



**Sosyal Bilimler
Enstitüsü**

T.C.

**MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ
SOSYOLOJİ ANA BİLİM DALI
SOSYOLOJİ BİLİM DALI**

**AN INTERGENERATIONAL COMPARATIVE STUDY OF MATERNAL
ATTITUDES: ISTANBUL AND WESTERN EUROPE**

Yüksek Lisans Tezi

SELCAN ÇOLTU YEGÜL

İSTANBUL 2024

T.C.
MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ
SOSYOLOJİ ANA BİLİM DALI
SOSYOLOJİ BİLİM DALI

**AN INTERGENERATIONAL COMPARATIVE STUDY OF MATERNAL
ATTITUDES: ISTANBUL AND WESTERN EUROPE**

Yüksek Lisans Tezi

SELCAN ÇOLTU YEGÜL

Tez Savunma Jürisi

1. Tez Danışmanı: DR. ÖĞR. ÜYESİ AYŞE YETİŞ BAYRAKTAR
2. Üye: DOÇ. DR. FATMA ÖZGE ÜNSAL AKSEBZECİ
3. Üye: DR. ÖĞR. ÜYESİ BERNA EKAL

İSTANBUL 2024

T.C.
MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ

TEZ ONAY BELGESİ

Sosyoloji Anabilim Dalı Sosyoloji Bilim Dalı Yüksek Lisans öğrencisi SELCAN ÇOLTU YEGÜL'ün
“Anne Tutumlarının Kuşaklar Arası Karşılaştırmalı Bir İncelemesi:İstanbul ve Batı Avrupa Örneği”
adlı tez çalışması, Enstitünüz Yönetim Kurulunun..... tarih ve sayılı
kararıyla oluşturulan jüri tarafından oy birliği/oy çokluğuyla Yüksek Lisans tezi olarak Kabul
edilmiştir.

Tez Savunma Tarihi/...../.....

Öğretim Üyesi Adı Soyadı

İmzası

	Öğretim Üyesi Adı Soyadı	İmzası
1	Tez Danışmanı	
2	Jüri Üyesi	
3	Jüri Üyesi	
4	Jüri Üyesi	
5	Jüri Üyesi	

ABSTRACT

AN INTERGENERATIONAL COMPARATIVE STUDY OF MATERNAL ATTITUDES: ISTANBUL AND WESTERN EUROPE

After industrialization, the mechanization and modernization of agriculture and the development of technology affected the families living and farming in rural areas. Industrialization increased the need for labor in cities and caused the migration of the population from rural to urban areas. This migration can result not only in domestic migration but also in international migration. Especially in the 1950s, migration increased, some families living in rural areas migrated to big cities such as Istanbul, and some migrated to Europe to meet the need for workers in Europe and to gain economic profit. The structure most affected by these intense migrations is the family. The changes occurring in society after industrialization directly affect the family. A change has begun in the structure of the family from traditional to modern, and in the process, changes have occurred in issues such as a decrease in the number of children, women's participation in business life, and common sharing of domestic roles and duties. The change in family roles and especially women's participation in business life can cause changes in parental attitudes. Social events and experiences affect individuals' attitudes. Attitudes may differ from time to time. For this reason, in this study, a survey was conducted using the Parental Attitude Scale (PAS) to measure whether there was a difference in the parenting attitudes of X and Y parents. In the study, PAS was applied to Turkish mothers living in Western Europe and Turkish mothers living in Türkiye. By conducting an intergenerational study in two different locations, it was determined whether differences in experience and generations affected attitudes.

Keywords: Modernization, Industrialization, Migrant Family, Intergenerational, Helicopter parenting

ÖZET

ANNE TUTUMLARININ KUŞAKLAR ARASI KARŞILAŞTIRMALI BİR İNCELEMESİ: İSTANBUL VE BATI AVRUPA ÖRNEĞİ

Sanayileşme sonrasında tarımın makineleşmesi, modernleşmesi ve teknolojinin gelişmesi kırsalda yaşayan ve tarım yapan aileleri etkilemiştir. Sanayileşme kentlerde iş gücü ihtiyacını artırmış nüfusun kırsaldan kente göçüne sebep olmuştur. Bu göç yalnızca iç göç değil dış göçle de sonuçlanabilmektedir. Özellikle 1950'lerde göçler artış göstermiş, kırsalda yaşayan bazı aileler İstanbul gibi büyük şehirlere, bazılarıysa Avrupa'daki işçi ihtiyacını karşılamak ve ekonomik olarak kazanç sağlamak için Avrupa'ya göç etmiştir. Bu yoğun göçlerden en çok etkilenen yapı ailedir. Sanayileşme sonrası toplumda meydana gelen değişimler aileyi doğrudan etkilemektedir. Ailenin yapısında gelenekselden moderne doğru bir değişim başlamış, süreç içerisinde çocuk sayılarında azalma, kadının iş hayatına katılımı, ev içi rollerin ve görevlerin ortak paylaşımı gibi konularda değişim meydana gelmiştir. Aile içi rollerin değişimi ve özellikle kadının iş hayatına katılımı ebeveyn tutumlarında değişim meydana getirebilmektedir. Toplumsal olaylar ve yaşanan deneyimler bireylerin tutumlarını etkilemektedir. Tutumlar dönemsel olarak farklılık gösterebilmektedir. Bu sebepten bu çalışmada, X ve Y ebeveynlerin ebeveynlik tutumlarında bir farklılık olup olmadığını ölçmek için Ebeveyn Tutum Ölçeği (ETÖ) kullanılarak anket uygulaması yapılmıştır. Araştırmada, ETÖ Batı Avrupa'da yaşayan Türk annelere ve Türkiye'de yaşayan Türk annelere uygulanmıştır. İki farklı lokasyonda ve kuşaklararası çalışma yapılarak deneyim farklılıklarının ve jenerasyonların tutumları etkileyip etkilemediği tespit edilmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Modernleşme, Sanayileşme, Göçmen Aile, Kuşaklararası, Helikopter ebeveyn

FOREWORD

This master's thesis has been completed after a long and challenging process and represents a significant turning point in my academic and personal development. I would like to thank many people who contributed to and supported me in completing this study.

I would like to thank my family and friends, especially my spouse, for always supporting me throughout this process. Their constant encouragement and belief helped me stay motivated even in the most difficult moments.

I would like to express my gratitude to my thesis advisor, Assistant Professor Ayşe Yetiş Bayraktar, who has always guided me, shared her valuable knowledge and experiences, encouraged me, and supported me patiently. Her guidance and constructive criticism played a major role in improving the quality of this work.

I would also like to thank Lecturer Esra Molu and Assoc. Prof. Özlem Uluç Küçükcan for guiding me in choosing my thesis topic and Assistant Professor Işık Kamaraj for her unwavering support. Finally, I extend my thanks to my committee members, Assistant Professor Berna Ekal Şimşek and Assoc. Prof. Fatma Özge Ünsal Aksebzeci, for their valuable contributions to the development of my thesis.

Selcan ÇOLTU YEGÜL

İstanbul, 2024

Table of Contents

ABSTRACT	I
ÖZET.....	II
FOREWORD.....	III
ABBREVIATIONS.....	VI
TABLES	VII
FIGURES	VIII
CHAPTER 1	1
INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 AIM AND OBJECTIVES.....	3
1.2 ORIGINALITY AND SIGNIFICANCE.....	4
1.3 METHOD AND LIMITATIONS.....	6
1.4 HYPOTHESIS.....	6
CHAPTER 2	7
LITERATURE REVIEW	7
2.1 INDUSTRIALIZATION AND MODERNIZATION.....	7
2.1.1 MODERNIZATION.....	7
2.1.2 ECONOMIC MODERNIZATION: INDUSTRIALIZATION.....	9
2.2 INDIVIDUALIZATION AND FAMILY.....	12
2.2.1 FAMILY STRUCTURE AND MIGRATION.....	12
2.2.2. TRANSFORMATION OF WOMEN AFTER INDUSTRIALIZATION.....	13
2.2.3 TRANSFORMATION OF PARENTHOOD.....	14
2.2.3.1 A NEW ATTITUDE: HELICOPTER PARENTING.....	19
2.2.4 CONCEPT OF GENERATION.....	20
2.2.5 VALUE OF CHILD.....	24
2.3 INDIVIDUALISM AND MIGRATION.....	25
2.3.1 MIGRANT FAMILIES.....	27
CHAPTER 3	29
METHOD.....	29
3.1 MODEL OF RESEARCH.....	29
3.2 POPULATION AND SAMPLE.....	29
3.3 DATA COLLECTION.....	29
3.4 DEPENDENT VARIABLE.....	30
3.5 INDEPENDENT VARIABLES.....	31
3.6. HYPOTHESIS.....	33
CHAPTER 4	35
FINDINGS	35
4.1 EVALUATION ACCORDING TO SCALE.....	35
CHAPTER 5	49
DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION.....	49
5.1 IMPLICATIONS OF FUTURE.....	57
REFERENCES	59

APPENDIX 1 64
APPENDIX-2..... 68

ABBREVIATIONS

TDK: Türk Dil Kurumu

PAS: Parental Attitude Scale (ETÖ)

WE: Western Europe

T: Basic Education(Temel Eğitim)

Y:Higher Education(Yüksek Öğretim)

MLI: Mothers living in Istanbul

MLWE: Mothers living in Western Europe

TABLES

Table of Contents.....	iv
Table 1 Parenting Styles and Key Characteristics	18
Table 2 Chronological Identification of Generations	22
Table 3 Demographic Characteristics of Participants.....	33
Table 4 Average Scores According to Each PAS Dimension for the Istanbul and Western European Sample, and Generation	35
Table 5 PIVOT: Average Scores According to Each PAS Dimension for the Istanbul and Western European Sample, Generation and Education.....	36
Table 6 PIVOT: Average Scores According to Each PAS Dimension for the Istanbul and Western European Sample, Generation, Employment Status.....	37
Table 7 PIVOT: Average Scores According to Each PAS Dimension for the Istanbul and Western European Sample, Generation, Income	38
Table 8 ANOVA Results for the Relationship between PAS and Income Level for MLT.....	39
Table 9 ANOVA Results for the Relationship between PAS and Income, Interactions for Generation for the MLT	40
Table 10 ANOVA Results for the Relationship between PAS and Education, Interactions for Generation for MLT	41
Table 11 Group Statistic for the Relationship between PAS and Education for MLWE.....	41
Table 12 T-Test Results for the Relationship between PAS and Education for MLWE	42
Table 13 MANOVA Results for the Relationship between Combined Parental Attitudes (Authoritarian and Overprotective) and Education for MLWE	43
Table 14 Group Statistic for the Relationship between PAS and Education for MLWE.....	43
Table 15 ANOVA Results for the Relationship between PAS and Education for MLWE.....	44
Table 16 ANOVA Results for the Relationship between PAS and Employment, Interactions for Generation for the MLT.....	45
Table 17 Group Statistic for the Relationship between PAS and Employment, Interactions for Generation for MLWE.....	46
Table 18 ANOVA Results for the Relationship between PAS and Employment, Interactions for Generation for MLWE.....	46
Table 19 Group Statistics for the Relationship between PAS and Employment Status for MLWE	47
Table 20 T-Test Results for the Relationship between PAS and Employment for MLWE.....	47
Table 21 Group Statistic for the Relationship between PAS and Generation for MLWE	48
Table 22 T-Test Results for the Relationship between PAS and Generation for MLWE.....	48
Table 8.1 Levene’s Test of Equality of Error Variances: Generation, Income (MLT)	64
Table 9.1 Levene’s Test of Equality of Error Variances: Generation, Education (MLT).....	64
Table 10.1 Test of Normality – 1 (MLT) (Kolmogorov- Smirnov and Shapiro Wilk Tests)	65
Table 13.1 Test of Normality – 2 (MLWE) (Kolmogorov- Smirnov and Shapiro Wilk Tests)	65
Table 13.2 Wilks’ Lambda: Education (MLWE).....	65
Table 16.1 Levene’s Test of Equality of Error Variances: Generation, Occupation of MLT	66
Table 18.1 Levene’s Test of Equality of Error Variances: Generation, Income of MLWE	66
Table 19.1 Test of Normality - 3 (MLWE) (Kolmogorov- Smirnov and Shapiro Wilk Tests).....	67
Table 22.1 Test of Normality – 4 (MLWE) (Kolmogorov- Smirnov and Shapiro Wilk Tests)	67

FIGURES

Figure 1 Urban Population Rates in the World (1960-2020) (%)..... 26

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Modernization is a process that is based on continuous change, and differentiation. Unprecedented population growth after the industrial revolution has increased the level of the division of labor within all societies (Tuna, 2000). This division of labor has created a society where individuals are differentiated with respect to their social functions, and dependent on each other per this increased division of labor (Mowrer, 1969). Societies have moved away from their traditional family structures, and changed in political, social, cultural and economic aspects. The family, a small representation of society, has been directly affected by the results of modernization. For this reason, it is a structure that has undergone, and will undergo significant changes in the process. It is inevitable that the family will begin to move away from the traditional or that the traditional will be transformed, and rebuilt (Hochstadt, 1981). The main reason for this transformation of the family is industrialization, which is economic modernization.

The process of industrialization encouraged large-scale production, transforming agricultural societies into industrial societies. After the industrial revolution, some changes took place in society with the influence of inventions, and mechanization. As a result of these societal changes, the "working" class emerged. Especially as division of labor, and specialization became widespread, the need for workers arose. The increase in the need for labor in cities caused people to migrate from rural to urban areas. As a result, the housing infrastructure in cities were not sufficient for the needs of people who migrated to cities for work. Change has occurred in the city, and the physical planning of the city has been affected by this. New residential areas have begun to form outside or slightly away from the city center. Working class neighborhoods were established around factories located outside the city. Industrial revolution affected urban life in economic, social, political, and cultural areas and accelerated urbanization (Tacoli et al., 2015).

The proliferation of factories, the spread of mechanization, and the use of new energy sources have increased production capacity, and enabled economies to grow. This growth initiated the transformation in family structures from the traditional family structure to the nuclear family. This growth has led to changes in family structures. It has influenced women's participation into business life, and family relations. Moreover, the growth in the economy, and the increase in need for labor in the market have been effective not only in the large urban cities in Türkiye, but also in the world, especially in western European countries. As a result, labor migration to Western European countries from Türkiye began. It has affected women's entry into business life, and family relations. Moreover, the growth in

the economy, and the increase in the need for labor in the market have been effective not only in the large urban cities in Türkiye, but also in the world, especially in western European countries. As a result, worker migration abroad began (Martin et al., 2001). This migration can occur in two ways: domestic migration to larger cities, and migration abroad. Agriculture is a labor-intensive job with little economic return. For this reason, especially with the acceleration of industrialization, families began to abandon agriculture, and preferred to migrate. As a result, families began to migrate to big cities such as Istanbul. Industrialization brought about the search for jobs, especially in industrially developed cities, and the need for workers in some countries in Western Europe increased (Hochstadt, 1981). Some countries that are advanced in industrialization, such as England, Germany, France and Belgium, wanted to increase their workforce with encouraging policies, and supported immigration from Türkiye, and other countries. Labor migration to Western Europe took place mostly between the 1950s and 1970s, including individual migration, institution-supported migration, bilateral agreements, and migration due to marriage (Şahin Kütük, 2015). The children of the generation that migrated at this time became the children of a culture that was rebuilt as a combination of Western European culture, and Turkish culture. The children of these children, who started living, and working in Western Europe, were born directly in Western Europe, and had a different cultural dynamic from their parents.

When we investigate the modernization process through Türkiye, the family structure in Turkey has experienced political, social, cultural, and economic shifts, which have influenced changes within the family structure (Doğan, 2000). These changes are also reflected in evolving parental attitudes. When we examine these changes in attitude across generations, more understandable, and meaningful inferences can be made. In the present study, parents were grouped according to their birth years in order to make intergenerational inference. The generation theory states that individuals with similar birth years may have similar personality traits due to the social, political, and economic events they experience (Adıgüzel et al., 2014). This theory supports that differences in parental attitudes between generations can be observed due to the unique social, political, and economic conditions of the period. This also suggests that the parenting attitudes of generations X and Y will differ from each other in the context of these unique conditions, and cultural dynamics. Moreover, differences in parenting practices can be observed in regions with unique social, political, and economic conditions. For example, the parenting practices, and the value they attribute to their children may differ across generations, and location. This means that the parenting practices, and value of child is expected to be different for mothers living in Türkiye (MLI), and mothers living in Western Europe who originate from Türkiye (MLWE).

It would undoubtedly be more understandable to consider the social transformations of modernization, and industrialization as a whole. This transformation in society directly targeted the family structure, and caused it to change in many aspects. The increase in the need for labor due to industrialization required women to participate in business. This situation has changed families' perceptions of parenting. The change enabled mothers to participate in society as working women except

their maternal roles. Mothers' employment has transformed everything from family planning to parental attitudes, perception of fatherhood, and division of labor within the family over time. Thus, scholars began to examine the value of child from a different point of view (Nicholas & Oxley, 1993).

The value placed on children is continuously evolving, and the perception of children as part of the workforce has gradually shifted. Today, they are seen as valuable, and unique individuals. The most important reasons for this transformation are undoubtedly the need, and emergence of a more qualified workforce in the city, along with the intense wave of domestic, and international migration. The population migrating to the city considered that being literate, and having a skilled job was important, and wanted to increase the human, and cultural capital of their children. They have transformed from families that initially had more children because it was economically beneficial to parents who began to provide financial opportunities for their children's cognitive development, and education. The opportunities provided have increased over time, and with this increase, a competitive environment has emerged (Nicholas & Oxley, 1993). As a result, the concept of *helicopter¹ parenting* has become widely used today.

In this present study, I will investigate the how the parental attitudes of mothers change following their participation in business life in Istanbul, and in several cities in Western Europe. I aim to compare the opportunities provided by parents between generations X and Y, and reveal whether there is a difference. Secondly, mothers living in Western Europe who originate from Türkiye (MLWE hereafter) will also participate in the same study. This will allow me to make two-dimensional analysis using generation, and location to investigate maternal attitudes, and evaluate the reflection of culture, and standard of living on parenting attitudes.

This thesis consists of three chapters in addition to the introduction, and conclusion. In the second chapter, I discuss relevant literature on the concepts of industrialization, and modernization, and how they influence family dynamics, maternal employment, parental attitudes, and division of labor in the family. In the third chapter, I elaborate on the method, and the process of data collection. In the fourth chapter, I discuss findings from the survey. I conclude with discussion of my findings in light of the literature, and discuss implications for future research.

1.1 Aim and Objectives

The aim of my thesis is to discuss whether cultural change has an effect on attitudes by investigating whether the process of industrialization creates a there is a difference in parental attitudes

¹ *The most distinctive feature of helicopter parents is their extreme interest in their children. They generally intervene in their children's life experiences, and have an important role in their success or failure. Children have a high tendency to intervene in education, marriage, and friendship relations, and to make decisions on their behalf.*

between generations. In this research, the economic, and social impact of women's participation in business life after industrialization on family structure, and maternal attitudes will be discussed. The research aims to answer two questions. Firstly, with industrialization process in Türkiye, women's active role in business life enabled them to achieve economic freedom. In this context, the role of women in society, and family has changed. How did these changes in roles affect the values, and attitudes attributed to the child? In other words, has the change in gender roles of within the family caused a change in the balance of the parent-child relationship, and parental attitudes (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1991)? Additionally, could the concept of helicopter parenting have emerged as a result of the change in gender roles, and the balance of power at home affecting the relationship with the child?

In this context, my goals are as follows: whether, and how have parental attitudes toward children has changed for mothers between Generation X and Y living in Istanbul, and Western Europe. This thesis attempts to explain the transformation of the traditional family structure to nuclear family in Türkiye's process of modernization and industrialization, and focuses on change in a value attributed to the child and maternal attitudes. Birth date ranges of Generation X (1965-1979), and Generation Y (1980-1999) as specified in Kyles' (2005) study were taken as a basis for generational analysis.

Parry & Urwin (2011) explained the difference between the concept of demographic cohort, and the concept of generation explained in a sociological framework. In the concept of demographic cohort, grouping is made based only on the year of birth. However, sociologically, the concept of generation is the grouping of individuals not only according to age, but also according to the cultural, and social events they have experienced during a certain period. In light of this theory, since people living in different locations may have different experiences, I will add another layer to the analysis, and conduct the study in two different geographical, and sociocultural locations (Türkiye, and several cities in Western Europe) to investigate whether there is also a locational difference in parental attitudes. This assumes that differences in parental attitudes between generations also depend on people's sociocultural experiences. Costanza et al. (2012), who has a similar view on this issue, argues that grouping generations according to their birth years is not enough. He argues that where they live also has an effect on this issue (Costanza et al., 2012). Not only common experiences but also the location where individuals live can affect their attitudes differently. This study investigated whether the difference in where they live influence parental attitudes. Thus, the study was conducted in Istanbul, and several cities in Western Europe.

1.2 Originality and Significance

When the National Thesis Center is examined, we see that most of the studies focus on parental attitudes, and aim to make inferences about how they affect child development in psychology, and pre-school departments. The change in parental attitudes between generations as a result of the impact of modernization, and industrialization on society has not been investigated. It is clear that societies

undergo constant change, and transformation. Especially when we look at the recent period following Covid-19 pandemic, and the ongoing wave of migration to Türkiye, and Europe have undoubtedly brought about a rapid transformation in the society. It is impossible to fully explain this transformation by focusing solely on the present. The transformation resulted from a dynamic process. To understand this chain of changes, a detailed analysis will examine the impact of industrialization and modernization—key turning points for both society, and the family- on the family unit. Women's participation in business life after industrialization has brought about a transformation in parenting roles. The change in roles also affects parental attitudes. An intergenerational study is needed to observe this transformation in attitudes. It would be insufficient to examine this transformation only from an intergenerational perspective. Differences in culture, and life experiences also affect the attitudes of the individual. For this reason, MLWE-where industrialization began in an early period, were also included in the study. Thus, the research will examine, and compare differences both between generations, and across locations.

The change in parental attitudes today will be examined intergenerationally using the Parental Attitude Scale (*Ebeveyn Tutum Ölçeği*). The transition to helicopter parenting, which is a result of the last 50 years will be examined. In the second step of the study, I will evaluate the values, and attitudes that Generation X, and Y MLWE attribute to their children, and compare it with the Istanbul sample.

Considering all these criteria, the thesis will be the first in the field, and will provide comprehensive research data for Istanbul, and Western Europe. The research aims to present original sociological data in terms of the fact that the study is carried out in two steps, focuses on, and compares different generations, and groups with two different dynamics. (Costanza et al., 2012) argues that it becomes difficult to make generalizations when generations are grouped only according to age. He argues that individuals' experiences are just as important as their birth dates. Where individuals live also affect their experience. The experiences of people living in the same place may create similar situations compared to those who do not. For this reason, where individuals live can also affect parental attitudes. (Costanza et al., 2012)

Looking at previous research, there are several studies evaluating parental attitudes according to generations. Bailey et al (2010), Garcia et al (2020), Glass et al (1986), Bengtson (1975), Miller and Glass (1989) and Karaman (2019) all focus on the difference between three generations, and whether parenting attitudes were transferred across generations. There are also studies in the literature that examine the change in parental attitudes culturally. Batı and Pos (2022), Eryörük (2018), Eryörük ve Özdoğru (2021) focused on an evaluation based on culture in their studies. Additionally, there are studies focusing on the change of parenting roles or examining the family according to different variables. Gökler and Atamtürk (2021) focused on the change in parental roles, while Büber (2021), and Kağıtçıbaşı and Ataca (2017) examined parental attitudes and the value of the child in the family.

1.3 Method and Limitations

The universe of the study was chosen as Istanbul, and several cities in Western Europe. Istanbul was chosen as a sample because it is a crowded, and multicultural metropolis. It is one of the cities with a highly educated workforce, and the educated female workforce has a higher employment rate in Istanbul (TUIK, 2021). Western Europe, which completed their industrial revolution in late 19th century, was chosen as the second sample. I chose my sample from several cities in Western Europe that are Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Switzerland and United Kingdom. I will use quantitative methods in the research, and conduct a survey method to collect data. In addition to the survey, I will administer the Parental Attitude Scale (PAS) to all four groups of mothers (Generation X, Y, and MLI and MLWE) to for a comparative perspective.

The research sample is limited to mothers born between 1965 and 1999, living in Istanbul and Western European countries. Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Switzerland are accepted as Western European countries (Kazazi et al., 2021). The United Kingdom is included in the study because it was the first place to actualize the industrial revolution. The study is limited to the qualities measured by the Parental Attitude Scale, and the information given by mothers born between 1965 and 1999 to the measurement tool, and personal information form. It is assumed that the participants answered the PAS correctly.

1.4 Hypothesis

The hypotheses of the study are as follows:

H1: There is a significant difference between the parents' education level, economic status, employment status, and parental attitudes respectively.

H2: Generation X and Generation Y mothers will have significantly different parental attitudes.

H3: There is a significant relationship between the parental attitudes of generation X/Y MLWE and generation X/Y MLI.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Industrialization and Modernization

2.1.1 Modernization

Modernity and modernization are two concepts that are frequently used, and sometimes confused. Modern is derived from the Latin word "modernus" and means "new, contemporary" (Tuna, 2000). Modernity refers to moving away from traditional society, religious dogmas, and old values (Aksoy, 2017). Modernization enables the reconstruction of social life, and the differentiation of human relations (Tipps, 1973). Modernity is often exemplified by the modernization of the West, and it is thought that non-Western societies should follow the path of the West in order to modernize. However, it is also widely believed that modernization is specific to the dynamics of each society (Şişman, 1995).

Modernization theories were popular in the social sciences in the 1950s and 60s. These theories became dominant, especially after colonial nations gained independence. It was predicted that developing countries could modernize by following the path followed by the West (Şişman, 1995). The Age of Enlightenment rejected traditional assumptions based on rational thought, and emphasized science (Wheeler III, 1997). The basic approaches of modernization theories offer different perspectives to explain how societies change, and modernize. These approaches include evolutionism, structural functionalism, diffusionist approach, ideal typical approach, and Talcott Parsons' modernization theory.

The evolutionist approach argues that human societies progress in a linear, and evolutionary manner. Auguste Comte's law of three stages suggests that the human mind passes through theological, metaphysical, and scientific stages (Schmaus, 1982). While this theory emphasizes that social change is inevitable, and one-way, it tries to explain the progress of societies directly through certain stages. This approach sees modernization as an inevitable progress of humanity. This idea of linear change gains a broader framework when combined with the structural functionalism approach. Structural functionalism argues that modern societies are sustained by the constant relationship between various structures, and functions. Talcott Parsons is an important representative of this theory, and sees society as a structure consisting of four subsystems: adaptation, goal achievement, integration and maintenance of latent patterns. These subsystems meet the needs of society, and ensure social order. Robert Merton states that the functions of social structures are not understood by everyone, and that these functions may be open, hidden or dysfunctional (Potts et al., 2016). Thus, while structural functionalism emphasizes the internal dynamics of social change, the evolutionary approach argues that this change progresses in a linear line.

On the other hand, the expansionist approach addresses the modernization process with its spatial and cultural dimensions. This theory, which explains the spread of innovations from the center to the periphery, suggests that modernization generally spreads to other societies, starting from the West (Blaut, 1987). In this process, effects on local cultures and structures become important. This approach shows that modernization is not only an internal process, but also spreads through cultural and geographical interactions. Thus, the internal dynamics emphasized by structural functionalism and the evolutionary approach are complemented by the spatial and cultural dimensions of the diffusionist approach. Moreover, the ideal typical approach evaluates the modernization process within a conceptual and analytical framework. This approach, developed by Max Weber, is used in the analysis of complex social events, and emphasizes that modernization is closely related to the rationalization process. Weber's ideal types provide conceptual tools to help us better understand social reality. This approach combines practical observations of evolutionary and structural functionalist approaches, providing a theoretical understanding of modernization. Lastly, Talcott Parsons's theory of modernization can be seen as an extension of structural functionalism. Parsons argues that societies have gone through different stages in the modernization process, and that social, cultural and economic changes should be handled together in this process. According to him, modernization includes processes such as increasing the adaptation capacity of the social system, improving the mechanisms of achieving goals, ensuring integration and protection of cultural patterns. Parsons' theory integrates the perspectives of other approaches by emphasizing the multidimensional nature of the modernization process (Gerstein, 1985). As a result, modernization theories offer various perspectives to understand social change, and each explains the process of modernization in different aspects. Evolutionist, structural functionalist, expansionist and ideal typical approaches, Parsons' theory shows that modernization is a multidimensional and complex process, and in this process, internal dynamics, spatial and cultural interactions, and conceptual analyzes should be evaluated together(Tuna, 2000).

The modernization process in Türkiye started during the Tanzimat Period. In this period, reforms were made in military, legal and administrative fields. However, these reforms did not progress at the same level as those in the West (Oguzhan, 2007). In the 19th century, there were three views in Türkiye: Radical Westerners, those who are completely opposed to everything coming from Europe and those who tried to create synthesis between the two views. Türkiye's modernization project has been tried to be implemented as a process as in Europe (Oguzhan, 2007). Zürcher (2004) summarizes the factors that prevent the modernization efforts until the end of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th century: the need for educated personnel, the need to take decisions by the sultan and the immediate surroundings, the abolition of traditionalism in bureaucracy, the elimination of old institutions, and the inadequacy of the economic resources of the state (Zürcher, 2004: 96). The reforms made after the proclamation of the Republic aimed at not only the change of political regime, but also to create a new way of life. In this process, social structure changed, urbanization accelerated, and migration from rural

to city increased. These reforms initiated Türkiye's Western-type modernization. The influence of reforms was larger in cities. The number of modern, secular and positivist thoughts increased in cities. These people supported modernization by working in important professions in society, and transferred them to new generations (Zürcher, 1995: 305). Modernization marks the beginning of a chain of transformations that includes industrialization, migration, and urbanization. To explore societal changes, I also studied the process of modernization in Türkiye to understand its impact on society. Analyzing modernization theories offers insight into social change, particularly in the evolution of family structures and roles.

2.1.2 Economic Modernization: Industrialization

Work means that individuals offer their own labor for a wage. Although its fields of study are diverse, it has a process starting from ancient times to the information society. Work that aims to survive, and meet physical needs, such as hunting and gathering, has evolved over time into a process that provides financial gain in return for labor. While in the feudal period, work was carried out depending on the factors of production, in agricultural societies, work refers to an activity carried out by family members together in order to meet physical needs. The definition of work has changed over time.

In the industrial period, a different work environment was formed, and became independent, moving away from the home, and its surroundings. Concepts such as being productive, capital and competition became important in the industrial period. As for the information society, with the acceleration of technological developments after the industrial revolution, a transition was made from the factory and production-oriented economic system to the service, and information-oriented system. The development of technology has brought about globalization. In this way, the process of integration of economies, and societies began. In particular, the development of systems that provide fast communication technology such as computers has accelerated information sharing, and made transportation cheaper. Production has moved to a global scale (Sağlık & Çelik, 2018).

Two different views prevail in the literature on modernization. It is the view that modernization will go through the same stages as the West, and that modernization is specific to countries, and will not occur in the same way. According to Eisenstadt, modernization is the process of other countries adapting to and changing in the social and political systems historically developed in Western Europe and North America. In other words, it is the process of westernization of "non-Western" countries. Since the sixties, all theories have interpreted modernization and industrialization from a Western-centric perspective. However, over time it has been realized that the process of all countries is not like the West. Periodic differences change the process. Eisenstadt explains this differentiation in the modernization process with factors such as unique cultural values, international pressures, the country's own goals, and development policies (Eisenstadt, 1974). In other words, the modernization process of each country may be unique. However, the industrialization process is not exactly like this.

Starting from the 18th century, Western societies began to experience radical changes with modernization. During this process, starting with the industrial revolution, major transformations occurred in economic, cultural and social areas. In order to better understand the effects of modernization on Western societies, it is important to look at the historical process of transformation and the effect of individualization on society. One of the important steps of modernization was undoubtedly the Industrial Revolution, which started in England in the late 18th century. This revolution enabled the transition of agricultural societies to industrial societies. Solidarity in industrial societies is different compared to agricultural societies. Specialization gained importance in industrial societies, and mechanical solidarity gave way to organic solidarity according to Durkheim's concept. The economic, technological, social and cultural changes that occurred during the modernization process transformed the traditional social structure and created a more dynamic and variable structure. Family structures changed and extended families began to be replaced by nuclear families. The changes that occurred required redefining the roles of women in society. As societies required specialization, social solidarity and common values began to decrease, and individuals' personal goals and freedoms gained importance. The social structure shifted from a collectivist to an individualist approach. Compared to Western societies, Turkish society maintains its collectivist structure. (Schönpflug, 2001) However, as in the world, individualization has begun to increase in Türkiye with modernization.

Industrialization shares certain characteristics, though the process may vary across different countries despite these similarities. Industrialization has brought a new model of division of labor in society. With this division of labor, the workplace, and the family environment are separated from each other. Since economic activities were carried out together in the pre-industrial family, work and family could be considered together. However, they diverge after industry. The most important factor for industrialization to occur is capital accumulation. Europe obtained this capital thanks to discoveries, and accelerated the rise of industry with this accumulation (Aron, 1962). Industrialization, like modernization, brings about some changes in society. This change brought about a renewal in the workforce, creating new professions, and destroying some professions. While changes were taking place in society, Rostow wrote the theory of stages regarding the rise, and steps of industrialization and modernization.

Rostow presented a guidebook prepared for the economic development of society as an alternative to the Marxist approach. In his theory of stages, Rostow stages the economic development of society and limits it to explanations at which stage each society is. According to Rostow's assumption, societies will develop towards modernism, starting from traditional societies. All countries will transform from agricultural countries to industrial countries, albeit at different times. While proposing this theory, he assumed that all societies would modernize like the West and follow the same paths. When Rostow's theory is examined in more detail, it is seen that it consists of 5 stages. These stages; the traditional society, preconditions for take-off, the take-off, the drive to maturity, the age of high mass

consumption (Rostow, 1959). In general terms, it can be observed that there are similar stages, but not always in the same order. Each country has its own dynamics. Modernization and industrialization are successive processes. The industrialization process begins with the modernization of production tools, and the possession of these tools by countries.

When we discuss modernization, we should also consider industrialization because western societies have been experiencing this transformation sequentially throughout history. After industrialization, modern relations replaced traditional relations in Europe. Countries that have made an industrial revolution are considered modern, while those that have not made it are considered not modernized. After the industrial revolution in the world, major transformations took place in cities. There have been significant changes in urban and rural populations. The need for labor force after the industrial revolution attracted individuals living in rural areas, and they began to migrate from agriculture and rural areas to cities. This situation caused deterioration in cities. Not only cities were affected, family relations also transformed with migration, and new family relations began to be established with the migrating population.

One of the most important issues in the first years of the Republic was the economy. The modernization of the economy is important for the development, and recovery of society. Economically, it would be difficult for both the society, and the people living in the society to transition from the Ottoman Empire, whose main source of income was agriculture, to a Türkiye that was slowly trying to develop its industry. While this change was taking place, not only the economic livelihood would change in society, but many more units would be affected by this change. While the ratio of agriculture to the working population was 81 percent in 1927, it decreased to 78 percent by the 1950s. However, there was an increase in industry, even though slowly. While the industry, and service sectors in Türkiye were gaining momentum, the population working in agriculture was slowly decreasing (Mardin, 1991). Although agricultural policies were given importance in the first years of the Republic, the acceleration of industry in cities could not prevent migration from rural to urban areas. Like other countries, migration from rural to urban areas began in Türkiye, and people living in villages brought their own culture and lifestyle to the cities. This migration has created multiculturalism in cities. When individuals living in rural areas migrated, they brought their own culture, and lifestyle to cities. This situation transformed the cities structure. Slums, unplanned construction have occurred in cities, and uncontrolled population increases have occurred. Individuals who are culturally similar or migrated from the same region tend to live together, and live in the same place, creating neighborhood culture (*mahalle kültürü*) in cities.

Regarding the economy, the most important problem in a newly established country is to manage the economy correctly, and repair the damage it has suffered. The dominant idea at that time was the idea of solidarity and populism. Rather than the concept of class, it is mentioned that the people are divided into professional areas, and a division of labor is made (Mardin, 1991). By 1938, more than

50 percent of the manufacturing industry in Türkiye was managed by the public sector. By the 1960s, the dominance of the public sector was still over 40 percent (Mardin, 1991). The statist and solidarist policies of the Turkish society after the Republic may have reinforced the collectivist understanding of society and slowed down the transition to an individualist society structure. However, this situation changed with the migrations that occurred later.

Migration began to big cities such as Istanbul and Ankara, and especially between 1950 and 1955, while the population increase in Türkiye was 15 percent, the increase in the population of big cities was 33 percent. When cities and rural areas are compared, population growth was more rapid in cities than in rural areas (Taeuber, 1958). Industrialization and modernization have not only affected society economically, but also the changing workforce needs have led to the modernization of education (Aron, 1962). Division of labor has gained importance in society, and specialization has become important. With the increase in the need for labor, and the modernization of education, the literacy rate of women has increased. This situation enabled women to participate more actively in business life. In the next chapter, a literature review of women's becoming active in business life, and family relations in the industrializing society will be conducted.

2.2 Individualization and Family

2.2.1 Family Structure and Migration

Today, women's participation in economic life also affects the family. The roles of women who take an active role in business life are changing at home. Transformations have occurred over time in both motherhood, and wife roles. As women acquired a profession, men began to take an active role in household chores, and the division of labor between spouses increased (Thompson, 2008). With industrialization, change and development have occurred in social and economic areas all over the world. Particularly, there has been a differentiation in the production and consumption balances. This change and development have caused the family structure, and functions of the family to change. Families have moved from a productive structure to a consumer structure.

Following the developments in industrialization, people living in rural areas began to migrate to industrial cities. The intense wave of migration created a need for housing in cities, and thus the urbanization process began. While the number of people living in cities was increasing in the early 19th century, the population living in rural areas was decreasing. The industrialization movement that started in England soon spread to other western countries such as Germany, Belgium, France and Switzerland. The increased need for labor force after industrialization caused women to enter business life, and change their roles in the family.

Today, women's participation in economic life has affected the family. The roles of women at home are also changing, as they are given responsibilities such as housework and child care. Over time,

transformations have occurred in the roles of both motherhood and wife. As women became professionals, men began to take an active role in housework and the division of labor between spouses increased. Additionally, women's start to take an active role in business life has brought about some changes in family planning. The different living conditions in the city have reduced the number of children in the family, and birth rates have changed (Gökler & Atamtürk, 2021). Migration from rural to urban areas has affected family structures. It was predicted that with modernization after the industrial revolution, large family structures living in large numbers in rural areas would be replaced by nuclear family structures with fewer children. However, according to research, it is seen that traditional families do not lose their existence immediately, but continue their structures for a while while migrating from rural to urban areas. Still, the nuclear family structure is increasing in cities. The nuclear family, which emerged with the changing family structure, has a more fragile structure than the traditional family structure, and divorce rates are higher (Gökler & Atamtürk, 2021). Parsons also conducted a study on American families regarding the differentiation of families. He mentions that there must be a "root function" in the family, and kinship system. It is known that kinship relations are important in many "primitive" societies, and that this kinship has an impact on the social structure. When we compare primitive societies with developed societies, it is seen that kinship relations decrease in developed societies, and non-kin structures gain importance. The fact that non-kin units have gained importance has caused "dysfunction" in kinship units. With the change in family structure, families turned into nuclear family structures, and the importance of kinship relationships decreased. Families have become more specialized institutions than they used to be, and various functions have been transferred to other structures. Professionally organized sectors have gained importance. It can be said that some characteristics of traditional families have decreased, and the family has become more specialized than before. Thus, the family has built new relationships in society, and some changes have occurred in the roles within the family. With the participation of women in business life, the change in the family has become inevitable. It is possible that parental attitudes may also be affected by the change in the sharing of roles between men and women in the family. For this reason, women's participation in business life, and the change of the family were included in the process chain. These two situations can affect society, and parental attitudes. In the next heading, the social transformation of women after industrialization will be examined.

2.2.2. Transformation of Women After Industrialization

After the industrial revolution, increasing the workforce became a necessity. After phenomena such as social events, and wars reduced the male population over time, and then the acceleration of the industrial revolution, women began to take an active role in business life. While ensuring economic prosperity in societies, it is important to increase women's workforce and employment, and ensure that they take an active role. In this way, the welfare level increases, and household income increases.

The start of women's working life with industrialization is important in terms of closing the employment gap in the economy. It can be said that the industrial revolution was a turning point for women, who initially started working under poor conditions such as low wages and long working hours (Sarı, 2020). It is seen that women, and even children worked actively in some sectors such as textile and cotton until the 18th and early 19th centuries. While men mostly worked in the iron and metalworking industries, women and children mostly made small chains and nails at home or in workshops. Women, men and even children worked in the sector by dividing the labor (Berg, 1993).

After the 1970s, thanks to the development of technology, markets began to go beyond the borders of countries, and become multinational. In this way, there was an increase in production. Increasing production as a result of globalization has increased the need for labor, and flexible working has affected women's employment, enabling women to take a greater place in the market. Although it positively affects women's occupation, as mentioned before, women generally start working in low-paid jobs with inadequate social security. Since female labor costs are low, they have become more preferred in the market, and have begun to be seen as an alternative workforce (Berg, 1993). Being seen as an alternative workforce may have some disadvantages.

Obstacles that women may face while working can be listed as follows; economic social and demographic. Many women had low levels of education, and skills due to the idea that women did not need to receive education because they were assigned roles such as child care, and housework at that time. For this reason, they can be employed in unskilled jobs. Since it was not considered appropriate for women to work under the conditions of the period, it could be an obstacle. It may face difficulties such as gender discrimination, social pressure, and appropriate roles. Since women's marriage, and motherhood processes are prioritized, it creates an obstacle for them to work as an individual (Sarı, 2020). Women could not move away from the role of motherhood, and for a while tried to overcome business life, housework and child care alone. This situation has changed over time.

The socialization process that took place with the change in the social structure has brought about changes in family structure, types and roles. It has been observed that the new family types, and gender roles that have emerged have started to normalize situations that were previously considered unacceptable according to social norms. For example, while family existence was previously seen as important, and divorce was an undesirable situation in traditional societies, now divorce rates have increased, and we can easily talk about the single-parent family type. In this modernizing structure, it is seen that the value given to women has increased, and gender discrimination has begun to decrease within the family.(Gökler & Atamtürk, 2021)

2.2.3 Transformation of Parenthood

The roles of motherhood and fatherhood have been shaped, and re-created by changing norms throughout history. Parenthood includes the biological or adoptive mother and father who are

responsible for providing care to the child (Bee & Boyd, 2013). Parents are people who support the child's biological, physical, emotional and social development, and provide the appropriate environment for these developments (Demirutku, 2017).

Parents basically have two functions: shaping behavior, and transferring information. While shaping behavior, parents can reinforce or extinguish desired behaviors that are in line with their own beliefs. This is an important function in children's value development. The child's ability to know the world is possible through the information transfer function. Children by nature ask questions, and are eager to learn (Demirutku, 2017). At this point, parents transfer information by answering their questions.

First of all, the family and then the social environment are very important in the formation of children's personality traits and character. Children's character, and personality traits will be shaped by their parents' attitudes, affecting their future child-rearing practices, and their own parental attitudes. Individuals are influenced by the attitudes of their own mothers and fathers regarding their parenting attitudes and thus have an attitude towards their children accordingly (Çapuk, 2022). Thus, it is certain that parents have an effect on the transmission of culture. Parents' approaches, and ideas are partially transmitted between generations. When the literature is examined, some studies suggest that culture is reproduced through the socialization of parents. The transmission of values is an important factor in terms of the preservation, and change of culture. The common processes involved in the transmission of values are assumed to be socialization and enculturation. Socialization is the intentional shaping of individuals to adapt to the social environment. It is particularly the practices of raising, and educating children through parents. Enculturation can occur through intentional or unintentional learning. It includes the culture, identity, language, traditions and values of individuals (Schönplflug, 2001).

Even if individuals are influenced by their own mothers and fathers, they may not have exactly the same attitudes. According to generation theory, people have an attitude by being influenced by the norms, phenomena, and values of their generation. For this reason, society's norms are an important factor in determining parenting attitudes of the period. The attitudes of a Generation X mother and a Generation Y mother may differ. When the periods of different generations are examined, it can be said that parenting roles have changed. Parenting roles have been reshaped, and changed many times throughout history according to changing norms (Pooley S. & Qureshi, 2016). One of the changing issues is the division of labor within the family. Even if individuals are influenced by their own mothers and fathers, they may not have exactly the same attitudes. According to generation theory, people have an attitude by being influenced by the norms, phenomena, and values of their generation. For this reason, society's norms are an important factor in determining parenting attitudes of the period. The attitudes of a Generation X mother and a Generation Y mother may differ (Pooley S. & Qureshi, 2016). When the periods of different generations are examined, it can be said that parenting roles have changed. Parenting roles have been reshaped, and changed many times throughout history according to changing norms

(Pooley S. & Qureshi, 2016). One of the changing issues is the division of labor within the family. Industrialization affected the family structure, and caused changes in family roles. Division of labor is the sharing of work to be done in the family environment by family members. Since the responsibilities of childcare and housework are given to women, they experience difficulties in housework and raising children after entering business life. With women working, domestic roles began to be redefined (Engel, 2002).

Before industrialization, agriculture was an important source of employment. Since agriculture was a common business, most of the population lived, and practiced agriculture in rural areas. Since there is a need for labor in agriculture, families have many children, and live close to other relatives. In rural areas, families are very used to being together, and living with each other. For this reason, after the decrease in work due to mechanization in agriculture, families migrated to the same places, and continued to live in similar family structures, and relationships in the city for a while.

There is a hierarchy in extended family structures. Conflicts may occasionally occur in family roles. Since mother, father, their children and grandchildren live in the same house, there is complexity in parenting roles. The parenting attitudes of two different generations are not the same. These differences in attitudes can create conflict. Especially in pre-industrial rural family structures, child rearing is defined as the role of the mother. Men did repair work, agricultural work, and work that needed to be done outside the home. Women did all the housework, child care and agriculture (Kagitcibasi, 1983).

With post-industrial migration, some transformations occurred in the family structure. Families who started living in cities no longer needed to have many children as the workforce became more diverse, and the number of children began to decrease. Although there were families who continued their extended family structure in the cities for a while, there was a gradual transition to the nuclear family structure. Since there are only parents, and children in the nuclear family, the influence of the parenting attitude of the other generation is reduced. Since living in cities is economically difficult, it has become inevitable for women to participate in business life. This process accelerated the transformation in family structures. Families' preferences for having more children have changed, and efforts have been made to reduce the time a woman stays away from business life. This situation has changed the social perception that child care is only the mother's duty, allowing fathers to come to the fore. Changes have occurred in the roles within the family, and the roles of motherhood and fatherhood have changed. Parenthood in the family has begun to be distributed more equally, and paternal roles have increased. Especially with women working, the time children spend with their families has begun to be distributed more equally. The time fathers spend with their children has increased, and they have begun to take a more active role in domestic roles (Özyeşer Cinel & Tezel Şahin, 2021). It is known that the common, and dominant understanding of fatherhood in Türkiye is "traditional fatherhood". Traditional fatherhood role; It represents fathers who are distant from their children, authoritarian, and not open to change. These

values are the unquestionable norm of the patriarchal society, defined as dominant masculinity or patriarchy. Accordingly, fathers are represented in our society as authoritarian, and powerful elements who have to provide for the household. However, in today's societies where constant, and rapid change is experienced, cultural and economic changes force the roles of motherhood and fatherhood to change. When we look at gender roles from past to present, we see patriarchal societies dominated by men. The structure has changed. The socio-cultural structure, technological changes, the increase in the education level of parents, urbanization, and changes in family structures, especially mothers' involvement in business life, have affected fathers' parental attitudes, and provided them with the opportunity to spend time with their children. The role of fatherhood, which is distant and strict towards his children, has been replaced by giving more attention to his children. Fathers have begun to share equal roles with their spouses in child care at home. As a result of the developing, and changing social structure, and many studies carried out; Today's fathers have abandoned traditional roles, and adopted the new fatherhood roles brought by modern society (Şahin & Demiriz, 2014).

Just as there has been a change in the family roles of parents of different generations, there have also been changes in their attitudes (Pooley S. & Qureshi, 2016). Since parental attitude is a personal situation, and an abstract concept, it is difficult to explain its change. However, Baumrind's study, which is one of the important studies that concretize parenting attitudes, helped group the attitudes. Baumrind grouped parental attitudes into three items: permissive, authoritarian, and explanatory authoritative style. While creating these items, he examined different dimensions of parenting. The first of these is nurturing, the second is the level of expectations, which it defines as maturity demands, the third is the clarity, and consistency of the rules, which it defines as control, and the last one is the communication between parent and child (Robinson et al., 1996).

Maccobby and Martin (1983) expanding the work of Baumrind (1973) as including the fourth item that is negligent style. Maccobby and Martin (1983) focused on the degree of control, and demand and adoption/sensitivity criteria in their studies. With their addition, parental attitudes began to be examined under four headings: permissive style, authoritarian style, authoritative style, and neglectful style (Bee & Boyd, 2013).

Table 1 Parenting Styles and Key Characteristics

Parenting Style	Description	Key Characteristics
Authoritarian Style	Authoritarian parents are demanding and unresponsive, focusing on strict rules and control.	-Demanding -Unresponsive -Strict rules - Emphasis on obedience and respect
Permissive Style	Permissive parents are tolerant and warm but lack authority and struggle with setting limits.	-Tolerant -Warm -Weak authority - Difficulty setting limits - Children set rules
Explanatory-Authoritarian (Authoritative) Style	Authoritative parents balance warmth and sensitivity with clear boundaries and rules.	- Warm - Sensitive - Clear boundaries - Balanced approach - Individual needs met
Neglectful Style	Neglectful parents may be psychologically distressed and struggle to form emotional bonds with their children.	- Psychological distress (e.g., depression) - Difficulty forming emotional bonds - Low importance given to children

(Bee & Boyd, 2013).

Parental attitudes may differ in society depending on generations, cultures, and economic conditions (Gökler & Atamtürk, 2021). According to some critics, the economic conditions of the family affect whether parents are disciplined or not. There are two different opinions on this issue. The first claims that low-income families are inadequate in discipline, and allow much more unlimited time. The second one claims the opposite, and states that children growing up in low-income families are often kept under control by their families because they cannot access everything they want. Research also

supports the second view. As sociologist Annette Lareau describes it, children are raised with "a sense of emerging constraint." Since low-income families cannot provide unlimited economic opportunities for their children, they set more limits on their children. According to research data, when buying a product for their children, low-income parents set limits on their children and ask them to choose between two products and they can buy one. For low-income parents, this is not a situation they prefer, but a situation they have to (Pugh, 2009).

Economic conditions can influence parental attitudes, as in the example above. Society's conditions, and opportunities are important for parental attitudes. In today's society, conditions are changing, and risks are increasing. According to Beck's definition of risk society, it is "a phase of modernity in which the threats, and risks created by the industrial society that has developed until today are intense." Change is a process that must inevitably occur as a result of all these progress and developments. Defining modernization as a constantly changing and progressive process, he explained that industrial societies are now old, and the new one is the risk society. The most important difference between the risk society and the industrial society is that risks arise from factors that do not depend on the decisions of individuals, such as epidemics, famines, natural disasters, and nuclear weapons as a result of technological advances (Çuhacı & Aysu, 2007). In this risk society, parental attitudes depend on the risk society. is transforming. Parents' desire for control increases and shows a protective attitude (Yılmaz, 2020). As a result, the concept of helicopter parents entered the literature. The concept of helicopter parenting, first used by Ginnott (1969), was used to describe parents who revolve around their children. The concept was introduced to scientific literature in 2011 (Şahin & Ulusoy Zaim, 2014)

2.2.3.1 A New Attitude: Helicopter Parenting

The most distinctive feature of Helicopter parents is that they focus excessively on their children. Typically, these parents play essential role in their children's lives, and especially in their success or failure (Segrin et al., 2012). Helicopter parents often tend to control their children's lives in detail. Their overprotective and perfectionist attitudes are dominant. This parenting style begins when children are still very young. For example, they constantly monitor their children who are just learning to walk, direct their games and behaviors, and do not allow them to spend time alone (Padilla-Walker & Nelson, 2012).

When their children start to go to school, helicopter parents tend to make excessive effort to find reliable teachers, choose their children's friends and activities, and provide excessive help with schoolwork and projects. Additionally, behaviors such as contacting their teachers, creating intensive course schedules, or enrolling them in private courses when they get low grades are also common (Türker & Bahçeci, 2024). Helicopter parenting can predominate at any stage of an children's life (Segrin et al., 2012). They may intervene in many matters, from their children's university or career choices to marriage, and where they live. Reasons for helicopter parenting include worrying about the bad

consequences that may occur in their children's physical, academic, social and emotional lives, being distrustful of the outside world, having financial concerns, and the desire of adults who experienced lack of love or neglect in their childhood to compensate for this situation (Odenweller et al., 2014). Additionally, social pressures from other parents can also lead to helicopter parenting. There are studies conducted in many countries on the consequences of this parenting style. These consequences include important problems such as the message "my family does not trust me that I can do it on my own" causing a decrease in self-confidence and self-esteem (Yılmaz, 2020).

It is inevitable that parenting will also differ in the changing family structure in Türkiye. Especially today, it is seen that studies on new parenting attitudes such as helicopter parenting have emerged. According to the research titled "A Sociological Analysis on the Work and Life Satisfaction of Generation Y with Helicopter Parents" conducted in Türkiye, while the protective and competitive attitudes of helicopter parents on their children had a positive effect on the academic success of the children, it negatively affected the children psychologically. The research has shown that Generation Y do not consider themselves successful because of their parents (Dursun Çirci & Zeybekoğlu Akbaş, 2023). According to another text, Generation Y mothers who have helicopter parents think that they have a freer approach towards their children compared to other generations. (Nulsen, 2023)

2.2.4 Concept of Generation

The concept of generation means that individuals who were born, and raised within a period of approximately 20 to 30 years have similar perspectives if they experience the same political, social and economic conditions of the period (Aka, 2018). Another definition of generation according to Turkish Language Association, is that the group of people who were born approximately in the same years from the beginning of human history to the present day, and who shared the conditions of the same age and therefore similar troubles and destinies. Generation theory; It points to the fact that individuals with similar value judgments, behaviors and lifestyles are born in a certain age. Each generation has its own characteristic features and value judgments. For this reason, while individuals show similar characteristics to the generation group in which they were born, they exhibit different characteristics from the characteristics of the other generation group (Chen, 2010:132).

According to another explanation of the generation theory; It suggests a community consisting of individuals who have experienced similar political and social events in terms of their birth years, are similar in terms of value judgments and belief systems, and have similar personality traits. It includes the commonality of phenomena such as political events, threats, socio-economic change processes, unemployment rates, and thoughts about danger situations that have occurred in society within a certain period(Lamm & Meeks, 2009: 615).

When the literature is examined, the concept of generation has been discussed in different concepts in different periods from the classical period to the present day. Especially when explaining

social change, the concept of generation has been used by evolutionist approaches to explain the transformation from the pre-modern form of society to the modern form of society. The concept of generation initially began to be discussed within the framework of the concept of class. It can be said that Marx and Weber have different methodological approaches to explaining classes. Marx and Weber's different claims to explain social change provided the opportunity to examine class debates from a different perspective. Karl Mannheim formed his claims about the generation theory within this framework. Mannheim examined generations from a cultural perspective and drew attention to generational movements instead of the concept of social class in sociology. Influenced by the class discussions of those societies, he introduced the concept of generation, which is a new form of classification. While economic criteria determine the class, what determines the generations are common experiences and positions formed as a result of the transfer of experiences. He argued that formative experiences in youth unconsciously provide a common 'social position' to different people born in the same period (Çakır & Azman, 2022).

While Mannheim developed generations as an alternative to the concept of class, Strauss and Howe classified and named all societies throughout history. He named these generation groups and grouped them according to social events that could be turning points, such as war, famine, and epidemics. In the last part, Strauss and Howe divided World War II, and its aftermath into four groups. Researchers in the literature have categorized them as Baby Boomer, Generation X, Generation Y, Generation Z, which they frequently use. It explained the similar features of each category, and the features that may differ from each other. He named the generation just before World War II as the silent generation (Costanza et al., 2012). There are disagreements among authors regarding the creation of these periods and the classification of which years they will cover (Reeves, 2007).

In Table 2; Chronological classifications of the silent generation, Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y, Generation M and Generation Z are stated.

Table 1 Chronological Identification of Generations

	Silent Generation	Baby Boomers Generation	Generation X	Generation Y	Generation M	Generation Z
Keleş, 2011		1946-1964	1965-1979	1980-1999		
Yelkikalan and Altın, 2010	1922-1945	1946-1964	1965-1979	1980-2000		
Salahuddin, 2010	1922-1943	1943-1960	1960-1980	1980-2000		
Haerberle vd., 2009	1930- 1944	1945- 1964	1965- 1979	1980- 1999	1999,...	
Crumpacker & Crumpacker, 2007	1929- 1945	1946- 1964	1965- 1979	1980- 1999		
Kyles, 2005	1900- 1945	1946- 1964	1965- 1979	1980- 1999		
Lancaster& Stillman, 2002	1900- 1945	1946- 1964	1965- 1980	1981- 1999		
Tsui, 2001	1925- 1945	1946- 1964	1961- 1981	1976- 1981	1982-2002	
Washburn, 2000	1926- 1945	1945- 1964	1965- 1981	1982- 2003		
Spitznas, 1998	1925- 1945	1946- 1964	1965- 1980			
Matthews, 2008					2002,...	
Senbir, 2004	1929- 1939	1945- 1965	1965- 1977	1977- 1994	1994-2003	2003,...
Seçkin, 2005	...,1945	1946- 1964	1965- 1980	1980, 1995	1995,...	
Strauss and Howe	1925-1942	1943-1960	1961-1981	1982-2005		2006, present

Sources:(Ayhün, 2013)

Different dominant characteristics of each generation, affected by the conditions of the period, attract attention. The characteristics of the silent generation, Baby Boomer generation, Generation X, Generation Y and Generation Z, which we commonly encounter in the literature, are stated (Reeves, 2007). Most researchers accept Generation M as part of Generation Z or Generation Y.

Silent Generation: It is a generation that deals with major social events such as World War II and the Great Depression, gets married and has children at a very young age. For this reason, this

generation is a generation that had a childhood that was "seen but not heard" (Nulsen, 2023). They have a traditional structure (Costanza et al., 2012).

Baby Boomer Generation: This is the generation determined for people born between 1940 and 1960 after World War II. The most distinctive characteristics of the generation are that they are winged, emotional, loyal to authority, and a generation devoted to their traditions and culture. This generation, which has the perspective of "Work hard now, you will be rewarded later", continues to work even after retirement (Aka, 2018).

Generation X: People born between 1965 and 1979 are called generation x. It is called the transition zone. This generation is sensitive to social problems, combative, can think globally, is tolerant of cultural diversity, and exhibits an assurance structure. They are focused on learning how to balance work life and life (Nulsen, 2023)

Generation Y: Those born between 1980 and 2000 are considered Generation Y. This generation is also called the Millennium. Generation Y, which takes its name from the word "Why", is constantly questioning and open to learning, change and innovation. They can actively use technology and the internet. They want to work in a democratic environment where everyone can express their own opinion. However, especially individuals in this group may have helicopter mothers and fathers. For this reason, they define themselves as more liberal parents than other generations ("Millennials Rising: The Next Great Generation," 2002).

Generation Z: This generation is also known as zoomer. It starts in the 2000s and is the first social generation to grow up with access to the internet and portable digital technology from an early age. Generation Z was born into a technological world with information and communication devices. This generation is a generation that has different expectations and life habits and can socialize online (Akduman & Hatipoğlu, 2021).

While categorizing generations, each researcher determined different dates for different generations. Since generations are determined according to the changing conditions of the period, a clear categorization cannot be expected (Costanza et al., 2012).

Generation theory suggests that the formation of generations is influenced by historical events, social phenomena and cultural phenomena that occur during the basic developmental stages of individuals. These factors may be effective in the formation of collective memories. Historical, social, and cultural influences are assumed to influence individuals' attitudes, value systems, and personality traits (Costanza et al., 2012). Based on this assumption, there may be differences in parental attitudes between generations.

BB, X and Y generation mothers may have had different child-rearing practices and parental attitudes, influenced by the conditions of the period in which they lived. When defining generations, it is assumed that historical events, cultural and social phenomena affect them. However, in addition, the

place where people live and their experiences are also largely effective in the common attitudes of generations. For example, there were differences between the historical and cultural events experienced by individuals growing up in the United States in the 1950s and 60s and the experiences of individuals growing up in countries such as Russia, China and Brazil. This is a situation that should be taken into consideration when generalizing generations and their attitudes. When making generalizations, care should be taken for individuals who did not experience the conditions and events of the period but were born on the same date (Costanza et al., 2012). In this case, in order to make generalizations, it has been seen that the location where individuals live is as important as the date they were born.

2.2.5 Value of Child

Concepts such as child and childhood have transformed throughout history and gained different meanings. In ancient times, childhood was an ambiguous period where it was not clear exactly where it started and ended. However, at that time, children were transitioning into male and female roles from a very early age. Childhood has changed in different periods historically, and an emotional bond was not established until the 16th century due to high infant mortality rates. In Europe, when children lived until the age of 7, they left childhood and started working like an adult. The roles of manhood and womanhood were beginning for them. Of course, children were physically smaller than adults, but they were not in a special situation because they were small at that time. They were treated the same way as other adults. If a child could live until the age of 7, he was considered an adult. When a child learned exactly how to talk and communicate, he could become an adult. At that time, this was considered a normal process. Later, with the invention of the printing press in the 15th century, some religious, economic and political rules changed and the idea of modern childhood was created in Europe. The concept of childhood began to emerge in the 16th century with the idea of going to school (Postman, 1981).

The value given to the child and the opportunities provided may vary depending on the place of residence. Children have a role and function in traditional extended families based on agriculture. In this family structure, there is a hierarchical structure that regulates the division of labor among family members. The people who have authority in the family are the elders. It has a patrilineal and male-dominated structure. It is seen that families with many children live in agricultural societies and children help their families in agricultural work. Children are important for the workforce in rural families (Eyce, 2014). For the elderly, their children provide security for them. Because it provides security, it creates an intergenerational dependency. Families that have sons desire a son because they think that the flow of financial resources will be more reliable. As the number of children increases, financial opportunities and support increase. This understanding is explained by the addiction model (Duman, 2016). On the other hand, the independence model represents the middle-class modern family structure of the West. The number of children is low in the modern family structure. A difference in expectations from children is observed. The perception of children as labor force within the family has begun to decrease in the

modern family structure, and since it is easier to access education in cities, the schooling of children has increased. Importance is given to independence between generations. In this model, individualization, autonomy and self-sufficiency gain importance. This model is mostly seen in urbanized and industrialized societies. As the status of women in the family increased, their insistence on the desire for a son decreased. The value of the child in the family has evolved from economic to psychological. With the addiction model, authoritarian parental attitudes decreased (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1982).

With the influence of industrialization and modernization, women's entry into working life has brought about a change in the sharing of domestic roles. This change has revealed the "new father" image. The value of children in the family has changed, and the perception that children are solely the responsibility of the mother has begun to decrease. It has begun to be seen that the father has a significant impact on the child's life, and mothers and fathers have begun to share a more equal role in child care (Bayer, 2020).

This value attributed to children will show some interfamilial and interpersonal changes. Moreover, these are not specific to individuals; they may differ according to group, region and social values. The value of the child provides information about the family structure by determining the child's role in the family and society (Kağıtçıbaşı & Ataca, 2017). The development level and opportunities of the region you live in, the family's income and education create differences in the value of the child. The transformation of the family from the traditional structure to the modern structure has changed the value given to the child in the family from economic to psychological (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1982).

2.3 Individualism and Migration

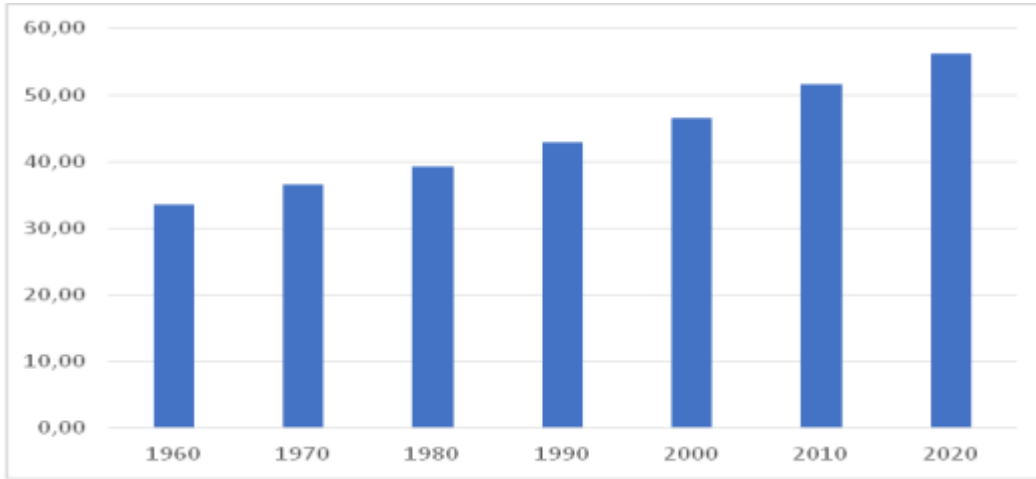
Mass migrations abroad have been an important part of modern world history (McKeown, 2004). In the 19th century, research on rapid population growth in cities focused on the migration of people from rural areas to large urban cities. Since it is only valid in certain places, it becomes difficult to generalize. This makes migration research difficult studies. In the past, it was thought that people in villages had no intention of migrating and did not move much. However, this idea is now being questioned. Because recently, there is evidence showing that even in the pre-industrial period, people moved frequently. However, it is a fact that the mobility of villagers is not fully understood because information on migration is lacking. Therefore, more information is needed to fully understand how migration research affects other topics (Hochstadt, 1981).

In general, modernization theory contains some assumptions about how migration and industrialization affect each other. Industrialization increased the movement of people, and the pace of this increase varied depending on how fast industrialization occurred. Urbanization has also increased migration, as people who grew up in cities are more likely to migrate than villagers. These assumptions emphasize the importance of migration and industrialization on society and economy. While migration is seen as a part of modernization, urbanization and industrialization also play a major role (Hochstadt,

1981). Migration involves social change, especially changes in lifestyles. This is the case with both internal (rural to urban) and international migration. When there is a significant change in lifestyles, incompatibilities may arise between established ways (culture) and changing environmental demands (Kagıtcıbası, 2010).

As a result of migration from rural to urban areas, population structure and income distribution are changing. At the beginning of the 20th century, 10% of the world's total population lived in cities. When we look at Chart 1, we see that the urban population in the world has entered a rapid increase trend between 1960 and 2020. While the ratio of the urban population to the world population was 33.57% in 1960, this ratio increased to 46.52% in 2000 and finally to 56.15% in 2020 (Turan & Yıldırım, 2023).

Figure 1 Urban Population Rates in the World (1960-2020) (%)



Today, approximately 56.15% of the world's population prefers to live in cities, and it is expected to reach 2/3 of the world's population by 2050. Chart 2 shows the increase in the urban population in the world after 2001 in close-up. As can be seen from the graph, there is a similar increase in the 1960-2000 period. The urban population, which was 46.96% in 2001, has increased to 56.15% today (Turan & Yıldırım, 2023). This type of domestic migration is not common in developing countries. However, its importance is increasing rapidly. The high wage differences between rural areas and cities, especially in Asian countries where industrialization has accelerated, accelerated this type of migration (Turan & Yıldırım, 2023).

In Türkiye, the tendency to migrate from rural areas to big cities has increased significantly, especially under the influence of modernization and industrialization in agriculture. The mechanization process, especially in agriculture, has led to the human workforce living in rural areas being directed towards cities. With the decrease in employment opportunities in agriculture and the difficulty in living conditions in rural areas, many people began to migrate to big cities and industrial regions (Kızılaslan

& Arslan, 2022). It has been observed that domestic migration in Türkiye accelerated after 1950. While migration from rural to urban areas in Türkiye progressed slowly and gradually until the 1950s, after the 1950s, massive migration from rural to urban areas began to occur. In determining the migrating population, many criteria are used to determine data regarding domestic migration within the borders of the country. Unlike developed countries, domestic migration in Türkiye did not occur as a result of industrialization, and the mechanization of the agricultural sector and the increase in transportation opportunities between rural and urban areas played a major role in increasing the rate of migration to cities. Between 1950 and 1960, the majority of those who migrated were men. They migrated economically and culturally developed provinces, which are today called metropolises. Migration from rural to urban areas increased after 1960. While migration from rural to urban areas was intense in the 1960-1970 period; Since the late 1970s, urban-to-urban migration, which can be called a new type of migration, has begun to make a name for itself. In the 1980s, relatively small cities outside the urbans started to emigrate (Kızılaslan & Arslan, 2022). In the last general population census, migration from rural to city was recorded as 1 million 168 people between 1995 and 2000, while it was around 610 thousand in the period between 1975-1990 (TUIK, 2018).

After migrating from rural areas to cities, people brought the cultures they lived in to cities and created a new unified culture here. People who migrated started to live in the same places with people who had a culture similar to their own or with people who migrated from the same region. This situation has created neighborhoodization in cities. The neighborhoods of the cities have created a structure that includes different cultures but also interacts with the culture of the city (Slattery, 2014). In addition to this domestic migration trend, migration from Türkiye to abroad is also an issue that needs to be taken into consideration. Migration, especially to economically developed regions such as Western Europe, is often associated with the need for labor and the search for economic opportunities. After industrialization, many families seeking a better standard of living and economic prosperity turned to job markets abroad, with or without qualifications. Therefore, migration trends in Türkiye are linked to the effects of industrialization on society. The need for labor plays an important role in both internal and international migration. As a result of these migrations, both the demographic structure in the cities in Türkiye and the formation and transformation of Turkish communities abroad are shaped. These migrations affect the demographic structure of major cities in Türkiye and Europe, and shape the formation and transformation of Turkish communities in Europe.

2.3.1 Migrant Families

Some of the Turkish families started to migrate abroad since 1950 in order to earn money and have a better life in Western European countries. Groups that initially migrated solely for economic reasons, without knowing the language, culture, working environment, or housing situation of the place they went to, later migrated to Germany in droves. Immigration to other Western European countries,

especially Germany, has begun. Especially as a result of the increase in Germany's demand for foreign labor, the number of foreign workers, which was 700 thousand in 1963, reached 2.4 million in 1973. Some problems have occurred due to Germany's intense labor demand and immigration intensity. In 1967, twenty thousand of Turkish workers were unemployed and unemployment in the country reached a figure of 621 thousand. The German economy stalled, and unemployed Turkish families living in Germany returned to Türkiye. Thus, due to the economic crisis, intensive recruitment of workers to European countries was stopped as of 1970, and migration to European countries continued mostly as family reunions (Şahin Kütük, 2015).

The change and cultural transformation experienced by migrant families after migration is often an important and complex process. A situation that can be applied especially in rural, less developed areas can be at a more comprehensive and developed level in the city. In other words, acquiring new skills after migration is a condition for adapting to new lifestyles. This problem often appears as the main reason for international migration, especially for adaptation problems (Kagitcibasi, 2010). Migrant families encounter different cultural and social norms and language barriers far from their home countries to establish a new life. This process may cause changes in the identities of both individuals and the family. In this process, intra-family relationships are also affected and changes may occur as a result. In particular, children try to maintain a balance between two cultures. The balance they establish while creating their own identities is important. Likewise, adults try to balance their cultural roots with their new cultural norms. Although traveling abroad has advantages for migrant families such as meeting new cultures, gaining different perspectives and personal growth opportunities, migration abroad is a process in which intercultural balance is tried to be established (Kagitcibasi, 2010).

Language is one of the most challenging issues for migrant families. With migration abroad, individuals work to adapt to living conditions. Being an migrant family with children in these busy working life conditions can make the process even more difficult. When the children of migrant families go to school, if they cannot learn the language, they fail in school, drop out and continue to work in blue-collar jobs like their parents. However, when children start school from pre-school, they can learn the language and progress successfully to the university level (Şahin Kütük, 2015). In this context, the cultural transformation of migrant families is both a challenging and rewarding process. There is less research on the interaction between intergenerational transmission and migration. Migration can change the power of intergenerational transmission because family ties are reshaped with migration and life starts over again in a different environment (Schönplflug 2001). Migration is a more complex phenomenon due to the effects of assimilation and separation processes on intergenerational transmission. Living in a new country can strengthen family relationships, and coping with possible problems can contribute to the personal development of individuals. As a result, the transformation experienced by migrant families can be seen as an important process that shows the dynamics of both individual and social globalization processes (Şahin Kütük, 2015).

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

3.1 Model of Research

The research is a relational screening model. In this study, it was investigated whether maternal attitudes differ according to the X and Y generations and whether there are generational similarities between mothers living in Istanbul and mothers living in Western Europe who originate from Türkiye.

3.2 Population and Sample

The population of the research consists of mothers born between 1965 and 1999 and living in Istanbul or Western Europe. Mothers born between 1965 and 1979 were considered as generation X, and mothers born between 1980 and 1999 were considered as generation Y. Western European countries are Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Switzerland. Because England started the industrial revolution and is a country that will make a significant contribution to the study, it was included in the study even though it is not mentioned in Western Europe in some sources. The countries I mentioned above are countries that have high economic levels, started the industrial revolution early and received immigration from Türkiye. Western European countries were chosen as samples in Europe because they were the countries that started the industrialization process.

The snowball sampling method was used for sample selection. This method aims to reach more participants with their references after a few participants are initially determined. In this way, larger and hard-to-reach individuals can be included in the target group of the research.

3.3 Data Collection

The study area at the data collection stage was determined as Istanbul, which has a high immigration rate in Türkiye and hosts different family structures with high job opportunities. The other sample is the Western European countries that achieved the industrial revolution early: Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Switzerland. In addition to these countries, England, which will contribute to the research and is where industrialization first began, was included in the study. An online survey form prepared with Google Forms, included in the Google Drive office tools package, was shared with participants in Istanbul via random chat groups. It was shared in Facebook migrant families groups and chat groups to collect Western European data. In this research,

survey technique, one of the data collection tools, was used. In the survey technique, the parental attitude scale (PAS) prepared by Gül Şendil and Evren Karabulut was used in accordance with the subject and purpose of the research.

The survey in the research consists of two parts. In the first part, questions were asked to obtain socio-demographic information of the participants, including gender, year of birth, education level, household income, employment status and number of children. In the second part, there is a 46-question parental attitude scale form prepared by Gül Şendil and Evren Karabulut. In Karabulut and Şendil's scale article, they accept Baumrind's Explanatory authoritarian attitude as "Democratic". The "democratic" attitude is an approach that advocates that parents can exchange information by valuing children's perspectives and ideas, and that the child can also be functional. PAS also used "Democratic attitude" in its scale instead of "explanatory authoritarian attitude". The survey was prepared in five-point Likert type. Survey questions are in the appendix 2 of the thesis.

The sample of the research was determined through convenience sampling. Mothers who met the age range and criteria were randomly selected. Four groups were created: Generation X MLI, Generation Y MLI, Generation X MLWE and Generation Y MLWE. 100 surveys were targeted for each group. Fathers who answered the test were removed from the sample. The survey was completed through LinkedIn, Facebook groups, and my contacts abroad. My contacts also reached out to new, suitable individuals and shared it in migrant WhatsApp groups. In this way, the data collection was completed.

Türkiye survey was completed by 241 people. 233 women and 8 men answered the survey. 8 men were removed from the sample group. A total of 169 people, 165 women and 4 men, answered the Western European survey. One participant outside the specified countries was also removed from the sample. As a result, 233 participants from Türkiye and 164 participants from Western Europe participated in the research.

3.4 Dependent Variable

The dependent variable in this analysis is Parental Attitudes Scale. PAS was developed to determine parenting attitudes towards children aged 2-6. Initially, a 62-item scale containing four dimensions, namely Democratic, Authoritarian, Overprotective and Permissive, was applied to a total of 420 mothers and fathers from 17 kindergartens representing low, medium and high socio-economic levels in Istanbul. Within the scope of the validity analysis of the scale, 16 items were removed from the scale using Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and Varimax Rotation methods, and it was finalized with 46 items. The reliability analysis of the scale was performed with Cronbach's alpha internal consistency coefficients, and values of 0.83 for the Democratic dimension, 0.76 for the Authoritarian dimension, 0.75 for the Overprotective dimension and 0.74 for the Permissive dimension were obtained. These results show that the Parental Attitude Scale (PAS) is a measurement tool with sufficient validity and reliability levels (Demir & Şendil, 2008) .

3.5 Independent Variables

Table 3 shows the main descriptive statistics for the sample. A total of 241 people from Türkiye and 169 people from Western Europe participated in the research. 8 male participants from Türkiye and 4 participants from Western Europe were excluded from the sample. A total of 398 participants participated in the research, including 165 participants from Western Europe and 233 participants from Türkiye. The six main variables of the study are age distribution, gender educational Attainment, marital status, number of children, employment status and income distribution.

Age Distribution: 46.7 percent of the participants in the research from Türkiye were born between 1965-1979 (Generation X), and 53.3 percent were born between 1980-1999 (Generation Y). When Western European data is examined, 42.1 percent of the participants were born between 1965-1979 (Generation X) and 57.9 percent were born between 1980-1999 (Generation Y).

Educational Attainment: For the MLT sample, 5.6 percent of the participants graduated primary school, 3.9 percent graduated secondary school, 20.2 percent graduated high school, 0.4 percent graduated associate degree, 54.9 percent have university degrees, and 15 percent have a master's degree or higher. For the MLWE sample, 5.5% of the participants have primary school education, 21.2% have secondary school education, 0.6% have high school education, 1.2% have an associate degree, 43% have a university degree, and 24.2% have a master's degree or higher. Education variable subgroups used in the research were grouped under 2 main categories in order to make statistically significant inferences: Basic Education, and Higher Education. Primary school, secondary school, high school, and vocational high school categories are considered as Basic Education, and associate degree, undergraduate and master's degree categories are considered as Higher Education.

Marital Status: As shown in **Table 3**, 0.9 percent of the MLT are single, 12.4 percent are divorced, 1.7 percent are widowed, and 85 percent are married. In the MLWE, 2.4 percent of the participants are single, 13.3 percent are divorced, 0.6 percent are widowed, and 83.6 percent are married. The single, divorced, and widowed were included in the analysis under the category of single.

Number of Children: the MLT is analyzed in two subgroups: only child, and 2 and more". 35.2 percent of the participants in Western Europe and 42.1 percent of the participants in Türkiye have only one child. 64.8 percent of the participants in Western Europe and 57.9 percent of the participants in Türkiye have 2 or more children. There are some differences in the distribution according to the number of children between Türkiye and Western Europe. Participants in Türkiye generally have 1 or 2 children, while participants in Western Europe are more likely to live in larger families.

Employment Status: 53.2% of participants from Türkiye are employed, making up the majority of total participants, while 55.8% of participants from Western Europe were employed. There is **no significant** difference in employment rates between the two regions. While the unemployment rate is 0.4% in Türkiye, it is 2.4% in Western Europe. This indicates that participants in Türkiye have lower

job search tendencies. 29.6% of the participants in **Türkiye** are stated as "inactive population", that is, they are not working in any job. This rate in Western Europe is 38.2%. This shows that participants in Türkiye are more actively participating in the workforce. While the retirement status is 16.7% in Türkiye, it is 3.6% in Western Europe.

Income Distribution: 7.3% of participants in Turkey and 4.2% of participants in Western Europe are in the lower class. 24% of participants in Turkey and 26.7% of participants in Western Europe are in the working class. 29.2% of participants in Turkey and 38.2% of participants in Western Europe are in the lower middle class. 18.5% of participants in Turkey and 25.5% of participants in Western Europe are in the upper middle class. 21% of participants in Turkey and 5.5% of participants in Western Europe are in the upper class. Income distribution data is collected across five distinct subgroups, categorized as follows: lower class, working class, lower middle class, upper middle class, and upper class. For the purpose of analysis, these income groups are consolidated into three broader subgroups: lower, middle, and upper. Specifically, the lower subgroup includes both the lower class and working-class categories; the middle subgroup encompasses the lower middle class and upper middle class; and the upper subgroup refers to the upper class. This grouping facilitates a more streamlined analysis of income distribution trends across these three primary categories.

Table 2 Demographic Characteristics of Participants

<i>Variables</i>		<i>Türkiye(n=233)</i>		<i>Western Europe(n=165)</i>	
		<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>
<i>Generations</i>	1965-1979 - Gen X	98	42,1	77	46,7
	1980-1999 - Gen Y	135	57,9	88	53,3
<i>TOTAL</i>		233	100,0	165	100,0
<i>Education</i>	Elementary School	13	5,6	9	5,5
	Middle School	9	3,9	35	21,2
	High school	47	20,2	1	,6
	Vocational School	-	-	7	4,2
	Associate Degree	1	,4	2	1,2
	University	128	54,9	71	43,0
	Master Degree and Higher	35	15,0	40	24,2
<i>TOTAL</i>		233	100,0	165	100,0
<i>Marital Status</i>	Single	2	,9	4	2,4
	Divorced	29	12,4	22	13,3
	Widow	4	1,7	1	,6
	Married	198	85,0	138	83,6
<i>TOTAL</i>		233	100,0	165	100,0
<i>Number of Children</i>	1	98	42,1	58	35,2
	2	106	45,5	68	41,2
	3	27	11,6	32	19,4
	4+	2	,9	7	4,2
<i>TOTAL</i>		233	100,0	165	100,0
<i>Current Employment</i>	Employed	124	53,2	92	55,8
	Inactive population	69	29,6	63	38,2
	Retired	39	16,7	6	3,6
	Unemployed	1	,4	4	2,4
<i>TOTAL</i>		233	100,0	165	100,0
<i>Income</i>	17.002 ₺ and lower	17	7,3	7	4,2
	1.300€ and lower				
	17.002 ₺ -35.000 ₺	56	24,0	44	26,7
	1.300€-2.600€				
	35.000 ₺ -70.000 ₺	68	29,2	63	38,2
	2.600-5.000 €				
	70.000 ₺- 100.000₺	43	18,5	42	25,5
	5.000-10.000€				
100.000 ₺ and higher	49	21,0	9	5,5	
10.000€ and higher					
<i>TOTAL</i>		233	100,0	165	100,0

Note: *, **, ***, significant at 0.05, 0.01, and 0.001 level, respectively.

3.6. Hypothesis

This study investigates whether or not maternal attitudes change according to generational differences and location. Parenting is not limited to individual preferences and family teachings. Factors such as social, economic, cultural and geographical location differences can significantly affect attitudes. The social opportunities, economic opportunities and cultural norms offered by living in different

locations can create significant differences in mothers' approaches to raising children. In this context, the hypotheses of the study were determined to compare the attitudes of mothers from different generations, as well as variables such as parents' level of education, economic status, employment status and the region they live in. The hypotheses of the study are as follows:

H1: There is a significant difference between the parents' education level, economic status, employment status and parental attitudes respectively.

H2: Generation X and Generation Y mothers will have significantly different parental attitudes.

H3: There is a significant relationship between the parental attitudes of generation X/Y MLWE and generation X/Y MLI.

These hypotheses aim to contribute to the literature by examining the relationships between maternal attitudes and individual/environmental factors. In addition, examining the differences in attitudes between generations X and Y aims to provide important findings to understand the effects of generational changes on motherhood.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

This section presents the findings based on themes identified through the evaluation of the statistical analysis of the research results. The first step in analyzing the findings was to examine the demographic characteristics of the participants. Results including frequency and percentage analysis are included. Then, the scores of the 4 subscales in the (PAS) scale is evaluated in terms of their closeness to the average value. Analysis continued with data providing normality distribution from the research questions. In the study, I analyzed two different samples, Western Europe and Türkiye. Among the statistical models, T-test, ANOVA and MANOVA were applied. While it was observed that there was no significant difference between employment status and generation and PAS scores in the Turkish data, a statistically significant difference was observed between the participants' generation, employment status and PAS scores in the Western European data. This result partially supports the second and third hypotheses of the research. It has not been determined that women's participation in business life definitely affects parental attitudes.

4.1 Evaluation According to Scale

The average scores according to each PAS dimension for the Istanbul and Western European sample and generation are shown in **Table 4** below.

When **Table 4** is examined, no significant difference is observed between generations X and Y. However, the opposite relationship was observed in Democratic attitudes. While the democratic tendency of the X generation is high in Western Europe, it has been observed that the Y generation's tendency is higher in Türkiye.

Table 4 Average Scores According to Each PAS Dimension for the Istanbul and Western European Sample, and Generation

<i>Location</i>	<i>Generation</i>	AVERAGE / DEMOC	AVERAGE / AUTHO	AVERAGE / OVERP	AVERAGE / PERMI
TR	X	73,63	20,37	29,73	21,60
	Y	74,93	20,36	28,73	20,08
TR TOTAL		74,38	20,36	29,15	20,72
WE	X	75,14	20,62	28,77	20,76
	Y	74,49	20,37	29,05	20,60
WE TOTAL		74,79	20,49	28,92	20,68
TOTAL		74,55	20,42	29,06	20,70

The average scores according to each PAS dimension for the Istanbul and Western European sample, generation, and education are shown in **Table 5** below.

When **Table 5** is examined, it is observed that overprotective parental attitudes vary according to education level. In Western Europe, mothers at the basic education level tend to have overprotective, authoritarian and permissive attitudes. Mothers with higher education have higher democratic attitude tendencies.

Table 5 PIVOT: Average Scores According to Each PAS Dimension for the Istanbul and Western European Sample, Generation and Education

<i>Location</i>	<i>Education</i>	AVERAGE DEMOC	AVERAGE AUTHO	AVERAGE OVERP	AVERAGE PERMI
TR	Basic Education	74,83	19,94	29,23	20,56
	Higher Education	73,90	20,83	29,07	20,90
TR TOTAL		74,38	20,36	29,15	20,72
WE	Basic Education	74,05	21,44	31,26	21,36
	Higher Education	75,14	20,05	27,83	20,36
WE TOTAL		74,79	20,49	28,92	20,68
TOTAL		74,55	20,42	29,06	20,70

The average scores according to each PAS dimension for the Istanbul and Western European sample, generation, and employment status are shown in **Table 6** below.

Table 6 PIVOT: Average Scores According to Each PAS Dimension for the Istanbul and Western European Sample, Generation, Employment Status

<i>Location</i>	<i>Generation</i>	<i>Employment Status</i>	AVERAGE / DEMOC	AVERAGE / AUTHO	AVERAGE / OVERP	AVERAGE / PERMI
TR	X	Not Working	74,55	19,65	32,65	20,85
		Working	73,39	20,56	28,98	21,79
	X Total		73,63	20,37	29,73	21,60
	Y	Not Working	75,82	20,84	30,26	21,08
		Working	74,41	20,08	27,83	19,50
	Y Total		74,93	20,36	28,73	20,08
TR Total			74,38	20,36	29,15	20,72
WE	X	Not Working	73,35	19,32	29,96	20,09
		Working	76,34	21,50	27,97	21,21
	X Total		75,14	20,62	28,77	20,76
	Y	Not Working	73,44	21,52	30	20,61
		Working	75,23	19,56	28,39	20,60
	Y Total		74,49	20,37	29,05	20,60
WE Total			74,79	20,49	28,92	20,68
TOTAL			74,55	20,42	29,06	20,70

The average scores according to each PAS dimension for the Istanbul and Western European sample, generation, and income are shown in **Table 7** below. In the MLT sample, when Generation X is examined, it is seen that they tend to adopt democratic attitudes. Especially Generation X mothers in the upper income group have a higher average in democratic attitude (75) compared to other income groups. However, when permissive attitudes are examined, it shows a lower tendency (20.58). In the middle and lower-income groups, permissive attitudes are relatively higher (22.48). The general democratic attitude average of Generation X is 73.63. In Generation Y, MLTs in the lower income group (76.02) scored higher than Generation X in terms of democratic attitude. According to this result, it can be said that young generations tend to adopt a more democratic approach. When all incomes and generations are evaluated in Turkey, the democratic attitude average is calculated as 74.38.

In the MLWE sample, when the **Table 7** is examined, it shows that democratic attitudes are more pronounced in the middle and upper-income groups of Generation X (76.22 and 76.40, respectively). In particular, Generation X mothers in the upper income group also have a strikingly high average in permissive attitudes (23.40). This situation suggests that mothers in Western Europe may have a more *lenient approach*² to parenting. In the MLWE of Generation Y, the lower income group scored higher than other groups in authoritarian (21.14) and overprotective attitudes (30.53), indicating that young

² A parent with a gentle and tolerant attitude: not harsh, severe or strict.

parents at low-income levels may have more authoritarian and overprotective tendencies. When Western Europe in general is examined, the average for democratic attitudes is 74.79, authoritarian attitudes are 20.49, and overprotective attitudes are 28.92. It is striking that overprotective scores are higher in the low-income group in all income groups in both samples. In both the Turkish and Western European samples, it is observed that parents in the lower income group exhibit overprotective attitudes. This situation can be explained by the fact that parents at low-income levels feel the need to protect their children more. While the overprotectiveness score of low-income Generation Y mothers in Turkey was 29.67, it was found to be even higher in Western Europe at 30.53. This finding suggests that economic difficulties may have an impact on parents' child-rearing styles.

When the general averages of Turkey and Western Europe are examined, it is seen that there is no significant difference between the two regions in terms of democratic attitudes (TR: 74.38; WE: 74.79). However, while authoritarian attitudes are slightly higher in Western Europe (WE: 20.49; TR: 20.36), overprotective attitudes show a slight increase in Turkey (TR: 29.15; WE: 28.92). A similar trend is found between the two regions in terms of permissive attitudes (TR: 20.72; WE: 20.68), however, it is striking that Generation X mothers in the upper-income group are more permissive in Western Europe.

Table 7 PIVOT: Average Scores According to Each PAS Dimension for the Istanbul and Western European Sample, Generation, Income

<i>Location</i>	<i>Generation</i>	<i>Income</i>	AVERAGE / DEMOC	AVERAGE / AUTHO	AVERAGE / OVERP	AVERAGE / PERMI
TR	X	Lower	74,10	19,74	31,07	22,48
		Middle	72,64	20,85	29,04	21,19
		Upper	75	20,64	28,35	20,58
	X Total		73,63	20,37	29,73	21,60
	Y	Lower	76,02	20,11	29,67	20,23
		Middle	74,36	20,21	28,31	19,78
		Upper	75	20,93	28,62	20,59
	Y Total		74,93	20,36	28,73	20,08
TR	Total		74,38	20,36	29,15	20,72
WE	X	Lower	72,56	20,30	29,65	20
		Middle	76,22	21,04	28,32	20,85
		Upper	76,40	18	29,20	23,40
	X Total		75,14	20,62	28,77	20,76
	Y	Lower	72,32	21,14	30,53	21,28
		Middle	75,63	19,98	28,40	20,52
		Upper	74	20,50	27,75	17
	Y Toplam		74,49	20,37	29,05	20,60
WE	Total		74,79	20,49	28,92	20,68
TOTAL			74,55	20,42	29,06	20,70

Levene Test is applied to evaluate whether the variances between the groups were equal in **Table 8.1**³. The p-values of Levene Test are found to be greater than 0.05 for all measurements. This result shows that the variances between the groups are statistically equal and there is no significant difference between the variances. Therefore, it is deemed appropriate to apply parametric tests for the validity of the research results.

The relationship between PAS scores and parental income level living in Türkiye is shown in the **Table 8**. Since the given p-value (0.054) is very close to the **significance threshold** (0.05), it can be said that the results are borderline. However, technically, there is no statistically significant difference in PAS scores by income level [F (4,228) = 2.37, p=0.054]. This p-value, which is very close to the threshold value, may give a different result when repeated with a larger dataset and/or more sensitive test.

Table 8 ANOVA Results for the Relationship between PAS and Income Level for MLT

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1471.94	4	367.98	2.37	.054
Within Groups	35446.04	228	155.46		
Total	36917.99	232			

Note: *, **, ***, significant at 0.05, 0.01, and 0.001 level, respectively.

Levene's Test results in **Table 9.1**⁴ indicate that the assumption of homogeneity of variances is met. Since all p-values are greater than 0.05, it suggests that there is no significant difference in variances across the groups. Therefore, the variances can be considered equal, allowing for the use of parametric tests that assume equal variances.

The relationship between the PAS scores of MLT, their income levels (Lower-Middle-Upper) and the generations to which the parents belong (X/Y) are shown in the **Table 9**. It is found that **neither** the generation of the participants (p=0.734, p>0.05), income group (p=0.190, p>0.05), **nor** their combined influence (p=0.916, p>0.05) **had a significant** effect on the parental attitude scale scores. For the purpose of analysis, these income groups were consolidated into three subgroups: lower, middle, and upper. Specifically, the lower subgroup includes both the lower class and working class categories; the middle subgroup encompasses the lower middle class and upper middle class; and the upper subgroup refers to the upper class.

³ Levene Test for variance analysis is provided in Table 8.1 in the Appendix 1.

⁴ Levene Test for variance analysis is provided in Table 9.1 in the Appendix 1.

Table 9 ANOVA Results for the Relationship between PAS and Income, Interactions for Generation for the MLT

Source	Sum Squares	of df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Squared	Eta
Corrected Model	675.232 ^a	5	135.046	.846	.518	0.18	
Intercept	4122918.961	1	4122918.961	25823.161	.000	.991	
Generation	18.464	1	18.464	.116	.734	.001	
Income	534.039	2	267.019	1.672	.190	.015	
Generation * Income	27.981	2	13.991	.088	.916	.001	
Error	36242.759	227	159.660				
Total	4911124.000	233					
Corrected Total	36917.991	232					

Note: *, **, ***, significant at 0.05, 0.01, and 0.001 level, respectively.

a. R Squared= .018 (Adjusted R Squared=-.003)

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests are applied to determine whether the data showed a normal distribution in **Table 10.1**⁵. The p-values of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test are calculated as 0.200 for the Basic Education group and 0.200 for the Higher Education group. The p-values of the Shapiro-Wilk test are found as 0.180 for the Basic Education group and 0.880 for the Higher Education group. Since the p-values of both tests are greater than 0.05, it is concluded that the data were normally distributed. These results show that the data are normally distributed and that it is appropriate to apply parametric analyses.

The relationship between PAS scores, education (Basic vs. Higher Education), and generation (and their combined effect) is and combined effect in Türkiye is shown in **Table 10**. It was observed that the generation of the participants ($p=0.860$, $p>0.05$), their education level ($p=0.571$, $p>0.05$) and their joint effect ($p=0.629$, $p>0.05$) **does not have a significant** effect on the parental attitude scale scores.

⁵ Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk Tests for normal distribution are provided in Table 10.1 in the Appendix 1.

Table 10 ANOVA Results for the Relationship between PAS and Education, Interactions for Generation for MLT

Source	Sum Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Squared	Eta
Corrected Model	222.769 ^a	3	74.256	.463	.708	.006	
Intercept	3605825.966	1	3605825.966	22502.497	.000	.990	
Generation	5.008	1	5.008	.031	.860	.000	
Education	51.703	1	51.703	.323	.571	.001	
Generation * Education	100.854	1	100.854	.629	.428	.003	
Error	36695.223	229	160.241				
Total	4911124.000	233					
Corrected Total	36917.991	232					

Note: *, **, ***, significant at 0.05, 0.01, and 0.001 level, respectively.

According to the Levene test result in **Table 12**, the p-value is 0.155 and since it is generally greater than 0.05, the assumption that the variances are equal is accepted. Therefore, the results of the t-test conducted under the assumption of equal variances should be considered.

The t-tests for the relationship between PAS scores and Education Level (Basic Education - Higher Education) of MLWE is shown in **Table 11** and **12**. For the MLWE sample, those mothers there were 52 mothers with basic education, and 112 mothers with higher education. The mothers with basic education on average scored 148.13 points on the PAS, whereas the mothers with higher education scored 143.40 points. The 4.733-point difference in PAS is statistically significant (p-value=0.012). This means that there is a **significant difference** between the parental attitudes of participants living in Western Europe based on the level of education.

Table 11 Group Statistic for the Relationship between PAS and Education for MLWE

PAS	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Basic Education	52	148.13*	12.867	1.784
Higher Education	112	143.40	10.089	.953

Note: *, **, ***, significant at 0.05, 0.01, and 0.001 level, respectively.

Table 12 T-Test Results for the Relationship between PAS and Education for MLWE

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Differences	Lower	Upper
PAS	Equal variances assumed	2.041	.155	2.555	162	.012	4.733	1.853	1.075	8.391
	Equal variances not assumed			2.339	81.230	.022	4.733	2.023	.708	8.758

Note: *, **, ***, significant at 0.05, 0.01, and 0.001 level, respectively.

As discussed in the method chapter, PAS consists of four different subdimensions. These dimensions measure different aspects of parental attitudes. Because the democratic and permissive dimensions do not meet the Kolmogorov-Sminov and Shapiro-Wilk test for normality in **Table 13.1**⁶, they are not included in the analysis in **Table 14**, where I analyze the relationship authoritarian and protective subdimensions of PAS, and education. Additionally, in the tests conducted, it is determined that there is a linear relationship in the sub-dimensions of authoritarianism and overprotectiveness.

According to the results of one-way MANOVA analysis in **Table 13** and **14**, there is a **significant difference** between the education levels of participants living in Western Europe in terms of the combined variable of authoritarianism and overprotectiveness ($F=6.459$, $p=.002$). The partial eta squared result (.074) shows that approximately 8% of the variance in the composite dependent variable is explained by the independent variable.

⁶ The Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro Wilk tests for normality are provided in Table 13.1 in Appendix 1.

Table 13 MANOVA Results for the Relationship between Combined Parental Attitudes (Authoritarian and Overprotective) and Education for MLWE

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Squared	Eta
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.969	2481.789 ^b	2.000	161.000	.000	.969	
	Wilks' Lambda	.031	2481.789 ^b	2.000	161.000	.000	.969	
	Hotelling's Trace	30.830	2481.789 ^b	2.000	161.000	.000	.969	
	Roy's Largest Root	30.830	2481.789 ^b	2.000	161.000	.000	.969	
Education	Pillai's Trace	0.74	6.459 ^b	2.000	161.000	.002	.074	
	Wilks' Lambda	.926	6.459 ^b	2.000	161.000	.002	.074	
	Hotelling's Trace	.080	6.459 ^b	2.000	161.000	.002	.074	
	Roy's Largest Root	.080	6.459 ^b	2.000	161.000	.002	.074	

Note: *, **, ***, significant at 0.05, 0.01, and 0.001 level, respectively.

a.Design: Intercept+Education

b.Exact statistic

Table 14 Group Statistic for the Relationship between PAS and Education for MLWE

PAS		Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Authoritarian	Basic Education	21.44	5.525	52
	Higher Education	20.05	4.579	112
	Total	20.49	4.925	164
Over Protective	Basic Education	31.27	5.821	52
	Higher Education	27.84	5.841	112
	Total	28.93	6.033	164

Note: *, **, ***, significant at 0.05, 0.01, and 0.001 level, respectively.

The results of the Wilks' Lambda test in **Table 13 and 13.2**⁷ indicate that education level **has a significant** effect on the dependent variables in MLWE. The differences between groups based on education level are statistically significant ($p = 0.002$). This effect is considered small to moderate, as indicated by the Partial Eta Squared value of 0.074.

The ANOVA results for the relationship between PAS scores and Education Level (Basic Education - Higher Education) of MLWE is shown in **Table 15**. There is **a significant difference**

⁷ Wilks' Lambda for variance analysis is provided in Table 13.2 in the Appendix 1.

between the overprotective attitudes of participants living in Western Europe and having different levels of education ($F(1,162)=12.271, p=.001$).

Table 15 ANOVA Results for the Relationship between PAS and Education for MLWE

Source	Dependent Variables	sd	Mean Square	F	p	Partial Eta Squared
Education level	Authoritarian	1	68.488	2.856	.093	.017
	Overprotective	1	417.74	12.271	.001	.070

Note: *, **, ***, significant at 0.05, 0.01, and 0.001 level, respectively.

The relationship between the working status of the parents (Working-Not Working), the generation of the parents (X/Y) and the PAS score of MLT is stated in the **Tables 16** below. According to Levene's Test results in **Table 16.1**⁸ indicate that the assumption of homogeneity of variances is met ($p>.05$). **Table 16** shows that the generation the participants belonged to ($p=0.724, p>0.05$) and their employment status ($p=0.162, p>0.05$) do not have a significant effect on the parental attitude scale scores. However, a statistically **significant difference** is found between the participants' parental attitude scale scores due to the joint effect of the participants' generation and working status ($p=0.018, p<0.05$). According to the calculated effect size (Partial $\eta^2 = 0.24$), 24% of the difference can be explained. The effect size of 0.24 indicates that combinations of generation and employment status explain 24% of the variance in parental attitudes. This can be considered a medium-sized effect and indicates that combinations of generation and employment status have a significant impact on parental attitudes.

⁸ Levene Test for variance analysis is provided in Table 16.1 in the Appendix I.

Table 16 ANOVA Results for the Relationship between PAS and Employment, Interactions for Generation for the MLT

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Squared	Eta
Corrected Model	1448.371 ^a	3	482.790	3.117	.027	.039	
Intercept	4573666.452	1	4573666.452	29528.639	.000	.992	
Generation	19.427	1	19.427	.125	.724	.001	
Employment status	305.024	1	305.024	1969	.162	.009	
Generation* Employment Status	878.247	1	878.247	5.670	.018	.024	
Error	35469.620	229	154.889				
Total	4911124.000	233					
Corrected Total	36917.991	232					

Note: *, **, ***, significant at 0.05, 0.01, and 0.001 level, respectively.

a. R Squared= .039 (Adjusted R Squared=.027)

Tables showing the relationship between MLWE's employment status (Working-Not Working), the generations they belong to (X/Y), and their PAS scores are provided below in **Tables 17 and 18**. Since all Levene test results have p-values greater than 0.05, the assumption of equality of variances is acceptable in **Table 18.1**⁹. According to Levene's Test results, the assumption of homogeneity of variances is met ($p > .05$). In this case, it is concluded that variances are equal between groups and statistical analyses that assume equality of variances. It shows that the generation ($p = 0.911$, $p > 0.05$) and job status ($p = 0.481$, $p > 0.05$) of the participants residing in Western Europe does not have a significant effect on the parental attitude scale scores in **Table 18**. Similarly, it indicates that there is **no statistically significant** difference between the participants' parental attitude scale scores due to the joint effect of the participants' generation and working status ($p = 0.090$, $p > 0.05$).

⁹ Levene Test for variance analysis is provided in Table 18.1 in the Appendix I.

Table 17 Group Statistic for the Relationship between PAS and Employment, Interactions for Generation for MLWE

Dependent variable: PAS

		Employment Status	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Generation	X	Yes	147.04	10.737	46
		No	142.74	9.395	31
		Total	145.31	10.374	77
	Y	Yes	143.80	13.132	51
		No	145.58	10.207	36
		Total	144.54	11.977	87
Total	Yes	145.34	12.104	97	
	No	144.27	9.870	67	
	Total	144.90	11.225	164	

Note: *, **, ***, significant at 0.05, 0.01, and 0.001 level, respectively.

Table 38 ANOVA Results for the Relationship between PAS and Employment, Interactions for Generation for MLWE

Source	Sum Squares	of df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Squared	Eta
Corrected Model	433.801 ^a	3	144.600	1.151	.330	.021	
Intercept	3308657.165	1	3308657.165	26331.494	.000	.994	
Generation	1.564	1	1.564	.012	.911	.000	
Employment Status	62.744	1	62.744	.499	.481	.003	
Generation* Employment Status	364.736	1	364.736	2.903	.090	.018	
Error	20104.638	160	125.654				
Total	3464000.000	164					
Corrected Total	20538.439	163					

Note: *, **, ***, significant at 0.05, 0.01, and 0.001 level, respectively.

a. R Squared= .021 (Adjusted R Squared=.003)

The relationship between MLWE's only employment status (Working-Not Working) and PAS scores is given in the **Tables 19 and 20** below. According to the results of both Kolmogorov-Smirnov

and Shapiro-Wilk tests in **Table 19.1**¹⁰, PAS scores of both employed and unemployed individuals were evaluated as being normally distributed (p-values greater than 0.05). Therefore, parametric analyses can be used under the assumption that PAS scores are normally distributed. There is **no statistically significant difference** between the mean scores of the parental attitude scale between participants who reside in Western Europe and work in a paid job and those who do not.

Table 19 Group Statistics for the Relationship between PAS and Employment Status for MLWE

	Employment Status	Mean	Std. Deviation	N	Std. Error Mean
PAS	Yes	145.3402	12.10362	97	1.22894
	No	144.2687	9.86973	67	1.20578

Note: *, **, ***, significant at 0.05, 0.01, and 0.001 level, respectively.

Table 20 T-Test Results for the Relationship between PAS and Employment for MLWE

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Differences	Lower	Upper	
PAS	Equal variances assumed	1.978	.161	.600	162	.550	1.07155	1.78667	-2.45661	4.59971
	Equal variances not assumed			.622	157.497	.535	1.07155	1.72168	-2.32901	4.47211

Note: *, **, ***, significant at 0.05, 0.01, and 0.001 level, respectively.

The relationship between the generations (X/Y) and PAS scores of MLWE are given in the **Table 21 and 22** below. There is **no statistically significant** difference between the maternal attitude scale average scores of Generation X and Y participants residing in Western Europe. According to the Kolmogorov- Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk test results in **Table 22.1**¹¹ indicate that the data in the subgroups meet the assumption of normality (p>.05).

¹⁰ The Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro Wilk tests for normality are provided in Table 19.1 in Appendix 1.

¹¹ The Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro Wilk tests for normality are provided in Table 22.1 in Appendix 1

Table 21 Group Statistic for the Relationship between PAS and Generation for MLWE

	Generation	Mean	Std. Deviation	N	Std. Error Mean
PAS	Gen X	145.3117	10.37363	77	1.18218
	Gen Y	144.5402	11.97653	87	1.28402

Note: *, **, ***, significant at 0.05, 0.01, and 0.001 level, respectively.

Table 22 T-Test Results for the Relationship between PAS and Generation for MLWE

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Differences	Lower	Upper
PAS	Equal variances assumed	1.179	.279	.438	162	.662	.77146	1.76070	-2.70543	4.24835
	Equal variances not assumed			.443	161.930	.659	.77146	1.74536	-2.67513	4.21805

Note: *, **, ***, significant at 0.05, 0.01, and 0.001 level, respectively.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study aimed to investigate whether women's participation in the workforce and their parenting attitudes have changed since industrialization, taking into account generational and geographical differences. The goal was to explore the relationship between women's social roles and family dynamics by examining parenting attitudes—commonly studied in the literature—from a sociological perspective.

It is surprising that in this study conducted in Türkiye and Western Europe, although the parental attitude scale scores were conducted in different locations, very similar average results were obtained. Analysis shows that the participants in Western Europe and the participants in Türkiye have almost the same average according to their scale scores. According to this result, there are similarities in terms of maternal attitudes in MLT and MLWE samples within the scope of this research. Because the results were close to each other, demographic variables in the research data were occasionally examined together and meaningful data was tried to be obtained. There may be two reasons for the close results of the two different samples selected. First, the immigrants in the selected sample may have continued to preserve their culture since they were new immigrants. In this case, it is not surprising that their attitudes are similar. Second, it may be due to the collectivist structure of the Turkish society in Schönplflug's, (2001) theory. In this respect, the results of the research gave the same result as Schönplflug and supports his theory. Since the collectivist structure of the Turkish society is not the same as the individualistic nature of Western Europe, the Turks have been successful in preserving culture and transferring their attitudes.(Schönplflug, 2001)

In this study, a linear relationship was found between authoritarian and overprotective attitudes. Similarly, according to the research findings of Karabulut and Şendil, a positive relationship was found between authoritarian and overprotective dimensions. This result coincides with the findings of Karabulut and Şendil. According to them, finding this result is an expected situation. Because these two attitudes deny the individuality of children and parental control is important in these attitudes. The common point of these attitudes is that both attitudes restrict the child regarding independence and individuality (Demir & Şendil, 2008). Karabulut and Şendil also found a positive relationship between democratic and authoritarian attitudes. However, such a relationship was not found in this study.

According to H1, there is a significant relationship is found between women's participation in business life, education level, economic status and parental attitudes, and some significant statistical data is found. In MLWE, the effect of women's education levels on parental attitudes was found to be

statistically significant. Analysis indicates that the average overprotectiveness of women graduating from basic education is 31.2, while the average of women graduating from higher education is 27.8. This result shows that the education variable has an effect on attitudes and supports my hypothesis. The increase in the social value of women and the increase in schooling rates have affected their attitudes. It is seen that mothers who graduated from higher education have a lower tendency to have an overprotective attitude and a higher tendency to have a democratic attitude. In this case, it can be said that mothers with higher education have a tendency of giving more importance to the individualization process of their children than mothers with lower education. Aktaş (2011) found that there is no significant difference between the mother's parental attitudes and the education level variable. This result supports the study I conducted in Türkiye. On the other hand, a significant relationship was found between education and parental attitudes in a survey study in Western Europe. It produced a different result than Aktaş's study and the Turkish sample. This may be due to the selected sample having different experiences due to living in a different location. In addition, the reason why the Western European sample was found to be significant may be due to the fact that the selected sample coincided with mothers who had undergone brain drain. Immigrants living in Europe mostly consist of either low-educated working families who had migrated long ago, or highly educated families who had undergone brain drain. This contrast may have created a significant difference.

Yaprak (2007) found that parents with higher education levels have higher democratic tendencies, and Alpoğuz (2014) found that as mothers' education level increases, their democratic attitude tendencies increase, and as their education level decreases, their authoritarian attitude tendencies increase. In this study, it is seen that as education level increases, mothers' overprotective parental attitudes decrease in the context of Türkiye and Western Europe. However, when the Pivot table is examined, it is seen that in Generation Y mothers, this trend is on the contrary, the overprotective attitudes of mothers with higher education are higher than those of mothers with basic education. According to the results of the Western European survey, it is seen that as the education level of mothers increases, their authoritarian and overprotective attitudes decrease. A statistically significant difference was obtained between the education level and parental attitudes of mothers in Western Europe in the authoritarian and overprotective parent subgroups. However, since normal distribution was not achieved for democratic and permissive attitudes, no meaningful data could be obtained. When the pivot table is examined, it is seen that the average democratic attitude increases as the education level increases, except for generation X in Türkiye. However, the difference is not much. As the education level of generation X mothers in Türkiye increased, there was a decrease in the average democratic attitude. The results found in Yaprak (2007)'s study support the results of the study, excluding generation X in Türkiye. Alpoğuz's (2014) finding about the education level of mothers confirms the Western European survey. As the level of education increases in Western Europe, authoritarian and overprotective attitudes tend to decrease. In addition, the average democratic attitude is higher in mothers with higher education degrees.

According to this result, the tendency of overprotection is higher in Generation Y mothers with higher education levels. Generation X mothers are more limited in obtaining information easily using technology compared to Generation Y mothers. Mothers with higher education levels can turn this situation into a perfectionist concern by doing a lot of search on "motherhood" and avoiding mistakes. The fact that mothers with higher education can access more books or article on motherhood has made the concept of "motherhood" even more sacred. Jackie Guendouzi conducted a study with working and non-working mothers and asked them what a "good mother" was. The answers were fairly traditional, such as "ideal, protective, nurturing, caring, social, proud and organized." The pressure to conform to the perfect mother begins before women even have children. (Ennis, 2014) This situation has become so much with the influence of social media that it creates pressure on mothers. At this point, the fact that mothers with higher education know how to treat their children may have created pressure and anxiety while filling out the survey. On the other hand, the decreasing role of women at home, who are increasingly participating the workforce, has undoubtedly required them to spend less time with their children in some matters. In this context, mothers have taken the concept of "motherhood" to a different perspective among themselves through social media. The concept of "motherhood" has now turned into a competition for "the best motherhood" rather than just providing care for the child's needs, and social media is causing this to degenerate even further. Moreover, the increase in overprotective parenting is a possible situation in today's risk society. Especially women who participate in working life, their inability to meet their children's needs economically or socially may have created pressure on the woman, increasing the need to control and the drive to protect. However, no statistically significant data was found between the economic status of the mothers and their attitudes.

On the other hand, there are views in the literature argue that economic status affects parenting attitudes. Büber (2021) did not find a significant relationship between parents' attitudes and income levels in his study so Büber's study supports my data. In the study of Aydoğdu and Dilekmen (2016), it was determined that there is no significant difference between parental attitudes and income level in the sub-dimensions of democratic, authoritarian and permissive attitudes. In the study of Aydoğdu and Dilekman (2016), it was found that the overprotectiveness score of parents with low income was higher than other income groups as I mention before. In this study indicates the similar result with Aydoğdu and Dilekman(2016). PIVOT analysis shows that the overprotectiveness score of parents in the low-income group is high in all subgroups. The reason why low-income mothers have higher overprotectiveness scores than others may be because the mother's solutions to any problem are limited due to her economic situation. For this reason, controlling and making decisions on behalf of the child may be higher in low-income families. Low-income families do not want to encounter any surprises.

Some studies that obtained meaningful results were also found in the literature. Alpoğuz (2014) is investigating parental attitudes on primary school students, he found that as the amount of income increases, parents' attitudes become democratic, and as the amount of income decreases, they have

authoritarian attitudes. Erkan and Toran (2004) applied the Parental Rejection-Acceptance scale to mothers with five-year-old children and found that as the income level increased, the negativity (rejection) in the mothers' parental attitudes decreased, and as the income level decreased, their negative behavior increased. Raver (2003), in his research on mothers with lower socio-economic levels, found that the low-income level of the family reduces the mother's interest, help and care behaviors towards the child and negatively affects the psychological adjustment of the mothers. Sharon Hays also argues that the "intensive parenting" attitude will be higher in the middle class, and states that gradually the working class may also have this attitude. It is a parenting style that he defines as "intensive mothering ideology" as child-focused, self-sacrificing, devoted, and incidentally expensive (Pugh, 2009). In the literature, which Pugh refers to as "intensive parenting", it may appear as an overprotective or helicopter parent (Vigdal & Brønnick, 2022). The current study found no significant differences between middle class and overprotective mothers. However, differences in attitude tendencies were observed in case of high and low income. Şivkin (2019) found in his study that the average overprotection of unemployed mothers with high socioeconomic status was higher. However, in this study, on the contrary, it was observed that the average overprotection of mothers with low socioeconomic status was higher. The emergence of this result may be due to the economic conditions of families in the lower economic group not being flexible. Due to the limitations in parents' circumstances, they may attempt to exert more control over their children and intervene more frequently.

Average scores according to each PAS dimension for generation, income indicate that mothers with high-income are less protective tendency than all subgroups. This result partially confirms my hypothesis. However, a statistically significant relationship did not found. The significant value according to income level was 0.054. Since it is a threshold value, increasing the number of participants can provide meaningful data.

Statistically significant data was found in Türkiye's data when women's employment status and generation were taken into evaluation together. It shows that unemployed Generation X and Y mothers have a tendency towards overprotective parental attitudes. It indicates that the overprotectiveness score of X mothers was higher than that of Y mothers and Y mothers had a higher democratic parental attitude than X mothers. In this case, women's participation in business life as a result of industrialization was reflected in parental attitudes in the process and increased democratic attitude tendencies by reducing overprotective parental attitude tendencies. The fact that the finding is significant and confirms my hypothesis. As a result, this study has shown that working mothers tend to be more democratic and non-working mothers tend to be more protective. Non-working mothers are very intervening and controlling in the lives of their children. It is not possible for working mothers to intervene in their children to this extent. However, this does not mean that working mothers will not be overprotective. Overprotection may be a hidden attitude in working mothers. Since non-working mothers have more time in the "best motherhood" race, they aim to raise their children competitively. For this reason, children go to many

after-school courses and private lessons. As it is stated in the literature, overprotective mothers surround the child like a helicopter, prevent them from making decisions and do not want them to become individualized. It is a data that we can easily understand the transformation of the value of children from economic to psychological.

The assumption that parental attitudes may change as generations change is frequently encountered in the literature. However, some studies have found that parental attitudes will not change between generations and that parental attitudes are influenced by the attitudes of families and transferred to new generations. (Bailey et al., 2009) examined parental attitudes between three generations in terms of drug use and stated that there was intergenerational transfer as a result. In this study, no significant difference was found between generation X and generation Y. However, since it reached a common result with the study, it increased the reliability of my study. The reason why no significant difference was found may be due to the fact that the generations were chosen very close to each other. Although each generation has its own distinct rules and experiences, parental attitudes are a process that can be transferred from mother and father. For this reason, although there may be some differences, choosing generations at wider intervals rather than successive in order to observe a meaningful difference may provide more meaningful results.

No significant difference was found in parental attitudes according to the number of children. However, it has been observed that the authoritarian attitude tendency of mothers with 2 or more children increases. The increase in the number of children may have increased parents' control and interventionism of their children. Taymaz (2019) conducted a study to measure the helicopter parenting level of adolescents and their parents. In his study, he found that the helicopter parent attitude of parents with 2 or more children was higher than those with 1 child. The increase in authoritarian attitudes as the number of children increases is the same in all subgroups. Therefore, a general conclusion can be made that when the number of children increases, authoritarian attitudes also increase.

According to the results of the research, H2 is not found as significant. However, Bailey (2009)'s study supports the results of my study. On the other hand, In their study, Karabulut and Şendil found that there was a significant relationship between mothers' ages and overprotectiveness scores. They stated that as mothers get older, their overprotective behavior will increase. This exact result could not be reached in this study. The average overprotectiveness of X parents living in Türkiye is higher than that of Y parents. However, in Western Europe, it has been observed that the average overprotectiveness of younger parents (Y) is slightly higher than that of X mothers. Canatan Et al (2020) also found that the average overprotectiveness of older parents was higher. The result found in the Turkish context supports the research. The reason why we reached different results in Western Europe and Türkiye may be that Generation X mothers living in Western Europe have already overcome the difficulties they experienced as they migrated to Europe before and are no longer affected by these situations. However,

Generation Y may be just trying to cope with the difficulties they may experience when they become immigrants in another country. This may increase parents' anxiety levels and protectiveness.

No significant difference found based on the scale and demographic variables used for H3 Since no previous study has been found on the attitudes of MLWE and MLI, it could not be compared with the differences in the literature. However, Schönflug (2001) conducted a similar study on cultural transmission with fathers. Schönflug (2001) conducted a study comparing the cultural transfer of fathers/sons who immigrated to Germany and Turkish fathers/sons. As a result of this study, he suggested that cultural transfer is more in collectivist societies like the Turkish society. In other words, Turks are more successful in preserving their culture due to their collectivist characteristics. According to the results of the research, no difference was found between Turks living in Turkey and Germany in terms of cultural transfer. This result found by Schönflug (2001) is consistent with my study. The fact that some of the data in my study are exactly the same with mothers living in Europe and mothers living in Turkey may be due to the collectivist structure of Turkish society that Schönflug (2001) suggested in his study. Although this result found by Schönflug (2001) seems to conclude that migration does not have a significant effect on cultural transfer, it may actually indicate that more than one effect can affect cultural transfer at the same time. The statistically significant difference in education and employment status in my thesis study supports this assumption. As a result, it is inevitable that we will be influenced by our families, their cultures and their attitudes. However, as Alba and Nee (2003) say, the focus should not be on proving whether we are influenced by our families, but on the extent to which we are influenced and the impact of the host society.

One of the striking parts of the research findings is that the joint effect of the working status and generation variables of parents living in Türkiye on parental attitudes is significant, but no meaningful data was found in Western Europe. The surprising part at this point is that Hypothesis 3 is not met. In other words, no statistically significant difference was found between Generation X and Y MLWE and MLI. Since the maternal attitude averages were almost the same between the two groups, it was determined that they had similar maternal attitudes. The variables affecting maternal attitudes are different in two samples with almost the same mean. While the variables affecting the attitudes of MLI are the joint effects of "generation" and "employment status", the variable "education level" affects the parental attitudes of MLWE. The effect of mothers' education level on maternal attitudes in Western Europe is statistically significant. However, when the same data for İstanbul is examined, no meaningful data can be obtained. As a result, although the parenting attitudes of parents living in two different locations were found to be the same, the fact that the variables affecting parenting attitudes were different may be due to the fact that the study was conducted in two different locations. In other words, since the experiences, educational processes and working conditions of MLWE and MLI are different, meaningful data may have been obtained depending on different variables.

Analysis indicate that there is an inverse relationship between the overprotective tendencies of participants X and Y living in Türkiye and the tendency of Turkish participants X and Y living in Western Europe. In addition, the overprotective attitude tendency of non-working parents X and Y was higher in both groups compared to working parents. The overprotectiveness score of Generation X and Y mothers who do not work and live in Türkiye and Western Europe is higher than the scale average (Overprotective: 27). In this case, it can be said that non-working mothers have a higher tendency to be overprotective. Especially the score of Generation X MLI is 32.65. There are some studies in the literature in order to support this data. Tortumluoğlu (1999) argues that non-working mothers may have high overprotective attitudes due to the long time they spend with their children (Baran, 2019). While Şanlı (2007) did not find a significant difference in democratic and permissive attitudes, he found a significant difference in the authoritarian and overprotective attitude sub-dimensions. In this study, according to analysis, while there was no significant difference in democratic and permissive attitudes, a significant difference was observed in authoritarian and overprotective attitudes. Şanlı's research strengthens the results of this research (Baran, 2019).

Bornstein and Zlotnik (2008) found that working mothers are more democratic than non-working mothers. As you can see tables in finding section, working mothers X and Y in Western Europe show more democratic tendencies than non-working mothers. The study of Bornstein and Zlotnik (2008) strengthens the Western European results. However, when Türkiye's data is examined, the opposite situation occurs. According to the data, it has been determined that non-working mothers X and Y living in Türkiye have more democratic tendencies than working mothers.

Considering the scale score averages, although the scale averages of Western Europe and Türkiye are almost the same, it has been observed that there is an inverse relationship between Western Europe and İstanbul in parental attitudes depending on different variables. An inverse relationship was found in terms of parental attitude tendencies between the sample groups in two different locations according to employment status, education and generation variables. Based on these data, differences in parental attitudes can be observed as the experiences and events of individuals who have the same culture but live in different locations will vary depending on where they live. This result supports Costanza's view suggests that grouping generations according to their birth years is not enough, and where they live is also effective in this regard. Although no direct difference was observed between the parental attitudes of Generation X and Y from the study, it indicates that there were differences depending on where they lived.

As a result, two groups living in different places were selected as samples in the research, and these groups were examined according to two different generations, X and Y. In the research conducted, no significant difference was observed according to generation and place of residence. In both groups, the democratic and overprotective subscale scores of generation X and Y mothers were found to be above the average PAS score. However, some significant differences were observed when examining

the place of residence according to variables. According to this result, the similar attitudes of the selected participants may have depended on the people reached and the number of people. When this research is repeated with a larger group, different results may be obtained. A threshold value has been determined for the income status variable. The number of participants may also affect the threshold value. Increasing the number of participants may vary from threshold value to significant value. The similar results show that the Turkish society in (Schönplflug, 2001)'s study has a collectivist structure. Turkish society continues to preserve its culture in different locations due to its collectivist structure. However, after a while, changes may occur due to the culture of the location. What is important here is that the selected sample has not yet transitioned from a collectivist structure to an individual structure and has preserved its culture. This basic cultural structure that separates Türkiye and Western Europe explains why the process of modernization and industrialization cannot be realized with the teachings of the West. Turkish society has not yet fully adopted the individualization brought by industrialization and still maintains its collectivity.

Turkish parental attitudes were found to be democratic and overprotective. There may be a decrease or increase in their tendencies depending on different variables, but in general, their democratic and overprotective scores were found to be above the PAS average. The fact that the overprotective parental attitude is above average confirms that helicopter parenting has become widespread today. Especially the working status of mothers changes the average of overprotective attitudes. The average overprotectiveness of non-working mothers is higher than working mothers. In this case, mothers' non-working status makes it easier for them to intervene in all educational processes and friendship relations of their children. Şanlı's research confirms the conclusion that "non-working mothers have a more protective attitude than working mothers" (Akdeniz, 2020).

The chain of transformation that begins with modernization is a dynamic process that results in industrialization, migration, urbanization, women's participation in business life, change in family roles, and differentiation of parental attitudes. Considering this process together makes it easier to observe the change in the value given to the child and parental attitudes. Examining the transformation from traditional societies, where children are evaluated economically, to modern societies, where they are evaluated psychologically, is not an easy process to deduce by looking only at the period we live in. In this research, the parenting roles of Generation X and Y mothers were examined. However, according to the research results, it was seen that the differences in attitudes between two successive generations could not adequately explain this transformation chain. In order to better convey this dynamic process, choosing two more distant generations will be easier to observe the transformation. Women's participation in business life has undoubtedly brought about a change in family roles. There has been a transition from traditional extended family structures to nuclear family structures and changes in family planning. It is not easy to observe the results of these changes in this study alone. Repeating and re-applying this study after a while can provide meaningful data in terms of concretizing the transformation.

5.1 Implications of Future

This research is an original research in the field due to the fact that there are very few similar studies in the field and it has revealed important findings. It contains some deficiencies that will shed light on future studies and some parts that need to be developed. First of all, the fact that this study is primarily based on quantitative methods has created certain limitations. Although this research is an effective study in numerically assessing parental attitudes, surveys may have been insufficient in terms of detailed examination, finding the underlying reasons for some issues and examining them in depth. Using only the survey method, especially on sensitive issues such as overprotective maternal attitudes, made it difficult to detect mothers' overprotectiveness. Mothers may not have noticed overprotective attitudes or may have tended to hide such attitudes in surveys. Therefore, including qualitative methods in future studies will ensure that richer and more meaningful results are obtained. For example, it may be possible to understand mothers' attitudes more comprehensively through in-depth interviews or focus group studies.

Secondly, since the X and Y generations focused on in this study are two generations close to each other, the effects of cultural changes on parental attitudes may not have been fully revealed. Generations X and Y, who are close in age, may have witnessed similar social and technological developments. Therefore, no major differences were found in their attitudes. The research may have been limited in its subject. In this context, it would be meaningful to compare more distant generations in order to observe the differences between generations in detail and clearly. For example, if a comparison had been made between Generation X and Generation Z instead of Generation Y, more significant differences in attitudes between the generations could have been observed. Generation Z and the following generations are a generation more integrated with technology than previous generations. This effect may have caused them to have different worldviews and social habits. Seeing how this situation is reflected in parental attitudes will contribute to addressing the generation gap in a broader context.

Another important point is that this study did not take into account some important factors such as how long immigrant families have lived in their country and when they migrated. The cultural adaptation processes of immigrant families can have a significant effect on parenting attitudes. For example, the tendency of a family that has recently migrated to preserve their cultural habits is different from the tendency of long-term immigrants to preserve them. It can be expected that families that have been immigrants for a long time will start to adopt the values of the new culture more over time. Therefore, in future studies, adding critical variables like how long immigrant families have lived in their country, and when they migrated will help explain the effect of cultural changes on attitudes. In particular, if possible, selecting a sample according to when they migrated can reveal more clearly whether parenting attitudes have changed. Thus, the effect of individualization and cultural assimilation

processes after immigration on parenting attitudes can be analyzed in more detail. This study was conducted among Turks in Western Europe and Türkiye. It is an undoubted fact that each continent and region has its own cultural characteristics and dynamics. Therefore, repeating the study on different continents and communities can make the results of the study more universal. For example, the sample of this study was chosen as Western Europe, which was an early industrialized countries. In future studies, applying it to a country with a different socio-economic structure, such as United States, which was an early industrialized country, could provide important findings in terms of seeing how the effects on parenting attitudes change. Conducting this study in United States would provide an opportunity to compare whether the process would have similar results. Cultural differences in United State could provide a broader perspective on how individualization processes are reflected in parenting attitudes. On the other hand, conducting a similar study in Asian societies with a collectivist structure, such as the Turkish society, could yield interesting results in terms of comparing similarities and differences. Cultural differences between collectivist societies and individualist societies can create significant differences in parenting approaches, and examining these differences in depth could provide important contributions to the literature.

Finally, another suggestion that can be considered in future studies is to ask the mothers about their age when they first became mothers. Differences in the age at which they became mothers can affect mothers' parenting attitudes. Differences can be seen between mothers who had children at an early age and those who had children later in terms of child-rearing practices and parenting attitudes. Women who became mothers early may have a more traditional attitude or a more flexible attitude due to being more influenced by their social and cultural environments. On the other hand, mothers who had children later in life may exhibit different attitudes than young mothers. Since this variable may have a direct effect on parenting attitudes, its inclusion in the study will help understand the study.

In conclusion, this study provides important clues for future studies. It can be developed in various ways for more detailed and comprehensive analyses. Including qualitative methods, examining generational differences between more distant generations, and adding variables such as when people migrated, how long they lived in country and the mother's age to the study will contribute to obtaining more in-depth and comprehensive findings aimed at understanding parenting attitudes.

REFERENCES

- Adıgüzel, O., Batur, H. Z., & Ekşili, N. (2014). Kuşakların Değişen Yüzü Vey Kuşağı İle Ortaya Çıkan Yeni Çalışma Tarzı: Mobil Yakalılar. *Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 1(19).
- Aka, B. (2018). Bebek Patlaması, X ve Y Kuşağı Yöneticilerin Örgütsel Bağlılık Düzeylerinin Kamu ve Özel Sektör Farklılıklarına Göre İncelenmesi: Bir Araştırma. *Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi Vizyoner Dergisi*, 9(20). <https://doi.org/10.21076/vizyoner.341626>
- Akduman, G., & Hatipoğlu, Z. (2021). Kim Bu Z Kuşağı? *International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Management Inquiries*.
- Aksoy, İ. U. (2017, November). *Modernity. Politika Akademisi*. Politika Akademisi. <https://politikaakademisi.org/2017/11/22/modernite/#:~:text=Modernite%2C%20geleneksel%20toplumdan%20modern%20topluma,kurumsal%20olarak%20bir%20ileriki%20noktas%C4%B1d%C4%B1r>.
- Aron Raymond. (1962). The Education of the Citizen in Industrial Society . *Daedalus*, Vol. 91, No. 2, 249–263.
- Alba, R., & Nee, V. (2003). Remaking the American Mainstream: Assimilation and Contemporary Immigration. *Journal of American Ethnic History*, 23(3). <https://doi.org/10.2307/27501462>
- Ayhün, S. E. (2013). Kuşaklar Arasındaki Farklılıklar ve Örgütsel Yansımaları. *Ekonomi ve Yönetim Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 2(1).
- Baran, N. (2019). *Değişen Toplumsal Yapıda Ebeveyn Tutumlarının, Ebeveynlerin Kamuda Çalışma Durumuna Göre, Sosyodemografik Özellikleri Açısından Farklılıkların İncelenmesi*. Sosyal Hizmet Anabilim Dalı.
- Bayer, A. (2020). Modernleşme Sürecinde Aile: Değişen Annelik ve Babalık. *Selçuk Üniversitesi İslami İlimler Fakültesi Dergisi*, 1(1).
- Bee, H., & Boyd, D. (2013). Developing Child, The. In *Pearson custom library*.
- Berg, M. (1993). What difference did women's work to the industrial revolution? *History Workshop Journal*, 35(1). <https://doi.org/10.1093/hwj/35.1.22>
- Blaut, J. M. (1987). Diffusionism: A Uniformitarian Critique. *Annals of the Association of American Geographers*, 77(1). <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8306.1987.tb00143.x>
- Çakır, H., & Azman, A. (2022). Sosyal Kuşaklar: Kuşaklar Sosyolojisinde Metodolojik Bir Açılım. *İmgelem*, 6(11). <https://doi.org/10.53791/imgelem.1150010>
- Çapuk, H. (2022). Gelişim dönemlerine göre karakter gelişimi. *Anatolian Journal of Health Research, Volume 3 Issue 3*(Volume 3 Issue 3). <https://doi.org/10.29228/anatoljhr.63543>
- Chen, H. (2010). Advertising And Generational Identity: A Theoretical Model. *American Academy of Advertising. Conference. Proceedings (Online); Lubbock, Rogler 2002*.

- Costanza, D. P., Badger, J. M., Fraser, R. L., Severt, J. B., & Gade, P. A. (2012). Generational Differences in Work-Related Attitudes: A Meta-analysis. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 27(4). <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-012-9259-4>
- Çuhacı, & Aysu. (2007). Ulrich Beck'in risk toplumu kuramı. *Sosyoloji Dergisi / 3. Dizi 14. Sayı / 2007* Çuhacı, *Ulrich Beck'in Risk Toplumu Kuramı*, 3(14).
- Demir, E. K., & Şendil, G. (2008). Ebeveyn Tutum Ölçeği (Etö). *Türk Psikoloji Yazıları*, 11(21).
- Demirutku, K. (2017). *Değerlerin Edinilmesinde Ailenin Rolü*. T.C. Aile ve Sosyal Politikalar Bakanlığı.
- Duman, M. (2016). *Çocuğun Değeri: Adana Araştırması*. Çağ Üniversitesi, Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü.
- Dursun Çirci, C., & Zeybekoğlu Akbaş, Ö. (2023). Aile Yapısı ve Toplumsal Cinsiyet Rollerini Bağlamında Ayşe Kulin'in "Adı: Aylin" İsimli Romanının Değerlendirilmesi. *Sosyolojik Bağlam Dergisi*, 4(1). <https://doi.org/10.52108/2757-5942.4.1.3>
- Eisenstadt, S. N. (1974). Studies of Modernization and Sociological Theory. *History and Theory*, 13(3). <https://doi.org/10.2307/2504778>
- Engel, D. M. (2002). Women's role in the home and the state: Stoic theory reconsidered. In *Harvard Studies in Classical Philology* (Vol. 101). <https://doi.org/10.2307/3658531>
- Ennis, L. R. (2014). *Intensive mothering : the cultural contradictions of modern motherhood* . Demeter Press.
- Eyce, B. (2014). Tarihten Günümüze Türk Aile Yapısı. In *Selçuk Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler MYO Dergisi* (Vol. 1, Issue 4).
- Gerstein, D. (1985). Social Theory and Talcott Parsons in the 1980s. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 11(1). <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.soc.11.1.369>
- Gökler, R., & Atamtürk, E. (2021). Ebeveynlik Rollerindeki Değişim. *Journal of Social Policy and Social Work Studies*, 2(2).
- Hochstadt, S. (1981). Migration and Industrialization in Germany, 1815-1977. *Social Science History*, 5(4). <https://doi.org/10.1017/s014555320001926x>
- Kagitçibasi, C. (1983). Sex Roles, Family, and Community in Turkey. *Population and Development Review*, 9(4). <https://doi.org/10.2307/1973558>
- Kagitçibasi, C. (2010). Changing life styles - changing competencies: Turkish migrant youth in Europe. *Historical Social Research*, 35(2).
- Kağıtçıbaşı, Ç. (1982). *The Changing Value of Children in Turkey*. Paper of the East -West Population Institute.
- Kağıtçıbaşı, Ç., & Ataca, B. (2017). Çocuğun Değeri ve Aile Değişimi: Türkiye'den Otuz Yıllık Bir Portre. *Sosyoloji Dergisi* , 35, 77-101.
- Kazazi, S., Küçükahmetoğlu, O., Şişman, M., & Bakırtaş, T. (2021). Doğu ve Batı Avrupa'da Gelir Eşitsizliği ve Ekonomik Büyüme Arasındaki İlişkinin Kuznets Ters U Hipotezi Çerçevesinde Karşılaştırmalı Analizi. *International Journal of Management Economics and Business*. <https://doi.org/10.17130/ijmeh.960576>

- Kızılaslan, N., & Arslan, F. (2022). Kırsaldan Kente Göç Hareketlerinin Nüfusun Cinsiyet ve Eğitim Faktörlerine Etkisi (Amasya İli Örneği) . *Gaziosmanpaşa Bilimsel Araştırma Dergisi (GBAD)*, 11, 147–158.
- Lamm, E., & Meeks, M. D. (2009). Workplace fun: The moderating effects of generational differences. *Employee Relations*, 31(6). <https://doi.org/10.1108/01425450910991767>
- Mardin, Ş. (1991). Türk Modernleşmesi. In *İletişim Yayınları*.
- Martin, P., Midgley, E., & Teitelbaum, M. (2001). Migration and Development: Focus on Turkey. *International Migration Review*, 35(2). <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1747-7379.2001.tb00031.x>
- Millennials Rising: The Next Great Generation. (2002). *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 19(3). <https://doi.org/10.1108/jcm.2002.19.3.282.4>
- Mowrer, E. R. (1969). The Differentiation of Husband and Wife Roles. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 31(3). <https://doi.org/10.2307/349777>
- Nicholas, S., & Oxley, D. (1993). The living standards of women during the industrial revolution, 1795-1820. *The Economic History Review*, 46(4). <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-0289.1993.tb01359.x>
- Nulsen, C. R. (2023, July 10). *A Look at the Different Generations and How They Parent*. Family Education. <https://www.familyeducation.com/family-life/relationships/history-genealogy/a-look-at-the-different-generations-and-how-they-parent>
- Odenweller, K. G., Booth-Butterfield, M., & Weber, K. (2014). Investigating Helicopter Parenting, Family Environments, and Relational Outcomes for Millennials. *Communication Studies*, 65(4). <https://doi.org/10.1080/10510974.2013.811434>
- Özyeşer Cinel, N., & Tezel Şahin, F. (2021). Babaların Kendilerinin Ve Babalarının Babalık Rollerine Bakış Açılarının İncelenmesi . *IJHE*, 7(15), 107–129.
- Padilla-Walker, L. M., & Nelson, L. J. (2012). Black hawk down?: Establishing helicopter parenting as a distinct construct from other forms of parental control during emerging adulthood. *Journal of Adolescence*, 35(5). <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.adolescence.2012.03.007>
- Parry, E., & Urwin, P. (2011). Generational Differences in Work Values: A Review of Theory and Evidence. In *International Journal of Management Reviews* (Vol. 13, Issue 1). <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2370.2010.00285.x>
- Pooley S., & Qureshi, K. (2016). *Parenthood Between Generations*. Berghahn Books.
- Postman, N. (1981). The Day Our Children Disappear: Predictions of a Media Ecologist. *The Phi Delta Kappan*, 62(5), 382–386.
- Potts, R., Vella, K., Dale, A., & Sipe, N. (2016). Exploring the usefulness of structural–functional approaches to analyse governance of planning systems. *Planning Theory*, 15(2). <https://doi.org/10.1177/1473095214553519>
- Pugh, A. J. (2009). Longing and belonging: Parents, children, and consumer culture. In *Longing and Belonging: Parents, Children, and Consumer Culture*. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0094306110361589oo>
- Reeves, T. C. (2007). Do generational difference matter in instructional design? *University of Georgia*.

- Robinson, C. C., Hart, C. H., Mandleco, B. L., Olsen, S. F., Russell, A., Aloa, V., Jin, S., Nelson, D. A., & Bazarskaya, N. (1996). Psychometric Support for a New Measure of Authoritative, Authoritarian, and Permissive Parenting Practices: Cross-Cultural Connections. *Psychological Reports, 77*.
- Rostow, W. W. (1959). The Stages of Economic Growth. *The Economic History Review, 12*(1). <https://doi.org/10.2307/2591077>
- Sağlık, B., & Çelik, H. Y. (2018). Küreselleşen çalışma hayatında kadının rolü. *Fırat Üniversitesi Uluslararası İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Dergisi, 2*(2).
- Şahin, A. E., & Ulusoy Zaim, D. (2014). Sınıf Öğretmeni Adaylarının Çocuk Eğitimine İlişkin Metaforik Algılarının Kontrol Yaklaşımları Yönünden İncelenmesi. *Akdeniz Eğitim Araştırmaları Dergisi, 16*, 47–55.
- Şahin, H., & Demiriz, S. (2014). Beş Altı Yaşında Çocuğu Olan Babaların, Babalık Rolünü Algılamaları İle Aile Katılım Çalışmalarını Gerçekleştirmeleri Arasındaki İlişkinin İncelenmesi. *Türkiye Sosyal Araştırmalar Dergisi, 181*(181).
- Şahin Kütük, B. (2015). Türkiye’den Batı Avrupa’ya İşçi Göçünün Sosyolojik Çalışmalara Yansımaları. *Istanbul Journal of Sociological Studies, 0*(52). <https://doi.org/10.18368/iu/sk.19012>
- Sarı, E. (2020). Çalışma Hayatında Kadın İstihdamı ve Türkiye’de Yansımaları. *Safran Kültür Ve Turizm Araştırmaları Dergisi, 4*(1), 20–40.
- Schmaus, W. (1982). A Reappraisal of Comte’s Three-State Law . *History and Theory, , Vol. 21, No. 2*, 248–266.
- Schönpflug, U. (2001). Intergenerational transmission of values: The role of transmission belts. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 32*(2). <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022022101032002005>
- Segrin, C., Wozzidlo, A., Givertz, M., Bauer, A., & Taylor Murphy, M. (2012). The Association Between Overparenting, Parent-Child Communication, and Entitlement and Adaptive Traits in Adult Children. *Family Relations, 61*(2). <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1741-3729.2011.00689.x>
- Şişman, A. N. (1995). *Ekonomik Modernleşme ile Siyasal Modernleşme*. İSTANBUL ÜNİVERSİTESİ SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ .
- Slattery, M. (2014). Sosyolojide Temel Fikirler. *Sentez, 6*.
- Spierings, N. (2015). Gender Equality Attitudes among Turks in Western Europe and Turkey: The Interrelated Impact of Migration and Parents’ Attitudes. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies, 41*(5). <https://doi.org/10.1080/1369183X.2014.948394>
- Tacoli, C., McGranahan, G., & Satterthwaite, D. (2015). Urbanisation, rural–urban migration and urban poverty. In *Background Paper for World Migration Report 2015 Migrants and Cities: New Urban Partnerships to Manage Mobility* (Vol. 10, Issue 19).
- Taeuber, I. B. (1958). Population and Modernization in Turkey. *Population Index, 24*(2). <https://doi.org/10.2307/2731516>
- Thompson, J. I. (2008). *Parents... Put The Pieces Together*. Xlibris.

- Tipps, D. C. (1973). Modernization Theory and the Comparative Study of National Societies: A Critical Perspective. *Comparative Studies in Society and History*, 15(2).
<https://doi.org/10.1017/S0010417500007039>
- Tuna, M. , D. Z. , & Ş. H. (2000). *Modern Toplumun İnşası*. Detay Yayıncılık.
- Turan, V., & Yıldırım, U. (2023). 1950'den Günümüze Dünyada İç Göç Hareketleri ve Kentleşme . *Optimum Journal of Economics and Management Sciences*, 10(1), 203–224.
- Türker, M., & Bahçeci, F. (2024). New Generation Parenting Attitude: Helicopter Parenting. *Alanyazın*, 5(1), 45–56. <https://doi.org/10.59320/alanyazin.1452153>
- Wheeler III, S. C. (1997). Plato's enlightenment: The good as the sun. *History of Philosophy Quarterly*, 14(2).
- Yılmaz, H. (2020). Türkiye'de Helikopter Ebeveynlik Eğilimi ve Helikopter Ebeveynlerin Demografik Özellikleri. *Sosyal Politika Çalışmaları Dergisi*, 20(46).
<https://doi.org/10.21560/spcd.v20i54504.540233>

APPENDIX 1

Table 8.1 Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances: Generation, Income (MLT)

PAS	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Based on Mean	1.325	5	227	.254
Based on Median	1.282	5	227	.273
Based on Median and with adjusted df	1.282	5	222.130	.273
Based on trimmed mean	1.323	5	227	.255

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Dependent variable: ETÖ

b. Design: Intercept + Generation + Income + Generation * Income

According to Levene's Test results, the assumption of homogeneity of variances is met ($p > .05$).

Table 9.1 Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances: Generation, Education (MLT)

PAS	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Based on Mean	1.503	3	229	.214
Based on Median	1.261	3	229	.289
Based on Median and with adjusted df	1.261	3	221.095	.289
Based on trimmed mean	1.446	3	229	.230

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Dependent variable: ETÖ

b. Design: Intercept + Generation + Income + Generation * Income

According to Levene's Test results, the assumption of homogeneity of variances is met ($p > .05$).

Table 10.1 Test of Normality – 1 (MLT) (Kolmogorov- Smirnov and Shapiro Wilk Tests)

PAS	Kolmogorov- Smirnov^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Basic Education	.100	52	.200*	.968	52	.180
Higher Education	.063	112	.200*	.993	112	.880

*This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a.Lilliefors Significance Correction

Table 13.1 Test of Normality – 2 (MLWE) (Kolmogorov- Smirnov and Shapiro Wilk Tests)

ETÖ	Education	Kolmogorov- Smirnov^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Democratic	Basic Education	.146	52	.008	.939	52	.010
	Higher Education	.103	112	.005	.947	112	.000
Authoritarian	Basic Education	.094	52	.200*	.974	52	.315
	Higher Education	.094	112	.017	.978	112	.065
Protective	Basic Education	.075	52	.200*	.984	52	.703
	Higher Education	.077	112	.095	.986	112	.286
Permissive	Basic Education	.100	52	.200*	.919	52	.002
	Higher Education	.068	112	.200*	.988	112	.445

*This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a.Lilliefors Significance Correction

Table 13.2 Wilks' Lambda: Education (MLWE)

	Wilks' Lambda	F	Df	p	Partial eta squared
Education Level	.926	6.459	2.000	.002	.074

Table 16.1 Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances: Generation, Occupation of MLT

PAS	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Based on Mean	.355	3	229	.785
Based on Median	.304	3	229	.823
Based on Median and with adjusted df	.304	3	216.854	.823
Based on trimmed mean	.350	3	229	.789

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Dependent variable: ETÖ

b. Design: Intercept + Generation + Employment Status + Generation * Employment Status

Table 18.1 Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances: Generation, Income of MLWE

PAS	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Based on Mean	.970	3	160	.409
Based on Median	.928	3	160	.428
Based on Median and with adjusted df	.928	3	143.332	.429
Based on trimmed mean	.939	3	160	.423

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Dependent variable: PAS

b. Design: Intercept + Generation+ Employment Status + Generation * Employment Status

Table 19.1 Test of Normality - 3 (MLWE) (Kolmogorov- Smirnov and Shapiro Wilk Tests)

		Kolmogorov- Smirnov^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
Employment Status		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
PAS	Yes	.082	97	.111	.982	97	.199
	No	.092	67	.200*	.990	67	.877

*This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a.Lilliefors Significance Correction

Table 22.1 Test of Normality – 4 (MLWE) (Kolmogorov- Smirnov and Shapiro Wilk Tests)

		Kolmogorov- Smirnov^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
PAS		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
	Gen X	.058	77	.200*	.985	77	.481
	Gen Y	.079	87	.200*	.976	87	.113

*This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a.Lilliefors Significance Correction

PARENTAL ATTITUDE SCALE

Parental attitude scale was prepared by Gül Şendil and Evren Karabulut. The scale has 46 items. For each item in the scale, there are options such as "Always like this", "Most of the time like this", "Sometimes like this", "Rarely like this" and "Never like this". It was created as a 5-point Likert type scale (Demir & Şendil, 2008). The following text outlines the distribution of questions across various categories in the survey:

- **Democratic Category:** This category includes 17 questions, numbered 3, 7, 8, 9, 14, 17, 18, 19, 22, 25, 29, 31, 39, 50, 51, 53, and 57.
- **Authoritarian Category:** This category consists of 11 questions, which are numbered 5, 12, 15, 23, 32, 33, 44, 49, 54, 55, and 61.
- **Overprotective Category:** This category comprises 9 questions, with the numbers 6, 11, 16, 20, 26, 28, 37, 56, and 62.
- **Permissive Category:** This category also includes 9 questions, numbered 1, 21, 30, 40, 42, 45, 47, 59, and 60.

APPENDIX-2 PARENTAL ATTITUDE SCALE

	İlk madde numaraları	CÜMLELER	Her zaman böyledir	Çoğu zaman böyledir	Bazen böyledir	Nadiren böyledir	Hiçbir zaman böyle değildir
1	1	Ben bir başkasıyla konuşurken çocuğumun araya girmesine izin veririm.					
2	3	Çocuğumun kendine özgü bir bakış açısı olduğunu kabul ederim.					
3	5	Çocuğumla aynı fikirde olmadığımız zaman, benim fikirlerimi kabul etmesi için onu zorlarım.					
4	6	Çocuğumu, hayatın ufak tefek güçlüklerinden korurum.					
5	7	Çocuğuma bağımsız olmayı öğrenmesi konusunda yardımcı olurum.					
6	8	Çocuğuma, kurallara neden uyması gerektiğini açıklarım.					
7	9	Çocuğuma yaptığı şeyin önemli olduğunu hissettiririm.					
8	11	Çocuğumu, kendisi için yorucu olabilecek işlerden korurum.					
9	12	Çocuğum söz dinlemediğinde ona vururum.					

10	14	Çocuğumun iyi ve kötü davranışı karşısında neler hissettiğimi ona açıklarım.				
11	15	Çocuğumu yola getirmek için onu azarlarım.				
12	16	Çocuğuma karşı koruyucu davranırım.				
13	17	Çocuğum iyi davrandığında onu överim.				
14	18	Çocuğumun kişisel görüşlerine saygı gösteririm.				
15	19	Çocuğumu bir şeyleri kendi başına yapması konusunda cesaretlendiririm.				
16	20	Arkadaşları çocuğuma sataştığı zaman onu korurum.				
17	21	Çocuğumun başkaları konuşurken araya girmesine izin veririm.				
18	22	Çocuğumun cinsel konularda sorduğu soruları anlayacağı bir dilde doğru olarak cevaplarım.				
19	23	Çocuğum yanlış bir şekilde davrandığında ona bağırırım.				
20	25	Ebeveynlik konusunda bir yanlış yaptığımda çocuğumdan özür dilerim.				
21	26	Çocuğumu, kendisi için zor olabilecek işlerden korurum.				
22	28	Çocuğumun hastalanmasından endişe ederim.				
23	29	Çocuğumun duygularını serbestçe ifade etmesine izin veririm.				
24	30	Çocuğumun istediği saatte uyumasına izin veririm.				
25	31	Çocuğum yanlış davrandığında, bunun neden yanlış olduğunu ona açıklarım.				
26	32	Çocuğuma kızdığımında çocuğumu cezalandırırım.				
27	33	Fiziksel cezayı, çocuğumu disipline sokmanın bir yolu olarak kullanırım.				
28	37	Çocuğumun hayal kırıklığına uğramaması için elimden geleni yaparım.				
29	39	Çocuğumun büyüdükçe yeni şeyler denemeyi göze alması gerektiğine inanırım.				
30	40	Çocuğumun her şeyi yapmasına izin veririm.				
31	42	Çocuğumun yanlış davranışını görmezden gelirim.				
32	44	Çocuğumu başka çocuklarla kıyaslarım.				
33	45	Çocuğumun şımarıklıklarına göz yumarım.				
34	47	Çocuğumu şımartırım.				
35	49	Çocuğuma karşı çabuk öfkelenirim.				
36	50	Çocuğum bana birşey anlatırken sözünü kesmeden dinlerim.				
37	51	Çocuğuma bir şey alırken onun da fikrini alırım.				
38	53	Çocuğumla her konuyu konuşabilirim.				
39	54	Çocuğuma karşı sabırsızım.				
40	55	En ufak bir hatasında, çocuğumu cezalandırırım.				

41	56	Çocuğum için hemen hemen bütün eğlencelerimden fedakarlık ederim.				
42	57	Çocuğumun kendi başına becerebileceği şeyleri denemesi için ona fırsat tanırım.				
43	59	Çocuğuma bana sormaksızın şahsi eşyalarımın herhangi birini alıp kullanmasına izin veririm.				
44	60	Evimizde hangi televizyon programının izleneceği, çocuğumun isteğine göre belirlenir.				
45	61	Çocuğumu yapabileceğinden fazlasını yapması için zorlarım.				
46	62	Çocuğumu, onun cesaretini kırabilecek zor işlerden uzak tutarım.				