

THE ROLE OF ADULT ATTACHMENT AND MATERNAL
GATEKEEPING IN PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT: AN ACTOR-
PARTNER INTERDEPENDENCE MODEL (APIM) ANALYSIS

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO
THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
OF
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

BY
FATMA KÜBRA AYTAÇ

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR
THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
IN
THE DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

SEPTEMBER 2024

Approval of the thesis:

**THE ROLE OF ADULT ATTACHMENT AND MATERNAL
GATEKEEPING IN PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT: AN ACTOR-
PARTNER INTERDEPENDENCE MODEL (APIM) ANALYSIS**

submitted by **FATMA KÜBRA AYTAÇ** in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of **Doctor of Philosophy in Psychology, the Graduate School of Social Sciences of Middle East Technical University** by,

Prof. Dr. Sadettin KİRAZCI
Dean
Graduate School of Social Sciences

Prof. Dr. Bengi ÖNER ÖZKAN
Head of Department
Department of Psychology

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Başak ŞAHİN ACAR
Supervisor
Department of Psychology

Examining Committee Members:

Prof. Dr. Sibel KAZAK BERUMENT (Head of the Examining Committ
Middle East Technical University
Department of Psychology

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Başak ŞAHİN ACAR (Supervisor)
Middle East Technical University
Department of Psychology

Prof. Dr. Tilbe Göksun
Koç University
Department of Psychology

Assist. Prof. Dr. Funda Kutlu
Ufuk University
Department of Psychology

Assist. Prof. Dr. Nur Elibol Pekaslan
Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University
Department of Psychology

I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work.

Name, Last Name: FATMA KÜBRA AYTAÇ

Signature:

ABSTRACT

THE ROLE OF ADULT ATTACHMENT AND MATERNAL GATEKEEPING IN PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT: AN ACTOR-PARTNER INTERDEPENDENCE MODEL (APIM) ANALYSIS

Aytaç, Fatma Kübra

Ph.D., Department of Psychology

Supervisor: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Başak Şahin-Acar

August 2024, 119 pages

The current study aimed to uncover associations between adult attachment and parental involvement. The data was collected via both observations and surveys from a sample of Turkish couples with a child aged 3 to 6 years. In the first and second studies, the Parental Involvement Scale and the Parental Regulation Inventory Gate Closing subscale were adapted to Turkish. In the third study, the relationship between adult attachment dimensions (anxiety and avoidance) and types of parental involvement (direct care, discipline/teaching, play, and school-related activities) was examined while controlling for gatekeeping. The results highlighted the significance of romantic attachment in parental involvement, thereby expanding our understanding of the individual-level predictors of coparenting. Understanding the individual factors affecting parental involvement can contribute to the development of interventions for parents to promote higher coparenting cooperation and lower coparenting conflict.

Keywords: adult attachment, coparenting, father involvement, maternal gatekeeping, APIM.

ÖZ

YETİŞKİN BAĞLANMA VE ANNE BEKÇİLİĞİNİN EBEVEYN KATILIMINDAKİ ROLÜ: BİR AKTÖR-PARTNER KARŞILIKLI BAĞIMLILIK MODELİ (APIM) ANALİZİ

Aytaç, Fatma Kübra

Doktora, Psikoloji Bölümü

Tez Danışmanı: Doç. Dr. Başak Şahin-Acar

Ağustos 2024, 119 sayfa

Bu çalışma, 3 ila 6 yaş aralığındaki çocukları olan Türk ailelerinden elde edilen veriler kullanılarak yetişkin bağlanması ile ebeveyn katılımı arasındaki ilişkileri ortaya çıkarmayı amaçlamıştır. İlk ve ikinci çalışmalarda, Ebeveyn Katılımı Ölçeği ve Ebeveyn Düzenleme Envanteri Kapı Kapatma alt ölçeği Türkçeye uyarlanmış ve psikometrik özellikleri test edilmiştir. Üçüncü çalışmada, yetişkin bağlanma boyutları (kaygı ve kaçınma) ile anne bekçiliği ve ebeveyn katılım türleri (doğrudan bakım, disiplin/öğretim, oyun ve okul ile ilgili etkinlikler) arasındaki ilişki, anket ve gözlem yöntemleri kullanılarak incelenmiştir. Sonuçlar, romantik bağlanmanın ebeveyn katılımındaki önemini vurgulamış ve ortak ebeveynlik ilişkilerinin bireysel düzeydeki belirleyicilerini anlamamıza ışık tutmuştur. Ortak ebeveynlik gelişimini etkileyen bireysel faktörlerin anlaşılmasının, ebeveyn adayları veya yeni ebeveynler için ortak ebeveynlikte iş birliğini artırma ve babaların katılımını destekleme amacıyla planlanan müdahale çalışmalarına katkı sağlaması beklenmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: yetişkin bağlanması, ortak ebeveynlik, baba katılımı, anne bekçiliği, APIM.

to all who fathom knowledge solely for science

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to thank my advisor and thesis committee members for their support and contributions. I extend my thanks to all the families who voluntarily participated in the studies. I am also grateful to the interns for their valuable assistance in data collection and to the coding team for their dedication and perseverance in providing the best possible results.

I am forever grateful to my wonderful family, especially my DD, for their unwavering support and trust. Finally, I would like to thank my brother, Dr. M. Bilgehan Aytaç, and my dear friend H. Müge Özkan for their help with the administrative and printing process of my dissertation. Thank you all for being an essential part of this journey.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	iv
ÖZ.....	v
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.....	vii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	viii
LIST OF TABLES.....	xi
LIST OF FIGURES AND ILLUSTRATION	xii
1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1. General Overview	1
1.2. Coparenting and Father Involvement	5
1.2.1. Conceptualizing Father Involvement	5
1.2.2. Measuring Father Involvement	8
1.2.3. Predictors of Father Involvement.....	11
1.2.4. Coparenting	13
1.3. Maternal Gatekeeping.....	16
1.4. Adult Attachment.....	17
1.5. The Current Study	20
2. STUDY 1: ADAPTATION OF PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT SCALE TO TURKISH	23
2.1. Method	23
2.1.1. Participants	23
2.1.2. Measures.....	23
2.1.3. Procedure.....	24
2.1.4. Analytic Strategy	25
2.2. Results.....	25
2.2.1. Data Screening	25
2.2.3. Variable Characteristics.....	26
2.2.4. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) Results for Parental Involvement Scale	26

2.2.5. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) Results for Parental Involvement Scale	27
2.3. Discussion	28
3. STUDY 2: ADAPTATION OF PARENTAL REGULATION INVENTORY TO TURKISH	31
3.1. Method.....	31
3.1.1. Participants	31
3.1.2. Measures	31
3.1.3. Procedure.....	32
3.1.4. Analytic Strategy	32
3.2. Results	33
3.2.1. Demographic Characteristics of Participants	33
3.2.2. Variable Characteristics.....	33
3.2.3. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) Results for Parental Regulation Inventory.....	33
3.2.4. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) Results for Parental Regulation Inventory.....	34
3.3. Discussion.....	35
4. STUDY 3: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN COPARENTING AND ADULT ATTACHMENT	37
4.1. Method.....	37
4.1.1. Participants	37
4.1.2. Measures	37
4.1.3. Procedure.....	40
4.1.4. Analytic Strategy	42
4.2. Results	43
4.2.1. Data Cleaning.....	43
4.2.2. Demographic Characteristics of Participants	43
4.2.3. Variable Characteristics.....	44
4.2.4. Correlation Analysis.....	45
4.2.5. SEM Analyses of Parental Involvement	49
4.3. Discussion	61
5. DISCUSSION	62

REFERENCES.....	69
A. APPROVAL OF THE METU HUMAN SUBJECTS ETHICS COMMITTEE	95
B. FORMS AND MEASURES	96
C. TURKISH SUMMARY / TÜRKÇE ÖZET	99
D. CURRICULUM VITAE.....	118

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1. Sociodemographic characteristics of participants in study 1.....	26
Table 2.2. Statistical values of study variables.....	26
Table 3.1. Sociodemographic characteristics of participants in study 2.....	34
Table 3.2. Statistical values of study variables.....	34
Table 4.1. Sociodemographic characteristics of participants in study 3.....	44
Table 4.2. Statistical values of study variables.....	45
Table 4.3. Intercorrelations among study variables.....	47

LIST OF FIGURES AND ILLUSTRATION

Figure 2.1. CFA results for parental involvement in direct care.....	29
Figure 2.2. CFA results for parental involvement in discipline/teaching.....	29
Figure 2.3. CFA results for parental involvement in play activities.....	30
Figure 2.4. CFA results for parental involvement in school-related activities.....	30
Figure 3.1. CFA results for maternal gate closing of mothers.....	35
Figure 3.2. CFA results for perceived maternal gate closing of fathers.....	36
Figure 4.1. Structural model for direct care and adult attachment controlling for reported gate closing.....	49
Figure 4.2. Structural model for direct care and adult attachment controlling for observed gate closing.....	50
Figure 4.3. Structural model for direct care and adult attachment controlling for observed gate opening.....	51
Figure 4.4. Structural model for discipline/teaching and adult attachment controlling for reported gate closing.....	52
Figure 4.5. Structural model for discipline/teaching and adult attachment controlling for observed gate closing.....	53
Figure 4.6. Structural model for discipline/teaching and adult attachment controlling for observed gate opening.....	54
Figure 4.7. Structural model for play and adult attachment controlling for reported gate closing.....	55
Figure 4.8. Structural model for play and adult attachment controlling for observed gate closing.....	56
Figure 4.9. Structural model for play and adult attachment controlling for observed gate opening.....	57
Figure 4.10. Structural model for school and adult attachment controlling for reported gate closing.....	58
Figure 4.11. Structural model for school and adult attachment controlling for observed gate closing.....	59

Figure 4.12. Structural model for school and adult attachment controlling for observed gate opening.....	60
Illustration 4.1. Zoom meetings set up for mother-father-child triads.....	41

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. General Overview

From the 1940s onwards, a new conceptualization of paternal involvement has been brought to attention by researchers by highlighting the inadequacy of many fathers compared to mothers. Both professional and popular literature started to discuss the fathers' roles, specifically for their sons (Pleck, 1981). The research highlighted the need for strong models for children to exemplify their sex roles, which is carried out by fathers. However, researchers reported fathers' alleged or apparent inefficiency in fulfilling this role (Levy, 1943; Wylie, 1942). Following this period, mid-1970s research on fathers' roles marked the beginning of the 'new fatherhood' era dominated by the nurturant role of fathers (Furstenberg, 1993). It was the first time that scholars questioned fathers' involvement in other areas of childcare than just being responsible for moral teaching or economic needs. Active involvement in children's daily routines was emphasized as the central component of fatherhood and a requirement of being a good father. Even if, early in the century, fathers were more engaged in daily caregiving activities with their children, the 1970s was noted as the shifting point in the relative and defining significance of father involvement (Lamb, 1987).

While these studies from family historians help us to understand the general picture of the fathers' role throughout history, the systematic study of father involvement has a much shorter history. Within the history of science, the beginning of the century is marked as the period when the specialization within the social sciences began, such as the separation of sociology and psychology from biology, medical sciences, and philosophy. Shortly thereafter, social scientists started exploring the roles of fathers more systematically (e.g., Lamb, 1986).

Not surprisingly, the perspectives articulated by various social scientists mirrored the prevailing notions of the broader society in which they lived. Given the concerns and beliefs of society during that time, it is understandable that Sigmund Freud's idealized father figure exhibited classic masculine traits, as outlined in his works from 1909 and 1924. This archetype portrayed the father as a psychologically robust, leading figure within the family, a decision-maker, assertive, and a provider for the family. In the realm of psychoanalytic theory, the father's role primarily revolved around a motivational system where boys sought to identify with their fathers.

As women's participation in higher education and the workforce has grown, family dynamics have shifted, leading to men taking on a more significant role within the family (Knop & Brewster, 2016). Despite this shift, fathers' involvement in childcare has still lagged behind that of mothers, and some mothers have shown ambivalence toward greater paternal involvement (Perry-Jenkins & Gerstel, 2020). Nevertheless, fathers' engagement in childcare in developmentally appropriate and high-quality ways contributes to children's socio-emotional, cognitive, language, and brain development (Cabrera et al., 2007; Kochanska et al., 2008).

The mid-twentieth century gave rise to two significant concerns in psychology that profoundly influenced contemporary research on parental involvement. One focus was on parental absence, where various reports, mainly from psychiatrists, aimed to show the adverse effects on children (Amato, 2000; Demuth & Brown, 2004; Weaver & Schofield, 2015). John Bowlby (1951) was integrated into this literature, contending that the absence of maternal love, especially during the early years of life, leads to severe psycho-social disadvantages for children. A body of literature concentrating on the father's absence has also developed during this period (e.g., Biller, 1993; McLanahan & Sandefur, 1994). Research suggested lasting harm to children, especially boys, raised in families without fathers due to factors like the loss of a parent or prolonged deployment (Pexton et al., 2018). However, the literature focusing on the absence of a mother and/or father overgeneralized the relationships between stressful events for children and negative outcomes, neglecting other potential risk factors. Critiques at the beginning of the 1970s exposed these methodological shortcomings but did not change the impact of these studies (Herzog & Sudia, 1973; Rutter, 1972).

The other focus of parental involvement research was on the shared responsibilities that emerge as a couple becomes parents. During the transition to parenthood (TTP), the relationship between the couple is transformed into a family system guided by an ‘executive subsystem’ (Minuchin, 1974). This new coparenting system is described as related but a distinct form of the already existing couple relationship (Schoppe-Sullivan et al., 2004). The interaction of two parents in relation to their child is the defining aspect of a coparenting relationship. It encompasses how parents interact with each other with regard to parenting roles and the degree to which they encourage or discourage each other in their efforts (McHale et al., 2004).

Good coparenting interactions are a vital component of how families function and contribute to the healthier development of children (Feinberg et al., 2007; Umemura et al., 2015). The growing literature on parenting highlights the direct effects of the quality of coparenting relationships on children’s well-being. Positive, collaborative coparenting that is affectionate and involves both partners equally tends to influence children’s social and emotional adjustment positively. Conversely, conflicts in coparenting increase the likelihood of various risks in children, such as externalizing and internalizing problems and insecure attachment. This information is well-documented in comprehensive reviews by McHale (1995, 1997). Even when considering the impact of marital dynamics and the quality of the relationship between each parent and the child, the association between coparenting and children’s outcomes remains evident (e.g., Belsky et al., 1996; McHale et al., 2004; McHale & Rasmussen, 1998; Schoppe et al., 2001).

Coparents collaborate, communicate effectively, share common expectations, and uphold a clear and consistent family structure that maintains boundaries between parents and children. Successful coparents act as leaders, guiding their children in line with family objectives while fostering the well-being of each family member. The dynamics within a couple’s relationship serve as fundamental building blocks for establishing family dynamics. Research has shown that the relationships between parents and coparenting are interconnected yet distinctive (Van Egeren & Hawkins, 2004). While the coparenting relationship is significantly influenced by experiences in early parenting stages, some suggest that this relationship begins even before the birth

of the child (Feinberg, 2002; Altenburger et al., 2014), while others argue that coparenting truly commences after the child is born (Van Egeren & Hawkins, 2004).

Other than when it is formed, researchers also investigated what affects the quality of a coparenting relationship. In addition to marital satisfaction, specific aspects of how expectant parents view their family relationships also predict future coparenting dynamics. Research suggests that the early development of coparenting behavior is associated with prospective parents' beliefs and worries about their future life (McHale et al., 2004). Furthermore, it is linked to their capacity to imagine and simulate future interactions within the family, characterized by positive emotional relationships between all members involved (Carneiro et al., 2006; Von Klitzing et al., 1999).

Coparenting researchers are particularly interested in the transition into parenthood, which marks a crucial phase in the life cycle of nuclear families, initiating the formation of coparenting relationships. Studies examining coparenting adjustments in married, heterosexual couples have identified distinct patterns of family interaction within the first 100 days following the birth of a first child. These early-established patterns serve as indicators of coparenting dynamics extending into the preschool years (Gable et al., 1995; Fivaz-Depeursinge et al., 1996; Schoppe-Sullivan et al., 2004). These efforts to observe and detect the initial trajectory of coparenting orientations are significant, given that the following studies reveal that coparenting challenges within the first year after becoming parents are predictive of adjustment difficulties experienced later by children (Fivaz et al., 1996; McHale & Rasmussen, 1998; Frosch et al., 2000).

Quality of coparenting significantly predicts children's and adolescents' behavioral and emotional well-being (Belsky et al., 1996; McHale, 2004). Several studies suggest that coparenting is a stronger predictor of parenting and child adjustment compared to other aspects of the couple's relationships (Feinberg, 2003). Numerous studies have explored the influence of coparenting quality on various social-emotional outcomes in children, such as social skills, prosocial behavior, as well as internalizing and externalizing problems (Cabrera et al., 2012; Jahromi et al., 2018; Schoppe et al., 2001; Scrimgeour et al., 2013). Teubert and Pinquart (2010) reviewed 59 studies and found

that coparenting is modestly but significantly related to children's social development, attachment, and both externalizing and internalizing symptoms. Importantly, the connection between the quality of coparenting and children's emotional and behavioral issues remained significant even when considering parenting styles and marital satisfaction.

In the following section, coparenting with relation to its predictors and outcomes was discussed further. Specifically, how father involvement is related to coparenting was elaborated within the Family Systems framework. Also, literature on father involvement with its conceptualization and measurement within the coparenting framework was integrated into this section. Later, maternal gatekeeping, as one of the subdimensions of coparenting, was discussed in relation to father involvement. The last section of the introduction chapter covers adult attachment among parents within the context of coparenting and relationship dynamics of parents.

1.2. Coparenting and Father Involvement

Because of its emphasis on the interconnectedness among family members, research from the family systems perspective has moved away from solely analyzing fathers' direct impacts on children's outcomes. Instead, it focuses on understanding the diverse ways both mothers and fathers collectively affect children as coparents. This approach involves examining how father involvement is associated with the coparenting relationship between parents, the parenting approaches employed by mothers, and the dynamics within the family, including communication patterns, parental conflicts within marriage, as well as sibling disputes and behavioral challenges (Pech et al., 2020; McClain & Brown, 2017; Richmond & Stocker, 2008). Therefore, this thesis considers father involvement and coparenting as interconnected concepts and discusses them together in the following sections.

1.2.1. Conceptualizing Father Involvement

Family systems theory describes the family as a social system rather than just focusing on the dyadic relationship between parent and child (Parke et al., 2006). A family is a social system with unique characteristics, rules, roles, behavioral patterns, and power

structures that go beyond the individual (Smith et al., 2009). As in any system, the family contains subsystems, such as sibling, parent-child, interparental, and coparenting subsystems. All members of this subsystem are considered interdependent as they directly or indirectly affect each other and other subsystems to some extent. Such an approach leads to questioning the causality and presumed unidirectionality of the relationships. Indeed, the relationships within each subsystem are transactional (Kuczynski, 2003). Also, these microsystems are embedded within macrosystems across different levels (Cox & Paley, 1997).

Deriving from the family systems perspective, a special journal issue was dedicated to theoretical models reflecting father involvement (Cabrera et al., 2007). Cabrera and her colleagues suggested an updated model after their initial model in 2007, compromising the complexity of the phenomenon (Cabrera et al., 2014). Rather than focusing on how fathers get involved in childcare, they examined the ways fathers contribute to children's well-being across different aspects of development. The systems approach embedded within their model provided an organismic explanation of father involvement rather than a mechanistic one (Barlas & Carpenter, 1990). The model aimed to: (a) systematically organize the study of fathers in relation to their children's well-being and development using a transactional dynamic systems framework, (b) account for factors influencing fathers' involvement with their children, (c) examine the factors that mediate or moderate the effects of father involvement on child outcomes, and (d) consider fathers' characteristics and parenting as mediators and moderators of other influences on their children's development (Cabrera et al., 2014, p. 348).

While parenting researchers can view coparenting couples as a single unit, and fatherhood researchers tend to regard nonresident fathers as unique; there is a necessity for further research to explore the distinct impact of fathers within married families from a systemic viewpoint. Palkovitz (2014) employed systems and feminist theories to argue that mothers and fathers influence children differently due to fundamental disparities in their roles and regulations within the family structure. However, they also underscored the limited use of systems theory in fatherhood research. Specifically, investigations into coparenting could benefit from a deeper integration of how the

relationship between mothers and fathers operates in both intact families and those where fathers are nonresident, recognizing both parents' unique and overlapping influences on their children. Furthermore, while systems theory predominantly focuses on the family unit itself, it tends to overlook other systems in which fathers are involved, such as schools, workplaces, and healthcare environments, which can significantly shape the children's development.

Defining father involvement through their distinct positions (e.g., nonresidential, single) or practices (e.g., discipline, play) made it challenging to establish a general theory. For example, in Turkish context, fathers might assume the '*veli*' role, who takes the full responsibility of school-related interactions and appointments of the children (see Yilmaz & Oznacar, 2016). Still, the comprehensive models based on the family systems approach helped clarify how fathers support their children's development. Also, they provided universal definitions of fathering that can be adapted across cultures. The development of models within the family systems approach evolved the binary absence/presence discussion of fathering into more detailed investigations of different practices. This line of research improved the father involvement research by highlighting the unique ways of fathers' parenting. Growing literature from this perspective raised the question of whether fathers have a distinct parenting role than mothers.

In their literature review, Anderson et al. (2013) explored the group of behaviors that can be categorized as the same or similar for both fathers and mothers when interacting with the child and the group of behaviors unique to fathers. One of the behaviors identified was physical playfulness, which was assessed during play when the father was playing with the child using toys from three bags (Fulgini & Brooks-Gunn, 2013). The validated physical playfulness behaviors for mothers were also found to be valid and reliable for fathers. However, higher playfulness displayed by fathers was associated with higher adverse outcomes, such as aggression for children, especially for boys. Moreover, research has demonstrated that father involvement can have a more pronounced impact on girls' development than on boys'. For example, Anderson et al. (2013) found that girls often experience enhanced emotional and social outcomes as a result of active father involvement.

The abovementioned conceptualization of father involvement during the 1970s and 1980s has shifted to broader definitions of fatherhood in recent years. While all the dimensions of parental involvement discussed above remain significant, cultural, economic, religious, and social variations have also been taken into consideration. Different models of father involvement were suggested (Belsky, 1984; Bronfenbrenner, 1995; Cabrera et al., 2007; Cabrera et al., 2014; Riegel, 1979; Sameroff, 1995), including various potential influences on fathers' parenting behavior, such as individual-level predictors (e.g., parenting history, sociodemographic characteristics, personality), family-level predictors (e.g., interparental relationships, household socioeconomic status), and social-level predictors (e.g., social network, economic circumstances, political context).

1.2.2. Measuring Father Involvement

The evaluation of fatherhood is inevitably influenced by the values held by researchers and society as a whole. Whenever the perceived roles of fathers within society are at risk or appear to be inadequately fulfilled, research often follows to explore the impact of such 'role failure' on fathers, families, and society. For instance, concerns about fathers who were deployed or deceased during World War II sparked worries about their sons (Pleck, 2004). Within this framework, research on fatherhood primarily focused on the father's presence in the household. According to this conceptualization, fatherhood could be measured as a binary variable indicating whether the father was present or absent. With the changing gender roles, fathers were increasingly viewed as coparents expected to engage in all facets of their children's lives (Pleck, 2004). During this period, there was a surge in scholarly interest regarding the quantity and nature of the time fathers spent with their children. As attitudes about fathering continued to evolve, greater attention was placed on the emotional quality and affective aspects of their involvement.

The first studies on father involvement employed a time-use perspective to measure fathers' involvement in childcare activities. Researchers examined the statistics of two-parent families with unemployed mothers and revealed much less paternal involvement. Also, fathers assumed minimal responsibility for childcare (Lamb et al.,

1987; Pleck, 1997). On the other hand, researchers reported an increase in father involvement in families with employed mothers, while maternal employment did not have an impact on the responsibility fathers assume. Therefore, researchers challenged the commonly agreed idea that maternal employment would affect the fathers' involvement. Still, the time fathers dedicate to their children has increased, especially for direct caregiving, such as feeding (Bianchi, 2011; Lee & Lee, 2018). The proportion of physical childcare provided by mothers compared to fathers significantly declined during this period, which affected the proportion of parental involvement (Schoppe-Sullivan & Fagan, 2020), while the depth of fathers' involvement did not change. Hence, it can be argued that the time-use perspective in measuring father involvement neglects the quality of the interaction between parents and children.

Later, observational and self-report assessments of parental involvement revealed that mothers and fathers differ in terms of the childcare activities they get involved (Lamb, 1981; 1997). Mothers' involvement predominantly consisted of primary caregiving activities, while fathers primarily engaged in leisure time activities. While these differences can be found from the early years of infancy towards childhood, they do not mean that fathers have less ability to perform childcare activities. However, these studies aiming to assess fathers' time spent with their children and the nature of those activities often used small, non-representative samples, which is an ongoing issue in developmental research (Nielsen et al., 2017). Despite some research involving samples of mothers and fathers with higher generalizability, substantial gaps in our understanding persist. The availability of such data might suggest an easy determination of average paternal time investment. However, early assessments in the late 1970s presented widely varying estimates, from a mere 37 seconds daily to a substantial 8 hours (DeFrain, 1975; Rebelsky & Hanks, 1971). These conflicting differences prompted thorough investigations into why the data were so inconsistent and how to obtain more reliable estimations.

One possible explanation is that the initial assessments of paternal involvement primarily relied on concepts and measurements of effective parenting derived from research and theories on mothers, neglecting research and theories tailored explicitly to describe, explain, and predict father involvement (Robbins et al., 2019). While using

mother involvement as a reference point might be a starting point for constructing measures of father involvement, failure to study fathers as a distinct group in their own right will likely overlook aspects crucial to the fatherhood experience. Additionally, the conventional measure for evaluating fathering often relies on comparisons with mothering. When fathers parent differently in terms of style or quantity compared to mothers, they are frequently judged as deficient. Whether father involvement is measured with time-diary recordings, structured task observations, in-depth interviews, self-reports, or ethnographic studies, it is crucial for any assessment to avoid simply adopting a model based on maternal roles for understanding father engagement and be sensitive to the specific contexts (Shwalb et al., 2013).

Another explanation is that the characterizations of father involvement differ based on studies, which arises from the differing implicit definitions of parental engagement across various studies. This difference makes comparing studies difficult. To address this, researchers initially grouped studies based on similarities in their implicit definitions of paternal involvement (Lamb et al., 1985; 1987). These broader and more inclusive definitions of father involvement have been dominating the literature since the 1980s, before which research focused on unitary dimensions (Palkovitz, 1997). The types of activities fathers engage in, such as play and physical care, and their quality (e.g., warmth, affect, sensitivity) and quantity started to be differentiated (Palkovitz, 1997; Parke, 1996).

The commonly used model suggests three main dimensions of parental involvement for analysis (Lamb et al., 1985):

1. Engagement: This dimension involves direct, one-on-one interactions with the child, such as feeding, assisting with schoolwork, or playing together. This category excludes activities like child-related housework or merely being in the same room while the child plays elsewhere.

2. Accessibility: This category encompasses activities where the parent is available to the child but involves less intense interaction. For instance, cleaning the bedroom while the child plays nearby falls under accessibility.

3. Responsibility: The most challenging to define, responsibility involves ultimate parental care for the child's well-being. It includes tasks like arranging

medical appointments, ensuring childcare, providing clothing, and nurturing the child, often not involving direct interaction, which makes it challenging to quantify. Also, researchers may not easily observe this type of involvement since it includes emotional commitment, like feeling worried.

After distinguishing these involvement components, researchers noted more consistency across studies, yet significant discrepancies persisted. These inconsistencies partly stemmed from applying these distinctions retrospectively to earlier studies, resulting in varied definitions of engagement, accessibility, and responsibility across different research. For instance, an activity like taking a child to a park might be categorized differently in different studies. To meaningfully integrate and compare findings from diverse studies, Lamb et al. (1987) suggested different scholars' unique conceptualization of involvement. These multiple definitions involve using relative rather than absolute measures of paternal involvement to compare it to other caregivers. Instead of solely comparing the absolute time of father involvement with children, proportional statistics are computed (e.g., comparing fathers' interaction time to mothers). When these proportional figures are compared, despite methodological differences such as diary versus estimated time use, sample size, study sample, and study dates, surprisingly similar results emerged across various studies (Lamb, 2000).

Despite these consistencies in results, theoretically driven measures still need to be adjusted for fathers (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Roggman et al., 2002). Most of the existing measures used in the father involvement studies were based on theories explaining the importance of maternal involvement (Adamsons & Buehler, 2007). Researchers still need clarity on the consistencies and discrepancies of some parenting measures applied to fathers and whether the subdimensions employed in parenting measures reveal the central and unique constructs of father involvement (Day & Lamb, 2004; Cook et al., 2011).

1.2.3. Predictors of Father Involvement

The predictors of father involvement are multifaceted and influenced by a range of individual, familial, and contextual factors. The individual-level predictors include

fathers' personal history, comprising their parenting history (Guzzo, 2011; Shade et al., 2012), cultural and ethnic background (Cabrera et al., 2011; DeMaris et al., 2011), and biological makeup reflecting their psychopathology (Davis et al., 2009; Paulson et al., 2011). Also, fathers' characteristics, such as age, education level, personality traits, and role identity, are associated with their level of involvement with children (Adamson & Pasley, 2013; Castillo et al., 2011; Freeman et al., 2008; Holmes & Huston, 2010).

On the other hand, the family-level predictors include family contextual factors, such as the relationships between different family members, socioeconomic conditions of the family, daily life practices and routines of the family, and whether there are extraordinary family circumstances (e.g., loss of a family member; Cabrera et al., 2011; Saleh & Hilton, 2011). Not only fathers' characteristics but also mothers' age, level of education, subjective well-being, and children's age, sex, and temperament are also the family context-related predictors of fathering behavior (Cabrera et al., 2011; de Falco et al., 2008; Mehall et al., 2009; Meteyer & Perry-Jenkins, 2010; Paulson et al., 2011; Tach et al., 2010), such that fathers involve with their sons more than their daughters and dedicate more time to them across different age groups (Pleck, 1997). Also, research revealed consistent findings for the effect of mothers' gatekeeping attitudes (i.e., behaviors encouraging or discouraging fathers' involvement) on fathers' involvement (Allen & Hawkins, 1999; Cannon et al., 2008; Meteyer & Perry-Jenkins, 2010; Schoppe-Sullivan et al., 2008).

Lastly, regarding the social-level predictors of father involvement, some studies focused on fathers' social networks and work environments. Research has been suggesting consistent results on the associations between fathers' work conditions and social networks and how much they are involved in childcare (Darling & Steinberg, 1993; Hook & Wolfe, 2012; Kohn, 1969). Their social network is also effective in terms of the human and social capital they bring into their parenting process (Belsky, 1984; Hofferth & Sandberg, 2001). Besides fathers' work conditions, maternal employment has also been found to be influential in the types of activities fathers engage in and assume responsibility for (Pleck, 1983).

Comprehensive family leave policies, such as those providing paternity leave, have been shown to increase fathers' participation in childcare and domestic duties (Seward et al., 2002). Similarly, welfare policies that offer financial support and resources for families can enhance father involvement by alleviating economic pressures (Haas & Hwang, 2008). Socioeconomic factors, including job security and income levels, also play a crucial role, as fathers with stable economic conditions are more likely to engage actively in parenting (Sayer et al., 2004). Comparative studies reveal that these effects are moderated by cultural and policy environments, illustrating how different countries' social policies and norms shape father involvement (Karu & Tremblay, 2017). Collectively, these findings underscore the importance of supportive social and policy frameworks in promoting active fatherhood. Nonetheless, research has not been very successful in establishing the effects of economic, cultural, and political aspects on quality of paternal involvement. Mackay and Immerman's (2009) descriptive research of various cultures suggested variation in fathering practices, yet cross-cultural studies with fathers from various socioeconomic backgrounds are needed (Shwalb et al., 2013).

Overall, fathers' involvement is bidirectional and dynamic as it is affected by the children's and mothers' perceptions regarding family dynamics, which changes as children adjust their internal representations of their caregiver figures (Ammaniti & Gallese, 2014; Boyle et al., 2004; Kuczynski & Parkin, 2007). In turn, these family dynamics affect children's development, especially in the early years of life, regarding various developmental aspects (e.g., cognitive and social; Fitzgerald & Bockneck, 2013; Fitzgerald & Bradley, 2013).

1.2.4. Coparenting

As father involvement research has expanded, there has been a growing focus on coparenting, which is a crucial component of the family dynamic that emphasizes the quality of cooperation between parents in their roles (Feinberg, 2003). The coparenting relationship, often seen as the family's "executive subsystem," is more closely linked to child outcomes compared to other elements of the interparental relationship (Frosch et al., 2000; McHale & Rasmussen, 1998).

Theories emphasizing how father involvement is influenced by social and family contexts (Goeke-Morey & Cummings, 2007; Marsiglio et al., 2005; Townsend, 2002) propose that supportive coparenting fosters greater father involvement, whereas conflictual coparenting can obstruct fathers' engagement in childcare. Although coparenting impacts father involvement significantly, the influence is reciprocal, as family subsystems affect each other (Minuchin, 1974; Whitchurch & Constantine, 1993). Increased paternal involvement in traditionally maternal caregiving roles might reduce maternal stress and 'role overload' (Kalil et al., 2005), thereby fostering supportive coparenting. Conversely, this involvement could trigger maternal discouragement behaviors, where mothers, either consciously or unconsciously, attempt to maintain their parenting authority (Allen & Hawkins, 1999; McBride et al., 2005; Schoppe-Sullivan et al., 2008).

Besides the significance of the interplay between coparenting and paternal involvement, coparenting has a significant impact on child development. Research suggests several ways in which coparenting influences children. The first developmental aspect affected by coparenting relationships is the emotional well-being of the child. Positive coparenting, characterized by cooperation, support, and effective communication between parents, fosters a nurturing environment for children. On the other hand, the lack of these dimensions characterizes negative coparenting, in which both parents simultaneously adopt dysfunctional parenting behaviors. Children who witness healthy coparenting are more likely to feel secure and emotionally stable (McHale & Lindahl, 2011). The second significance of the quality of coparenting relationships for children is the development of social skills. Coparenting affects children's social development by modeling interpersonal relationships. When parents collaborate and resolve conflicts constructively, children learn valuable social skills such as empathy, cooperation, and conflict resolution (Teubert & Pinquart, 2010).

Recent evidence underscores the pivotal role of coparenting in socio-emotional development. For instance, McHale, Rao, and Krasnow (2000) found a correlation between higher levels of coparental conflict, as reported by mothers, and increased behavioral problems in Chinese preschoolers. Yuan (2016) observed a negative

relationship between mother-reported coparenting quality and externalizing/internalizing behaviors, while both maternal and paternal reports of coparenting quality were positively associated with children's social competence. Similarly, Lam, Tam, Chung, and Li (2018) found that children with negative affect had higher peer acceptance, social cognition, and social competence when they were exposed to higher coparental cooperation. These findings align across various cultural contexts, suggesting consistent patterns in the relationship between coparenting and children's social-emotional development.

Moreover, the quality of coparenting within two-parent families influences children's behavioral adjustment. High levels of conflict or inconsistent parenting between parents can lead to behavioral problems such as aggression, defiance, or anxiety in children (Margolin et al., 2001). Positive coparenting also contributes to children's academic success. When parents work together to support their children's education, provide consistent routines, and communicate effectively with teachers, children are more likely to thrive academically (Feinberg, 2003). Finally, coparenting influences children's ability to cope with stress and adversity. When parents provide a supportive and cohesive family environment, children learn effective coping strategies and resilience in facing life's challenges (McHale & Lindahl, 2011).

In summary, coparenting plays a crucial role in shaping various aspects of child development, including emotional well-being, social skills, behavioral adjustment, academic achievement, self-esteem, and coping skills. Positive coparenting promotes a healthy and supportive family environment, which lays the foundation for children to thrive and reach their full potential. Karreman et al. (2008) propose that mutual support and coordination in coparenting foster a sense of security and belongingness in the family, whereas undermining each other's parenting efforts may model negative negotiation patterns and give children inconsistent signals. Consequently, children who grow up with families with high-quality coparenting relationships exhibit positive socioemotional adjustment, higher emotional security, and enhanced self-regulation.

1.3. Maternal Gatekeeping

Maternal gatekeeping as a subdimension of coparenting was defined as mothers' preferences and struggles to either restrict or encourage fathers' involvement in childcare and domestic tasks (Allen & Hawkins, 1999). It includes behaviors that either promote or discourage paternal involvement. Schoppe-Sullivan et al. (2008) distinguished between maternal gate opening (encouraging paternal involvement) and gate closing (discouraging paternal involvement). Gate closing behaviors include criticizing fathers' parenting, redoing their completed tasks, and controlling childcaring decisions. Conversely, gate opening behaviors involve complimenting the father's parenting, inviting him to do childcare tasks, or seeking his opinion on parenting issues (Trinder, 2008). While these behaviors are interconnected, they represent different facets of gatekeeping. Some mothers may show varying levels of both gate opening and gate closing, whether high or low (Schoppe-Sullivan et al., 2015).

One key motivation behind maternal gatekeeping is traditional gender attitudes, viewing mothers as the 'natural' caregivers (Aytac, 2021; Schoppe-Sullivan et al., 2021). Fathers are not passive in this process, and there is increasing interest in their perspectives on their roles (Schoppe-Sullivan et al., 2015). From a symbolic interactionist perspective, social roles come with expectations and perceptions that shape individual behaviors (LaRossa & Reitzes, 1993; Stryker & Statham, 1985). Thus, the boundaries between men's and women's roles and their transmission through gatekeeping are influenced by these perceptions. Mothers' expectations of fathers' involvement and fathers' perceptions of maternal gatekeeping are crucial in defining gate opening and closing processes, affecting the physical and psychological closeness between fathers and children and mothers and fathers (Schoppe-Sullivan et al., 2016).

Variations in maternal gatekeeping are affected by mothers' beliefs in traditional gender roles and biological essentialism, which are linked to more gate closing (Gaunt, 2008; Kulik & Tsoref, 2010; Meteyer & Perry-Jenkins, 2010). Additionally, maternal psychological well-being and expectations contribute, with poorer psychological functioning, heightened partner-oriented parenting perfectionism, and feelings of

relationship instability being associated with increased gate closing (Schoppe-Sullivan et al., 2015). Behavioral observations show that mothers facilitate less paternal involvement when fathers exhibit higher negative emotionality or neuroticism, indicating that gatekeeping may be a protective response to risky paternal traits (Thomas & Holmes, 2020). Furthermore, the only study examining the relationship between adult attachment and maternal gatekeeping revealed that highly anxious mothers discouraged fathers' involvement more, and highly avoidant fathers perceived lower encouragement by mothers (Aytac & Schoppe-Sullivan, 2023).

Despite changing norms, domestic tasks, including childcare, are often seen as primarily women's responsibility, reinforcing their gender identity (Coltrane, 2000; Doucet, 2001). Gendered beliefs, attitudes, and higher standards of accountability help understand maternal gatekeeping practices, which reaffirm and reproduce traditional roles (Thebaud et al., 2019). In Türkiye, low father involvement and high perceived maternal gatekeeping by fathers were reported (Aytac, 2021), even when both partners were working remotely from home during the global pandemic (Aytac & Schoppe-Sullivan, 2024). This suggests that Turkish women are considered skilled emotional managers during times of need (Kağıtçıbaşı & Ataca, 2015) and are expected to take on more domestic tasks involving relationship regulation, especially during transitional periods.

In conclusion, maternal gatekeeping is a multifaceted component of the coparenting relationship that significantly influences fathers' involvement in childcare and domestic tasks. Rooted in traditional gender roles and maternal psychological functioning, gatekeeping behaviors can either support or hinder paternal engagement. This dynamic underscores the importance of addressing maternal beliefs and attitudes to foster a more balanced distribution of parenting responsibilities. Furthermore, understanding the reciprocal nature of these behaviors and their impact on family functioning is crucial, especially in diverse cultural contexts.

1.4. Adult Attachment

The transition to parenthood (TTP) can be a challenging period, especially for first-time parents, as it involves establishing new connections and adjusting existing ones

(Kluwer, 2010). Additionally, new parents commonly undergo a decrease in marital satisfaction, along with diminished sexual activity, reduced shared time, and shifts in responsibilities regarding household tasks (Doss & Rhoades, 2017; Maas et al., 2018). However, some parents adapt more smoothly than others, with psychological adjustment emerging as a pivotal factor influencing their navigation through the TTP (Don & Mickelson, 2014; Holmes et al., 2013).

Theoretical models that explore the predictors of parenting and coparenting emphasize the significant impact of parents' psychological health on their effectiveness in these roles (Belsky, 1984; Bornstein, 2015; Feinberg, 2003). During stressful periods, such as the TTP, attachment-related cognitive frameworks become particularly salient (Bowlby, 1958, 1970). These frameworks are influenced by early life attachments, which shape individuals' self-concept and relational perspectives throughout their lives (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2012). Consequently, these early attachments also affect how individuals perceive and manage expectations regarding both giving and receiving support (Bowlby, 1970). Understanding this connection highlights the critical role that early attachment experiences play in influencing current parenting and coparenting dynamics, especially under stress.

Attachment theory posits that early caregiver relationships have lasting impacts on behavior and perceptions in close relationships (Bowlby, 1958, 1970). Secure attachments develop from consistent care, while inconsistent or negligent care leads to insecure attachments (Ainsworth et al., 1978). These early attachment patterns continue to influence interactions with peers, romantic partners, and children, affecting how individuals navigate and maintain their relationships throughout life (Bowlby, 1958, 1970).

Adult attachment can be understood through two dimensions: anxiety and avoidance (Fraley et al., 2000; Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994). Those who score low on both dimensions demonstrate secure attachment, characterized by effective emotional regulation and positive perceptions of themselves and others (Brennan et al., 1998; Cassidy, 1994). On the other hand, high attachment anxiety involves excessive focus on attachment-related concerns, while high attachment avoidance involves distancing

in relationships and suppressing attachment-related feelings (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005).

Secure individuals typically form long-lasting, satisfying relationships with supportive partners (Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Kirkpatrick & Davis, 1994; Mikulincer et al., 2003). On the contrary, individuals with high avoidance tend to have brief, less satisfying relationships, and anxious individuals exhibit obsessive and distrustful behaviors in their relationships (Candel & Turliuc, 2019; Kirkpatrick & Davis, 1994; Shaver & Brennan, 1992).

During times of relational change, like TTP, heightened avoidance or anxiety can exacerbate stressors like reduced shared time and changing responsibilities, affecting adaptation (Feeney et al., 2003; Simpson & Rholes, 2019). New parents' psychological adjustment and parenting behaviors are found to be affected by adult attachment styles (Alexander et al., 2001; Feeney, 2003; Olsavsky et al., 2020). Higher dissatisfaction in adapting to parenthood is associated with insecure attachment (Kohn et al., 2012), as individuals with high anxiety frequently perceive lower levels of partner support, while those with high avoidance tend to offer less support (Simpson et al., 2002; Wilson et al., 2007).

Although only one study reports a direct link between adult attachment and maternal gatekeeping behavior (Aytac & Schoppe-Sullivan, 2023), related research suggests that adult attachment also plays a role in various dimensions of coparenting relationships. Firstly, insecure attachment is linked to greater dissatisfaction with a partner's participation in childcare (Feeney, 2003). Second, in accordance with attachment theory and support literature, anxious fathers tend to perceive less coparenting support (Schoppe-Sullivan et al., 2016). Finally, research indicates that high levels of anxiety and avoidance are linked to lower family consistency and higher conflict, which negatively impacts coparenting dynamics, with reduced coparenting cooperation and increased coparenting conflict (Mikulincer & Florian, 1999; Pedro et al., 2015; Roberson et al., 2010). These findings collectively underscore the importance of understanding how adult attachment styles can shape and influence coparenting interactions and, consequently, child outcomes. A meta-analytic study of

16 studies found a significant positive association between parents' insecure adult attachment and child maltreatment (Lo et al., 2019). These dynamics can significantly affect child outcomes by contributing to a less stable and supportive family environment. Increased coparenting conflict and decreased cooperation may lead to less effective parenting practices, which can, in turn, impact children's emotional and behavioral development (Feinberg, 2003; Margolin et al., 2001).

Overall, the transition to parenthood can be a challenging period influenced by psychological factors, such as adult attachment styles. As new parents navigate the challenges of establishing and adjusting relationships, their attachment orientations can significantly shape their experiences and interactions. Secure attachment promotes adaptive coping and positive relationship dynamics, while insecure attachment, marked by anxiety or avoidance, may exacerbate stress and hinder effective coparenting. Exploring the role of adult attachment in coparenting can provide valuable insights for interventions aimed at supporting parents during this pivotal life phase, fostering healthier family dynamics, and enhancing overall parental well-being.

1.5. The Current Study

The central focus of the measurements of father involvement varies based on the conceptualization of fatherhood, and how to measure fathering behavior best needs to be clarified. It is crucial to explore the relationships between different aspects of father involvement and understand how changes in one aspect, such as responsibility, impact others, like availability. Additionally, examining father involvement within a comprehensive conceptual framework that measures various facets of paternal engagement is essential to comprehend its specific meaning and significance (Parke & Buriel, 2006; Schoppe-Sullivan et al., 2004). Finally, differences and similarities between mothers and fathers based on particular parenting behaviors, such as sensitivity or challenge, and its outcomes for children need to be addressed further. Since it is a developing research area, cross-cultural validation these different measurements of fathering behavior can help researchers fully characterize the predictors and outcomes of father involvement. Therefore, the aim of Study 1 was to

translate the Parental Involvement Scale (PIS; Monteiro et al., 2008) into Turkish and to test its psychometric properties.

As a significant predictor of coparenting, maternal gatekeeping has been validated by several researchers both theoretically and empirically by investigating the direct and indirect effects of it on father involvement. This has led to a more nuanced understanding of maternal influences on father involvement, such as differentiating between play and discipline. This implies that the influence of maternal gatekeeping can differ depending on the context and may not be equally important in every aspect of fatherhood (Beitel & Parke, 1998). However, it is important to acknowledge that the concept of gatekeeping is controversial. Some scholars argue that other factors are more influential in determining father involvement and that the gatekeeping construct unfairly places the responsibility for low levels of father involvement on mothers (Walker & McGraw, 2000). In order to understand the relationship between gatekeeping and parental involvement in Turkish cultural context, Study 2 aims to translate the ‘gate closing’ subscale of the Parental Regulation Inventory (PRI; Van Egeren, 2000) into Turkish and to test its psychometric properties.

Research indicates that maternal gatekeeping attitudes and behaviors influence father involvement (Fagan & Barnett, 2003; Schoppe-Sullivan et al., 2008). In particular, maternal gatekeeping can influence how fathers’ beliefs about their roles affect their level of involvement with their children. Also, adult attachment styles influence new parents’ psychological adjustment, parenting behaviors, and maternal gatekeeping (Aytac & Schoppe-Sullivan, 2023; Feeney, 2003; Olsavsky et al., 2020). However, no previous study has investigated the relationship between adult attachment and parental involvement by controlling maternal gatekeeping. To address this gap and enhance our understanding of how adult attachment interacts with maternal gatekeeping to influence parental involvement, Study 3 was designed to explore these dynamics within the context of Turkish parents.

The hypotheses for Study 3 are as follows: (i) Greater maternal attachment anxiety is expected to be associated with lower paternal involvement, even when controlling for maternal gate closing and gate opening. This is because highly anxious mothers are

anticipated to be more concerned and controlling in the triadic relationship of mother, father, and child; (ii) Higher paternal attachment avoidance is predicted to be associated with lower paternal involvement, controlling for maternal gate closing and gate opening. Fathers with higher avoidance levels are expected to perceive their relationship as more distant and less cooperative. Furthermore, mothers might be more likely to discourage and less likely to encourage active involvement from avoidant fathers, due to the perceived relational risks associated with insecure romantic attachment, potentially leading mothers to protect their children from avoidant fathers.

The results of this study have significant implications for both clinical practice and research. By incorporating adult attachment into theoretical models of father involvement and coparenting, this study aims to explore a crucial dimension that has been previously underexamined. Investigating the interplay between adult attachment and coparenting while controlling for maternal gatekeeping can deepen our understanding of parenting dynamics and inform the development of targeted interventions. Such interventions, which adopt a multifaceted approach to address both individual and relational factors, have shown promise in enhancing parental mental health, coparenting quality, and infant development. For example, interventions designed for couples during pregnancy and the postpartum period have demonstrated positive outcomes in these areas (Feinberg et al., 2009). Ultimately, this research is poised to fill critical gaps in our knowledge of how romantic relationships impact coparenting dynamics during the crucial transition to parenthood, offering valuable insights for both theoretical advancement and practical application.

CHAPTER 2

STUDY 1: ADAPTATION OF PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT SCALE TO TURKISH

2.1. Method

2.1.1. Participants

The research sample consisted of different-sex couples who were over the age of 18 and had children between the ages of 3-6, residing in various cities across Türkiye. The age group was determined based on the original study eligibility requirements (see Monteiro et al., 2008). The sample size was determined following the criteria set forth by Nunnally (1978) as 10 participants for each item in the scale (10 x 26 = 260 mothers and 260 fathers). Initially, 355 couples ($N = 710$) were recruited. If parents had multiple children within this age range, they were asked to report on their oldest child. Divorced, living separately, and couples with no children were excluded from the study. (see Section 2.2.2. for detailed information)

2.1.2. Measures

2.1.2.1. Demographic Information Form

The Demographic Information Form included questions such as the age of the mother, father, and child, the sex of the child, as well as the employment status of the mother and father, and their education level.

2.1.2.2. COVID-19 Information Form

The COVID-19 Information Form prepared by the researcher was used to obtain information about possible changes in childcare routines related to the global

pandemic. In this form, parents were asked to indicate the changes in their care, play, and learning child involvement routines, along with the time they spent with their children, on a 5-point Likert Scale (1 = Not changed at all, 5 = Completely changed).

2.1.2.3. The Parental Involvement Scale

The Parental Involvement Scale (PIS; Monteiro et al., 2008) is a 26-item scale designed to assess the degree to which parents are involved in childcare activities in routine daily family life. The instrument comprises five dimensions: 1) Direct Care (5 items) focuses on tasks involving direct contact and interaction with the child (e.g., Who feeds the child?); 2) Indirect Care (7 items) involves activities related to arranging resources for the child, which do not necessarily require interaction (e.g., Who usually buys clothes for your child?); 3) Teaching/Discipline (5 items) pertains to teaching skills and rules to the child (e.g., Who discusses sensitive topics with the child, such as death or how babies are born?); 4) Play (5 items) covers play activities between the child and the parent (e.g., Who engages in more physical games with your child, like football or piggyback?); 5) Leisure Outdoors (4 items) includes activities done with the child outside the home (e.g., Who takes your child to activities outside the house, like the zoo or the park?).

The questionnaire evaluates each parent's relative involvement, reflecting how activities are divided or shared between them. Both parents independently answered on a 5-point scale: (1) always the mother, (2) almost always the mother, (3) both the mother and the father, (4) almost always the father, and (5) always the father. The involvement of one parent is thus calculated as the portion of activities not attributed to the other parent, with higher scores indicating greater paternal involvement. The Cronbach's alpha (α) was .84 for mothers and .85 for fathers.

2.1.3. Procedure

After approval from the authors who developed the scale was obtained, the scale was translated from English to Turkish. In this process, the scale items were translated into Turkish using the translation-back-translation method by two native Turkish speakers

who knew English at an advanced level. After obtaining ethical approval (see Appendix A), an online survey was created using Qualtrics software. Participants were reached through convenience sampling via social media (i.e., Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, WhatsApp) and email groups. Participants were able to view other questions after approving the consent form shown on the first page.

2.1.4. Analytic Strategy

SPSS version 29.0.1. was used for descriptive analyses. The theoretical model of parental involvement by Monteiro, Veríssimo, and Pessoa e Costa (2008) suggests five subdimensions: direct care, indirect care, teaching/discipline, play, and leisure outside the home. However, no previous research has performed an exploratory factor analysis on the Parental Involvement Scale to validate it within a Turkish sample. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was conducted with SPSS version 29.0.1. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was performed for the dimensions based on EFA results. The models were tested with SPSS AMOS 29.0.1. The fit of the model was evaluated using various indices: the chi-square test, where a non-significant result indicates a good fit; the root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA), with values below .06 considered acceptable; and the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), with values above .95 deemed acceptable (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Rather than chi-square, chi-square/df ratio is used (chi-square/df; values < 5 are acceptable) given that it is affected by sample size. (Cole, 1987; Hu & Bentler, 1999).

2.2. Results

2.2.1. Data Screening

Initially, 355 couples ($N = 710$) were recruited for the current study. Participants who did not approve the consent form ($n = 4$) were excluded from the analysis. Next, 14 couples ($n = 28$) who did not meet the eligibility criteria (e.g., child age, marital status) were excluded from the analysis. Also, 79 couples ($n = 158$) who did not complete the Parental Involvement Scale were excluded from the analysis. Eventually, data from 260 couples ($N = 520$) were analyzed.

Table 2.1. Sociodemographic characteristics of participants in study 1 (N = 520)

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Mother Age	32.98	7.08
Father Age	36.14	7.79
Child Age	3.92	1.56
	<i>n</i>	%
Mother Education Level		
Less Than High School	59	23.3
High School	51	19.2
Some College	121	46.2
Graduate	29	11.3
Father Education Level		
Less Than High School	35	13.8
High School	64	24.6
Some College	126	48.3
Graduate	55	13.3
Mother Employment		
Not Working	117	45
Part-Time	33	12.7
Full-Time	110	42.3
Father Employment		
Not Working	25	9.6
Part-Time	35	13.5
Full-Time	200	76.9

2.2.3. Variable Characteristics

The means and standard deviations of the study variables, which are parental involvement scales for mothers and fathers, can be found in Table 2.2 below.

Table 2.2. Statistical values of study variables

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min	Max	Skewness	Kurtosis
PIS						
Mother	74.62	13.19	26	149	-.02	5.44
Father	75.49	13.47	33	155	.52	4.75

2.2.4. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) Results for Parental Involvement Scale

The initial exploratory factor analysis recommended a four-factor model. In our model, indoor and outdoor play activities had loadings for the same factor. Also, instead of

indirect care, the item loadings showed a different pattern, with school-related involvements having high loadings on the same factor, which was named “school-related activities” (items 10, 15, 20, 24, and 26). Items 2, 4, 6, and 12 exhibited high cross-loadings ($>.30$) on two different factors. Consequently, they were removed from the model because items with loadings on multiple factors can artificially increase inter-factor correlations and complicate factor interpretation (Pett et al., 2003). The results from the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) showed that the remaining factors had an adequate number of items with strong factor loadings. Thus, the four-factor model was subsequently tested using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA).

2.2.5. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) Results for Parental Involvement Scale

2.2.5.1. Direct Care

CFA results for direct care parental involvement revealed the model fit indices as $\chi^2(5) = 26.407, p < .001; \chi^2/df = 5.28; RMSEA = .091, CFI = .948$. Considering these indices, RMSEA (between .05 - .10) and $CFI > .90$, the results showed a good fit for the model (Hooper et al., 2008). Factor loadings ranged from .37 to .74 (see Figure 2.1).

2.2.5.2. Discipline/Teaching

CFA results for parental involvement in discipline/teaching revealed the model fit indices as $\chi^2(5) = 11.946, p < .05; \chi^2/df = 2.389; RMSEA = .052, CFI = .980$. Considering RMSEA (= .05) and $CFI > .95$, the model showed a good fit. Factor loadings ranged from .40 to .69 (See Figure 2.2).

2.2.5.3. Play

CFA results for parental involvement in play activities revealed the model fit indices as $\chi^2(14) = 31.177, p < .01; \chi^2/df = 2.227; RMSEA = .049, CFI = .958$. Considering

RMSEA (= .05) and CFI > .95, the model showed a good fit. Factor loadings ranged from .35 to .58 (see Figure 2.3).

2.2.5.4. School-Related Activities

CFA results for parental involvement in school-related activities revealed the model fit indices as $\chi^2(5) = 25.287, p < .001; \chi^2/df = 5.057; RMSEA = .088, CFI = .987$. Considering RMSEA (between .05 - .10) and CFI > .95, the model showed a good fit. Factor loadings ranged from .56 to .85 (see Figure 2.4).

2.3. Discussion

The results of Study 1 suggested a four-factor model. While the original scale had five factors (direct care, indirect care, discipline/teaching, play, and leisure outdoors), the Turkish adaptation of the scale had the following factors: direct care, discipline/teaching, play, and school-related activities. Direct care included five items related to caregiving tasks that involve direct contact and interaction with the child (e.g., Who feeds the child?). The discipline/teaching subscale also had five items that included interactions with the child to teach skills and rules (e.g., Who deals with your child's misbehaviors?). The play subscale consisted of seven items focused on play activities involving the child and parent (e.g., Who plays physical games with the child: football or rough and tumble?). Finally, instead of indirect care, the item loadings showed a different pattern, with school-related involvements having high loadings on the same factor, which was named "school-related activities". This factor had five items that were all activities related to school or after-school events requiring the parent to pick the child up or take the child somewhere, such as "Who takes your child to school and picks her/him up after school?" The emergence of the school-related activities factor reveals the well-established '*veli*' role of a parent in early years of education of a child in Türkiye as emphasized in the introduction section and discussed in the Chapter 5 further.

Figure 2.1. CFA results for parental involvement in direct care

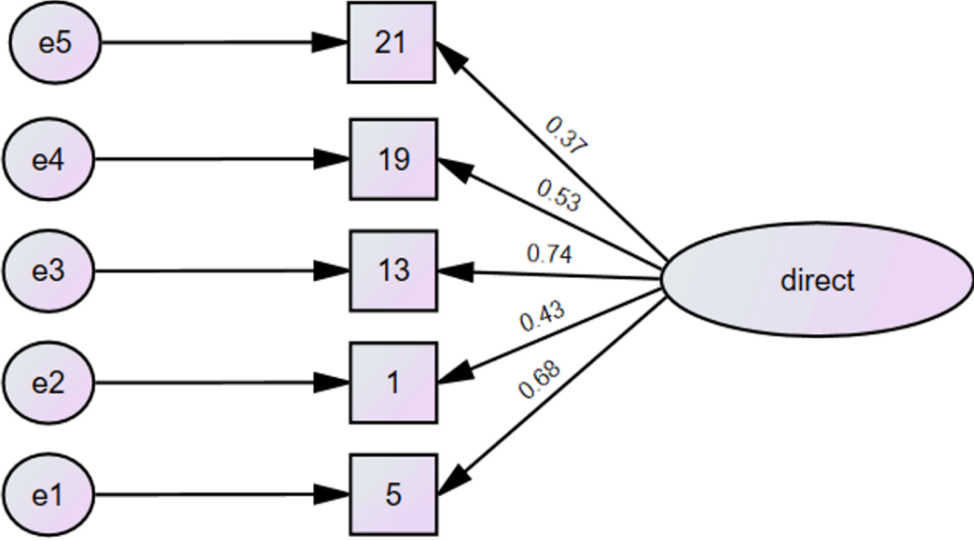


Figure 2.2. CFA results for parental involvement in discipline/teaching

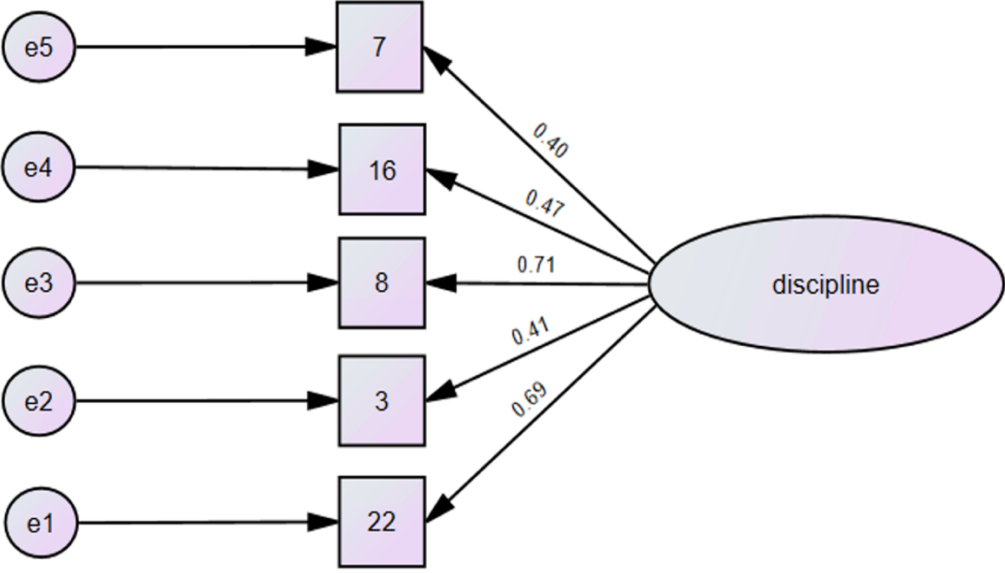


Figure 2.3. CFA results for parental involvement in play activities

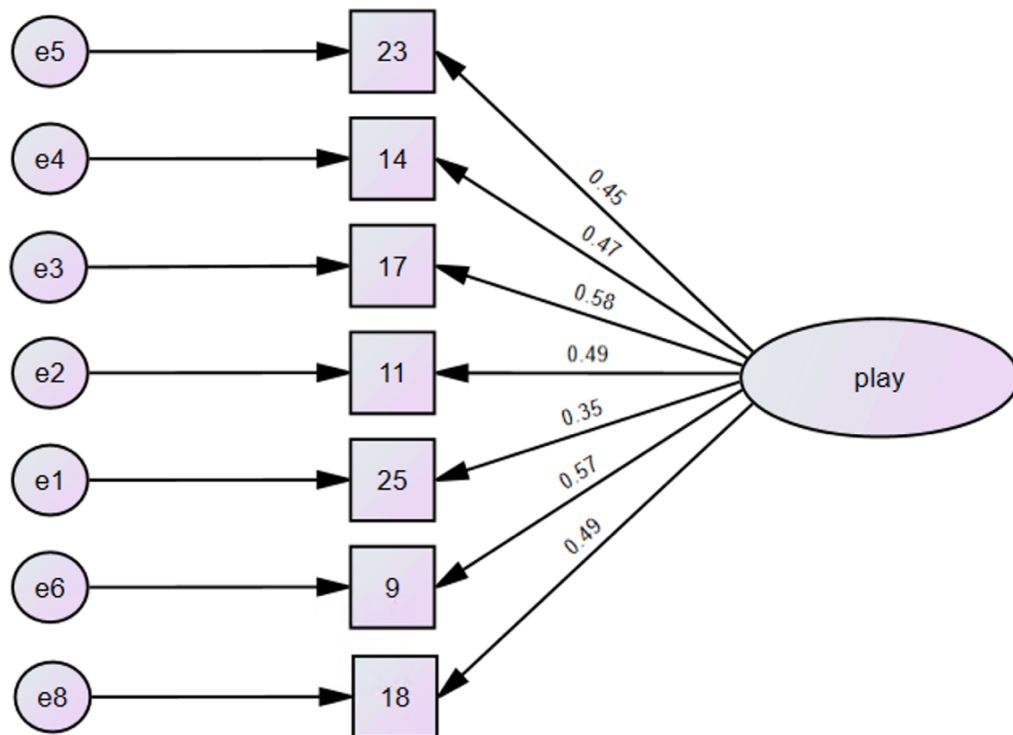
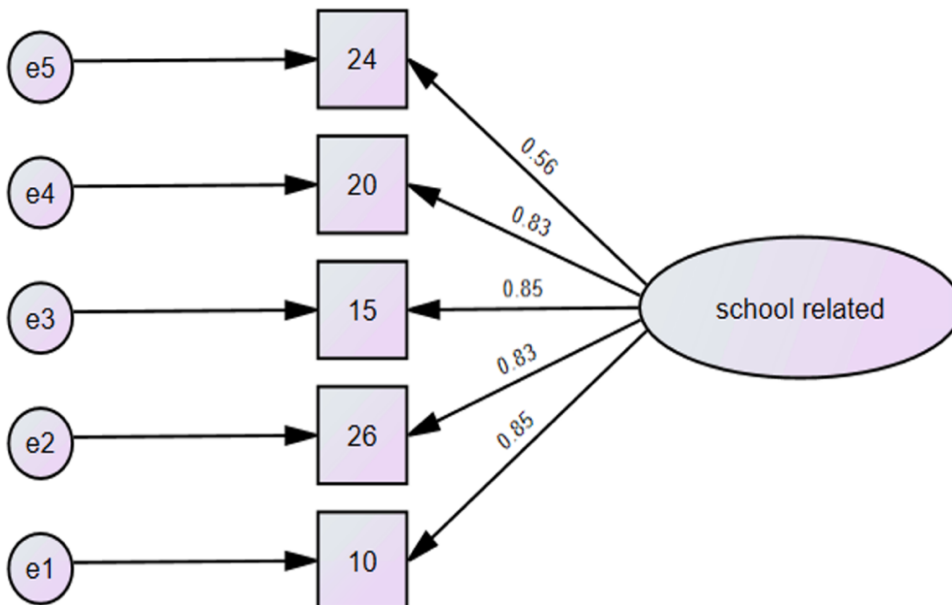


Figure 2.4. CFA results for parental involvement in school-related activities



CHAPTER 3

STUDY 2: ADAPTATION OF PARENTAL REGULATION INVENTORY TO TURKISH

3.1. Method

3.1.1. Participants

The research sample consisted of different-sex couples who were over the age of 18 and had children between the ages of 3-6, residing in various cities across Türkiye. The sample size was determined following the criteria set forth by Nunnally (1978) as 10 participants for each item in the scale (10 x 9 = 90 mothers and 90 fathers). Initially, 61 couples ($N = 122$) were recruited. If parents had more than one child in this age range, they were asked to report on their oldest child. Divorced, living separately, and couples with no children were excluded from the study. (see Section 3.2.1. for detailed information)

3.1.2. Measures

3.1.2.1. Demographic Information Form

The Demographic Information Form included questions such as the age of the mother, father, and child, the sex of the child, as well as the employment status of the mother and father, and their education level.

3.1.2.2. The Parental Regulation Inventory

Nine items from Parental Regulation Inventory (PRI; Van Egeren, 2000) was used to assess mothers' and fathers' reported maternal gate closing behavior. In the section of

the PRI from which the gate closing items were drawn, mothers were asked to rate how often (1 = never to 6 = several times a day) they engaged in various behaviors when “your baby’s father does something that you do not approve of regarding childcare or with your baby.” Items of the inventory related to gate closing can be exemplified as “Tell your baby’s father the right way to handle the situation.”

Fathers were asked to rate the frequency with which their baby’s mother exhibited these behaviors in response to actions they took regarding childcare or their baby that she did not approve of. For example, fathers rated how often their partner tells other people about the things she does not like, while mothers rated how often they tell other people about the things they do not like. These ratings served as indicators of a latent variable representing gate closing behavior. The Cronbach’s alpha (α) was .73 for mothers and .72 for fathers.

3.1.3. Procedure

Ethical approval was obtained from the Ethical Committee at the Middle East Technical University (see Appendix A). The scale was translated from English to Turkish after approval from the authors who developed the scale was obtained. In this process, the scale items were translated into Turkish using the translation-back-translation method by two native Turkish speakers who knew English at an advanced level. An online survey was created via Qualtrics software. By using convenience sampling, participants were reached via social media (i.e., Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, and WhatsApp) and e-mail groups. Participants were able to view other questions after approving the consent form shown on the first page.

3.1.4. Analytic Strategy

SPSS version 29.0.1 was used for descriptive analyses and Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA). Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was performed with SPSS AMOS version 29.0.1 for the six items in the scale. Model fit was assessed using several indices: the chi-square test, where a non-significant result indicates a good fit; the root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA), with values below .06

considered acceptable; and the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), with values above .95 deemed acceptable (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Rather than chi square, chi square/df ratio was used (chi square/df; values < 5 are acceptable) given the fact that it is affected by sample size (Cole, 1987; Hu & Bentler, 1999).

3.2. Results

3.2.1. Demographic Characteristics of Participants

The mean age of mothers was 35.59 ($SD = 4.34$), and the mean age of fathers was 38.90 ($SD = 4.97$). The majority of the mothers (98.3%) and the majority of the fathers (90.2%) had at least some college degree. At the time of the data collection, 57.4% of mothers and 93.4% of fathers were employed. The sociodemographic characteristics of the participants can be found in Table 3.1 below.

3.2.2. Variable Characteristics

The mean and standard deviation of the study variables, which is the parental regulation inventory for mothers and fathers, can be found in Table 3.2 below.

3.2.3. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) Results for Parental Regulation Inventory

Before running a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was run to explore the loadings of each item on maternal gate closing and perceived maternal gate closing by fathers. The EFA results for both fathers and mothers revealed that items 7, 8, and 9 showed high cross-loadings ($>.30$) on two different factors. Consequently, they were removed from the model because items with loadings on multiple factors can artificially increase inter-factor correlations and complicate factor interpretation (Pett et al., 2003). The results from the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) showed that the remaining factors had an adequate number of items with strong factor loadings. Thus, the single-factor model was subsequently tested using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA).

Table 3.1. Sociodemographic characteristics of participants in study 2 (N = 122)

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Mother Age	35.59	4.34
Father Age	38.90	4.97
Child Age	5.46	.44
	<i>n</i>	%
Mother Education Level		
High School	1	1.6
Some College	51	83.6
Graduate	9	14.7
Father Education Level		
Less Than High School	1	1.6
High School	5	8.2
Some College	46	75.4
Graduate	9	14.8
Mother Employment		
Not Working	26	42.6
Working	35	57.4
Father Employment		
Not Working	4	6.6
Working	57	93.4

Table 3.2. Statistical values of study variables

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min	Max	Skewness	Kurtosis
PRI						
Mother	22.67	5.83	8	34	-.47	-.25
Father	23.60	5.73	6	36	-.52	.42

3.2.4. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) Results for Parental Regulation Inventory

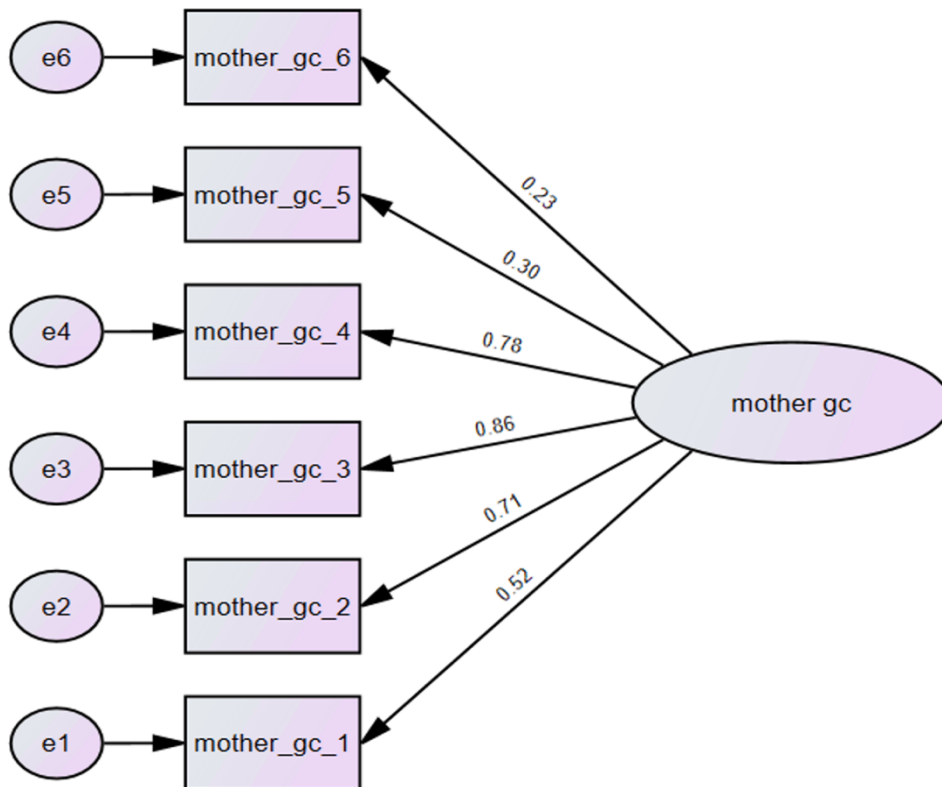
3.2.4.1. Maternal Gate Closing of Mothers

CFA results for maternal gate closing of mothers revealed the model fit indices as $\chi^2(9) = 18.613, p < .05; \chi^2/df = 2.068; RMSEA = .133, CFI = .898$. Considering these indices, $CFI = .90$ and χ^2/df , the results showed a good fit for the model (Hooper et al., 2008). Factor loadings ranged from .23 to .86.

3.2.4.2. Perceived Maternal Gate Closing of Fathers

CFA results for fathers' perception of mothers' gate closing revealed the model fit indices as $\chi^2(9) = 15.890$, $p = .069$; $\chi^2/df = 1.766$; RMSEA = .113, CFI = .901. Considering these indices, CFI = .90 and χ^2/df , the model showed a good fit. Factor loadings ranged from .24 to .83.

Figure 3.1. CFA results for maternal gate closing of mothers

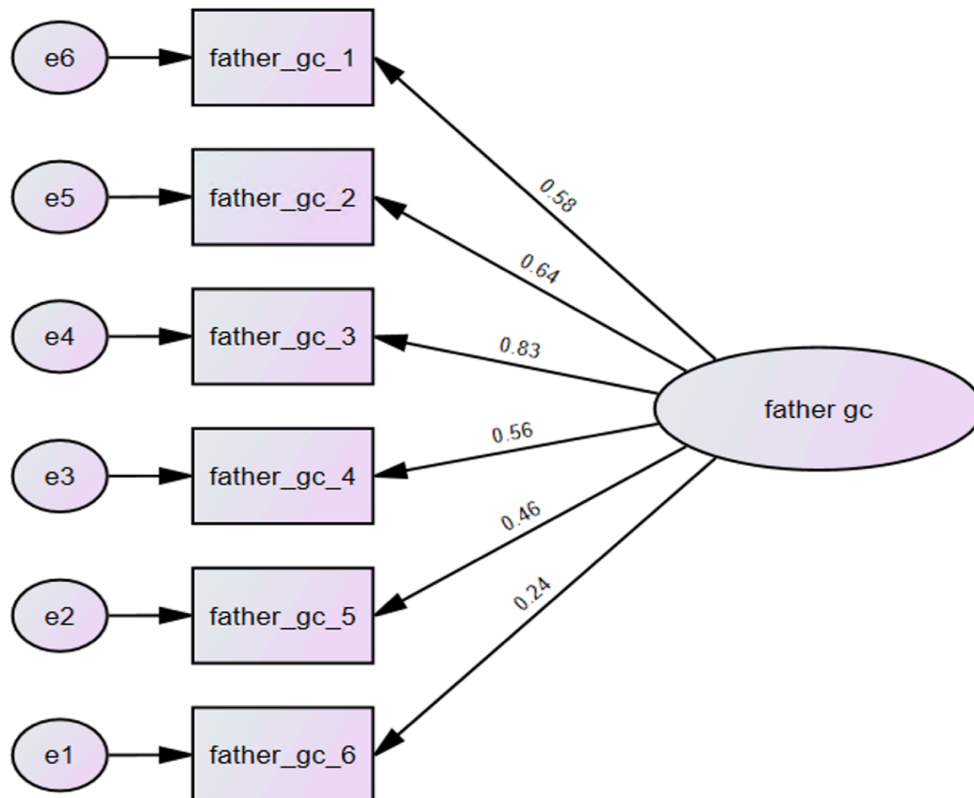


3.3. Discussion

The adaptation of the scale into Turkish revealed a single-factor model for both mothers and fathers as in the original scale. While the original scale consisted of nine items, the Turkish adaptation had six items, with three items having high cross-loadings. The scale that was applied to mothers reflects how much mothers discourage/block fathers' involvement, while the paternal version of the scale reflects

how much discouragement fathers perceive from mothers in child-related involvement. It is promising that the items associated with the gate closing latent factor align conceptually with previous research on maternal gatekeeping that has assessed this area (Schoppe-Sullivan et al., 2015).

Figure 3.2. CFA results for perceived maternal gate closing of fathers



CHAPTER 4

STUDY 3: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN COPARENTING AND ADULT ATTACHMENT

4.1. Method

4.1.1. Participants

The research sample consisted of different-sex couples who were over the age of 18 and had children between the ages of 3-6, residing in various cities across Türkiye. Power analysis was run with G-Power software to determine sample size. Results suggested that a sample size of 55 participants would be required to achieve 80% power to detect medium-sized effects with a significance level of .05 and eight parameters ($df = 7$). The results are in line with the ratio of cases to parameters assumption of SEM analysis (Kline, 2016). According to this assumption, at least 5-10 cases per estimated parameter is recommended. Initially, 69 mother-father-child triads ($N = 138$) were recruited. If parents had multiple children within this age range, they were asked to report on their oldest child. Couples who are divorced and living separately were excluded from the study.

4.1.2. Measures

4.1.2.1. Observed Coparenting

Coparenting behaviors are best measured when either of the coparents supports and/or undermines the other parent's parenting attitudes and practices (Belsky et al., 1996). In order to capture these behaviors, mother-father-child triads were recorded during a 10-minute drawing episode. The 10-minute episodes were designed to elicit

coparenting behaviors in a non-stressful context while parents and the child were drawing their family together. These episodes were coded for coparenting behavior by five trained raters on Cowan and Cowan's (1996) 5-point rating scales (1 = very low; 5 = very high) that was used in other studies (Schoppe et al., 2001; Schoppe-Sullivan et al., 2004).

The dimensions rated were negative control/gate closing (how much parents try to limit the other partner's interaction with the child), parental facilitation/ gate opening (degree to which parents show positive support of their partners' interactions with the child). All coders overlapped on all recordings according to interrater reliability, ICC = 1. Gamma values ranged from .65 to .96 ($M = .89$). Discrepancies were resolved through conferencing in weekly meetings.

4.1.2.2. Demographic Information Form

The Demographic Information Form included questions such as the age of the mother, father, and child, the sex of the child, the employment status of the mother and father, and the parental education level.

4.1.2.3 The Parental Involvement Scale

The Parental Involvement Scale (PIS; Monteiro et al., 2008), which was adapted to Turkish in the first study, is a 26-item scale aiming to identify the degree to which parents are involved in childcare activities in routine daily family life. The adapted instrument has four dimensions: 1) direct care (5 items) activities related to caretaking tasks that imply direct contact and interaction with the child (e.g., Who feeds the child?); 2) discipline/teaching (5 items) activities related to teaching skills and rules for the child (e.g., Who talks to the child about more sensitive matters (e.g., about death, how babies are born, ...)?) 3) play (7 items) activities related to play between the child and the parent (e.g., Who plays more physical games with your child (e.g., football, piggyback rough-and-tumble?)); and 4) school-related (5 items) activities related to arranging resources to be available to the child, specifically school resources

that do not necessarily include direct interaction, (e.g., Who does the school call if something happens to your child?).

The questionnaire measures the relative involvement of each parent compared to the other, reflecting how activities are divided or shared between them. Both parents answered independently using a 5-point scale: (1) always the mother, (2) almost always the mother, (3) both the mother and the father, (4) almost always the father, and (5) always the father. Thus, the involvement of one parent is determined by the proportion of involvement not attributed to the other parent. Higher scores indicate greater involvement by the father. The Cronbach's Alpha (α) was .88 for mothers and .78 for fathers.

4.1.2.4. The Parental Regulation Inventory

The Parental Regulation Inventory Maternal Gate Closing subscale (PRI; Van Egeren, 2000), which was adapted to Turkish in the second study, measures maternal gate closing behavior using a set of 6 items. Mothers were asked to rate how often (1 = never to 6 = several times a day) they engaged in various behaviors when "your baby's father does something that you do not approve of regarding childcare or with your baby." Items of the inventory related to gate closing can be exemplified as "Tell your baby's father the right way to handle the situation."

Fathers were asked to rate the frequency with which their baby's mother exhibited these behaviors in response to actions they took regarding childcare or their baby that she did not approve of. For example, fathers rated how often their partner tells other people about the things she does not like, while mothers rated how often they tell other people about the things they do not like. These ratings served as indicators of a latent variable representing gate closing behavior. The Cronbach's Alpha (α) was .70 for mothers and .54 for fathers.

4.1.2.5. The Experiences in Close Relationships

The Experiences in Close Relationships (ECR; Fraley et al., 2000) is a self-report 7-point Likert scale composed of 36 items measuring the attachment in close

relationships during adulthood. The scale was adapted to Turkish by Selcuk et al. (2005). The Cronbach's alphas (α) for anxiety and avoidance dimensions, respectively, were .86 and .90. An example item for avoidance is "I find it difficult to allow myself to depend on romantic partners." and an example for anxiety is "It makes me mad that I do not get the affection and support I need from my partner." Items 3, 15, 19, 22, 25, 27, 29, 31, 33, and 35 were reverse coded. The Cronbach's alphas (α) for anxiety and avoidance were .86 and .61 for mothers, and .82 and .56 for fathers, respectively.

4.1.3. Procedure

The ethical approval was obtained from the Ethical Committee at the Middle East Technical University (see Appendix A). Within the scope of a summer internship offered at the Child and Adolescent Development Lab at Middle East Technical University, 13 psychology undergraduate students were trained. During weekly online meetings, students were provided with the theoretical background of coparenting, assigned readings, and short essay assignments to assess the extent to which they understood the conceptual part of the project. Then, students began to recruit participants. Due to COVID-19 restrictions, the data collection was designed through online meetings with families via Zoom. Participants were recruited through convenience sampling via study flyers distributed on social media channels and email groups. Parents of children aged 3 to 6 years who were interested in the study and had signed the informed consent form were contacted by one of the trained students using their preferred contact method.

A day before the Zoom meeting with each family, either of the parents was contacted by one of the trained students. During this phone call, students introduced themselves and the study, addressed any questions or concerns parents may have, and confirmed the meeting schedule. Also, they sent a video to parents with instructions about how to use necessary technologies, set up Zoom meetings, and the room from where they will join the meeting. Parents were instructed to set up a table, where each parent and the child would be an equal distance from each other so that the coparenting triangle could be observed. They set up two cameras: one was placed in front of them, and the other

was placed at the back of the children (see Illustration 4.1). Parents prepared an A4 size blank paper to draw on and several coloring pens to draw with.

Illustration 4.1. Zoom meetings set up for mother-father-child triads

Note: This illustration was created by the author and is subject to copyright.



Zoom meetings set up 1

On the day of data collection, parents were sent the informed consent form and contacted 15 minutes before the meeting by sending the Zoom invitation link. After both parents with the child and the assistant were online, parents introduced the assistant to their child and told him or her, “She/he is curious about how we draw a picture together, so she/he will be observing us.” Assistants were permitted to engage in brief conversation with the child to help them feel more comfortable, such as asking how they were doing. Once both the parents and the child indicated that they were

ready, the assistant began recording their interaction on Zoom. Parents were told that they would not be closely watched during the whole episode so they could feel more comfortable. After they started drawing, assistants turned their cameras off and stayed away from their computers at a distance so they could hear the participants in case they needed to. The drawing episode of each family took 10 minutes. The assistants kindly intervened with the parents after 10 minutes was complete. After the episodes were completed, assistants sent the online survey created via Qualtrics to parents, which would be filled out and returned within two days. Each meeting took around 30 minutes for each family. Then, five assistants in the data collection team were trained for the coding phase. All Zoom recordings were watched and coded separately by the assistants using the manual coding mentioned above. Discrepancies in coding were resolved through discussion.

4.1.4. Analytic Strategy

SPSS version 29.0.1 was used for descriptive analyses and intercorrelations among the study variables. Testing the normality assumptions, descriptive statistics, correlations, and regression analyses were conducted, and the results are reported in the following section. IBM SPSS AMOS 29.0.1 was used to test Actor–Partner Interdependence Models (APIM) within a structural equation modeling framework.

The Actor-Partner Interdependence Model (APIM) is a framework used in dyadic research to analyze the reciprocal influences between individuals in a relationship. It differentiates between actor effects, which are the impacts of an individual's own characteristics on their own outcomes, and partner effects, which assess how an individual's traits influence their partner's outcomes (Kenny et al., 2006). By disentangling these interdependencies, APIM provides a nuanced understanding of relational dynamics, facilitating more targeted interventions and insights into relational processes (Kenny, 1996). The model analyzed in this study included actor effects, which investigated how each person's avoidance and anxiety impacted their own reports of parental involvement, as well as partner effects, which explored how each person's avoidance and anxiety influenced their partner's reports of parental involvement.

Mothers' and fathers' reported and observed gate closing, as well as observed gate opening, were controlled. For each model, both the overall fit of the proposed structural model and the significance of individual paths were assessed. The model fit was evaluated using various indices: the chi-square test, where a non-significant result indicates a good fit; the root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA), with values below .06 considered acceptable; and the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), with values above .95 deemed acceptable (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Rather than chi square, chi square/df ratio was used (chi square/df; values < 5 are acceptable) given the fact that it is affected by sample size (Cole, 1987; Hu & Bentler, 1999). In total, twelve baseline models were tested: four models with reported maternal gate closing controlled for each subdimension of parental involvement (direct, discipline, play, school-related activities), four models with observed gate closing controlled for each subdimension of parental involvement, and four models with observed gate opening controlled for each subdimension of parental involvement.

4.2. Results

4.2.1. Data Cleaning

The videos of participants who had missing data on the degree of interference with coding were excluded. Two families' data were not added to the analyses for this particular reason, resulting in 67 ($n = 67$) mother-father-child triads. Other missing values in single items were handled with multiple imputations. Multiple imputation is considered a highly effective method for handling missing data because it creates several plausible datasets and combines results, accounting for the uncertainty associated with missing values (Rubin, 1987).

4.2.2. Demographic Characteristics of Participants

The mean age of mothers was 36.39 ($SD = 5.51$), and the mean age of fathers was 38.79 ($SD = 5.21$). The mean age of children was 4.93 ($SD = .62$), with median 4.83, and mode 4.58. The majority of the mothers (92.53%) and the fathers (91.05%) had at least some college degree. At the time of the data collection, 64.18% of mothers and

91.05% of fathers were employed. The sociodemographic characteristics of the participants can be found in the table below (see Table 4.1).

Table 4.1. Sociodemographic characteristics of participants in study 3 (N = 134)

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min-Max
Mother Age	36.39	5.51	24-45
Father Age	38.79	5.21	26-50
Child Age	4.93	.62	3.42-5.16
	<i>n</i>	%	
Mother Education Level			
High School	5	7.47	
Some College	52	77.61	
Graduate	10	14.92	
Father Education Level			
High School	6	8.95	
Some College	49	73.14	
Graduate	12	17.91	
Mother Employment			
Not Working	24	35.82	
Working	43	64.18	
Father Employment			
Not Working	6	8.95	
Working	61	91.05	

4.2.3. Variable Characteristics

The mean and standard deviation of the study variables, observed gate closing, observed gate opening, total parental involvement, direct care involvement, discipline/teaching involvement, play involvement, school-related involvement, reported gate closing, anxiety, and avoidance can be found in Table 4.2 below.

Table 4.2. Statistical values of study variables

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min	Max	Skewness	Kurtosis
Observed Gate Closing						
Mother	2.31	1.28	1	5	.50	-.91
Father	1.92	1.17	1	5	1.08	.25
Observed Gate Opening						
Mother	3.37	1.01	1	5	-.27	-.14
Father	2.61	1.10	1	5	.13	-.59
Parental Involvement						
Mother	60.52	11.89	26	90	-.72	.97
Father	65.26	9.47	39	83	-.63	1.11
Direct Care Involvement						
Mother	11.89	3.09	5	17	-.68	-.02
Father	14.79	3.85	5	26	.44	.29
Discipline Involvement						
Mother	13.14	3.14	5	27	.80	5.37
Father	14.03	1.92	8	18	-.51	1.05
Play Involvement						
Mother	20.65	3.78	7	27	-1.40	3.36
Father	21.76	2.70	13	27	-.66	1.23
School Involvement						
Mother	15.51	6.20	6	29	.76	-.25
Father	16.61	6.20	7	30	.86	-.22
Reported Gate Closing						
Mother	22.1	4.79	11	36	-.31	.51
Father	21.88	3.97	9	32		
Anxiety						
Mother	59.87	16.42	25	108	.70	.06
Father	58.87	16.42	24	104	.22	-.37
Avoidance						
Mother	69.14	10.81	19	98	.52	.12
Father	66.57	10.80	21	120	.70	1.29

4.2.4. Correlation Analysis

Table 4.3 presents the intercorrelations among the variables of interest. The strength of these correlations is described according to Evans' (1996) guidelines for interpreting the absolute value of r . Mothers' score on direct care involvement was moderately positively associated with their scores on discipline involvement ($r(63) = .50, p < .01$), and play involvement ($r(63) = .58, p < .01$), and weakly positively correlated with their school involvement ($r(63) = .30, p < .05$), fathers' play involvement ($r(63) = .26, p < .05$), and school involvement ($r(63) = .28, p < .05$).

Mothers' score on discipline involvement was moderately positively associated with their scores on play involvement ($r(63) = .53, p < .01$), and weakly positively correlated with their school involvement ($r(63) = .26, p < .05$), and weakly positively correlated with fathers' discipline involvement ($r(63) = .27, p < .05$), and weakly positively correlated with mothers' observed gate opening ($r(63) = .25, p < .05$). Mothers' score on play involvement was moderately positively associated with their school involvement ($r(63) = .43, p < .01$), and fathers' play involvement ($r(63) = .58, p < .001$), and weakly positively correlated with fathers' school involvement ($r(63) = .35, p < .01$), mothers' observed gate opening ($r(63) = .36, p < .01$), and fathers' observed gate opening ($r(63) = .28, p < .05$). Mothers' score on involvement in school-related activities was strongly positively correlated with fathers' involvement in school-related activities ($r(63) = .87, p < .01$).

Fathers' direct involvement score was weakly positively correlated with their anxiety ($r(63) = .27, p < .05$) and moderately positively correlated with their avoidance ($r(63) = .42, p < .01$). Fathers' discipline involvement score was weakly positively correlated with their play involvement ($r(63) = .25, p < .05$), their observed gate opening ($r(63) = .27, p < .05$), and weakly negatively correlated with mothers' anxiety ($r(63) = -.33, p < .01$).

Mothers' observed gate closing was moderately positively correlated with fathers' observed gate closing ($r(63) = .53, p < .01$) and weakly positively correlated with mothers' reported gate closing ($r(63) = .34, p < .01$). Fathers' observed gate closing was weakly positively correlated with their observed gate opening ($r(63) = .31, p < .05$). Fathers' observed gate opening was weakly positively correlated with their avoidance ($r(63) = .26, p < .05$).

Lastly, mothers' avoidance was moderately positively correlated with their anxiety ($r(63) = .56, p < .01$), and fathers' anxiety was moderately positively correlated with mothers' avoidance ($r(63) = .49, p < .01$). Other correlations, such as the child's age, did not reach statistical significance; therefore, these variables were not used in further analyses. The assumption of multicollinearity was met, as the independent variables were not strongly correlated with each other (Coakes, 2005; Hair et al., 1998).

Table 4.3. Intercorrelations among study variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
1. M Direct	—	.50**	.58**	.30*	.13	.11	.26*	.28*	-.04	.15	.11	.04	.01	.09	-.14	-.00	.15	.06	-.02
2. M Discipline		—	.53**	.26*	-.10	.27*	.06	.08	-.08	.07	.25*	.24	-.25	-.05	-.16	-.12	-.03	.36	.08
3. M Play			—	.43**	-.02	.06	.58**	.35**	-.13	.12	.36*	.28**	-.13	-.07	-.06	-.05	.05	.12	.04
4. M School				—	.06	.16	.17	.87**	-.18	.06	.15	.18	-.07	-.09	-.02	.05	-.10	.13	-.06
5. F Direct					—	.04	.07	.06	-.11	.07	-.15	.06	-.13	-.11	-.15	.09	.27*	.42**	-.10
6. F Discipline						—	.25*	.24	-.05	-.08	.05	.27*	-.05	-.12	-.18	-.33*	-.09	-.09	.07
7. F Play							—	.22	-.15	.01	.14	.13	-.05	-.23	-.06	-.24	-.07	.04	.13
8. F School								—	-.10	-.01	.14	.07	.03	-.22	.08	.18	-.09	.16	-.06
9. M Obs GC									—	.53**	.07	.15	.34**	-.02	-.11	-.21	.11	-.05	.01
10. F Obs GC										—	-.03	.31*	.11	-.02	-.06	-.12	.10	-.03	-.12
11. M Obs GO											—	.15	-.06	-.19	.00	.11	.12	.02	.14
12. F Obs GC												—	-.14	.11	.03	-.08	.10	.26*	.08
13. M Rpt GC													—	.10	-.01	.01	-.04	-.04	-.01
14. F Rpt GC														—	-.04	-.03	.16	-.06	.15
15. M Avo															—	.56**	.03	.09	.15

16. M Anx	—	.17	.14	.01
17. F Anx	—	.49**	.25	
18. F Avo		—	.04	
19. Child age			—	

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

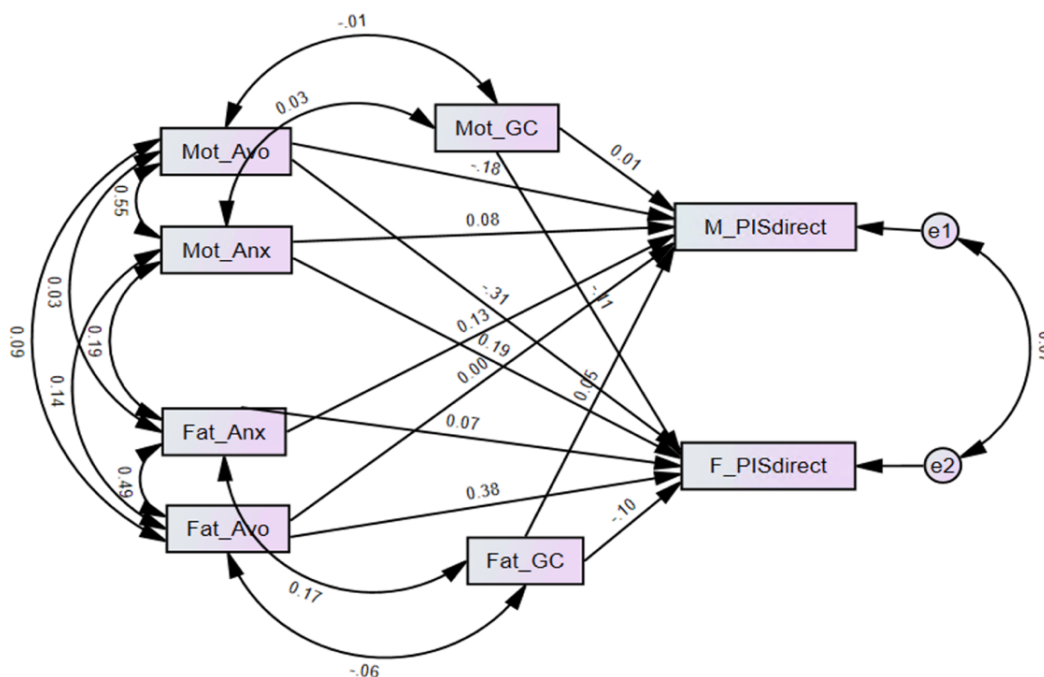
****Obs = Observed, Rpt = Reported, M = Mother, F = Father, Avo = Avoidance, Anx = Anxiety, GC = Gate Closing, GO = Gate Opening*

4.2.5. SEM Analyses of Parental Involvement

4.2.5.1. Direct care

The model for direct care by controlling for reported gate closing fit the data well, $\chi^2(7) = 1.005, p = .96, \chi^2/df = .14, RMSEA = .00, CFI = 1.00$. Fathers' avoidance was significantly positively associated with fathers' reports of direct care involvement, $\beta = .38, p < .01$ (actor effect). Mothers' avoidance was significantly negatively associated with fathers' reports of direct care involvement, $\beta = -.31, p < .05$ (partner effect). However, parents' anxiety was not significantly related to direct care involvement. Also, gate closing of mothers and perceived gate closing of fathers were not significantly related to direct care involvement (see Figure 4.1).

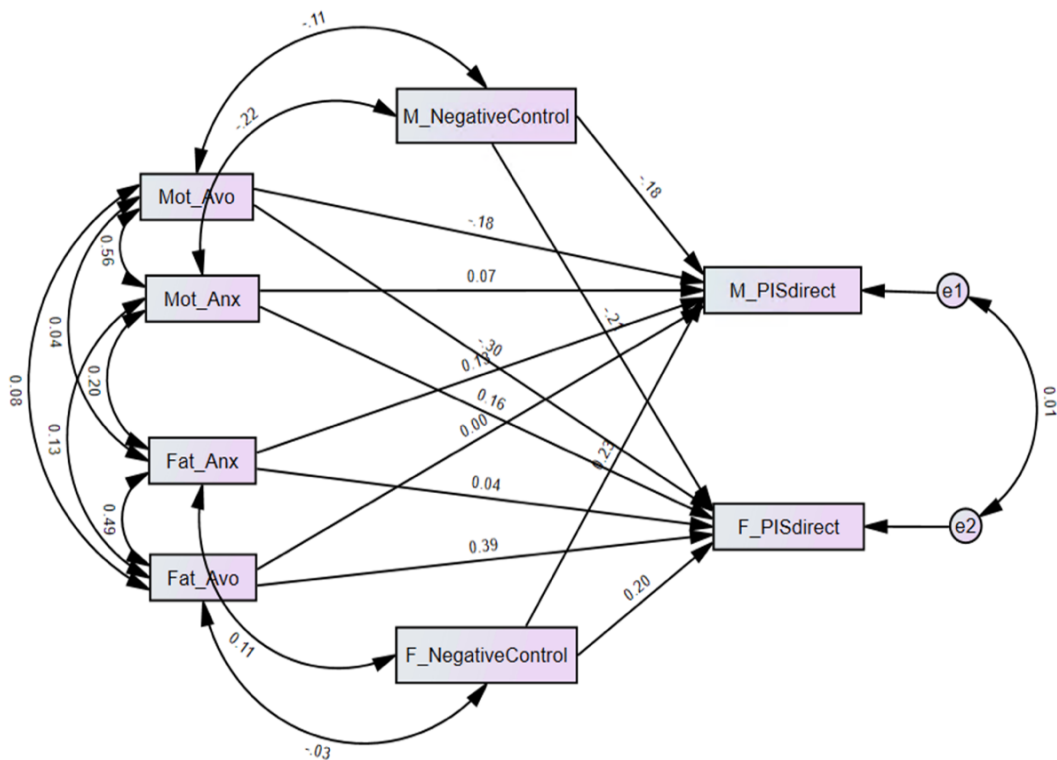
Figure 4.1. Structural model for direct care and adult attachment controlling for reported gate closing



*M, Mot = Mother; F, Fat = Father; Avo = Avoidance; Anx = Anxiety; GC = Gate Closing; PISdirect = Parental Involvement in Direct Care

The model for direct care by controlling for observed gate closing revealed an acceptable fit, $\chi^2(7) = 20.934$, $p = .001$, $\chi^2/df = 2.99$, RMSEA = .227, CFI = .724. Fathers' avoidance was significantly positively associated with fathers' reports of direct care involvement, $\beta = .39$, $p < .01$ (actor effect). Mothers' avoidance was significantly negatively associated with fathers' reports of direct care involvement, $\beta = -.30$, $p < .05$ (partner effect). Also, mothers' observed gate closing was negatively associated with fathers' involvement in direct care at the $\beta = -.63$, $p = .05$ significance level (see Figure 4.2).

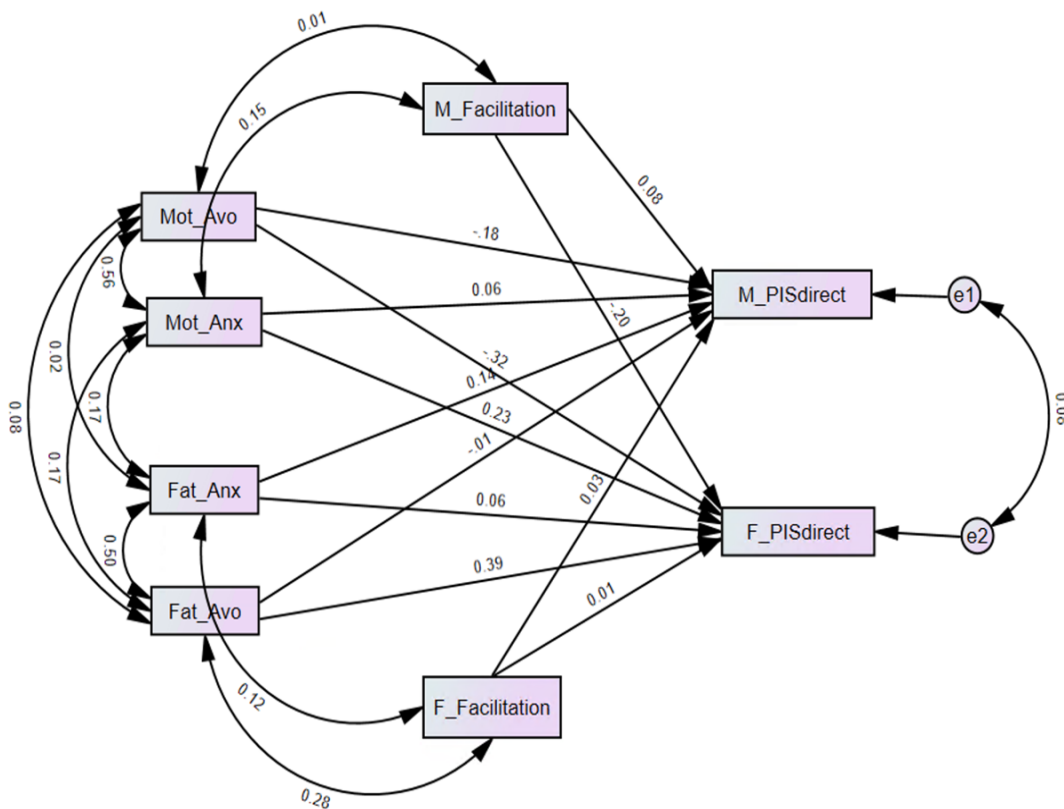
Figure 4.2. Structural model for direct care and adult attachment controlling for observed gate closing



*M, Mot = Mother; F, Fat = Father; Avo = Avoidance; Anx = Anxiety; NegativeControl = Observed Gate Closing; PISdirect = Parental Involvement in Direct Care

The model for direct care by controlling for observed gate opening fit the data well, $\chi^2(7) = 3.584, p = .611, \chi^2/df = .51, RMSEA = .00, CFI = 1.000$. Fathers' avoidance was significantly positively associated with fathers' reports of direct care involvement, $\beta = .39, p < .01$ (actor effect). Mothers' avoidance was significantly negatively associated with fathers' reports of direct care involvement, $\beta = -.32, p < .05$ (partner effect). However, parents' anxiety was not significantly related to direct care involvement. Also, gate closing of mothers and perceived gate closing of fathers were not significantly related to direct care involvement (see Figure 4.3).

Figure 4.3. Structural model for direct care and adult attachment controlling for observed gate opening

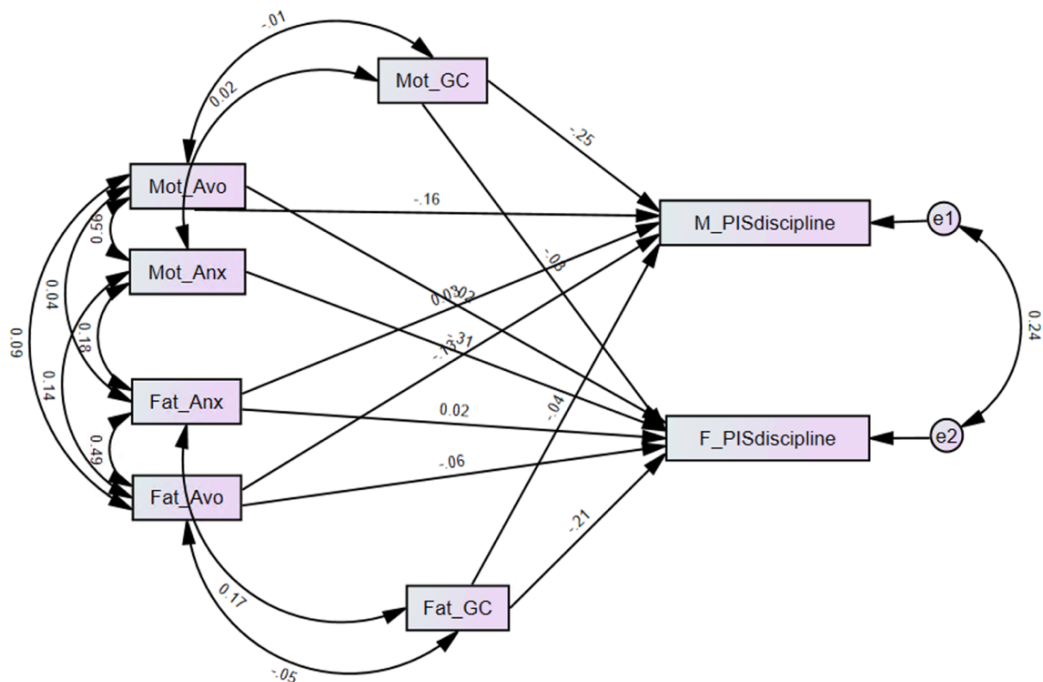


*M, Mot = Mother; F, Fat = Father; Avo = Avoidance; Anx = Anxiety; Facilitation = Observed Gate Opening; PISdirect = Parental Involvement in Direct Care

4.2.5.2. Discipline/Teaching

The model for discipline/teaching by controlling for reported gate closing fit the data well, $\chi^2(7) = .949, p = .99, \chi^2/df = .13, RMSEA = .00, CFI = 1.00$. Mothers' anxiety was significantly negatively associated with fathers' reports of discipline involvement, $\beta = -.31, p < .05$ (partner effect). Also, mothers' reported gate closing was significantly negatively associated with mothers' report on discipline involvement $\beta = -.25, p < .05$. However, parents' avoidance was not significantly related to discipline involvement. Also, fathers' perceived gate closing was not significantly related to discipline involvement (see Figure 4.4).

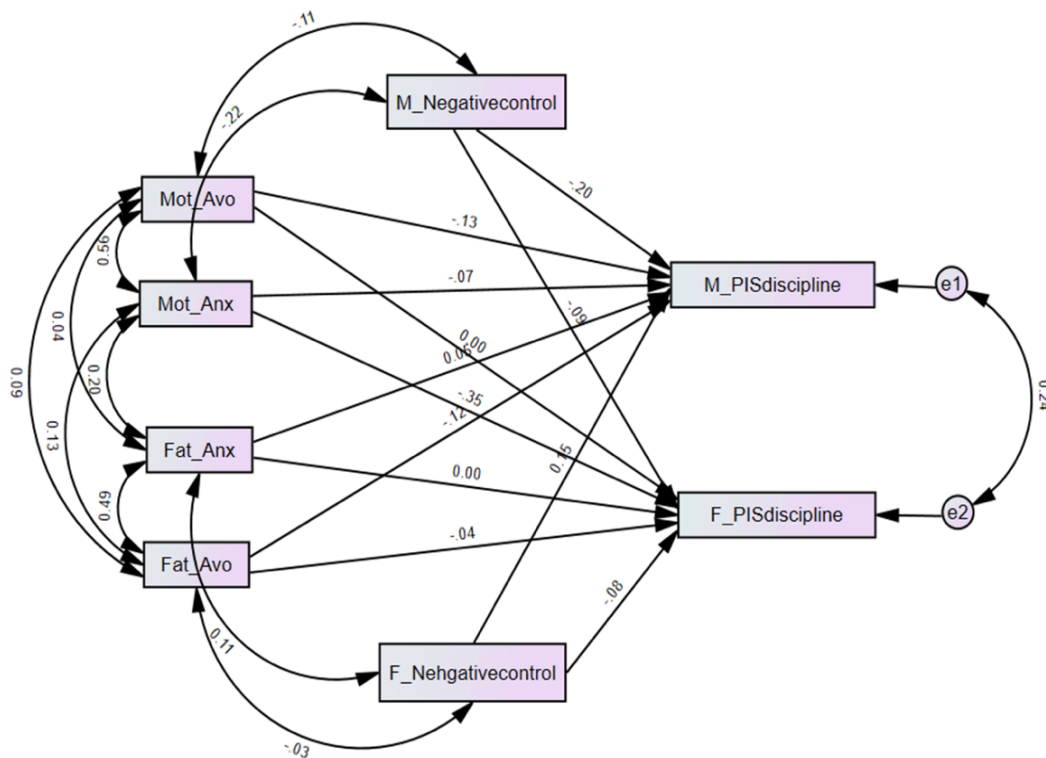
Figure 4.4. Structural model for discipline/teaching and adult attachment controlling for reported gate closing



*M, Mot = Mother; F, Fat = Father; Avo = Avoidance; Anx = Anxiety; GC = Gate Closing; PISdiscipline= Parental Involvement in Discipline/Teaching

The model for discipline/teaching by controlling for observed gate closing revealed an acceptable fit, $\chi^2(7) = 20.924$, $p = .001$, $\chi^2/df = 2.99$, RMSEA = .227, CFI = .672. Mothers' anxiety was significantly negatively associated with fathers' reports of discipline/teaching involvement, $\beta = -.35$, $p < .05$ (partner effect). However, parents' avoidance was not significantly related to discipline/teaching involvement. Also, observed gate closing was not significantly related to discipline involvement (see Figure 4.5).

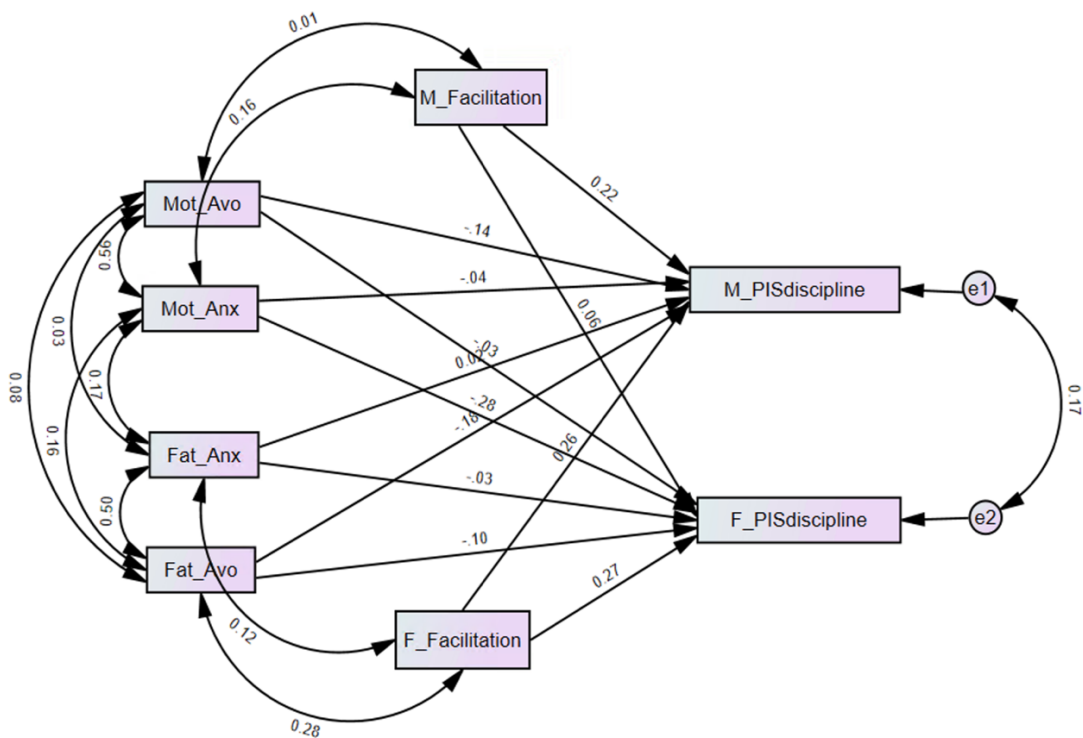
Figure 4.5. Structural model for discipline/teaching and adult attachment controlling for observed gate closing



*M, Mot = Mother; F, Fat = Father; Avo = Avoidance; Anx = Anxiety; NegativeControl = Observed Gate Closing; PISdiscipline = Parental Involvement in Discipline/Teaching

The model for discipline/teaching by controlling for observed gate opening fit the data well, $\chi^2(7) = 3.621, p = .605, \chi^2/df = .52, RMSEA = .00, CFI = 1.000$. Mothers' anxiety was negatively associated with fathers' reports of involvement in the discipline at the $\beta = -.28, p = .05$ significance level. Also, fathers' observed gate opening was significantly positively associated with both fathers' reports on discipline involvement, $\beta = .27, p < .05$, and mothers' reports on discipline involvement, $\beta = .26, p < .05$. However, parents' avoidance was not significantly related to discipline involvement. (see Figure 4.6).

Figure 4.6. Structural model for discipline/teaching and adult attachment controlling for observed gate opening

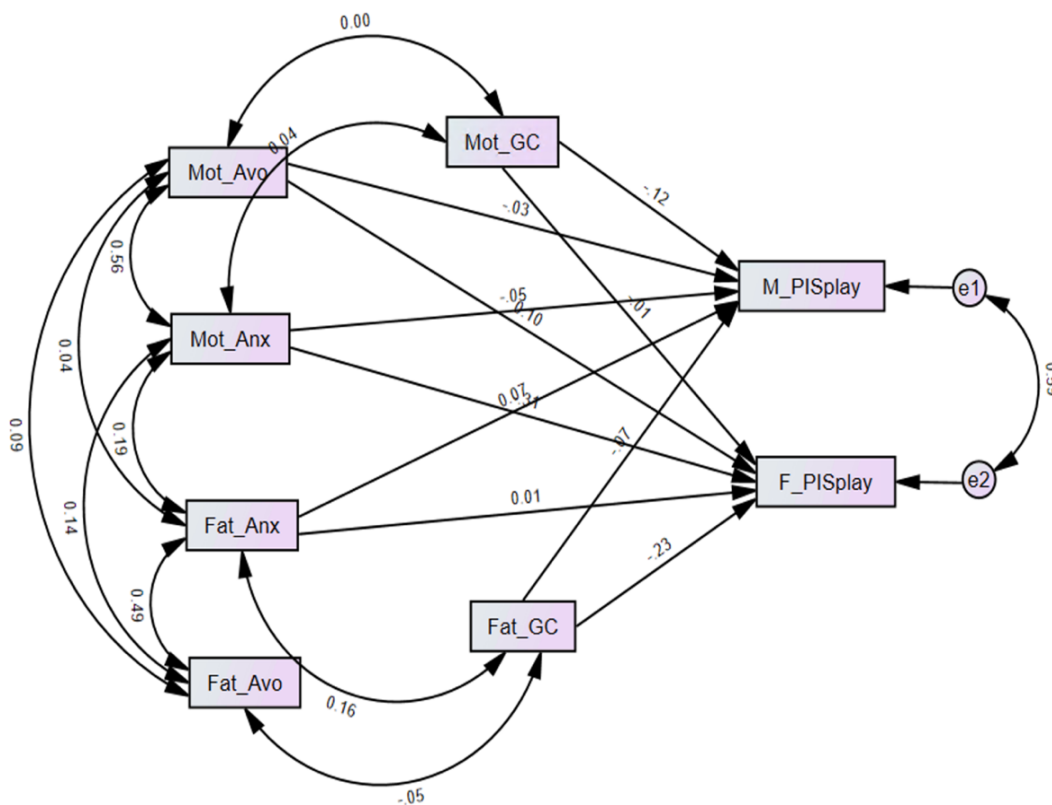


*M, Mot = Mother; F, Fat = Father; Avo = Avoidance; Anx = Anxiety; Facilitation = Observed Gate Opening; PISdiscipline = Parental Involvement in Discipline/Teaching

4.2.5.3. Play-Related Parental Involvement

The model for play by controlling for reported gate closing fit the data well, $\chi^2(7) = 1.672$, $p = .976$, $\chi^2/df = .24$, RMSEA = .00, CFI = 1.00. Mothers' anxiety was significantly negatively associated with fathers' reports of play involvement, $\beta = -.31$, $p < .05$ (partner effect). However, parents' avoidance was not significantly related to play involvement. Also, gate closing was not significantly related to play involvement (see Figure 4.7).

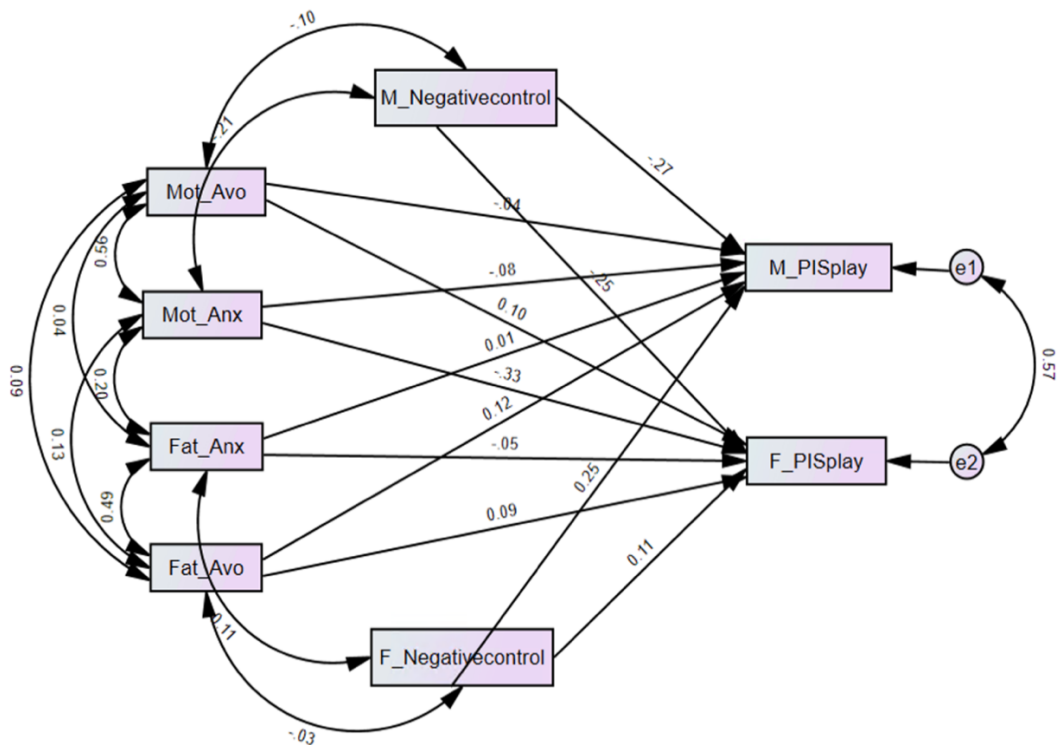
Figure 4.7. Structural model for play and adult attachment controlling for reported gate closing



*M, Mot = Mother; F, Fat = Father; Avo = Avoidance; Anx = Anxiety; GC = Gate Closing; PISplay = Parental Involvement in Play

The model for play by controlling for observed gate closing revealed an acceptable fit, $\chi^2(7) = 20.924, p = .001, \chi^2/df = .14, RMSEA = .227, CFI = .771$. Mothers' anxiety was significantly negatively associated with fathers' reports of play involvement, $\beta = -.33, p < .05$ (partner effect). Mothers' observed gate closing was significantly negatively associated with both fathers' report on involvement in play activities, $\beta = -.25, p < .05$, and mothers' report on involvement in play activities, $\beta = -.27, p < .05$. Also, fathers' observed gate closing was significantly positively associated with mothers' report on involvement in play activities, $\beta = .25, p < .05$. However, parents' avoidance was not significantly related to play involvement (see Figure 4.8).

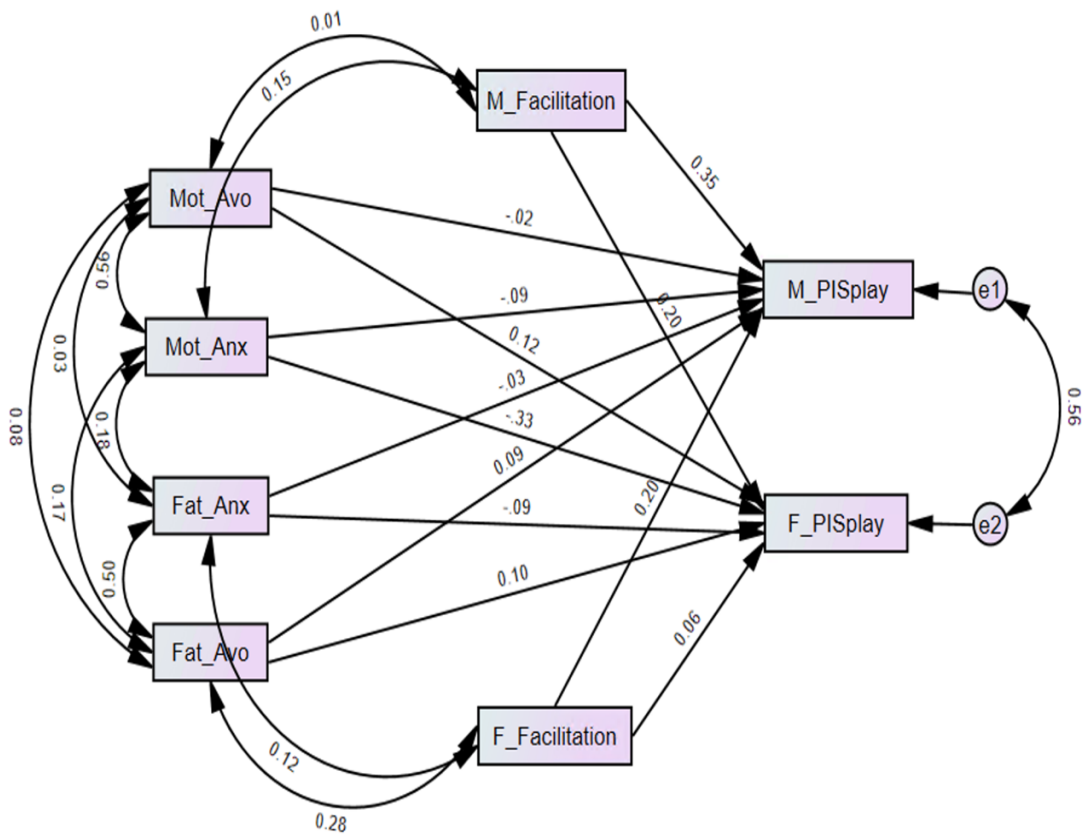
Figure 4.8. Structural model for play and adult attachment controlling for observed gate closing



*M, Mot = Mother; F, Fat = Father; Avo = Avoidance; Anx = Anxiety; Negativecontrol = Observed Gate Closing; PISplay = Parental Involvement in Play

The model for play by controlling for observed gate opening fit the data well, $\chi^2(7) = 3.565$, $p = .614$, $\chi^2/df = .51$, RMSEA = .00, CFI = 1.000. Mothers' anxiety was negatively associated with fathers' reports of involvement in play, $\beta = -.33$, $p < .05$. Also, mothers' observed gate opening was significantly positively associated with mothers' reports of play involvement, $\beta = .35$, $p < .01$. However, parents' avoidance was not significantly related to play involvement (see Figure 4.9).

Figure 4.9. Structural model for play and adult attachment controlling for observed gate opening

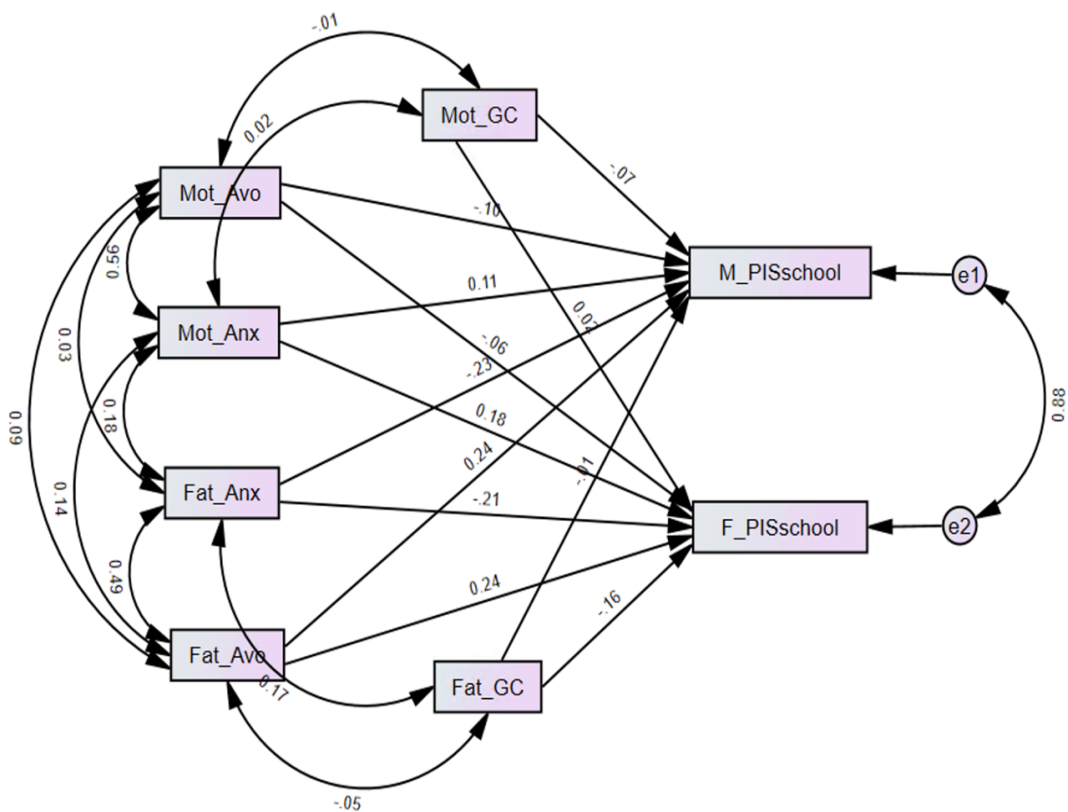


*M, Mot = Mother; F, Fat = Father; Avo = Avoidance; Anx = Anxiety; Facilitation = Observed Gate Opening; PISplay = Parental Involvement in Play

4.2.5.4. School-Related Parental Involvement

The model for school-related parental involvement by controlling for reported gate closing fit the data well, $\chi^2(7) = 1.013$, $p = .962$, $\chi^2/df = .14$, RMSEA = .00, CFI = 1.00. However, the relationships between adult attachment and involvement with school-related activities were not significant. Also, reported gate closing was not significantly associated with school-related parental involvement (see Figure 4.10).

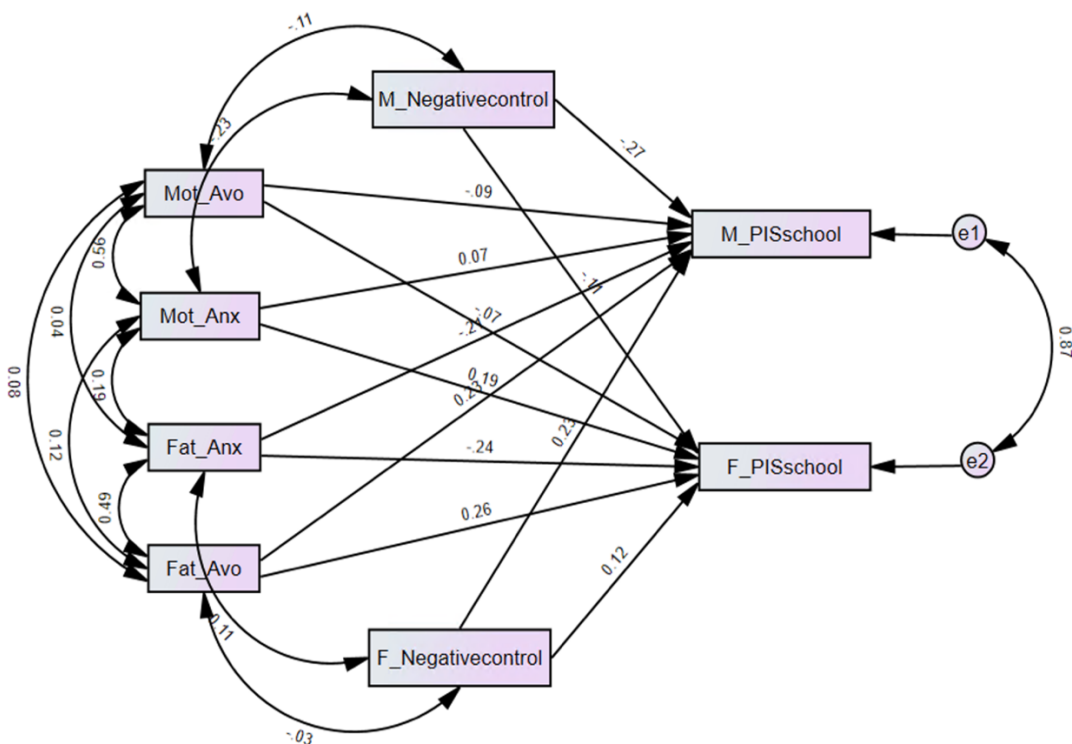
Figure 4.10. Structural model for school and adult attachment controlling for reported gate closing



*M, Mot = Mother; F, Fat = Father; Avo = Avoidance; Anx = Anxiety; GC = Gate Closing; PISschool = Parental Involvement in School-Related Activities

The model for school-related involvement by controlling for observed gate closing revealed an acceptable fit, $\chi^2(5) = 20.947, p = .001, \chi^2/df = 2.99, RMSEA = .227, CFI = .880$. Mothers' observed gate closing was negatively significantly associated with mothers' reports on involvement in school-related activities, $\beta = -.27, p < .05$. Also, fathers' observed gate closing was significantly positively associated with mothers' reports on involvement in school-related activities, $\beta = .23, p < .05$. However, parents' adult attachment dimensions were not significantly related to school involvement (see Figure 4.11).

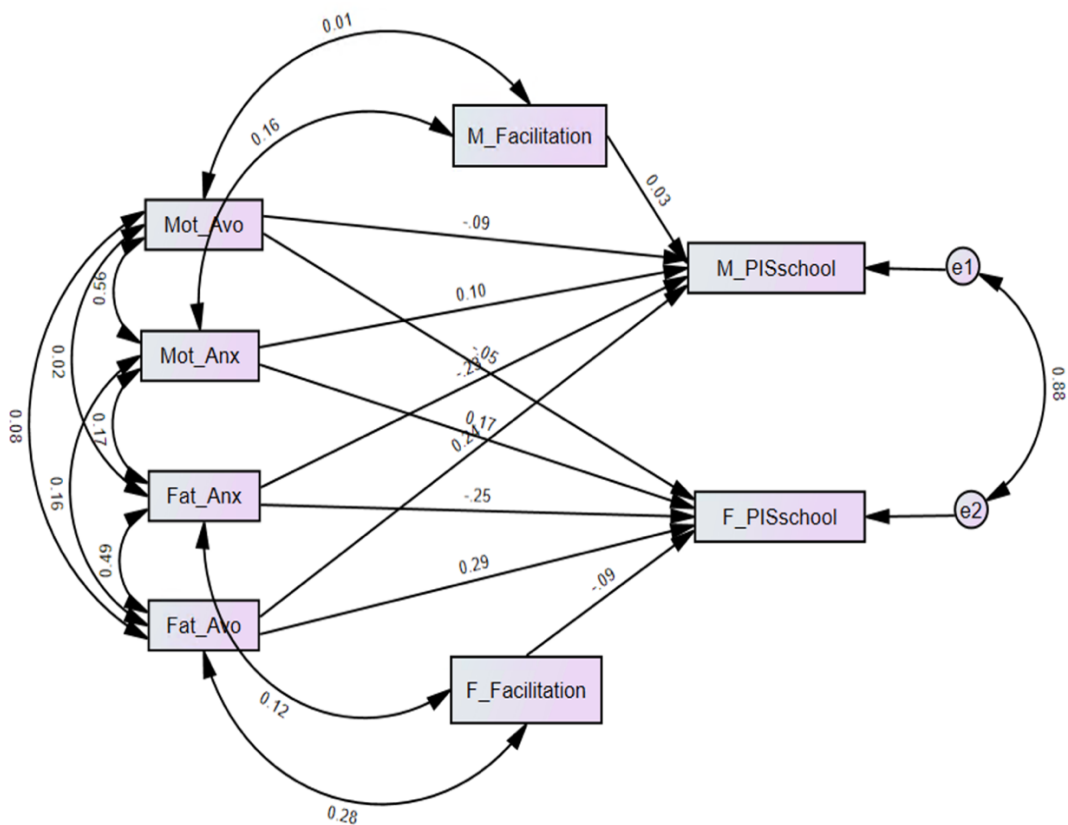
Figure 4.11. Structural model for school and adult attachment controlling for observed gate closing



*M, Mot = Mother; F, Fat = Father; Avo = Avoidance; Anx = Anxiety; Negativecontrol = Observed Gate Closing; PISschool = Parental Involvement in School-Related Activities

The model for school-related involvement by controlling for observed gate opening fit the data well, $\chi^2(7) = 6.200, p = .517, \chi^2/df = .89, RMSEA = .000, CFI = 1.000$. Fathers' avoidance was significantly positively associated with fathers' reports on involvement in school, $\beta = .29, p < .05$. However, parents' anxiety was not significantly related to discipline involvement. Also, gate opening was not significantly related to school involvement (see Figure 4.12).

Figure 4.12. Structural model for school and adult attachment controlling for observed gate opening



*M, Mot = Mother; F, Fat = Father; Avo = Avoidance; Anx = Anxiety; Facilitation = Observed Gate Opening; PISschool = Parental Involvement in School-Related Activities

4.3. Discussion

The findings of Study 3 for parental involvement supported the hypothesis that higher maternal attachment anxiety would be associated with lower paternal involvement controlling for maternal gate closing and gate opening. Mothers' anxiety was significantly negatively associated with fathers' reports of involvement in both discipline/teaching and play activities. While it was not hypothesized, higher maternal attachment avoidance was associated with lower direct care involvement reported by fathers. The results regarding the association between maternal gatekeeping and parental involvement supported previous literature regarding the effect of gatekeeping on father involvement (Allen & Hawkins, 1999; McBride et al., 2005; Schoppe-Sullivan & Altenburger, 2019). Higher gate closing reported by mothers was associated with lower father involvement in discipline/teaching activities reported by mothers. Also, mothers' observed gate closing was associated with lower father involvement in direct care and play activities reported by fathers and lower father involvement in play and school-related activities reported by mothers. Similarly, mothers' observed gate opening was associated with higher father involvement in play activities reported by mothers. Moreover, fathers' observed gate closing was associated with mothers' reports on higher father involvement in play and school-related activities. Contrary to what was hypothesized, fathers' avoidance was positively associated with fathers' reports of direct care and involvement in school-related activities. Finally, fathers' observed gate opening was associated with both mothers' and fathers' reports on higher paternal discipline/teaching involvement.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

The current study aimed to explore the relationships between adult attachment and parental involvement in various activities by analyzing both self-report and observational data from couples with a child aged 3 to 6 years. The hypotheses for Study 3 are as follows: (i) Greater maternal attachment anxiety is expected to be associated with lower paternal involvement, even when controlling for maternal gate closing and gate opening. This is because highly anxious mothers are anticipated to be more concerned and controlling in the triadic relationship of mother, father, and child; (ii) Higher paternal attachment avoidance is predicted to be associated with lower paternal involvement, controlling for maternal gate closing and gate opening. Fathers with higher avoidance levels are expected to perceive their relationship as more distant and less cooperative. Furthermore, mothers might be more likely to discourage and less likely to encourage active involvement from avoidant fathers, due to the perceived relational risks associated with insecure romantic attachment, potentially leading mothers to protect their children from avoidant fathers.

In order to test the hypothesized relationships, first, cross-culturally validated measurements of parental involvement and gatekeeping needed to be adapted to our sample. Therefore, the aim of Study 1 was to translate the Parental Involvement Scale (PIS; Monteiro et al., 2008) into Turkish and to test its psychometric properties. Study 2 aims to translate the gate closing subscale of the Parental Regulation Inventory (PRI; Van Egeren, 2000) into Turkish and to test its psychometric properties. Finally, Study 3 was designed to assess the relationship between adult attachment and parental involvement by controlling for maternal gatekeeping. The hypotheses were mostly supported by the results of the current study, which were discussed below further. While recent studies have shown that fathers are becoming more involved in various

aspects of childcare (Knop & Brewster, 2016; Meteyer & Perry-Jenkins, 2010; Perry-Jenkins & Gerstel, 2020), most do not distinguish between specific types of involvement, such as caregiving versus play/leisure activities. Research that does differentiate these dimensions indicates that fathers are generally more engaged in their child's leisure and play activities than in caregiving (Gleditsch & Pedersen, 2017). Therefore, Study 1 provides important insights into the structure and validity of the various dimensions of parental involvement in the Turkish context. The results of Study 1 suggested a four-factor model. While the original scale had five factors (direct care, indirect care, discipline/teaching, play, and leisure outdoors), the Turkish adaptation of the scale had the following factors: direct care, discipline/teaching, play, and school-related activities. The emergence of the school-related activities factor reveals the well-established '*veli*' role of a parent in early years of education of a child in Türkiye as emphasized in the introduction section. *Veli* is defined in different ways. According to the dictionary definition, a *veli* is the person who is responsible for all kinds of situations and behaviors of a child (TDK, 2024). According to the Ministry of National Education, *veli* refers to the mother or father, guardian, head of the family, or the person who assumes legal responsibility for the student (MEB, 2010). Based on these definitions, a *veli* is the person who has legally assumed responsibility for the student at school and is the first person to be addressed for his/her attendance at school and behavior at school (Yilmaz & Oznacar, 2016). Hence, all school-related activities are attributed to a single responsibility of either one or both parents. Furthermore, it is conceptualized as a culture-specific notion in Turkish cultural context, which might be the reason for this set of findings on a new factor regarding school-related activities.

In recent years, various theoretical perspectives on maternal gatekeeping have been developed (Fagan & Cherson, 2017; Puhlman & Pasley, 2013; Schoppe-Sullivan et al., 2008), but advancements in measuring maternal gatekeeping have not kept up with these developments. Therefore, Study 2 provides important insights into the structure and validity of the gate closing subscale of the PRI. One of the items that was not included in the Turkish adaptation scale was "Telling other people about the things you do not like when your baby's father does something that you do not approve of regarding childcare or with your baby." The lack of high loading of this item on the factor can be interpreted as an aspect of guilt about parenting in Turkish culture

(Eryigit et al., 2022). Guilt is described as a feeling that arises when one fails to live up to personal or societal values and norms, leading to negative self-assessment and criticism for violating these standards (Harrow & Amdur, 1971). Although new perspectives on the role of women as mothers exist, Turkish mothers continue to experience guilt intensely (Aycaan & Eskin, 2005; Korabik, 2015). With the increasing acknowledgment of fathers' role in child development, they might have an inherent belief or feeling that they should dedicate more time to their roles. Therefore, parents in this study might have refrained from telling other people about the things they do not like about their partner to avoid the feelings of guilt arising from failing to fulfill personal or societal parenting norms. In addition, expressing dissatisfaction with their partner as a parent might not necessarily take place in the existence of their partner, so it would not necessarily discourage him from involvement.

Another item that was not loaded on the factor was “Looking exasperated and rolling your eyes when your baby’s father does something that you do not approve of regarding childcare or with your baby.” While eye-rolling has taken different meanings since the 16th century, such as the portrayal of lust or passion, or flirtation (e.g., *The Rape of Lucrece* by William Shakespeare), it is commonly considered a low-risk form of expressing aggression or disapproval without direct contact with the other person (O’Connor, 2016). Therefore, it is considered a passive-aggressive and avoidant reaction. Even though a cross-cultural study of passive aggression among emerging adult women reported high passive aggression in the Turkish sample (Tzokov, 2018), eye roll might not be a prevalent cultural reaction. Also, rolling eyes might not necessarily discourage fathers from involvement in the Turkish cultural context, similar to the last item that was not loaded: “Not mentioning anything, but redoing things after your baby’s father is gone.” Since it is another avoidant reaction that can be considered passive-aggressive, it is not surprising that these two items were not distinctive characteristics of gate closing for the current sample with a relatively low levels of avoidance.

The findings of Study 3 for parental involvement supported the hypothesis that higher maternal attachment anxiety would be associated with lower paternal involvement controlling for maternal gate closing and gate opening. Mothers’ anxiety was significantly negatively associated with fathers’ reports of involvement in both

discipline/teaching and play activities. One possible explanation for this relationship is that anxious mothers may engage in more gate closing behaviors to maintain their unique bond with the child. These findings are consistent with research on anxious attachment, which is linked to increased regulation and controlling behaviors in relationships, as well as a fear of abandonment (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). The fear of abandonment characteristic of anxious attachment can lead to increased efforts to control the family dynamics, potentially sidelining the father's involvement to secure their place in the child's life.

While it was not hypothesized, higher maternal attachment avoidance was associated with lower direct care involvement reported by fathers. Previous research has shown that avoidance is linked to increased emotional distance in relationships (Campbell et al., 2001; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005). Given the crucial role of maternal expectations in gatekeeping behavior, mothers with higher levels of avoidance may be less likely to encourage fathers' involvement in order to protect their own significant investments in their children (Geary, 2000; Schoppe-Sullivan et al., 2016). This tendency can hinder the father's participation in direct care activities, aligning with the view that avoidant individuals often resist sharing parenting responsibilities.

The findings regarding the association between maternal gatekeeping and parental involvement supported previous literature regarding the effect of gatekeeping on father involvement (Allen & Hawkins, 1999; McBride et al., 2005; Schoppe-Sullivan & Altenburger, 2019). Fathers' gatekeeping was more salient in play, discipline/teaching, and school-related activities as more involved fathers in these domains also practice higher gatekeeping. As suggested by the literature on father involvement, fathers are more involved in play and leisure activities (Gleditsch & Pedersen, 2017). Hence, it would be expected that there will be higher paternal gatekeeping in these domains of involvement. Fathers' control over the means of play, outdoors, and discipline/teaching activities was also in line with the gendered perspective of parenting in traditional samples, where women are responsible for direct care, and men are responsible for disciplining the child as the authority figure (Bornstein, 2013).

Contrary to what was hypothesized, fathers' avoidance was positively associated with fathers' reports of direct care and involvement in school-related activities. One explanation for this unexpected finding is that avoidant fathers, who often interact less with their partners, may be less affected by maternal gate closing. Avoidant attachment is characterized by a preference for emotional distance and self-sufficiency, and this tendency may be more pronounced among upper-middle-class Turkish parents, who exhibit more individuation compared to those from smaller, more conservative Turkish cities (e.g., Sahin-Acar et al., 2019). These parents, similar to those in individualistic cultures, may prioritize autonomy and self-sufficiency over emotional intimacy, often avoiding behaviors that foster emotional closeness (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005, 2007). As a result, avoidant fathers might perceive their partners as both less supportive and less obstructive of their involvement in parenting. Also, engaging in school-related activities typically involves tangible resources (e.g., access to a car, time commitment). Avoidant fathers may find these logistical aspects less prone to gatekeeping compared to more ambiguous or emotionally charged parenting tasks. This practical approach to involvement might further explain the positive association between avoidance and involvement in school-related activities.

Additionally, the descriptive statistics suggest another reason: In this study, mothers had average scores for anxiety, while fathers had average scores for avoidance, with few parents at the extremes for these traits. Furthermore, the education and income levels of the sample suggest that these couples might have more egalitarian views on gender roles, reducing gendered patterns in the relationship between adult attachment and parental involvement. Historically, there has been a rise in hypogamy (where women have higher education levels than their male partners) compared to hypergamy (where men have higher education levels than their female partners; Esteve et al., 2012; Esteve et al., 2016; Van Bavel, 2012). As a result, many women have become the primary earners, leading to significant changes in family dynamics (Dema-Moreno & Díaz-Martínez, 2010). This shift in educational and economic roles has notably affected the domestic sphere (Beck & Beck-Gernsheim, 2002; Khamis & Ayuso, 2021). Therefore, the couples in this study might exhibit different patterns in the relationships between adult attachment, gatekeeping, and coparenting compared to couples in other sociocultural contexts.

This study is not without limitations. Firstly, the sample was relatively homogeneous, consisting primarily of middle and upper-middle-class couples, which limits the generalizability of the findings to all parents in Türkiye. Further research is required with a more socioeconomically and ethnically diverse samples. Secondly, while observed gate opening and reported and observed gate closing were controlled for, reported gate opening was not included because the sample size was not large enough to accommodate both subdimensions of gatekeeping. Unlike earlier research that considered maternal gatekeeping as a single-dimensional construct related to maternal beliefs about the role of fathers (Fagan & Barnett, 2003), more recent models differentiate between two dimensions of maternal gatekeeping: encouragement (gate opening) and discouragement (gate closing; Fagan & Cherson, 2017; Puhlman & Pasley, 2013; Schoppe-Sullivan et al., 2008). Thus, researchers should differentiate between the various aspects of maternal gatekeeping. Third, the data was collected during the second wave of the COVID-19 pandemic, which has affected the research design and participation rate. Fourth, research suggests that a new data set different from the data used to run EFA is needed to run CFA (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). Conducting CFA with more socioeconomically diverse samples would increase the validity of the measure. Finally, the study's correlational design limits the ability to establish causal relationships.

Despite these limitations, this study makes a valuable contribution to the literature by measuring parents' maternal gatekeeping through self-reports and observational measurements. While research revealed significant associations between other interpersonal relationship quality and coparenting quality (Schoppe-Sullivan & Mangelsdorf, 2013), the present study is the first study, to the best of our knowledge, investigating the relationships between adult attachment and various dimensions of parental involvement, and one of the few examining the relationship between adult attachment and maternal gatekeeping (e.g., Aytac & Schoppe-Sullivan, 2023). This study enhances our understanding of the individual-level factors that affect coparenting relationships. It advances previous research by exploring different aspects of parental involvement and maternal gatekeeping, including both gate opening and gate closing behaviors. The findings highlight the importance of attachment in coparenting dynamics among Turkish parents and suggest further exploration of

additional individual and couple-level predictors of parental involvement for future research.

The findings provide critical methodological insights as well. The observational measurement of gatekeeping supported by both parents' reports is an important contribution to the field, considering that there are few studies employing observational tools to measure gatekeeping (e.g., Schoppe-Sullivan et al., 2021). Also, since the data was collected during the COVID-19 pandemic, the observational assessments were conducted via Zoom. The overlap of self-report and observational measurements is promising for the use of remote observational assessment in the field for future studies. Further studies may employ these observational tools to code and interpret other dyadic and triadic family interactions.

The findings also have significant implications for clinical practice and research. Understanding individual factors, such as adult attachment, that affect the development of coparenting during the transition to parenthood can inform interventions for expectant or new parents. Such interventions can promote better cooperation between parents and encourage mothers to support fathers' involvement in parenting. Improved coparenting support may enhance fathers' autonomy in decision-making and their confidence in parenting (e.g., Sasaki et al., 2010). These enhancements for fathers can positively impact children, as their development benefits from increased paternal engagement in the context of high-quality coparenting relationships (Cabrera et al., 2018). Studies indicate that interventions aimed at couples during pregnancy and the postpartum period result in improved parental mental health, enhanced coparenting quality, and better infant development (e.g., Feinberg et al., 2009). Overall, this study is crucial in addressing significant gaps in our understanding of the relationship between interparental relationships and coparenting dynamics during the critical early years of parenting.

REFERENCES

- Adamsons, K., & Buehler, C. (2007). Mothering versus fathering versus parenting: Measurement equivalence in parenting measures. *Parenting: Science and Practice*, 7(3), 271–303. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15295190701498686>
- Ainsworth, M. D. S., Blehar, M. C., Waters, E., & Wall, S. (1978). *Patterns of attachment: A psychological study of the strange situation*. Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Alexander, R., Feeney, J., Hohaus, L., & Noller, P. (2001). Attachment style and coping resources as predictors of coping strategies in the transition to parenthood. *Personal Relationships*, 8(2), 137–152. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1475-6811.2001.tb00032.x>
- Allen, S. M., & Hawkins, A. J. (1999). Maternal gatekeeping: mothers' beliefs and behaviors that inhibit greater father involvement in family work. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 61(1), 199–212. <https://doi.org/10.2307/353894>
- Altenburger, L. E., Schoppe-Sullivan, S. J., Lang, S. N., Bower, D. J., & Kamp Dush, C. M. (2014). Associations between prenatal coparenting behavior and observed coparenting behavior at 9-months postpartum. *Journal of Family Psychology*, 28(4), 495–504. <https://doi.org/10.1037/fam0000012>
- Amato, P. R. (2000). The consequences of divorce for adults and children. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 62(4), 1269–1287. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1741-3737.2000.01269.x>
- Ammaniti, M., & Gallese, V. (2014). *The birth of subjectivity: Psychodynamics, neurobiology, and the self*. New York, NY: W. W. Norton.

- Anderson, S., Roggman, L. A., Innocenti, M. S., & Cook, G. A. (2013). Dads' parenting interactions with children: checklist of observations linked to outcomes (PICCOLO-D). *Infant Mental Health Journal*, 34(4), 339–351. <https://doi.org/10.1002/imhj.21390>
- Aycan, Z., & Eskin, M. (2005). Relative contributions of childcare, spousal support, and organizational support in reducing work–family conflict for men and women: The case of Turkey. *Sex Roles*, 53(7), 453–471. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-005-7134-8>
- Aytac, F. K. (2023). Is it love? The mediating role of traditional motherhood between maternal warmth and maternal gatekeeping. *Current Psychology*, 42(8), 6062–6076. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-021-01880-8>
- Aytac, F. K., & Schoppe-Sullivan, S. J. (2024). Division of labor and maternal gatekeeping during the second wave of COVID-19 in Turkey. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, 33(2), 383–394. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10826-023-02721-x>
- Aytac, F. K., & Schoppe-Sullivan, S. J. (2023). Adult attachment as a predictor of maternal gatekeeping among new parents. *Personal Relationships*, 30(3), 1096–1116. <https://doi.org/10.1111/per.12481>
- Barlas, Y., & Carpenter, S. (1990). Philosophical roots of model validation: Two paradigms. *System Dynamics Review*, 6, 148–166. <https://doi.org/10.1002/sdr.4260060203>
- Beck, E., & Beck-Gernsheim, E. (2002). *Reinventing the family. Search of new lifestyles.* New York, NY: Wiley.
- Beitel, A. H., & Parke, R. D. (1998). Paternal involvement in infancy: The role of maternal and paternal attitudes. *Journal of Family Psychology*, 12(2), 268–288. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0893-3200.12.2.268>

- Belsky, J. (1984). The determinants of parenting: A process model. *Child Development*, 55(1), 83–96. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1129836>
- Bianchi, S. M. (2011). Family change and time allocation in American families. *The ANNALS of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 638(1), 21–44. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0002716211413731>
- Biller, H. B. (1993). *Fathers and families: Paternal factors in child development*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Publishing Group, Inc.
- Bornstein, M. H. (1995). Form and function: Implications for studies of culture and human development. *Culture & Psychology*, 1(1), 123–137. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1354067X9511009>
- Bornstein, M. H. (2013). Parenting × gender × culture × time. In W. B. Wilcox & K. Kovner Kline (Eds.), *Gender and parenthood: Biological and social scientific perspectives* (pp. 91–119). Columbia University Press.
- Bornstein, M. H. (2015). Children’s parents. In *Handbook of child psychology and developmental science: Ecological settings and processes* (Vol. 4, 7th ed., pp. 55–132). John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Bowlby, J. (1951). *Maternal care and mental health* (Vol. 2). Geneva: World Health Organization.
- Bowlby, J. (1958). *Can I leave my baby?* London: National Association for Mental Health.
- Bowlby, J. (1970). Disruption of affectional bonds and its effects on behavior. *Journal of Contemporary Psychotherapy*, 2, 75–86.
- Boyle, M. H., Jenkins, J. M., Georgiades, K., Cairney, J., Duku, E., & Racine, Y. (2004). Differential-maternal parenting behavior: estimating within- and

between-family effects on children. *Child development*, 75(5), 1457–1476.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8624.2004.00751.x>

Brennan, K. A., Clark, C. L., & Shaver, P. R. (1998). Self-report measurement of adult attachment: An integrative overview. In J. A. Simpson & W. S. Rholes (Eds.), *Attachment theory and close relationships* (pp. 46–76). Guilford Press.

Bronfenbrenner, U. (1995). Developmental ecology through space and time: A future perspective. In P. Moen, G. H. Elder Jr., & K. Luscher (Eds.), *Examining lives in context: Perspectives on the ecology of human development* (pp. 619–647). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Cabrera, N., Fitzgerald, H. E., Bradley, R. H., & Roggman, L. (2007). Modeling the dynamics of paternal influences on children over the life course. *Applied Developmental Science*, 11(4), 185–189.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/10888690701762027>

Cabrera, N. J., Fitzgerald, H. E., Bradley, R. H., & Roggman, L. (2014). The ecology of father-child relationships: An expanded model. *Journal of Family Theory & Review*, 6(4), 336–354. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jftr.12054>

Cabrera, N. J., Hofferth, S. L., & Chae, S. (2011). Patterns and predictors of father–infant engagement across race/ethnic groups. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 26(3), 365–375. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecresq.2011.01.001>

Cabrera, N., Tamis-LeMonda, C. S., Bradley, R. H., Hofferth, S. and Lamb, M. E. (2000). Fatherhood in the twenty-first century. *Child Development*, 71, 127–136. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8624.00126>

Cabrera, N. J., & Tamis-LeMonda, C. S. (Eds.). (2013). *Handbook of father involvement: Multidisciplinary perspectives*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Campbell, L., Simpson, J. A., Kashy, D. A., & Rholes, W. S. (2001). Attachment orientations, dependence, and behavior in a stressful situation: An application

of the actor-partner interdependence model. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, 18(6), 821–843. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0265407501186005>

Cannon, E. A., Schoppe-Sullivan, S. J., Mangelsdorf, S., Brown, G. L., & Sokolowski, M. S. (2008). Parent characteristics as antecedents of maternal gatekeeping and fathering behavior. *Family Process*, 47, 501–519. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1545-5300.2008.00268.x>

Carneiro, P., & Crawford, C., & Goodman, A. (2007). The Impact of Early Cognitive and Non-Cognitive Skills on Later Outcomes, *CEE Discussion Papers 0092*, Centre for the Economics of Education, LSE. Retrieved from <https://ideas.repec.org/p/cep/ceedps/0092.html>

Cassidy, J. (1994). Emotion regulation: Influences of attachment relationships. *Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development*, 59, 228–249. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-5834.1994.tb01287.x>

Castillo, J., Welch, G., & Sarver, C. (2011). Fathering: The relationship between fathers' residence, fathers' sociodemographic characteristics, and father involvement. *Maternal and Child Health Journal*, 15(8), 1342–1349. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10995-010-0684-6>

Coakes, S. (2005). *SPSS: Analysis without anguish*. Wiley Australia.

Cole, D. A. (1987). Utility of confirmatory factor analysis in test validation research. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 55(4), 584–594. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-006X.55.4.584>

Coltrane, S. (2000). Research on household labor: modeling and measuring the social embeddedness of routine family work. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 62(4), 1208–1233. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1741-3737.2000.01208.x>

Cook, G. A., Roggman, L. A., & Boyce, L. K. (2011). Fathers' and mothers' cognitive stimulation in early play with toddlers: Predictors of 5th grade reading and

- Cowan, C. P., & Cowan, P. A. (1996). *School children and their families project: Description of co-parenting style ratings*. Unpublished coding scales, University of California, Berkeley.
- Cox, M. J., & Paley, B. (1997). Families as systems. *Annual review of psychology*, 48, 243–267. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.48.1.243>
- Darling, N., & Steinberg, L. (1993). Parenting style as context: An integrative model. *Psychological Bulletin*, 113(3), 487–496. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.113.3.487>
- Davis, R. N., Caldwell, C. H., Clark, S. J., & Davis, M. M. (2009). Depressive symptoms in nonresident African American fathers and involvement with their sons. *Pediatrics*, 124(6), 1611–1618. <https://doi.org/10.1542/peds.2009-0718>
- Day, R. D., & Lamb, M. E. (2004). *Conceptualizing and measuring father involvement*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- de Falco, S., Esposito, G., Venuti, P., & Bornstein, M. H. (2008). Fathers' play with their Down Syndrome children. *Journal of intellectual disability research: JIDR*, 52(Pt 6), 490–502. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2788.2008.01052.x>
- DeFrain, J. (1975). *The nature and meaning of parenthood*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Wisconsin, Madison.
- Dema-Moreno, S., & Díaz-Martínez, C. (2010). Gender inequalities and the role of money in Spanish dual-income couples. *European Societies*, 12(1), 65–84. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14616690903219181>

- DeMaris, A., Mahoney, A., & Pargament, K. I. (2011). Doing the scut work of infant care: Does religiousness encourage father involvement? *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 73(2), 354–368. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1741-3737.2010.00811.x>
- Demuth, S. & Brown, S. L. (2004). Family structure, family processes and adolescent delinquency: The significance of parental abuse versus parental gender. *Journal of research in crime and delinquency*, 41(1), 58–81. <https://doi.org/10.1177/002242780325>
- Don, B. P., & Mickelson, K. D. (2014). Relationship satisfaction trajectories across the transition to parenthood among low-risk parents. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 76, 677–692. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jomf.12111>
- Doss, B. D., & Rhoades, G. K. (2017). The transition to parenthood: Impact on couples' romantic relationships. *Current Opinion in Psychology*, 13, 25–28. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.copsyc.2016.04.003>
- Doucet, A. (2001). You see the need perhaps more clearly than I have. *Journal of Family Issues*, 22, 328–357. <https://doi.org/10.1177/019251301022003004>
- Esteve, A., García-Román, J., & Permanyer, I. (2012). The gender-gap reversal in education and its effect on union formation: The end of hypergamy? *Population and Development Review*, 38(3), 535–546. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1728-4457.2012.00515.x>
- Esteve, A., Schwartz, C. R., van Bavel, J., Permanyer, I., Klesment, M., & García-Román, J. (2016). The end of hypergamy: Global trends and implications. *Population and Development Review*, 42(4), 615–625. <https://doi.org/10.1111/padr.12012>
- Evans, R. H. (1996). An analysis of criterion variable reliability in conjoint analysis. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 82(3), 988–990. <https://doi.org/10.2466/pms.1996.82.3.988>

- Fagan, J., & Barnett, M. (2003). The relationship between maternal gatekeeping, paternal competence, mothers' attitudes about the father role, and father involvement. *Journal of Family Issues*, 24(8), 1020–1043. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0192513X03256397>
- Fagan, J., & Cherson, M. (2017). Maternal gatekeeping: The associations among facilitation, encouragement, and low-income fathers' engagement with young children. *Journal of Family Issues*, 38(5), 633–653. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0192513X15578007>
- Feeney, J. (2003). The systemic nature of couple relationships: An attachment perspective. In P. Erdman & T. Caffery (Eds.), *Attachment and family systems: Conceptual, empirical, and therapeutic relatedness* (pp. 139–163). Brunner-Routledge.
- Feeney, J., Alexander, R., Noller, P., & Hohaus, L. (2003). Attachment insecurity, depression, and the transition to parenthood. *Personal Relationships*, 10(4), 475–493. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1475-6811.2003.00061.x>
- Feinberg, M. E. (2002). Coparenting and the transition to parenthood: A framework for prevention. *Clinical Child and Family Psychology Review*, 5(3), 173–195. <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1019695015110>
- Feinberg, M. (2003). The internal structure and ecological context of coparenting: A framework for research and intervention. *Parenting*, 3(2), 95–131. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15327922PAR0302_01
- Feinberg, M. E., Kan, M. L., & Goslin, M. C. (2009). Enhancing coparenting, parenting, and child self-regulation: Effects of family foundations 1 year after birth. *Prevention Science: The Official Journal of the Society for Prevention Research*, 10(3), 276–285. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11121-009-0130-4>
- Fivaz-Depeursinge, E., Frascarolo, F., & Corboz-Warnery, A. (1996). Assessing the triadic alliance between fathers, mothers, and infants at play. In *Understanding how family-level dynamics affect children's development: Studies of two-parent families* (pp. 27–44). Jossey-Bass/Wiley.

- Fitzgerald, H. E., & Bockneck, E. L. (2013). Fathers, children, and the risk-resilience continuum. In N. J. Cabrera & C. S. Tamis-LeMonda (Eds.), *Handbook of father involvement: Multidisciplinary perspectives* (2nd ed., pp. 168–185). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Fitzgerald, H. E., & Bradley, R. H. (2013). Paternal family relationships, child risk, and child outcomes. *Family Science*, 3(3–4), 141–144. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19424620.2012.779421>
- Fraley, R. C., Waller, N. G., & Brennan, K. A. (2000). An item response theory analysis of self-report measures of adult attachment. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 78(2), 350–365. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.78.2.350>
- Freeman, H., Newland, L. A., & Coyl, D. D. (2008). Father beliefs as a mediator between contextual barriers and father involvement. *Early Child Development and Care*, 178(7–8), 803–819. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03004430802352228>
- Frosch, C. A., Mangelsdorf, S. C., & McHale, J. L. (1998). Correlates of marital behavior at 6 months postpartum. *Developmental Psychology*, 34(6), 1438–1449. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.34.6.1438>
- Fuligni, A. S., & Brooks-Gunn, J. (2013). Mother–child interactions in Early Head Start: Age and ethnic differences in low-income dyads. *Parenting: Science and Practice*, 13(1), 1–26. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15295192.2013.732422>
- Furstenberg F. F. (1993). Good Dads–Bad Dads: The Two Faces of Fatherhood. In: Cherlin Andrew J., editor. *The Changing American Family and Public Policy* (pp. 193–218). Washington, D.C: Urban Institute.
- Gable, S., Belsky, J., & Crnic, K. (1995). Coparenting during the child’s 2nd year: A descriptive account. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 57(3), 609–616. <https://doi.org/10.2307/353916>
- Gable, S., Crnic, K., & Belsky, J. (1994). Coparenting within the family system: Influences on children's development. *Family Relations: An Interdisciplinary*

Journal of Applied Family Studies, 43(4), 380–386. <https://doi.org/10.2307/585368>

Gaunt, R. (2008). Maternal gatekeeping: Antecedents and consequences. *Journal of Family Issues*, 29(3), 373–395. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0192513X07307851>

Geary, D. C. (2000). Attachment, caregiving, and parental investment. *Psychological Inquiry*, 11(2), 84–86. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15327965PLI1102_02

Gleditsch, R. F., & Pedersen, D. E. (2017). Mothers' and fathers' ratings of parental involvement: Views of married dual-earners with preschool-age children. *Marriage & Family Review*, 53(6), 589–612. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01494929.2017.1283383>

Goeke-Morey, M. C., & Mark Cummings, E. (2007). Impact of father involvement: A closer look at indirect effects models involving marriage and child adjustment. *Applied Developmental Science*, 11(4), 221–225. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10888690701762126>

Griffin, D. W., & Bartholomew, K. (1994). Models of the self and other: Fundamental dimensions underlying measures of adult attachment. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 67(3), 430–445. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.67.3.430>

Guzzo, K. B. (2011). New fathers' experiences with their own fathers and attitudes toward fathering. *Fathering: A Journal of Theory, Research, and Practice About Men as Fathers*, 9(3), 268–290. <https://doi.org/10.3149/fth.0903.268>

Haas, L., & Hwang, C. P. (2008). The impact of taking parental leave on fathers' participation in childcare and relationships with children: Lessons from Sweden. *Community, Work & Family*, 11(1), 85–104. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13668800701785346>

Hair, J. F., Anderson, R. E., Tatham, R. L., & Black, W. C. (1998). *Multivariate data analysis (5th ed.)*. Prentice Hall.

- Harrow, M., & Amdur, M. J. (1971). Guilt and depressive disorders. *Archives of General Psychiatry*, 25(3), 240–246. <https://doi.org/10.1001/archpsyc.1971.01750150048007>
- Hazan, C., & Shaver, P. (1987). Romantic love conceptualized as an attachment process. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 52(3), 511–524. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.52.3.511>
- Herzog, E., & Sudia, C. E. (1973). *Children in fatherless families*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago.
- Hofferth, S., & Sandberg, J. (2001). How American children spend their time. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 63(2), 295–308. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1741-3737.2001.00295.x>
- Holmes, E. K., & Huston, A. C. (2010). Understanding positive father–child interaction: Children’s, fathers’, and mothers’ contributions. *Fathering: A Journal of Theory, Research, and Practice About Men as Fathers*, 8(2), 203–225. <https://doi.org/10.3149/fth.1802.203>
- Holmes, E. K., Sasaki, T., & Hazen, N. L. (2013). Smooth versus rocky transitions to parenthood: Family systems in developmental context. *Family Relations*, 62, 824–837. <https://doi.org/10.1111/fare.12041>
- Hook, J. L., & Wolfe, C. M. (2012). New fathers?: Residential fathers’ time with children in four countries. *Journal of Family Issues*, 33(4), 415–450. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0192513X11425779>
- Hooper, D., Coughlan, J., & Mullen, M. R. (2008). Structural equation modelling: Guidelines for determining model fit. *Electronic Journal of Business Research Methods*, 6(1), Article 1. <https://academic-publishing.org/index.php/ejbrm/article/view/1224>

- Hu, L., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling*, 6(1), 1–55. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10705519909540118>
- Jahromi, L. B., Zeiders, K. H., Updegraff, K. A., Umaña-Taylor, A. J., & Bayless, S. D. (2018). Coparenting conflict and academic readiness in children of teen mothers: Effortful control as a mediator. *Family Process*, 57(2), 462–476. <https://doi.org/10.1111/famp.12290>
- Kağıtçıbaşı, Ç., & Ataca, B. (2015). Value of children, family change, and implications for the care of the elderly. *Cross-Cultural Research*, 49(4), 374–392. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1069397115598139>
- Kalil, A., Ziol-Guest, K. M., & Coley, R. L. (2005). Perceptions of father involvement patterns in teenage-mother families: Predictors and links to mothers' psychological adjustment. *Family Relations*, 54(2), 197–211. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0197-6664.2005.00016.x>
- Karreman, A., van Tuijl, C., van Aken, M. A. G., & Deković, M. (2008). Parenting, coparenting, and effortful control in preschoolers. *Journal of Family Psychology*, 22(1), 30–40. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0893-3200.22.1.30>
- Karu, M., & Tremblay, D.-G. (2017). Fathers on parental leave: An analysis of rights and take-up in 29 countries. *Community, Work & Family*, 21, 1–19. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13668803.2017.1346586>
- Kenny, D. A. (1996). Models of non-independence in dyadic research. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, 13(2), 279–294. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0265407596132007>
- Kenny, D. A., Kashy, D. A., & Cook, W. L. (2006). *Dyadic data analysis* (pp. xix, 458). Guilford Press.

- Khamis, N., & Ayuso, L. (2022). Female breadwinner: More egalitarian couples? An international comparison. *Journal of Family and Economic Issues*, 43(3), 534–545. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10834-021-09784-2>
- Kirkpatrick, L. A., & Davis, K. E. (1994). Attachment style, gender, and relationship stability: A longitudinal analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 66(3), 502–512. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.66.3.502>
- Knop, B., & Brewster, K. L. (2016). Family flexibility in response to economic conditions: Fathers' involvement in child-care tasks. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 78(2), 283–292. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jomf.12249>
- Kochanska, G., Aksan, N., Prisco, T. R., & Adams, E. E. (2008). Mother–child and father–child mutually responsive orientation in the first 2 years and children's outcomes at preschool age: Mechanisms of influence. *Child Development*, 79, 30–44. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8624.2007.01109.x>
- Kohn, M. L. (1969). *Class and conformity: A study of values*. Homewood, IL: Dorsey Press.
- Korabik, K. (2015). The intersection of gender and work–family guilt. In M. J. Mills (Ed.), *Gender and the work-family experience: An intersection of two domains* (pp. 141–157). Springer International Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-08891-4_8
- Kuczynski, L. (2003). Beyond bidirectionality: bilateral conceptual frameworks for understanding dynamics in parent-child relations. In L. Kuczynski (Ed.), *Handbook of dynamics in parent-child relations* (pp. 3–24). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage. <https://doi.org/10.4135/9781452229645.n1>
- Kuczynski, L., & Parkin, C. M. (2007). Agency and bidirectionality in socialization: Interactions, transactions, and relational dialectics. In J. E. Grusec & P. Hastings (Eds.), *Handbook of socialization: Theory and research* (pp. 259–283). New York, NY: Guilford Press.

- Kulik, L., & Tsoref, H. (2010). The entrance to the maternal garden: Environmental and personal variables that explain maternal gatekeeping. *Journal of Gender Studies*, 19(3), 263–277. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09589236.2010.494342>
- Lam, C. B., Tam, C. Y. S., Chung, K. K. H., & Li, X. (2018). The link between coparenting cooperation and child social competence: The moderating role of child negative affect. *Journal of Family Psychology*, 32(5), 692–698. <https://doi.org/10.1037/fam0000428>
- Lamb, M. E. (Ed.). (1981). *The role of the father in child development*. New York, NY: Wiley.
- Lamb, M. E. (Ed.). (1986). *The father's role: Applied perspectives*. New York, NY: Wiley.
- Lamb, M. E. (Ed.). (1987). *The father's role: Cross-cultural perspectives*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Lamb, M. E. (1995). The changing roles of fathers. In J. L. Shapiro, M. J. Diamond, & M. Greenberg (Eds.), *Becoming a father: Contemporary, social, developmental, and clinical perspectives* (pp. 18–35). Springer Publishing Company. (Reprinted in modified form from M. Lamb (Ed.), “The father’s Role: Applied perspectives,” New York, NY: Wiley, 1986, pp. 3–27).
- Lamb, M. E. (1997). The development of father-infant relationships. In M.E. Lamb (Eds.), *The Role of the father in child development* (pp.104–120), New York, NY: Wiley.
- Lamb, M. E. (2000). The history of research on father involvement: An overview. *Marriage & Family Review*, 29(2-3), 23–42. https://doi.org/10.1300/J002v29n02_03
- Lamb, M. E., Pleck, J. H., Charnov, E. L., & Levine, J. A. (1985). Paternal behavior in humans. *American Zoologist*, 25, 883–894. <https://doi.org/10.1093/icb/25.3.883>

- Lamb, M. E., Pleck, J. H., Charnov, E. L., & Levine, J. A. (1987). A biosocial perspective on paternal behavior and involvement. In J. B. Lancaster, J. Altmann, A. S. Rossi, & L. R. Sherrod (Eds.), *Parent across the lifespan: Biosocial dimensions* (pp. 111–142). New York: Aldine de Gruyter.
- Lamb, M. E., Pleck, J. H., & Levine, J. A. (1985). Effects of paternal involvement on fathers and mothers. *Marriage & Family Review*, 9(3-4), 67–83. https://doi.org/10.1300/J002v09n03_06
- LaRossa, R. and Reitzes, D.C. (1993) Symbolic interactionism and family studies. In: Boss, P.G., Doherty, W.J., LaRossa, R., Schumm, W.R. and Steinmetz, S.K., Eds., *Sourcebook of family theories and methods: A contextual approach*. Plenum, New York, 135–163. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/978-0-387-85764-0_6
- Lee, J. Y., & Lee, S. J. (2018). Caring is masculine: Stay-at-home fathers and masculine identity. *Psychology of Men & Masculinity*, 19(1), 47–58. <https://doi.org/10.1037/men0000079>
- Levy, D. (1943). *Maternal overprotection*. New York, NY: Columbia University Press.
- Lo, C. K. M., Chan, K. L., & Ip, P. (2019). Insecure Adult Attachment and Child Maltreatment: A Meta-Analysis. *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse*, 20(5), 706–719. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1524838017730579>
- Maas, M. K., McDaniel, B. T., Feinberg, M. E., & Jones, D. E. (2018). Division of labor and multiple domains of sexual satisfaction among first-time parents. *Journal of Family Issues*, 39(1), 104–127. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0192513X15604343>
- Mackay, W. C., & Immerman, R. S. (2009). Cultural evolution and the nuclear family: Whither cleavage of the father? *Journal of Social, Evolutionary, and Cultural Psychology*, 3(2), 155–181. <https://doi.org/10.1037/h0099324>

- Margolin, G., Gordis, E. B., & John, R. S. (2001). Coparenting: A link between marital conflict and parenting in two-parent families. *Journal of Family Psychology*, *15*(1), 3–21. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0893-3200.15.1.3>
- Marsiglio, W., Roy, K., & Fox, G. L. (2005). *Situated Fathering: A Focus on Physical and Social Spaces*. Rowman & Littlefield Publishers.
- McBride, B. A., Brown, G. L., Bost, K. K., Shin, N., Vaughn, B., & Korth, B. (2005). Paternal identity, maternal gatekeeping, and father involvement. *Family Relations: An Interdisciplinary Journal of Applied Family Studies*, *54*(3), 360–372. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1741-3729.2005.00323.x>
- McClain, L., & Brown, S. L. (2017). The roles of fathers' involvement and coparenting in relationship quality among cohabiting and married parents. *Sex Roles: A Journal of Research*, *76*(5-6), 334–345. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-016-0612-3>
- McHale, J., Fivaz-Depeursinge, E., Dickstein, S., Robertson, J., & Daley, M. (2008). New evidence for the social embeddedness of infants' early triangular capacities. *Family Process*, *47*(4), 445–463. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1545-5300.2008.00265.x>
- McHale, J. P., Kuersten-Hogan, R., & Rao, N. (2004). Growing points for coparenting theory and research. *Journal of Adult Development*, *11*(3), 221–234. <https://doi.org/10.1023/B:JADE.0000035629.29960.ed>
- McHale, J. P., Rao, N., & Krasnow, A. D. (2000). Constructing family climates: Chinese mothers' reports of their co-parenting behaviour and preschoolers' adaptation. *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, *24*(1), 111–118. <https://doi.org/10.1080/016502500383548>
- McHale, J. P., & Lindahl, K. M. (Eds.). (2011). *Coparenting: A conceptual and clinical examination of family systems* (pp. xii, 314). American Psychological Association. <https://doi.org/10.1037/12328-000>

- McHale, J. P., & Rasmussen, J. L. (1998). Coparental and family group-level dynamics during infancy: Early family precursors of child and family functioning during preschool. *Development and Psychopathology*, *10*(1), 39–59. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0954579498001527>
- McLanahan, S., & Sandefur, G. (1994). *Growing up with a single parent: What hurts, what helps*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- MEB. (2010). *İlköğretim kurumları standartları eğitim dokümanı*. Ankara: İlköğretim Genel Müdürlüğü.
- Mehall, K. G., Spinrad, T. L., Eisenberg, N., & Gaertner, B. M. (2009). Examining the relations of infant temperament and couples' marital satisfaction to mother and father involvement: a longitudinal study. *Fathering: A Journal of Theory, Research, and Practice About Men as Fathers*, *7*(1), 23–48. <https://doi.org/10.3149/fth.0701.23>
- Meteyer, K., & Perry-Jenkins, M. (2010). Father involvement among working-class, dual-earner couples. *Fathering: A Journal of Theory, Research, and Practice about Men as Fathers*, *8*(3), 379–403. <https://doi.org/10.3149/fth.0803.379>
- Mikulincer, M., & Florian, V. (1999). The association between spouses' self-reports of attachment styles and representations of family dynamics. *Family Process*, *38*(1), 69–83. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1545-5300.1999.00069.x>
- Mikulincer, M., & Shaver, P. (2005). Attachment theory and emotions in close relationships: Exploring the attachment-related dynamics of emotional reactions to relational events. *Personal Relationships*, *12*, 149–168. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1350-4126.2005.00108.x>
- Mikulincer, M., & Shaver, P. R. (2007). *Attachment in adulthood: Structure, dynamics, and change* (p. 578). The Guilford Press.

- Mikulincer, M., & Shaver, P. R. (2012). Adult attachment orientations and relationship processes. *Journal of Family Theory & Review*, 4(4), 259–274. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1756-2589.2012.00142.x>
- Minuchin, S. (1974). *Families and family therapy*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Monteiro, L., Veríssimo, M., & Pessoa e Costa, I. (2008). Escala de Envolvimento Parental: Atividades de cuidados e de socialização [Parental Involvement Questionnaire: Childcare and socialization related tasks]. *Unpublished manual*. Lisboa: ISPA–Instituto Universitário.
- Nielsen, M., Haun, D., Kärtner, J., & Legare, C. H. (2017). The persistent sampling bias in developmental psychology: A call to action. *Journal of experimental child psychology*, 162, 31–38. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jecp.2017.04.017>
- Nunnally, J.C. (1978). *Psychometric theory* (2nd Edition). McGraw-Hill, New York.
- O'Connor, S., Hanlon, P., O'Donnell, C. A., Garcia, S., Glanville, J., & Mair, F. S. (2016). Understanding factors affecting patient and public engagement and recruitment to digital health interventions: A systematic review of qualitative studies. *BMC Medical Informatics and Decision Making*, 16(1), 120. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12911-016-0359-3>
- Olsavsky, A. L., Mahambrey, M. S., Berrigan, M. N., & Schoppe-Sullivan, S. J. (2020). Adult attachment and jealousy of the partner–infant relationship at the transition to parenthood. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, 37(6), 1745–1765. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0265407520908336>
- Palkovitz, R. (1997). Reconstructing “involvement”: Expanding conceptualizations of men's caring in contemporary families. In A. J. Hawkins & D. C. Dollahite (Eds.), *Generative fathering: Beyond deficit perspectives* (pp. 200–216). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- Palkovitz, R. (2014). *Involved fathering and men's adult development: Provisional balances*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Panecsofar, N. (2020). Father's contributions to children's language development. In H. E. Fitzgerald, K. von Klitzing, N. Cabrera, J. S. de Mendonça, & T. Skjøthaug (Eds.), *Handbook of fathers and child development: Prenatal to preschool*. New York, NY: Springer.
- Parke, R. D. (1996). *Fatherhood* (Vol. 33). Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Parke, R. D., & Buriel, R. (2006). Socialization in the family: Ethnic and ecological perspectives. In N. Eisenberg, W. Damon, & R. M. Lerner (Eds.), *Handbook of child psychology: Social, emotional, and personality development* (pp. 429–504). New York, NY: Wiley.
- Parke, R. D., Dennis, J., Flyr, M. L., Morris, K. L., Leidy, M. S., & Schofield, T. J. (2006). Fathers: Cultural and ecological perspectives. In *Parenting* (pp. 119–160). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Paulson, J. F., Dauber, S. E., & Leiferman, J. A. (2011). Parental depression, relationship quality, and nonresident father involvement with their infants. *Journal of Family Issues*, 32(4), 528–549. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0192513X10388733>
- Pech, A., Curran, M., Speirs, K., Li, X., Barnett, M., & Paschall, K. (2020). Understanding child behavior problems in young children with previously incarcerated fathers: Parents' depressive symptoms, relationship quality, and coparenting. *Marriage & Family Review*, 56(6), 553–574. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01494929.2020.1728602>
- Pedro, M. F., Ribeiro, T., & Shelton, K. H. (2015). Romantic attachment and family functioning: The mediating role of marital satisfaction. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, 24(11), 3482–3495. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10826-015-0150-6>

- Peplau, L. A. (1983). Roles and gender. In H. H. Kelley, et al. *Close relationships* (pp. 220–264). San Francisco, CA: Freeman.
- Perry-Jenkins, M., & Gerstel, N. (2020). Work and family in the second decade of the 21st century. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 82(1), 420–453. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jomf.12636>
- Pexton, S., Farrants, J., & Yule, W. (2018). The impact of fathers' military deployment on child adjustment. The support needs of primary school children and their families separated during active military service: A pilot study. *Clinical child psychology and psychiatry*, 23(1), 110–124. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1359104517724494>
- Pleck, J. H. (1981). *The myth of masculinity*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Pleck, J. H. (1983). Husbands' paid work and family roles: Current research issues. In H. Lopata & J. Pleck (Eds.), *Research in the interweave of social roles: Vol. 3. Families and jobs* (pp. 231–333). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Pleck, J. H. (1997). Paternal involvement: Levels, sources, and consequences. In M. E. Lamb (Ed.), *The role of the father in child development* (pp. 66–103). New York, NY: Wiley.
- Pleck, J. H. (2004). Two Dimensions of Fatherhood: A History of the Good Dad-Bad Dad Complex. In M. E. Lamb (Ed.), *The role of the father in child development* (pp. 32–57). New York, NY: Wiley.
- Polat, M., Eryiğit, D., Aydoğdu, B. N., Ekşi, F., & Ekşi, H. (2023). Adapting the guilt about parenting scale (GAPS) to Turkish culture: Validity and reliability study. *Current Psychology*, 42(21), 18099–18107. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-022-03007-z>
- Puhlman, D. J. (2013). *Developing and Testing a Comprehensive Measure of Maternal Gatekeeping*. <https://diginole.lib.fsu.edu/islandora/object/fsu%3A183863/>

- Roberson, P. N. E., Sabo, M., & Wickel, K. (2011). Internal working models of attachment and postdivorce coparent relationships. *Journal of Divorce & Remarriage*, 52(3), 187–201. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10502556.2011.569442>
- Sahin-Acar, B., Bahtiyar-Saygan, B., Alsancak-Akbulut, C., & Sagel-Cetiner, E. (2019). Reunion after a long day: Mother-child dyads' unshared memory conversations. *Cognitive Development*, 52, 100822. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cogdev.2019.100822>
- Saleh, M. F., & Hilton, J. M. (2011). A comparison of the paternal involvement of low-income fathers in four developmental stages: Adolescence, young adult, adult, and midlife. *Family Journal*, 19(1), 47–55. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1066480710387496>
- Sameroff, A. J. (1995). General systems theories and developmental psychopathology. In D. Cicchetti & D. J. Cohen (Eds.), *Developmental psychopathology. Vol. 1: Theory and methods: Wiley series on personality processes* (pp. 659–695). Oxford, UK: Wiley.
- Sasaki, T., Hazen, N. L., & Swann Jr., W. B. (2010). The supermom trap: Do involved dads erode moms' self-competence? *Personal Relationships*, 17(1), 71–79. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1475-6811.2010.01253.x>
- Sayer, L. C., Gauthier, A. H., & Furstenberg Jr., F. F. (2004). Educational differences in parents' time with children: Cross-national variations. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 66(5), 1152–1169. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0022-2445.2004.00084.x>
- Schoppe-Sullivan, S. J., & Altenburger, L. E. (2019). Parental gatekeeping. In *Handbook of parenting: Being and becoming a parent, Vol. 3, 3rd ed* (pp. 167–198). Routledge/Taylor & Francis Group. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429433214-5>
- Schoppe-Sullivan, S. J., Altenburger, L. E., Lee, M. A., Bower, D. J., & Kamp Dush, C. M. (2015). Who are the gatekeepers? Predictors of maternal gatekeeping. *Parenting*, 15(3), 166–186. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15295192.2015.1053321>

- Schoppe-Sullivan, S. J., Brown, G. L., Cannon, E. A., Mangelsdorf, S. C., & Sokolowski, M. S. (2008). Maternal gatekeeping, coparenting quality, and fathering behavior in families with infants. *Journal of Family Psychology: Journal of the Division of Family Psychology of the American Psychological Association (Division 43)*, 22(3), 389–398. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0893-3200.22.3.389>
- Schoppe-Sullivan, S. J., & Fagan, J. (2020). The evolution of fathering research in the 21st century: Persistent challenges, new directions. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 82(1), 175–197. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jomf.12645>
- Schoppe-Sullivan, S. J., & Mangelsdorf, S. C. (2013). Parent characteristics and early coparenting behavior at the transition to parenthood. *Social Development*, 22(2), 363–383. <https://doi.org/10.1111/sode.12014>
- Schoppe-Sullivan, S. J., Mangelsdorf, S. C., Frosch, C. A., & McHale, J. L. (2004). Associations between coparenting and marital behavior from infancy to the preschool years. *Journal of Family Psychology*, 18(1), 194–207. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0893-3200.18.1.194>
- Schoppe-Sullivan, S., McBride, B., & Ho, M.-H. (2004). Unidimensional versus multidimensional perspectives on father involvement. *Fathering: A Journal of Theory, Research, and Practice About Men as Fathers*, 2, 147–163. <https://doi.org/10.3149/fth.0202.147>
- Schoppe-Sullivan, S. J., Settle, T., Lee, J.-K., & Kamp Dush, C. M. (2016). Supportive coparenting relationships as a haven of psychological safety at the transition to parenthood. *Research in Human Development*, 13(1), 32–48. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15427609.2016.1141281>
- Schoppe-Sullivan, S. J., Shafer, K., Olofson, E., & Kamp Dush, C. M. (2021). Fathers' parenting and coparenting behavior in dual-earner families: Contributions of traditional masculinity, father nurturing role beliefs, and maternal gate closing. *Psychology of Men & Masculinity*, 22(3), 538–550. <https://doi.org/10.1037/men0000336>

- Schumacker, R. E., & Lomax, R. G. (2010). *A beginner's guide to structural equation modeling* (3rd ed.). Routledge/Taylor & Francis Group.
- Seward, R. R., E.Yeatts, D., & Zoitarelli, L. K. (2002). Parental leave and father involvement in childcare: Sweden and the United States. *Journal of Comparative Family Studies*, 33(3), 387–399. <https://doi.org/10.3138/jcfs.33.3.387>
- Shade, K., Kools, S., Pinderhughes, H., & Weiss, S. J. (2012). Choosing fatherhood: How teens in the justice system embrace or reject a father identity. *Journal of Community Health Nursing*, 29(2), 91–105. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07370016.2012.670573>
- Shaver, P. R., & Brennan, K. A. (1992). Attachment styles and the “big five” personality traits: their connections with each other and with romantic relationship outcomes. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 18(5), 536–545. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167292185003>
- Shwalb, D. W., Shwalb, B. J., & Lamb, M. E. (2013). Fathers in cultural context. *Infant and Child Development*, 22(3), 331–332. <https://doi.org/10.1002/icd.1796>
- Simpson, J. A., & Rholes, W. S. (2019). Adult attachment orientations and well-being during the transition to parenthood. *Attachment in Adulthood*, 25, 47–52. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.copsyc.2018.02.019>
- Simpson, J. A., Rholes, W. S., Campbell, L., Wilson, C., & Tran, S. (2002). Adult attachment, the transition to parenthood, and marital well-being. In P. Noller & J. A. Feeney (Eds.), *Understanding marriage: Developments in the study of couple interaction* (pp. 385–410). Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511500077.020>
- Smith, K. M., Freeman, P. A., & Zabriskie, R. B. (2009). An examination of family communication within the core and balance model of family leisure functioning. *Family Relations: An Interdisciplinary Journal of Applied Family Studies*, 58(1), 79–90. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1741-3729.2008.00536.x>

- Stryker, S., & Statham, A. (1985). Symbolic interaction and role theory. In G. Lindzey & E. Aronson (Eds.), *The handbook of social psychology* (pp. 311–378). New York: Random House.
- Rebelsky, F., & Hanks, C. (1971). Fathers' verbal interaction with infants in the first three months of life. *Child Development*, 42(1), 63–68. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1127064>
- Richmond, M. K., & Stocker, C. M. (2008). Longitudinal associations between parents' hostility and siblings' externalizing behavior in the context of marital discord. *Journal of Family Psychology*, 22(2), 231–240. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0893-3200.22.2.231>
- Riegel, K. F. (1979). *Foundations of dialectical psychology*. New York, NY: Academic Press.
- Robbins, N., Dyer, W. J., & McBride, B. A. (2019). Fathers. In B. H. Fiese, M. Celano, K. Deater-Deckard, E. N. Jouriles, & M. A. Whisman (Eds.), *APA handbook of contemporary family psychology: Foundations, methods, and contemporary issues across the lifespan* (pp. 539–556). American Psychological Association.
- Roggman, L. A., Boyce, L. K., Cook, G. A., & Cook, J. (2002). Getting dads involved: Predictors of father involvement in Early Head Start and with their children. *Infant Mental Health Journal: Official Publication of The World Association for Infant Mental Health*, 23(1–2), 62–78. <https://doi.org/10.1002/imhj.10004>
- Rubin, D.B. (1987) *Multiple Imputation for Nonresponse in Surveys*. John Wiley & Sons Inc., New York.
- Rutter, M. (1972). *Maternal deprivation reassessed*. Harmondsworth: Penguin.
- Tach, L., Mincy, R., & Edin, K. (2010). Parenting as a “package deal”: Relationships, fertility, and nonresident father involvement among unmarried parents. *Demography*, 47(1), 181–204. <https://doi.org/10.1353/dem.0.0096>

- Teubert, D., & Pinquart, M. (2010). The association between coparenting and child adjustment: A meta-analysis. *Parenting: Science and Practice, 10*(4), 286–307. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15295192.2010.492040>
- Thebaud, S., Kornrich, S., & Ruppanner, L. (2019). Good housekeeping, great expectations: gender and housework norms. *Sociological Methods & Research, 1*–29. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0049124119852395>
- Thomas, C. R., & Holmes, E. K. (2019). Are father depression and masculinity associated with father perceptions of maternal gatekeeping? *Journal of Family Psychology, 34*(4), 490–495. <https://doi.org/10.1037/fam0000604>
- Townsend, N. W. (2002). *Package deal: Marriage, work and fatherhood in men's lives*. Temple University Press. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/j.ctt14bt2mz>
- Trinder, L. (2008). Maternal gate closing and gate opening in postdivorce families. *Journal of Family Issues, 29*, 1298–1324. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0192513X08315362>
- Türk Dil Kurumu. (2024). *Türkçe sözlük*. Türk Dil Kurumu. <https://www.tdk.gov.tr>
- Tzokov, P. A. (2018). Cross-cultural study of passive aggression in the years of emerging maturity in women. *Knowledge – International Journal, 26*(3). Retrieved from: <https://ikm.mk/ojs/index.php/kij/article/view/3059/3057>
- Umemura, T., Christopher, C., Mann, T., Jacobvitz, D., & Hazen, N. (2015). Coparenting problems with toddlers predict children's symptoms of psychological problems at age 7. *Child Psychiatry & Human Development, 46*(6), 981–996. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10578-015-0536-0>
- Van Bavel, J. (2012). The reversal of gender inequality in education, union formation and fertility in Europe. *Vienna Yearbook of Population Research, 10*, 127–154. <https://doi.org/10.1553/populationyearbook2012s127>

- Van Egeren, L. A. (2000). The parental regulation inventory. Unpublished manuscript. Michigan State University.
- Van Egeren, L. A., & Hawkins, D. P. (2004). Coming to terms with coparenting: Implications of definition and measurement. *Journal of Adult Development*, *11*(3), 165–178. <https://doi.org/10.1023/B:JADE.0000035625.74672.0b>
- Walker, A. J., & McGraw, L. A. (2000). Who is responsible for responsible fathering? *Journal of Marriage and Family*, *62*(2), 563–569. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1741-3737.2000.00563.x>
- Weaver, J. M., & Schofield, T. J. (2015). Mediation and moderation of divorce effects on children's behavior problems. *Journal of Family Psychology*, *29*(1), 39–48. <https://doi.org/10.1037/fam0000043>
- Whitchurch, G. G., & Constantine, L. L. (1993). Systems theory. In P. Boss, W. J. Doherty, R. LaRossa, W. R. Schumm, & S. K. Steinmetz (Eds.), *Sourcebook of family theories and methods* (pp. 325–355). Springer US. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-0-387-85764-0_14
- Wilson, C. L., Rholes, W. S., Simpson, J. A., & Tran, S. (2007). Labor, delivery, and early parenthood: An attachment theory perspective. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *33*(4), 505–518. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167206296952>
- Wylie, P. (1942). *A generation of vipers*. New York, NY: Rinehart.
- Yılmaz, E., & Öznacar, B. (2016). Veli, ebeveyn-anne baba ve okul. *Eğitim Bilimlerinden Yansımalar*, *59*. <https://scholar.google.com/scholar?cluster=10723361897160333756&hl=en&oi=scholar>
- Yuan, S. (2016). Coparenting, marital quality, and children's adjustment in mainland China. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Lubbock, TX: Texas Tech University.

APPENDICES

A. APPROVAL OF THE METU HUMAN SUBJECTS ETHICS COMMITTEE

UYGULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ
APPLIED ETHICS RESEARCH CENTER



ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

DUMLUPINAR BULVARI 06800
ÇANKAYA ANKARA/TURKEY



Sayı: 28620816 /

14 OCAK 2022

Konu : Değerlendirme Sonucu

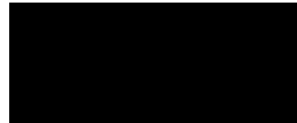
Gönderen: ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu (İAEK)

İlgi : İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu Başvurusu

Sayın Doç.Dr.Başak Şahin ACAR

Danışmanlığını yürüttüğünüz F.Kübra AYTAÇ'ın "A CROSS-CULTURAL ANALYSIS OF MATERNAL GATEKEEPING AND COPARENTING: THE ROLE OF ADULT ATTACHMENT AND PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT IN NUCLEAR FAMILIES FROM PORTUGAL AND TURKEY" başlıklı araştırmanız İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu tarafından uygun görülmüş ve **0010-ODTÜİAEK-2022** protokol numarası ile onaylanmıştır.

Saygılarımızla bilgilerinize sunarız.



İAEK Başkan

B. FORMS AND MEASURES

Informed Consent Form

Bu çalışma ODTÜ Psikoloji Bölümü doktora öğrencisi Kübra Aytaç tarafından Doç. Dr. Başak Şahin-Acar danışmanlığında yürütülmektedir. Bu form sizi araştırma koşulları hakkında bilgilendirmek için hazırlanmıştır.

Çalışmanın Amacı Nedir?

Bu çalışma Türkiye'deki çekirdek ailelerde, anne bekçiliği olgusunu ve bunun ilişki dinamiklerinin rolü ile birlikte ebeveynlik ile olan bağlantısını daha iyi anlamayı amaçlamaktadır.

Bize Nasıl Yardımcı Olmanızı İsteyeceğiz?

Araştırmanın bu bölümünde katılımcılara çevrimiçi anket uygulanacaktır. 18 yaş üstündeki anne ve babalardan anketteki soruları cevaplaması istenecektir, katılmak isteyenler bilgisayar veya cep telefonları yoluyla kendilerine gönderilen anketi dolduracaklardır. Ankette demografik bilgilerinize ve ebeveynlikle ilgili görüşlerinize ilişkin sorular yer almaktadır. Anketin sonunda araştırmanın ikinci bölümüne (gözlem) katılmak isteyen katılımcıların e-posta adreslerini yazmaları gerekmektedir.


Katılımınızla ilgili bilmeniz gerekenler:

Bu çalışmaya katılmak tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayalıdır. İlk aşamaya katılanların ikinci aşamaya katılmak gibi bir zorunluluğu yoktur. Her iki aşama için de gönüllülüğünüz esas alınır. Herhangi bir yaptırıma veya cezaya maruz kalmadan çalışmaya katılmayı reddedebilir veya çalışmayı bırakabilirsiniz. Araştırma esnasında cevap vermek istemediğiniz sorular olursa boş bırakabilirsiniz.

Araştırmaya katılanlardan toplanan veriler tamamen gizli tutulacak, veriler ve kimlik bilgileri herhangi bir şekilde eşleştirilmeyecektir. Ayrıca toplanan verilere sadece araştırmacılar ulaşabilecektir. Bu araştırmanın sonuçları bilimsel ve profesyonel

yayınlarda veya eğitim amaçlı kullanılabilir, fakat katılımcıların kimliği gizli tutulacaktır.

Araştırmayla ilgili daha fazla bilgi almak isterseniz:

Çalışmayla ilgili soru ve yorumlarınızı araştırmacıya  adresinden iletebilirsiniz.

Yukarıdaki bilgileri okudum ve bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum.

Evet ()

Hayır ()

Demographic Information Form

Ebeveyn Hakkında

İsim – Soy isim: _____ (isim soy isim belirtmek istemezseniz; bir rumuz belirleyebilirsiniz. Aynı rumuzu ölçekleri doldururken de hatırlamanız ve oraya da aynı rumuzu yazmanızı rica ediyoruz.)

Medeni durumunuz: _____

Yaşınız: _____

Uyruğunuz: _____

Eğitim durumunuz (Okur yazar, İlkokul, Ortaokul, Lise, Yüksek Okul, Üniversite, Yüksek Lisans, Doktora)

Mesleğiniz: _____

Şu an çalışıyor musunuz? (Evet, Hayır)

- Çalışma düzeniniz (Tam zamanlı, Yarı zamanlı)
- Haftada ortalama kaç saat çalışıyorsunuz? _____
- İşinizde esnek çalışma saatleri geçerli mi? _____

Gelir kaynağınız: (İş (aylık maaş), Devlet yardımları, İşsizlik maaşı, Diğer: _____)

Ailenizin ortalama aylık geliri nedir?

Hangi şehirde yaşıyorsunuz? _____

Çocuk Hakkında (Eğer 3-6 yaşları arasında birden fazla çocuğunuz varsa lütfen soruları büyük çocuğunuz için cevaplayınız.)

Çocuğunuzun yaşı: _____

Çocuğunuzun cinsiyeti (Kız/Erkek)

İlk çocuğunuz mu? (Evet/Hayır)

Kaç kardeşi bulunmakta? _____

Kardeşlerinin yaşları nedir? _____

Çocuğunuz okula gidiyor mu? (Evet/Hayır)

- Günde kaç saat gidiyor? _____

Çocuğunuzun uyruğu: _____

C. TURKISH SUMMARY / TÜRKE ÖZET

BÖLÜM 1

GİRİŞ

1.1 Genel Bakış

Yirminci yüzyılın ortaları, ebeveyn katılımı ile ilgili iki önemli kaygıyı gündeme getirdi. Birincisi, ebeveyn yokluğu üzerine odaklanan arařtırmalar, çocuklar üzerindeki olumsuz etkileri vurguladı (Amato, 2000; Demuth & Brown, 2004; Weaver & Schofield, 2015). John Bowlby (1951), özellikle erken yaşlarda anne sevgisinin yokluğunun çocuklar için ciddi psikososyal dezavantajlara yol açtığını savundu. Ayrıca, babaların yokluğuna odaklanan bir literatür de bu dönemde gelişti (e.g., Biller, 1993; McLanahan & Sandefur, 1994). Ancak, annelerin ve/veya babaların yokluğunu ele alan literatür, çocuklar üzerindeki stresli olaylar ile olumsuz sonuçlar arasındaki ilişkileri aşırı genellemiş ve diğer risk faktörlerini göz ardı etmiştir. 1970'lerin başındaki eleştiriler, bu metodolojik eksiklikleri ortaya koymuş ancak çalışmaların etkisini deęiřtirmemiştir (Herzog & Sudia, 1973; Rutter, 1972).

Diğer bir odak noktası, çiftlerin ebeveyn olmaya geçişleri sırasında ortaya çıkan ortak sorumluluklardı. Ebeveynliğe geçişte (TTP), çiftlerin ilişkisi bir “yürütme alt sistemi” tarafından yönlendirilen bir aile sistemine dönüşür (Minuchin, 1974). Bu yeni ortak ebeveynlik sistemi, mevcut çift ilişkilerinden farklı bir biçimde tanımlanır (Schoppe-Sullivan et al., 2004). İyi bir ortak ebeveynlik etkileşimi, ailelerin sağlıklı işleyişinin ve çocukların daha sağlıklı gelişiminin önemli bir bileşenidir (Feinberg et al., 2007; Umemura et al., 2015). Ortak ebeveynlik kalitesi, çocukların ve ergenlerin davranışsal ve duygusal refahını önemli ölçüde etkiler (Belsky et al., 1996; McHale, 2004). Ortak ebeveynlik, çocukların sosyal ve bilişsel becerileri üzerinde güçlü bir etkiye sahiptir

(Cabrera et al., 2012; Jahromi et al., 2018; Schoppe et al., 2001; Scrimgeour et al., 2013).

1.2. Ortak Ebeveynlik ve Baba Katılımı

1.2.1. Baba Katılımını Kavramsallaştırma

Aile sistemleri teorisi, aileyi sadece ebeveyn ve çocuk arasındaki ikili ilişkiye odaklanmak yerine sosyal bir sistem olarak tanımlar (Parke et al., 2006). Aile, bireylerin ötesinde benzersiz özellikler, kurallar, roller ve güç yapıları içeren bir sosyal sistemdir (Smith et al., 2009). Ailedeki alt sistemler, kardeş, ebeveyn-çocuk, ebeveynler arası ve ortak ebeveynlik alt sistemlerini içerir. Aile üyeleri, birbirlerini ve diğer alt sistemleri doğrudan veya dolaylı olarak etkilerler. Aile sistemleri perspektifinden çıkan araştırmalar, babaların çocuklara katkılarını sistematik olarak incelemeye başlamış ve karmaşıklığını anlamak için güncellenmiş modeller önermiştir (Cabrera et al., 2014).

Baba katılımı üzerine yapılan araştırmalar, babaların çocuk gelişimini destekleme biçimlerine odaklanmış ve babaların çocukların refahına çeşitli gelişim alanlarında nasıl katkıda bulunabileceğini araştırmıştır. Babaların katkılarının sistematik olarak incelenmesi, babaların çocukların gelişimine nasıl katkıda bulunduğunu ve diğer faktörlerin etkilerini anlamaya yönelik bir çerçeve sunmuştur (Cabrera et al., 2014).

Baba katılımını tanımlama zorluğu, babaların kendi rollerinin ötesinde, annelerin ve aile sisteminin etkileri altında nasıl etkileşimde bulduklarını anlamak gerekliliğini ortaya koyar. Aynı zamanda, kültürel, ekonomik, dini ve sosyal varyasyonları da dikkate alan çalışmalar yapılmıştır (Belsky, 1984; Bronfenbrenner, 1995; Cabrera et al., 2007; Cabrera et al., 2014; Riegel, 1979; Sameroff, 1995).

1.2.2. Baba Katılımını Ölçme

İlk baba katılımı çalışmaları, babaların çocuk bakımındaki sürelerini ölçmek için zaman kullanımı perspektifi kullanmıştır. Araştırmalar, çalışmayan annelerin olduğu iki ebeveynli ailelerde babaların katılımının çok düşük olduğunu ortaya koymuştur

(Lamb et al., 1987; Pleck, 1997). Ancak, çalışan anneleri olan ailelerde babaların katılımında bir artış gözlenmiş, ancak annelerin çalışmasının babaların sorumluluklarını etkilemediği bulunmuştur. Bu durum, annelerin çalışma durumunun babaların katılımını etkileyip etkilemeyeceğine dair yaygın görüşü sorgulamıştır. Babaların çocuk bakımına ayırdığı süre özellikle doğrudan bakım faaliyetleri için artmıştır (Bianchi, 2011; Lee & Lee, 2018). Bu dönemde annelerin sağladığı fiziksel çocuk bakımının oranı babalarinkine kıyasla önemli ölçüde azalmış, ancak babaların katılımının derinliği değişmemiştir. Bu nedenle, zaman kullanımı perspektifinin, ebeveynler ve çocuklar arasındaki etkileşimin kalitesini göz ardı ettiği söylenebilir.

Sonraki çalışmalar, gözlemsel ve öz rapor değerlendirmeleriyle annelerin ve babaların çocuk bakımındaki faaliyetlerinin farklı olduğunu ortaya koymuştur (Lamb, 1981; 1997). Annelerin katılımı çoğunlukla temel bakım aktiviteleriyle sınırlı iken, babalar genellikle boş zaman etkinliklerine katılmıştır. 1970'lerin sonlarındaki erken değerlendirmelerde günlük 37 saniyeden 8 saate kadar geniş varyasyonlar bulunmuştur (DeFrain, 1975; Rebelsky & Hanks, 1971). Bu çelişkili farklılıklar, verilerin neden bu kadar tutarsız olduğunu ve daha güvenilir tahminlerin nasıl elde edileceğini anlamak için kapsamlı araştırmaları teşvik etmiştir.

Çeşitli çalışmalardan elde edilen bulguları anlamlı bir şekilde entegre etmek ve karşılaştırmak için, Lamb et al. (1987) farklı araştırmacıların özgün katılım kavramlaştırmalarını önermiştir. Bu çoklu tanımlar, babalık katılımını diğer bakım verenlerle karşılaştırmada göreceli ölçümler kullanmayı içerir. Babaların çocuklarıyla geçirdiği süreyi mutlak zaman ile karşılaştırmak yerine, oransal istatistikler hesaplanır (örneğin, babaların etkileşim süresini annelerle karşılaştırma). Bu oransal veriler karşılaştırıldığında, yöntemsel farklılıklar göz önünde bulundurulduğunda, çeşitli çalışmalar arasında şaşırtıcı derecede benzer sonuçlar elde edilmiştir (Lamb, 2000). Bu sonuçlardaki tutarlılığa rağmen, mevcut baba katılımı ölçümleri genellikle annelik katılımının önemini açıklayan teorilere dayanmaktadır (Adamsons & Buehler, 2007). Araştırmacılar, babalara uygulanan bazı ebeveynlik ölçümlerinin tutarlılıkları ve farklılıkları hakkında netlik arayışındadır ve ebeveynlik ölçümlerindeki alt boyutların babalık katılımının temel ve özgün yapılarını ortaya koyup koymadığını incelemeye devam etmektedir (Bornstein, 1995; Cook et al., 2011).

1.2.3. Baba Katılımını Etkileyen Faktörler

Baba katılımını etkileyen faktörler çok yönlüdür ve bireysel, ailevi ve sosyal düzeydeki bir dizi değişkenden etkilenir. Bireysel düzeydeki etmenler arasında babaların kişisel geçmişleri, ebeveynlik geçmişleri (Guzzo, 2011; Shade et al., 2012), kültürel ve etnik kökenler (Cabrera et al., 2011; DeMaris et al., 2011) ve biyolojik yapıları (Davis et al., 2009; Paulson et al., 2011) bulunur. Ayrıca, babaların yaşları, eğitim seviyeleri, kişilik özellikleri ve rol kimlikleri de çocuklarla olan katılımlarını etkiler (Adamson & Pasley, 2013; Castillo et al., 2011; Freeman et al., 2008; Holmes & Huston; 2010).

Aile düzeyindeki etmenler arasında aile içindeki ilişkiler, ailenin sosyoekonomik durumu, günlük yaşam rutinleri ve olağanüstü aile koşulları (örneğin, bir aile üyesinin kaybı) bulunur (Cabrera et al., 2011; Paulson et al., 2011; Saleh & Hilton, 2011). Sadece babaların değil, annelerin yaşları, eğitim seviyeleri, öznel iyilik halleri ve çocukların yaşları, cinsiyetleri ve kişilikleri de baba katılımını etkileyen faktörlerdir (Cabrera et al., 2011; de Falco, Esposito, Venuti & Bornstein, 2008; Mehall et al., 2009; Meteyer & Perry-Jenkins, 2010; Paulson et al., 2011; Saleh & Hilton, 2011; Tach et al., 2010). Ayrıca, babalar genellikle kız çocuklarına göre erkek çocuklarıyla daha fazla zaman geçirirler (Pleck, 1997). Bununla birlikte annelerin kapı tutma tutumları (babalara katılımı teşvik eden veya engelleyen davranışlar) üzerine yapılan araştırmalar, bu tutumların babaların katılımını etkileyen faktörlerden biri olduğunu ortaya koymuştur (Allen & Hawkins, 1999; Cannon et al., 2008; Meteyer & Perry-Jenkins, 2010; Schoppe-Sullivan et al., 2008).

Sosyal düzeydeki etmenler arasında babaların sosyal ağları ve iş ortamları da yer almaktadır. Araştırmalar, babaların iş koşulları ve sosyal ağlarının çocuk bakımındaki katılımları ile ilişkili olduğunu önermektedir (Darling & Steinberg, 1993; Hook & Wolfe, 2012; Kohn, 1969). Sosyal ağlar, ebeveynlik süreçlerine kattıkları insan ve sosyal sermaye açısından da etkilidir (Belsky, 1984; Hofferth & Sandberg, 2001). Babaların iş koşullarının yanı sıra, annelerin çalışma durumu da babaların katılım şekillerini ve sorumluluklarını etkileyebilir (Pleck, 1983).

Genel olarak, babaların katılımı çok yönlü ve dinamik bir süreçtir ve çocukların ve annelerin aile dinamikleri hakkındaki algıları tarafından etkilenir (Ammaniti & Gallese, 2014; Boyle et al., 2004; Kuczynski & Parkin, 2007). Bu aile dinamikleri, çocukların gelişimini, özellikle yaşamın erken yıllarında çeşitli gelişimsel alanları (örneğin, bilişsel ve sosyal) etkiler (Fitzgerald & Bockneck, 2013; Fitzgerald & Bradley, 2013).

1.2.4. Ortak Ebeveynlik

Baba katılımı araştırmalarının artmasıyla birlikte, ortak ebeveynliğe olan ilgi de artmıştır. Ortak ebeveynlik, aile sisteminin bir parçası olarak, yetişkinlerin ebeveynlik rollerindeki iş birliği kalitesine odaklanır (Feinberg, 2003). Babalık katılımını vurgulayan teoriler (Doherty et al., 1998; Goeke-Morey & Cummings, 2007; Marsiglio et al., 2005; Townsend, 2002), destekleyici ortak ebeveynliğin babaların katılımını teşvik ettiğini, çatışmalı ortak ebeveynliğin ise babaların çocuk bakımına katılımını engellediğini öne sürmektedir. Ortak ebeveynliğin babalık katılımını önemli ölçüde etkilediği bulunsa da etkileşim karşılıklıdır; aile alt sistemleri birbirini etkiler (Minuchin, 1974; Whitchurch & Constantine, 1993). Artan babalık katılımı, geleneksel toplumlardaki annenin stresini ve ‘rol aşırı yüklenmesini’ azaltabilir (Kalil et al., 2005) ve böylece destekleyici ortak ebeveynliği teşvik edebilir. Bununla birlikte, bu katılım, annelerin ebeveynlik yetkilerini koruma amacıyla, bilinçli veya bilinçsiz olarak babaların ebeveynlik çabalarını engelleme davranışlarını tetikleyebilir (Allen & Hawkins, 1999; McBride et al., 2005; Schoppe-Sullivan et al., 2008).

Ortak ebeveynliğin babalık katılımı üzerindeki rolü kadar, çocuk gelişimi üzerindeki etkisi de önemlidir. Ebeveynler arasındaki yüksek çatışma veya tutarsız ebeveynlik, çocuklarda saldırganlık, asi davranışlar veya kaygı gibi davranış problemlerine yol açabilir (Margolin et al., 2001). Olumlu ortak ebeveynlik, çocukların akademik başarısını da destekler. Ebeveynler çocuklarının eğitimini desteklemek, tutarlı rutinler sağlamak ve öğretmenlerle etkili iletişim kurmak için birlikte çalıştıklarında, çocuklar akademik olarak daha başarılı olmaktadır (Feinberg, 2003). Son olarak, ortak ebeveynlik çocukların stres ve zorluklarla başa çıkma becerilerini etkiler. Ebeveynler destekleyici ve uyumlu bir aile ortamı sağladığında, çocuklar etkili başa çıkma

yöntemlerini öğrenir ve yaşamın zorluklarına karşı dayanıklılık geliştirirler (McHale & Lindahl, 2011).

Özetle, ortak ebeveynlik, çocuk gelişiminin çeşitli yönlerini şekillendirmede önemli bir rol oynar; duygusal refah, sosyal beceriler, davranışsal uyum, akademik başarı, özsaygı ve başa çıkma becerileri bunlardan bazılarıdır. Olumlu ortak ebeveynlik, sağlıklı ve destekleyici bir aile ortamını teşvik eder ve çocukların başarılı bir şekilde gelişmeleri için temel sağlar.

1.3. Annelerin Kapı Açma ve Kapatma Davranışları

Annelerin kapı açma ve kapatma davranışları, ebeveyn iş birliğinin bir alt boyutu olarak tanımlanır ve annelerin babaların çocuk bakımı ve ev işlerine katılımını kısıtlama ya da teşvik etme eğilimlerini içerir (Allen & Hawkins, 1999). Kapı açma davranışları, babaların çocuk bakımına katılımını teşvik ederken, kapı kapatma davranışları babaların katılımını engeller. Kapı kapatma davranışlarına örnekler arasında babaların ebeveynliğini eleştirmek, tamamladıkları işleri tekrar yapmak ve çocuk bakım kararlarını kontrol etmek bulunur. Kapı açma davranışları ise babaların ebeveynliğini övmek, onları çocuk bakım görevlerine teşvik etmek veya ebeveynlik konularında fikirlerini almak gibi davranışları içerir (Trinder, 2008). Bu davranışlar birbirine bağlı olsa da bazı anneler hem yüksek hem de düşük kapı açma ve kapatma davranışları sergileyebilir (Schoppe-Sullivan et al., 2015).

Annelerin kapı açma ve kapatma davranışlarındaki bireysel farklılıklar, geleneksel cinsiyet rollerine ve biyolojik temellere olan inançlarla ilişkilidir ve bu da daha yüksek kapı kapatma davranışlarına yol açar (Gaunt, 2008; Kulik & Tsoref, 2010; Meteyer & Perry-Jenkins, 2010). Davranışsal gözlemler, annelerin babaların yüksek negatif duygusal özellikler veya nevrozizm sergilediğinde babaların katılımını daha az teşvik ettiklerini göstermektedir, bu da kapı açma ve kapatma davranışlarının riskli babalık özelliklerine karşı bir koruma tepkisi olabileceğini göstermektedir (Thomas & Holmes, 2020). Ayrıca, yetişkin bağlanma ile annelerin kapı açma ve kapatma davranışları arasındaki ilişkiyi inceleyen tek çalışma, yüksek anksiyete yaşayan annelerin babaların katılımını daha fazla engellediğini ve yüksek kaçınma yaşayan

babaların anneler tarafından daha az teşvik gördüğünü ortaya koymuştur (Aytac & Schoppe-Sullivan, 2023).

Cinsiyetle ilgili tutumlar ve daha yüksek sorumluluk standartları, anne kapı açma ve kapatma uygulamalarını anlamamıza yardımcı olun değişkenlerden bazılarıdır (Thebaud et al., 2019). Türkiye’de babaların düşük katılımı ve babaların anneler tarafından yüksek kapı kapatma algıları rapor edilmiştir (Aytac, 2021). Global pandemi döneminde evden çalışan ebeveynlerle yapılan araştırmada da benzer bulgular elde edilmiştir (Aytac & Schopee-Sullivan, 2023). Bu durum, Türk kadınlarının ihtiyaç anında becerikli duygusal yöneticiler olarak görüldüğünü (Kağıtçıbaşı & Ataca, 2015) ve özellikle geçiş dönemlerinde ilişki düzenlemesi içeren daha fazla iş üstlenmeleri beklendiğini göstermektedir.

1.4. Yetişkin Bağlanma

Ebeveynliğe geçiş (TTP), özellikle ilk kez ebeveyn olanlar için zorlu bir dönem olabilir; bu dönem, yeni bağlantılar kurmayı ve mevcut bağlantıların dönüşümünü içerir (Kluwer, 2010). Ayrıca, yeni ebeveynler genellikle evlilik tatmininde azalma, cinsel aktivitede düşüş, paylaşılan zamanın azalması ve ev işleri sorumluluklarında değişiklikler yaşarlar (Doss & Rhoades, 2017; Maas et al., 2018). Ancak bazı ebeveynler diğerlerinden daha uyumlu bir şekilde uyum sağlayabilirler ve psikolojik uyum, bu dönemdeki navigasyonu etkileyen önemli bir faktör olarak ortaya çıkar (Don & Mickelson, 2014; Holmes et al., 2013).

Yetişkin bağlanması, iki boyutta kavramsallaştırılabilir: anksiyete ve kaçınma (Fraley et al., 2000; Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994). Her iki boyutta da düşük puanlar gösteren bireyler, etkili duygusal düzenleme ve kendileri ve başkaları hakkında olumlu görüşlerle güvenli bağlanma sergiler (Brennan et al., 1998; Cassidy, 1994). Öte yandan, yüksek bağlanma anksiyetesi, bağlanma ile ilgili endişelere aşırı odaklanmayı içerirken, yüksek bağlanma kaçınması ilişkilerde mesafe koymayı ve bağlanma ile ilgili duyguları bastırmayı içerir (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005).

İlişkisel deęişim dönemlerinde, TTP gibi, artan kaçınma veya anksiyete, paylaşılan zamanın azalması ve sorumlulukların deęiřmesi gibi stres faktörlerini artırabilir ve uyumu etkileyebilir (Feeney et al., 2003; Simpson & Rholes, 2019). Yetiřkin baęlanma stilleri, yeni ebeveynlerin psikolojik uyumları ve ebeveynlik davranıřları üzerinde önemli bir etmendir (Alexander et al., 2001; Feeney, 2003; Olsavsky et al., 2020). Güvensiz baęlanma, ebeveynlięe uyumda daha yüksek memnuniyetsizlik ile ilişkilidir (Kohn et al., 2012); yüksek anksiyeteye sahip bireyler partner desteklerini düşük algıırken, yüksek kaçınmaya sahip bireyler destek sunma konusunda daha az istekli olurlar (Simpson et al., 2002; Wilson et al., 2007).

1.5. Mevcut Çalışma

Çalışma 1'in amacı, Parental Involvement Scale (PIS; Monteiro et al., 2008) ölçüm aracını Türkçeye çevirmek ve psikometrik özelliklerini test etmektir. Türk kültürel bağlamında kapı açma ve kapatma ile ebeveyn katılımı arasındaki ilişkiyi anlamak için Çalışma 2, Parental Regulation Inventory (PRI; Van Egeren, 2000) 'kapı kapatma' alt ölçeğini Türkçeye çevirmeyi ve psikometrik özelliklerini test etmeyi amaçlamaktadır. Yetiřkin baęlanmasının anne kapı açma ve kapatma ile nasıl etkileşime girdiğini anlamak için Çalışma 3, bu dinamikleri Türk ebeveynleri bağlamında keřfetmek amacıyla tasarlanmıştır.

Çalışma 3'ün hipotezleri řunlardır: (i) Yüksek anne baęlanma anksiyetesi, anne kapı kapatma ve kapı açmayı kontrol ettiğimizde, daha düşük baba katılımı ile ilişkilidir; çünkü yüksek anksiyeteli annelerin, anne-baba-çocuk üçgenindeki ilişkiye daha fazla endişe ve kontrol göstermeleri beklenmektedir; (ii) Yüksek baba baęlanma kaçınması, anne kapı kapatma ve kapı açmayı kontrol ettiğimizde, daha düşük baba katılımı ile ilişkilidir. Kaçınmacı babaların, ilişkilerini daha mesafeli ve daha az işbirlikçi olarak görmeleri beklenir. Ayrıca, anneler, kaçınmacı babaların ilişki riskleri nedeniyle daha az destek vermeye eğilimli olabilir ve bu, annelerin çocuklarını kaçınmacı babalardan koruma eğilimine yol açabilir.

ÇALIŞMA 1: EBEVEYN KATILIMI ÖLÇEĞİ'NİN TÜRKÇE'YE UYARLANMASI

2.1. Yöntem

2.1.1. Katılımcılar

Araştırma örneklemini, 18 yaşından büyük ve 3-6 yaş arası çocukları olan, Türkiye'nin çeşitli şehirlerinde yaşayan çiftlerden oluşmuştur. Ölçek için örneklem büyüklüğü, her bir ölçek maddesi için 10 katılımcı kriterine göre belirlenmiş olup ($10 \times 26 = 260$ anne ve 260 baba), başlangıçta 355 çift ($N = 710$) seçilmiştir. Çocukları aynı yaş aralığında birden fazla olan ailelerden en büyük çocukları üzerinden veri alınmıştır. Boşanmış, ayrı yaşayan veya çocuğu olmayan çiftler çalışma dışında bırakılmıştır.

2.1.2. Ölçümler

2.1.2.1. Demografik Bilgi Formu

Annenin, babanın ve çocuğun yaşları, çocuğun cinsiyeti, anne ve babanın istihdam durumu ve eğitim seviyeleri gibi bilgileri içermektedir.

2.1.2.2. COVID-19 Bilgi Formu

Pandemi ile çocuk bakım rutinlerindeki değişiklikleri incelemek amacıyla hazırlanmıştır. Ebeveynlerden bakım, oyun ve öğrenme rutinlerindeki değişiklikleri 5 dereceli Likert ölçeği ile belirtmeleri istenmiştir.

2.1.2.3. Ebeveyn Katılım Ölçeği

26 maddeden oluşan bu ölçek (PIS; Monteiro et al., 2008), ebeveynlerin çocuk bakımındaki rollerini ölçmektedir. Ölçek, doğrudan bakım, dolaylı bakım, öğretim/disiplin, oyun ve dışarıda boş zaman etkinlikleri gibi beş boyut içerir. Ebeveynlerin her biri 5 dereceli ölçek kullanarak yanıt vermiştir. Ölçeklerin iç tutarlılık katsayıları annelerde .84 ve babalarda .85 bulunmuştur.

2.1.3. Prosedür

Ölçek, yazarların onayı alındıktan sonra İngilizceden Türkçeye çevrilmiştir. Çeviri işlemi, ileri düzey İngilizce bilen ve ana dili Türkçe olan iki kişi tarafından yapılmıştır. Etik onay alındıktan sonra, çevrimiçi bir anket hazırlanmıştır. Katılımcılara sosyal medya ve e-posta grupları aracılığıyla ulaşılmıştır. Katılımcılar, onay formunu onayladıktan sonra diğer soruları görüntüleyebilmiştir.

2.1.4. Analiz Yöntemi

Veri analizi için SPSS 29.0.1. sürümü kullanılmıştır. Parental Involvement Scale (PIS) için Açımlayıcı Faktör Analizi (AFA) ve Doğrulayıcı Faktör Analizi (DFA) yapılmıştır. AFA sonuçlarına göre dört faktörlü bir model önerilmiştir. DFA sonuçları, doğrudan bakım, disiplin/öğretim, oyun ve okul ile ilgili etkinlikler boyutları için model uyum indekslerinin iyi olduğunu göstermiştir. Model uyumu chi-square testi, RMSEA ve CFI indeksleri kullanılarak değerlendirilmiştir.

2.2. Sonuçlar

2.2.1. Veri Tarama

Başlangıçta 355 çift ($N = 710$) seçilmiştir. Onay formunu onaylamayan ($n = 4$), uygunluk kriterlerini karşılamayan ($n = 28$) ve ölçeği tamamlamayan ($n = 158$) çiftler analiz dışı bırakılmıştır. Sonuçta, 260 çiftin ($N = 520$) verileri analiz edilmiştir.

2.2.2. Katılımcıların Demografik Özellikleri

Annelere ait ortalama yaş 32.98 ($SD = 7.08$), babalara ait ortalama yaş ise 36.14 ($SD = 7.79$) bulunmuştur. Annelerin %57.5'i ve babaların %61.6'sı en azından bir yükseköğretim diplomasına sahiptir. Çalışma sırasında annelerin %55'i, babaların ise %90'ı en az yarı zamanlı işlerde çalışmaktadır. COVID-19 düzenlemeleri ebeveynlerin çocuk bakımına katılım miktarını etkilememiştir ($Mdn = 2$).

2.2.3. Değişken Özellikleri

Ebeveyn katılım ölçeklerinin ortalamaları ve standart sapmaları Tablo 2.2’de verilmiştir.

2.2.4. Açıklayıcı Faktör Analizi (AFA) Sonuçları

Başlangıçta dört faktörlü bir model önerilmiştir. İç mekan ve dış mekan oyun etkinlikleri aynı faktöre yüklenmiştir. Dolaylı bakım öğeleri yerine okul ile ilgili etkinlikler farklı bir faktör olarak belirlenmiştir. Çapraz yüklenmeler gösteren bazı maddeler modelden çıkarılmıştır.

2.2.5. Doğrulayıcı Faktör Analizi (DFA) Sonuçları

- **Doğrudan Bakım:** Sonuçlar model uyum indekslerinin iyi olduğunu göstermiştir ($\chi^2 (5) = 26.407, p < .001$; RMSEA = .091, CFI = .948).
- **Disiplin/Öğretim:** Sonuçlar model uyum indekslerinin iyi olduğunu göstermiştir ($\chi^2 (5) = 11.946, p < .05$; RMSEA = .052, CFI = .980).
- **Oyun:** Sonuçlar model uyum indekslerinin iyi olduğunu göstermiştir ($\chi^2 (14) = 31.177, p < .01$; RMSEA = .049, CFI = .958).
- **Okul İle İlgili Etkinlikler:** Sonuçlar model uyum indekslerinin iyi olduğunu göstermiştir ($\chi^2 (5) = 25.287, p < .001$; RMSEA = .088, CFI = .987).

ÇALIŞMA 2: EBEVEYN DÜZENLEME ENVENTARİ’NİN TÜRKÇE’YE UYARLANMASI

3.1. Yöntem

3.1.1. Katılımcılar

Araştırma örneklemini, 18 yaşından büyük ve 3-6 yaş arası çocukları olan, Türkiye’nin çeşitli şehirlerinde yaşayan çiftlerden oluşmuştur. Ölçek için örneklem büyüklüğü, her

bir ölçek maddesi için 10 katılımcı kriterine göre belirlenmiş olup ($10 \times 9 = 90$ anne ve 90 baba), başlangıçta 61 çift ($N = 122$) seçilmiştir. Çocukları aynı yaş aralığında birden fazla olan ailelerden en büyük çocukları üzerinden veri alınmıştır. Boşanmış, ayrı yaşayan veya çocuğu olmayan çiftler çalışma dışı bırakılmıştır.

3.1.2. Ölçümler

3.1.2.1. Demografik Bilgi Formu

Annenin, babanın ve çocuğun yaşları, çocuğun cinsiyeti, anne ve babanın istihdam durumu ve eğitim seviyeleri gibi bilgileri içermektedir.

3.1.2.2. Ebeveyn Düzenleme Envanteri

Ebeveynlerin, çocuk bakımında onaylamadıkları davranışları nasıl karşıladıklarını ölçen maddeler içerir (PRI; Van Egeren, 2000). Örneğin, anneye, “eşinize durumu nasıl halletmesi gerektiğini söyleme” gibi davranışları ne sıklıkta gerçekleştirdiğini sorar. Ölçeğin Cronbach’s alpha (α) değerleri annelerde .73 ve babalarda .72 olarak bulunmuştur.

3.1.3. Prosedür

Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi’nden etik onay alınmıştır. Ölçek, yazarların onayı alındıktan sonra İngilizceden Türkçeye çevrilmiştir. Çeviri işlemi, ileri düzey İngilizce bilen ve ana dili Türkçe olan iki kişi tarafından yapılmıştır. Qualtrics yazılımı kullanılarak çevrimiçi bir anket hazırlanmıştır. Katılımcılara sosyal medya ve e-posta grupları aracılığıyla ulaşılmıştır. Katılımcılar, onay formunu onayladıktan sonra diğer soruları görüntüleyebilmiştir.

3.1.4. Analiz Yöntemi

Veri analizi için SPSS 29.0.1. sürümü kullanılmıştır. Açıklayıcı Faktör Analizi (AFA) ve Doğrulayıcı Faktör Analizi (DFA) yapılmıştır. DFA, SPSS AMOS 29.0.1. ile

gerçekleştirilmiştir. Model uyumu, chi-square testi, RMSEA ve CFI indeksleri kullanılarak değerlendirilmiştir.

3.2. Sonuçlar

3.2.1. Katılımcıların Demografik Özellikleri

Annelere ait ortalama yaş 35.59 ($SD = 4.34$), babalara ait ortalama yaş ise 38.90 ($SD = 4.97$) bulunmuştur. Annelerin %98.3'ü ve babaların %90.2'si en azından bir yükseköğretim diplomasına sahiptir. Çalışma sırasında annelerin %57.4'ü ve babaların %93.4'ü çalışmaktadır.

3.2.2. Değişken Özellikleri

Ebeveyn düzenleme envanterinin ortalamaları ve standart sapmaları Tablo 3.2'de verilmiştir.

3.2.3. Açımlayıcı Faktör Analizi (AFA) Sonuçları

AFA sonuçları, bazı maddelerin yüksek çapraz yüklenmelere sahip olduğunu ve bu nedenle modelden çıkarıldığını göstermiştir. Kalan maddeler yeterli faktör yüklemelerine sahip bulunmuş ve tek faktörlü model DFA ile test edilmiştir.

3.2.4. Doğrulayıcı Faktör Analizi (DFA) Sonuçları

- **Annelere Ait Kapı Kapatma Davranışları:** Sonuçlar model uyum indekslerinin iyi olduğunu göstermiştir ($\chi^2 (9) = 18.613, p < .05$; RMSEA = .133, CFI = .898).
- **Babaların Annelere Ait Kapı Kapatma Davranışları Algısı:** Sonuçlar model uyum indekslerinin iyi olduğunu göstermiştir ($\chi^2 (9) = 15.890, p = .069$; RMSEA = .113, CFI = .901).

ÇALIŞMA 3: EBEVEYNLİK VE YETİŞKİN BAĞLANMASI ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİ

4.1. Yöntem

4.1.1. Katılımcılar

Araştırma örneklemini, 18 yaşından büyük ve 3-6 yaş arası çocukları olan ve Türkiye'nin çeşitli şehirlerinde ikamet eden çiftlerden oluşmuştur. Başlangıçta, 69 anne-baba-çocuk üçlüsü ($N = 138$) davet edilmiştir. Çiftlerin birden fazla çocuğu varsa, en büyük çocukları hakkında rapor vermeleri istenmiştir. Boşanmış ve ayrı yaşayan çiftler çalışmaya dahil edilmemiştir.

4.1.2. Ölçümler

4.1.2.1. Gözlemlenen Ebeveynlik

Ebeveynlik davranışları, ebeveynlerin diğer ebeveynin çocukla olan etkileşimini desteklemesi ve/veya engellemesi durumunda en iyi şekilde ölçülür (Belsky et al., 1996). Bu davranışları yakalayabilmek için anne-baba-çocuk üçlüsü 10 dakikalık bir çizim oturumunda kaydedilmiştir. Bu 10 dakikalık oturumlar, ebeveynlerin ve çocuğun birlikte ailelerini çizdikleri, stresli bir bağlamdan uzak bir ortamda ebeveynlik davranışlarını ortaya çıkarmayı amaçlamaktadır. Bu oturumlar, Cowan ve Cowan (1996) tarafından geliştirilen ve diğer çalışmalarda kullanılan 5 dereceli ölçeklerle (1 = çok düşük; 5 = çok yüksek) beş eğitimli stajyer tarafından kodlanmıştır. Derecelendirilen boyutlar negatif kontrol/kapı kapatma (ebeveynlerin diğer partnerin çocukla olan etkileşimini sınırlama çabası) ve ebeveyn teşvik etme/kapı açma (ebeveynlerin partnerlerinin çocukla etkileşimlerine olumlu destek verme derecesi) olarak belirlenmiştir. Kodlayıcılar arası güvenilirlik ICC = 1 olarak değerlendirilmiş ve gamma değerleri .65 ile .96 (ortalama = .89) arasında değişmiştir. Çelişkiler haftalık toplantılarda çözüme kavuşturulmuştur.

4.1.2.2. Demografik Bilgi Formu

Demografik Bilgi Formu, anne, baba ve çocuğun yaşları, çocuğun cinsiyeti, anne ve babanın istihdam durumu ve ebeveynlerin eğitim düzeyleri gibi soruları içermektedir.

4.1.2.3. Ebeveyn Katılım Ölçeği

Ebeveyn Katılım Ölçeği (PIS; Monteiro et al., 2008), ilk çalışmada Türkçeye uyarlanan 26 maddelik bir ölçektir ve ebeveynlerin günlük aile yaşamında çocuk bakım aktivitelerine ne derecede katıldığını belirlemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Cronbach's Alpha (α) değerleri anneler için .88 ve babalar için .78 olarak bulunmuştur.

4.1.2.4. Ebeveyn Düzenleme Envanteri

Ebeveyn Düzenleme Envanteri Kapı Kapatma alt ölçeği (PRI; Van Egeren, 2000), tezin ikinci çalışmasında Türkçeye uyarlanan altı maddelik bir envanterdir. Bu ölçek ebeveynlerin kapı tutma tutumlarını ve algılarını ölçmeyi hedeflemektedir. Ölçeğin Cronbach's Alpha (α) değerleri anneler için .70 ve babalar için .54 olarak bulunmuştur.

4.1.2.5. Yakın İlişkilerdeki Deneyimler

Yakın İlişkilerdeki Deneyimler (ECR; Fraley et al., 2000), yetişkinlik dönemindeki yakın ilişkilerdeki bağlanmayı ölçen 36 maddelik bir öz-bildirim ölçeğidir. Cronbach's alpha (α) değerleri anneler için kaygı ve kaçınma için sırasıyla .86 ve .61, babalar için ise .82 ve .56 olarak bulunmuştur.

4.1.3. Prosedür

Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Etik Komitesinden etik onay alınmıştır (Bkz. Ek A). Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Çocuk ve Ergen Gelişimi Laboratuvarı'nda yaz stajı kapsamında 13 psikoloji lisans öğrencisi çalışmayla ilgili eğitim almıştır. COVID-19 kısıtlamaları nedeniyle veri toplama, Zoom aracılığıyla çevrimiçi toplantılar şeklinde tasarlanmıştır. Katılımcılar, sosyal medya kanalları ve e-posta grupları aracılığıyla

duyurulan çalışma ilanıyla seçilmiştir. Çalışmaya ilgi duyan ve bilgilendirilmiş onam formunu kabul eden ebeveynler, tercih ettikleri iletişim yöntemiyle bir stajyer tarafından iletişime geçilmiştir. Her aileye çizim yapmak için 10 dakika süre tanınmıştır. Bu oturumlar tamamen kayıt altına alınmıştır. Sonrasında, Zoom oturumları eğitim alan stajyerler ve araştırmacı tarafından izlenerek kodlanmıştır.

4.2. Sonuçlar

4.2.1. Veri Temizleme

Kodlama ile ilgili müdahale derecesinde eksik veri olan katılımcıların videoları analizlere dahil edilmemiştir. Bu nedenle, iki ailenin verileri analizlere eklenmemiştir. Sonuç olarak, toplamda 67 ($n = 67$) anne-baba-çocuk üçlüsünün verileri analiz edilmiştir.

4.2.2. Katılımcıların Demografik Özellikleri

Annelerin ortalama yaşı 36.39 ($SD = 5.51$), babaların ortalama yaşı ise 38.79 ($SD = 5.21$) olarak bulunmuştur. Annelerin çoğunluğu (92.53%) ve babaların çoğunluğu (91.05%) en azından bir yüksek öğrenim derecesine sahip olmuştur. Veri toplama sırasında annelerin %64.18'i ve babaların %91.05'i aktif olarak en az yarı zamanlı bir işte çalışmaktadır.

4.2.3. Değişken Özellikleri

Araştırma değişkenlerinin ortalama ve standart sapma değerleri Tablo 4.2'de verilmiştir. Gözlemlenen kapı kapatma, açma, toplam ebeveyn katılımı, doğrudan bakım katılımı, disiplin/öğretim katılımı, oyun katılımı, okul ile ilgili katılım, raporlanan kapı kapatma, kaygı ve kaçınma gibi değişkenlerin dağılımları ayrıntılı olarak sunulmuştur.

4.2.4. Korelasyon Analizleri

Tablo 4.3 değişkenler arasındaki karşılıklı korelasyonları sunmaktadır.

4.2.5. Yapısal Eşitlik Modellemesi (SEM) Analizleri

4.2.5.1. Doğrudan Bakım

Rapor edilen kapı kapatma dikkate alındığında, doğrudan bakım modeli verilerle uyumlu bir şekilde sonuçlanmıştır ($\chi^2(7) = 1.005, p = .96$). Babaların kaçınması, babaların doğrudan bakım katılımı raporları ile anlamlı bir şekilde pozitif ilişkilidir ($\beta = .38, p < .01$). Annelerin kaçınması, babaların doğrudan bakım katılımı raporları ile anlamlı bir şekilde negatif ilişkilidir ($\beta = -.31, p < .05$). Ancak, ebeveynlerin kaygıları doğrudan bakım katılımı ile anlamlı bir ilişki göstermemiştir.

4.2.5.2. Disiplin/Öğretim

Rapor edilen kapı kapatma dikkate alındığında, disiplin/öğretim modeli verilerle uyumlu bir şekilde sonuçlanmıştır ($\chi^2(7) = .949, p = .99$). Annelerin kaygısı, babaların disiplin katılımı raporları ile anlamlı bir şekilde negatif ilişkilidir ($\beta = -.31, p < .05$). Ayrıca, annelerin bildirilen kapı kapatma tutumları, annelerin disiplin katılımı ile anlamlı bir şekilde negatif ilişkilidir ($\beta = -.25, p < .05$).

4.2.5.3. Oyun ile İlgili Ebeveyn Katılımı

Rapor edilen kapı kapatma dikkate alındığında, oyun katılımı modeli verilerle uyumlu bir şekilde sonuçlanmıştır ($\chi^2(7) = 1.672, p = .976$). Annelerin kaygısı, babaların oyun katılımı raporları ile anlamlı bir şekilde negatif ilişkilidir ($\beta = -.31, p < .05$). Ancak, ebeveynlerin kaçınması oyun katılımı ile anlamlı bir ilişki göstermemiştir.

4.2.5.4. Okul ile İlgili Ebeveyn Katılımı

Rapor edilen kapı kapatma dikkate alındığında, okul ile ilgili ebeveyn katılımı modeli verilerle uyumlu bir şekilde sonuçlanmıştır ($\chi^2(7) = 1.013, p = .962$). Ancak, yetişkin bağlanma boyutları ile okul ile ilgili katılım arasındaki ilişkiler anlamlı bulunmamıştır. Gözlemlenen kapı kapatma dikkate alındığında, annelerin gözlemlenen kapatma ile annelerin okul ile ilgili katılımı arasında anlamlı negatif bir ilişki bulunmuştur ($\beta = -$

.27, $p < .05$). Babaların gözlemlenen kapı kapatma, annelerin okul ile ilgili katılımı ile anlamlı bir şekilde pozitif ilişkilidir ($\beta = .23, p < .05$).

TARTIŞMA

Bu çalışma, yetişkin bağlanma biçimleri ile ebeveyn katılımı arasındaki ilişkileri, hem öz-bildirim hem de gözlemsel veriler kullanarak, 3-6 yaş arası çocuğu olan çiftler üzerinde incelemeyi amaçlamıştır. Araştırmada yukarıda bahsedilen üç ana hipotez test edilmiştir.

Çalışmanın ilk aşamasında, ebeveyn katılımı ve kapı tutma (kapı açma/kapatma) ölçütlerinin Türk ebeveynler bağlamında geçerliliği test edilmiştir. Çalışma 1’de, Parental Involvement Scale (PIS) Türkçeye çevrilmiş ve geçerliliği test edilmiştir. Çalışma 2’de, Parental Regulation Inventory (PRI) Gate Closing (kapı kapatma) alt ölçeği Türkçeye çevrilmiş ve geçerliliği test edilmiştir. Çalışma 3’te ise, yetişkin bağlanma biçimleri ile ebeveyn katılımı arasındaki ilişkiler, annelik kapı tutma davranışları kontrol edilerek incelenmiştir. Çalışmanın sonuçları, hipotezleri desteklemiştir.

Çalışma 1, babaların çocuğun bakımında oyun ve eğlence etkinliklerine daha fazla katıldığını, bakım gibi diğer alanlarda ise daha az aktif olduklarını ortaya koymuştur. Türk kültüründe, ebeveyn katılımının dört faktörlü bir yapıda incelenmesi gerektiği sonucuna varılmıştır: doğrudan bakım, disiplin/öğretim, oyun ve okul ile ilgili etkinlikler. Okul ile ilgili etkinlikler, Türk kültüründe ebeveynlerin çocuklarının eğitimine olan sorumluluklarını yansıtmaktadır.

Çalışma 2’de, annelerin ve babaların kapı kapatma davranışlarını ve tutumlarını ölçen ölçeklerin Türkçe adaptasyonu yapılmıştır. Sonuçlar, anneler ve babalar için tek faktörlü bir model göstermiştir. Ancak bazı maddeler kültürel farklılıklar nedeniyle ölçekten çıkarılmıştır. Çalışma 3’te, anksiyetesi yüksek olan annelerin, babaların disiplin/öğretim ve oyun etkinliklerinde daha düşük katılımını sağladığı gözlemlenmiştir. Yüksek annelik kaçınması, babaların azalan doğrudan bakım

katılımıyla ilişkilendirilmiştir. Ayrıca, annelerin kapı açma ve kapatma davranışları ile babaların katılımı arasındaki ilişkiler, önceki literatürle tutarlıdır. Babaların kapı tutma davranışlarının daha belirgin olduğu alanlar, oyun, disiplin/öğretim ve okul ile ilgili etkinliklerdir.

Sonuçlar, babaların kaçınmasının doğrudan bakım ve okul ile ilgili etkinliklerde daha yüksek katılım ile ilişkilendiğini ortaya koymuştur. Bu, kaçınan babaların partnerlerinin katılımını daha az etkilediği ve bu nedenle daha fazla katılım sağladıkları anlamına gelebilir. Ayrıca, çalışmanın örnekleme orta ve üst-orta sınıf çiftlerden oluştuğu için, bulguların genelleştirilmesi sınırlı olabilir.

Sonuç olarak, bu çalışma ebeveynlik dinamiklerini ve bağlanma biçimlerinin etkilerini anlamada önemli bir katkı sağlamaktadır. Ebeveynler arasında daha iyi bir iş birliği ve babaların katılımını artıracak müdahaleler, çocukların gelişimini olumlu yönde etkileyebilir. Yetişkin bağlanma gibi ebeveynliğe geçiş sırasında ortak ebeveynliğin gelişimini etkileyen bireysel faktörleri anlamak, hamile veya yeni ebeveyn olan çiftler için müdahale stratejileri geliştirmeye yardımcı olabilir.

D. CURRICULUM VITAE

F. KUBRA AYTAC

EDUCATION

- 2019 – 2024:** Ph.D., Psychology (Developmental)
Middle East Technical University, Turkey
- 2015 – 2019:** M.S., Psychology (Developmental)
Middle East Technical University, Turkey
- 2015 – 2018:** M.S., Sociology
Middle East Technical University, Turkey
- 2010 – 2015:** B.S., Sociology, *summa cum laude*
B.S., Philosophy (Double Major)
Political Science and Public Administration (Minor)
Middle East Technical University, Turkey

PUBLICATIONS

- Aytac, F. K., Schoppe-Sullivan, S. J. (under review). Gender Role Attitudes and Beliefs and Maternal Gatekeeping: A Meta-Analytic Review. *Parenting*.
- Aytac, F. K., & Schoppe-Sullivan, S. J. (2023). Division of Labor and Maternal Gatekeeping during the Second Wave of COVID-19 in Turkey. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, 33, 383–394. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10826-023-02721-x>
- Aytac, F. K., & Schoppe-Sullivan, S. J. (2023). Adult attachment as a predictor of maternal gatekeeping among new parents. *Personal Relationships*, 30(3), 1096–1116. <https://doi.org/10.1111/pere.12481>
- Aytac, F.K. (2021) Is it love? The mediating role of traditional motherhood between maternal warmth and maternal gatekeeping. *Current Psychology*, 42, 6062–6076 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-021-01880-8>
- Aytac, F. K. (2021). Children’s right to the city: The case of street children. *International Sociology*, 36(4), 605–622. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0268580920966836>
- Aytac, F. K. (2020). Reconsidering Secularism and Historical Narrative of Christianity, *Religion and Theology*, 27(1-2), 153–162. <https://doi.org/10.1163/15743012-bja10005>

CONFERENCES AND PRESENTATIONS

- Aytac, F. K., & Schoppe-Sullivan, S. J. (2024). Coparenting and Fathers' Mental Health During the Transition to Parenthood (Symposium Presentation 'Coparenting and father's mental health at transition to parenthood across cultures') *27th Biennial Meeting of The International Society for The Study of Behavioural Development (ISSBD)*, Lisbon, Portugal.
- Aytac, F. K., & Schoppe-Sullivan, S. J. (2024). Inter-parental Jealousy as a Predictor of Maternal Gatekeeping during the Transition to Parenthood (Poster Presentation) *27th Biennial Meeting of The International Society for The Study of Behavioural Development (ISSBD)*, Lisbon, Portugal.
- Aytac, F. K. (2023). Analyzing the Relationship between Parental Warmth and Parental Involvement Using the Actor-Partner Interdependence Model (Symposium Presentation 'Looking at father involvement in diverse sociocultural groups') *European Conference on Developmental Psychology (ECDP)*, Turku, Finland.
- Aytac, F. K., & Schoppe-Sullivan, S. J. (2023). Gender role attitudes and beliefs and maternal gatekeeping: A meta-analytic review (Flash Talk). *Society for Research in Child Development biennial meeting (SRCD)*, Salt Lake City, UT.
- Aytac, F. K., & Schoppe-Sullivan, S. J. (2022). Adult Attachment as a Predictor of Maternal Gatekeeping among New Parents (Poster Presentation). *26th Biennial Meeting of The International Society for The Study of Behavioural Development (ISSBD)*, Rhodes, Greece.
- Aytac, F. K., & Schoppe-Sullivan, S. J. (2022). Maternal Gatekeeping and Division of Labor during COVID-19 in Turkey (Paper Presentation). *95th Annual Midwestern Psychological Association Conference*, Chicago, IL.
- Aytac, F. K. (2018). The Relationship Between High School Students' Gender Role Attitudes and Departmental Preference in College (Paper Presentation). *International Symposium of Education and Values*, Antalya, Turkey.
- Aytac, F. K. & Karakuş, C. (2018). Effects of Gender Differences on Autobiographical Memory/ Episodic Memory Ability. (Poster Presentation). *20th National Psychology Congress*, Ankara, Turkey.

E. THESIS PERMISSION FORM/TEZ İZİN FORMU

ENSTİTÜ / INSTITUTE

- Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü** / Graduate School of Natural and Applied Sciences
- Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü** / Graduate School of Social Sciences
- Uygulamalı Matematik Enstitüsü** / Graduate School of Applied Mathematics
- Enformatik Enstitüsü** / Graduate School of Informatics
- Deniz Bilimleri Enstitüsü** / Graduate School of Marine Sciences

YAZARIN / AUTHOR

Soyadı / Surname : AYTAÇ
Adı / Name : FATMA KÜBRA
Bölümü / Department : PSİKOLOJİ/PSYCHOLOGY

TEZİN ADI / TITLE OF THE THESIS (İngilizce / English): THE ROLE OF ADULT ATTACHMENT AND MATERNAL GATEKEEPING IN PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT: AN ACTOR-PARTNER INTERDEPENDENCE MODEL (APIM) ANALYSIS

TEZİN TÜRÜ / DEGREE: **Yüksek Lisans** / Master **Doktora** / PhD

1. **Tezin tamamı dünya çapında erişime açılacaktır.** / Release the entire work immediately for access worldwide.
2. **Tez iki yıl süreyle erişime kapalı olacaktır.** / Secure the entire work for patent and/or proprietary purposes for a period of **two year**. *
3. **Tez altı ay süreyle erişime kapalı olacaktır.** / Secure the entire work for period of **six months**. *

* *Enstitü Yönetim Kurulu Kararının basılı kopyası tezle birlikte kütüphaneye teslim edilecektir. A copy of the Decision of the Institute Administrative Committee will be delivered to the library together with the printed thesis.*

Yazarın imzası / Signature **Tarih** / Date