# EXAMINING THE EFFECT OF PARENTS' INTERACTION BEHAVIORS ON THE FATHER-CHILD RELATIONSHIP* 

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#### Abstract

The general purpose of this study is to examine the effect of the interactive behaviors of parents with 36-72 months old children on the father-child relationship. The sample consists of 316 parents. The relational survey model was used in the research. In the study, "Personal Information Form", "Maternal Gatekeepıng Scale", "Parent-Child Relationship Scale-Father Form" were used. In the study, the sub-dimensions of fatherless motherhood, modern motherhood, doubly responsible motherhood, traditional motherhood, indirect motherhood, over-attached motherhood, and anti-patriarchy sub-dimensions showed a significant difference according to father's age, mother's education level, father's education level, family structure, child's age and number of children. were found to differ significantly. There were significant differences between the sub-dimensions of the Parent-Child Relationship Scale and the age of the mother and father, the education level of the mother, the age and number of the child. In the study, it was observed that as the perception of modern motherhood increased, positive relationships increased. It was observed that the positive relationships of mothers who doubled their responsibility in the home environment decreased, and their disharmony and conflict behaviors increased. It has been observed that the incompatibility and conflict behaviors of


[^0]mothers who exhibit anti-father behaviors rather than an opportunistic attitude towards their fathers in the home environment increase, while their positive relationships decrease.

Keywords: Parent relationship, father-child relationship, maternal gatekeeping, child, parent

# ebeveynlerin etkileşim davranişLARININ BABA-çocuk ílişkisine etkisinin İNCELENMESI 

## Öz

Bu araştırmanın genel amacı 36-72 ay çocuğu bulunan anne babaların etkileşimli davranış/arının baba çocuk ilişkisine olan etkisinin incelenmesidir. Örneklem, 36-72 ay çocuğu bulunan 316 anne babadan oluşmaktadır. Araştırmada nicel araştırma yöntemlerinden ilişkisel tarama modeli kullanılmıştır. Çalışmada sosyodemografik özellikleri belirlemek için "Kişisel Bilgi Formu", annelerin babasavarlık ile ilgili algıları için "Babasavar Annelik Ölçeği", baba-çocuk ilişkisini incelemek için ise "Ebeveyn Çocuk iliş̧kisi Ölçeği Baba Formu" kullanılmıştır. Araştırmada, Babasavar Annelik Ölçeği modern annelik, iki kat sorumlu annelik, geleneksel annelik, dolaylı annelik, aşırı bağlı annelik ve babasavar annelik alt boyutları baba yaş, anne eğitim düzeyi, baba eğitim düzeyi, aile yapısı, çocuğun yaşı ve çocuk sayısı değişkenlerine göre anlamlı bir biçimde farklılaştığı görülmüştür. Ebeveyn-Çocuk ílişkisi Ölçeği olumlu ilişkiler, çatışma ve uyumsuzluk alt boyutları ile anne yaş, baba yaş, anne öğrenim durumu, çocuğun yaşı ve çocuk sayısı değişkenlerine göre anlamlı bir biçimde farklılaşmaktadır. Çalışmada modern annelik algısı arttıkça olumlu ilişkilerin arttığı gözlenmiştir. Ev ortamında sorumluluğunu iki kata çıkaran annelerin olumlu ilişkilerinin azaldığı, uyumsuzluk ve çatışma davranış/arının da arttığı gözlenmiştir. Babalara ev ortamında fırsat verici tutumdan ziyade babasavar davranışlar sergileyen annelerin uyumsuzluk ve çatışma davranışlarının arttığı, olumlu ilişkilerinin ise azaldığı görülmüştür.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Ebeveyn ilişkisi, baba-çocuk ilişkisi, babasavar anne, çocuk, ebeveyn

## Introduction

As soon as the child comes into the world, he/she meets family members and interacts with each of them throughout this process. The process of socialization begins and the child gains knowledge and experience with respect to life through the communication established. In this process, the characteristic behaviors and perspectives of family members have a direct positive or negative impact on the development process of the child (Kırık, 2014). Children, who are valued by their immediate surroundings, whose requirements are satisfied and who are encouraged in successful situations, who establish mutual communication and whose problemsolving skills are supported, easily adapt to the society. The healthy communication established in the family environment grows as a beneficial individual first for the child and then for the environment. The healthy communication established in the family environment is not only beneficial for the child but also for the people in his/ her immediate surrounding (Tezel Şahin \& Cevher, 2007). In this context, the interaction and communication of the parents with the child is undeniably significant to the development of the child.

Intra-family communication is defined as the interaction of parents with each other within the unity of a family, the interaction of the mother and father individually with their children, and the interaction of children with each other (Şahin \& Aral, 2012). Primarily, the bilateral
relationship of the spouses should be healthy for the interaction between the parents and the children to be healthy (Çağdaş, 2020) and the quality of marriage should be high. One aspect of marital quality is marital conflict, and there is some evidence that conflict affects paternal roles more than maternity (Cummings, Merrilees \& Ward- George, 2010). However, the relationship developed by the parents affects the child, the relationship between the child and the mother affects the father, and the relationship between the child and the father affects the mother. Therefore, parent-child interaction is a significant factor in the development of a strong ego and adaptation to the society by the child (Çağdaş, 2020).

Along with the changing perception of the paternal role, the fathers have assumed a role that supports the family emotionally and they are described as concerned fathers (Tichenor, Quillan, Greil, Contreras \& Shreffler, 2011). Life brought by fathers without waiting for experience with difficulties, the father had to actively participate in baby care (Maraşlı, 2019). Paternity is a process that begins with the maternity and continues until the end of life. Fathers play a role in supporting children's physical needs as well as many areas of development (Özyürek et al.,2020). However, some traditional and cultural attitudes towards childcare and upbringing still survive in Turkey. In the comprehensive report of AÇEV (Mother Child Education Foundation) (2017) on Turkey, it is stated that most fathers do not take responsibility for childcare and one of their responsibilities is to support the family financially. Accordingly, responsibilities such as raising the child are trusted to the mother, while the responsibilities such as the economy of the house and satisfying the requirements are trusted to the father (Özyürek \& Şahin, 2005). In addition, while the mother is expected to give birth, care for the child, and do the housework together with feeding the child, the father is expected to ensure the financial source of the family, protect the family, and maintain relations with the external environment (Taşkın, 2011). Onur (2012) addresses the traditional family structures of the "authoritarian" and "distant" father, who can exhibit love to his child only when he/she is asleep, even though he has love for his child. In father-child communication in families of this nature, mothers usually play the role of mediator, messages between fathers and children are sent through mothers. When the communication between the father and child is concerned in families of this nature, mothers usually play the role of mediator, messages between fathers and children are conveyed through mothers. Fathers are the authority figure at home and take less responsibility for housework and childcare than mothers (Sayın, 2020). Mothers have assumed roles such as serving as a bridge, ensuring the pursuance of father-child communication, and making the father more open to communication (Çelik, 2019). This situation affects the thoughts of mothers and causes them to form counter-father attitudes and attitudes that hinder the responsibilities of the fathers in raising children and housework. Such mothers who develop a counter-father attitude have the belief that they need to participate more to be a leader in the home environment, while ignoring the participation of the father (Allen \& Hawkins, 1999). Therefore, mothers play a facilitating or hindering part in the father-child relationship (Puhman and Pasley, 2013).

It has been also observed in the studies that the positive paternity role perception of the child during the development process is correlated with the child's life in the years ahead and the personality development (Özkan, Çelebioğlu, Üstün \& Kuru Direk, 2016), with children's psychological adaptation (Flouri, 2008), with less behavioral problems (Carlson, 2006), with higher education (Flouri \& Buchanan, 2004) and general mental health (Boyce et al., 2006; Dubowitz et al., 2001). In addition, children who spend time with their fathers develop different interaction skills such as recognizing their own feelings and understanding the feelings of others. Children who have effective father-child relationships can easily establish peer relationships,
encounter fewer problems in their relationships, and comprehend and use social skills more quickly (Sayglı \& Çankırill, 2020). When the bond established between father and child is examined, it is observed that it is effective in terms of academic achievement, development of self-perception, cognitive development, and sexual development by the child (Seçer, 2021). The quality of the child's communication with the father determines the quality of the father-child relationship (Kuzu, 2010; Pleck, 2010). If the father is sensitive to his child, spends quality time together, takes care of his child, takes responsibility in the child's care, and in the child's education, this would have a positive impact on the father-child relationship, the mental development and academic achievement of the child (Telli \& Özkan, 2016; Tamis-LeMond, Shannon, Cabrera \& Lamb, 2004). It is found that fathers who interact positively with their children, affect their children's cognitive, language, social and emotional development significantly (Cabrera et al., 2007). In addition, in order for the child to establish a warm bond with his mother, the father must have a versatile attitude who loves his wife, values her and shares his responsibilities. The child, exposed to a family environment without love and respect, encounters various problems such as unhappiness and loneliness. The father, having such a significant role on the development of the child, must maintain a reliable relationship with his child, as well as a healthy bond (Aksoy, 2020). The child, raised in a healthy family environment, will try to improve himself/ herself in every field. If there is an unhealthy family environment, the child grows deprived of the role of a good parent and if he/ she adopts hatred, selfishness, fighting and antisocial behavior instead of love, friendship, solidarity, nobleness, then both parents and society will suffer (Stelkel, 2006). The children having a father who is involved in the care of the child and participate in his/ her activities, are well adjusted and social and enjoy the bond he/she has established with his father leading to a warm relationship between the father and the child (Uludağll, 2017).

Research on paternity has been increasing rapidly over the past three decades (Downer, Campos, McWayne \& Gartner, 2008; Dermott \& Gatrell, 2018). This advancement leads to more comprehensive structural, cultural, economic, and political changes in family and professional lives, and theories associated with gender and childcare capacities. In the literature, there are studies addressing various titles such as the impact of father involvement on children's prosocial behaviors and behavioral problems (Flouri, 2008), the quality of father-child relationships and policies and interventions aimed at caring for their children (Yoon, Bellamy, Kim \& Yoon, 2017), role of father support on children (Tezel-Şahin \& Özyürek, 2010), father-child relationship and its impact on peer play behaviors (Karaca, Kaya \& Can Yaşar, 2019), parent-child relationship and attachment styles (Doğruyol \& Yetim, 2019; Özkan \& Bartan, 2019), father concept and attachment of father and baby (Kara \& Çetinkaya, 2019), child's age and communication with parents (Üçok, 2014). In his study, Mwoma (2009) found that the relationship between fathers' participation in children's education and children's achievement was positive and significant in another study conducted by Türkoğlu, Çeliköz, and Uslu (2013), it was argued that the quality time that fathers spend with their children contributes to the development of the children especially in terms of social-emotional aspects. In some recent studies, it is stated that the mothers continue to be the main care figures for children, while fathers are in a secondary position although the roles and identities of the fathers have changed recently (Jacobs and Kelley, 2006; Mathew et al., 2006; Vogel et al., 2011). Boratav et al. (2017) argued that emotional intimacy between father and child is not equivalent to the intimacy observed between mother and child. Schoppe-Sullivan et al. (2008), on the other side, observed a relationship between fathers' commitment to the parenting role and their level of involvement only on the condition that mothers believe that the role of fathers is significant. In the studies
by Puhlman and Pasley (2013; 2017), it was suggested that in cases where mothers are prone to negative criticism and making her partner feel that he does not perform his parenting duties appropriately and undermining her partner's parenting decisions as well as interrupting the father-child interaction, seeming to support the father even though she does not support him, and having cynical attitudes are among the maternal behaviors that affect mothers-father involvement.

This study is considered to be an important reference for the literature, since there are few studies examining the negative impacts of the hindering behaviors of the mother towards the father in the academic research, on the relationship established between the father and the child (Fagan \& Barnett, 2003; Karabulut \& Şendil,2017; Karabulut, 2019; Akgöz Aktaş \& Aydın, 2020). However, with the increase in such studies, the positive relationship that children will establish with their fathers from the early period will make it possible to realize that the bonds become stronger by the involvement of the father in the child's life and spending quality time with his child (Özsoy Yanbak, 2019). Therefore, with this study, it is aimed to increase awareness with respect to the impact and contribution of the father as well as the mother on the child's development. Within the scope of this information, the main objective of the research is to examine the interaction between the mother and father with 36-72 months old children and the father-child relationship. Therefore, in this study answers to the following questions were sought:

- Is there a significant difference between the Maternal Gatekeeping Scale total score and sub-dimension scores and the Parent- Child Relationship Scale (Father Form) total score and subdimension scores of the parents of children aged 36-72 months, and socio-demographic variables?
- Is there a significant relationship between the Maternal Gatekeeping Scale total score and sub-dimension scores and the Parent- Child Relationship Scale (Father Form) total score and sub-dimension scores of the parents of children aged 36-72 months?


## Method

## Model of the Research

In this study, the relational survey model, which is one of the quantitative research methods, was used to examine the effect of the interaction behaviors of parents with 36-72 months old children on the father-child relationship. The relational survey model is "a type of study that describes any situation or phenomenon in the same way and aims to reveal the relationship or degree of impact of the variables that are considered to affect the mentioned situation and phenomena" (Kaya et al., 2012). This study is also in the correlational survey model since the father-child relationship and the interaction behaviors of the parents are mutually assessed.

## Study Group

In this study, convenience sampling method was used. The study group consists of the parents of 316 children who are 36-72 months old, and they participated in the study voluntarily. The mothers participating in the study were asked to fill out the "Maternal Gatekeeping Scale ", and the fathers participating in the study were asked to fill out the "Parent-Child Relationship (Father Form) Scale". The scales used in the research process were applied to the participants through interactive channels between 01.02.2020 and 28.02.2020 due to the closure of schools due to the Covid 19 pandemic. G*Power 3.1.9.2 package program was used to determine the
sample size required for the research. The impact level of the study was taken as 0.15 , the amount of type 1 error $\alpha$ value was taken as 0.05 , and the power value (1- $\beta$ ) was 0.80 .

Table 1. Distribution of demographic characteristics of parents participating in the study group


The age of $73.1 \%$ of the mothers who answered the questionnaire is 35 years old and below, and $26.9 \%$ of them are 36 years old and over. The age of $51.3 \%$ of the fathers who answered the questionnaire is 35 years old and below, and $48,7 \%$ of them are 36 years old and over. $95.3 \%$ of those who answered the questionnaire are married, $1.3 \%$ are single (includes divorced, widowed persons), $2.2 \%$ live together and $1.2 \%$ live separately. $10.4 \%$ of the mothers who answered the questionnaire are at secondary school and prior level, $26.6 \%$ are at high school level, $54.1 \%$ are at undergraduate level and $8.9 \%$ are at postgraduate level. $11.4 \%$ of the fathers who answered the questionnaire are at secondary school and prior level, $29.4 \%$ are at high school level, $49,7 \%$ are at undergraduate, $9,5 \%$ are at postgraduate level. $45.9 \%$ of the mothers who answered the questionnaire are working and $54.1 \%$ are not working. $97,2 \%$ of the fathers who answered the questionnaire are working and $2,8 \%$ are not working. $17.1 \%$ of the parents who answered the questionnaire have income of 3000 TL or less, $37.3 \%$ of them have
income of 3001-6000 TL, $22.8 \%$ have income of 6001-9000 TL, $22.8 \%$ have income of 9001TL and above. $87.0 \%$ of the parents who answered the questionnaire have a nuclear family, $12.1 \%$ have an extended family and $0.9 \%$ have a single parent structure.

Table 2. Demographic characteristics of the children of the parents participating in the study group

|  |  | $\mathbf{n}$ | \% |
| :--- | :--- | ---: | ---: |
| Gender of the child | Female | 156 | 49.4 |
|  | Male | 160 | 50.6 |
| Child's age | 3 years old | 86 | 27.2 |
|  | 4 years old | 64 | 20.3 |
|  | 5 years old | 78 | 24.7 |
| The child's attendance at the | 6 years old | 88 | 27.8 |
| educational institution | Yes | 172 | 54.4 |
| Number of children | No | 144 | 45.6 |
|  | One child | 139 | 44.0 |
|  | Two children | 150 | 47.5 |
|  | 3 and over | 27 | 8.5 |

49.4\% of the parents who answered the questionnaire had girls and $50.6 \%$ had boys. 27.2\% of the parents who answered the questionnaire have a 3 -year-old, $20.3 \%$ a 4 -year-old, $34.7 \%$ a 5 -year-old, and $27.8 \%$ 6-year-old children. The children of $54.4 \%$ of the parents who answered the questionnaire attend an educational institution, while the children of $45.6 \%$ do not attend an educational institution. Of the parents who answered the questionnaire, 44.0\% had only one child, $47.5 \%$ had 2 children and $8.5 \%$ had 3 or more children.

## Data Collection Tools

"Personal Information Form", "Maternal Gatekeeping Scale" and "Parent- Child Relationship Scale (Father Form)" were used in the research. The mothers participating in the study were asked to fill out the "Maternal Gatekeeping Scale", and the fathers participating in the study were asked to fill out the "Parent- Child Relationship Scale Father Form".

Personal Information Form: The "Personal Information Form" consisting of 15 questions, created by the researcher, and finalized by the academic advisor, was used in the study in order to find out various demographic characteristics of the parents participating in the study and their children. In the personal information form as the part of the study there are questions such mother's age, father's age, their marital status, mother's education level, father's education level, mother's employment status, mother's occupation, father's employment status, father's occupation, total family income, family structure, child's gender, child's age, the status of the child's attendance at the educational institution and the number of children in order to obtain information.

Maternal Gatekeeping Scale: The scale was developed by Dönmez (2019) to measure the restrictive and supportive interaction behaviors towards fathers by the mothers while raising their children. The scale consists of 5 sub-dimensions and 57 items. The questions in the scale are 5 -likert type and scored as 1 "Never" 2 "Rarely" 3 "Sometimes" 4 "Usually" 5 "Always". It was found that the reliability coefficient of the "Modern Maternity" sub-dimension of the Maternal Gatekeeping Scale is ,89, the reliability coefficient of the "Two- Fold Responsible Maternity" sub-dimension is, 87 , the reliability coefficient of the "Over-Committed Maternity" sub-dimension is 85 , the reliability coefficient of the "Traditional Maternity" sub-dimension is

71, and the reliability coefficient of the "Indirect Maternity "was 63. It can be argued that it is reliable because the Cronbach Alpha values of all sub-dimensions are above . 60 (Özdamar, 1999; cited in Yaşar, 2014). In the "Modern Maternity" factor, it is observed that mothers encourage and provide opportunities to fathers in raising children, communicating with children, and doing housework. In the "Two- Fold Responsible Maternity" factor, it is observed that mothers take on more responsibilities because fathers do not take responsibility for raising children and housework. In the factor of "Over-Committed Maternity", mothers seem to be excessively attached to their spouses, children, and housework. In the "Traditional Maternity" factor, it is observed that the father is prevented from taking responsibility for the house and the child in order to fulfill the traditional motherhood roles assigned to them by the society. In the "Indirect Maternity" factor, it is found that although mothers seem to praise their spouses, actually they emphasize that their spouses are inadequate, and they are the perfect mothers.

In this study, it was found that the reliability coefficient of the "Modern Maternity" subdimension of the Maternal Gatekeeping Scale is ,90, the reliability coefficient of the "Two-fold Responsible Maternity" sub-dimension is, 86 , the reliability coefficient of the "Over-Committed Maternity" sub-dimension is, 80 , the reliability coefficient of the "Traditional Maternity" subdimension is 73 , and the reliability coefficient of the "Indirect Maternity "was 49. It can be argued that it is reliable because the Cronbach Alpha values of all sub-dimensions are above .60.

Parent- Child Relationship Scale (Father Form): The scale was developed by Pianta (1992) to understand the parent-child relationship. The Turkish adaptation, validity and reliability study of the scale was conducted by Uzun and Baran (2015). The original study consists of 30 items in total, with 14 items in the "Conflict" sub-dimension, 6 items in the "Attachment" sub-dimension, and 10 items in the "Positive Relationship" sub-dimension. In the Turkish version, it consists of 23 items. The scale is 5 -point Likert type and is arranged as 1 "Totally Inappropriate" 2 "Not Very Appropriate" 3 "Undecided" 4 "Very Appropriate" 5 "Completely Appropriate". Among the subdimensions of the "Child-Parent Relationship Scale (Father Form)", the reliability of "Positive Relationships" was found .76, the sub-dimension of "Disharmony" was found .61, and the subdimension of "Conflict" was found .62. According to Kılıç (2016), if the reliability coefficient is between $0.7 \leq \alpha<0.9$, it indicates that this reliability is at a good level, and if it is in the range of $0.6 \leq \alpha<0.7$, it is at an acceptable level. When the reliability coefficients of this study are examined, it can be argued that the scale has medium and high reliability within the scope of the study.

In this study, Among the sub-dimensions of the "Child-Parent Relationship Scale (Father Form)", the "Positive Relationships" reliability was found to be ,76, the "Disharmony" subdimension was found, 63 , the "Conflict" sub-dimension was found , 63 , and a total of , 69 . When the reliability coefficients of this study are examined, it can be argued that the scale has medium and high reliability within the scope of the study.

## Data Collection

It was ensured that the mothers filled the "Maternal Gatekeeping Scale" used in the study, and the fathers filled the "Child-Parent Relationship Scale (Father Form)". Due to the covid 19 epidemic, the scales used in the study were delivered to the parents with the form method used in digital environments. The personal information of the participants participating in the study was kept confidential, and the scales were filled online by signing the consent form in line with the information provided.

## Analysis of Data

The analysis of the data of the study titled "Review on the Impact of the Interaction Behaviors of Parents with 36-72 Months-Old Children on Father-Child Relationship" was conducted with the SPSS 21 program with a reliability level of $95 \%$. When comparing the subdimension scores of the " Maternal Gatekeeping Scale " and the "Parent Child Relationship Scale (Father Form) Scale" with the independent variables, the kurtosis and skewness values were examined in order to determine which analyzes should be performed. The kurtosis and skewness values of the sub-dimensions of both scales are given in Table 3.
Table 3. The kurtosis and skewness values of the sub-dimension scores of "Maternal Gatekeeping Scale" and "Parent Child Relationship Scale (Father Form)"

|  |  | n | Min. | Max. | $\mathbf{x}$ | sd | Variance | Skewness | Kurtosis |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Modern Maternity | 316 | 29.00 | 85.00 | 72.27 | 10.03 | 100.589 | -1.360 | 2.606 |
|  | Two- fold |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | Responsible Mother | 316 | 13.00 | 59.00 | 21.62 | 8.16 | 66.579 | 1.553 | 2.479 |
|  | Over- Committed Maternity | 316 | 27.00 | 70.00 | 51.04 | 8.31 | 69.005 | -0.234 | -0.536 |
|  | Traditional Maternity | 316 | 5.00 | 22.00 | 12.74 | 4.24 | 18.007 | 0.022 | -0.752 |
|  | Indirect <br> Maternity | 316 | 8.00 | 28.00 | 13.31 | 3.48 | 12.138 | 1.010 | 1.459 |
|  | Counter- Father Maternity | 316 | 79.00 | 213.00 | 128.80 | 22.13 | 489.688 | 0.464 | 0.244 |
|  | Positive <br> Relationships <br> Disharmony <br> Conflict |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | 316 | 21.00 | 50.00 | 42.33 | 4.95 | 24.489 | -0.871 | 1.205 |
|  |  | 316 | 7.00 | 33.00 | 17.79 | 4.28 | 18.297 | 0.370 | 0.198 |
|  |  | 316 | 6.00 | 26.00 | 13.12 | 4.12 | 16.940 | 0.481 | -0.303 |

One procedure to examine the suitability of the scale scores to the normal distribution is to calculate the skewness and kurtosis values. The kurtosis and skewness values (between -2 and +2 ) of the calculated scores are considered sufficient for the normal distribution (De Carlo, 1997; Hopkins \& Weeks, 1990). Accordingly, it was accepted that all the scale scores showed a normal distribution. Independent Groups T-test was used for two-group variables and One-Way Anova Test for variables with more than two groups. Tukey Test was used to determine the group that caused the difference. The relationship between the scale scores was examined with the Pearson correlation test, and the variables affecting the dependent variable were analyzed with the multiple linear regression test.

## Findings

In this section, the findings obtained as a result of the statistical analysis of the data obtained from the scales applied for the purposes of the research are presented.

Table 4. Comparison of the child's gender variable with the sub-dimension scores of "Maternal Gatekeeping Scale " and "Parent-Child Relationship (Father Form)" sub-dimension scores

|  |  | n | $\bar{x}$ | sd | t | $p$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| © J Modern Maternity | Female | 156 | 72.93 | 10.00 | 1.162 | ,246 |
| - ¢ Modern Maternity | Male | 160 | 71.62 | 10.05 |  |  |


| Two- fold Responsible | Female | 156 | 21.35 | 7.50 | -0.596 | ,552 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Maternity | Male | 160 | 21.89 | 8.78 |  |  |
| Over- Committed Maternity | Female | 156 | 51.67 | 8.29 | 1.337 | ,182 |
|  | Male | 160 | 50.43 | 8.30 |  |  |
| Traditional Maternity | Female | 156 | 12.92 | 4.26 | 0.742 | ,459 |
|  | Male | 160 | 12.57 | 4.23 |  |  |
| Indirect Maternity | Female | 156 | 13.43 | 3.53 | 0.601 | ,548 |
|  | Male | 160 | 13.19 | 3.45 |  |  |
| Counter- Father Maternity/ | Female | 156 | 128.66 | 21.57 | -0.114 | ,910 |
| Total Score | Male | 160 | 128.94 | 22.73 |  |  |
| Positive Relationships | Female | 156 | 42.87 | 4.71 | 1.922 | ,056 |
|  | Male | 160 | 41.81 | 5.13 |  |  |
| Disharmony | Female | 156 | 17.65 | 4.21 | -0.602 | ,548 |
|  | Male | 160 | 17.94 | 4.35 |  |  |
| Conflict | Female | 156 | 13.04 | 3.77 | -0.335 | ,738 |
|  | Male | 160 | 13.20 | 4.43 |  |  |

When Table 4 is examined, there is no significant difference between the child's gender variable and the sub-dimension scores of the " Maternal Gatekeeping Scale " and the "ParentChild Relationship (Father Form)" sub-dimensions.

Table 5. Comparison of the child's age variable " Maternal Gatekeeping Scale " sub-dimension scores and "Parent-Child Relationship (Father Form)" sub-dimension scores

|  |  |  | n | $\overline{\mathbf{x}}$ | sd | F | $p$ | Significant Difference |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Modern Maternity | 3 years old (1) | 86 | 73.30 | 9.21 | 2.679 | ,047 | 2-3 |
|  |  | 4 years old (2) | 64 | 69.22 | 11.99 |  |  |  |
|  |  | 5 years old (3) | 78 | 73.44 | 9.38 |  |  |  |
|  |  | 6 years old (4) | 88 | 72.43 | 9.50 |  |  |  |
|  | Over- <br> Committed <br> Maternity | 3 years old (1) | 86 | 51.41 | 7.73 | 3.090 | ,027 | 2-4 |
|  |  | 4 years old (2) | 64 | 49.05 | 7.67 |  |  |  |
|  |  | 5 years old (3) | 78 | 50.18 | 9.54 |  |  |  |
|  |  | 6 years old (4) | 88 | 52.90 | 7.82 |  |  |  |
|  | Conflict | 3 years old (1) | 86 | 13.85 | 4.16 | 5.708 | ,001 | 2-4 |
|  |  | 4 years old (2) | 64 | 14.41 | 4.16 |  |  |  |
|  |  | 5 years old (3) | 78 | 12.35 | 3.96 |  |  |  |
|  |  | 6 years old (4) | 88 | 12.17 | 3.85 |  |  |  |

In Table 5, there is a statistically significant difference in terms of the age variable of the child and the "Modern Maternity" and "Over-Committed Maternity" scores, which are subdimensions of the "Counter- Father Motherhood Scale". Tukey Test was used among the post hoc test groups to determine which groups the difference originated from. The "Modern Maternity" scores of the parents whose children are 5 years old are higher than the parents with 3 - and 4-years old children, and the "Over Committed Maternity" scores of the mothers whose children are 6 years old, the scores of the mothers whose children are 3,4 and 5 years old are significantly higher. There is a significant difference between the number of children variable and the "Modern Maternity" scores from the sub-dimensions of the " Maternal Gatekeeping Scale ". "Modern Maternity" is higher for parents with 2 children than for parents with 3 or more children. There is a statistically significant difference between the age variable of the child and
the "Conflict" scores, which is one of the sub-dimensions of "Parent-Child Relationship (Father Form)". Fathers with a 4-year-old child have higher "Conflict" scores than fathers with a 6-yearold child. Tukey Test was used among the post hoc test groups to determine which groups the difference originated from.

Table 5. Comparison of the number of children variable with the sub-dimension scores of "Maternal Gatekeeping Scale" and "Parent-Child Relationship (Father Form)" sub-dimension scores

|  |  |  | n | $\overline{\mathbf{x}}$ | sd | F | p | Significant Difference |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Positive Relationships | One child (1) | 139 | 42.84 | 4.39 | 3.908 | ,021 | $\begin{aligned} & 1-3 \\ & 2-3 \end{aligned}$ |
|  |  | Two children (2) | 150 | 42.29 | 5.13 |  |  |  |
|  |  | 3 and over (3) | 27 | 39.96 | 6.03 |  |  |  |
|  | Conflict | One child (1) | 139 | 13.74 | 3.89 | 3.610 | ,028 | 1-3 |
|  |  | Two children (2) | 150 | 12.80 | 4.24 |  |  |  |
|  |  | 3 and over (3) | 27 | 11.74 | 4.13 |  |  |  |
|  | Modern Maternity | One child (1) | 139 | 72.68 | 9.88 | 3.095 | ,047 | 2-3 |
|  |  | Two children (2) | 150 | 72.70 | 10.04 |  |  |  |
|  |  | 3 and over (3) | 27 | 67.70 | 9.94 |  |  |  |

In Table 5, there is a statistically significant difference ( $p<0.05$ ) between the number of children variable and the "Positive Relationships" and "Conflict" scores of the "Parent-Child Relationship (Father Form)" sub-dimensions. "Positive Relationships" are higher in those who have only one child compared to fathers with 2 children and 3 or more children. The "Conflict" scores of fathers with only one child are higher than fathers with 3 or more children. "Modern Maternity" is higher than mothers with 2 children and 3 or more children. Tukey Test was used among the post hoc test groups to determine which groups the difference originated from.

Table 6. Comparison of the variable of mother and father education level and the variable of number of children of the "Maternal Gatekeeping Scale" sub-dimension scores

|  |  |  | n | $\bar{x}$ | sd | F | $p$ | Significant Difference |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Mother's Education Level | Over- Committed Maternity | Secondary School (1) | 33 | 57.21 | 7.32 | 19.119 | ,000 | $\begin{aligned} & 1-3 \\ & 1-4 \end{aligned}$ |
|  |  | High school (2) | 84 | 54.00 | 6.73 |  |  |  |
|  |  | Undergraduate (3) | 171 | 49.31 | 8.07 |  |  |  |
|  |  | Graduate (4) | 28 | 45.46 | 8.22 |  |  |  |
|  | Indirect Maternity | Secondary School (1) | 33 | 15.48 | 4.66 | 7.259 | ,000 | $\begin{aligned} & 1-3 \\ & 1-4 \end{aligned}$ |
|  |  | High school (2) | 84 | 13.64 | 3.14 |  |  |  |
|  |  | Undergraduate (3) | 171 | 12.98 | 3.28 |  |  |  |
|  |  | Graduate (4) | 28 | 11.79 | 2.96 |  |  |  |
|  | Counter- Father Maternity | Secondary School (1) | 33 | 141.91 | 16.49 | 6.914 | ,000 | $\begin{aligned} & 1-3 \\ & 1-4 \end{aligned}$ |
|  |  | High school (2) | 84 | 130.57 | 19.20 |  |  |  |
|  |  | Undergraduate (3) | 171 | 127.16 | 22.88 |  |  |  |
|  |  | Graduate (4) | 28 | 118.07 | 24.63 |  |  |  |
|  | Modern Maternity | Secondary School (1) | 36 | 66.94 | 9.17 | 5.494 | ,001 | 1-3 |
|  |  | High school (2) | 93 | 71.35 | 12.10 |  |  |  |
|  |  | Undergraduate (3) | 157 | 74.04 | 8.65 |  |  |  |
|  |  | Graduate (4) | 30 | 72.20 | 8.31 |  |  |  |
|  | Two- fold Responsible Maternity | Secondary School (1) | 36 | 25.11 | 10.17 | 3.632 | ,013 | 1-3 |
|  |  | High school (2) | 93 | 22.28 | 9.16 |  |  |  |
|  |  | Undergraduate (3) | 157 | 20.41 | 7.04 |  |  |  |


|  | Graduate (4) | 30 | 21.73 | 6.44 |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Over- Committed Maternity | Secondary School (1) | 36 | 54.47 | 8.11 | 6.146 | ,000 | $\begin{aligned} & 1-3 \\ & 1-4 \end{aligned}$ |
|  | High school (2) | 93 | 52.89 | 7.44 |  |  |  |
|  | Undergraduate (3) | 157 | 49.41 | 8.19 |  |  |  |
|  | Graduate (4) | 30 | 49.73 | 9.61 |  |  |  |
| Traditional Maternity | Secondary School (1) | 36 | 14.28 | 4.31 | 3.515 | ,016 | 1-3 |
|  | High school (2) | 93 | 13.06 | 4.11 |  |  |  |
|  | Undergraduate (3) | 157 | 12.06 | 4.19 |  |  |  |
|  | Graduate (4) | 30 | 13.50 | 4.36 |  |  |  |
| Indirect Maternity | Secondary School (1) | 36 | 15.33 | 3.85 | 5.873 | ,001 | $\begin{aligned} & 1-3 \\ & 1-4 \end{aligned}$ |
|  | High school (2) | 93 | 13.57 | 3.47 |  |  |  |
|  | Undergraduate (3) | 157 | 12.77 | 3.33 |  |  |  |
|  | Graduate (4) | 30 | 12.90 | 3.00 |  |  |  |
| Counter- Father Maternity | Secondary School (1) | 36 | 144.19 | 18.10 | 11.428 | ,000 | $\begin{aligned} & 1-3 \\ & 1-4 \end{aligned}$ |
|  | High school (2) | 93 | 132.88 | 24.03 |  |  |  |
|  | Undergraduate (3) | 157 | 123.07 | 20.50 |  |  |  |
|  | Graduate (4) | 30 | 127.70 | 17.41 |  |  |  |

When Table 6 is examined, there is a significant difference $(p<0,05)$ between the mother's educational level variable and the scores of "Over-Committed Maternity", "Indirect Maternity" and "Counter- Father Maternity". Tukey Test was used among the post hoc test groups to determine which groups the difference originated from. Mothers who graduated from secondary school have higher scores in "Over-Committed Maternity", "Indirect Maternity" and "Counter- Father Maternity" according to their undergraduate and graduate education levels. As the education level of mothers with secondary school increases compared to undergraduate and graduate levels, the perception of existing characteristics decreases. There is a statistically significant difference between the father's educational level variable and the "Modern Maternity", "Two- fold Responsible Maternity", "Over-Committed Maternity", "Traditional Maternity", "Indirect Maternity", "Counter- Father Maternity " scores from the sub-dimensions of the "Maternal Gatekeeping Scale." "Two- fold Responsible Maternity", "Traditional Maternity", "Modern Maternity" are higher for mothers whose spouses are secondary school graduates than those whose spouses have a bachelor's degree. It was concluded that "Indirect Maternity", "Counter- Father Maternity", "Over- Committed Maternity" of mothers were higher in those whose spouses were secondary school graduates than those who have undergraduate and higher education level.
Table 7. Comparison of the family structure, father's age, and mother's age variable with the sub-dimension scores of "Maternal Gatekeeping Scale" and "Parent-Child Relationship (Father Form)" sub-dimension scores

|  |  |  | n | $\overline{\mathbf{x}}$ | sd | t | p |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Counter- Father Maternity | Nuclear family | 275 | 127.62 | 21.70 | -2.409 | ,017 |
|  |  | Extended family | 38 | 136.76 | 23.52 |  |  |
| ${\underset{n}{0}}_{\substack{0 \\ 0}}$ | Over- Committed Maternity | 35 years and below | 162 | 52.10 | 8.01 | 2.352 | ,019 |
|  |  | 36 years and over | 154 | 49.92 | 8.49 |  |  |
|  | Positive Relationships | 35 years and below | 162 | 42.97 | 4.68 | 2.363 | ,019 |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { io } \\ & \text { 末 } \\ & \text { \# } \end{aligned}$ |  | 36 years and over | 154 | 41.66 | 5.15 |  |  |


|  |  | 35 years and below | 231 | 13.40 | 4.12 | 1.997 | ,047 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Conflict | 36 years and over | 85 | 12.36 | 4.03 |  |  |

When Table 7 is examined, there is a statistically significant difference ( $p<0,05$ ) in terms of family structure variable and "Counter- Father Maternity ", which is one of the subdimensions of the "Maternal Gatekeeping Scale". Those living in extended families have higher "Counter- Father Maternity" than those living in nuclear families. There is a statistically significant difference in terms of the father's age variable and the "Over- Committed Maternity" scores from the sub-dimensions of the "Maternal Gatekeeping Scale". The "Over- Committed Maternity" sub-dimension is higher in mothers with spouses who are 35 years or younger. There is a statistically significant difference between the maternal age variable and the "Conflict" score, which is the sub-dimensions of the "Parent-Child Relationship (Father Form)" scale. "Conflict" is higher for mothers aged 35 and younger than mothers aged 36 and over. There is a statistically significant difference in the scores of the father age variable and the "Parent-Child Relationship (Father Form)" "Positive Relationships" sub-dimensions. "Positive Relationships" for fathers aged 35 and younger are higher than those of fathers aged 36 and above. Tukey Test was used among the post hoc test groups to determine which groups the difference originated from.
Table 8. The relationship between the scores of the Maternal Gatekeeping Scale and the parentchild relationship (father forum) scale

|  | $\mathbf{1}$ | $\mathbf{2}$ | $\mathbf{3}$ | $\mathbf{4}$ | $\mathbf{5}$ | $\mathbf{6}$ | $\mathbf{7}$ | $\mathbf{8}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1.Modern <br> Maternity | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 2. Two- fold <br> Responsible <br> Maternity | ,$- 559^{* *}$ | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3.Over- Committed <br> Maternity | , 071 | , 069 | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 4.Traditional <br> Maternity | ,$- 370^{* *}$ | , $388^{* *}$ | , $259^{* *}$ | 1 |  |  |  |  |
| 5. Indirect Maternity | ,$- 325^{* *}$ | , $453^{* *}$ | , $316^{* *}$ | , $470^{* *}$ | 1 |  |  |  |
| 6. Counter- Father <br> Maternity | ,$- 735^{* *}$ | , $785^{* *}$ | , $462^{* *}$ | , $634^{* *}$ | , $654^{* *}$ | 1 |  |  |
| 7. Positive <br> Relationships | , $453^{* *}$ | ,$- 278^{* *}$ | , $293^{* *}$ | ,$- 187^{* *}$ | ,$- 125^{*}$ | ,$- 243^{* *}$ | 1 |  |
| 8.Disharmony | ,$- 206^{* *}$ | , $354^{* *}$ | , $270^{* *}$ | , $291^{* *}$ | , $337^{* *}$ | , $432^{* *}$ | , 049 | 1 |

${ }^{* *} \mathrm{p}<.01,{ }^{*} \mathrm{p}<.05$ significant, $\mathrm{r}=0.000-0.300$ low level relationship, $\mathrm{r}=0.301-0.700$ moderate relationship, $\mathrm{r}=0.701-1.00$ strong relationship

When Table 8 is examined, there was a moderate positive ( $r=0.453$ ), statistically significant relationship between "Modern Motherhood" and "Positive Relationships" ( $p<0.05$ ) and there was a low-level negative relationship with "Disharmony" ( $r=-.206$ ), and a low-level positive relationship with "Conflict" ( $r=-.262$ ) ( $p<0.05$ ). There was a low-level negative ( $r=-.278$ ) statistically significant relationship between the "Two- fold Responsible Maternity" score and "Positive Relationships" ( $p<0.05$ ) and there was a moderate positive relationship with "Disharmony" ( $r=.354$ ), and a moderate positive correlation with "Conflict" ( $r=.415$ ) ( $p<0.05$ ). There is a low level positive statistically significant relationship between "Over- Committed Maternity" and "Positive Relationships ( $r=.293$ ), "Disharmony" ( $r=.270$ ) and "Conflict" ( $r=0.077$ ) ( $p<0.05$ ). There was a low-level negative ( $r=-0.187$ ) statistically significant relationship between "Traditional Motherhood" and "Positive Relationships" ( $p<0.05$ ) and there was a low-level
positive, statistically significant relationship between "Disharmony" ( $r=0.291$ ) and "Conflict" ( $r=0.240$ ) ( $p<0.05$ ). There was a low-level negative statistically significant relationship between "Indirect Maternity" and "Positive Relationships" ( $r=-.125$ ) and there is a moderate positive, statistically significant relationship between "Disharmony" ( $r=.337$ ) and "Conflict" ( $r=.337$ ) ( $p<0,05$ ). There was a low-level negative statistically significant relationship between "CounterFather Maternity" and "Positive Relationships" ( $r=-.243$ ) ( $p<0.05$ ) and there was a moderate positive statistically significant relationship between "Disharmony" ( $r=.432$ ) and "Conflict" ( $r=.398$ ) ( $p<0.05$ ).

Table 9. Results of "Maternal Gatekeeping Scale" and "Parent-Child Relationship (Father Form)" regression model

| Dependent Variable | Independent variable | $\beta$ | t | p | $\mathrm{R}^{\mathbf{2}}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Positive Relationships | Modern Maternity | 0.357 | 5.927 | ,000 |  |
|  | Two- fold Responsible Maternity | -0.043 | -0.697 | ,486 |  |
|  | Over- Committed Maternity | 0.309 | 5.897 | ,000 | 0.288 |
|  | Traditional Maternity | -0.099 | -1.716 | ,087 |  |
|  | Indirect Maternity | -0.040 | -0.674 | ,501 |  |
| Disharmony | Modern Maternity | -0.012 | -0.182 | ,856 |  |
|  | Two- fold Responsible Maternity | 0.246 | 3.763 | ,000 |  |
|  | Over- Committed Maternity | 0.194 | 3.497 | ,001 | 0.207 |
|  | Traditional Maternity | 0.084 | 1.379 | ,169 |  |
|  | Indirect Maternity | 0.121 | 1.919 | ,056 |  |
| Conflict | Modern Maternity | -0.016 | -0.257 | ,798 |  |
|  | Two- fold Responsible Maternity | 0.314 | 4.787 | ,000 |  |
|  | Over- Committed Maternity | -0.007 | -0.132 | ,895 | 0.201 |
|  | Traditional Maternity | 0.031 | 0.501 | ,617 |  |
|  | Indirect Maternity | 0.177 | 2.806 | ,005 |  |

The results of the multiple linear regression model conducted within the scope of the study are presented in the table. When Table 27 is examined, the dimensions of "Modern Maternity ( $\beta=0.357$ )" and "Over- Committed Maternity ( $\beta=0.309$ )" have a positive, statistically significant impact on the "Positive Relationships" dimension ( $p<0.05$ ). The impact of other dimensions was not significant ( $p>0.05$ ). The model explains $28.8 \%$ of the change in Positive Relationships. The dimensions of "Two- fold Responsible Maternity ( $\beta=0.246$ )" and "OverCommitted Maternity ( $\beta=0.194$ )" have a positive, statistically significant impact on the "Disharmony" dimension ( $p<0.05$ ). The impact of other dimensions was not significant ( $p>0.05$ ). The model explains $20.7 \%$ of the variation in disharmony. The dimensions of "Two- fold Responsible Maternity ( $\beta=0.314$ )" and "Indirect Maternity ( $\beta=0.177$ )" have positive and statistically significant impact on the "Conflict" dimension ( $p<0.05$ ). The impact of other dimensions was not significant ( $p>0.05$ ). The model explains $20.1 \%$ of the change in conflict.

## Discussion, Conclusion and Recommendations

The overall aim of this study is to examine the relationship between father-child relationship of interaction behaviors of parents with children of 36-72 months. The findings of the study have been compared with the studies in the literature in this regard.

In the study, no differences have been observed between the child gender variable and the sub-dimensions of the counter-father maternal scale. Upon reviewing the literature, we encounter similar results. In the study of Karabulut and Şendil (2017), in which they evaluated mothers who restrict fathers' access to children, they failed to find any difference in the maternity guarding exhibited by the child's gender. Gözübüyük (2020), in his study in which he examined the relationship between the motivation level of the preschool child and the fatherchild relationship and commitment styles, no significant difference has been revealed in the variable of the effect of the gender of the child on the motivation levels and commitment styles of 48-72 months old children. Özsoy Yanbak (2019) has revealed that the gender of the child did not demonstrate a significant difference in the father-child relationship in the study named the effect of the self-regulation skills of children studying in pre-school institutions on the fatherchild relationship. In the study of Güzel and Tüfekçi (2019) examining the relationship of 36-72-month-old children with their fathers, continuing to pre-school education, according to demographic characteristics, no significant difference has been revealed in the relationship established between father and child for the gender of the child. In a similar study, Aydın Kılıç (2016) concluded that gender is not effective in the father-child relationship in Ankara, while fathers are more in conflict with their daughters in Trabzon and fathers are more in conflict with their sons in Erzurum. The level of control of mothers over fathers are found to be higher in mothers with daughters. Aktaş and Aydın (2020), revealing a different result from our study, concluded that fathers receive more encouragement for their sons from their spouses, while mothers exert more control over fathers for their daughters. Moreover, no difference has been observed in terms of father-child positive relationships, incompatibility and conflict situations of having a boy or a girl. In the review of the literature, it has been identified that similar results have been observed in the study.

In the study, mothers with 5-year-old children had higher levels of modern maternity and mothers with 6-year-olds had higher levels of overly attached maternity than mothers with 4-year-old children. The reason for this can be interpreted as that parent share responsibilities, with mothers taking part in the care of younger children while fathers take care of older children. As for the father-child relationship conflict sub-dimension, it has been revealed that fathers had more conflicts with their 4 -year-old children compared to 6 -year-olds. This situation is considered to be due to the developmental characteristics of the 4 -year-old child. It can be interpreted as the fact that the father is less actively involved in his child's life at the age of four than at the age of six, and that the mother, who takes primary care of the child, shows more anti-patriarchy behavior because of the minor age of the child. In the study of Aktaş and Aydın (2020), fathers' perception of encouragement decreases as children get older, while perceptions of control and barriers increase accordingly. In their study, Arabacı and Ömeroğlu (2013) identified that there is a difference in nonverbal communication between fathers in favor of 48-60-month-old children compared to children 61-72 months old and they stated that this may be due to the fact that fathers behave more closely with their young children as they require more love, care and affection. Nevertheless, although fathers have increased their involvement in raising children over time (Pleck \& Masciadrelli, 2004), fathers' involvement remains much lower than that of mothers, particularly when children are of young ages (Kotila, Schoppe-Sullivan, \& Kamp Dush, 2013). It is also observed in the literature that different results are available
comparing with our study. Güzel and Tüfekçi (2019) has revealed that no significant difference has been observed for the age variable of the child in the father-child relationship. In another study, Gaunt (2008) reported that he could not find a relationship between the age of children and maternal guardianship.

In the study, positive relationships and conflict scores of parents with one child have been revealed to be higher than those of families having 3 or more children. It is considered that various factors may affect this situation, such as the fact that parents with only one child have more quality time spent with the child, and more financial opportunities that can be allocated to one child. In a similar study, Saygı (2011) has asserted that mothers with two children were found to have a more positive relationship than single-child mothers when examining the affiliation sub-dimension, but there was no differentiation in the total scores of conflict and scale. In the study of Arabacı and Ömeroğlu (2013), it has been identified that the communication of parents with many children in their family with their children is weaker than the communication of parents with few children with their children. Unlike our study, in the study of Aydın Kiliç (2016), it has been observed that as the number of children increases in Erzurum and Trabzon provinces, the conflict in the relationship established between father and child increases accordingly. In another study, Uyanık et al. (2015), it has been revealed that the conflict score of families with two children was found to be significantly lower than the scores of families with one child and families with 3 or more children. In the study of Alabay (2017) examining the parenting attitudes of parents with 48-72 months old children in terms of different variables, it has been seen that parents with 2 children displayed less permissive attitudes than parents with 3 or more children. In the study of Güzel and Tüfekçi (2021), it was observed that fathers with 1-2 children progressed in a more positive and conflict-free relationship with their children. In another result of the study, it has been revealed that mothers with 2 children had higher scores than mothers with 3 or more children in the sub-dimension of modern maternity. Akgöz Aktaş (2017) emphasized that as the number of children increases, the participation level of the fathers decreases and the level of maternal guardianship increases in the study in which he examined the effect of marital adjustment and maternal guardianship on the relationship between father involvement and child adjustment. In the study of Kulik and Tsoref (2010), no significant relationship has been revealed between the number of children and counter-father maternity.

In the study, it has been observed that the mothers with secondary school education had higher scores on Over-Committed Motherhood, Indirect Maternity, and Fatherless Maternity according to their undergraduate and graduate education levels. It is considered that factors such as mothers' orientation to business life with the increase in their education level, the change in their perspectives towards their spouses, and the development of the communication they have established with their children may affect this situation. Likewise, in the study of Karabulut and Şendil (2017), in which mothers who restrict fathers' access to children have been evaluated, it was revealed that mothers with high school or higher education had a lower mean score for maternity guardianship. In various studies, there is a relationship between mother's education level and father's involvement (Zvara et al., 2013), and in a study examining the relationship between prenatal parenting and maternity guardianship, mothers with higher education levels demonstrate less sexism and develop warmer and more cooperative behaviors (Reed, 2009) was found. Wamboldt (2000), when looking at the attention and general attitude scores of fathers and mothers with a high education level, found that the mother has more. He states that as the education level of the father and mother increases, there is a decrease in the dimensions of discipline and pressure.

In the study, a significant difference was found between father's education level and the entire dimensions. In other words, it has been observed that as the education level of the father decreased, the behaviors such as excessive commitment, traditional behaviors, seeing their spouses as inadequate and seeing themselves better in the home environment were more common. It has been observed that the spouses of undergraduate fathers have a high perception of modern maternity, insofar, they display opportunistic attitudes towards their spouses in the home environment, in matters such as childcare. It is considered that variables such as fathers' upbringing, personalities, and also the mentality they adopt may affect this situation. It has been seen that the results found as a result of the literature review supported the results of the study. Kulik and Tsoref (2010) stated that mothers with higher education levels demonstrate less guardianship attitudes. Karabulut and Şendil (2017) determined in their study that guardianship behaviors differ according to the age and education level of the parents. In Akgöz Aktaş's (2017) study examining the effect of parental marital adjustment and maternal guardianship on the relationship between father involvement and child adjustment, it has been determined that as the education level of the father increased, the maternal guardianship of the mother decreased. In a study by Zvara et al.(2013) examining fathers' involvement in child health care, prenatal participation, parental beliefs, and relationships with maternal guardianship, in a study that examined the relationship between prenatal participation, gender role beliefs, and maternal custodial care and new fathers' participation in child health care, it was found that there was a moderately significant correlation between father's educational status and father's involvement. In the study of Aktaş and Aydın (2020), which evaluated mother guarding behaviors in terms of fathers, while it has been observed that the types of guarding perceived by fathers did not change according to their own education level, it has been revealed that the level of encouragement perceived by the spouses of the fathers with a university and graduate degree was higher than that of the fathers with a spouse who graduated from primary, secondary and high school. In the study of Karabulut (2019) examining maternity guardianship in terms of various variables, no significant difference has been observed between the education level of the fathers and the maternity guardianship behaviors of the mothers.

In the study, a significant difference has been observed in terms of family structure variable and counter-father maternity scores, which are one of the sub-dimensions of counterfather Maternity Scale. In other words, the counter-father attitudes of mothers living in extended families were found to be higher. It is considered that this situation may be caused by many different reasons such as the coexistence of the entire family members such as mother, father, child, grandfather, grandmother, aunt, uncle, the responsibilities introduced by traditions, and the involvement of older family members in raising children and spouse relations.

In the study, it has been identified that as the age of the fathers decreased, the over commitment of the mothers towards their children was higher. Based on the family systems approach, in the study where Kulik and Tsoref (2010) examined the gender role ideology of the mother, her desire for control, her satisfaction with her spouse's participation in the child's care, the perception of receiving support from the extended family in child care, the variables in the mother's child and couple relationship, and the relationship of anti-patriarchy, no significant differences have been observed between father's age and mothers' counter-father behaviors. In another study of Aktaş and Aydın (2020), it has been determined that there is no effect of maternal guardianship and father's age. In the study of Karabulut (2019), it has been determined that as the age of the fathers increased, the maternal guardianship behaviors of the mothers also increased. Bell (1993) has revealed in his research that as the age of the father increased, his excessive commitment to his family decreased. In the study, it was found significant in terms
of the father's age variable and the positive relations score, which is one of the sub-dimensions of the Parent-Child Relationship (Father Form) Scale. The perception of positive relationships of fathers aged 35 and under has been found to be higher than the other age groups. There has been no difference in the dimensions of Incompatibility and Conflict. As the age of the fathers decreases, the age gap between them and their children decreases, and accordingly the generation gaps also decrease. Accordingly, it is considered that there are more positive relationships between father and child. In Uzun and Baran's (2019) study examining the relationship between preschool children and their fathers according to various variables, significant differences have been observed for the scores of Incompatibility and Conflict, subdimensions of the father's age variable, Child-Parent Relationship Father Form. In the study of Güzel (2019) examining the relationship of 36-72-month-old children with their fathers who attend preschool education according to demographic characteristics, it has been revealed that fathers who are younger in father-child relationship are more in conflict with their children. In the study of Gözübüyük (2020), in which he examined the relationship between the motivation level of preschool children and the father-child relationship and attachment styles, no significant difference has been observed in the motivation levels and attachment styles of 48-72-monthold children in terms of the father age variable. In Özsoy Yanbak's (2019) study of the effect of self-regulation skills of children studying in pre-school institutions on the father-child relationship, a positive effect was found on the child's attachment to the father as the father's age progressed. It has been determined that the age of the father has no effect on positive and conflicting relations. Castillo, Welch, and Sarver (2011) have found that older fathers were more involved in routine activities in the child's life than younger fathers. In the studies of Aksoy and Tatlı (2019), it was seen that the higher the average age of fathers, the more positive their relationship with their children. In spite of the fact that different results are observed in the studies in the literature, the findings related to the age of the father in the study can be interpreted as the relationship between father and child in most sub-dimensions and total scales does not differ according to the father's age variable. Regardless of the age of the father, situations such as being active in the care of the child, including the child in the education process, having a pleasant time by playing games with his child and establishing a warm relationship between them, affect the father-child relationship, and therefore, it is considered that different results are obtained for the father's age to affect the father-child relationship. Among the scores they got from the Child-Parent Relationship Scale (Father Form) positive relationship sub-dimension, while fathers in the 20-29 and 30-39 age group had significantly higher father-child relationship levels than fathers in the 50 and over age group, there is no significant difference between the scores obtained according to father's age in other subdimensions and the total scale (Gözübüyük \& Özbey, 2020).

In the study, a significant difference has been observed in terms of the mother age variable and the conflict score, which is one of the sub-dimensions of the parent-child relationship (father form) scale. The perception of conflict of mothers aged 35 and under was higher than the other age groups. It is considered that variables such as the mother's young age, education level, relationship with her spouse, environmental factors, and economic freedom may affect this situation. It has been observed that the conflict score of SaygI's (2011) "Parent-Child Relationship Scale" in the literature is in favor of mothers aged 25-30. According to this study, it has been determined that the relationship of younger mothers with their children demonstrated more negative results. In the study of Özkan (2019), in which he examined attachment and mother-father-child relationship in children aged $5-6$ years attending pre-school education, no significant difference has been observed between mother's age and
mother-child relationship. It has not been observed whether there is any interaction between the increase or decrease in maternal age and the relationship with the child. In another study, Gözübüyük (2020) has examined the relationship between preschool children's motivation level and father-child relationship and attachment styles, no positive or negative effects of maternal age were observed on motivation levels and attachment styles of 48-72-month-old children. In Özsoy Yanbak's (2019) study of the effect of self-regulation competencies of children studying in pre-school institutions on the father-child relationship, it was found that as the age of the mother increased, the level of attachment of the child with his father increased, but it had no effect on the positive and conflicting relationship of the father.

As a result of the data obtained in the study regarding the correlation between the maternal gatekeeping scale and the parent-child relationship (father form), it is seen that the roles of the mothers affect the father-child relationship. It has been observed that as the perception of modern maternity increases, positive relationships also increase. Studies have also supported these findings. In these studies, the results obtained indicate that counter-father maternity is an important factor that determines the level of participation of the father (Fagan \& Barnett, 2003), the competence of the father for the mother, the child's welfare, the quality of the mother-father relationships and the agreements in the parental roles affect the mother's counter-father behaviors (Trinder, 2007) and that mothers who are overly committed to their maternal roles counter-father behavior (Cannon, Schoppe-Sullivan, Mangelsdorf, Brown, and Sokolowski, 2008). Likewise, Wang, Yu, Zhu, and Ji (2019) have revealed a negative correlation between mother's anti-father behaviors and father involvement, and it was stated that there was a negative correlation between their children's social and emotional development. Moreover, family systems theorists have long recognized that marital relationship quality influences parenting and parent-child relationships (Cox, Paley, \& Harter, 2001). Particularly the hostile, conflicting and aggressive parental relationship may cause children to experience conflicts in their relations with other people (Dereli \& Dereli, 2017). In this context, the correlation between the sub-dimensions of counter-father maternity and the sub-dimensions of father-child relationship has been examined. According to the results obtained, it has been found that while modern maternity behaviors increased, there was a decrease in incompatibility and conflict behaviors in the father-child relationship. It is considered that this may be due to the fact that the spouses carry out their responsibilities towards the child jointly and that the mothers show more opportunistic attitudes to the fathers in their relations with their children. Moreover, the roles of women in business life and the perception of children have also changed, and there have been changes and modernizations in the duties and responsibilities of parents regarding home and work (Ural, 2015). Therefore, mothers have developed behaviors supporting the father-child relationship.

There has been a negative relationship between Two-Fold Responsible Maternity and positive father-child relationships, and a positive relationship between incompatibility and conflict. Fathers' traditional family thinking and therefore avoidance of taking responsibility in the home environment leads to the mothers taking on more responsibilities in childcare and housework (Sever, 2015). In this context, it is considered that as mothers take responsibility, fathers move away from their children and the level of father-child positive relationship decreases, and the levels of incompatibility and conflict increase. Nevertheless, the fact that mothers do not allow the father to be involved in child-related issues also affects the fatherchild relationship. Preventative mothers exert negative control on the father who wants to take care of the child, consider themselves primarily responsible for the child's care, and criticize the father's involvement as a father (Cannon et al., 2008). In the study, it has been observed that
positive relationships and incompatibility between father and child increased in families with an overly committed mother profile. In this case, the fact that the economic freedom of the mother is limited, mothers' desire for maternity, thinking that they have superior knowledge about parenting, and feeling themselves primarily responsible for their children cause them to assume gender-based responsibilities and exhibit counter-father behaviors (Hauser, 2015). Overcommitted mothers who hinder the relationship between the child and the father may prevent the father from establishing warm and guiding relationships and effectively solving their conflicts and problems.

In another sub-dimension, it was observed that positive relationships decreased in fathers with traditional maternity roles, and an increase in incompatibility and conflicts in the father-child relationship. It is considered that transferred cultural factors may affect this situation. It is thought that different factors such as the effect of traditional culture on mothers, the perception of maternity as a duty, whether education and personal development are increased or not, and intervention in the lives of the people around them are considered to affect this situation. Traditional mothers continue to live in cultural values and stereotypes. Their main duties are defined by domestic works such as bearing, feeding and raising children (Bayer, 2020). The traditional father provides for the household, disciplines his child, and rarely plays with his child, according to them, childcare is limited to providing financial support and imposing discipline. Childcare is basically considered and regarded as the duty of the mother and is considered a role specific to women (Kuzucu, 2011). 91\% of fathers who participated in Akçınar's (2017) study titled "Paternity and Determinants of Related Fatherhood in Turkey" consider and regard mothers as the primary person responsible for the care of their children. Within the scope of this information, it is considered that men's perception of this role as unique to women affects the father-child relationship negatively and causes the continuation of traditional mother structures.

When the indirect motherhood sub-dimension is examined, it is another result of this study that while an increase is observed in mothers' indirect motherhood characteristics, there is a decrease in positive relationships, an increase in incompatibility and conflict characteristics. Because men's domestic standards are very low, they spend less time with their families due to their hard work, they prefer to do simpler tasks, they expect mothers to do a job first, they ask many questions about domestic duties, and they do the task poorly (Allen \& Hawkins, 1999), it is considered that mothers' adopting the idea that their spouses are inadequate and that they are perfect affects this result and affects the father-child relationship. It is inevitable that the mother having this thought shall cause negative, incompatible and conflicting relationships between the father and the child. Likewise, Biller (1993) stated that in cases where the mother does not spare enough time and opportunity to achieve attachment in the father-child relationship, the relationship may result in negative outcomes (as cited in Yersel, 2019). When similar studies in the literature are examined, Kurşun (2019) has revealed no significant correlation between paternal involvement and maternity guardianship, and between maternity guardianship and perceived father acceptance and rejection. Gözübüyük (2020) As the score obtained from the child-parent relationship scale increased, an increase was observed in the problems experienced between the father and the child. In the study of Gaunt (2008), in which he examined maternal care, the reasons in its background, its psychological effects and the participation of parents in childcare, it was determined that there was a moderate relationship with psychological antecedents, background variables and maternity guardianship dimensions. In the background variables, it has been determined that the less working hours, the less
importance he gives to his job, and the lower the income and education level, the more resistance the father is to participate in the work in the home environment.

As a result of the regression analysis made between the sub-dimensions of the maternal gatekeeping scale and the parent-child relationship (father form) sub-dimensions in the study, it has been observed that modern and over-committed motherhood had an effect on positive father-child relationships and it has been determined that two-fold responsible and overly committed maternity has an effect on maladaptive father-child relationship, while doubly responsible and indirect maternity affects conflict behavior in father-child relationship. It is considered that these entire results may be caused by the interaction of many factors such as the perceptions of parents, the effect of traditional culture, age, education, and environment. Mothers who do not have an egalitarian attitude in gender roles see themselves as the primary caregivers of their children, burden themselves with more responsibilities in housework, and may exhibit behaviors that disrupt their parenting processes as a result (Akgöz Aktaş, 2017). Kurşun (2019) has revealed a negative correlation between paternal participation and the father's perceived hostility, neglect and indifference, warmth and affect rejection, undifferentiated rejection, and total rejection sub-dimensions. In another study, Gözübüyük (2020), a decrease was observed in the problems experienced between father and child as the score obtained from the child-parent relationship scale decreased. It has been revealed that as the scores obtained from the motivation scale for preschool children increased, the level of motivation also increased.

As a result, it is observed that the father-child relationship is affected as the counterfather maternity behaviors increase. While positive father-child relationship increased in modern maternity, negative correlations have been observed in father-child relationship in over-omitted, indirect, two-fold responsible and traditional maternity, and conflict and incompatibility sub-dimensions have also been found to increase.

One of the limitations of the current study is the collection of data while under the influence of the pandemic. This situation can affect the father-child relationship in different ways. Other limitations are that the age of the mother is mostly in the range of 30-40. Another limitation is that the data were collected from digital media.

The following suggestions can be provided at the end of the study;

- In order for the relationship between parents and children to be healthy, parent training programs and seminars can be provided for equal sharing of the roles and the mother and father.
- Trainings can be planned for the purpose of developing communication skills and empathetic perspectives in order to ensure the quality of the relationship established between the parents.
- It is feasible to increase the activities (games, social activities, reading books, etc.) for the participation of fathers in the children raising process.
- By conducting in-depth interviews by employing the qualitative research methods, communication between the parent and the child can be evaluated and examined in a more inclusive way.


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[^0]:    *     - In this study, all the rules specified to be followed within the scope of "Higher Education Institutions Scientific Research and Publication Ethics Directive" were followed. None of the actions specified under the title of "Actions Contrary to Scientific Research and Publication Ethics", which is the second part of the directive, were not carried out.
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