

PRESCHOOLERS' GENDER-TYPING OF SELF AND OTHERS IN FAMILY
CONTEXT

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ABSTRACT

PRESCHOOLERS' GENDER-TYPING OF SELF AND OTHERS IN FAMILY CONTEXT

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The current study aims to examine preschoolers' gender-typing of self and others in the family context. With this aim, three different but complementary studies were conducted. In the first study, mother-child-father triads' gender stereotypes for the child in the family (self-referenced) vs. a random child (other-referenced) were examined via thematic analysis ($N_{triads} = 40$). Participants' answers were grouped under gender-consistent, gender-inconsistent, and gender-neutral themes. Although the content did not change for self-referenced and other-referenced information, Linear Mixed Model analyses revealed that fathers and children are more flexible while they are talking about the child in the family. Those themes were used to develop the *Parents' Gender-stereotypical Beliefs about Children Scale* (PGBC; $N = 597$) in the second study. The factor analyses supported four-factor structure, including masculine behaviors expected from boys, not expected from girls and feminine behaviors expected from girls, not expected from boys. In the third study, four different models were tested via path analyses to examine the predictive role of the PGBC scale, division of chores, and childcare on preschoolers' gender-typing of self and others. Data were collected via home visits ($N_{triads} = 152$). Both parents'

firmer gender-stereotypical beliefs and mothers' higher perceived responsibility in chores predicted less flexibility in gender stereotypical attitudes. Further, fathers' higher responsibility in chores predicted less gender-stereotypical personal interest. The current study contributed to the existing literature by examining personal and attitude differences in children's gender stereotypes and the predictive role of both parents in this process by blending quantitative and qualitative methods.

Keywords: Gender-Typing, Preschoolers, Family Context, Gender-Stereotypes

ÖZ

OKUL ÖNCESİ ÇOCUKLARININ AİLE BAĞLAMINDA KENDİLERİ VE BAŞKALARI İLE İLGİLİ TOPLUMSAL CİNSİYET TİPLEMESİ

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Bu çalışmanın amacı, okul öncesi çocuklarının kendileri ve başkaları ile ilgili toplumsal cinsiyet tiplerini aile bağlamında incelemektir. Bu amaçla üç farklı ancak birbirini tamamlayan çalışma yapılmıştır. İlk çalışmada, anne-çocuk-baba üçlüsünün ailedeki çocuk (kendi ile ilgili) ile rastgele bir çocuk (başkası ile ilgili) için kullandıkları toplumsal cinsiyet kalıpyargıları tematik analizle incelenmiştir ($N_{aileüçlüsü} = 40$). Katılımcıların cevapları toplumsal cinsiyet ile tutarlı, toplumsal cinsiyet ile tutarsız ve nötr temalar altında gruplandırılmıştır. Analiz edilen iki grup için içerik değişmemiştir ancak Doğrusal Karışık Model analizleri, babaların ve çocukların ailedeki çocuk hakkında konuşurken daha esnek olduklarını göstermiştir. Bu temalar ikinci çalışmada *Ebeveynlerin Çocuklarla ilgili Toplumsal Cinsiyet Kalıpyargıları İnançları Ölçeği*'ni (PGBC; $N = 597$) geliştirmek için kullanılmıştır. Faktör analizleri, oğlanlardan beklenen ve kızlardan beklenmeyen eril (erkeksi) özellikler; kızlardan beklenen ve oğlanlardan beklenmeyen dişil (kadınsı) özellikleri içeren dört-faktörlü yapıyı desteklemiştir. Üçüncü çalışmada, geliştirilen bu ölçeğin ve ev işi ile çocuk bakımı paylaşımının çocukların kendileri ve başkaları ile ilgili toplumsal cinsiyet tipleri üzerindeki öngörücü rolü dört farklı modelle test

edilmiştir. Veriler ev ziyaretleriyle toplanmıştır ($N_{aileüçlüsü} = 152$). Hem ebeveynlerin toplumsal cinsiyete dayanan inançlarının yüksek olması hem de annelerin ev işlerinde daha fazla sorumluluk algılaması, çocukların toplumsal cinsiyete dayalı kalıplaşmış tutumlarında daha az esnek olmalarını öngörmüştür. Ayrıca, babaların ev işlerindeki sorumluluğunun artması çocukların toplumsal cinsiyete dayalı kişisel ilgiye daha az sahip olmasını öngörmüştür. Bu çalışma, çocukların toplumsal cinsiyet kalıpyargılarındaki kişisel ilgileri ve tutumları arasındaki farkı ve her iki ebeveynin bu süreçteki öngörücü rolünü nicel ve nitel yöntemleri harmanlayarak incelemiş ve mevcut literatüre katkıda bulunmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Toplumsal Cinsiyet Tiplemesi, Okulöncesi Çocukları, Aile Bağlamı, Toplumsal Cinsiyete Dayanan Kalıpyargılar

To my parents and my brother...

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Overview

In order to organize social life and to spend less energy to interpret what happens around, individuals divide others and themselves into groups based on similar or different features. This division is defined as social categorization in the literature (Krueger, 2001). Gender has been one of the most fundamental social categories which helps individuals to organize both their own behaviors and their other-related impressions (Blakemore, Berenbaum, & Liben, 2009). Beginning from the prenatal period to the end of life, being boy or girl or dividing others as boys or girls continue to influence individuals' status, expectations, attitudes, and preferences in daily life (Maccoby, 1988). On the one hand, categorizing individuals as boys/men and girls/women decrease cognitive effort to predict other-related information and organize their own attitudes (Canal, Garnham, & Oakhill, 2015; Shutts, Banaji, & Spelke, 2010); on the other hand, this type of division has been creating many different inequalities and discrimination in social life (Calasanti & Slevin, 2001; Smith & Hung, 2008).

Gender is traditionally perceived as a binary categorization according to mainstream feminine and masculine roles (Torgrimson & Minson, 2005). This binary view has been widely questioned within the last two decades by social scientists. Despite of the current interrogations of the concept of gender, it continues to be perceived as a binary category by the society. According to the mainstream societal roles, what a girl/woman and boy/man should look like, which clothes they should wear (Haynes, Burts, Dukes, & Cloud, 1993), which activities they should engage in (Cherney & London, 2006), how they should behave in a relationship (Chaplin, Cole, & Zahn-Waxler, 2005), or which occupations they should choose (Wilbourn & Kee, 2010) were determined by the society including parents, media, teachers, peers or

social policies. Since human beings cannot live isolated from the society that they belong to, the expectations of the society based on gender not only influence their attitudes, thoughts, or behaviors towards others but also their own position as girls/women or boys/men in the society. All individuals are expected to obey the assigned gender roles, and cooperative behaviors were rewarded (Bussey & Bandura, 1999). On the other hand, the violated roles are met with some sanctions in the society (Feinman, 1981; Martin, 1995).

Gender and sex are commonly perceived as two different but complementary terms in the literature (Prince, 2005). Previous researchers interchangeably used those two terms in their research. However, recently, “sex” has been used to describe one’s biological sex, while gender has been used for the social roles defined by the society, individuals, or culture for one sex. (Torgrimson & Minson, 2005). In this study, we will specifically use the term "gender" because we focus on the traditional roles that society defines for girls/women and boys/men, rather than the biological and physiological differences between males and females. Although those defined gender roles seem innocent in the short term, they bring along many inequalities and discrimination in the long term. Those gender inequalities and discrimination are crucial for ones’ psychological health (Denton, Prus, & Walters, 2004), well-being (Perry, Harp, & Oser, 2013) and interpersonal relationships (Perrin et al., 2011). Thus, gender is an important social construct to provide individuals equal opportunities in social life and increase their psychological health. Since most of these cognitive schemas are obtained early in life, it is essential to examine how children acquire those gender roles and which mechanisms are influential in the formation of gender related beliefs.

According to Bronfenbrenner’s *Ecological System Theory*, there were nested systems (microsystem, macrosystem, exosystem, macrosystem and chronosystem) that influence the development of children (Bronfenbrenner, 1992). Although Ecological System Theory was not specifically constructed on gender role development, it describes the interaction between the sex of the child and different kinds of social mechanisms in the environment (McHale, Crouter, & Whiteman, 2003). In the Ecological Model where the child and the characteristics of the child is

at the center, family is perceived as one of the closest contexts to the child in the microsystem (Bronfenbrenner, 1977). The effect of family on children's development begins even before birth and is continuous throughout lifespan (Golish, 2000; Mathiesen & Prior, 2006). As the closest environmental context, families' gender related ideologies, experiences and behaviors are influential on children's gender role development (Gaunt, 2006; Halpern & Perry-Jenkins, 2016).

There are a number of studies in the literature which investigate parental effect on children's perception of gender roles. While investigating parents' gender ideology they mostly focused on parents' femininity, masculinity levels (e.g. Işık, 2014) or their sexist attitudes toward men and women (e.g. Halpern & Perry-Jenkins, 2016; Heinze et al., 2017). We speculated that this types of measurements about parents' gender ideologies might result in long shot predictions from parents to children. In addition, even though the impact of division about chores and child care on children's gender role development studied frequently in previous studies, the current study aimed to measure fathers' and mothers' own evaluation on division of chores and child care to reach more robust results and decrease the effect of social desirability.

Parents' and children's interpretation of gender related roles might show differences based on whether they are evaluating themselves, or they are evaluating others (Liben, Bigler, Ruble, Martin, & Powlishta, 2002). Some studies suggested that there might be a causal relationship between generalized cultural beliefs about being a boy or a girl, and gender conceptualization of self. Another body of research failed to find a strong relationship between gender typing of self and others (Liben et al., 2002). The reason for this kind of a discrepancy in results might be due to possible effect of personal interests and relationships. For example, children's Gender Saliency Filters (GSF-tendency to attend gender) might modify their gender schemas with daily experiences. That is, a boy with a higher GSF, would change his schema as "Both girls and boys play with dolls" if he has a strong interest about dolls. On the other hand, boys with a lower GSF, would not need to make gender related reasoning for showing interest about dolls (Coyle & Liben, 2016). Children might be more flexible about gender-stereotypes when they evaluate themselves rather than they do

for others in gender-stereotypic situations. In other words, their judgments change as a factor of different situations, especially when they evaluate cultural expectations for boys or girls. Given the emotional closeness between children and parents, parents are expected to be more flexible in their gender related evaluations, especially if these evaluations are about their own child rather than an average boy or a girl.

To sum up, previous literature on gender development usually focused on adults' views on average children rather than their own, vice versa. In addition, there are only a few studies that aim to explore both children's and their parent views on gender-stereotypes in Turkish Cultural Context. In the current study, we planned to conduct three different studies, including different samples. In the first study, we aimed to see how parents and their children perceive gender-stereotypes, and whether this understanding would change as a factor of self-referenced bias and other-referenced information. In other words, it is examined whether parents' gender-related judgments about their children vs. a random child; and children's similar judgments about themselves vs. a random child, would be different. In addition, with the themes that we obtained from the answers of mothers, fathers, and children, we aimed to develop a scale that measures parents' gender-stereotypical beliefs about children in the second study. In the third study, we aimed to investigate children's gender typing of self and others, considering fathers' and mothers' gender-stereotypical beliefs and gendered behaviors in daily life (e.g., the division of chores and division of child care) by using the newly developed scale within the framework of second study.

1.2. Children's Gender-related Preferences and Behaviors: Similarities & Differences

Although almost all children without any physical or psychological disorder, follow similar developmental pathway in their cognitive, language and emotional abilities, previous research indicated that they have some differences in some of those abilities and their interests in social life based on gender. Whether those differences between boys and girls are resulted from nature or nurture is a controversial issue. Before explaining possible reasons of those differences with biological, social and cognitive theories in the next section, it is important to highlight the differences and

similarities of children based on their gender on the abilities and interest in different areas.

Gender based differences in cognitive abilities and intelligence among children is a subject which have been studied for a long time. Considering the different type of intelligence, some researchers supported the idea that boys/men and girls/women did not show significant differences on any type of intelligence type (Mackintosh, 1996; Toivainen, Papageorgiou, Tosto, & Kovas, 2017). However, others showed that boys perform better on some areas of intelligence including spatial and mathematical tasks (Spinath, Harald Freudenthaler, & Neubauer, 2010), while girls perform better on perceptual speed and verbal ability (van Tetering, de Groot, & Jolles, 2018). Lynn, Allik and Must (2000) indicated that those differences between boys and girls might change based on the age. Different from the intelligence, studies about gender differences in memory indicated more consistent results with children. That is, girls perform better in different kind of memory tasks including management of different strategies, recalling and recognition compared to boys (Halpern & LaMay, 2000). Similarly, as a component of cognitive development, girls were found be more advanced in language development including vocabulary knowledge and language skills in early years of childhood (Bouchard, Trudeau, Sutton, Boudreault, & Deneault, 2009).

Besides from cognitive abilities, intelligence and memory, researchers also interested in gender-based differences of children's achievement on STEM (science, technology, engineering and mathematics). Although girls have better grades in school than boys (Duckworth & Seligman, 2006), it was found that boys perform better on standardized test (Stricker & Ward, 2004) and science related activities or courses (Spelke, 2005). Boys have more positive attitudes towards science, especially in general science and earth science compared to girls. Parallel to these findings, boys were more likely to do college degrees in physics, chemistry, astronomy, and engineering related subjects. On the other hand, girls were more likely to earn college degree in biology, medicine, and social sciences (Osborne, Simon, & Collins, 2003). At this point, it is important to note that positive attitudes towards different areas of science predicted achievement in those areas (Karadağ, 2017). In these terms, the

reasons of boys' more positive attitudes towards science should be also investigated to understand this discrepancy between girls and boys in scientific areas.

The other popular area that the researchers put more emphasis on while conducting research about gender differences and similarities among children is their physical activity level. There is a common belief that boys have physically more active than girls (e.g. Chalabaev, Sarrazin, Fontayne, Boiché, & Clément-Guillotin, 2013; Logue & Harvey, 2010), however studies indicated that the magnitude of this difference might change depending on the developmental process. While relatively small differences in the physical activity level were detected in infancy (Robert Almlí, Ball, & Wheeler, 2001), the differences increased as the children get older depending on the types of activities (Chalabaev et al., 2013). In rough and tumble play, which is a form of physical activity but includes pretend expression of violence or aggression, boys continue to be more active than girls in preschool years (Logue & Harvey, 2010). Boys reported that they perform better on sport-related activities and their parents also believe that boys were better than girls in athletic activities. Gender socialization theories suggested that those kind of beliefs and attitudes of parents and teachers might be result in different kind of treatment to children based on their gender which increase the discrepancy in physical activity level (Fredricks & Eccles, 2005).

Gender differences in emotional development and expression of emotions has been widely studied for a couple of decades. Society tend to believe that women more openly express their emotions, while men usually choose to suppress them (Plant et al., 2000). Expression of those emotions might be shaped by gender-stereotypes (Brody, 2000; McIntyre & Edwards, 2009). Studies indicated that women express more emotions in adulthood, more fear and sadness in school-aged children, less anger throughout preschool years (Brody, 2000; Hess et al., 2000). They smiley and cry more than boys and reading individuals' emotions from their faces easier compared to boys (LaFrance, Hecht, & Paluck, 2003; Van Tilburg, Unterberg, & Vingerhoets, 2002). Boys deliberately suppress their emotions as fear and sadness and less talk about emotions than girls (Aznar & Tenenbaum, 2015; Oransky & Marecek, 2009). On the other hand, girls purposefully hide their disappointment

consistent with the gender-related social norms which suggested that girls should be nice and polite (Chaplin & Aldao, 2013). Therefore, it is crucial to investigate what motivates girls and boys to express some emotions while they choose to suppress others.

Independent from the all contexts as home, school or laboratory settings, gender-related toy and activity preferences have been reported in many different studies. Indeed, these gender-based defined toys might be considered as reflections of adult life to childhood. For example, while toys related to nurturing and care (e.g. dolls and kitchen toys) were mostly linked with girls (Logue & Harvey, 2010), boys were expected to play with more mechanical (e.g. repairment set, cars), military (e.g. guns) and security toys (e.g. fire toy; Auster & Mansbach, 2012) consistent with the societal emphasis on men's physical strength and abilities. The differences in children's interest to toys based on their gender started in toddler years. Around 2 years old, girls were more attracted by dolls, and boys have more interest to mechanical toys as trucks or cars (Jadva, Hines, & Golombok, 2010). Especially after children start to label themselves and others as boy and girls, gender-based differences in toy and activity preferences increase. The gender-based differences in toys and activities are very salient in preschool years. Playing with vehicles, activities that requires cognitive ability as blocks, superhero, games including violence and aggression are the most popular games that boys prefer in this period (Dinella & Weisgram, 2018; Dinella, Weisgram, & Fulcher, 2017). On the other hand, preschool girls favor dolls, pretend play that include household roles, toys related to kitchen, fashion related toys (Dinella et al., 2017; Golden & Jacoby, 2018). For cross gender toys and activities, boys found to be more strict than girls (Skočajić, Radosavljević, Okičić, Janković, & Žeželj, 2019). Children's interest to certain occupations in current and later life are related to those kind of gender-based toys and also parallel to gender-stereotypical professions of adults. That is, girls are more interested in occupations which perceived as feminine in society (e.g. nurse, teacher, fashion designer, interior architecture), while boys have aspired more to masculine occupations which require higher cognitive and mechanical ability, violence or risk-taking behaviors. (Liben et al., 2002; Schuette, Ponton, & Charlton, 2012).

Clarifying the differences and similarities between girls and boys in social life and the gender-related roles in their developmental process is crucial to examine because expectations based on those kinds of differences might result in stereotype threat. According to literature, this phenomenon suggested that individuals' real performance, attitudes or behaviors might be suppressed by gender-stereotypical beliefs in social life (e.g. Miller & Johnston, 2019; Sunny, Taasoobshirazi, Clark, & Marchand, 2017; Walton & Kimmelmeier, 2012). For example, in a study (Retelsdorf, Schwartz, & Asbrock, 2015) researchers tested whether teachers' gender-stereotypical beliefs would change boys' and girls' reading performance with a longitudinal study. They found that teachers' gender-stereotypical beliefs about boys (boys perform worse than girls) in the fifth grade negatively predicted boys' reading performance in the sixth grade. In another study, it was found that both elementary and middle school-age girls' performance in math decreased when the gender-stereotype about the dominance of boys in math was made conspicuous (Muzzatti & Agnoli, 2007). That means that if the individuals internalize those stereotypes or feel threatened by them, they might have a difficulty to show their real behaviors and attitudes. At this point, where the stereotype threat comes from was thought to be another issue to understand children's gender-stereotypical behaviors for themselves and for others. Since family is the closest system to children according to the ecological system theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1992), in the current study, we aimed to investigate parental role on children's gender typing of self and others. Before explaining the role of parents on gender development of children, the next section will clarify the gender development theories mentioned in the literature.

1.3. Gender Development Theories

There are many different theories in the literature which aimed to explain why males and females develop different preferences, attitudes, behaviors or emotional reactions in social life. Although each theory is named differently, they can be grouped under three main themes based on the factors that they used to explain gender development: Biological theories, social theories and cognitive theories.

Differences in biological and physiological development are one of the most popular research areas in the explanation of gender differences. Some researcher

suggested that genes and sex hormones determine children's gender-based abilities, behaviors and preferences. Although sex hormones were present in both males and females, the amount of each hormone show differences based on the biological sex. In the studies conducted in several different countries, it was found that prenatal exposure to higher androgens in females were related to higher interest in male-typed activities, toys or behaviors (Hines, 2011). Evolutionary psychology also adapts biological perspective in explaining differences in gender development. According to evolutionary theorists, reproduction is the main issue for human beings to survive and maintain their existence. Thus, all human beings apply some strategies to reproduce instinctively but those strategies were changed based on biological sex and physical abilities. Since females get pregnant and this situation restrict their physical abilities, in order to have healthy offspring, they are expected to be stay at home and nurture their children. Therefore, they tend to choose more powerful men as their mates, and long-term relationships preferably with one partner (Buss, 1989). This physical restriction is not prevailing for men which make them to spend more time outside and being breadwinner for their family. In comparison to females, they are less selective in their mate selection and prefer to be with more than one partner (Kanazawa, 2003). The desire to have more than one partner increases competition among men. This competition tend to increase men's aggression levels (Buss & Shackelford, 1997; Klasios, 2019).

Social theories focused on the environmental factors (family, media, school, peers) in gender development process. They suggested that differences in children's behaviors, attitudes, abilities and reactions are resulted from exposure of differential treatment (Bandura, 1977) towards boys and girls. In every stage of life, society explain how boys and girls should behave. Therefore, children are reinforced for their gender-consistent behaviors and punished for the gender-inconsistent ones (Bandura & McDonald, 1963; Bussey & Bandura, 1999). For example, since aggressiveness was linked to being boy by the families, they reinforced their sons' aggressive behaviors by paying more attention to them (Lytton & Romney, 1991). Children also learn gender related behaviors by imitating and modeling the individuals around them (e.g. Grace, David, & Ryan, 2008). In a study, conducted in Zimbabwean Primary

School, researchers showed that if girls were read about non-traditional women careers, they would be more likely to have interest in non-traditional occupations after three years compared to girls who were not read that kind of non-traditional careers. That means providing real non-traditional role models in career planning for girls might change their perspectives by showing them other choices (Nhundu, 2007).

Social theories mostly focused on the input coming from the environment but they ignore how children process that information. They handle children as passive agents and underestimate children's cognitive maturity to process gender-related information. However, Kohlberg (1966) suggested that children's gender typing of self and understanding of the gender constancy change their gender-related learning and imitating. Cognitive-oriented approaches see children as active agents while interpreting information coming from the environment. Contrary to social theories, they do not focus on a single factor but address the child's cognitive processes that are intervened with the environmental factors throughout development (Bussey & Bandura, 1999).

As one of the cognitive-oriented theories, Gender Schema Theory proposed that children's internal and intentional desire to understand the world influence their interpretation of the environmental input. They develop gender schemas to organize the world and those gender schemas determine their own behaviors and attitudes towards others. As they exposed to more and more gender-related information from the environment, their gender schemas start to become more complex (Bem, 1981). Martin & Halverson (1981) stated that children have inherent motivation to have cognitive consistency and categorize themselves in a group which help them to organize and regulate their behaviors. As an extension of previous gender schema theories, researchers developed Dual-pathway Gender Schema Theory by putting emphasis on the role of individual differences (Liben et al., 2002). The theory shows the link among children's gender-related interest, attitudes and behaviors. In the *attitudinal pathway model*, researchers proposed that gender-related behaviors predicted by children's gender-related attitudes and gender-stereotypes. For example, if a boy think that trucks are for boys, he would be more likely to play with them while a girl with the same mind prefer to not play with trucks. In the *personal*

pathway model, they suggested that gender-related behaviors, attitudes or stereotypes might be predicted by children's own interest. If a girl has a personal interest in playing football and enjoy while experiencing it, her gender schema might shift from "Football is only for boys" to "Football is both for girls and boys".

Although ecological system theory was not directly constructed on gender development of children, the premises of the theory could be applied to understand how gender roles and gender-stereotypes occur in children's life. According to Bronfenbrenner (1992), there are nested systems (microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, macrosystem, and chronosystem) in ecological model which influence children's development in varying degrees. The microsystem is the closest system which interact with the children's own characteristics and directly influence psychological development. In addition, children's own characteristics as age, temperament and biological sex change how environmental factors interact with children. As one of the components of microsystem, family placed at the center of all those nested systems and have an influence on children's learning and development process (Bronfenbrenner, 1992). Altogether, investigating the role of parents on children's gender typing of self and others is a curial issue in order to understand children's gender development process. In the next section, the role of parents on children's gender role development and gender-stereotypes will be explained.

1.4. The Role of Parents on Children's Gender Role Development

Since children first open their eyes in the family environment, the impact of the parents on the children's developmental process continues throughout life. They help their children to construct their own worldviews by using different strategies implicitly or explicitly (Bronfenbrenner, 1992; Wong, Chen, & Wu, 2010). They are the first powerful source for their children to learn social rules and categories in life. Gender is one of the important social categories that parents' guide their children for their adaptation to social life. Parents' own gender-related ideologies, behaviors, attitudes interact with the children's biological sex and help to construct children's gender schemas and stereotypes (Fagot, Rodgers, & Leinbach, 2000). In the literature, four different strategies that parents use for children's gender development

were defined as channeling or shaping, differential treatment to girls and boys, modeling and direct instruction (Blakemore & Hill, 2008).

Channeling or shaping is the ways that parents tend use for preparing the environment their child will be born into based on the biological sex of the child. This preparation process is an extension of both the gender-related expectations of the society and parents' own gender related ideologies. Even before birth, the names that parents choose for their children show certain differences. For example, studies indicated that in Turkey, names represent emotionality, fragility, rarity, romance or preciousness (e.g. Duygu, Narin, Nazlı, Elmas) were given to females, while names that represents power, strength, honor, pride, heroism or predator (e.g. Yiğit, Güçlü, Onur, Gurur) were given to boys (Doğan, 2011). Once parents know the sex of the child, they start to choose different colors, toys, clothes and activities for their children. In a previous study, Pomerleau, Bolduc, Malcuit and Cossette (1990) found that parents bought vehicles and sports-related tools for boys and dolls and fictional characters to girls more frequently within the first two years of the life. In addition, girls' clothes were found to be mostly pink or multi-colored. More toys related to action, violation, cognitive abilities, sports and vehicles were preferred for boys' room (MacPhee & Prendergast, 2019). Parents, especially fathers, believe that sport activities are financially and ideologically more valuable for boys compared to girls (Heinze et al., 2014), and parental beliefs about sport activities found to be related to children's real interest towards that activities (Fredricks & Eccles, 2005). Similar with activities, as children grow up, parents might ask their children to help and share household responsibilities based on their children's biological sex. While activities such as cooking, cleaning and preparing meals were mostly delegated to daughters (Putnick & Bornstein, 2016), outdoor work and chores were linked to boys, both in Western and Turkish familial context (Evertsson, 2006; İplikçi & Şahin-Acar, 2018).

In addition to creating a gendered environment to children, parents may encourage their sons and daughters to explore different choices, preferences or behaviors by using different socialization skills. Beginning from infancy, desire to play with gender-consistent toys are reacted more positively involving more smiley or touching by parents (Fagot & Hagan, 1991). It was observed that the content of

the conversations between parents and children differed based on gender. Mothers engage in significantly more emotional talk with their children and they are more elaborative compared to fathers. In addition, parents have tendency to make more emotional talk with their daughters than they do their sons. During those emotional conversations, they give more detail about emotions as fear or sadness to their daughters (Adams, Kuebli, Boyle, & Fivush, 1995). Since literature indicated that parental talk about emotions increase children's recognition of their own and others' emotions (Castro, Halberstadt, Lozada, & Craig, 2015), girls might be expected to be more advantageous in terms of emotion socialization than boys. In a recent meta-analysis, on the other hand, no significant differences found between frequency of mothers' emotional talk with sons and with daughters (Aznar & Tenenbaum, 2020). However, it could be criticized because it measured only the verbal communication of children with their mothers, and used a very wide age range for children. Considering the possible gendered nonverbal cues that the parents used while interacting with children on emotional issues, nonverbal differential treatment towards sons and daughters might be leading to different patterns in emotional socialization.

Academic achievement is another area in the literature that parents are thought to make different investments towards girls and boys. Although, the general amount of time parents spend with their daughters and sons did not significantly differ from each other, it was found they apply more activities as reading or teaching letters with their daughters compared to sons. (Baker & Milligan, 2016). However, they think that their daughters will experience more difficulty in mathematics and science than their sons do (Tenenbaum & Leaper, 2003). Given that parents who have firmer stereotypes tend to use more confirming comments about those stereotypes (Endendijk et al., 2014), children's of those parents are expected to become more gender-stereotypic for themselves and for others. Even at age six, for example, girls tend to believe that boys are smarter than girls and to avoid activities that required more intelligence (Bian, Leslie, & Cimpian, 2017).

Parents' reactions to children's aggression show some differences based on gender. Many different studies indicated that boys show higher levels of physical

aggression compared to girls (Lansford et al., 2012). Above and beyond to biological factors as androgen hormones, researchers suggested that parents' differential treatment might be related to gender differences in aggressive behaviors by promoting aggressiveness for boys but not for girls (Lytton & Romney, 1991). While both parents make more explanations about the consequences of their actions and talk about emotions with their daughters (Fivush, 1991), they use more physical punishment (Lytton & Romney, 1991) and more controlling strategies (Endendijk, Groeneveld, Bakermans-Kranenburg, & Mesman, 2016) for their sons. That might result in higher sensitivity and empathy among girls, while more aggressive behavior problems among boys in the coming years by modeling their parents' behaviors (Topçuoğlu, Eisner, & Ribeaud, 2014).

As role models to their children, mothers and fathers show how males and females should behave in the society (e.g. Lytton & Romney, 1991; Wiese & Freund, 2011). Although it is not same in all families, it is known that in many different cultures and families, parents have different responsibilities regarding home and child care (Goldberg, Smith, & Perry-Jenkins, 2012). Literature showed that, regardless of the working status of mothers, they tend to spend more time with their children and regarding various chores compared to fathers (Roopnarine, Lamb, Fouts, & Lewis-Elligan, 2005). Mothers are seen as the primary caregivers who support emotional and physical development of children (Bianchi, Robinson, & Milkie, 2006), and fathers were thought to be in the role of playmates (Grossmann et al., 2002). Observing mothers as primary caregivers and responsible most of the chores in the household settings might make children to discriminate men and women's roles in the society. They might attribute household and child care tasks to women. Whereas in the families that chores are equally shared between mothers and fathers, children are more likely to have flexible attitudes towards gender roles (Fulcher, Sutfin, & Patterson, 2008). In addition, parents' who have defined as traditional in the society based on gender are more likely to have children who are interested in gender based traditional occupations (Barak, Feldman, & Noy, 1991). Since children have tendency to imitate same-gender parents (Perry & Bussey, 1979), absence of same-gender parents might result in more flexibility in gender roles. For example, in a study

by Mandara, Murray and Joyner (2005), researchers compared father absent families with two-parent heterosexual families to examine whether absence of father figure would be resulted in more egalitarian gender role orientations. They found that both girls and boys have more traditional gender role orientations in two-parent families compared to father-absent families.

Although examining direct gender-related messages coming from parents to children is difficult to study because of the measurement and social desirability issues, conversations between parents and children provide some cues about those direct messages that the parents used. Studies indicated that parents use several generic information which include a wide abstract category generalization (e.g. Boys play with cars) while making gender-related conversations with their children (Gelman, Taylor, Nguyen, & Bigler, 2004). By asking questions to children (e.g. Can mommies drive cars?) or confirming their children's gender-consistent sentences (e.g. Yeah, daddies drive cars), parents guide children to acquire gender related stereotypes. Considering how language is important on shaping children's worldview construction suggested by Sapir-Whorf hypothesis (Kay & Kempton, 1984), the frequency and content of those direct messages coming from parents might influence children's gender-related typing of self and others (Liben et al., 2002), which in turns shape their behaviors, interest and attitudes (Bem, 1983) in their future life. It is important to note that parental gender ideology might be effective for their gender-related direct message to children. In a study, Friedman, Leaper and Bigler (2007) investigated mothers' confirming or rejecting messages related to gender-stereotypes while talking about a storybook including gender-consistent and gender-inconsistent behaviors of girls and boys. They also measured mothers' gender-stereotypical attitudes and found that mothers who have more egalitarian thoughts related to girls' and boys' behaviors in social life tend to use more rejecting message about gender-stereotypes during conversations. In another study, implicit gender-stereotypes of mothers were found to be related to mothers' usage of gender labels and evaluative comment but this relationship was not significant for fathers (Endendijk et al., 2014).

1.4.1. Parents' Gender-stereotypical Beliefs about Children

The four types of strategies that parents use during children's gender-related conceptualization of the world, from channeling to direct instructions, goes hand in hand and depend on the parents' own gender-related ideology or stereotypic attitudes in social life. Although many different studies investigated the link between gender ideology of parents and children's gender-stereotypes, the operational definition of those ideologies show some differences. Some of the studies defined this ideology as discriminative attitudes towards males and females (e.g. Halpern & Perry-Jenkins, 2016), while some of them were defined as parents' ratings of themselves on feminine and masculine traits (e.g. Fiese & Skillman, 2000). Since predicting children's gender-stereotypes from parents' gender ideology based on their attitudes towards adults or personal gender role definition is a long shot expectation, literature have some controversial findings from past to today.

Historically, femininity and masculinity have been linked with the traits, interests, attitudes or behaviors that are defined for males and females by the society (Bem, 1981). Individuals who defined their self highly feminine or masculine based on their biological sex are expected to be more traditional and conventional on gender roles in their social life. However, Bem (1974) suggested that there are some other individuals who defined themselves equally masculine and feminine in these two different concepts and those individuals were expected to have more egalitarian attitudes. Considering how feminine and masculine traits of individuals shape their behaviors, attitudes or interest in daily life, it is speculated those traits might linked with their children's gender-stereotypes. In a previous study, for example, researchers investigated mothers' level of femininity and masculinity and its association with children's gender-stereotypic typing of others (Şirvanlı Özen, 1992). However, mothers' femininity and masculinity traits did not predict children's gender typing of others. Different from the children's gender-stereotypes, in another study, Işık (2014) examined whether children's evaluation of gender-consistent, gender-inconsistent and gender-based restriction situations would be predicted by mother's femininity and masculinity levels. Yet, their positive or negative evaluation on different gender-related issues was not significantly predicted by mothers' own traits. Those studies

showed that defining mothers' self as highly feminine or masculine was not related to children's gender typing of others or evaluation on gender-related issues.

In addition to self-rating on femininity and masculinity concepts, the link between parent's attitudes towards men's and women's traditional roles and children's gender-stereotypes were widely investigated in the literature. Mothers' and fathers' gender role attitudes towards others in marriage, work, and social life were asked by using questions related to traditional roles (e.g. A man should help in the house, but housework and child care should be mainly a woman's job; Hoffman & Kloska, 1995) and discriminative attitudes based on biological sex (e.g. Male police officers provide a stronger sense of security than female police officers; Athenstaedt, 2002). Those measurement includes some items related to girls' and boys' gender-related preferences and behaviors but instead of taking those items as a different factor, researches used child and adult items as composite score. We speculated that taking adults and child items together might have yielded inconsistent results. In a study, it was found that parents gender role attitudes were not significantly related to their evaluation about how much their children desire gender-typical toys (Kollmayer, Schultes, Schober, Hodosi, & Spiel, 2018). These results put emphasis on the importance of examining different aspects of gender related attitudes, behaviors or beliefs of parents in order to obtain a better understanding about gender development in family context.

Investigating the predictive role of parents on children's construction of gender roles requires a well-defined definition about which dimension of gender is measured. Parents' femininity and masculinity level, their gender-related discriminative attitudes towards adults and gender-related parental beliefs in child care might be highly related to each other, but they are not exactly the same concepts (Burge, 1981). The possible differences between those concepts might influence the strengths of their predictive role on children's gender-stereotypes. In the current study, we specifically investigated parents' gender-related beliefs about girls and boys. To the best of our knowledge, there are only a few scales which focus on parent's gender-based attitudes or beliefs about children. In a very early research, Burge (1981) developed a scale which measure parents' child rearing attitudes and

beliefs with 28 items, which was dropped to 19 items by Freeman in later years (2007). This scale was used to measure parents' gender-stereotypes in some recent studies (Endendijk et al., 2013), but in the original version, there was no conducted factor analysis so the reliability and validity of the scale were questionable.

A more comprehensive scale was developed by Blakemore and Hill (2008) to measure parental attitudes towards their children's gender-related behaviors. They conducted four different study to construct final version of the scale with five factors including stereotypic toys and activities for girls and boys, chores, education and cross-gender behaviors. Despite of many different dimensions of gender-related preferences or behaviors of children, this scale was designed to measure parents' ratings only for their own children. In addition, parents were asked to evaluate themselves for each item in terms of their feelings from positive to negative. We speculated that parents' evaluation on children's gender-stereotypic behavior might be biased and measuring their positive or negative feelings towards those behaviors might be different from their general gender-stereotypic beliefs about children. In the current study, we aimed to develop a scale which specifically targeted to measure parent's gender related beliefs about girls' and boys' preferences and behaviors in daily life.

1.4.2. Self-Referenced vs. Other-Referenced Information in Gender Role Development

Social psychologists suggested that individuals are more flexible while evaluating their thoughts, behaviors, interests or beliefs. In other words, they tend to portray their actions in a more diverse and flexible manner, while they are more likely to portray others' behaviors in accordance with the stereotypes that they have acquired from the society (Kammer, 1982). Since they have limited information about others' past and more information about themselves, they evaluated others' behaviors as more constant and stereotypic. In addition, making more flexible judgments requires more cognitive effort and most of the people do not want to spend too much energy while making judgment for other people and make quick evaluations by choosing an easy way cognitively (Fiske, 1989; Macrae, Milne, & Bodenhausen, 2019).

Similar with self and others, the extent to which individuals know each other is also important while making decisions about someone. Studies indicated that personal relationship might change people's evaluations about each other (Fiske & Neuberg, 1990). Being a member of a family, defined as one of the social groups in the literature, individuals have emotional ties to each other which result in more memories and information. Those emotional ties and memories might cause people to be willing to spend more cognitive effort while making evaluations about each other, and also to make more flexible attributions about someone who is a member of their family.

In addition to whom we evaluate, the extent to which we make groups salient in the language that we use is also influential for children's learning of gender-related information. Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis claims that how individuals use gender-specific language is effective on the conceptualization of the world (Kay & Kempton, 1984). Similarly, the developmental intergroup theory (Bigler & Liben 2006; 2007) suggested that higher levels of gender role emphasis (such as using gender-specific language, dividing children in an activity based on their gender, and alike) increase stereotyping of children (Bigler, 1995). In a study, Hilliard and Liben (2010) examined whether preschool children's gender-stereotypes would change as a factor of teachers' gender-based behaviors in classroom settings, including usage of gender-specific language. They found that teachers' behaviors that tend to differentiate students based on gender in classroom context (e.g. greeting classroom as "girls and boys") lead higher levels of gender-stereotypes that children used.

To sum up, individuals' interpretations of gender-stereotypes might show differences based on whether they are evaluating themselves, or they are evaluating others in terms of gender roles. Some studies suggested that there might be a causal relationship between generalized cultural beliefs about being a boy or a girl, and gender conceptualization of self; another body of research failed to find a strong relationship between gender typing of others and self (Liben et al., 2002). The reason for this kind of a discrepancy might be due to the personal interests and personal relationships of individuals. For example, children's Gender Salience Filters (GSF-tendency to attend gender) might modify their gender schemas with daily

experiences. Children might be more flexible about gender-stereotypes when they evaluate themselves rather than others in gender-stereotypic situations. In other words, they are expected to make different judgments compared to situations when they think general cultural expectations from girls and boys. Considering the emotional and close relationship between parents and children, it is also expected that parents would be more flexible for their children compared to an average girl or a boy. In the current study, one of the aims concerns this potential judgment difference.

1.4.3. External Factors vs. Internal Factors in Developing Gender Roles

Whether children's behaviors, interests, attitudes or reactions come from nature or nurture is crucial while making research on children's developmental process. While the role of nature and nurture change based on the children's certain characteristics and they interact with each other in many circumstances (Belsky & Pluess, 2009; McCrae et al., 2000), parents' beliefs about the reason of children's behaviors might also effective on children's psychological development. Believing children's behaviors comes from birth and resistant to change might bring different parental practices than believing behaviors of children are learned from the environment. If parents thought that some of the behaviors of children comes from the birth and resistant to change, they might put less importance to real performance or behavior but they make salient the internal factors (Miller, 1995). For example, if a girl failed to pass a math exam, her parents might attribute this failure to her biological sex. That makes them to think that the situation is not changeable and prefer to make less effort to support their daughters in this area. In the situation that parents' thought that this failure is resulted from environmental factors, they might prefer to put more emphasize on performance and spend more time to change situation.

Psychological essentialism is a term that corresponds to certain belief that some social categories arise from birth and depend on natural factors. Those social categories were defined as stable and innate (Prentice & Miller, 2007). Gender essentialism is one of subcategories of this term which suggested that the differences between males and females are innate, genetic and constant. Individuals who have higher essentialist beliefs on gender related issues are expected to be more traditional

in their daily attitudes and behaviors, including parental care and household division (Kray, Howland, Russell, & Jackman, 2017). For instance, fathers' and mothers' gender essentialist beliefs were found to be significant predictors of the amount of time that parents spend with their children. Fathers who have lower essentialist beliefs has higher tendency to involve in child care (Gaunt, 2006). Beside parents' own behaviors, their gender essentialist beliefs were found to be related to their children's gender-typing of self (Meyer & Gelman, 2016). That is, as the parents' gender essentialist beliefs increased, their children tended to become more stereotypic on their toy preferences.

Studies indicated that essentialist beliefs and stereotypes were highly related to each other both for children (Meyer & Gelman, 2016) and adults (Bastian & Haslam, 2006). Individuals who have higher essentialist beliefs believe that all members of a category, such as males or females, have similar traits which in turn increase their stereotyping of in-group and out-group members (Gelman & Taylor, 2000). Considering the link between parents' gender-stereotypical beliefs with their children's gender-stereotypes, we speculated that parents' internal or external justifications for children's behaviors would moderate this relationship. That is, parents' who have higher gender-stereotypical beliefs about children and higher internal justifications would be more likely to have more gender-stereotypic children.

1.4.4. Division of Chores and Child Care at Home Setting

Although it has been dramatically changed from past to today (Altintas & Sullivan, 2017), mothers have still continued to be more responsible for child care and households than fathers (Newkirk, Perry-Jenkins, & Sayer, 2017). With the increase in women's educational and work status, spouses might support the idea that men and women should share chores and parenting equally (Akgül Gök, 2013). However, mothers still report that they tend to make more chores than their spouses do (Geiger, 2016). The traditionality of gender roles in home settings might influence children's gender-related attitudes and behaviors. For example, in a study, children were asked to meet some household items as iron or dishes with "for boys", "for girls" and "for both" categories. The researcher stated that many of the boys who met feminine items with "for boys" category explained those choices with their

experiences in home settings. In addition, they stated they were sorting “feminine” household items into “for boys” category because their fathers make ironing or their fathers clean the houses in their homes (Sullivan, 2019).

Previous studies indicated that children were less gender-stereotypic in the situation that household division shared equally between couples (Fulcher et al., 2008) or mothers engaged in more masculine household in home settings (Serbin, Powlishta, Gulko, Martin, & Lockheed, 1993). Inequality in child care responsibilities found to be linked with children’s gender related information. When fathers are engaged in child care tasks more, their children are less likely to be gender-stereotypic (Turner & Gervai, 1995). In a recent longitudinal study, researchers suggested that children tended to have more gender-stereotypic knowledge when mothers took more responsibility in child care and households. In addition, mothers who showed more traditional behaviors during the first year of their daughters’ life, were more likely to have daughters who showed sympathy towards gender-stereotypic occupations when they were six-years old. However, the study failed to find the link between fathers’ gendered behaviors and children’s gender-stereotypes (Halpern & Perry-Jenkins, 2016).

In some studies, it has been observed that division of child care and households have been studied separately (e.g. Sumontha, Farr, & Patterson, 2017) and taken as a composite score in others (e.g. Halpern & Perry-Jenkins, 2016). However, some recent studies indicated that while chores were clearly separated from each other as feminine, masculine or neutral, this separation was not found for the items related to child care (Doan & Quadlin, 2019). Thus, we speculated that it is important to separate them while examining the link between those concepts and children’s forming gender-stereotypes. In addition, because of the social desirability, it might be more informative to ask the division of child care and chores to both mothers and fathers. In the current study, we specifically aimed to investigate the link between gender-stereotypes of children and both parents’ responsibility level in child care and households.

1.5. Current Study

Previous studies indicated that children can differentiate gender and label themselves as girl and boy around two years old (Zosuls et al., 2009). After three years old, they can clearly describe the behaviors, characteristics or reactions that are traditionally defined for boys/men or girls/women by the society. Studies suggested that preschoolers tend to choose gender-based colors, activities while they can differentiate traditional occupations and objects based on gender (Skočajić et al., 2019; Turner & Gervai, 1995). Thus, preschool year could be considered important for the acquisition of gender-related information and application of those information to social life including attitudes towards others and personal interest to certain toys, activities and occupations. Considering that children's intentional desire to understand the world interact with environmental factors during acquisition of gender roles (Bem, 1983), the salience of messages coming from surrounding factors to the child might be influential for the complexity of the child's gender schemas and stereotypes.

Family as an environmental factor placed in the center of children's developmental process especially in the preschool years. They are known as the first teacher of children about societal issues including gender roles and gender-stereotypes (Bronfenbrenner, 1992; Kochanska, Koenig, Barry, Kim, & Yoon, 2010; Witt, 1997). Thus, their gender-related beliefs about children and their behaviors at home settings might be linked to preschoolers' gender typing of self and others.

In the light of the literature, there are three main aims of the current study:

- 1) To conduct a thematic analysis in order to obtain themes related to children's gender-related behaviors, interests, reactions or attitudes by using both parents' and their preschool children's reports. In addition, to compare whether the frequency of those themes was changed based on self-relevant or other-referenced information.
- 2) To develop a scale which measure parents' gender-stereotypical beliefs about children by using the themes obtained from the first study.
- 3) To examine the link between parents' gender-stereotypical beliefs and children's gender typing of self and others, and to examine the link of

parents' division of child care and chores with children's gender typing of self and others, separately.

With these aims, the hypotheses of the current study are as follows:

- 1) (a) Parents would be more stereotypical if the children's daily behaviors', attitudes or reactions would be asked for random girls or random boys than for their own children. (b) Children would be more stereotypical if the children's daily behaviors', attitudes or reactions would be asked for random girls or random boys than for themselves.
- 2) (a) Parents who have more stereotypical beliefs about children would be more likely to have children who are more gender-stereotypic when evaluating themselves and others. (b) Parents' justifications (internal vs. external factors) about children's gender-stereotypical behaviors, attitudes or reactions would moderate this relationship.
- 3) (a) As the mothers reported more responsibility in child care and chores for themselves or less responsibility for their partners, their children would be expected to be more stereotypical in evaluating themselves and others. (b) Similarly, as the fathers reported less responsibility in child care and chores for themselves or more responsibility for their partners, their children would be expected to be more stereotypical in evaluating themselves and others.

CHAPTER 2

STUDY 1: INTERVIEWS WITH MOTHER-CHILD-FATHER TRIADS

2.1. Aim

In the first study, it was aimed to examine daily preferences and behaviors of preschoolers with the obtained data from parents and children based on the gender of the child. Another goal is to examine whether these preferences and behaviors would show any differences based on the question type as self-referenced or other-referenced information. With these aims, two different but complementary steps were applied. In the first step, researchers did short interviews with six different individuals to elicit semi-structured questions. In the second step, those questions were applied to participants to obtain parents' and children's perception of gender-based preferences and behaviors, and the number of those themes were computed based on the question type.

2.2. Method

2.2.1. Preliminary Study

To determine possible main categories in the semi-structured questions related to gender-stereotypes in family settings, short interviews were made with 6 (2 men, 4 women) different individuals before starting to collect data. Some of those individuals were experts in gender studies, while some of them did not have a particular interest in the given topic. The individuals were asked whether parents made some gender-based discrimination towards their sons and daughters, and requested to define those discriminations by giving specific examples. After discussing their answers, seven different categories were specified as the *division of labor in family settings, toy preferences, friendship, job preferences, and types of clothes/color preferences, daily activities/games, and emotional reactions.*

2.2.2. Main Study

2.2.2.1. Participants

For the first study, 40 families, including 20 mother-daughter-father triads, and 20 mother-son-father triads were recruited from the middle and upper-middle SES background in Ankara. All mother-child-father triads were visited at their homes. The mean ages of the mothers, fathers, and children were found as 35.70 years of age ($SD = 4.08$), 37.62 years of age ($SD = 5.23$), 61.77 months of age ($SD = 5.89$), respectively. 95% of the fathers ($N = 38$) stated their status as “working”, while two of them (5%) reported that they are not working currently. On the other hand, 80% of the mothers ($N = 32$) stated that they are working, eight of them (20%) stated they are not working currently. Fathers reported their education level as 17.5% high school ($N = 7$), 2.5% two-year vocational high school ($N = 1$), 37.5% university ($N = 15$), 30% Master’s degree ($N = 12$), and 12.5% Ph.D. ($N = 5$). Mothers stated their education level as 17.5% high school ($N = 7$), 7.5% two-year vocational high school ($N = 3$), 45% university ($N = 18$), 20% Master’s degree ($N = 8$), and 10% Ph.D. ($N = 4$). The data were collected from married couples and their children who are living in the same house.

2.2.2.2. Measures

2.2.2.2.1. Demographics

Both mothers and fathers were asked to complete a demographic information form. This form includes education levels, chronological ages, and socio-economic status of families (see Appendix B).

2.2.2.2.2. Semi-structured interviews

Interview questions were formed based on literature research (Yağan Güder, 2014) and the result of the preliminary study. Individual semi-structured interviews were conducted with mothers, fathers, and children, and each interview approximately took 10-15 minutes. For 20 (10 for sons, 10 for daughters) mother-child-father triads, questions were specifically tailored per family by using the first name of the child (e.g. given the first name of the child is Ezgi, a question like the following will be asked: “*As Ezgi grows up older, which chores do you expect to take her on and do or which ones do you expect to share with you?*”). The other 20 triads

(10 for sons, 10 for daughters) were given questions without using the first name of the child, instead were asked as for a typical girl or boy (see Appendix C). The interviews were recorded via a digital audio-recorder, and all the interviews were transcribed verbatim. Thematic analysis was conducted for fathers, mothers, and children.

2.2.2.3. Procedure

In the first step, questions about what is expected from girls and boys were constructed (e.g., Which toys do boys usually like or prefer to play within daily life?) for six topics: *the division of labor in family settings, toy preferences, friendship, job preferences, types of clothes/color preferences, daily activities/games*. Then, the adverse version of the same questions was established to get the themes as inconsistent in tune with the gender of the child (e.g. Which toys do boys not like or prefer to play within daily life?). In addition, children's reactions while they are angry and sad were added to the question list for the topic of *emotional reactions*. Also, participants were asked to justify their answers with "Why?" questions to determine which types of reasons they would use for children's preferences and behaviors and whether those themes would be different for self-referenced and other relevant questions.

After semi-structured questions, demographic information sheet, including both mothers' and fathers' age, education, occupation, and socioeconomic statuses, were prepared. Additional questions about the gender and age of the second child were included in the demographic information sheet. The demographic information form was transformed into an online questionnaire format to facilitate the data collection process.

To apply for ethical approval, informed consent (see Appendix A) and debriefing forms were constructed, and the Human Subjects Ethics Committee at Middle East Technical University (METU) approved the first study (see Appendix D). With the ethical permission and informed consent, five different preschools in Ankara were visited, and an announcement related to the study was shared on social media. 40 mother-child-father triads (20 sons and 20 daughters) were recruited for the study. Families were visited at their homes, and mother-child-father triads were

interviewed in a separate room, individually. Children were always interviewed first in a separate suitable room, and mothers and fathers were counterbalanced. After the interviews were completed, parents were given demographic information forms and, children were given two animal stickers. In addition, in order to recruit new potential participants, the snowball technique was used, so the researchers asked parents about their connection with other families, who could fulfill the participation criteria.

2.2.2.4. Analyses

The main aim of the first study is to obtain possible gender-stereotypes in family settings and the reasons that family members submitted for those stereotypes. Thus, all ($N = 40$) audio-recorded interviews collected from participants were transferred to the computer setting and transcribed verbatim in the first step. Since the main themes were determined before based on the literature but the sub-themes were investigated for the current study, responses were analyzed using both the inductive and deductive thematic approach (Braun & Clarke, 2006). At the beginning of the analysis process, all the data were read numerous times, and gender-related behaviors and preferences, and the submitted reasons were determined by taking initial notes. Then, those gender-related behaviors or preferences were grouped regarding whether they shared common issues or not. Brief definitions for each group were made, and definitions were changed if a new and different gender-related behaviors or preferences were added or omitted from the groups. Those behaviors or preferences were assigned to the type of preferences of children (*gender-consistent, gender-inconsistent, and gender-neutral*) and type of reasons for those preferences (*external and internal justifications*). The analysis was ended when the ambiguity in the themes disappeared.

In order to test interrater reliability, all the data were coded by the main researcher in the first step, and 20% of the data (8 mother-child-father triads) were coded by an undergraduate student in the second step. The student was trained for a week, and Intraclass correlation coefficients (ICC) were calculated for each subtheme.

Table 1

Examples for types of children’s preferences and types of justifications for those preferences

Main Themes	Sub-themes	Examples		
Type of daily gender-related preferences of children	Gender-consistent	<i>For boys</i>	“He plays with his cars. It is mostly this kind of toy. I mean, robots, for example...” (Mother). “Boys prefer to play with boys” (Father). “Boys often want to be policemen, soldiers, and footballers” (Father)	
		_____	“He may help to carry the things after shopping” (Father) “She loves to help me while I am cooking, making dessert, collecting the dishwasher” (Mother)	
		<i>For girls</i>	“She may prefer to be a teacher in the future” (Father) “She has got a huge pink devotion and does not like dark blue at all.” (Father)	
		_____	“Sometimes he plays with dolls” (Mother) “He should help cleaning the house” (Father)	
		<i>For boys</i>	“He loves red” (Father) “When I feel sad, I cry” (Child)	
	Gender-inconsistent	_____	“She could be a doctor or a cop” (Mother)	
		<i>For girls</i>	“She plays with cars” (Father) “She likes to play with superheroes” (Father)	
		_____	“	
	Gender-neutral	<i>For both girls and boys</i>	_____	All I want for him is to do what he likes.” (Mother)
			_____	“She should take her responsibility” (Mother) “I like to play both with boys and girls” (Child)

Table 1 (continued)

Main Themes	Sub-themes	Examples
Type of justifications for children's daily preferences or attitudes obtained from family members	External Justifications	<p><i>For both girls and boys</i></p> <p>“We did not buy too many plush toys, except for a few at home. That is why...(he does not like plush toys)” (Mother)</p> <p>“I think it is because of cartoon characters (he was exposed to)” (Father)</p> <p>“It is like we are giving children a social role: You are a girl, or you are a boy!”(Father)</p>
	Internal Justifications	<p><i>For both girls and boys</i></p> <p>“My son seems to be genetically similar to his father (for his preferences).”(Mother)</p> <p>“So, I think to carry instinctive.”(Father)</p> <p>“Probably because, (girls) more civilized.”(Father)</p> <p>“(Because) it is girlish” (Child)</p>

2.3. Results

2.3.1. Results of Thematic Analysis

There were five main key themes in which three of them were related to children's and parents' gender-based preferences and behaviors (*gender-consistent, gender-inconsistent, gender-neutral*) and two of them related to their justifications about those preferences or reactions (*internal justifications & external justifications*) at the beginning of the study. Sub-themes were constructed via inductive thematic approach and submitted under main themes via deductive thematic approach (see Table 1). The intraclass correlations were calculated and the interrater reliability values was found to sufficient for each sub-theme (.969 for gender-consistent themes, .887 for gender-inconsistent themes, .891 for gender-neutral themes, .920 for external, and .856 for internal justifications).

2.3.1.1. Gender-consistent Themes

Children's preferences and behaviors consistent with their gender are the most frequently mentioned main themes by mother-child-father triads in total ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 120, f = 3486$). While family members were asked about preschoolers' preferences and behaviors in daily life, the content of their answers tended to be related to traditional expectations from girls and boys.

Depending on the question included self-referenced or other-referenced information, the answers of the family members showed some similarities in terms of both diversity and content for gender-consistent themes for boys. Choosing activities and occupations that commonly perceived as requiring more cognitive skills and having an interest in mechanical occupations and toys have been the most frequently mentioned sub-theme for self-referenced ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 30, f = 179$) and other-referenced questions ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 30, f = 132$). Preferring to play with boys ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 24, f = 38$), giving aggressive reactions when angry ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 21, f = 70$), like to become physically active, mobile and dynamic ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 18, f = 81$), loving war and violence ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 18, f = 55$), preferring blue and dark blue ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 16, f = 23$), and not preferring pink, purple and red ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 15, f = 26$) are the other most frequently used sub-themes by the family members for self-referenced questions. Similarly, family

members mentioned that a typical boy gives aggressive reactions while angry ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 25, f = 60$), does not prefer pink, purple or red ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 25, f = 42$), prefers blue and dark blue ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 25, f = 40$), prefers games or professions related to safety and lifesaving ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 22, f = 65$), likes to become physically active, mobile and dynamic ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 20, f = 118$), prefers to play with boys ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 20, f = 22$) in general and likes war and violence ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 19, f = 62$).

For the girls, helping chores and like to play with toys related to the household was the most frequently mentioned sub-theme for family members who answered self-referenced ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 29, f = 147$) questions. Reacting calmly while sad ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 29, f = 96$), preferring pink, purple and red ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 25, f = 67$), reacting calmly while angry ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 24, f = 61$), like playing with dolls, ponies and stuffies ($N = 23, f = 65$), like to wear skirt and dress ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 22, f = 56$), and preferring to play with girls in general ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 20, f = 31$), are the other most common gender-consistent answers for the family members who answered to questions for their own child or for themselves. Similarly, for a typical girl, helping chores and like to play with toys related to household ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 29, f = 106$) were found to be most common sub-themes following by preferring pink, purple and red ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 29, f = 100$), reacting calmly while sad ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 29, f = 75$), like to play with dolls, ponies and stuffies ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 28, f = 81$), like to wear skirt and dress ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 22, f = 45$), likes princesses and fancy things ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 22, f = 78$), not choosing activities and occupations that commonly perceived as requiring more cognitive skills and not having interest to mechanical occupations and toys ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 22, f = 73$).

2.3.1.2. Gender-inconsistent Themes

When the parents and children were asked about children's preferences and behaviors in daily life, they used 1454 gender-inconsistent themes in total ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 120$). Nontraditional expectations from girls and boys were evaluated as gender-inconsistent themes.

If the boys' preferences and behaviors in daily life were asked by using self-referenced information, parents and their sons stated that boys should help chores or like to play with toys related to chores ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 28, f = 128$). Reacting calmly while angry ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 28, f = 91$) and sad ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 21, f = 52$), preferring pink, purple and red ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 20, f = 45$), not preferring to wear clothes as suits, bow-tie or tie ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 37, f = 14$), not like to become physically active, mobile and dynamic ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 33, f = 12$), not preferring games or professions related to safety and lifesaving ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 12, f = 24$) are the other most common sub-themes under gender-inconsistent preferences and behaviors of boys for self-referenced questions. Similarly, reacting calmly while sad ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 26, f = 56$), helping chores or like to play with toys related to chores ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 25, f = 88$), preferring pink, purple and red ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 25, f = 88$), reacting calmly while angry ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 11, f = 21$), like to care with animals ($N = 11, f = 21$), not choosing activities and occupations that commonly perceived as requiring more cognitive skills or having interest to mechanical occupations and toys ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 8, f = 23$), not preferring games or professions related to safety and lifesaving ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 14, f = 12$), preferring to play with girls in general ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 5, f = 5$) were most commonly used sub-themes under gender-inconsistent preferences and behaviors in daily life for a typical boy.

In the situation that gender-related questions were asked by using self-referenced information, parents and their daughters stated that girls might give aggressive reactions while angry ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 18, f = 51$), choose activities and occupations that commonly perceived as requiring more cognitive skills or might have interest to mechanical occupations and toys ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 18, f = 35$), prefer to become doctor in future or like to play with toys related to medicine ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 14, f = 27$), like to become physically active, mobile and dynamic ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 14, f = 39$), not help chores or like to play with toys related to chores ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 14, f = 37$), and prefer blue and dark blue ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 11, f = 22$). Similarly, for a typical girl, giving aggressive reactions while angry ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 23, f = 56$) was most commonly mentioned sub-theme followed by choosing activities and occupations that commonly perceived as requiring more

cognitive skills or might have interest to mechanical occupations and toys ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 20, f = 62$), preferring to become doctor in future or like to play with toys related to medicine ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 15, f = 23$), like to become physically active, mobile and dynamic ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 12, f = 28$), not help chores or not like to play with toys related to chores ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 11, f = 20$), and prefer games or professions related to safety and lifesaving ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 10, f = 19$).

2.3.1.3. Gender-neutral Themes

In addition to gender-consistent and gender-inconsistent preferences and behaviors of children in daily life, parents and their children also mentioned some gender-neutral preferences and behaviors that defined as feminine or masculine by society. There were 1810 gender-neutral preferences or attitudes in total ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 120$).

Taking own responsibility ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 25, f = 134$), preferring or not preferring gender-neutral colors ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 20, f = 70$), choosing comfortable clothes ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 20, f = 55$), not discriminate in any behavior or attitudes ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 19, f = 39$), like or not like painting ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 17, f = 42$), not help doing things that may be dangerous and difficult for him ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 16, f = 38$), choose occupations that make him happy or successful ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 12, f = 25$) were most commonly mentioned sub-themes for parents and children who talk about their son or for themselves. Similar sub-themes were obtained from the mother-son-father triads while talking about a typical boy. Preferring or not preferring gender-neutral colors ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 22, f = 41$), not discriminate in any behavior or attitudes ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 21, f = 79$), taking own responsibility ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 20, f = 85$), preferring comfortable clothes ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 17, f = 61$), not help doing things that may be dangerous and difficult for him ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 7, f = 18$), preferring or nor preferring painting ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 5, f = 12$) and choose occupations that make him happy or successful ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 5, f = 8$) were most commonly used sub-themes used o for a typical boy by parents.

For girls, taking own responsibility ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 21, f = 145$), preferring or not preferring gender-neutral colors ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 21, f = 92$), preferring or not preferring painting ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 21, f = 46$), not help doing things that may be

dangerous and difficult for her ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 20, f = 43$), not discriminate in any behavior or attitudes ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 19, f = 23$), choose comfortable clothes ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 16, f = 45$), and choose occupations that make her happy or successful ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 12, f = 43$) were most commonly used sub-themes for the family members who answered the questions for their daughters or their selves. When the questions were asked for typical girls, family members stated that typical girls like or not like gender-neutral colors ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 23, f = 99$), do not discriminate any behavior or attitudes ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 21, f = 80$), should take own responsibility ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 20, f = 93$), not help doing things that may be dangerous and difficult for her ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 15, f = 26$), choose comfortable clothes ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 10, f = 19$), prefer or not prefer painting ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 8, f = 15$), not like to play alone ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 4, f = 18$) and like role-playing ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 4, f = 10$).

2.3.1.4. Internal Justifications

After each question related to preschool children's preferences and behaviors, both parents and their children were asked about the reason for those preferences and behaviors with "Why?" questions. The answers of the family members were gathered under two main themes. If the parents and children stated that children's preferences and behaviors in daily life are because of some internal factors coming from birth and resistance to change, their answers were categorized as internal factors ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 120, f = 1364$).

For the girls and boys, personality ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 27, f = 132$; $N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 28, f = 211$, respectively), being biologically male or female ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 23, f = 103$; $N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 28, f = 151$) were most commonly used internal themes followed by developmental stages ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 18, f = 49$; $N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 18, f = 34$, respectively) for self-referenced questions. Similarly, family members stated that the preferences and behaviors of typical girls and boys due to being biologically male or female ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 26, f = 165$; $N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 27, f = 198$, respectively), personality ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 25, f = 101$; $N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 26, f = 123$, respectively), and developmental stage ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 15, f = 46$; $N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 14, f = 40$, respectively).

2.3.1.5. External Justifications

The last main theme is named as external factors in which parents and children stated that children's preferences and behaviors are shaped in the society or these preferences and behaviors are for the benefit of society or family ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 120, f = 841$)

Participants who answered the question for their own child or for themselves mentioned about the effects of society, school, peers, family, or media ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 25, f = 136; N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 27, f = 119$), family experiences or family's goodness ($N = 25, f = 136; N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 21, f = 41$) following by the reasons related to goodness of children ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 5, f = 5; N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 0, f = 0$) for girls and boys, respectively. Similarly, mother-child-father triads stated that the preferences and behaviors of typical girls and boys were affected by society, school, peers, family, or media ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 24, f = 251; N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 21, f = 225$) and children's preferences and behaviors were for the goodness of society or family ($N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 7, f = 5, N_{\text{totalfamilymember}} = 11, f = 19$).

2.3.2. Comparison of Themes by Groups

After determining the main themes, the frequencies of gender-consistent, gender-inconsistent, and gender-neutral preferences were calculated with the internal and external justifications used by family members for self-referenced and other relevant questions. When the normality of the data was checked for children's preferences used by family members and reasons for those preferences, it was seen that they were normally distributed.

2.3.2.1. Types of Gender-related Preferences and Behaviors

In order to test our first aim related to investigating whether the themes obtained from family members would show differences according to question type including self-referenced or other-referenced information, Linear Mixed Model was run via SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) 23 Software. In the analysis, the dependent variable was the total frequency of each theme used by family members, and independent variables were the type of question (self-referenced and other-referenced questions), type of family members (father, mother, and child) and the type of main themes (gender-consistent, gender-inconsistent, and gender-neutral

themes). Since the lengths of the conversations varied from participant to participant, the total number of words was calculated for each family member and added to the analysis as a control variable with the gender of the child. Family ID (Identification) for each mother-child-father triad was considered as the clustering variable. All independent variables were analyzed as fixed factors because different mother-child-father triads have the same levels for each independent variable. The confidence intervals were used for interpretations of post hoc comparisons for interaction effects. Overlapping confidence intervals indicated an insignificant difference between cells. See Table 2 for detailed descriptive statistic.

Results indicated (see Table 3) that the main effect of question type was not significant, $F(1, 34.389) = 0.665, p = .420$, but the main effects were significant for the type of family member ($F(2, 47.280) = 18.902, p = .000$) and the type of preferences and behaviors of children ($F(2, 38) = 54.530, p = .000$). Mothers used significantly more gender-related preferences and behaviors for preschool children (estimated marginal mean = 21.865) compared to fathers (estimated marginal mean = 18.580, $p = .001$) and children (estimated marginal mean = 15.863, $p = .000$), while fathers used significantly more gender-related preferences and behaviors than their children ($p = .018$). Gender-consistent preferences and behaviors of children (estimated marginal mean = 28.899) were more frequently mentioned by participants compared to gender-inconsistent (estimated marginal mean = 12.125, $p = .000$), and gender-neutral themes (estimated marginal mean = 15.284 $p = .000$). Also, gender-inconsistent preferences and behaviors of children were less frequently mentioned theme than gender-neutral themes ($p = .002$).

When the interactions were investigated between independent variables, it was seen that the interaction between the question type and family member was not significant ($F(2, 37.932) = 0.211, p = .811$). However, the results indicated a significant interaction between question type and type of daily preferences and behaviors of children mentioned by participants, $F(2, 38) = 5.493, p = .008$ (see Figure 1). That is, while answering the self-referenced and other-referenced questions, family members used significantly more gender-consistent themes

Table 2

Descriptive statistics for frequencies of children's gender-related preferences based on independent variables

Question Type	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Range	N
Self-referenced questions	19.109	12.080	0-68	60
Other-referenced questions	18.430	13.194	0-72	60
Family Member				
Mother	21.865	14.483	0-72	40
Father	18.580	12.020	0-60	40
Children	15.863	7.100	0-34	40
Type of preferences				
Gender-consistent	28.899	14.089	7-72	120
Gender-inconsistent	12.125	7.993	0-49	120
Gender-neutral	15.284	8.016	0-38	120

(estimated marginal mean_{self-referenced} = 26.436; estimated marginal mean_{other-referenced} = 31.363) compared to gender-inconsistent themes (estimated marginal mean_{self-referenced} = 13.537; estimated marginal mean_{other-referenced} = 10.713) and gender-neutral themes (estimated marginal mean_{self-referenced} = 17.354 estimated marginal mean_{other-referenced} = 13.213). While gender- inconsistent and gender-neutral themes did not significantly different from each other on other-referenced questions, family members used

Table 3

Parameter estimates for the fixed effects of Linear Mixed Model for preferences of children

	df 1	df 2	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Type of question	1	34.389	0.665	.420
Family member	2	47.280	18.902	.000
Type of preferences	2	38.000	54.530	.000
Type of question x Family member	2	37.932	0.211	.811
Type of question x Type of preferences	2	38.000	5.493	.008
Family member x Type of preferences	4	38.000	6.293	.001
Type of question x Family member x Type of preferences	4	38.000	2.876	.036

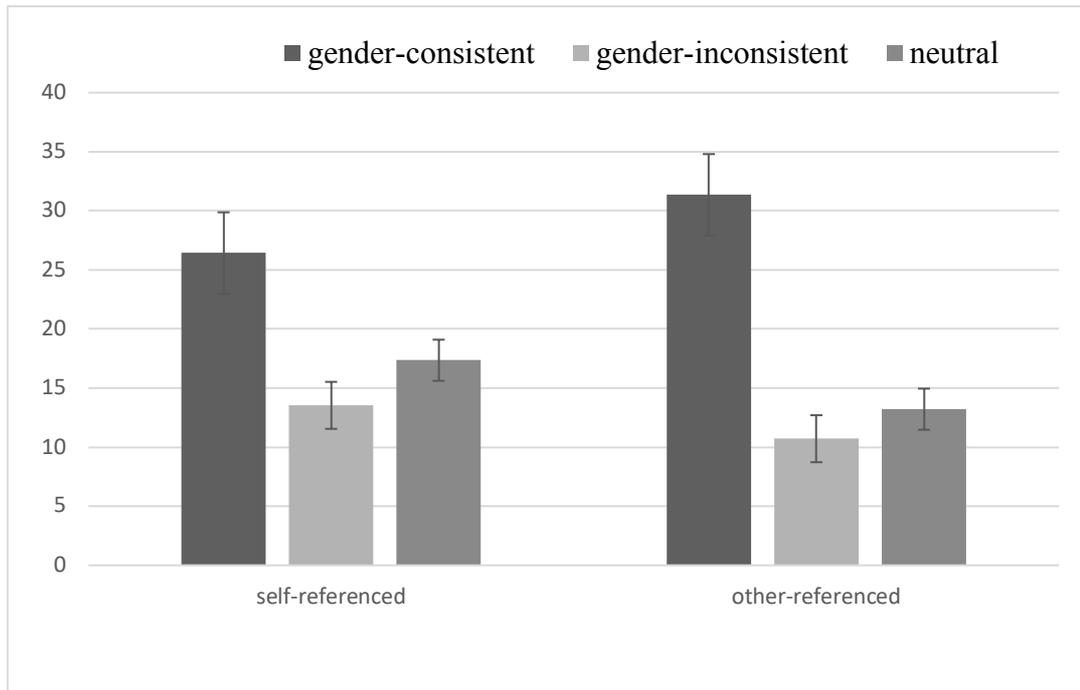


Figure 1. The frequency of gender-consistent, gender-inconsistent, and gender-neutral themes based on question type. Error bars show confidence interval.

significantly more gender-neutral themes than gender-inconsistent themes for self-referenced questions. On the other hand, family members used significantly more gender-neutral preferences and behaviors for self-referenced questions compared to other relevant questions.

The interaction between types of mentioned daily preferences and behaviors, and family members were also found to be significant, $F(4,38) = 6.293, p = .001$ (see Figure 2). Mothers, fathers and children (estimated marginal mean_{mothers} = 34.807; estimated marginal mean_{fathers} = 29.480; estimated marginal mean_{children} = 22.412) used greater number of gender-consistent themes compared to gender-inconsistent (estimated marginal mean_{mothers} = 13.607; estimated marginal mean_{fathers} = 10.930; estimated marginal mean_{children} = 15.330) and gender-neutral themes (estimated marginal mean_{mothers} = 17.182; estimated marginal mean_{fathers} = 15.330; estimated marginal mean_{children} = 13.339). Fathers used significantly more gender-neutral themes than gender-inconsistent themes, but the amount of gender-inconsistent and gender-neutral themes did not significantly differ from each other for mothers and children. Mothers and fathers used significantly more gender-consistent themes than

their children used, while family members did not significantly differ from each other on gender-inconsistent themes. In addition, mothers used significantly more gender-neutral themes than their children, but fathers did not significantly differentiate from mothers and children.

The results indicated significant three-way interactions among question type, family member, and types of mentioned daily preferences and behaviors of children, $F(4,38) = 2.876, p = .036$. There were no significant differences between self-referenced (estimated marginal mean_{mothers} = 32.553; estimated marginal mean_{children} = 21.673) and other-referenced questions (estimated marginal mean_{mothers} = 37.060; estimated marginal mean_{children} = 23.150) for mothers, children on gender-consistent themes. However, fathers used gender-consistent themes less frequently for their children (estimated marginal mean_{fathers} = 25.081) compared to random boys or girls (estimated marginal mean_{fathers} = 33.879). Similarly, no significant differences were found between self-referenced (estimated marginal mean_{mothers} = 15.803; estimated marginal mean_{fathers} = 13.231; estimated marginal mean_{children} = 11.577) and other-referenced questions (estimated marginal mean_{mothers} = 11.410; estimated marginal mean_{fathers} = 8.629; estimated marginal mean_{children} = 12.100) for mothers on gender-inconsistent themes. Children used more gender-neutral themes for self-referenced questions (estimated marginal mean_{self-referenced} = 15.627) compared to other-referenced questions (estimated marginal mean_{other-referenced} = 11.050), but their fathers' (estimated marginal mean_{self-referenced} = 17.53; estimated marginal mean_{other-referenced} = 13.129) and mothers' (estimated marginal mean_{self-referenced} = 18.903; estimated marginal mean_{other-referenced} = 15.460) answers did not significantly differ from each other based on question type. (see Figure 3).

2.3.2.2. Types of Justifications

A second analysis was conducted to investigate whether the reasons used for the preferences of children show differences according to question type, including self-referenced or other-referenced information by following the same procedure with the first analysis. In the analysis, the dependent variable was the total frequency of reasons used by family members in a family, and independent variables were type

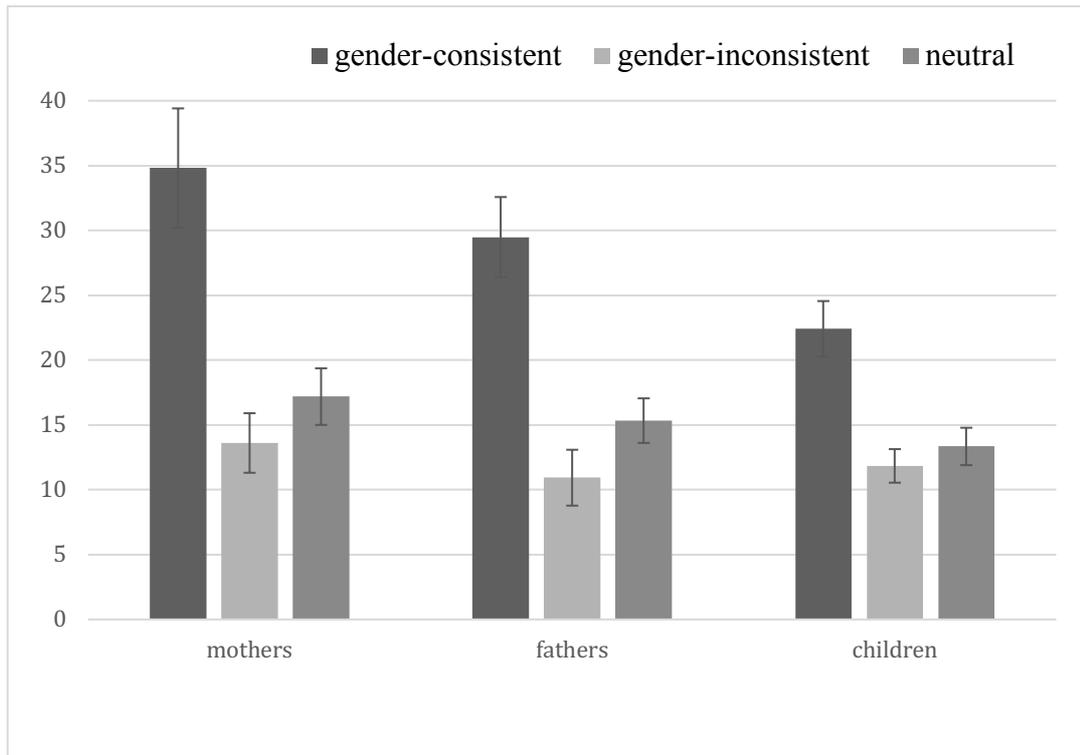


Figure 2. The frequency gender-consistent, gender-inconsistent and gender-neutral themes based on family members. Error bars show confidence interval.

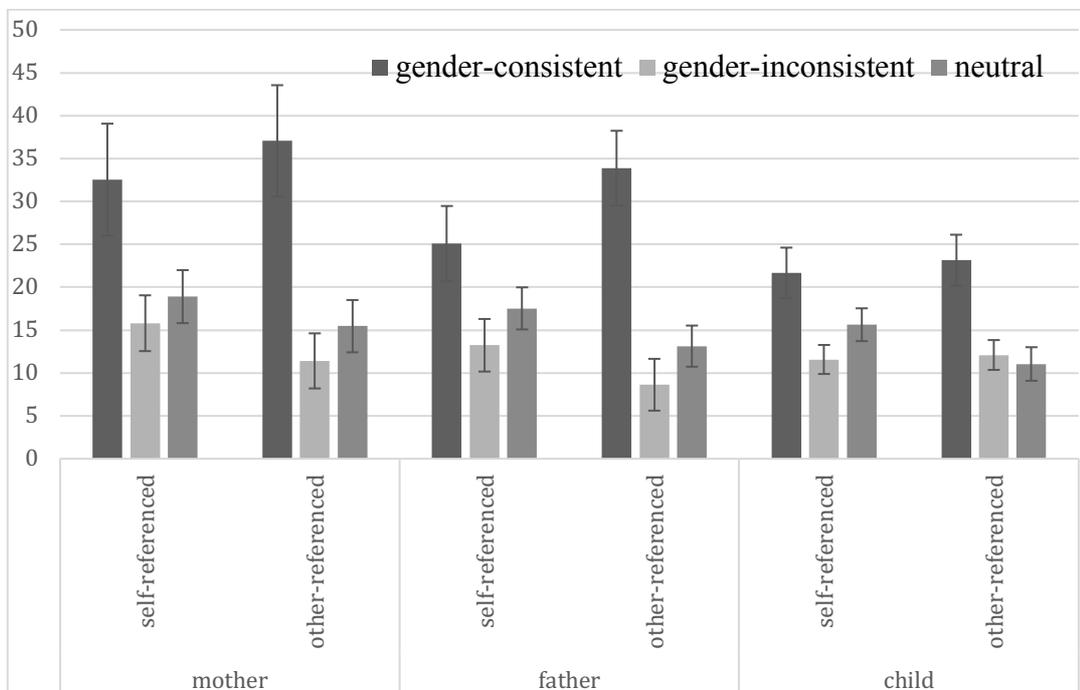


Figure 3. The frequency of gender-consistent, gender-inconsistent, and gender-neutral themes based on family members and question type. Error bars show confidence interval.

of question (self-referenced and other-referenced questions), type of family member (father, mother, and child) and the type of main themes (gender-consistent, gender-inconsistent, and gender-neutral themes). Since the lengths of the conversations varied from participant to participant, the total number of words was calculated for each family member and added to the analysis as a control variable with the gender of the child. All independent variables were analyzed as fixed factors because different mother-child-father triads have the same levels for each independent variable. See Table 4 for detailed statistics.

Results indicated that the main effects of question types ($F(1, 37.353) = 12.346, p = .001$) and types of justifications for children's daily preferences and behaviors ($F(1, 38) = 25.788, p = .000$) were significant (see Table 5). Participants used greater amount of justifications when the question was asked for typical girls and boys (estimated marginal mean = 10.313) compared to self-referenced questions (estimated marginal mean = 8.095, $p = .001$). Family members used more internal justifications (estimated marginal mean = 11.417) than external justifications (estimated marginal mean = 6.992, $p = .000$) for children's preferences. The main effect of family members was not significant, $F(2, 48.383) = 2.574, p = .087$.

When the interaction between the independent variables investigated, it was found that the interaction between question types and types of reasons was not significant, $F(1,38) = 2.930, p = .095$. However, the interaction between question type and family members was found to be significant, $F(2,38.051) = 7.323, p = .002$. For other-referenced questions, mothers (estimated marginal mean_{mothers} = 11.838) used significantly more meaningful justifications for children's preferences and behaviors compared to their children (estimated marginal mean_{children} = 8.325), and fathers (estimated marginal mean_{fathers} = 10.775) did not significantly differ from other family members. There was no significant difference between family members on the number of reasons for-self-referenced questions (estimated marginal mean_{mothers} = 7.793; estimated marginal mean_{fathers} = 8.212; estimated marginal mean_{children} = 8.281). Mothers used significantly more justifications for other children's preferences compared to typical boys/girls, and fathers and children did not significantly differ from each other (see Figure 4). Another significant interaction was found between

the family members and the types of reasons $F(2,38) = 7.713, p = .002$. Although mothers (estimated marginal mean_{mothers} = 8.441) and fathers (estimated marginal mean_{fathers} = 8.469) were not significantly different from each other on external justifications, they used a greater amount of external justifications compared to their children (estimated marginal mean_{children} = 4.066). On the other hand, family members did not differentiate from each other on internal justifications (estimated marginal mean_{mothers} = 11.191; estimated marginal mean_{fathers} = 10.519; estimated marginal mean_{children} = 12.541). Finally, children used more internal justifications than external justifications, and this difference was not found for mothers and fathers (see Figure 5).

Table 4

Descriptive statistics for frequencies of parents' justifications about children's preferences or behaviors based on independent variables

Type of question	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Range	N
Self-referenced questions	8.095	6.487	0-33	60
Other-referenced questions	10.313	7.168	0-38	60
Family member				
Mother	9.816	7.527	0-38	40
Father	9.494	6.162	0-28	40
Children	8.303	5.650	0-22	40
Type of reasons				
External justifications	6.992	7.058	0-38	120
Internal justifications	11.417	5.863	0-33	120

The interaction between question type, family member, and types of reason was also found to be significant, $F(2,38) = 3.319, p = .047$. Mothers and fathers who answered other-referenced questions used more external justifications (estimated marginal mean_{mothers} = 12.063; estimated marginal mean_{fathers} = 11.000) than their children (estimated marginal mean_{children} = 3.475), but there were no significant differences between parents. Family members did not differentiate from each other on internal justifications for other-referenced questions (estimated marginal mean_{mothers} = 11.613; estimated marginal mean_{fathers} = 10.550; estimated marginal mean_{children} = 13.175). In addition, family members did not differentiate from each other on external (estimated marginal mean_{mothers} = 4.818; estimated marginal mean_{fathers} = 5.937; estimated marginal mean_{children} = 4.656) and internal justifications (estimated marginal

Table 5

Parameter estimates for the fixed effects of Linear Mixed Model for parents' justifications

	df 1	df 2	F	p
Type of question	1	37.353	12.346	.001
Family member	2	48.383	2.574	.087
Type of reasons	1	38.000	25.788	.000
Type of question x Family member	2	38.051	7.323	.002
Type of question x Type of justifications	1	38.000	2.930	.095
Family member x Type of justifications	2	38.000	7.713	.002
Type of question x Family member x Type of justifications	4	38.000	3.319	.047

mean_{mothers}= 10.768; estimated marginal mean_{fathers}= 10.487; estimated marginal mean_{children}= 11.906) for self-referenced questions. Children used more internal justifications than external justifications for both self-referenced and other relevant questions, but this significant difference was not found for mothers and fathers.

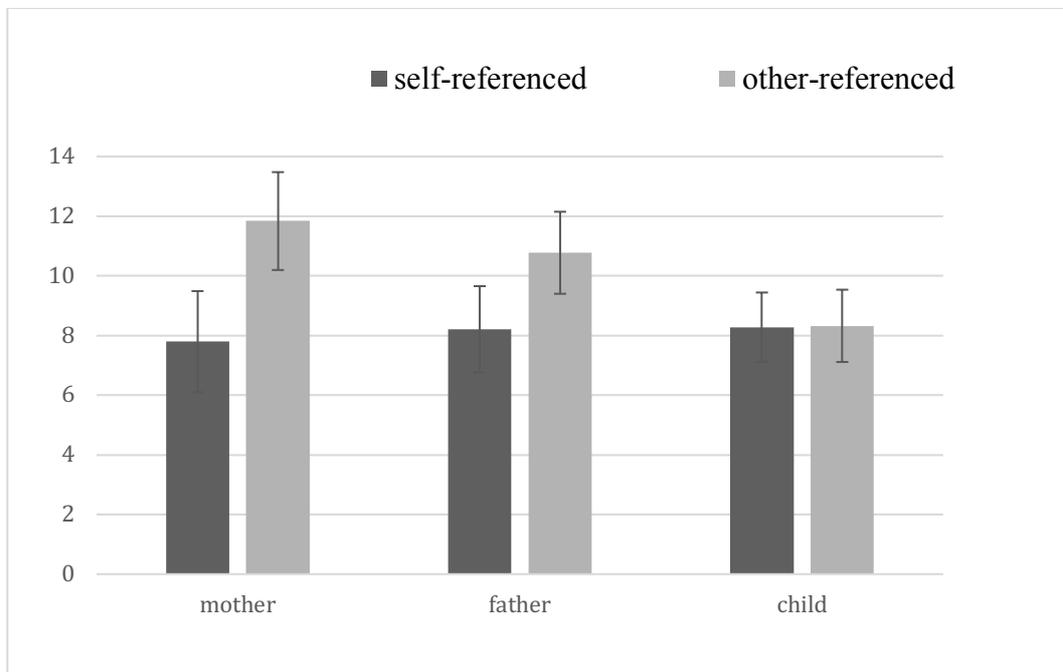


Figure 4. The frequency of meaningful justifications based on question type and family members. Error bars show confidence interval.

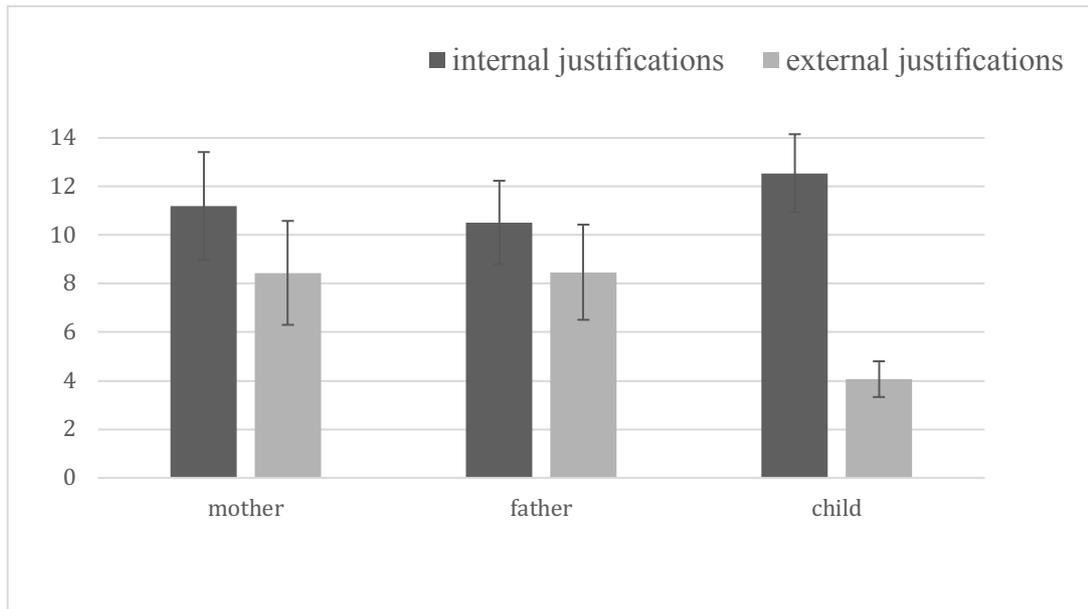


Figure 5. The frequency of external and internal justifications based on family members. Error bars shows confidence interval. Error bars show confidence interval

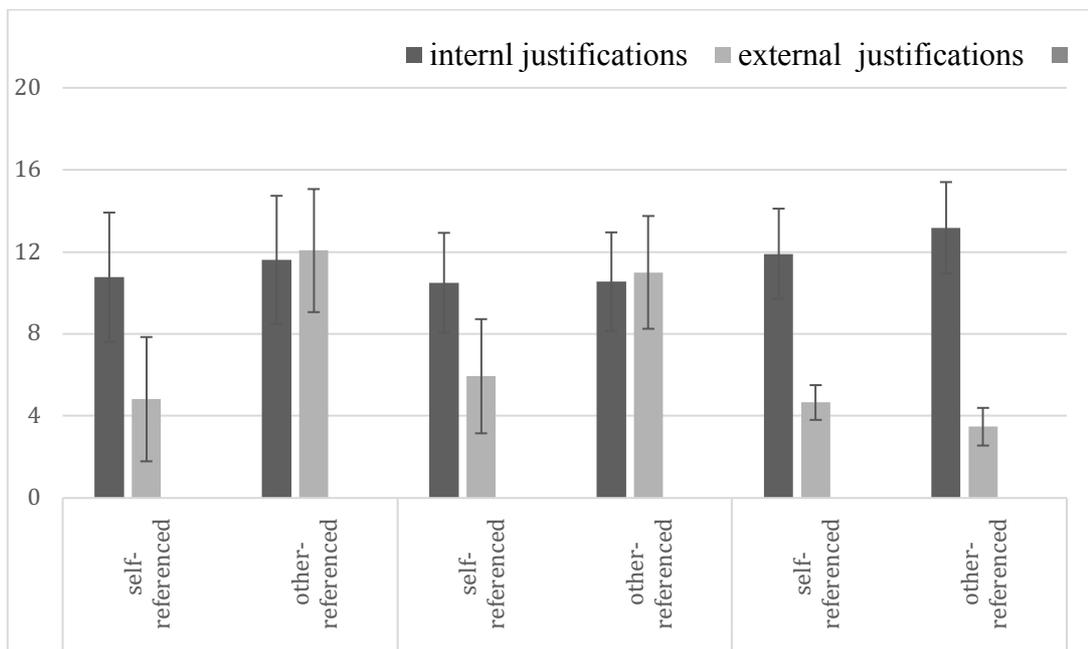


Figure 6. The frequency of external and internal justifications based on family members and question type. Error bars shows confidence interval. Error bars show confidence interval

Finally, mothers used more external justifications for other-referenced questions than they used for self-referenced questions, but this difference was not found for fathers

and children. For internal justifications, there is no significant difference between self-referenced and other-referenced questions for mothers, fathers, and children (see Figure 6).

CHAPTER 3

STUDY 2: DEVELOPMENT OF PARENTS' GENDER-STREOTYPICAL BELIEFS ABOUT CHILDREN SCALE

3.1. Aim

In the first study, parents' and children's gender stereotypes for children were examined. Their answers were grouped under gender-consistent, gender-inconsistent and gender-neutral themes. In the second study, by using those themes, a new scale (*Parents' Gender-stereotypical Beliefs about Children Scale*) was aimed to develop in order to measure parents' gender-stereotypical beliefs about children.

3.2. Method

3.2.1. Participants

For the second study, two different samples were recruited to construct the factor structure of the Parental Gender-stereotypical Beliefs about Children Scale¹. In the first sample, 903 parents were recruited from the middle and upper-middle SES backgrounds. However, 230 participants who filled out less than 80% of the survey and 76 multivariate outliers were excluded from the study. The main analysis was run with 597 participants (54 fathers). Data were collected online, and announcements were made via social media. The mean age of mothers and fathers was 33.994 ($SD = 7.071$) and 36.886 ($SD = 8.549$). 92.6% of the fathers ($N = 50$) stated their status as "working", while four of them (7.4%) reported that they are not working currently. On the other hand, 50.1% of the mothers ($N = 272$) stated that they are working, 271 of them (49.9%) stated they are not working currently. Fathers reported their education level as 14.9% high school ($N = 8$), 9.3% two-year vocational high school ($N = 5$), 53.7% university ($N = 29$), 16.7% Master's degree ($N = 9$), and 5.6% Ph.D.

¹ The first sample was collected from mothers and fathers for the current study. In addition, the data obtained from mothers and fathers recruited for the third study was used as a second sample in the current study to confirm the factor structure of the scale.

($N = 3$). Mothers stated their education level as 21.9% high school ($N = 116$), 18% two-year vocational high school ($N=98$), 44.9% university ($N=244$), 12.5% Master's degree ($N = 68$), and 3.1% Ph.D. ($N = 17$).

In the second sample, 344 parents were recruited from the middle and upper-middle SES backgrounds. Similar to the first sample, 18 participants who filled less than 80 percent of the scale and 20 multivariate outliers were excluded from the study. The analysis was run with 306 participants (153 father). The data was collected paper-pen method. The mean age of mothers and fathers was 35.594 ($SD = 4.115$) and 38.378 ($SD = 4.516$). 96.7% of the fathers ($N = 148$) stated their status as “working”, while five of them (3.3%) reported that they are not working currently. On the other hand, 66.7% of the mothers ($N = 102$) stated that they are working, 51 of them (43.3%) stated they are not working currently. Fathers reported their education level as 20.3% high school ($N = 34$), 9.2% two-year vocational high school ($N=14$), 50.3% university ($N = 77$), 16.3% Master's degree ($N = 25$), and 3.9% Ph.D. ($N = 6$). Mothers stated their education level as 21.6% high school ($N = 33$), 11.1% two-year vocational high school ($N = 17$), 53.6% university ($N=82$), 9.8% Master's degree ($N = 15$), and 3.9% Ph.D. ($N = 6$).

3.2.2. Measures

3.2.2.1. Demographics

In the first and second samples, participants were asked to complete a demographic information form. This form included gender, education, age of participants, and parents' working status (see Appendix B).

3.2.2.2. Parents' Gender-stereotypical Beliefs about Children Scale

The scale was aimed to develop for the current study. In order to investigate factor structure, 61 items were given to either mothers or fathers in the first sample, and with the factor structure obtained from the first study, 34 items were given to the second sample. Participants were asked to evaluate some gender-stereotypes about girls from 0 (Strongly Disagree) to 10 (Strongly Agree). After each item, participants were also asked to state what percentage of girls or boys would fit in this choice or behavior, depending on their attributions to internal or external factors. Higher scores indicate firmer gender-stereotypical beliefs about children (see Appendix E).

3.2.2.3. The Ambivalent Sexism Inventory

In order to obtain convergent validity, mothers' and fathers' sexist attitudes evaluated by using the *Ambivalent Sexism Inventory* (ASI) in the first sample. There are two different types of ASI as for measuring sexist attitudes towards women (Glick & Fiske, 1997; Sakalli-Uğurlu, 2002) and for measuring sexist attitudes towards men (Glick & Fiske, 1999; Sakalli-Uğurlu, 2008). In the first scale that was designed to measure these related attitudes for women, there are 22 items under two subscales as *Hostile Sexism* and *Benevolent Sexism*. On the other scale, designed to measure the same attitudes towards men, there are 19 items under two subscales as *Hostile Sexism* and *Benevolent Sexism*. Items will be rated from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). Higher scores mean higher sexist attitudes towards men and women (see Appendix F).

3.2.3. Procedure

An item pool was created by using the results of the first study in the first step. Each item was discussed carefully, and the opinions of the experts in the field were asked. After removing similar items and completing incomplete concepts by adding new items, 61 gender-stereotypical items for girls and boys (32 items for boys) were obtained in the final version of the measurement.

Ethical permissions were taken from Human Subjects Ethics Committee at METU with the necessary forms (see Appendix D). The study announcement has been made via widely used online platforms (e.g., Facebook). The data of the study were collected online with Qualtrics software on the internet. All participants approved the voluntary participation forms before they started (see Appendix A). The duration of the study for each participant varies between 45-60 minutes. The data of the study were analyzed using SPSS 23 statistical software. Data were collected from either mothers or fathers.

Firstly, an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted with the first sample. However, since the second sample did not support the factor structure of the first data, another EFA was conducted with the second data to see shared and problematic items between the two samples. After establishing the shared and problematic items with two different data,

the new factor structure was tested via CFA in the first and second samples, separately. Reliability and validity scores were calculated for the new factor structure.

3.3. Results

3.3.1. Results of the First Factor Structure

3.3.1.1. Initial Assessments

Before the exploratory factor analysis, the first data were prepared for analysis. First of all, 270 participants who completed less than 80 percent of the whole survey were excluded from the data. An expectation-maximization algorithm was applied to deal with missing values. In the remaining 673 participants, multivariate outliers were checked and based on the results, 76 participants were removed from the data set. The analysis was run with 597 participants. Multicollinearity between items was controlled.

3.3.1.2. Exploratory Factor Analysis

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was applied to determine the factor structure of the *Parents' Gender-stereotypical Beliefs about Children Scale* (PGBC). In the first step, the suitability of the data set for factor analysis was tested (Worthington and Whittaker, 2006). The results indicated that the scale was suitable for factor analysis with the Kaiser-Meyen-Olkin (KMO) value of .968, and Bartlett Sphericity test ($\chi^2 = 190460.004, p < .001$).

In order to determine the most relevant factor structure, three different steps were followed by the researchers. In the first step, the principal component analysis was run without any rotation or extraction in order to evaluate the initial factor structure of the scale. The results indicated eight factors solution with eigenvalues above 1 and explained 56.119% of the total variance. The first factor explained 35.089% of the total variance, while the second, third, and fourth factors explained 5.491%, 3.885%, and 3.371%, respectively. Each of the remaining four factors explained the variance below 2.687%. In the second step, the scree plot was investigated. The scree-plot graph did not support nine factors with eigenvalue above 1, but it indicated that a three or four-factor structure might be more suitable for the data set.

As a third step, a parallel analysis (Horn, 1965), which allows making comparisons between eigenvalues from the real data set and randomly created data set, was run. The criteria used to determine the number of factors is that eigenvalues obtained from the randomly generated data sets should be smaller than the eigenvalue obtained from the original data set. In the current study, the parallel analysis was performed using the basic components method, creating 5000 parallel random data sets. According to the results, the average eigenvalue of the first five factors was found to be less than the eigenvalues obtained from the original data set. Thus, parallel analysis supported the five-factor solution. However, the difference between the eigenvalue in the real data set of the fifth factor and the average eigenvalue parameters in the generated data was very small. This suggested that the four-factor structure might be among the possible solutions.

Considering the results of all three methods, it was decided to compare the results by running four-factor solutions². Since it was expected that factors would be correlated with each other, the oblique rotation was applied, and the factor loadings below .40 were suppressed (Brown, 2015). Four-factor solution explained 44.211% of the variance. 16 items did not load to any factor, and eight items were cross-loaded; thus, another factor analysis was run with 37 items after eliminating those items. 45.052% of the variance explained by the results of the new analysis. All factors were conceptually discussed, and three items did not fit the conceptual meaning of the factors that they belonged to. After eliminating conceptually incompatible three items, the final four-factor solution explained 45.471% of the variance with 34 items in total. The first factor included 14 items, and the second, third, and fourth factors included 11, 5, and 4 items, respectively. In the first and third factor, there are masculine behaviors expected from boys (Factor 1) and feminine behaviors expected from girls (Factor 3), while there are there are masculine behaviors not be expected from boys (Factor 4) and feminine behaviors not expected from girls (Factor 2) in the second and fourth factors. Taken together, all materials were conceptually placed in

² The five-factor solution was tested before-four factor solution as parallel analysis suggested. It explained 48.66% of the total variance with 24 items. First, second, third, fourth and fifth factor included 3, 10, 3, 4, and 4 items, respectively. However, fifth factor cannot be separated from other factors clearly and cannot provide a semantic integrity. Thus, it was decided to perform four factor solution.

the factors, and semantic integrity between items was provided. Explained variance and eigenvalues of each factor and loadings are presented in Table 6.³

3.3.1.3. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

In order to test the suitability of the four-factor structure with 34 items obtained from the Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) in the first data set, Confirmatory Factor Analysis was performed with the first and second data. The model was tested via AMOS (Analysis of a Moment Structures) software version 22. Chi-square divided by degrees of freedom, Goodness of Fit (GFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) and Standardized Root Mean Residual (SRMR) were used to test fit indices of the four-factor solution.

In the first data, the initial fit indices of the model was found as χ^2 (521, $N = 597$) = 1340.762, $p < .001$; $\chi^2/df = 2.573$; RMSEA = .051, 90% CI = [.048, .055]; GFI = .871, CFI = .907, SRMR = .049. When the fit indices were examined individually, chi-square divided by degrees of freedom, RMSEA, and SRMR indicated a good fit with the model. Cut-off for RMSEA and SRMR was .08, and values closer to 0 represents a good fit in the literature, while chi-square divided by degrees of freedom were expected to be smaller than five (Meydan & Şeşen, 2015). In addition, a CFI value greater than .90 is evaluated as an acceptable fit (Bentler, 1990). Although GFI was not greater than .90 cut-off (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; Joreskog & Sorbom, 1984), the indices were thought to be adequate fit by considering the results of Chi-square divided by degrees of freedom, RMSEA, and SRMR. The standardized factor loadings in the four-factor solution ranged from .372 to .782.

In order to test the suitability of *Parents' Gender-stereotypical Beliefs about Children Scale's* four-factor structure with 34 items, second confirmatory factor analysis was performed with the second sample ($N = 306$). The initial fit indices of the model were found as χ^2 (521, $N = 310$) = 1922.039, $p < .001$; $\chi^2/df = 3.689$; RMSEA = .084, 90% CI = [.089, .098]; GFI = .671, CFI = .749, SRMR = .074. Although the Chi-square divided by degrees of freedom, RMSEA, and SRMR values

³ Since the data included only 54 fathers, the four-factor solution was also tested with 543 mothers. Removing fathers from the data set did not changed the results. The four-factor solution explained 45.896% of the total variance with the same items in each factors in the data set including only mothers.

indicated that the model was marginal to be acceptable, the other fit indices were below the cut-off for a good fit. Thus, the model was not supported by the second sample based on the model fit indices. After consulting with an expert working in the field of statistics, in order to detect problematic items and get a better fit for factor structure, it was suggested that another EFA could be conducted with the samples.

3.3.4. Results of the Second Factor Structure

3.3.4.1. Exploratory Factor Analysis

In order to see possible problematic and shared items in the obtained factor structure, a new EFA was conducted with the 34 items in the second sample. The data

Table 6

Factor loadings of Parents' Gender-stereotypical Beliefs about Children Scale

Items of the Scale	Factor Loadings			
	1	2	3	4
1 Boys are considerably successful/ talented in activities that require cognitive effort (such as chess or memory games).	.757			
2 Boys are curious to discover and explore.	.741			
3 Boys prefer toys such as puzzles or memory games in which they can show their intelligence.	.752			
4 Boys like activities that require numerical effort (such as mathematics).	.656			
5 Boys like race and competition.	.630			
6 Boys are physically active and prefer mobile games or activities.	.575			
7 Boys have an interest in areas such as engineering, construction, and mining and are successful in these areas.	.588			
8 Boys have dominant characters. /	.524			
9 Boys have an interest in professions that require mechanical knowledge, such as car mechanic, piloting, or chauffeuring.	.547			
10 Boys tend to be leaders, or they want to be leaders in their environment.	.552			
11 Boys have too much interest in mechanical toys (such as robots and cars).	.531			
12 Boys are curious to play with dinosaurs and dragons.	.545			

Table 6 (continued)

Items of the Scale	Factor Loadings			
	1	2	3	4
13 Boys want to do things like shopping for the home, carrying/ moving heavy goods, or washing cars, and they are capable of that.	.518			
14 Boys tend to choose occupations such as policing, firefighting, or military service.	.498			
15 Girls do not prefer mechanical toys (such as robots and cars).		.685		
16 Girls have no interest in occupations that require cognitive effort and numerical ability (such as engineering, astronautics, piloting).		.580		
17 Girls are uninterested in professions that require mechanical knowledge, such as car mechanic, piloting, or chauffeuring.		.707		
18 Girls do not much prefer professions related to saving lives or being heroes (such as policing, military service, or firefighting).		.558		
19 Girls do not enjoy activities that require physical effort (such as football or basketball) very much.		.598		
20 Girls do not like to play with dinosaurs or dragons.		.614		
21 Girls are not attracted to blue and its shades.		.522		
22 Girls do not prefer games that require physical or cognitive competition.		.526		
23 Girls avoid games involving war or weapons.		.573		
24 Girls rarely succeed in games or professions based on power and physical effort.		.475		
25 Girls are interested in repairing or toys that are related to repairing.		-.448		
26 Girls are compassionate and caring for humans and animals.			-.621	
27 Girls have a high ability to understand others' feelings.			-.611	
28 Girls' communication skills are strong.			-.580	
29 Girls are emotional.			-.525	
30 Girls are nurturing.			-.485	
31 Boys have difficulty understanding others' feelings.				.600

Table 6 (continued)

Items of the Scale	Factor Loadings			
	1	2	3	4
32 Boys are not compassionate.				.620
33 Boys' communication skills are not strong.				.586
34 Boys are not nurturing/emotional.				.473
Explained Variance	32.427	6.396	3.945	2.704
Eigenvalues	11.025	2.175	1.341	0.919

Note. 1 = Masculine behaviors expected from boys, 2 = Masculine behaviors not expected from girls, 3 = Feminine behaviors expected from girls, 4 = Masculine behaviors not expected from boys.

was found to be suitable to factor analysis (KMO = .903, Bartlett Sphericity test $\chi^2 = 5907.499$, $p < .001$). Considering the results of the first sample, it was decided to compare the results by running four-factor solutions. Oblique rotation was applied, and the factor loadings below .40 were suppressed (Brown, 2015). Four-factor solution explained 49.681% of the variance. Two items did not load to any factor, and two items were cross-loaded; thus, another factor analysis was run with 30 items, after eliminating those items. 52.415% of the variance explained by the results of the new analysis. All factors were conceptually discussed, and it was found that five items did not fit the conceptual meaning of the factors that they belong to. After eliminating conceptually incompatible five items, the final four-factor solution explained 55.061% of the variance with 25 items in total. The first factor included 7 items, and the second, third, and fourth factors included 9, 5, and 4 items, respectively. In the first and third factor, there are masculine behaviors expected from boys (Factor 1) and feminine behaviors expected from girls (Factor 3), while there are there are masculine behaviors not be expected from boys (Factor 4) and feminine behaviors not expected from girls (Factor 2) in the second and fourth factors. Taken together, all materials were conceptually placed in the factors, and semantic integrity between items was provided.

A second EFA was conducted with the first sample, in order to see whether the items obtained from the second study will load clearly to four-factor. The results indicated that the four-factor structure with 25 items explained 45.863% of the total variance, and all the items were clearly separated from each other. Explained variance

and eigenvalues of each factor and loadings with two different samples are presented in Table 7.

3.3.4.2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

After eliminating problematic items, a new four-factor structure was tested via CFA in both the first and second samples. In the first sample with 657 (54 fathers) participants, the initial fit indices of the model were found as $\chi^2 (269, N = 597) = 706.383, p < .001; \chi^2/df = 2.626; RMSEA = .052, 90\% CI = [.048, .057]; GFI = .871, CFI = .908, SRMR = .050$. Since chi-square divided by degrees of freedom was smaller than five, RMSEA and SRMR were smaller than .05, CFI was greater than .

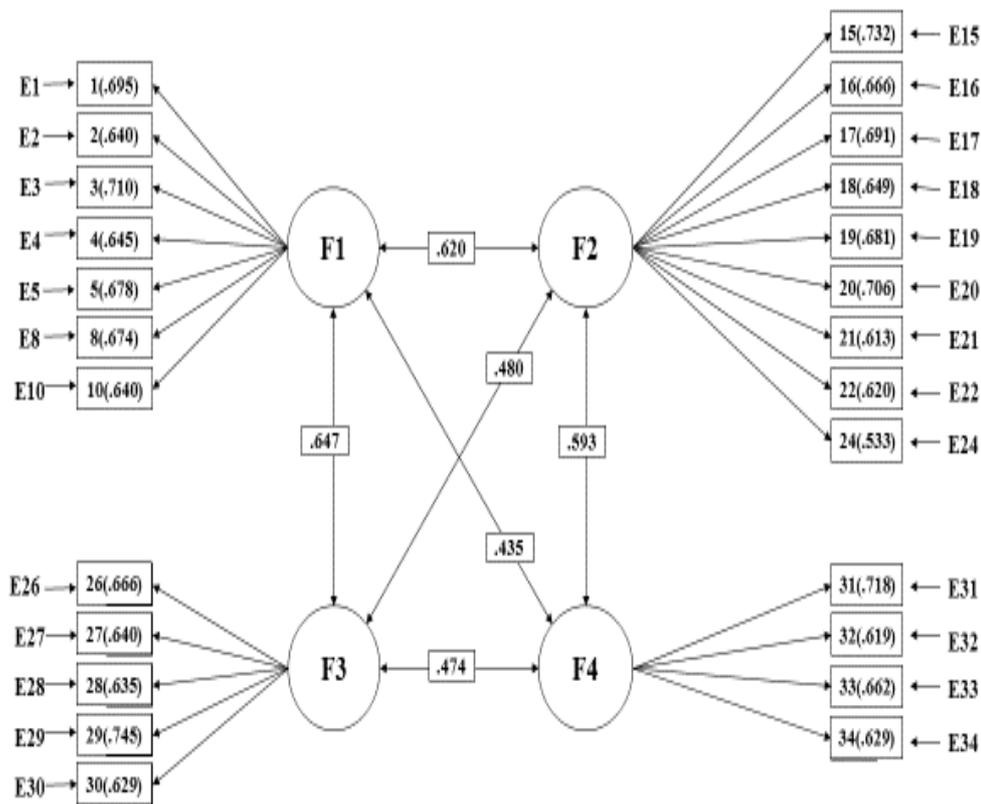


Figure 7. CFA results of Parents' Gender-stereotypical Beliefs about Children Scale in the first sample. All standardized loadings were significant, $p < .05$. E1-E42 refers to error variance. F1 = Masculine behaviors expected from boys, F2 = Masculine behaviors not expected from girls, F3 = Feminine behaviors expected from girls, F4 = Feminine behaviors not expected from boys.

90, and GFI was greater than .85, the indices were thought to be a good fit for the first data. The standardized factor loadings in the four-factor solution ranged from .533 to .745 (see Figure 7).

In the second data with 306 participants (153 mothers), CFA results indicated the initial fit indices as $\chi^2(269, N = 310) = 917.272, p < .001; \chi^2/df = 3.410; RMSEA = .089, 90\% CI = [.083, .095]; GFI = .794, CFI = .843, SRMR = .076$. Since fit indices were below to cut-off for acceptable fit, model modification indices of the second sample were investigated to have better fitting. Three modification indices were applied between error covariance of six items due to semantic similarity between modified items and possible shared common sources of error variance. The pairs are

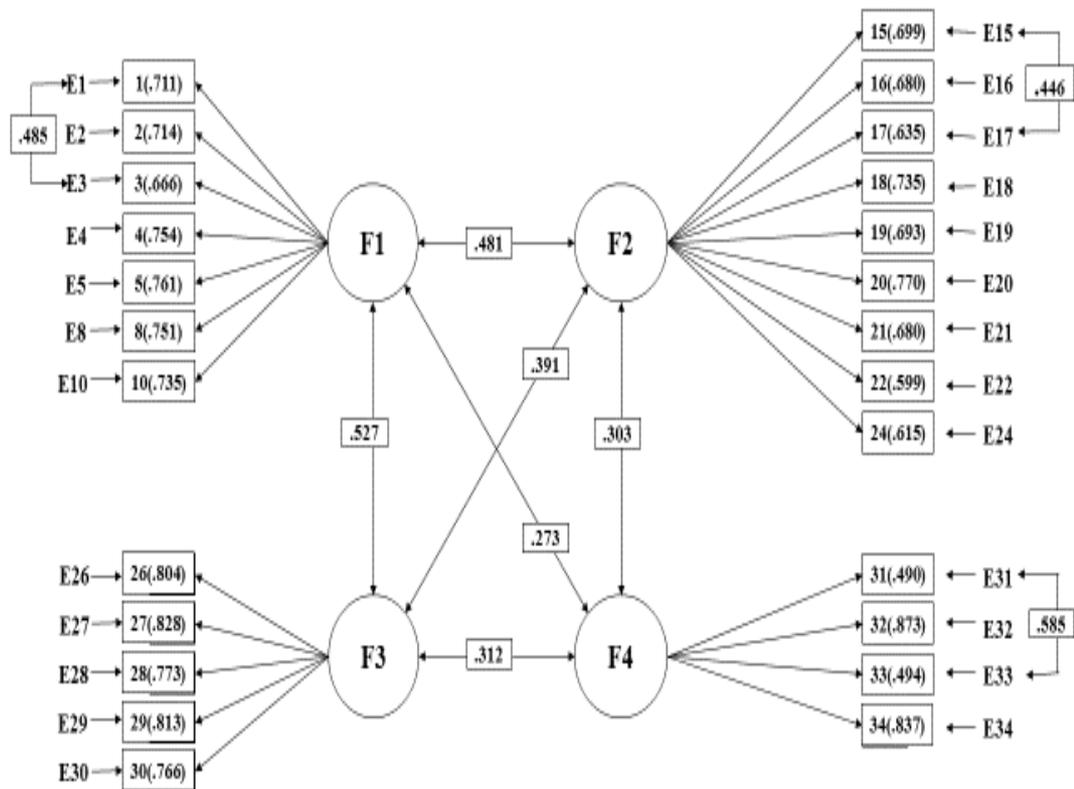


Figure 8. CFA results of Parents' Gender-stereotypical Beliefs about Children Scale in the second sample. All standardized loadings were significant, $p < .05$. E1-E42 refers to error variance. F1 = Masculine behaviors expected from boys, F2 = Masculine behaviors not expected from girls, F3 = Feminine behaviors expected from girls, F4 = Feminine behaviors not expected from boys.

Table 7

Final factor loadings of Parents' Gender-stereotypical Beliefs about Children Scale with first and second sample

		Factor Loadings of the First Sample				Factor Loadings of the Second Sample			
		1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
1	Boys are considerably successful/talented in activities that require cognitive effort (such as chess or memory games)	.760				-.811			
2	Boys are curious to discover and explore.	.668				-.691			
3	Boys prefer toys such as puzzles or memory games in which they can show their intelligence.	.760				-.815			
4	Boys like activities that require numerical effort (such as mathematics).	.674				-.801			
5	Boys are physically active and prefer mobile games or activities.	.514				-.614			
8	Boys have dominant characters.	.488				-.552			
10	Boys tend to be leaders, or they want to be leaders in their environment.	.477				-.579			
15	Girls do not prefer mechanical toys (such as robots and cars).		.694				.762		
16	Girls have no interest in occupations that require cognitive effort and numerical ability (such as engineering, astronautics, piloting).		.634				.621		

Table 7 (continued)

		Factor Loadings of the First Sample				Factor Loadings of the Second Sample			
		1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
17	Girls are uninterested in professions that require mechanical knowledge, such as car mechanic, piloting, or chauffeuring		.717				.696		
18	Girls do not much prefer professions related to saving lives or being heroes (such as policing, military service, or firefighting).		.598				.726		
19	Girls do not enjoy activities that require physical effort (such as football or basketball) very much.		.658				.692		
59	20	Girls do not like to play with dinosaurs or dragons.		.653			.793		
	21	Girls are not attracted to blue and its shades.		.568			.671		
	22	Girls do not prefer games that require physical or cognitive competition.		.582			.512		
	24	Girls rarely succeed in games or professions based on power and physical effort.		.528			.528		
	26	Girls are compassionate and caring for humans and animals.			.680			.810	
	27	Girls have a high ability to understand others' feelings.			.656			.821	

Table 7 (continued)

	Factor Loadings of the First Sample				Factor Loadings of the Second Sample			
	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
28			.626				.814	
29			.578				.752	
30			.516				.655	
31				.618				.611
32				.639				.807
33				.598				.622
34				.496				.747
Explained Variance	30.156	7.319	5.171	3.217	30.926	9.692	8.399	6.044
Eigenvalues	7.539	1.830	1.293	0.804	7.731	2.423	2.100	1.511

Note. F1 = Masculine behaviors expected from boys, F2 = Masculine behaviors not expected from girls, F3 = Feminine behaviors expected from girls, F4 = Feminine behaviors not expected from boys.

Table 8

Item-total correlations of Parents' Gender-stereotypical Beliefs about Children Scale

Item	Item-Total Correlations	Mean \pm SD	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Factor 1*			
1	.646	6.090 \pm 2.705	.831
2	.600	7.663 \pm 2.625	.838
3	.659	6.008 \pm 2.684	.829
4	.593	6.338 \pm 2.506	.839
5	.612	7.338 \pm 2.788	.836
8	.601	5.541 \pm 2.889	.838
10	.624	6.609 \pm 2.979	.835
Factor 2**			
15	.668	5.351 \pm 3.106	.851
16	.624	3.631 \pm 2.620	.856
17	.635	5.782 \pm 3.119	.855
18	.598	5.658 \pm 2.909	.858
19	.634	4.934 \pm 2.876	.855
20	.647	5.120 \pm 3.147	.853
21	.573	3.707 \pm 2.843	.860
22	.579	3.941 \pm 2.750	.860
24	.504	4.381 \pm 2.866	.866
Factor 3***			
26	.603	8.336 \pm 2.347	.750
27	.582	8.082 \pm 2.384	.756
28	.566	8.236 \pm 2.439	.762
29	.612	8.229 \pm 2.460	.747
30	.523	8.626 \pm 2.347	.775
Factor 4****			
37	.585	4.626 \pm 3.085	.661
38	.549	2.457 \pm 2.233	.694
39	.544	3.885 \pm 2.896	.685
40	.511	4.453 \pm 3.074	.707

Note. Factor 1 = Masculine behaviors expected from boys, Factor 2 = Masculine behaviors not expected from girls, Factor 3 = Feminine behaviors expected from girls, Factor 4 = Feminine behaviors not expected from boys. * $\alpha = .855$, ** $\alpha = .871$, *** $\alpha = .797$, **** $\alpha = .746$

as follows: items 1 and 3 in Factor 1, items 15 and 17 in Factor 2, items 31 and 33 in Factor 4 (see Figure 8). The modified model was statistically superior to the initial model, χ^2 difference (1) = 153.636, $p < .005$. Fit indices of the modified model were found as χ^2 (266, N = 310) = 758.636, $p < .001$; $\chi^2/df = 2.852$; RMSEA = .078, 90% CI = [.071, .084]; GFI = .828, CFI = .881, SRMR = .067. When the fit indices were examined individually, chi-square divided by degrees of freedom, RMSEA, and SRMR indicated acceptable fit with the model. While cut-off for RMSEA and

Table 9

Reliability of second order questions for each factor

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Total
Internal Justifications	.858	.910	.830	.806	.939
External Justifications	.858	.910	.830	.806	.939

Note. Factor 1 = Masculine behaviors expected from boys, Factor 2 = Masculine behaviors not expected from girls, Factor 3 = Feminine behaviors expected from girls, Factor 4 = Feminine behaviors not expected from boys.. *Internal and External Justifications refers to the second order questions of the main items.

SRMR was .08, and values closer to 0 represents a good fit in the literature, Chi-square divided by degrees of freedom were expected to be smaller than five. Although CFI and GFI were not greater than .90 cut-off, the indices were thought to be adequate fit by considering the results of Chi-square divided by degrees of freedom, RMSEA, and SRMR. The standardized factor loadings in the four-factor solution ranged from .601 to .896.

3.3.5. Reliability of the Scale

Cronbach Alpha coefficient was calculated for internal consistency with the first sample. This coefficient was found as .911 for 25 items of the scale as a whole. When the sub-scales were evaluated for reliability one by one, $\alpha = .855$ for masculine behaviors expected from boys' subscale, $\alpha = .871$, masculine behaviors

Table 10

Correlations between scales for validity test

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Total PGBC
Factor 1	1				
Factor 2	.531**	1			
Factor 3	.524**	.348**	1		
Factor 4	.370**	.489**	.377**	1	
Second Order Questions					
External justifications for Factor 1	-.481**	-.346**	-.239**	-.219**	
External justifications for Factor 2	-.372**	-.556**	-.265**	-.276**	
External justifications for Factor 3	-.350**	-.273**	-.545**	-.280**	
External justifications for Factor 4	-.368**	-.379**	-.258**	-.365**	
Total External Justifications					-.562**
Internal justifications for Factor 1	.481**	.346**	.239**	.219**	
Internal justifications for Factor 2	.372**	.556**	.265**	.276**	
Internal justifications for Factor 3	.350**	.273**	.545**	.280**	
Internal justifications for Factor 4	.368**	.379**	.258**	.365**	
Total Internal Justifications					.562**
Ambivalent Sexism Inventory-Women					.508**
Hostile Sexism Towards Women	.406**	.454**	.373**	.318**	.518**
Benevolent Sexism Towards Women	.433**	.424**	.487**	.358**	.549**
Ambivalent Sexism Inventory-Men					.576**

Table 10 (continued)

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Total PGBC
Hostile Sexism Towards Men	.293**	.230**	.379**	.260**	.359**
Benevolent Sexism Towards Men	.508**	.511**	.419**	.359**	.601**

Note. Factor 1 = Masculine behaviors expected from boys, Factor 2 = Masculine behaviors not expected from girls, Factor 3 = Feminine behaviors expected from girls, Factor 4 = Feminine behaviors not expected from boys., PGBC = Parents' Gender-stereotypical Beliefs about Children Scale. ** $p < .01$

not expected from girls subscale, $\alpha=.797$ for feminine behaviors expected from girls subscale, and $\alpha=.746$ for feminine behaviors not expected from boys were found. For another reliability test, item-total correlations in each subdimension of the scale and the alpha values after eliminating an item were examined (see Table 8). The reliability coefficient of the second part of the scale (external vs. internal factors) was also calculated for each factor (see Table 9).

3.3.6. Validity of the Scale

In order to test the validity of the scale, criterion-related validity was applied and the relationship between Parents' Gender-stereotypical Beliefs about Children Scale (PGBC) and Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI)-Women and Men were examined. The results yielded that correlation between subscales of PGBC and ASI was significant and positively correlated with each other as expected (see Table 10).

CHAPTER 4

STUDY 3: GENDER-STEREOTYPES IN FAMILY SETTINGS

4.1. Aim

Previous studies investigated parents' predictive roles on children's gender role development by measuring different constructs as discriminative behaviors towards adults or femininity and masculinity level of parents. In the second study, *Parents' Gender Stereotypical Beliefs about Children Scale* was developed in order to measure specifically parents' gender-stereotypical beliefs about children. Thus, in the third and final study, it was aimed to investigate whether fathers' and mothers' gender-stereotypical beliefs about children would predict their children's gender-typing of self and others, and whether this relationship would be moderated by parents' justifications. In addition, the predictive role of responsibility sharing in chores and child care on children's gender stereotypes was aimed to examine.

4.2. Method

4.2.1. Participants

For the third study, 172 mother-father pairs and their preschool children were recruited. When the missing data were checked, 17 families were removed from the data because of the systematic missing answers in the questionnaires. Multivariate outliers were checked and three families were excluded from the study. Descriptive analysis with the remaining 152 families (84 mother-daughter-father triads; 55.3%) indicated that the mean age of the mothers, fathers, and children was found as 35.649 years of age ($SD = 4.059$), 38.533 years of age ($SD = 4.687$), 59.921 months of age ($SD = 7.104$), respectively. Fathers reported their education level as 19.1% high school ($N = 29$), 9.9% two-year vocational high school ($N = 15$), 50% university ($N = 76$), 17.1% Master's degree ($N = 26$), and 3.9% Ph.D. ($N = 6$). Mothers stated their education level as 17.8% high school ($N = 27$), 11.8% two-year vocational high school ($N = 18$), 54.6% university ($N = 83$), 11.8% Master's degree ($N = 18$), and 3.9%

PhD ($N = 6$). 97.4% of the fathers ($N = 148$) stated their status as “working”, while four of them (2.6%) reported that they are not working currently. On the other hand, 71.1% of the mothers ($N = 108$) stated their working status as working, and 44 of them (28.9%) stated they are not working currently. The data were collected from married couples and their children who are living in the same house.

4.2.2. Measures

4.2.2.1. Demographics

Both mothers and fathers were asked to complete a demographic information form. Demographic information form included education, SES, age of the fathers, mothers, and children (see Appendix B).

4.2.2.2. Division of Chores and Child Care

To determine parents ‘own and their partners’ involvement in chores and child care, 8 items for the division of chores and 10 items for the division of child care were evaluated by both parents (Lou & Çarkoğlu, 2019; see Appendix G). First, they were asked to evaluate each item from 1 (never) to 10 (regularly) for themselves and their partners. Then, they were asked to report who usually did these things at home setting: *I do, my partner do, we do together, or other people do for us*. The reliability of the items were assessed for each sub-topics, and Cronbach’s alpha scores were found to be sufficient (.750 for division of chores evaluated by mothers for themselves, .783 for division of chores evaluated by mothers for their partners, .716 for division of chores evaluated by fathers for themselves, .807 for division of chores evaluated by fathers for their partners, .642 for division of child care evaluated by mothers for themselves, .834 for division of child care evaluated by mothers for their partners, .800 division of child care evaluated by fathers for themselves, .849 for division of child care evaluated by fathers for their partners). The item Cronbach’s alpha values were investigated when a certain item was deleted, and it was decided to remove two items (repairing /fixing and shopping for the house) from the division of chores for both mothers and fathers because removing those items would increase Cronbach’s alpha values. The new reliability coefficients were for the remaining items were as .823 for the division of chores evaluated by mothers for themselves, .835 for the division of chores evaluated by mothers for their partners, .766 for the

division of chores evaluated by fathers for themselves, .867 for the division of chores evaluated by fathers for themselves). The Cronbach's alpha values of all sub-scales were above .70, which was evaluated as acceptable in many different resources (Cortina, 1993; Schmitt, 1996). Only the Cronbach's alpha value for the division of child care evaluated by mothers for themselves found as .642, however, since there were some researchers who suggested .60 as acceptable cut-off (van Griethuijsen et al., 2015), it was decided to run analyses without removing any item for mentioned subscale.

4.2.2.3. Parents' Gender-stereotypical Beliefs about Children

In order to measure parents' gender-stereotypical beliefs related to children, Parents' Gender-stereotypical Beliefs about Children Scale was developed for the current study. The final version of the scale included four factors (1= Masculine behaviors expected from boys, 2= Masculine behaviors not expected from girls, 3= Feminine behaviors expected from girls, 4= Feminine behaviors not expected from boys) and 25 items in total⁴. Mothers and fathers were asked to evaluate those 25 gender-stereotypical items about girls and boys from 0 (Strongly Disagree) to 10 (Strongly Agree). After evaluating each item, participants were also asked to report what percentage of girls' or boys' choice, reaction, or behavior belongs to external or internal justifications. For the main analysis, a composite score of the scale was used. Higher scores mean firmer gender-stereotypical beliefs about girls and boys (see Appendix E).

4.2.2.4. Children's Gender-typing of Self and Others

Preschool children's gender-stereotypes were assessed by using *Preschool Occupations, Activities, and Traits Scale-Attitude Measure & Personal Measure* (Liben et al., 2002). The scale includes two subscales with three domains in each, but only two of the domains were used for the current study: occupations and activities. In *Personal Measure* (PM), children were shown pictures of 12 gender-stereotypical occupations with two gender-neutral items and 12 gender-stereotypical activities/toys

⁴ Participants were given 34 items in total based on the EFA results of the second sample. Since CFA in the third sample did not confirm the factor structure, a second EFA and CFA was run with 34 items and two different sample. According to the results of the second EFA and CFA, 25 items under four factor was decided to us fort the analysis of third study.

with two gender-neutral items. They were specifically asked, “*How much would you like to be a/an (name of the occupation)?*” for occupations and “*How much do you like to play with (name of the activity/toy)?*” for activities/toys. Their answers were coded from 0 (Not at all) to 2 (A lot). In *Attitude Measure (AM)*, pictures of 12 traditionally gender-stereotypic occupations with two gender-neutral items and 12 gender-stereotypic activities/toys with two gender-neutral items were shown to children. They were specifically asked, “*Who do you think should be a/an (name of the occupation)?*” for occupations and “*Who do you think should play with (name of the activity/toy)?*” for activities/toys. Children matched those occupations and activities with the answers of “only women/only boys”, “only men/only girls,” and “both women and men/both girls and boys”. There were 28 occupation pictures (14 for each AM and PM) and 28 activity pictures (14 for each AM and PM). In AM subscale higher score mean more flexibility in gender typing of others, while in PM subscale higher scores of children indicated more gender typing for self (see Appendix H).

4.2.3. Procedure

Before collecting data, necessary ethical permissions were taken from Human Subjects Ethics Committee at METU (see Appendix D). The study announcement has been made via widely used online platforms (e.g., Facebook), and kindergartens were informed about the study via flyers. After taking ethical permissions, 30 voluntary students who were majoring in psychology were trained for the data collection process. With the comprehensive content of training, students were informed about ethical issues and possible unexpected situations during home visits with specific instructions and role-playing sessions. Especially considering the difficulty in studying with children, the task to be applied to the child was explained in detail, and all questions of the students were answered. Several different role-playings were applied in classroom settings. After the training sessions, the video versions of those role-playings were sent to the students. All students were asked to apply the child-task to someone before starting to collect data. They were required to write a report about their data collection process after each visited family and got

feedback from the researcher. The data were collected by the main researcher and those voluntary students.

The data of the study were collected in two different ways. If the parents were willing to accept the researcher at home, the study was applied to both parents and their preschoolers at home settings. All mothers and fathers were given voluntary information form, and children were verbally asked whether they want to participate in the study. While mothers and fathers were filling the questionnaires, researchers applied POAT to children in a suitable room. In situations that parents were not willing to accept the researcher at their home but still volunteer to participate in the study, data were collected from children at kindergartens, and family-related questionnaires were sent home via their children. Parents and children completed questionnaires in approximately 15-20 and 20-30 minutes, respectively. The data of the study were analyzed using SPSS AMOS 23 Statistical software.

4.3. Results

4.3.1. Descriptive Statistics

The normality test revealed that the data were normally distributed. The correlations between the independent and dependent variables were calculated (see Table 11). The descriptive statistics for percentage of the mothers' and fathers' gendered behaviors, including division of labor and child care, were given in Table 12. In order to compare mothers' and fathers' gender-related beliefs towards children and their responsibility sharing in child care and household chores, paired t-tests were conducted. According to results, fathers ($M = 6.948$, $SD = 1.482$) had more gender-stereotypical beliefs towards children compared to mothers ($M = 6.14$, $SD = 1.650$); $t(151) = -5.704$, $p = .000$). In addition, mothers reported that their partners took significantly more responsibility in childcare ($M = 5.950$, $SD = 1.844$) than chores ($M = 4.112$, $SD = 1.904$; $t(151) = -11.829$, $p = .000$), while their own responsibility did not differ in those tasks ($t(151) = 1.182$, $p = .239$). Similarly, fathers reported that they took more responsibility in childcare ($M = 6.065$, $SD = 1.566$) compared to household tasks ($M = 4.164$, $SD = 1.566$; $t(151) = -13.967$, $p = .000$), but their partners' responsibility did not differ on those tasks in their evaluations ($t(151) = 1.861$, $p = .065$). There was a significant correlation between education level and

gender-stereotypical beliefs towards children for mothers ($r = -.228, p < .01$), but not for fathers ($r = -.110, p = \text{n.s.}$). As the mothers' education level increased, they stated less stereotypical beliefs towards children. Mothers' education levels were not significantly correlated with children's PM ($r = -.114, p = \text{n.s.}$) and AM ($r = .039, p = \text{n.s.}$) scores. Similarly, PM and AM were not significantly correlated with fathers' education level ($r = -.013, p = \text{n.s.}$; $r = -.025, p = \text{n.s.}$, respectively).

4.3.2. Results of the Main Analysis

In the third study, we hypothesized that mothers' and fathers' gender-stereotypical beliefs about children would predict their children's gender-typed attitudes for themselves and other people. Besides, we estimated that the relationship between parents' gender-stereotypical beliefs about children and their children's gender-stereotypes would be moderated by mothers' and fathers' justifications about children's gender-related preferences and behaviors in daily life. Secondly, we hypothesized that the division of chores and child-caring between mothers and fathers would predict their children's gender-typed attitudes for themselves and other people.

The hypotheses were tested with four different path analyses via SPSS AMOS 23 by using observed variables. The dependent variables were children's gender-typing of self (PM) and others in each model. The independent variables for the first, second, third, and fourth models were mothers' gender-stereotypical beliefs about children, fathers' gender-stereotypical beliefs about children, mothers' evaluation about division of chores and child care for themselves and for their partners; and fathers' evaluation about division of chores and child care for themselves and for their partners, respectively. In the first model, mothers' and fathers' justifications about children's gender-related preferences and behaviors were added to the model as moderator. In all models, a fully saturated model was run. Then, all paths from independent variables to dependent variables were checked, and insignificant paths were removed from the analysis one by one. After each removal of the insignificant path, modification indices were controlled and suggested significant paths were added to analysis again if there was any. Thus, only significant paths were remained

Table 11

Correlations between dependent and independent variables in the third study

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1	1													
2	-.153	1												
3	.010	-.206*	1											
4	.047	-.169*	.383**	1										
5	-.034	.076	-.534**	-.330**	1									
6	-.011	-.023	-.311**	-.487**	.427**	1								
7	-.001	-.129	.053	.060	-.135	-.069	1							
8	-.155	.095	-.043	-.066	.028	-.041	.066	1						
9	-.145	.056	-.271**	-.276**	.183*	.137	-.150	.534**	1					
10	.030	-.113	.081	.083	-.190*	-.104	.684**	.010	-.191*	1				
11	.045	.072	-.017	.006	-.027	-.004	.478**	-.004	-.101	.322**	1			
12	-.088	.041	.034	.001	.004	.033	.060	.545**	.290**	.072	-.011	1		
13	-.057	-.017	-.107	-.110	-.003	.127	-.009	.358**	.454**	.114	-.070	.631**	1	
14	-.051	-.099	-.008	-.040	.031	-.013	.362**	.072	-.042	.585**	.407**	.097	.251**	1

1: Personal Measure of Children, 2: Attitude Measure of Children, 3: Mothers' Gender-stereotypical Beliefs about Children, 4: Fathers' Gender-stereotypical Beliefs about Children, 5: Mothers' Justifications for Children's Preferences, 6: Fathers' Justifications for Children's Gender-related Preferences, 7: Division of Chores by Mothers for Their Self, 8: Division of Chores by Mothers for Their Partner, 9: Division of Chores by Fathers for Their Self, 10: Division of Chores by Fathers for Their Partner, 11: Division of Childcare by Mothers for Their Self, 12: Division of Childcare by Mothers for Their Partner, 13: Division of Childcare by Fathers for Their Self, 14: Division of Childcare by Fathers for Their Partner, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 12

Division of labor and childcare between mothers and fathers

	I do <i>f</i> (%)		My partner does <i>f</i> (%)		We do together <i>f</i> (%)	
	<i>M</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>F</i>
<i>Division of labor in the household</i>						
1.Repairing /Fixing	11 (7.2)	122(80.3)	100 (65.8)	6(3.9)	41 (27)	24(15.8)
2.Shopping for house	41 (27)	42(27.6)	29 (19.1)	31(20.4)	81 (53.3)	79(52.0)
3.Spending time with children	46 (30.3)	8(5.3)	6 (3.9)	48 (31.6)	99 (65.2)	96(63.2)
4.Tidying up the house	108 (71.1)	6(3.9)	4 (2.6)	105(69.1)	37 (25)	41(27)
5.Cooking	118 (77.6)	1(0.7)	3 (2)	124(81.6)	28 (18.4)	27(17.8)
6.Cleaning	98 (64.5)	4(2.6)	3 (2)	103(67.8)	49 (32.1)	45(19.6)
7.Washing the clothes	132 (86.8)	3(2)	2 (1.3)	136(89.5)	18 (11.7)	13(8.5)
8.Washing dishes	120 (78.9)	6(3.9)	3 (2)	122(80.3)	29 (19.1)	24(15.8)
<i>Childcare</i>						
9.Going out together	37 (24.3)	11(7.2)	5 (3.3)	23(15.1)	110 (72.4)	117(77)
10.Playing games	48 (31.6)	15(9.9)	19 (12.5)	52(34.2)	83 (54.6)	83 (60.6)
11.Taking children to/from kindergarten/school/caretaker	57 (37.5)	42(27.6)	26 (17.1)	57(37.5)	62 (40.7)	50(32.9)
12.Making activities to support development	73 (48)	7(4.6)	7 (4.6)	70(46.1)	71(46.8)	74(48.7)
13.Feeding	106 (69.7)	5(3.3)	0 (0)	114(75)	44 (30)	30(19.8)
14.Making child sleep	97 (63.8)	18(11.8)	7 (4.6)	92(60.5)	46(30.3)	40(26.3)
15.Bathing the child	108 (71.1)	17(11.2)	13 (8.6)	103(67.8)	29 (19.3)	29(19.1)
16.Changing nappies	106 (69.7)	2(1.3)	2 (1.3)	117(77)	27(17.7)	27(17.8)
17.Taking to doctor/ Giving medicines/Checking when the child is sick	29 (19.1)	9(5.9)	5 (3.3)	24(15.8)	117(77)	118(77.6)
18.Preparing child's meal	125 (82.2)	1(0.7)	1 (0.7)	130(85.5)	26(17.1)	20(13.2)

Note. "M" refers to mothers, and "F" refers to fathers. *N* = 304.

in the final model after removing insignificant regression weights between independent and dependent variables. This procedure is named as model trimming in literature which suggest that removing non-significant paths from the model by starting with least significant one provides a more parsimonious model (Kline, 2005)

4.3.2.1. Path Analyses for Parents' Gender-stereotypical Beliefs

For the mothers' gender-stereotypical beliefs as independent variables and their justifications about children's gender-related preferences as moderator, the fully saturated model was tested first, $\chi^2 (1, N = 304) = 3.688, p = .055, \chi^2/df = 3.688, RMSEA = .133, GFI = .990, CFI = .959$. However, it was found that all the links coming from independent variables to children's gender-typing of self (Personal Measure) were not significant. In addition, mothers' justifications about children's gender-related preferences and behaviors in daily life did not significantly moderate the relationship between the parent's gender-stereotypical beliefs and children's gender-typing of others (Attitude Measure). Thus, five insignificant paths were removed from the analysis based on their regression weights and significance level one by one by checking modification indices after every step. The final model (see Figure 9) fit the data well with a significant link, $\chi^2 (6, N = 304) = 5.158, p = .524, \chi^2/df = .860, RMSEA = .000, GFI = .987, CFI = 1.000$. That is, as the mothers' gender-stereotypical beliefs about children increase, the children become less flexible about gender-stereotypes while talking about others' gender-related preferences ($\beta = -.206, p = .010$).

In the second model (see Figure 10), fathers' gender-stereotypical beliefs as independent variables and their justifications about children's gender-related preferences as moderators, the fully saturated model did not fit the data well, $\chi^2 (1, N = 304) = 3.159, p = .076, \chi^2/df = 3.159, RMSEA = .120, GFI = .992, CFI = .962$. Similar to the first model, all the links coming from independent variables to children's gender-stereotypical beliefs about children and the moderator role of fathers' justification on children's gender-related attitudes towards others were not significant. Those paths trimmed from the analysis one by one, by checking the modification indices. The final model fit the data well, $\chi^2 (6, N = 304) = 6.790, p =$

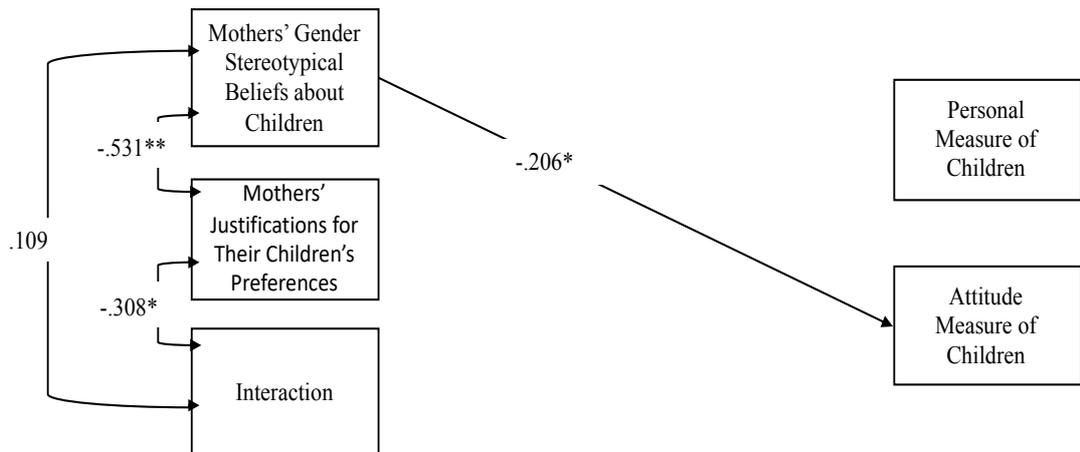


Figure 9. Predictive role of mothers' gender stereotypical beliefs about children on children's gender-typing of self and others. , * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

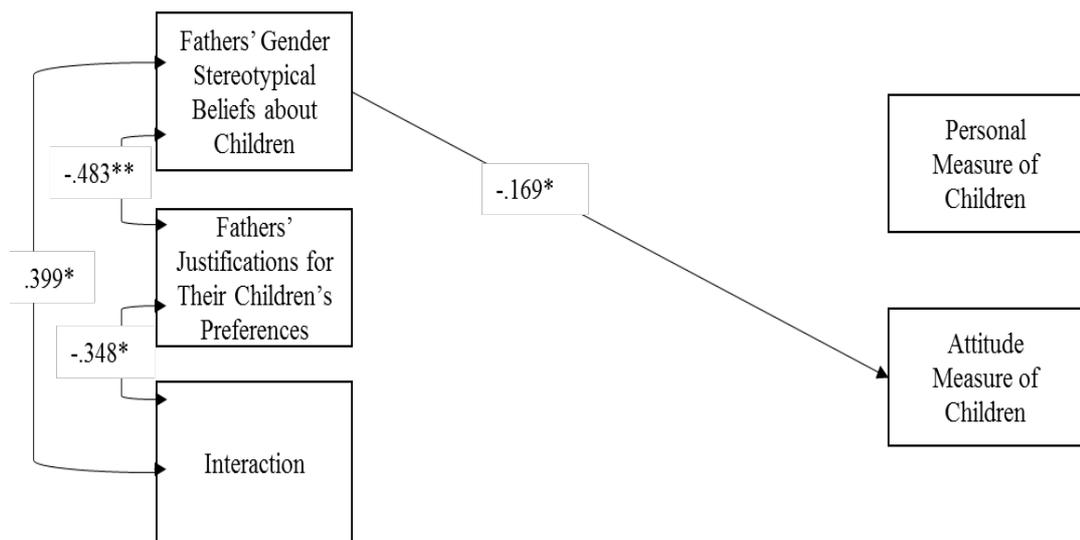


Figure 10. Predictive role of fathers' gender stereotypical beliefs about children on children's gender-typing of self and others. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

.341, $\chi^2/df = 1.132$, RMSEA = .030, GFI = .982, CFI = .986. As the fathers' gender-stereotypical beliefs about children increase, their children become less flexible about gender stereotypes while talking about others' gender-related preferences ($\beta = -.169$, $p = .035$).

4.3.2.2. Path Analyses for Division of Chores and Child Caring

In the third model (see Figure 11), the predictor role of mothers' evaluation of division in chores and child care on children's gender-typing of self and others

were tested. The saturated model did not fit the data well, $\chi^2 (1, N = 304) = 3.759, p = .053, \chi^2/df = 3.759, RMSEA = .135, GFI = .992, CFI = .962$. It was seen that the links coming from mother evaluation of chores for themselves, of child care for themselves and their partners to gender-typing of self were not significant. In addition, the paths coming from mothers' evaluation of chores and child care for their partners to gender-typing of others were not significant. Those five paths were removed from the model based on their regression weights and significance level. Thus, the final model included three significant path and fit the data well, $\chi^2 (6, N = 304) = 5.020, p = .7541, \chi^2/df = 0.837, RMSEA = .000, GFI = .989, CFI = .1000$. As expected, as the mothers reported higher responsibility for themselves in chores, their children were less flexible on gender-typing of others ($\beta = -.257, p = .003$). Also, as the mothers reported that higher responsibility for their partners in chores, their children showed less gender-typing of self ($\beta = -.177, p = .027$). Surprisingly, mothers who reported higher responsibility in child care for themselves had more flexible children on the gender-related attitudes towards others ($\beta = .181, p = .038$).

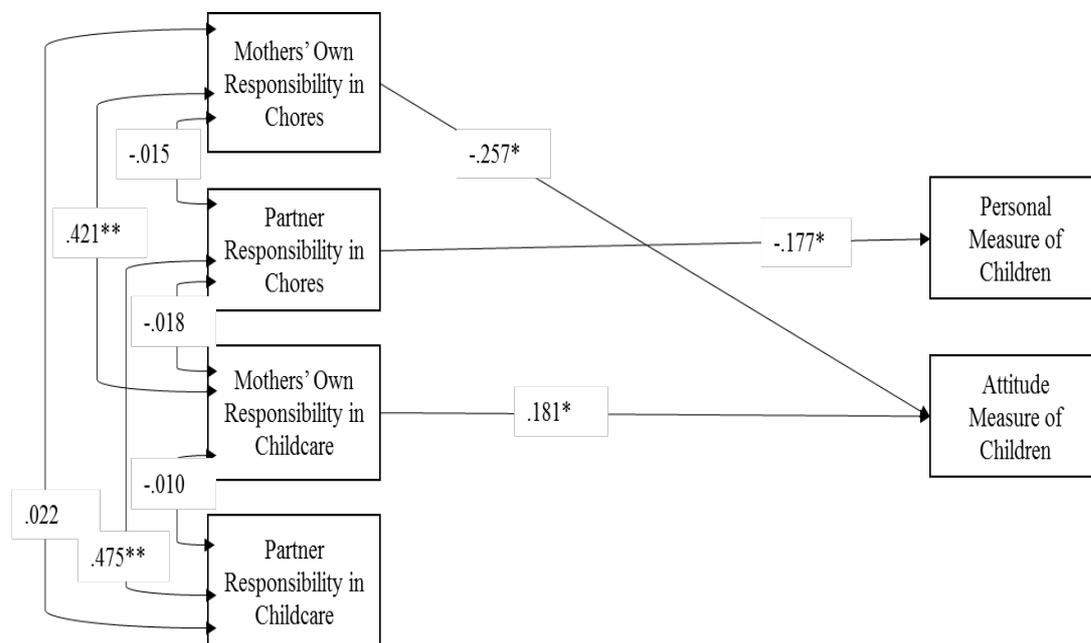


Figure 11. Predictive role of mothers' evaluation about division of chores and childcare on children's gender-typing of self and others., * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

In the last model (see Figure 12), the predictor role of fathers' evaluation on the division of child care and chores were tested. The fully saturated model did not

fit the data well, $\chi^2(1, N = 304) = 3.402, p = .065, \chi^2/df = 3.402, RMSEA = .126, GFI = .993, CFI = .981$. When the regression weight investigated, it was found that none of the paths from independent factors to children's gender-typing of self were significant. In addition, links coming from fathers' evaluation on child care for themselves and their partners, and their evaluation on child care for their partners to children's gender-typing of others were found to be not significant. Those seven paths were trimmed from the model one by one, and the final model fit the data well, $\chi^2(8, N = 304) = 6.960, p = .541, \chi^2/df = .870, RMSEA = .000, GFI = .986, CFI = 1.000$. According to the final model, the relationship between fathers' evaluation of their responsibility in chores and children's personal measure was marginally significant and negatively correlated ($\beta = -.152, p = .059$). That is, as the fathers reported that they have more responsibility for chores, their children were less gender-stereotypic for themselves.⁵

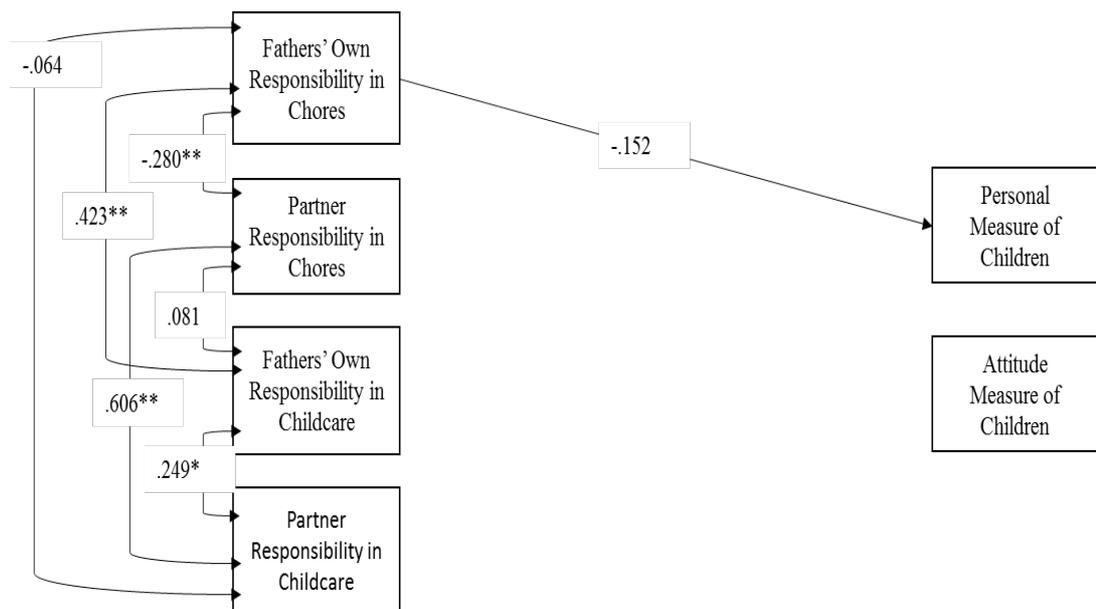


Figure 12. Predictive role of fathers' evaluation about division of chores and childcare on children's gender-typing of self and others. $p = .059$

⁵ All of the four path analyses were repeated by adding mothers' and fathers' education level as control variable. Since all significant and marginally significant links were similar with and without the control variable, considering the sample size and number of parameters in the analyses, it was decided to interpret four path analysis without adding parents' education level as control variable.

CHAPTER 5

GENERAL DISCUSSION

There are a number of studies that investigate parental effects on gender role development. However, there is no consensus about the effects of parents on this process. In addition, most of the studies in the literature have focused solely on maternal effects (e.g. Aksoy & Baran, 2017; Friedman et al., 2007; Weisgram & Bruun, 2018). In recent years, researchers have started to include fathers on gender role development studies, however those studies are addressing this development only in terms of parents' views or in terms of children's (Endendijk et al., 2014; van der Pol et al., 2015). More importantly, most of the research on gender development and parental effect on this issue, researchers generally prefer to use only quantitative or only qualitative methods, which might be one of the reasons for the discrepancy in the literature. For these reasons, in the current study, we conducted a more comprehensive study, in order to convey a deeper understanding, including fathers and mothers together and investigating the gender-stereotypes by using both quantitative and qualitative methods.

The main aim of the current study is to examine preschoolers' gender typing of self and others in family context. With this aim, we applied three different but complementary studies. In the first qualitative study, we investigated gender-related themes related to mother-child-father triads' perceptions about children's daily preferences and behaviors. In addition, we compared those gender-related themes obtained from all family members based on self-referenced and other-referenced information via Linear Mixed Model. With the meaningful gender-related themes obtained from the first qualitative study, a new scale was developed in the second study in order to measure parents' gender-stereotypical beliefs about children's daily preferences and behaviors. Finally, in the third study, the predictive roles of parental

gender-related beliefs, division of child care, and chores on preschoolers' gender typing of self and others were tested by running path analysis.

5.1. Gender-related Themes for Children's Preferences and Behaviors

The first study was a qualitative study, within the scope of which we visited homes and conducted semi-structured interviews with both parents and their children regarding gender roles. We specifically asked half of the families about their views on their own child's gender roles, and the other half about a random girl or a boy, depending on the sex of their own child. In this first study, we aimed to examine up to what extent gender-stereotypical and atypical beliefs exist in Turkish family context rather than solely depending on the Western literature or the previous studies that focused on only one family member's views on this issue. The results indicated that the most frequently mentioned themes for children's gender-related behaviors are gender-consistent ones. Family members used fewer gender-inconsistent themes compared to gender-neutral ones which can be evidence for the difficulty in thinking or evaluating counter-stereotypical behaviors (Allen, Sherman, Conrey, & Stroessner, 2009; Sherman, Lee, Bessenoff, & Frost, 1998; Sherman, Stroessner, Conrey, & Azam, 2005). In addition, family members are more likely to attribute children's behaviors to internal factors that are defined as innate, stable, and resistant to change compared to external factors as societal or familial effects.

Based on self-referenced and other-referenced information, parents and their children did not show any distinguishable contextual difference in their gender-consistent, gender-inconsistent, and gender-neutral answers. Both for the boy in the family who participated and typical boys, they put more emphasis on toys or occupations that require more cognitive ability. Especially for potential future occupations, they stated that boys usually have better cognitive ability that should be emphasized. For example, while a mother was talking about her son, she told that: "If he were a girl, I would say "She should definitely be a teacher". However, for a boy being a teacher can be less satisfying. I want him to become a computer engineer, a pharmacist, or a doctor." The results were consistent with the literature by indicating that most of the parents tend to believe that boys are more talented in these areas, such as science and mathematics which require more numerical and cognitive effort.

In addition, they expect that girls would struggle more in those areas (Tenenbaum & Leaper, 2003). Similar to parents, it was found that children also believe that boys are more talented in the fields like math and science compared to girls (Bian et al., 2017). Giving aggressive reactions while angry, being physically more active, mobile, and dynamic, and preferring objects and games related to war and violence are the other most commonly mentioned themes by family members. Especially, aggression and violent behaviors are one of the most emphasized themes, and some family members tend to believe that aggression is a natural part of being a man. For example, a mother described her son's toy preferences as "They (boys) do not like such doll-style things. They love more wild and violent things. For example, sometimes he says "Let's play with dinosaurs" and I say "Ok, let's play nice and be friends". Then, he says "Noooo, woowww (horrible sounds), let them die!". You see, their souls are wild". Further, some of the family members in the current study described boys' aggressive reactions as acceptable. When a father was questioned about typical boys' psychological reactions in a disturbing situation, he told that "...hitting his hand on the ground, opening his eyes a little too much. You know, it's found in boys' nature...". Similar to those, previous quantitative findings suggested that parents have more tolerance for their sons' aggression compared to their daughters (Lytton & Romney, 1991). Family members stated that boys prefer to play with boys in general which was supported by previous studies (Isil, 2018). Colwell & Lindsey (2005) suggested that choosing same-sex playmates were evaluated more positive by both teachers and peers. Thus, external factors might encourage boys to choose same-sex playmates. Finally, preferring blue and dark blue in daily life and avoiding pink, purple, and red are the other most commonly mentioned gender-consistent themes for boys. Although studies indicated that boys have gender-typed preferences towards blue, it should not be ignored that gender labeling of colors is more effective for children's gender-related preferences than it is for color by itself (Yeung & Wong, 2018).

Previous studies indicated that girls mostly prefer to play with dolls and kitchen-related items (Blakemore et al., 2009). In addition, girls were found to show more submissive and calm reactions throughout the preschool years (Chaplin et al.,

2005). Consistent with those findings, in our research, parents and their children emphasized the domestic, caring, and emotional characteristics of girls. Not only they express that girls mostly play with kitchen tools and dolls, but they also stated that girls should help chores, like to play with related to the household. For instance, a mother said for her daughter that “I mean, she can help in the kitchen. She can help setting up the table and laundry. It’s good for her future life as a woman.” They also stated that no matter what is the situation, girls tend react calmly like crying, being offended by disagreements, going to their rooms when upset, tearing up, or not responding for a while. That might be related to parents’ differential treatment towards girls’ and boys’ aggression. Since aggressive reactions or behaviors are less acceptable for girls (Lytton & Romney, 1991), girls might choose to show calm reactions both when they are sad or angry. Participants also expected girls to play with fashion-related toys, prefer to wear skirts and dresses, and having interest in princess-related and fancy things in the current study. Family members believe that girls like to highlight their physical appearance by being fancy and have more interest in makeup or dressing. A mother defines the girls’ desires to those fancy things as “They (girls) usually want to be like princesses...When they (girls) see a wedding, they really like the bride's dress, and its tulle, fluffy, and long skirts. The reason for this is because they find being a bride similar to being a princess”. Therefore, the results indicated girls’ gender-related behaviors or preferences related to physical appearance, emotionality, domestic interest, and caring have maintained its preponderance in family members’ perceptions as it was shown in previous studies (Blakemore & Centers, 2005).

Cross-gender behaviors and preferences are the least mentioned themes in total which indicate the difficulty in making evaluations against stereotypes (Allen et al., 2009; Sherman et al., 1998). While parents are talking about their sons or boys are talking about themselves (or both talk about a typical boy), family members emphasized especially the domestic responsibilities of children. However, instead of adults’ duties at home settings, they mentioned children's own responsibilities in a domestic manner such as tidying up their rooms or cleaning up their dishes. Different from the general findings that boys/men mostly prefer blue (Cohen, 2013; Halim et

al., 2014), some family members stated that boys can prefer pink, purple, or red. Most of them explained these preferences by the possible influence of superhero costumes. A father pointed out his sons' higher interest in red as "He is more likely to choose red because it is the color of Spiderman's costume". In tune with our results, despite the cultural beliefs about boys' lower tendency to prefer red, a recent study indicated that red is favored by more boys compared to girls. However, they also found that more females specify their favorite color as red compared to males throughout adulthood years (Jonauškaite et al., 2019). During childhood, cartoon characters seem to be more important in children's gender-related color preferences, as an adult, social expectations and norms seem to be more effective. As another mostly mentioned theme, some family members stated that boys might react calmly while they are angry or sad. These reactions might include crying softly, not talking, tearing up, or leaving the room, and they might also like to care for people and animals. Those types of actions were linked with feminine acts because of fragility, emotionality, and caring motivations included (Bem, 1974; Levant, Richmond, Cook, House, & Aupont, 2007). Although we coded those behaviors as gender-inconsistent for boys in our study, most of the parents explain them as a natural part of being children. Interestingly, some parents and children stated that boys should not choose games or professions related to safety and lifesaving, contrary to general expectations (Liben et al., 2002). Participants emphasized the higher risk of danger in those professions, especially while they are talking about their own children. A mother who thinks that her son should not choose security-related occupations explained it by saying that "This answer is probably due to the situation in our country. I don't want my child to do something that is dangerous. You can call it military service, you can call it policing. I just don't want him to choose these kinds of occupations."

Gender-inconsistent themes for girls mostly related to their freedom, independence, and power in a future life in tune with previous research (Işık-Baş, Şahin-Acar, & Özen-Çıplak, 2018). Family members expected girls to be successful in their professions and to be less responsible for chores by breaking barriers and social norms. They stated that girls should choose activities, toys, or occupations that are related to cognitive skills, mechanical abilities, or medicine. Those professions

are perceived as “real professions” by some families due to their higher social status in society. For instance, a mother explained this situation as “I would like her to choose a real profession. She can become an engineer, a doctor, etc. I want her to choose a profession where she can make good money and be independent.”. The participants also stated that girls like to become physically active, mobile, and dynamic. In some situations, they were expected to show aggressive reactions such as hitting, saying “bad words” and throwing some objects. Those kinds of behaviors and reactions were attributed to masculinity in the literature (Bem, 1974; Levant, Richmond, Cook, House, & Aupont, 2007). However, FME similar to boys, parents explain those behaviors with being in the nature of children. Finally, some parents and children stated that blue is one of the favorite colors of girls. They also reported that girls have an interest in a current princess cartoon character: Elsa (“Elsa | Disney Frozen,” n.d.). Since this cartoon character wears a long blue princess costume, family members reported that some girls start to specify their favorite color as blue in recent years. Although toys, cartoons, or clothes related to princess characters got more attention from girls (Golden & Jacoby, 2018), some family members reported that girls’ favorite color has shifted from pink to blue.

Society expects from girls and boys to become more masculine and feminine in their gender-related behaviors and preferences (Zosuls et al., 2009). However, some studies indicated that preschool children might make gender-neutral preferences as frequently as gender-consistent ones (e.g. Weisgram & Bruun, 2018). In the current study, gender-neutral preferences or behaviors of children were the second frequently used themes by family members. In those gender-neutral themes, children’s goodness, comfort, and developmental characteristics were underlined by the participants both for girls and boys. Some family members think that regardless of gender children should take their own responsibility in home settings like wearing their own clothes, preparing their bags for school, or taking their own water. However, they stated children do not need to share dangerous or difficult responsibilities. Feeling happy in their future professions were found to be another gender-neutral theme used by participants, especially by parents. Those family members tend to think that children did not behave differently or they should not be

discriminated based on their gender. Even though parents mentioned gender-neutral colors or wearing comfortable clothes, they often emphasized equal responsibility, children's security, and future happiness. Those expectations of parents might be related to change in individuals' perspectives towards discrimination in society within the last decades. For example, as the popularity and visibility of feminism and gender equality increase in the cultures and societies, parents might provide equal opportunities and choices for their daughters and sons (Martin, 2005).

Justifications of children's gender-related daily behaviors are as important as those behavioral types. Previous studies indicated that believing someone's behaviors come from internal or external factors might change evaluations of the behaviors (e.g. Bastian & Haslam, 2006). Similarly, parental effort to change gender-stereotypical expectations from children might be influenced by their beliefs about the source of behavior. While essentialist beliefs support the idea that those behaviors come from nature and resistant to change (Gelman & Taylor, 2000), parents who believe that those behaviors learned from the environment might spend more effort to provide their children equal opportunity regardless of their children's gender. In the current study, we grouped parents and children's justifications under two main themes as external and internal factors. The results indicated that parents and children used significantly more justifications than they did internal ones for children's behaviors. The justifications for children's behaviors mostly included peer effect in school, shopping centers, cartoon characters, or extended families. A mother explained her daughter's interest in dolls as "I guess she was affected by her friends in school. She is always affected by her friends about her choices". In tune with family's justifications with justifications, previous studies supported that children's gender-related preferences might be changed based on peer reactions (Spinner, Cameron, & Calogero, 2018), media effect (Coyne, Linder, Rasmussen, Nelson, & Birkbeck, 2016), family behaviors (Endendijk, Groeneveld, & Mesman, 2018) or discriminatory view in shopping malls (Haynes et al., 1993). Some of the family members, on the other hand, think that children's gender-related behaviors resulted from their nature and occur naturally. Those internal justifications included genes, hormones, biological properties, personality, nature or creation. A mother in the

current study who said that boys like to play with cars, robots and violent things justified those preferences as "...because its' in their (boys') nature!". This is an example of gender essentialist beliefs, which suggest that gender differences are innate and difficult to change (Gelman & Taylor, 2000).

Although family members used similar subthemes for the child in the family who participated and a random boy or girl in terms of contents, we predicted that the details and frequency of those themes for self-referenced and other-referenced questions might show some differences. First of all, all family members used significantly more gender-consistent themes compared to others. While the frequency of gender-inconsistent and gender-neutral themes was not significantly differentiated for mothers and children, fathers used less gender-inconsistent themes than they did gender-neutral ones. In addition, mothers used similar amounts of gender-consistent, gender-inconsistent, and gender-neutral themes for their children and for random boys/girls. Because mothers spend more time with their own children (Craig, 2006), they might have more chance to observe various gender-related behaviors of their children's friends. Since in preschool years, children tend to behave similarly with their peers (Haun & Tomasello, 2011), her observation and experience might make mothers think that their own children have similar gender-related preferences and behaviors to random girls or boys in the same age. On the other hand, as we expected, more gender-consistent preferences and behaviors mentioned by fathers for random girls/boys than they did for their children. That is, they provided more stereotypic details while talking about random girls or boys. Similar to our results, previous studies indicated that fathers have less tolerance for their children's gender-inconsistent behaviors, especially towards their sons (Kane, 2006). Considering that fathers were more strict about stereotypes than mothers were (Endendijk et al., 2014), making gender salient by using "girls" and "boys" might have triggered fathers' gender-stereotypes as mentioned in the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis (Kay & Kempton, 1984). In addition, as expected, fathers have more memory and information about their children which might make them see their children's gender-neutral or gender-inconsistent behaviors. Finally, children mentioned more gender-neutral preferences and behaviors while talking about themselves compared to other children, while the

frequency of gender-consistent and gender-inconsistent themes did not differ for self-referenced and other-referenced questions. Thus, they give more gender-neutral details while talking about themselves. Making gender salient by asking questions specifically by using “boys” or “girls” might make children think more about gender-stereotypic or cross-gender behaviors for other children. On the other hand, while talking about themselves they might give more personal details from their memories and experiences that are different from the gender roles defined by society.

At the beginning of the current study, there was no specific hypothesis related to differences in families’ justification types for children’s gender-related behaviors. However, exploratory analyses indicated that families justified children’s behaviors with more justifications compared to internal justifications. That is, family members tend to think that those preferences and behaviors were learned from the environment. Mothers and fathers used a similar amount of external and internal justifications, but it was found that children think that those behaviors have mostly resulted from internal factors. As children get older, they begin to understand that some environmental factors might influence those gender-related behaviors. However, in preschool years, they tend to become stricter and to believe that those differences are constant and come from birth (Banse, Gawronski, Rebetez, Gutt, & Bruce Morton, 2010). In the comparison of self-referenced and other-referenced questions, the only difference was found for the frequency of external factors used by mothers. Mothers used significantly more external justifications for random boys’/girls’ behaviors than they did for their children. In other words, while they tend to think that random boys/girls learn their gender-related behaviors through the environment, the gender-related preferences and behaviors of their own daughters or sons have resulted from their biological gender, personality, or creation. This result could be explained by mothers’ attribution bias, as well. If they believe that they cannot change their own children’s behaviors or cannot affect them in a good way, they might link those gender-related behaviors or preferences with the internal factors as nature or personality. Those kind of beliefs provides mothers to take less responsibility for children’s gender-stereotypical behaviors (Miller, 2020). The same pattern is also found in the qualitative study. For example, in one of the interviews, the mother

explained her daughter's passion for pink color as follows: “We try to provide her belongings that include various colors, but she always prefers pink. In this case, I think I have to admit that this is a feature coming from nature”. Parallel with those findings, it might be easier to attribute other children’s stereotypical behaviors to external factors by believing that those behaviors could be changed if external factors are dominant and salient enough.

5.2. Parents’ Gender-stereotypical Beliefs about Children Scale

In the second study, sub-themes obtained from the first study were used to develop a scale that measures the level of parents’ gender-stereotypical beliefs about children. The results indicated that fathers’ and mothers’ gender-stereotypical beliefs for girls and boys can be evaluated with 25 items under four factors. The reliability and validity values were high enough to accept the consistency and accuracy of the scale. The scale includes parental gender-stereotypical beliefs for girls’ and boys’ preferences and behaviors in daily life. The four components of the scale were determined as masculine behaviors expected from boys, masculine behaviors not expected from girls, feminine behaviors expected from girls, and feminine behaviors not expected from boys.

Society describes the rules for boys/men and girls/women in many different cultures. They teach their children how they should behave based on their gender. There are some feminine and masculine behaviors that are linked with girls and boys, respectively. For example, girls are expected to become more emotional, caring, or sensitive, while boys are encouraged to become more powerful, career-oriented, and independent (Koenig, 2018). Similar to those, some boundaries are drawn on what children should not do based on gender norms in society. That is, masculine preferences and behaviors are not expected from girls while feminine preferences and behaviors of boys are mostly evaluated negatively by parents, teachers, or adults (Endendijk et al., 2014; Koenig, 2018). Aggression was defined as a masculine trait in the literature. Although being aggressive is not encouraged for children in general, it could be more tolerated if performed by boys (Lytton & Romney, 1991). On the other hand, being emotional, warm or sensitive are perceived as feminine (Bem, 1974) and not expected from boys. The factor structure of the Parents’ Gender-

stereotypical Beliefs about Children Scale (PGBC) fits well with those stereotypical behaviors of girls and boys. PBGC has four components that are in line with feminine and masculine traits that are expected and not expected from girls and boys.

Researchers suggest that there are two types of stereotypes expected from boys/men and girls/women: prescriptive and proscriptive stereotypes (Prentice & Carranza, 2002). Prescriptive stereotypes include encouraged gender-related preferences and behaviors for boys/men and girls/women. In other words, prescriptive stereotypes were related to what individuals should do based on their gender. On the other hand, proscriptive stereotypes define undesirable behaviors or reactions for boys/men and girls/women (Koenig, 2018). Those stereotypes explain what boys/men and girls/women should avoid based on their gender. In the current study, the factor structure of PGCB is parallel to the previous finding in the literature. The items are separated from each other as prescriptive and proscriptive stereotypes for boys and girls. Thus, the scale includes four components in total. The first component is masculine traits expected from boys (prescriptive stereotypes) and includes seven items. The items in this component tap onto various masculine traits as success in cognitive areas, competition, physical activity, mechanical knowledge, leadership, violence, and physical power. The second component includes nine items that tap onto masculine traits that are not expected from girls (proscriptive stereotypes). Similar to the first component, there are several masculine traits in this component but those traits are not encouraged for girls. In the third component, feminine traits expected from girls (prescriptive stereotypes), the five items dwell on girls' emotional traits and caring motivation. Interestingly, the last component which includes feminine traits that are not expected from boys (proscriptive stereotypes) also focuses on emotional traits and caring motivation. Thus, while aggression, independence, cognitive ability, interest to mechanical things were desirable for boys, most of those traits are not encouraged for girls. One of the previous researches provided support for those results. In that study, Martin (1995) asked adults to evaluate the desirability of some feminine and masculine traits for girls and boys between the age of 4-7. The researcher found that mostly emphasized traits for girls were related to their communication skills, emotionality, and emphatic motivation.

In addition, adults thought that girls should not be loud which is defined as a masculine trait. Boys were expected to become physically active, aggressive, competitive, or have the interest in mechanical things in the same study, but expressions of sadness or frustration were not encouraged for boys.

Although there are some different components of gender-stereotypes as toy preferences or physical appearance in childhood, most of the traits expected from adults and children based on gender were found to be similar (Koenig, 2018). Since gender-stereotypical behaviors of children (such as expecting girls to play with dolls, kitchen-related toys, etc.) might be considered as reflections of adult life (such as expecting women to care for their children, husbands, or households), this similarity in gender-stereotypes is not surprising. Also, literature indicates that there is a positive link between gender-stereotypical beliefs and gender discriminative behaviors in many different areas (e.g. Cejka & Eagly, 1999; Garrahy, 2003; Reby, Levréro, Gustafsson, & Mathevon, 2016). Considering all those findings, we tested the relationship between PGBC and parents' sexism level towards men and women in order to assess the validity of the scale. The results indicated that parents who scored higher on gender-stereotypical beliefs about children are more likely to become sexist towards men and women. In addition, the follow-up questions about the justifications of children's gender-stereotypical behaviors were found to be related to the sexist attitudes of parents. Parents who believe that gender-stereotypical behaviors of children have been mostly resulted from internal factors tend to have more sexist attitudes towards adults. Although previous studies examined the link between gender-stereotypes and discriminatory behaviors, the current study extended the findings by examining gender-stereotypes related to children's behaviors and justifications. Since those concepts were highly related to each other, many different measurement tools evaluate those themes together under a single construct. However, Burge (1981) stated that they were not exactly the same concepts. Thus, in the current study, we separated gender-stereotypical beliefs about children from other concepts in order to examine its relationship with children's gender typing of self and others.

5.3. Preschoolers' Gender-typing of Self and Others in Family Context

Starting from a very early age, societal messages on gender roles have an impact on children's identity development process. According to the Ecological System Model (Bronfenbrenner, 1992), family is the closest system to children who give that kind of messages via channeling, having differential treatment to girls and boys, modeling, and giving direct instruction (Blakemore & Hill, 2008). In the last study, we specifically investigated the predictive role of parents' gender-stereotypical beliefs about children on gender-typing of self and gender-typing of others, and whether parents' justifications of gender-related behaviors would moderate this relationship. In addition, we examined children's gender typing of self and others by considering division of chores and child care in home setting. The results showed some similarities and differences for children's gender-stereotypes in family context.

5.3.1. The Predictive Role of Parents' Gender-stereotypical Beliefs on Children's Gender-Typing

One of the main aims of the current study is to focus on specifically parents' gender-stereotypical beliefs about children and its predictive role on preschoolers' gender-stereotypes. Before examining this relationship, first of all, we compared the level of mothers' and fathers' gender-stereotypical beliefs. The results indicated that fathers have more stereotypical beliefs compared to mothers. A recent study provided evidence for those results by indicating that during a picture book reading with children fathers tend to confirm gender-stereotypes more than mothers do (Endendijk et al., 2014). Another study indicated that fathers have more explicit stereotypes compared to mothers (Endendijk et al., 2013). This pattern of results might be explained by how much society allows men and women to express their real thoughts (Ekehammar, Akrami, & Araya, 2003). In addition, men have higher desires to preserve their social position as dominant in societal settings which channel them to defend traditional gender roles more strictly (Sidanus & Pratto, 1999). Therefore, in the present study, fathers might have expressed gender-stereotypes related to children more easily than mothers did and emphasized gender-stereotypes more frequently, with the motivation to maintain the status of men in society.

At the beginning of the study, we hypothesized that parents' gender-stereotypical beliefs about children would predict preschooler's gender typing of self and others, and this relationship would be moderated by gender-based justifications of parents. Our hypotheses were partially supported. The two different models that we tested for our hypotheses indicated that fathers' and mothers' gender-stereotypical beliefs about children predicted children's gender-typing of others, but not gender-typing of self. On the one hand, as the fathers' or mothers' gender-stereotypical beliefs increase, their children would tend to be less flexible in their gender-stereotypical attitudes towards others. On the other hand, personal evaluations of children on gender-related issues were not predicted by both parents' beliefs. Our results align with the previous studies by indicating that parental gender ideology – having traditional or egalitarian attitudes towards gender roles defined by society – have predictive role children's gender-stereotypes (Halpern & Perry-Jenkins, 2016). Parents who have a more traditional ideology about gender might tend to use more generic information (e.g. Girls play with dolls) in a conversation or confirm gender-stereotypical sentences of children. As social learning theory suggested (Bussey & Bandura, 1999), parents' those kinds of behaviors guide children to acquire gender roles by observing and imitating their parents.

One of the important findings highlights that this predictive role is valid only for children's gender-typing of others (Attitude Measure-AM), not gender-typing of self (Personal Measure-PM). There can be two explanations for those results. First of all, children's personal interest in certain toys, activities, occupations or experience with those things might change their personal evaluations on gender-related issues (Bigler & Liben, 2006, 2007). They might become more flexible on gender-related preferences and behaviors for themselves. In addition, even though both fathers and mothers get higher scores on the PGBC scale, they might behave more flexibly towards their own children because of emotional closeness. Thus, this emotional closeness makes children free in their toy preferences, activities, or behaviors, regardless of children's gender. Second of all, the task that we use to measure gender-typing of self and others includes an important difference in the evaluation process. In gender typing of self (PM), they were asked how much they like some feminine

and masculine toys. On the other hand, in gender-typing of others, (AM) they were asked to categorize those items either as for boys/men and girls/women, or for both of those categories. Therefore, while the personal measure category includes children's own interest, the second category was specifically designed to measure stereotypical attitudes towards others (Liben et al., 2002) . Using boys'/men's and girls'/women's pictures and making gender salience in language might have led children to focus on their gender schemas more. In addition, their answers might have shown more diversity due to different personal experiences and interests

In children's gender role development process, it is important to examine how families justify children's gender-related behaviors, as well as their own gender ideologies. Previous studies indicated that if parents have a tendency to believe that gender-related behaviors of children come from birth and are resistant to change, their children will be more likely to show gender-consistent preferences and behaviors (Meyer & Gelman, 2016). In addition, those essentialist beliefs about gender are found to be highly correlated with adults' own gender-stereotypes. Considering those findings, we expected that how parents justify children's behaviors would moderate the relationship between their gender-stereotypical beliefs about children and preschoolers' gender-typing. However, this hypothesis was not supported. That means that the relationship between parents' gender-stereotypes and children's gender-stereotypical attitudes towards others does not depend on the justifications related to the source of behaviors. We speculated that behavior itself may be more important and observable than the cause of the behaviors for parents. While they have chance to make a lot of observations about these stereotypical behaviors in daily life, they may have experienced fewer stimuli on the internal and external causes of these behaviors. For this reason, the relationship between parents and child stereotypes has been found to be independent of what children's behaviors depends on. There might be other variables that moderate the stated relationship as other environmental factor (e.g. preschool, peers, teachers, media etc.), which needs further investigation.

5.3.2. The Predictive Role of Division of Chores and Child Care on Children's Gender-typing

Observations and modeling provide children to internalize societal rules including different roles defined based on gender (Bussey & Bandura, 1999; Martin & Ruble, 2010). Division of chores and child care between mothers and fathers provide children to make observation about feminine and masculine roles in home settings. Since chores and child care responsibilities are defined as feminine (Bubner-Ennsner, 2003; Cerrato & Cifre, 2018), we expected that mothers' higher responsibility or fathers' lower responsibility on those tasks would predict more gender-stereotypical evaluations among children. Our hypotheses were partially supported. In addition, descriptive results indicated that while responsibilities related to child care tend to be shared more equally, household responsibilities such as cooking, cleaning, or washing clothes were mostly reported under women's responsibility by both fathers and mothers. However, it should be noted that more equally shared child care responsibilities included making activities with children, going outside, or playing games while changing nappies or feeding are seen as mothers' responsibility. That descriptive information provided some evidence that fathers are still seen as playmates and mothers continue to be primary caregivers who support emotional and physical development as found in previous studies (Bianchi et al., 2006; Grossmann et al., 2002).

When the studies investigating the division of labor at home were examined, it was observed that there were some inconsistencies between men's and women's statements. While fathers were more likely to think that child care and household responsibilities are shared equally in their home, mothers reported that they do those tasks more frequently ("Raising kids and running a household: How working parents share the load," 2015). Regarding those differences, in the current study, we tested mothers' and fathers' evaluations of themselves and their partners on the division of child care and chores in separate models. The results indicated that mothers who perceive more responsibility in chores have children who are less flexible on their gender-stereotypic attitudes towards others. Those results suggested that mothers' responsibility in chores have a primary role in their children's gender-stereotypical

attitudes towards others, but not for their own stereotypical interest. One of the longitudinal studies found similar results by indicating that mothers who took more traditional responsibility in early years of life more likely to have children who have more stereotypical attitudes towards others in later years (Dawson, Pike, & Bird, 2016). Thus, observations about their mothers' domestic responsibility might shape children's stereotypical attitudes towards others in terms of gender roles. Although the link between mothers' responsibility and children's stereotypes is in line with our expectations, in the situation that mothers perceived themselves as taking more responsibility in child care, their children tend to become more flexible in their gender-related attitudes towards others. Even though children have chance to observe their mothers' domestic role in child care, how mothers direct their children in those times is ambiguous. In addition, for mothers, caring with children can be perceived as something beyond gender equality (Johnston & Swanson, 2006). Thus, mothers' egalitarian or traditional views might be channeler for children's gender-related attitudes in child care. Considering the higher SES level of the mothers in the present study, spending more time with their children might have increased their children's flexibility towards others.

Both mothers' perceptions about fathers' responsibility and fathers' perception about their own responsibility in chores predicted their children's personal interest to gender-related toys, activities or occupations; but not their attitudes towards others. One of the previous study found that fathers gendered behaviors was not related to their children's interest to gender-related occupations (Halpern & Perry-Jenkins, 2016). Contrary to this finding, present study showed that fathers' who take more domestic responsibility as cleaning or cooking are more likely to have children who are flexible on their gender-based interest. Since most of the domestic responsibilities are defined as feminine (Kroska, 2003), fathers' more responsibility in those things might be more salient for children. In addition, fathers' changing attitudes towards traditional gender roles in a marriage is related to less conflict (Amato & Booth, 1995), children might be less aware of distinct gender roles in home settings. In our study, lower gender-stereotypical beliefs about children were found to be related to higher responsibility in chores for fathers. Thus, those fathers might

also free their children in their personal preferences and behaviors due to their gender ideology. Finally, contrary to our expectations, fathers' responsibility in child care did not predict children's gender-typing of self and others. The reason for this result can be the visibility of those responsibility sharing by children. That is, since spouses reported that they have more conflict on chores than child care (Kluwer, Heesink, & Van De Vliert, 2000), children are more likely to be exposed gender differences in division of chores. In addition, conceptualization of parenting might have shown individual differences (Darling & Steinberg, 1993) and spending time with children might not be defined as more feminine in recent years. Those findings about division of chores and child care point out the crucial role of behavioral socialization for children's personal interests and attitudes towards others with the unique role of mothers and fathers.

5.4. Contributions and Implications of the Study

There are a number of contributions and implications of the current study for gender development. Although categorizing based on gender helps individuals to organize life (Blakemore et al., 2009), those gender roles often prevent individuals to show their real potential, behaviors or interest in many areas (e.g. Muzzatti & Agnoli, 2007; Smith & Hung, 2008). At this point, it is crucial to examine how these gender roles and stereotypes are acquired to remove those gender-related obstacles. In light of those concerns, the current study examined parents' and children's views on gender by using a mixed-method design and made a unique contribution to the existing literature by using both qualitative and quantitative research methods.

First of all, to the best of our knowledge, it is the first study in the literature which examined parents' and children's perception about gender-stereotypes for the preschoolers who is a member of family (self-referenced information) and for a typical boy/girl (other-referenced information). The results indicated that family members used similar themes for the child in the family who participated and for a random boy or girl in terms of their contents. However, the frequency of those themes showed some differences. Fathers and their children were found to be more flexible while talking about their own children and themselves, respectively. Thus, it can be concluded that knowing someone more closely might change stereotypical beliefs

and cause more flexible evaluations by considering personal interests. Future studies can use this information to change family members' gender-stereotypical beliefs. Giving more and detailed information about girls' and boys' various choices, success, abilities or behaviors might increase flexibility in gender-stereotypical beliefs and attitudes among parents. Second of all, a new measurement tool was developed to measure specifically parents' gender-stereotypical beliefs about girls and boys in the current study. In addition, follow-up questions for each item provide information about the parents' justifications on children's gender-related behaviors. The scale was developed in two-steps by blending the qualitative and quantitative studies. Conducting a qualitative study with 40 mother-child-father triads before testing factor structure, provide comprehensive content that covers many different gender-related behaviors and preferences of children in real life. In addition, the scale was unique, especially in the Turkish cultural context, in terms of construct that is measured. In previous studies that examined the role of parents in children's gender role development, parents' gender role attitudes were usually measured by discriminatory attitudes towards adults, their feminine or masculine traits, or their beliefs about gender roles (e.g. Athenstaedt, 2002; Hoffman & Kloska, 1995; Şirvanlı Özen, 1992). However, the current study specifically focused on gender-stereotypical beliefs about children. Although the scale was developed for parents in the present study, we suggest that it can be used with different types of individuals in other research areas that investigate the development of children's gender roles. Future researchers might use PGBC scale in education areas to measure teachers' gender-stereotypical beliefs or to compare parental and non-parental beliefs in order to examine the potential role of having children in changing stereotypical attitudes.

In previous studies, the predictive role of parental ideology, division of chores and child care on children's gender role development have been studied widely (e.g. Boe & Woods, 2018; Endendijk et al., 2013; Halpern & Perry-Jenkins, 2016; Sumontha et al., 2017). The current study approached the predictive role of the family from a broader and integrative perspective. Mothers' and fathers' gender-stereotypical beliefs about children, their perception on division of child care and chores were tested in different models. Also, children's stereotypes were measured

under two constructs: gender-typing of self and gender-typing of others. The results indicated that mothers' and fathers' have some similarities and differences in predicting children's gender-typing of self and others. Both mothers' and fathers' gender-stereotypical beliefs were found to be important for children's gender-typing of others, while fathers' participation in chores predicted less gender-typing of self among children. Future researchers might develop interventions for children's gender-stereotypes by taking similarities and differences into considerations between mothers and fathers' role.

5.5. Limitations and Future Directions

In addition to important contributions, there are some limitations of the current study. First of all, sample size of the first ($N_{\text{traids}} = 40$) and third study ($N_{\text{traids}} = 152$) might be evaluated as inadequate for the applied analyses. However, it should be emphasized that those numbers did not correspond to individual participants, but they represent mother-child-father triads in total. In addition, all families in the first and second sample were visited at their homes to collect data which was a difficult period due to limited time given for the completion of this dissertation. Future researchers might reach larger sample size to test family effect on children's gender role development.

The second limitation is related to the construct that measure parents' justifications for children's gender-stereotypical preferences and behaviors. In order to measure this construct, parents were asked to rate what percentage of children's gender-related behaviors are resulted from internal or external factors. Factor analysis and reliability test confirmed the structure of those follow-up questions. In addition, correlations between gender-stereotypical beliefs and justifications were significant and in the expected direction. However, those follow-ups might have been confusing for parents because they had to evaluate the same items in two different levels. Future studies might use the scales that include more comprehensive and detailed items to measure parents' justifications for gender-related behaviors.

In order to measure girls' and boys' personal interest to gender-stereotypical toys, activities and occupations in the third study, we used a single composite item. Higher scores in gender-consistent items and lower scores in gender-inconsistent

items were evaluated as having more gender-typing of self. Although children were expected to choose toys and occupations consistent with their gender and avoid gender-inconsistent ones, their interest to those feminine and masculine toys and occupations might show differences based on parents' gender-stereotypes and responsibility sharing in home settings. Future research might extend the current study by testing the same model for masculine and feminine items for girls and boys, separately.

In the first and second sample, parents' socio-economic status and education level could be evaluated as a limitation for the current study. Since those samples were recruited from middle and high socio-economic class, they are expected to become more egalitarian gender-related beliefs and attitudes towards children. In addition, we specifically chose the parents who were married and living in the same house for those studies. We speculated that parents' and children's gender-related evaluations and stereotypes might show differences for the families from low socio-economic class and for different type of families (e.g. divorced, living with extended families, living with mothers, living with fathers etc.). Finally, having more than one child and gender of those children might change both parents' and children's gender-typing of self and others. Future studies might examine the same research questions in different socio-economic class and different family types in order to develop more comprehensive intervention related to gender-stereotypes.

Last but not least, there might be some limitations about the sampling and measurement methods. Firstly, snowball technique was used to reach families in the current study which might influence the representativeness of the findings. The further research might use random sampling technique to increase generalizability. Second of all, two different samples were used to test the factor structure of the newly developed scale which aims to measure parents' gender-stereotypical beliefs about children. The first sample was recruited via online platforms and the second sample was recruited via home visits. Although the first and second participants answered the same questions, the data collection techniques were different. There are some advantages and disadvantages of the two methods. Collecting data online provided us to reach larger samples, however, decreased the variations in scales' reliability.

Further, social desirability might be less effective in online methods compared to paper-pen techniques because participants tend to feel more confident that anonymity will be protected in online surveys (Ward, Clark, Zabriskie, & Morris, 2014). Considering that our home visits might have influenced our second sample's answers by increasing social desirability, we suggest that the reliability and factor structure of the scale might be checked in the future via online or traditional paper-pen methods.

5.6. Conclusion

Gender is an important social category that organizes individual's behaviors and attitudes towards others (Blakemore et al., 2009). Being an important social construct that shapes individuals' worldviews, behaviors, attitudes, and choices, it deserves more attention to be examined in different contexts. Since children are born into the family context, gender-related messages coming from family members were important for children's construction of gender-related worldviews. In the current dissertation, we specifically examined preschoolers' gender-typing of self and others in the family context. The results indicated that family members' gender-stereotypes might show some differences based on whom they are evaluating. Even though they use similar contents for self-referenced and other relevant-questions, the details for the child in the family who participated vs. a random child have changed. The tested models in the current study also supported the different patterns in predicting children's evaluations of themselves and their attitudes towards others. Both parents' gender-stereotypical beliefs and mothers' responsibility in chores were found to be important for children's gender-related attitudes towards others. On the other hand, fathers' responsibility seemed to be predictive for children's own gender-related preferences or behaviors. Blending qualitative and quantitative research in examining children's gender-stereotypes in the family context required more time and energy, but it is worthwhile for gathering a more comprehensive picture on gender roles. Thus, the present dissertation made a unique contribution to the related literature by examining both parents' roles and children's views on gender-stereotypes by using qualitative and quantitative research methods together. Future research should shed more light onto gender development in family context by using different yet complementary research methods.

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APPENDICES

A. PARENTAL APPROVAL AND INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Study 1

Sayın Veliler, Sevgili Anne-Babalar,

Bu çalışma ODTÜ Psikoloji Bölümü araştırma görevlilerinden Hatice Işık-Baş tarafından doktora tezi kapsamında Yrd. Doç. Dr. Başak Şahin-Acar danışmanlığında yürütülmektedir. Bu form sizi araştırma koşulları hakkında bilgilendirmek için hazırlanmıştır.

Çalışmanın amacı aile içinde toplumsal cinsiyetle ilgili tutumları araştırmak ve cinsiyete dair bilgilerin ebeveynlerden çocuklara nasıl aktarıldığını incelemektir.

Çalışma için aile ziyaretleri yapılacaktır. Ailelerden gerekli izinler aldıktan sonra demografik bilgileri içeren kısa formları doldurmaları istenecektir. Daha sonra evin uygun bir bölümünde anne, baba ve okul öncesi çocuk ile yaklaşık 15-20 dakika süren kısa görüşmeler yapılacaktır. Bu görüşmelerde sizden ve çocuğunuzdan cinsiyet kalıp yargıları ile ilgili kısa soruları cevaplamanız istenecektir. Görüşmeler ses kayıt daha sonra yazılı ortama aktarılmak üzere ses kayıt cihazı ile kaydedilecektir.

Çalışmaya katılmak tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Siz ve çocuğunuz çalışmaya katılıp katılmamakta özgürsünüz. Çocuğunuzun cevaplayacağınız soruların onun psikolojik gelişimine olumsuz etkisi olmayacağından emin olabilirsiniz. Yine de, bu formu imzaladıktan sonra hem siz hem de çocuğunuz katılımcılıktan ayrılma hakkına sahiptir. Katılım sırasında sorulan sorulardan ya da herhangi bir uygulama ile ilgili başka bir nedenden ötürü çocuğunuz kendisini rahatsız hissettiğini belirtirse, ya da kendi belirtmese de araştırmacı çocuğunuzun rahatsız olduğunu öngörürse, çalışmaya sorular tamamlanmadan ve derhal son verilecektir. Şayet siz çocuğunuzun rahatsız olduğunu hissederseniz, böyle bir durumda çalışmadan sorumlu kişiye çocuğunuzun çalışmadan ayrılmasını istediğinizi söylemeniz yeterli olacaktır. Bunun yanında siz de çalışma sırasında herhangi bir rahatsızlık hissederseniz çalışmayı yarıda bırakıp çıkma hakkını sahiptir. Ayrıca cevap vermek istemediğiniz soruları boş bırakabilir ya da cevaplamak istemediğinizi söyleyebilirsiniz.

Araştırmaya katılanlardan toplanan veriler tamamen gizli tutulacak, veriler ve kimlik bilgileri herhangi bir şekilde eşleştirilmeyecektir. Katılımcıların isimleri bağımsız bir listede toplanacaktır. Ayrıca toplanan verilere sadece araştırmacılar ulaşabilecektir. Bu araştırmanın sonuçları bilimsel ve profesyonel yayınlarda veya eğitim amaçlı kullanılabilir, fakat katılımcıların kimliği gizli tutulacaktır.

Araştırmayla ilgili daha fazla bilgi almak isterseniz çalışmayla ilgili soru ve yorumlarınızı araştırmacıya ihatice@metu.edu.tr adresinden iletebilirsiniz.

Lütfen bu araştırmaya katılmak konusundaki tercihinizi aşağıdaki seçeneklerden size en uygun gelenin altına imzanızı atarak belirtiniz:

A) Bu arařtırmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum ve çocuđum’nın da katılımcı olmasına izin veriyorum. Çalıřmayı istediđim zaman yarıda kesip bırakabileceđimi biliyorum ve verdiđim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı olarak kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum.

Baba Adı-Soyadı..... Anne Adı-Soyadı.....
İmza İmza
Tarih..... Tarih.....

B) Bu çalıřmaya katılmayı kabul etmiyorum ve çocuđumun’nın da katılımcı olmasına izin vermiyorum.

Baba Adı-Soyadı..... Anne Adı-Soyadı.....
İmza İmza
Tarih..... Tarih.....

Study 2

Sevgili anneler/babalar,

Bu çalıřma ODTÜ Psikoloji Bölümü doktora öğrencilerinden Hatice Iřık-Baş tarafından doktora tezi kapsamında Yrd. Doç. Dr. Başak Şahin-Acar danışmanlığında yürütölmektedir. Bu form sizi arařtırma kořulları hakkında bilgilendirmek için hazırlanmıřtır.

Çalıřmanın amacı anne-babaların kız ve erkek çocuklarının günlük hayattaki davranıřlarına, seçimlerine ve tepkilerine yönelik gözlemlerine dayanan bir ölçek geliřtirmektir.

Çalıřmanın verileri çevrim içi olarak toplanacaktır. Katılımcılardan gereken izinler alındıktan sonra demografik bilgileri içeren kısa formları doldurmaları istenecektir. Katılımcıların daha sonra kız ve erkek çocukları ile ilgili gözlem ve deneyimlerin düşünerek bir takım durumları deđerlendirmeleri beklenmektedir. Çalıřmanın 15-20 dakika sürmesi planlanmaktadır.

Çalıřmaya katılmak tamamen gönüllölük esasına dayanmaktadır ve çalıřmaya katılıp katılmamakta özgürsünüz. Cevaplayacađınız soruların sizin psikolojik sađlıđınıza bir zararı olmayacađından emin olabilirsiniz. Yine de, bu formu onayladıktan sonra katılımcılıktan ayrılma hakkına sahipsiniz. Çalıřma sırasında herhangi bir rahatsızlık hissederseniz çalıřmayı yarıda bırakıp sonlandırabilirsiniz.

Arařtırmaya katılanlardan toplanan veriler tamamen gizli tutulacak, veriler ve kimlik bilgileri herhangi bir řekilde eřleřtirilmeyecektir. Katılımcıların isimleri bađımsız bir listede toplanacaktır. Ayrıca toplanan verilere sadece arařtırmacılar ulaşabilecektir. Bu arařtırmanın sonuçları bilimsel ve profesyonel yayınlarda veya eđitim amaçlı kullanılabilir, fakat katılımcıların kimliđi gizli tutulacaktır.

Çalıřmayla ilgili soru ve yorumlarınızı arařtırmacıya hatice.isik@metu.edu.tr adresinden iletebilirsiniz.

- O Çalışmaya gönüllü olarak katılıyorum.
O Çalışmaya katılmak istemiyorum.

Study 3

Sayın Veliler, Sevgili Anne-Babalar,

Bu çalışma ODTÜ Psikoloji Bölümü doktora öğrencilerinden Hatice Işık-Baş tarafından doktora tezi kapsamında Yrd. Doç. Dr. Başak Şahin-Acar danışmanlığında yürütülmektedir. Bu form sizi araştırma koşulları hakkında bilgilendirmek için hazırlanmıştır.

Çalışmanın amacı aile içindeki bazı sosyal değerlerin aileden çocuğa nasıl aktarıldığını incelemektir.

Çalışma için çocuğunuzla 15-20 dakika süren kısa görüşmeler yapılacaktır. Çocuğunuza görüşme sırasında bazı meslek ve oyuncak resimleri gösterilerek, verilen karakterle bu meslek ve oyuncakları eşleştirmeleri istenecektir. Bu görüşmeler ailenin tercihinine göre okul içinde ya da ailenin kendi evinde yapılabilmektedir. Ayrıca anne ve babalardan demografik bilgi formu ve çocuklara dair gözlemlerin ölçüldüğü anketleri doldurmaları istenecektir.

Çalışmaya katılmak tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Siz ve çocuğunuz çalışmaya katılıp katılmamakta özgürsünüz. Çocuğunuzun cevaplayacağınız soruların onun psikolojik gelişimine olumsuz etkisi olmayacağından emin olabilirsiniz. Yine de, bu formu imzaladıktan sonra hem siz hem de çocuğunuz katılımcılıktan ayrılma hakkına sahiptir. Katılım sırasında sorulan sorulardan ya da herhangi bir uygulama ile ilgili başka bir nedenden ötürü çocuğunuz kendisini rahatsız hissettiğini belirtirse, ya da kendi belirtmese de araştırmacı çocuğun rahatsız olduğunu öngörürse, çalışmaya sorular tamamlanmadan ve derhal son verilecektir. Şayet siz çocuğunuzun rahatsız olduğunu hissederseniz, böyle bir durumda çalışmadan sorumlu kişiye çocuğunuzun çalışmadan ayrılmasını istediğinizi söylemeniz yeterli olacaktır. Bunun yanında siz de çalışma sırasında herhangi bir rahatsızlık hissederseniz çalışmayı yarıda bırakıp çıkma hakkını sahiptir.

Araştırmaya katılanlardan toplanan veriler tamamen gizli tutulacak, veriler ve kimlik bilgileri herhangi bir şekilde eşleştirilmeyecektir. Katılımcıların isimleri bağımsız bir listede toplanacaktır. Ayrıca toplanan verilere sadece araştırmacılar ulaşabilecektir. Bu araştırmanın sonuçları bilimsel ve profesyonel yayınlarda veya eğitim amaçlı kullanılabilir, fakat katılımcıların kimliği gizli tutulacaktır.

Araştırmayla ilgili daha fazla bilgi almak isterseniz çalışmayla ilgili soru ve yorumlarınızı araştırmacıya ihatice@metu.edu.tr adresinden iletebilirsiniz.

Lütfen bu araştırmaya katılmak konusundaki tercihinizi aşağıdaki seçeneklerden size en uygun gelenin altına imzanızı atarak belirtiniz:

A) Bu araştırmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum ve çocuğum'nın da katılımcı olmasına izin veriyorum. Çalışmayı istediğim zaman yarıda kesip bırakabileceğimi biliyorum ve verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı olarak kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum.

Baba Adı-Soyadı.....

Anne Adı-Soyadı.....

İmza

İmza

Tarih.....

Tarih.....

B) Bu çalışmaya katılmayı kabul etmiyorum ve çocuğumun
.....'nın da katılımcı olmasına izin vermiyorum.

Baba Adı-Soyadı.....

Anne Adı-Soyadı.....

İmza

İmza

Tarih.....

Tarih.....

B. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FORM

1-Sevgili anneler/babalar,

Çalışmamızın anket kısmına başlamak üzeresiniz. Daha önce imzaladığınız gönüllü katılım formunda belirtildiği gibi çalışma tamamen gönüllük esasına dayanmakta olup istediğiniz an çalışmadan çıkmakta serbest olduğunuzu bir kez daha hatırlatmak isteriz. Verdiğiniz bilgiler gizli tutulacak, veriler ve kimlik bilgileri herhangi bir şekilde eşleştirilmeyecektir.

Bu formda size çocuğunuz ve eşinizle ilgili demografik bilgileri içeren kısa sorular sorulacaktır. Lütfen her bir soruyu dikkatlice okuyup cevaplayınız.

2) Lütfen size verilen katılımcı numarasını başına A/B koyarak giriniz. (Örneğin size verilen katılımcı numarası 3 ise aşağıdaki alana A3/B3 yazınız)

3) Lütfen doğum tarihinizi gün/ay/yıl olarak giriniz.

4) Lütfen eğitim durumunuzu (En son bitirdiğiniz okulu) işaretleyiniz.

İlkokul Ortaokul Lise
Ön Lisans (meslek yüksek okulları, 2 yıllık üniversiteler)
 Lisans (Lisans (En az 4 yıllık üniversiteler) Yüksek lisans Doktora

5) Çocukluğunuzda ve gençliğinizde en uzun süre yaşadığınız yerleşim birimini belirtiniz.

Köy Kasaba İlçe İl Büyükşehir

6) Çalışma durumunuz:

Çalışıyorum Çalışmıyorum Emekliyim Geçmişte çalıştım ama şu anda çalışmıyorum

7) Kaç çocuğunuz var?

8) Lütfen çocuğunuzun/çocuklarınızın yaşlarını gün/ay/yıl olarak yazınız.

9) Lütfen çocuğunuzun/çocuklarınızın cinsiyetini belirtiniz.

10) Lütfen çalışmaya katılan çocuğunuzun cinsiyetini işaretleyiniz.

11) Lütfen çalışmaya katılan çocuğunuzun doğum tarihini gün/ay/yıl olarak belirtiniz.

12) Hanenize giren ortak geliri belirtiniz:

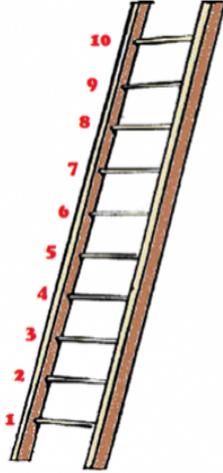
- Çalışmıyoruz ve bir gelir kaynağımız yok.
 2 000 tl'den az
 2 001-4 000 tl arası
 4 001-6 000 tl arası
 6 001-8 000 tl arası
 8 001-10 000 tl arası

- O 10 001-12 000 tl arası
- O 12 001-14 000 tl arası
- O 14 001-16 000 tl arası
- O 16 001 tl ve üzeri

13) Resimdeki merdivenin kişilerin toplumdaki yerini yansıttığını düşünün.

En üst basamak (10) toplumdaki en varlıklı grubu temsil ediyor. Bu gruptaki insanlar en çok paraya, en yüksek eğitim seviyesine ve en saygın mesleklere sahipler.

En alt basamak (1) toplumdaki en yoksul grubu temsil ediyor. Bu gruptaki insanlar en az paraya, en düşük eğitim seviyesine ve kimsenin çalışmak istemediği mesleklere sahipler.



Şimdi lütfen kendinizi ve ailenizi düşünün. Siz ve aileniz, bu 10 basamak arasında nerede olurdunuz?

**C. SEMI-STRUCTURED QUESTIONS FOR CHILDREN'S
GENDER-RELATED PREFERENCES AND BEHAVIORS**

Merhaba, Őimdi size kızınızla/ođlunuzla/kız çocuklarıyla/ođlan çocuklarıyla ilgili bazı sorular soracađım. Soruların dođru ya da yanlış cevabı yok. Lütfen içinizden geldiđi cevaplayın.

		Çocuđun kendisi için/Kendi çocukları için sorulan sorular	Rastgele erkek ve kız çocuklar için sorulan sorular
Evdeki iŐ bölümü	Anne/ Baba	<p>XXX yavaş yavaş büyüyor. Büyüdükçe evdeki ve aile içindeki hangi iŐleri yapması beklenir? Sizin evdeki hangi iŐlerde yardım etmesi gerekir? Neden?</p> <p>XXX büyüse de evdeki ve aile içindeki hangi iŐleri yapması beklenmez? Sizin evdeki hangi iŐlerde yardım etmesi gerekmez? Neden?</p>	<p>Bir kız çocuđunun/erkek çocuđunun büyüdükçe evdeki ve aile içindeki hangi iŐleri yapması beklenir? Anne-babasına evdeki hangi iŐlerde yardım etmesi gerekir? Neden?</p> <p>Bir kız çocuđu/erkek çocuđu büyüse de evdeki ve aile içindeki hangi iŐleri yapması beklenmez? Anne-babasına evdeki hangi iŐlerde yardım etmesi gerekmez? Neden?</p>
	Çocuk	<p>Sen yavaş yavaş büyüyorsun. Büyüdükçe evdeki ve aile içindeki hangi iŐleri yapman gerekir? Anne-babana evdeki hangi iŐlerde yardım etmen gerekir? Neden?</p> <p>Sen büyösen de evdeki ve aile içindeki hangi iŐleri yapman beklenmez? Sizin evdeki hangi iŐlerde yardım etmen gerekmez?</p>	<p>Sence bir kız çocuđunun/erkek çocuđunun büyüdükçe evdeki ve aile içindeki hangi iŐleri yapması gerekir? Anne-babasına evdeki hangi iŐlerde yardım etmesi gerekir? Neden?</p> <p>Sence bir kız çocuđu/bir erkek çocuđu büyüse de evdeki ve aile içindeki hangi iŐleri yapması beklenmez? Anne-</p>

			babasına evdeki hangi işlerde yardım etmen gerekmez?
Oyuncak tercihi	Anne/ Baba	XXX hangi tür oyuncaklarla oynamayı seviyor? Sizce neden bu tür oyuncaklarla oynamayı tercih ediyor? XXX hangi tür oyuncaklarla oynamayı sevmez? Sizce neden bu tür oyuncaklarla oynamayı tercih etmez?	Sizce bir kız çocuğu/erkek çocuğu hangi tür oyuncaklarla oynamayı sever? Neden bu oyuncaklarla oynamayı tercih eder? Sizce bir kız çocuğu/erkek çocuğu hangi tür oyuncaklarla oynamayı sevmez? Neden bu tür oyuncaklarla oynamayı tercih etmez?
	Çocuk	Sen hangi tür oyuncaklarla oynamayı seviyorsun? Neden bu oyuncaklarla oynamayı tercih ediyorsun? Sen hangi tür oyuncaklarla oynamayı sevmezsin? Neden bu oyuncaklarla oynamayı tercih etmiyorsun?	Sence bir kız çocuğu/erkek çocuğu hangi tür oyuncaklarla oynamayı sever? Neden bu oyuncaklarla oynamayı tercih eder? Sence bir kız çocuğu/erkek çocuğu hangi tür oyuncaklarla oynamayı sevmez? Neden bu tür oyuncaklarla oynamayı tercih etmez?
Arkadaşlık	Anne/ Baba	XXX kızlar mı erkekler mi oynamayı daha çok sever? Neden?	Bir kız çocuğu/erkek çocuğu erkeklerle mi kızlarla mı oynamayı daha çok sever? Neden?
	Çocuk	Sen kızlarla mı erkeklerle mi oynamayı daha çok seviyorsun? Neden?	Bir kız çocuğu/erkek çocuğu erkeklerle mi kızlarla mı oynamayı daha çok sever? Neden?
Meslek tercihi/İlgisi	Anne/ Baba	XXX'in gelecekte yapmak isteyeceği meslek/meslekler nelerdir? Yani ileride ne olmak ister? Neden? XXX'in gelecekte yapmak istemeyeceği meslek/meslekler	Sizce bir kız çocuğunun/bir erkek çocuğunun gelecek yapmak isteyeceği meslek/meslekler nelerdir? İleride ne

		nelerdir? Yani ileride ne olmak istemez? Neden?	olmak isterler? Neden sizce? Sizce bir kız çocuğunun/bir erkek çocuğunun gelecek yapmak istemeyeceği meslek/meslekler nelerdir? İleride ne olmak istemezler? Neden sizce?
	Çocuk	Büyüdüklerinde insanların para kazanmak için çalışmaları gerekir, bunu biliyorsun değil mi? Bunun için de bazı meslekler yapmaları gerekir. Senin gelecekte yapmak isteyeceğin meslek/meslekler nelerdir? Yani ileride ne olmak istiyorsun? Neden? Senin gelecekte yapmak istemeyeceğin meslek/meslekler nelerdir? Yani ileride ne olmak istemezsin? Neden?	Büyüdüklerinde insanların para kazanmak için çalışmaları gerekir, bunu biliyorsun değil mi? Bunun için de bazı meslekler yapmaları gerekir. Sence bir kız çocuğunun/bir erkek çocuğunun gelecekte yapmak isteyeceği meslek/meslekler nelerdir? İleride ne olmak isterler? Neden? Sence bir kız çocuğunun/bir erkek çocuğunun gelecekte yapmak istemeyeceği meslek/meslekler nelerdir? İleride ne olmak istemezler? Neden
Kıyafet çeşitleri/Renkleri	Anne/ Baba	XXX ne tür kıyafetler giymeyi seviyor? XXX genelde hangi renkleri tercih ediyor ya da seviyor?? Neden? XXX ne tür kıyafetler giymeyi sevmiyor? XXX genelde hangi renkleri tercih etmiyor ya da sevmiyor? Neden?	Sizce bir kız çocuğu/erkek çocuğu ne tür kıyafetler giymeyi sever? Bir kız çocuğu/erkek çocuğu genelde hangi renkleri tercih eder ya da sever? Neden? Sizce bir kız çocuğu/erkek çocuğu

			ne tür kıyafetler giymeyi sevmez? Bir kız çocuğu/erkek çocuğu genelde hangi renkleri tercih etmez ya da sevmez? Neden?
	Çocuk	<p>Sen ne tür kıyafetler giymeyi seviyorsun? Genelde hangi renkleri tercih ediyorsun ya da seviyorsun? Neden?</p> <p>Sen ne tür kıyafetler giymeyi sevmiyorsun? Genelde hangi renkleri tercih etmiyorsun ya da sevmiyorsun? Neden?</p>	<p>Sence bir kız çocuğu/erkek çocuğu ne tür kıyafetler giymeyi sever? Bir kız çocuğu/erkek çocuğu genelde hangi renkleri tercih eder ya da sever? Neden?</p> <p>Sence bir kız çocuğu/erkek çocuğu ne tür kıyafetler giymeyi sevmez? Bir kız çocuğu/erkek çocuğu genelde hangi renkleri tercih etmez ya da sevmez? Neden?</p>
Günlük Aktiviteler/Oyunlar	Anne/ Baba	<p>XXX genelde hangi tür aktiviteleri/faaliyetleri seviyor? Ne tür oyunlar oynamayı seviyor? (Tabletten veya günlük hayata?) Neden?</p> <p>XXX genelde hangi tür aktiviteleri/faaliyetleri sevmiyor? Ne tür oyunlar oynamayı sevmiyor? (Tabletten veya günlük hayata?) Neden?</p>	<p>Sizce bir kız çocuğu/erkek çocuğu genelde hangi tür aktiviteleri/ faaliyetleri sever? Ne tür oyunlar oynamayı sever (Tabletten veya günlük hayata?)? Neden?</p> <p>Sizce bir kız çocuğu/erkek çocuğu genelde hangi tür aktiviteleri/ faaliyetleri sevmez? Ne tür oyunlar oynamayı sevmez? (Tabletten veya günlük hayata?) Neden?</p>
	Çocuk	Sen genelde hangi tür aktiviteleri/faaliyetleri seviyorsun? Ne tür oyunlar oynamayı seviyorsun? (Tabletten veya günlük hayata?) Neden?	Sence bir kız çocuğu/erkek çocuğu genelde hangi tür aktiviteleri/ faaliyetleri sever? Ne tür oyunlar

		Sen genelde hangi tür aktiviteleri/faaliyetleri sevmiyorsun? Ne tür oyunlar oynamayı sevmiyorsun? (Tabletten veya günlük hayata?) Neden?	oynamayı sever (Tabletten veya günlük hayata?) Neden? Sence bir kız çocuğu/erkek çocuğu genelde hangi tür aktiviteleri/ faaliyetleri sevmez? Ne tür oyunlar oynamayı sevmez? (Tabletten veya günlük hayata?) Neden?
Duygusal tepkiler	Anne/ Baba	XXX üzüldüğünde genelde nasıl tepkiler verir? Neden? XXX sinirlendiğinde nasıl tepkiler verir? Neden?	Bir kız çocuğu/erkek çocuğu üzüldüğünde genelde nasıl tepkiler verir? Bu durumlarda anne babalar neler yaparlar, nasıl bir yol izlerler? Bir kız çocuğu/erkek çocuğu sinirlendiğinde genelde nasıl tepkiler verir? Bu durumlarda anne babalar neler yaparlar, nasıl bir yol izler?
	Çocuk	Sen üzüldüğün zaman genelde nasıl tepkiler veriyorsun? Neden? Sen sinirlendiğin zaman genelde nasıl tepkiler veriyorsun? Neden?	Bir kız çocuğu/erkek çocuğu üzüldüğünde genelde nasıl tepkiler verir? Bu durumlarda anne babalar neler yaparlar, nasıl bir yol izler? Bir kız çocuğu/erkek çocuğu sinirlendiğinde genelde nasıl tepkiler verir? Bu durumlarda anne babalar neler yaparlar, nasıl bir yol izler?

D. HUMAN SUBJECTS ETHICS COMMITTEE APPROVAL FORMS

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07 HAZİRAN 2017

Konu: Değerlendirme Sonucu

Gönderen: ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu (IAEK)

İlişi: İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu Başvurusu

Sayın Yrd. Doç. Dr. Başak Şahin ACAR ;

Danışmanlığını yaptığınız doktora öğrencisi Hatice IŞIK BAŞ' ın "**Aile İçinde Cinsiyet Kalıpyargılarının İncelenmesi: Babalar, Anneler ve Çocuklar**" başlıklı araştırması İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu tarafından uygun görülerek gerekli onay **2017-SOS-108** protokol numarası ile **01.07.2017 – 30.09.2018** tarihleri arasında geçerli olmak üzere verilmiştir.

Bilgilerinize saygılarımla sunarım.

Prof. Dr. Ayhan SOL

Üye

Prof. Dr. Ş. Hami TURAN

Başkan V

Prof. Dr. Ayhan Gürbüz DEMİR

Üye

Doç. Dr. Yaşar KONDAKCI

Üye

Doç. Dr. Zana ÇITAK

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Yrd. Doç. Dr. Pınar KAYGAN

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08 AĞUSTOS 2018

Konu: Değerlendirme Sonucu

Gönderen: ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu (İAEK)

İlgi: İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu Başvurusu

Sayın Dr. Öğretim Üyesi Başak Şahin ACAR

Danışmanlığımı yaptığınız doktora öğrencisi Hatice Işık-BAŞ'ın "**Aile İçinde Cinsiyet Kalıpyargılarının İncelenmesi: Babalar, Anneler ve Çocuklar**" başlıklı araştırması İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu tarafından uygun görülerek gerekli onay **2017-SOS-108** protokol numarası ile **08.08.2018 - 30.06.2019** tarihleri arasında geçerli olmak üzere verilmiştir.

Bilgilerinize saygılarımla sunarım.

Prof. Dr. Ayhan SOL

Üye

Prof. Dr. Ş. Halil TURAN

Başkan V

Prof. Dr. Ayhan Gürbüz DEMİR

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Doç. Dr. Yaşar KONDAKÇI

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08 EKİM 2018

Konu: Değerlendirme Sonucu

Gönderen: ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu (İAEK)

İlgi: İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu Başvurusu

Sayın Dr. Öğretim Üyesi Başak Şahin ACAR

Danışmanlığını yaptığınız doktora öğrencisi Hatice IŞIK- BAŞ'ın "Aile İçinde Cinsiyet Kalıp yargılarının İncelenmesi: Babalar, Anneler ve Çocuklar " başlıklı araştırmanız İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu tarafından uygun görülerek gerekli onay 2017-SOS-108 protokol numarası ile 08.10.2018 - 31.12.2019 tarihleri arasında geçerli olmak üzere verilmiştir.

Bilgilerinize saygılarımla sunarım.


Prof. Dr. Ayhan SOL
Üye


Prof. Dr. Ş. Halil TURAN
Başkan V


Prof. Dr. Ayhan Gürbüz DEMİR
Üye


Doç. Dr. Yaşar KONDAKÇI
Üye


Doç. Dr. Zana ÇITAK
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Doç. Dr. Emre SELÇUK
Üye


Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Pınar KAYGAN
Üye

E. PARENTS' GENDER-STEREOYPICAL BELIEFS ABOUT CHILDREN SCALE (ALL ITEMS)⁶

Sevgili anneler/babalar

Aşağıda kız ve erkek çocuklarının günlük hayattaki davranışlarına, seçimlerine ve tepkilerine dair birtakım durumlar verilmiştir. Lütfen her bir maddeyi dikkatlice okuyup, önce bu maddelere ne kadar katıldığınızı 0'dan (Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum) 10'a (Kesinlikle Katılıyorum) kadar değerlendiriniz. Daha sonra bu maddelerde geçen davranışların, seçimlerin ya da tepkilerin nedenlerinin ne kadarının içsel faktörlere (fıtrat, genler, biyolojik özellikler, kişilik özellikleri, mizaç, içgüdü) ne kadarının dışsal faktörlere (toplum beklentisi, ailenin yetiştirme tarzı, medya etkisi, reklamlar, çizgi filmler, kreş gibi) bağlı olduğunu imleci/işareti her bir faktör için 0 ile 100 arasında kaydırarak belirleyiniz.

İçsel ve dışsal faktörler için seçtiğiniz oranların toplamı 100 olmalıdır. Örneğin “Kız çocuğu yeşil rengi sever” ifadesini %40 oranında içsel faktörlere bağlıyorsanız dışsal faktörler için seçebileceğiniz oran %60'dır.

Maddeleri değerlendirirken hem kendi çocuklarınızla yaşadığınız deneyimleri ve hem de başka çocuklarla ilgili genel gözlemleri kullanabilirsiniz.

⁶ This scale includes all the items given to the first participants in the scale development study. The first participants evaluated the scale online, while the second participants evaluated the scale paper-pen as presented below. For the items given to participants in the last study see Study 2.

	0-Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	1	2	3	4	5-Ne Katılıyorum Ne Katılmıyorum	6	7	8	9	10-Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1. Erkek çocukları bilişsel çaba gerektiren aktivitelerde (satranç ya da hafıza oyunları gibi) başarılıdır/yeteneklidir.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
2. Erkek çocukları zekâlarını gösterebilecekleri yapboz ya da hafıza oyunları gibi oyuncakları tercih ederler.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
3. Erkek çocukları keşfetmeye ve araştırmaya meraklıdır.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
4. Erkek çocukları sayısal çaba gerektiren (matematik gibi) aktiviteleri sever.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
5. Erkek çocukları yarışmayı ve	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

rekabet etmeyi sever.												
6. Erkek çocukları fiziksel olarak hareketlidir ve hareketli oyunları ya da aktiviteleri tercih ederler.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
7. Erkek çocuklarının mühendislik, inşaat ve maden gibi alanlara ilgi duyarlar ve bu alanlarda başarılı olurlar.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
8. Erkek çocukları baskın karakterlidir.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
9. Erkek çocukları lider olmaya meyillidir ya da buldukları ortamda lider olmak isterler.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
10. Erkek çocukları araba tamirciliği, pilotluk ya da şoförlük gibi mekanik bilgi isteyen mesleklere karşı ilgilidir.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
11. Erkek çocukları mekanik oyuncaklara (robotlar ve arabalar gibi)	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	

karşı fazla ilgilidir.											
12. Erkek çocukları dinozorlara ve ejderhalarla oynamaya meraklıdır.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
13. Erkek çocukları ev için alışveriş yapma, ağır olan eşyaları taşıma/hareket ettirme ya da araba yıkama gibi işleri yapmak isterler ve bu konuda yeteneklidirler.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
14. Erkek çocukları polislik, itfaiyecilik ya da askerlik gibi mesleklere eğilimlidir.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
15. Erkek çocukları karşısındakinin duygularını anlamada zorluk çekerler.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
16. Erkek çocuklarının iletişim becerileri güçlü değildir	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
17. Erkek çocukları şefkatli değildir.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
18. Erkek çocukları anaç/duygusal değildir.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

19. Erkek çocukları bebeklerle ya da evcilik oynamayı sevmez.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
20. Erkek çocukları genelde erkek çocuklarıyla oynamayı tercih eder.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
21. Erkek çocuklarının vurdulu kırdılı oyunlara ve şiddete eğilimi vardır.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
22. Erkek çocukları üzüldüğünde ya da sinirlendiğinde genelde şiddete dayalı ve sert tepkiler verir.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
23. Erkek çocuklarının genelde en sevdiği renk mavi ve tonlarıdır.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
24. Erkek çocukları genelde pembe, kırmızı ya da lila gibi renkleri tercih etmezler.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
25. Erkek çocukları şiddet, savaş oyunları ve silahlara düşkündür.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

26. Erkek çocukları hem psikolojik hem de fiziksel olarak güçlüdür.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
27. Erkek çocukları kahraman olmak isterler ya da süper kahramanlara karşı çok fazla ilgilidir.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
28. Erkek çocukları yemek yapmak veya ev temizlemek gibi günlük yapılan işlerde yetenekli değildir ya da bunları yapmayı istemezler.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
29. Erkek çocukları hemşirelik ya da anasınıfı öğretmenliği gibi şefkat ve ilgi gerektiren meslekleri tercih etmezler.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
30. Erkek çocukları moda, süslü şeylere, estetiğe ilgi duymazlar.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
31. Erkek çocukları takım elbise giymeyi, kravat ya da papyon takmayı sever.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
32. Erkek çocukları prenses olmak ya da	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

prezanslikle ilgili Őeylerden (tütölü etek gibi) hoŐlanmazlar.												
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33. Kız çocukları çocukluktan itibaren mekanik oyuncakları (robotlar ve arabalar gibi) tercih etmezler.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
34. Kız çocukları araba tamirciliĐi, pilotluk ya da Őoförlük gibi mekanik bilgi isteyen mesleklere karŐı ilgisizdir.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
35. Kız çocukları biliŐsel çaba ve sayısal yetenek gerektiren mesleklere (mühendislik, astronotluk gibi ilgi duymazlar)	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
36. Kız çocukları hayat kurtarma ya da kahraman olma (polislik, askerlik ya da itfaiyecilik gibi) ile ilgili meslekleri çok fazla tercih etmezler.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

37. Kız çocukları dinozorlarla ya da ejderhalarla oynamayı sevmez.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
38. Kız çocukları mavi ve tonlarına karşı ilgi duymazlar.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
39. Kız çocukları fiziksel çaba gerektiren aktivitelerden (futbol ya da basketbol gibi) çok fazla hoşlanmazlar.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
40. Kız çocukları savaş ya da silah içeren oyunlardan uzak dururlar.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
41. Kız çocukları tamir işlerine ya da tamir ile ilgili oyuncaklara meraklıdır.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
42. Kız çocukları güce ve fiziksel çabaya dayanan oyunlarda ya da mesleklerde nadiren başarılı olurlar.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
43. Kız çocukları fiziksel ya da bilişsel yarışmayı gerektiren	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

oyunları tercih etmezler.												
44. Kız çocukları insanlara ve hayvanlara karşı şefkatlidir.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
45. Kız çocuklarının karşısındakinin duygularını anlama becerileri yüksektir.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
46. Kız çocuklarının iletişim yetenekleri güçlüdür.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
47. Kız çocukları duygusaldır.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
48. Kız çocukları anaçtır.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
49. Kız çocukları narin ve kırılgandır.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
50. Kız çocuklarının moda, süslü kıyafetlere ve güzel giyinmeye ilgileri vardır.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
51. Kız çocukları mutfak ile ilgili oyuncaklarla (kahve fincanı, çaydanlık gibi) oynamaya meyillidir.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	

52. Kız çocuklarının üzüldüğünde ya da sinirlendiğinde daha duygusal ve sakin tepkiler verirler (küsmek, ağlamak, gözleri dolmak gibi).	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
53. Kız çocukları renkli ve parlak şeylere fazla ilgilidir.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
54. Kız çocukları ev işlerinde (temizlik, yemek pişirme, yemek hazırlama gibi) yardım etmeye isteklidir ve bu konuda yeteneklidir.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
55. Kız çocukları bebeklerle ya da evcilik oynamayı tercih ederler.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
56. Kız çocukları pembe, kırmızı ya da lila gibi renklere düşkündür.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
57. Kız çocukları ana sınıfı öğretmenliği, hemşirelik ya da doktorluk gibi	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

mesleklere ilgileri vardır.											
58. Kız çocukları fiziksel ve psikolojik olarak narin oldukları için bale ya da jimnastik gibi sporlara ilgi duyarlar.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
59. Kız çocukları prensesliğe ya da prenseslikle ilgili şeylere (tütülü etek gibi) özenirler.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
60. Kız çocukları genelde kız çocukları ile oynamayı tercih ederler.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
61. Kız çocukları takım elbiseye, kravata ya da papyona ilgi göstermezler.											

*Ek olarak her maddeden sonra katılımcılara aşağıdaki soru sorularak katılımcılardan çocukların bu davranışlarını gerekçelendirmeleri istenmiştir.

Erkek/Kız çocuklarının bu tercihlerinin/ seçimlerinin/ yeteneklerinin/ ilgilerinin yüzde kaçını içsel etkenlere, yüzde kaçını dışsal etkenlere bağlıdır? (İçsel ve dışsal etkenlerin yüzdelerinin toplamının 100 olması gerekmektedir)		
İçsel etkenler (genler, fitrat, içgüdü, biyoloji, mizaç)	Dışsal etkenler (toplum, çevre, medya, aile yönlendirmesi, reklamlar, kreş, masallar)	

% _____	% _____	%100 (Toplam)
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F.AMBIVALENT SEXİSİM İNVENTORY

Sevgili katılımcılar,

Lütfen aşağıda verilen durumlara ne kadar katıldığınızı 1'den (Hiç katılmıyorum) 10'a kadar (Kesinlikle katılıyorum) değerlendiriniz.

Kadınlara Karşı Cinsiyetçi Tutumlar

Düşmanca Cinsiyetçilik

1. Adaletli bir yarışmada kadınlar erkeklere karşı kaybettikleri zaman tipik olarak kendilerinin ayrımcılığa maruz kaldıklarından yakınırılar.
2. Kadınlar iş yerlerindeki problemleri abartmaktadırlar.
3. Kadınlar erkekler üzerinde kontrolü sağlayarak güç kazanmak hevesindedirler.
4. Bir kadın bir erkeğin bağlılığını kazandıktan sonra genellikle o erkeğe sıkı bir yular takmaya çalışır.
5. Gerçekte birçok kadın "eşitlik" arıyoruz maskesi altında işe alınmalarda kendilerinin kayırılması gibi özel muameleler arıyorlar.
6. Kadınlar çok çabuk alınırılar.
7. Birçok kadın erkeklerin kendileri için yaptıklarına tamamen minnettar olmamaktadırlar.
8. Feministler erkeklere makul olmayan istekler sunmaktadırlar
9. Feministler gerçekte kadınların erkeklerden daha fazla güce sahip olmalarını istemektedirler
10. Erkeklere cinsel yönden yaklaşılabilir olduklarını gösterircesine şakalar yapıp daha sonra erkeklerin teklilerini reddetmekten zevk alan birçok kadın vardır.
11. Birçok kadın masum söz veya davranışları cinsel ayrımcılık olarak yorumlamaktadır.

Korumacı Cinsiyetçilik

12. Erkekler kadınsız eksiktirler.
13. Ne kadar başarılı olursa olsun bir kadının sevgisine sahip olmadıkça bir erkek gerçek anlamda bütün bir insan olamaz.
14. Karşı cinsten biri ile romantik ilişki olmaksızın insanlar hayatta gerçekten mutlu olamazlar.
15. Her erkeğin hayatında hayran olduğu bir kadın olmalıdır.
16. Kadınlar erkekler tarafından el üstünde tutulmalı ve korunmalıdır.
17. Erkekler hayatlarındaki kadın için mali yardım sağlamak için kendi rahatlarını gönüllü olarak feda etmelidirler
18. Bir felaket durumunda kadınlar erkeklerden önce kurtarılmalıdır
19. İyi bir kadın erkeği tarafından yüceltilmelidir.
20. Kadınlar erkeklerden daha yüksek ahlaki duyarlılığa sahip olma eğilimindedirler.
21. Birçok kadın çok az erkekte olan bir saflığa sahiptir
22. Kadınlar erkeklerden daha ince bir kültür anlayışına ve zevkine sahiptirler.

Erkeklerle Karşı Cinsiyetçi Tutumlar

Düşmanca Cinsiyetçilik

1. Çoğu erkek kadınlar için eşitliği sözde savunur ama bir kadını kendilerine eşit olarak görmeyi kaldıramazlar.
2. Erkekler toplumda kadınlardan daha fazla kontrole sahip olmak için her zaman çabalarlar
3. Özüne bakıldığında, çoğu erkek gerçekten çocuk gibidir.
4. Erkekler hasta olduklarında bebekler gibi davranırlar
5. Erkekler kadınlara “yardım ediyor” gibi gözükrken, çoğunlukla kendilerinin kadınlardan daha iyi olduklarını kanıtlamaya çalışırlar.
5. Erkekler kadınlarla konuşurken genellikle baskın olmaya çalışırlar.
6. Çoğu erkek, kadınlar üzerinde güç sahibi oldukları bir pozisyonda buldukları anda, üstü kapalı yolla bile olsa kadınları cinsel acıdan taciz ederler.
7. Bir erkek cinsel acıdan çekici bulduğu kadını yatağa atmak için ne gerekiyorsa yapmak konusunda tipik olarak hiçbir ahlaki değere sahip değildir.
8. Eğer kendilerine yol gösterecek kadınlar olmasaydı erkekler dünyada kaybolurlardı.
9. Kadın haklarına duyarlı olduğunu iddia eden erkekler bile aslında ev işlerinin ve çocuk bakımının çoğunu kadının üstlendiği geleneksel bir ilişki isterler.

Korumacı Cinsiyetçilik

10. Her kadının kendisini el üstünde tutacak bir erkeğe ihtiyacı vardır.
11. Kadınlar erkeksiz eksiktirler.
12. Her kadının hayran olduğu bir erkeği olmalıdır
13. Çiftlerden ikisi de çalışıyor olsa bile, kadın evde erkeğine bakma konusunda daha fazla sorumluluk üstlenmelidir.
14. Eğer kadının bir erkekle uzun süreli, bağlılık içeren bir ilişkisi yoksa bu hayatta gerçek anlamda kendini tamamlamış sayılmaz.
15. Erkekler başkalarını korumak için kendilerini tehlikeye atmaya daha gönüllüdürler
16. Erkekler temelde kadınlara maddi güvence sağlamak açısından yararlıdırlar.
17. Erkekler kadınlara oranla risk almaya daha gönüllüdürler
18. Kadınlar evde erkeklerine bakmalıdırlar çünkü eğer erkekler kendi kendilerine bakmak zorunda kalırlarsa bunu beceremezler.

G. DIVISION OF CHORES AND CHILD CARE QUESTIONS

1) Lütfen aşağıda verilen durumları dikkatlice okuyup ev içerisinde bu işleri ne kadar yaptığınızı 1'den ona kadar puanlayınız.

1 (Hiç) bu işlere hiç katılmadığınızı belirtirken 10 (Düzenli olarak) bu işleri düzenli olarak yaptığınız anlamına gelmektedir.

	1-Hiç Yapmıyorum	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10-Düzenli Olarak Yapıyorum
1. Ev tamir işleri	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
2.Ev için alışveriş yapmak	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
3. Çocuklarla vakit geçirmek	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
4. Evi toplamak	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
5. Yemek yapmak	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
6.Temizlik yapmak	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
7. Çamaşır yıkamak										
8. Bulaşık Yıkamak	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

2) Lütfen aşağıda verilen durumları dikkatlice okuyup ev içerisinde bu işleri **eşinizin ne kadar yaptığını** 1'den ona kadar puanlayınız.

1 (Hiç) bu işlere hiç katılmadığınızı belirtirken **10** (Düzenli olarak) bu işleri düzenli olarak yaptığınız anlamına gelmektedir.

	1-Hiç Yapmaz	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10-Düzenli Olarak Yapar
1. Ev tamir işleri	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
2.Ev için alışveriş yapmak	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

3. Çocuklarla vakit geçirmek	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
4. Evi toplamak	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
5. Yemek yapmak	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
6. Temizlik yapmak	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
7. Çamaşır yıkama	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
8. Bulaşık Yıkamak	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

3) Lütfen aşağıda verilen durumları dikkatlice okuyunuz. Ev içerisinde bu işlerin kimin tarafından daha çok yapıldığını düşünerek **1** (Ben yaparım) **2** (Eşim yapar) **3** (İkimiz birlikte yaparız) seçeneklerinden birini işaretleyiniz.

	1-Ben Yaparım	2-Eşim Yapar	3-İkimiz Birlikte Yaparız/Başkaları Bizim İçin Yapar
1. Ev tamir işleri	1	2	3
2. Ev için alışveriş yapmak	1	2	3
3. Çocuklarla vakit geçirmek	1	2	3
4. Evi toplamak	1	2	3
5. Yemek yapmak	1	2	3
6. Temizlik yapmak	1	2	3
7. Çamaşır yıkama	1	2	3
8. Bulaşık Yıkamak	1	2	3

4) Lütfen çalışmaya katılan çocuğunuzun doğduğu andan şimdiki zamana kadar geçen süreci düşününüz. Aşağıda verilen durumları dikkatlice okuyup bu süreçte çalışmaya katılan çocuğunuzun bakımına ne kadar **katkı sağladığınızı** 1'den 10'a kadar puanlayınız.

1 (Hiç yapmam) çocuğunuzun büyüme sürecindeki bakımında bu işlere hiç katılmadığınızı belirtirken

10 (Düzenli olarak yaparım) bu işleri düzenli olarak yaptığınız anlamına gelmektedir.

	1-Hiç Yapmıyorum	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10-Düzenli Olarak Yapıyorum
1. Beraber gezmek/Dışarı çıkmak	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
2. Oyun oynamak	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

3.Kreşe/Okula/Bakıcıya götürmek ya da Kreşten/Okuldan/Bakıcıdan almak	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
4.Gelişimini destekleyecek aktiviteler yapmak (kitap okumak, oyun hamuru oynamak, sayıları ya da renkleri öğretmek gibi)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
5.Yemek yedirmek	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
6.Uyutmak	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
7.Yıkamak	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
8.Alt değiştirmek	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
9.Hastalandığında doktora götürmek/ İlaçlarını vermek/ Kontrol etmek	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
10.Yemek	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

5) Lütfen çalışmaya katılan çocuğunuzun doğduğu andan şimdiki zamana kadar geçen sürecini düşününüz. Aşağıdaki verilen durumları dikkatlice okuyup bu süreçte çalışmaya katılan çocuğunuzun bakımına **eşinizin ne kadar katkı sağladığını** 1'den 10'a kadar puanlayınız.

1 (Hiç yapmaz) çocuğunuzun büyüme sürecindeki bakımında bu işlere **eşinizin hiç katılmadığını belirtirken**
10 (Düzenli olarak yapar) **eşinizin bu işleri düzenli olarak yaptığı** anlamına gelmektedir.

	1-Hiç Yapmaz	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10-Düzenli Olarak Yapar
1.Beraber gezmek/Dışarı çıkmak	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
2.Oyun oynamak	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
3.Kreşe/Okula/Bakıcıya götürmek ya da Kreşten/Okuldan/Bakıcıdan almak	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
4.Gelişimini destekleyecek aktiviteler yapmak (kitap okumak, oyun hamuru oynamak, sayıları ya da renkleri öğretmek gibi)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
5.Yemek yedirmek	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

6.Uyutmak	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
7.Yıkamak	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
8.Alt deęiřtirmek	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
9.Hastalandıęında doktora götürmek/ İlaçlarını vermek/ Kontrol etmek	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
10.Yemek	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

6)Lütfen çalışmaya katılan çocuęunuzun doğduęu andan řimdiki zamana kadar geęen süreci düşününüz. Ařaęıdaki durumları dikkatlice okuyup bu süreçte çocuęunuz ile ilgili bu işlerin kimin tarafından daha fazla yapıldıęını 1 (Ben yaparım) 2(Eřim yapar) 3 (İkimiz birlikte yaparız) seçeneklerinden birini seçerek işaretleyniz.

	1-Ben Yaparım	2-Eřim Yapar	3-İkimiz Birlikte Yaparız/Başkaları Bizim İçin Yapar
1.Beraber gezmek/Dıřarı çıkmak	1	2	3
2.Oyun oynamak	1	2	3
3.Kreře/Okula/Bakıcıya götürmek ya da Kreřten/Okuldan/Bakıcıdan almak	1	2	3
4.Geliřimini destekleyecek aktiviteler yapmak (kitap okumak, oyun hamuru oynamak, sayıları ya da renkleri öğretmek gibi)	1	2	3
5.Yemek yedirmek	1	2	3
6.Uyutmak	1	2	3
7.Yıkamak	1	2	3
8.Alt deęiřtirmek	1	2	3
9.Hastalandıęında doktora götürmek/ İlaçlarını vermek/ Kontrol etmek	1	2	3
10.Yemek	1	2	3

H. EXAMPLE ITEMS FOR PRESCHOOL OCCUPATIONS, ACTIVITIES, AND TRAITS SCALE⁷

Oyuncak ve Aktiviteler

(Çocuğa bir oyuncak resmi gösterilir)



A) Kişisel Ölçüm (*Personal Measure-PM*)

Sen uçaklarla oynamayı ne kadar seversin? Hiç mi? Biraz mı? Çok mu?

(Çocuğun önünde üzerinde dolu, yarı dolu ve boş bardak olan 3 kart vardır ve çocuk cevabını bu kartları göstererek seçer)

B) Tutum Ölçümü (*Attitude Measure-AM*)

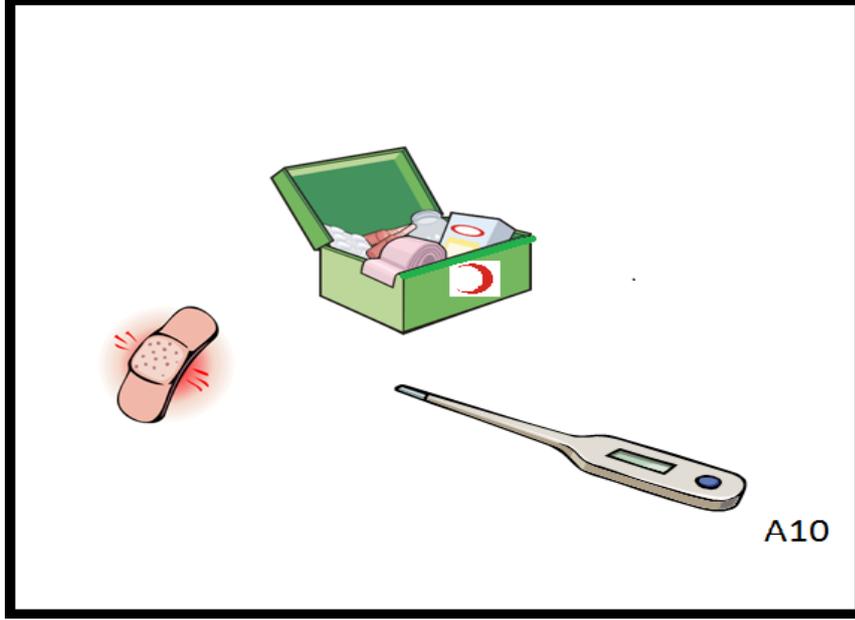
Kimler uçaklarla oynamalı? Sadece kızlar mı? Sadece erkekler mi? Hem kadınlar hem erkekler mi?

(Çocuğun önünde kadınların, erkeklerin ve hem erkek hem kadınların olduğu 3 kart vardır ve çocuk cevabını bu kartları göstererek seçer)

Meslekler

(Çocuğa bir mesleğe ait resim gösterilir ve meslek tanımlanır.)

⁷ Since the researchers who developed the scale did not allow, only the sample items of the scale were given in this dissertation. In order to get detailed information about the scale, the researchers who developed the scale can be contacted.



Kişisel Ölçüm (*Personal Measure-PM*)

Bu meslek hemşirelik. Doktorlara hasta insanlarla ilgilenmesinde yardım eden kimselere denir. Sen hemşire olmayı ne kadar istersin? Hiç mi? Biraz mı? Çok mu? (Çocuğun önünde üzerinde dolu, yarı dolu ve boş bardak olan 3 kart vardır ve çocuk cevabını bu kartları göstererek seçer)

Tutum Ölçümü (*Attitude Measure-AM*)

Bu meslek hemşirelik. Doktorlara hasta insanlarla ilgilenmesinde yardım eden kimselere denir. Sence kimler hemşire olmalı? Sadece kadınlar mı? Sadece erkekler mi? Hem kadınlar hem erkekler mi? (Çocuğun önünde kadınların, erkeklerin ve hem erkek hem kadınların olduğu 3 kart vardır ve çocuk cevabını bu kartları göstererek seçer)

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Bachelor	Psychology	Middle East Technical University	2012
Masters	Developmental Psychology	Middle East Technical University	2014
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Employment History

- Research Assistant: Middle East Technical University (2014-2018)
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Awards and Scholarship

- Receiving scholarship from The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey since 2007

Competencies

- Language skills: Fluent in English
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Academic Research Projects

Published articles:

- **Işık-Baş, H., Şahin-Acar, B., ve Özen-Çıplak, A.** (2018). Anne-ergen çiftlerinin toplumsal cinsiyet rolleri ile ilgili algısının içerik analizi. *Türk Psikoloji Yazıları*, 21 (41), 41-56
- **Gönül, B., Işık-Baş, H., & Sahin-Acar, B.** (2018). Aile İklimi Ölçeği'nin Türkçeye uyarlanması ve psikometrik açıdan incelenmesi, *Türk Psikolojik Danışma ve Rehberlik Dergisi*, 8 (50), 165-200.

Publications in preparation:

- **Gönül, B. Işık, H., Güneş, S.** A Multigroup analysis of family climate and volunteering: Mediating role of parental conversations in emerging adulthood (Research Article)
- **Işık, H.** Aile bağlamında toplumsal cinsiyet rolü gelişimi (Book Chapter)
-

Poster Presentations at conferences, congresses, symposiums

- Gonul, B, Güneş, S & **Işık-Baş**, H. (2018, September). Family climate predicts Turkish youth's volunteering through parental socialization: A mediated-moderation model of social conscience. Poster presentation. European Association for Research on Adolescence (EARA) Conference, Ghent, Belgium.
- Gonul, B, Güneş, S & **Işık-Baş**, H. (2017, August). Predicting Civic Participation among Turkish Emerging Adults: Roles of Demographics and Perceptions. Poster presentation, 18th European Conference on Developmental Psychology, Utrecht, the Netherlands.
- **Isik**, H., & Sahin-Acar, B. (2015, April). How Turkish Children and Mothers Justify Their Gender-related Decisions. 2015 Society in Research for Child Development (SRCD)-Biennial Meeting, Philadelphia, PA.
- Gönül, B., **Işık**, H., & Şahin, B. (2014, January). Moral cognition of Turkish preschool children: The interplay between individual and collective values. 2014 CEU Conference on Cognitive Development, Budapest, Hungary

Oral presentations presented at conferences, congresses, symposiums

- **Işık-Baş**, H., Gönül, B. & Güneş, S. (2018, Kasım). Aile İklimi ve Gönüllük Davranışları Arasındaki İlişki: Ebeveyn Sosyalleşmesinin Rolü ve Sosyal Vicdan. Sözlü Sunum, 20. Ulusal Psikoloji Kongresi, 15-17 Kasım, Ankara, Türkiye.
- **Işık-Baş**, H. & Şahin-Acar, B. (2018, Kasım). Aile İçindeki Toplumsal Cinsiyet Rollerinin Tematik Açidan İncelenmesi: Anneler, Babalar Ve Okul Öncesi Çocuklar. Sözlü Sunum, 20. Ulusal Psikoloji Kongresi, 15-17 Kasım, Ankara, Türkiye.
- **Işık-Baş**, H., Şahin-Acar, B., Özen-Çıplak, A., Gönül, B., Bayram-Gülaçtı, H., Elibol-Pekaslan, N., Deniz, P. (2017, August). Investigating mother-adolescent pairs' gender schemas in Turkey. Oral presentation will be given at 18th European Conference on Developmental Psychology (ECDP), Utrecht, Netherlands.
- **Işık**, H., Şahin-Acar, B., Özen, A., Gönül, B., Bayram-Gülaçtı, H., Elibol-Pekaslan, N., Deniz, P., Bürümlü, E., Çoban, İ., & Ülgen, P. (2016, Eylül) Nasıl bir Kadın/Erkek Olmak İstersin? Annelerin Ergen Çocukları ve Ergenlerin Kendileri ile ilgili Kadınlık/Erkeklik Tanımları. 19. Ulusal Psikoloji Kongresi, İzmir Türkiye.
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- **Isik**, H., & Sahin-Acar, B. (2015, July). How Mothers' Self Construals Predict Their Own and Daughters' Gender related Evaluations. European Congress of Psychology (ECP), Milan, Italy.
- Gönül, B., **Işık**, H. & Sahin-Acar, B. (2015, July). Truth-telling evaluations of Turkish preschool children: The role of individual vs. collective benefits. 14th European Congress of Psychology (ECP), Milan, Italy.

J. TURKISH SUMMARY / TÜRKÇE ÖZET

Giriş

Sosyal yaşamı organize etmek ve bu organizasyonu yaparken daha az enerji harcamak için, bireyler başkalarını ve kendilerini benzer veya farklı özelliklere dayalı gruplara ayırırlar. Literatürde bu ayırma işlemi sosyal sınıflandırma olarak tanımlanmaktadır (Krueger, 2001). Toplumsal cinsiyet, bireylerin hem kendi davranışlarını hem de diğerleri ile ilgili izlenimlerini düzenlemelerine yardımcı olan en temel sosyal sınıflardan biridir (Blakemore, Berenbaum ve Liben, 2009). Birey çok erken yaşlardan başlayarak hem kendini bu gruplardan birine atar hem de başkalarını erkek veya kadın olarak ayırmaya başlar. Bu sınıflandırma bireylerin günlük yaşamdaki durumunu, beklentilerini, tutumlarını ve tercihlerini doğumdan ölüme kadar etkilemeye devam eder (Maccoby, 1988). Bireyleri erkek ya da kadın olarak sınıflandırmak, başkaları ile bilgileri tahmin etmek ve kendi tutumlarını düzenlemek açısından daha az bilişsel çaba gerektirir (Canal, Garnham ve Oakhill, 2015; Shutts, Banaji ve Spelke, 2010). Bu bir avantaj gibi görünse de bu tür bir sınıflandırma sosyal yaşamda birçok farklı eşitsizliğe ve ayrımcılığa yol açmaktadır (Calasanti ve Slevin, 2001; Smith ve Hung, 2008).

Toplumsal cinsiyet, geleneksel kadınsı ve erkeksi rollere göre ikili bir sınıflandırma olarak algılanmaktadır (Torgimson ve Minson, 2005). Bu ikili sınıflandırma, son yirmi yılda sosyal bilimciler tarafından geniş çapta sorgulanmasına ve eleştirilmesine rağmen toplum tarafından ikili bir kategori olarak algılanmaya devam etmektedir. Ana akım toplumsal rollere göre, bir erkek ve kadının neye benzemesi gerektiği, hangi kıyafetlerin onlara uygun olduğu (Haynes, Burts, Dukes ve Cloud, 1993), hangi faaliyetleri gerçekleştirebilecekleri (Cherney ve Londra, 2006), bir ilişkide davranma şekilleri (Chaplin, Cole ve Zahn-Waxler, 2005) ya da seçmeleri gereken meslekler (Wilbourn ve Kee, 2010) ebeveynler, medya, öğretmenler, akranlar ya da sosyal politikalar da dahil olmak üzere toplum tarafından belirlenmiştir. İnsanlar ait oldukları toplumdaki soyutlanmış yaşayamadıklarından, toplumun erkeklerden ve kadınlardan beklentileri sadece başkalarına karşı

tutumlarını, düşüncelerini veya davranışlarını etkilemekle kalmaz, aynı zamanda toplumdaki erkekler veya kadınlar olarak kendilerini nasıl konumlandıklarını da etkiler. Tüm bireylerin onlar için tanımlanmış olan toplumsal cinsiyet rollerine uyması beklenir ve işbirlikçi davranışlar ödüllendirilir (Bussey ve Bandura, 1999). Öte yandan, ihlal edilen roller toplumdaki bazı yaptırımlarla karşılanmaktadır (Feinman, 1981; Martin, 1995).

Genelde toplumsal cinsiyet (gender) ve biyolojik cinsiyet (sex) literatürde iki farklı ancak birbirini tamamlayan terimler olarak tanımlanmaktadır (Prens, 2005). Önceki araştırmalarda bu iki terim birbirinin yerine birçok kez kullanılmıştır. Bununla birlikte, son zamanlarda, “biyolojik cinsiyet (sex)” kişinin biyolojik cinsiyetini tanımlamak için kullanılırken, toplumsal cinsiyet (gender), erkekler ve kadınlar için toplum ve kültür tarafından tanımlanan sosyal roller için kullanılmaktadır (Torgrimson & Minson, 2005). Toplumsal cinsiyete dayalı bu tür sosyal roller kısa vadede masum görünse de uzun vadede birçok eşitsizlik ve ayrımcılık getirir. Bu toplumsal cinsiyet eşitsizlikleri ve ayrımcılık, psikolojik sağlık (Denton, Prus ve Walters, 2004), refah (Perry, ARP ve Oser, 2013) ve kişilerarası ilişkiler için çok önemlidir (Perrin ve ark., 2011). Bu nedenle, toplumsal cinsiyet, bireylere sosyal yaşamda fırsat eşitliği sağlamak ve psikolojik sağlıklarını artırmak için önemli bir sosyal yapıdır. Bu bilişsel şemaların çoğu yaşamın erken dönemlerinde elde edildiğinden, çocukların bu cinsiyet rollerini nasıl kazandıklarını ve cinsiyetle ilgili inançların oluşumunda hangi mekanizmaların etkili olduğunu incelemek önemlidir.

Bronfenbrenner'ın ekolojik sistem teorisine göre, çocukların gelişimini etkileyen iç içe geçmiş bir takım sistemler (mikrosistem, makrosistem, egzosistem, makrosistem ve kronosistem) vardı (Bronfenbrenner, 1992). Bu teori özellikle toplumsal cinsiyet rolü gelişimi üzerine inşa edilmemesine rağmen, çocuğun biyolojik cinsiyeti ile çevredeki farklı sosyal mekanizmalar arasındaki etkileşimi açıklar (McHale, Crouter ve Whiteman, 2003). Çocuğunun biyolojik özelliklerinin ve karakterinin merkezde olduğu ekolojik modelde, aile mikrosistemdeki çocuğa en yakın bağlamlardan biri olarak algılanmaktadır (Bronfenbrenner, 1977). Dolayısıyla ailenin çocuk gelişimi üzerindeki etkisi doğumdan önce başlar ve ömrü boyunca

devam eder (Golish, 2000; Mathiesen & Prior, 2006). En yakın çevresel bağlam olarak, ailelerin toplumsal cinsiyetle ilgili ideolojileri, deneyimleri ve davranışları çocukların cinsiyet rolü gelişimi üzerinde etkilidir (Gaunt, 2006; Halpern & Perry-Jenkins, 2016).

Geçmişten günümüze, ebeveynin çocukların toplumsal cinsiyet rollerinin gelişimi üzerindeki etkisi inceleyen birçok araştırma bulunmaktadır. Ebeveynlerin toplumsal cinsiyet ideolojisini araştırırken çoğunlukla kadınlık ve erkeklik özelliklerine (örn. Işık, 2014) veya erkeklere ve kadınlara yönelik cinsiyetçi tutumlarına (örn. Halpern & Perry-Jenkins, 2016; Heinze ve diğerleri., 2017) bakılmıştır. Ancak, ebeveynlerin cinsiyet ideolojileriyle ilgili bu tür ölçümlerin ebeveynlerden çocuklara uzun vadeli tahminlerle sonuçlanabileceğini göz ardı etmemek gerekir. Yine birçok farklı çalışmada evdeki iş bölümünün çocukların toplumsal cinsiyet rolü üzerindeki etkisi araştırılsa da bu ölçümler genelde tek bir ebeveynden toplanmıştır. Bunun sosyal istenirliği arttırabileceği ve yanlı cevapların olabileceği düşünülerek mevcut çalışma hem anneden hem de babadan veri toplamayı amaçlamıştır.

Ebeveynlerin ve çocukların toplumsal cinsiyetle ilgili rolleri yorumlaması, kimi değerlendirdiklerine bağlı olarak farklılıklar gösterebilir (Liben, Bigler, Ruble, Martin ve Powlishta, 2002). Bazı çalışmalar bir oğlan ya da bir kız olma konusunda genelleştirilmiş kültürel inançlar arasında nedensel bir ilişki olabileceğini ileri sürse de bazıları kişinin kendisi ve başkaları ile ilgili toplumsal cinsiyet tiplemesi arasında bir ilişki bulamamıştır (Liben ve ark., 2002). Sonuçlardaki bu tür bir tutarsızlığın nedeni, kişisel çıkarların ve ilişkilerin olası etkisinden kaynaklanabilir. Örneğin, çocukların Toplumsal Cinsiyet Belirginliği Filtresi (TCBF) toplumsal cinsiyet şemalarını günlük deneyimlerle değiştirebilir. Yani, daha yüksek bir TCBF'ine sahip bir oğlan çocuğu, bebelere güçlü bir ilgisi varsa şemasını "Hem kızlar hem de erkekler bebeklerle oynar" olarak değiştirebilir (Coyle & Liben, 2016). Çocuklar, toplumsal cinsiyete dayanan kalıpyargısal durumlarda kendilerini değerlendirirken kişisel ilgi ve deneyimlerinden dolayı daha esnek olabilirler. Çocuklar ve ebeveynler arasındaki duygusal yakınlık göz önüne alındığında, ebeveynlerin de toplumsal cinsiyetle ilgili değerlendirmelerinde kendi çocukları için daha esnek olması beklenir.

Özetle, geçmişten günümüze literatür taraması yapıldığında, çocukların toplumsal cinsiyet gelişiminde ebeveynlerin etkisine bakan araştırmaların kendi ve başkası hakkındaki kalıpyargıları ayrıntılı incelemeyeceği görülmüştür. Ayrıca, Türkiye Kültürü içerisinde toplumsal cinsiyet kalıpyargılarını hem ebeveynlerden hem de çocuktan veri toplayarak araştıran çok az sayıda çalışma vardır. Ebeveynlerden çocuğa uzanan bu ilişkiyi araştıran araştırmalar ise ölçtükleri kavram bakımından anlamlı ilişki bulmakta yetersiz kalmışlardır. Bütün bunlar göz önünde bulundurularak bu çalışmada farklı örneklem kullanılarak üç farklı çalışma planlanmıştır. İlk çalışmada, ebeveynlerin ve çocuklarının toplumsal cinsiyet kalıpyargılarını nasıl algıladıklarını ve bu algının ailedeki çocuk ve diğer çocuklar için bir değişiklik gösterip göstermeyeceğini araştırmayı amaçladık. İkinci çalışmada aile bireylerinden elde ettiğiniz toplumsal cinsiyet kalıpyargısı temaları ile ebeveynlerin çocuklara yönelik toplumsal cinsiyet kalıpyargılarına dayanan inançlarını ölçen bir ölçek geliştirmeyi amaçladık. Üçüncü ve son çalışmada ise, ikinci çalışma çerçevesinde yeni geliştirilen ölçeği kullanarak, ebeveynlerin toplumsal cinsiyet kalıpyargısına dayanan inançları ile günlük yaşamdaki toplumsal cinsiyete dayalı davranışları (örneğin, ev işleri ve çocuk bakımının bölünmesi) göz önünde bulundurarak, çocukların kendileri ve başkaları ile ilgili toplumsal cinsiyet tiplemesini araştırmak hedeflenmiştir.

Çalışmanın hipotezleri aşağıdaki gibidir:

1) (A) Ebeveynler başka oğlan ve kızlarla ilgili konuşurken kendi çocuklarına kıyasla daha kalıpyargısal olacaklardır. (B) Okulöncesi çocukları başka oğlan ve kızlarla ilgili konuşurken kendilerine kıyasla daha kalıpyargısal olacaklardır.

2) (A) Çocuklarla ilgili toplumsal cinsiyet kalıpyargısına dayanan inançları yüksek olan ebeveynlerin çocuklarının da kendileri ve başkaları ile ilgili daha fazla toplumsal cinsiyet tiplemesine sahip olması beklenmektedir. (B) Ailenin çocukların toplumsal cinsiyet ile ilgili davranışlarını nasıl gerekçelendirdikleri (içsel faktörler ve dışsal faktörler) bu ilişkide düzenleyici rol oynayacaktır.

3) (A) Ev işleri ve çocuk bakımında annelerin kendileri için daha fazla sorumluluk ya da eşleri için daha az sorumluluk rapor etmesi, çocuklarının hem kendileri hem de başkaları için daha fazla toplumsal cinsiyet tiplemesine sahip olması ile ilişkili olacaktır. (B) Aynı şekilde, ev işleri ve çocuk bakımında babaların kendileri için daha az sorumluluk ya da eşleri için daha fazla sorumluluk rapor etmesi, çocuklarının hem kendileri hem de başkaları için daha fazla toplumsal cinsiyet tiplemesine sahip olması ile ilişkili olacaktır.

1. Çalışma: Anne-Çocuk-Baba Üçlüsü ile Görüşmeler

Amaç

İlk çalışmada anne-çocuk-baba üçlüsünün çocukların günlük hayattaki seçim ve davranışları ile ilgili algılarının tematik açıdan incelenmesi amaçlanmıştır. Bunun yanında bu temaların ailedeki çocuk ve başka çocuklar için farklılık gösterip göstermediği test edilmiştir.

Yöntem

Katılımcılar

İlk çalışmaya toplam 40 aile katılmıştır. Ailelerin yarısını oğlan çocuğu, diğer yarısının ise kız çocuğu vardır. Bütün aileler evlerinde ziyaret edilmiştir.

Veri Toplama Araçları

Demografik Bilgi Formu. Hem annelerden hem de babalardan katılımcıların yaşını, eğitim seviyesini, ailenin sosyo-ekonomik düzeyini içeren bir form doldurmaları istenmiştir. Aynı zamanda bu formlar çocuğun yaşını ve biyolojik cinsiyetini de içermektedir.

Yarı Yapılandırılmış Görüşmeler. Görüşme soruları literatüre dayanarak oluşturulmuştur (Yağan Güder, 2014). Her ailedeki anne, baba ve çocuk ile ayrı ayrı 15-20 dakika süren görüşmeler yapılmıştır. Görüşmelerdeki sorular çocukların günlük hayattaki seçim ve davranışlarını içermektedir. Katılımcıların yarısına sorular ailedeki çocuk üzerinden sorulurken diğer yarısına rastgele kızlar ya da oğlanlar için sorulmuştur. Bütün görüşmelerde ses kaydı alınmış daha sonra bu ses kayıtlarının çözümlenmesi yapılmıştır.

İşlem

Gereken etik izinler alındıktan sonra aileler evlerinde ziyaret edilmiş ve görüşmeler her bir aile bireyi için uygun bir odada yapılmıştır. Görüşmeye her zaman önce çocuklar alınmış anne ve babaların sırası ise ağırlıklı dengelenmiştir. Çalışmaya katılım gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır ve ebeveynlerden hem kendi katılımları hem de çocukların katılımları için onay alınmıştır.

Analizler

Aile bireyleri ile yapılan görüşmeler iki aşamada test edilmiştir. İlk aşamada görüşmeler yazılı hale getirilerek tema analizi uygulanmış, ikinci aşamada ise elde edilen bu temaların sıklık derecesinin ailedeki çocuk ve başka çocuklar için farklılık gösterip göstermediği Doğrusal Karışık Model analizleri ile test edilmiştir.

Bulgular

Tema Analizi Sonuçları. Katılımcıların cevapları toplumsal cinsiyet ile tutarlı, toplumsal cinsiyet ile tutarsız ve nötr temalar altında gruplandırılmıştır. Bununla birlikte katılımcılara çocukların günlük hayattaki seçimleri ile ilgili sorulan her sorudan sonra bu seçimleri gerekçelendirmeleri istenmiştir. Katılımcıların bu gerekçelendirmeleri içsel faktörler ve dışsal faktörler olarak ikiye ayrılmıştır.

Toplumsal cinsiyet ile tutarlı temalar aile bireyleri tarafından en çok bahsedilen tema olarak ortaya çıkmıştır ($N_{\text{aileüyeleri}} = 120, f = 3486$). Bu temalar toplumun kız ve oğlan çocuklarından beklediği geleneksel seçim ve davranışları içermektedir. İçerik olarak katılımcıların aile içindeki çocuklarla rastgele kız ve oğlan çocuklarına verdikleri cevaplar benzerlik göstermektedir. Aile bireylerinin aile içindeki oğlan çocuğu ve rastgele bir oğlan çocuğu için verdiği toplumsal cinsiyet ile uyumlu temalar bilişsel yetenek gerektiren aktiviteleri ve meslekleri seçmesi, mekanik mesleklere ilgilerinin olması, oğlanlarla oynamayı tercih etmesi, sinirli olduğunda saldırgan tepkiler vermesi, fiziksel olarak hareketli, aktif ve dinamik olması olarak örneklendirilebilir. Bunun yanında, ailedeki kız çocuğu ve rastgele bir kız çocuğu için katılımcılar tarafından en çok bahsedile temalar kız çocuklarının ev işlerinde yardım etmesi gerektiği ya da ev işleri ile ilgili oyuncakları sevdiği, üzgünken sakin tepkiler verdiği, pembe, mor ve kırmızı renkleri tercih ettiği, bebeklere ve pelüş oyuncaklara ilgilerinin olduğu, etek ve elbise giymekten hoşlandığı ve kızlarla oynamayı tercih ettikleridir.

Toplumsal cinsiyet ile tutarsız temalar toplamda en az bahsedilen temadır ($N_{\text{aileüyeleri}}=120, f=1454$). Bu temalar aile bireylerinin geleneklerin dışında kız ve oğlan çocuklarının günlük hayattaki seçim ve davranışlarını içermektedir. Oğlan çocuklarının ev işlerinde yardım etmesi gerektiği ya da ev işleri ile ilgili oyuncakları sevmesi, sinirliyken ve üzgünken sakın tepkiler vermesi, pembe, mor ya da kırmızı rengi tercih etmesi, kravat ya da takım elbise giymemesi, fiziksel olarak aktif, hareketli ve dinamik olmaması, güvenlik ve hayat kurtarma ile ilgili meslekleri tercih etmemesi bu tema altında oğlan çocukları için en çok bahsedilen alt temalar olmuştur. Ailedeki kız çocuğu ve rastgele bir kız çocuğu için bahsedilen alt temalar ise bilişsel beceri gerektiren aktivite ya da mesleklere ilgili olmak ya da mekanik meslekler tercih etmek, doktor olmak ya da doktorlukla ilgili meslekler tercih etmek, fiziksel olarak aktif olmak, ev işlerinde yardım etmemek ya da ev işleri ile ilgili oyuncakları sevmemek, mavi ya da lacivert tercih etmek olarak örneklendirilebilir.

Son olarak aile bireyleri çocukların günlük hayattaki seçim ve davranışları ile ilgili bazı nötr ifadeler kullanmışlardır ($N_{\text{aileüyeleri}}=120, f=1810$). Bahsedilen bu ifadeler toplum tarafından özellikle kadınsı (dişil) ve erkeksi (eril) olarak tanımlanmayan seçim ve davranışları içermektedir. Kendi sorumluluğunu almak, rahat kıyafetler seçmek, tehlikeli işlere yardım etmemek, resim yapmak, kendisini mutlu eden meslekler seçmek bu temada hem kız hem de oğlan çocukları için yaygın olarak kullanılan nötr ifadelerdir.

Aile bireyleri çocukların davranışlarını daha çok içten gelen sebeplere bağlamışlardır ($N_{\text{aileüyeleri}}=120, f=1364$). İçsel faktörler çocuğun doğuştan gelen ve değişime dirençli özelliklerini kapsamaktadır. Biyolojik olarak kız ya da oğlan olmak ve kişilik özellikleri bunlara örnek olarak gösterilebilir. Bunun yanında bazı aileler çocuğun davranışlarının dışarıdan öğrenildiğinden ya da bu davranışların toplumun yararına olduğundan bahsetmiştir. Bu tür gerekçelendirmeler ise dışsal faktörler olarak tanımlanmıştır ($N_{\text{aileüyeleri}}=120, f=841$).

Temaların Gruplara Göre Karşılaştırılması. Aile bireylerinden elde edilen temaların sorunun kim için sorulduğuna (ailedeki çocuk ve rastgele bir kız/oğlan) ve aile üyelerine (anne, baba, çocuk) göre değişip değişmediğini araştırmak için Doğrusal Karışık Model analizleri uygulanmıştır. Analizler katılımcıların anlamlı

olarak en fazla toplumsal cinsiyet ile tutarlı temalar kullandığını göstermiştir. Bunu sırasıyla nötr ve toplumsal cinsiyet ile uyumsuz temalar takip etmiştir, $F(2,38) = 54.530, p = .000$. Ayrıca yine aile bireyleri çocuklarının davranışlarını anlamlı olarak daha fazla içsel nedenlere bağlamıştır, $F(1, 38) = 25.788, p = .000$.

İkili ve üçlü etkileşim analizleri incelendiğinde ailelerin kendi çocukları için daha fazla nötr ifade kullandıkları görülmüştür. Bununla birlikte anneler kendi çocukları ve başka çocuklar için üç temada herhangi bir fark göstermese de babaların kendi çocukları için daha az toplumsal cinsiyet teması ile tutarlı tema kullandığı, çocukların ise kendileri için daha fazla nötr tema kullandığı bulunmuştur. Aile bireylerinin bu seçimler için gerekçelendirmelerine bakıldığında ise çocukların daha fazla içsel faktörler kullandığı, annelerin ise başka çocukların davranışlarını daha fazla dışsa faktörlere bağladığı görülmüştür.

2. Çalışma: Ebeveynlerin Çocuklarla İlgili Toplumsal Cinsiyet Kalıpyargıları İnançları Ölçeğinin Geliştirilmesi

Amaç

İkinci çalışmada birinci çalışmadan elde edilen temalarla ebeveynlerin çocuklarla ilgili toplumsal cinsiyet kalıpyargılarına dayanan inançlarını ölçen yeni bir ölçek geliştirmek hedeflenmiştir.

Yöntem

Katılımcılar

Çalışma iki farklı örnekleme test edilmiştir. İlk örnekleme 597 (54 baba), ikinci örnekleme ise 344 (172 baba) ebeveynlerden oluşmaktadır.

Veri Toplama Araçları

Demografik Bilgi Formu. Hem annelerden hem de babalardan katılımcıların yaşını, eğitim seviyesini, ailenin sosyo-ekonomik düzeyini içeren bir form doldurmaları istenmiştir.

Ebeveynlerin Çocuklarla İlgili Toplumsal Cinsiyet Kalıpyargıları İnançları Ölçeği. Ölçeğin bu çalışma için geliştirilmesi hedeflenmiştir. Ölçeğin 61 maddeden oluşan ilk hali ilk örnekleme, 34 maddeden oluşan ikinci hali ise ikinci örnekleme verilmiştir. Katılımcılardan çocuklarla ilgili bazı toplumsal cinsiyet kalıpyargılarını 0'dan (Hiç Katılmıyorum) 10'a kadar (Tamamen Katılıyorum)

değerlendirmeleri istenmiştir. Ayrıca her maddeden sonra katılımcılardan çocukların bu davranışlarının yüzde kaçının içsel nedenlerden ve yüzde kaçının dışsal nedenlerden kaynaklandığını belirtmeleri istenmiştir. Ölçekten alınan yüksek puanlar daha fazla toplumsal cinsiyet kalıpyargılarına sahip olduğunu göstermektedir.

Çelişik Duygulu Cinsiyetçilik Ölçeği. Geliştirilen ölçeğin uyum geçerliğini test etmek amacıyla Çelişik Duygulu Cinsiyetçilik Ölçeği kullanılmıştır. Ölçek 31 maddeden oluşmaktadır. Ölçekte kadın ve erkeklere karşı bazı cinsiyetçi tutumlar yer almakta ve katılımcılardan her bir durumu 1'den (Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum) 6'ya (Kesinlikle Katılıyorum) kadar puanlayarak değerlendirmeleri istenmiştir. Alınan yüksek puanlar kadın ve erkeklere karşı yüksek cinsiyetçi tutumları göstermektedir.

İşlem

Çalışma için gereken etik izinler alınmıştır. Çalışma gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. İlk örneklem çalışmayı çevrimiçi olarak, ikinci örneklem ise kağıt-kalem yöntemi ile tamamlamıştır. Çalışma için hem Açıklayıcı Faktör Analizi (AFA) hem de Doğrulayıcı Faktör Analizi (DFA) uygulanmıştır.

Bulgular

İlk örneklem ile yapılan analizler dört faktörlü yapıyı desteklemiştir. Bu dört faktörlü yapı 61 madde içermektedir ve toplam varyansın %45.471'ini açıklamıştır. İlk faktörde 14 madde ile oğlanlardan beklenen eril (erkeksi) davranışları ikinci faktörde 11 madde ile kızlardan beklenen dişil (kadınsı) davranışları, üçüncü faktörde 5 madde ile kızlardan beklenmeyen erkeksi davranışlar ve son faktörde 4 madde ile oğlanlardan beklenmeyen erkeksi özellikler yer almıştır. İkinci örneklemde DFA uygulanarak birinci örneklemde elde edilen faktör yapısı test edilmiştir ancak sonuçlar elde edilen faktör yapısını desteklememiştir, $\chi^2(521, N = 310) = 1922.039$, $p < .001$; $\chi^2/df = 3.689$; RMSEA = .084, 90% CI = [.089, .098]; GFI = .671, CFI = .749, SRMR = .074. Bunun üzerine her iki örneklemde de ikinci bir AFA uygulanarak problemlili olan dokuz madde ölçekten çıkarılmıştır ve ölçeğin 25 madde ile kullanılmasına karar verilmiştir. Ölçeğin iç tutarlılık için Cronbach Alfa katsayısı hesaplanmış ve 25 madde için bu değer .911 olarak bulunmuştur. Ayrıca ölçeğin geçerliğini test etmek için Çelişik Duygulu Cinsiyetçilik Ölçeği ile arasındaki

korelasyon katsayıları hesaplanmış ve bütün korelasyonların anlamlı ve beklenen yönde olduğu görülmüştür.

3. Çalışma: Aile Bağlamında Toplumsal Cinsiyet Kalıpyargıları

Amaç

Son çalışmada ikinci çalışmada geliştirilen ölçek kullanılarak ebeveynlerin çocuklara dair toplumsal cinsiyet inançlarının çocukların kendileri ve başkaları ile ilgili toplumsal cinsiyet tiplemesindeki yordayıcı rolü araştırılmıştır. Bununla birlikte evdeki iş bölümü ve çocuk bakımı paylaşımının çocukların kendileri ve başkaları ile ilgili toplumsal cinsiyet tiplemesi üzerindeki rolü araştırılmıştır.

Yöntem

Katılımcılar

Çalışmaya 152 anne-baba ve onların okul öncesi dönemindeki çocukları katılmıştır (84 anne-kız çocuk-baba). Katılımcılar en az lise mezunudur.

Veri Toplama Araçları

Demografik Bilgi Formu. Hem annelerden hem de babalardan katılımcıların yaşını, eğitim seviyesini, ailenin sosyo-ekonomik düzeyini içeren bir form doldurmaları istenmiştir. Aynı zamanda bu formlar çocuğun yaşını ve biyolojik cinsiyetini de içermektedir.

Evdeki İş Bölümü ve Çocuk Bakımı. Evdeki iş bölümü ve çocuk bakımı paylaşımını değerlendirmek için her iki ebeveyn toplam 18 soru (10 madde çocuk bakımı, 8 madde ev işi bölümü) değerlendirmiştir. Öncelikle katılımcılardan bu maddeleri kendilerinin ne kadar yaptığına göre 1'den (Hiç yapmam) 10'a (Her zaman yaparım) kadar değerlendirmeleri istenmiştir. Daha sonra aynı maddeleri eşleri için değerlendirmişlerdir.

Ebeveynlerin Çocuklarla ilgili Toplumsal Cinsiyet Kalıpyargıları İnançları Ölçeği. Ebeveynlerin çocuklarla ilgili toplumsal cinsiyet inançlarını ölçmek amacıyla bu çalışma için Ebeveynlerin Çocuklarla ilgili Toplumsal Cinsiyet Kalıpyargıları İnançları Ölçeği geliştirilmiştir. Ölçeğin son versiyonunda dört faktör (1 = oğlanlardan beklenen erkeksi davranışlar, 2 = kızlardan beklenmeyen erkeksi davranışlar, 3 = kızlardan beklenen kadınsı davranışlar, 4 = oğlanlardan beklenmeyen kadınsı davranışlar) ve toplam 25 madde bulunmaktadır. Ölçekte annelerden ve

babalardan çocuklarla ilgili bazı toplumsal cinsiyet kalıpyargılarını 0'dan (Hiç Katılmıyorum) 10'a kadar (Tamamen Katılıyorum) değerlendirmeleri istenmiştir. Ayrıca her maddeden sonra katılımcılardan çocukların bu davranışlarının yüzde kaçının içsel nedenlerden ve yüzde kaçının dışsal nedenlerden kaynaklandığını belirtmeleri istenmiştir. Ölçekten alınan yüksek puanlar daha fazla toplumsal cinsiyet kalıpyargılarına sahip olduğunu göstermektedir.

Çocukların Kendileri ve Başkaları ile İlgili Toplumsal Cinsiyet Tiplemesi. Okul öncesi çocukların toplumsal cinsiyet kalıpyargıları, *Okul Öncesi Meslekler, Etkinlikler ve Karakter Ölçeği-Tutum Ölçümü ve Kişisel Ölçüm* kullanılarak değerlendirilmiştir (Liben ve ark., 2002). Ölçek, her birinde üç farklı kavram olan iki alt ölçekten oluşmaktadır ancak mevcut çalışma için kavramlardan yalnızca ikisi kullanılmıştır: meslekler ve etkinlikler. Kişisel Ölçümde (KÖ) çocuklara iki nötr madde içeren 12 toplumsal cinsiyet ile uyumlu mesleğin resimleri ve iki nötr madde ile 12 toplumsal cinsiyet ile uyumlu etkinlik / oyuncak resmi gösterilmiştir. Çocuklara gösterilen meslekleri yapmayı ve gösterilen oyuncaklar ile oynamayı ne kadar istedikleri sorulmuştur. Cevapları 0 (Hiç) ile 2 (Çok) arasında kodlanmıştır. Benzer olarak Tutum Ölçeğinde (TÖ), çocuklara iki nötr madde içeren 12 toplumsal cinsiyet ile uyumlu mesleğin resimleri ve iki nötr madde ile 12 toplumsal cinsiyet ile uyumlu etkinlik / oyuncak resmi gösterilmiştir. Bu defa çocuklara bu meslekleri kimlerin yapması gerektiği ve bu oyuncaklarla kimlerin oynaması gerektiği sorulmuştur. Çocuklar bu meslekleri ve faaliyetleri “sadece kadınlar / sadece erkekler”, “sadece oğlanlar / sadece kızlar” ve “hem kadınlar hem de erkekler / hem kızlar hem de oğlanlar” cevaplarıyla eşleştirmeleri istenmiştir. Tutum Ölçümü alt ölçeğinde daha yüksek puan, başkalarına dair toplumsal cinsiyet tiplemesinde daha fazla esneklik anlamına gelirken, Kişisel Ölçüm alt ölçeğinde, daha yüksek puanlar çocukların kendileri daha fazla toplumsal cinsiyet tiplemesine sahip olduğunu göstermektedir.

İşlem

Gereken etik izinler alınmış ve çalışmanın duyurusu sosyal medya hesaplarından yapılmıştır. Veriler iki farklı şekilde toplanmıştır. Ailelerin kabul etmesi durumunda ev ziyaretleri yapılmış, diğer durumda ise çocuktan okul

ortamında uygun bir odada veri toplanarak aileler için olan anketler evlere gönderilmiştir. Çalışma gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır.

Analizler

Hipotezler, gözlenen değişkenler kullanılarak SPSS AMOS 23 yoluyla dört farklı yol analizi ile test edilmiştir. Bağımlı değişkenler çocukların kendilerine ve başkalarına dair toplumsal cinsiyet tiplemesidir. Birinci, ikinci, üçüncü ve dördüncü modeller için bağımsız değişkenler sırasıyla annelerin çocuklarla ilgili toplumsal cinsiyete dair inançları, babaların çocuklarla ilgili toplumsal cinsiyete dair inançları, annelerin kendileri ve eşleri için iş bölümü ve çocuk bakımı hakkındaki değerlendirmeleri ve babaların kendileri ve eşleri için ev işleri ve çocuk bakımı paylaşımına ilişkin değerlendirmeleridir. İlk modelde, annenin ve babaların çocukların tercihleri ve davranışlarıyla ilgili gerekçeleri modele düzenleyici değişken olarak eklenmiştir. Tüm modellerde ilk önce tamamen doygun bir model test edilmiştir. Daha sonra bağımsız değişkenlerden bağımlı değişkenlere giden tüm yollar kontrol edilerek anlamsız çıkan ilişkiler analizden teker teker çıkarılmıştır. Böylece, bağımsız ve bağımlı değişkenler arasındaki anlamsız ilişkiler kaldırıldıktan sonra son modelde sadece anlamlı yollar kalmıştır.

Bulgular

Modeller yorumlanmadan önce tanımlayıcı istatistik analizleri incelenmiştir. Bulgular babaların ($M = 6.948$, $SD = 1.482$) çocuklarla ilgili annelerden daha fazla toplumsal cinsiyet kalıpyargılarına dayanan inançları olduğunu göstermiştir ($M = 6.14$, $SD = 1.650$); $t(151) = -5.704$, $p = .000$). Anneler eşlerinin çocuk bakımında ($M = 5.950$, $SD = 1.844$) ev işlerinden daha fazla sorumluluk rapor ederken ($M = 4.112$, $SD = 1.904$); $t(151) = -11.829$, $p = .000$), babalar da kendilerinin çocuk bakımında ($M = 6.065$, $SD = 1.566$) ev işlerine göre daha fazla sorumluluk aldıklarını rapor etmişlerdir ($M = 4.164$, $SD = 1.566$); $t(151) = -13.967$, $p = .000$).

İlk modelde annelerin çocuklarla ilgili toplumsal cinsiyet kalıpyargıları sadece çocukların başkalarına karşı olan tutumlarını yordamıştır ($\chi^2(6, N = 304) = 5.158$, $p = .524$, $\chi^2/df = .860$, $RMSEA = .000$, $GFI = .987$, $CFI = 1.000$, $\beta = -.206$, $p = .010$). Benzer şekilde ikinci modelde çocuklarla ilgili daha katı toplumsal cinsiyet kalıpyargı inanışlarına sahip olan çocuklarının başkalarına karşı daha az esnek

oldukları görülmüştür. Ancak bu ilişki sınıra yakın anlamlıdır. ($\chi^2 (6, N = 304) = 6.790, p = .341, \chi^2/df = 1.132, RMSEA = .030, GFI = .982, CFI = .986, NNFI = .977, \beta = -.169, p = .035$).

Üçüncü modelde annelerin ev işlerinde daha az görev alması others ($\beta = -.257, p = .003$) ile çocuk bakımında daha fazla görev almasının ($\beta = .181, p = .038$) çocuğun başkaları ile ilgili tutumlarında daha esnek olması ile ilişkili olduğu görülmüştür. Ayrıca aynı modelde annelerin ev işlerinde partnerlerinin daha fazla görev aldığını rapor etmesinin ($\beta = -.177, p = .027$) çocukların kendileri ile ilgili toplumsal cinsiyet tiplemesinde daha esnek olmaları ile ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur. ($\chi^2 (6, N = 304) = 5.020, p = .7541, \chi^2/df = 0.837, RMSEA = .000, GFI = .989, CFI = .1000$). Son model babaların ev işlerinde daha fazla sorumluluk aldıklarını rapor etmelerinin çocuklarının kendileri ile ilgili toplumsal cinsiyet tiplemesinde daha esnek olmaları ile ilişkili olduğunu göstermiştir. Ancak bu ilişki sınırda anlamlıdır, $\chi^2 (8, N = 304) = 6.960, p = .541, \chi^2/df = .870, RMSEA = .000, GFI = .986, CFI = 1.000, \beta = -.152, p = .059$).

Tartışma

Çocukların Seçimleri ve Davranışları için Kullanılan Temalar

Çalışmanın ilk basamağında ebeveynlerin ve onların okul öncesi çocuklarının aile içindeki çocuk ve başka kız ya da oğlan çocukları için kullandıkları toplumsal cinsiyet temaları incelenmiştir. Tematik analiz sonuçları çocukların davranışları için toplumsal cinsiyet ile tutarlı, toplumsal cinsiyet ile tutarsız ve nötr olmak üzere üçe ayrılmıştır. Bununla birlikte çocukların davranışı ile ilgili yapılan gerekçelendirmeler içsel ve dışsal faktörler olarak ikiye ayrılmıştır. Çalışmaya katılan bütün aile bireylerinin en çok toplumsal cinsiyet ile uyumlu temalar kullandığı görülmüştür. Bunu nötr temalar takip ederken en az kullanılan tema toplumsal cinsiyet ile uyumsuz temalardır. Bu sonuçlar kalıpyargılara ters düşen değerlendirme yapmanın zorluğunu gösteren çalışmaları desteklemektedir (Allen et al., 2009; Sherman et al., 1998, 2005). Son olarak aile bireyleri çocukların davranışlarını daha çok doğuştan gelen, durağan ve değişime dirençli olarak tanımlanan içsel faktörlere bağlamaktadır.

Temalar içerik bakımından aile içindeki çocuk ve rastgele kız ya da oğlanlar için bir değişiklik göstermese de verilen detayların bazı farklılıklar gösterdiği

görülmüştür. Babaların başka çocuklar ile ilgili bilgi verirken daha fazla toplumsal cinsiyet ile uyumlu temalar kullandığı bulunurken, çocukların kendileri ile ilgili durumları değerlendirirken daha fazla nötr ifade kullandığı bulunmuştur. Anneler içinse kendi çocukları ve başka çocuklar için bu temaların sıklığı arasında herhangi bir fark bulunamamıştır. Bulgular hipotezleri kısmen destekler niteliktedir. Babaların kendi çocukları ile kurduğu duygusal bağ, geçirdiği zaman ve deneyimlerin onlar hakkında dışarıdaki çocuklara kıyasla daha az toplumsal cinsiyet ile uyumlu temalar kullanmasına neden olduğu düşünülmektedir. Bunun yanında sorular sorulurken “kız” ve “oğlan” sözcüklerinin kullanılması babaların toplumsal cinsiyet kalıpyargılarının daha fazla tetiklenmesine sebep olduğu ve bu yüzden başka çocuklar için toplumsal cinsiyet konularında daha katı olduğu savunulabilir (Kay & Kempton, 1984). Babalara benzer olarak çocukların kendileri ile ilgili konuşurken kişisel deneyim ve ilgilerinin düzenleyici rol oynayarak toplumsal cinsiyetten öte daha nötr seçim ve davranışlara yönelmelerine sebep olduğu düşünülebilir. Aile bireylerinin sundukları içsel ve dışsal gerekçeler ise sadece anne için farklılık göstermiştir. Bulgular annelerin dışarıdaki çocukların davranışlarını kendi çocuklarına göre daha fazla dışsal nedenlere bağladığını göstermektedir. Katılımcıların eğitim seviyesi ve sosyo-ekonomik düzeyi dikkate alındığında annelerin dışarıdaki çocukların toplumsal cinsiyet ile uyumlu davranışlarını değiştirebilir gördükleri için dışsal sebeplere daha fazla atıfta buldukları söylenebilir.

Ebeveynlerin Çocuklarla ilgili Toplumsal Cinsiyet Kalıpyargıları İnançları Ölçeği

İkinci çalışmada, ilk çalışmadan elde edilen alt temalar, ebeveynlerin çocuklar hakkındaki toplumsal cinsiyete dayanan inançlarını ölçen bir ölçek geliştirmek için kullanılmıştır. Sonuçlar, babaların ve annelerin kız ve oğlan çocuklarına yönelik kalıpyargısal inançlarının dört faktör altında 25 maddeyle değerlendirilebileceğini göstermiştir. Güvenirlik ve geçerlik değerleri yeterli düzeyde bulunmuştur. Ölçeğin dört bileşeni oğlanlardan beklenen erkeksi (eril) davranışlar, kızlardan beklenmeyen erkeksi (eril) davranışlar, kızlardan beklenen kadınsı (dişil) davranışlar ve oğlanlardan beklenmeyen kadınsı (dişil) davranışlar olarak belirlenmiştir.

Arařtırmacılar, erkeklerden ve kadınlardan iki tip beklenti olduđunu öne sürmektedir: teşvik eden ve yasaklayan kalıpyargılar (Prentice ve Carranza, 2002). Teşvik eden kalıpyargılar, erkekler veya kadınlar için desteklenen ve beklenen davranıřları içerir. Öte yandan, yasaklayan kalıpyargılar erkekler ve kadınlar için istenmeyen davranıřları veya seçimleri tanımlar (Koenig, 2018). Bu çalışmada geliştirilen ölçeğın faktör yapısı literatürde bu ayrıma paralel niteliktedir. Maddeler, erkekler ve kadınlar için teşvik edici ve yasaklayıcı kalıpyargılar olarak birbirinden ayrılmaktadır. Böylece ölçek toplamda dört bileşen içermektedir. İlk bileşen oğlanlardan beklenen erkeksi özelliklerdir (teşvik edici kalıpyargılar) ve yedi madde içerir. Bu bileşendeki maddeler bilişsel alanlarda başarı, rekabet, fiziksel aktivite, mekanik bilgi, liderlik, şiddet ve fiziksel güç olarak çeşitli erkeksi özellikleri kapsar. İkinci bileşen, kızlardan beklenmeyen eril özelliklere içeren dokuz maddeden oluşmaktadır. (yasaklayan kalıpyargılar). İlk bileşene benzer şekilde, bu bileşende birkaç erkeksi özellik vardır, ancak bu özellikler kızlar için teşvik edilmez. Kızlardan beklenen kadınsı özellikler (teşvik edici kalıpyargılar) olarak açıklanan üçüncü bileşen beş madden oluşur ve kızların duygusal özelliklerine ve bakım motivasyonuna dayanmaktadır. İlginç bir şekilde, erkeklerden beklenmeyen kadınsı özellikleri içeren son bileşen (yasaklayan kalıpyargılar) de duygusal özelliklere ve bakım motivasyonuna odaklanmaktadır. Sonuç olarak, saldırganlık, bağımsızlık, bilişsel yetenek, mekanik şeylere ilgi oğlanlar için arzu edilirken, bu özelliklerin çođu kadınlar için teşvik edilmez.

Aile Bağlamında Okulöncesi Çocukların Kendileri ve Başkaları ile İlgili

Toplumsal Cinsiyet Rolü Tiplemesi

Ailenin Çocuklarla İlgili İnanıřlarının Yordayıcı Rolü. Çalışmanın başında, ebeveynlerin çocuklar hakkındaki toplumsal cinsiyete dayanan inançlarının okul öncesi çocuğın kendisinin ve başkalarının cinsiyet tiplemesini yordayacağı ve ebeveynlerin çocuklarının davranıřlarını gerekçelendirme şekillerinin bu ilişkide düzenleyici rol oynayacağı hipotez edilmiştir. Bulgular hipotezlerin bir kısmını desteklemiştir. Test edilen iki farklı model, babaların ve annelerin çocuklar hakkındaki toplumsal cinsiyet kalıpyargısına dayanan inançlarının, çocukların başkalarına karşı kalıpyargısal tutumlarını öngördüğünü ancak çocukların kendileri

ile ilgili toplumsal cinsiyet tiplemesini yordamadığını göstermiştir. Sonuçlarımız, toplum tarafından tanımlanan toplumsal cinsiyet rollerine karşı geleneksel veya eşitlikçi tutumlara sahip olan ebeveyn cinsiyet ideolojisinin çocukların cinsiyet stereotiplerini öngörücü bir rol oynadığını göstermesi açısından önceki çalışmalarla uyumludur (Halpern ve Perry-Jenkins, 2016). Ancak beklenenin aksine ebeveynlerinin çocuklarının davranışlarını nasıl gerekçelendirdiklerinin bu ilişkiler üzerinde düzenleyici bir rolü olmadığı görülmüştür.

Evdeki İş Bölümünün Yordayıcı Rolü. Gözlemler ve modelleme, çocukların erkekler ve kadınlar için tanımlanan farklı rolleri içeren toplumsal kuralları içselleştirmelerini sağlar (Bussey ve Bandura, 1999; Martin ve Ruble, 2010). Anneler ve babalar arasında ev işleri ve çocuk bakımı paylaşımları, çocukların ev ortamlarında kadınsı ve erkeksi roller hakkında gözlem yapmalarını sağlar. Bütün bunlar göz önünde bulundurularak çalışmanın başında, annelerin ev işleri ve çocuk bakımındaki daha yüksek sorumluluğunun veya babaların daha düşük sorumluluğunun çocuklar arasında daha fazla kalıpyargısal değerlendirmelerin öngöreceği hipotez edilmiştir. Hipotezlerimiz bir kısmı desteklenmiştir.

Evde iş bölümünü araştıran çalışmalar incelendiğinde, erkeklerle kadınların ifadeleri arasında bazı tutarsızlıklar olduğu gözlenmiştir. Babalar çocuk bakımı ve evdeki sorumluluklarının evlerinde eşit olarak paylaşıldığını düşünürken, anneler bu görevleri daha sık yaptıklarını bildirmişlerdir. Dolayısıyla bu çalışmada, annelerin ve babaların kendileri ve eşlerinin çocuk bakımı ve işleri bölümleri konusundaki değerlendirmeleri ayrı modellerde test edilmiştir. Sonuçlar, ev işlerinde daha fazla sorumluluk algılayan annelerin diğerlerine karşı daha toplumsal cinsiyet kalıpyargılarına dayanan tutumları olan çocuklara sahip olduğunu göstermiştir. Bu sonuçlar, annelerin ev işlerindeki sorumluluğunun, çocuklarının başkalarına karşı tutumlarında birincil rol oynadığını, ancak çocukların kendileri ile ilgili toplumsal cinsiyet tiplemesinde öngörücü rolü olmadığını göstermiştir. Boylamsal çalışmalardan biri, yaşamın ilk yıllarında daha geleneksel sorumluluk alan annelerin, daha sonraki yıllarda başkalarına karşı kalıpyargısal tutumları olan çocuklara sahip olma olasılığının daha yüksek olduğunu belirterek benzer sonuçlar bulmuştur (Dawson, Pike ve Bird, 2016). Bu nedenle, annelerinin ev içi sorumlulukları ile ilgili

gözlemler, çocukların toplumsal cinsiyet rolleri açısından çocukların başkalarına karşı kalıpyargısal tutumlarını şekillendirebilir. Buna ek olarak, annelerin kendilerini çocuk bakımında daha fazla sorumluluk aldıklarını algılamaları durumunda, çocukları başkalarına karşı toplumsal cinsiyetle ilgili tutumlarında daha esnek olma eğilimindedir. Çocuklar annelerinin çocuk bakımındaki aile içi rolünü gözleme şansına sahip olsalar da, annelerin çocuklarını o zamanlarda nasıl yönlendirdiği belirsiz olduğu göz önünde bulundurulmalıdır. Buna ek olarak, anneler için çocuklarla ilgilenmek toplumsal cinsiyet eşitliğinin ötesinde bir şey olarak algılanabilir (Johnston ve Swanson, 2006). Bu nedenle, annelerin eşitlikçi veya geleneksel görüşleri, çocukların çocuk bakımındaki cinsiyetle ilgili tutumları için yol gösterici olabilir.

Hem annenin hem de babanın değerlendirmelerinin test edildiği modellerde babanın ev işlerindeki sorumluluğunun çocuklarının toplumsal cinsiyetle ilgili oyuncaklara, faaliyetlere veya mesleklere olan kişisel ilgilerini öngördüğü bulunmuştur. Ev içi sorumlulukların çoğu kadınsı olarak tanımlandığından (Kroska, 2003), babaların bu konularda daha fazla sorumluluğu çocuklar için daha belirgin olabilir. Buna ek olarak, babaların bir evlilikte geleneksel cinsiyet rollerine yönelik değişen tutumları daha evlilik içinde daha az çatışma ile ilişkilidir (Amato ve Booth, 1995) ve bu çocuklar ev ortamlarındaki farklı toplumsal cinsiyet rollerinin daha az farkında olabilirler.

Sınırlılıklar

Önemli katkılara ek olarak, bu çalışmanın bazı sınırlamaları vardır. Her şeyden önce, birinci ($N_{aile} = 40$) ve üçüncü çalışmanın ($N_{aile} = 152$) örnek büyüklüğü uygulanan analizler için yetersiz olarak değerlendirilebilir. Bununla birlikte, bu sayıların bireysel katılımcılara karşılık gelmediği, ancak toplamda anne-çocuk-baba üçlülerini temsil ettikleri göz önünde bulundurulmalıdır. İkinci sınırlılık, ebeveynlerin çocukların kalıpyargısal tercihleri ve davranışları için gerekçelerini ölçen yapı ile ilgilidir. Bu yapıyı ölçmek için ebeveynlerden, çocukların toplumsal cinsiyetle ilgili davranışlarının yüzde kaçının iç veya dış faktörlerden kaynaklandığını değerlendirmeleri istenmiştir. Faktör analizi ve güvenilirlik testi bu takip sorularının yapısını doğrulamıştır. Ayrıca, toplumsal cinsiyet kalıpyargısal

inançlar ve gerekçeler arasındaki korelasyonlar anlamlı ve beklenen yönde bulunmuştur. Bununla birlikte, bu takip sorularının ebeveynler için kafa karıştırıcı olabileceği düşünülmektedir. Gelecekteki çalışmalar, ebeveynlerin toplumsal cinsiyetle gerekçelerini ölçmek için daha kapsamlı ve ayrıntılı öğeler içeren ölçekleri kullanabilir. Son olarak, örnekleme ve ölçüm yöntemleri ile ilgili bazı sınırlamalar olabilir. Bu çalışmada ailelere ulaşmak için kartopu tekniği kullanılmıştır ancak bu yöntemin bulguların temsil edilebilirliğini etkileyebileceği düşünülmektedir. Daha ileri araştırmalar, genellenebilirliğini artırmak için rastgele örnekleme tekniğini kullanabilir.

Çalışmanın Literatüre Katkısı ve Sonuç

Toplumsal cinsiyet, bireyin başkalarına karşı tutum ve davranışlarını düzenleyen önemli bir sosyal kategoridir (Blakemore ve diğerleri, 2009). Bireylerin dünya görüşlerini, davranışlarını, tutumlarını ve seçimlerini şekillendiren önemli bir sosyal yapı olması, farklı bağlamlarda incelenmesini önemli kılar. Çocuklar aile bağlamının içine doğduklarından, aile üyelerinden gelen toplumsal cinsiyetle ilgili mesajlar, çocukların cinsiyetle ilgili dünya görüşlerinin inşası için önemliydi. Mevcut tezde okul öncesi çocuklarının özellikle kendileri ve başkaları ile ilgili cinsiyet tiplmesi, bir anlamda toplumsal cinsiyet kalıpyargıları aile bağlamında incelenmiştir. Sonuçlar, aile üyelerinin toplumsal cinsiyet kalıpyargılarının değerlendirdikleri kişiye göre bazı farklılıklar gösterebileceğini göstermiştir. Aile üyeleri aile içindeki çocuk ve rastgele kız ya da oğlanlar için benzer içerikler kullansalar da verdikleri detaylar bazı farklılıklar göstermiştir. Mevcut çalışmada test edilen modeller aynı zamanda çocukların kendilerini ve diğerlerine karşı tutumlarını değerlendirmede farklı ilişkileri desteklemiştir. Hem ebeveynlerin toplumsal cinsiyet inançları hem de annelerin ev işlerindeki sorumluluğu, çocukların diğerlerine karşı toplumsal cinsiyetle ilgili tutumları için önemli bulunmuştur. Öte yandan, babaların ev içindeki sorumluluğu çocukların kendileri ile ilgili toplumsal cinsiyet temalı tercihleri veya davranışları için öngörücü görünüyordu. Çocukların toplumsal cinsiyet temasını aile bağlamında incelemede nitel ve nicel araştırmaları harmanlamanın literatüre toplumsal cinsiyet gelişimi hakkında daha kapsamlı bilgi verdiği düşünülmektedir. Gelecekteki araştırmalar, farklı ancak tamamlayıcı

arařtırma yöntemleri kullanarak aile bağlamında toplumsal cinsiyet gelişimine daha fazla ışık tutmalıdır

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