline with explanation (Sanvictores and Mendez 2022, n.p.; Santrock 2007, 465). Among all approaches, the authoritative parenting style promotes both “autonomous self-will and disciplined authority” (Baumrind 1971, 22-23) and is deemed to yield best results for children (Sanvictores and Mendez 2022, n.p.)

The respondent father’s approach is characteristic of this parenting style. Both quantitative and qualitative data, as indicated in the Father Survey and Parent Interview results respectively, indicate a high level of father-child closeness. Specifically, almost all

the elements of father involvement that surfaced are characteristic of the authoritative parenting style.

Positive father-child relations are strengthened through play, physical expression of affection, and teasing or playful banter. When asked what he does with his father, he said, “*tawa-tawa*” (“laugh”) because both he and his father were funny. The mother reports that banter and teasing are regular parts of the father-child interactions. The parents consider their child’s “love language” to be physical touch. He expresses his affection to both parents through hugging and kissing, and the father also expresses his affection and apology to the child through physical embrace. The father ensures that he has time with his child during weekends to have physical activities. Apart from play being naturally enjoyable, the father notes that he considers what the child wants. Giving rewards is employed as motivator, with the rewards typically being what the child likes. Another element that does not seem to be characteristic of authoritative parenting and healthy self-regulation is allowing the child to express extreme emotions. Allowing this freedom, however, may promote autonomy as the child is given space to feel what he feels and then later process with the parents who help him calm down.

The father respondent establishes “disciplined authority” by setting clear boundaries on what the child can do or not, and what behaviors are socially acceptable. He states how the child should treat his brothers and other people, and calls out behaviors that are unacceptable like hitting, tumbling of objects, shouting and not sharing. When the child crosses the limits set, he is spanked. While spanking is characteristic of authoritarian parenting, the intentional and consistent explanation and expression of affection that come with it are characteristic of the authoritative approach. “Negative

control” is negatively associated with compliance, with “positive control” being positively correlated (Karreman et al. 2006, 561-575).

Both parents say of disciplinary actions, “*Kailangan ipaliwanag*” (“It has to be explained”), observing the child to understand their explanations. This extensive dialogue is descriptive of authoritative parenting (Santrock 2007, 465). In addition to explanations, the father’s apology both when he disciplines harshly and when he does wrong are significant. When the child talked about being sad when his father was angry, he said his father saying “sorry” makes him happy again. This not only buffers the impact of the disciplinary action but may possibly promote positive affect and avoid resentment.

In addition, Grolnick and Ryan find that children who are raised with the authoritative parental approach are more likely to have children who are “self-reliant and independent.” Among other components, “support for autonomy” showed consistent linkage to the self-regulation, competence and adjustment. Because of mothers’ higher involvement with young children, their involvement was found to be more important predictors of self-regulation, competence (Grolnick and Ryan 1989, 143-154) and executive function (Meuwissena and Carlson 2015, 12).

Results of this study, while non-comparative, shows the father to be a significant contributor to self-regulation, especially through the support for autonomy. The father involves the child when he is doing chores. He gave a detailed account of how he instructs his child to do self-care tasks like putting on his shoes, dressing up, and cleaning himself after using the toilet. The father said that he gets annoyed when his child is not able to do even simple tasks, indicating the importance he gives to his child’s ability to

do things on his own. Further, he also considers his child's interest, particularly in the activities and play that they do.

The *Parental Capital Model* posits that paternal involvement reflecting the authoritative style led to positive outcomes in children. The explicit and implicit father involvement components that surfaced in the family interviews were categorized into the theory's components and found to align with components of authoritative parenting. Qualitative results show that *positive engagement activities* come in the form of playful banter or humor, and play, especially that which considers the interest of the child. *Warmth and responsiveness* come in the form of permitting the expression of extreme emotion, giving explanations when implementing discipline, apology from the father when wrong, and physical expression of affection through hugs. *Control* is expressed through verbal instructions, providing boundaries or limits, and providing consequences in the form of rewards for positive behavior and spanking for negative behavior.

Further, the qualitative father involvement components were categorized into the type of capital the father provides for the child. *Financial capital* is considered a major concern of the father. He relates being sad about not being able to provide for his children's needs. Other material provisions mentioned are buying toy cars and treating the child to meals outside of the home. *Social capital* is provided through teaching acceptable behaviors inside and outside of the home, giving instructions and opportunity to learn self-help skills, teaching of values like love, forgiveness and generosity, and stating or clarifying spiritual truths or beliefs. *Community capital* comes in the form of connecting with relatives in the province, connections with sports companions, and introduction to the church community. These identify specific ways that father

involvement may be related to positive child outcomes, particularly the development of self-regulation.

With these elements comprising the father's involvement with his child, and with studies showing evidence of positive child outcomes, it is not surprising that the child of the father respondent scored high in self-regulation. Both positive affect and firm discipline were implemented thereby resulting in healthy self-regulation for the child.

Results of this study validate that father involvement should consider both quantity and quality, but quality seems to have stronger contributions to self-regulation. This guides fathers, other family members and other adults around the child on how to support the fathers to contribute to their child's self-regulation. The stronger linkage of father involvement quality gives non-resident fathers opportunity to contribute to the development of their children's self-regulation despite their separate living arrangements. Further, qualitative data confirms that an authoritative approach to fathering may contribute to all components of self-regulation.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

To understand father involvement as a factor in the development of child self-regulation, this mixed-method study involving the Filipino child within the Filipino family and cultural context was conducted. The relationship between father involvement and child self-regulation was explored, and a comparison of self-regulation scores of high father involvement and low father involvement groups was done. To validate findings and provide insight on elements of father involvement that may be a factor to the development of self-regulation, a qualitative interview was done with a family whose child scored high in self-regulation and the father high in involvement.

Summary of Findings and Conclusions

Results of this study show that father involvement quantity is not significantly correlated to overall child self-regulation and emotional self-regulation but is significantly correlated to cognitive and behavioral self-regulation. Significant correlations were moderate. On the other hand, father involvement quality is significantly correlated to overall self-regulation of children, as well as their cognitive, behavioral and emotional self-regulation. Significant correlations were strong for overall, cognitive and behavioral self-regulation and moderate for emotional self-regulation.

Self-regulation scores of children with high father involvement quantity and children with low father involvement quantity differ significantly for overall self-regulation, behavioral self-regulation and emotional self-regulation, but not significantly

in cognitive self-regulation. Results of comparisons for high and low father involvement groups were the same.

The results show that father involvement, both quantity and quality, are factors to the development of self-regulation. This supports Cabrera's claim that father involvement should have both elements (Cabrera et al. 1999). Among the self-regulation components, behavioral self-regulation had the most consistent association with father involvement, rendering a significant positive correlation with father involvement quantity and quality, and yielding significant differences between low and high father involvement groups. Between quantity and quality of father involvement, its quality is more consistently related to child self-regulation.

Results of the qualitative interview of a family with high father involvement and high child self-regulation reveal elements of father involvement that may contribute to the different components of self-regulation. Among all elements, play is assumed to be factor to all components of self-regulation. Other father involvement elements that may contribute to cognitive self-regulation are verbal explanation upon discipline and guidance. Father involvement elements that may contribute to behavioral self-regulation are giving rewards, setting boundaries or limits, and discipline through spanking. Father involvement elements that may contribute to emotional self-regulation are child's expression of extreme emotions, apology from the father, teasing or playful banter and physical affection. The elements identified were characteristic of authoritative parenting.

Results of the study lead to the following conclusions:

1. There is no significant relationship between father involvement quantity scores and child overall self-regulation scores.

- 1.1. There is a significant relationship between father involvement quantity scores and child cognitive self-regulation scores.
- 1.2. There is a significant relationship between father involvement quantity scores and child behavioral self-regulation scores.
- 1.3. There is no significant relationship between father involvement quantity scores and child emotional self-regulation scores.
2. There is a significant relationship between father involvement quality scores and child overall self-regulation scores.
 - 2.1. There is a significant relationship between father involvement quality scores and child cognitive self-regulation scores.
 - 2.2. There is a significant relationship between father involvement quality scores and child behavioral self-regulation scores.
 - 2.3. There is a significant relationship between father involvement quality scores and child emotional self-regulation scores.
3. Children whose fathers have high father involvement quantity scores have significantly higher overall self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quantity scores.
 - 3.1. Children whose fathers have high father involvement quantity scores do not have significantly higher cognitive self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quantity scores.
 - 3.2. Children whose fathers have high father involvement quantity scores have significantly higher behavioral self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quantity scores.

- 3.3. Children whose fathers have high father involvement quantity scores have significantly higher emotional self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quantity scores.
4. Children whose fathers have high father involvement quality scores have significantly higher overall self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quality scores.
 - 4.1. Children whose fathers have high father involvement quality scores do not have significantly higher cognitive self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quality scores.
 - 4.2. Children whose fathers have high father involvement quality scores have significantly higher behavioral self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quality scores.
 - 4.3. Children whose fathers have high father involvement quality scores have significantly higher emotional self-regulation scores than those whose fathers have low father involvement quality scores.

Father involvement elements that may contribute to cognitive self-regulation are verbal explanation upon discipline and guidance. Father involvement elements that may contribute to behavioral self-regulation are giving rewards, setting boundaries or limits and discipline through spanking. Father involvement elements that may contribute to emotional self-regulation are a child's expression of extreme emotions, apology from the father, teasing or playful banter, and physical affection. Play pervades all self-regulation components. Father involvement elements are characteristic of the authoritative parenting style.

Recommendations

The study was conducted considering its significance to individuals and institutions identified in addition to identifying societal trends where self-regulation may prove to be related. Recommendations on how results can be utilized to benefit institutions and individuals are made. Further, given the limitations of the current research, recommendations are also made for further study.

With early childhood identified to be critical to the development of self-regulation, approaches that anticipate the positive impact to its development may prove to be not only less expensive, but preventive of negative impacts. This gives not only better understanding, but greater appreciation, of the father's involvement and child development.

Understanding that father involvement is in fact related to the development of self-regulation will have implications for fathers, mothers and the family at large. Knowing the relationship of their involvement with the development of child self-regulation, fathers and father surrogates may evaluate the frequency of specific interaction with their children, as well as their level of closeness to the child. Because high father involvement is associated with all components of self-regulation, albeit in different degrees and in different ways, aiming to increase frequency of involvement for those who assess their involvement to be low, and aim to maintain for those who assess themselves to be high in father involvement quantity and quality. Further, the study identifies specific components of father involvement that may contribute to higher self-regulation in children.

Recommendations for Future Studies

While the current study was intentionally designed and carefully implemented, size of sample pose as a limitation that can strengthen future studies if addressed. With the study replicable, a study with a larger sample size for quantitative analysis will increase its generalizability. Some statistical behaviors, such as relationships, that do not surface in small sample sizes may be captured. In the current study, none of the respondent families fell in Quadrant 3. With a larger sample size, all quadrants may be represented, yielding results that are more representative of the population. In addition, qualitative interviews with more families and with all quadrants represented can give understanding of similarities or differences between quadrants, if any.

Given the limited time and resources for the study, and difficulty encountered in sourcing respondents, some elements of sampling criteria were adjusted. The study can be replicated to control family income, educational background of parents, and gender of the child as these are factors found to be related to father-child dynamics as we. With this, relationships and differences may be more confidently associated with interaction of variables in study.

The study can be further expanded to compare the father involvement results with mother involvement results. The uniqueness of both father and mother involvement can then be identified and explored. The benefits of a quantitative statistical comparison and qualitative exploration will give a more comprehensive understanding of the relationship of parent involvement and child self-regulation.

Studies that are specific to subcomponents of the variables may also provide more focused direction and results. Studies that focus on quantity or quality can help

understand the components more deeply, and studies that focus on the cognitive, behavioral and emotional functions of self-regulation can give insights that enrich current findings.

The study may also be expanded geographically to national level to capture contributions of the many varied local cultures and values. A geographically comparative study might also be of interest to those who work on a national or global scale.

More specifically, it may be replicated by churches who might be interested in understanding their population to provide grounds for the establishment or improvement of their family programs. A comparison with other religions will also help identify specifically how Christianity might play into the interaction between the variables.

Lastly, a longitudinal version of the current study can allow for the determination of trends and surface of other variables. It can allow for age or time-interval comparisons of scores that will help make age-specific recommendations.

To capture the uniqueness of the Filipino family context, a local contextualized tool that measures father involvement may provide more accurate insight. With items specifically designed to reflect Filipino values and practices, participants might be more responsive to items that are relatable and relevant.

The study presents data using standardized quantitative tests enriched by qualitative interviews. It was designed and conducted in the Filipino context and is expected to contribute to knowledge in the local early childhood and family life fields. In reference to the intended significance of the study, recommendations are made in consideration of the results of this study.

Children will benefit from the results of this data by creating awareness, adding knowledge, adjusting practices and creating programs that will support the development of healthy self-regulation thereby anticipating later success. Recommendations made for the family, childcarers and other individuals directly involved in the care and education of children will address perspectives and practices that must be eliminated, adjusted or started to promote healthy self-regulation in children.

With knowledge factor to the development of self-regulation, fathers and father surrogates may assess their involvement in terms of frequency and closeness with the child, as well as other qualitative elements that may or may not be helpful to the child's development. Upon assessment, adjustments may be made. To develop better self-regulation of children, more frequent involvement in caregiving, play and conversational activities is recommended.

The current study has described the relationship between father involvement and child self-regulation using statistically-supported data and rich qualitative data. It has addressed some claims that have been made about the interaction of the two variables specifically in the Filipino context. This data may serve as foundation of programs and further research to elevate not only the benefits of self-regulation in children but empower fathers on how to effectively contribute.

Recommendations for Individuals and Institutions

Children

Children will benefit directly and indirectly from recommendations. The following recommendations directly impact the child. When fathers initiate teaching

opportunities, children are encouraged to engage, even if they may look for the comfort of maternal care. They are encouraged to enjoy the excitable time and play that fathers offer, being assured that they are safe. Maximize time by exploring with their fathers and asking questions. When fathers implement discipline, children are encouraged to cooperate, ask why and initiate dialogue if needed, and if they are able.

It is natural for all children to want to play. Given the benefits that play has on all components of self-regulation, children are encouraged to continue their pursuit of play. In fact, promoting play as learning just like they are encouraged to learn in school takes away the guilt. When parents refuse to buy toys or materials, the children seek out other opportunities to play. In particular, they are encouraged to play with their fathers, or father substitutes if not present. Children are encouraged not just to maximize time with their fathers to learn, but to enjoy. They are encouraged to be allowed to laugh, be silly, and do adventurous things. Express what they like to their fathers so fathers can take these into account.

Considering the contributions that engagement with both parents can give, children are encouraged to establish meaningful relationships with both parents, veering from favoritism and comparison, as both will have influence on their development. Expression of their interest is important so adults around them can consider this in their interactions.

Fathers and Father Surrogates

The debate about the unique contributions of mothers and fathers will continue, but results of this study establish that father involvement does have an influence on the development of self-regulation. In addition, evidence from literature establish the

importance of self-regulation to later success. This awareness may lead fathers to evaluate their current involvement with their children in terms of quantity and quality. Then they can be more intentional in the amount and quality of their interactions with their children.

Fathers are encouraged to intentionally allocate time for childcare and interaction with their children. More importantly, fathers are encouraged to establish meaningful relationships with their children, and to adopt a more authoritative parenting approach, if they have not yet. This promotes both independence and limits in the context of a warm and responsive relationship. Expectations are clearly established, and dialogues are part of discipline instead of inculcating beliefs and using punishment and force to correct (Baumrind 1971, 22-23).

Acknowledging the permeating benefits of play across the components of self-regulation and the possible unique influence of father-child play with children, fathers are encouraged to engage in play with their young children. Play has many forms, and engaging in different types may have different self-regulatory benefits. Fathers may enhance play by integrating the child's interests and going by the child's leading. Fathers may exercise various components of authoritative parenting like fostering warmth, being responsive and establishing boundaries in the play context.

Gleaning from the qualitative data, fathers are encouraged to support cognitive development by serving the teacher-guide role while maintaining a responsive relationship. With language as one of the areas of cognitive development father involvement may influence, fathers are encouraged to use verbal instructions with their children, supplementing with other methods as needed, and dialogue with their children.

Allowing children to solve problems on their own strengthens cognitive capacity and confidence.

Though influenced by Western values through media, the Filipino family is still very much governed by Filipino cultural values, center to which is the Filipino family. With the disciplinarian role still associated with the father, fathers can maximize this role to strengthen child self-regulation by implementing discipline not with force but with calm and open dialogue. This serves the deterrent purpose of the discipline while maintaining positive relations with the child. Views on spanking are mixed and will entail a more in-depth exploration for it to be part of the recommendation. However, based on the respondent child's violent expression of anger reported by the respondent parents, a non-physical implementation of discipline is recommended.

Fathers may support the development of emotional self-regulation by allowing the child to express their emotions. Because emotions are not necessarily right or wrong, acknowledging any type of emotion the child feels will validate their feelings and allow them to start dealing with it, instead of negating or scolding. Otherwise, this may lead to suppressing negative emotions and failing to deal with them. Nonetheless, setting boundaries on means of expression may be helpful in ensuring that while the child's feelings are acknowledged, negative emotions do not lead to destructive behavior.

It is worth noting that the respondent family highlighted the father's apology to the child. Being the nominal head of the family, fathers typically embody authority. The child respondent's account relays the following sequence of events and emotions: the father gets angry over a misbehavior, the child gets sad over feeling scolded, then the child feels happy again when the father apologizes. In addition to modeling remorse over

mistakes and offenses, this may foster positive relations and maintain positive affection between father and child.

The Filipino culture is pervaded by laughter, with “*biro*” (humor) as part of its psyche (Yacat 2013, 12). This may enhance closeness between father and child in an enjoyable means to both child and father, and without the danger of minimizing the authority of the male parental figure. Further, fathers are encouraged to express their affection to their children physically, within the bounds of propriety.

Provision of financial capital for basic needs and wants is a common notion of the paternal role. However, the attention of fathers is directed to the social and community capital that they can potentially provide to their child for positive outcomes in self-regulation. Providing practical, moral and spiritual guidance, as the Biblical patriarchs have, are forms of social capital that fathers may provide. Connecting the child to other people in the community, both family and non-family, through formal and casual participation in events such as sports, ushers the child into the larger community system.

While this study considered resident fathers, these recommendations also apply to non-resident fathers. The stronger linkage found between child self-regulation and father involvement quality than father involvement quantity gives hope to non-resident fathers. They can still be active influences on the development of their children’s self-regulation despite their living arrangements by giving emphasis to the relationship of their relation and involvement with their children. Father surrogates in mother-only homes may also note the recommendations and reap the benefits for the preschool child despite non-biological relations, as quality is found to be a critical factor.

Mothers

A mediating factor in the influence of father influence on children is the role of mothers. While some studies say that father influence is not necessarily different from that of mothers, the types of interaction may differ. With the focus of this study on the influence of father involvement on the development of child self-regulation, mothers are recommended to acknowledge the contributions the male parent may contribute. The mothers are challenged to see fathers of their children as alliances rather than competition, as closeness with them will benefit the child in the long run.

Both quantity and quality of father involvement are factors to child self-regulation. Mothers are recommended to allow fathers to give opportunity for one-on-one father-child interaction with the intention of strengthening father-child relationships. Mothers are encouraged to promote good relations through how she represents the father to the child. The father involvement quantity measure that revealed the positive relationship with cognitive and behavioral regulation, and significant difference of scores for the high and low father involvement quantity scores includes childcare items. Involvement in childcare was also characteristic of the father interviewee, whose child had high self-regulation. Mothers may then more confidently delegate childcare tasks to fathers and encourage more interaction between father and child.

When tempted to admonish father-child banter and rough play, mothers may step back and give space for their closeness to develop in these instances. When tempted to rescue and take the side of the child when being disciplined by the father, the mother may facilitate positive interaction by encouraging explanation and apology on the part of the father if needed. When tempted to give in to the child's demands when given limits,

boundaries or consequences by the father, the mother may encourage the child by helping explain the rationale behind the father's recommendation. The mother respondent related how she encourages the father to talk to the child when they have an issue, avoiding stepping in when she is not involved in the conflict.

Mother-child play is less physical than father-child play. Allowing their children opportunity for active play that can be provided by the father without extreme caution and guilt will allow the child to enjoy and reap the benefits, being assured that the father has their safety in mind. The benefits of play on all components of self-regulation may motivate mothers to not only allow but encourage children to engage in this type of play with their fathers.

Statistics show a growing number of mothers not living with their children's fathers. This may lead to complex family arrangements, with emotional considerations to be taken in allowing for father-child interactions. When possible, mothers are encouraged to allow for father involvement given its benefits to children's self-regulation, especially the quality. If deemed to be more detrimental, mothers may enlist the participation of male counterparts to serve these roles.

The Family

Results of this study, albeit focusing on fathers, have implications for other family members, even extended relatives. The father-child dyad exists within the larger family system and is this influenced by them (Bronfenbrenner 1994, 1644). An awareness of the importance both of child self-regulation and father involvement will enable other family members to support the development of child self-regulation directly through their interactions, and indirectly by allowing and encouraging opportunity for high father

involvement in frequency and duration, as well as supporting and facilitating high quality interactions between father and child.

The father might have practices that other family members will not agree with, and other members of the family are invited to evaluate these practices in light of its benefits to the child's well-being, especially in their development of self-regulation. This may be in the areas of play, discipline, guidance, boundaries and expression of affection. While this can be a challenge in non-resident father structures, family members are encouraged to consider what can be accommodated, resolving conflicts if possible, or compensating for the father's absence for the child's development if not.

Community

The Filipino community is very interdependent. When fathers are absent, the community may serve as support to the mother and child in raising the child. The involvement, however, should not stand in the way of the father having the opportunity to be actively and appropriately involved with the child, without fear of gossip or judgment from the community. With the increasing number of non-resident fathers, community leaders, formal or informal, should encourage looking after the welfare of the child and considering the benefits father involvement may have.

While self-regulation seems like a small component of child development, its long-term impact for the child and society is significant. Equipping programs should be provided for both mother and father, including members of the immediate community, and should educate on the relationship between father involvement and the development of child self-regulation.

Child-Care Service Providers, Educators, and Educational Institutions

As with other individuals or institutions, those directly involved in childcare are encouraged to educate themselves on the long-term impact of child self-regulation, evaluate their practices in terms of its impact on self-regulation, and adjust as necessary and appropriate to support the development of healthy self-regulation. Understanding the role of self-regulation in children's current and future functions may require a re-evaluation of institutional goals and priorities to address this. Perhaps focus on academics in early childhood may be postponed to later years and investing resources in self-regulation may later prove to be more beneficial. Educating school staff on its benefits and practices that support it aligns members of the institution and provides consistency and continuity for the children across levels.

After acknowledging and understanding the importance of self-regulation for children, attention can then be given to the role that fathers play in its development. A strong home-school partnership with aligned goals will make environments consistent for the child and make progress in self-regulation consistent as well. Because not all parents are equipped in child development concepts and approaches, the more knowledgeable childcare professionals may provide support by creating or enhancing programs that engage families, especially fathers, with the intention of strengthening self-regulation.

Childcare professionals such as caregivers and teachers are encouraged to acknowledge the social and community capital, in addition to the financial capital, that the fathers can provide for the children. A close partnership with both parents, if available, is encouraged. Considering the social capital provided by fathers in the form of verbal guidance and teaching of values, fathers are to be kept informed on concerns on

conduct and character of their children. Inviting and involving fathers in institution activities will foster positive engagement activities that can enhance father-child closeness. Further, father surrogates who may not be as interested or confident in doing so may also be given the opportunity and encouraged to participate in father-child interactions and activities.

Employers

With household income a factor to father involvement and child self-regulation, economics and the workplace cannot be removed from the family equation. Employment provides financial capital to parents, among whom fathers are considered breadwinners. It allows them to fulfill the traditional “provider” role. Results of this study show that their presence and the quality of their involvement with their children may have long-term implications for the children. If viewed in the long term and larger scale, its impact may be more significant.

The father’s fulfillment of their roles and being involved with their children is then largely influenced by what is permitted by their employers and work environments. This may be through policies on work arrangements and schedules, leaves and attendance, and even involvement of families in corporate activities. Programs and benefits that will give opportunity for increased father involvement quantity and quality through flexibility in work hours and location, extended paternity leaves, consideration for school or child-related activities, and father-child programs should be explored by the Human Resource departments. Further, they are invited to review policies on how it supports father involvement without compromising productivity and company resource.

Considering personal needs of employees may prove to be more profitable in the long run.

Health Care Institutions

With self-regulation related to physical and mental health, healthcare institutions and professionals are invited to consider integrating into preventive programs early childhood interventions and family programs that can strengthen the father-child relationship and benefit from its long-term impact. Concerns like obesity, addictions, depression may be prevented by helping children develop the ability to defer satisfaction for future benefits through self-regulation. Health concerns are not to be taken in isolation, but within the context of the family and community.

Scientific research on self-regulation from the health perspective may also provide information on how this can better be supported, not only in young children, but across all ages. Further, impact of father involvement on self-regulation may also be approached from the medical perspective, adding to a more holistic understanding of the construct.

Religious Institutions

Self-regulation may be viewed as a developmental construct, having little to do with religious practices and beliefs. Looking, however, at the role that self-regulation plays in the behaviors and moral choices of children and adults makes it a concern not just of the family but of religious institutions.

The ability to make moral choices is a function of self-regulation. The church then, should equip the body, not just with theological information, but with how this skill

can be strengthened and maximized to practice the institution's values. The churches and religious organizations are typically associated with teaching character formation, values, and morality. Issues such as infidelity, teenage pregnancies, crimes and abuse may be addressed through preventive measures implemented at the early childhood level. Strengthening child self-regulation is anticipated to reduce behavioral problems and enhance capacity to make moral choices.

Children's programs are to be evaluated in terms of how content and approaches promote the development of self-regulation. Considering data from this study that shows father involvement to be a factor to the development of self-regulation, church family programs may be evaluated to see how it supports father involvement, both in quantity and quality. Small scale programs that promote positive father-child relations indirectly decrease the probability of social challenges.

Leaders are called to allocate resources to early childhood programs, investing in strong programs that promote self-regulation in strong partnership with families, especially fathers. Exhaustive study of God as Father and fathers from the Bible highlights the role of the father and gives opportunity for personal reflection and call for personal application. In the passion for evangelism, discipleship and mission programs, the young are not to be neglected and considered critical not just for succession within the church body, but of society.

Policy-Makers

Policy-makers are commonly occupied with national concerns like economics, military, foreign affairs and other items large scale. The nation comprises of individuals and families, and as taught in early grades, "The family is the smallest unit of society." It

is not unwise, then, to address national and global issues at the grassroots level. Child self-regulation has been found to predict later adult function. These adults become the voting and tax-paying members of society. A shift in perspective on the importance of early childhood, not just in education, but specifically in the development of child self-regulation, may give a different angle to preventing problematic societal concerns.

Early childhood programs, along with budget allocations, can be evaluated. While addressing current issues is important, a reallocation of attention and resources to preventive measures through early childhood and family education programs may prove to have greater, albeit longer, impact on the nation.

The Researcher

For an apt personal reflection, I shift to a first-person perspective. As mentioned in the background of the study, this research was pursued out of genuine interest in the constructs as a child practitioner and Christian. I pursued my field and built a school in the hope of making an impact for Christ in this venue. There are many educational approaches, many skills that are emphasized, and many values promoted. Non-traditional as I have always been, I found myself trying to discover how to make our efforts count the most and was led to need to better understand self-regulation, a skill that seems to pervade all other skills across developmental stages. Also coming from a non-traditional family structure, I seek to understand the father's role in its development, to equip not only the fathers, but everyone around the child.

The topic looks largely developmental or educational, at the least, but I find that it is critical to our personal practice as Christians. Our self-regulatory skills are operational every time we evaluate choices in accordance with Christian principles. It also has

implications in missions, both for those who bring the message and those who receive it as cognitive self-regulation is related to the capacity to understand theological truths, behavioral self-regulation is related to the capacity to adjust behaviors and practices based on these truths, and emotional self-regulation is related to management of the spectrum of emotions that come with a shift in beliefs. The review of literature, then, validates my perception on the importance of the skill and strengthens my conviction of advocating for it in all contexts.

Understanding the role of the father in the development of self-regulation strengthens my position that the family is the foremost important context in child development. Should I, as a child practitioner, want to make deep and long-term impact on the child, it cannot be without the family. It strengthens my belief that fathers play a significant role but also debunks the belief that maximum benefit can only be attained with father presence (quantity). Results of this study allow me to be guided on specific ways to equip families and other educators to make lasting impact on child self-regulation, as well as design programs that strengthen self-regulation through the involvement of fathers. Apart from my school having self-regulation as one of its target areas of development, I reflect it in ministry training as well. It is with joy that I close this chapter, looking forward to the possible impact data presented can make.

APPENDIX A
NOTIFICATION OF REVIEW APPROVAL



February 01, 2024

Asia-Pacific Nazarene Theological Seminary Ortigas Avenue Extension, Kaytikling Taytay 1920,
Rizal, Philippines

NOTIFICATION OF REVIEW APPROVAL

Lynne Grace Hernandez lynne.hernandez@apnts.edu.ph

**Protocol Title: AN EXPLORATION OF FATHER INVOLVEMENT AND THE DEVELOPMENT
OF SELF-REGULATION OF SUBURBAN PRESCHOOL CHILDREN IN RIZAL, PHILIPPINES**

Protocol#: AR-2024-02-0

IRB Review Date: January 31, 2024

Effective Date: February 01, 2024

Expiration Date: January 31, 2025

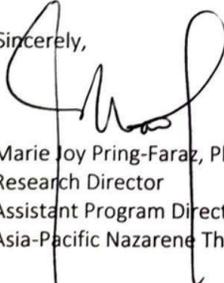
Review Type: Exempt Review

Review Action: Approved

The IRB made the following determinations:

- Waivers: Waiver of informed consent documentation
- Other Documentations: All necessary attachments submitted
- Risk Determination: No greater than minimal risk

Please contact me at marie.pring@apnts.edu.ph if you have any questions.

Sincerely,


Marie Joy Pring-Faraz, Ph.D.
Research Director
Assistant Program Director, Ph.D. in Transformational Development
Asia-Pacific Nazarene Theological Seminary

APPENDIX B: WRITTEN PERMISSION TO USE CSBQ

Request for Permission to Use and More Information about the CSBS

SH

Steven Howard <stevenh@uow.edu.au>



To: Lynne Grace Hernandez

Wed 1/17/2024 5:15 PM

Dear Lynne,

Thank you for your e-mail. Your forthcoming research is very interesting. It is not something I have seen very much on, but there should be more. Well done take that up. This is something I am personally interested in too, as a highly engaged father of a 4- and 1-year old.

You are most welcome to use our CSBQ in your research if it can be of use. I'm not sure what additional information you would find most useful, but if you have specific questions, I can do my best to reply to those.

I also note that if your interest is in self-regulation specifically, you might only need to use the 17 self-regulation items from the scale:

- Behavioural Self-Regulation: Items 7(reversed), 13, 15, 29(reversed), 30, 31(reversed)
- Cognitive Self-Regulation: Items 5, 6, 8, 12, 18
- Emotional Self-Regulation: Items 2, 10, 11(reversed), 14(reversed), 23(reversed), 26(reversed)

Let me know if you have any questions along the way. I would also love to hear about how your project progresses and what you find, if and when you are able to share.

Sincerely,

Prof Steven Howard

School of Education | Early Start | 21.110E

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**APPENDIX C:
CHILD SELF-REGULATION AND BEHAVIOR QUESTIONNAIRE PAPER
VERSION**

Child Self-Regulation and Social Behaviour Questionnaire

Child's name.....

Boy/Girl.....Age.....(to nearest month).

Please circle the number that best fits what the child is like.

What is the child like?	Not True	2	Partly True	3	4	Very True	5
1. Chosen as a friend by others	1	2	3	4	5		
2. Is calm and easy going	1	2	3	4	5		
3. Aggressive to children	1	2	3	4	5		
4. Is popular with children	1	2	3	4	5		
5. Persists with difficult tasks	1	2	3	4	5		
6. Chooses activities on their own	1	2	3	4	5		
7. Regularly unable to sustain attention	1	2	3	4	5		
8. Does not need much help with tasks	1	2	3	4	5		
9. Interacts freely with adults	1	2	3	4	5		
10. Gets over being upset quickly	1	2	3	4	5		
11. Easily upset over small events	1	2	3	4	5		
12. Persists with tasks until completed	1	2	3	4	5		
13. Waits their turn in activities	1	2	3	4	5		
14. Gets over excited	1	2	3	4	5		
15. Good at following instructions	1	2	3	4	5		
16. Rarely plays with other children	1	2	3	4	5		
17. Most days distressed or anxious	1	2	3	4	5		
18. Likes to work things out for self	1	2	3	4	5		
19. Happy to share	1	2	3	4	5		
20. Disagrees with or challenges people	1	2	3	4	5		
21. Often stares into space	1	2	3	4	5		
22. Is shy when meeting new children	1	2	3	4	5		
23. Most days will lose temper	1	2	3	4	5		
24. Helps others	1	2	3	4	5		
25. Most days says feeling unwell	1	2	3	4	5		
26. Shows wide mood swings	1	2	3	4	5		
27. Plays easily with other children	1	2	3	4	5		
28. Disrupts the play of other children	1	2	3	4	5		
29. Not able to sit still when necessary	1	2	3	4	5		
30. Is cooperative	1	2	3	4	5		
31. Is impulsive	1	2	3	4	5		
32. Sociable with new children	1	2	3	4	5		
33. Frequently sad or miserable	1	2	3	4	5		
34. Will wander around aimlessly	1	2	3	4	5		

Source:

PRISIST. n.d. "Early Years Toolbox." December 26, 2023.

<http://www.eytoolbox.com.au/download#prsisstapp>

**APPENDIX D:
WRITTEN PERMISSION TO USE CPRS**



Pianta, Robert C (rcp4p) <rcp4p@virginia.edu>

To: Lynne Grace Hernandez








Thu 2/8/2024 12:00 AM



CPRS-SF scoring guide.doc
24 KB



CPRS-SF Word 6 95.doc
43 KB

2 attachments (67 KB)  Save all to OneDrive - Asia Pacific Nazarene Theological Seminary  Download all

Thank you for your interest and note – you have my permission to use the CPRS in your project as you describe. I would suggest piloting it in your context to ensure that participants understand the items once you have translated them. I do not know of anyone using it in the Phillipines.

Robert C. Pianta, Ph.D.
*Batten Bicentennial Professor of Early Childhood Education
School of Education and Human Development*
E [pianta@virginia.edu](mailto:rcp4p@virginia.edu)
P 434.982.1715 (office) 434.953.9760 (cell)

University of Virginia | School of Education and Human Development
Bavaro Hall
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education.virginia.edu/robert-c-pianta

For information on measures developed in our team's research programs please see the link below.

<https://education.virginia.edu/research-initiatives/research-centers-labs/center-advanced-study-teaching-and-learning/castl-measures>

...

**APPENDIX E:
WRITTEN PERMISSION TO USE FRPN FATHER ENGAGEMENT**

JF

Jay S. Fagan <jay.fagan@temple.edu>

To:  Lynne Grace Hernandez

 Father engagement validatio... 

184 KB

Lynne,

You are more than welcome to use the FRPN father engagement measure. Let me know if you have any questions about the measure.

Jay Fagan, PhD
Temple University

APPENDIX F:
CHILD-PARENT RELATIONSHIP SCALE SHORT FORM (CPRS-SF)

CHILD-PARENT RELATIONSHIP SCALE

Robert C. Pianta

Child: _____ Age: _____ Parent: _____

Please reflect on the degree to which each of the following statements currently applies to your relationship with your child. Using the scale below, circle the appropriate number for each item.

Definitely does not apply	Not really	Neutral, not sure	Applies somewhat	Definitely applies
1	2	3	4	5

1. I share an affectionate, warm relationship with my child.	1	2	3	4	5
2. My child and I always seem to be struggling with each other.	1	2	3	4	5
3. If upset, my child will seek comfort from me.	1	2	3	4	5
4. My child is uncomfortable with physical affection or touch from me.	1	2	3	4	5
5. My child values his/her relationship with me.	1	2	3	4	5
6. When I praise my child, he/she beams with pride.	1	2	3	4	5
7. My child spontaneously shares information about himself/herself.	1	2	3	4	5
8. My child easily becomes angry at me.	1	2	3	4	5
9. It is easy to be in tune with what my child is feeling.	1	2	3	4	5
10. My child remains angry or is resistant after being disciplined.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Dealing with my child drains my energy.	1	2	3	4	5
12. When my child is in a bad mood, I know we're in for a long and difficult day.	1	2	3	4	5
13. My child's feelings toward me can be unpredictable or can change suddenly.	1	2	3	4	5
14. My child is sneaky or manipulative with me.	1	2	3	4	5
15. My child openly shares his/her feelings and experiences with me.	1	2	3	4	5

©1992 Pianta, University of Virginia.

Source:

Pianta, Robert. 1992. "Child-Parent Relationship Scale Short Form." July 28, 2020.

<https://www.frpn.org/sites/default/files/CPRS-SF.doc>

Child-Parent Relationship Scale Short-Form Scoring Guide

Child-Parent Relationship Scale Short-Form Scoring Guide

Each item uses the same five point scale.

Please assign the following values to each response:

1 = definitely does not apply

2 = not really

3 = neutral, not sure

4 = applies somewhat

5 = definitely applies

Conflict Items: Sum the value of the responses for items: 2, 4, 8, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14

Closeness items: Sum the value of the responses for items: 1, 3, 5, 6, 7, 9, 15

*Driscoll, K., & Pianta, R. C. (2011). Mothers' and fathers' perceptions of conflict and closeness in parent-child relationships during early childhood. *Journal of Early Childhood and Infant Psychology*, (7), 1-24.

**APPENDIX G:
FATHERHOOD RESEARCH AND PRACTICE NETWORK (FRPN)
FATHER ENGAGEMENT SCALE and SCORING GUIDE**

FATHERHOOD RESEARCH AND PRACTICE NETWORK FATHER ENGAGEMENT SCALE (Dyer, Kaufman, Cabrera, Fagan, & Pearson, 2015) (1 YEAR, 1 MONTH – 6 YEARS)					
This survey is only for fathers whose youngest child is <u>1 year, 1 month to 6 years old</u> . Is your youngest child 1 year, 1 month to 6 years old?	Yes	No			
Read: Below are some questions about the different types of things you do with your youngest child. Please share how often have you engaged in the following activities with [NAME OF CHILD] during the last month (30 days). Please circle the answer that you most agree with.					
1. How often have you played toys with [NAME OF CHILD]?	Never	1 or 2 days per month	3 or 4 days per month	2 or 3 days per week	Every day or almost every day
2. How often have you had meals with [NAME OF CHILD]?	Never	1 or 2 days per month	3 or 4 days per month	2 or 3 days per week	Every day or almost every day
3. How often have you hugged [NAME OF CHILD]?	Never	1 or 2 days per month	3 or 4 days per month	2 or 3 days per week	Every day or almost every day
4. How often have you watched over or cared for [NAME OF CHILD] when other adults were not around?	Never	1 or 2 days per month	3 or 4 days per month	2 or 3 days per week	Every day or almost every day
5. How often have you played rough-and-tumble or roughhoused with [NAME OF CHILD]?	Never	1 or 2 days per month	3 or 4 days per month	2 or 3 days per week	Every day or almost every day
6. How often have you read with [NAME OF CHILD]?	Never	1 or 2 days per month	3 or 4 days per month	2 or 3 days per week	Every day or almost every day
7. How often have you taught [NAME OF CHILD] to take turns or to wait for rewards?	Never	1 or 2 days per month	3 or 4 days per month	2 or 3 days per week	Every day or almost every day
8. How often have you told [NAME OF CHILD] you loved him/her?	Never	1 or 2 days per month	3 or 4 days per month	2 or 3 days per week	Every day or almost every day
9. How often have you talked with [NAME OF CHILD]?	Never	1 or 2 days per month	3 or 4 days per month	2 or 3 days per week	Every day or almost every day
10. How often have you encouraged [NAME OF CHILD]?	Never	1 or 2 days per month	3 or 4 days per month	2 or 3 days per week	Every day or almost every day
End of Survey					

Source:

Dyer, Kaufman, Cabrera, Fagan, and Pearson. 2015. "Fatherhood Research and Practice Network Father Engagement Scale."

https://www.frpn.org/sites/default/files/FRPNpercent20FATHERpercent20ENGAGEMENTpercent20SCALE_v3.pdf

Scoring Guide

FATHERHOOD RESEARCH AND PRACTICE NETWORK FATHER ENGAGEMENT SCALE SCORING GUIDE

Instructions:

The Fatherhood Research and Practice Network Father Engagement Scale includes four separate versions for children at different ages. Fathers should complete the version which corresponds to their target child. Many programs select the youngest child as the target child, but your program can select a different child to ask fathers about (i.e. the father's second youngest child). You may also choose to administer this survey more than once (with respect to each of his children) with fathers who have multiple children. Consult with your researcher about this matter.

The first version is for children who are 1 month old - 1 year old.
 The second version is for children who are 1 year, 1 month - 6 years old.
 The third version is for children who are 6 years, 1 month - 12 years old.
 The fourth version is for children who are 12 years, 1 month - 19 years old.

Scoring Guide:

Each versions uses the same five point scale. Please assign the following values to each response:

- 0 = never
- 1 = 1 or 2 days per month
- 2 = 3 or 4 days per month
- 3 = 2 or 3 days per week
- 4 = every day or almost every day

Scoring for version 1 month – 1 year old

Caregiving/play subscale (8 items): Add responses from items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8
 Range for caregiving/play subscale: 0-32

Cognitive stimulation subscale (3 items): Add responses from items 9, 10, 11
 Range for cognitive stimulation subscale: 0-12

Scoring for version 1 year, 1 month – 6 years old

Caregiving/play subscale (7 items): Add responses from items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7,
 Range for caregiving/play subscale: 0-28

Support subscale (3 items): Add responses from items 8, 9, 10
 Range for support subscale: 0-12

Scoring for version 6 years, 1 month – 12 years

Caregiving/play subscale (6 items): Add responses from items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6
 Range for caregiving/play subscale: 0-24

Support subscale (3 items): Add responses from items 7, 8, 9
 Range for support subscale: 0-12

Scoring for version 12 years, 1 month – 19 years

Caregiving/play subscale (8 items): Add responses from items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8
 Range for caregiving/play subscale: 0-32

Support subscale (3 items): Add responses from items 9, 10, 11
 Range for support subscale: 0-12

Source:

Dyer, Kaufman, Cabrera, Fagan, and Pearson. 2015. "Fatherhood Research and Practice Network Father Engagement Scale Scoring Guide."

https://www.frpn.org/sites/default/files/FRPNpercent20FATHERpercent20ENGAGEMENTpercent20SCALE_v3.pdf

APPENDIX H:**FATHER SURVEY**

Link: <https://bit.ly/FatherSurvey2023>



Good day! I am a postgraduate student in Holistic Child Development conducting research on family dynamics and child development. Thank you for taking time to answer this survey. It will take about 15 minutes of your time. Your insights will be of great value in understanding children in the context of their families better.

Data Privacy Consent:

By accomplishing this registration form and providing personal information, you are granting full consent to the researcher to collect and use your personal information to process participation in the research. In compliance with Republic Act No. 10173, otherwise known as the Data Privacy Act of 2012, the researcher shall take reasonable steps to protect any personal data you provide and to protect such information as applicable by law. Should you decide to withdraw consent, you may reach me through lynne.hernandez@apnts.edu.ph.

- Agree
- Disagree

What language would you like to take this survey in?

- English
- Filipino

DEMOGRAPHICS

About you

1. Your age: _____
2. Marital Status
 - Single/Never married
 - Married/Living Together
 - Divorced/Annulled/Separated
 - Widowed
 - Other: _____
3. Area of Residence
 - Province of Rizal, Region IV-A
 - Other: _____
4. Highest Educational Attainment
 - High school and below
 - College/Bachelor's Degree
 - Graduate/Master's Degree
 - Post-Graduate/Doctoral Degree
 - Other: _____
5. Religion
 - Roman Catholic
 - Evangelical/Protestant/Born Again Christian
 - Iglesia ni Kristo
 - Islam
 - Other: _____
6. Number of children: ____
7. Living Arrangement
8. Monthly Household Income:
 - Less than P24,000
 - P24,000-50,000
 - P51,000-75,000
 - P76,000-100,000
 - P101,000-125,000
 - P126,000-P145,000
 - More than P145,000

(FRPN Father Engagement Scale, CPRS-SF, and CSBQ follows)

**APPENDIX I:
FATHER INTERVIEW GUIDE**

Hello, (name of father)! I'm Lynne and I wanted to thank you for being willing to take part in my study. I'm a post-graduate student completing my PhD in Holistic Child Development and I'm trying to understand better family relationships and child development. I'll be asking you some questions about your role and participation as father to (name of child). Please be assured that any information you share will be treated with confidentiality and should there be a question you are uncomfortable to answer, you are free to refuse. I also wanted to ask for permission to record our session just for me to have reference in case there is something I miss. Would you have any questions? Let's start if you're ready.

1. How is a regular day with your child? (general interaction)
 - Describe your involvement in helping taking care of your child.
 - How does your typical interaction look like?
2. Describe your child in one word. (perception of child-validate observation)
 - What would you consider your child's strengths?
 - What would you consider your child's weakness?
3. Describe a time when you felt deep closeness with your child (closeness)
 - How do you express affection to your child?
 - How would you describe your child's general feeling toward you?
 - How open is your child about his/her feelings to you?
4. Describe a time when you and your child were in conflict (conflict)
 - How common are conflicts between you and your child?
 - What makes your child angry at you? Describe your child when angry toward you.
 - What makes you angry at your child? Describe yourself when angry at your child.
5. Describe yourself as a father in one word.
 - What do you think is the impact of that on your child?

**APPENDIX J:
MOTHER INTERVIEW GUIDE**

Hello, (name of mother)! I'm Teacher Lynne and I wanted to thank you for being willing to take part in my study. I'm a post-graduate student completing my PhD in Holistic Child Development and I'm trying to understand better family relationships and child development. I'll be asking you some questions about the role and participation of your husband/partner as father to (name of child). Please be assured that any information you share will be treated with confidentiality and should there be a question you are uncomfortable to answer, you are free to refuse. I also wanted to ask for permission to record our session just for me to have reference in case there is something I miss. Would you have any questions? Let's start if you're ready.

1. How does a regular day with your child and husband/partner look like?. (general interaction)
 - Describe your husband/partner's involvement in helping taking care of your child.
 - How does their typical interaction look like?
2. Describe your child in one word. (perception of child-validate observation)
 - What would you consider your child's strengths?
 - What would you consider your child's weakness?
3. Describe a time when you observed deep closeness between your husband/partner and your child (closeness)
 - How does your husband/partner express affection to your child?
 - How would you describe your child's general feeling toward your husband/ partner ?
 - How open is your child about his/her feelings to your husband/partner ?
4. Describe a time when your husband/partner and your child were in conflict (conflict)
 - How common are conflicts between your husband/partner and your child?

- What makes your child angry at your husband/partner ? Describe your child when angry toward your husband/partner.
 - What makes your husband/partner angry at your child? Describe your husband/partner when angry at your child.
5. Describe your husband/partner as a father in one word.
- What do you think is the impact of that on your child?

**APPENDIX K:
ME AND DAD PORTRAIT INSTRUCTIONS
AND CHILD INTERVIEW QUESTIONS**

Hi ____! My name is Teacher Lynne. I am a teacher of little children like you. We will start today by drawing. I have here some paper and drawing materials. Can you draw for me a picture of you and your dad? Draw what you usually do with him every day.

(Give child materials. Allow the child 15 minutes to draw without disruption. Guide only as requested/needed.)

1. Draw a picture of you and your dad. (general interaction)
 - Describe what you are doing in the picture.
 - How did you feel while drawing the picture?
2. What do you feel when you think about your dad? (perception of child-validate observation)
3. Describe a time when you felt very happy with your dad (closeness)
 - What does he do that makes you happy?
 - How does he feel?
4. Describe a time when you were not happy with your dad (conflict)
 - What makes you unhappy or displeased with him?
 - What makes the feeling go away?
 - How do you feel when your dad corrects you?
 - How do you feel when he does not give you what you want?
5. Describe your dad in one word.

**APPENDIX L:
LETTER OF REQUEST TO CONDUCT STUDY**

[Date]

[Name of Administrator]
[Official Designation]
[Institution]
[Address of Institution]

Dear [Name of Administrator],

Good day! I am an early childhood practitioner currently managing a preschool and completing my doctorate in Holistic Child Development at the Asia Pacific Nazarene Theological Seminary. My bachelor's degree in Psychology and master's degree in Family Life and Child Development from the University of the Philippines have strengthened my personal and professional advocacy of promoting healthy child development that enables them to later be members of the community who are strong in competency and character. To better be able to serve children and their families, I am conducting an exploratory research on father involvement and child self-regulation.

In this light, I would like to request your good office for permission to conduct a Father Survey in your school. I would like to request to conduct the study among your Prekinder (4 year olds) students. The survey will include demographic profile, frequency of father engagement, quality of father-child relationship and child self-regulation behaviors.

Results of this study will allow for us to better understand the interaction between father involvement and the development of child self-regulation within the context of the Filipino family and culture and will be considered confidential. Attached is an abstract of the proposed research and the questions/instructions for each activity proposed.

I will be glad to share the results to your teacher and parent community along with recommendations for us to better support the development of healthy child self-regulation. I will be glad to present a proposal for the research to your administration and also offer for free a Yaya Workshop I conduct for caregivers.

I hope to be able to partner with you in serving the children and families through this endeavor. You may reach my via my contact details below. Thank you very much and looking forward to a positive response.

Regards,

Lynne Hernandez
Student, PhD in Holistic Child Development
Asia Pacific Nazarene Theological Seminary
Asia Graduate School of Theology
0917-89327980
lynne.hernandez@apnts.edu.ph

**APPENDIX M:
INTRODUCTORY LETTER FOR FATHER SURVEY**

Good day, fathers of the [level] of [name of school]!

I am Lynne Hernandez, an early child practitioner completing my doctorate in Holistic Child Development. To better be able to understand and serve children and families, I am conducting research on parent-child interactions. I have been privileged to partner with [name of school] in this endeavor and would like to kindly request for your participation in my research by filling up this survey via this link: <https://bit.ly/FatherSurvey2023>. You may also scan the QR code below to access the online survey:



Your honest feedback and willingness to participate in the next steps of the study will be of great help in understanding the child within its Filipino family context. Please be assured that all information collected in this survey will be held in strict confidentiality and will be used only for the purposes of this study. I will appreciate it if you are able to complete the survey on or before 27 March 2024 (Wednesday).

Should you have any questions, please feel free to reach out via my contact details below.

Warm regards,
Lynne Hernandez
Student, PhD in Holistic Child Development
Asia Graduate School of Theology
0917-89327980
lynne.hernandez@apnts.edu.

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CURRICULUM VITAE

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CHILD EDUCATOR, TEACHER TRAINER

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An advocate for holistic development and education, I am committed to enabling children, adolescents and adults to discover their capacities and build their character to contribute meaningfully to society. Adult and teacher education is also a priority in making exponential impact on the child, family and community.

Work Experience

Founder & Administrator

Starting Early in Education & Discipleship Development Center, Inc.
2012- *present*

Education Professional Consultant

The Abba's Orchard
2017- *present*

Program Manager

Gokongwei Brothers Foundation
2021-2022

Assistant General Manager

Primex Plastic & Rubber Corp.
2006-2016

Teacher-in-Charge

Holistic Education & Development Center (HEDCEN) 2011

Organization Development Assistant

St. Luke's Medical Center
2003

Education

PhD in Holistic Child Development (All But Dissertation)

Asia Graduate School of Theology through Asia Pacific Nazarene Theological Seminary
2025

Master of Family Life and Child Development

University of the Philippines, Diliman
2011

Bachelor of Arts in Psychology, cum laude

University of the Philippines, Diliman
2002

Licensure

Licensed Professional Teacher

Major in Values Education, Secondary Philippine Regulatory Commission
28 April 2011



Skills

- Knowledge in child development and learning
- Effective communication
- Curriculum development
- Classroom management
- Teacher training
- Leadership
- Innovation

Lynne Hernandez

CHILD EDUCATOR, TEACHER TRAINER

Seminars Conducted

- **Play in Early Childhood Education**
Mission Ministries Philippines, Inc.,
Quezon City, 2024
- **Integrity in Managing an Early Childhood Program**
Mission Ministries Philippines, Inc.,
Quezon City, 2024
- **Raising Children's Higher Order Thinking Skills**
Mission Ministries Philippines, Inc.,
Quezon City, 2023
- **Child and Development**
Mission Ministries Philippines, Inc.
(Online), 2023
- **Integrating Faith and Learning in the Classroom**
Mission Ministries Philippines, Inc.
(Online), 2023
- **Child Discipline and Emotional Coaching**
Mission Ministries Philippines, Inc.
(Online), 2023
- **Early Childhood Education Module Level 1**
Mission Ministries Philippines, Inc.,
Davao City, 2023
- **Managing a Developmentally Appropriate Classroom in an Online Setting**
Mission Ministries Philippines, Inc.
(Online), 2022
- **Online Play-based Learning**
Mission Ministries Philippines, Inc.,
Asian Theological Seminary (ATS),
Quezon City, 2022
- **Foundations of Education**
Penang Nazarene Bible School,
Penang, Malaysia, 2019
- **Mental Health Awareness in the Church**
Asia Pacific Nazarene Theological
Seminary (APNTS), Taytay, Rizal, 2019
- **Kidscipleship: Developmentally Appropriate Discipline**
Greenhills Christian Fellowship (GCF),
Lipa, Batangas, 2019
- **Positive Discipline 101**
Mission Ministries Philippines, Inc.,
Asian Theological Seminary (ATS),
Quezon City, 2018
- **Handling Difficult Children**
Christ's Commission Fellowship (CCF)
Center, Cebu City, 2017
- **Teaching with H.E.A.R.T.**
Christ's Commission Fellowship (CCF)
Center, Pasig City, 2017



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Community Involvement

- **Christ's Commission Fellowship (CCF) Main
NXTGen Children's Ministry** Volunteer
Trainer (Upon request): 2012 to present
Preschool Teacher (Small Group and Large Group): 2006 to 2012
- **Pro-Fil Foundation Inc.**
Consulting Member of the Board
2023-present
- **Mission Ministries Philippines**
Lecturer, Certificate Course in Early Childhood Education
2024-present

Character Reference

Available upon request.

