

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MOTHERS' AND FATHERS'
BELIEFS ABOUT CHILDREN'S EMOTIONS AND EMOTION
SOCIALIZATION PRACTICES

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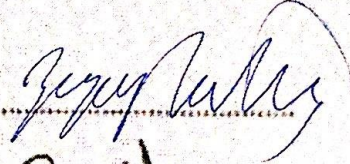
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The Relationship between Mothers' and Fathers' Beliefs about Children's
Emotions and Emotion Socialization Practices

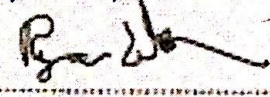
Anne ve Babaların Duygulara Dair İnanışlarıyla Duygu Sosyalizasyonu
Davranışlarının Arasındaki İlişkiler

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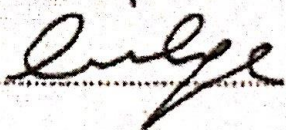
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Abstract

The present study aimed to investigate the link between parents' beliefs about children's emotions and their emotion socialization practices in a sample of 120 mothers and 85 fathers of preschool-aged children. Mothers and fathers came from different families and they had a minimum of high school degree. Parents were asked to fill the Demographic Information Form, the Short Temperament Scale for Children (STSC), the Coping with Children's Negative Emotions (CCNES), and the Parents Beliefs about Children's Emotions Questionnaire (PBACE). The PBACE was translated to Turkish for the present study.

The link between emotion-related beliefs and emotion socialization practices and differences between mothers and fathers in these variables were examined. Results demonstrated that mothers encouraged the expression of their children's negative emotions more than fathers. In addition, mothers reported valuing children's both negative and positive emotions to a higher degree in comparison to fathers. Consistent with the literature, parents who believed that children had more control over their emotions and that they can use their emotions to manipulate others used nonsupportive emotion socialization practices to a higher degree. Beliefs about the stability of emotions were also found to be correlated with nonsupportive strategies. Unexpectedly, parental beliefs related to value and acceptance of emotions was associated with both supportive and nonsupportive emotion socialization strategies.

Child gender was found to be a significant factor with regards to feelings of anger and sadness. Both mothers and fathers reported encouraging their son's sadness and anger more than their daughters'.

The present study adds to the emotion socialization literature by demonstrating the link between parental beliefs about children's emotions and emotion socialization strategies. It also highlights some differences between mothers and fathers among middle class urban Turkish parents. Findings derived from this study contribute to our understanding of this area and could aid in the development of intervention and prevention programs.

Keywords: Emotion-socialization, parental beliefs about emotions, preschool-aged children, Turkish parents, emotions

Özet

Bu çalışma ülkemizdeki ebeveynlerin duygu sosyalizasyonu davranışlarının duygulara dair inanışlarıyla ilişkisini incelemeyi hedeflemiştir. Çalışmaya 36-72 aylık çocuğu olan 120 anne, 85 baba olmak üzere toplam 205 ebeveyn katılmıştır. Anne ve babalar farklı ailelerden gelmektedir ve tüm ebeveynler en az lise mezunudur. Ebeveynler tarafından Çocukların Olumsuz Duygularıyla Baş Etme Ölçeği, Ebeveynlerin Çocukların Duygularına İlişkin İnanışları Ölçeği, Çocuklar için Kısa Mizaç Ölçeği ve Demografik Bilgi Formu doldurulmuştur. Halberstad ve arkadaşları (2013) tarafından geliştirilmiş olan Ebeveynlerin Çocukların Duygularına İlişkin İnanışları Ölçeği bu çalışma için Türkçe'ye çevrilmiştir.

Anne ve babaların duygu sosyalizasyonu davranışları ve inanışlarındaki farklılıklar ve iki değişken arasındaki ilişkiler farklı varyans analizi testleriyle karşılaştırılmış, çocuğun tepkisellik mizaç özelliği ve ebeveynlerin eğitim düzeyi analizlerde kontrol değişkenleri olarak alınmıştır. Sonuçlara göre annelerin babalara göre çocuklarının duygularını ifade etmelerini daha çok destekledikleri, çocukların olumsuz duygularını daha çok kabullendikleri ve genel olarak hem olumlu hem olumsuz duyguların deneyimlenmesini daha değerli gördükleri görülmüştür. Genel olarak olumsuz duyguların değerli olduğunu belirten ebeveynlerin çocuklarının duygularını hem destekleyen hem de desteklemeyen stratejileri kullandığı, çocukların duyguları manipüle etmek için kullandığını düşünen ebeveynlerin destekleyici olmayan stratejileri daha çok kullandığı ortaya çıkmıştır. Ebeveynler erkek çocuklarının üzüntü ve öfke duygularını ifade etmelerini kız çocuklarına göre daha çok desteklediklerini belirtmişlerdir.

Ek olarak, olumsuz duyguların deęerli olduęuna inanan ebeveynlerin aynı zamanda duyguların zararlarına da inandıęı bulunmuştur. Eęitim düzeyinin ve çocuęun tepkisellik mizaç özellięinin ebeveynlerin uyguladıkları duygu sosyalizasyonu stratejileri ile ilişkili olduęu bulunmuştur.

Bu araştırma kültürümüzde duygulara dair inanışlarla duygu sosyalizasyonu davranışlarının farklı boyutları arasındaki ilişkilerin anlaşılmasına katkı vermektedir. Elde edilen bulguların hem araştırmacılar hem de klinisyenler için anne-baba eęitim programlarının ve müdahalelerin tasarlanmasında yol gösterici olacaęı düşünülmektedir.

Anahtar kelimeler: Duygu sosyalizasyonu, duygulara dair inanışlar, okul öncesi çocuklar, Türk ebeveynler, duygular

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Emotions play a central role in child development (Root & Rubin, 2010). Expression of emotions and the emotional climate in the family have been found to be associated with children's emotion regulation ability, emotion understanding, and peer relationships (Root & Denham, 2010). Research has shown that both biological and social factors influence how children understand, display, and manage emotions (Eisenberg et al., 1998). Recognition of parents' influence on children's understanding, expression, and regulation of emotion has resulted in parental socialization of emotion becoming an important field of research.

Parents' emotion-related practices are shaped through a number of factors related to child, parent, and culture (Eisenberg, Cumberland, & Spinrad, 1998). The literature indicates that there are several pathways for emotion socialization, including direct and indirect ways (Eisenberg, Spinrad, & Cumberland, 1998; Cassano, Perry-Parrish, & Zeman, 2007). Children's expression of positive and negative emotions can be seen in their face, behavior, or talk. Examining parental emotion socialization behaviors in contexts eliciting distress in children is critical since children learn strategies to regulate their emotions and display emotions properly in early years of life (Eisenberg et al., 1998). Emotion-related parenting practices have been related to critical features of children's well-being, including children's emotional, social, and academic competence (Cunningham, Kliewer, & Garner, 2009; Gottman et al., 1997; Hooven et al., 1995). Parents' reactions to their children's emotions teach children appropriate expression of emotions and successful coping strategies (Eisenberg et al., 1998). Parents' reactions to their children's negative emotions, which can be supportive or nonsupportive, have been considered as a direct way to assess emotion-related parenting practices. Parents can treat their children's

negative emotions supportively by encouraging expression of emotion, comforting, distracting, or helping their children to solve the problem (Eisenberg et al., 1998; Fabes, Poulin, Eisenberg, & Madden-Derdich, 2002). Parents' supportive reactions to their children's emotions were found to be associated with emotion competence in children (Denham, Mitchell-Copeland, Strandberg, Auerbech, & Blair, 1997). Parents can treat their children's negative emotions nonsupportively by punishing, minimizing, or feeling distress in response to their children's negative emotions. Since negative emotions may be perceived as aversive by parents, their motivation can be controlling by punishing the expressions of negative emotions. The reason behind this tendency may be associated with parental belief that children manipulate by using emotions, displaying negative emotions reflect psychological weakness, or that negative emotions are harmful to children (Fabes, Leonard, Kupanoff, & Martin, 2001). Parents who share these kinds of beliefs may be more prone to feel distressed in response to children's negative emotions (Fabes et al., 2001). Nonsupportive reactions were found to be related to maladaptive childhood outcomes such as emotion regulation difficulties, internalizing, and externalizing disorders (Denham et al., 1997). Thus, parental beliefs and attributes about emotions are another important facet in emotion socialization literature since emotion-related parental beliefs guide parents' reactions to their children's emotions in diverse ways (Gottman, Katz, & Hooven, 1996).

Even though parental beliefs about emotions has been noted to be an important variable influencing emotion socialization, it has not been widely researched. Major aim of this study is to examine the relationship between different facets of parental beliefs about children's emotions and parents' emotion socialization practices in response to children's negative emotions. The literature also indicates culture to be an important factor in emotion socialization. The present study is one of the first to examine parental beliefs about emotions and emotion socialization practices simultaneously

in Turkey. Another goal of this study was to examine differences between Turkish mothers and fathers in terms of their beliefs and emotion socialization practices. As we have no findings about fathers' emotion socialization practices in Turkey we believe that this study would fill an important gap. It is hoped that the findings derived from this study help improve our knowledge about the process of emotion socialization.



CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this section, the underlying factors of emotion socialization are discussed in detail. Firstly, the most known models in emotion socialization literature, namely Gottman's Meta-Emotion Philosophy and Eisenberg's Heuristic Model are explained. Then, parental beliefs about children's emotions and its link with emotion socialization practices, implications of emotion socialization on children, gender-specific emotion socialization practices, the role of culture in parental emotion-socialization practices, and the link between child temperamental characteristics and emotion socialization are discussed in detail.

Meta-Emotion Philosophy

Parents have different philosophies about emotions that reflect the degree of parental acceptance and awareness of the child's emotions (Hooven, Gottman, & Katz, 1995). Gottman et al. (1996) developed the concept of parental meta-emotion philosophy or style, which is defined as "an organized set of feelings and thoughts about one's own emotions and one's children's emotions" (Gottman et al., 1996, p. 243).

According to Gottman et al. (1996), research related to parenting has been centered on parental discipline. Thus, researchers mostly examined variables such as control, authoritative or authoritarian parenting styles, discipline strategies, and warmth. Research has shown that parental emotion philosophy is a unique concept in parenting literature that is different from warmth. According to Sheeber, Shortt, Low, and Katz (2010), meta-emotion philosophy accounts for the variance in child adjustment "over and above" parenting variables such as harshness or warmth (as cited in Katz, Maliken, & Stettler, 2012). The concept of parental meta-emotion philosophy contributed to the literature by demonstrating that parental beliefs, attitudes, and cognition lead to parental emotion socialization practices. It is thought

that parental meta-emotion philosophy is fundamental for expression and regulation of parents' own emotions. In addition, it encompasses parental responses to their children's emotions, parental thinking about these responses, and coaching of children's emotions (Gottman et al., 1996).

Gottman et al. (1996) developed meta-emotion interview in which several emotion-related parenting styles emerged. One of the meta-emotion philosophies is emotion-coaching philosophy. Parents adopting emotion-coaching style are aware of their children's emotions, can talk about emotions, and help their children. Parents with emotion-coaching philosophy believe that children's negative emotions serve the purpose of teaching and closeness. These parents accept the negative emotions in their children, help their children label emotions, and cope with the condition eliciting negative emotions in children. In sum, emotion-coaching parents value and accept emotions. On the contrary to emotion-coaching philosophy, parents adopting dismissing meta-emotion philosophy perceive the child's negative emotions as harmful and believe that parents should alter the child's negative emotional state promptly. Parents with dismissing parenting style ignore or minimize the importance of emotions in their children. Dismissing parents are not aware of the emotions in themselves and their children.

Eisenberg's Heuristic Model

Parents teach children naming emotional states, emotions' causes and consequences, how emotions should be expressed, and regulated (Eisenberg et al., 1998).

Multiple factors influence emotion-related parenting practices. Parental emotion socialization behaviors are likely to be associated with features related to child such as child gender, age, and temperament; parental factors such as parents' emotion-related beliefs, general parenting style, parental goals, parents' own personality, and parents' own emotion regulation ability; features related to culture such as cultural values about

parents' role in child development, experience, and expression of emotion (Eisenberg et al., 1998; Gottman et al., 1996).

According to Eisenberg et al. (1998), parents socialize emotions in their children by using three modes of socialization: Discussion of emotion, expression of emotion, and reactions to children's emotions. Although three modes of socialization have overlapping features, each of them has been researched specifically (Eisenberg et al., 1998).

Parents' expression of emotion is one form of emotion socialization modes. Parents' expression of emotions and emotional climate in the family are thought to influence child outcomes such as children's emotion regulation ability, emotion understanding, and peer relationships indirectly (Root & Denham, 2010). To assess parents' expression of emotion researchers utilize several methods such as self-report and observation.

Discussion of emotion is another form of emotion socialization. Parents provide an opportunity for their children to elaborate and process emotions by discussing emotions (Eisenberg et al., 1998). To measure discussion of emotion, researchers ask to parents and children to discuss an emotion-elicited situation or event. Then, researchers code parent-child discussion by considering several factors such as frequency of positive and negative emotions, the length of discussion, and ways of discussing emotions (Lunkenheimer, Shields, & Cortina, 2007).

Expressed emotions by children are likely to elicit certain reactions on their parents. Parental reactions, which are considered as the most direct and relevant aspect to investigate emotion socialization, can be supportive or nonsupportive. Parental reactions are mostly measured by asking parents to fill questionnaires or by interviewing parents (Eisenberg et al., 1998). Supportive parental reactions include emotion-focused, problem-focused, and expressive encouragement strategies. Specifically, parents can help their children by comforting or distracting, finding a solution, or supporting their children to express their feelings in situations eliciting distress in their

children. Supportive parental reactions have been found to be related to positive child outcomes, that is development of children's social and emotional competence (Denham et al., 1997; Eisenberg et al., 1998).

Nonsupportive parental reactions include punishing children verbally or physically, minimizing children's emotions, or becoming distressed in response to children's emotions. Parents may use verbal or physical punishment to restrict children's emotion expressions.

Alternatively, parents may minimize their children's negative emotion and give the child the message that the expressed emotion is not important.

Parental distress is another nonsupportive reaction type that is uneasiness and discomfort in response to child's negative emotions. Parents actually teach children to repress their emotions by reacting nonsupportive as restricting and limiting children's emotions (Gross & Levenson, 1997).

Nonsupportive reactions to children's emotions have been linked to emotion regulation difficulties, low levels of emotional expression, and less emotion understanding (Denham et al., 1997).

Although emotion-socialization is widely researched and its importance within the larger context of parenting has been demonstrated in the US, the topic has only been recently examined by researchers in Turkey (Altan-Aytun, Yagmurlu, & Yavuz, 2013; Ersay, 2014; Yagmurlu & Altan, 2010).

There are limited measurement tools to investigate emotion-related parenting practices. Coping with Children's Negative Emotions Scale (the CCNES) is a self-report instrument that consists of 12 scenarios that are related to children's experience of negative emotions in daily life (Fabes et al., 2002). These hypothetical scenarios are mostly related to negative emotions (sadness, fear, anger, disappointment) experienced by children. The parents rate their likelihood of reacting to children's negative emotions in each scenario for six different reaction categories. The categories considered as supportive reactions are problem-focused reaction (PFR),

emotion-focused reaction (EFR), and expressive encouragement (EE). Parents who respond to their children's negative emotions with problem-focused strategies help the child find solutions for the problem that elicit distress in child. Parents who use emotion-focused strategies help the child by comforting or distracting the child. Parents who respond to their children's negative emotions by using expressive encouragement help children by encouraging their children to express their negative emotions. The categories considered as nonsupportive reactions are punitive reactions (PR), minimization reactions (MR), and distress response (DR). Parents who use minimization strategies in response to children's negative emotions ignore the seriousness of expressed emotion, try to control or limit children's expression of negative emotions. Parents who respond to children's negative emotions by using punitive strategies punish their children physically or verbally to restrict children's expression of negative emotions. Parents who respond to children's negative emotions with distress reaction become distressed themselves. Parents who become distressed after experiencing children's negative emotional displays are likely to focus on their own negative emotions instead of focusing on their children's situation (Fabes et al., 2002).

Assessment of Parents' Beliefs about Children's Emotions

As previously stated, meta-emotion construct is probably the best-known empirical study which is related to parental beliefs about emotions (Gottman et al., 1996). Gottman et al. (1996) developed meta-emotion interview to assess emotion-related parenting styles. Since the interview lasts 45 to 90 minutes and the responses obtained by the interview are coded along so many dimensions, conducting the interview to examine parental beliefs about emotions is difficult, time-consuming, and not practical (Halberstadt et al., 2013).

Thus, Lagace-Seguin and Coplan (2005) and Hakim-Larson, Parker, Lee, Goodwin, and Voelker (2006) developed two different questionnaires

to determine parental meta-emotion styles. In spite of the psychometric strengths of these questionnaires, the term meta-emotion unifies both beliefs and behaviors. If behaviors and beliefs are not differentiated, it is hard to determine the influence of parental beliefs on parental practices or ascertain which beliefs and/or behaviors have an impact on child outcomes (Eisenberg, 1996).

There are two other questionnaires that assess parental beliefs about children's emotions by detaching beliefs and behaviors. Specifically, The Parents' Beliefs about Children's Negative Emotions scale (PBANE; Halberstadt, Dunsmore, McElwain, Eaton, & McCool, 2001) consists of 80 items and focuses on several parental beliefs. The subscale named "children's negative emotions are valuable" and "children's negative emotions are dangerous" have good internal consistency. Halberstadt, Thompson, Parker and Dunsmore (2008) and Wong, McElwain, and Halberstadt (2009) found relationship between these beliefs and parental expressions of emotions, parents' discussion about emotions, and reactions to children's emotions. Moreover, Nelson, Leerkes, O'Brien, Calkins, and Marcovitch (2012) developed a measure examining parental beliefs about the acceptability of children's expression of sadness, fear, and anger in different contexts and varying privacy. The relationship between the beliefs and parents' reactions to children's negative emotions was supported.

Halberstadt et al. (2013) said that although both of these questionnaires have psychometric strengths, they have some limitations, as well. Specifically, they have not been measured for invariance across gender of parents and ethnicity. Moreover, neither measure includes items associated with positive emotions. Lastly, before the development of these questionnaires parents were not interviewed, which is necessary to figure out and appreciate diverse parental beliefs about emotions according to Halberstadt et al. (2013).

Consequently, Halberstadt et al. (2013) developed a questionnaire, named as the Parents' Beliefs about Children's Emotions Questionnaire (PBACE), to eliminate the above-mentioned limitations. Focus-group methodology contributed to the development of the PBACE by providing understanding about similarities and differences across three ethnicities (African American, European American, and Lumbee American Indian) and in-depth investigation of parental beliefs about children's emotions. In focus groups the parents were asked a number of open-ended questions and several themes were emerged in terms of value and cost of emotions, controllability of emotions, and parents' responsibilities in terms of emotion socialization (Parker et al., 2012). After focus groups, new items were generated based on the themes emerged. Then, exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses were conducted. Finally, The PBACE, which has 33 items and seven scales, was developed. The beliefs assessed in the PBACE are related to the evaluation of emotions (value and cost of children's emotions), the role of emotions in the family, children's emotional capabilities, and the stability of children's emotions. These seven subscales assess independent beliefs.

The subscales assess the beliefs based on evaluation of emotions are Cost of Positivity and Value of Anger. Specifically, the Cost of Positivity subscale measures parents' beliefs related to negative sides of positive emotions in their children. Moreover, it evaluates parents' responses in terms of social desirability. Accordingly, it was found that parents who tend to answer the questions in socially desirable ways reported fewer problems in children's positive emotions as compared to parents who are less concerned about responding in socially desirable way (Halberstadt et al., 2013). Parents who believe that children's positive emotions can be costly perceived themselves less positively expressive, behaved less supportive, and more nonsupportive to their children's positive emotions (Halberstadt et al., 2013). The Value of Anger subscale assesses the degree to which

parents accept and value child's anger. Parents who value their children's anger reported being more negatively expressive and more supportive towards their children's negative emotions (Halberstadt et al., 2013). This scale can be beneficial in prevention-oriented studies since acceptance of anger is related to anger regulation (Short, Stoolmiller, Smith-Shine, Eddy, & Sheeber, 2010).

The subscales assess the beliefs based on the role of emotions in relationships are Manipulation and Parental Knowledge. Accordingly, parents who believe that children manipulate others by using emotions reported being more nonsupportive and less supportive towards their children's emotions. Manipulation subscale can be beneficial for studies with maltreating parents since inadequate empathy, recognizing children's emotions inaccurately, and difficulty in discussing emotions are observed in these parents (Halberstadt et al., 2013; Shipman & Zeman, 2001). Parental Knowledge subscale assesses the parental belief in that it is important to know everything that children feel. Parents who believe that parents should know their children's all emotions and monitor their children engaged in more supportive emotion socialization strategies (Halberstadt et al., 2013).

Control and Autonomy subscales assess parental beliefs about children's capabilities in terms of emotions. Belief in that children can control their emotions was associated with being more nonsupportive and less supportive of their children's negative emotions. Moreover, higher scores on the Autonomy subscale, belief in that children can learn and manage their emotions without parental help, was associated with behaving less supportively and more nonsupportively to children's negative emotions (Halberstadt et al., 2013).

The Stability subscale assesses parental beliefs in terms of stability of children's emotions across development. It was asserted that parental beliefs about stability of children's emotions are related to parental emotion socialization practices. Specifically, parents who believe that children's

emotions are stable were more negatively expressive, less supportive, and more nonsupportive to children's negative emotions (Halberstadt et al., 2013).

Halberstadt et al. (2013) claimed that parental beliefs about emotions may impact on diverse behaviors so that assessing beliefs by distinguishing behaviors would be helpful to design parenting programs. For instance, parents' nonsupportive reactions may stem from the belief that their child will not change across time or the belief that their child uses the emotions to manipulate others. Thus, according to Halberstadt et al. (2013) focusing on beliefs instead of behaviors may be more helpful for intervention programs to be successful.

In the present study, Turkish parents' beliefs about children's emotions were investigated by using the PBACE (Halberstadt et al., 2013). This study is one of the first to examine parental beliefs about children's emotions in Turkey.

The Associations between Parental Beliefs about Emotions and Emotion Socialization

Literature on the link between parents' beliefs about emotions and emotion socialization practices has been investigated since Gottman et al. (1996) first introduced the concept of meta-emotion. Studies examining parental beliefs predominantly have been based on emotion coaching, emotion dismissing, and parental acceptance of emotions.

Hakim-Larson et al. (2006) stated that emotion coaching parenting style is positively associated with parents' expressive encouragement response and negatively associated with parents' minimization and distress responses to children's negative emotions. Dismissing parenting style was found to be positively related to minimizing, feeling distress, and punishing children's negative emotions, whereas it was negatively related to expressive encouragement reaction. In a study investigating parental beliefs about emotions, it was found that maternal accepting beliefs about

children's negative emotions are related to use of less nonsupportive strategies to children's negative emotions (Wong, McElwain, & Halberstadt, 2009). Furthermore, parental acceptance of the children's negative emotions was found to be related to encouraging emotion expression in children (Wong, Diener, & Isabella, 2008). Similarly, Halberstadt, Thompson, Parker, and Dunsmore (2008) found a positive relation between mothers' belief in valuing children's negative emotions and discussing the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks. They also found a negative link between parents' belief – emotions are dangerous – and parents' expressiveness with their child. Moreover, it was found that parental beliefs are associated with children's coping styles. Specifically, children whose parents hold the belief – emotions are valuable– used support-seeking, problem-solving, and emotion-oriented coping strategies after the attacks. However, children whose parents hold the belief – emotions are dangerous – used avoidance and distraction coping strategies after the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks (Halberstadt et al., 2008).

The Implications of Parental Emotion Socialization on Child Outcomes

Although child outcomes were not investigated in the present study, it is crucial to discuss the implications of parental emotion-related parenting and emotion-related beliefs on children. Knowledge about these implications shed light on the importance of the topic.

Three domains of emotional development have been well-researched – the understanding of emotion, the expression of emotion, and the regulation of emotion (Denham, Bassett, & Wyatt, 2007; Eisenberg et al., 1998; Root & Denham, 2010). Emotion understanding encompasses understanding of one's own and others' experience of emotions. The expression of emotion encompasses displaying emotions appropriately and effectively according to the standards of given cultures and contexts (Eisenberg et al., 1998). The regulation of emotion encompasses “the extrinsic and intrinsic processes responsible for monitoring, evaluating, and

modifying emotional reactions to accomplish one's goals" (Thompson, 1994, p. 27). These three areas compose of the larger construct of emotional competence (Eisenberg et al., 1998).

Emotion-coaching parenting practices have been found to be related to positive child outcomes in numerous studies. For example, Gottman et al. (1996) conducted a longitudinal study that consists of children in different ages (preschool-aged children to school-aged children). It was found that emotion coaching was associated with less physiological stress and illness, higher academic achievement, better self-regulation, and lower levels of behavior problems in children. In another study, it was found that emotion coaching parenting practices were related to preschool-aged children's social competence and positive peer relationship (Denham et al., 1997). Moreover, Fivush (2007) demonstrated that parental acceptance of emotions, which was coded in parent-child emotion talk, was associated with emotion understanding in children. Lunkenheimer et al. (2007) found that parental acceptance of child emotions and direct instruction were related to better self-regulation abilities in children aged 8-11 years.

In contrast, Gottman et al. (1996) found that dismissing parenting was related to maladaptive outcomes for children. Likewise, Lunkenheimer et al. (2007) found that dismissing parenting practice, which assessed and coded in emotion talk during family interaction, was found to be linked to child externalizing problems during middle childhood.

Similarly, Dunsmore and Karn (2004) investigated the effects of emotion-related maternal beliefs and preschool-aged children's peer relationship on children's emotion knowledge longitudinally beginning of the semester to the end of the semester. Parental belief – parents should teach and guide their children about how to talk about emotions – was related to increase in emotion label knowledge in preschool-aged children. In another study examining parents' beliefs about emotions, Castro, Halberstadt, Lozado, and Craig (2014) showed the link between parents'

beliefs about the value of emotions, guidance of children's emotions, and school-aged children's emotion recognition skill. Children's emotion recognition was found negatively related to parents' belief that parents should guide their children. Moreover, Dunsmore, Her, Halberstadt, and Perez-Rivera (2009) found that parents' belief that parents should guide was negatively related to child development. These findings interpreted in such a way that parental guidance may be too much for school-aged children probably limiting children's contribution to their own development.

Apparently, the impact of parental beliefs about children's emotions on child outcomes is influenced by developmental level of the child (Dunsmore et al., 2009). In addition, it was found a positive link between parents' belief – emotions are problematic or dangerous – and emotion recognition skill of school-aged children. It was claimed that parents' belief in the danger of emotions may influence children's emotion recognition ability indirectly because of the notion that children adapt to the environment and challenging circumstances. It was claimed that children's adaptation can be multidimensional and multidirectional. These results contribute to the emotion socialization literature by supporting the evidence of curvilinear age-related patterns in studies investigating children's emotion development (Castro et al., 2014).

Numerous studies consistently found that family positive expressiveness, which is the extent of expression of positive emotions by family members, is positively linked to children's peer relationships and emotion knowledge (Dunsmore & Karn, 2004). However, the relationship between children's emotion knowledge and family negative expressiveness, which is the extent of expression of negative emotions by family members, is not found to be consistently negative (Dunsmore & Karn, 2004). It was proposed that there is a curvilinear relationship between family negative expressiveness and children's emotional understanding. That is to say, moderate levels of family expressiveness lead more positive results as

compared to the extreme levels (Dunsmore & Karn, 2004). Moreover, it was shown that parents who encourage their children's expression of negative emotions had children who can decode other's emotions more accurately (Halberstadt, 1986).

Furthermore, Dunsmore and Karn (2001) conducted a study with mothers and their children before children start preschool. They found that mothers who believed that guiding their children's emotion language is important and who are high in positive expressiveness had children better at labeling emotions before beginning preschool. Similarly, according to the study conducted by Denham and Kochanoff (2002), it was found that mothers' positive emotion expressiveness, maternal awareness of the child's emotions, and mother's problem solving willingness were positively associated with preschool aged children's emotion knowledge. These factors are central aspects of emotion-coaching parenting style. On the contrary, mothers of preschoolers who have low positive expressiveness and believe that socializing their children's emotions is not suitable since children are not ready developmentally had children with less knowledge about emotion labels as compared to other children (Dunsmore & Karn, 2001).

Garside and Klimes-Dougan (2002) stated that the trajectory for developing type of psychopathology is determined by the mothers and fathers' selection of encouraging or discouraging which emotional expression. In general, nonsupportive strategies but particularly punitive reactions were found to be associated with negative childhood outcomes. Receiving nonsupportive reactions to the negative emotions influence children's feelings about social interactions and the quality of their interactions in social settings (Eisenberg et al., 1999). Moreover, children's sense of security was influenced by the quality of parents' reactions to children's negative emotions. In addition, emotion regulation ability of children is affected by parental emotion socialization practices (Gottman et

al., 1996). McElwain, Halberstadt, and Volling (2007) investigated the link between maternal and paternal reactions to their preschool-aged children's negative emotions and children's understanding of emotions. It was found that both maternal and paternal endorsement of supportive responses was related to better friendship quality. Fabes et al. (2001) suggested that there is an interaction between parents' distress reaction and other parental socialization behaviors to predict children's socio-emotional functioning. Accordingly, it was stated that the combination of punitive reactions and feeling distressed in response to children's negative emotions influence children's social competence by intensifying children's negative emotions.

Additionally, emotion-related parenting and meta-emotion were investigated in at-risk populations. Literature shows that parental meta-emotion philosophies were related to child adjustment in samples with conduct problems, maltreatment, and behavioral difficulties (Katz et al., 2012). Studies with preschoolers, elementary school-aged children, and adolescents were conducted to examine the link between parents' emotion coaching and child outcomes. It has been shown that emotion coaching was negatively related to children's internalizing symptoms, behavior problems, and social behaviors (Dunsmore, Booker, & Ollendick, 2013). Similarly, emotion coaching and parental awareness were found to be associated with less negative and more positive peer play in preschool children (Katz & Windecker-Nelson, 2004). Likewise, Dunsmore et al. (2013) investigated the association between maternal emotion coaching, children's emotion regulation, and emotion lability/negativity in a sample consisting of school-aged children with oppositional defiant disorder (ODD). It was found that mothers with emotion coaching style had children who have higher levels of emotion regulation and these children reported less disruptive behaviors in themselves. Moreover, it was posited that maternal emotion coaching is a protective factor for particularly children with ODD who have high emotion lability/negativity (Dunsmore et al., 2013). Likewise, Shipman et al. (2007)

found that maltreating mothers' more validating responses to their children's emotions were associated with better emotion regulation abilities in children.

Although the association between emotion-related parenting and child outcomes is well-established, there are a few published studies related to parenting interventions based on the emotion socialization literature (Havighurst, Wilson, Harley, Prior, & Kehoe, 2010). Havighurst et al. (2010) developed a parenting program, Tuning in to Kids (TIK), to help parents of preschool-aged children to teach effective emotion-related parenting practices. Specifically, TIK is a prevention program and focuses on helping parents how to coach, accept, and be aware of their own and their children's emotions. Accordingly, at the end of the sessions, the parents in intervention condition reported that their parenting practices have changed in a positive direction consistent with emotion-coaching philosophy. Additionally, they reported being more aware of their own and their children's emotions, regulating their emotions better, and having dismissive beliefs and practice less. Moreover, these parents also reported that their children's emotion knowledge increased and behavior problems decreased. Accordingly, these findings about usefulness of parenting program demonstrate that TIK can be an effective prevention and early intervention program (Havighurst et al., 2010).

Temperament as a Component of Emotion-Socialization

Chess and Thomas (1986), who are pioneers of temperament research, defined temperament as behavioral response style that is evident in the child's early years. In the light of new research, temperament was defined recently as "Temperament traits are early emerging basic dispositions in the domains of activity, affectivity, attention, and self-regulation, and these dispositions are the product of complex interactions among genetic, biological, and environmental factors across time" (Shiner et al., 2012, p. 437). Temperament has been found to be stable from infancy

through later childhood (Roberts & DelVecchio, 2000). Thomas and Chess (1986) suggested three categories to group children based on their temperamental characteristics. Specifically, ‘difficult’ children are described as negative in mood, they show more withdrawal, lower in attention span, having difficulty in adapting, reacting emotionally intense, and having irregular bodily routines. In contrast, ‘easy’ children are described as positive in mood, easily approaching, easily focus his/her attention on a particular task, adaptable, and having regular bodily routines. Thomas and Chess’s typology of temperament (easy, difficult, and slow to warm) has been supported empirically through using sophisticated statistical procedures. These temperament types are renamed in some new studies as “resilient”, “undercontrolled”, and overcontrolled”. Some researchers prefer using “resistant to control”, or “high maintenance” instead of “difficult” (Shiner et al., 2012).

Although evidence suggests that Thomas and Chess’s original nine dimensions (activity level rhythmicity, approach-withdrawal, adaptability, intensity of reaction, threshold of responsiveness, quality of mood, distractibility, and persistence of attention span) capture clinically crucial characteristics of temperament, these nine dimensions were not found to be empirically distinct from each other, meaning that some of them overlap conceptually (Shiner et al., 2012). Prior, Sanson, Smart, and Oberklaid (2000) conducted a longitudinal study in Australia that aims to investigate nine dimensions of Chess and Thomas (1986). Prior et al. (2000) found that four out of nine traits are significant for preschool-aged children: persistence, rhythmicity, approach, and inflexibility/reactivity. Persistence indicates child’s attention span and interest in doing things for a period. Rhythmicity indicates child’s daily and routine rhythm for his/her needs like eating and sleeping behavior. Approach/inhibition indicates child’s tendency to approach or withdraw from new situations and people. Inflexibility/reactivity indicates intensity of emotions.

Children's emotion regulation ability has been shown to be influenced by not only parenting but also temperamental characteristics. For instance, reactivity or negative emotionality is a critical temperament characteristic that contributes to behavior problems and emotion regulation difficulties (Rubin et al., 1995). The approach-withdrawal dimension of temperament has also been linked to emotion regulation of children (Fox, Henderson, Marshall, Nichols, & Ghera, 2005). Apparently, children's emotional and social competence are contributed by both environmental and child factors (Denham et al., 2007).

Root and Rubin (2010) supported the notion that gender differences in emotion socialization are observable even in infancy and it continues during the preschool years. It is possible that the differences in rules associated with expression of emotions may be stemming from temperamental differences between infant boys and girls. It was observed having less positive affect and having more difficulties in emotion regulation in infant boys (Weinberg, Tronick, Cohn, & Olson, 1999). Moreover, Dunsmore and Halberstadt (1997) stated that parental beliefs about emotions and parental expressive styles are likely to be influenced by child characteristics. They asserted that the relationship between parents' expressions of emotions and child outcomes are influenced by the congruence between child characteristics, parents' beliefs about emotions, parents' expressive style, and the cultural context.

Also, Chess and Thomas (1986) stated that child temperament and parent – child relationship are bidirectional. Child negative emotionality and irritability have been found to trigger more restrictive and inconsistent parenting. For instance, Paulussen-Hoogeboom et al. (2007) conducted a meta-analytic study. It was shown that parents who have 'difficult' children use more restrictive control. In contrast, in a study mothers who described their children as positive and fearful accepted children more than other mothers (Lengua & Kovacs, 2005). Similarly, Turkish parents who

described their children as shy or withdrawn showed more responsive parenting (e.g., comforted the child in emotionally arousing situations) (Yagmurlu & Altan, 2010).

The features related to both parents and children have an impact on emotion socialization processes. Child characteristics such as gender and temperamental characteristics are potential contributors of the complex mechanism of emotion socialization (Eisenberg et al., 1998). Thus, in the present study child temperamental characteristics (reactivity and approach tendency) were examined and reactivity was taken as control variable.

Gender-Specific Emotion Socialization Practices

Gender is a significant variable for learning the reason and mechanism of emotional display rules (Root & Denham, 2010). The studies examining parental gender-specific emotion socialization behaviors found inconsistent findings, some of them found differences between mothers and fathers in terms of emotion-related parenting, some studies revealed no differences (Friedlmeier, Corapci, & Cole, 2011).

Corapci, Aksan, and Yagmurlu (2012) stated that maternal socialization of sadness and anger did not differ according to child gender in their study. Similarly, Yagmurlu and Altan (2010) did not find gender differences in their study, as well. Altan-Aytun et al. (2013) stated that mothers reported using similar emotion socialization strategies to their sons and daughters. Likewise, Corapci et al. (2012) also found that mothers were equally likely to minimize both sadness and anger feelings of children. Chaplin, Cole, and Zahn-Waxler (2005) speculated that gender differences may be observed better in discourse analysis since it is hard to detect. However, Okur and Corapci (2015) asserted that mothers from middle-high SES in Turkey endorse gender-egalitarian socialization practices, which are using similar emotion socialization strategies regardless of child gender.

When parents' reactions to general emotions were investigated, researchers could not find differences in regard to emotion socialization

strategies utilized by mothers or fathers to their sons or daughters. However, several studies examining specific emotions were able to capture gender-specific emotion socialization. According to these studies, fathers and mothers encourage or discourage different emotions in their daughters and sons (Root & Denham, 2010). For instance, Fivush (1989) demonstrated that mothers who were asked to discuss past events with their children conversed the feeling of anger with their young sons and not with their young daughters. In another study, it was shown that girls were responded to their feelings of sadness and fear with more expressive encouragement than boys, boys were responded to their feeling of anger with more expressive encouragement than girls (Chaplin, Casey, Sinha, & Mayes, 2010). Moreover, Fivush, Brotman, Buckner, and Goodman (2000) stated that whereas mothers highlighted fear and sadness in conversations with their daughters, they did not highlight the same emotions with their sons. Similarly, it has shown that girls were responded by more supportive strategies for their sadness and anxiety, whereas boys were responded by more supportive strategies for their anger (Chaplin et al., 2005). Likewise, Cassano et al. (2007) demonstrated that low- and middle- income mothers also gave attention to their sons' anger and daughters' sadness. Moreover, in another study, parents used more supportive strategies to child sadness and more nonsupportive strategies to child anger (Hasting & De, 2008). In addition, Denham, Bassett, and Wyatt (2010) stated that mothers discussed emotions more with their preschool-aged children than fathers do and parents' talking about emotions (especially about sadness) with their daughters was longer than with their sons. Moreover, it has shown that fathers' self-reported reactions to their children's sadness were minimizing response, whereas mothers' self-reported reactions to their children's sadness were more expressive encouragement and problem-focused responses (Cassano et al., 2007). In another study, it was found that parents expressed higher levels of desire for their sons to inhibit feelings of sadness

and fear, and their daughters to inhibit feeling of anger (Casey, 1993). Similarly, Chaplin et al. (2005) found that fathers' reaction to their sons' expression of sadness was distress response. According to cultural norms related to display rules, boys must inhibit sadness.

In a study examining parental beliefs about emotions, it was found that fathers with accepting beliefs endorsed fewer nonsupportive responses for their sons, while mothers with accepting beliefs reported more negative self-expressiveness for their daughters. It was asserted that it is likely that parents treat differently to same-sex children. Parents' beliefs about children's emotions are likely influenced by their own childhood and such beliefs may become more accessible when they take care of same-sex children (Wong et al., 2009).

The Influence of Culture on Parental Emotion Socialization

Parents' responses to emotions, beliefs about emotions, and communication styles vary across cultures (Fishman, Raval, Daga, & Raj, 2014). Culture plays a significant role in defining what emotional competence is and how emotional competence is achieved in children. That is, emotional competence has different meanings for different cultures. Specifically, relational and individualistic emotion competence constructs can help explaining cultural variations in emotion socialization strategies (Friedlmeier et al., 2011). Root and Rubin (2010) stated that gender differences in emotion-related parenting are influenced by cultural norms and beliefs about to what extent particular emotion is feminine or masculine. In conclusion, culture impacts expression, experience, and regulation of emotion. Differences in emotion socialization behaviors can be seen within and between cultural groups (Eisenberg et al., 1998).

Halberstadt and Lozada (2011) asserted that there are five cultural frames that influence the socialization of emotion development.

Accordingly, one of the frames is individualism and collectivism (Halberstadt & Lozada, 2011). Markus and Kitayama (1991) stated that

group-oriented and individual-oriented societies differ in values and beliefs regarding the expression of specific emotions. Accordingly, collectivist cultures highlight the importance of group cohesion, group harmony, interdependence, group goals, and group identity. In these societies, group needs and relational goals are emphasized over personal ones so that individuals develop self-construals with emphasis on interdependence and social roles. For instance, group-oriented societies support the expression of other-focused emotions such as shame and sympathy. Expressions of ego-focused emotions (such as anger) are considered as harmful for relationship with others and thus should be restricted (Wang, 2003). The social rules and cultural norms related to emotional competence represents “relational emotion competence” in these societies, which is acquired via teaching display rules, other-focused emotions such as guilt and embarrassment, and being interpersonally sensitive (Friedlmeier et al., 2011). For instance, Chan, Bowes, and Wyver (2009) developed additional subscales into the CCNES to include Chinese parents’ values based on parenting. The added subscales were ‘response training’ which is discussion about causes and consequences of emotions, and ‘reflection-enhancing’ which is teaching display rules associated with emotions and its moral reasons. Likewise, Raval and Martini (2009) added ‘the unacceptability of emotion expression’ subscale into the CCNES to capture the values of Indian culture. These findings reflect the relational emotion competence.

Individualist cultures highlight the importance of independence, individual well-being, personal goals, and individual identity. In these societies; personal goals, autonomy, personal needs, and being assertive are valued and accepted so that individuals develop self-construals with emphasis on independence, being separate, and unique (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Individual-oriented societies value the expression of ego-focused emotions such as anger, pride, and disgust. The social rules and cultural norms related to emotional competence represent “individualistic

emotion competence” in these societies which manifests itself in the emotion coaching parenting (Friedlmeier et al., 2011).

Turkey has been considered as a collectivist society that values relatedness and group needs over individual goals. However, urbanization, industrialization, and Westernization have changed some segments of the society. Since the change is not same across different segments in the society, within-culture variations have become more apparent (Okur & Corapci, 2015). Within-culture variations in emotion expressions and emotion-related parenting can be comprehended in the light of Kagitcibasi’s (2007) family change theory and self-theory. Accordingly, childrearing practices of parents from middle-class urban families contribute to an ‘autonomous relational’ self. That is, families encourage their children to be autonomous and relational simultaneously. However, parents with less education foster relational self in their children with emphasis on interdependence, respect for authority, and obedience (Okur & Corapci, 2015).

Another cultural frame is power distance according to Halberstadt and Lozada (2011). Accordingly, power distant societies embrace the values such as obedience, respect for authority, and hierarchy in relationships, whereas less power distant societies accept the idea of equality (Halberstadt & Lozada, 2011).

Another cultural frame is children’s place in family and culture according to Halberstadt and Lozada (2011). Different cultures value children for different reasons such as having children to enhance the financial condition of the family, having children due to inherent value of children, or having children due to seeing him/her as gift from the gods (Halberstadt & Lozada, 2011; Kagitcibasi & Ataca, 2005). Specifically, Kagitcibasi and Ataca (2015) stated that there are three types of values attributed to the children, namely, economic/utilitarian, psychological, and social/traditional. The question “why do people want children” is a critical

one since it helps clarifying parental goals, intergenerational relations, expectations from the child, and changes in socio-cultural-economic environments. Specifically, findings of value of children research demonstrated that changes in values from economic reasons to psychological reasons. Urbanization and increase in education has led to increase in attributes related to psychological value of children, whereas economic/utilitarian value of children decreased (Kagitcibasi & Ataca, 2015).

Halberstadt and Lozada (2011) stated that fourth cultural frame is related to beliefs about the ways children learn. Researchers consistently found that parents' beliefs about emotions are based on social and cultural setting (Fishman et al., 2014). Accordingly, four kinds of beliefs were claimed to be associated with emotion socialization: "when", "whether", "who, and "how". The "when" encompasses parental beliefs regarding child age to be able to learn a number of tasks (for instance; language acquisition, emotional control, emotion regulation-related skills). The second kind of belief in cultures is "whether" children develop competencies by means of teaching or maturation. A third kind of belief in cultures related to learning is "who is in charge?" A fourth kind of belief in cultures related to learning is "how one learns?". This domain consists of utilizing discipline strategies to instruct, conveying children expectations, and tasks that she or he must adhere.

Halberstadt and Lozada (2011) stated that fifth cultural frame is related to the "value of emotion" in different cultures. Accordingly, whether the emotion is valued or not, which emotions are valued or devalued, whether social contexts affect valuing emotions are influenced by culture. For instance; Her, Dunsmore, and Stelter (2012) investigated parents' beliefs about emotions and children's self-construals in three ethnic groups, namely European American (EA), African American (AA), and Lumbee American Indian (LA) in the United States. Parents' beliefs about emotions

(e.g. ‘emotions can be dangerous’) were found to be related to stressing independent and interdependent self-construals less.

Moreover, literature shows that Euro-American parents use supportive strategies more than nonsupportive strategies to respond children’s negative emotions which exemplifies ‘individualistic emotion competence’, fostering autonomy and self-enhancement in children (Friedlmeier et al., 2011).

Corapci et al. (2012) said that most studies investigating parents’ responses to negative emotions have not differentiated these separate emotions. However, negative emotions for instance anger, sadness, and fear are distinct from each other in terms of their functions, how they are experienced, and expressed. Friedlmeier et al. (2011) stated that feeling of sadness as a powerless negative emotion is primarily responded to by supportive reactions cross-culturally, however the goals and motivation for this preference are different in different cultures. For instance, Chinese mothers aim by using supportive strategies in response to child sadness to help their children to behave according to socially acceptable rules and norms, while Euro-American mothers use supportive strategies to help the child achieve a personal goal. Yet, there is cross-cultural difference in response to child anger. For instance, Euro-American mothers reported using emotion-focused and problem-focused strategies in response to child anger, whereas Chinese mothers reported using minimization or teaching (Cheah & Rubin, 2004). Similarly, Raval and Martini (2009) stated that Indian mothers reported endorsing more minimization and less problem-focused strategies to children’s feeling of anger, and vice versa for sadness.

Corapci et al. (2012) investigated maternal responses to children’s sadness and anger by using the CCNES and found that Turkish mothers encouraged sadness expression more than anger expression. The authors speculated that the reason of this tendency may be stemmed from mothers’ belief that child sadness is an opportunity for emotional intimacy. Mothers’

report of lower levels of expressive encouragement to child anger is consistent with the traditional cultural values in Turkey that expression of anger is limited and forbidden due to its potential negative impact on family cohesion, the hierarchy, and authority in the family (Corapci et al., 2012).

Furthermore, there is an emphasis on family interdependence in Asian and Asian immigrant groups in which the well-being of others than individual's emphasized (Chao, 2000). Thus, parents in Asian cultures may endorse different strategies to respond children's emotions than Western cultures (Fishman et al., 2014). For instance, in a cross-culture study examining mothers' responses to their children's emotion, it was found that Indian mothers reported using more explanation-oriented responses and less problem-solving responses than European American mothers in the United States (Raval, Raval, Salvina, Wilson, & Writer, 2013). Raval and Martini (2011) found that mothers' expectations from their children in response to anger and sadness-elicited situation were to accommodate and move on in India. Moreover, Fishman et al. (2014) interviewed Indian immigrant mothers living in the United States about their teen and preteen children's experience of sadness, anger, and fear to explore the meta-emotion philosophies of these mothers. Accordingly, Indian mothers believed that negative emotions are temporary; they stated the inevitability of negative emotions, the importance of accepting the situation, and moving on from the emotions. These mothers perceived the strategies they use as effective if they were able to teach their children appropriate and less disruptive ways of experiencing emotions. Apparently, Indian mothers' perceptions about emotions differ from the coaching philosophy Gottman et al. (1996) demonstrated in European American families, whereas it has similarities with Gottman's et al. emotion-dismissing philosophy. Daga, Raval, and Raj (2015) interviewed Indian immigrant and White American mothers in the United States by using Meta-Emotion Interview to explore the link between the philosophies and child outcomes (social competence and behavior

problems in school-aged children). The findings derived from the study were consistent with literature. Specifically, White American mothers' higher ratings of coaching were positively associated with child social competence and negatively associated with behavior problems in children. On the contrary, coaching was not associated with any child outcomes for Indian immigrant mothers. Furthermore, immigrant Indian mothers' regulation of their own emotions were found to be inversely linked to child externalizing problems, while there were no association for White American mothers. Apparently, meaning of a given strategy differ according to the culture, thus, taking these differences into consideration is critical for evaluating effective parenting strategies (Chao, 2000).

Furthermore; Tao, Zhou, and Wang (2010) found a positive relationship between punitive strategies used by Chinese mothers and externalizing problems in school-aged children. In addition, they found that a negative relationship between problem-focused and emotion-focused strategies used by Chinese mothers and later internalizing problems. It reveals that the links for punitive, emotion-focused, and problem-focused strategies and childhood outcomes are similar cross-culturally, whereas minimizing and encouraging expression of children are different (Friedlmeier et al., 2011).

Moreover, the importance of SES and parents' education degree was demonstrated previously. For instance, Martini et al. (2004) found that low SES mothers are less likely to control their hostile reactions in response to their children's expressions of anger, sadness, and fear as compared to high SES mothers. Moreover, Ömeroğlu (1996) stated that education level is the most important factor in predicting the parenting behaviors. Higher education levels are linked to more democratic and less overparenting attitudes towards childrearing but lower education levels are related to more authoritarian attitudes (Mızrakcı, 1994). Parents with higher levels of education valued child's autonomy and self-enhancement, as well as used

less physical punishment as compared to parents with lower levels of education (Yagmurlu et al., 2009). Likewise, Fabes et al. (2002) found that increase in education levels was linked to more encouragement of negative emotions' expression. Altan-Aytun (2013) also found that mothers with higher education reported using less minimization and more levels of expressive encouragement to children's displays of negative emotions, whereas lower levels of maternal education was linked to greater nonsupportive emotion socialization responses. Similarly, Corapci et al. (2012) found that mothers with higher levels of education reported endorsing less minimization and punitive responses to child sadness. In contrast, parents with less education have been demonstrated as being less aware of children's emotions.

The Current Study

The present study is guided by Gottman's meta-emotion philosophy and Eisenberg et al.'s (1998) heuristic model of emotion socialization. Since meta-emotion philosophy construct unifies both parental behaviors and the beliefs, Halberstadt et al. (2013) developed a questionnaire to focus on only parental beliefs about emotions. In the current study, parental beliefs about children's emotions and their link with parental emotion-socialization practices were examined. Examining parental beliefs about children's emotions is important since they guide emotion-related parenting practices. Parents' reactions to their children's negative emotions have been considered as a direct way to assess emotion-related parenting practices. Examining parental emotion socialization behaviors in contexts eliciting distress in children is critical since children learn strategies to regulate their emotions and display emotions properly in early years of life (Eisenberg et al., 1998). Hence, parents' reactions to children's negative emotions were examined in this study.

Eisenberg et al. (1998) that suggests that emotion-related parenting is determined by multiple factors such as parent characteristics, child

characteristics, and cultural factors (Eisenberg et al., 1998). As parental factors, parental beliefs about children's emotions are investigated in the current study. In terms of child characteristics, temperamental characteristics of the children (reactivity and approach) were taken into account since previous findings established the bidirectional relationship between emotion-related parenting and child's temperamental characteristics (Eisenberg et al., 1998). Since preschool years are critical to develop emotional and social competence, parents of preschool-aged children were included in the study.

Moreover, although mothers have been still primary caregivers, paternal involvement increased in recent decades, as well. The current study is also aiming to contribute to our knowledge on differences between mothers and fathers regarding emotion socialization practices and parental beliefs about emotions in Turkey. As the main goal of this study was to investigate the differences between mothers and fathers and since emotion socialization has been linked with education and socio-economic status, the sample for this study was chosen among a relatively homogeneous group of middle class urban parents from Istanbul.

Investigation of caregivers' emotion socialization practices and emotion-related beliefs is important because of a number of reasons. First and foremost, caregiver's emotion socialization practices and emotion-related beliefs have implications on child outcomes such as child's understanding, labeling, and regulation of emotions (Eisenberg et al., 1998; Denham et al., 1997; Gottman et al., 1996; Katz et al., 2012). Nonsupportive emotion socialization strategies and dismissing parenting style constitute a risk factor for the development of internalizing and externalizing disorders especially in early years of life. Parental perception and attribution about children's emotions are critical since they lead to parental emotion socialization behaviors (Dix, 1991; Halberstadt et al., 2013). Consequently, these beliefs influence children's socio-emotional development and quality of parent-

child relationship directly and indirectly (Dunsmore & Halberstadt, 1997; Eisenberg et al., 1998; Halberstadt et al., 2008; Morris, Silk, Steinberg, Myers, & Robinson, 2007). Dunsmore and Halberstadt (1997) stated that child outcomes are influenced somewhat differently by the same emotion socialization strategy according to fit between emotion socialization behaviors and parental beliefs about children's emotions. Children embody the beliefs and values their parents have because the beliefs are communicated to children via several socialization pathways in daily life (Halberstadt et al., 2008).

Since the parental beliefs about emotions is a neglected field of study in Turkey, the present study sought to fill the gap in literature by investigating the relationship between Turkish parents' beliefs about children's emotions and their emotion socialization practices.

In sum, the major goal of this study is to investigate parent and child variables to better understand the mechanism of emotion socialization in Turkey in a sample of parents of 3-to-6 year-old children. It was aimed to examine the relationship between several parental beliefs about children's emotions and emotion socialization behaviors in Turkey. To our knowledge, it is one of the first study examining parental beliefs about children's emotions. Secondly, it was aimed to examine the similarities and differences between mothers and fathers in terms of emotion-related beliefs and practices. Since the importance of SES and parents' education degree in all aspects of parenting was demonstrated previously (Corapci et al., 2012; Martini et al., 2004; Ömeroğlu, 1996) the sample was limited with middle to high SES parents. Although Turkish parents' child-rearing practices, parenting goals, and styles were examined in many studies in Turkey, emotion socialization is overlooked (Altan-Aytun et al., 2013).

The hypotheses of the present study are listed below:

Hypothesis 1: The limited number of studies on the link between parental belief about emotions and emotion socialization suggest that they are related

with each other (Halberstadt et al., 2013; Wong et al., 2008; Wong et al., 2009). Therefore in this study we also expected that parents' beliefs about children's emotions would be associated with parental emotion socialization strategies.

Hypothesis 1a: Parents who hold accepting beliefs about children's negative emotions (e.g., negative emotions (anger, sadness, fear) are valuable) were expected to report higher levels of supportive strategies (i.e. emotion-focused, problem-focused, and expressive encouragement), whereas parents who believe in the cost of negative emotions were expected to report higher levels of nonsupportive emotion socialization strategies (i.e. punishing and minimizing) in response to children's negative emotions.

Hypothesis 1b: Parents who believe in that children are capable to control, learn, and manage their emotions without parental help were expected to engage in higher levels of nonsupportive emotion socialization strategies (i.e. punishing and minimizing) in response to children's negative emotions.

Hypothesis 1c: Parents who believe that it is important to know their children's emotions were expected to report higher levels of supportive emotion socialization strategies (i.e. emotion-focused, problem-focused, and expressive encouragement) in response to children's negative emotions.

Hypothesis 1d: Parents who believe that children use emotions to manipulate others were expected to report higher levels of nonsupportive emotion socialization strategies (i.e. punishing and minimizing) in response to children's negative emotions.

Hypothesis 1e: Parents who believe that children's emotional styles are stable were expected to engage in higher levels of nonsupportive emotion socialization strategies (punishing and minimizing) in response to children's negative emotions.

Hypothesis 2: In the literature it has been noted that mothers and fathers differ in their usage of emotion socialization strategies to their children's negative emotions. Particularly, mothers have been found to encourage their children's emotional expressions, whereas fathers have been found to use more punitive strategies to children's negative emotions in the US samples (Eisenberg et al., 1996; Cassano et al., 2007; Engle & McElwain, 2010). In Turkey, it has not been studied whether mothers and fathers differ in emotion socialization strategies they use in response to children's negative emotions. In this study we also expected that there would be differences between mothers and fathers in the overall usage of emotion socialization strategies they report employing. In the literature on parenting in Turkey, mothers are noted to be the emotional caregivers whereas fathers are more disciplinary figures or playmates (Sunar & Fişek, 2005). Therefore, we expected that mothers would encourage their children's expression of both sadness and anger more than fathers, whereas fathers would use more punitive responses to children's sadness and anger.

Hypothesis 3: In the literature there are not many specific findings about differences between mothers and fathers in terms of specific categories of beliefs about children's emotions. However, there are some findings stating that mothers accept emotions and are aware of emotions more than fathers (Gottman et al., 1997; Root & Rubin, 2010). There is no literature in Turkey on this topic. In the present study, based on previous studies conducted in the US, it was expected that mothers would hold higher levels of accepting beliefs about children's negative emotions (fear, sadness, anger) and positive emotions (happiness) than fathers. There were no specific hypotheses about differences between mothers and fathers on the other categories of parental beliefs (i.e., children's use of manipulation, importance of knowing children's emotions, stability of children's emotions, cost of negative emotions, and capabilities of children over their emotion as autonomy and controllability).

Hypothesis 4: The findings related to gender differences in parental responses to children's emotions are mixed. In some studies, parents did not report using different emotion socialization strategies to their boys' and girls' emotions (Altan-Aytun et al. 2013; Corapci et al., 2012), but other studies have documented differences (e.g., Cassano et al., 2007; Root & Rubin, 2010). In Turkey it can be argued that in line with culturally accepted gender roles, expression of anger can be allowed more in boys whereas expression of sadness can be allowed more in girls. Therefore, in terms of encouraging expression of emotions, based on previous findings (Klimes-Dougan et al., 2007; Chaplin et al., 2005) it was expected that parents would encourage their daughter's sadness more than their son's sadness, and encourage their son's anger more than their daughters' anger. There were no specific hypotheses about differences in parental emotion socialization practices based on the interaction of parent gender and child gender.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

Participants

Our sample included 205 parents, 120 mothers and 85 fathers of preschool-aged children (3-6 years-old) living in middle and upper-middle class neighborhoods of İstanbul, Turkey. Mothers and fathers belonged to separate families. They were contacted through preschools, personal contacts, and online survey on the Internet. There was no limitation in terms of the number of children the parents could have but parents who had more than one preschool-aged child were asked to think about only one of their children between the ages 3-6 while completing the questionnaires.

Exclusion criteria included psychiatric diagnosis in the parent or the child, physical or intellectual disability, and development delay in target child. One child with atypic autism diagnosis and 2 children with impairment in hearing were excluded from the sample. Two parents who reported on the demographic form to have panic disorder and depression diagnosis were excluded from the sample. The final sample included 205 parents.

Child Characteristics

Target children in the sample ranged in age from 36 to 72 months. Mean age for the whole sample was 53 months. It included 110 boys (53.7%) and 95 girls (46.3%). The majority of the children (94.6%,) lived in a two-adult family. All the target children in the sample had both parents alive and 94.1% of the children had been attending preschool for an average of 17 months ($SD = 12.15$) at the time of the study.

Parents Characteristics

One hundred twenty mothers and 85 fathers participated to the study. Age of the mothers enrolled in the study ranged between 23 and 48 years with a mean of 34. Fifty six (46.7%) mothers reported that they spent

time with their child adequately and in good quality and 30.8% of them reported that they spent time with their child in good quality but not adequately.

Age of fathers enrolled in the study ranged between 29 and 54 years with a mean of 38. In terms of time spent with the child, 49.4% of the fathers reported that they spent time with their child in good quality but not adequately, whereas 30.6% of the fathers reported that they spent time with their child adequately and in good quality.

The majority of the total participants (97.1%) were still married at the time of the study and the remaining 2.4% of the participants were divorced. Majority of the parents (83.4%) reported that they have not attended to any course or seminar on parenting. Parents who stated having sought psychological help for their children were 9.8% of the parents. The reported reasons for seeking help were birth of the sibling, toilet training, language development, and gaining information about the parenting and child development. 35.6% of total participants reported that they spend 1 to 3 hours in a day with their child in weekdays, 53.4% of total participants ($n = 109$) reported spending 3 to 5 hours with their child in weekdays. The majority of (89.7%) participants ($n = 183$) reported that they spent all they with their child on weekends, 49.8% of the total participants ($n = 102$) reported that the quality of spent time in weekdays with their child is adequate, whereas 38% of the participants evaluated it as low. When the quality of spent time with their child on weekend was asked, 53.7% of total participants ($n = 110$) reported it as very good, whereas 42.4% of them ($n = 87$) reported it as adequate.

The sample of the present study consisted of a relatively low-risk, normative sample involving middle to upper class urban parents from İstanbul. Mothers and fathers who enrolled in the study were compared to examine whether they differ in any demographic variable.

According to an independent-samples *t*-test, there was no significant difference between participated mothers and fathers in terms of mean years of education or their child's age, $t(203) = .71, p = .48$; $t(203) = 1.065, p = .29$, respectively. According to the chi-square test results, there was no significant difference between fathers and mothers in terms of monthly income; total hours spent with the child on weekdays and at the weekend, attending to course or seminar on parenting; in terms of whether their children attended to the preschool at the time of the study; in terms of seeking psychological help for their children, $\chi^2(5, N = 197) = 10.18, p = .07$; $\chi^2(6, N = 203) = .9.90, p = .13$; $\chi^2(1, N = 205) = .001, p = .97$., $\chi^2(1, N = 205) = .000, p = .99$; $\chi^2(1, N = 205) = .665, p > .05$, respectively.

According to the chi-square test results, a significant difference was found between mothers and fathers in terms of their child's gender. Fathers group had a higher number of boys than daughters, $\chi^2(1, N = 205) = 7.13, p < .05$. Specifically, 64.7% of fathers enrolled in the study for their son as target child ($n = 55$) whereas 54.2% of the mothers enrolled in the study for their daughter as target child ($n = 65$). Moreover, a significant relationship was found between employment status and parent gender according to the chi-square test results, $\chi^2(2, N = 205) = 27.67, p < .001$. In terms of occupation profile, 83.5% of the participated fathers ($n = 71$) had a full-time job and 11.8% of the fathers ($n = 10$) had a part-time job, whereas 57.5% of the participated mothers ($n = 69$) had a full-time job, 35.8% of them were housewives ($n = 43$), and the rest of them ($n = 8$) had a part-time job.

In brief, the sample was relatively homogenous in terms of demographic variables. The demographic variables of the mothers, fathers, and children are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics of the Participants of Study (N = 205)

Mother		Father	
<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>

Parent age (years)	34.82	4.14	38.61	5.27
	<i>N</i>	Percentage	<i>N</i>	Percentage
Education				
High school	25	20.8	23	27.1
2 years college	23	19.2	10	11.8
University	47	39.2	39	45.9
Graduate School	25	20.8	13	15.3
Number of Children Parents Have				
Single Child	68	56.7	46	54.1
Two Children	48	40	33	38.8
Three Children	4	3.3	5	5.9
Employment				
Not Working	43	35.8	4	4.7
Part Time	8	6.7	10	11.8
Full Time	69	57.5	71	83.50
Family Income (TL/month)				
0-1000 TL	0	0	1	1.2
1000-3000 TL	9	7.8	11	13.6
3000-5000 TL	43	35.8	16	19.8
5000-8000 TL	33	27.5	25	30.9
8000-12000 TL	20	16.7	14	17.3
12000 TL and above	11	9.2	14	17.3
Marital Status				
Married with child's mother/father	116	96.7	83	97.6
Divorced	3	2.5	2	2.4
Lives separate	1	0.8	0	0
	Report of Mother		Report of Father	
	<i>N</i>	Percentage	<i>N</i>	Percentage
Child's Gender				
Boy	55	45.8	55	64.7
Girl	65	54.2	30	35.3
Age of child (months)	54.4	10.55	52.81	10.87
	Reports of Total Participants			
	<i>N</i>		Percentage	
Attending Preschool				
Yes	193		94,1	
No	12		5.9	

Receiving Psychological Help		
Yes	20	9.8
No	185	90.2
Education on Parenting		
Yes	34	14.6
No	171	83.4

Procedure

Data collection took place from September 2015 to March 2016. Parents were reached through a number of ways such as preschools, personal contacts, and online survey. Most of the parents were recruited from private preschools in Istanbul, which is the largest metropolitan center in Turkey. School directors were contacted by phone or face-to-face meetings. The school directors were given a brief explanation of the aims of the study and asked permission to collect data from the school. Twelve preschool directors agreed to take part in the study. Then, the consent forms and questionnaire packets were distributed to classroom teachers to be given to the parents. Parents completed the surveys and returned them to schools. Parents were also reached through personal contacts and online data collection website, survey.com. The online link of the survey was shared in social media (f.e.; Facebook) and sent to several e-mail groups.

The questionnaires were presented in the same order to every participant in the packets. The presented order of the scales was: Informed Consent, the Demographic Information Form, and the Short Temperament Scale for Children (STSC), The Coping with Children's Negative Emotions Scale (CCNES), and the Parents' Beliefs about Children's Emotions Questionnaire (PBACE).

Measures

The questionnaire packet of the study involved the Demographic Information Form, Coping with Children's Negative Emotions Scale (CCNES), The Parents' Beliefs about Children's Emotions Questionnaire (PBACE), and the Short Temperament Scale for Children (STSC).

Demographic Information Form

Demographic Information Form consisted of items including mothers' and fathers' age, education level, occupation, employment status, marital status, monthly income of the family, any psychiatric diagnosis parents have, the hours of education the parent took for parenting practices, age and gender of the child, birth order of the children, years of schooling for the child, any psychological help parents sought out for the target child, whether the target child has any developmental or physical problems, the duration and quality of spent time with their target child in weekdays and weekends, and the kind of activities parents engage in with their child. Demographic form can be seen in Appendix B.

The Short Temperament Scale for Children (STSC)

Two subscales of Turkish version of The Short Temperament Scale for Children (STSC) was used in this study to measure the reactivity and inhibition dimensions of child temperament as control variables (Prior, Sanson, & Oberklaid, 1989; cited in Yagmurlu and Sanson, 2009). The scale consists of 30 items and parents are asked to rate their children's behaviors on a 6- point scale ranging from 1 (almost never) to 6 (almost always). It consists of four factors to assess child temperament: Reactivity/Inflexibility, Persistence, Approach/Withdrawal, and Rhythmicity. The internal consistency of the Short Temperament Scale for Children was reported as adequate. Specifically, the internal consistency of subscales is .85 for the Approach dimension, .83 for Persistence, .82 for Reactivity/Inflexibility, and .69 for Rhythmicity.

Turkish version of the scale was translated by Yagmurlu and Sanson (2009). Yagmurlu and Altan (2010) reported that internal consistency of Turkish version of the scale is as follows: .79 for Approach, .75 for Persistence, .69 for Reactivity/Inflexibility, and .63 for Rhythmicity.

In this study, emotional reactivity was measured via the Reactivity subscale of the STSC, which has 9 items. Reactivity/Inflexibility subscale

assesses the degree to which the child behaviorally reacts to the events (e.g. “If a favorite toy or game won’t work, my child gets noticeably upset.”). For reactivity subscale, higher scores referred to the reactivity in child. In addition, Approach subscale of the STSC was used, which has 7 items. Approach subscale assesses the degree of child’s tendency to approach or withdraw from new situations and people (e.g. “When in the park or visiting, my child will go up to strange children and join in their party.”). For approach/withdrawal subscale, higher scores referred to approach tendency. In the present study, the Cronbach’s alpha values were .78 for the Reactivity and .79 for the Approach.

Items that belong to these two subscales of Short Temperament Scale for Children are presented in Appendix C.

Coping with Children’s Negative Emotions Scale (CCNES)

Parental reactions to children’s negative emotions were assessed through using the Coping with Children’s Negative Emotions Scale (CCNES; Fabes, Eisenberg, & Bernzweig, 1990) which is a self-report measure consisting of 12 hypothetical scenarios. The scenarios are related to children’s experience of negative emotions and distress in daily life. A variety of negative emotions were presented in these scenarios; *Sadness* (e.g., “If my child loses some prized possession and reacts with tears, I would...”), *Anger* (e.g., “If my child becomes angry because he/she is sick or hurt and can’t go to his/her friend’s birthday party, I would...”), *Disappointment* (e.g., “If my child receives an undesirable birthday gift from a friend and looks obviously disappointed, even annoyed, after opening it in the presence of the friend, I would...”), *Fear* (e.g., “If my child is afraid of injections and becomes quite shaky and teary while waiting for his/her turn to get a shot, I would...”), and *Embarrassment* (e.g., “If my child is participating in some group activity with his/her friends and proceeds to make a mistake and then looks embarrassed and on the verge of tears, I would...”).

After reading each scenario, parents are asked to rate their likelihood of responding in line with each of the six emotion socialization practices on a 5- point scale ranging from 1 (very unlikely) to 5 (very likely). The six emotion socialization practices include; *problem-focused reaction (PFR)* (e.g., “Help my child figure out how to get the bike fixed.”); *emotion-focused reaction (EFR)* (e.g., “Comfort my child and try to get him/her to forget about the accident.”); *expressive encouragement (EE)* (e.g., “Encourage my child to talk about his/her fears.”); *minimization reactions (MR)* (e.g., “Tell my child that he/she is over-reacting.”); *distress response (DR)* (e.g., “Feel upset and uncomfortable because of my child's reactions.”); *punitive reactions (PR)* (e.g., “Tell my child to stop crying or he/she won't be allowed to ride his/her bike anytime soon.”). The categories that have been considered as supportive are expressive encouragement, emotion-focused, and problem-focused reactions, whereas the categories that have been considered as nonsupportive are punitive reactions and minimization reactions. Five categories in the CCNES are related to strategies parents use to cope with children's negative emotions, whereas distress response is more related to personal feelings of the parents.

According to Fabes et al. (2002), internal reliability estimates of the CCNES were reported as acceptable and high. Cronbach alphas were reported as .78 for problem focused coping, .80 for emotion-focused coping, .85 for expressive encouragement, .78 for minimization responses, .69 for punitive reactions, and .70 for distress reactions. Construct validity of the CCNES was established through the Parent Attitude Toward Children's Expressiveness Scale (PACES) (Saarni, 1985), the Parental Control Scale (PCS) (Greenberger, 1988), the Parent Affect Test-Anger (PATa) (Linehan, Paul, & Egan, 1983), and the Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI) (Davis, 1983). It was found that the categories of CCNES are theoretically compatible with other scales. The CCNES was demonstrated as a valid instrument (Fabes, et. al. 2002).

Altan-Aytun et al. (2013) were one of the first researchers who investigated maternal emotion socialization behaviors and the psychometric properties of the CCNES for use in Turkish culture. The psychometric properties were examined in a sample consisting of mothers coming from middle-to upper SES. Construct validity of the CCNES was established through its comparison with the Child Rearing Questionnaire (CRQ; Paterson & Sanson, 1999). It was found that supportive and nonsupportive categories in the CCNES were also meaningful and valid for Turkish mothers (Altan-Aytun et al., 2013).

In the present study, Cronbach alphas were found as .62 for distress reaction, .78 for punitive reaction, .87 for expressive encouragement, .83 for emotion-focused reaction, .75 for problem-focused reaction, and .83 for minimization reaction. Internal reliabilities for the CCNES in the present study were found to be similar to those in previous studies (Altan-Aytun et al., 2013; Fabes, et. al. 2002).

Socialization of sadness and anger can be assessed by using the vignettes describing that specific emotion. In this study, parental socialization of sadness was assessed by four vignettes (i.e., items 2, 3, 10, and 11) that described children's experience of sadness; a practice endorsed by Fabes, Poulin, Eisenberg, and Madden-Derdich (2002). For this study, the following internal consistency values were obtained for each type of parental response to the sadness vignettes: minimization response = .59; expressive encouragement = .74; distress reaction = .44; emotion-focused reaction = .62; problem-focused reaction = .53; and punitive response = .53. Parental socialization of anger was assessed by focusing on two vignettes (i.e., items 1 and 8) that described children's experience of anger; a practice endorsed by Corapci (2012). For this study, the following internal consistency values were obtained for each type of parental response to the anger vignettes: minimization response = .22; expressive encouragement = .45; distress reaction = .11; emotion-focused reaction = .31; problem-

focused reaction = .15; and punitive response = .29. Due to the low internal consistency obtained for parent-reported anger socialization for distress reaction, problem-focused reaction, and minimization reaction, they were dropped from all analyses. In summary, sadness socialization was based on six CCNES subscales, whereas anger socialization was based on only three CCNES subscales.

The CCNES items used in this study can be seen in Appendix D.

Parents' Beliefs about Children's Emotions Questionnaire (PBACE)

Parents' beliefs about children's emotions were assessed by using the Parents' Beliefs about Children's Emotions Questionnaire (PBACE) which is a self-report measure consisting of 33 items and seven scales (Halberstadt et al., 2013). Parents were asked to rate their likelihood of agreement to the statements on a 6- point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). 1. *Cost of Positivity* measures the possible downside or disadvantage of children's experiencing positive emotions. (e.g., "Children who feel emotions strongly are likely to face a lot of trouble in life."). 2. *Value of Anger* measures the beliefs associated with acceptance and appreciation of anger in children in terms of experience and expression (e.g., "It is useful for children to feel angry sometimes"). 3. *Manipulation* measures the belief that children are capable of manipulation and use emotions to get what they want (e.g., "Children use emotions to manipulate others"). 4. *Control* measures that the degree to which how much control children have over their emotions in terms of expression. (e.g., "Children can control what they show on their faces."). 5. *Parental Knowledge* measures the belief that parents should know their children's all feelings (e.g., "Parents should encourage their child to tell them everything they are feeling."). 6. *Autonomy* measures the degree to which how much autonomy children have over their emotions based on regulation and learning their emotions (e.g., "When children are sad, they need to find their own ways to move on."). 7. *Stability* measures the belief associated with

stability of children's emotional states (e.g., "When children feel something, it stays with them for a long time."). The subscale was divided to four dimensions by Halberstadt et al. (2013). Accordingly, Manipulation and Parental Knowledge subscales belong to Emotions in Relationships domain, Control and Autonomy subscales belong to Children's Capabilities domain, subscale of Stability belongs to the Development domain, subscales of Value of Anger and Cost of Positivity belong to Evaluations of Emotions domain.

The developers of the PBACE conducted 12 focus groups with a sample consisting of three ethnicities and both mothers and fathers. After items were generated, a series of exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses were conducted. To assess construct validity of the scale, the association between parental beliefs about children's emotions and parental emotion socialization practices (discussion of emotion, emotion expression, reactions to negative emotions) were assessed through Social Desirability Scale (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960), Self-Expressiveness in the Family Questionnaire (SEFQ; Halberstadt, Cassidy, Stifter, Parke, & Fox, 1995), the CCNES (Fabes, Eisenberg, & Bernzweig, 1990), the Parental Reactions to Children's Positive Emotions Scale (Ladouceur, Reid, & Jacques, 2002).

The Turkish version of the Parents' Beliefs about Children's Emotions Questionnaire was formed through translation-back translation method by three researchers in psychology who were native speakers of Turkish and competent users of the English language. The differences in translated items were discussed and negotiated between researchers. The back-translated version of the scale was compared with the original one in terms of semantics. After back-translation process, the author of the original scale was contacted to ask her opinion about the translation of one specific (item 25). After necessary corrections were made in wordings, the scale was put into final form. As distinct from the original scale, one item was altered since it referred to both feelings of sadness and anger. Since feelings of

anger and sadness differ in functions and are likely to elicit different reactions from parents, two items were developed through separating these two emotions. (Item no 17) “Children often act sad just to get their own way.” and item no 34 “Children often act angry just to get their own way.”.

A small pilot study was conducted with 5 mothers to examine whether the reader had difficulty in understanding or reading the original items. It was seen that people had no difficulty in understanding the items and instructions. It was aimed to develop more items related to parental beliefs about cost and value of specific emotions (sadness, anger, fear, positivity). Afterwards, five mothers were interviewed about the value and cost of experiencing and expressing negative emotions (anger, sadness, and fear). Since the original questionnaire merely consists of items about value of anger and cost of positivity in terms of evaluation of emotions, considering the themes that emerged in the interviews helped generating new items. At the end, newly developed items were grouped and the additional subscales were named as: 1. *Cost of Anger* measures the beliefs associated with costs and negative sides of anger in children in terms of experience and expression (e.g., “Children who feel angry strongly are likely to face a lot of trouble in life.”), 2. *Value of Positivity* measures the beliefs associated with acceptance and appreciation of positive feeling in children in terms of experience and expression (e.g., “Children who feel happy are likely to be more resilient against the difficulties in life.”), 3. *Cost of Sadness* measures the beliefs associated with costs and negative sides of sadness in children in terms of experience and expression (e.g., “Children who feel sad strongly cannot be successful in life.”), 4. *Value of Sadness* measures the beliefs associated with acceptance and appreciation of sadness in children in terms of experience and expression (e.g., “Being sad can motivate children to change or fix something in their lives.”), 5. *Cost of Fear* measures the beliefs associated with costs and negative sides of fear in children in terms of experience and expression (e.g., “When children are

very fearful, it is difficult for them to learn.”), 6. *Value of Fear* measures the beliefs associated with acceptance and appreciation of fear in children in terms of experience and expression (e.g., “Feeling fearful teaches the child to cope with his/her fears.”).

In the present study, reliability of the PBACE was examined via internal consistency analysis. Item 8 which belonged to the Parental Knowledge subscale was excluded since it reduced the Cronbach’s alpha value. Item 55 which belonged to the Value of Sadness subscale was excluded from the questionnaire since it reduced the Cronbach’s alpha value. The Cronbach’s alpha values were found in the present study as .62 for Cost of Positivity, .74 for Value of Anger, .74 for Manipulation, .75 for Control, .62 for Parental Knowledge, .78 for Autonomy, and .56 for Stability, .80 for Value of Positivity, .69 for Cost of Sadness, .81 for Value of Sadness, .76 for Value of Fear, .74 for Cost of Fear, and .77 for Cost of Anger.

In order to create a composite score for value of negative emotions (fear, anger, and sadness) the average of the subscales of Value of Sadness, Value of Anger, and Value of Fear was taken. In order to create a composite score for cost of negative emotions (fear, anger, and sadness) average of the subscales of Cost of Sadness, Cost of Anger, and Cost of Fear was taken. The Cronbach’s alpha values were found in the present study as .80 for value of negative emotions, .86 for cost of negative emotions. These results consistently showed that the Turkish translation of the scale has an acceptable internal consistency for the parents’ emotion-related beliefs. The PBACE can be seen in Appendix E.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Preliminary Descriptive Analyses

A series of preliminary descriptive analyses were conducted to examine the relationship between demographic variables and study variables.

Descriptive Analyses of the PBACE

For comparison purposes with previous published studies, intercorrelations between subscales of the PBACE were examined. In the present study, value of negative emotions and cost of negative emotions were positively correlated with each other. However, Halberstadt et al. (2008) stated that the beliefs about value and cost of emotions were found to be independent from each other in their study, meaning that they were not correlated with each other in their study. Intercorrelations between parents' beliefs about emotions can be seen in Table 2. Descriptive statistics for the PBACE can be seen in Table 3. According to the mean scores for each subtest the strongest beliefs seem to be in the belief about importance of knowing children's emotions, value of positivity, and cost of fear.

Table 2

Intercorrelations between the subscales of Parents' Beliefs about Children's Emotions

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Parental Knowledge	-											
2. Manipulation	.20**	-										
3. Control	.03	.22**	-									
4. Autonomy	.02	.33**	.57**	-								
5. Stability	.02	.09	.34**	.28**	-							
6. Cost of Positivity	.05	.41**	.31**	.40**	.31**	-						
7. Value of Positivity	.36**	.20**	.03	-.03	-.08	-.08	-					
8. Value of Anger	.21**	.34**	.28**	.45**	.19**	.35**	.06	-				
9. Cost of Anger	.28**	.41**	.003	.04	.09	.19**	.43**	.20**	-			
1. Value of Sadness	.20**	.45**	.19**	.38**	.12	.38**	.06	.55**	.34**	-		
11. Cost of Sadness	.26**	.29**	-.04	-.03	.05	.11	.44**	.16*	.66**	.21**	-	
12. Cost of Fear	.21**	.19**	-.03	-.04	.05	.07	.48**	.10	.65**	.25**	.70**	-
13. Value of Fear	.14*	.39**	.16*	.29**	.08	.33**	.08	.46**	.34**	.68**	.18*	.15*

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics for Subfactors of Parents' Beliefs about Children's Emotions Questionnaire

	Min	Max	M	SD
Parental Knowledge	1.00	6.00	5.12	.87
Manipulation	1.00	6.00	4.30	.91
Control	1.00	5.20	2.90	.92
Autonomy	1.00	5.60	3.11	.86
Stability	1.25	5.75	3.11	.84
Cost of Positivity	1.00	6.00	3.33	.95
Value of Positivity	2.50	6.00	4.80	.69
Value of Anger	1.17	5.67	3.52	.83
Cost of Anger	2.17	6.00	4.50	.73
Value of Sadness	1.00	6.00	3.70	.91
Cost of Sadness	3.00	6.00	4.63	.72
Cost of Fear	2.20	6.00	4.64	.77
Value of Fear	1.00	5.75	3.36	.99

Descriptive Analyses of the CCNES

For comparison purposes with previous published studies, intercorrelations between subscales of the CCNES were examined. Consistent with previous research (Fabes et al., 2002), supportive subscales (EFR, PFR, EE) were positively intercorrelated with each other and nonsupportive subscales (PR, DR, MR) were positively intercorrelated with each other as seen in Table 4. Surprisingly, minimization reaction was significantly and positively associated with expressive encouragement,

emotion-focused, problem focused reaction, and distress reaction, even though it is still most strongly associated with punitive reaction. Descriptive statistics for the CCNES can be seen in Table 5.

Table 4

<i>Correlations between subscales of the CCNES</i>						
	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Distress Reaction	-					
2. Punitive Reaction	.49**	-				
3. Expressive Encouragement	-.07	.001	-			
4. Emotion Focused Reaction	-.08	-.05	.32**	-		
5. Problem Focused Reaction	-.11	-.07	.47**	.73**	-	
6. Minimization Reaction	.26**	.63**	.18*	.27**	.21**	-

*p < .05. ** p < .01.

Table 5

<i>Group Statistics for the subscales of the CCNES</i>			
	Parent	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Distress Reaction	Mother	2.25	.44
	Father	2.17	.50
Punitive Reaction	Mother	1.60	.52
	Father	1.51	.49
Expressive Encouragement	Mother	3.73	.79
	Father	3.45	.79
Emotion Focused Reaction	Mother	4.35	.50
	Father	4.30	.48
Problem Focused Reaction	Mother	4.24	.46
	Father	4.13	.44
Minimization Reaction	Mother	2.41	.80
	Father	2.38	.64

Demographic Variables and Study Variables

Bivariate correlations were computed to examine the relationship between parental emotion socialization strategies and parent's years of education and monthly income. Parent's years of education was negatively correlated with emotion-focused reaction ($r = -.14, p = .04$). Monthly income was negatively correlated with emotion-focused reaction and expressive encouragement, ($r = -.20, p < .01$), ($r = -.17, p < .05$), respectively.

Then, bivariate correlations were computed to examine the relationship between parents' emotion-related beliefs and parent's years of education and monthly income. Parent's years of education was negatively correlated with parents' belief about children's autonomy on their emotions ($r = -.22, p < .01$) and belief about cost of positivity ($r = -.15, p < .05$). Correlations showed that monthly income was negatively correlated with parents' belief about children's autonomy on their emotions, belief about cost of positivity, and value of anger, ($r = -.23, p < .01$), ($r = -.25, p < .01$), ($r = -.15, p < .05$), respectively.

Bivariate correlations showed that total time spent with the child in a week (leisure time) was correlated positively with expressive encouragement, emotion-focused reaction, and problem-focused reaction, ($r = .14, p < .05$), ($r = .18, p < .01$), ($r = .19, p < .01$), respectively.

Bivariate correlations showed that number of children parents had was correlated with parents' distress reaction ($r = .19, p < .01$).

Correlations between Child Temperamental Characteristics and Study Variables

Bivariate correlations were computed to examine the relationship between child temperamental characteristics (reactivity and approach) and study variables. Child reactivity was positively correlated with distress reaction, punitive reaction, minimization reaction; ($r = .30, p < .01$), ($r = .32, p < .01$), ($r = .21, p < .01$), respectively. Child's tendency to approach was positively correlated with problem-focused reaction ($r = .14, p < .05$).

Moreover, child reactivity was positively correlated with parental

beliefs about children's use of manipulation ($r = .27, p < .01$), belief about cost of anger ($r = .21, p < .01$), value of sadness ($r = .24, p < .01$), cost of sadness ($r = .14, p < .05$), and value of fear ($r = .22, p < .01$). Child's tendency to approach was correlated negatively with belief about child's capability of controlling emotions ($r = -.17, p < .05$) and correlated positively with belief about cost of sadness ($r = .17, p < .05$).

Hypothesis Testing

Hypotheses Testing 1:

Hypothesis one stated that there would be significant relationships among the parental beliefs about children's emotions and the use of emotion socialization strategies in response to children's negative emotions.

Hypothesis 1a:

Hypothesis 1a stated that parents who hold accepting beliefs about children's negative emotions (anger, sadness, and fear) (e.g., negative emotions are valuable) were expected to report higher levels of supportive strategies (i.e. emotion-focused, problem-focused, and expressive encouragement), whereas parents who believe in the cost of negative emotions were expected to report higher levels of nonsupportive emotion socialization strategies (i.e. punishing and minimizing) in response to children's negative emotions.

To test the first hypothesis, bivariate correlations were computed among two composite scores for parents' beliefs about cost of negative emotions and value of negative emotions and parents' emotion socialization strategies. Correlations between emotion socialization strategies and parents' emotion-related beliefs based on cost and value of negative emotions are presented in Table 6.

It was found that belief about value of negative emotions was correlated with expressive encouragement reaction and problem-focused reaction. Unexpectedly, belief about value of negative emotions was correlated positively with punitive and minimization responses, as well and in fact this relationship was stronger than the one with supportive strategies.

Moreover, belief about cost of negative emotions was correlated with none of emotion socialization strategies.

Table 6

Correlations between Parental Beliefs based on Value and Cost of Negative Emotions and Parental Emotion Socialization Strategies

	Value of Negative Emotions	DR	PR	EE	EFR	PFR	MR
Cost of Negative Emotions	.29**	.12	.02	.04	.11	.12	.05
Value of Negative Emotions	-	.13	.30**	.20**	.10	.17*	.32**

*p < .05. ** p < .01.

Hypothesis 1b:

The hypothesis 1b stated that parents who believe in that children are capable to control, learn, and manage their emotions without their parental help were expected to engage in higher levels of nonsupportive emotion socialization strategies (i.e. punishing and minimizing) in response to children's negative emotions.

To test this hypothesis, bivariate correlations were computed among the beliefs about children's capabilities (Autonomy and Control), and parents' emotion socialization strategies (six subscales of the CCNES). Correlations between emotion socialization strategies and parents' emotion-related beliefs based on children's capabilities are presented in Table 7.

Table 7

Correlations between Parental Beliefs based on Children's Capabilities and Emotion Socialization Strategies

DR	PR	EE	EFR	PFR	MR
----	----	----	-----	-----	----

Control	-.02	.06	.17*	.06	.05	.10
Autonomy	.09	-.25**	.12	-.00	.02	-.26**

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

According to the results of the correlation matrix, as expected the belief in children's autonomy over their emotions was positively correlated with both punitive and minimizing response to children's negative emotions. Unexpectedly, the belief in children's capability of controlling their emotions was positively correlated with expressive encouragement, but this correlation was a weak one ($r = .17$). No other correlations reached significance for emotion socialization strategies and parents beliefs about children's capabilities over emotions.

Hypothesis 1c:

The hypothesis 1c stated that parents who believe that it is important to know their children's emotions were expected to report higher levels of supportive emotion socialization strategies (i.e. emotion-focused, problem-focused, and expressive encouragement) in response to children's negative emotions.

To test this hypothesis, bivariate correlations were computed among the belief about importance of knowing children's emotions and parents' emotion socialization strategies (six subscales of the CCNES). Correlations between emotion socialization strategies and parents' emotion-related beliefs (importance of knowing children's emotions and children's use of manipulation) based on emotions in relationships are presented in Table 8.

Table 8

Correlations between Parental Beliefs based on Emotions in Relationships and Emotion Socialization Practices

	DR	PR	EE	EFR	PFR	MR
Parental Knowledge	.08	.06	.26**	.17*	.18**	.08
Manipulation	.17*	.25**	.07	.10	.05	.30**

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

According to the results of the correlation matrix, the belief about importance of knowing children's emotions was positively correlated with supportive reactions such as expressive encouragement, emotion-focused, and problem-focused reaction.

Hypothesis 1d:

The hypothesis 1d stated that parents who believe that children use emotions to manipulate others were expected to report higher levels of nonsupportive emotion socialization strategies (i.e. punishing and minimizing) in response to children's negative emotions.

To test this hypothesis, bivariate correlations were computed among the belief about children's use of manipulation (Manipulation) and parents' emotion socialization strategies (six subscales of the CCNES).

The belief about children's use of manipulation was positively correlated with punitive response, minimizing response, and distress reaction.

Hypothesis 1e:

The hypothesis 1e stated that parents who believe that children's emotional styles are stable were expected to engage in higher levels of nonsupportive emotion socialization strategies (i.e. punishing and minimizing).

To test this hypothesis, Pearson's correlations were computed for parental belief about stability of children's emotional states (subscale of Stability) and parents' emotion socialization strategies (six subscales of the CCNES). Correlations between emotion socialization strategies and parents' emotion-related beliefs based on development are presented in Table 9.

Table 9

Correlations between Parental Belief based on Development and Emotion Socialization Practices

	DR	PR	EE	EFR	PFR	MR
Stability	.08	.10	.07	.01	.03	.18*

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

According to the results of the correlation matrix, belief about stability of children's emotional states was positively correlated with minimization response but this association was rather weak.

Predicting Parental Emotion Socialization Strategies

In order to evaluate the relative importance of parental beliefs about children's emotions and demographic variables in predicting the use of parental emotion socialization strategies, separate multiple regression analyses were conducted for each emotion socialization strategy. The parental beliefs and those demographic variables which were correlated with each specific emotion socialization strategy were entered as independent variables to see their predictive value. The variables were chosen considering the results of preliminary analyses in terms of demographic variables.

Using the enter method multiple regression analysis belief about children's use of manipulation, belief about cost of positive emotions, cost of anger, and value of sadness), child reactivity, and number of children parents have were entered into the equation. Child reactivity, parents' beliefs about cost of positive emotions, and number of children parents were found to significantly predicted parents' distress reaction, $F(6, 198) = 6.11$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = .16$. Results of multiple regression analysis predicting parental distress reaction are presented in Table 10.

Table 10

Multiple Regression with Parents' Beliefs and Demographic Variables Predicting Parents' Distress Reaction

	Parents' Distress Reaction		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SEB</i>	β
Predictors			
Number of children parents have	.11	.05	.14*
Reactivity	.14	.04	.25**
Manipulation	-.01	.04	-.01
Cost of Positivity	.10	.04	.20**

Cost of Anger	.03	.05	.05
Value of Sadness	.001	.04	.002
R^2		.16	

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Multiple regression analysis revealed that when belief about children's use of manipulation, belief about cost of positive emotions, and value of negative emotions, belief about children's autonomy over their emotions) and child reactivity were entered into the equation, only child reactivity significantly predicted parents' punitive reaction, $F(5, 199) = 9.32$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = .19$. Results of multiple regression analysis predicting parental punitive reaction are presented in Table 11.

Table 11

Multiple Regression with Parents' Beliefs and Demographic Variables Predicting Parents' Punitive Reaction

Predictors	Parents' Punitive Reaction		
	B	SEB	β
Reactivity	.16	.04	.26**
Manipulation	.02	.04	.04
Cost of Positivity	.06	.04	.11
Autonomy	.07	.04	.12
Value of Negative Emotions	.08	.05	.12
R^2		.19	

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$

Multiple regression analysis revealed that when parents' belief about children's use of manipulation, belief about cost of positive emotions, and value of negative emotions, belief about children's autonomy over their emotions, stability of children's emotional states) and child reactivity were entered into the equation, it was found that parental belief about cost of positive emotions significantly predicted parents' minimizing response, $F(6, 198) = 7.63$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = .19$. Results of multiple regression analysis predicting parental minimization reaction are presented in Table 12.

Table 12

*Multiple Regression with Parents' Beliefs and Demographic Variables
Predicting Parents' Minimizing Response*

		Parents' Minimizing Response		
		B	SEB	β
Predictors				
	Reactivity	.11	.06	.13
	Manipulation	.09	.06	.11
	Cost of Positivity	.13	.06	.17*
	Autonomy	.06	.06	.07
	Value of Negative Emotions	.12	.08	.12
	Stability	.07	.06	.08
	R^2		.19	

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$

Multiple regression analysis revealed that when parents' belief about importance of knowing children's emotions, children's capability of controlling their emotions, value of negative emotions), monthly income of the family, and total spent time with the child were entered into the equation, it was found that belief about importance of knowing children's emotions significantly predicted parents' expressive encouragement response, $F(5, 190) = 6.25$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = .14$. Results of multiple regression analysis predicting parental expressive encouragement are presented in Table 13.

Table 13

*Multiple Regression with Parents' Beliefs and Demographic Variables
Predicting Parents' Expressive Encouragement*

		Parents' Expressive Encouragement		
		B	SEB	β
Predictors				
	Value of Negative Emotions	.12	.07	.11
	Parental Knowledge	.20	.06	.22**

Control	.11	.06	.13
Monthly income of the family	-.07	.05	-.10
Total spent time with the child in a week	.04	.03	.10
R^2		.14	

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$

Multiple regression analysis revealed that when parents' beliefs about children's emotions (belief about importance of knowing children's emotions, cost of positive emotions, value of sadness, value of positivity), education year of parents, monthly income of the family, and total spent time with the child were entered into the equation, it was found that neither of them had significant predictive power for emotion-focused reaction, $F(7, 188) = 3.48$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = .12$. Results of multiple regression analysis predicting parental emotion-focused reaction are presented in Table 14.

Table 14

Multiple Regression with Parents' Beliefs and Demographic Variables Predicting Parents' Emotion-Focused Reaction

Predictors	Parents' Emotion-Focused Reaction		
	B	SEB	β
Parents' education year	-.01	.02	-.04
Monthly income of the family	-.05	.03	-.13
Total spent time with the child in a week	.03	.02	.13
Parental Knowledge	.04	.04	.07
Value of Positivity	.10	.05	.14
Cost of Positivity	.06	.04	.12
Value of Sadness	.02	.04	.04
R^2		.10	

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$

Multiple regression analysis revealed that when parents' belief about importance of knowing children's emotions, value of negative emotions, value of positive emotions), total spent time with the child, and child's approach tendency were entered into the equation, it was found that total spent time with the child and child's approach tendency significantly predicted parents' problem-focused reaction, $F(5, 197) = 4.56, p < .01, R^2 = .10$. Results of multiple regression analysis predicting parental problem-focused reaction are presented in Table 15.

Table 15

Multiple Regression with Parents' Beliefs and Demographic Variables Predicting Parents' Problem-Focused Reaction

Predictors	Parents' Problem Focused Reaction		
	Reaction		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SEB</i>	β
Value of Negative Emotions	.08	.04	.14
Parental Knowledge	.06	.04	.11
Value of Positivity	.05	.05	.08
Approach	.07	.03	.14*
Total spent time with the child in a week	.04	.02	.16*
R^2		.10	

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$

Hypotheses Testing 2:

According to the second hypothesis, mothers were expected to encourage anger and sadness of their children more than fathers do, whereas

fathers would use more punitive reaction to anger and sadness of their children than mothers.

First, to investigate differences between mothers and fathers in terms of socialization of sadness, Multiple Analysis of Covariance test was conducted with six emotion socialization strategies to sadness. Parent gender was taken as the between subject variable. Child reactivity and parent's year of education were taken as covariates as these variables were found to correlate with certain subscales of the CCNES on preliminary analyses. There was no main effect for parent gender on parents emotion socialization strategies related to child sadness, Wilk's $\Lambda = .95$, $F(6, 196) = 1.87$, $p > .05$; $\eta^2_p = .05$. Subsequent ANOVA's indicated significant differences between mothers and fathers on the expressive encouragement reaction to child sadness, $F(1, 201) = 9.11$, $p < .01$; $\eta^2_p = .04$. Accordingly, mothers reported significantly higher levels of expressive encouragement to their children's sadness in comparison to fathers.

In order to investigate differences between mothers and fathers in terms of socialization of anger, Multiple Analysis of Covariance test was conducted with three emotion socialization strategies (EE_{anger} , EFR_{anger} , PR_{anger}) to child anger. Parent gender was taken as the between subject variable. Child reactivity and parent's year of education were taken as covariates. There was main effect for parent gender on parental emotion socialization strategies to anger, Wilk's $\Lambda = .92$, $F(3, 199) = 6.11$, $p < .01$; $\eta^2_p = .08$. Subsequent ANOVA's indicated significant differences between mothers and fathers on the expressive encouragement reaction and punitive reaction to child anger, $F(1, 201) = 9.22$, $p < .01$; $\eta^2_p = .04$; $F(1, 201) = 7.80$, $p < .01$; $\eta^2_p = .04$, respectively. Accordingly, mothers reported significantly higher levels of expressive encouragement and punitive response to their children's anger in comparison to fathers.

To explore whether there are differences between mothers and fathers in usage of emotion socialization strategies to children's negative emotions in general, Multiple Analysis of Covariance test was conducted with six emotion socialization strategies and parent gender as the between

subject variable. Child reactivity and parent's year of education were taken as covariates. There was no main effect for parent gender on parents emotion socialization strategies, Wilk's $\Lambda = .95$, $F(6, 196) = 1.75$, $p > .05$; $\eta^2_p = .05$. However, subsequent ANOVA's indicated differences on the Expression Encouragement subscale, $F(1, 201) = 6.57$, $p < .05$; $\eta^2_p = .03$. Mothers reported significantly higher levels of expressive encouragement to their children's negative emotions in comparison to fathers. No other significant difference was found between mothers and fathers in terms of usage of emotion socialization strategies.

Hypothesis Testing 3:

Hypothesis three expected to find significant differences between mothers and fathers in the beliefs they held about emotions. Particularly mothers were expected to hold higher levels of accepting beliefs about children's negative emotions (fear, sadness, and anger) and positive emotions (happiness) in comparison to fathers.

In order to see whether mothers held more accepting beliefs about negative emotions, a composite score for value of negative emotions (fear, anger, and sadness) was computed by taking average of the subscales of Value of Sadness, Value of Anger, and Value of Fear.

In order to examine whether mothers and fathers differed in terms of acceptance of negative emotions, Analysis of Covariance test was conducted. Parent's years of education and child reactivity were taken as covariates as preliminary analysis revealed that these factors correlated with a number of subfactors of the PBACE. Analysis of Covariance test revealed that parent gender had a significant main effect on parents' acceptance of negative emotions, $F(1, 201) = 8.28$, $p < .01$; $\eta^2_p = .04$. Consistent with the predictions, mothers reported higher levels of acceptance of children's negative emotions than fathers.

Next, separate Analysis of Variance tests were carried out on the three different dimensions of the PBACE namely, evaluation of emotions (i.e., Cost of Fear, Value of Fear, Cost of Sadness, Value of Sadness, Cost of Anger, Value of Anger, Cost of Positivity, Value of Positivity), emotions

in relationships (Parental Knowledge and Manipulation), children's capabilities (Control and Autonomy), and development (Stability). Parent's years of education and child reactivity were taken as covariates in all analyses as preliminary analysis revealed that these factors correlated with a number of subfactors of the PBACE.

The 2 X 8 (Parent's gender X 8 subfactors of PBACE based on evaluation of emotions). Multiple analysis of variance test revealed that parent gender had a significant main effect on parental beliefs based on evaluation of emotions after controlling for parents' education and child reactivity, Wilk's $\Lambda = .91$, $F(8, 194) = 2.47$, $p < .05$; $\eta^2_p = .09$). Subsequent tests of ANOVA's revealed differences in certain parental beliefs. A significant difference emerged on value of positivity, $F(1, 201) = 7.84$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2_p = .04$; on value of anger, $F(1, 201) = 7.90$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2_p = .04$; on cost of anger, $F(1, 201) = 4.21$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2_p = .02$; on value of sadness, $F(1, 201) = 8.47$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2_p = .04$; and on cost of fear, $F(1, 201) = 6.02$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2_p = .03$. Mothers reported higher scores than fathers in all these scales.

The 2 X 2 (Parent's gender X 2 subfactors of PBACE based on emotions in relationships (Manipulation and Parental Knowledge). Multiple analysis of covariance test revealed that parent gender had a significant main effect, Wilk's $\Lambda = .91$, $F(2, 200) = 9.46$, $p < .01$; $\eta^2_p = .09$). A significant difference emerged on both the belief about importance of knowing children's emotions and children's use of manipulation, $F(1, 201) = 14.63$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2_p = .07$; $F(1, 201) = 6.28$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2_p = .03$, respectively. Mothers reported higher scores than fathers in both scales.

The 2 X 3 (Parent's gender X 3 subfactors of PBACE based on children's capabilities and development (Control, Autonomy, Stability). Multiple analysis of variance test revealed that parent gender had a significant main effect on parental beliefs based on children's capabilities and development after controlling for parents' education year and child reactivity, Wilk's $\Lambda = .96$, $F(3, 199) = 3.09$, $p < .05$; $\eta^2_p = .04$). Subsequent tests of ANOVA's revealed that a significant difference emerged on the belief about children's autonomy over their emotions, $F(1, 201) = 7.97$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2_p = .04$.

.01. Again mothers had higher scores than fathers on belief about children's autonomy over their emotions. (See Table 16 for differences between mothers and fathers in terms of parental beliefs about children's emotions).

Table 16

Differences between Mothers and Fathers based on the Beliefs about Children's Emotions

	Mother		Father		<i>F</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
Parents' Beliefs					
Value of Negative Emotions	3.65	.76	3.34	.76	8.28**
Value of Positivity	4.91	.67	4.65	.69	7.84**
Cost of Anger	4.59	.74	4.37	.70	4.21*
Value of Anger	3.66	.77	3.34	.89	7.90**
Cost of Sadness	4.69	.74	4.55	.69	1.96
Value of Sadness	3.84	.93	3.46	.85	8.47**
Cost of Fear	4.75	.75	4.48	.76	6.02
Value of Fear	3.46	.98	3.22	.98	2.60
Cost of Positivity	3.40	.92	3.24	.99	1.60*
Parental Knowledge	5.30	.74	4.86	.95	14.63**
Manipulation	4.40	.95	4.09	.83	6.28*
Control	2.95	.89	2.89	.98	.41
Autonomy	3.24	.81	2.93	.89	7.97*
Stability	3.13	.90	3.06	.75	.74

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Hypothesis Testing 4:

Child's gender was expected to play a role in the socialization of different negative emotions. It was expected that parents would encourage their daughter's sadness more than their son's sadness, and encourage their son's anger more than their daughters' anger. There were not any specific hypotheses regarding differing responses from fathers and mothers to their sons and daughters, but a possible interaction effect was explored through Multiple Analysis of Variance tests.

Two sets of Multiple Analysis of Covariance test were conducted. First, Multiple Analysis of Covariance test was conducted with six emotion socialization strategies to sadness. Parent gender and child gender were the between subject variables. Child reactivity and parent's year of education were taken as covariates. There was no main effect for child gender on parents emotion socialization strategies to sadness, Wilk's $\Lambda = .95$, $F(6, 194) = 1.58$, $p > .05$; $\eta^2_p = .05$. There was no interaction effect for child gender and parent gender, Wilk's $\Lambda = .99$, $F(6, 194) = .41$, $p > .05$; $\eta^2_p = .01$. However, subsequent ANOVA's indicated differences in terms of child gender on expressive encouragement reaction to child sadness, $F(1, 199) = 5.40$, $p < .05$; $\eta^2_p = .03$. Both parents reported significantly higher levels of expressive encouragement to their son's sadness in comparison to their daughters ($M = 3.31$, $SD = 1.02$ for girls, $M = 3.51$, $SD = .93$).

Second, Multiple Analysis of Covariance test was conducted with three emotion socialization strategies to anger. Parent gender and child gender were the between subject variables. Child reactivity and parent's year of education were taken as covariates. There was no main effect for child gender on parents emotion socialization strategies to anger, Wilk's $\Lambda = .97$, $F(3, 197) = 2.15$, $p > .05$; $\eta^2_p = .03$. There was no interaction effect for child gender and parent gender, Wilk's $\Lambda = .99$, $F(3, 197) = .84$, $p > .05$; $\eta^2_p = .01$. However, subsequent ANOVA's indicated differences in terms of child gender on expressive encouragement reaction to child anger, $F(1, 199) = 5.25$, $p < .05$; $\eta^2_p = .03$. Parents reported significantly higher levels of

expressive encouragement to their son's anger in comparison to their daughters ($M = 3.19$, $SD = 1.09$ for girls, $M = 3.46$, $SD = 1.11$).

Exploratory Analyses

To explore the role of child's gender on parents' beliefs about children's emotions, a number of multivariate analysis of covariance tests were conducted based on the three dimensions of the PBACE.

In order to explore whether mother's and fathers' endorsement of beliefs about the cost and value of children's emotions differed according to child's gender, a $2 \times 8 \times 2$ (parent gender $\times$ 8 PBACE subscales based on evaluation of emotions $\times$ child gender) multivariate analysis of covariance test was conducted with covariates of reactivity and parents' year of education. There was no main effect for child gender for the whole, Wilk's $\Lambda = .99$, $F(8, 192) = .22$, $p > .05$; $\eta^2_p = .01$. In addition, according to the results of the subsequent analysis of variance test, there was no statistical difference in parental beliefs based on evaluation of emotions according to child gender.

In order to explore whether mother's and fathers' endorsement of beliefs about children's capabilities and stability of their emotions differed according to child's gender a $2 \times 2 \times 2$ (parent gender $\times$ 2 PBACE subscales based on emotions in relationships $\times$ child gender) multivariate analysis of variance was conducted with covariates of reactivity and parents' education year. There was a main effect for child gender on parental beliefs based on emotions in relationships, Wilk's $\Lambda = .96$, $F(2, 198) = 4.71$, $p < .05$; $\eta^2_p = .05$. According to the results of the subsequent analysis of variance tests, a significant difference emerged on the belief about importance of knowing children's emotions based on child gender, $F(1, 199) = 8.15$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2_p = .04$. It was revealed that parents reported significantly higher scores for their sons than their daughters ($M = 5.01$, $SD = .91$ for girls, $M = 5.21$, $SD = .80$).

In order to explore whether mothers' and fathers' endorsement of beliefs about children's capabilities and stability of their emotions differed according to child's gender, a $2 \times 3 \times 2$ (parent gender $\times$ 3 PBACE

subscales based on children's capabilities and Stability X child gender) multivariate analysis of variance was conducted with covariates of reactivity and parents' education year. There was no main effect for child gender in parental beliefs on child capabilities and stability of emotions, Wilk's $\Lambda = .97$, $F(3, 197) = 2.34$, $p > .05$; $\eta^2_p = .03$.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The present study examined parents' beliefs about children's emotions and parental emotion socialization practices in a sample of urban, middle to upper class Turkish mothers and fathers of preschoolers. Thus, the findings of the present study are not universal. Although parental belief about children's emotions is a new theoretical construct and a new research area to explore, parental beliefs about emotions have been found to be linked to emotion socialization practices and adaptive child outcomes (Beale, 2006; Halberstadt et al., 2008). Since this study is the first to investigate parents' beliefs about children's emotions in Turkey and the literature based on parents' beliefs about children's emotions are lacking, the findings should be replicated in future.

Parental Beliefs about the Cost and Value of Children's Emotions and Emotion Socialization Practices

First, it was expected that parents who hold accepting beliefs about children's negative emotions (e.g., negative emotions (anger, sadness, fear) are valuable) were expected to report higher levels of supportive strategies (i.e., emotion-focused, problem-focused, and expressive encouragement), whereas parents who believe in the cost of negative emotions were expected to report higher levels of nonsupportive emotion socialization strategies (i.e., punishing and minimizing) in response to children's negative emotions.

As predicted, findings of the present study showed that parents' belief about value of negative emotions (acceptance of fear, anger, and sadness) was associated with parental supportive emotion socialization strategies, namely expressive encouragement and problem-focused reaction. It is consistent with the previous findings that acceptance of emotions are linked to using supportive emotion-socialization strategies (Halberstadt et al., 2013). Expressive encouragement is related to the extent of acceptance of children's negative emotions by parents (Fabes et al., 2002). In the

present study, parents who hold the belief that negative emotions are valuable reported using expressive encouragement to children's negative emotions. Similarly, previous research indicated that parental acceptance of negative emotions was linked to parental use of expressive encouragement strategy (Wong et al., 2008) and endorsing higher levels of expressive encouragement of 9- and 10-year-old children (Lozada, Halberstadt, Craig, Dennis, & Dunsmore, 2016). Likewise, Hakim-Larson et al. (2006) demonstrated the positive relationship between acceptance of emotions and encouragement of children's emotional expression. Perceiving emotions as valuable may lead to responding more positively to children's expression of emotions and being more emotionally available to the children (Halberstadt et al., 2008). For instance, following the terrorist attacks in the US in 2001, it was found that parents who believe that emotions are valuable had children who use more emotion-focused and support-seeking coping strategies. When parents hold the belief about value of emotions, perhaps children may engage with their parents more to seek support (Halberstadt et al., 2007).

However, it not clear the reasons why beliefs about value of negative emotions were not related to emotion-focused emotion socialization strategy since literature is lacking in terms of findings related to the link between parental beliefs about value of emotions and specific parental emotion socialization strategies. It can be related to parents' preference of active emotion socialization strategies. For instance, Roberts and Strayer (1987) stated that parents are more likely to use problem-focused emotion socialization strategies to their children's negative emotions than emotion-focused strategies (such as comforting and distracting). Moreover, the effectiveness of emotion-focused and problem-focused strategies has been found to differ according to the degree of control present in the situation (Fabes et al., 2002). For instance, Altshuler and Ruble (1989) found that when there is some degree of control, using problem-focused strategies are usually more effective but when there is low degrees of control using emotion-focused coping responses are more effective. Perhaps, parents who

value negative emotions prefer using more active emotion socialization strategies such as encouraging expression of children's emotions and helping children find a solution instead of comforting or distracting them.

In the current study, surprisingly, findings showed that parents' belief about value of negative emotions (acceptance of fear, anger, and sadness) was associated with punitive and minimization responses, as well. It is not clear why parents reported using both supportive and nonsupportive emotion socialization strategies in response to children's negative emotions even if they reported valuing negative emotions. The findings regarding positive relationship between beliefs about value of negative emotions and engaging in nonsupportive emotion socialization practices are in contrast with the predictions and the findings documented in the literature. For instance, in a study examining parental beliefs about emotions, it was found that fathers with accepting beliefs endorsed fewer nonsupportive responses to their sons (Wong et al., 2009).

There are possible explanations for this finding. One possible explanation is that this finding may be related to parental expectations about expression of emotions. It is possible that even if parents value and accept experience of emotions in general, they may expect their children to behave appropriately according to display rules about emotions (Parker et al., 2012). It might be that perhaps it is not belief about value of emotions to lead emotion socialization strategies but parenting goals related to emotional development of children. Alternatively, a third factor may be influence the relationship between emotion socialization practices and beliefs about value of emotions. More research is needed to understand the possible mechanisms of relationship between the belief about value of negative emotions and emotion socialization strategies in Turkey.

Secondly, findings showed that belief about cost of negative emotions and parents' emotion socialization strategies were not related in the present study. This finding contrasts with the predictions and the previous research. For instance, Halberstadt et al. (2013) found that cost of anger was associated with nonsupportive emotion socialization strategies.

Cervantes and Seo (2005) found that maternal beliefs about cost of emotions were inversely associated with their use of explanations during the Lego house task. Perez-Rivera (2008) stated that parents with the belief about danger of emotion felt more uncomfortable in terms of discussing about emotions. Moreover, Stelter (2007) found that parents' belief about cost of emotions was associated with their daughter's and their own lower engagement during the problem-solving discussion. It is not clear the reason why parents' beliefs about cost of negative emotions were not related to nonsupportive emotion socialization strategies in response to children's negative emotional expressions in the present study. It may be that these relations do not exist. Another explanation is for the lack of finding may be due the sample of the present study, which consisted of preschool-aged children's parents. While children grow older, parental expectations for behaving appropriate and obeying cultural standards of emotional display rules increase. For example; Jones, Eisenberg, Fabes, and MacKinno (2002) stated that parents of older children relative to preschool-aged children are more likely to hold the belief that children's expression of negative emotions reflect their poor character and it aims to manipulate others, and it is harmful to children. It is possible that cost or danger of negative emotions is considered more when children's age increased. Also, Gottman (1997) stated that parents of older children are more likely to ignore or punish their children's expression of negative emotions than young children. Perhaps, beliefs about cost of negative emotions may be related to nonsupportive emotion socialization strategies in a sample consisting of parents' of older children. It is speculative and more research is needed to understand this mechanism. Finally, it should be noted that many of the items for the beliefs about cost of negative emotions were added by the researcher to expand the dimension and include responses to other negative emotions, as well. Even though the Cronbach alpha values were acceptable, these new subscales need further reliability and validity information.

Another possible explanation is that belief about cost of negative emotions may be more salient in stressful and emotionally intense

conditions that are not the case in the sample of the present study. For example, following the terrorist attacks in the US in 2001, it was found that parents who believe that emotions are costly and something to be avoided had children who use more avoidance and distraction responses. Moreover, Stelter (2007) found that high levels of stress in family environment moderated the relationship between parents' beliefs about value of negative and positive emotions and children's perceptions of attachment security in the parent-child relationship. Halberstadt and Stelter (2011) found that in low levels of stress condition, parents' beliefs about value of emotions were not associated with children's sense of security. However, parents' belief in value of children's emotions predicted greater security in parent-child relationship in context with high level of stress (Stelter, 2007). Similarly, a context including negative emotions in high intensity and frequency may increase the predictive value of beliefs about cost of negative emotions to predict nonsupportive emotion socialization strategies. Since parents' beliefs about emotions are considered as implicit schemas, nonnormative life events may change the level of parental beliefs about emotions (Halberstadt et al., 2007; Stelter, 2007). In future research, the beliefs about cost of emotions can also be investigated in highly stressful family environments such as in families with low SES and psychopathology in children and parents. It may be fruitful in future research to investigate cost of negative emotions by adopting different measurement techniques in addition to self-reports such as measuring reaction time and interviewing parents about their attitudes towards emotions' good and bad sides.

Moreover, Halberstadt et al. (2008) stated that the beliefs about value and cost of emotions were found to be independent from each other, meaning that they were not correlated with each other in their study. However, in the present study, value of negative emotions and cost of negative emotions were positively correlated with each other, meaning that parents who reported valuing and accepting negative emotions also reported holding the beliefs about cost of emotions. One explanation for these findings is that Turkish parents may value and accept the negative emotions on one level,

but they may acknowledge the costs of them, as well. Although the value and cost of emotions may seem to be two ends of a bipolar dimension, people may believe incompatible beliefs and hold seemingly opposing claims at the same time (Halberstadt et al., 2008). Perhaps positive correlation between the beliefs about cost and value of emotions are due to having both of these beliefs by parents. It may simply indicate that some people think about many different sides of emotional experience and acknowledge them all. What leads to this ambiguity about emotions is not clear. For now we know that these dimensions are not bipolar and they do not seem to be completely independent from each other for Turkish population. In future research, it would be fruitful to investigate how the beliefs about value and cost of emotions are formed in Turkish parents by interviewing parents.

Parental Beliefs based on Children's Capabilities and Emotion Socialization Practices

In line with our expectations we found that parents who believed that their children can learn and manage their emotions without parental help endorsed punitive and minimizing responses to children's negative emotions. These findings make intuitive sense and support the hypothesis that if parents think that children can learn and manage their emotions on their own, parents may feel less need to approach their children in supportive ways. This belief may be related to developmental expectations, as well. When children are not ready, this kind of belief may contribute mismatch with the children's needs and emotional condition. It is possible that parents may believe that children can learn on their own, in fact, they may not be able to do so. Thus, parents may not take time to teach them how to express, regulate, and experience of emotions. In turn, because of parents' expectations based on children's capability on learning and managing emotions, parents' behaviors may become more nonsupportive. Similarly, Perez-Rivera (2008) and Perez-Rivera and Dunsmore (2011) found that parents' belief about children's autonomy over their emotions was related to children's lower levels of emotion knowledge even after

controlling for children's age and maternal education. Mothers' belief about socializing their children's emotion language (believing that children are not able to learn their emotions on their own) were positively related to children's emotion understanding (Dunsmore & Karn, 2001) and emotion script knowledge over time in preschool-aged children (Dunsmore & Karn, 2004). Similarly, Denham, Grant, and Hamada (2002) found that mothers' and teachers' devaluing of teaching emotions to preschool-aged children was associated with children's more passive emotion-coping strategies. Hence, parents' beliefs about their role in socializing their children about emotions (believing that children cannot learn and manage their emotions without parental help) seem to have substantial influence on child emotional development. Also, it is important to note that the sample of the present study consists of preschool-aged children's parents. When child age increases, it is possible that the belief about children's autonomy over their emotions may be related to more supportive emotion socialization strategies especially in a sample consisting of middle-to-upper and educated urban parents. However, young children need more of their parents' support. It is speculative and future research is needed to see whether this reasoning is true for parents of older children.

How children learn emotion-related skills is related to the dimension of cultural beliefs based on the ways in which children learn the emotions (Halberstadt & Lozano, 2011). In some cultures, parents may believe that children learn emotions and expression by imitating adults and watching others. This kind of belief considers less the role and responsibility of parents in teaching emotions and appropriate expression of emotion to children. On the other hand, in some cultures teaching and scaffolding are considered as parents' responsibility (Chan et al., 2009). Parents try to teach their children expressing their emotions in acceptable ways (or display rules) so that children will be accepted by other people in their community (Jones, Abbey, & Cumberland, 1998; Malatesta & Haviland, 1982). Parker et al. (2012) stated that parents who believe that children learn emotions with maturation and on their own guided their children less. It seems that

when parents do not perceive themselves as significant socializers to teach children how to express emotions, parents use more nonsupportive strategies. Consistent with this reasoning, parents who believed parental guidance is important for children to learn emotions and emotion regulation endorsed supportive socialization strategies more (Parker et al., 2012). Thus, the results of the findings in the present study demonstrated that Turkish parents believe that children need others to learn and manage emotions.

Secondly, in terms of the belief based on children's ability to control emotions, it was expected that parents who believe in that children are capable to control their emotions would engage in higher levels of nonsupportive emotion socialization strategies (i.e. punishing and minimizing) in response to children's negative emotions. In the present study, inconsistent with the predictions (Halberstadt et al., 2013), parents who believe in that children are capable to control their emotions reported using expressive encouragement to children's negative emotions. Controllability of emotions emerged as a theme in focus groups, which aimed to examine parental beliefs about emotions. Accordingly, parents stated that children know how to control their emotions and children can make a choice about which emotions they express on their faces. Also, parents stated that being able to controlling what show to others in terms of emotions may lead to using manipulation (Parker et al., 2012). Since parents' belief that children can control their emotions was created after focus groups, there are a few studies investigating it. Halberstadt et al. (2013) found that the belief about children's capability of controllability of emotions was related to nonsupportive emotion socialization strategies.

It is not clear why there is such discrepancy in the findings between the US study and the present study related to the belief about controllability of emotions by children and emotion socialization practices. Previous research indicated that mothers who believe that their children have capability to control their behavior or facial expression reported more negative emotions and more aggressive behaviors as compared to mothers

who believe their children cannot control their behaviors (Chavira, Lopez, Blacher, & Shapiro, 2000). Moreover, these mothers reported using nonsupportive emotion socialization behaviors to their children's negative emotions. It seems that when parents think that children have control on their actions, their expectance influence their parental socialization behaviors. However, it appears that controllability of emotion is viewed somewhat differently from Turkish parents in the current study. In contrast to parents from the US, Turkish parents with this kind of belief reported encouraging their children's expression of negative emotions.

It is possible that situational variations may influence parents' degree of beliefs about children's emotions. For instance, when emotional control is not necessary, parents' reactions to children's expression of emotions may differ as compared to a situation that emotional control is necessary (Beale, 2006). For instance, African-American parents stated that expression of emotions is more appropriate at home versus outside (Parker et al., 2012). Perhaps, Halberstadt et al.'s (2013) finding regarding the link between parental belief about controllability of emotions and nonsupportive emotion socialization strategies was related to parents' perception about necessity of controlling. It would be beneficial to compare parents' belief about children's capability of controlling their emotions in different contexts in future studies.

Moreover, in focus groups, parents stated that controllability of facial expression imply tendency of manipulation, as well (Parker et al., 2012). Since manipulative tendency is regarded as undesirable, perhaps parents in the US with this belief (capability of children to control their facial expression and emotions) used nonsupportive emotion socialization strategies to children's negative emotions. Controllability of emotion is also related to developmental expectations since it requires a certain degree of emotional skill. Perhaps, Turkish parents perceived their preschool-aged children's capability of controlling facial expression is developmentally high level of skill and tend to let their children's emotions out. It appears that Turkish parents attribute positive connotations to children's capability

of controlling their facial expressions and for this reason they encourage their children to express their emotions. It might be related to displays rules regarding emotional expressions in Turkish middle-to-upper class parents. Kagitcibasi's (2007) family change theory and self-theory provide a framework to interpret these results. Accordingly, middle-class urban families promote autonomy in their children and emotional interdependence at the same time. This childrearing is thought to foster an 'autonomous-relational' self that draws on both relatedness and autonomy. Previous studies demonstrated that mothers from middle-to-upper SES grant more autonomy to their children and demonstrate more tolerance to children's both negative and positive emotions (Altan-Aytun et al., 2013; Corapci et al., 2012; Kagitcibasi & Ataca, 2005; Nacak et al., 2011; Sunar, 2009). Thus, the positive link between belief about children's controllability of emotions and encouraging children's emotions may be a characteristic of urban, educated, middle-to-upper class parents who regard open expressions of emotions. Instead of controlling and hiding emotions, perhaps, these parents would like their children to express their emotions more openly.

Parental Belief based on Development and Emotion Socialization Practices

In the present study, it was expected that parents who believe that children's emotional styles are stable would engage in higher levels of nonsupportive emotion socialization strategies (minimizing and punitive responses). It was found that parents' belief about stability of children's emotions was related to reports of using minimization reaction in response to children's negative emotions. Less studied is parents' belief about stability of children's emotional states. In a previous study, it was found that parents who believe that children's emotions are stable were more negatively expressive, less supportive, and more nonsupportive to children's negative emotions (Halberstadt et al., 2013). According to implicit theories, beliefs about the stability of personal aspects were found to be linked to being less willing to and less trying to change certain behavior (Halberstadt et al., 2013). Thus, the parental belief about stability of children's emotions

should be considered in future studies since this belief can influence the usefulness of parenting interventions that aim change in parental behaviors (Halberstadt et al., 2013).

Minimizing response might be the strategy adopted by Turkish parents to show the child that the child is overreacting when parents believe that child's emotions last for a long time. By minimizing, parents limit the expression of emotion that is perceived to be long-lasting. Parker et al. (2012) stated that in focus groups parents stated that they should consider and understand child's developmental level in regard to stability of emotions. Perhaps, since the sample of the present study consisted of preschool-aged children's parents who had high school education degree or higher education degree, belief about the stability of children's emotions was not related to punitive reaction instead they socialize their children using less harsh strategies. It is possible that parents' belief about older children's stability of emotions may be reacted by parents differently. Also, parents with lower education degree may also use harsher emotion socialization strategies when they believe in stability of children's emotions because parents from low SES were found to be less tolerant to children's expression of emotions and use more nonsupportive emotion socialization strategies (Altan-Aytun et al., 2013; Martini, Root, & Jenkins, 2004). It is speculative and more research is needed.

Parental Beliefs based on Emotions in Relationships and Emotion Socialization Practices

It was expected that parents who believe that it is important to know their children's emotions were expected to report higher levels of supportive emotion socialization strategies (i.e. emotion-focused, problem-focused, and expressive encouragement) in response to children's negative emotions.

Consistent with the predictions, in the present study, parents who believed that it is important to know their children's emotions reported more supportive reactions (expressive encouragement, emotion-focused, and problem-focused reaction) to children's negative emotions. Belief about importance of knowing children's emotions was found as a predictor of

supportive emotion socialization strategies. This finding is meaningful in that parents who want to know about their children invest time and energy for their children. Parents' willingness to know their children's emotions may increase the quality of parent-child relationship through providing opportunities for sharing and communicating. In Turkish culture, close and lasting family relationships are highly valued (Kagitcibasi, 2005). Also, Turkish parenting is high on extensive supervision of children. Turkish parents in the present study who expressed belief about importance of knowing children's emotions seems to be interested in and want to involve their children's emotional lives. Parker et al. (2012) demonstrated that parents' belief in importance of knowing more about their children's emotions was explained with different motives by the parents in focus groups. For instance, parents stated that knowing children's emotions enables sharing emotions, gives opportunity to parents for helping to children in order to deal with the problems child face, and foster emotional connection between child and parent. However, there were different views across three ethnicities in terms of belief about importance of knowing children's emotions. Parker et al. (2012) stated that some parents believed that children might disclose their feelings when they are ready so that children should be given privacy. On the other hand, some parents believed that parents should know children's all emotions at all time. Turkish parents appear to prefer knowing children's emotions more than giving privacy to children. Additionally, Parker et al. (2005) found that mothers believed that negative emotions should be shared since negative emotions may contribute being successful in a difficult task. Beale (2006) stated that if parents do not know their child's feelings, they may not provide proper guidance. Parents' belief about parental knowledge or children's privacy seems to be related to cultural values of independence-interdependence and autonomy. In collectivist cultures, hiding things from the group is viewed as selfish and not advantageous for the group. Kagitcibasi (2007) stated that the family model in urban middle-class families in Turkey is characterized by emotional interdependence. Accordingly, there is emotional proximity

among family members in Turkey (Sunar, 2002). For Turkish parents, the need to know their children's emotions may stem from being family oriented, valuing interdependence, and being a member of a community which contributes sharing feelings with another and giving-taking support from others.

Secondly, in the present study, it was expected that parents who believe that children use emotions to manipulate others would report higher levels of nonsupportive emotion socialization strategies (i.e., punishing and minimizing) in response to children's negative emotions.

Consistent with the predictions, in the present study, parents who believed that children use emotions to manipulate others reported more punitive, minimizing responses, and distress reaction.

Parents' distress in response to children's negative emotions is important since it affects their socializing practices. When parents become distressed, they are likely to focus on their own emotions rather than their children's emotions and their needs, and have difficulty to calm down. Thus, distressed parents in response to children's negative emotions are unlikely or unable to use supportive emotion socialization strategies, on the contrary, they are more likely to use higher levels of controlling strategies as punishing or minimizing to limit the display of children's negative emotions (Fabes et al., 2002). The findings of the present study show that parents not only utilize nonsupportive emotion socialization strategies but also feel distressed when they believe that children use emotions to manipulate others.

Manipulation is perceived negatively due to its connotation with deception. People manipulate to receive something or reach a goal by pretending like feeling an emotion. Manipulation needs a certain degree of emotional control since a person feels something on the inside but expressing opposing emotion on the outside. Therefore, manipulative tendency is considered as undesirable (Beale, 2006). Endorsing this belief can have implications for child outcomes and parent - child relationship. For instance, parents who have difficulty in recognizing children's emotions

may interpret their children's emotion expression as manipulative (Halberstadt et al., 2013).

The discrepancy between experience and expression of emotion in minority groups as African Americans and Lumbee American Indians was reported earlier (Matsumoto, Kasri, & Kookan, 1999). The difference between feelings on the inside and expressing different emotions on the outside is a necessary part of manipulation, but it requires certain emotional control, as well. Since group needs and relational goals are valued over personal needs and goals in collectivist cultures, being able to express a different emotion on the outside does not have to be perceived as completely undesirable if it serves to group harmony. On the contrary, a family setting where open communication and expressing emotions are valued would not value that much the capability of controlling emotions and manipulation.

Predictors of Parental Emotion Socialization Strategies

Multiple regression analyses were conducted to examine which parental beliefs and demographic variables predicted each emotion socialization strategy. When the particular beliefs and demographic variables that correlated with each socialization strategy were entered into the regression equation, only child reactivity significantly predicted parents' punitive reaction. Additionally, only parental belief about cost of positive emotions significantly predicted parents' minimizing response.

Moreover, child reactivity, parents' beliefs about cost of positive emotions, and number of children parents have significantly predicted parents' distress reaction. Likewise, in a previous study, rise in the number of children was found to be related to more authoritarian attitudes, hostility, and rejection (Ocakçı et al., 2006).

These results of the regression analyses demonstrate that parents' belief in cost of positive emotions is an important factor that predicted both minimizing response and distress reaction. Interestingly, parents' belief about cost of positivity was more prominent in comparison with other beliefs based on cost of anger, cost of sadness, and cost of fear in predicting nonsupportive emotion socialization strategies. Findings of the current study

showed that parents' beliefs about cost of negative emotions (fear, sadness, and anger) were not related to nonsupportive emotion socialization practices. However, being too happy, feeling too much joy, and feeling emotions strongly were perceived as costly for children by parents according to the present study and predicted parental nonsupportive emotion socialization strategies. It is consistent with Halberstadt et al. (2013) and Parker et al. (2012) that belief in cost of positive emotions was related to engaging more nonsupportive emotion socialization strategies. According to parents in the present study, feeling emotions strongly should be avoided since it may create troubles in life or children can get out of control. It appears that parents consider negative sides of happiness and joy, as well. It seems that parents focus more on expression of happiness and joy and might desire more moderate levels of expression. Perhaps, parents perceive expressing too much joy and happiness as selfishness. Another possibility is that Turkish parents may be scared of evil eye. Several people believe evil eye in Turkey. Evil eye can be described as becoming ill with severe headache, uncontrollable weeping, fretfulness, insomnia, or fever (Falicov, 1998) due to implied jealousy (as cited in Gil & Drewe, 2005, p. 79). Talking positively about children or showing how happy their children are might have attracted the evil eye (Çıblak, 2004).

Moreover, the findings of the regression analyses are meaningful and support previous research (Eisenberg et al., 1996; Kiang et al., 2004) that emotional reactivity of children is also a significant factor that predicted both punitive reaction and distress reaction. Correlation analyses also showed that emotional reactivity of children was positively related to nonsupportive emotion socialization strategies (punitive and minimization response) and parents' distress reaction. Children's emotional reactivity as a temperamental aspect has been thought to have bidirectional relationship with parental reactions to negative emotions (Eisenberg et al., 1999). Eisenberg et al. (1996) found that mothers who have children in high emotional intensity reported using relatively higher levels of minimization response, punitive response, and distress reactions to their children's

negative emotions but not supportive emotion socialization reactions. Similarly, Altan-Aytun et al. (2013) found that greater emotional reactivity was related to maternal distress reactions, punitive reactions, obedience-demanding, and power-assertive behavior. Similarly, previous studies indicated that emotional reactivity was negatively linked to authoritative parenting (Paulussen-Hoogeboom et al. 2008) and maternal sensitivity (Kiang et al., 2004). The findings of the present study support the previous findings regarding the association between child reactivity and nonsupportive emotion socialization strategies.

In clinical settings, psychologist may find helpful to consider parental beliefs about children's use of manipulation, belief about cost of positive emotions, and belief about children's autonomy over their emotions in their clients to alter the beliefs that lead to nonsupportive emotion socialization strategies. Moreover, since child reactivity predicted each nonsupportive emotion socialization strategy, psychologist may inform clients about child's temperamental characteristics to help the clients to better understand their children and develop parents' capacity to empathize with their children.

Predicting supportive emotion socialization strategies is also critical. Findings of multiple regression analyses indicated that parents' beliefs about children's emotions (belief about importance of knowing children's emotions, children's capability of controlling their emotions, value of negative emotions), monthly income of the family, and total spent time in a week with the child together accounted for 14% of the variance in parents' expressive encouragement response. Regression analyses showed that only belief about importance of knowing children's emotions significantly predicted parents' expressive encouragement response.

Moreover, parents' beliefs about children's emotions (belief about importance of knowing children's emotions, cost of positive emotions, value of sadness, and value of positivity), education year of parents, monthly income of the family, and total spent time in a week with the child accounted for 12% of the variance in parents' emotion-focused reaction.

However, none of them significantly predicted emotion-focused reaction. Finally, parents' beliefs about children's emotions (belief about importance of knowing children's emotions, value of negative emotions, value of positive emotions, total spent time in a week with the child, and child's approach tendency together accounted for 10% of the variance in parents' problem-focused reaction. Regression analysis showed that total spent time with the child and child's approach tendency significantly predicted parents' problem-focused reaction.

Results of the regression analyses demonstrated that leisure time with the child appears also an important factor in predicting problem-focused emotion socialization strategy. This finding supports previous studies. Leisure time with the child is a critical characteristic of parenting (Daly, 2001). In recent years, parents spend time with their children more even if both mothers and fathers are employed and paid work hours have also increased (Coltrane & Adams, 2008). Shaw and Dawson (2001) stated that family time is related to several positive factors such as increase in interaction and communication, and stronger family cohesion. Moreover, spending time with children enables parents to teach children a number of important values and behaviors (Shaw & Dawson, 2001). Thus, in clinical settings, it would be beneficial for clients to teach parents how to play with the child and how the quality of leisure time with the child can be increased to foster a healthy parent-child relationship.

Teaching parents emotion strategies that foster child's emotional and social competence is a widely used intervention strategy. For instance; Wilson, Havighurst, and Harley (2012) investigated the effectiveness of Turning Into Kids (TIK), a program that focuses on helping parents how to coach, accept, and be aware of their own and their children's emotions, in the condition that parenting program applied by community practitioners instead of program developers. Accordingly, the results were similar to prior study such that improvements were observed in parents' emotion related practices and emotion knowledge of children. Above all, it was observed decreases in child behavior problems (Wilson et al., 2012). Additionally;

Lauw, Havighurst, Wilson, Harley, and Northam (2014) adapted TIK for parents of toddlers aged between 18 to 36 months, called as Tuning in to Toddlers (TOTS), with intent to teach parents of toddlers effective emotion-related parenting. Parents reported and researchers observed increase in emotion-coaching practices and decrease in dismissing behaviors in parents, and decrease in child behavior problems after the intervention (Lauw et al., 2014). Thus, increase in our knowledge about parental beliefs about emotions is so critical to design intervention strategies and preventive programs to help families in Turkey. In clinics, psychotherapists can also use these findings to alter parents' beliefs that lead to emotion socialization behaviors.

It should be noted that even though these are statistically significant amounts, practically speaking, nearly 85% or more of the variance is left unaccounted for in each emotion socialization strategy. More research is needed to better understand what predicts both supportive and nonsupportive emotion socialization strategies.

Emotion Socialization Practices of Turkish Parents

Examination of mean values of usage of different socialization practices indicated that Turkish parents reported relatively using high levels of emotion-focused and problem-focused reactions and low levels of punitive reactions to cope with children's negative emotions. Corapci et al. (2010) also found that Turkish mothers reported endorsing more emotion-focused and problem-focused and less punitive strategies to children's feeling of sadness than anger. Altan-Aytun (2013) also demonstrated that Turkish mothers reported using relatively higher levels of expressive encouragement, emotion-focused, and problem focused emotion socialization strategies, but lower levels of punitive responses, minimizing responses, and feel less distressed in response to children's negative emotions.

In the present study, emotion strategies were found to be consistent with previous studies except for the minimization response. Unlike studies in Western cultures (Fabes et al., 2002), minimization response was found

to be related to both supportive and nonsupportive reactions in the present study. Specifically, minimization response was positively related to each six categories of parental reactions to children's negative emotions. Similarly, Atay (2009) found a positive relationship between emotion- and problem-focused strategies and minimization. Atay (2009) said that subsequent semi-structured interviews demonstrated that the meaning of minimization for Turkish mothers was to imply that the child is overreacting and minimization typically was followed by emotion-focused reactions (comforting) and scaffolding messages.

Fabes et al. (2002) stated that minimizing responses are more subtle and less overtly controlling behaviors to restrict children's expression of negative emotions. Minimization reaction may be more benign than punitive reactions because minimization reaction aims to help children deal with their emotions (Eisenberg et al., 1999). In similar fashion, Friedlmeier et al. (2011) argued that minimization reaction was not associated with child adjustment in Turkey and China. Perhaps the goals of using minimization are different in Turkey from Western societies such that it is perceived as less malignant and less harsh by Turkish parents. It is likely that it is not minimization per se but its socialization goal that influences child outcomes.

Butler, Lee, and Gross (2007) asserted that suppressing emotions by minority groups with more collectivist values in the US are experienced more often in several situations and it was not found to be related to negative emotional, cognitive, or relations consequences to the same extent compared to European-American people. The explanation for this finding was that these differences between ethnics are culturally adaptive (Nelson et al., 2013).

Eisenberg et al. (1999) stated that it is possible that the adverse effect of minimization may be observed when more than one nonsupportive strategy was combined. It was argued that punitive reaction is likely to be more malignant for children's socio-emotional functioning as compared to minimization. Since parents may minimize their children's negative emotions to help children to deal with the negative emotions, it seems that

minimization is less likely contribute negative child outcomes than other nonsupportive emotion socialization strategies (Eisenberg et al., 1999).

Several cultural groups were demonstrated using both supportive and nonsupportive strategies in response to children's emotions as different from European American parents who use more supportive strategies (Friedlmeier et al., 2011). For example, Nelson et al. (2012) found that African-American parents reported less encouraging expression of negative emotions and explanation but more controlling behaviors than European-American parents. Moreover, African-American parents reported using more minimizing and punitive responses to children's negative emotions than European American parents. Additionally, mothers of preschoolers in Hong Kong (Chan et al., 2009) and first and second graders in China (Tao et al., 2010) reported endorsing both minimization and expressive encouragement strategies. Raval and Martini (2009) demonstrated that minimization strategy is endorsed by Indian mothers of 5- to 9-year-old children more than expressive encouragement response. In addition, Indian mothers endorsed problem-focused responses less and minimization more to child anger, but reacted oppositely to child sadness. These cross-cultural differences should be considered in interpreting the results. Each culture has a unique set of culturally adaptive responses and values. Corapci et al. (2012) stated that the parents may have different goals in spite of using the same ES strategy and the authors proposed that socialization goals should be examined emotion socialization studies since certain emotion socialization strategies may have culture-specific meaning and function (Corapci et al., 2012). The reason for using a specific emotion socialization strategy in a specific condition depends on various factors. In future studies, minimization reaction of Turkish parents should be further investigated by employing different methods.

Differences between Maternal and Paternal Emotion-Related Parenting

Another aim of the current study was to describe differences between mothers and fathers in strategies they use to socialize their children's emotions and parents' beliefs about children's emotions.

Results showed that consistent with the predictions, mothers reported higher levels of acceptance (valuing) of children's negative emotions (anger, fear, and sadness) and positive emotions in comparison to fathers. Furthermore, analysis revealed several differences between mothers and fathers in terms of other parental beliefs about emotions. For instance, mothers reported higher levels of endorsement to the beliefs about cost of anger and cost of fear as compared to fathers. In addition, mothers expressed desire to know their children's emotions and believed that children use emotions to manipulate others more than fathers. In terms of beliefs based on children's capabilities, findings demonstrated that mothers reported higher levels of endorsement of the belief that children can learn and manage their emotions without their parents' help. Similarly, it was demonstrated previously that mothers endorsed emotion-coaching behaviors (awareness of emotions, accepting emotions, comforting, helping child to deal with emotion) more than fathers (Gottman et al., 1997; Root & Rubin, 2010), and fathers reported less emotional awareness than mothers (Gottman et al., 1996). It seems that mothers consider emotions more than fathers in general, both the positive and negative sides that influence their children. Mothers are more concerned and interested about emotions than fathers in general (Fivush et al., 2000).

Secondly, regarding emotion socialization strategies, it was predicted that mothers would encourage anger and sadness of their children more than fathers do, whereas fathers would punish their children's anger and sadness more than mothers do.

As expected, findings of the current study showed that mothers reported using higher levels of expressive encouragement response to sadness and anger of their child than fathers did. It was documented in previous research that mothers reported using higher levels of supportive emotion socialization strategies (validating their children's emotions, providing solutions for coping with the emotion, helping children to learn how to manage emotions) than fathers (Blandon, 2015). Moreover, in a study comparing mothers and fathers in terms of several modes of emotion

socialization, it was found that mothers discussed about emotions longer and used more emotion words than fathers (Fivush et al., 2000; Zeman & Fivush, 2013), women talked more about emotional experiences, reported, and expressed more emotions as compared to men (Chaplin & Aldao, 2013). Likewise, Root and Rubin (2010) found that mothers reacted their children happiness in a hypothetical scenario with more happiness than did fathers to their children. Denham et al. (2010) said that mothers express both positive and some negative emotions (sadness, anxiety, fear) more intensely and decode others' emotions more accurately than fathers. The reason of this may be that males may not be expressive as females because of gender-based socialization of emotion beginning from the infancy (Brody & Hall, 1993).

For the current study, taken together, it seems that mothers were generally more active socializing agents. They reported encouraging expression of both anger and sadness, valuing negative emotions, believing cost of emotions, and being willing to know their children's emotions more than fathers. This pattern can be interpreted in the light of role theory (Holt & Ellis, 1998). According to role theory, because of internalized gender roles, men's roles are being economic providers of the family, while women's role is being caregiver (Lamb & Lewis, 2010). Although paternal involvement in childrearing and employment of mothers increased in recent decades, mothers are still the primary caregivers in most families (Huerta et al., 2013). Because of this role division, fathers may not interact with their child as frequent as mothers. Thus, mothers may have more opportunity to socialize their children's emotions. Furthermore, the expectation from the women is to be more relationship-oriented than men. Mothers' role in the family is carrying of the "emotional function" of the family and fathers are more likely to have the role of playmate or disciplinarian roles (Denham et al., 2010; Garside & Klimes-Dougan, 2002). For instance, Fuchs and Thelen (1988) found that boys reported expecting more positive reactions from their mothers for their sadness than from their fathers. Similarly, Chaplin et al. (2005) stated that mothers aim to support relationship enhancement by

expressing emotions such as joy, gratitude, and tenderness, whereas fathers aim to support their dominant role to assert themselves by expressing anger. Thus, findings in the current study regarding differences between mothers and fathers may be due to the situation that they follow culturally convenient gender roles such that mothers involve and be interested in children's emotional lives more than fathers. Since the expectation from women is to be more empathic and nurturing than men (Brody, 2000), it appears that mothers reported using more encouragement of emotional displays, accepting and valuing both negative and positive emotions, and desire to know their children's emotions more than fathers.

In the current study, it was expected that fathers would punish their children's anger and sadness more than mothers do, however, findings showed that there were not significant differences between mothers and fathers in terms of punitive responses to general negative emotions and specifically child sadness, but there was a significant difference between mothers and fathers in terms of socialization of anger. Specifically, mothers reported higher levels of punitive response than fathers to children's anger. This finding contrasts with the previous studies that have found differences between mothers and fathers. There are empirical findings that mothers socialize their preschool-aged children by using more supportive strategies and fathers use more punitive strategies to their children (Eisenberg et al., 1996, Wong et al., 2009). Moreover, Cassano et al. (2007) also found that fathers are generally use less supportive and more nonsupportive emotion socialization strategies to their children's negative emotions. Similarly, it was found that fathers reported using more punitive and minimization responses to children's negative emotions (Blandon, 2015; Engle & McElwain, 2010). To our knowledge, there is a study that found no differences between mothers and fathers. Specifically; Denham, Bassett, Hamada and Wyatt (2010) found that mothers' and fathers' reactions to their children's negative and positive emotions did not differ.

In the present study, mothers' reports of using higher levels of punitive responses to their children's anger in comparison to fathers were

found by Garside and Klimes-Dougan (2002) previously. Accordingly, mothers rewarded and punished children's anger more in comparison to fathers. This finding may be due to mothers' goal to avoid conflicts and situations that harm group harmony and cohesiveness. Mothers primarily take care of children and they are likely to experience more emotion-elicited situations with their child in daily life in comparison to fathers. Being present in emotion-laden moments more frequently than fathers, it may affect mothers' reactions and beliefs about children's emotions, as well. Perhaps, this is the reason of mothers' reports of more punitive responses to children's anger that they restrict their children's anger expression by punishing their children to create a more positive atmosphere in the family.

Moreover, in the present study, there was no interaction between parent gender and child gender for parents' emotion socialization strategies. Previous studies demonstrated that fathers use more nonsupportive strategies to their children's emotions when expressed emotion is atypical of expected gender norms (Bassano & Zeeman, 2010). Similarly, Eagly, Wood, and Dickman (2000) stated that fathers are more likely to endorse traditional gender roles to maintain men's power and social status, according to social role theory. In line with this perspective, one might argue that large differences in power and social status between genders may lead fathers to behave according to gender stereotypes in that society to sustain the social advantages for boys in life. However, fathers in societies with higher gender equality may not be like that (van der Pol et al., 2015).

In the current study, fathers and mothers reported using almost similar emotion socialization strategies. The reason of this finding may be due to the sample of the present study that includes urban parents with minimum high school graduation degree from İstanbul. Turkish parents from middle-to-upper SES endorse more gender-egalitarian attitudes toward socialization of children (Okur & Corapci, 2015). Additionally, the gap between women and men in terms of differences regarding masculinity (dominance, assertiveness, leadership) has narrowed over the last decade according to reports of college students (Ozkan & Lajunen, 2005). Thus,

mothers' higher ratings of punitive reaction may be due to their dominance in child socialization and discipline in the family.

An alternative explanation for the findings regarding differences between mothers and fathers on emotion socialization strategies and emotion-related beliefs could be related to reported reactions' validity such that parents' reports may not reflect the reality of daily life. For example, Bryant (1987) pointed that what mothers and fathers reported may not be equally valid so that observation studies are needed to see whether there is really a difference in maternal and paternal emotion socialization practices or whether parents' perceptions about their emotion-related parenting practices are influenced by gender stereotypes. Since there is no research that investigated fathers' reactions to children's negative emotions and child gender in Turkey, further research is necessary to fully understand the mechanism of gender-related differences in emotion socialization.

The Role of Child Gender on Parental Emotion Socialization

Apart from parent gender, child gender seems to play a role in emotion socialization. Since gender stereotypes influence the rules to express and display emotions, parental emotion socialization practices may differ in daughters and sons (Van der Pol et al., 2015). There is empirical evidence that display rules of emotions for boys and girls may differ (Root & Rubin, 2010).

Another aim of the present study was to examine the role of child gender on emotion-related parenting. It was expected that parents would encourage their daughter's sadness more than their son's sadness, and encourage their son's anger more than their daughters' anger in line with gender stereotypes.

In this study child's gender was not found to have extensive effects on emotion socialization practices. It was found that when negative emotions of sadness and anger were examined together, parents' encouragement of expression of negative emotions differed as a function of child's gender. In particular, parents reported encouraging their sons to express their negative emotions more than their daughters. Moreover, to

assess socialization of discrete emotions (sadness and anger), parental socialization of sadness and anger were examined, as well. It was found that parents reported significantly higher levels of expressive encouragement to their son's sadness and anger in comparison to their daughters' sadness and anger. The finding based on encouragement of boys' anger more than girls' is consistent with the predictions and previous findings, but the finding of encouragement of boys' sadness more than girls' is quite surprising. Studies examining discrete emotions have found that parents encourage their daughters' sadness and fear more than their sons' and encourage their sons' anger more than their daughters' (Cassano et al., 2007; Klimes-Dougan et al., 2007; Chaplin et al., 2005; Fivush et al., 2000). Nolen-Hoeksema (1987) also stated that fathers reported rewarding their daughters and punished their sons for expression of sadness.

There is a large body of research that demonstrates that men and women differ in emotional expression from preschool to adulthood (Brody & Hall, 1993). For instance, studies show that girls and women express internalizing emotions such as sadness, fear, anxiety and positive emotions such as happiness and empathy more often than boys and men. In studies investigating expression of anger, either gender differences have not been reported or men have found to express more anger than women (Garside & Klimes-Dougan, 2002). Garside and Klimes-Dougan (2002) stated that each specific emotion has different function. For instance, sadness has an interpersonal function by evoking empathy and nurturing feelings, whereas the function of the anger is to assert power and dominance. The findings in previous research regarding differences on expression of sadness and anger based on child gender are related to the cultural norms of masculinity and femininity. In general, expression of internalizing emotions is viewed as nonmasculine, while expression of externalizing emotion is perceived as nonfeminine.

Moreover, parents generally socialize their son to not express their emotions (Brody, 1999). Emotional expression is seen more appropriate for girls than boys (Deiner & Lucas, 2004). Similarly, Eisenberg et al. (1998)

stated that parents encourage their son to control their expression of emotions more than their daughters. Similarly, Fuchs and Thelen (1988) investigated children's expectations about their parents' reactions to their expression of anger. Boys expected less favorable expectations in general and they stated a lower likelihood of expression of sadness than girls. Girls expected more positive reactions from their parents for their expression of emotions in general but they stated greater likelihood of expressing sadness than anger. Likewise, Garside and Klimes-Dougan (2002) found that men reported having reacted by punishment for their sadness, anger, and fear in their childhood more than women. Malatesta and Haviland (1982) explained that since boys' emotion expressions tend to be more intense in infancy, their parents from beginning of the infancy discourage their sons' expression of emotions. Subsequently, boys are less emotional than girls (Malatesta & Haviland, 1982). Thus, expressing fear, sadness, and distress by boys and men has not been considered as desirable, and because of gender roles boys have been raised to hide or mask their internalizing emotions.

The findings of the current study regarding encouraging boys' sadness more than girls' are contrary to the expectations. This finding may be due to parents' desire to help their son to develop their individuality by expressing their emotions (Keller & Otto, 2009). A person may react differently to his/her children's emotions than his/her family of origin even if expression of specific emotion was discouraged in the past. Similarly, Sunar (2002) investigated emotion expressiveness in Turkish families and concluded that parents' encouragement of children's positive emotions has increased over the three generations. Moreover, Sunar (2002) compared childrearing practices in three generations of urban middle-class Turkish families. It was found that new generations were more democratic and less authoritarian in childrearing practices than previous generations. Likewise, Parker et al. (2012) demonstrated that parents of this generation desire their children to be emotionally more expressive. In the qualitative study by Parker et al. (2012), parents across three ethnic groups expressed concerns

about teaching their sons how to express negative emotions without feeling fearful of its outcomes. Parents expressed desire for their son to be more emotionally open.

If this finding shows a new trend, it can be due to change in stereotyped views regarding emotions in parents coming from middle-to-upper SES. For example, Root and Rubin (2010) found that fathers used supportive emotion socialization strategies to their sons' anxiety that was also contrast with the existing literature based on gender-specific emotion-related parenting. Thus, the reason of these findings may be due to generational shift in parenting towards sons' emotional lives. Root and Rubin (2010) stated the campaign launched by National Institute of Mental Health in the mid-2000's that was aimed to emphasize the increase in internalizing disorders in men. Also, there has been media attention on negative features of being inexpressive in advertisements, soap operas, and so on. Moreover, various popular psychology books about parenting underscore the importance of expression of emotions in general. Thus, the findings that parents encourage their sons' both sadness and anger are likely to reflect modern middle-to-upper class families where parenting roles are more egalitarian and gender-neutral. Kulik (2002) asserted that families with egalitarian attitudes towards child-rearing are more likely to adopt gender-neutral parenting behaviors. This explanation is speculative, and further research and replication of the findings are necessary.

Secondly, in terms of parents' beliefs about children's emotions, there was a difference based on child gender on the belief about importance of knowing children's emotions in the present study. Accordingly, Turkish parents reported endorsing the belief that it is important to know children's emotions more for their sons than their daughters. It seems that Turkish middle-to-upper class parents would like to know more about their son's emotions and would like to encourage him to express himself more. This may be related to aforementioned reasons that boys talk about emotions and disclose their emotions less in general. Since girls are more expressive in facial and verbal, parents may not feel pressure to know their daughters'

feelings. Since boys are not as verbally expressive as girls, parents may need more information regarding emotional states of their children. Similarly, in a qualitative study by Parker et al. (2012) examining parental beliefs about emotions it was found that parents asserted that men should express their feelings more than they did in the past. In addition, it was revealed that parents believed that they should encourage their son about being more emotionally expressive (Parker et al., 2012). Similarly, Premo and Kiel (2014) said that in last decades parents have noticed that boys need extra help of parents in expressing emotions. Since boys had been explicitly asked to restrict their emotional expression, this finding is consistent with generational shift (Parker et al., 2012). Again, this finding should be replicated in the future.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

These findings suggest some important directions for future studies. This study serves as one of the first attempt in the investigation of the relationship between parents' beliefs about children's emotions and emotion socialization practices in Turkey.

In the present study the data were correlational, so it was impossible to assess causal relations. Moreover, data on all measures were collected at about the same time and it may lead shared method variance. Also, it is important to keep in mind that parental report about their reactions to children's emotions may not be identical to their actual emotion-related parenting practices. Thus, future research should use additional methods to investigate Turkish parents' emotion-related beliefs and socialization behaviors.

Moreover, since the sample of the present study consisted of a relatively low-risk, normative sample involving middle-to-upper class Turkish parents, future studies should replicate the findings of the present study in families at socioeconomic or emotional risk, as well.

In future studies, the scope of emotion socialization can be extended by including siblings, teachers, and peers into studies since they are agents of socialization, as well (Eisenberg et al., 1998). Moreover, it is

recommended to examine the link between emotion socialization practices and child outcomes by focusing on children from different age groups and employing additional methods to self-reports, for instance discourse analysis and interview.

In the present study, Turkish version of the CCNES was used to assess emotion socialization. Although the validity of this instrument has been established it lacks of some emotion socialization responses such as nonverbal attention as stated by Corapci et al. (2012). For instance, parental reactions may consist of neglect, ignoring, or matching with the child's emotion by, for instance, becoming sad or getting angry in response to child's sadness or anger (Garside & Klimes-Dougan, 2002). Facial expressions of emotions are significant emotion socialization mode, as well (Malatesta & Haviland, 1982). In future research, observation studies may yield situational, instantaneous emotion socialization strategies by focusing on emotional displays. In future studies, employing multiple approaches to embrace culture-specific and diverse aspects of emotion socialization would be recommended to understand better Turkish parents' emotion-socialization behaviors. Also, in the present study, emotion socialization was investigated by relying on combination of negative emotions and specifically anger and sadness. In future studies, it is recommended to adopt an approach that investigates other discrete negative emotions, as well. For instance; shame, guilt, and pride are important self-conscious emotions that our understanding on socialization of these emotions is missing.

In the present study, Turkish version of the PBACE was used to assess Turkish parents' beliefs about children's emotions. Interviewing parents to generate items would be more helpful to clarify implicit appraisal of Turkish parents in future studies. As Halberstadt et al. (2013) suggested, in future research, reaction time and other alternative methods can be implemented to examine parental beliefs. It is recommended to explore more clearly of how the beliefs about emotions are formed. More research is needed about this field in Turkey. This study contributed to the literature by making translation of PBACE and addition of new scales. This study

presents some evidence of this measure's reliability and validity with Turkish population.

Although examining of similarities and differences between fathers and mothers in emotion socialization is critical, the "concordance" between mother and father of the child should also be investigated in the future studies. It would be recommended to include both the mother and father of target child. McElwain et al. (2007) presented challenging findings by stating that some extent of divergence between maternal and paternal emotion socialization behaviors may contribute children's wellbeing. Further examination of normative differences in mothers' and fathers' emotion socialization behaviors may provide a better understanding of how to foster emotional and social competence in young children (Root & Rubin, 2010).

Additionally, in future studies, assessing child outcomes by considering parents' beliefs about emotions and emotion socialization practices would be fruitful. By this knowledge derived from such studies, an intervention and prevention programs can be designed to foster positive parent-child relationship and emotional and social competence in children.

Conclusion

The present study showed that beliefs about the importance of parental knowledge of children's emotions and value of emotions were related to parents' usage of supportive emotion socialization strategies (comforting, helping children solve the problem, encouraging expression of emotion) for preschool-aged children's parents. Beliefs about children's use of manipulation and children's autonomy over their emotions were found to be related to nonsupportive emotion socialization strategies (minimizing and punishing the child).

This study extends the previous research by addressing parental beliefs about emotions and emotion socialization practices in Turkey. A large volume of work demonstrates that parental emotion socialization is relevant to emotional understanding, expression, and regulation (Eisenberg et al., 1998a; Gottman et al., 1996; Morris et al., 2007). Everyday

interaction between children and parents is critical in providing learning environment for emotional competence. Thus, we need to better understand the mechanism of emotion socialization to help families.

In conclusion, the findings of the study supports the model proposed by Eisenberg et al. (1998) that multiple factors about children, parent, and culture contribute to children's emotional and social development. Moreover, as Halberstadt et al. (2013) and Gottman et al. (1996) proposed that parents' beliefs about children's emotions are related to parental emotion socialization. This study adds to the emotion socialization literature by demonstrating that the link between parental beliefs about children's emotions and emotion socialization strategies. Moreover, increase in understanding of the link between emotion-related belief and emotion socialization practices in future will also contribute the clinicians to help parents alter their attitudes to their children and help the researchers design intervention and prevention programs (Baker, Fenning, & Crnic, 2011).

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Informed Consent

Gönüllü Katılım Formu

Değerli Katılımcı,

İstanbul Bilgi Üniversitesi Çocuk ve Ergen Klinik Psikoloji Yüksek Lisans Programı öğrencilerinden Gizem Uzbilir, Yrd. Doç. Dr. Zeynep Çatay danışmanlığında yüksek lisans bitirme tezi araştırması kapsamında bu çalışmayı yürütmektedir.

Bu çalışma 3-6 yaş arası çocuğu olan ebeveynlerin duygu sosyalizasyonu davranışlarını incelemek amacıyla yapılmaktadır. Anne veya babalardan bazı anketleri doldurmaları istenecektir. Bu anketler aracılığıyla ebeveynlerin çocuklarının farklı duygusal yaşantılarına yönelik duygu ve düşünceleri araştırılacaktır. Anketleri doldurmanız yaklaşık olarak 20-30 dakika sürecektir.

Katılımcı olarak kimlik bilgileriniz gizli tutulacaktır. Bu çalışmaya toplam 150 anne ve baba katılacak ve araştırmadan elde edilen bilgiler sadece araştırmacılar tarafından toplu bir şekilde değerlendirilecektir. Kimlik bilgileriniz sadece bu onay formu üzerinde görünecek, anket formlarında hiçbir kimlik bilgisi yer almayacaktır.

Anketler, genel olarak kişisel rahatsızlık verecek soruları içermemektedir. Bu çalışmaya katılım gönüllülük esasına dayalıdır ve çalışmanın herhangi bir evresinde gerekçe göstermeksizin çalışmadan ayrılabilirsiniz.

Çalışmayla ilgili sorularınız olursa Gizem Uzbilir'e gizemuzbilir@gmail.com e-posta adresinden ya da çalışmanın danışmanı olan Yrd. Doç. Dr. Zeynep Çatay'a zeynep.catay@bilgi.edu.tr e-posta adresinden veya 212-311 7616 telefon numarasından ulaşabilirsiniz.

Değerli katılımınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz!

Bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum. Verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı yayımlarda kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum. (Formu doldurup imzaladıktan sonra uygulayıcıya geri veriniz).

İsim Soyad
İmza

Tarih
---/---/---



APPENDIX B: Demographic Information Form

Katılımcı NO: _ _ _

Demografik Bilgi Formu

Lütfen sizin için doğru olan şıkkı çarpı koyarak işaretleyiniz.

Bilgileri dolduran kişi: Anne ☐ Baba ☐

I. Kısım

Eğer birden fazla çocuğunuz varsa lütfen bu formu 3-5 yaşlarındaki sadece bir çocuğunuzu düşünerek yanıtlayınız.

1. Çocuğunuzun doğum tarihi: ____/____/____

2. Çocuğunuzun cinsiyeti: 1) Kız ☐ 2) Erkek ☐

3. Çocuğunuzun kardeşi var mı? Eğer varsa kardeş(ler)in yaş ve cinsiyetlerini belirtiniz:

4. Çocuğunuzun fiziksel engeli var mı? 1) Evet ☐ 2) Hayır ☐

Evet ise lütfen açıklayınız:

5. Çocuğunuzun zihinsel engeli var mı? 1) Evet ☐ 2) Hayır ☐

Evet ise lütfen açıklayınız:

6. **Çocuğunuz gelişiminde herhangi bir gecikme ya da sorun yaşandı mı?** (Fiziksel gelişim, dil gelişimi, bilişsel ya da duygusal, sosyal alan gibi)

1) Evet ☐ 2) Hayır ☐

Evet ise ne tür bir sorun olduğunu lütfen açıklayınız:

7. **Çocuğunuz okula gidiyor mu?** 1) Evet ☐ 2) Hayır ☐

Evet ise, toplam ne kadar zamandır okula gittiğini lütfen belirtiniz:

8. **Anne sağ mı?**

1) Evet ☐ 2) Hayır ☐

9. **Baba sağ mı?**

1) Evet ☐ 2) Hayır ☐

10. **Annenin tanı almış herhangi bir psikiyatrik rahatsızlığı var mı?**

1) Evet ☐ 2) Hayır ☐

Evet ise lütfen açıklayınız:

11. **Babanın tanı almış herhangi bir psikiyatrik rahatsızlığı var mı?**

1) Evet ☐

2) Hayır ☐

Evet ise lütfen açıklayınız:

12. Çocuğunuz için daha önce hiç psikolojik yardım aldınız mı?

1) Evet ☐

2) Hayır ☐

Evet ise, ne sebeple, ne zaman, ne kadar süreyle yardım aldınız?

13. Anne-babalık konusunda hiç eğitim aldınız mı, seminerlere katıldınız mı?

1) Evet ☐

2) Hayır ☐

Evet ise kaç saatlik, hangi konular üstüne bir eğitim aldığınızı lütfen belirtiniz:

II. Kısım

1. **Annenin Doğum Tarihi:**
2. **Babanın Doğum Tarihi:**
3. **Eğitim Durumunuz:** (Geldiğiniz en yüksek düzey; lütfen çocuğun hem annesi hem babası için işaretleyiniz.)

	Anne	Baba
Okuma yazma bilmiyor	1	1
İlkokul mezunu	2	2
Ortaokul mezunu	3	3
Lise mezunu	4	4
Yüksek okul mezunu (2 yıllık)	5	5
Üniversite mezunu (4 yıllık)	6	6
Uzmanlık derecesi var (Master, doktora gibi)	7	7

4. Annenin Medeni Durumu:

	Anne
Çocuğun babası ile evli	1
Boşanmış	2
Ayrı yaşıyor	3
Dul	4
Çocuğun babasından başkası ile evli	5

5. Babanın Medeni Durumu:

	Baba
Çocuğun annesi ile evli	1
Boşanmış	2
Ayrı yaşıyor	3
Dul	4

Çocuğun annesinden başkası ile evli	5
-------------------------------------	---

6. **Anne şu anda çalışıyor mu?** (Uygun olan seçeneğin altındaki rakamı daire içine alınız.)

Evet (Yarı-zamanlı, haftada 45 saatten az)	Evet (Tam zamanlı, haftada 45 saat)	Hayır
1	2	3

7. **Baba şu anda çalışıyor mu?** (Uygun olan seçeneğin altındaki rakamı daire içine alınız.)

Evet (Yarı-zamanlı, haftada 45 saatten az)	Evet (Tam zamanlı, haftada 45 saat)	Hayır
1	2	3

8. **Annenin Mesleği:** _____

9. **Babanın Mesleği:** _____

10. **Evinize giren toplam geliriniz ne kadar Türk Lirasıdır?** (Uygun olan şıkkı çarpı koyarak işaretleyiniz.)

- ☐ 0-1000 TL
- ☐ 1000 TL-3000 TL
- ☐ 3000 TL – 5000 TL
- ☐ 5000 TL - 8000 TL

☐ 8000 TL – 12000 TL

☐ 12,000 ve üstü

11. Çocuğunuzun řu an birlikte yaşadığı kişiler kimlerdir?



III. Kısım

1. Çocuğunuz ile beraber ne kadar zaman geçirebiliyorsunuz?

(Hem hafta içi hem hafta sonu için uygun olan seçeneğin altına çarpı koyarak işaretleyiniz.)

	0-1 saat	1-3 saat	3-5 saat	Bütün gün
Hafta içi				
Hafta sonu				

2. Çocuğunuzla geçirdiğiniz sürenin kalitesini nasıl buluyorsunuz?

(Hem hafta içi hem hafta sonu için uygun olan seçeneğin altına çarpı koyarak işaretleyiniz.)

	Çok düşük	Düşük	Yeterli	Oldukça iyi
Hafta içi				
Hafta sonu				

3. Çocuğunuzla birlikteliğinizi genel olarak nasıl değerlendirirsiniz? (Lütfen işaretleyiniz.)

1. Yeterince ve kaliteli zaman geçiriyoruz ☐
2. Çok zaman geçiremesek de kaliteli zaman geçiriyoruz ☐
3. Yeterince ve kaliteli zaman geçiremiyoruz ☐
4. Yeterince zaman geçiriyoruz ancak kaliteli zaman geçiremiyoruz ☐

4. Çocuğunuzla birlikte neler yaparsınız?

APPENDIX C: The Short Temperament Scale (STSC)
(Approach and Reactivity Subscales)

Her soru için, çocuğunuzun son zamanlardaki ve şimdiki davranışını en iyi anlatan numarayı lütfen yuvarlak içine alınız.

	Hemen Hiç	Sık Değil	Değişken, Genelde Olmaz	Değişken, Genelde Olur	Sık Sık	Hemen Her Zaman
1. Çocuğum, yabancı yetişkinlere karşı utangaçtır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Çocuğum ilk defa tanıştığı çocuklara karşı utangaçtır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Parkta ya da ziyaretteyken, çocuğum yabancı çocukların yanına gider ve onların oyununa katılır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Çocuğum yabancı bir yetişkine karşı utangaçsa, bunun üstesinden yarım saat kadar bir sürede, hemen gelir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Ailece yolculuğa çıktığımızda, çocuğum	1	2	3	4	5	6

yeni ortamına hemencecik, evindeymiş gibi alışır.						
6. Yabancı yetişkinler evimizi ziyaret ettiğinde, çocuğum hemen dostça davranır ve onlara yaklaşır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Çocuğum, annesinin olmadığı yeni bir ortama (yuva, okul ya da müzik dersi gibi) ilk kez bırakıldığı zaman, üzülür.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Çocuğum bir işle uğraşırken, üzüldüğünde ya da canı sıkıldığında, elindekini yere atar, ağlar, kapıları çarpar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Alışveriş yaparken, çocuğum oyuncak ya da şeker istediğinde, onun yerine kolayca başka bir şeyi kabul eder.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. Çocuğum saçının taranması gibi bir işe karşı çıkarsa, buna aylarca direnmeyi sürdürür	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. Çocuğum bir şeye	1	2	3	4	5	6

kızgınsa, bunu geçiřtirmek zor olur.						
12. Beraber alışveriş yaparken, çocuğumun istediğini almazsam (örnek: şeker, giysi gibi) ağlar ve bağırır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. Çocuğum üzüntülü ise, onu rahatlatmak zordur.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. Sevdiği bir oyun ya da oyuncacı çalışmadığı zaman, çocuğum belirgin şekilde üzölür.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. Çocuğum bir kıyafeti giymek istemediğinde, bağırarak tartışır ya da ağlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. Çocuğum bir şeyle oynamaya başladıysa ve ben bunu bırakmasını istiyorsam, çocuğumun dikkatini başka şeye yönlendirmek zor olur.	1	2	3	4	5	6

**APPENDIX D: The Coping with Children's Negative Emotions Scale
(CCNES)**

- Aşağıda günlük yaşamınızda, çocuğunuzla ilişkilerinizde karşılaşılabileceğiniz bazı durumlar maddeler halinde verilmiştir. Her durumun altına da anne-baba olarak gösterebileceğiniz bazı davranışlar sıralanmıştır.
- Lütfen bu davranışların **her birini** ne kadar sıklıkla yaptığınızı belirtiniz. Örneğin, birinci maddede belirtilen durumla ilgili olarak 6 davranış seçeneğinin her birini ne sıklıkla yaptığınızı 1’den 5’e kadar sayılardan uygun olanı daire içine alarak belirtiniz. Böylece her bir durumla ilgili 6 davranış için de cevap vermiş olacaksınız.
- Eğer çocuğunuzun daha önce böyle bir durumla karşılaşmadığını düşünüyorsanız, “böyle olsaydı ne yapardım” diye düşünerek yanıtlayınız.

1= Hiç Böyle Yapmam, 2 = Nadiren Böyle Yaparım, 3 = Belki Böyle Yaparım, 4 = Büyük Olasılıkla Böyle Yaparım, 5 = Kesinlikle Böyle Yaparım.

1) Eğer çocuğum hastalandığı ya da bir yerini incittiği için arkadaşının doğum günü partisine veya oyun davetine gidemiyorsa ve bundan dolayı öfkeli olursa, ben;

a) Çocuğumu sakinleşmesi için odasına gönderirim.	1	2	3	4	5
b) Çocuğuma kızarım.	1	2	3	4	5
c) Çocuğuma arkadaşları ile birlikte olabileceği başka yollar düşünmesi için yardımcı olurum (örneğin, bazı arkadaşlarını partiden sonra davet edebilir).	1	2	3	4	5
d) Çocuğuma partiyi kaçırmayı büyütmemesini söylerim.	1	2	3	4	5

e) Çocuğumu, öfkesini ve hayal kırıklığını ifade etmesi için cesaretlendiririm.	1	2	3	4	5
f) Çocuğumu yatıştırırım ve kendini daha iyi hissetmesi için eğlenceli bir şeyler yaparım.	1	2	3	4	5

2) Eğer çocuğum bisikletinden düşer, onu kırar ve sonra da üzülüp ağlarsa, ben;

a) Sakin kalırım ve endişelenmem.	1	2	3	4	5
b) Çocuğumu rahatlatır ve kazasını unutmasını sağlamaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
c) Çocuğuma aşırı tepki gösterdiğini söylerim.	1	2	3	4	5
d) Çocuğuma bisikletin nasıl tamir edileceğini anlaması için yardımcı olurum.	1	2	3	4	5
e) Çocuğuma böyle bir durumda ağlamanın doğal olduğunu söylerim.	1	2	3	4	5
f) Çocuğuma ağlamayı bırakmasını yoksa bisiklete binmesine izin vermeyeceğimi söylerim.	1	2	3	4	5

3) Eğer çocuğum çok değerli bir eşyasını kaybeder ve ağlarsa, ben;

a) Bu kadar dikkatsiz olduğu ve sonra da ağladığı için keyfim kaçır.	1	2	3	4	5
b) Çocuğuma aşırı tepki gösterdiğini söylerim.	1	2	3	4	5
c) Çocuğuma, henüz bakmadığı yerleri	1	2	3	4	

düşünmesinde yardımcı olurum.					5
d) Mutlu şeylerden bahsederek çocuğumun dikkatini başka yöne çekerim.	1	2	3	4	5
e) Ona mutsuz olduğunda ağlamasının doğal olduğunu söylerim.	1	2	3	4	5
f) Dikkatli olmazsan işte böyle olur derim.	1	2	3	4	5

4) Eğer çocuğum iğneden korkuyor ve iğne olma sırasını beklerken titreyip ağlıyorsa, ben;

a) Ona, kendini toparlamasını yoksa yapmaktan hoşlandığı bir şeye izin vermeyeceğimi söylerim (örneğin televizyon seyretmek gibi).	1	2	3	4	5
b) Hissettiği korku hakkında konuşması için çocuğumu cesaretlendiririm.	1	2	3	4	5
c) Ona, iğne olmayı büyük bir mesele haline getirmemesini söylerim.	1	2	3	4	5
d) Ona ağlayarak bizi utandırmamasını söylerim.	1	2	3	4	5
e) İğneden önce ve sonra onu rahatlatırım.	1	2	3	4	5
f) Çocuğuma ne yaparsa iğnenin daha az acıtacağını anlatırım (örneğin, kendini kasmaz veya derin nefes alırsa daha az acıyacağı gibi).	1	2	3	4	5

5) Eğer çocuğum öğleden sonrayı bir arkadaşının evinde geçirecekse ve benim onunla kalamamam onu tedirgin edip üzerse, ben;

a) Arkadaşıyla ne kadar eğleneceğinden bahsederek onun ilgisini başka yöne çekmeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
b) Arkadaşının evinde ben yokken tedirgin olmaması için çocuğuma neler yapabileceğini düşünmesinde yardımcı olurum (örneğin, en sevdiği kitabını ya da oyuncağını yanında götürmesi gibi).	1	2	3	4	5
c) Çocuğuma aşırı tepki göstermeyi ve bebek gibi davranmayı bırakmasını söylerim.	1	2	3	4	5
d) Çocuğuma, eğer yatışmazsa bundan sonra dışarı çıkmasına izin vermeyeceğimi söylerim.	1	2	3	4	5
e) Çocuğumun tepkileri yüzünden keyifsiz ve sıkıntılı olurum.	1	2	3	4	5
f) Tedirginliği ve keyifsizliği hakkında konuşması için çocuğumu cesaretlendiririm.	1	2	3	4	5

6) Eğer çocuğum arkadaşları ile birlikte yer aldığı bir grup faaliyetinde hata yaptığı için utanır ve ağlamaklı olursa, ben;

a) Çocuğumu rahatlatır ve daha iyi hissetmesini sağlamaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
b) Çocuğuma aşırı tepki gösterdiğini söylerim.	1	2	3	4	5
c) Kendimi rahatsız ve utanmış hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
d) Çocuğuma kendini toparlamasını yoksa doğruca eve gideceğimizi söylerim.	1	2	3	4	5

e) Çocuğumu, yaşadığı utanma hissi hakkında konuşması için cesaretlendiririm.	1	2	3	4	5
f) Çocuğuma alıştırmayı yapmasında yardımcı olacağımı ve böylece bir dahaki sefere daha iyisini yapacağını söylerim.	1	2	3	4	5

7) Eğer çocuğum bir müsameraya ya da spor faaliyeti nedeniyle seyirci karşısına çıkacağı için çok heyecanlanır ve kaygılanırsa, ben;

a) Çocuğuma, sırası geldiğinde kendini hazır hissetmesi için neler yapabileceğini düşünmesinde yardımcı olurum (örneğin, biraz ısınma yapmak ve seyirciye bakmamak gibi).	1	2	3	4	5
b) Heyecan ve kaygısının geçmesi için çocuğuma rahatlatıcı bir şeyler düşünmesini öneririm.	1	2	3	4	5
c) Sakin kalırım ve kaygılanmam.	1	2	3	4	5
d) Çocuğuma bebek gibi davrandığını söylerim.	1	2	3	4	5
e) Çocuğuma sakinleşmezse oradan hemen ayrılıp doğrudan eve gideceğimizi söylerim.	1	2	3	4	5
f) Hissettiği heyecan ve kaygı hakkında konuşması için çocuğumu cesaretlendiririm.	1	2	3	4	5

8) Eğer çocuğum bir arkadaşından istemediği bir doğum günü hediyesi aldığı için hayal kırıklığına uğramış, hatta kızgın görünüyorsa, ben;

a) Çocuğumu hissettiği hayal kırıklığını ifade etmesi için cesaretlendiririm.	1	2	3	4	5
b) Çocuğuma bu hediye onun istediği başka bir şeyle değiştirilebileceğini söylerim.	1	2	3	4	5
c) Kaba davranışı yüzünden çocuğuma kızmam.	1	2	3	4	5
d) Çocuğuma aşırı tepki gösterdiğini söylerim.	1	2	3	4	5
e) Çocuğumu, arkadaşının hislerine karşı duyarsız olduğu için azarlarım.	1	2	3	4	5
f) Eğlenceli şeyler yaparak, çocuğumun kendisini daha iyi hissetmesini sağlamaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5

9) Eğer çocuğum televizyonda ürkütücü bir program seyrettikten sonra korkuya kapılıp uyuyamıyorsa, ben;

a) Çocuğumu, onu korkutan şey konusunda konuşması için cesaretlendiririm	1	2	3	4	5
b) Anlamsız hareketinden dolayı çocuğuma öfkelenirim.	1	2	3	4	5
c) Çocuğuma aşırı tepki gösterdiğini söylerim.	1	2	3	4	5
d) Çocuğuma uyuyabilmesi için neler yapabileceğini düşünmesinde yardımcı olurum (örneğin, yatağa bir oyuncak alması, ışığı açık bırakması gibi).	1	2	3	4	5
e) Ona yatağa gitmesini yoksa bundan sonra televizyon seyretmesine hiç izin	1	2	3	4	5

vermeyeceğimi söylerim.					
f) Çocuğumla eğlenceli bir şeyler yaparak korktuğu şeyi unutmaması için ona yardımcı olurum.	1	2	3	4	5

10) Eğer parkta çocuklar oyunlarına katılmasına izin vermedikleri için çocuğum ağlamaklı olursa, ben;

a) Sakin kalırım, keyfim kaçmaz.	1	2	3	4	5
b) Çocuğuma, ağlamaya başlarsa doğruca eve gideceğimizi söylerim.	1	2	3	4	5
c) Çocuğuma, kendini kötü hissettiğinde ağlamasının doğal olduğunu söylerim.	1	2	3	4	5
d) Çocuğumu rahatlatırım ve mutluluk veren şeyler düşünmesini sağlamaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
e) Çocuğuma başka şeyler yapmayı düşünmesi için yardımcı olurum.	1	2	3	4	5
f) Çocuğuma kendini birazdan daha iyi hissedeceğini söylerim.	1	2	3	4	5

11) Eğer çocuğum diğer çocuklarla oynarken, onlardan biri çocuğumla alay attığı için bir anda titremeye ve gözleri yaşarmaya başlarsa, ben;

a) Çocuğuma bunu büyütmemesi gerektiğini söylerim.	1	2	3	4	5
b) Canım sıkılır, keyfim kaçar.	1	2	3	4	

					5
c) Çocuğuma toparlanmasını, yoksa doğruca eve gideceğimizi söylerim.	1	2	3	4	5
d) Diğer çocukların alaylı sözleriyle başa çıkabilmesi için neler yapabileceğini düşünmesinde çocuğuma yardımcı olurum.	1	2	3	4	5
e) Çocuğumu rahatlatırım ve bu keyifsiz olayı unutmaması için onunla bir oyun oynarım.	1	2	3	4	5
f) Alay edilmenin onu nasıl incittiği hakkında konuşması için çocuğumu cesaretlendiririm.	1	2	3	4	5

12) Eğer çocuğum çevresinde tanımadığı kişiler olduğunda hep utanıyor ve ürküyorsa ya da aile dostları misafirliğe geldiği zaman ağlamaklı olup odasından çıkmak istemiyorsa, ben;

a) Çocuğuma, aile dostlarımızla karşılaştığı zaman daha az korkması için neler yapabileceğini düşünmesinde yardımcı olurum.	1	2	3	4	5
b) Çocuğuma, tedirgin hissetmenin doğal olduğunu söylerim.	1	2	3	4	5
c) Aile dostlarımızla yapabileceğimiz eğlenceli şeylerden bahsederek çocuğumu mutlu etmeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
d) Çocuğumun tepkileri yüzünden kendimi sıkıntılı hisseder ve rahatsızlık duyarım.	1	2	3	4	5
e) Çocuğuma oturma odasına gelip aile dostlarımızla beraber oturmak zorunda olduğunu söylerim.	1	2	3	4	5

f) Çocuğuma bebek gibi davrandığını söylerim.	1	2	3	4	5
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**Lütfen her durum için önerilmiş 6 davranış seçeneğinin her birini
cevaplamış olduğunuzu kontrol ediniz.**



**APPENDIX E: The Parents' Beliefs about Children's Emotions
Questionnaire (PBACE)**

Aşağıda yer alan maddeler, çocukların duygusal gelişimiyle ilgili bazı görüşleri ifade etmektedir. Lütfen her bir maddeyi dikkatlice okuyunuz ve o maddeye ne derecede katıldığınızı ya da katılmadığınızı “cevap” yazan bölüme yazınız. Lütfen maddeleri, 3-6 yaş aralığında olan **tek bir çocuğunuzu** düşünerek cevaplayınız.

1 Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	2 Katılmıyorum	3 Kısmen katılmıyorum	4 Kısmen katılıyorum	5 Katılıyorum	6 Kesinlikle katılıyorum
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		Cevap
1	Çocuklar başkalarını yönlendirmek için duygularını kullanır.	
2	Çocuklar üzgün hissettiklerinde, bu duyguyla baş etmenin yolunu kendileri bulmalıdır.	
3	Eğer çocuklar aşırı mutlu hissederlerse sorumluluklarına odaklanamayabilir.	
4	Bir çocuğu üzüntüsüyle başa çıkması için kendi haline bırakmak genellikle en iyisidir.	
5	Çocuklar bir şey hissettiklerinde, o duyguyu uzunca bir süre hissetmeye devam eder.	
6	Ara sıra öfkeli hissetmek çocuklar için yararlıdır.	
7	Çocuklar öfkeli olduklarında, bu durumla başa çıkmaları için onları kendi hallerine bırakmak en iyisidir.	
8.	Ebeveynler çocuklarının hissettiği tüm duyguları bilmek zorunda değildir.	
9	Çocukların duyguları uzun sürme eğilimindedir.	
10	Çocukların öfkeleri, fırtınanın havayı temizlemesi gibi, bir rahatlama sağlayabilir.	
11	Çocuklar yüz ifadelerini kontrol edebilir.	
12	Bir çocuğu olumsuz duygularıyla başa çıkması için kendi	

	haline bırakmak en iyisidir.	
13	Öfke hissetmek kişiyi harekete geçirmek için faydalı olabilir.	
14	Çocuklar ebeveynleri onlara yol gösteremediklerinde bile kendi duygularını anlayabilir.	
15	Çocuklar duygularını nasıl ifade edeceklerini kontrol edebilir.	
16	Çocukların duygularını yaşama ve ifade ediş biçimleri zaman içinde çok fazla değişmez.	
17	Çocuklar isteklerini yaptırmak için bazen üzgün davranır.	
18	Çocukların öfkelerini dışa vurmaları onlar için iyidir.	
19	Çocuklar sık sık sadece dikkat çekmek için ağlar.	
20	Ebeveynler, çocuklarını hissettikleri her şeyi kendilerine anlatmaları için cesaretlendirmelidir.	
21	Çocuklar çok mutlu olduklarında, duygularının ne kadarını dışa vuracaklarını kontrol edebilir.	
22	Ebeveynler, çocukları üzüldüğünde onların bu duygularının üstesinden kendi başlarına gelmelerine izin verebilir.	
23	Çocuklar duygularını kontrol edebilir.	
24	Öfkesini ifade etmek çocuğun kendi arzu ve fikirlerinin bilinmesi için iyi bir yoldur.	
25	Hissettikleri her şeyi ebeveynlerine anlatmak, çocuklar için önemlidir.	
26	Çocuklar aşırı mutluyken kontrolden çıkabilir.	
27	Çok fazla neşe çocuğun başka insanları anlamasını zorlaştırabilir.	
28	Çocuklar öfkeli olduklarında, bu durumla başa çıkmak için kendi yollarını bulmalıdır.	
29	Çocuklar çok öfkeli olduklarında, hislerinin ne kadarını dışa vuracaklarını kontrol edebilir.	

30	Çocukların duyguları uzun bir süre değişmeden kalır.	
31	Duygularını yoğun şekilde yaşayan çocukların hayatta zorluklarla karşılaşması muhtemeldir.	
32	Çocuklar bazen sadece dikkat çekmek için üzgünmüş gibi yapar.	
33	Öfkelenmek, hayatlarındaki bazı şeyleri değiştirmek ya da düzeltmek için çocukları motive edebilir (güdüleyebilir).	
34	Çocuklar isteklerini yaptırmak için bazen öfkeli davranır.	
35.	Aşırı mutlu hisseden çocuk küçük şeylerden mutlu olamayabilir.	
36	Korku, çocukları başlarına gelebilecek kötü şeylerden korur.	
37	Üzülme hayatlarındaki bir şeyleri değiştirmek veya düzeltmek için çocukları motive edebilir (güdüleyebilir).	
38	Çocuklar çok öfkелendiğinde kontrolden çıkabilir.	
39	Kolay öfkelenen çocukların arkadaş ilişkileri olumsuz etkilenir.	
40	Yoğun mutluluk duygusu çocuğun duygusal gelişimi için faydalıdır.	
41	Mutlu hisseden çocuklar zorluklar karşısında daha dayanıklı olabilir.	
42	Fazla korku hisseden çocuk karşısına çıkan fırsatları değerlendiremez.	
43	Yoğun korku hissi çocuğun öğrenmesini zorlaştırır.	
44	Ara sıra üzgün hissetmek, çocuğun mutlu anların değerini bilmesine yarar.	
45	Korku duygusu, çocuğu tehlikelerden uzak tutar.	
46	Üzülen çocukların zengin iç dünyaları vardır.	
47	Çok fazla üzülme çocukları ruhsal olarak zedeler.	
48	Mutlu çocuk kendine çok güvenir.	
49	Yoğun mutluluk yaşayan çocuk çevresine karşı daha	

	olumlu olur.	
50	Çok öfkeli bir çocuğun duygusunu ifade etme şekli yıkıcı olabilir.	
51	Mutlu hisseden çocuk hayatta başarılı olur.	
52	Öfkelenmesi çocuğun çevresine zarar vermesine yol açabilir.	
53.	Aşırı mutlu çocuk şımarıklık yapabilir.	
54	Sık sık üzülen çocuklar çevrelerinden kopup içe kapanabilirler.	
55.	Çocukların üzüntülerini ifade etmeleri ve dışa vurmaları yararlıdır.	
56	Yoğun öfke hisseden çocuk hayatta birçok zorlukla karşılaşır.	
57	Mutlu hisseden çocuk daha kolay arkadaşlık kurabilir.	
58	Ara sıra üzgün hisseden çocuk başkalarının duygularına karşı daha duyarlı olabilir.	
59	Yoğun korku hissi çocukların çevreyi keşfetmesini engeller.	
60	Çocukların hayatı öğrenmeleri için ara sıra üzölmeleri gerekir.	
61	Ara sıra korku hissetmek çocuđu güçlendirir.	
62	Her duyguyu bilmeleri ve tanımaları için çocukların ara sıra üzgün hissetmesi faydalı olabilir.	
63	Korkuları çok olan çocuklar hayatta başarısız olur.	
64	Çocukların çok öfkelenmesi diđer insanları onlardan uzaklaştırır.	
65	Çocukların üzüntülerini içe atmaları onlar için zararlıdır.	
66	Aşırı korku duyması çocuğun kendine güvenini azaltır.	
67	Çok yoğun üzüntü yaşayan çocuklar hayatta başarılı olamaz.	
68	Sık sık üzölen çocuklar karşılarına çıkan fırsatları	

	değerlendiremez.	
69	Korku duymak çocuğa korkuyla başetmeyi öğretir.	

Subscales	Items
Cost of Positivity	3, 26, 27, 31
Value of Anger	6, 10, 13, 18, 24, 33
Parental Knowledge	8(R), 20, 25
Manipulation	1,17,19,32, 34
Autonomy	2, 4, 7, 12, 14, 22, 28
Control	11, 15, 21, 23, 29
Stability	5, 9, 16, 30
Cost of Anger	38, 39, 50, 52, 56, 64
Value of Positivity	40, 41, 48, 49, 51, 57
Value of Fear	36, 45, 61, 69
Cost of Fear	42, 43, 59, 63, 66
Value of Sadness	37, 44, 46, 55, 58, 60, 62
Cost of Sadness	47, 54, 65, 67, 68