

## **Fathers Matter: Peculiarities of Parenting Adolescents in Complete and Incomplete Families in Tashkent (Uzbekistan)**

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### **Abstract**

The paper contains the findings of a study directed at exploring the psychological features of child-parent relationships in complete and incomplete families on an Uzbekistani sample. As the literature review shows, on the development of the relationship between adolescents and the parent an important role is taken by the presence of the father in the family (Sarkadi et al., 2008; Opondo et al., 2016; Kroll et al., 2016, Buckley & Schoppe-Sullivan, 2010; Makadei, 2010). This is supported by works that show the unique importance of the father in the development of children and adolescents (Buckley&Schoppe-Sullivan, 2010; Luijten et al., 2021; Nogueira Avelar E Silva et al., 2016; Keizer et al., 2019; Lewis and Lamb, 2003). The survey was conducted with 272 adolescents aged 13 to 17 years, broken down by males (N=128; 47.1%) and females (N=144; 52.9%), to examine child-parent relationships in complete and incomplete families. Among adolescents, 85.3% (N=232) were raised in complete families and 14.7% (N=40) in single-parent families. Methods included questionnaires such as the “Family Environment Scale” in the Russian-language adaptation by S.Y. Kupriyanov and “Parent-Child Interaction” by I.I. Markovskaya. The results showed that in full families there was more control and insistence in the parental attitudes expressed by mothers towards their daughters. In incomplete families, there was greater emotional acceptance between the daughter and the mother. Meanwhile, incomplete families are less diverse both in family system indicators and in child-parent relationship patterns.

**Keywords:** Single-Parent Families, Complete Families, Child-Parent Relationships, Family Environment, Adolescents.

### **Introduction**

Researchers have assessed the political, socio-economic, and demographic changes currently underway in society twofold. However, some scholars consider these changes as a crisis for the modern family institution (Gurko, 2014). Such changes include the following processes: growth of divorce rates (), a decline in fertility rates in families (Antonov, 1992), transformation of parent-child relations into deeper isolation and increased communication deficit among family members (Fagan & Palkovitz, 2011; Svetovets, 2020), a collapse of family ideology (Lexin, 2011), loss of parental and gender roles in families (Antonov&Sorokin,

2000), shifts in marriage motives (Gurko, 1997) and other negative manifestations that are typical in modern families (Kuchmaeva et al., 2009). Conversely, researchers maintain a less pessimistic perspective on modern families, arguing that present changes are a consequence of the inevitable modernization of the institution of marriage and the family (Golod, 2008), shifting from a "child-centered" to a "spousal type" of family (Golod, 1996).

Therefore, to date, research into families and parent-child relationships has not lost its relevance. By T.V. Andreeva, family composition contributes significantly to a child's development, specifically, the correlation between the number of adults and the number of children in the family (Andreeva, 2006). In incomplete families where one of the parents (in most cases the father) is absent, there is limited experience of close relationships and emotional attachment (Buckley & Schoppe-Sullivan, 2010). Consequently, the child grows dependent on his or her mother and has difficulties in socialising and adapting to society (Bugadinova, 2020).

In single-parent families, the situation is complicated by the mother's double employment - child-rearing and financial functions. Mothers suffer from a heavy workload and limited time to carry out parenting duties in the family, causing the attention gap with their children (Nemirovsky, 2006). However, the situation can be positive in cases where a single-parent family includes other members, such as grandparents. This helps children's emotional attachment to all family members, thus fostering independence and autonomy (Bronfenbrenner, 2007; Plisenko, 2005).

The numerous studies reveal that the absence of the father in the family is associated with a number of negative consequences for the child (Buckley & Schoppe-Sullivan, 2010; Makadei, 2010): challenges in intellectual development, disorders in socialization and adaptation, problems of discipline and performance in school, challenges in determining future life targets, unformed gender identity and perceptions of gender roles, etc. (Bystrova, 2018).

Absence of the father in the family shapes maternal parenting attitudes consisting in a more demanding, strict and anxious attitude to children and adolescents. A high level of control of the mother over the child manifests itself in petty tutelage, intrusiveness and restrictiveness, which is caused by a great attention of the mother or feelings of guilt and anxiety for the child due to the absence of the father (Khozyainova&Ryabikina, 2017; Voronin&Yanak, 2018; Khozyainova,2018).

Thus, the problem of the influence of family composition on the development of children and adolescents is fairly well studied. The role of the father in child-parent relationships gains importance on account of the distribution between the two parents of household duties and parental functions; the transmission of family values by the two parents; the distribution of the emotional attachment of the child to the mother and father; the timely supervision by the two parents, and so forth (Terelyanskaya, 2017). Numerous studies have shown that monoparenthood is associated with destructive perceptions of parenthood in single mothers, which as a result has a negative impact on the development of children and adolescents in single-parent families (Voronin&Yanak, 2018).

It shows that the role of the father in the formation of child-parent relationships between the mother and adolescent, as well as the interaction of these relations with the gender of the adolescent is not studied in detail nowadays. In this connection, the works aimed at studying the child-parent relations of mother and child in the context of incomplete and complete families are of current interest. The material of full and incomplete families shows the

differences in the child-parent relations, testifying to the important role of the father in the development of adolescents.

### *The concept of family*

Modern concepts of the family lay in the realization of common life by a group of people who are related by blood, marriage or sharing the same accommodation (Roostin, 2018). Family have significant influence over the children's evolution, whereas depending on the category of family "normal-anomalous family", there will be positive or negative nature of this influence (Santrock, 1997).

As Drujinin says "normal family" is distinguished by the main parameter - family responsibility falls on the father, any other types of families where this rule is not fulfilled, and the author considers abnormal (Drujinin, 2006). Nowadays mono-parent families, in which the mother or, much more rarely, the father fulfils the parental function, are on the rise. The author cites the following main reasons for the increase in the number of single-parent families: divorce, unofficial marriages, mortality of men (fathers), labor migration of the father, alcoholism or drug addiction, parents living apart (Godwin-marriage), women deliberately having children "for themselves" and having unplanned children out of wedlock (Bystrova et al., 2018; Sheridan et al., 2005).

Father has a direct influence over child's development, affecting their socialization and adaptation in the society (Ticuqan, 2014). Noteworthy is that the father also serves as a potential source of support for the mother. A study conducted in South Korea shows that fathers' involvement, both perceived and actual, is associated with less maternal stress (Kim et al., 2016, cited in Maselko et al., 2019). Many other psychological studies have found negative effects of single-parent families on the psychological development of children and adolescents (Usakli, 2013; Falana et al. 2012; Hakman, 2009; Kanareikina & Sorokina, 2016; Smith, 2004; Pavlov, 2016).

Incompleteness of a family entails a number of challenges that they face in the absence of one parent - mostly the father (Dementieva, 2001). Firstly, the presence of one parent imposes an extra financial burden; consequently, mothers find double employment - maintenance of the family and income (Saraliev, 2011; 2015; Ivanchenko, 2015). The second is the integration of the social role of mother and father in one parent, leading to difficulties in the gender and social identity of children in single-parent families (Bendas, 2006; Kalina & Kholmogorova, 2007; Kharlamenkova, 2007). Third, the educational process is entrusted to one parent, which leads to low control and attention to children (Ponomaryov, 2015; Ovcharova & Myagkova, 2014; Bashkirova, 2007), in particular, especially pronounced in adolescence (Eidemiller, 2006).

The absence of the father in the family results in a series of difficulties that one parent - the mother - has to cope with. It is absolutely inaccurate to claim that every incomplete family is deviant (Kapustina, 2011), however in most cases the absence of a father figure negatively influences family socialization and adaptation (Ticuqan, 2014). In his works A.I. Zakharov while investigating the problem of violation of the child-parent relations in incomplete families distinguishes the basic features of these deviations: emotional coldness and hyper-parental care to their children, non-consistent parenting measures, affective instability, and hyper-anxiety in the child-parent relations (Zakharova, 2009).

Children after divorce, compared to children in never-divorced families, have significantly more problems with adjustment and academic performance (Fomina, 2008). The more recent studies, as well as those with more sophisticated methodology, report significantly

smaller disparities between the two groups compared to earlier studies, and the magnitude of the differences is quite small (Kelly, 2000).

### ***Analysis of child-parent relations***

Numerous psychological studies show that child-parent relationships with the mother (for example, D. Winnicott, A. Freud, J. Bowlby, C. Horney, etc.) and the father (for example, V.A. Geodakian, V.A. Ramikh, L.B. Schneider, I.S. Kon, etc.) play an essential role in children's development. As Altenburger & Schoppe-Sullivan fairly point out in their work, there is a direct link between supportive co-parenting and the child's social-emotional adjustment, including decreased externalizing, dysregulating, and internalizing problems (Altenburger, Lang, Schoppe-Sullivan, Kamp Dush & Johnson, 2017; Farr, Bruun & Patterson, 2019, cited by Altenburger & Schoppe-Sullivan). Anderson cites numerous data on the effects of divorce on children, including the results of large-scale meta-analyses conducted in 1991 and 2001, which concluded that "children with divorced parents continue to perform significantly worse on academic achievement, behavior, psychological adjustment, self-esteem, and social relationships" (Amato and Kate, 1991; Amato and Booth, 1997, cited in Anderson, 2014).

Additionally, the papers list many variations of the negative effects of divorce on children, particularly decreased cognitive and academic stimulation, (Anderson, 2014). Almost a quarter of the research selectees had psychological trauma when they lived in single-parent families. Results of filtering psychological trauma in children in single-parent families show that up to 14.58% of children with psychological trauma were caused by single-parent families rather than other factors, which include car accidents or other accidents (electrocution, serious falls, drowning, etc.), encounters with natural disasters, and violence (Duc et al., 2019). Also, other factors such as the environment and public and societal pressures may play a secondary role in the development of psychological trauma (Duc et al., 2019).

The phenomenon of the child-parent relationship between mother and child is more studied compared to the phenomenon of the child-parent relationship between child and father (Dubanova, 2012; Meuwissen & Englund, 2016). The maternal and paternal parent-child relationship differs from each other by some gendered circumstances. As a physical, physiological, sensual aspect highlights the specifics of the early years of a child's life - when there is a physical relationship between the mother and child, between the father and child this relationship has a greater distance (Kon, 2011). The emotional aspect lies in the fact that, often, women are more emotional, sensitive and responsive compared to men (Lamb & Lewis, 2013). This allows mothers to build a more emotional bond with their child, filled with empathy and acceptance (Ovcharova, 2003). I.S. Kon's work shows that fathers are more rigorous in distinguishing between emotional and cognitive responsiveness, compared to sensitive and emotionally responsive mothers. According to the cognitive (cognitive) aspect, parents develop portrayals of the ideal father and mother (Ovcharova, 2006). Typically, the mother has been identified as caring, gentle, soft in her relationships with the children, while the father appears as the protector and breadwinner of the family (Kon, 2011; Meuwissen & Englund, 2016).

## **Methodology**

Nevertheless, existing research focused on the father's role in family relationships suggests that father involvement is critical in the early years of a child's life for optimal development. It boosts children's social competence and cognitive abilities (Lamb, 2010), and is tied to fewer behavioral disorders in children of varying ages (Sarkadi et al., 2008; Opondo et al., 2016; Kroll et al., 2016).

Building a specific father-child relationship that allows for unique experiences different from mother-child interactions has been shown to have a positive impact on children's development (Meuwissen & Englund, 2016).

Studies have also found that supportive co-parenting can act as a powerful resource that increases sensitivity, warmth, and consistency in parenting, which positively affects children's emotional security, social competence, and attachment relationships between parents and children, as well as higher levels of supportive co-parenting were positively correlated with father engagement in every family (Pudasainee-Kapri & Razza, 2015, Meuwissen & Englund, 2016).

Similarly, a study conducted to examine interfamilial responsibilities and child well-being during COVID-19 lockdown in Italy (Mangiavacchi et al. 2021) found a positive mitigating effect of father care on children's emotional status, confirming that father involvement positively reflected on children's emotional skills both in caregiving of young children and in helping senior children with in-home chores.

Currently, the tendency is for divorce to be on the rise in families, which leads to an increase in the rate of children raised in incomplete families. Research shows that the factor of incomplete family has a negative impact on the psychological development of children. In particular, adolescents are at risk of violent behaviour in the family and at school, poor academic performance, risky sexual behaviour, deviant and antisocial behaviour, etc. Therefore, research focused on the problem of child-parent relationships in incomplete and complete families is of current interest.

1) The Family Environmental Scale (FES). Authors: Rudolf H. & Bernice S. Moos (1974) in Russian-language adaptation by S.Y. Kupriyanov (1985) (Malkina-Pykh, 2005). The methodology is intended to evaluate the social climate in families of all types. The basic accent is placed on measurement and descriptions of interrelations between family members, personal progress areas of particular priority in the family, and the basic family organizational framework.

Contains the following scales: Indicators of interrelations between family members (Cohesion, Expressiveness, Conflict); Indicators of personal progress (Independence, Achievement Orientation, Intellectual and Cultural Orientation, Activity Orientation, Moral and Moral Aspects); Indicators of family system management (Organization, Control).

2) Parent-child interaction (PCI) method by I.M. Markovskaya (1998) (Markovskaya, 2000). This technique intends for diagnostics of features of parent-adolescent interaction. The survey is a "mirror" and has two parallel forms which enable one to find out not only an evaluation of one party (parents) but also a vision of interaction from the other party - an adolescent's standpoint.

Contains the following scales: non-demanding-demanding parent; Parent's gentleness-strictness; Autonomy-control towards the adolescent; Emotional distance-closeness of the adolescent to the parent; Parent's rejection-acceptance of the adolescent; Lack of interaction-cooperation; Disagreement-agreement between the adolescent and the parent; Inconsistency-coherence of the parent; Parent's authority; Adolescent's relationship-satisfaction with the parent.

The following statistical methods were used as qualitative and quantitative methods to analyze the findings: nonparametric Mann-Whitney analysis, descriptive and frequency statistics.

## Results and Discussion

The sample consists of 272 high school pupils (8th, 9th and 10th grades) of Tashkent city schools. Female representatives account for 52.9% (N=144) and male 47.1% (N=128) of the sample. By age of the sample: mean (M) = 15.31, standard deviation (SD) = 0.7. We also considered two-parent or only one-parent parameter - full and incomplete families, with the following distribution - 85.3% (N=232) full families and 14.7% (N=40) incomplete families.

The research objective was to examine the paternal role in the child-parent relationship between mother and adolescent. To this end, the research was carried out among groups of adolescents raised in complete and incomplete families (absent fathers).

The research hypothesis is to assume that mothers in incomplete families differ in their child-parent relationships with mothers in complete families.

**Table 1** – Comparative analysis of complete and incomplete families by Family Environmental Scale, FES

Scales	Mean Rank		Mann-Whitney U	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
	Complete family	Incomplete family			
Cohesion	135,09	144,68	4313,00	-0,75	0,45
Expressiveness	134,19	149,93	4103,00	-1,20	0,23
Conflictuality	133,58	153,44	3962,50	-1,52	0,13
Independence	133,52	153,80	3948,00	-1,56	0,12
Achievement orientation	138,29	126,14	4225,50	-0,94	0,35
Intellectual and cultural orientation	133,34	154,80	3908,00	-1,61	0,11
Activity orientation	134,58	147,63	4195,00	-0,98	0,33
Moral decency	135,77	140,74	4470,50	-0,38	0,71
Organization	138,63	124,15	4146,00	-1,11	0,27
Control	140,96	110,63	3605,00	-2,29	<b>0,02</b>
Indicator of the interrelation between family members	132,85	157,69	3792,50	-1,86	0,06
Index of personal progress	134,24	149,63	4115,00	-1,15	0,25
Indicator of family system management	140,92	110,86	3614,50	-2,25	<b>0,03</b>

Table 1 shows the results of a comparative analysis on family orientations between complete and incomplete families. There were significant differences between the groups on the scales of “Control” (U=3605.00; p=0.02) and “Family System Management Indicator”

( $U=3614.00$ ;  $p=0.03$ ). In the complete family, the mean ranks on the “Control” (mean rank=140.96) and “Family System Management Indicator” (mean rank=140.92) are higher relative to the incomplete family (mean rank=110.63 and mean rank=110.86). A high index of control in a complete family is characterized by the extent of the hierarchical nature of the familial structure, rigidity of family rules and procedures, control of family members over one another. In these families, given the presence of both parents, control over teenagers is maintained by both the mother and the father. It is common practice for the father and mother to share functions, while the father performs an economic function and the mother an educational one. Thus, the mother has a greater opportunity and time to supervise the children. The subscale “Family System Management Indicator”, where control is included, has higher values in full families, most likely for the same reasons mentioned prior. In incomplete families, control and management of the family system is lower, which characterizes more freedom and autonomy in the behaviour of adolescents. Reflecting this, the most common reason is the mother’s double employment (household and employment), leading to less control and family rules over adolescents.

**Table 2 – Comparative analysis of child-parent interactions (mother) between complete and incomplete families**

Scales	Mean Rank		Mann-Whitney U	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
	Complete family	Incomplete family			
Undemanding-Demanding	143,08	98,31	3112,50	-3,34	<b>0,00</b>
Gentleness-Strictness	137,99	127,84	4293,50	-0,76	0,45
Autonomy-Control	141,71	106,28	3431,00	-2,64	<b>0,01</b>
Emotional distance-Emotional closeness	137,16	132,68	4487,00	-0,33	0,74
Rejection-Acceptance	131,78	163,90	3544,00	-2,39	<b>0,02</b>
Non-Cooperation-Collaboration	133,52	153,76	3949,50	-1,51	0,13
Disagreement-Agreement	139,66	118,16	3906,50	-1,61	0,11
Inconsistency-Consistency	133,52	153,81	3947,50	-1,51	0,13
Parental authority	134,72	146,84	4226,50	-0,90	0,37
Relationship Satisfaction with the child (parent)	136,23	138,06	4577,50	-0,14	0,89

Based on the findings, one can see significant differences in child-parent relationships (mothers) between full and incomplete families (table 2). Distinctions were found on “non-demanding-demanding” ( $U=3112.50$ ;  $p=0.00$ ), “Autonomy-Control” ( $U=3431.00$ ;  $p=0.01$ ) and “Rejection-Acceptance” ( $U=3544.00$ ;  $p=0.02$ ) between complete and incomplete families. There were higher values on demandingness (mean rank=143.08) and control (mean rank=141.71) detected in mothers towards their children in complete families. In incomplete families, mothers are characterized by lower scores on these scales. They tend to display autonomy (mean rank=106.28) and undemanding (mean rank=98.31) to their child in child-parent interactions. The results are in agreement with Table 1, where complete families display

higher levels of control and management. Incomplete families mothers show less control and demandingness to their children (adolescents) than mothers in complete families. Presumably, owing to the employment of mothers from incomplete families, it is not always possible for them to devote their time and attention to monitoring their children. Along with this, the absence of the father in the family induces a sense of guilt in the mother toward her children, which is manifested in less demanding and controlling behaviour. The findings are in accordance with those cited in other works. However, as per the literature review, the findings are controversial, such as describing controlling and anxious attitudes of mothers from incomplete families. Mothers from incomplete families appear to be more likely to have an adoptive attitude toward the child (mean rank=163.90) as opposed to mothers from complete families (mean rank=131.78). This is reflected in the acceptance of the child's personality traits and behavioural manifestations. To accept the child as a personality is an important condition for the favourable development of the child, his or her self-esteem.

**Table 3** – Comparative analysis of child-parent interactions in complete families by gender (mother)

Scales	Mean Rank		Mann-Whitney U	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
	Daughter	Son			
Undemanding-Demanding	132,80	139,79	8742,50	-0,74	0,46
Gentleness-Strictness	136,88	136,17	9168,00	-0,07	0,94
Autonomy-Control	156,01	119,16	6718,50	-3,86	<b>0,00</b>
Emotional distance-Emotional closeness	145,82	128,22	8023,50	-1,85	0,07
Rejection-Acceptance	147,76	126,49	7774,50	-2,23	<b>0,03</b>
Non-Cooperation-Collaboration	139,89	133,49	8782,00	-0,67	0,50
Disagreement-Agreement	140,01	133,38	8766,50	-0,70	0,48
Inconsistency-Consistency	135,68	137,23	9111,00	-0,16	0,87
Parental authority	148,25	126,06	7712,50	-2,33	<b>0,02</b>
Relationship Satisfaction with the child (parent)	147,05	127,13	7866,00	-2,10	<b>0,04</b>

Table 3 shows the results of a comparative analysis of child-parent interactions in the complete families by mothers to their children by their gender. The scales of Autonomy-Control (U=6718.50; p=0.00), Rejection-Acceptance (U=7774.50; p=0.03), Parent Authority (U=7712.50; p=0.02) and Satisfaction with Relationship with Child (Parent) (U=7866.00; p=0.04) indicated variation in child-parent interactions between mother and child. More control (mean rank=156.01), acceptance (RR=147.76), parental authority (mean rank=148.25), and relationship satisfaction (mean rank=147.05) were found in mothers toward daughters, compared to sons.



**Table 4** – Comparative analysis of child-parent interactions in complete families by gender (father)

Scales	Mean Rank		Mann-Whitney U	Z	Asymp.Sig. (2-tailed)
	Daughter	Son			
Undemanding-Demanding	118,63	152,39	6928,00	-3,55	<b>0,00</b>
Gentleness-Strictness	127,94	144,11	8120,00	-1,70	0,09
Autonomy-Control	138,82	134,44	8919,50	-0,46	0,65
Emotional distance-Emotional closeness	132,02	140,48	8642,50	-0,89	0,37
Rejection-Acceptance	158,76	116,72	6367,00	-4,42	<b>0,00</b>
Non-Cooperation-Collaboration	131,35	141,08	8557,00	-1,02	0,31
Disagreement-Agreement	138,85	134,41	8915,50	-0,47	0,64
Inconsistency-Consistency	142,77	130,92	8413,00	-1,25	0,21
Parental authority	138,11	135,07	9009,50	-0,32	0,75
Relationship Satisfaction with the child (parent)	149,26	125,16	7582,50	-2,73	<b>0,01</b>

As Table 4 demonstrates, Father's attitudes toward the child in the complete families in some cases are dependent on his or her gender. Thus, the scales "Undemanding-Demanding" ( $U=6928.00$ ;  $p=0.00$ ), "Rejection-Acceptance" ( $U=6367.00$ ;  $p=0.00$ ) and "Satisfaction with relationship with child (parent)" ( $U=7582.50$ ;  $p=0.01$ ) observed distinctions in child-parent relationship between father and child based on gender. It was revealed that fathers are more demanding (mean rank=152.39) to sons rather than to daughters (mean rank=118.63). Most likely, the more severe and demanding behaviour of fathers to their sons is tied to national traditions, as fathers are supposed to nurture masculine traits in their sons. To a greater extent fathers appear to be satisfied with the relations that they have with their daughters (mean rank=149.26) than they do with their sons (mean rank=125.16), and they show a more accepting attitude (mean rank=158.76) to the personality of their daughters. Apparently, fathers in the complete families tend to be more demanding on their sons and more satisfactory and accepting towards their daughters. This is presumably linked to gender attitudes and expectations developed in the national culture.

In both cases (Tables 3 and 4), mothers and fathers from full families are more satisfied with their relationships with their daughters and show an accepting attitude toward them. When it comes to sons, fathers are more demanding towards them, and mothers appear more controlling and authoritative in their relationships with their daughters. Consequently, fathers perform the parental function with respect to sons and while mothers to daughters.

**Table 5 – Comparative analysis of child-parent interactions in incomplete families by gender (mother)**

Scales	Mean Daughter	Rank Son	Mann-Whitney U	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Undemanding-Demanding	22,55	18,24	156,50	-1,18	0,24
Gentleness-Strictness	19,79	21,29	184,50	-0,41	0,68
Autonomy-Control	24,98	15,55	105,50	-2,55	<b>0,01</b>
Emotional distance-Emotional closeness	22,43	18,37	159,00	-1,10	0,27
Rejection-Acceptance	18,90	22,26	166,00	-0,91	0,36
Non-Cooperation-Collaboration	21,83	19,03	171,50	-0,76	0,45
Disagreement-Agreement	22,21	18,61	163,50	-0,99	0,32
Inconsistency-Consistency	19,81	21,26	185,00	-0,40	0,69
Parental authority	22,05	18,79	167,00	-0,89	0,38
Relationship Satisfaction with the child (parent)	20,83	20,13	192,50	-0,19	0,85

Table 5 demonstrates the results of the comparative analysis of child-parent interactions between mother and child in incomplete families based on their gender. It is shown that only the Autonomy-Control scale ( $U=105.50$ ;  $p=0.01$ ) revealed significant differences. Mothers in incomplete families exhibit greater control over their daughters (mean rank=24.98) than over their sons (mean rank=15.55). In this context, mothers raising adolescents alone practically do not differentiate their attitude toward their child depending on his or her gender. Only in the case of control do the differences appear.

## Conclusion

Bringing up the conclusions of the conducted research directed to exploring the role of the father in the child-parent relations between the mother and the teenager, one can state about the achievement of the objective of the work. Apart from this, the hypothesis of the research proved partially that mothers in incomplete families differ in their child-parent relationships with mothers from complete families. Mothers from incomplete families were shown to be less controlling and demanding of children and to display a more accepting attitude, while fathers and mothers from complete families were shown to be more differentiated in child-parent relationships with adolescents based on their gender

Presumably, owing to the employment of mothers from single-parent families, it would be impossible for them to be able to focus their attention on controlling their children. Along with this, the absence of the father in the family causes the mother to feel guilty before her children, which is expressed in less demanding and controlling behavior. The following conclusions were drawn based on the findings:

1. Research has sufficiently studied the influence of the father on the child-parent interaction between mother and child, yet the results of the research are controversial. In families with both parents, children are more successful in socialization and adaptation to society than children from incomplete families are.
2. The results of the study showed that there are variations in the extent of control over children between incomplete and complete families. A parent (mother) from an incomplete family demonstrates less controlling behaviour toward children. Complete families, given the presence of both parents, demonstrate more controlling behaviour toward their children.
3. In incomplete families, a more accepting parent's behaviour toward his or her children is more evident than in full families. Both parents in two-parent families tend to be more accepting of their daughter than their son.
4. Greater differentiation in relationships with children depending on their gender was found in full families. Fathers tended to be more demanding toward their sons and were more likely to be dissatisfied with their behaviour. Mothers revealed a more controlling and authoritative attitude toward their daughters.

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