









It is generally accepted that the alpha coefficient in the range of "0.60-0.80" is very reliable and a coefficient in the range "0.80-1.00" is highly reliable. According to these results, it can be said that the internal consistency of all sub-factors and the general scale is in a very reliable and acceptable range (Tavşancıl, 2006).

### Factor Analysis:

Before the factor analysis of the scale was conducted, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett tests were applied. The KMO test value indicates the acceptability for factor analysis. If the KMO value is between 0.5-1.00, it is considered acceptable, while values of 0.8 and above indicate a high fit and 1 indicates a perfect fit (Altunışık et al., 2012; Büyüköztürk, 2006). In this study, the sample fit was found to be significant ( $\chi^2(105) = 790$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) and strong (KMO = 0.80). According to the relevant results, it was determined that it was acceptable for factor analysis on the scale.

In order to determine the construct validity of the scale after the application, factor analysis of the data obtained according to the answers received from 136 parents was performed. During the factor analysis, principal component analysis and the transformation between factors were calculated by Kaiser normalization and promax ( $\lambda = 4$ ). When the scree plot (Figure 1) was examined, it was determined that the elbow point came out after the 3rd factor and a 3-factor analysis was performed by cutting from this point.

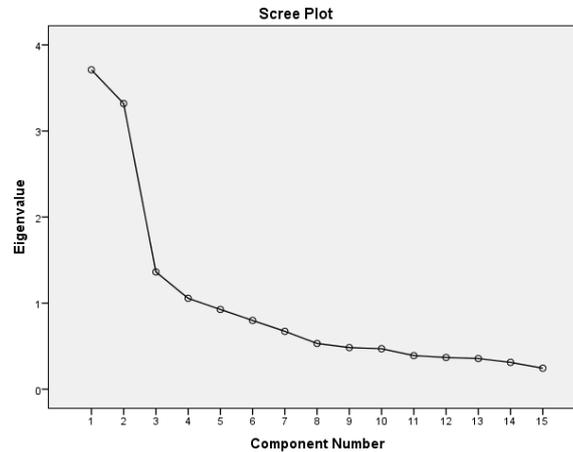


Fig.1: Scree plot resulting from the ordinal exploratory factor analysis.

The analysis results indicated the existence of a three-factor structure that is meaningful and can be named, and this factorial structure was later confirmed by confirmatory factor analysis. It was determined that the three factors obtained as a result of the analysis explained 57.82% of the variance with a total eigenvalue of 8.66. The first factor, called "Gender-Neutral Expression", accounts for 9.83% of the variance; the second factor called "Gender Expression" explains 21.56% of the variance and the third factor called "Gendered Socialization" explains 26.43% of the variance.

When the correlations between the factors were examined, it was determined that FI and FIII ( $r = 0.26$ ), as well as FIII and FII ( $r = 0.21$ ) showed a weak positive correlation, while FI and FII ( $r = -0.24$ ) showed a weak negative correlation.

### Confirmatory Factor Analysis:

Confirmatory Factor Analysis was used to examine the extent to which the three-factor structure of the scale was compatible with the data collected. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) is a natural extension of Explanatory Factor Analysis (EFA). The purpose of confirmatory factor analysis is to statistically check the meaningfulness of a structure (model) consisting of a known number of factors. In other words, CFA is used to test whether the sample data confirms the proposed structure (Yılmaz et al., 2009). In CFA, it is determined

whether the model is compatible with the theory, not according to the result of a single test, but according to the results of various fit indexes (Çapık, 2014).

Among the fit indices based on the independent model, CFI (Comparative Fit Index) is the most frequently used. It compares the fit of the current model with the fit of the null hypothesis model, which the absence of correlation and covariance between latent variables. Therefore, it compares the covariance matrix estimated by the model with the covariance matrix of the model with the null hypothesis. The CFI, which has values ranging from 0 to 1, indicates that the closer the value to 1, the better the fit, and it emphasizes that the model with a higher CFI is in a stronger fit in parallel. The Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) was developed to resolve the deficiency of the Normed Fit Index (NFI) being affected by sample size. The larger the TLI value, the higher the goodness of fit for the model. Values greater than 0.95 are interpreted as showing an acceptable fit (Cangur & Ercan, 2015). As a result of the confirmatory factor analysis, the model was found to have factorial validity ( $\chi^2(87) = 115.83, p < 0.05$ ). When the other accuracy (fit index) values were examined, it was found that the values were acceptable. The comparative fit index (CFI) value is 0.96, and the Tucker - Lewis Index (TLI) value is 0.95.

When the correlations of the factors were examined, it was found that the pattern in fit index values was repeated with a higher emphasis (see Table 2).

**Table 2:** Correlations of Factors

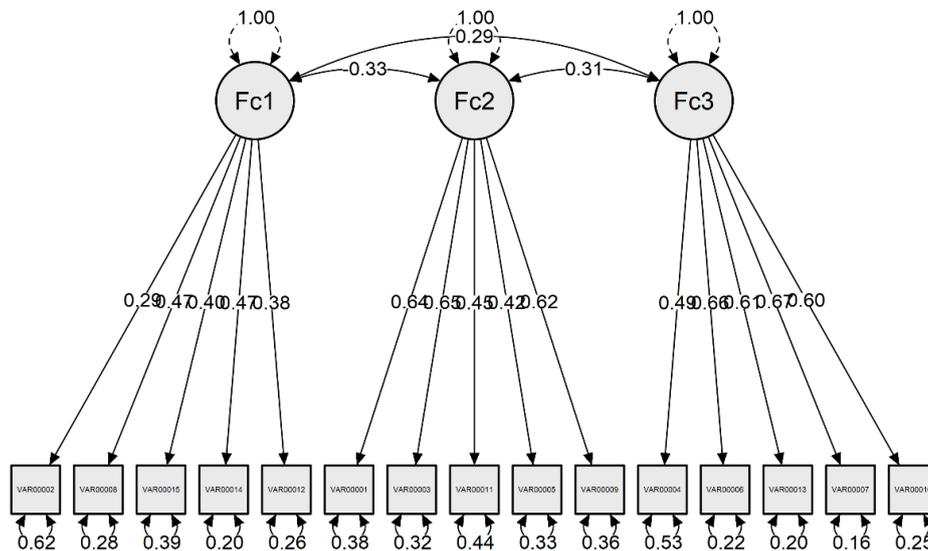
|          |            | Measurement | Standard error | Z-value | P        | 95% Confidence Interval |       |
|----------|------------|-------------|----------------|---------|----------|-------------------------|-------|
|          |            |             |                |         |          | Low                     | High  |
| Factor 1 | ↔ Factor 2 | -0.33       | 0.10           | -3.26   | 1.11e -3 | -0.52                   | -0.13 |
| Factor 1 | ↔ Factor 3 | 0.29        | 0.10           | 2.92    | 3.46e -3 | 0.09                    | 0.48  |
| Factor 2 | ↔ Factor 3 | 0.31        | 0.09           | 3.31    | < .001   | 0.12                    | 0.49  |

It was found that the factor and item loadings found in the explanatory factor analysis (Table 2) were also observed in the confirmatory factor analysis (see Table 3, Figure 2).

**Table 3: Factor and Element Structure**

| Factor   | Indicator | Symbol | Measurement | Standard error | z-value | p      | 95% Confidence Interval |      |
|----------|-----------|--------|-------------|----------------|---------|--------|-------------------------|------|
|          |           |        |             |                |         |        | Low                     | High |
| Factor 1 | VAR2      | λ11    | 0.29        | 0.08           | 3.67    | < .001 | 0.14                    | 0.45 |
|          | VAR8      | λ12    | 0.47        | 0.06           | 7.58    | < .001 | 0.35                    | 0.59 |
|          | VAR15     | λ13    | 0.40        | 0.07           | 5.98    | < .001 | 0.27                    | 0.54 |
|          | VAR4      | λ14    | 0.47        | 0.06           | 8.39    | < .001 | 0.36                    | 0.58 |
|          | VAR12     | λ15    | 0.38        | 0.06           | 6.71    | < .001 | 0.27                    | 0.50 |
| Factor 2 | VAR1      | λ21    | 0.64        | 0.07           | 8.90    | < .001 | 0.50                    | 0.79 |
|          | VAR3      | λ22    | 0.65        | 0.07           | 9.47    | < .001 | 0.52                    | 0.79 |
|          | VAR11     | λ23    | 0.45        | 0.07           | 6.54    | < .001 | 0.32                    | 0.59 |
|          | VAR5      | λ24    | 0.42        | 0.06           | 6.93    | < .001 | 0.30                    | 0.54 |
|          | VAR9      | λ25    | 0.62        | 0.07           | 8.84    | < .001 | 0.48                    | 0.76 |
| Factor 3 | VAR4      | λ31    | 0.49        | 0.07           | 6.69    | < .001 | 0.34                    | 0.63 |
|          | VAR6      | λ32    | 0.66        | 0.06           | 11.14   | < .001 | 0.54                    | 0.78 |
|          | VAR13     | λ33    | 0.61        | 0.06           | 10.95   | < .001 | 0.50                    | 0.72 |
|          | VAR7      | λ34    | 0.67        | 0.06           | 12.11   | < .001 | 0.56                    | 0.78 |
|          | VAR10     | λ35    | 0.60        | 0.06           | 10.26   | < .001 | 0.49                    | 0.72 |

Factor - Item interaction graph (see Fig. 2 is as follows):



**Figure 2: Factor - Item Interaction Graph**

**Independent Samples T-Test:**

Analyses on the original scale showed that it can be used for both mothers and fathers. The independent samples t-test was conducted to determine whether there was a statistical significant difference between the responses of mothers and fathers in terms of "Gender-Neutral Expression", "Gender Expression" and "Gendered Socialization".

No significant difference was found between the scores of mothers (Avg = 3.30, SD = .46) and fathers (Avg = 3.19, SD = .54) in terms of gender-neutral expression ( $t = 1.12, p > .05$ ).

No significant difference was found between the scores of the mothers (Avg = 2.02, SD = .64) and fathers (Avg = 2.12, SD = .60) in terms of gender expression ( $t = -.96, p > .05$ ).

No significant difference was found between the scores of mothers (Avg = 2.91, SD = .68) and fathers (Avg = 2.78, SD = .63) in terms of gendered socialization ( $t = 1.14, p > .05$ ).

In order to make meaningful comparisons between the mother and father groups, results consistent with the original scale were obtained based on the analyses made by taking into account the required measurement invariance.

## CONCLUSION and DISCUSSION

The preschool period is a particularly important developmental period in terms of examining gender and emotional socialization. In this period, the child learns about social figures, social relations and social roles much faster with the advantages of developmental characteristics. As they being to gain the roles attributed by gender in this period, they can express the behaviors expected from their gender by comparing with their own gender and the opposite sex (Seven, 2018). For example, in a study conducted by Brechet with female and male pre-school students in France in 2013, gender stereotypes that students attribute to emotions were investigated. The students were read two stories in which the feelings of anger and sadness were dominant, using both genders, and then the students were asked to draw how the hero in this story felt. While the feeling of anger was better expressed by male and female students in the story with the male protagonist, the feeling of sadness could not be expressed, but the feeling of sadness was better expressed in the story with the female protagonist, and the feeling of anger could not be expressed (Brechet, 2013). According to the results of a master's thesis research conducted by Özdemir in 2006 with 120 children attending preschool institutions in Ankara, children between the ages of 5-6 have gender stereotypes and these stereotypes increase with age (Özdemir, 2006). The emotional reactions of parents are a fruitful reference for young children to express their emotions. Children can learn and interpret emotions in this way (Dix, 1991; Nelson et al., 2012; Patterson, 1980). By seeing and hearing emotional expressions within the family, the child also has the opportunity to evaluate other people's emotional experiences. Therefore, they observe their parents' emotional expressions and internalize the information gained from their observations (Root and Denham, 2010). In a study, adult women stated that when they expressed sadness as children, they were supported and interested by their parents, while adult men stated that their families were punished when they expressed these feelings (Çorapçı, 2012). According to the study of Chaplin et al. (2005), parents may ignore emotions depending on the gender of their children. The results of Morojele's research in 2011 are that parents expect boys to not cry and be tough all the time, seek their rights and never show their emotions. Similar results emerged in Dunn, Kopp, and Brown's studies on emotional socialization of families. According to this research, while girls are taught to solve their problems by talking more, boys are expected to be tougher. In the literature, it is stated that from preschool to middle-school age, children benefit from examining emotional expressions in the family, observing parental responses to their emotions and having emotion-based conversations with their parents (Chan, 2012; Wong et al., 2008).

The acceptability of the Parents' Gendered Emotional Beliefs Scale for Turkish families was tested with validity and reliability analyses and it was subsequently adapted to Turkish. Considering the CFA results, the three-factor structure of the original scale was confirmed in this study as well. Three factors of the scale show good internal consistency and validity. The findings obtained as a result of the reliability analysis are sufficient and within acceptable limits. This indicates that the internal consistency of all sub-factors and the overall scale in the Turkish version of the scale is within a very reliable and acceptable range, and that it is a robust and reliable scale for measuring parents' emotional beliefs based on gender.

From an emotional socialization perspective, parents who support gendered beliefs about emotions likely have strict rules about emotional socialization practices and expressions of emotion within the family, such as that boys should not be emotional and girls should not be aggressive. The relationships between parents' beliefs and parenting practices highlight the potential of the scale for use in measuring the factors underlying parenting decisions and explaining the complex findings in the emotional socialization literature.

No significant difference was found between mothers and fathers in all three factors. Considering the studies in the literature, it is seen that mothers and fathers differ in gendered socialization practices. In studies comparing mothers and fathers within the context of emotional socialization, it was found that fathers did not consider emotional socialization practices as a fatherhood task (Denham & Kochanoff, 2002). Mothers talk more often about emotions and care more about emotions (Fivush et al., 2000). On the other hand, fathers generally encourage less emotional expression (Fuchs & Thelen, 1988; Saarni et al., 1998; Zeman & Garber, 1996) and accept less open expression of negative emotions (Denham & Kochanoff, 2002). This can be explained by the recent shifts in gender stereotypes between men and women. In addition, it was observed in previous studies that mothers and fathers gave common responses in their children's emotional expressions based on their gender. For example, it was observed that mothers and fathers used more emotional words when discussing sad events with their daughters than with their sons (Fivush et al., 2000). Harmony between spouses can also be seen as a factor that produces this result. Considering the sample of this study, it was observed that 131 parents lived together and 5 parents lived separately. Bonney, Kelley, and Levant (1999) emphasized that marital satisfaction is one of the important factors in the father's participation in the child's care. Supporting these results, Wong, McElwain, and Halberstadt (2009) stated that fathers respond negatively to their child's negative emotions in situations such as conflict and ambivalence in marriage.

The study was conducted with parents of children aged 36-72 months. This is because the preschool period is critical for both emotional and sexual role development. When the studies are examined, it is clear that parents' emotion socialization practices and emotional and social competence are interrelated. It is stated that while the emotional and behavioral development of the child interacts positively with supportive emotional socialization approaches, non-supportive emotional socialization approaches affect social and emotional development negatively (Eisenberg et al., 1998). Emotional competence has long-term repercussions on social competence in early and later ages. It is seen that the skills of understanding and regulating emotions contribute to many social areas, including children's adaptation to school (Shields et al., 2001). Denham and Kochanoff (2002) stated that emotional competence in 3- and 4-year-old children affects their social competencies in the same age period and kindergarten time. Yağmurlu and Altan (2010), in their study involving 145 mothers of children aged 4-5 years, stated that mothers' positive emotional socialization approaches had significant effects on the child's emotion regulation skills. Until their school years, children mostly acquire the ability to communicate and regulate their emotions (Denham, 1998). For these reasons, supportive emotional socialization practices of parents are important in terms of facilitating the adaptation of their children to their social environment, affecting their academic success positively, and predicting their social competencies in later life (Denham et al., 2007).

In addition to biological factors, the effect of cognitive factors is also very important in the development of gender roles. In the process of gender role development, children perform gender coding at different levels as a result of their own gender schemes, expectations of the society, and modeling of other individuals of their gender (Bussey & Bandura, 1999). In socio-cultural terms, using adjectives such as "ladylike" for girls and "lion" for boys, gendered linguistic attributes and labeling affect the development of gender roles in children's self-assessment. These effects have a major role in early gender stereotypes (Butler, 2006; Liben, 2004). Parents' gendered perceptions, from the colors of nursery they prepare for their children to the clothes and toys, reflect the gender roles and expectations of parents in their childhood. Throughout life, gender role and responsibility attributions on biological sex continue with the social environment (Connell, 1996; Davis, 2007). Kohlberg stated that at the last stage of gender development, where the effort to adapt to gender stereotypes suitable for cultural influences is observed, the acquisition of gender continuity is formed (Cyphers et al., 2007). Parents, on the other hand, are an important factor in this process with the reinforcements they give to behaviors in accordance with gender stereotypes. In particular, infancy and early childhood should be addressed in studies examining the factors affecting the development of gender role (Kale & Özgün, 2016).

In addition, Stevens et al. (2002) studied single mothers in their research, and found no evidence showing a difference in the sexual identity behaviors of children who grew up without a father in the preschool period from other children. As a result of the research, it was concluded that the sexual role development of preschool children continued even in the absence of the father figure. This situation can be explained by the fact that parents are not the only factor affecting the individual's gender role development and sexual identity acquisition.

The present findings should be interpreted taking into account the limitations of the research. Future research would benefit from further validation of the Parents' Gendered Emotional Beliefs Scale in social examples. The study was conducted on a total of 136 parents (69 mothers and 67 fathers) living in Bahçelievler, Istanbul who had pre-school children aged 36-72 months. Future studies with larger samples will contribute to the literature. The fact that this study, which aims to examine the psychometric properties of parents' gendered emotion beliefs, was carried out only with parents living in the Bahçelievler district of Istanbul can also be seen as a limitation of the study. Our sample in this study was relatively homogeneous in terms of ethnicity and socioeconomic status. Future research will benefit from testing the scale on more heterogeneous samples. The measured gendered emotional beliefs are restricted to the parents of preschool children. The current validity of the Turkish version of the scale is a key that opens the door to examining more subtle developmental and contextual factors in child development. In order to further validate the usefulness of current research that examines the important relationships of gender-related beliefs and emotional socialization, it would be useful to examine the relationship between parents' expressed beliefs and their parenting practices by observing them at home or in a laboratory setting. It will be useful to examine the two-way connections between parents' expectations about their child's gender and the interactions of the child's behavior, as in the study of Lollis and Kuczynski (1997), which investigated the dynamics between interactions and relationships. Future longitudinal studies will be able to detect any causal link.

The Turkish form of the "Parents' Gendered Emotion Beliefs Scale" developed by Thomassin et al. (2019), whose validity and reliability study was conducted for parents with children in pre-school period of 36-72 months and adapted to examine the gendered emotion beliefs of parents, is very useful. The Turkish version of the scale is administered by scoring the items and can be applied immediately without taking the parents' time. The highest score that can be obtained from the adapted scale is 60 and the lowest score is 15. The scale is valid for all parents and can be used regardless of any special circumstances. Therefore, it can be said that the Turkish version of the scale can be used by researchers in studies conducted in Turkish culture to measure parents' emotional beliefs based on gender. It is very important for researchers who want to examine parents' gendered emotion beliefs and the effects of these beliefs to have a safe measurement tool that they can use.

Understanding parents' beliefs about gender and emotion is important, not only to better understand parenting behavior, but also to convey beliefs to children more directly (Harkness & Super 2002). Having a measuring tool will help us understand the role of gender in the emotional socialization and emotional development of children. It is predicted that the Turkish version of the scale in question will help research on the effects of parents' emotional socialization behaviors on children, which can be considered a new topic in Turkish literature, and will provide significant benefits to parenting and emotional socialization.

## RECOMMENDATIONS

The Turkish form of the "Parents' Gendered Emotion Beliefs Scale" is appropriate in clinical and developmental research, educational research, and studies investigating family systems that address the areas of gender, social-emotional development and well-being of children. By developing this scale, it can be used to measure beliefs in other individuals such as teachers and peers. The scale adapted for parents of children aged 36-72 months in this study can be adapted for different age groups in future studies. In the current study, only the parents of children with normal development were studied. In future studies, it is recommended that the parents of children diagnosed with special education are included.

In order to make correct emotional socialization practices and to understand the emotional development of children, it is recommended that educators should be given in-service training and the importance of the concept of emotional socialization in emotional development should be included in teacher training education policies. As a result, it will be possible for educators to inform and support parents about the effect of correct emotional socialization practices. Preschool teachers can be trained on the use of the Parents' Gendered Emotion Beliefs Scale so that they can evaluate the effect of gendered emotion socialization practices and parents' emotion socialization practices, and create the necessary training program and materials.

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