THE ROLE OF GENDER AND GENDER IDEOLOGY IN TRIADIC FAMILY PLAY AND REMINISCING

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ABSTRACT

THE ROLE OF GENDER AND GENDER IDEOLOGY IN TRIADIC FAMILY PLAY AND REMINISCING

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Parent-child reminiscing and play interactions fundamentally serve developmental milestones regarding the child's language, emotional, social, and cognitive development. Both parent gender and child gender are closely related to the emotional component of parent-child reminiscing and play dynamics. The current study investigated how triadic play between parents and children might relate to triadic memory conversations about emotionally charged shared past events. How the parent's gender, the child's gender, and parental gender ideology can potentially affect this relation was also examined. One hundred and nine families (327 participants) were selected for the study. The demographics form and Social Roles Questionnaire (SRQ) were administered. Families were given a triadic play task called Lausanne Trilogue Play (LTP) and a memory talk task in which they discussed a shared event experienced in the near past. For the play task, Family Alliance Assessment Scales (FAAS) and for the memory task, the number of total words, total and unique emotions, and conversational turn-takings were coded by multiple coders. Afterward, data were analyzed by a set of independent t-tests, 2 X 2 Mixed Design ANOVAs, and hierarchical regression analyses. Findings showed significant gender differences in both contexts, but there was no evidence for the impact of gender ideology. Results

were mainly explained and discussed in Turkey's cultural context encouraging parents to raise well-adapted children to society, consistent with the expected gender roles and stereotypes.

Keywords: Play, reminiscing, family, gender, emotion

ÖZ

TOPLUMSAL CİNSİYETİN VE CİNSİYET İDEOLOJİSİNİN ÜÇLÜ AİLE OYUNU VE ANI KONUŞMASINDAKİ ROLÜ

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Ebeveyn-çocuk anı konuşmaları ve oyun etkileşimleri, çocuğun dil, duygusal, sosyal ve bilişsel gelişimi ile ilgili gelişimsel kilometre taşları için temel olarak hizmet eder. Hem ebeveyn cinsiyeti hem de çocuk cinsiyeti, ebeveyn-çocuk arasındaki anı konuşmaları ve oyun dinamiklerinin duygusal bileşeniyle yakından ilişkilidir. Mevcut çalışma, ebeveynler ve çocuklar arasındaki üçlü oyunun, birlikte deneyimledikleri duygu yüklü geçmiş olaylarla ilgili yapılan üçlü anı konuşmalarıyla nasıl ilişkili olabileceğini araştırmıştır. Ebeveyn cinsiyeti, çocuk cinsiyeti ve ebeveynin cinsiyet ideolojisinin potansiyel olarak bu ilişkiyi nasıl etkileyebileceği de incelenmiştir. Çalışma için 109 aile (327 katılımcı) seçilmiştir. Demografik bilgi formu ve Sosyal Roller Anketi (SRA) uygulanmıştır. Ailelere, Lozan Üçlü Oyunu (LÜO) adlı üçlü bir oyun görevi ve yakın geçmişte yaşanan ortak bir olayı tartıştıkları bir anı konuşma görevi verilmiştir. Oyun görevi için, Aile Birliği Değerlendirme Ölçekleri (ABDÖ), anı görevi için, toplam kelime, toplam ve benzersiz duygu kelimesi ve konuşma sırası birçok kodlayıcı tarafından kodlanmıştır. Daha sonra, veriler bir dizi bağımsız t-testi, 2 X 2 karma desenli ANOVA'lar ve hiyerarşik regresyon analizleri ile analiz edilmiştir. Bulgular, her iki bağlamda da önemli cinsiyet farklılıkları göstermiştir, ancak cinsiyet ideolojisinin etkisine dair bir kanıt bulunamamıştır. Sonuçlar, ağırlıklı olarak

Türkiye'nin, beklenen toplumsal cinsiyet rolleri ve kalıpyargılarla uyumlu, topluma iyi uyum sağlamış çocuklar yetiştirmeye teşvik eden kültürel bağlamında açıklanmış ve tartışılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Oyun, birlikte hatırlama, aile, cinsiyet, duygu

To my family and my dearest grandmother Şükran

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

Parents usually interact with their children through two main channels, play and conversation; they either play with or talk to their children in everyday life. When they speak to their children, they also discuss past events experienced together or only by the child. Both play (e.g., Amodia-Bidakowska et al., 2020; Sliogeris & Almeida, 2019; Tamis-LeMonda et al., 2019) and reminiscing contexts (e.g., Gülgöz & Sahin-Acar, 2020; Lawson et al., 2021; Leyva et al., 2021; Waters et al., 2019) create a field that is highly productive for child development in many ways. Parental characteristics may affect these contexts and the relationship between them. Some of these factors are not dependent on parents' conscious efforts and can be indirect. Parents sometimes may influence their child's development more subtly, and they may fail to realize that. As every individual's identity is endowed with various personal and cultural factors, parents cannot act freely from these factors in parenting practices. Gender is one of such parental characteristics originating from the biological sex blended with sociocultural factors. Eliminating its effects on parent-child interactions can be challenging for parents, even if they are willing to do so (Mesman & Groeneveld, 2018).

Parental styles differ between mothers and fathers due to parents' different social roles based on their gender (Endendijk et al., 2018). The expectation of this gender socialization process from the parents will likely result in differential parental attitudes and behaviors toward the child depending on the child's gender. Parent-child play and reminiscing have their share of this parental socialization process. It has been known that the play dynamics can change due to both the child's and parent's gender. Parents

may not play in the same way with their female and male children, and mothers and fathers may exert distinct patterns of behaviors and interactions during play (e.g., Horwarth-Oliver, 2015; John et al., 2013; Lindsey & Mize, 2001). The volume and emotional intensity of the conversations about shared past events with the children may also show a particular pattern based on both parents' own and their children's gender (e.g., Buckner & Fivush, 2000; Fivush et al., 2000; Zaman & Fivush, 2013). Upon receiving different treatments based on their own and their parents' gender, children may comply with parental expectations and behave accordingly during play and memory talk. For instance, boys prefer physical play more, while girls prefer pretense play more (Lindsey & Mize, 2001) or the emotional content of the narratives may be richer in girls as compared to boys (Aznar & Tanenbaum, 2015; Fivush et al., 2000). However, there have also been some studies that failed to find such significant gendered parenting in play interactions (Gold et al., 2015) or memory talks with the child (Aznar & Tanenbaum, 2020; Pavlova et al., 2022). Inconsistent and contradictory findings can be explained by a potential parental variable, which might be the parents' gender ideology (Svane et al., 2021). Therefore, the current study inquired into how the child's and parent's gender and parental gender ideology may affect the triadic family play and the volume and emotional content of reminiscing via the participation of families with children 48-72 months of age.

The following section explained in detail how play can be related to child development.

1.2. Childhood Play

From the beginning of humanity, every child, including very young babies such as 3-month-olds, engaged d in play or activities resembling play (Feldman & Greenbaum, 1997). Even children with very low socioeconomic backgrounds show the interactions and behaviors associated with play (Roopnarine, 2012). This is because play is the core element for the child to make a connection to the outer world (Ericson, 1985). Play has many functions that promote cognitive (Doebel & Lilliard, 2023), physical (Archer & Siraj, 2015), social, emotional (Feldman & Greenbaum, 1997), and language development of children (Weisberg et al., 2013). Thus, child professionals

agree about its close relation to healthy child development (Anderson-McNamee & Bailey, 2010; Mistrett & Bickart, 2009).

The general opinion may suggest that the children's motivation for play is just amusing themselves, but that would be misleading. According to Vygotsky (1978), thinking that the child plays solely due to getting pleasure is inaccurate; there are many other fun activities, especially for little children, other than play, such as using a pacifier. Play behaviors in children may occur due to the need for enjoyment, but such behaviors also meet the necessary stimulation for the child's intellectual level. Moreover, the nature of dyadic or triadic play is social; for this reason, children may also prefer to play for their social needs. Hence, the aims of play can be having fun (Saltmarsh & Lee, 2021), learning (Ramani & Scalise, 2020), and socializing (Stoll & Inbar, 2016).

There are plenty of play types that a child can be involved in, such as sensorimotor symbolic, physical, rough-and-tumble, exploratory, and construction play. These plays can reach the highest frequency at certain points in the child's life, then gradually decrease, but still, they maintain during the child's whole life. A play type can be observed in many periods of childhood, but some play types are unique to certain ages. Sensorimotor play is observed during infancy, and then physical or locomotor play follows it when the child is around six months of age. Rough-and-tumble play, known to be advantageous for social development, is seen most during middle childhood. Symbolic play starts in early childhood and continues until middle childhood and even until adulthood (Lilliard, 2015). Overall, it can be concluded that particular play types may be more likely to be observed in different developmental stages in the child's life (Anderson-McNamee & Bailey, 2010).

Regarding the play partners, the children may prefer to play alone, with their parents and peers. Although it may look dysfunctional at first glance, solitary or nonsocial play also has some beneficial outcomes for the child unless it is excessive and negatively affects the child's social life. Younger children may sometimes engage in nonsocial play in which they play alone. Sometimes adults may also prefer and need some time alone to create a socially isolated environment, which is functional as long as such times are not very frequent and do not dampen their social lives. Similarly, children may also need to spend time alone since they are not socially or emotionally challenged

in those times. The child may still play alone in the presence of other children, indicating what is called parallel play (Bakeman & Brownlee, 1980). Imagination and creativity can be promoted with the help of this loneliness without anyone's interference, and the child may have a chance to regulate herself and control her surroundings (Luckey & Fabes, 2006). In other words, play also constitutes a channel to promote emotion regulation in children. Contrary to what is believed, nonsocial or solitary play in early childhood seems to be the normal developmental stage benefiting the child.

Before the children have the required social skills to play with their peers, they initially tend to pick up their parents as play partners, providing the first social relationship in a child's life. The emotional bond with the parent-child dyad and the child's self-confidence become more potent by the help of play interactions (Shorer et al., 2019). Moreover, members of families whose daily interactions involve play more were found to have better communication skills and show higher levels of collaboration and support for each other (Anderson-McNamee & Bailey, 2010). Although the child needs to be looked after to ensure safety during the play, parent-child play is especially useful for the development of child's creativity, learning, self-regulation, self-reflection, and relaxation if the parents make the play child-centered by letting the child lead the game (Ginsburg, 2007; Wasik & Jacobi-Vessels, 2017). After the transition stage, in which the child predominantly prefers to play by himself or his parents, social play emerges as the child starts making new friends. Even at age two, social play with peers may appear while solitary play starts to decline (Eckerman et al., 1975). How complex the play is constructed with peers may indicate the extent to which the child has social competence (Howes & Matheson, 1992).

Play context offers a great opportunity for the child to understand her and playmates' emotions and express and regulate her emotions (Rao & Gibson, 2019). Therefore, the play lays a foundation for the emotional development of the children. To illustrate, pretend play was found to be related to enhanced emotion regulation skills (Galyer & Evans, 2006; Hoffman & Russ, 2012; Seja & Russ, 1999) of the children in many studies. Moreover, fantasy play, a form of pretend play, was associated with the children's emotional understanding. The positive effect of parent-child play on

emotional development may be related to parental playfulness, which may give rise to parents' being more aware of their own and their children's emotions, positively affecting the child's emotion regulation skills (Shorer et al., 2019). Not only playing with parents but also playing with peers has unique contributions to the child's emotional development. As the child gets older and engages in more social play activities with peers, the child develops empathy since social play necessitates understanding others' feelings and behaving accordingly (Brownell et al., 2002).

The advantages of play interactions, especially between parents and the child, can be understood more clearly when the studies using parent-child play as an effective intervention method to improve the child's socioemotional development are considered (Duch et al., 2019; Rao & Gibson, 2019; Richard et al., 2021). To exemplify, in the study by Duch et al. (2019), a play-based intervention program was administered to parents and their preschool-aged children. Parents and children were trained on skills required for effective dyadic play. What was found was that parental reports after the completion of the intervention program indicated benefits for parents and the children. Parents specified that both themselves, their children's emotional development, and their parent-child relationship improved substantially. Parental playfulness can even have a buffering effect by compensating for the disadvantages of low SES background by positively influencing children's emotion regulation skills and play engagement levels (Cabrera et al., 2017). In summary, the conclusion can be drawn that play is a prerequisite for every child's emotional development.

Play also creates an environment in which language skills are improved, which includes various factors simultaneously that encourage the development of conditions necessary for language skills to proceed (Weisberg et al., 2013). Child-directed play, under the supervision of adults, can boost the child's language skills when the adults encourage the child to express their opinions about their actions during play so that the child learns to use language more effectively to organize their thoughts and plans. Thus, to get maximum profit from interactive play, parents should ask questions to the child, have the child elaborate on conversations during the play, and give appropriate feedback when necessary, without leading the game (Wasik & Jacobi-Vessels, 2016). Another pathway to spoken language improvement with the help of the play

environment might be associated with using gestures during plays. Orr and Geva (2015) found that symbolic play was linked to children's use of gestures, which was correlated with their spoken language proficiency. Play was also found to be related to a richer vocabulary of the child (Cabrera et al., 2017; Wasik & Jacobi-Vessels, 2016). Yet another positive association of play with child language development includes enhancing narrative skills (i.e., narrating and understanding stories) (Lilliard et al., 2013). Especially pretend play (also known as symbolic or make-believe play) seems to boost the narrative skills of the children aged between 3-7 since it is the impersonation of realistic or fictional scripts (Lilliard et al., 2013; Nicolopoulou & Ilgaz, 2013; Stagnitti & Lewis, 2015).

The child's cognitive development is also affected by childhood play, including pretend, physical, and construction play. Firstly, Lilliard et al. (2010) proposed a bidirectional relationship between pretend play and the child's social-cognitive development, including Theory of Mind (ToM). Social pretend play necessitates some cognitive capacity such as social referencing, understanding of others' perspectives, creating a world of pretense with imaginary presentments of the outer world, and grasping symbolic thinking. Moreover, such cognitive skills continue to be promoted as the child keeps engaged in pretend play. Secondly, cognitive development can also be enhanced due to the motor development resulting from physical play. For instance, Pesce and her colleagues (2016) indicated that the ball skills of the children, including catching and releasing, were associated with their inhibitory control mediated by improved motor skills. Thirdly, construction plays, such as playing with Legos, was found to be related to visuospatial memory, which in turn leads to better math skills (Nath & Szücs, 2014). Apart from socioemotional and language development, childhood play seems vital also for children's cognitive development.

1.3. Lausanne Trilogue Play (LTP)

Parents engage in play activities with their children either dyadically or triadically. The times when parents engage in play with their children offer a great opportunity to observe family dynamics. To monitor family dynamics both as a whole and in the forms of dyadic relations (mother-child, father-child, and mother-father) simultaneously, Corboz-Warnery et al. (1993) and her colleagues introduced "the

Lausanne Trilogue Play" (LTP). Congruent with the family systems approach (Minuchin, 1985), although solely dyadic interactions in the play give clues about the family dynamics to some degree, it is insufficient to get the whole picture. Each unit of the family dynamics, including dyadic and triadic relations, and how cooperated these units are precursors to concluding whether the functioning of the family is healthy or not. Thus, watching and evaluating the triadic play between the parents and children as in the LTP is required to comprehend family relations fully.

In the LTP setting, parents and the child sit on chairs at an equal distance from the table, and the child's chair is adjacent. Since this table can be rotated, the child can see one or the other parent or in between the two. The family is instructed to play together, and the four phases of the LTP are explained. The dyadic relations are observable in the first two stages since only one parent actively plays with the child while the other parent becomes a third party. The third stage requires the active participation of both parents and the child, and the final stage makes the child a third party exposed to the interaction between two parents. In this last part, parents are asked to discuss a topic they select for a certain period (Corboz-Warnery et al., 1993).

LTP play materials may include diverse toys, including animals, wooden blocks, dinner table toys, etc. (Favez et al., 2012). The LTP training received for the present study suggested that play materials provided to each family with preschool-aged children could be socks, spoons, and animal figure toys. Even though these materials do not mean much on their own, they need to be played interactively by the family members to create a meaningful game. This makes it possible for researchers to observe family dynamics. LTP materials provide the opportunity and freedom for

families to construct various play types. The most common play type in the current study was pretend play since the majority of the families used these materials to represent other objects they wished.

Possible effects of LTP interactions on child outcomes were investigated by several studies (Adler & Oppenheim, 2023; Favez et al., 2012; Favez et al., 2017; Tissot et al., 2015; Tissot et al., 2017). These studies mainly delved into how family alliance in LTP, described as the cooperation and organization between family members during

triadic play interactions, may influence child outcomes. The longitudinal study of Favez et al. (2012) investigated the predictive power of LTP family alliance in children's first two years on child outcomes regarding emotional and cognitive development when the child is five. Families showing a better quality of family alliance consistently were found to have children with a higher Theory of Mind and lower negative affect in play context and measures of child behaviors. A similar study indicated similar results regarding the connection between LTP family alliance and the child's Theory of Mind and emotional understanding (Favez et al., 2017). In another study, worse LTP family alliance together with maternal depression was associated with infants' behavioral problems reported by the mothers (Tissot et al., 2017). Another study by Tissot and his colleagues (2015) revealed that families with more cooperative family alliances during LTP had parents with higher sensitivity to the child. Adler and Oppenheim (2023) aimed to search for the link between family cooperation during LTP and the child's narrative skills via a sample of families with preschoolers. Based on the results, they proposed that children of families who showed more cooperation during LTP indicated a more coherent narrative structure and were more actively involved in completing a story. To sum up, the degree of collaboration between family members in the triadic play context seems to have a close relationship with the child's development and well-being.

The triadic family play also offers an environment making the observations of co-parental cooperation possible (de Mendonça et al., 2019). In addition, the association between high collaboration quality within the family during LTP and positive child outcomes might be because in a collaborative family, co-parental support is likely to be higher, and co-parental conflict tends to be lower. Co-parenting quality can be associated with positive child outcomes in the scope of language development, emotion regulation skills, and child's well-being (Camisasca et al., 2019; Jean & Elizabeth, 2022; Qian et al., 2020; Teubert & Pinquart, 2010). Since co-parenting quality is naturally determined by the parents' consensus on child-rearing practices, the child's development may be affected negatively or positively depending on co-parental cooperation (Feinberg, 2002).

The related literature provided little about examining co-parental support's potential effects on child outcomes in LTP context. Previous studies using LTP paradigm mainly scrutinized co-parenting alliance in prenatal LTP procedures in which LTP is applied to families expecting a baby, and the baby doll is pretended to be a real child (Altenburger et al., 2014; Carneiro et al., 2006; Favez et al., 2017; Simonelli et al., 2012). In addition, these studies focused on the effect of co-parenting on marital outcomes rather than on the parent-child relationship. One exception to these studies was the longitudinal study by Fivaz-Depeursinge et al. (2009). They looked at how coparenting styles and toddler's interactive styles can be associated with each other. When the parents represented a cohesive style of coparenting in which the parents are connected and become child-focused, if necessary, were linked to the child's showing more engagement during LTP. Another study by Sümer et al. (2018) inquired co-parental behaviors of Turkish parents and grandmothers in LTP. Yet, they did not investigate the effect of co-parenting on the child's well-being. They contributed to the literature by finding that securely attached parents had higher co-parenting quality during triadic play, whereas anxiously or avoidantly attached parents had lower co-parenting quality. They also indicated that parents with non-secure attachment styles showed lower family warmth during LTP. Hence, the literature requires more studies showing the importance of co-parenting function in LTP regarding child outcomes.

The following section touched on parent-child reminiscing and how reminiscing can contribute to child developmental outcomes.

1.4. Parent–Child Reminiscing

According to Fivush (2020), who we are and how we perceive ourselves are primarily based on what we remember. Therefore, autobiographical memory has a special mission to display the person his sense of self.

Autobiographical memory development is rooted in early childhood, in which parents guide their child's narratives to expand her inner world and help the child connect her inner world to the outer world. Thanks to the daily conversations about the past events between the parents and the child, the child can comprehend that her experiences,

thoughts, feelings, and other mental states are unique to herself, and they are not only the objective reflections of the outer world.

Fivush and Nelson (2006) explained that when a child is exposed to reminiscing with her parents, she learns the causal link between events and how to express her mental state about herself and others. This way, the child forges a bond between past versions of self and others to present-day versions of self and others. The child's past-referenced mental state words are also validated, which helps the child coordinate her past self to past others, thus developing perspectival memory. The child becomes capable of understanding her uniqueness and differences from others in that sense. The child realizes how an objective past event is a subjective experience due to the reconstructive nature of autobiographical memory (Bürümlü-Kisa & Sahin-Acar, 2020). Thereby, the child's narrative identity develops until the child becomes an adult.

Parent-child talks about a shared past event may have many functions. Kulkofsky et al. (2009) suggested that parent-child reminiscing might have social, directive, or self-related functions. Social functions may include conversational purposes and maintaining relationships between the parent and the child. Conversational goal is about finding something to talk about or share with the other person. Parents and children may also be involved in memory talks to maintain their relationships. As a directive function, parents talk to their children about past events to enhance their problem-solving skills and mentally prepare them for similar future cases. Moreover, parents may want to take control of the child's behavior by warning the child about the possible consequences of an action. The final directive function might be to help the child develop an emotional understanding and learn to regulate and control her emotions. Parent-child reminiscing may have self-related functions, too. As mentioned above, by referring to past events, the parents may try to teach the child about the continuity of the child's self across time. Besides, parents can check their child's memory accuracy during memory talks and model the child how to remember and talk about past events.

The advantages of parent-child reminiscing for many developmental outcomes are well-known. To what extent the child can benefit from memory talks with the parents

changes depending on the level of elaborateness and emotional content of such conversations provided to the child. More favorable child outcomes can be observed when the parents are less repetitive and elaborate and use more open-ended questions (i.e., use of question words such as "wh" questions), and more emotion-related words. When the parents are more elaborate during reminiscing, they tend to use more emotional referents in these talks (van Bergen & Salmon, 2010). Therefore, emotional development highly depends on parental elaborativeness in reminiscing. Former studies stated when the parental reminiscing style is elaborate and rich in emotional terms, it has a close association with the child's emotional regulation skills, emotional understanding, and emotion knowledge (Leyva & Nolivos, 2015; Liable & Song, 2006; van Bergen & Salmon, 2010).

Encouragement of the child's language and cognitive skills is another advantage of the elaborative parental reminiscing style. To exemplify, Leyva et al. (2012) measured the effect of maternal reminiscing on preschoolers' phonological awareness and significant results were found. Hence, parents can increase the likelihood of having a child with higher phonological awareness by taking over a more elaborative style during memory conversations. Another study indicated that elaborative parenting practices in a reminiscing context were associated with the children having better early literacy skills (Sparks & Reese, 2013). Moreover, as predictors of the child's future academic achievement, vocabulary and narrative abilities depend on how detailed the content of parent-child memory talks (Salmon & Reese, 2016). Adopting a more elaborative reminiscing style as a parent also causes higher accuracy in children's memory by consolidating autobiographical memory development (Reese & Newcombe, 2007; Svane et al., 2021). For instance, Sales et al. (2009) carried out a study with parent-child dyads and provided evidence that the children whose parents are more elaborative can remember more information about that past event discussed. Similarly, one longitudinal study (Jack et al., 2009) evaluated the reminiscing style of mothers with toddlers and its prolonged effects when these children became adolescents. It was revealed that if mothers have a more elaborative and less repetitive reminiscing style when their children are toddlers, their children could remember childhood memories that dated earlier when they became adolescents.

Other than emotional content and elaborativeness, the volume of conversations and conversational turn-taking can be used together to evaluate parent-child memory talk better. For instance, the study of Bürümlü-Kisa & Sahin-Acar (2020) used these reminiscing variables with a sample of Turkish families having preschool-aged children. The children's volume in triadic memory talk was the fewest in the number of total words as compared to their fathers and mothers. Yet, when the conversational turns were examined, findings showed that children took a similar number of conversational turns as their mothers and more turns than their fathers did. This finding depictured the importance of including conversational turns as a more accurate measure of a child's participation in triadic family reminiscing. Nevertheless, most previous research operationally defined parent-child reminiscing quality regarding only elaborativeness, such as open-ended questions and repetitions (e.g., Leyva et al., 2012; Reese & Newcombe, 2007; Sales et al., 2009; Salmon & Reese, 2016). However, measures of emotional intensity, volume, and conversational turns have rarely been utilized to assess the quality of parent-child reminiscing (Bürümlü-Kisa & Sahin-Acar, 2020; Fivush & Wang, 2005; van Bergen et al., 2009). Another shortfall of the current reminiscing literature is that there are very few studies analyzing triadic memory talks. The former studies generally examined mother-child reminiscing (e.g., Kulkofski et al., 2009; Reese et al., 2019; Sales & Fivush, 2005; Valentino et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2010; Wareham & Salmon, 2006), or parent-child reminiscing for both parents dyadically (Haden et al., 1997; Lund et al., 2021). Thus, the number of studies related to family reminiscing, including mother-father-child triads, is fewer (e.g., Bürümlü-Kisa & Sahin-Acar, 2020; Fivush et al., 2009). Therefore, there is a need for further investigation of triadic family reminiscing in the scope of content and characteristics of memory conversations.

The next part clarified how parent and child gender could moderate play activities and the content of memory talks.

1.5. Gender Differences in Play and Reminiscing

According to Gender Schema Theory (Bem, 1983), unless parents try to create an egalitarian gender schema for their children, every child learns societal gender norms, generally in tune with traditional gender ideology, by forming his gender schemas

based on his observations and experiences. Thus, many children inevitably have stereotypical gender views. Bem proposed that even though society is more aware of gender stereotypes compared to older times, perceiving gender as a binary concept is still problematic. As a result, most parents perpetuate gendered parenting practices when raising a child (Mesman, & Groeneveld, 2018; Morawska, 2020).

The parental gender socialization process might not be totally explained by social factors as Bem suggested; parental attitudes and behaviors may only be one face of gender socialization. Cognitive and neural processes can also shape children's gender socialization. Portengen et al. (2023) proposed that parental gender socialization is a complex process, including cognitive factors, neural processes, and parental socialization. Overt and covert gender cognitions of parents, such as gender stereotypes, gender attributions, gender identity, intergroup attitudes, etc., also play a role in this process. Neural parts of this process may include the amygdala, behavioral control, reward processing system, etc. Overall, the gender socialization process harbors many complicated features coming together to be reflected in the parents' child-rearing practices .

In collectivist, religious, and conservative cultures like Turkey's (Acevedo et al., 2015; Çukur et al., 2004; Sahin-Acar & Leichtman, 2015), gendered parenting styles are more likely to be distinct. Indeed, the study of Bozok (2018) investigating the subject of fatherhood in Turkey with a sample of Turkish fathers over 3000 showed that the patriarchal structure of Turkey shapes the definition of fatherhood in Turkey and compels mothers to take more responsibility for domestic and childcare tasks. In the same study, Turkish fathers were stated to spend less time with their children generally, and they behave less egalitarian toward their spouses and children. These findings would support the notion that catching gender differences in parent-child interactions in such cultures is inevitable.

Firstly, the reflections of gender differences on the interactions between parents and children can be observed during play activities. Previous research demonstrated that mothers and fathers prefer different play activities for their daughters and sons, in accordance with stereotypical gender norms. For instance, boys engage in physical

play more than girls (Lilliard, 2015), and fathers tend to prefer more physical play with their sons whereas mothers are more likely to prefer pretend play with their daughters (Lindsey & Mize, 2001). Parents start conveying such stereotypical gender norms via play activities very early. In fact, such gender differences may even emerge during infancy. The study of Clearfield and Nelson (2006) in which play behavior of mother and infant dyads (6, 9, &14-month-old) were examined illustrated that mothers of female and male infants behaved differently in play behavior. Active engagement rate in play of mothers of female infants were found to be higher than mothers of male infants, and engagement included relieving and hugging the baby and initiating interactions. Thus, gender-based stereotyped play behaviors of mothers seem to encourage traditional gender role development in their babies indirectly.

Not only the play type but also the play dynamics can be dissimilar based on the parent's gender. Mothers and fathers may differ during the play interactions with their children; It was found that when playing with the child, mothers prioritize the play structure, scaffolding via tutoring and guiding, and showing empathy. Fathers, on the other hand, give more priority to physical play, letting the child lead the play, scaffolding the child via encouraging and pushing the child's limits, and pretending to be a peer to the child (John et al., 2013). Such parental differences may set an example for the children regarding how to play in a gender-consistent manner.

In LTP and its coding system FAAS, parental differences cannot be observed since the evaluations are based on the family level, and parents are not considered individually. Yet, whether the child's gender influences this triadic play context can be observed clearly. The number of studies in which child gender differences were explored in the context of LTP and FAAS is scarce. In one study conducted by Favez et al. (2011), there were no significant child gender differences, but this study used a sample of families with infants 9-10 months of age. Since the current study was conducted with a sample of families who had preschool-aged children, significant gender differences were expected to be found. Considering Turkey's cultural context and the previous research on gender differences in play literature, similar differences were hypothesized in the current study based on the child's gender.

Regarding the gender differences in parent-child reminiscing literature, mixed findings draw attention. Gender differences similar to play literature can be observed in many parent-child reminiscing studies (Aznar & Tenanbaum, 2015; Bost et al., 2010; Chaplin & Aldo, 2015; Bürümlü-Kısa, & Sahin-Acar, 2020; Fivush et al., 2000; Fivush et al., 2009; Leaper et al., 1998; Lund et al., 2021). Consistent with stereotypical gender norms, mothers tend to provide a more comprehensive and richer emotional content in their dyadic relationships with their children. Furthermore, female children are more likely to be exposed to more voluminous and emotionally intense conversations, which results in girls' having more advantages over boys in narrative content. Parents' wish to raise children who comply with stereotypical gender norms may direct them to apply differential parenting practices based on their own and their children's gender. However, some studies did not indicate such significant gender associations in the reminiscing context. To illustrate, some meta-analytic review studies (Aznar & Tenenbaum, 2015; Waters et al., 2019) did not signify gender differences regarding the child's gender, but these studies only included maternal reminiscing. When fathers are involved, and the triadic context is the case, the results would have been different. In other words, including fathers in these kinds of studies would be essential for the ecological validity of understanding gender roles in the family system. Another explanation would be that the effect of variables other than gender can be in question that influences the volume and content of reminiscing talks, such as the gender ideology of the parents.

1.6. The Effect of Parental Gender Ideology on Play and Reminiscing

Significant and nonsignificant findings of the literature regarding gender differences in reminiscing and play context can call to mind a possible moderator variable responsible for such discrepancy. That variable might be parents' views on gender ideology since it was indicated to affect parental behavior in parenting practices. For instance, Bulanda (2004) suggested that as fathers became more egalitarian in gender ideology, they spent more time with their children as compared to fathers with a more traditional view. Moreover, the parental gender ideology may also affect the children's gender-related stereotypes directly. The study by Halpern and Perry-Jenkins (2016) yielded results that boys had more feminine gender stereotypes if they had a father

with a more traditional gender view. In contrast, they knew less about feminine stereotypes if their fathers internalized a more egalitarian gender ideology.

In line with previous findings, Svane et al. (2022) claimed that having a more egalitarian gender view can be associated with a lack of gender differences in the reminiscing context. Indeed, the same study that was conducted within an egalitarian culture like Denmark's, presented non-significant gender differences in reminiscing regarding elaborativeness. Hence, families with a more egalitarian view are more likely to raise children without considering the child's gender, which may result in the absence of gender differences in such families regarding play and reminiscing context. Conversely, if the parents in a family internalize a more traditional gender ideology, that might mean that they raise children based on the child's gender and in accordance with stereotypical gender norms. Thus, it will be more likely to observe gender differences when such a family is observed during a triadic play or reminiscing task. Therefore, the parental gender ideology was considered to have a voice about whether there can be significant gender differences within and across families based on the child's and the parent's gender.

1.7. The Relationship between Triadic Family Play and Reminiscing

As indicated by the literature, one common characteristic of play and reminiscing is that they both convey indirect messages of stereotypical gender norms, and both support child development in many ways. In the life of a human infant, play comes first all the time, even before talking, they can engage in play with their primary caregivers (Feldman, & Greenbaum, 1997; Fivaz-Depeursinge et al., 2010). Reminising between parent-child dyads, on the other hand, can show up only after the child can indicate a certain level of cognitive and language development (Gulgoz & Sahin-Acar, 2020). Therefore, it was considered that how parents engage in triadic family play can be linked to their reminiscing in certain ways.

For a family to be labeled as cooperative in LTP, the manual of the LTP's coding system (i.e., FAAS) suggested that the family should be good at working as a coherent group during the play. The coordination and cooperation between different compositions of family dyads (i.e., mother-father, mother-child, father-child) and

within the family triad (i.e., mother-father-child) should be apparent, and the emotional tone of the play should be perceived as positive by the coders (Scaiola et a., 2013). As suggested by the coding manual, higher cooperative alliance requires better co-parenting qualities and a positive affectionate environment throughout the LTP. None of the former studies directly analyzed the link of triadic play interactions such as LTP to the volume and emotional content of memory talks. Still, considering the current literature showing positive child outcomes of cooperative alliance in LTP (Adler & Oppenheim, 2023; Favez et al., 2012; Favez et al., 2017; Tissot et al., 2015; Tissot et al., 2017), it can be expected that parent and child members of families providing a more positive emotional sharing and co-parenting quality in LTP can talk, participate, and use emotion-related referents more in reminiscing.

In fact, the study of Adler and Oppenheim (2023) supported this assumption by exemplifying how family interactions during LTP can be related to reminiscing context regarding the narrative coherence of the children. Children with a higher cooperative alliance during the LTP task had more narrative coherence even after the narrative ability and effortful control of the children were controlled. Therefore, the triadic play and reminiscing context variables can have a significant connection. One more intriguing issue might be clarified to better understand the association between LTP interactions and memory talks. As far as we know, the present literature did not provide any information regarding the predictor roles of triadic play interactions on parental gender differences in memory talks. It can be expected that parents of families showing a pattern of high cooperation in LTP would end up with similar parameters of reminiscing, including the volume, emotional content, and level of each family member's contribution to the talk (i.e., conversational turns). These assumptions should be tested to be confirmed and contribute to the existing literature about family play and reminiscing.

In the previous section, it was stated that mothers tend to use more emotion words and total words in a memory talk as compared to fathers, and both fathers and mothers tend to use more emotion and total words if the child is a girl (Aznar & Tenanbaum, 2015; Bost et al., 2010; Chaplin & Aldo, 2015**;** Bürümlü-Kısa, & Sahin-Acar, 2020; Fivush et al., 2000; Fivush et al., 2009; Leaper et al., 1998; Lund et al., 2021). One of the

reasons for such differences would be because when engaging in play activities with their infant, parent considers infant's gender and interact accordingly (Clearfield & Nelson, 2006). Hence, it is likely that both mothers and fathers of girls would show better family alliance, including co-parenting performance and positive emotional sharing during triadic play activities, as compared to parents of boys. Such effective triadic play characteristics among parents of girls may shrink the parental gender differences in memory conversations regarding word capacity, emotional intensity, and level of participation. Therefore, differences between parents of girls during memory talk might be more minor as compared to parents of boys.

1.8. Aims and Hypotheses of the Current Study

The current study aimed to investigate how triadic play between parents and children might relate to triadic memory conversations about emotionally charged shared past events. Besides, potential effects of child gender, parent gender, and parental gender ideology on this relation were examined. In the light of the previous research, hypotheses of the study were as follows:

H1.) Families of girls would get higher scores than parents of boys during play in terms of affect sharing.

H2.) Families of girls would get higher scores than parents of boys during play in terms of coparenting.

H3.) Girls would show higher child contribution during play as compared to boys.

H4.) Girls would use more total words, total emotion words, unique emotion words, and conversational turns than boys.

H5.) Mothers would use more total words, total emotion words, unique emotion words, and conversational turns than fathers would.

H6.) Parents of girls would use more total words, total emotion words, unique emotion words, and conversational turns than parents of boys would.

H7.) As compared to mothers of sons and all fathers, mothers of daughters would get the highest score in the number of total words, total emotion words, unique emotion words, and conversational turns.

H8.) Parents of girls would show fewer differences in the number of total words, total emotion words, unique emotion words, and conversational turns than parents of boys would.

H9.) Parents of families better at affect sharing in LTP would show fewer differences in the number of total words, total emotion words, unique emotion words, and conversational turns regardless of the child's gender.

H10.) Parents of families better at co-parenting in LTP would show fewer differences in the number of total words, total emotion words, unique emotion words, and conversational turns, regardless of the child's gender.

H11.) As the gender ideology of parents becomes more egalitarian;

- **a.)** Families would get higher scores from affect sharing regardless of the child's gender.
- **b.)** Families would get higher scores from co-parenting regardless of the child's gender.
- **c.)** Parents would have fewer differences in the number of total words, total emotion words, unique emotion words, and conversational turns regardless of the child's gender.
- **d.)** Parents would get higher scores in the number of total words, total emotion words, unique emotion words, and conversational turns regardless of the child's gender and parent's gender.
- **e.)** Children would get higher scores from child contribution function regardless of the child's gender.
- **f.)** Children would score higher in the number of total words, total emotion words, unique emotion words, and conversational turns regardless of the child's gender.

To our knowledge, when the aims and hypotheses are considered, the current study is one of the few studies in Turkey examining the link between triadic family play and reminiscence and exploring the effects of gender and gender ideology on play and reminiscing contexts. Since previous research on LTP has not shed light on LTP family dynamics on parental differences in memory talk, this was one of the unique contributions of the present study to the play and reminiscing literature. In addition,

the potential role of parental gender ideology and gender has not been studied simultaneously in the existing literature on play and reminiscing contexts.

Apart from the study's hypotheses, including only child contribution, affect sharing, and co-parenting functions of FAAS, the remaining functions (participation, organization, focalization, and interactive sequence), FAAS total family score (obtained by the sum of functions except co-parenting and child contribution), and FAAS family alliance category were also examined for exploratory purposes.

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

2.1. Participants

The sample of the current study was selected in the scope of a research project funded by the Scientific and Technological Research Council of Türkiye (TUBITAK). One-hundred and twenty-one online Zoom meetings were conducted with families who reside in several cities in Turkey, including Ankara, Adana, Adıyaman, Antalya, Aydın, Balıkesir, Bolu, Bursa, Çanakkale, Çorum, Edirne, Eskisehir, Erzincan, Erzurum, Gaziantep, Hatay, İstanbul, İzmir, Kahramanmaraş, Kayseri, Kocaeli, Konya, Manisa, Mardin, Mersin, Muğla, Samsun, Şanlıurfa, Siirt, Tekirdağ, Tokat, and Trabzon. Some inclusion criteria were applied, which included residing in a city center (families living in smaller regions including villages or towns were not accepted), having a child whose age in months was in the range between 48 and 72 months (One-month deviation was accepted for only the higher limit and thus, 73-month-old children were accepted), parents not being separated or divorced, only one child from the same family participating in the study and, no psychological or psychiatric diagnosis of parents and children. In terms of the educational background of the sample, families in which at least one parent had at least an associate degree were eligible for the current study.

After the online questionnaires of all parents who participated in the study were recorded in the Qualtrics system, the data screening process started. Since one family did not meet the education criterion and both parents were high school graduates, this family was removed from the data. Children of a few families (four children under 48 months and two children above 73 months, constituting 4.9 % of all children in the data) did not satisfy the child age criterion decided beforehand, and thus, these six

families were excluded, as well. One month deviation from the upper limit of the age criterion was accepted. Therefore, four children at 73 months of age were kept in the data. Similarly, few parents did not meet the condition of not having any psychological/psychiatric diagnosis. In one family, both parents had a psychiatric/psychological diagnosis and in four families, one of the parents had such a diagnosis. Hence, these families were also excluded. In conclusion, 12 families and of 23 parents in total (one father questionnaire was missing) were excluded from the dataset and 109 families (218 questionnaires consisting of 109 mothers and 109 fathers, and video recordings of 109 children) remained in the dataset.

All parents in the dataset were married and all of them stated that they have been living in one of the city centers of Turkey. The age range of parents was between 27 and 51 (M = 36.52, SD = 4.71). Concerning their educational backgrounds, 3 parents (1.4%) were high school graduates, 11 parents (5%) had an associate degree, 141 parents (64.7%) had a bachelor's degree, 50 parents (22.9%) had a Master's degree and remaining 13 parents (6%) had a doctorate degree. Forty-eight families (44%) reported that they have only one child, 46 families (42.2%) reported that they have two children, and the remaining 15 parents (13.7%) reported that they have either 3 or more children. Parents were asked to indicate the main caregiver of the child who participated in the study; 174 parents (79.8%) reported as the mother, 22 parents reported as the father (10.1%), 10 parents reported as the grandparent (4.6%), 6 parents (2.8%) reported as the caregiver, and the remaining 6 parents reported as the other (2.8%). Parents were also asked to state whether they have any type of chronic disease; 24 parents (11%) had a chronic disease, whereas 194 parents (89%) did not have any chronic diseases (See Table 2.1).

2.2. Measures

In the current study, the informed consent and demographic information form, and the Social Roles Questionnaire (SRQ) were given to the parents (see Appendix B). Moreover, the Family Alliance Assessment Scales (FAAS) were used to code the visual and audio data that were obtained during the Lausanne Trilogue Play (LTP) processes of families.

Table 2.1. *Socio-Demographic Characteristics of the Sample*

Parent Variables	*N* (218 participants)	*%*	*M*	*SD*
Gender				
Mothers	109	50		
Fathers	109	50		
Age			36.52	4.71
Education				
High School	3	1.4		
Associate Degree	11	5		
Bachelor's Degree	141	64.7		
Master's Degree	50	22.9		
Doctorate Degree	13	6		
Chronic Disease				
Yes	24	11		
No	194	89		
Psychological/ Diagnosis				
No	218	100		
Child Caregiver	109			
Mother	174	79.8		4.71
Father	22	10.1		
Grandparents	10	4.6		
Caregiver	6	2.8		
Other	6	2.8		
Child Variables	*N*(109 participants)	*%*	*M*	*SD*
Gender				
Girls	51	46.8		
Boys	58	53.2		
Age (months)			60.64	7.25
Chronic Disease				
Yes	9	8.3		
No	100	91.7		

Table 2.1. *(Continued)*

Child Variables	*N*(109 participants)	*%*	*M*	*SD*
Psychological/Psychiatric				
Diagnosis				
Yes	0	0		
No	109	100		
Kindergarten Time				
Before Pandemic				
Yes	39	35.8		
No	70	64.2		
Throughout Pandemic				
Yes	53	48.6		
No	56	51.4		

2.2.1. Demographic Information Form

Demographic information form included the open-ended questions about date of birth and gender of parent and child, number of children parent has, the main caregiver of the child who was going to participate in the study, marital status and education level of the parent, the city where the parent has been living in last five year of his life, and the city where the parent spent most of his life. Demographics also contained questions about whether the child went to kindergarten or not before the pandemic and during the pandemic. Parents were asked to indicate whether they or their child have any chronic diseases. In addition, the question of whether the parent or his child has any diagnosis of mental or physical illnesses was used to detect and eliminate inappropriate participants for the current study.

2.2.2. Social Roles Questionnaire (SRQ)

Social Roles Questionnaire (SRQ) was developed by Baber and Tucker (2006). This scale was created to measure individuals' attitudes toward gender roles; the score given in SRQ implies whether the individual has an egalitarian or traditional point of view regarding gender roles. Lower scores indicate more egalitarian beliefs about gender

roles. It has 13 items, each of which has a Likert-type response, showing different percentages of agreement with 10 percent intervals (i.e., 0 % means strongly disagree whereas 100 % means strongly agree). SRQ has two subscales as Gender Linked and Gender Transcendent. Gender Transcendent dimension is about the degree to which individuals conceive gender as a concept that is non-dichotomous (e.g., "*People can be both aggressive and nurturing regardless of sex.*"). It includes five reverse-coded items, and its internal consistency reliability was .65. Gender Linked dimension, on the other hand, has eight items that evaluate individuals' attitudes about whether some social roles are related to a specific gender (e.g., "*Some types of work are just not appropriate for women*.") and its internal consistency reliability was found as .77. Since Turkish version of SRQ was not available, its items were translated into Turkish, by the researcher who had a sufficient level of English proficiency. Afterward, items were retranslated into English by another researcher who had a certain degree of proficiency in English, and two versions were compared. When there was a discrepancy between the original items and retranslated items, it was discussed and settled, and eventually, this final version became ready to be shared with the participants.

To evaluate the construct validity of the Turkish version of SRQ, the exploratory factor analysis was conducted by using IBM SPSS Version 28. The data were checked beforehand to ensure the accuracy of data entry and identify missing values if any. The range of all values in the dataset was acceptable based on the frequency analysis. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was found to be as .78, and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant, $X^2_{(78)} = 758.519$, $p < .001$, indicating that the current data was quite appropriate for conducting the exploratory factor analysis (Kaiser & Rice, 1974) (See Table 2.2). Cronbach's Alpha value for Gender Transcendent subscale was .62, and it was .78 for the Gender Linked subscale, both of which show a good level of internal consistency reliability. Although, the original version of SRQ has two factors, the current analysis suggested three factors based on eigenvalues that are bigger than 1. It was found that there are three factors that have eigenvalues greater than 1; the first factor explains 29.08 %, the second factor explains 15.92 %, and the third factor explains 9.46 % of the total variance (See Table 2.3). This factor structure can also be observed in the scree plot (See Figure 2.1).

Table 2.2. *KMO and Bartlett's Test of SRQ*

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.784
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	758.519
	df	78
	Sig.	<.001

Table 2.3. *Factorial Structure of the SRQ (Unrotated Variance Values)*

Factor	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.781	29.081	29.081
2	2.070	15.921	45.002
3	1.230	9.463	54.465

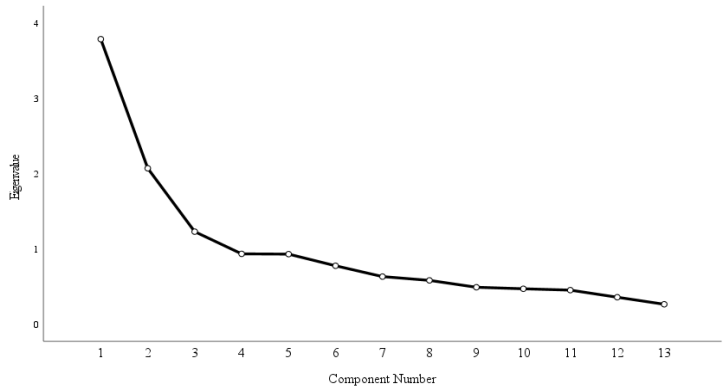


Figure 2.1. *Scree Plot Indicating the Number of Factors on the SRQ*

After deciding the number of factors on the SRQ, the distribution of items on three factors was examined by using a rotated component matrix table (See Table 2.4). It was investigated whether there are any items that load on more than one factor and whether the factor loadings are in the acceptable range (Kaya, 2013). All items except item 8 had factor loadings greater than .40, which is an acceptable value as reported by Çokluk and his colleagues (2012). Thus, item 8 was excluded from the scale. Moreover, item 5 loaded on both factors 2 and 3, since the difference between loadings was less than .10, which is referred to as a cross-loading item. As suggested by Çokluk et al. (2012), firstly item 8 was removed from the scale and the exploratory factor analysis was repeated. This time, the number of factors was fixed to two, since the

SRQ theoretically is composed of only two subscales (Baber & Tucker, 2006). Updated factor loadings and variance explained by each factor can be examined in Table 2.5, and Table 2.6., respectively. Previously cross-loaded item 5 loaded highly only in one factor in the second analysis with a factor loading of .77 and thus, it was kept in the scale. In this filtered version of SRQ, the first factor explains 31.36%, and the second factor explains 17.06 %, making the total variance explained 48.42%, which is quite a sufficient value for a reliable instrument (Çokluk et al., 2012). After the exclusion of item 8, Cronbach's Alpha values of Gender Linked and Gender Transcendent subscales became .79 and .73, indicating good levels of internal consistency reliability.

Table 2.4. *Initial Rotated Component Matrix Table*

	Factor		
	1	2	3
1. Çocuklara tanınan özgürlük, cinsiyetlerine göre değil yaşlarına ve olgunluk düzeylerine göre belirlenmelidir.	.645		
2. Bazı iş kolları kadınlar için uygun değildir.			.712
3. Bir babanın en büyük sorumluluğu, çocuklarına maddi destek sağlamaktır.		.716	
4. Ev işleri cinsiyete göre verilmemelidir.	.732		
5. Sadece bazı iş kolları hem erkekler hem de kadınlar için uygundur.		.578	.507
6. Çocukların nasıl yetiştirileceklerine dair çoğu kararı anneler vermelidir.		.650	
7. Erkekler kadınlara göre cinselliğe daha düşkündür.			.491

Table 2.4. *(Continued)*

	Factor		
	1	2	3
8. İnsanlar cinsiyetten bağımsız olarak hem saldırgan hem de şefkatli olabilir.		.333	
9. Birçok önemli iş kolu için kadınlar yerine erkekleri seçmek daha iyidir.			.545
10. Cinsiyetlerine bakılmaksızın insanlara aynı şekilde davranılmalıdır.	.726		
11. Kızlar oğlanlardan daha fazla korunmalı ve gözetilmelidir.		.617	
12. Anneler sadece gerekliyse çalışmalıdır.		.731	
13. İnsanların erkek ya da kadın olmaları hakkında düşünmeyi bırakmalı ve diğer özelliklerine odaklanmalıyız.	.838		

Afterwards, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted by using IBM SPSS AMOS Version 24 to test the validity of two-factor structure of the Turkish SRQ resulted from the exploratory factor analysis (Arbuckle, 2013). Covariance matrix and maximum likelihood estimation were used to predict the proposed model. Chi square (χ^2), Comparative fit index (CFI), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) were assessed to check the model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The original two-factor model with 12 items (The item 8 was excluded) indicated a moderate fit to the data ($\chi2(53) = 145.970$, $p = .000$, CFI = .866, RMSEA = .090). Although chi-square test was found to be significant implying poor model fit, it is well-known that chi-square test is sensitive to sample size and thus, it is better to evaluate the model fitness by considering other indices as well (Alavi et al., 2020).

Table 2.5. *Rotated Component Matrix Table After the Exclusion of the Item 8*

	Factor	
	1	2
1. Çocuklara tanınan özgürlük, cinsiyetlerine göre değil yaşlarına ve olgunluk düzeylerine göre belirlenmelidir.		.659
2. Bazı iş kolları kadınlar için uygun değildir.	.734	
3. Bir babanın en büyük sorumluluğu, çocuklarına maddi destek sağlamaktır.	.576	
4. Ev işleri cinsiyete göre verilmemelidir.		.741
5. Sadece bazı iş kolları hem erkekler hem de kadınlar için uygundur.	.767	
6. Çocukların nasıl yetiştirileceklerine dair çoğu kararı anneler vermelidir.	.676	
7. Erkekler kadınlara göre cinselliğe daha düşkündür.	.404	
9. Birçok önemli iş kolu için kadınlar yerine erkekleri seçmek daha iyidir.	.621	
10. Cinsiyetlerine bakılmaksızın insanlara aynı şekilde davranılmalıdır.		.704

Table 2.5. *(Continiued)*

	Factor	
	1	2
11. Kızlar oğlanlardan daha fazla korunmalı ve gözetilmelidir.	.568	
12. Anneler sadece gerekliyse çalışmalıdır.	.653	
13. İnsanların erkek ya da kadın olmaları hakkında düşünmeyi bırakmalı ve diğer özelliklerine odaklanmalıyız.		.820

Table 2.6. *Factorial Structure of the SRQ After the Exclusion of the Item 8 (Rotated Variance Values)*

Factor	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.763	31.361	31.361
2	2.047	17.060	48.422

Since CFI should be above .90 and RMSEA should be between .05 and .08 (Hu & Bentler, 1999), CFI and RMSEA indices of SRQ were very close to desirable values. In addition, unstandardized and standardized factor loadings of all SRQ items were highly significant. Standardized factor loadings ranged between .53 and .83 for Gender Transcendent subscale whereas they were between .23 and .79 (see Figure 2.2).

The covariance between Gender Transcendent and Gender Linked factors was .84 and the correlation between them was .38. Factor weights of the items changed from 3% to 25% for Gender Linked factor, and from 6% to 22% for Gender Transcendent factor. When the modification indices were examined, the highest covariance was between item 3 (*"A father's major responsibility is to provide financially for his children."*) and item 6 (*"Mothers should make most decisions about how children are brought up."*) of Gender Linked factor. Since these items are likely to be connected on the

theoretical level, this suggestion was approved. Thus, the covariance between them was added to the model to improve the model fit, and the analysis was repeated. Second model indicated a better fit to the data as compared to the initial one, ($\chi^2(52) = 130.20$,

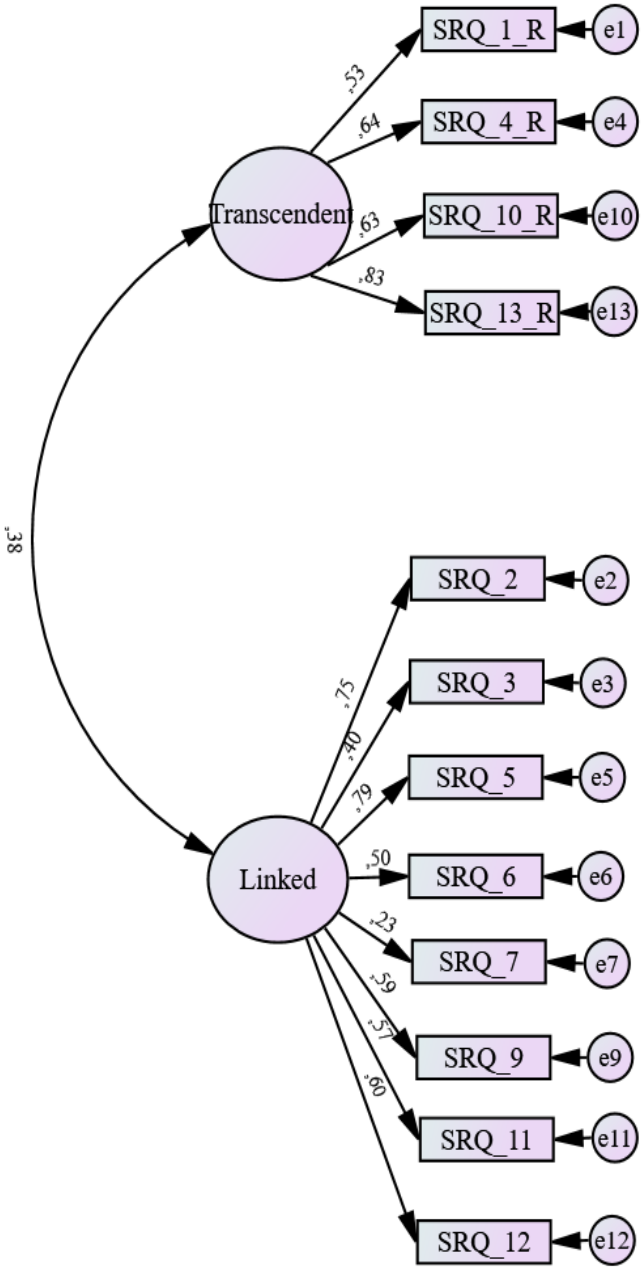


Figure 2.2. *Standardized Solutions of the First Model of SRQ Based on Confirmatory Factor Analysis*

p = .000, *CFI* = .89, *RMSEA* = .08). The modification indices indicated that the next highest covariance was between item 2 (*"Some types of work are just not appropriate for women."*) and item 7 (*"Men are more sexual than women"*) of Gender Linked factor. Yet, since these items are not very related to each other theoretically, this modification suggestion was not implemented. The second highest covariance was between the items 2 (*"Some types of work are just not appropriate for women."*) and 12 (*"Mothers should work only if necessary."*) of Gender Linked factor. Since these items tend to be relevant on the theoretical level, this suggestion was applied, and the analysis was repeated once more. This third model indicated good fit to the data, ($\chi^2(51) = 112.986$, $p = .000$, $CFI = .911$, $RMSEA = .075$). Model fit indices of three models, factor loadings, and error covariances and factor covariance were presented in Tables 2.7, 2.8, and 2.9 respectively.

Table 2.7. *Goodness-of-fit Indicators of Models for SRQ* (*N* = 218)

Model	X^2	df	CFI	RMSEA
Initial Model	145.970**	53	.866	.090
Second Model	130.196**	52	.867	.083
Final Model	112.986**	51	.911	.075

Note. *$p < .001$

Table 2.8. *Factor Loadings and Standard Errors of the Final Model of SRQ*

Items	B	*β*	SE
Gender			
Transcendent			
Item 1	1.000*	.53	-
Item 4	2.04	.64	.32
Item 10	1.98	.63	.31
Item 13	1.93	.83	.18
Gender Linked			
Item 2	1.000*	.81	-
Item 3	.36	.37	.07
Item 5	.99	.78	.09

Table 2.8. *(Continiued)*

Items	B	β	SE
Gender Linked			
Item 6	.47	.47	.07
Item 7	.26	.23	.08
Item 9	.60	.56	.08
Item 11	.65	.57	.08
Item 12	.66	.67	.08

Note. * stands for the items that were fixed to 1

Table 2.9. *Factor Covariance and Error Covariances of the Final Model of SRQ*

	Factor Covariances	**Error Covariances**
Factors		
Transcendent - Linked	.90	
Items		
Items 2-12		-1.80
Items 3-6		1.76

2.2.3. Lausanne Trilogue Play (LTP) Paradigm

Lausanne Trilogue Play (LTP) is a paradigm that was designed to observe the triadic alliance between the mother, the father, and the child during their playtime (Corboz-Warnery et al., 1993). Although LTP was initially developed for families with their infant children, later it was adapted for families with children from different age groups. LTP can be applied to diverse age groups, ranging from infancy (0-15 months) to adolescence (10-18 years old). As mentioned earlier, LTP has 4 steps; In the first two steps, the child plays with only one parent whereas the other parent is in the observer role, which makes it possible to examine dyadic relations between parent-child in detail. In the third step, on the other hand, they play together as a family and thus, this step is a demonstration of triadic interaction within the family. Parents talk about a topic they selected in the final step of LTP, which this time exemplifies the dyadic relationship between parents. It offers a great opportunity to make inferences

about both dyadic and triadic interactions within the family since LTP has both dyadic and triadic play steps.

LTP has many subtypes including standard LTP, prenatal LTP, still-face LTP, Lausanne Family Play (LFP), and PicNic Game. Prenatal LTP is conducted with parents expecting a baby, and parents are given a doll to pretend to play with this doll. Still-face LTP has four parts with slight differences from standard LTP. Mother-father-child triad plays together in the first and fourth parts of LTP. In the second part, one of the parents plays with the child whereas the other parent becomes the observer. In the third part, parent who was active in the second phase, shows a still-face to the child whereas the passive parent continues to be the observer. LFP is similar to standard LTP, but it is applied to families with more than one child. Lastly, PicNic game includes a different context from standard LTP; families are asked to pretend as if they will have a picnic together and materials include toys like animals, cell phones, and toy kitchen sets (Favez et al., 2017). In the current study, the standard version of LTP was applied.

Since the current study was interested in families with preschool-aged children, it was specified by the trainer that the LTP for a family with a baby normally should last eight to 10 minutes. Thus, it was suggested by the trainer that it would be better to allow for families with preschool-aged children to play around 15 minutes. In the standard LTP procedure with the preschoolers, it was explained during the LTP training that the most appropriate toys for creating an interactive family environment are socks, spoons, and animal figure toys. LTP requires three socks, three spoons, and three animal figure toys for each family member. The reason is that these materials encourage families to create an interactive play since the materials do not mean anything by themselves. Moreover, these materials are thought to be useful for creativity and make-believe play. Therefore, families were asked to play with these play materials during the LTP in the present study.

In our study, some creative families preferred different games by using these materials. For instance, one family member sorted the materials in a certain way, and other active play partners tried to sort the same materials based on this order after briefly looking at their order. Some families preferred to use materials to make music, while others

hid figure toys in the socks, and the other family members tried to guess which figure was inside. Whatever type of play was preferred in LTP by the family, observing family dynamics was possible within each family's play.

2.2.4. Family Alliance Assessment Scales (FAAS)

The Family Alliance Assessment Scales (FAAS) were generated by Scaiola et al. (2013) and his friends. This scale is administered during a LTP environment meaning that the mother, father, and child form an interaction triangle in which they can play as a whole family. Coding of FAAS includes 5 functions of the family during play: participation, organization, focalization, affect sharing, interactive sequence, co-parenting, and child contribution. Subscales of each function can be seen in Table 2.7. The categorical assessment of FAAS consists of three alliance types; disordered, conflicted, and cooperative. Disordered alliance is described as families who are unable to fulfill the participation function, meaning that one family member stays out of the interaction during play. Conflicted alliance refers to the situation when families can fulfill participation but have difficulty with the organization of the play. They are prepared to interact with each other, but they cannot actualize the interactive role they need to follow in each stage of the play.

If a family can complete both participation and organization functions, then their type of alliance can be described as cooperative. Each alliance type has also two subtypes; cooperative alliance can be *fluid* or *tense*, the conflicted alliance can be *covert* or *overt*, and disordered alliance can be *exclusive* or *chaotic* (Scaiola et al., 2013) (See Table 2.10).

The fluid subtype is characterized by families in which the interactions are flexible, the family members are empathic and respectful to each other. Such families easily complete the stages of the LTP, all members actively construct the games, and coordination between the members is easily observed. The tense subtype, on the other hand, is characterized by families in which emotional sharing or co-construction processes can sometimes come to a standstill. Such families need some time to form a collaboration in the play. Hence, the LTP does not continue smoothly in such families as in the fluid subtype.

The covert subtype of the conflicted alliance is valid for families in which there are indications of implicit conflict between the members but there is not any obvious aggression. Parents of such families are in an implicit competition reflected by ironic or forced smiles. Unlike the covert subtype, the families are expected to show signs of verbal aggressiveness including sarcastic or critical comments in the overt subtype.

The most problematic alliance type is the disordered alliance. The exclusive subtype is defined as families in which one parent is excluded from the interactions due to his/her preference or due to the other parent's deliberate course of action. The child becomes disengaged most of the time by crying and this disengagement is the result of problematic interactions rather than the physical need of the child such as hunger. Still, parent-child relations might be intact in some families. The chaotic subtype is observed in families in which there is disharmony in both dyadic and triadic interactions including parent-child relations. Parents may behave in an insensible or unresponsive manner to the child. Additionally, the structure of the play is missing.

According to Scaiola et al. (2013), each subscale is rated on a 3-point Likert type scale as inappropriate, moderate, and appropriate. Yet, for the current study, a 4-point Likert-type scale was utilized to make the coding more variant and easier by dividing the moderate rating into two ratings that are low moderate and high moderate. Therefore, by using the short manual of FAAS (Scaiola et al., 2013) ratings were adjusted based on a 4 point-Likert-type scale. In addition, when the ratings obtained from each subscale except the Coparenting and Child Contribution functions are summed up, the Total Family Score is obtained. Psychometric properties of FAAS seem to be promising since Favez et al. (2011) indicated that FAAS has good interrater reliability and validity. FAAS also showed high internal consistency (Cronbach a = .92). All the functions and their subscales will be explained in detail (See Table 2.11).

2.2.4.1. Participation

This function is about the degree to which the family forms an area for the interplay that is accessible to every family member. This area provides the sitting arrangement that is necessary for the interaction between each member. The best sitting arrangement for triadic play (i.e., the LTP) is when the family members sit around the

play table in a triad to constitute as if a kind of "interaction triangle" (See Figure 2.3). For the square play table, parents sit across each other while the child sits in between them. If the table is rectangular, the child sits on one of the short sides of the table, while the parents sit on two longer sides. For round tables, the parents again create the interaction triangle by placing the child in between them.

Table 2.10. *The Family Characteristics of the Family Alliance Types & Subtypes*

Alliance Types	**Subtypes**	
Cooperative:	Fluid	Tense
	flexible interactions empathy respectfulness for the roles easiness with the LTP stages co-construction of the games coordinated family members	minor problems in emotional sharing or co-construction family members need time to collaborate the play is not smooth as in the fluid type
Conflicted:	Overt	Covert
	Aggressiveness such as sarcastic or critical comments	implicit conflict but not obvious aggression implicit competition between parents via ironic/forced smiles
Disordered:	Exclusive	Chaotic
	exclusion of one parent due to his/her own preference or other parent's deliberate actions disengagement of the child by crying due to the interaction (not due to child's physical needs, etc.) parent-child relation might be intact in some families	disharmony in the interactions including the parent-child relations (insensibility or lack of responsiveness in the parenting) the structure in the play is missing

This function considers the indicators of availability to interact which are about how the family members adjust their body positions (postures) and the engaged behavior of each member. It facilitates the family's triadic play. Two subscales of this function are *"Signals of Readiness to Interact: Postures"* and *"Signal of Readiness to Interact: Gazes"* (Scaiola et al., 2013).

Table 2.11. *Subscales of FAAS Functions*

Function	**Subscales**
Participation	Posture
	Gaze
Organization	Implication of each partner in its role
	Fulfillment of the task
Focalization	Co-construction
	Parental scaffolding
Affect Sharing	Family warmth
	Validation of the child's emotional experience
	Authenticity of the expressed affects
Interactive Sequence	Repairs of interactive mistakes during activities
	Repairs of interactive mistakes during transitions
Coparenting	Support and cooperation
	Conflict and disruptive interferences
Child Contribution	**During infancy:** Infant's engagement & Self-regulation
	During toddlerhood: Toddler's engagement & Assertiveness
	During preschool and school age: Child's engagement & Goal-directed partnership

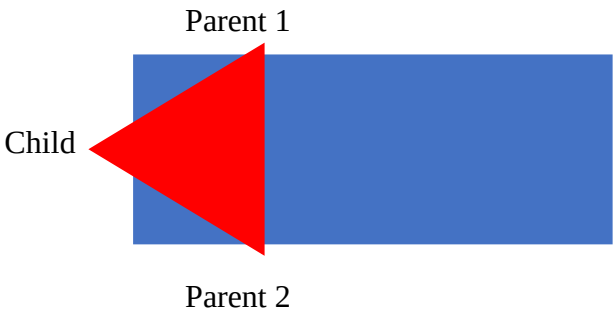


Figure 2.3. *The Interaction Triangle Showing Participation Function on a Rectangular Table*

2.2.4.1.1. Signals of Readiness to Interact: Postures

Signals of postures that reveal the readiness to interact are body orientation and family members' global attitude. The body positions of each member should be adjusted toward the interaction triad. In terms of global attitude, family members are supposed to be in tune with each other and react to the interaction via changeable facial expressions in accordance with the interaction, indicating involvement in what the others are doing. There might be two possible disorientations in the family that are preventive of the interaction as partial engagement or disengagement. In the partial engagement, the body parts of the family member(s) exemplify incoherence; while one body part is adjusted toward the interaction triangle, the other part is adjusted toward somewhere else. In cases of disengagement, the whole body of the family member(s) is adjusted toward somewhere else other than the interaction triangle, which causes breaks in the interaction or even blocks the interaction to start. These situations can be evident both in the parents and the child (Scaiola et al., 2013).

2.2.4.1.2. Signals of Readiness to Interact: Gazes

Gazes of the family members during the LTP are clear representations of being engaged socially. The gazes of the members should be focused on the triadic interaction and be reciprocal, which makes the family receive the highest score from this subscale. "Diverted gaze" occurs when one of the family members steers toward somewhere else other than the other members of the joint activity. Thus, the communication between the members breaks up. However, when evaluating the play performance of the families on this subscale, the raters should be aware that diverted gaze should not result from any external causes such as a sudden noise, such cases should not be regarded as diverted gaze (Scaiola et al., 2013).

2.2.4.2. Organization

This function is about how the family members arrange the play that they should complete. According to the rules of LTP, family members should take distinct roles in each stage of the play, the time of the play is determined, and they need to conform to the script of the four steps of LTP. Before taking the roles, family members should signalize either orally or by using the body language of who is going to take the

specified role. The role of the member depends on the script of each LTP step; sometimes the members should be active, and other times they should be passive. In addition, parents are supposed to show respect for the four steps of the LTP script within a certain time. The visual representation of this function can be seen in Figure 2.6. Two subscales as *"Implication of Each Partner in Its Role"* and *"Fulfillment of the Task"* are used to assess the organization function (Scaiola et al., 2013).

2.2.4.2.1. Implication of Each Partner in Its Role

For this subscale, one of the important criteria is the distance between each parent's torso during the LTP. There are two possible distances the parents can demonstrate; play distance and control distance (See Figure 2.4). In the play distance, the parent gets physically closer to the child by stooping to give the message that he or she is actively engaged with the child. In the control distance, on the other hand, the parent adjusts his or her body position as physically distant to state that he or she is not active in the game at that time but just observes the child or is just simply present there (Scaiola et al., 2013).

In the first two parts of LTP, only one parent should be actively involved with the child at play distance whereas the other parent should be passive at control distance. In the third part, since both parents should be actively engaged in the play, both should be at play distance. In the last part, parents should discuss a topic they select and thus, both should be at control distance. Physical distance is important for the creation of an ideal environment for the child to engage with the parents based on each step of LTP. Specifically, when at the play distance, the parents should initiate and maintain eye contact with the child to keep the child in the game until the end of the LTP duration (Scaiola et al., 2013). According to Scaiola et al. (2013), parents' adjustment of hips and torso is essential, too. In the first three parts of LTP, the parents' hips and torso should be adjusted toward the child but in the last part, the parents should adjust their hips and torso toward each other. Moreover, parents can also adjust the seat of the child in accordance with each LTP part. This is very important for small children who are younger than 6 months of age since they cannot adjust their seats themselves without any help.

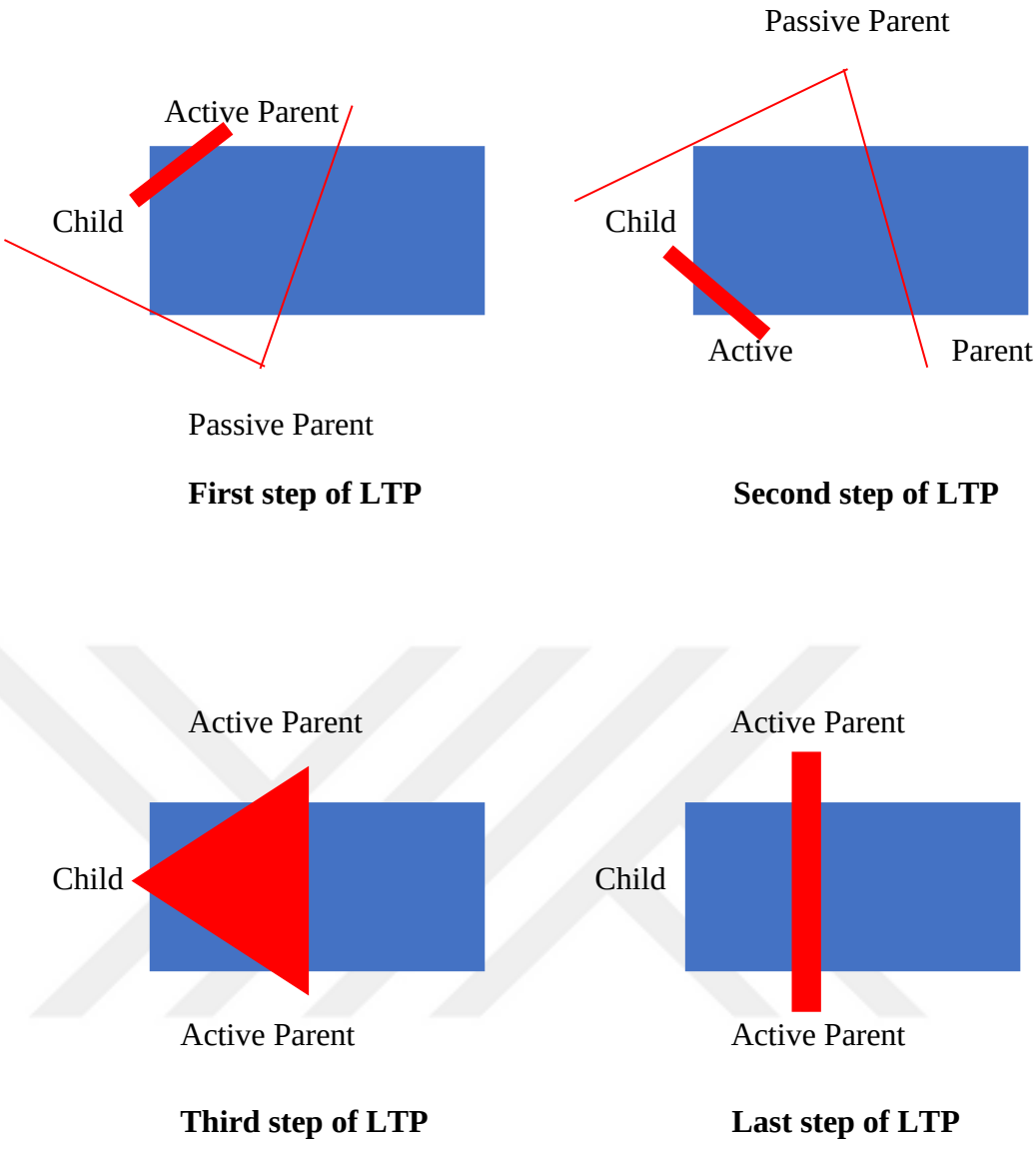


Figure 2.4. *The Visual Representation of Organization Function*

Scaiola and his colleagues also stated that some families may exemplify disorganization; the parent who is supposed to be a passive partner in one of the LTP steps may act like an active partner, make a comment, or laugh boisterously. That means disrespect for the role that should be conformed and interference in the play between the active parent and the child. If both parents try to interfere with the ongoing play to get the attention of the child, then it is called competition. Interferences and competition impair the roles that parents should take in the LTP.

Scaiola and his friends also noted the difference between participation and organization functions. They explained that although some aspects of the organization

are quite similar to those of the participation function, their evaluations are not the same. The participation function looks at whether body parts are in tune with the interaction triad or not. Organization function judges whether body parts are in tune with the correct partner based on the LTP rules.

2.2.4.2.2. Fulfillment of the Task

Each LTP part should be clearly carried out by the family so that the coder of the FAAS can easily detect each stage (1. One parent plays with the child while the other is just present there, 2. They change their roles, 3. All family members play together, 4. Only parents talk to each other, the child is just present there). The timing of the play should be ideal as well, it should not be too short to construct a well-structured play or too long making the child tired or bored. Parents should consider the child's current state and set the timing accordingly. For children older than one-year-old, 15 minutes of LTP duration on average would be enough. Still, the timing is dependent on the interaction context; if the child is bored or tired, the parents should play for shorter amounts of time, or if the child is still ready to continue the play, a longer time duration would be appropriate.

2.2.4.3. Focalization

Focalization is defined as family members' ability to create a shared interest or engage in activities in general and it is about the content of the interplay. Such activities in the first three parts of LTP may be a game, a debate, or any kind of activity including cooperation. Two subscales of this function are *"Co-construction"* and *"Parental Scaffolding".*

2.2.4.3.1. Co-Construction

How capable the family is in terms of co-construction of the activities is assessed by this subscale. Active family members should initiate activities and promote continuing activity to form a shared focal point. The turn-taking of each active member should be evident during the play.

2.2.4.3.2. Parental Scaffolding

The level of stimulation by the parents for the child constitutes the evaluation of this subscale. When too much stimulation is targeted to the child, "overstimulation" is considered. When there is too little stimulation for the child, "under-stimulation" is in question. Chaotic stimulation is the case when the parents provide the child with both overstimulation and under-stimulation simultaneously. Limit-setting behaviors of the parents are another important key point for this subscale. Ideally, parents should not engage in oppressive or indifferent behaviors when setting limits for their children. Rather, they should show flexibility when managing the behaviors of their children that cross the line. When the child has difficulty following the rules of the LTP, parents have an obligation to remind the child of the instructions of the LTP.

2.2.4.4. Affect Sharing

According to Scaiola et al. (2013), this function refers to the general emotional atmosphere and emotional cycling among family members during LTP. "*Family Warmth*", "*Validation of the Child's Emotional Experience*", and "*Authenticity of the Expressed Affects*" subscales are used to evaluate this function.

2.2.4.4.1. Family Warmth

Scaiola et al. (2013) claimed that since the aim of the play is to have a good time, positive emotional trade between family members is anticipated during LTP. The evaluation of this subscale includes checking whether there are any signs of reciprocal smiles, humorous remarks, mimics, and gestures indicating affection. For a family to receive the highest score, the coder should see at least one moment in which all family members are in a favorable triadic affectionate sharing. In such moments, all members of the family may be laughing or smiling together. In fact, even when one of the parents is in the observer role (stages 1 or 2 of LTP) and not active in the play, that parent may look happy and excited like other active family members, which is a manifestation of triadic sharing.

2.2.4.4.2. Validation of the Child's Emotional Experience

According to Scaiola et al. (2013), parents in a healthy family engage in behaviors considering their child's emotional state. Families are rated as appropriate if parents show such in-tune behaviors most of the time during the play. They are conscious of how the child might be feeling and they validate the child's emotions by making comments about the child's emotions. Such parents may indicate both overt and covert validation, both of which are essential for a child's emotional development. When the validation is implicit, parents realize the child's indicators and behave accordingly, they mimic the child, and they show or project similar feelings to the child. When the validation is explicit, parents refer to the child's feelings, behaviors, or thoughts. For instance, a parent might say "You look hungry! "or "I see that you feel disappointed". Thus, it was suggested that coders should observe every time parents make mentalization implicitly or explicitly. It was also mentioned that this scale can be accepted as in the scope of the broader term parental sensitivity.

2.2.4.4.3. Authenticity of the Expressed Affects

When the expressed emotions of parents are consistent with the context, they are called "authentic". To illustrate, behaviors indicating shame (weird laughs, etc.…) are associated with authenticity. Families with too many positive emotions (especially the families in which the parents want to avoid tensions with exaggerated laughter) receive a "moderate" rating on this scale. Such emotions are not consistent with the context since they are not genuine feelings but just serve as a tool in the family to ignore the relational problems.

For a family to receive the lowest evaluation on this scale, which is "inappropriate" may signify the presence of psychopathology of the problematic parent(s) in that family. The coder might feel sad and not understand the reason behind that sadness. This may be because family members indicate conflicting behaviors such as simultaneous moments of engagement together with disengagement during the play. When one family member fails to connect with other family members on the affection level most of the time, this family ends up with inappropriate evaluation, too. An example would be a parent tickling the child so that the child laughs instantly, without

creating an environment that will indirectly make the child laugh. This behavior cannot be authentic behavior at all since the real emotions are absent there and thus, such families are coded as inappropriate, as well.

2.2.4.5. Interactive Sequence

During the LTP, the interaction between the family members does not always flow smoothly and sometimes it breaks due to changes in the play or subject matter of the interaction. Such breaks result in some interaction failures such as missing eye contact, mismatch in the gestures and mimics, offering a different activity other than the ongoing one, etc. to happen. At such times, if the family members adapt immediately and recover from these failures, this is called "repair", making the interaction mistakes less visible. Yet, if they have a problem in the adaptation process and thus, the recovery is not immediate, the degree of interaction mistakes increases substantially and turns out to be more observable. *"Repairs of Interactive Mistakes During Activities"* and *"Repairs of Interactive Mistakes During Transitions"* are the subscales of this function (Scaiola et al., 2013).

2.2.4.5.1. Repairs of Interactive Mistakes During Activities

How effective the readjustment of the family is after an interactive mistake is evaluated by this subscale. Repairs of such mistakes can be verbal (the statements such as "Sorry for interrupting", "What is your plan about the game?", etc.) or nonverbal (making eye contact, reciprocal smiles, use of gestures, or mimics, etc.). According to Scaiola and his colleagues, three types of repairs can be possible in the LTP. In the case of effective repairs, readjustment of the members after the interactive failure happens very quickly and members succeed in triadic sharing. In the case of time-and-energy-consuming repairs, the family dynamics require overt negotiation and exertion, which takes time to achieve a solution. If such a dysfunctional repair happens a couple of times, interactions create a chaotic environment in the play, which can even stop the play. In the case of unresolved interactive repairs, family members cannot be successful in fixing the breaks in the interaction at all, bringing about another mistake like the domino effect. Finally, the family members even stop trying to adapt to each other,

making the interactive sequence disrupted. Repetitive disruptions in the interaction cause negative family dynamics.

2.2.4.5.2. Repairs of Interactive Mistakes During Transitions

The coders should pay attention to the transition points of the LTP for this subscale. It is observed whether the members orient their body parts, the child's seat, their distances of the interaction (play vs control distance), eye contact, and verbal expressions to permit the transition from one stage to the next one. For a transition to happen ideally, two factors are needed; the first one is that one parent verbally or nonverbally expresses the change from one part to another by signalizing that he or she is ready for the role shift. Secondly, the other parent approves it by nodding or showing the required body adaptation. The coder may also observe covert compromise via nonverbal behaviors and/or overt compromise via verbal statements or advice.

2.2.4.6. Coparenting

Scaiola et al. (2013) suggested that the rater should observe the co-parenting system in the family. The degree to which parents support each other and are in cooperation to boost each other's parental role is considered when evaluating the co-parenting system. "*Support and Cooperation*" and "*Conflict and Disruptive Interferences*" were created to evaluate this function.

2.2.4.6.1. Support and Cooperation

The coders should check the presence of support indications such as nodding, mutual laughs, positive remarks, etc. This kind of support can show itself when the parents try to compromise during play organization. Moreover, the support can be both overt (for instance, the parent in the observer role verbally appreciates an idea of the other parent who is playing with the child at that time) or covert (for instance, the observer parent just smiles when the other parent and the child laugh during the play). Behaviors that are associated with cooperation nourish the other parent's parenting ("Look at the castle that your mommy made!").

Scaiola et al. (2013) specifically explained that sometimes one parent may interfere with the dyadic relationship between the other parent and the child for the purpose of supporting the other parent and such cases should be accepted by the coders as positive indications of support rather than conflict. Such supportive interferences are not problematic. Yet, when there is a disruptive interference from one parent to another intentionally to break the interaction between the other parent and the child, the coders should think of these as negative indications of conflict and consider them in the scope of the "Conflict and Disruptive interferences" subscale.

As an important note, the authors also addressed the difference between cooperation and coalition within the parental system. In cases of cooperation, parental collaboration for the sake of the child is observed. In cases of coalition, on the other hand, parents cooperate "against" the child. Parents in coalition do not show any cooperation normally but they may be supportive of each other at some point during the play when they are judgmental towards their child, which is harmful to the child's well-being. They only collaborate when they are about to make a criticism about a child's behavior. Such coalitions should not be evaluated as a positive indication of parental cooperation.

2.2.4.6.2. Conflict and Disruptive Interferences

It was suggested that parents generally do not show obvious signs of conflict during LTP since they know that they are observed by the researchers. Hence, they are likely to show their conflict in a more indirect way. When the dyadic relationship between the active parent and the child is disrupted by the other parent, such interventions are considered typical conflict behaviors between parents. To illustrate, parents may have difficulty in deciding on a certain activity; each parent tries to convince the other family members about their preferences. Another type of disruptive interference might be one parent breaking the dyadic interaction between his spouse and his child. This can be either verbal (e.g., Making a negative comment, laughing loudly, or preventing the other parent from taking the initiative) or behavioral interference (e.g., Doing a body movement that attracts the attention of the dyad). When there is no actual intervention or the intervention is very brief and thus, active family members can focus their attention on their previous activity, that means the interference level is minimum.

When the intervention of the third-party parent ruins the dyadic interaction between the other parent and the child, and when they have difficulty in building a novel shared activity, that means the interference level is maximum. Disruptive interferences are in question, especially in the first and second parts of LTP in which the observer or third-party parent is expected only to be present there but should not interfere with the dyadic interaction. Yet, we can observe such interferences in the third part of LTP, too. Sometimes, one parent tries to block the play between the dyadic relation rather than being a part of that interaction. Furthermore, the last part of LTP can reveal the conflict between parents during the discussion between them. Conflict can be both direct (e.g., exhibiting aggressive and hostile attitudes) and indirect (e.g., sarcastic comments including humor but also aggression toward other family members and faking positivity) (Scaiola et al., 2013).

2.2.4.7. Child Contribution

In this scale, the coders should assess the autonomy of the child based on two elements. The first element is the level of interaction with the parents; the child is supposed to convey sufficient signs about her mental state to let her parents adapt. The second element is to which extent the child can handle developmental hardships to enhance her interaction with her parents about the shared activity. If the child is preschool or school age, two subscales are used to assess this function: "Child's engagement" and "Goal-directed partnership" (Scaiola et al., 2013).

2.2.4.7.1. Child Engagement

A healthy child is supposed to transmit certain signs to the parents so that the parents can behave accordingly. Both verbal and nonverbal language and facial expressions of the child aim at interacting and connecting with them (Scaiola et al., 2013).

2.2.4.7.2. Goal-directed Partnership

Goal-directed partnership evaluates whether the child can take the initiative to make a cooperation with the parents during play. The child should enhance the shared activities with her contributions to the play like her parents. When the parents do not

interact with her (e.g., in the last part of LTP), she should be able to stay alone a little bit and play by herself, but at the same time, she should not disengage from her parents.

2.3. Coding Schemes of Reminiscing Conversations

In the family reminiscing task, families were instructed to discuss a time-specific event that was shared by all family members for five minutes. Undergraduate students were trained in how to transcribe the triadic memory conversations within a certain framework. After they transcribed the conversations, the transcriptions were double-checked by two researchers and if there are any mistakes, missing or additional words or expressions, they were corrected. Moreover, researchers made sure that any identificatory information such as the gender or name of the child was eliminated from the transcriptions (Bird & Reese, 2006).

Based on the transcriptions, the coding schemes that were used to quantify these triadic conversations were the number of total words used, the number of emotion words used, and the number of unique emotion words used.

2.3.1. Number of Emotion Words

Emotion words included words either pointing to internal states of emotion (e.g., feelings of sadness, happiness, or anger) or words representing emotion-related behaviors (crying, yelling at someone) (Bird & Reese, 2006). Repetitions of such words were also counted. For example, if the child used the word “happy” three times during the reminiscing, the coder counted all of them when calculating the number of emotion words.

2.3.2. Number of Unique Emotion Words

Number of unique emotion words was obtained by excluding the emotion words that were repeated by the participant. For instance, in the case of the child participant who used the word “happy” three times during the reminiscing, this time the coder counted that word only once to find out the number of unique emotion words. Thanks to this scheme, it became possible to assess the variety of emotion words used by the participant (Schrauf & Sanchez, 2004).

2.3.3. Composition

As a part of the hypotheses of the current study, each family member's level of participation in the triadic reminiscing needed to be known. To reach this aim, the number of all the words used by the mother, father, and child was calculated by the researchers separately. In addition, the total number of lines for each family member was calculated as well so that turn-taking rates in the reminiscing conversation can be observed clearly (Leech & Rowe, 2021).

2.4. Procedure

Initially, ethical approval was obtained from the Human Subjects Ethics Committee at Middle East Technical University (METU) (See Appendix A). In order to make the data collection process as smooth and reliable as possible, online training about data gathering and coding processes in the LTP was received by the trainer from the Lausanne University Hospital. During the training, a few pilot data (i.e., examples of Zoom video recordings of LTP) were collected by the project team and they were given feedback on them. After the training process was completed, a workshop class in which undergraduate students were trained on the data-gathering process was available in the next semester. They were informed about the basic literature information about both LTP and family reminiscence, and they were trained about how to interact with families in the family recruitment process. They were also trained about the technical issues including how to adjust the camera angles according to the LTP settings, how to do video recording in Zoom, etc. As a class assignment, each student uploaded an example Zoom video record in which the LTP process was applied and then, they received feedback about their videos. Thus, they developed the competency to carry out the whole data-gathering process. Voluntary students gave instructions to the families under the supervision of the project team member. Students were also trained in how to transcribe triadic memory conversations within the family.

Families were informed about the LTP seating arrangement beforehand; they had the opportunity to see both a figure and real family example photos from one of our pilot studies so that they could make necessary adjustments before the Zoom meeting (see Figure 2.5). Families were asked to use two cameras for Zoom meetings. One of the

cameras was put behind the child's back and above the child's head so that we could see each family member's body and parents' faces clearly. The second camera was on the table, showing the child's face. Beforehand, we had decided to direct families to use a kitchen table since we thought that it can create the most appropriate LTP setting. Yet, some of the families used their tables in the living room since they claimed that the kitchen table was not appropriate for the LTP arrangement. For every meeting with families, one of the project team members joined Zoom together with an undergraduate student. Each student was expected to find four families in the scope of the workshop class. In the family interviews, undergraduate students were just in the role of observer during the whole interview. The project team members who were trained in the LTP process gave the whole instructions of LTP and memory conversations to the families. If there are any technical problems including LTP settlement, undergraduate students tried to give support to the project team member and the family.

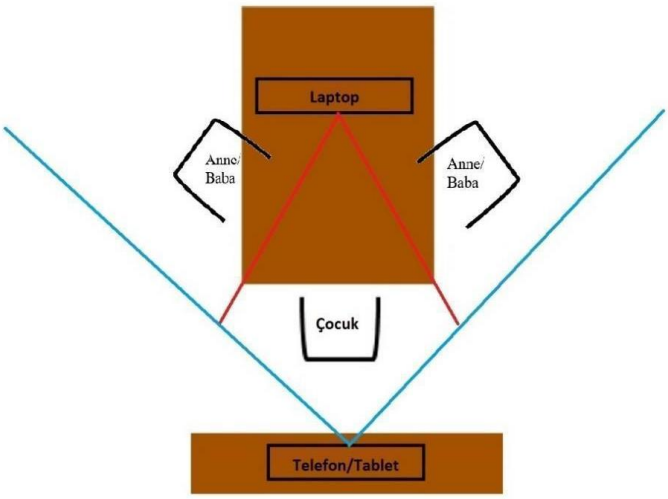


Figure 2.5. *Figure of LTP Setting Arrangement and Camera Angles*

At the beginning of the meeting, the researchers introduced themselves to the family and started to have a little conversation with the family to build rapport. After checking the camera angles and brightness of the family's video, researchers asked parents to bring three socks, three spoons, and three figure toys for the play, which was adopted from the original research of Favez et al. (2017) that explained the standard LTP. For the first part of LTP in which one parent is supposed to play with the child while the other parent should be a third party, the parent's gender was counterbalanced

considering the child's gender. Each student was supposed to find two families with sons and two families with daughters. Thus, for one family with a daughter, the mother started the first part of LTP while for the other family with a daughter, the father started. The same procedure was applied to families with sons.

After having families bring the play materials (Three socks, three spoons, and three animal figure toys) Families were instructed as follows:

"Now, we want you to play as a family. This play has four parts; In the first part, Mr/Mrs ____ (name of the father/mother), you are going to play with your child. During this step, you, Mr/Mrs __ (name of the father/mother), you are going to be just present there. Afterward, Mr/Mrs ____ (name of the father/mother), you are going to play with your child in the second part. This time, you, Mr/Mrs __ (name of the father/mother), you are going to be just present there. In the third part, you are going to play together as a family. In the final part, Mr ___ (father's name) and Mrs __ (mother's name), you are going to talk about a topic that you select similar to your daily conversations. In this final part, your child is going to be just present there. If she/he wants, he/she can play with the play materials, but she/he should stay in his/her seat until you complete the last part. We want to remind you that all of you should try to stay in the video frame during the play. We expect the whole play to last around 15 minutes. The transitions between play parts are totally up to you, we are not going to intervene and not remind you of the transitions. To make you feel comfortable, we are going to turn off our microphones and cameras, and we are going to move away from the screen but if you need us, we are going to be at a distance that makes it possible for us to hear you. When you are finished, you can call us."

Besides, just before they start the tasks, parents were asked to hide their own camera views in Zoom so that both themselves and their children could maintain their attention during the tasks.

After families completed the LTP procedure, the project member told parents that they can give a five-minute break if they need but if they don't need it, still the project team needs to have at least two minutes to make some adjustments. The reason for such a break was to clear participants' minds for the next task. After the break, the family

continued with the reminiscing task. Before starting this task, they were told to remove the play material so that family members, especially the child, should stay focused on the upcoming task. Parents were also told to bring two pieces of paper and two pencils. Parents were instructed to write down two events meeting certain criteria. The event they were going to talk about should not be a daily routine of the family members. Rather, it should be a time-specific event and each family member (especially the child) should be able to remember the event. Each parent was expected to think of two events separately so that we could make sure that at least one of the memories is suitable for the study criteria. To prevent parents from interacting with each other and deciding to discuss the same memory, they were instructed not to talk to each other before they tell events to the researchers. They were instructed as follows:

"Now we want you to talk about five minutes about an event that all of you experienced and remember. This event should be experienced by all of you and all of you should be able to remember it. This event should not be one of the routines that you have on a daily or weekly basis, it should be a time-specific event. Now, Mrs ___ (mother's name) and Mr __ (father's name), you can think of two events meeting these criteria separately and you can write down a few keywords that remind you of these events. Please do not talk to each other before telling us the events you selected."

When all the events met the criteria, the researchers asked the family's opinion about choosing one of the memories. After parents came up with the events and researchers confirmed the events, they started talking about the event they agreed on. Like the LTP procedure, the cameras and microphones of the researchers were turned off during the reminiscing talk of the families to make them feel comfortable and make their talk natural as much as possible. Toward the end of the Zoom meeting, parents were asked to fill out an online questionnaire that included demographics and Social Roles Questionnaire (SRQ). As an incentive, each child participant received a METU diploma and parents were sent a brochure about the general development of preschool-aged children. At the end of the Zoom meeting, the researchers thanked each family member for their precious participation.

2.5. Statistical Analyses

Statistical analyses were conducted by IBM Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 28th version for the current study. To test the factor structure of the Turkish version of the Social Roles Questionnaire (SRQ), exploratory factor analysis was performed in SPSS 28. Moreover, IBM Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) AMOS 24th version was utilized to test the original two-factor structure of SRQ by conducting the confirmatory factor analysis (Arbuckle, 2013). A series of correlation analyses for descriptive purposes were conducted. For hypotheses testing, several independent samples t-test analyses, mixed design 2 X 2 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), and hierarchical regression analyses were carried out.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

3.1. Data Screening

After the completion of the data collection process, the dataset was examined through IBM SPSS 28 regarding data entry, missing values, and how the scores were distributed. There was only one missing case since one of the fathers did not fill in the questionnaires. As explained in the method section, although the initial dataset was composed of 121 families, the data of 12 families and of 23 parents in total (one father questionnaire was missing) were taken out since they did not meet the criteria of the current study. Thus, 109 families (327 participants) remained in the dataset. Outliers were checked by converting the raw scores on the variables into z scores to seek whether there are any scores that fall behind the range of +3.29 and -3.29, as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2013). When the z-score transformation was done for each study variable and z scores were examined, five outliers in total were found for the memory conversation variables of mother's and father's number of total words, father's and child's total emotion, and unique emotion words. Yet, it was decided to conduct the required analyses with these outliers included, as it was thought these were natural variations in the dataset (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

3.2. Descriptive Analyses of the Measures of the Study

Before testing the hypotheses of the study, descriptive statistics were conducted for both individual-level and family-level variables. Table 3.1 presented the means, standard deviations, and ranges of the continuous variables. Frequencies and percentages of the categorical variable, FAAS family alliance types were also shown in Table 3.2. Rather than using the individual scores of FAAS subscales, function scores were calculated by calculating the means of individual subscales. To illustrate,

for the FAAS affect sharing function, the mean of its subscales (i.e., family warmth, validation of child's emotional experience, and authenticity of expressed affect) was calculated and used in the analyses. Similar procedures were applied to obtain each FAAS function's scores.

Table 3.1. *Means, Standard Deviations and Ranges of Continuous Variables*

Variables	*M* *(N =109)*	*SD* *(N = 109)*	*Minimum* *(N = 109)*	*Maximum* *(N = 109)*
Child Variables				
Total words	91.43	59.04	8	287
Total emotion words	1.90	2.39	0	13
Unique emotion words	1.25	1.32	0	6
Conversational turn-taking	26.76	14.77	2	65
Child contribution	2.06	.60	.5	3
Maternal Variables				
Total words	185.26	110.56	43	637
Total emotion words	4.33	3.76	0	15
Unique emotion words	2.74	1.99	0	9
Conversational turn-taking	28.25	14.11	7	72
Paternal Variables				
Total words	147.17	85.84	9	436
Total emotion words	2.83	2.77	0	15
Unique emotion words	1.88	1.53	0	7
Conversational turn-taking	24.83	13.07	2	64
Family Variables				
SRQ family score	33.28	15.03	7	70
FAAS Total family score	19.63	5.68	3	31
FAAS- Affect sharing	2.21	.61	.67	3.00
FAAS- Co-parenting	2.37	.53	1	3
FAAS- Participation	1.92	.70	.5	3
FAAS- Organization	1.29	.86	0	3
FAAS- Focalization	1.55	.60	0	3
FAAS- Interactive sequence	1.74	.81	0	3

3.3. Interrater Reliabilities of Reminiscing Coding Schemes and FAAS

Since two different coders coded both the LTP paradigm based on FAAS and memory conversations, intraclass correlation coefficients (ICC) were calculated for both through IBM SPSS 28. As can be seen in Table 3.3, the lowest coefficient for FAAS was the family warmth subscale with an ICC value of .80, while the highest coefficient was found to be the posture subscale with an ICC value of 1.00. For the coding of memory conversations, ICC values ranged between .92 and .99.

3.4. Correlations Between the Continuous Study Variables

For the continuous study variables of FAAS, Social Roles Questionnaire (SRQ) family score (the means of the parents in the same family), and the coding of memory conversations, bivariate correlations were calculated by IBM SPSS 28. Pearson correlation coefficients were presented in Table 3.4.

Table 3.2. *Frequencies and Percentiles of FAAS Categorical Variable*

Variables	*f (N = 109)*	*% (N = 109)*
FAAS family alliance type		
Cooperative		
Fluid	1	0.9
Tense	41	37.6
Conflicted		
Covert	41	37.6
Overt	18	16.5
Disordered		
Exclusive	3	2.8
Chaotic	5	4.6

Table 3.3. *Interrater Reliabilities of FAAS and Reminiscing*

Variables	ICC
FAAS	
Posture	1.00
Gaze	.91
Implication of each partner in its role	.93
Fulfillment of the task	.96
Co-construction	.87
Parental Scaffolding	.99
Family warmth	.80
Validation of the child's emotional experience	.97
Authenticity of the expressed affects	.84
Repairs of interactive mistakes during activities	.95
Repairs of interactive mistakes during transitions	.97
Support and cooperation	.84
Conflict and disruptive interferences	.88
Child engagement	.90
Goal-directed partnership	.92
Memory Conversations	
Mother Total words	.92
Mother Total emotion words	.98
Mother Unique emotion words	.97
Mother Conversational turn-taking	.99
Father Total words	.97
Father Total emotion words	.98
Father Unique emotion words	.96
Father Conversational turn-taking	.99
Child Total words	.97
Child Total emotion words	.98
Child Unique emotion words	.97
Child Conversational turn-taking	.98

Firstly, child's gender was significantly negatively correlated with focalization (r = -.23, p < .05) and child contribution (r = -.34, p < .01) functions of FAAS, and positively correlated with SRQ family score (r = .22, p < .05). Child's age had positive significant associations with affect sharing (r = .22, p < .05), interactive sequence (r = .25, p < .01), and child contribution (r = .24, p < .05) functions, and with FAAS total family score (r = .22, p < .05). Total number of words used by the mothers in the reminiscing task was significantly positively related to number of total emotion words of the mother (r = .57, p < .01), unique emotion words used by the mother (r = .53, p < .01) and the child (r = .19, p < .05), conversational turn-takings of the mother (r = .78, p < .05), the child (r = .38, p < .01) and the father (r = .36, p < .01). Number of total emotion words used by the mother indicated positive significant correlations with the unique emotion words of the mother (r = .89, p < .01), the child (r = .42, p < .01), and the father (r = .26, p < .01), conversational turn-takings of the mother (r = .50, p < .01), and the child (r = .26, p < .01), total emotion words of the child (r = .42, p < .01), and the father (r = .30, p < .01). Number of unique emotion words used by the mother was found to be positively correlated to the conversational turn takings of the mother (r = .52, p < .01), the child (r = .29, p < .01), and the father (r = .21, p < .05), number of total emotion words of the father (r = .28, p < .01) and the child (r = .41, p < .01), number of unique emotion words of the father (r = .22, p < .05) and the child (r = .44, p < .01). In addition, mother unique emotion words indicated negative associations with FAAS functions of organization (r = -.25, p < .01) and focalization (r = -.20, p < .05). Conversational turn-taking of the mother in the reminiscing task was positively correlated with total words of the father (r = .32, p < .01) and the child (r = .42, p < .01), total emotion words of the child (r = .23, p < .01), unique emotion words of the child (r = .32, p < .01), conversational turn-takings of the father (r = .55, p < .01) and the child (r = .68, p < .01). Total number of words used by the father showed positive associations with total word of the child (r = .36, p < .01), total emotion words of the father (r = .44, p < .01) and the child (r = .20, p < .05), number of unique emotion of the father (r = .42, p < .01), conversational turn-taking of the father (r = .82, p < .01) and the child (r = .48, p < .01). Number of total emotion words used by the fathers had positive correlations with the total number of words (r = .25, p < .01) and total emotion words (r = .48, p < .01) of the child, unique emotion words

of the child ($r = .43$, $p < .01$) and ($r = .91$, $p < .01$) the father, and conversational turn-takings of the child ($r = .26$, $p < .01$) and the father ($r = .35$, $p < .01$). Number of unique emotion words used by the fathers were positively related to the conversational turn taking of the father ($r = .32$, $p < .01$) and the child ($r = .20$, $p < .05$), total emotion ($r = .34$, $p < .01$) and unique emotion ($r = .31$, $p < .01$) of the child. Conversational turn-taking of the fathers in the reminiscing task was found to be positively linked to total words ($r = .53$, $p < .01$), total emotion words ($r = .30$, $p < .01$), unique emotion words ($r = .26$, $p < .01$), and conversational turn-taking ($r = .73$, $p < .01$) of the child. In addition, it was negatively correlated with family alliance category based on FAAS ($r = -.27$, $p < .01$). Child total words in the reminiscing task showed positive correlations with total emotion words ($r = .58$, $p < .01$), unique emotion words ($r = .58$, $p < .01$), and conversational turn-taking ($r = .76$, $p < .01$) of the child. Child total emotion words were positively correlated with child unique emotion words ($r = .88$, $p < .01$) and child conversational turn-taking ($r = .48$, $p < .01$). Child unique emotion words were found to be positively related to child conversational turn-taking ($r = .47$, $p < .01$). Affect sharing function of the FAAS was positively correlated with co-parenting ($r = .35$, $p < .01$), participation ($r = .24$, $p < .01$), organization ($r = .25$, $p < .01$), focalization ($r = .47$, $p < .01$), interactive sequence ($r = .51$, $p < .01$), child contribution ($r = .28$, $p < .01$), FAAS total family score ($r = .68$, $p < .01$), and it was negatively correlated with FAAS family alliance category ($r = -.32$, $p < .01$). Co-parenting function was positively associated with participation ($r = .21$, $p < .01$), organization ($r = .21$, $p < .01$), focalization ($r = .34$, $p < .01$), interactive sequence ($r = .36$, $p < .01$), child contribution ($r = .32$, $p < .01$), FAAS total family score ($r = .41$, $p < .01$), and it was negatively related to FAAS family alliance category ($r = -.38$, $p < .01$). Participation function was positively correlated with organization ($r = .36$, $p < .01$), focalization ($r = .41$, $p < .01$), interactive sequence ($r = .37$, $p < .01$), FAAS total family score ($r = .63$, $p < .01$), and it was negatively related to FAAS family alliance category ($r = -.38$, $p < .01$). Organization function was found to be positively linked to focalization ($r = .62$, $p < .01$), interactive sequence ($r = .53$, $p < .01$), FAAS total family score ($r = .75$, $p < .01$), and it was negatively related to FAAS family alliance category ($r = -.36$, $p < .01$). Focalization function was positively associated with interactive sequence ($r = .53$, $p < .01$), child contribution ($r = .24$, $p < .05$), FAAS total family

score (r = .77, p < .01), and it was negatively related to FAAS family alliance category (r = -.42, p < .01). Interactive sequence function was positively correlated with child contribution (r = .31, p < .05), FAAS total family score (r = .81, p < .01), and it was negatively related to FAAS family alliance category (r = -.50, p < .01). Child contribution function was found to be positively correlated with FAAS total family score (r = .36, p < .01), and it was negatively correlated with FAAS family alliance category (r = -.20, p < .01). Finally, FAAS family alliance category was negatively correlated with FAAS total family score (r = -.54, p < .01).

3.5. Main Analyses for Hypotheses Testing

3.5.1. Independent Samples T-test Analyses for Child's Gender Differences in Reminiscing and FAAS

To test the hypotheses of the present study related to potential gender differences in both FAAS and memory conversations (i.e., H1, H2, H3, & H4), several independent samples t-test analysis were conducted. To investigate whether the scores of the families on affect sharing and co-parenting, and the scores of children on child contribution and the total number of words, total emotion words, unique emotion words, and conversational turn-taking change as a function of child's gender, several independent samples t-test analyses were performed.

Before conducting the analysis, assumption of normality for two groups (i.e., boys and girls) was tested by skewness and kurtosis values. There were only two extreme skewness and kurtosis values of boys' numbers for total emotion and unique emotion words. They were out of the widely accepted range of normality, which is the range between + 2 and – 2 (George, & Mallery, 2010) (See Table 3.5). However, as suggested by Aron et al. (2014), t-test can still provide quite correct results when the assumptions are mildly moderated. Therefore, further analyses were decided to continue.

According to the results, Levene's test results were nonsignificant for all the variables, implying homogeneity of variance assumption was met for all dependent variables. Thus, results based on equal variances assumed were taken into consideration and reported. Independent samples t-test analysis indicated that child's gender made a

difference on child contribution function of FAAS, t (107) = 3.708, p < .001, 95% CI [0.19, 0.62] with a medium effect (d = .71, 95% CI [0.32, 1.10]); female children (M = 2.27 , SD = .54) got significantly higher scores as compared to their male counterparts (M = 1.87 , SD = .59), which supports the hypothesis H3.

Yet, affect sharing (t (107) = 1.381, p = .170), co-parenting (t (107) = .380, p = .705), total words (t (107) = .975, p = .332), total emotion words (t (107) = .976, p = .331), unique emotion words (t (107) = 1.072, p = .286), and conversational turn-taking (t (107) = 1.465, p = .146) did not change as a function of child gender (See Table 3.6.). Therefore, hypotheses H1, H2, and H4 were not supported.

3.5.2. Two-Way Mixed Design Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for Parent's and Child's Gender Differences in Reminiscing

For the examination of hypotheses H5 and H6, which proposed that both parent's and child's gender would make a difference in the scores of total words, total emotion words, unique emotion words, and conversational turn-taking, four 2 (Parent gender) X 2 (Child gender) Mixed Design Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) were performed with parent gender (mothers and fathers) being a within-subjects factor and the child's gender (girls and boys) was a between-subjects factor.

3.5.2.1. Assumptions of Mixed Design Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

Before conducting the analysis, assumptions of mixed design ANOVA (i.e., normality, homogeneity of variance, sphericity, and homogeneity of covariance) were tested.

Homogeneity of the variance assumption was checked with Levene's F test (See Table 3.7). Results showed that homogeneity of variance assumption was met for all variables except for total emotion word number of fathers. Yet, Donaldson (1968) suggested the F test is still a conservative test in cases of such violations and thus, it was decided to continue with further analyses of ANOVA.

Table 3.4. *Intercorrelations Among the Study Variables*

Variables	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**	**10**
1. Child gender (0 = Female, 1= Male)	1	.14	.01	-.10	-.09	-.09	-.02	.12	.10	-.07
2. Child age		1	.14	.07	-.01	-.06	-.08	-.03	.00	-.05
3. Mother total words			1	.57**	.53**	.78**	.19	.11	.12	.36**
4. Mother total emotion words				1	.89**	.50**	-.01	.30**	.26**	.17
5. Mother unique emotion words					1	.52**	-.01	.28**	.22*	.21*
6. Mother conversational turn-taking						1	.32**	.16	.15	.55**
7. Father total words							1	.44**	.42**	.82**
8. Father total emotion words								1	.91**	.35**
9. Father unique emotion									1	.32**
10. Father conversational turn-taking										1
11. Child total words	-.09	.15	.18	.17	.18	.42**	.36**	.25**	.14	.53**
12. Child total emotion words	-.09	.11	.10	.42**	.41**	.23*	.20*	.48**	.34**	.30**
13. Child unique emotion words	-.10	.07	.19*	.42**	.44**	.32**	.12	.43**	.31**	.26**
14. Child conversational turn-taking	-.14	-.01	.38**	.26**	.29**	.68**	.48**	.26**	.20*	.73**
15. FAAS- affect sharing	-.13	.22*	-.11	.10	.06	-.16	-.04	-.05	-.03	-.05
16. FAAS- co-parenting	-.04	.05	-.08	-.07	-.02	-.16	.02	.01	.03	.05

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 3.4. *(Continued)*

Variables	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**	**10**
17. FAAS-participation	-.17	.16	.03	.08	.02	-.07	.08	-.13	-.15	.04
18. FAAS-organization	-.10	.09	-.11	-.19	-.25**	-.16	.14	-.09	-.09	.03
19. FAAS-focalization	-.23*	.05	-.06	-.16	-.20*	-.15	.06	-.12	-.12	.01
20. FAAS-interactive sequence	-.01	.25**	.14	.08	.02	.02	.07	-.07	-.07	.06
21. FAAS- child contribution	-.34**	.24*	.07	.11	.05	.01	.09	-.06	-.06	.06
22. FAAS- Family alliance category (1 = Cooperative-fluid, 2 = Cooperative tense, 3 = Conflicted-covert, 4 = Conflicted-overt, 5 = Disordered-exclusive, 6 = Disordered-chaotic)	.11	-.10	-.14	-.03	-.02	-.15	-.18	-.02	.01	-.27**
23. FAAS- Total family score	-.17	.22*	-.04	-.02	-.09	-.15	.08	-.12	-.12	.02
24. SRQ Family score (higher scores mean more traditional/less egalitarian gender ideology)	.22*	.04	.02	-.02	.05	-.04	.08	.15	.13	.14

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 3.4. *(Continued)*

Variables	**11**	**12**	**13**	**14**	**15**	**16**	**17**	**18**	**19**	**20**
11. Child total words	1	.58**	.58**	.76**	-.03	-.01	-.01	-.10	-.10	-.07
12. Child total emotion words		1	.88**	.48**	-.01	.04	.03	-.06	-.05	-.02
13. Child unique emotion words			1	.47**	-.05	.08	.03	-.08	-.02	-.02
14. Child conversational turn-taking				1	-.03	-.06	-.01	-.12	-.07	-.00
15. FAAS- affect sharing					1	.35**	.24*	.25**	.37**	.51**
16. FAAS- co-parenting						1	.21*	.21*	.34**	.36**
17. FAAS- participation							1	.36**	.41**	.37**
18. FAAS- organization								1	.62**	.53**
19. FAAS- focalization									1	.53**
20. FAAS- interactive sequence										1
21. FAAS- child contribution	.13	.09	.09	.09	.28**	.15	.32**	.18	.24*	.31*
22. FAAS- Family alliance category	-.15	-.14	-.14	-.18	-.32**	-.38**	-.38**	-.36**	-.42**	-.50**
23. FAAS- Total family score	-.08	-.03	-.05	-.06	.68**	.41**	.63**	.75**	.77**	.81**
24. SRQ Family score	.00	.02	.04	.05	-.09	-.07	-.10	.09	-.06	-.10

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 3.4. *(Continued)*

Variables	**21**	**22**	**23**	**24**
21. FAAS- child contribution	1	-.20*	.36**	-.07
22. FAAS- Family alliance category (1 = Cooperative-fluid, 2 = Cooperative tense, 3 = Conflicted-covert, 4 = Conflicted-overt, 5 = Disordered-exclusive, 6 = Disordered-chaotic)		1	-.54**	.18
23. FAAS- Total family score (Total score the family got from 11 subscales of FAAS except coparenting and child contribution functions)			1	-.07
24. Social Roles Questionnaire Family score (higher scores mean more traditional//less egalitarian gender ideology)				1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 3.5. *Skewness and Kurtosis Values for Independent Samples T-test*

Variables	*Skewness*	*SE*	*Kurtosis*	*SE*
Girls				
FAAS Child contribution	.016	.333	-1.267	.656
Total words	1.239	.333	1.548	.656
Total emotion words	1.144	.333	1.277	.656
Unique emotion words	.671	.333	.114	.656
Conversational turn-taking	.461	.333	-.672	.656
Boys				
FAAS Child contribution	-.073	.314	-.169	.618
Total words	1.172	.314	1.371	.618
Total emotion words	2.380	.314	6.505	.618
Unique emotion words	1.569	.314	2.566	.618
Conversational turn-taking	.736	.314	.328	.618

Table 3.6. *Independent Samples T-test Results (N = 109)*

Variables		*N*	*M*	*SD*	*t* (107)	*p*	*95% CI*
Affect sharing	girls	51	2.29	.61	1.381	.170	-.07 - .39
	boys	58	2.13	.61			
Co-parenting	girls	51	2.39	.51	.380	.705	-.16 –.24
	boys	58	2.35	.55			
Child	girls	51	2.27	.54	3.708**	< .001	.19 – .62
contribution	boys	58	1.87	.59			
Total words	girls	51	97.31	61.24	.975	.332	-11.42-33.53
	boys	58	86.26	57.07			
Total emotion	girls	51	2.14	2.14	.976	.331	-.46 – 1.36
words	boys	58	1.69	2.58			
Unique emotion	girls	51	1.39	1.25	1.072	.286	-.23 – .77
words	boys	58	1.12	1.38			
Conversational	girls	51	28.96	15.19	1.465	.146	-1.46 – 9.73
turn-taking	boys	58	24.83	14.24			

** $p < .001$

Table 3.7. *Levene's Test for Homogeneity of Variance (N = 109)*

Dependent Variables	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*
Mother total words	1.812	1	107	.181
Father total words	1.220	1	107	.272
Mother total emotion words	1.070	1	107	.303
Father total emotion words	4.700*	1	107	.032
Mother unique emotion words	.677	1	107	.412
Father unique emotion words	2.466	1	107	.119
Mother conversational turn-taking	.122	1	107	.728
Father conversational turn-taking	.698	1	107	.405

* $p < .05$

Normality assumption was tested for all groups based on the levels of independent variables (parent's gender and child's gender) by the calculation of skewness and kurtosis values. Normality assumption was violated for only few groups; total words of mothers with daughters and mothers with sons, total words, and total emotion words

of fathers with daughters, and total emotion words of fathers with sons since their values were out of the range of normality (+2 and -2) (George, & Mallery, 2010) (See Table 3.8). Still, F tests have been known to be robust with regards to the violation of normality assumption (Feir & Toothaker, 1974) and thus, mixed design ANOVA was decided to be utilized.

Table 3.8. *Skewness and Kurtosis Values for Mixed Design ANOVAs*

Variables	*Skewness*	*SE*	*Kurtosis*	*SE*
Mothers with daughters				
(N = 51)				
Total words	1.265	.333	2.420	.656
Total emotion words	.902	.333	-.048	.656
Unique emotion words	.513	.333	-.704	.656
Conversational turn-taking	.791	.333	.680	.656
Mothers with sons				
(N = 58)				
Total words	1.619	.314	2.844	.618
Total emotion words	1.159	.314	.568	.618
Unique emotion words	1.044	.314	1.029	.618
Conversational turn-taking	1.143	.314	1.320	.618
Fathers with daughters				
(N = 51)				
Total words	1.263	.333	2.230	.656
Total emotion words	1.554	.333	2.857	.656
Unique emotion words	.865	.333	.897	.656
Conversational turn-taking	.634	.333	.228	.656
Fathers with sons				
(N = 58)				
Total words	.613	.314	-.100	.618
Total emotion words	1.374	.314	2.705	.618
Unique emotion words	.791	.314	.395	.618
Conversational turn-taking	.563	.314	-.140	.618

To check for the sphericity assumption, there should be at least three conditions in the dependent variables to be compared but since there are only two conditions (mother and father scores) in the current study, this assumption was not tested.

Box's M test checked the last assumption, which was the homogeneity of covariance assumption (See Table 3.9). It was found that for all variables, the test results were nonsignificant, implying that covariances were homogeneous across groups, and thus, this assumption was met.

Table 3.9. *Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices (N = 218)*

Dependent Variables	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*
Total words	1.487	3	4482549.146	.216
Total emotion words	2.461	3	4482549.146	.061
Unique emotion words	1.791	3	4482549.146	.146
Conversational turn-taking	.881	3	4482549.146	.450

3.5.2.2. Results of Mixed Design Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

According to the results of 2 (parent's gender) X 2 (child's gender) mixed design ANOVA in which the number of total words was the dependent variable, it was found that the main effect of parent's gender on total number of words was significant, $F(1, 107) = 9.651$, $p = .002$, $\eta p^2 = .083$). In accordance with the hypothesis H5, mothers ($M = 185.26$, $SD = 110.56$, 95% CI = [164.064, 206.331]) were found to use significantly higher number of total words in the triadic memory conversations as compared to fathers ($M = 147.17$, $SD = 85.84$, 95% CI = [130.837, 163.653]). Yet, the main effect of the child's gender ($F(1, 107) = .000$, $p = .983$) and the interaction effect of the parent's and child's gender ($F(1, 107) = .031$, $p = .859$) were nonsignificant, which were contradictory findings with hypotheses H6 and H7. For the number of total words, ANOVA results and means and standard deviations of the groups were provided in Table 3.10 and Table 3.11, respectively.

Results of 2 (parent's gender) X 2 (child's gender) mixed design ANOVA in which the number of total emotion words was the dependent variable indicated that the main effect of parent's gender on number of total emotion words was significant, $F(1, 107) = 16.865$, $p < .001$, $\eta p^2 = .136$). Consistent with the hypothesis H5, mothers ($M = 4.33$,

SD = 3.76, 95% CI = [3.64, 5.07]) used significantly higher number of total emotion words in the triadic memory conversations as compared to fathers (*M* = 2.83, *SD* = 2.77, 95% CI = [2.29, 3.34]). Yet, the main effect of the child's gender ($F(1, 107) = .017$, $p = .897$) and the interaction effect of the parent's and child's gender ($F(1, 107) = 3.616$, $p = .060$) were nonsignificant, which were against the hypotheses H6 and H7. For the number of total emotion words, ANOVA results and means and standard deviations of the groups were provided in Table 3.12 and Table 3.13, respectively.

Results of 2 (parent's gender) X 2 (child's gender) mixed design ANOVA in which the number of unique emotion words was the dependent variable showed that the main effect of parent's gender on number of unique emotion words was significant, $F(1, 107) = 17.255$, $p < .001$, $\eta p^2 = .139$). Consistent with the hypothesis H5, mothers (*M* = 2.74, *SD* = 1.99, 95% CI = [2.38, 3.13]) used significantly higher number of unique

Table 3.10. *Mixed ANOVA Results for Total Words (N = 218)*

Source	*Wilks' Λ*	*df*	*F*	*p*	ηp^2
Child gender		1	.000	.983	
Error		107			
Parent gender	.917	1	9.651*	.002	.083
Child gender X Parent gender	1.000	1	.031	.859	
Error		107			

*$p < .01$

Table 3.11. *Means and Standard Deviations for Total Words (N = 218)*

	Child gender					
	Girls (N = 102)		Boys (N = 116)		Total (N = 218)	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Parent gender						
Mothers	184.27	94.32	186.12	123.91	185.26	110.56
Fathers	148.49	83.36	146.00	88.68	147.17	85.84

Table 3.12. *Mixed ANOVA Results for Total Emotion Words (N = 218)*

Source	*Wilks' Λ*	*df*	*F*	*p*	ηp^2
Child gender		1	.017	.897	
Error		107			
Parent gender	.864	1	16.85**	<.001	.136
Child gender X Parent gender	.967	1	3.616	.060	
Error		107			

**$p < .001$

Table 3.13. *Means and Standard Deviations for Total Emotion Words (N = 218)*

	Child gender					
	Girls (N = 102)		Boys (N = 116)		Total (N = 218)	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Parent gender						
Mothers	4.75	3.95	3.97	3.58	4.33	3.76
Fathers	2.49	2.33	3.14	3.10	2.83	2.77

emotion words in the triadic memory conversations as compared to fathers (M = 1.88, SD = 1.53, 95% CI = [1.58, 2.16]). Yet, the main effect of the child's gender (F(1, 107) = .007, p = .935) and the interaction effect of the parent's and child's gender (F(1, 107) = 2.178, p = .143) were nonsignificant, which were incompatible with the hypotheses H7 and H7. For the number of unique emotion words, ANOVA results and means and standard deviations of the groups were provided in Table 3.14 and Table 3.15, respectively.

Table 3.14. *Mixed ANOVA Results for Unique Emotion Words (N = 218)*

Source	*Wilks' Λ*	*df*	*F*	*p*	ηp^2
Child gender		1	.007	.935	
Error		107			
Parent gender	.861	1	17.255**	< .001	.139
Child gender X Parent gender	.980	1	2.178	.143	
Error		107			

**$p < .001$

Table 3.15. *Means and Standard Deviations for Unique Emotion Words (N = 218)*

	Child gender					
	Girls (N = 102)		Boys (N = 116)		Total (N = 218)	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Parent gender						
Mothers	2.92	2.01	2.59	1.97	2.74	1.99
Fathers	1.73	1.31	2.02	1.70	1.88	1.53

Finally, results of 2 (parent's gender) X 2 (child's gender) mixed design ANOVA in which the number of conversational turn-taking was the dependent variable suggested that the main effect of parent's gender on number of conversational turn-taking was significant, $F(1, 107) = 7.661$, $p = .007$, $\eta p^2 = .067$). Compatible with the hypothesis H5, mothers ($M = 28.25$, $SD = 14.11$, 95% CI = [25.64, 31.01]) took significantly higher conversational turns in the triadic memory conversations as compared to fathers ($M = 24.83$, $SD = 13.07$, 95% CI = [22.40, 27.39]). Yet, the main effect of the child's gender ($F(1, 107) = .875$, $p = .352$) and the interaction effect of the parent's and child's gender ($F(1, 107) = .071$, $p = .790$) were nonsignificant, contrasting with the hypotheses H6 and H7. For the number of conversational turn-taking, ANOVA results and means and standard deviations of the groups were provided in Table 3.16 and Table 3.17, respectively.

Table 3.16. *Mixed ANOVA Results for Conversational Turn-taking (N = 218)*

Source	*Wilks' Λ*	*df*	*F*	*p*	ηp^2
Child gender		1	.875	.352	
Error		107			
Parent gender	.933	1	7.661*	.007	.067
Child gender X Parent gender	.999	1	.071	.790	
Error		107			

*$p < .01$

Table 3.17. *Means and Standard Deviations for Conversational Turn-taking (N = 218)*

	Child gender					
	Girls (N = 102)		Boys (N = 116)		Total (N = 218)	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Parent gender						
Mothers	29.57	13.53	27.09	14.62	28.25	14.11
Fathers	25.80	12.44	23.98	13.65	24.83	13.07

When the results were considered, it can be observed that the only significant effect belonged to the parent's gender on the number of total words, total emotion words, unique emotion words, and conversational turn-taking. As expected, mothers used significantly higher numbers of total words, total emotion words, and unique emotion words, and they took significantly more turns in the memory conversations as compared to fathers. However, the child's gender and the interaction effect between the child's gender and the parent's gender were nonsignificant for all variables.

3.5.3. Hierarchical Regression Analyses

3.5.3.1. Predictor Role of Affect Sharing, Coparenting, and Child's Gender on Parental Difference Scores in Reminiscing

H8 proposed that families of daughters would show fewer differences in memory conversations' coding (i.e., the number of total words, total emotion words, unique emotion words, and conversational turn-taking). In addition, hypotheses H9, and H10 suggested that parents with higher scores in affect sharing and co-parenting would show fewer differences in the coding of memory conversations regardless of the child's gender. Before testing the hypotheses, parental difference scores were created by subtracting the fathers' scores from the mothers' scores within each family for all the coding in the memory conversations, and these difference scores were used to test hypotheses H8 and H9 via hierarchical regression analyses. The child's gender was added first in the models as both the predictor of H8 and the control variable of H9 and H10.

3.5.3.2. Assumptions of Hierarchical Regression Analysis

Before conducting the main analyses, assumptions of hierarchical regression were tested. These assumptions were normality, homoscedasticity, linearity, outliers, multicollinearity, and independence of residuals.

The assumption of normality was tested for the four criterion variables. When the histograms and Normal Probability Plots (P-P) were examined, the distributions were skewed. Yet, Ghasemi and Zahedias (2012) explained that when the sample size is enough ($N > 30$), the violation of normality assumption would not pose a serious problem in statistical analyses. Islam and Tiku (2005) also demonstrated that multiple linear regression analysis is robust to nonnormality.

Homoscedasticity, linearity, and outliers were checked by the scatterplot of the standardized residuals. Due to the nonnormality of the scores in criterion variables, heteroscedasticity was observed. Still, it was not a critical problem for the regression analyses which deal with the ungrouped data. Regarding linearity, it was observed that all residual scatterplots except the one representing conversational turn-taking, were close to linearity since they look almost rectangular and not curved, meeting the linearity assumption for these variables. The distribution of standardized residuals showed that the scores, except for a few ones, were distributed within the acceptable range of +3.3 and -3.3, meeting the assumption of outliers since only a few outliers can be tolerated (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

The multicollinearity assumption was tested next. It was explained by Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) that if two predictor variables are associated with around .90 or above, multicollinearity is the case. It can be tested by variance influence factor (VIF), correlation coefficient, and tolerance value (Field, 2009). It was evident that the correlations between the predictor variables were not high (See Table 3.19, Table 3.21, Table 3.23, Table 3.25). According to Myers (1990), VIF score is supposed to be below 10 and it was 1.163 for affect sharing, 1.144 for co-parenting, and 1.018 for child's gender in the current study (as cited in Field, 2009). Tolerance values were .860 for affect sharing, .874 for co-parenting, and .982 for child's gender, which are required

to be above .10 as Field (2009) suggested. In conclusion, the multicollinearity assumption was met.

Finally, the assumption of independence of residuals was tested by Durbin Watson test, which should be between 0 and 4 (Field, 2009). The scores of this test were found as 1.775, 1.927, 1.760, and .255 for difference scores of total words, total emotion words, unique emotion words, and conversational turn-taking, respectively.

3.5.3.3. Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses

To test these hypotheses H8 and H9, hierarchical regression analyses were performed with the affect sharing and co-parenting being predictor variables, the child's gender being the control variable, and the difference scores of parents in the coding of memory conversations being the criterion variable. Four analyses were conducted for four criterion variables including number of total words, total emotion words, unique emotion words, and conversational turn-taking. Firstly, hierarchical regression analysis was performed in which the affect sharing and co-parenting were the predictor variables, the child's gender was the control variable, and the difference scores of parents in number of total words was the criterion variable. The analysis was performed with two blocks of variables. In the first block, the control variable child's gender (0 = girls, 1 = boys) was added to the model (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013) and in the second block, affect sharing and co-parenting were added to the model as predictor variables. The results indicated that the first model was not significant, $F(1, 107) = 3.664$, $p = .058$, indicating that child's gender did not affect parental difference scores in number of total words. Second model was nonsignificant, too, $F(3, 105) = 2.336$, $p = .078$. Thus, co-parenting and affect sharing of the families did not predict the number of parental differences in total words when the effect of child's gender was controlled. These results were contradictory with the hypotheses H8, H9, and H10. The overall results were presented in Table 3.18 and Table 3.19.

Table 3.18. *Model Summary for Parental Difference Scores in Total Words (N = 109)*

Predictor Variables	*R*	R^2	ΔR^2	*F*	*p*
Model 1	.182	.024	.033	3.644	.058
Child's gender*					
Model 2	.250	.036	.029	2.336	.078
Child's gender					
Affect sharing					
Co-parenting					

* (0 = female, 1 = male)

Table 3.19. *Hierarchical Regression Results for Parental Difference Scores in Total Words*

Predictor Variables	*β*	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*95% CI*
Model 1					
Child's gender*	.182	17.54	1.914	.058	-1.20 - 68.35
Model 2					
Child's gender	.185	17.59	1.944	.055	-.681 - 69.08
Affect sharing	.076	15.37	.750	.455	-18.95 - 41.99
Co-parenting	-.183	17.68	-1.813	.073	-67.09 - 3.01

* (0 = female, 1 = male)

Second hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to see the predictor roles of the affect sharing and co-parenting on the difference scores of parents in the number of total emotion words when the child's gender was controlled. The analysis was conducted in the same way as the previous analysis except for the criterion variable. The result of the first model was not significant, $F(1, 107) = .005$, $p = .945$; child's gender did not affect parental difference scores in number of total emotion words. The second model was nonsignificant, too, $F(3, 105) = .574$, $p = .634$. Co-parenting and affect sharing of the families did not predict the number of parental differences in total emotion words when the effect of child's gender was controlled. These results were against the hypothesis H8, H9, and H10 (See Table 3.20 & Table 3.21).

Table 3.20. *Model Summary for Parental Difference Scores in Total Emotion Words (N = 109)*

Predictor Variables	*R*	R^2	ΔR^2	*F*	*p*
Model 1	.007	-.009	.000	.005	.945
Child's gender*					
Model 2	.127	-.012	.016	.574	.634
Child's gender					
Affect sharing					
Co-parenting					

* (0 = female, 1 = male)

Table 3.21. *Hierarchical Regression Results for Parental Difference Scores in Total Emotion Words*

Predictor Variables	*β*	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*95% CI*
Model 1					
Child's gender*	-.007	.57	-.069	.945	-1.17 – 1.09
Model 2					
Child's gender	.004	.58	.045	.964	-1.12 – 1.17
Affect sharing	.114	.50	1.093	.277	-.45 – 1.55
Co-parenting	-.110	.58	-1.061	.291	-1.76 – .53

* (0 = female, 1 = male)

Third hierarchical regression analysis was performed in which the predictor variables were same with the previous analyses and this time parental difference scores in unique emotion words were the criterion variable. The first model was not significant, $F(1, 107) = .032$, $p = .858$, implying that child's gender did not affect parental difference scores in number of unique emotion words. The second model was also not significant, $F(3, 105) = .209$, $p = .890$. Therefore, co-parenting and affect sharing of the families did not predict the number of parental differences in unique emotion words when the effect of child's gender was controlled. Like the results of previous studies, these results were not consistent with the hypotheses H8, H9, and H10 (See Table 3.22 and Table 3.23).

Table 3.22. *Model Summary for Parental Difference Scores in Unique Emotion Words (N = 109)*

Predictor Variables	*R*	R^2	ΔR^2	*F*	*p*
Model 1	.017	-.009	.000	.032	.858
Child's gender*					
Model 2	.077	-.022	.006	.209	.890
Child's gender					
Affect sharing					
Co-parenting					

* (0 = female, 1 = male)

Table 3.23. *Hierarchical Regression Results for Parental Difference Scores in Unique Emotion Words*

Predictor Variables	*β*	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*95% CI*
Model 1					
Child's gender*	-.017	.29	-.179	.858	-.63 – .53
Model 2					
Child's gender	-.018	.30	-.184	.855	-.64 – .54
Affect sharing	.017	.26	.158	.875	-.47 – .56
Co-parenting	-.079	.30	-.762	.448	-.82 – .37

* (0 = female, 1 = male)

Final hierarchical regression analysis was performed for the criterion variable parental difference scores in conversational turn-taking in the same way as the previous analyses in which affect sharing and co-parenting were predictors and the child's gender was the control variable. The child's gender did not affect parental difference scores in the number of conversational turn-takings, which indicated the failure of hypothesis H8d. However, the second model was significant, $F(3, 105) = 2.751$, $p = .046$. The second model explained 5% of the variance in the parental differences in conversational turn-taking. When the results were examined further, it was observed that co-parenting of the families ($\beta = -.258$, $SE = 1.65$, $p = .012$) predicted the number of parental differences in conversational turn-taking negatively even when the effect of child's gender was controlled. Based on these findings, hypothesis H9 was not supported, but hypothesis H10 was partially supported. The overall results were

presented in Table 3.24, and Table 3.25. In conclusion, the child's gender, affect sharing, and co-parenting were not significant predictors of the parental difference scores in total words, total emotion words, unique emotion words, and conversational turn-taking, with one exception. Co-parenting significantly predicted the parental difference scores in conversational turn-taking even when the child's gender was controlled. Increases in co-parenting scores of the families they obtained from the triadic play resulted in fewer parental differences in conversational turn-taking obtained from the memory conversations.

Table 3.24. *Model Summary for Parental Difference Scores in Conversational Turn-taking (N = 109)*

Predictor Variables	*R*	R^2	ΔR^2	*F*	*p*
Model 1	.102	.001	.010	1.116	.293
Child's gender*					
Model 2	270	.046	.063	2.751**	.046
Child's gender					
Affect sharing					
Co-parenting					

* (0 = female, 1 = male)

** $p < .05$

Table 3.25. *Hierarchical Regression Results for Parental Difference Scores in Conversational Turn-taking*

Predictor Variables	*β*	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*95% CI*
Model 1					
Child's gender*	.102	1.67	1.056	.293	-1.55 – 5.07
Model 2					
Child's gender	.096	1.65	1.009	.315	-1.60 – 4.92
Affect sharing	.026	1.44	.261	.795	-2.48 – 3.23
Co-parenting	-.258	1.65	-2.571**	.012	-7.53 – -.97

* (0 = female, 1 = male)

** $p < .05$

Hence, hypotheses H8, H9, and H10 failed to be supported for all criterion variables except for conversational turn-taking, which partially supported hypothesis H10.

3.5.3.4. Predictor Role of Gender Ideology on FAAS and Reminiscing

Hypotheses H11a, H11b, H11c, H11d, H11e, and H11f proposed that the gender ideology of the parents would predict parents' and child's scores in both FAAS functions (i.e., affect sharing, co-parenting, and child contribution), and in the coding of memory conversations (both individual scores and parental difference scores were used). If the parents internalize a more egalitarian gender ideology, it was expected that parents would get higher scores in affect sharing and co-parenting, and parents would have fewer difference scores in the coding of memory conversations. Moreover, as the gender ideology of the parents becomes more egalitarian, children would get higher scores in child contribution and in the coding of memory conversations. Scores of familial gender ideology were created beforehand by taking the SRQ means of parents within the same family, and these scores were used in the analyses in which parental difference scores in memory coding schemes were the criterion variables. Only for the hypothesis H11d, individual parental ideology scores were utilized in the analyses.

3.5.3.5. Assumptions of Hierarchical Regression Analyses

Before going further with the main analyses, the assumptions of hierarchical regression analysis (normality, homoscedasticity, linearity, outliers, multicollinearity, and independence of residuals) were checked.

The normality assumption was tested for eleven criterion variables (affect sharing, co-parenting, child contribution, and the coding of memory conversations of parents and children). Most of the histograms and normal probability plots (P-P) revealed skewed distributions. However, as explained before, further analyses were conducted since nonnormality is not a critical problem in regression (Ghasemi & Zahedias, 2012; Islam & Tiku, 2005). Homoscedasticity, linearity, and outliers were checked by the scatterplot of the standardized residuals. The nonnormality of the scores in criterion variables resulted in heteroscedasticity, which was not ideal but still acceptable for the regression analysis. The linearity assumption was met for most variables included since they looked rectangular and not curved. The distribution of standardized residuals showed that the scores, except for a few ones, were distributed within the

acceptable range of +3.3 and -3.3, meeting the assumption of outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). The multicollinearity assumption was also tested. The correlations between the predictor variables were not high (See Table 3.27, Table 3.29, Table 3.31, Table 3.33, Table 3.35, Table 3.37, Table 3.39, Table 3.41, Table 3.43, Table 3.45, Table 3.47, Table 3.49, Table 3.51, Table 3.53, & Table 3.55). In the analyses in which parental difference scores and the child's memory coding schemes were the criterion variables, the VIF score was 1.049, and the tolerance score was .953 for both child's gender and gender ideology of the families. In the analyses in which individual parent scores in memory coding schemes were the criterion variables, the VIF score was 1.035 for both the child's gender and the parent's gender, and it was 1.070 for the individual gender ideology of parents. The tolerance scores were .966, .967, and .934 for the child's gender, the parent's gender, and the individual gender ideology of the parents, respectively. Thus, the multicollinearity assumption was met based on Myers's suggestion (1990) (as cited in Field, 2009).

Final assumption of independence of residuals was tested by Durbin Watson test. The scores of this test were found 1.942 for affect sharing, 1.923 for co-parenting, 1.665 for parental difference in number of total words, 1.932 for parental difference in number of total emotion words, 1.700 for parental difference in number of unique emotion words, .159 for parental difference in number of conversational turn-taking, 2.036 for child contribution, 1.809 for child's number of total words, 1.955 for child's number of total emotion words, 1.884 for child's number of unique emotion words, and 1.563 for child's number of conversational turn-taking. Durbin-Watson scores of the parent's individual scores in total words, total emotion words, unique emotion words, and conversational turn-taking were 1.981, 1.692, 1.740, and 1.881, respectively. Thus, this final assumption was also met since the values were between 0-4 (Field, 2009).

3.5.3.6. Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses

All the analyses for eleven criterion variables (parents' scores in affect sharing, co-parenting, child contribution, parental difference scores in number of total words, total emotion words, unique emotion words, and conversational turn-taking, and child's number of total words, total emotion words, unique emotion words, and conversational

turn-taking) were conducted in the same way; in the first block, the child's gender was initially added to the model as the control variable, and in the second block, the gender ideology of the families (parental mean scores of SRQ) was added to the model. For the analyses in which the individual parent scores in the memory coding schemes were the criterion variables, the child's gender, and the parent's gender were added consecutively in the first two blocks as the control variables. Lastly, individual gender ideology scores were added as the predictor variable. In the first analysis in which affect sharing was the criterion variable, the gender ideology of the parents was the predictor variable, and the child's gender was the control variable, the first model was not significant, $F(1, 107) = 1.908$, $p = .170$; child's gender did not influence affect sharing scores of the parents. The second model was also not significant, $F(2, 106) = 1.157$, $p = .318$. Gender ideology of the parents did not predict their affect sharing scores when the effect of child's gender was controlled, indicating that H11a was not supported (See Table 3.26, & Table 3.27).

Table 3.26. *Model Summary for Familial Gender Ideology in Affect Sharing (N = 109)*

Predictor Variables	*R*	R^2	ΔR^2	*F*	*p*
Model 1	.132	.008	.018	1.908	.170
Child's gender*					
Model 2	.146	.003	.004	1.157	.318
Child's gender					
Familial gender ideology					

* (0 = female, 1 = male)

Table 3.27. *Hierarchical Regression Results for Familial Gender Ideology in Affect Sharing*

Predictor Variables	*β*	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*95% CI*
Model 1					
Child's gender*	-.132	.12	-1.381	.170	-.39 – .07
Model 2					
Child's gender	-.119	.12	-1.205	.231	-.38 – .09
Familial gender ideology	-.063	.00	-.645	.520	-.01 – .01

* (0 = female, 1 = male)

In the next analysis, co-parenting function was the criterion variable, the gender ideology of the parents was the predictor variable, and the child's gender was the control variable, the first model was not significant, $F(1, 107) = .144$, $p = .705$; child's gender did not affect co-parenting significantly. The second model was also not significant, $F(2, 106) = .288$, $p = .751$, implying that gender ideology of the parents did not predict their co-parenting scores when the effect of child's gender was controlled. Thus, H11b was also not supported (See Table 3.28, & Table 3.29).

Since whether parental difference scores in the coding of memory conversations changed as a function of the child's gender was examined and reported in the first models of the previous hierarchical regression analyses, they were not reported again here.

Table 3.28. *Model Summary for Familial Gender Ideology in Co-parenting (N = 109)*

Predictor Variables	*R*	R^2	ΔR^2	*F*	*p*
Model 1	.037	-.008	.001	.144	.705
Child's gender*					
Model 2	.073	-.013	.004	.288	.751
Child's gender					
Familial gender ideology					

* (0 = female, 1 = male)

Table 3.29. *Hierarchical Regression Results for Familial Gender Ideology in Co-parenting*

Predictor Variables	*β*	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*95% CI*
Model 1					
Child's gender*	-.037	.10	-.380	.705	-.24 – .16
Model 2					
Child's gender	-.023	.11	-.228	.820	-.23 – .18
Familial gender ideology	-.065	.00	-.657	.512	-.01 – .01

* (0 = female, 1 = male)

Third analysis included parental differences in the number of total words as the criterion variable, the gender ideology of the parents was the predictor variable, and

the child's gender was the control variable. The second model was not significant, $F(2, 106) = 2.073$, $p = .131$; gender ideology of the parents did not predict their difference scores in the number of total words when the effect of child's gender was controlled and thus, hypothesis H11c failed to be supported for number of total words used (See Table 3.30, & Table 3.31).

Table 3.30. *Model Summary for Familial Gender Ideology in Parental Differences of Total Words (N = 109)*

Predictor Variables	*R*	R^2	ΔR^2	*F*	*p*
Model 1	.182	.024	.033	3.664	.058
Child's gender*					
Model 2	.194	.019	.005	2.073	.131
Child's gender					
Familial gender ideology					

* (0 = female, 1 = male)

Table 3.31. *Hierarchical Regression Results for Familial Gender Ideology in Parental Differences of Total Words*

Predictor Variables	*β*	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*95% CI*
Model 1					
Child's gender*	.182	17.54	1.914	.058	-1.20 – 68.35
Model 2					
Child's gender	.167	18.01	1.711	.090	-4.88 – .66.53
Familial gender ideology	.069	.60	.706	.482	-.77 – 1.62

* (0 = female, 1 = male)

Next analysis tested the predictor effect of gender ideology of the parents on parental difference scores in the number of total emotion words when the child's gender was controlled. The second model was nonsignificant, $F(2, 106) = .193$, $p = .825$ and thus, gender ideology of the parents did not predict their difference scores in the number of total emotion words when the effect of child's gender was controlled. Hypothesis H11c was not supported for total emotion words (See Table 3.32, & Table 3.33).

When the unique emotion word was the criterion variable with the child's gender being the control variable and the gender ideology was the predictor, the second model was

not significant, $F(2, 106) = .561$, $p = .572$, meaning that there was not a significant predictor role of the gender ideology of the parents on parental differences in the number of unique emotion words when the child's gender was controlled. This finding contradicted with hypothesis H11c regarding unique emotion words (See Table 3.34, & Table 3.35).

Table 3.32. *Model Summary for Familial Gender Ideology in Parental Differences of Total Emotion Words (N = 109)*

Predictor Variables	*R*	R^2	ΔR^2	*F*	*p*
Model 1	.007	-.009	.000	.005	.945
Child's gender*					
Model 2	.060	-.015	.004	.193	.825
Child's gender					
Familial gender ideology					

* (0 = female, 1 = male)

Table 3.33. *Hierarchical Regression Results for Familial Gender Ideology in Parental Differences of Total Emotion Words*

Predictor Variables	*β*	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*95% CI*
Model 1					
Child's gender*	-.007	.57	-.069	.945	-1.17 – 1.09
Model 2					
Child's gender	.007	.59	.067	.947	-1.21 – 1.20
Familial gender ideology	-.061	.02	-.618	.538	-.05 – .03

* (0 = female, 1 = male)

Table 3.34. *Model Summary for Familial Gender Ideology in Parental Differences of Unique Emotion Words N = 109)*

Predictor Variables	*R*	R^2	ΔR^2	*F*	*p*
Model 1	.017	-.009	.000	.032	.858
Child's gender*					
Model 2	.102	-.008	.010	.561	.572
Child's gender					
Familial gender ideology					

* (0 = female, 1 = male)

Table 3.35. *Hierarchical Regression Results for Familial Gender Ideology in Parental Differences of Unique Emotion Words*

Predictor Variables	*β*	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*95% CI*
Model 1					
Child's gender*	-.017	.29	-.179	.858	-.63 – .53
Model 2					
Child's gender	-.04	.30	-.401	.689	-.71 – .47
Familial gender ideology	.103	.01	1.044	.299	-.01 – .03

* (0 = female, 1 = male)

The following hierarchical regression analysis was performed for the criterion variable conversational turn-taking, and it was indicated that the second model was nonsignificant like the previous analyses, $F(2, 106) = .627$, $p = .536$. Parental difference scores in the conversational turn-taking were not predicted significantly by the gender ideology of the parents after the child's gender was controlled, which was against hypothesis H11c for conversational turns (See Table 3.36, & Table 3.37).

Table 3.36. *Model Summary for Familial Gender Ideology in Parental Differences of Conversational Turn-taking (N = 109)*

Predictor Variables	*R*	R^2	ΔR^2	*F*	*p*
Model 1	.102	.001	.010	1.116	.293
Child's gender*					
Model 2	.108	-.007	.001	.627	.536
Child's gender					
Familial gender ideology					

* (0 = female, 1 = male)

Regarding child outcomes, the hierarchical regression analysis with the child contribution being the criterion variable, the parents' gender ideology being the predictor variable, and the child's gender being the control variable was conducted first. Significant results were evident in the first model, $F(1, 107) = 13.750$, $p < .001$, meaning that the child's gender significantly predicted the child contribution function.

The second model was also significant, $F(2, 106) = 6.813$, $p = .002$ and the second model explained 10% of the variance in the child contribution scores.

Table 3.37. *Hierarchical Regression Results for Familial Gender Ideology in Parental Differences of Conversational Turn-taking*

Predictor Variables	*β*	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*95% CI*
Model 1					
Child's gender*	.102	1.67	1.056	.293	-1.55 – 5.07
Model 2					
Child's gender	.110	1.71	1.110	.269	-1.50 – 5.31
Familial gender ideology	-.038	.06	-.383	.702	-.14 – .09

* (0 = female, 1 = male)

However, it was only due to the highly significant effect of the child's gender. The child's gender predicted the child contribution scores negatively (β = -.339, SE = .11, $p < .001$); when the child's gender is female, the child contribution scores were higher. Thus, the familial gender ideology did not predict the child contribution after the child's gender was controlled, which was inconsistent with hypothesis H11e. Results were provided in Table 3.38, and Table 3.39.

Table 3.38. *Model Summary for Familial Gender Ideology in Child Contribution (N = 109)*

Predictor Variables	*R*	R^2	ΔR^2	*F*	*p*
Model 1	.337	.106	.114	13.750***	< .001
Child's gender*					
Model 2	.338	.097	.000	6.813**	.002
Child's gender					
Familial gender ideology					

* (0 = female, 1 = male)

** $p < .01$

*** $p < .001$

Next analysis included the number of total words used by the children as the criterion variable, the child's gender as the control variable, and parental gender ideology as the predictor variable. Neither the first model $F(1, 107) = .951$, $p = .332$ nor the second

model $F(2, 106) = .495$, $p = .611$ was significant; indicating no significant predictor effect of parental gender ideology on the number of total words used by the children. Therefore, hypothesis H11f was not confirmed for the children's volume of memory talk (See Table 3.40 and Table 3.41). When the number of total emotion words were entered as the predictor variable, the child's gender as the control variable, and parental gender ideology as the predictor variable, none of the models were significant again [the first model was ($F(1, 107) = .953$, $p = .331$); the second model was ($F(2, 106) = .562$, $p = .572$)].

Table 3.39. *Hierarchical Regression Results for Familial Gender Ideology in Child Contribution*

Predictor Variables	*β*	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*95% CI*
Model 1					
Child's gender*	-.337	.11	-3.708**	< .001	-.62 – -.19
Model 2					
Child's gender	-.339	.11	-3.618**	< .001	-.63 – -.18
Familial gender ideology	.006	.00	.067	.947	-.01 – .01

* (0 = female, 1 = male)

** $p < .001$

Table 3.40. *Model Summary for Familial Gender Ideology in Child Total Words (N = 109)*

Predictor Variables	*R*	R^2	ΔR^2	*F*	*p*
Model 1	.094	.000	.009	.951	.332
Child's gender*					
Model 2	.096	-.009	.000	.495	.611
Child's gender					
Familial gender ideology					

* (0 = female, 1 = male)

Parental gender ideology was not a significant predictor of the number of total emotion words used by the children, falsifying hypothesis H11f (See Table 3.42 and Table 3.43).

Subsequent hierarchical regression analysis in which children's number of unique emotion words was the criterion variable, the child's gender was the control variable, and parental gender ideology was the predictor variable indicated similar results with the previous child outcome variables.

Table 3.41. *Hierarchical Regression Results for Familial Gender Ideology in Child Total Words*

Predictor Variables	*β*	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*95% CI*
Model 1					
Child's gender*	-.094	11.34	-.975	.332	-33.53 – 11.42
Model 2					
Child's gender	-.099	11.66	-.995	.322	-34.73 – 11.52
Familial gender ideology	.022	.39	.220	.826	-.69 – .86

* (0 = female, 1 = male)

Table 3.42. *Model Summary for Familial Gender Ideology in Child Total Emotion Words (N = 109)*

Predictor Variables	*R*	R^2	ΔR^2	*F*	*p*
Model 1	.094	.000	.009	.953	.331
Child's gender*					
Model 2	.102	-.008	.002	.562	.572
Child's gender					
Familial gender ideology					

* (0 = female, 1 = male)

Table 3.43. *Hierarchical Regression Results for Familial Gender Ideology in Child Total Emotion Words*

Predictor Variables	*β*	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*95% CI*
Model 1					
Child's gender*	-.094	.46	-.976	.331	-1.36 – .46
Model 2					
Child's gender	-.103	.47	-1.041	.300	-1.43 – .44
Familial gender ideology	.042	.02	.422	.674	-.03 – .04

* (0 = female, 1 = male)

The first ($F(1, 107) = 1.149$, $p = .286$) and the second models ($F(2, 106) = .767$, $p = .467$) were insignificant, pointing out the absence of parental gender ideology's predictor role on the number of unique emotion words used by the children. For this reason, hypothesis H11f was not verified for children's diversity of emotion words (See Table 3.44 and Table 3.45).

The final analysis regarding the child outcome was performed for the child's conversational turn-taking as the criterion variable, with the child's gender being the control variable and parental gender ideology being the predictor variable.

Table 3.44. *Model Summary for Familial Gender Ideology in Child Unique Emotion Words (N = 109)*

Predictor Variables	R	R^2	ΔR^2	F	p
Model 1	.103	.001	.011	1.149	.286
Child's gender*					
Model 2	.119	-.004	.004	.767	.467
Child's gender					
Familial gender ideology					

* (0 = female, 1 = male)

Table 3.45. *Hierarchical Regression Results for Familial Gender Ideology in Child Unique Emotion Words*

Predictor Variables	β	*SE*	t	p	*95% CI*
Model 1					
Child's gender*	-.103	.25	-1.072	.286	-.77 – .23
Model 2					
Child's gender	-.116	.26	-1.179	.241	-.82 – .21
Familial gender ideology	.062	.01	.626	.532	-.01 – .02

* (0 = female, 1 = male)

Nonsignificant findings were found for both the first model ($F(1, 107) = 2.147$, $p = .146$), and the second model ($F(2, 106) = 1.408$, $p = .249$) (See Table 3.46 and Table 3.47). Children's conversational turn-taking were not affected by the child's gender and parental gender ideology significantly, which was incompatible with hypothesis

H11f. Overall, these findings suggested that hypotheses H11a, H11b, H11c, H11e, and H11f were not supported. The next group of analyses was conducted for the parents' individual scores in the memory coding schemes and gender ideology to test hypothesis H11d. In these analyses, the first block included the child's gender, the

Table 3.46. *Model Summary for Familial Gender Ideology in Child Conversational Turn-taking (N = 109)*

Predictor Variables	*R*	R^2	ΔR^2	*F*	*p*
Model 1	.140	.011	.020	2.147	.146
Child's gender*					
Model 2	.161	.008	.006	1.408	.249
Child's gender					
Familial gender ideology					

* (0 = female, 1 = male)

Table 3.47. *Hierarchical Regression Results for Familial Gender Ideology in Child Conversational Turn-taking*

Predictor Variables	*β*	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*95% CI*
Model 1					
Child's gender*	-.140	2.82	-1.465	.146	-9.73 – 1.46
Model 2					
Child's gender	-.158	2.89	-1.606	.111	-10.39 – 1.09
Familial gender ideology	.081	.10	.822	.413	-.11 – .27

* (0 = female, 1 = male)

second block included the parent's gender, and the third block included the individual gender ideology of parents. In the first analysis, the criterion variable was the total words used by parents, with the child's gender and parent's gender being the control variable and parental gender ideology being the predictor variable. Although the first model was not significant ($F(1, 216) = 3.228$, $p = .074$), the second model ($F(2, 215) = 5.698$, $p = .004$), and the third model ($F(3, 214) = 5.155$, $p = .002$) were significant. The second model explained 4% of the variance, and the third model explained 5% of the variance in total words. In the second model, the effect of the child's gender was

not significant, but the effect of the parent's gender was significant (β = -.189, *SE* = 13.34, p = .005). In the third model, the effects of child's gender (β = -.144, *SE* = 13.52, p = .033), parent's gender (β = -.213, *SE* = 13.48, p = .002), and individual parental gender ideology (β = .135, *SE* = .37, p = .049) were all significant (See Tables 3.48 and 3.49). Mothers used significantly higher number of total words in the memory conversations as compared to the fathers. Regarding the child's gender, parents used significantly higher numbers of total words if their child was female. These were evidence for the partial verification of hypotheses H5 and H6. In addition, as parents' individual gender ideologies became more traditional, they used more total words even after the effects of their gender and their children's gender were controlled. This finding was the opposite of what had been proposed in hypothesis H11d regarding the parental volume of memory talk.

Table 3.48. *Model Summary for Individual Gender Ideology in Parent Total Words (N = 218)*

Predictor Variables	*R*	R^2	ΔR^2	*F*	*p*
Model 1	.121	.010	.015	3.228	.074
Child's gender*					
Model 2	.224	.041	.036	5.698**	.004
Child's gender					
Parent's gender*					
Model 3	.260	.054	.017	5.155**	.002
Child's gender					
Parent's gender					
Individual gender ideology					

* (0 = female, 1 = male)

** $p < .01$

In the consecutive analysis, the criterion variable was the total emotion words used by parents, with the child's gender and parent's gender being the control variable and parental gender ideology being the predictor variable. All models were significant including the first model ($F(1, 216) = 5.772$, $p = .017$), the second model ($F(2, 215) = 8.653$, $p < .001$), and the third model ($F(3, 214) = 5.964$, $p < .001$). The first model

explained 2% of the variance, the second model explained 7% of the variance, and the third model explained 6% of the variance in total emotion words. In the first model, the effect of child's gender was significant (β = -.161, *SE* = .45, p = .017).

Table 3.49. *Hierarchical Regression Results for Individual Gender Ideology in Parent Total Words*

Predictor Variables	β	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*95% CI*
Model 1					
Child's gender*	-.121	13.59	-1.797	.074	-51.21 – 2.37
Model 2					
Child's gender	-.120	13.38	-1.800	.073	-50.43 – 2.92
Parent's gender*	-.189	13.34	-2.839***	.005	-64.16 – 11.58
Model 3					
Child's gender	-.144	13.52	-2.145**	.033	-55.63 – 2.35
Parent's gender	-.213	13.48	-3.172***	.002	-69.30 – 16.18
Individual gender ideology	.135	.37	1.978**	.049	-.00 – 1.46

* (0 = female, 1 = male)

** $p < .05$

*** $p < .01$

In the second model, parent's gender (β = -.220, *SE* = .44, $p < .001$) were significant. In the third model, the effects of child's gender (β = -.169, *SE* = .45, p = .012), and parent's gender (β = -.230, *SE* = .45, $p < .001$), were significant but the effect of individual parental gender ideology was not significant (See Tables 3.50 and 3.51). Mothers used significantly higher number of total emotion words in the memory conversations than fathers did. Moreover, parents of daughters used significantly higher numbers of total emotion words as compared to parents of sons. These were partly compatible with hypotheses H5 and H6, but parents' individual gender ideologies did not predict their number of total emotion words significantly after the effects of the parent's gender and child's gender were controlled, and thus, hypothesis H11d was not supported in this regard.

The next analysis included the unique emotion words as the criterion variable used by parents, with the child's gender and parent's gender being the control variable and

parental gender ideology being the predictor variable. All models were significant including the first model ($F(1, 216) = 4.919$, $p = .028$), the second model ($F(2, 215) = 9.076$, $p < .001$), and the third model ($F(3, 214) = 6.399$, $p < .001$). The first model

Table 3.50. *Model Summary for Individual Gender Ideology in Parent Total Emotion Words (N = 218)*

Predictor Variables	*R*	R^2	ΔR^2	*F*	*p*
Model 1	.161	.022	.026	5.772**	.017
Child's gender*					
Model 2	.273	.066	.048	8.653***	< .001
Child's gender					
Parent's gender*					
Model 3	.278	.064	.003	5.964***	< .001
Child's gender					
Parent's gender					
Individual gender ideology					

* (0 = female, 1 = male)

** $p < .05$

*** $p < .001$

Table 3.51. *Hierarchical Regression Results for Individual Gender Ideology in Parent Total Emotion Words*

Predictor Variables	*β*	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*95% CI*
Model 1					
Child's gender*	-.161	.45	-2.402**	.017	-1.99 – -.20
Model 2					
Child's gender	-.159	.44	-2.428**	.016	-1.95 – -.20
Parent's gender*	-.220	.44	-3.356***	< .001	-2.36 – -.61
Model 3					
Child's gender	-.169	.45	-2.529**	.012	-2.03 – -.25
Parent's gender	-.230	.45	-3.440***	< .001	-2.44 – -.66
Individual gender ideology	.053	.01	.786	.433	-.02 – .03

* (0 = female, 1 = male)

** $p < .05$

*** $p < .001$

explained 2% of the variance, the second model and the third model explained 7 % of the variance in unique emotion words. In the first model, the effect of child's gender was significant (β = -.149, *SE* = .25, p = .028). In the second model, the effects of child's gender (β = -.147, *SE* = .24, p = .026) and parent's gender (β = -.236, *SE* = .24, $p < .001$) were significant. In the third model, the effects of child's gender (β = -.160, *SE* = .24, p = .017), and parent's gender (β = -.248, *SE* = .24, $p < .001$), were significant but the effect of individual parental gender ideology was not significant (See Tables 3.52 and 3.53). Mothers used significantly higher number of unique emotion words in the memory conversations as compared to the fathers. Parents used significantly higher numbers of unique emotion words if they had a daughter. These findings confirmed hypotheses H5 and H6 regarding the parental diversity of emotions. Yet, parents' individual gender ideologies did not have a significant predictor role on the number of total emotion words after the effects of parent's and child's gender were controlled. This result failed to support hypothesis H11d in that sense.

Table 3.52. *Model Summary for Individual Gender Ideology in Parent Unique Emotion Words (N = 218)*

Predictor Variables	*R*	R^2	ΔR^2	*F*	*p*
Model 1	.149	.018	.022	4.919**	.028
Child's gender*					
Model 2	.279	.069	.056	9.076***	< .001
Child's gender					
Parent's gender*					
Model 3	.287	.069	.004	6.399***	< .001
Child's gender					
Parent's gender					
Individual gender ideology					

* (0 = female, 1 = male)
** $p < .05$
*** $p < .001$

The final analysis was conducted for the conversational turn-taking of the parents as the criterion variable, with the child's gender and parent's gender being the control

variable and parental gender ideology being the predictor variable. According to the results, none of the models were significant; the parent's gender, the child's gender, and the individual gender ideology of parents did not significantly predict the number of parental conversational turn-taking (See Tables 3.54 and 3.55). Hence, hypotheses H5, H6, and H11d regarding parents' conversational turn-takings were not supported.

Table 3.53. *Hierarchical Regression Results for Individual Gender Ideology in Parent Unique Emotion Words*

Predictor Variables	*β*	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*95% CI*
Model 1					
Child's gender*	-.149	.25	-2.218**	.028	-1.03 – -.06
Model 2					
Child's gender	-.147	.24	-2.245**	.026	-1.01 – -.06
Parent's gender*	-.236	.24	-3.600***	< .001	-1.38 – -.43
Model 3					
Child's gender	-.160	.24	-2.395**	.017	-1.06 – -.10
Parent's gender	-.248	.24	-3.726***	< .001	-1.38 – -.43
Individual gender ideology	.069	.01	1.020	.309	-.01 – .02

* (0 = female, 1 = male)

** $p < .05$

*** $p < .001$

Table 3.54. *Model Summary for Individual Gender Ideology in Parent Conversational Turn-taking (N = 218)*

Predictor Variables	*R*	R^2	ΔR^2	*F*	*p*
Model 1	.105	.007	.011	2.427	.121
Child's gender*					
Model 2	.163	.017	.015	2.928	.056
Child's gender					
Parent's gender*					
Model 3	.176	.017	.005	2.285	.080
Child's gender					
Parent's gender					
Individual gender ideology					

* (0 = female, 1 = male)

In conclusion, hypotheses H11a, H11b, H11c, H11d, H11e, and H11f were not supported. However, although previously not supported in the analyses of 2 X 2 mixed design ANOVAs, the results of hierarchical regression analyses supported hypotheses H5 and H6 except for the conversational turns. Having a daughter resulted in the use

Table 3.55. *Hierarchical Regression Results for Individual Gender Ideology in Parent Conversational Turn-taking*

Predictor Variables	*β*	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*95% CI*
Model 1					
Child's gender*	-.105	1.85	-1.558	.121	-6.53 – .77
Model 2					
Child's gender	-.104	1.84	-1.549	.123	-6.48 – .78
Parent's gender*	-.124	1.84	-1.844	.066	-7.01 – .23
Model 3					
Child's gender	-.117	1.87	-1.707	.089	-6.89 – .50
Parent's gender	-.137	1.87	-1.996**	.047	-7.41 – -.05
Individual gender ideology	.070	.05	1.000	.318	-.05 – .15

* (0 = female, 1 = male)

** $p < .05$

of a higher number of total words, total emotion words, and unique emotion words, and being a mother predicted the use of a higher number of total words, total emotion words, and unique emotion words.

3.6. Analyses for Exploratory Purposes

For exploratory purposes, the remaining FAAS functions that were not tested (i.e., participation, organization, focalization, and interactive sequence), FAAS family alliance category, and FAAS total family score (the score obtained by summing up only the functions of participation, organization, focalization, and interactive sequence) were examined in relation to gender differences and parental gender ideology.

The family alliance category included six family alliance types (1 = cooperative fluid, 2 = cooperative tense, 3 = conflicted covert, 4 = conflicted overt, 5 = disordered exclusive, and 6 = disordered chaotic). Yet, although it was a categorized variable, it was treated as a continuous variable so that the required analyses could be conducted. Significant findings were reported only.

3.6.1. Exploratory Analyses via Independent Samples T-tests for Child's Gender Differences

Whether there were any significant differences depending on the child's gender in other functions of FAAS, FAAS family alliance type, and FAAS total family score were tested by several independent samples t-test analyses.

Before conducting the analysis, assumption of normality for two groups (i.e., boys and girls) was tested by skewness and kurtosis values. All kurtosis and skewness values were in the widely accepted range of normality, which is the range between + 2 and – 2 (George, & Mallery, 2010).

According to the results, Levene's test results were nonsignificant for all the variables, implying homogeneity of variance assumption was met for all dependent variables. Thus, results based on equal variances assumed were taken into consideration. Independent samples t-test analyses showed that the families' participation, organization, interactive sequence, total family score, and family alliance category scores were not significantly different depending on the child's gender. Yet, families' focalization scores changed as a function of the child's gender; the families with daughters got significantly higher scores as compared to the families with sons, t (107) = 2.410, p = .018, 95% CI [0.05, 0.50] with a medium effect (d = .46, 95% CI [0.08, 0.84]) (See Table 3.56).

Table 3.56. *Independent Samples T-test Results for Focalization (N = 109)*

Variable		*N*	*M*	*SD*	*t* (107)	*p*	*95% CI*
Focalization	girls	51	1.70	.65	2.410*	.018	.05 – .50
	boys	58	1.42	.54			

* $p < .05$

3.6.2. Exploratory Analyses via Hierarchical Regression

Whether the remaining FAAS functions (i.e., participation, organization, focalization, & interactive sequence), FAAS family alliance type, and FAAS total family score predicted the number of parental differences in the memory coding schemes was tested by hierarchical regression analyses. Moreover, it was examined whether egalitarian gender ideology is associated with higher scores in these variables. Only significant findings were reported below. Before going further with the analyses, assumptions of hierarchical regression (i.e., normality, homoscedasticity, linearity, outliers, multicollinearity, and independence of residuals) were controlled.

The assumption of normality was tested for the criterion variables. When the histograms and Normal Probability Plots (P-P) were examined, the distributions were generally close to normal. Thus, this assumption was thought to be met.

Homoscedasticity, linearity, and outliers were checked by the scatterplot of the standardized residuals. It was inferred that the scatterplots represented homoscedasticity in general. Regarding linearity, residual scatterplots looked almost rectangular and not curved, meeting the linearity assumption for these variables. The distribution of standardized residuals demonstrated that most scores were distributed within the acceptable range of +3.3 and -3.3. Thus, the assumption of outliers was met since there were only a few outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013)

The correlations between the predictor variables were not high. Myers (1990) stated that VIF score is supposed to be below 10, which was the case for all predictor variables (as cited in Field, 2009). Similarly, tolerance values were above .10 for as Field (2009) suggested. In conclusion, the multicollinearity assumption was met. Finally, the assumption of independence of residuals was tested by Durbin Watson test, all values were within the acceptable range of 0 and 4 (Field, 2009).

3.6.2.1. Predictor Roles of Other FAAS-Related Variables on the Parental Difference Scores in Reminiscing

Predictor roles of other FAAS functions, FAAS total family score, and family alliance category on the parental difference scores in coding of memory conversations were

examined. Since FAAS total family score is the sum of participation, organization, focalization, interactive sequence, and affect sharing functions, it was highly correlated with these functions, which implied multicollinearity. Hence, separate analyses were performed for FAAS total family score as the predictor variable. Participation, organization, focalization, interactive sequence, FAAS family alliance type, and FAAS total family score were the predictors, and the child's gender was the control variable. The control variable was added to the first model, and the predictors were added to the second model. According to the results, none of the models were significant. Therefore, previous findings were replicated for these variables. It was concluded that FAAS functions, FAAS total family score, and family alliance category were not significant predictors of parental difference scores in the number of total words, total emotion words, unique emotion words, and conversational turn-taking after the child's gender was controlled.

3.6.2.2. Predictor Role of Gender Ideology on Other FAAS-Related Variables

Next group of analyses were performed to test whether there was any significant effect of gender ideology on participation, organization, focalization, interactive sequence, FAAS family alliance type, and FAAS total family score. The control variable child's gender was added to the first model, and the predictor variable familial gender ideology scores (means of the parents within each family) were added to the second model. Gender ideology of families was not a significant predictor of any other FAAS-related variables.

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

The main aim of the current study was to identify the link between triadic family play and reminiscing conversations, the gender differences in these two contexts, and whether individual/familial gender ideology affected these gender differences. This chapter of the dissertation discussed these results by running through previous research and explaining which hypotheses were unsupported for which reasons. The culture-related observations of the researcher were mentioned since these observations were notable indications of Turkey's cultural context, which may have affected the results considerably. Afterward, the strengths and limitations of the current study were clarified. Finally, what would be the potential implications of the present study and how future studies would be directed based on these results were explained.

4.1. Cultural Observations of the Researcher about Family Dynamics in Turkey

During the online Zoom meetings conducted with Turkish families, the researcher had the opportunity to observe each family and make inferences about Turkey's cultural context regarding family dynamics. To begin with, mothers were more willing to be the ones who communicated first with the research team as compared to fathers, and thus, they were more socially competent in general. Another attention-grabbing observation was related to which family member(s) brought the LTP materials that were asked for. In most cases, either only the mothers themselves or mothers and children together brought the play materials while the fathers waited for them to come back. Fathers only occasionally took part in this task. The absence of the division of labor, even in such a simple task, implied how traditional these families were, even if they were highly educated individuals with middle or middle-high SES backgrounds. Yet another inference about family dynamics of Turkish families was about how

problematic it was for some families to set boundaries for their children. In the last phase of LTP, parents were supposed to be active partners in discussing a topic they selected, and the child was supposed to be a passive partner playing by herself and sitting quietly without interrupting the ongoing interaction between the parents. However, some children pushed the limits and received no feedback from their parents about their off-limit behaviors. Sometimes the child asked her parents to continue the previous game they played as a family, and the parents just complied without even questioning the child's demands and reminding the rules of LTP. Families were supposed to play in a specific time period to complete all parts of the LTP, but due to the child's interference in the last phase, some families failed to meet the fourth part. A few families could not even move on to the final stage for the same reason. Although there might be some within-culture and individual differences regarding how interrelated or individuated persons are in Turkey (Sahin-Acar & Leichtman, 2015), these blurred lines between parents and the child may be explained by Turkey's cultural context going hand in hand with collectivism in general (Çukur et al., 2004). Moreover, Turkey is one of the countries identified with a more religious society in comparison to other European countries, which may be associated with rearing children as less independent and more obedient to authority figures (Acevedo et al., 2015). In such a cultural environment, parents might cross the line of the child's personal boundaries by being overprotective (Sümer & Kağıtçıbaşı, 2019) or intrusive (Yaman et al., 2010). Intervention studies in Turkey specifically focus on such dysfunctional characteristics of Turkish parents to improve their parenting qualities. For instance, one study administered a video-based intervention program for Turkish mothers with low and middle SES to increase their maternal sensitivity to their toddlers. The results of the intervention program revealed that maternal sensitivity was increased only after maternal intrusiveness was decreased by feedback (Alsancak-Akbulut et al., 2021). Another example from the present study about this issue can also be given. Although children at such an age (i.e., 48-72 months of age) had the cognitive capacity to understand what is going on in different parts of LTP, in several families, transitions between the stages of LTP were not even explained to the child. This situation may have implied that the parents did not think of the child's presence as an autonomous

individual. The conclusion might be that such a cultural context as Turkey's may bring about the child's individuality and autonomy remaining in the background.

The final observation was about the play preferences of families. Although it was not investigated in the current study, it was observed that the type of play changed as a function of the child's gender for most families. In families of daughters, both parents preferred pretend play in general, including household or caring themes. In families of sons, conversely, more adventurous games were preferred, such as camping, making a fire, hunting, being a superhero, etc. This observation was consistent with previous research indicating gender differences in the child's play preferences or parental play preferences for their children (Boxberger & Reimers, 2019; Lilliard, 2015; Lindsey & Mize, 2001).

4.2. Findings about Child's Gender Differences in FAAS and Reminiscing

Hypotheses H1, H2, H3, and H4 proposed that the child's gender would make a difference in FAAS functions and memory conversations' coding schemes. The independent samples t-test results supported hypothesis H3, whereas hypotheses H1, H2, and H4 were not supported. Girls got significantly higher scores in the triadic family play regarding child contribution function, which was composed of child engagement and goal-directed partnership subscales. The study of Favez et al. (2011) found no differences in FAAS subscales based on the child's gender, but this study was conducted with infants. The socialization process of gender imposed by parents may show itself more clearly among preschool-aged children (e.g., Denham et al., 2010). Girls' advantage in the child contribution function might have been stemmed from parental behaviors and children's play preferences based on their gender.

One explanation for girls' advantage might be related to the finding of a higher level of engagement parents may show in the play if the child's gender is female, as indicated in the study of Clearfield and Nelson (2006), which may encourage girls to be more engaged in play. Moreover, mothers and fathers show different behavioral patterns when interacting with their children during play, reinforcing their children to do the same based on their gender. For instance, mothers prioritize play structure, while fathers behave in a more relaxed manner in that sense and let the child rule the game

(John et al., 2013). Thus, girls might be encouraged to be more goal-oriented during the play as compared to boys. Another reason might be related to the fact that mothers tend to prefer pretend play more than fathers, parents of girls are more prone to pretend play (Lindsey et al., 1997; Lindsey & Mize, 2001), and female children prefer pretend play more than boys (Edwards et al., 2001). In the current study, most families preferred pretend play with LTP materials regardless of the child's gender since they were more appropriate for such play. As suggested by the previous research, girls might be more competent in and familiar with such games, which may have resulted in girls getting higher scores regarding child contribution function.

Research on memory conversations about emotionally charged experiences showed that both mothers and fathers tend to provide richer emotional content if their child is a female (Aznar & Tenenbaum, 2015; Fivush et al., 2000). Similar gender differences were also reflected in the parent-child play, which was why affect sharing in LTP was expected to be higher in families with daughters. Another reason for the assumption that families with daughters are better at affect sharing was that parents of sons are more likely to have higher expectations regarding achievement. Thus, they act more authoritative in play interactions (Grebelsky-Lichtman, 2014). Therefore, families with boys played in a way displaying fewer emotions compared to families with girls. In other words, families with boys ended up receiving lower scores in affect sharing. Moreover, it was assumed that being more sensitive to female children on the emotional level as mothers and fathers would lead to parents of girls showing higher levels of co-parenting in daily parent-child interactions, including play context. Stright (2004) also proposed that since fathers undertake more parenting with their male children in everyday interactions, the probability of having trouble in co-parenting during everyday interactions, including playtime, is more likely to be announced in families with boys. However, unlike the child contribution function showing significant gender difference, families with daughters did not obtain higher scores in the triadic play about affect sharing and co-parenting function than families with sons. These findings were unexpected and incongruent with hypotheses H1, H2, and previous studies finding differential parental behaviors based on the child's gender during play interactions (Boxberger & Reimers, 2019; Lilliard, 2015; Lindsey & Mize, 2001). Nevertheless, such a finding could be justified because previous research on

LTP did not exert any significant child gender-related differences in none of the FAAS subscales (Favez et al., 2011). In addition, some studies find no significant association of the child's gender with parental behavior in play (Aznar & Tenenbaum, 2016; Gold et al., 2015) or reminiscing (Zaman & Fivush, 2013). It can also be speculated that since the play context is likely to be weaker regarding emotional intensity and emotional expression compared to the times when conversing about a shared past event, gender differences were not found. Overall, it was evident in the current study that families did not behave differently based on the child's gender on the emotional level and regarding cooperation with the spouse. However, for the abovementioned reasons, girls had higher scores in the child contribution function composed of engagement and goal-directedness levels.

Another nonsignificant finding about the child's gender was about the reminiscing conversations' coding schemes. Girls and boys used a similar number of total words, total emotion words, and unique emotion words, and they did not differ in the number of conversational turns, which did not support the hypotheses of H4. Even though hypotheses H5 and H6 supported that parents of girls and mothers had higher numbers of total words, total emotion words, unique emotion words, and conversational turn-taking, such gender effects did not spill over to the children's volume and emotional content in reminiscing. Previous research provided mixed evidence for this issue in the parent-child reminiscing context; some studies found significant gender differences in favor of girls (e.g., Fivush et al., 2000), whereas some studies could not reveal gender effect (e.g., Bost et al., 2010; Pavlova et al., 2022). Non-significant findings in the current study might be related to the fact that it would be too early to observe gender differences in children who are 48-72 months of age. Long-term effects of gendered parenting and observation of such differences may not emerge until the end of childhood and the beginning of adolescence (Chaplin & Aldao, 2013).

4.3. Findings about the Interaction between Parent's and Child's Gender on Reminiscing

Hypotheses H5, H6, & H7, suggesting that both parent's and child's gender would make a difference in the scores of total words, total emotion words, unique emotion words, and conversational turn-taking, were tested by 2 X 2 mixed design ANOVAs.

For all dependent variables (i.e., number of total words, total emotion words, unique emotion words, and conversational turn-taking), results revealed that the main effect of the parent's gender was significant, supporting H5. In contrast, the effects of the child's gender and interaction effect were not significant, which failed to support H6 and H7. Mothers used significantly more total words, total emotion words, and unique emotion words, and they took more turns in the conversations about shared past events, which was consistently supported by the previous research (Aznar & Tenanbaum, 2015; Bost et al., 2010; Bürümlü-Kısa, & Sahin-Acar, 2020; Fivush et al., 2000; van der Pol et al., 2015). When the cultural context is considered in Turkey, as mentioned before, it was unsurprising to find such results since parental differences in the emotional tone of reminiscing are quite possible to show up in such traditional cultural backgrounds. Moreover, this finding also aligned with the previous research showing that even within egalitarian cultures, children still tend to express more emotions when talking to their mothers than their fathers (Svane et al., 2022). This is probably because children know their mothers present them with more intense emotional content during daily interactions; they are more likely to prefer to express themselves emotionally when talking to their mothers rather than to their fathers.

ANOVA results did not indicate a significant main effect of the child's gender on parental memory coding schemes. However, the picture changed a lot when hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to examine the predictor effect of gender ideology. Gender ideology was operationally defined as whether the parents have egalitarian or traditional gender ideology regarding child rearing, women's working life, and household tasks. When the child's gender was added to the first models of every analysis as the control variable, it was found that the child's gender was a significant predictor of parents' scores in memory coding schemes except conversational turn-taking. As expected, if the family had a boy, parents of that family were more likely to use fewer words, total emotion words, and unique emotion words even after controlling the parental gender ideology, but this was not valid for conversational turn-taking. Hence, hypothesis H6 was partially supported. These findings advocated the previous literature showing how the child's gender affects the volume, content, and emotional intensity of parent-child talks about a shared past event (Aznar & Tenanbaum, 2015; Bürümlü-Kısa, & Sahin-Acar, 2020; Fivush et al., 2000;

Leaper et al., 1998; Lund et al., 2021). However, the finding of nonsignificant difference in conversational turn-taking as a function of the child's gender was contradictory to previous research (Bürümlü-Kısa, & Sahin-Acar, 2020). The association between child's gender and conversational turns taken by the parents was disappeared after the parental gender ideology was controlled. Moreover, when the parent's gender was entered as the control variable of the model in which the individual gender ideology of the parents was the predictor, the effect of the parent's gender on conversational turn-taking was not significant, again conflicting with the study of Bürümlü-Kısa and Sahin-Acar (2020). Although supported in ANOVA, nonsignificant regression results revealed that the parental number of conversational turns did not have a causal link with the parent's gender after controlling the child's gender and parental gender ideology. Statistically, the unique contributions of the parent's gender and child's gender on parental conversational turns may have decreased substantially due to the exclusion of the shared variances in regression analyses. It is possible that parents may show similar levels of participation in triadic reminiscing regardless of the child's and parent's gender after the gender ideology was controlled, although they may talk more to their daughters, and mothers talk more than fathers. However, the mean scores of the parents with daughters were higher than the mean scores of parents with sons in conversational turns. Similarly, the means of mothers were higher than the means of fathers in turn-taking. The non-significance of the results can also be explained by the limited sample size resulting in low power to detect an effect present in the true nature (Akobeng, 2016).

Another interesting finding about the gender differences in reminiscing was that the interaction effect between parent's and child's gender on parental scores of memory coding schemes was also not significant, which negated hypothesis H7. Because being a mother and having a daughter was associated with more voluminous and emotionally rich content in the present study and previous research (Aznar & Tenanbaum, 2015; Bost et al., 2010; Bürümlü-Kısa, & Sahin-Acar, 2020; Fivush et al., 2000; Leaper et al., 1998; Lund et al., 2021), the interaction effect of parent and child gender was also expected to be significant. Among all possible combinations of parent-child pairs based on gender, mothers of girls were expected to get the highest scores in memory coding schemes, which were supposed to be followed by mothers of sons, fathers of

daughters, and fathers of sons, but this was not the case. Yet, when the mean scores were compared for these parent-child pairs, the trend was in the expected direction. Again, there is a possibility that non-significant findings may be due to the lower sample size resulting in the lack of statistical power. Another possibility might be that potential mediators or moderators other than the child's or parent's gender can also be influential on the volume and emotionality of parental reminiscing. For instance, Jean and Elizabeth (2022) found that mothers tend to speak more in dyadic play interactions when the child's receptive and expressive vocabulary is higher. Therefore, parents in the present study may have also considered their children's receptive and expressive language development capacity and provided content accordingly during the conversations about shared past events. Previous literature also indicated that sociable children tend to receive a more voluminous reminiscing conversation from their parents. In contrast, parents tend to provide a less voluminous memory talk to their children labeled as active (Lewis, 1999). Hence, the child's temperament might have made a difference as a moderator variable, too. Moreover, it was believed that some families, especially some fathers, were not used to playing with their children daily because it was evident that they had difficulty initiating a play activity. Some parents looked surprised at the beginning of LTP and even asked the opinions of the researchers regarding what type of play they could choose and create. Some parents, on the other hand, created and constructed an effective game spontaneously without any challenge.

These results about parents' and child's gender differences suggested that traditional gender roles and gender stereotypes in Turkey seem to be prevalent among even today's highly educated individuals with middle or high SES, just like the current study sample. The cultural context in Turkey differs from other European or American countries, endowed with religious and collectivistic background (Çukur et al., 2004; Kağıtçıbaşı & Ataca, 2015). Although within-culture variation may exist in Turkey (Şahin-Acar & Leichtman, 2015), and Turkish society is now more modernized following the global trend of gender egalitarianism, previous research showed that gender stereotypes and traditional gender roles are still prevalent in today's Turkish individuals. To illustrate, Sakallı-Uğurlu et al. (2018) conducted a qualitative study in which undergraduate students were asked to write down adjectives that they thought

to be related to being a woman or a man. Thematic analyses elicited themes of fragility, selfishness (probably used for feminist women as suggested by the authors), motherhood, faithfulness, dependence, and indecision for women. For men, themes related to fatherhood, protectorate, and trustworthiness, which were manifestations of an honor culture, were prominent, supporting the presence of sexism in Turkey. Negative attitudes of both male and female workers about women's working life were also found in previous studies (Güney et al., 2006; Koca et al., 2011), again indicating the traditional gender ideology of people in Turkey. The cross-cultural study of Güney and her colleagues (2006) demonstrated that male and female Turkish academicians had negative attitudes toward a female manager even when compared to a less developed country like Pakistani. In fact, in the same study, Turkish female academicians were found to have more negative attitudes than their Turkish male counterparts. Another study by Koca and her colleagues (2011) revealed that both male and female workers of the General Directorate of Youth and Sport (GDYS) in Turkey exerted negative attitudes regarding women's working life. The results of these studies manifested the extent to which society in Turkey is traditional about gender ideology. Overall, finding such significant gender differences in family interactions in such a cultural context was expected and seemed to be confirmed by the current study's findings.

4.4. Findings about Predictor Role of Affect Sharing, Co-parenting, and the Child's Gender on Parental Difference Scores in Reminiscing

Hypotheses of H8, H9, and H10 proposed that having a daughter and having higher scores in affect sharing and co-parenting in triadic play are associated with fewer parental difference scores in memory conversations (i.e., total words, total emotion words, unique emotion words, and conversational turn-taking). However, none of the hypotheses about parental difference scores except partial confirmation of hypothesis H10 regarding conversational turn-taking were supported in the current study. Therefore, one might speculate that triadic family dynamics regarding spousal support, emotion sharing, and the child's gender had nothing to do with differences between the parents of the same family in the volume and emotional intensity of the memory conversations. One exception was that as the co-parenting between parents in the triadic play increased, fewer differences between parents in the number of

conversational turn-takings were evident regardless of the child's gender, supporting hypothesis 10d. This was anticipated and made sense since when co-parental support is more and co-parental conflict is rare, it was more likely that mothers and fathers showed similar levels of participation in memory conversations and took a similar number of conversational turns. A similar study investigating the co-parenting quality and language development in toddlerhood via triadic and dyadic parent-child interactions demonstrated that not mothers' but fathers' vocabulary was associated with co-parenting quality (Jean & Elizabeth, 2022). The current study was novel since it indicated that this may also be valid for mothers.

To the best of our knowledge, although exact hypotheses were not tested before in the literature, nonsignificant results about parental difference scores in memory coding schemes were not in tune with the former studies. Firstly, the nonsignificant predictor effect of co-parenting on parental difference scores in memory conversation variables was not in line with previous similar research. To illustrate, the study of Kolak and Volling (2007) claimed that when the parents, specifically fathers, were better at positive emotional expression, they were likely to have enhanced co-parenting quality. In this study, however, emotional expressiveness was measured by applying a scale rather than observing and coding dyadic or triadic interaction. The measurement method used might have created a difference between the results of that study and the current study.

Similar to co-parenting, higher affect sharing in triadic play was expected to have a connection to fewer parental difference scores in memory coding schemes, but this hypothesis was also not supported. This may have stemmed from measurement differences between affect sharing in triadic play and reminiscing conversations' volume and emotional intensity. Affect sharing in triadic play was the composition score of three subscales: family warmth, validation of the child's experience, and authenticity of the expressed affect. These variables may not be related to the number of total words, emotion words used, or conversational turns taken in the reminiscing task. For example, some families during the triadic play used more words in an emotionally rich manner. Still, if they were not perceived as authentic by the raters, they received lower scores in the affect sharing function, or if the parents did not validate the child's emotions, they received lower scores. Indeed, if triadic positive

affect sharing between family members is perceived as missing, they could not have the highest score in affect sharing. Such differences between the scoring of affect sharing in triadic play and coding of reminiscing conversation may explain the missing link between these contexts. In other words, in the related literature, zoom-in coding techniques, which refer to quantifying the qualitative data by frequency count, are more prevalent. Whereas, in FAAS, all codings are via zoom-out coding techniques, which refer to assigning a number showing a degree of the measured construct, like a Likert-type scale, reported by the researcher (Grysman & Mansfield, 2020). Thus, the reason why the current study did not replicate the findings on emotion socialization might be due to the difference in coding techniques, as well.

One crucial point to be considered was that triadic family dynamics should have been evaluated on the family level since it was explicitly explained during the training of LTP and FAAS that only assessing one parent and evaluating a family based on only one parent's behaviors would be misleading. In other words, all codings in FAAS are family-level codings rather than individual-level codings. Moreover, if the coders were in between two ratings when evaluating a family on FAAS, it was suggested by the trainer that the family should receive a higher score as much as possible. Still, it was possible that some coders may have given higher or lower scores to some families due to only one parent's positive or negative behaviors during the play. This kind of biased evaluation might have prevented the discovery of the link between FAAS scores, and parental difference scores obtained from the reminiscing task.

There might be one possible confounding variable that prevented the significant predictor role of affect sharing and co-parenting on parental differences of memory coding schemes: The shared past event that was discussed belonged to which parent's suggestion? In the present study, each parent was asked to write down a few keywords reminding a shared past event to be discussed. Afterward, if both past events met the criteria, parents were allowed to choose one of the events to discuss. If only one past event was eligible for the study, then this event was selected automatically. It was likely that the parent whose past event had been chosen might have talked more voluminously and emotionally and participated more in the conversation about that event. Therefore, parental differences in memory talks might have been derived from the choice of the events to be talked about. This may explain why the present study

failed to show significant associations between FAAS functions and parental differences in memory conversations about shared-past events.

Regarding the child's gender, having a daughter did not result in fewer differences between parental scores in memory variables. It seems that although parents considered their child's gender when talking about a shared past event and they got higher scores in memory coding schemes if they had a daughter, the gap between mothers and fathers did not seem to decrease even if the child is a female. This might be again related to gendered parental attitudes and behaviors of Turkish parents originating from Turkey's comparatively sexist cultural background (Güney et al., 2006; Koca et al., 2011). Such gendered parenting may have a survival value for the children in such collectivistic cultures since the main aim of parents in these cultures is to raise obedient, reliable children who behave properly in line with the cultural expectations (Triandis, 1989). Even if they have a more egalitarian gender ideology on the attitudinal level, parents still tend to behave contrary to their beliefs and attitudes (Halpern & Perry-Jenkins, 2016) by directly modeling traditional gender roles and stereotypes to their children in daily talks about past events. In this way, parents would hope to raise a child well-adapted to the cultural context and ready to transmit the same gender ideology. The parents know if their children become individuals who are the proponents of gender egalitarianism, they will be perceived as deviants of society and confront the cost of being socially excluded. This was the possible reason why mothers and fathers might have behaved by expected gender roles and stereotypes during the triadic play and memory talk.

4.5. Findings about Predictor Role of Gender Ideology on FAAS and Reminiscing

Hypotheses of H11 were about the predictor role of individual and familial gender ideology on affect sharing, co-parenting, and memory talks' coding schemes. It was proposed that families with a more egalitarian gender ideology would receive higher scores from affect sharing and co-parenting. It was also suggested that if families have more egalitarian beliefs and attitudes, parental scores and their children's scores in memory coding schemes would be higher than families with more traditional views would have.

It was also suggested that if families have more egalitarian beliefs and attitudes, parental difference scores in reminiscing would be lower than families with more traditional views would have. However, none of the hypotheses were supported. The only significant effect was that the individual gender ideology of parents was found to be significantly related to the number of total words used by the parents in the memory task even after the child's and parent's gender were controlled. Interestingly, as the parental gender ideology became more traditional, the volume of the memory talk was likely to increase, which was the opposite of what was suggested in hypothesis H11d. Two explanations can be given here: statistical type 1 error (i.e., false positive) would have been committed since dependent regression analyses were conducted consecutively for different criterion variables (Banerjee et al., 2009). Another explanation would be that although such parents used more total words, it was just about quantity, not quality. Thus, a higher volume of memory talk may not mean an advantage for families with traditional views. For instance, it may be speculated that they may have fallen into repetitions more, or they may have used fewer open-ended questions in relation to parents with more egalitarian views. This implies a lower quality of these conversations since parental elaboration is a desirable parental characteristic for child outcomes (Leyva et al., 2019).

Some previous research claimed that the gender ideology of parents may affect their behaviors in their interactions with their children. Bulanda's (2004) study demonstrated that fathers with more egalitarian gender attitudes take place more time in childcaring regarding spare time activities (e.g., playing with the child, helping the child with reading or assignments, or having private conversations with the child) and hours they spent with their children. However, this may not always be valid since it has also been known that parental beliefs and attitudes about gender ideology may not always be reflected in daily interactions with the child. Rather, observable parental behaviors, including household task labor and time spent in childcare, might be a more accurate predictor of parental or familial gender ideologies (Halpern & Perry-Jenkins, 2016). In addition, as explained before, it seems that being a part of a more conservative and collectivistic culture like Turkey obliges even Turkish parents with egalitarian views to comply with cultural expectations about gender. Regardless of their gender ideology, parents' primary consideration is providing their children's

adaptation to society and survival in that society. These interpretations may explain why having an egalitarian or traditional gender ideology as an individual or family failed to predict affect sharing and co-parenting in triadic play and the volume and emotional content of memory talks.

4.6. Findings about Analyses for Exploratory Purposes

Similar analyses were conducted to examine untested FAAS-related variables, including FAAS total family score, FAAS family alliance category, and the remaining FAAS functions (i.e., participation, organization, focalization, & interactive sequence). Initially, whether there were any significant differences regarding the child's gender was tested. The only significant gender difference belonged to the focalization function composed of co-construction and parental scaffolding. This finding is in tune with the existing literature since some studies showed that parents are likely to give more importance to parental scaffolding when playing with girls than when playing with boys (Conner & Cross, 2003; Lowe et al., 2014; Tenenbaum & Leaper, 1998). This may also be justified by parents being role models for such gender differences; mothers are more structure-oriented during play interactions with their children compared to fathers (John et al., 2013). Thus, parents may expect the same from their daughters, who may be perceived as future mothers, by showing more effective parental scaffolding and co-construction during triadic play.

Like previous analyses, the remaining FAAS functions, FAAS family alliance type, and FAAS total family score did not significantly predict parental difference scores in the memory coding schemes. Together with previous findings, this can be interpreted as that the gap between mothers and fathers regarding volume, emotional content, and the number of conversational turns in memory talk are too strong and permanent to be changed by family dynamics in triadic play, the child's gender, or familial gender ideology. In other more egalitarian cultures, the situation might be different, but in countries with cultures like Turkey's, families consistently may tend to show this pattern in favor of mothers in general. Finally, familial gender ideology was not related to any of the other FAAS-related variables in the current study. Similar explanations that parental behavior matters more than parental attitudes and beliefs regarding gender roles and stereotypes can also be valid here.

4.7. Strengths and Limitations of the Study

To our knowledge, this study was one of the very first studies investigating the effects of gender and gender ideology factors on triadic family play and memory talk interactions. At the same time, the current study was also the first to examine mother-father-child reminiscing with the LTP procedure, in which they played together. The present study was valuable since the results supported the notion that parental behaviors do not necessarily need to be related in different contexts. Playing efficiently with the child may not necessarily mean having a reminiscing conversation rich in content and volume or vice versa. This may signify that different cognitive capacities may be responsible for reminiscing and play context.

The present study simultaneously used zoom-in and zoom-out coding techniques. Moreover, the current study made a contribution to the related literature by applying LTP and assessing the family dynamics of Turkish families in a triadic composition. Another strength of this study was that the selection of diverse families from different cities in Turkey for the current sample made it easier to reach conclusions about the Turkish family structure. According to our observations and findings, one of the most remarkable characteristics of Turkish parents was the problem of setting limits for their children. To illustrate, it was observed that many Turkish families had problems differentiating the last task of the LTP, in which both parents were supposed to discuss a topic while the child should be a passive partner. The majority of parents could not refuse their children's requests or could not stop the child from interfering in the last part of LTP, and some families even preferred to go back to the third phase of LTP, which was defined as triadic play. What’s more, only a few families explained to the child that they as parents would discuss something, and that the child should sit in their place quietly without interrupting. Such cases exemplified how hard it was for some Turkish families to set healthy boundaries with their children, which indicates impaired limits in the family system, and which should be explored by future studies. Lastly, since previous research mainly focused on the mother-child relationship (Kulkofski et al., 2009; Reese et al., 2019; Sales & Fivush, 2005; Valentino et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2010; Wareham & Salmon, 2006), the current study was valuable in extending the literature on paternal involvement in play interactions and memory

talk. Another advantage of the study would be the use of online Zoom program meetings for the data gathering process. Inviting strangers to their homes, even for scientific research purposes, would have challenged some families. In addition, since the data gathering time coincided with the Coronavirus pandemic, people would have been more suspicious about hosting researchers at their homes. Zoom meetings overcame such problems, and money and time were saved during data collection.

This study was not free of a few limitations. One of the limitations would be the study's limited sample size; a higher sample size would have given more accurate results. Another limitation would be the nature of the study related to having a mixed-method design, including a qualitative part that was quantified. Quantifying qualitative data means losing its richness by limiting it (Hafsa, 2019). In addition, since the data of the present study was obtained from the research study funded by The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Türkiye (TÜBİTAK), the research team was composed of many researchers involved in both the data gathering and coding processes. Multiple coders may have decreased the reliability of the results. Researchers were not blind to study hypotheses, which may have created a bias during the coding process. Finally, the data gathering process via Zoom may not only be advantageous but also has some disadvantages, too. Meetings with families online and not in a laboratory setting with a more controlled environment may have reduced the interval validity of the research.

4.8. Implications and Future Directions

The current study has important implications, particularly on the role of gender in family socialization. As an implication, parents could receive psychosocial education through seminars on implementing gender equality when parenting, increase qualities of play interactions and memory talks, and make both contexts emotionally richer for all family members. Researchers may also develop intervention studies to aim at reaching such targets. Since having a gender-egalitarian ideology may not always mean behaving in accordance with that ideology in parenting, interventions should target concrete and observable parental behaviors, not attitudes and beliefs. For instance, division of labor in household tasks and childcare, the use of emotional expression can be targeted to be changed, and, in this way, stereotypical perceptions

of being a woman and a man can be altered effectively. Through education, parents can realize that gender differences in parental and child behavior are not innate but the result of parental modeling and societal pressures. Additionally, seminars can be arranged for parents to raise awareness about the importance of emotional expression in the child's socioemotional functioning. It is because the current study exemplified how crucial it is for the child and her parents to be in touch with their own emotions regardless of gender to have a child with higher well-being. After observing how parents express their feelings and give reference to the child's emotions, the child will learn to express, control, and regulate her emotions, resulting in fewer externalizing and internalizing problems in the child (Denham et al., 2000; Luebbe et al., 2011).

As future directions, future research should replicate the lack thereof results since using family-level and individual-level codings might be the problem in measurement. Similar studies can include families with low educational attainment and SES to compare group differences. Rather than measuring gender ideology by using a standardized measure like SRQ, tangible variables such as division of labor or time spent in childcare can be examined. Cross-cultural studies can display the distinct cultural atmosphere of Turkey more clearly. Moreover, within-culture differences can be observed by including families from Turkey's urban and rural areas. Age differences can also be examined. Future research may also investigate play and reminiscing contexts with families having younger or older children. This study was cross-sectional; thus, longitudinal studies would be beneficial to indicate the long-term effects of parental behaviors in triadic play and reminiscing on child outcomes since LTP has several versions such as prenatal LTP, still-face LTP, Lausanne Family Play (LFP), and PicNic Game (Favez et al., 2017). Studies with different versions of LTP can be conducted for different child age groups and families with more than one child.

4.9. Conclusion

The current study examined family reminiscing and family alliance together in association with the gender of family members and the gender ideology of parents. Especially by collecting qualitative data via family meetings on the family alliance enabled us to reflect the family dynamics in the Turkish cultural context. The current study showed that Turkish parents have more difficulty in setting limits and

scaffolding their children, particularly by examining the fourth task of LTP, in which parents were expected to discuss a topic together and the child to play alone. Likewise, our findings also showed that the affect sharing function is strong in Turkish families, despite individual differences. Future research should elaborate on the role of the family alliance in family interactions, such as in reminiscing.

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APPENDICES

A. APPROVAL OF THE METU HUMAN SUBJECTS ETHICS COMMITTEE

UYGULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ
APPLIED ETHICS RESEARCH CENTER

ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

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ÇANKAYA ANKARA/TURKEY
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www.ueam.metu.edu.tr

Sayı: 28620816 /

14 NİSAN 2021

Konu : Değerlendirme Sonucu

Gönderen: ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu (İAEK)

İlgi : İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu Başvurusu

Sayın Başak Şahin ACAR

"Anne, Baba ve Çocukların Geçmişle İlgili Birlikte Konuşmaları: Toplumsal Cinsiyetin ve Ebeveynlerin Cinsiyet İdeolojilerinin Etkileri" başlıklı araştırmanız İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu tarafından uygun görülmüş ve **107-ODTU-2021** protokol numarası ile onaylanmıştır.

Saygılarımızla bilgilerinize sunarız.

Dr.Öğretim Üyesi Şerife SEVİNÇ
İAEK Başkan Vekili

B. FORMS AND MEASURES OF THE STUDY

Informed Consent Form

Sayın Veliler, Sevgili Anne-Babalar, Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Psikoloji Bölümü olarak, aile içi iletişimi ve etkileşimi hakkında bir araştırma projesini yürütmekteyiz.

Bu çalışmanın amacı nedir? Araştırmamızın amacı anne-baba-çocuk üçlü etkileşimlerinin aile içindeki iletişim ve çocuk gelişimi üzerindeki etkilerini incelemektir.

Sizin ve çocuğunuzun katılımcı olarak ne yapmasını istiyoruz? Çalışmanın amacını gerçekleştirebilmek adına öncelikle anne-baba-çocuk birlikte oyun oynayacağınız, ardından yine üçlü olarak ortak deneyimlediğiniz geçmiş bir yaşantınız üzerine konuşacağınız ortalama bir saatlik bir süreye ihtiyaç duymaktayız. Ayrıca, görüşme sonrası, sizden bir takım anketleri doldurmanızı isteyeceğiz. Çocuğunuzun katılımcı olması için sizlerin onay verdiğiniz ve kendisinin de rızası olduğu takdirde çocuğunuz sizlerle birlikte evinizde bu görevlerde yer alacaktır. Oyun oynadığınız ve konuşmanızı gerçekleştirdiğiniz kısımlar için video ve ses kaydınızın alınması sizlere iletilecek bir Zoom linki ile sağlanırken, tamamlayacağınız anketler de görüşme sonrası online olarak sizlere ulaştırılacaktır. Anketleri sizin ve eşinizin ayrı ayrı doldurması gerekmektedir.

Çocuğunuzdan alınan bilgiler ne amaçla ve nasıl kullanılacak? Sizin ve çocuğunuzun kayıtları ya da dolduracağınız anketlerdeki cevaplarınız kesinlikle gizli tutulacak ve bu cevaplar sadece bilimsel araştırma amacıyla kullanılacaktır. Çocuğunuzun ya da sizin ismi ve kimlik bilgileriniz, hiçbir şekilde kimseyle paylaşılmayacaktır.

Çocuğunuz ya da siz çalışmayı yarıda kesmek isterseniz ne yapmalısınız? Çocuğunuzun katılacağı bu çalışmanın onun psikolojik gelişimine olumsuz etkisi olmayacağından emin olabilirsiniz. Yine de, bu formu imzaladıktan sonra hem siz hem de çocuğunuz katılımcılıktan ayrılma hakkına sahipsiniz. Katılım sırasındaki uygulamalardan ya da herhangi başka bir nedenden ötürü çocuğunuz kendisini rahatsız hissettiğini belirtirse, ya da kendi belirtmese de sizler çocuğun rahatsız olduğunu öngörürseniz, çalışmaya derhal son verebilirsiniz. Böyle bir durumda çalışmadan sorumlu kişiye çocuğunuzun çalışmadan ayrılmasını istediğinizi iletmeniz yeterli olacaktır.

Bu çalışmayla ilgili daha fazla bilgi almak isterseniz: Araştırmayla ilgili sorularınızı aşağıdaki e-posta adresini kullanarak bize yöneltebilirsiniz.

Saygılarımızla,

Doç. Dr. Başak Şahin-Acar

Psikoloji Bölümü Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi, Ankara
e-posta: basaks@metu.edu.tr

☐ **Anne için:** Bu araştırmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum ve çocuğumun da katılımcı olmasına izin veriyorum. Çalışmayı istediğim zaman yarıda kesip bırakabileceğimi biliyorum ve verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı olarak kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum.

☐ **Baba için:** Bu araştırmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum ve çocuğumunda katılımcı olmasına izin veriyorum. Çalışmayı istediğim zaman yarıda kesip bırakabileceğimi biliyorum ve verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı olarak kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum.

☐ Bu çalışmaya katılmayı kabul etmiyorum ve çocuğumun da katılımcı olmasına izin vermiyorum.

Demographic Information Form

Cinsiyetiniz:

☐ Kadın

☐ Erkek

Yaşınız:____

Medeni durumunuz nedir?

☐ Evli

☐ Bekar/Boşanmış

Çalışma sonrası size çocuk gelişimine dair broşürümüzü ve çocuğunuzun minik ODTÜ lü diplomasını iletebilmemiz için e-mail adresinizi yazınız. _____

Hayatınızın büyük çoğunluğunu hangi şehirde/şehirlerde geçirdiniz? _____

Hayatınızın son 5 yılını hangi şehirde/şehirlerde geçirdiniz? _____

Kaç çocuğunuz var?

☐ 1

☐ 2

☐ 3

☐ 4

☐ 5

Bu araştırmaya birlikte katıldığınız çocuğunuzun doğum tarihini gün/ay/yıl olacak şekilde aşağıda belirtiniz. Gün/Ay/Yıl

Bu araştırmaya birlikte katıldığınız çocuğunuzun cinsiyeti:

☐ Kız çocuk

☐ Oğlan çocuk

Çalışmaya katılan çocuğunuzun temel bakım vereni kimdir?

☐ Anne

☐ Baba

☐ Babanne/Anneanne/Dede

☐ Bakıcı

☐ Diğer

Sizin ulaştığınız en yüksek eğitim seviyesi nedir ?

☐ İlkokul

☐ Ortaokul

☐ Lise

☐ Önlisans

☐ Lisans

☐ Yüksek Lisans

☐ Doktora

Eşinizin ulaştığı en yüksek eğitim seviyesi nedir? _____

☐ İlkokul

☐ Ortaokul

☐ Lise

☐ Önlisans

☐ Lisans

☐ Yüksek Lisans

☐ Doktora

Çocuğunuz ya da çocuklarınız **pandemiden önce (Mart 2020)** kreşe gitti mi?

☐ Evet

☐ Hayır

Eğer gittiyse, ne kadar süre kreşe gitti? Her biri için yazınız:

_____

Çocuğunuz ya da çocuklarınız **pandemi boyunca** kreşe devam etti mi?

☐ Evet

☐ Hayır

Devam ettiyse, ne kadar süredir kreşe gidiyor? Her biri için yazınız:

Kronik bir rahatsızlığınız var mı?

☐ Evet

☐ Hayır

Çocuğunuzun kronik bir rahatsızlığı var mı?

☐ Evet

☐ Hayır

Tanı konmuş psikiyatrik ya da psikolojik bir rahatsızlığınız var mı?

☐ Evet

☐ Hayır

Social Roles Questionnaire (SRQ)

Bu ankette cevaplar doğru ya da yanlış olarak değerlendirilmemektedir, sadece kişisel görüşleri ifade etmektedir. Lütfen her bir ifadeyle ilgili kişisel görüşünüzü düşünerek, o ifadeye ne kadar katıldığınızı belirtiniz; %0 ifadeye kesinlikle katılmadığınız, %100 ifadeye kesinlikle katıldığınız anlamına gelmektedir.

1. Cinsiyetlerine bakılmaksızın insanlara aynı şekilde davranılmalıdır.

0% 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100%

2. Çocuklara tanınan özgürlük, cinsiyetlerine göre değil yaşlarına ve olgunluk düzeylerine göre belirlenmelidir.

0% 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100%

3. Ev işleri cinsiyete göre verilmemelidir.

0% 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100%

4. İnsanların erkek ya da kadın olmaları hakkında düşünmeyi bırakmalı ve diğer özelliklerine odaklanmalıyız.

0% 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100%

5. Bir babanın en büyük sorumluluğu, çocuklarına maddi destek sağlamaktır.

0% 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100%

6. Erkekler kadınlara göre cinselliğe daha düşkündür.

0% 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100%

7. Bazı iş kolları kadınlar için uygun değildir.

0% 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100%

8. Çocukların nasıl yetiştirileceklerine dair çoğu kararı anneler vermelidir.

0% 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100%

9. Anneler sadece gerekliyse çalışmalıdır.

0% 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100%

10. Kızlar oğlanlardan daha fazla korunmalı ve gözetilmelidir.

0% 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100%

11. Sadece bazı iş kolları hem erkekler hem de kadınlar için uygundur.

0% 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100%

12. Birçok önemli iş kolu için kadınlar yerine erkekleri seçmek daha iyidir.

0% 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100%

Debriefing Form

Araştırmamıza katıldığınız için teşekkür ederiz.

Katıldığınız araştırmanın amacı, çocuk gelişiminde önemli bir rol oynayan anne-baba-çocuk üçlü etkileşiminin çocuğun gelişimindeki katkısına dair daha detaylı bilgi edinebilmektir. Bu amaçla, ilk olarak sizden, anne-baba-çocuk olarak birlikte oyun oynamanız, daha sonra yine anne-baba-çocuk olarak birlikte deneyimlemiş olduğunuz geçmiş bir yaşantınız üzerine konuşmanız istenmiştir. Son olarak, birtakım anketleri sizlere iletilmiş olan bağlantı üzerinden sizin ve eşinizin ayrı ayrı doldurmanız beklenmiştir. Oyun oynadığınız ve yaşantınız hakkında konuşmuş olduğunuz kısımlar video ve ses olarak kayıt altına alınmıştır. Bu kayıtlar kişisel verilerin korunması kanunu çerçevesinde korunacak olup, yalnızca bu çalışmada yer alan araştırmacılar tarafından, bilimsel amaçla değerlendirilecektir. Bu çalışmada, anne-baba-çocuk etkileşiminde, sergilenen uyumluluk ve duygu paylaşımları gözlemlenecektir. Daha sonra, yaşantınız üzerine yaptığınız üçlü konuşmada anlatım stillerindeki duygusal ifadeler incelenecektir. Üçlü etkileşimlerdeki uyumluluk ve anı anlatım stillerinin ilişkili olması beklenmektedir. Eğer araştırmayla ilgili sorularınız varsa araştırmacıya sorabilir veya basaks@metu.edu.tr adresinden Dr. Öğretim Üyesi Başak Şahin-Acar'a ulaşabilirsiniz.

C. CURRICULUM VITAE

NİLSU TOSUN BORHAN

EDUCATION

2017 – 2023 : Middle East Technical University, Ankara

Ph.D., Developmental Psychology

2014 – 2017 : Middle East Technical University, Ankara

M.S., Developmental Psychology

2009 – 2014 : Middle East Technical University, Ankara

B.S., Psychology

TRAININGS & SEMINARS

2023

Psychological First Aid for Earthquake Victims

Sevi Gizem Zeybek, PhD

2022

Lausanne Trilogue Play (LTP) & Family Alliance Assessment Scales (FAAS)

Dr. Hervé Tissot, Lausanne University Hospital

2021 – 2022

Family and Marriage Therapy

Prof. Dr. Hürol Fışıloğlu, İlişki Pusulası Aile Çalışmaları Enstitüsü (İPAÇE)

2017

Nonlinear Development of Speaking Rate in Child-directed Speech

Dr. Ein-Suk Ko

2017

Language Development in Infancy

Dr. Annette Hohenberger

2017

Mirror Neurons and the Evolution of Language

Dr. Michael Corballis

2017

Çocukluk Sonrası Dil Gelişimi

Dr. Ayhan Aksu Koç

2017

İki Dilli Dil Gelişimi

Dr. Aylin Küntay & Berna Uzundağ (M.S.)

2017

Dilin Nörogelişimsel Temeli

Dr. Tuba Yarbay Duman

2017

Theoretical Discussion of Language Development: Tomasello ve Pinker

Dr. Michael Tomasello

2017

Atipik Dil Gelişimi

Sermin Kumdakçı, M.S.

2017

İntiharı Önleme ve Müdahale

Dr. Nedret Öztan

2015

Işık Şavaşır Klinik Psikoloji Sempozyumu, Hacettepe Üniversitesi Kongre Merkezi

2014

Advanced Cognitive Behavioral Therapy: OCD and Related Disorders

Dr. Shona Vas, The University of Chicago Hospital, Department of Psychiatry

2014

Hair-pulling and Skin-picking Disorder

Jon Grant, MD, The University of Chicago Hospital, Department of Psychiatry

2014

Generalized Anxiety Disorder

Evelyn Behar (Illinois University), Ph.D, The University of Chicago Hospital, Department of Psychiatry

2013

Türkiye Psikoloji Öğrencileri Çalışma Grubu (TPÖÇG) 18. Ulusal Psikoloji Öğrencileri Kongresi

2013

Psikodrama Çalışma Grubu

Rüya Turna, M.S.

2010

Sosyal Fobi

ODTÜ Sağlık ve Rehberlik Merkezi Psikolojik Danışma ve Rehberlik Birimi

WORK EXPERIENCE

2023 - … Family and Marriage Therapist

2015 - … Research Assistant, Middle East Technical University

RESEARCH EXPERIENCE

Şahin-Acar, B. et al. Anne, baba ve çocukların birlikte oyunları ve geçmişle ilgili konuşmaları: toplumsal cinsiyetin ve ebeveynlerin cinsiyet ideolojilerinin etkileri [Mothers, fathers and children playing together and talking about the past: the impact of gender and parents' gender ideologies].

Borhan, N. Measuring the effect of mother-child memory talk on current memories via emotion regulation difficulty, and self-esteem retrospectively.

Şahin-Acar, B. & Borhan, N. Examining the relation of parent and child gender with the emotional content of positively and negatively charged family memories.

Borhan, N. (2017). Intrinsic Religiosity and Spiritual Well-Being as Moderators of the Relation between Wisdom and Psychological Well-Being in Elderly. [Master's Thesis, Middle East Technical University].

Kazak-Berument, S (2013 – 2017). Koruma altındaki bebek ve çocukların bireysel özellikleri ile bakım tiplerinin gelişimsel sonuçlar üzerindeki etkilerinin boylamsal olarak incelenmesi [Longitudinal investigation of the effects of temperament, and care type on the developmental outcomes of infant and children who are under the care of social services].

Şengül İnal, G. (2014). The Moderating Role of Sensory-Processing Sensitivity in the Relationship between Spousal Caregiving, Perceived Social Support and Marital Quality [Master's Thesis, Middle East Technical University].

PUBLICATIONS

Karancı, N., Gök, A., Yıldırım, B., & Borhan, N. (2017). Social support perceptions of Turkish people with schizophrenia: What helps and what doesn't help, *International Journal of Social Psychiatry, 63*(7), 657-665. https://doi.org/10.1177/0020764017726

TEACHING EXPERIENCE

PSY 6301 Memory Development in Infancy and Childhood
PSY 1020 Ethics in Research and Practice of Psychology
PSY 2102 Statistics for Psychology

PSY 3301 Adolescence and Adult Development

PSY 3390 Workshop in Developmental Psychology

PSY 2301 Developmental Psychology

PSY 514 Language Development and Bilingualism

INTERNATIONAL PRESENTATIONS

Akay, N., et al. (2023, 23 - 25 March). *The role of family alliance on child well-being.* [Poster presentation]. SRCD 2023 Biennial Meeting, Salt Lake City, USA

AWARDS

2019 - Middle East Technical University Performance Award

D. TURKISH SUMMARY / TÜRKÇE ÖZET

Giriş

Ebeveynler çocuklarıyla genellikle oyun ve konuşma olmak üzere iki ana kanal aracılığıyla etkileşime girer; günlük hayatta çocuklarıyla ya oynarlar ya da konuşurlar. Çocuklarıyla konuşurken, birlikte yaşadıkları ya da sadece çocuğun yaşadığı geçmiş olayları tartışırlar. Hem oyun (Amodia-Bidakowska ve diğ., 2020; Sliogeris ve Almeida, 2019; Tamis-LeMonda ve diğ., 2019) hem de birlikte hatırlama bağlamı (Gülgöz ve Şahin-Acar, 2020; Lawson ve diğ., 2021; Leyva ve diğ., 2021; Waters ve diğ., 2019) birçok yönden çocuk gelişimi için oldukça verimli bir alan oluşturur. Ebeveyn özellikleri bu bağlamları ve aralarındaki ilişkiyi etkileyebilir. Toplumsal cinsiyet, sosyokültürel faktörlerle harmanlanmış biyolojik cinsiyet temelli ebeveynlik özelliklerinden biridir (Mesman & Groeneveld, 2018).

Ebeveynlerin cinsiyetlerine göre farklı sosyal rolleri olması nedeniyle ebeveyn stilleri anneler ve babalar arasında farklılık göstermektedir (Endendijk ve diğ., 2018). Bu toplumsal cinsiyet sosyalleşme sürecinin ebeveynlerden beklenmesi, çocuğun cinsiyetine bağlı olarak çocuğa karşı farklı ebeveyn tutum ve davranışlarıyla sonuçlanacaktır. Ebeveyn-çocuk oyunu (Horwarth-Oliver, 2015; John ve diğ., 2013; Lindsey ve Mize, 2001) ve birlikte hatırlama bağlamları (Buckner ve Fivush, 2000; Fivush ve diğ., 2000; Zaman & Fivush, 2013), ebeveyn sosyalleşme sürecinden paylarına düşeni alırlar. Bununla birlikte, oyun etkileşimlerinde (Gold ve diğerleri, 2015) veya çocukla yapılan anı konuşmalarında (Aznar ve Tanenbaum, 2020; Pavlova ve diğ., 2022) anlamlı cinsiyet farkları bulamayan bazı araştırmalar da olmuştur. Tutarsız ve çelişkili bulgular, ebeveynlerin cinsiyet ideolojisi gibi olası bir ebeveyn değişkeni ile açıklanabilir (Svane ve diğ., 2021). Bu nedenle, mevcut çalışma, 48-72 aylık çocukları olan ailelerin katılımıyla, çocuğun ve ebeveynin cinsiyetinin ve ebeveynin cinsiyet ideolojisinin üçlü aile oyununu ve anı konuşmalarının hacmini ve duygusal içeriğini nasıl etkileyebileceğini sorgulamıştır

Çocukluk Oyunu

Çocuklar akranlarıyla oynamak için gerekli sosyal becerilere sahip olmadan önce, başlangıçta ebeveynlerini oyun partneri olarak alma eğilimindedirler ve böylece ebeveynler çocuğun hayatındaki ilk sosyal ilişkiyi sağlarlar. Ebeveyn-çocuk ikilisi arasındaki duygusal bağ ve çocuğun özgüveni, oyun etkileşimleri sayesinde daha güçlü hale gelir (Shorer ve diğ., 2019). Ayrıca, günlük etkileşimleri daha çok oyun içeren aile üyelerinin daha iyi iletişim becerilerine sahip oldukları ve daha yüksek düzeyde işbirliği gösterdikleri ve birbirlerine destek oldukları bulunmuştur (Anderson-McNamee ve Bailey, 2010). Oyun sırasında güvenliği sağlamak için çocuğun gözetilmesi gerekse de, ebeveyn-çocuk oyunu, ebeveynler oyunu özellikle çocuğun oyunu yönetmesine izin vererek çocuk merkezli yaparsa, çocuğun yaratıcılığının, öğrenmesinin, otokontrolünün, kendini yansıtmasının gelişimi ve çocuğun rahatlayabilmesi için yararlıdır (Ginsburg, 2007; Wasik ve Jacobi-Vessels, 2017).

Lozan Üçlü Oyunu (LÜO)

Ebeveynler, çocuklarıyla ikili veya üçlü olarak oyun etkinliklerine katılırlar. Ebeveynlerin çocuklarıyla oyun oynadığı zamanlar, aile dinamiklerini gözlemlemek için harika bir fırsat sunmaktadır. Aile dinamiklerini hem bir bütün olarak hem de ikili ilişkiler şeklinde (anne-çocuk, baba-çocuk ve anne-baba) eş zamanlı gözlemleyebilmek için, Corboz-Warnery ve ark. (1993) ve meslektaşları "Lozan Üçlü Oyunu"nu (LÜO) tanıtmışlardır. Aile sistemleri yaklaşımına uygun olarak (Minuchin, 1985), oyundaki ikili etkileşimler kendi başına aile dinamikleri hakkında bir dereceye kadar ipucu verse de, resmin bütününü anlamak için yetersizdir. İkili ve üçlü ilişkiler de dahil olmak üzere aile dinamiklerinin her birimi ve bu birimlerin nasıl işbirliği yaptığı, ailenin işleyişinin sağlıklı olup olmadığı sonucuna varılmasının öncüsüdür. Böylece, aile ilişkilerini tam olarak kavrayabilmek için LÜO'daki gibi ebeveyn ve çocuk arasındaki üçlü oyunu izlemek ve değerlendirmek gereklidir.

LTP etkileşimlerinin çocuk sonuçları üzerindeki olası etkileri çeşitli çalışmalarla araştırılmıştır (Adler ve Oppenheim, 2023; Favez ve diğ., 2012; Favez ve diğ., 2017; Tissot ve diğ., 2015; Tissot ve diğ., 2017). Bu çalışmalar, esas olarak, üçlü oyun etkileşimleri sırasında aile üyeleri arasındaki işbirliği ve organizasyon olarak

tanımlanan LÜO'daki aile ittifakının çocuk sonuçlarını nasıl etkileyebileceğini araştırmıştır. İstikrarlı bir biçimde daha kaliteli bir aile ittifakı gösteren ailelerin, oyun sırasındaki gözlemlerde ve davranışsal ölçümlerde daha yüksek Zihin Kuramı ve daha düşük olumsuz duygulanım gösteren çocuklara sahip oldukları bulunmuştur. Benzer bir çalışma, LÜO aile ittifakı ile çocuğun Zihin Kuramı ve duygusal anlayışı arasındaki bağlantıya ilişkin benzer sonuçlar göstermiştir (Favez ve diğ., 2017). Başka bir çalışmada, anne depresyonu ile birlikte daha zayıf LÜO aile birliği, bebeklerin anneleri tarafından bildirilen davranış sorunları ile ilişkilendirilmiştir (Tissot ve diğ., 2017). Tissot ve meslektaşları (2015) tarafından yapılan başka bir araştırma, LÜO sırasında daha işbirlikçi aile ittifaklarına sahip ailelerin, çocuğa karşı daha yüksek duyarlılığa sahip ebeveynlere sahip olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Adler ve Oppenheim (2023), LÜO sırasında daha fazla işbirliği gösteren ailelerin çocuklarının daha tutarlı bir anlatı yapısı gösterdiğini ve bir hikayeyi tamamlamada daha aktif bir şekilde yer aldıklarını öne sürmüştür. Özetle, üçlü oyun bağlamında aile üyeleri arasındaki işbirliğinin derecesi, çocuğun gelişimi ve iyi oluşu ile yakın bir ilişkiye sahip gibi görünmektedir.

Ebeveyn – Çocuk Birlikte Hatırlama

Otobiyografik hafıza gelişimi, ebeveynlerin çocuklarının iç dünyasını genişletmek için onların anlatılarını yönlendirdiği ve çocuğun iç dünyasını dış dünyayla ilişkilendirmesine yardımcı olduğu erken çocukluk dönemine dayanır. Ebeveyn ve çocuk arasında geçmiş olaylarla ilgili günlük konuşmalar sayesinde çocuk yaşadıklarının, düşüncelerinin, duygularının ve diğer zihinsel durumlarının kendisine özgü olduğunu ve bunların sadece dış dünyanın nesnel yansımaları olmadığını kavrayabilir.

Anne-babayla yapılan anı konuşmalarından çocuğun ne ölçüde yararlanabileceği, çocuğa sağlanan bu tür konuşmaların detaylandırma düzeyine ve duygusal içeriğine göre değişir. Önceki araştırmalar, ebeveyn anımsama stili ayrıntılı ve duygusal açıdan zengin olduğunda, çocuğun duygu düzenleme becerileri, duyguları anlama ve duygu bilgisi ile yakın bir ilişkisi olduğunu belirtmektedir (Leyva ve Nolivos, 2015; Liable ve Song, 2006; van Bergen ve Somon, 2010).

Ebeveyn-çocuk anı konuşmasını daha iyi değerlendirmek için duygusal içerik ve detaylandırma dışında, konuşmaların hacmi ve konuşma sırası birlikte kullanılabilir. Bununla birlikte, ebeveyn-çocuk anılarının kalitesini değerlendirmek için duygusal yoğunluk, hacim ve konuşma sıra sayısı nadiren kullanılmıştır (Bürümlü-Kisa & Sahin-Acar, 2020; Fivush & Wang, 2005; van Bergen ve diğerleri, 2009). Mevcut anımsama literatürünün bir başka eksikliği de üçlü anı konuşmalarını analiz eden çok az çalışma olmasıdır (Kulkofski ve diğ., 2009; Reese ve diğ., 2019; Sales ve Fivush, 2005; Valentino ve diğ., 2014; Wang ve diğ., 2010; Wareham ve Salmon, 2006). Bu nedenle anne-baba-çocuk üçlüsünü içeren aile anı konuşması ile ilgili araştırma sayısı daha azdır (Bürümlü-Kisa ve Şahin-Acar, 2020; Fivush ve diğ., 2009). Bu nedenle, anı sohbetlerinin içeriği ve özellikleri kapsamında üçlü aile anımsamalarının daha fazla araştırılmasına ihtiyaç vardır.

Oyun ve Birlikte Hatırlamada Toplumsal Cinsiyet Farkları

Önceki araştırmalar, anne ve babaların, kalıplaşmış cinsiyet normlarına uygun olarak, kızları ve oğulları için farklı oyun etkinliklerini tercih ettiklerini göstermiştir. Ancak çocuk cinsiyet farklılıklarının LÜO bağlamında araştırıldığı çalışmaların sayısı azdır. Favez ve diğerleri (2011) tarafından gerçekleştirilmiş bir çalışmada, önemli bir çocuk cinsiyet farkı bulunmamıştır, ancak bu çalışma 9-10 aylık bebekleri olan ailelerin bir örneğini kullanmıştır. Mevcut çalışma, okul öncesi yaşta çocukları olan ailelerle yapıldığından, cinsiyetler arasında anlamlı farklılıklar bulunması beklenmiştir. Türkiye'nin kültürel bağlamı ve oyun literatüründe cinsiyet farklılıkları üzerine daha önce yapılan araştırmalar dikkate alındığında, bu çalışmada çocuğun cinsiyetine dayalı olarak benzer farklılıklar olduğu varsayılmıştır.

Ebeveyn-çocuk birlikte hatırlama literatüründe cinsiyet farklılıklarına ilişkin karışık bulgular dikkat çekmektedir. Pek çok ebeveyn-çocuk birlikte hatırlama çalışmasında oyun literatürüne benzer cinsiyet farklılıkları gözlemlenmektedir (Aznar ve Tenanbaum, 2015; Bost ve diğ., 2010; Chaplin ve Aldo, 2015; Bürümlü-Kısa ve Şahin-Acar, 2020; Fivush ve diğ., 2000; Fivush ve diğ., 2009; Leaper ve diğ., 1998; Lund ve diğ., 2021). Basmakalıp toplumsal cinsiyet normlarıyla uyumlu olarak, anneler çocuklarıyla olan ikili ilişkilerinde daha kapsamlı ve daha zengin bir duygusal

içerik sağlama eğilimindedir. Ayrıca, kız çocukların daha hacimli ve duygusal olarak yoğun konuşmalara maruz kalma olasılığı daha yüksektir, bu da kızların erkek çocuklara göre anlatı içeriğinde daha avantajlı olmalarına neden olur. Bununla birlikte, bazı çalışmalar, hatırlama bağlamında anlamlı cinsiyet farklarını göstermemiştir ancak bu çalışmalar babaları dahil etmemiştir (Aznar ve Tenenbaum, 2015; Waters ve diğ., 2019). Babalar da dahil edilerek üçlü bağlam söz konusu olduğunda, sonuçlar farklı olabilir.

Ebeveyn Cinsiyet İdeolojisinin Oyun ve Birlikte Hatırlamaya Etkisi

Hatırlama ve oyun bağlamındaki cinsiyet farklılıklarına ilişkin literatürdeki önemli ve anlamsız bulgular, bu tür bir tutarsızlıktan sorumlu olası bir moderatör değişkeni akla getirebilir. Bu değişken, ebeveynlik uygulamalarında ebeveyn davranışını etkilediği belirtildiği için, ebeveynlerin toplumsal cinsiyet ideolojisine ilişkin görüşleri olabilir. Örneğin, Svane ve ark. (2022), daha eşitlikçi bir cinsiyet görüşüne sahip olmanın, hatırlama bağlamında cinsiyet farklılıklarının olmamasıyla ilişkilendirilebileceğini iddia etti. Gerçekten de, Danimarka'daki gibi eşitlikçi bir kültürde yürütülen aynı çalışma, detaycılığa ilişkin anı konuşmalarında anlamsız cinsiyet farkları ortaya koymuştur. Bu nedenle, ebeveyn cinsiyet ideolojisinin, çocuğun ve ebeveynin cinsiyetine bağlı olarak aileler içinde ve aileler arasında önemli cinsiyet farklılıkları olup olmayacağı konusunda söz sahibi olduğu düşünülmüştür.

Üçlü Aile Oyunu ve Birlikte Hatırlama Arasındaki İlişki

Önceki çalışmaların hiçbiri, LÜO gibi üçlü oyun etkileşimlerinin anı konuşmalarının hacmi ve duygusal içeriği ile bağlantısını doğrudan analiz etmemiştir. Yine de, LÜO'da işbirlikçi ittifakın olumlu çocuk sonuçlarını gösteren mevcut literatür dikkate alındığında (Adler ve Oppenheim, 2023; Favez ve diğ., 2012; Favez ve diğ., 2017; Tissot ve diğ., 2015; Tissot ve diğ., 2017) , LÜO'da daha olumlu bir duygu paylaşımı ve eş ebeveynlik kalitesi sağlayan ailelerin ebeveyn ve çocuk üyelerinin daha çok konuşmaları, katılmaları ve birlikte hatırlamada duygu ile ilgili referansları daha çok kullanmaları beklenebilir. Nitekim, LÜO görevi sırasında işbirlikçi ittifakı daha yüksek olan ailelerin çocukları, çocukların anlatı yeteneği ve çaba gerektiren kontrolü

kontrol edildikten sonra bile daha fazla anlatı tutarlılığına sahipti (Adler ve Oppenheim, 2023). Bu nedenle, üçlü oyun ve birlikte hatırlama bağlamları önemli bir bağlantıya sahip olabilir. LÜO'da yüksek işbirliği gösteren ailelerin ebeveynlerinin, her bir aile üyesinin konuşmaya katkısının hacmi, duygusal içeriği ve düzeyi (yani, konuşma sıraları) dahil olmak üzere benzer birlikte hatırlama parametreleri ile sonuçlanması beklenebilir.

Mevcut Çalışmanın Amaçları ve Hipotezleri

Mevcut çalışma, ebeveynler ve çocuklar arasındaki üçlü oyunun, birlikte deneyimlenmiş duygu yüklü geçmiş olaylarla ilgili üçlü anı konuşmalarıyla nasıl ilişkili olabileceğini araştırmayı amaçlamıştır. Ayrıca çocuk cinsiyeti, ebeveyn cinsiyeti ve ebeveyn cinsiyet ideolojisinin bu ilişki üzerindeki olası etkileri incelenmiştir.

Daha önce yapılan araştırmalar ışığında çalışmanın hipotezleri aşağıdaki gibidir:

H1.) Kızların aileleri, duygu paylaşımı açısından oyun sırasında erkek çocukların ailelerinden daha yüksek puan alacaktır.

H2.) Eş ebeveynlik açısından kız çocuklu ailelerin oyun sırasında erkek çocuklu ailelerden daha yüksek puan alacaktır.

H3.) Kızlar, erkeklere kıyasla oyun sırasında daha yüksek çocuk katkısı göstereceklerdir.

H4.) Kızlar, erkeklerden daha fazla toplam kelime, toplam duygu kelimeleri, benzersiz duygu kelimeleri kullanacak ve daha çok konuşma sırası alacaktır.

H5.) Anneler, babalardan daha fazla toplam kelime, toplam duygu kelimeleri, benzersiz duygu kelimeleri kullanacak ve daha çok konuşma sırası alacaktır.

H6.) Kızların ebeveynleri, erkeklerin ebeveynlerinden daha fazla toplam kelime, toplam duygu kelimeleri kullanacak ve daha çok konuşma sırası alacaktır.

H7.) Oğul anneleri ve tüm babalara göre toplam kelime sayısında, toplam duygu kelime sayısında, benzersiz duygu kelimelerinde ve konuşma dönüşlerinde kız anneleri en yüksek puanı alacaklardır.

H8.) Kızların ebeveynleri toplam kelime sayısında, toplam duygu kelimesinde, benzersiz duygu kelimesinde ve konuşma dönüşlerinde erkeklerin ebeveynlerinden daha az farklılık gösterecektir.

H9.) LÜO'da duygu paylaşımında daha iyi ailelerin ebeveynleri, çocuğun cinsiyetinden bağımsız olarak, toplam kelime sayısında, toplam duygu kelimesinde, benzersiz duygu kelimesinde ve konuşma dönüşlerinde daha az farklılık gösterecektir.

H10.) LTP'de eş ebeveynlik konusunda daha iyi olan ailelerin ebeveynleri, çocuğun cinsiyetinden bağımsız olarak, toplam kelime sayısında, toplam duygu kelimesinde, benzersiz duygu kelimesinde ve konuşma sıralarında daha az farklılık gösterecektir.

H11.) Ebeveynlerin toplumsal cinsiyet ideolojisi daha eşitlikçi hale geldikçe;

a.) Aileler, çocuğun cinsiyeti ne olursa olsun duygu paylaşımından daha yüksek puan alacaktır.

b.) Çocuğun cinsiyeti ne olursa olsun, aileler eş-ebeveynlikten daha yüksek puan alacaktır.

c.) Ebeveynler, çocuğun cinsiyetinden bağımsız olarak toplam kelimelerin, toplam duygu kelimelerinin, benzersiz duygu kelimelerinin ve konuşma sıralarının sayısında daha az farklılığa sahip olacaktır.

d.) Ebeveynler, çocuğun cinsiyeti ve ebeveynin cinsiyeti ne olursa olsun, toplam kelime sayısında, toplam duygu kelimesinde, benzersiz duygu kelimesinde ve konuşma dönüşlerinde daha yüksek puanlar alacaktır.

e.) Çocuklar, cinsiyetleri ne olursa olsun LÜO'da çocuk katkısı anlamında daha yüksek puan alacaklardır.

f.) Çocuklar, çocuğun cinsiyetine bakılmaksızın toplam sözcük sayısı, toplam duygu sözcüğü sayısı, benzersiz duygu sözcükleri ve konuşma dönüşlerinde daha yüksek puan alacaktır.

Bildiğimiz kadarıyla, amaçları ve hipotezleri dikkate alındığında, bu çalışma, Türkiye'de üçlü aile oyunu ve birlikte hatırlama arasındaki bağlantıyı inceleyen ve toplumsal cinsiyet ve toplumsal cinsiyet ideolojisinin oyun ve birlikte hatırlama bağlamları üzerindeki etkilerini araştıran az sayıdaki çalışmadan biridir. LÜO ile ilgili daha önceki araştırmalar, LÜO aile dinamiklerinin anı konuşmasındaki ebeveyn farklılıklarına ışık tutmadığından, bu çalışmanın oyun ve hatırlama literatürüne benzersiz katkılarından biri bu olmuştur. Ek olarak, ebeveyn cinsiyet ideolojisi ve cinsiyetinin potansiyel rolü, oyun ve hatırlama bağlamları üzerine mevcut literatürde eş zamanlı olarak daha önce incelenmemiştir.

Yöntem

Katılımcılar

Türkiye'nin çeşitli illerinde ikamet eden ailelerle 121 online Zoom görüşmesi gerçekleştirilmiştir. Bir şehir merkezinde ikamet ediyor olmak, ay cinsinden yaşı 48 ila 72 ay arasında olan bir çocuğa sahip olmak, aile olarak birarada yaşıyor olmak, aynı aileden sadece bir çocuğun araştırmaya katılması ve ebeveynlerin ve çocukların psikolojik/psikiyatrik tanısı olmaması gibi bazı katılma kriterleri uygulanmıştır. Örneklemin eğitim durumu açısından, en az bir ebeveynin en az ön lisans derecesine sahip olduğu aileler bu çalışma için uygun bulunmuştur.

Katılma kriterlerine uymayan 12 aile ve 23 ebeveyn (bir baba anketi eksik olduğu için) veri setinden çıkarılmış ve veri setinde 109 aile kalmıştır.

Ölçüm Araçları

Demografik Bilgi Formu

Demografik bilgi formu, ebeveynin ve çocuğun doğum tarihi ve cinsiyeti, ebeveynin sahip olduğu çocuk sayısı, araştırmaya katılacak çocuğun asıl bakıcısı, ebeveynin

medeni durumu ve eğitim düzeyi, ebeveynin yaşamının son beş yılında yaşadığı şehir ve ebeveynin hayatının çoğunu geçirdiği şehir ile ilgili açık uçlu sorulardan oluşmuştur. Ebeveynlerden kendilerinin veya çocuklarının herhangi bir kronik hastalığı olup olmadığını belirtmeleri istenmiştir. Ek olarak, ebeveyn veya çocuğunun herhangi bir ruhsal veya fiziksel hastalık tanısı olup olmadığı sorusu, mevcut çalışma için uygun olmayan katılımcıları tespit etmek ve elemek için kullanılmıştır.

Sosyal Roller Anketi (SRA)

Sosyal Roller Anketi (SRA), Baber ve Tucker (2006) tarafından geliştirilmiştir. Bu ölçek bireylerin toplumsal cinsiyet rollerine yönelik tutumlarını ölçmek için oluşturulmuştur; SRA'da verilen puan, bireyin toplumsal cinsiyet rollerine ilişkin eşitlikçi mi yoksa geleneksel bakış açısına mı sahip olduğunu ima etmektedir. Düşük puanlar cinsiyet rolleri hakkında daha eşitlikçi inançları gösterir. Her biri yüzde 10'luk aralıklarla farklı katılım yüzdeleri gösteren Likert tipi bir yanıta sahip 13 madde içerir (yani, %0 kesinlikle katılmıyorum, %100 ise kesinlikle katılıyorum anlamına gelir). SRA'nın Cinsiyet İlişkili ve Cinsiyet Üstü olmak üzere iki alt ölçeği vardır. Cinsiyet Üstü boyutu, ters kodlanan beş maddeden oluşur ve bireylerin cinsiyeti ikiye ayrılmayan bir kavram olarak algılama derecesi ile ilgilidir. Cinsiyet İlişkili boyutu ise, bireylerin bazı sosyal rollerin belirli bir cinsiyetle ilgili olup olmadığına ilişkin tutumlarını değerlendiren sekiz maddeden oluşmaktadır. SRA'nın Türkçe versiyonu bulunmadığından, Türkçeye çeviri ve tekrardan İngilizceye çeviri (back translation) süreçleri gerçekleştirilmiş, iki versiyon arasındaki farklar tartışılarak karara bağlanmış ve katılımcılarla paylaşılmak üzere son versiyonu hazırlanmıştır. SRA'nın Türkçe versiyonunun yapı geçerliliğini değerlendirmek için IBM SPSS Versiyon 28 kullanılarak açımlayıcı faktör analizi ve IBM SPSS AMOS Versiyon 24 (Arbuckle, 2013) kullanılarak doğrulayıcı faktör analizi yapılmıştır. Birden fazla faktöre yüklenen 8. Madde ölçekten çıkarıldığından, Türkçe versiyon 12 maddeden oluşmuştur. Sonuçlar Türkçe SRA'nın geçerli ve güvenilir bir ölçüm aracı olduğunu göstermiştir.

Lozan Üçlü Oyun (LÜO) Paradigması

Lozan Üçlü Oyunu (LÜO), oyun sırasında anne, baba ve çocuk arasındaki üçlü ittifakı gözlemlemek için tasarlanmış bir paradigmadır (Corboz-Warnery ve diğ., 1993).

LÜO'nun dört kısmı vardır; İlk iki kısımda çocuğun sadece bir ebeveyni ile oynaması, diğer ebeveynin ise gözlemci rolünde olması ebeveyn-çocuk arasındaki ikili ilişkilerin detaylı olarak incelenmesini mümkün kılmaktadır. Üçüncü kısımda ise ailece birlikte oynarlar ve dolayısıyla bu kısım aile içi üçlü etkileşimin bir gösterimidir. Ebeveynler, LÜO'nun son kısmında seçtikleri bir konu hakkında konuşurlar ve bu kısım ebeveynler arasındaki ikili ilişkiyi örneklendirir.

LÜO eğitmeni tarafından okul öncesi çağında çocuğu olan ailelerin 15 dakika civarında oynamasına izin verilmesinin daha iyi olacağı önerildiğinden ailelere ortalama 15 dakika verilmiştir. Okul öncesi çocuklarla yapılan standart LTP prosedüründe, etkileşimli bir oyun ortamı oluşturmak için en uygun oyuncakların çorap, kaşık ve hayvan figürlü oyuncaklar olduğu yine LÜO çevrim içi eğitiminde anlatılmıştır. Bu sebeple ailelere bu malzemeleri getirip onlarla oynamaları talimatı verilmiştir.

Aile Birliği Değerlendirme Ölçekleri (ABDÖ)

Aile Birliği Değerlendirme Ölçekleri (ABDÖ), Scaiola ve arkadaşları tarafından oluşturulmuştur. (2013) ve arkadaşları. Bu ölçek, anne, baba ve çocuğun tüm aile olarak oynayabilecekleri bir etkileşim üçgeni oluşturduğu anlamına gelen bir LTP ortamında uygulanır. ABDÖ'nün kodlaması, ailenin oyun sırasındaki 5 işlevini içerir: katılım, organizasyon, odaklanma, duygu paylaşımı, etkileşimli sıralama, eş ebeveynlik ve çocuk katkısı. Her işlev birkaç alt ölçekten oluşmaktadır.

Participation

Bu işlev, aile üyelerinin vücut pozisyonlarını (duruşlarını) nasıl ayarladıkları ve her bir üyenin gösterdiği katılım davranışı gibi etkileşime uygunluk göstergelerini dikkate alır. Bu işlevin iki alt ölçeği "Etkileşime Hazır Olma İşaretleri: Duruşlar" ve "Etkileşime Hazır Olma İşareti: Bakışlar" dır. Ailenin bu alt ölçeklerden yüksek puan alabilmesi için, aile üyelerinin vücut pozisyonları ve bakışları etkileşim üçgenine dönük olmalıdır.

Organization

Bu işlev, aile üyelerinin tamamlamaları gereken oyunu nasıl düzenledikleri ile ilgilidir. Bu işlevin iki alt ölçeği "Her Partnerin Rolü Üzerindeki Etkisi" ve "Görevi Yerine Getirme" dir. Bu ölçeklerle aile üyelerinin farklı LÜO aşamalarına göre fiziksel uzaklarını birbirlerine göre nasıl ayarladıkları ve dört aşamadaki görevleri belirli bir zaman diliminde tamamlayıp tamamlayamadıkları değerlendirilir.

Odaklanma

Odaklanma, aile üyelerinin ortak bir ilgi yaratma veya genel olarak faaliyetlerde bulunma yeteneği olarak tanımlanır ve etkileşimin içeriği ile ilgilidir. Bu işlevin iki alt ölçeği "Birlikte İnşa Etme" ve "İskele Ebeveynlik"dir. Aile üyelerinin ortak bir odak noktası oluşturarak faaliyet başlatabilme ve ebeveynlerin çocuğa ideal seviyede uyarım verebilme becerileri ile çocuğa sınır koyma davranışları değerlendirilir.

Duygu Paylaşımı

Scaiola ve arkadaşlarına göre (2013), bu işlev, LÜO sırasında aile üyeleri arasındaki genel duygusal atmosferi ve duygusal döngüyü ifade eder. Bu işlevi değerlendirmek için "Aile Sıcaklığı", "Çocuğun Duygusal Deneyiminin Geçerliliği" ve "Gösterilen Duyguların Özgünlüğü" alt ölçekleri kullanılmaktadır. Bu alt ölçeklerle, aile içinde ne derece olumlu duygusal paylaşımların var olduğu, çocuğun duygularının kabul görüp sözel ya da sözel olmayan şekilde ebevyenlerce geçerli kılınıp kılınmadığı, ifade edilen duyguların samimiyeti ve baglama uygunluğu gözlemlenir.

Etkileşimli Sıralanım

LTP sırasında, aile üyeleri arasındaki etkileşim her zaman düzgün bir şekilde akmaz ve bazen oyundaki veya etkileşimin konusundaki değişiklikler nedeniyle bozulur. Bu tür kopukluklar göz kontağı eksikliği, jest ve mimiklerde uyumsuzluk, devam eden aktiviteden farklı bir aktivite sunma vb. gibi bazı etkileşim başarısızlıklarına neden olur. Böyle zamanlarda aile bireyleri hemen uyum sağlar ve bu başarısızlıklardan kurtulursa buna "onarım" denir ve etkileşim hatalarını daha az görünür hale getirir. Bu fonksiyonun alt ölçekleri "Etkinlikler Sırasında Etkileşimli Hataların Düzeltilmesi" ve

"Geçişlerde Etkileşimli Hataların Düzeltilmesi" dir. Bu ölçeklerle geçişler ve oyun etkinlikleri esnasında gerçekleşen hataların ne derece telafi edildiği değerlendirilir.

Eş Ebeveynlik

Scaiola ve ark. (2013), puanlayıcının ailedeki eş-ebeveynlik sistemini gözlemlemesini önermiştir. Bu işlevi değerlendirmek için "Destek ve İşbirliği" ve "Çatışma ve Yıkıcı Müdahaleler" ölçekleri oluşturulmuştur. Eş-ebeveynlik sistemi değerlendirilirken, ebeveynlerin birbirlerini ne derece destekledikleri, birbirlerinin ebeveynlik rolünü artırmak için işbirliği içinde oldukları veya birbirleriyle ne kadar açıktan ya da üstü örtülü çatışma içine girdikleri dikkate alınır.

Çocuk Katkısı

Çocuk okul öncesi veya okul çağındaysa, bu işlevi değerlendirmek için iki alt ölçek kullanılır: "Çocuğun Katılımı" ve "Amaca Yönelik Ortaklık" (Scaiola ve diğ., 2013). Çocuğun ebeveynlerine etkileşime girme ve onlarla bağlantı kurma amaçlı gönderdiği sözlü ve sözsüz sinyallerle, çocuğun ebeveynleriyle işbirliği içinde bir oyun etkinliğini başlatabilme ve sürdürebilme becerisi değerlendirilir.

Birlikte Hatırlama Konuşmalarının Kodlama Şemaları

Duygu Kelimesi Sayısı

Duygu sözcükleri, ya duyguların içsel durumlarına işaret eden sözcükleri (örneğin, üzüntü, mutluluk ya da öfke duyguları) ya da duyguyla ilgili davranışları (ağlamak, birine bağırmak) temsil eden sözcükleri içermektedir (Bird ve Reese, 2006). Bu tür kelimelerin tekrarları da bu kodlama şeması için sayılmıştır.

Özgün Duygu Kelimesi Sayısı

Aile üyelerinin duygusal çeşitliliğini görmek adına, katılımcı tarafından tekrarlanan duygu sözcükleri çıkarılarak özgün duygu sözcük sayısı elde edilmiştir (Schrauf ve Sanchez, 2004).

Birleşim

Anne, baba ve çocuğun kullandığı tüm kelimelerin sayısı araştırmacılar tarafından ayrı ayrı hesaplanmıştır. Ayrıca anı konuşmasındaki sıra alma oranlarının net bir şekilde gözlemlenebilmesi için her bir aile üyesi için toplam satır sayısı da hesaplanmıştır (Leech ve Rowe, 2021).

İşlem

Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu'ndan etik izin onayı alındıktan sonra (107-ODTÜ-2021), Lozan Üniversite Hastanesi'nden LÜO ve kodlama sistemine dair çevrim içi bir eğitim alınmıştır. Daha sonra, lisans öğrencilerinin veri toplama sürecine dair eğitildikleri bir atölye dersi açılmıştır. Öğrencilere aile bulma sürecinde ailelerle nasıl etkileşimde bulunacakları konusunda eğitim verilmiştir. Ayrıca kamera açılarının LÜO düzenine göre nasıl ayarlanacağı, Zoom'da video kaydının nasıl yapılacağı gibi teknik konularda da eğitilmişlerdir. Öğrenciler ayrıca aile içindeki üçlü anı konuşmalarını yazıya dökme konusunda da bilgilendirildiler.

LÜO oturma düzeni hakkında ailelere önceden bilgi verilmiştir; Zoom toplantısından önce gerekli ayarlamaları yapabilmeleri için pilot çalışmalarımızdan birinden hem figür hem de gerçek aile örnek fotoğraflarını görme fırsatı bulmuşlardır. Ailelerden Zoom toplantıları için biri çocuğun sırtının arkasına ve başının yukarısına ebeveynleri görmek için ve diğeri de masanın üzerine çocuğu görmek için olmak üzere iki kamera kullanmaları istenmiştir. Öncelikle LÜO, daha sonra anı konuşması görevi ailelere uygulanmıştır. LÜO öncesi, ailelere oyunun dört aşaması ve aşamalar arasındaki geçişlerin kendilerine bağlı olduğu açıklanmış, oyun esnasında araştırmacıların kamera ve mikrofonlarının kapalı olacağı bilgisi verilmiştir. Ebeveynlerden kendi katılımları ve çocuklarının katılımlarına dair bilgilendirilmiş onam edinilmiştir. LÜO sonrası kısa bir mola verilerek, anı konuşması görevinin yönergesi verilmiştir. Ailelere birlikte yaşadıkları ve hepsinin hatırladığı, belli bir zamanda yaşanmış ve rutin olmayan bir olayı ortalama beş dakika boyunca konuşmaları belirtilmiştir. Bunun için anne ve babadan ayrı ayrı, ikişer olayı hatırlatan anahtar kelimeleri not alıp araştırmacıya söylemeleri gerektiği açıklanmıştır. Birden fazla olayın kriterleri

karşılaması durumunda, araştırmacılar seçimi aileye bırakmıştır. Anı görevi sonrası, anne ve babalar kendilerine iletilen linklerdeki anket bataryalarını doldurmuşlar ve görüşme sonlandırılmıştır. Katılımcı çocuklara, minik ODTÜlü diploması ve ebeveynlere de okul öncesi çocuk gelişimine dair bilgilendirici bir broşür yollanmıştır.

Sonuçlar

Veri Tarama

İlk veri seti 121 aileden oluşmasına rağmen, 12 aile ve toplam 23 ebeveynin verileri (bir baba anketi eksikti), mevcut çalışmanın kriterlerini karşılamadıkları için veri setinden çıkarılmıştır.

Araştırmanın Ölçüm Araçlarının Tanımlayıcı Analizleri

Hem bireysel hem aile düzeyindeki değişkenlerin tanımlayıcı istatistiklerini okuyucular Tablo 3.1 ve 3.2 de görebilirler.

Birlikte Hatırlama Kodlama Şemalarının ve ABDÖ'nün Değerlendiriciler Arası Güvenilirlikleri

İki farklı kodlayıcı, hem ABDÖ'ye dayalı LTP paradigmasını hem de anı konuşmalarını kodladığından, her ikisi için de sınıf içi korelasyon katsayıları (ICCs) IBM SPSS 28 aracılığıyla hesaplanmıştır. Tablo 3.3. de görüleceği gibi, ABDÖ için en düşük katsayı ICC değeri .80 ile aile sıcaklığı alt ölçeği iken, en yüksek katsayı ICC değeri 1.00 ile duruşlar (postures) alt ölçeği olarak bulunmuştur. Anı konuşmalarının kodlaması içinse ICC değerleri .92 ile .99 arasında değişmektedir.

Hipotez Testi için Ana Analizler

Anı Konuşmaları ve ABDÖ'de Çocuğun Cinsiyet Farklılıkları için Bağımsız Örneklem T-testi Analizleri

Bağımsız örneklem t-testi analizleri, çocuğun cinsiyetinin ABDÖ'nün çocuk katkı fonksiyonu üzerinde bir fark yarattığını göstermiştir, kız çocukların oğlan çocuklarına kıyasla anlamlı derecede daha yüksek puanlar alması H3 hipotezini desteklemektedir.

Yine de duygu paylaşımı, eş ebeveynlik, toplam kelime sayısı, toplam duygu kelimesi, benzersiz duygu kelimesi ve konuşma sırası alma çocuğun cinsiyetinin bir fonksiyonu olarak değişmemiştir (Bkz. Tablo 3.6.). Bu nedenle H1, H2 ve H4 hipotezleri desteklenmemiştir.

Anı Konuşmalarında Ebeveyn ve Çocuğun Cinsiyet Farklılıkları için İki Yönlü Karma Desenli Varyans Analizi (ANOVA)

2 (ebeveynin cinsiyeti) X 2 (çocuğun cinsiyeti) karma desenli ANOVA analizlerinin sonucu dört bağımlı değişken (toplam kelime sayısı, toplam duygu kelimesi, benzersiz duygu kelimesi ve konuşma sırası alma) için de aynı olmuştur; ebeveynin cinsiyeti anlamlı çıkmış, annelerin babalara kıyasla daha yüksek puanlar aldıkları bulunmuş ve H5 desteklenmiştir ancak çocuğun cinsiyeti ve ortak etki anlamlı çıkmadığından H6 ve H7 desteklenememiştir (Bkz. Tablo 3.10, 3.11, 3.12, 3.13, 3.14, 3.15, 3.16 ve 3.17).

Hiyerarşik Regresyon Analizleri

Duygu Paylaşımı, Eş Ebeveynlik ve Çocuğun Cinsiyetinin Anı Konuşmalarındaki Ebeveyn Farklılık Puanları Üzerindeki Yordayıcı Rolü

Duygu paylaşımı ve eş-ebeveynlik yordayıcı değişken, çocuğun cinsiyeti kontrol değişkeni ve ebeveynlerin anı konuşmalarının kodlamalarındaki fark puanları ölçüt değişken olmak üzere hiyerarşik regresyon analizleri yapılmıştır. Toplam kelime sayısı, toplam duygu kelimesi, benzersiz duygu kelimesi ve konuşma sırası alma olmak üzere dört ölçüt değişkeni için dört analiz yapılmıştır. Analizlerin hepsi anlamsız çıkmıştır; LÜO'da ailelerin göstermiş olduğu duygu paylaşımı ve eş ebeveynlik anı konuşması kodlama şemalarını yordamamıştır ancak bir istisna gözlemlenmiştir. Ailelerin LÜO'da gösterdikleri eş ebeveynlik seviyesi onların anı konuşmalarındaki konuşma sırası alma değişkeniyle ilişkili bulunmuştur; LÜO'da eş ebeveynlik arttıkça, aynı aile içindeki anne babaların benzer sayıda konuşma sırası aldıkları için aralarındaki farkın azaldığı görülmüştür. Bu nedenle, H8, H9 ve H10 hipotezleri, H10 hipotezini kısmen destekleyen karşılıklı konuşma haricinde diğer tüm ölçüt değişkenler için desteklenememiştir. Sonuçlar Tablo 3.18, 3.19, 3.20, 3.21, 3.22, 3.23, 3.24 ve 3.25'de görülebilir.

Cinsiyet İdeolojisinin ABDÖ ve Anı Konuşmaları Üzerindeki Yordayıcı Rolü

On bir kriter değişkeni (duygu paylaşımı, ortak ebeveynlik, çocuk katkısı, anı konuşmalarındaki ebeveyn fark puanları, ebeveynlerin ve çocukların toplam kelime, duygu kelimesi, benzersiz duygu kelimesi ve konuşma sırası sayıları) için tüm analizler aynı şekilde yürütülmüştür; ilk blokta kontrol değişkeni olarak önce çocuğun cinsiyeti modele eklenirken, ikinci blokta ailelerin cinsiyet ideolojisi (ebeveynlerin SRA ortalama puanları) modele eklenmiştir. Anı kodlama şemalarındaki bireysel ebeveyn puanlarının ölçüt değişken olduğu analizlerde, çocuğun cinsiyeti ve ebeveynin cinsiyeti, kontrol değişkenleri olarak ilk iki blokta art arda eklenmiştir. Son olarak, yordayıcı değişken olarak bireysel cinsiyet ideoloji puanları eklenmiştir.

Sonuçlara göre, aile düzeyinde cinsiyet ideolojisi hiçbir modelde anlamlı çıkmamıştır. Daha önceki ANOVA sonuçlarını destekler biçimde, çocuk cinsiyeti çocuk katkısı işlevini anlamlı yordamış ve kız çocuklarının avantajlı olduğu teyit edilmiştir. Bireysel cinsiyet ideolojisinin yordayıcı olduğu modellerde ise sonuçlar daha geleneksel cinsiyet ideolojisine sahip olan ebeveynlerin daha çok toplam kelime sayısı kullandıkları bulunmuştur ve bu H11d ile çelişmektedir. Bunun dışında bireysel cinsiyet ideolojisinin de duygu kelimesi, özgün duygu kelimesi ve konuşma sırasını alma değişkenlerini yordamadığı görülmüştür. Ayrıca, bireysel cinsiyet ideolojisi kullanılan modellerde, konuşması sırası haricindeki ebeveyn anı değişkenlerinde ebeveyn ve çocuk cinsiyeti anlamlı bulunmuştur. Anneler babalara kıyasla, kız çocuk ebeveynleri de erkek çocuk ebeveynlerine kıyasla daha yüksek puanlar elde etmişlerdir. Bu sebeple H5 ve H6 -konuşma sırası hariç- diğer anı kodlama şemaları için desteklenmiştir. Sonuçlar, Tablo 3.26'dan Tablo 3.56'ya kadar olan tablolardan incelenebilir.

Keşif Amaçlı Analizler

Keşif amaçlı olarak, test edilmeyen kalan ABDÖ işlevleri (katılım, organizasyon, odaklanma ve etkileşimli sıra), ABDÖ aile birliği kategorisi (1 = pürüzsüz kooperatif 2 = gergin kooperatif, 3 = örtük çatışma, 4 = açık çatışma, 5 = düzensiz dışlayıcı, ve 6 = düzensiz kaotik) ve ABDÖ toplam aile puanı (yalnızca katılım, organizasyon, odaklanma ve etkileşimli dizi işlevlerini toplayarak elde edilen puan) cinsiyet

farklılıkları ve ebeveyn cinsiyet ideolojisi ile ilişkili olarak incelenmiştir. Yalnızca anlamlı olan bulgular rapor edilmiştir.

Çocukların Cinsiyet Farklılıkları için Bağımsız Örneklem T-testleri ile Keşifsel Analizler

ABDÖ'nün diğer işlevlerinde, ABDÖ aile birliği türü ve ABDÖ toplam aile puanında çocuğun cinsiyetine göre anlamlı farklılık olup olmadığı birkaç bağımsız örneklem t-testi analizleriyle test edilmiştir. Bağımsız örneklem t-testi analizleri, ailelerin katılım, organizasyon, etkileşimli sıralanım, toplam aile puanı ve aile birliği kategorisi puanlarının çocuğun cinsiyetine göre anlamlı bir şekilde farklılaşmadığını göstermiştir. Yine de, ailelerin odaklanma puanları çocuğun cinsiyetinin bir fonksiyonu olarak değişmiştir; Kız çocuğu olan ailelerin oğlan çocuğu olan ailelere göre anlamlı olarak daha yüksek puan aldığı tespit edilmiştir (Bkz., Tablo 3.56)

Hiyerarşik Regresyon ile Keşifsel Analizler

Diğer FAAS ile İlişkili Değişkenlerin Anı Konuşmasında Ebeveyn Fark Puanları Üzerindeki Yordayıcı Rolleri

Katılım, organizasyon, odaklanma, etkileşimli sıra, ABDÖ aile birliği türü ve ABDÖ toplam aile puanı yordayıcılar ve çocuğun cinsiyeti kontrol değişkeni olarak ele alınmıştır. Birinci modele kontrol değişkeni, ikinci modele ise yordayıcılar eklenmiştir. Elde edilen sonuçlara göre modellerin hiçbiri anlamlı çıkmamıştır. Bu nedenle, önceki bulgular bu değişkenler için tekrarlanmıştır.

Cinsiyet İdeolojisinin FAAS ile İlişkili Diğer Değişkenler Üzerindeki Yordayıcı Rolü

Cinsiyet ideolojisinin katılım, organizasyon, odaklanma, etkileşimli sıra, ABDÖ aile birliği türü ve ABDÖ toplam aile puanı üzerinde herhangi bir anlamlı etkisinin olup olmadığını test etmek için bir sonraki analiz grubu yapılmıştır. Birinci modele kontrol değişkeni olan çocuğun cinsiyeti, ikinci modele yordayıcı değişken olan ailesel cinsiyet ideoloji puanları (her ailedeki ebeveynlerin ortalamaları) eklenmiştir. Ailelerin cinsiyet ideolojisi, ABDÖ ile ilgili diğer değişkenlerin anlamlı bir belirleyicisi değildi.

Tartışma

Bu çalışmanın temel amacı, üçlü aile oyunu ile anı sohbetleri arasındaki bağlantıyı, bu iki bağlamdaki cinsiyet farklılıklarını ve bireysel/ailevi cinsiyet ideolojisinin bu cinsiyet farklılıklarını etkileyip etkilemediğini belirlemekti. Bu kısımda, öncelikle araştırmacının kültürle ilgili gözlemlerine değinilmiştir çünkü bu gözlemler, sonuçları önemli ölçüde etkilemiş olabilecek Türkiye'nin kültürel bağlamının dikkate değer göstergeleriydi. Daha sonra mevcut çalışmanın güçlü yönleri ve sınırlılıkları açıklanmıştır. Son olarak, bu çalışmanın olası çıkarımlarının neler olacağı ve bu sonuçlara dayalı olarak gelecekteki çalışmalara nasıl yön verileceği açıklanmıştır.

Araştırmacının Türkiye'deki Aile Dinamiklerine İlişkin Kültürel Gözlemleri

Araştırmacı, Türk ailelerle gerçekleştirilen çevrimiçi Zoom toplantılarında her bir aileyi gözlemleme ve aile dinamikleri üzerinden Türkiye'nin kültürel bağlamı hakkında çıkarımlarda bulunma fırsatı bulmuştur. Öncelikle, anneler babalara göre araştırma ekibiyle ilk iletişim kuran kişi olmaya daha istekliydiler ve bu nedenle genel olarak sosyal açıdan daha yetkinlerdi. Dahası, çoğu durumda, ya sadece annelerin kendileri ya da anneler ve çocuklar birlikte oyun malzemelerini getirirken, babalar onların geri gelmesini beklemiştir. Bu kadar basit bir görevde bile işbölümünün olmaması, orta veya orta-yüksek SES geçmişine sahip yüksek eğitimli bireyler olsalar bile, bu ailelerin ne kadar geleneksel olduğunu ima etmiştir.

Türk ailelerinin aile dinamiklerine ilişkin bir başka çıkarım da, bazı ailelerin çocuklarına sınır koymalarının ne kadar sorunlu olduğuydu. LÜO'nun son aşamasında, ebeveynlerin seçtikleri bir konuyu tartışırken aktif ortak olmaları ve çocuğun, ebeveynler arasında devam eden etkileşimi kesintiye uğratmadan kendi başına oynayan ve sessizce oturan pasif bir oyun partneri olması gerekiyordu. Ancak bazı çocuklar sınırları zorladılar ve ebeveynlerinden sınır dışı davranışları hakkında hiçbir geri bildirim almadılar. Türkiye'de bireylerin birbiriyle ne kadar ilişkili veya bireysel olduğuna dair bazı kültür içi ve bireysel farklılıklar olsa da (Şahin-Acar & Leichtman, 2015), ebeveynler ve çocuk arasındaki bu bulanık çizgiler, Türkiye'nin genel olarak kolektivizm ile el ele olan kültürel bağlamıyla açıklanabilir (Çukur ve diğ., 2004). Ayrıca Türkiye, diğer Avrupa ülkelerine kıyasla daha dindar bir toplum

olarak tanımlanan ülkelerden biridir ve bu, çocukların daha az bağımsız ve otorite figürlerine daha itaatkar olarak yetiştirilmesiyle ilişkilendirilebilir (Acevedo ve diğ., 2015). Böyle bir kültürel ortamda ebeveynler aşırı korumacı (Sümer ve Kağıtçıbaşı, 2019) veya müdahaleci (Yaman ve diğ., 2010) davranarak çocuğun kişisel sınırlarını aşabilirler. Ayrıca, örneklemdeki çocuklar, LÜO'nun farklı bölümlerinde neler olup bittiğini anlayacak bilişsel kapasiteye sahip olsalar da, birçok ailede, LÜO'nun aşamaları arasındaki geçişler çocuğa açıklanmamıştır. Bu durum, ebeveynlerin çocuğun varlığını özerk bir birey olarak düşünmediklerini ima etmiş olabilir. Buradan çıkarılabilecek sonuç, Türkiye'deki gibi bir kültürel bağlamın, çocuğun bireyselliğini ve özerkliğini geri planda tutmasına neden olabileceği olabilir.

Son gözlem ise ailelerin oyun tercihleriyle ilgilidir. Mevcut çalışmada araştırılmamış olmasına rağmen, çoğu ailede çocuğun cinsiyetine bağlı olarak oyun türünün değiştiği gözlemlenmiştir. Bu gözlem, çocukların oyun tercihlerinde veya ebeveynlerin çocukları için oyun tercihlerinde cinsiyet farklılıklarını gösteren önceki araştırmalarla tutarlıdır (Boxberger ve Reimers, 2019; Lilliard, 2015; Lindsey ve Mize, 2001).

ABDÖ ve Anı Konuşmalarında Çocuğun Cinsiyet Farklılığına İlişkin Bulgular

Kız çocukları, çocuk bağlılığı ve amaca yönelik ortaklık alt ölçeklerinden oluşan çocuk katkısı işlevine ilişkin üçlü aile oyununda anlamlı olarak daha yüksek puanlar almıştır. Ebeveynler tarafından empoze edilen toplumsal cinsiyetin sosyalleşme süreci, okul öncesi dönem çocuklarında daha net olarak kendini gösterebilmektedir (örn., Denham ve diğ., 2010). Kız çocukların çocuk katkısı işlevindeki avantajı, ebeveyn davranışlarından ve çocukların cinsiyetlerine göre oyun tercihlerinden kaynaklanmış olabilir. Mevcut çalışmada, çoğu aile, bu tür oyunlar için daha uygun oldukları için, çocuğun cinsiyetine bakılmaksızın, LÜO materyalleriyle rol yapma oyununu tercih etmiştir. Daha önceki araştırmalarda da önerildiği gibi, kız çocukların bu tür oyunlara daha aşina ve yetkin olmaları, çocuk katkı işlevinde kızların daha yüksek puanlar almasına neden olmuş olabilir.

Anlamlı cinsiyet farkı gösteren çocuk katkısı işlevinin aksine, kızları olan aileler, duygu paylaşımı ve eş-ebeveynlik işlevleri hakkında üçlü oyunda erkek çocuklu ailelere göre daha yüksek puanlar almamışlardır. Bu bulgular beklenmediktir ve H2

hipotezleri ve oyun etkileşimleri sırasında çocuğun cinsiyetine dayalı farklı ebeveyn davranışları bulan önceki çalışmalarla uyumsuzdur (Boxberger ve Reimers, 2019; Lilliard, 2015; Lindsey ve Mize, 2001). Bununla birlikte, böyle bir bulgu, LÜO ile ilgili önceki araştırmalar, ABDÖ alt ölçeklerinin hiçbirinde çocuk cinsiyetiyle ilgili herhangi bir önemli farklılık göstermediği için gerekçelendirilebilir (Favez ve diğ., 2011). Ayrıca bazı araştırmalar, çocuğun cinsiyeti ile ebeveynin oyun oynama (Aznar ve Tenenbaum, 2016; Gold ve diğ., 2015) veya birlikte hatırlama (Zaman ve Fivush, 2013) arasında anlamlı bir ilişki bulamamıştır.

Kızlar ve oğlanlar benzer sayıda toplam kelime, toplam duygu kelimeleri ve özgün duygu kelimeleri kullanmış ve konuşma sırası sayısında farklılık göstermemişlerdir. Bu bulgular, 48-72 aylık çocuklarda cinsiyet farklılıklarının gözlemlenmesi için henüz erken olması ile ilgili olabilir. Cinsiyetçi ebeveynliğin uzun vadeli etkileri ve bu tür farklılıkların gözlemlenmesi, çocukluğun sonu ve ergenliğin başlangıcına kadar ortaya çıkmayabilir (Chaplin ve Aldao, 2013).

Anı Konuşmalarında Ebeveyn ve Çocuğun Cinsiyeti Arasındaki Etkileşime İlişkin Bulgular

Tüm bağımlı değişkenler için (toplam kelime sayısı, toplam duygu kelimeleri, benzersiz duygu kelimeleri ve konuşma sırası), sonuçlar ebeveynin cinsiyetinin ana etkisinin annelerin lehine H5'i destekleyerek anlamlı olduğunu ortaya koymuştur ancak çocuk cinsiyeti ve ortak etki anlamlı çıkmamıştır. Daha önceki alanyazın bulgularıyla bu bulgular uyuşmaktadır (Aznar ve Tenanbaum, 2015; Bost ve diğ., 2010; Bürümlü-Kısa ve Şahin-Acar, 2020; Fivush ve diğ., 2000; van der Pol ve diğ., 2015). Daha önce de belirtildiği gibi, Türkiye'deki kültürel bağlam dikkate alındığında, bu tür geleneksel kültürel arka planlarda ebeveynsel birlikte hatırlama konuşmalarının duygusal tonundaki farklılıkların ortaya çıkması oldukça olası olduğundan, bu tür sonuçların bulunması şaşırtıcı değildir.

ANOVA sonuçları, çocuğun cinsiyetinin ebeveyn anı kodlama şemaları üzerinde anlamlı bir etkisi olmadığını göstermiştir. Bununla birlikte, toplumsal cinsiyet ideolojisinin yordayıcı etkisini incelemek için hiyerarşik regresyon analizleri yapıldığında, çocuk cinsiyetinin anlamlı bir etkisi olduğu, kız çocuk ailelerinin

ebeveyn cinsiyet ideolojisini kontrol ettikten sonra bile daha çok toplam kelime, duygu kelimesi ve özgün kelime kullandıkları bulunmuştur. Ancak bu sonuçlar konuşma sırası alma değişkeni için geçerli olmadığından H6 hipotezi kısmen desteklenmiştir.

ANOVA'da desteklenmesine rağmen, konuşma sırası için anlamlı olmayan regresyon sonuçları, çocuğun cinsiyetini ve ebeveynin cinsiyet ideolojisini kontrol ettikten sonra, ebeveynin konuşma sırası sayısının ebeveynin cinsiyeti ile nedensel bir bağlantısı olmadığını ortaya koymuştur. Ebeveynlerin, kızlarıyla daha fazla konuşabilmelerine ve annelerin babalardan daha fazla konuşmalarına rağmen, cinsiyet ideolojisi kontrol altına alındıktan sonra, üçlü anı konuşmalarına çocuğun ve ebeveynin cinsiyetinden bağımsız olarak benzer düzeyde katılım göstermeleri mümkündür. Ayrıca, bulguların anlamsız oluşu, gerçek doğada var olan bir etkiyi tespit etme gücünün düşük olmasıyla sonuçlanan sınırlı örneklem büyüklüğü ile de açıklanabilir çünkü grup ortalamalarına bakıldığında eğilimin beklenen doğrultuda olduğu görülmüştür (Akobeng, 2016).

Anlamsız çıkan ortak etki için, çocuğun ya da ebeveynin cinsiyetinden başka aracı değişkenlerin etkisi söz konusu olabilir. Örneğin, Jean ve Elizabeth (2022), çocuğun alıcı ve ifade edici kelime dağarcığı daha yüksek olduğunda annelerin ikili oyun etkileşimlerinde daha fazla konuşma eğiliminde olduklarını bulmuşlardır. Bu nedenle, bu çalışmada ebeveynler, paylaşılan geçmiş olaylarla ilgili konuşmalarda çocuklarının alıcı ve ifade edici dil gelişim kapasitesini de dikkate almış ve buna göre içerik sunmuş olabilir. Önceki literatür ayrıca, girişken çocukların ebeveynleriyle daha hacimli bir anı konuşmasına dahil olma eğiliminde olduklarını göstermiştir. Buna karşılık, ebeveynler, aktif olarak etiketlenen çocuklarına daha az hacimli bir anı konuşması sağlama eğilimindedir (Lewis, 1999). Dolayısıyla çocuğun mizacı da moderatör değişken olarak fark yaratmış olabilir. Ayrıca bazı ailelerin, özellikle bazı babaların çocuklarıyla her gün oynamaya alışık olmadıkları, çünkü oyun etkinliği başlatmakta zorlandıkları görülmüştür. Bazı ebeveynler LÜO'nun başında şaşırmış görünmüş ve hatta ne tür bir oyun seçip oluşturabilecekleri konusunda araştırmacıların görüşlerini sormuşlardır. Bazı ebeveynler ise herhangi bir zorlama olmaksızın kendiliğinden etkili bir oyun oluşturmuş ve kurgulamıştır.

Ebeveynlerin ve çocukların cinsiyet farklılıklarına ilişkin bu sonuçlar, Türkiye'deki geleneksel cinsiyet rolleri ve cinsiyet kalıp yargılarının, tıpkı mevcut çalışma

örnekleminde olduğu gibi, günümüzün yüksek eğitimli orta veya yüksek SES'li bireyleri arasında bile yaygın olduğunu göstermektedir.

Duygu Paylaşımı, Eş Ebeveynlik ve Çocuğun Cinsiyetinin Anı Konuşmalarındaki Ebeveyn Farklılık Puanlarını Yordayıcı Rolüne İlişkin Bulgular

H8, H9 ve H10 hipotezleri, bir kız çocuğa sahip olmanın ve üçlü oyunda duygu paylaşımı ve eş ebeveynlikte daha yüksek puanlara sahip olmanın, anı konuşmalarında (toplam kelime, duygu kelimesi, benzersiz duygu kelimesi ve konuşma sırası) daha az aile içi ebeveyn farkı skoru ile ilişkili olduğunu ileri sürmüştür. Ancak hipotezlerin biri hariç hiçbiri desteklenmemiştir; üçlü oyunda ebeveynler arasındaki eş ebeveynlik arttıkça, çocuğun cinsiyeti ne olursa olsun, aynı ailenin ebeveynleri arasındaki konuşma sıraları arasında daha az fark olduğu ortaya çıkmış ve hipotez 10d desteklenmiştir. Eş ebeveynlik desteğinin daha fazla olduğu ve eş ebeveynlik çatışmasının nadir olduğu durumlarda, annelerin ve babaların anı konuşmalarına benzer düzeyde katılım göstermeleri ve konuşma sırası almaları daha muhtemel olduğundan, bu bulgunun ortaya çıkması doğaldır.

Eş ebeveynliğin, anı konuşma değişkenlerindeki ebeveyn farkı puanları üzerindeki anlamlı olmayan yordayıcı etkisi, önceki benzer araştırmalarla uyumlu değildir. Örnek vermek gerekirse, Kolak ve Volling'in (2007) çalışması, ebeveynlerin, özellikle de babaların, olumlu duygusal ifadede daha iyi olduklarında, ortak ebeveynlik kalitesinin artmasının olası olduğunu iddia etmiştir. Ancak bu çalışmada duygusal dışavurum, ikili veya üçlü etkileşimi gözlemlemek ve kodlamak yerine bir ölçek uygulanarak ölçülmüştür. Kullanılan ölçüm yöntemi, o çalışmanın sonuçları ile mevcut çalışma arasında bir fark yaratmış olabilir. Benzer şekilde, duygu paylaşımının anı konuşmalarındaki ebeveyn fark puanlarını yordamaması yine ölçüm farklılıklarıyla açıklanabilir. Diğer bir deyişle, ilgili literatürde nitel verilerin sıklık sayımı ile nicelleştirilmesini ifade eden yakınlaştırma (zoom in) kodlama teknikleri daha yaygındır. Oysa ABDÖ'de tüm kodlamalar, Likert tipi bir ölçek gibi, ölçülen kavramın derecesini gösteren bir sayı atamakla ilgili olan uzaklaştırma (zoom out) kodlama teknikleri yoluyla yapılır (Grysman ve Mansfield, 2020). Dolayısıyla anlamsız sonuçlar kodlama tekniklerindeki farklılıktan da kaynaklanmış olabilir. Dahası, kimin anısının konuşulmak üzere seçildiği bir karıştırıcı değişken olarak rol oynayarak aynı

aile içindeki ana baba farklarını etkilemiş olabilir. Kendi anısı seçilen ebeveyn, anı konuşmasına daha fazla katkıda bulunmuş ve daha zengin bir duygusal içerik sağlamış olabilir. Tüm bu sebepler neden üçlü aile oyunundaki duygu paylaşımı ve eş ebeveynliğin anı konuşmalarındaki ebeveyn fark puanlarını yordamadığını açıklayabilir.

Çocuğun cinsiyeti ile ilgili olarak, bir kız çocuğuna sahip olmak, anı konuşması değişkenlerinde ebeveyn puanları arasında daha az farkla sonuçlanmamıştır. Ebeveynler, ortak bir geçmiş olaydan bahsederken çocuklarının cinsiyetini göz önünde bulundursalar ve kızları varsa anı kodlama şemalarında daha yüksek puanlar alsalar da, çocuk kız olsa bile anneler ve babalar arasındaki fark azalmıyor gibi görünmektedir. Bu durum yine Türkiye'nin nispeten cinsiyetçi kültürel geçmişinden kaynaklanan cinsiyetçi ebeveyn tutum ve davranışlarıyla ilgili olabilir (Güney ve diğ.., 2006; Koca ve diğ., 2011). Tutumsal düzeyde daha eşitlikçi bir toplumsal cinsiyet ideolojisine sahip olsalar bile ebeveynler, geçmişle ilgili günlük konuşmalarda çocuklarına geleneksel toplumsal cinsiyet rollerini ve kalıp yargıları doğrudan modelleyerek inanç ve tutumlarının aksine eğilimlidirler (Halpern ve Perry-Jenkins, 2016). Bu şekilde, ebeveynler kültürel bağlama iyi adapte olmuş ve aynı cinsiyet ideolojisini aktarmaya hazır bir çocuk yetiştirmeyi ummaktadırlar.

Toplumsal Cinsiyet İdeolojisinin ABDÖ ve Anı Konuşmaları Üzerindeki Yordayıcı Rolüne İlişkin Bulgular

Beklenenin aksine, ebeveynlerin cinsiyet ideolojileri üçlü oyun ve anı konuşmalarını içeriğini yordamamıştır. Buna tek istisna, ebeveynlerin cinsiyet ideolojileri geleneksel hale geldikçe, anı konuşmalarında daha fazla toplam kelime kullanmış olmalarıdır. İstatiksel olarak arttırılmış Tip 1 hata bu durumu açıklayabilir. Nitekim mevcut çalışmada olduğu gibi ard arda birbirine bağlı analizler yapmanın bu hatayı arttırdığı bilinmektedir (Banerjee ve diğ., 2009). Başka bir açıklama, bu tür geleneksel ebeveynlerin daha fazla toplam kelime kullanmalarının nitelikle değil, sadece nicelikle ilgili olduğu olabilir. Bu nedenle, daha yüksek hacimli bir anı konuşması, geleneksel görüşlere sahip aileler için bir avantaj anlamına gelmeyebilir. Örneğin, daha eşitlikçi görüşe sahip ebeveynlere göre daha çok tekrara düşmüş olabilecekleri ya da daha az açık uçlu soru kullanmış olabilecekleri düşünülebilir.

Önceki bazı araştırmalar, ebeveynlerin cinsiyet ideolojisinin çocuklarıyla olan etkileşimlerindeki davranışlarını etkileyebileceğini iddia etmiştir. Bulanda'nın (2004) çalışması, daha eşitlikçi cinsiyet tutumlarına sahip babaların boş zaman etkinlikleri (örneğin, çocukla oynamak, çocuğa okuma veya ödevlerde yardım etmek veya çocukla özel konuşmalar yapmak) açısından çocuk bakımında daha fazla zaman geçirdiklerini göstermiştir. Ancak bu her zaman geçerli olmayabilir, çünkü toplumsal cinsiyet ideolojisine ilişkin ebeveyn inançlarının ve tutumlarının çocukla günlük etkileşimlere her zaman yansımayabileceği de bilinmektedir. Bunun yerine, ev işleri ve çocuk bakımında harcanan zaman dahil olmak üzere gözlemlenebilir ebeveyn davranışları, ebeveyn veya aile cinsiyet ideolojilerinin daha doğru bir göstergesi olabilir (Halpern & Perry-Jenkins, 2016). Bu yüzden mevcut çalışmada ebeveyn cinsiyet ideolojisinin anlamlı yordayıcı etkisi bulunamamış olabilir.

Keşif Amaçlı Analizlere İlişkin Bulgular

Keşif amaçlı yapılan analizlerde tek önemli cinsiyet farkı, birlikte inşa etme ve ebeveyn yapı iskelesinden oluşan ABDÖ'nün odaklanma işlevine aittir. Bu bulgu, mevcut literatürle uyumludur, çünkü bazı araştırmalar, ebeveynlerin kızlarla oynarken erkeklerle oynarken olduğundan daha fazla ebeveyn iskelesine önem verdiklerini göstermiştir (Conner ve Cross, 2003; Lowe ve diğ., 2014; Tenenbaum ve Leaper, 1998). Bu sonuç, ebeveynlerin bu tür cinsiyet farklılıkları için rol model olmasıyla da gerekçelendirilebilir; anneler, babalara kıyasla çocuklarıyla oyun etkileşimlerinde daha yapı odaklıdır (John ve diğ., 2013). Bu nedenle, ebeveynler, üçlü oyun sırasında daha etkili iskele ebeveynlik ve birlikte inşa etme becerileri göstererek, gelecekteki anneler olarak algılanabilecek kızlarından da aynı şeyi bekliyor olabilirler.

Önceki analizlerde olduğu gibi, geri kalan ABDÖ işlevleri, ABDÖ aile birliği türü ve ABDÖ toplam aile puanı, anı kodlama şemalarında ebeveyn farkı puanlarını anlamlı düzeyde öngörmemiştir. Önceki bulgularla birlikte bu durum, anneler ve babalar arasındaki anı konuşmasındaki hacim, duygusal içerik ve konuşma dönüşlerinin sayısı arasındaki farkın, üçlü oyundaki aile dinamikleriyle, cinsiyet ideolojisiyle ya da çocuğun cinsiyeti tarafından değiştirilemeyecek kadar güçlü ve kalıcı olduğu şeklinde yorumlanabilir. Daha eşitlikçi kültürlerde durum farklı olabilir, ancak Türkiye gibi

kültürlere sahip ülkelerde aileler sürekli olarak bu örüntüyü genel olarak anneler lehine gösterme eğiliminde olabilir.

Çalışmanın Güçlü Yönleri ve Sınırlılıkları

Bildiğimiz kadarıyla bu çalışma, cinsiyet ve cinsiyet ideolojisi faktörlerinin üçlü aile oyunu ve anı konuşması etkileşimleri üzerindeki etkilerini araştıran ilk çalışmalardan biridir. Aynı zamanda, bu çalışma aynı zamanda anne-baba-çocuk üçlüsünün birlikte oynadıkları LÜO prosedürü ile anılarını inceleyen ilk çalışmadır. Mevcut çalışma alan yazın için değerlidir çünkü sonuçlar ebeveyn davranışlarının farklı bağlamlarda mutlaka ilişkili olması gerekmediği fikrini desteklemiştir. Çocukla verimli bir şekilde oynamak, mutlaka içerik ve hacim açısından zengin bir anı konuşması yapmak anlamına gelmeyebilir veya bunun tersi de geçerlidir. Bu, farklı bilişsel kapasitelerin birlikte hatırlama ve oyun bağlamından sorumlu olabileceğine işaret edebilir.

Bu çalışma aynı anda yakınlaştırma ve uzaklaştırma kodlama tekniklerini kullanması açısından önemlidir. Önceki araştırmalar ağırlıklı olarak anne-çocuk ilişkisine odaklandığından (Kulkofski ve diğ., 2009; Reese ve diğ., 2019; Sales ve Fivush, 2005; Valentino ve diğ., 2014; Wang ve diğ., 2010; Wareham ve Salmon, 2006), bu çalışma babanın oyun etkileşimlerine ve anı konuşmalarına katılımına ilişkin literatürü genişletmesi açısından değerlidir. Çalışmanın bir diğer avantajı da veri toplama sürecinde online Zoom programı toplantılarının kullanılmış olmasıdır. Bilimsel araştırma amacıyla bile olsa yabancıları evlerine davet etmek bazı aileleri zorlayabilmektedir. Ayrıca, veri toplama zamanı Coronavirüs pandemisine denk geldiğinden, insanlar araştırmacıları evlerinde ağırlama konusunda daha fazla şüphe duymaktaydılar. Zoom toplantıları bu tür sorunların üstesinden gelmiş ve veri toplama sırasında para ve zaman tasarrufu sağlanmıştır.

Bu çalışma bazı sınırlılıklara sahiptir. Çalışmanın sınırlı örneklem büyüklüğü bunlardan biri olacaktır; daha yüksek bir örneklem büyüklüğü daha doğru sonuçlar verebilirdi. Diğer bir sınırlılık, nicelleştirilmiş nitel bir bölüm de dahil olmak üzere karma yöntem tasarımına sahip olan mevcut çalışmanın doğası olacaktır çünkü nitel verileri nicelleştirmek, verinin zenginliğini sınırlayarak kaybetmek demektir (Hafsa, 2019). Ayrıca, araştırma ekibinde birden çok kodlayıcı olması, sonuçların

güvenilirliğini azaltmış olabilir. Araştırmacılar, kodlama sürecinde çalışmanın hipotezlerine kör değillerdi ve bu sebeple kodlama sürecinde ön yargılı olmuş olabilirler. Son olarak, Zoom üzerinden veri toplama işlemi sadece avantajlı olmakla kalmayıp bazı dezavantajlara da sahip olabilir. Ailelerle daha kontrollü bir laboratuvar ortamında değil de çevrimiçi olarak yapılan görüşmeler, araştırmanın iç geçerliliğini azaltmış olabilir.

Çıkarımlar ve Öneriler

Bu araştırmanın bir sonucu olarak, ebeveynler, ebeveynlik yaparken toplumsal cinsiyet eşitliğini uygulama, oyun etkileşimlerinin ve anı konuşmalarının niteliklerini artırma ve her iki bağlamı da tüm aile üyeleri için duygusal olarak daha zengin hale getirme konusunda seminerler yoluyla psikososyal eğitim alabilirler. Araştırmacılar, bu tür hedeflere ulaşmayı amaçlayan müdahale çalışmaları da geliştirebilirler. Toplumsal cinsiyet eşitliği ideolojisine sahip olmak, ebeveynlikte her zaman bu ideolojiye uygun davranmak anlamına gelmeyebileceğinden, müdahaleler tutum ve inançları değil, somut ve gözlemlenebilir ebeveyn davranışlarını hedef almalıdır.

Benzer araştırmalar tasarlanarak grup farklılıklarını karşılaştırmak için düşük eğitim düzeyine ve SES'e sahip aileleri içerebilir. Cinsiyet ideolojisini SRA gibi standartlaştırılmış bir ölçüm aracı kullanarak ölçmek yerine, evdeki işbölümü veya çocuk bakımında harcanan zaman gibi somut değişkenlerle incelenebilir. Kültürler arası çalışmalar Türkiye'nin kendine özgü kültürel atmosferini daha net ortaya koyabilir. Gelecekteki araştırmalar, daha küçük veya daha büyük çocukları olan aileleri de dahil ederek oyun ve anı bağlamlarını araştırabilir. Boylamsal çalışmalar, üçlü oyun ve anı konuşmalarındaki ebeveyn davranışlarının uzun vadeli etkilerini ve çocuk sonuçlarını belirtmek için faydalı olacaktır. Farklı çocuk yaş grupları ve birden fazla çocuğu olan aileler için LÜO'nun diğer versiyonları kullanılabilir.

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