GENDER STEREOTYPES
AND MIDDLE-SCHOOL CHILDREN'S SELF-PERCEPTION:
A COMPARISON OF MOTHERS' AND THEIR CHILDREN'S REPORTS

ELİF ÖZEN

BOĞAZİÇİ UNIVERSITY

2018

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Thesis submitted to the

Institute for Graduate Studies in Social Sciences

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Arts

in

Educational Sciences

by

Elif Özen

Boğaziçi University

2018

Gender Stereotypes and Middle-School Children's Self-Perception:

A Comparison of Mothers' and Their Children's Reports

The thesis of Elif Özen

has been approved by:

Assist. Prof. Nihal Yeniad
(Thesis Advisor)

Assist. Prof. Bengü Börkan
(Thesis Co-Advisor)

Assoc. Prof. Deniz Albayrak Kaymak

Assoc. Prof. Zeynep Hande Sart

Prof. Fidan Korkut Owen
(External Member)

June 2018

DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I, Elif Özen, certify that

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- this thesis contains no material that has been submitted or accepted for a degree or diploma in any other educational institution;
- this is a true copy of the thesis approved by my advisor and thesis committee at Boğaziçi University, including final revisions required by them.

Signature.....

Date ...04.06.2018.....

ABSTRACT

Gender Stereotypes and Middle-School Children's Self-Perception:

A Comparison of Mothers' and Their Children's Reports

The present study investigated children's gender stereotypes in relation with their mothers' gender stereotypes and their gender. Also, the roles of children's and mothers' gender stereotypes and mothers' perception of their children in predicting children's self-perception in five competence areas and self-worth beliefs were examined. The data were collected from 270 middle school students and their mothers through schools and home visits. The children's gender stereotypes were measured with self-developed Gender Stereotype Questionnaire and children's self-perception was measured with Harter's Self-Perception Profile for Children; and mothers' gender stereotypes and their perception of their children were measured with the mother version of the same scales. The child's gender and mothers' gender stereotype significantly predicted children's gender stereotypes. In the second part of the study, the mothers' perception of their children predicted children's self-perception in all areas. The mothers' gender stereotypes was a significant predictor only in scholastic competence while the children's gender stereotypes only predicted children's physical appearance beliefs. The interaction between gender and mothers' perception accounted for children's scholastic competence and the interaction between gender and children's gender stereotypes accounted for children's global self-worth beliefs. These findings indicate the important role of mothers' perception in children's self-perception and plot a route for the counseling with the children through getting a support from their mothers.

ÖZET

Ortaokulda Cinsiyetçi Kalıp Yargılar ve Benlik Algısı: Anne ve Çocukların Bildirimlerinin Karşılaştırılması

Bu çalışma,, çocukların ve annelerinin cinsiyetçi kalıp yargıları arasındaki ilişkiyi araştırmaktır. Çalışmanın ikinci bölümünde, çocukların ve annelerin cinsiyetçi kalıp yargıları ile annelerin çocukları hakkındaki algılarının, çocukların beş farklı alandaki yeterlilik algıları ile benlik değeri inançları üzerindeki yordayıcı rolü incelenmiştir. Veriler 270 ortaokul öğrencisin ve annelerinden okullar ve ev ziyaretleri ile toplanmıştır. Çocukların cinsiyetçi kalıp yargıları bu araştırma için geliştirilen Kız ve Erkek Öğrencilere Dair İnanışlar Formu ile, çocukların benlik algıları ise Harter'ın Çocuklar İçin Benlik Algısı Profili ile ölçülmüş, annelerin kalıp yargıları ile çocuklarını algılamaları da aynı ölçeklerin anne versiyonları ile ölçülmüştür. Çocukların cinsiyeti ve annelerin cinsiyetçi kalıp yargıları çocukların cinsiyetçi kalıp yargılarını yordamıştır. Çalışmanın ikinci bölümünde, annelerin çocuklarını algılamaları çocukların benlik algısını her alanda yordamıştır. Annelerin cinsiyetçi kalıp yargıları yalnızca çocukların eğitsel yeterlilik algılarını yordarken, çocukların cinsiyetçi kalıp yargıları yalnızca fiziksel görünüm algılarını yordamıştır. Cinsiyet bütün bu yordayıcı değişkenler için düzenleyici değişken olarak kullanılmıştır. Cinsiyet ve annenin algısı arasındaki iki yönlü etkileşim sadece çocukların eğitsel yeterlilik algısında anlamlı iken, cinsiyet ile çocukların cinsiyetçi kalıp yargıları arasındaki etkileşim sadece çocukların benlik değerleri inançlarında anlamlıdır. Bu sonuçlar annelerin, çocuklarının benlik algısındaki rolünü anlamak ve çocuklarla annelerin desteği alınarak yapılan psikolojik danışmanlık için bir rota çizmesi açısından önemlidir.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Foremost, I would like to thank you, Assist. Prof. Nihal Yeniad for her invaluable support, effort, and guidance during my thesis process. I will always appreciate her calmness and patience in my most stressful moments. I would also like to state my deepest gratitude to my thesis co-advisor, Assist. Prof. Bengü Börkan her invaluable comments, support and guidance. I always admire her statistics skills and without her, my data analysis process would not be that smooth.

I would like to thank, Assoc. Prof. Deniz Albayrak Kaymak for her willingness to be a part of my thesis committee and her warm attitude. I would also like to thank Prof. Fidan Korkut Owen for her support, guidance and academic suggestions despite distances. I am also so grateful to Assoc. Prof. Zeynep Hande Sart for participation in the committee in very last minute to save the day and her invaluable contribution in my thesis.

First of all, I would like to thank my dearest friend Damla Tokgöz not only for her emotional support but also for her patience while helping me during the preparation of my presentation. She helped me to re-edit the graphs over and over again without complaining.

I am very thankful to Büşra Dağdevir for her genuine friendship, finding participants and allocating her and her family's summer days to my thesis. Without whom, I would not be able to find hitchhikers who go to middle school and make them participate in my study.

I would like to express my gratitude to my dearest friends Gizem Öztemur and Şeyda Çetintaş for keeping me motivated and helping me in every step on the way. I would always cherish our meetings just to complain about our theses.

I would also like to thank my beloved friend, Sahra Ataş for her warm friendship and constant patience. I will no longer procrastinate our plans! I want to thank, Kübra Aras Türkcan for their intimate friendship and support. Also, I am so grateful to my friend Chandni Dhingra for supporting me spiritually and showing interest despite of being thousands of kilometers away. I would also thank Nurşah Ertan for being the best boss ever and also her understanding and invaluable guidance to my career.

I would also like to thank the lovely children and their mothers who not only participated in this study but also open their houses for me. I also want to thank the adorable kids who tried to help me walking all around the neighbor to find their friends. You become my inspiration! I owe special thanks to Nuray Yıldırım, Sergen Kanter, Hülya Amaç for their help in the data collection; without them, it would not have been that easy.

Last but not least, I express my deepest gratitude to my parents for being always beside me in everything I did, their unconditional love, support and constant encouragement. I want to thank my mother, Ayşe Şükran Özen to who helped me through using her special, magical people skills to find participants during long and tiring data collection process. She always makes me continue in the challenging times. Without whom, I would be able to do 142 home visits! Also I want to thank my father, Reşit İzzettin Özen for his help in preparing the questionnaires, running all the errands and of course, his support in each phase of my thesis. I would also like to thank to my cat, Gölge for her presence, being purrfect and for reminding me that all that matters are playing and sleeping.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

From very early on, humans thrive for knowing and understanding of their selves. Every scientific field takes a different perspective with regard to what people think and feel about oneself. There is a lot of theoretically different constructs have been developed regarding self, such as self-concept, self-perception, self-efficacy, self-esteem and so on (Harter, 1999). Self was defined as "the process of reflexivity which emanates from the dialectic between 'I' and 'Me'" and self-concept as "a product of this reflexive activity" (Gecas, 1982, p. 3). Harter (1999) defines self-perception, or self-evaluation, as the traits one knowingly accepts and uses to give description about oneself (Harter, 1999). In this study, this description is used as a base for children's self-perception. Self-concept is individual's perception of oneself by looking at oneself as an entity (Gecas, 1982). This indicates a common duality about self: I as a "subject" and Me as an "object" (Harter, 1999, p. 6). I-self was considered as collecting information regarding me-self and turning these into an overall formulated and unified self-perception through the increasing cognitive and language abilities over the years (Harter, 1999).

Some children perceive themselves more favorably, whereas others have negative self-perception. With regard to differences in children's self-perception, most of the scholars agree that their social relationships are the essence of self-perception development. For example, symbolic interactionists suggest that the self is basically a social self, indicating that children start viewing themselves as they are viewed by others. It was studied by developmental psychologists that how the

children's self-perception differs within the developmental process, especially based on their relationship with their parents. Based on this framework, the social developmental theory is aimed to understand the processes in which the children's self-perception is formed by social relationships within their development (Brummelman & Thomaes, 2017). Therefore, it is possible to claim that the development of self-perception is based on social processes within the course of development. In addition to this, the development of self-perception is also based on the cultural values, which might considered as gender stereotypes transmitted through social relationships (Brummelman & Thomaes, 2017).

In addition, according to bioecological theory, children's development is not solely based on children's interactions in immediate environment but also influenced by the societal factors in that specific time and place. This theory provides a link between child and the society (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2007). The gender stereotypes could be seen as an example of societal influences on the development which also have reflections on family life. Since the children's development is affected by gender stereotypes in a society through the gender-based socialization process at home, the children's self-perception might also be affected by these gender stereotypes. For this reason, in this study, social developmental perspective and Bronfenbrenner's theory is used as a framework in order to understand the factors that influence children's self-perception in terms of how their mothers perceive them and the gender stereotypes.

It is important to question that how and in what ways the existing gender stereotypes might have an impact on children's self-perception. It was stated that the stereotypes result from the fact that people want to make the world around them as

more comprehensible and controllable (McCauley, Stitt, & Segal, 1980). The people usually trust on the stereotypes for understanding, organizing the information about many different personality qualities, attributions and simplifying them (Cook & Cusack, 2010). Therefore, as a part of this intention, the stereotypes can be seen as the way one person perceives and builds upon the world around them (McCauley et al., 1980).

The stereotypes are the cognitions that can be purposefully and/or without conscious awareness triggered during an encounter with a specific group (Fagot, Leinbach & O'Boyle, 1992; Franzoi, 2009). Since the stereotypes are so effective under such ambiguous circumstances, people are more likely to count on them (Franzoi, 2009). However, especially when people rely on them, it is more likely that they attribute some characteristics to others while ignoring their specific, personal qualities, needs, wants and also, special circumstances they are under (Cook & Cusack, 2010).

In the domain of making social decisions, there are two main factors influencing people's judgment; the people either use the categorical information about that specific group one represents such as gender stereotypes or they use specific and tailored information based on the person (Jacobs & Eccles, 1992). Since these categorical information, such as stereotypes are not only used for unknown group of people, but they can also be used for the people they already know, it could be assumed that the parents also use these stereotypical beliefs in their relationship with their children (Jacobs & Eccles, 1992). The gender role socialization begins even before the birth. Kağıtçıbaşı and Sunar (1992) asserted that the gender role socialization begins to develop even before the child's birth in Turkey. It was

revealed that the future parents had a tendency of favoring one gender over the other and had differential attributions to girls and boys (Kağıtçıbaşı & Sunar, 1992). According to social cognitive theory, it was suggested that the children's gender development is based on their interactions with the caregivers through direct and indirect ways (Bussey & Bandura, 2009). The stereotypical beliefs that parents hold have an effect on how they perceive in their own children and how they ascribe certain characteristics to their children starting from very young age (Jacobs & Eccles, 1992). The question in that sense is that whether the mothers' gender differentiated perception of their children's competence shows the real differences in children's competence. It is nearly impossible to know the actual answer due to the fact that the inborn talent is already influenced by the gender-based socialization differences (Eccles, Jacobs, & Harold, 1990). Therefore, "if parents hold gender-differentiated perceptions of, and expectations for, the children's competencies in various areas, then, through self-fulfilling prophecies, parents could play a critical role in socializing gender differences in children's self-perceptions, interests and skill acquisition" (Eccles et al., 1990, p.184).

Gender differentiated behaviors of parents in home context and the differences in socialization between girls and boys with a very early onset may result in gender differences, which in turn, confirm these gender stereotypes as part of self-fulfilling prophecy (Eliot, 2009). Therefore, in this study, the predictors of children's self-perception are examined through mothers' perception of them as a part of social developmental perspective (Brummelman & Thomaes, 2017) and mothers' gender stereotypes and children' gender stereotypes as a part of societal influences (Bussey & Bandura, 2009; Eliot, 2009; Jacobs & Eccles, 1992).

1.2 Purpose of the study

Since the individuals' self-perception are developed through the interaction with others in their lives, the people's first relationship and interaction with their parents is actually quite important in the development of beliefs regarding self (Brummelman & Thomaes, 2017). Starting from very beginning, especially mothers play an important role in that sense because the mothers are seen as the primary caregiver based on gender roles in our society as well. Therefore, the main aim of this study is to understand the children's self-perception and its relationship with the perception of their mothers.

Since the social decision making is based on both categorical information and individuating information, the mothers' perception of their children is not solely based on the children themselves but also depends on their own attitudes and the societal influences. The mothers' gender stereotypes have an influence on how they treat, interact with and communicate with their children as a part of the gender socialization processes in home context. It is not only how parents attribute to some characteristics to their children and expect different behaviors from them but also how they perceive their children's competence based on culturally depended gender stereotypes (Eccles et al., 1990). Therefore, the mothers' gender stereotypes might have an impact on how they perceive their children as a person and their competences in different domains depending on child's gender which in turn becomes part of their self-perception through the influence of mothers' perception (Jacobs, 1991; Jacobs & Eccles, 1992). Thus, the influence of mothers' gender stereotypes on children's self-perception was examined in this study.

In addition, the children's own gender stereotypes might influence their self-perception. Some of the gender stereotypes including academic and non-academic areas where the children's competence beliefs play an important role in their developing self-perception. For example, their gender stereotypes might influence their current performance, their perception of tasks, and their future goals and expectations through integrating their self-perception (Cvencek, Meltzoff, & Greenwald, 2011). It is even possible to say that these gender stereotypes may hinder the self-actualization of them.

In this study, the main aim was presented as the roles of mothers' perception of their children, mothers' and children's gender stereotypes in predicting children's self-perception. Furthermore, the roles of mothers' gender stereotypes and the children's gender in predicting children's gender stereotypes were investigated. Therefore, the research questions of this study are as followed:

R.Q.1 To what extent, do mothers' gender stereotypes and gender of the child predict children's gender stereotypes?

a. Does the interaction between these two variables predict children's gender stereotypes?

R.Q.2 To what extent, do mothers' and children's gender stereotypes and mothers' perception of their children's competence beliefs predict children's self-perception in six areas, namely scholastic competence, social competence, athletic competence, physical appearance, behavioral conduct and global self-worth?

a. Does gender interact with any of these predictor variables?

1.3 Significance of the study

In terms of counseling, the main focus could be implications on people's thinking, behaviors, and feelings of people's self-perception. Both in school and the clinical practice, the counselors observe many different children; some with realistic self-perception while others with distorted self-perception which could influence them in various life areas. For example, in a study, the children who underestimated their abilities reported that they had lower expectations for their future, evaluated themselves lower and perceive the tasks more difficult compared to their peers (Phillips, 1987). In addition, according to Harter (1999), there is an association between their self-worth beliefs and their emotional states such that various links between low self-perception and the depression have been found. Therefore, it is important for us, as counselors to understand the factors that impact children's self-perception and make the children gain insight, they could be either the mothers' influences or societal influences such as gender stereotypes.

This diversity in children's self-perception could be related to their relationship with the significant others, especially mothers. If the child feels accepted and worthy in the world starting from very beginning. According to Rohner (2004), the rejection from others might result in altered self-perception. The mothers' perception is also influenced from their gender role attitudes. Therefore, it is important for counselors to understand the distortions in children's self-perception with regard to the social relationships with their mothers and mothers' gender stereotypes. In the previous studies, however, the children's perception of mothers' support was the focus of interest (Harter, 1999). In this study, the actual perception of mothers was examined in predicting children's self-perception.

In addition, the gender stereotypes might have important implications of children's lives as a part of societal influences. The gender stereotypes by definition, favors one gender over the other. Even starting from the early years, the girls and boys are bombarded with the different assumptions based on their biological sex whether they can achieve something or not. Especially, it was realized that the women in science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) are relatively low in number compared to men which might be a result of the early socialization difference (Leaper & Spears-Brown, 2017). Therefore, the children's gender stereotypes also might buffer, or hinder children's performance through their self-perception. Therefore, it is important to understand the different implication of gender stereotypes on children in these years. Also, as counselors' primary aim with their clients is to help them fully live their lives and actualize themselves in the way they want it to be. Therefore, the counselor could be the facilitator for children to develop more realistic self-perception by understanding the determinants (Harter, 1999).

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this part of the chapter, the framework and the previous studies regarding the first question exploring the children's gender stereotypes was presented. First of all, the bioecological and social cognitive theory was presented as a framework. Then, through various studies, the development of gender stereotypes was explained. In the second part, the children's self-perception in relation with mothers' perception, mothers' and children's gender stereotypes was explained.

2.1 Gender stereotypes

The gender is defined as ascribed characteristics for the assigned gender at birth (cisgender), either male or female. However, gender is no longer limited with either being male or female. The gender identity expression is considered as a spectrum in which the person may or may not match with their biologically assigned gender or their existing gender roles since the individuals no longer have to accept this binary gender categories (Leaper & Spears-Brown, 2017). Thus, gender stereotypes are the beliefs regarding a set of generalized beliefs regarding traits and conducts of males, females and other gender based on their gender category (Leaper & Spears-Brown, 2017). The children are expected to identify themselves as their gender at birth and adopt these gender stereotypical norms. However, this study's aim is only to understand the influence of binary gender stereotypes that mothers' and children's hold on their developing self-perception beliefs. Therefore, if children do not express their gender identity based on these categories, they might face

additional difficulties regarding their self-perception including self-esteem beliefs (Leaper & Spears-Brown, 2017). In order to promote gender diversity, the counselors need to understand these binary gender categories, the stereotypes-related to them and the effect of them on children's self-perception.

2.1.1 Theoretical framework

This section presents the bioecological theory and the social cognitive theory to explain the gender development process. Even though bioecological theory does not provide a specific approach for the gender development, according to Leaper (2002) it could be used as a general framework since it has a comprehensive schema for child development. In this theory, it is believed that the development occurs through a continuous interaction between the child and his/her environment. There are four descriptive determinants of this theory which are "process, person, context and time" (Brofenbrenner & Morris, 2007, p.794). In terms of process, it is stated that the immediate processes between the child and significant others are in the key role in the child development, so that in children's perception. Not only proximal processes but also distant processes around the children such as the social class, resources shape the development. The person refers to the all people around the child such as parents, siblings, peers, teachers and so on. However, it is crucial to state that these people are not the ones in child's immediate environment but also the persons in distal connection (Brofenbrenner & Morris, 2007).

In terms of context, there are four systems, namely microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, macrosystem and chronosystem including immediate and distal environments of the children (Brofenbrenner & Morris, 2007). This theory

gives an idea of the all the different environments influencing and shaping the development of the child. Therefore, through applying this theory into gender development, all these environments and interactions come at play (Leaper, 2002). According to Leaper (2002), especially understanding macrosystem and microsystem facilitate to integrate societal influences with familial factors.

Macrosystem characterizes the society the child lives in, the political and financial situation of the society, the legal system, traditions and so on. Since this theory puts emphasis on both the larger culture and everyday settings, the macrosystem should be understood in the context of gender development. It provides structural opportunities for the specific group of people (Leaper, 2002). Therefore, the opportunities and activities provided for girls and boys as a part of child rearing practices actually result from existing structure for a specific group of people in a specific place and time in that society. For this reason, understanding the inequalities between different gender groups in that society is especially important in terms of child's family. In addition to this, the effect of gender combined with the ethnicity and socio-economic status might influence one's place in the society and whether s/he can reach the certain opportunities (Leaper, 2002). The existing gender division in the society exert great influence on the children which is affected by religious beliefs and values, economic circumstances, parents' educational level, division of labor in the family and so on. Therefore, taking Turkish society into account, the certain familial factors could be appeared as important in order to fully understand the development. The development of the child is influenced by all these systems, so does the gender development (Brofenbrenner & Morris, 2007).

Microsystem refers to the child's immediate contacts such as parents, siblings, larger family, peers, teachers, school and so on. All these people and

relationships have an influence on the development of an idea of gender, what does it mean to be a female and male in that society. These microsystem factors are also consisted of parents' work, the provision of basic needs, family's demographics, the way of parenting and so on. Therefore, in that case, all the factors are interplay in the development of gender (Leaper, 2002). The social cognitive theory is used as a framework to understand the processes within the micro system, namely within the family. The children learn about gender roles in various contexts. The gender development is especially takes place in the family as a first environment. This theory views parents as a primary source of gender socialization and development of gender roles attitudes (Bussey & Bandura, 1999). Parents' own gender schemas are interacted and communicated through their children by how they talk, behave towards and interact with their children. The parents not only act as role models but also through their reactions, advices and interactions, they indirectly transmit their gender schemas to their children (Crouter, Whiteman, McHale, & Osgood, 2007).

Therefore, it is possible to point out that the children's gender schemas develop through both direct and indirect ways. One of the ways of gender development is the children's imitation of the main characters in their lives. Modeling is the most strong and common way of development of gender roles. It is suggested that the children start to learn from their role models around them through imitating (Bussey & Bandura, 1999; Leaper, 2002). However, it is not imitation of just the behavior but rather; the behavior is seen as the model of the rule or the structure since they are the representations of what does it mean to be a woman or a man (Bussey & Bandura, 1999; Leaper, 2002). For this reason, it is important to realize that the role models around the children such as the family members play crucial role for their gender development.

The other ways of learning about gender roles are that the parents treat their girls and boys differently and the boys and girls are taught the ways of how a male and a female should behave (Bussey & Bandura, 1999). In addition, parents hold different expectations based on their gender stereotypes for their sons and daughters and put pressure on them regarding these expectations (Leaper, 2002). Also, parents provide different forms of opportunities for girls and boys. For example, the accessibility of different activities such as sports seems to be dependent on the gender of child in some cases (Leaper, 2002). In terms of enactive experience, it is stated that the children behave consistently and inconsistently with gender stereotypes which lead to a reaction from the environment (Bussey & Bandura, 1999). Besides, parent differentially control and supervise their children's activities inside and outside the home context (Leaper, 2002). In that sense, the parents both form a model for the children and also shape the experiences around them.

Furthermore, the parents have a significant impact on children's own expectations on success and their competence beliefs through modeling and socialization of expectations. As social cognitive theory suggested, the children learn and develop more about gender based behavioral repertoire through modeling. Therefore, the girls and boys show different behaviors as a result of their observations of different behaviors of males and females, mainly their mothers and fathers regarding academic-related areas, activities, social skills and so on. For example, in terms of math achievement, if mothers and fathers have different behaviors such as fathers assisting in math homework, the children might also have model these behaviors (Parsons, Adler, & Kaczala, 1982). In addition to this, the parents' have different views on their own achievement and their own perceived competence in math; this provides a message for children as a role model. Regarding

socialization of expectations, it was already suggested that there is a positive association between parents' expectations and children's performance (Eccles et al., 1990; Parsons et al., 1982). Also, the parents provide different opportunities and different control for the girls and boys. They are directed to different activities and interests and then, their pursuits of them are monitored (Leaper, 2002). Therefore, regarding achievement-related beliefs and expectations of children, the parents have an important role in the sense of children's self-perception.

It is believed that one of the ways of transmitting gender stereotypical values occurs through the way parents talk with their children (Clearfield & Nelson, 2006). In a recent study, the mothers' use of language and how they play with 6-, 9- and 14-months-old infants were observed in a play session and analyzed. The results showed that mothers behaved towards their daughters and sons in a different manner in terms of both what they talked and how they played together. Specifically, the mothers of daughters actually talked more with their children with an expectation of a conversation compared to the mothers of sons. They played more, interacted more frequently in physical proximity and talked more to their daughters but the mothers of sons mostly watched their children's play without interacting, indicating that the girls were encouraged to be more dependent in the interactions compared to the boys who were encouraged to be more independent by their mothers. Therefore, even though there were no gender differences in the behaviors of these infants, the findings of this study imply that mothers both talked, played and communicated with their daughters and sons differently in even very early years of their lives (Clearfield & Nelson, 2006).

Another way of transmitting parents' gender stereotypes to the children is through the interaction. For example, in a different study, the children aged between

24- and 36-months-old were given the full body pictures of females and males and asked to show either girl or boy. Also, they were showed some toy pictures and asked whom it belongs to either a girl or a boy and then, the mothers' gender stereotypes were assessed through different scales. Before the tests were implemented, the mother's play interaction with their children was observed. In the observations of play behaviors, it was found that the mothers of children who were better at identifying the gender, introduced more gender stereotypical themes during play and had more conventional gender role attitudes. Also, it was observed that the same mothers gave more positive feedback if their children's play was consistent with their gender and were less likely to begin playing opposite gender-typed games with their sons. These results indicated that the mothers' gender-based attitudes and behaviors were actually related to children's development of gender typed behaviors and these messages were given during play time (Fagot et al., 1989).

Apart from parents' differential behaviors towards their girls and boys such as talking, interacting and playing with their children, the different ways of emotional expression for boys and girls might be subtly emphasized in the family. It is possible that there are gender differences in terms of emotional expression starting from very early ages (Chaplin, Cole, & Zahn-Waxler, 2005). Girls tend to show more sadness while boys tend to show more anger. One of the possible reasons behind this is that there might be mostly covert and indirect socialization differences in the family. Therefore, it is crucial to understand those subtle ways of socialization (Chaplin et al., 2005). In a study, both mothers' and fathers' attentiveness and reactions to the emotional expression of their children at preschool and two years later early school age were observed during a play-time. The results indicated that the fathers showed more attentiveness to their girls' submissive emotions such as sadness than their boys

in the preschool period. Also, they concentrated more on their boys' feelings such as anger in the early school age (Chaplin et al., 2005).

Also, the parenting style of the parents might influence the children's gender role attitudes. In a study conducted with mothers and the daughters aged between 15 and 22, it was found that the more traditional the mothers were in their parenting style, the more traditional gender role attitudes of their daughters (Jan & Janssens, 1998). Therefore, it is possible to observe that both theoretical background and findings of various studies indicate that the parents carry an important role in developing gender role attitudes of children which become part of their sense of self. Since the gender-based treatment of parents is the part of children's everyday lives, their gender stereotypical knowledge, their future expectations and even their self-perception of their abilities tend to be affected by their parents and their parents' gender stereotypes. In that sense, the bioecological theory provides a structure by combining various factors and also social cognitive theory facilitate to understand the dynamics of the home environment.

2.1.2 Influence of some family characteristics on children's gender stereotypes

Not only the gender stereotypes parents hold but also the other characteristics related to the family backgrounds were also found to be associated with the children's gender stereotypes (Antill, Cunningham, & Cotton, 2003; Fan & Marini, 2000; Jan & Janssens, 1988; Marks, Lam, and McHale, 2009). For example, some familial characteristics reflecting socio-economic background such as educational level of parents, family income and maternal employment seem to be associated with children's gender stereotypes.

It seems that the children's gender stereotypes have been influenced by their parents' educational level (Antill et al., 2003; Jan & Janssens, 1998). In a study conducted with both parents in relation with their children's gender role attitudes, it was found that mothers' educational level was associated with both their sons' and daughters' gender role attitudes; however, the fathers' educational level was only found to be related with their daughters' gender role attitudes (Antill et al., 2003). In a research, the mothers' education level was associated with children's ideal division of tasks and gender role attitudes (Cunningham, 2001). In a different study, it was also found that the gender role attitudes of young adults were related to the parents' educational level in which the higher educational level of parents, the less conventional the gender role attitudes of their children (Fan & Marini, 2000).

Maternal employment might be one of the factors that undermine the traditional gender stereotypes which place women only in domestic context. In a different study from the Netherlands conducted with the mothers and their daughters in teenage period, the mothers' educational background seemed to have an indirect effect on their daughters' gender role attitudes through mediating effect of mothers' gender role attitudes. When the mothers had higher education and worked more hours, they had less conventional gender role beliefs which resulted in the daughters to become less conventional in their beliefs, indicating that both maternal education and employment played important role in their daughters' beliefs (Jan & Janssens, 1998). In a longitudinal study, the influence parents' early behaviors and attitudes on children's later attitudes was examined and it was found that the mothers' early employment had an effect on their children's ideal division of household labor beliefs (Cunningham, 2001).

Furthermore, in a study, the families were categorized into three groups, namely conventional, democratic and divergent families based on the gender role attitudes of all family members. It was found that the families with conventional and democratic gender role attitudes differed in terms of parents' educational background and income. Both traditional and divergent families had lower financial power compared to egalitarian families (Marks et al., 2009). Therefore, these findings explain that the family characteristics have also influence on children's gender role attitudes.

2.1.3 Developmental course of gender stereotypes in children

The development of gender stereotypes starts from very early ages. In a research, it was found that even 10-months-old infants were able to identify gender-based groupings indicating later gender roles information (Levy & Haaf, 1994). In another study, the 24-months-old infant girls could use female and male dolls to perform the activities consistent with the gender stereotypes, whereas the boys showed no awareness of these stereotypes during play indicating that explicit gender stereotypical knowledge appears at age two and three (Poulin-Dubois, Serbin, Eichstedt, Sen, & Beissel, 2002).

The expression of explicit gender stereotypes reveals itself at age eight and nine (Endendijk et al., 2013). In another study, the children aged between nine and 12 were given vignettes about both boys' and girls' participation in the activities ballet and in soccer and asked whether they agree or not. The participation of boys in ballet and girls in soccer were considered as incongruent with the gender stereotypes. The results showed that the 9-year-olds were less likely to support the statements

inconsistent with the gender stereotypes compared to the 12-years-olds, suggesting that in older ages, the children might start to think out of existing gender stereotypes (Park, Lee-Kim, Killen, Park, & Kim, 2012). On the other hand, the findings of another study in which the children were required to classify household activities as either for boys or girls, demonstrated that the kindergarteners gave less stereotypical answers compared to the third graders, indicating that as children grow older, they rely more on the gender stereotypical expectations (Schuette & Killen, 2009). In a longitudinal research, it was found that the children's gender role attitudes showed differences over the years such as a decline from age seven to 13, then stability in early adolescence period and after 15. This study indicates that the children's conventional attitudes towards gender differed with how strongly parents hold these views (Crouter et al., 2007).

In terms of academic gender stereotypes, it was found that even at earlier ages, the girls reported their abilities consistent with the existing gender stereotypes. In particular, a first-grade girls evaluated their math abilities lower but language and arts abilities higher than the boys (Jacobs, Lanza, Osgood, Eccles, & Wigfield, 2002).

2.1.4 Gender as a predictor

It seems that the boys have more gender stereotypical knowledge compared to the girls (Leaper, 2002). For example, in a study conducted with 4-years-olds, it was found that the boys had stronger gender stereotypes than the girls (Turner & Gervai, 1995). Also, based on previous studies, older boys held more conventional gender stereotypes (Park et al., 2012; Schuette & Killen, 2009; Smetackova, 2015). In a

study conducted with both explicit and implicit measures, it was found that the boys tended to more strongly associate with their gender identity compared to girls (Cvencek et al., 2011). In a longitudinal study examining the changes in gender role attitudes, it was found that the girls moved into less traditional direction, whereas the boys moved into the more traditional one from age seven to 19 over the years (Crouter et al., 2007). These results suggested that the girls are more open to nontraditional gender role attitudes than the boys which might be resulted from males' relatively higher status in the society (Leaper, 2002). Previous studies showed that there were also gender differences between mothers and fathers in terms of holding stronger gender stereotypes (Tomasetto, Alparone, & Cadinu, 2011).

2.1.5 The mothers' gender stereotypes as predictor

In order to explain the children's gender stereotypes, the mothers' gender stereotypes were used as a predictor. Even though the effect of parents is well-documented in different studies, the predictive power of mothers' gender stereotypes was examined. Some studies indicated that the same-gender parent-child dyads had stronger relationship in their gender role attitudes (Işık, 2014; Jan & Janssens, 1998; Kulik, 2002). Therefore, gender of the children could be a moderator in that relationship.

In a study, the gender stereotypes of 134 Israeli teenagers aged between 13 and 17 and their parents were examined in terms of gender roles in the home-context and gender-based occupational choices. For both areas, there was a stronger relationship between fathers and sons compared to fathers and daughters. On the other hand, there was not any significant difference between mother-daughter and mother-son dyads. Also, in terms occupational choices, the children regardless of

their gender were more influenced by their fathers than their mothers (Kulik, 2002). Therefore, these results suggested that the transmission of values regarding gender roles in different areas, fathers and mothers might have different functioning in their relationship with children in their own gender and in opposite gender.

Similar to this, in a longitudinal study, it was investigated that whether the 6-years-old children's gender-role attitudes (e.g., children's gender stereotypes regarding their own and opposite gender) were predicted by parents' gender ideology or by parents' gendered behavior in four domains domestic division of labor, responsibility for childcare, how many hours they work and conventional female/male jobs when the children were born and when they were six-years-old. The gender ideology suggests that the parents' views on these four domains, whereas parents' gendered behavior refers to their behaviors in these areas. Since there is not always consistency between the parents' ideology and their behaviors, they were investigated separately. The results showed that when the mothers had more democratic views, their children knew less about the gender stereotypes related to their gender. It indicated that when the mothers had more conventional views related to gender, the more the daughter had knowledge on stereotypes related to females and the less the sons know about stereotypes related to males. On the other hand, when the mothers behaved more stereotypically, the daughters had more knowledge on gender stereotypes related to females while the sons showed less knowledge on the gender stereotypes related to males. Also, interestingly, when the fathers had more traditional views, the sons knew more about gender stereotypes regarding females, on the other hand, when the fathers had more democratic views, the sons knew less about gender stereotypes regarding females. However, there was no relationship found related to fathers and daughters (Halpern & Perry-Jenkins, 2015).

Therefore, it seems that the parents have different roles in terms of transmission of these gender stereotypes.

On the other hand, some of the studies indicated that there was a strong relationship between mothers and their daughters in terms of having similar gender stereotypes. It is also important to mention that the parents' gender stereotypes and their behavior towards their children might be affected by the gender of children. A recent study the implicit gender stereotypes of the children between 1- and 4-year-olds were investigated in connection with parental implicit and explicit gender stereotypes and the gender of siblings in Dutch society (Endendijk et al., 2013). Action Inference Paradigm was used for children's implicit gender stereotypes in which children were told that some toy presents were brought for birthday and they were required to classify as female or male by pressing red or blue buttons. Explicit gender stereotypes of fathers with same-gender children had significantly higher scores than the fathers with mixed-gender children. It might be result from the fact that when the parents have mixed-gender children, they might be focus more on the similarities and also try to treat each child equally. Also, it is important to point out that the gender of child moderated in the relationship between maternal implicit gender stereotypes and children's gender stereotypes as the mothers' gender stereotypes were more strongly associated with their daughters compared to their sons (Endendijk et al., 2013).

In addition to this, in a study conducted with Turkish girls in third grade and their mothers, the children and parents were given one story about one situation consistent (e.g., girls doing ballet and boys playing football) and another situation inconsistent (e.g., girls playing football and boys doing ballet) with the existing gender stereotypes and whether the parents should restrict the inconsistent situation

due to children's gender. In the results, it was revealed that there was a positive relationship between mothers' and their daughters' disapproval of gender inconsistent situations and approval of parents' restrictions for these inconsistent situations (Işık, 2014). In a study conducted in the Netherlands with the mothers and their daughters aged between 15 and 22, the mothers' and their daughters' gender role beliefs regarding motherhood and women's roles were found to be highly associated (Jan & Janssens, 1988). Therefore, it is possible to say that the mothers' gender stereotypes exert great influence on their children's attitudes and might even more on their daughters.

2.2 Children's self-perception

In this part the children's self-perception was explained through different approaches and its relation to predictive variables. The self-perception is what a person knowingly defines oneself. It was suggested that the person view oneself as an object and define it which indicates duality between the person as knower and the person as known object. Therefore, this actually indicates a developmental process in which the increasing cognitive capabilities changes the person's self-definitions. Also, it is suggested that self-related beliefs influence how one person behaves (Shavelson, Hubner, & Stanton, 1976). It is thought as crucial in especially both understanding and anticipating one's behavior in the domains interested in explaining human nature. The relationship between self-concept and behavior is circular indicating that the self-concept has an impact on how one behaves, in turn these behaviors leads to means of perceiving oneself (Bong & Skaalvik, 2003; Shavelson et al., 1976).

In 1960s, the different theoreticians mostly define self-related concepts as one dimensional even though they actually asked about different life areas of activity. This approach leads them to underestimate the differences among various arenas (Harter, 1982; Harter, 1999). However, the current approach for self includes the feelings of sufficiency among different competence areas which differ based on people's developmental life period and a global self-worth belief. Therefore, in this study, the self-perception is based on "multidimensional model" (Harter, 1999, p.117).

There are several characteristics of self-concept was determined based on theories and studies (Shavelson et al., 1976). The one of them is that self-concept is organized because the individual has all these different experiences in different environments which lead to vast amount of information about oneself, but this information is redefined in abstract categories (Harter, 1999; Shavelson & Bolus, 1981). Also, there is a hierarchy in different self-descriptions which refers to one's perception and evaluation of his/her behavior in different subdomains leads one to create a general self-concept (Harter, 1999; Shavelson et al., 1976). For example, the domains such as math and science have their own self-concept; however, in hierarchical terms, it serves for an academic self-concept which leads to a general self-concept (Shavelson & Bolus, 1981).

2.2.1 The determinants of self-perception

There are different claims regarding the determinants of one's perception of oneself, in terms of both competences and general worth beliefs. It is claimed that self-perception is based on the fact the person evaluates and compare oneself across

different situations and environments with absolute standards and/or the relative norms (Shavelson et al., 1976). Apart from that, it was believed that there are five main determinants of the self-perception beliefs (Bong & Skaalvik, 2003). One of the is that the person compares his/her own traits and behaviors with the general standards regarding the society and relative standards based on the significant others in their lives. Also, the meanings one give to success and failures play an important role in the development of self-perception. The other source is the perceived beliefs of significant others about the person indicating that the perception of others' views about one has an influence on self-concept. The individual's previous experiences about a specific area provides a great deal of information about oneself. Furthermore, the given importance for an area is influential on the person's self-perception beliefs (Bong & Skaalvik, 2003).

Most of the theories regarding self-perception claim that the opinions of significant others are important source for self-perception (Harter, 1999). For example, according to Cooley (1902), people's perception of themselves is based on the interactions and relationships that they formed with others. Therefore, in his definition, Cooley (1902) mentioned self as "looking-glass self" which indicates the others as people's social mirrors to develop their self-perception in which the individual looks and detects their opinions to incorporate into their selves (p. 184).

The person integrates others' views on themselves into their being. These views are shared with other theoreticians who are called as "symbolic interactionists" (Harter, 1999, p. 166). Based on this perspective, the other people have an influence on people's self-related beliefs in three ways: "self-appraisals, the actual appraisals of significant others, and reflected appraisals" (Juhasz, 1992, p. 204). So, the person evaluates oneself, s/he is evaluated by others and what s/he thinks that others

evaluated him/her, respectively. They all become part of self-perception through the interactions with the others. The social developmental perspective is based on this understanding, indicating that the children's self-perception changes through the relationships that they formed with others within developmental course (Brummelman & Thomaes, 2017). In a study, it was found that in the areas considered as important for children, the support children received from their parents and peers paves the way for the higher competence beliefs, which in turn leads to higher self-worth beliefs, indicating the appreciation from others has an impact on both perceived competence beliefs and overall sense of worthiness (Harter, 1999). It was stated that there are only a few studies of the association of actual perception of others with the children's self-perception rather than the perceived appraisal and acceptance (Harter, 1993). Therefore, in this study, our interest is on the effect of the mothers' actual evaluation of their children on children's self-perception.

Also, according to bioecological theory, the children's development is also influenced by larger societal factors and the time period one lives in. Therefore, the societal factors such as existing gender stereotypes and their implications in the home context through parents and gender-based socialization might also have an influence on children's developing self-perception. In a study, the children have read a text of social norms regarding either approval or disapproval of children's positive self-descriptions. It was found that the children described themselves more positively after listening to a text about the approval of social norms than the disapproval of them, indicating that these social norms have an influence on children's self-descriptions (Thomaes, Brummelman & Sedikides, 2017).

2.2.2 Development of self-perception in children

The development of self-perception depends on the child's cognitive maturity level. Harter (1999) developed a normative structure of the development of self-perception beliefs based on the children's self-descriptions in different age periods. The self-concept is cognitive developmental which refers to the fact the nature of self-representations of children's mind is changed with the age and cognitive abilities, suggesting that as the I-self grows, the me-self's subjects, its organization, its exactness based on the real-life experiences and its relationship with others differ (Harter, 1999). It is claimed that the idea of self emerges with the language in early years (Harter, 1999).

The children in early ages only positively talk about themselves with their obvious skills in which they usually magnify and exaggerate the things they are able to do. For example, in this period, while describing themselves, they usually use their bodily characteristics, relation with significant others, moods, what they like to and the material things they have which are completely separate and distinct from one another. Also, in this period, the children are not able to have gray areas which leads to all positive or all negative self-perception based on their experiences with the significant others (Harter, 1999).

In the next period, between early and middle childhood, the children talk about themselves in terms of their skills in different domains. However, the difference is that the children begin to have somewhat ability to link certain qualities into concrete categories which turns into a general sense of worth which is also usually affirmative. Also, the children only realize and acknowledge that they are either positively or negatively judged by other people depending on certain norms or

rules which they are not able to incorporate within oneself (Harter, 1999). According to Harter (2012), through children's increasing cognitive abilities, they at age eight to 12, start to separate their real from their ideal self, internalize others' perspectives, standards and expectations, and make comparison based on social relationships, and be aware of their both positive and negative characteristics that they possess.

The period before adolescence, while describing self, the children use more concrete characteristics based on competencies and also build a global self-esteem in which both positive and negative characteristics can exist together at the same time. This indicates certain improvements in mental faculties. Also, as a part of developing abilities, in this period, depending on their empathy, or understanding and taking others' views, the others' point of views about themselves becomes integrated and incorporated into the children's self-perception. Apart from that, they start to measure similarity and dissimilarity between the others and oneself (Harter, 1982). Therefore, in that sense, increasing relationship with the significant others, such as parents, peers, teachers and the experiences in school play important role.

The adolescence period was separated into three categories (Harter, 1999). In the first period, they become more able to think abstractly but their self-descriptions are still more separate and various traits based on their different roles in various context such as being a friend, a son/daughter, a student and so on. Since in adolescence period, the roles in social lives enlarge, it gives adolescence more opportunity to observe oneself across the different contexts. Based on these different roles, the adolescence concerns about the acceptance and recognition from others which is also important in the creation of self (Harter, 1999).

In the second adolescence period, there is a disagreement seemingly opposite traits as which is the true being. Also, in previous period, the adolescent acknowledges that the opposing traits co-exist; however, the child is not able to understand the discord between them. But in this period, the conflict between them emerges because they have little similarity and becomes confusing for the adolescence. Also, increasing mental faculties, they attentively and constantly look for others' opinions, the general and relative norms in order to incorporate them into their self-perception. In that sense, the characteristics of adolescence period might deceive one's perception of others' views and oneself (Harter, 1999).

In the last adolescence period, the opposing personality attributions based on different roles becomes as normal part of their self-perception. Also, the values and beliefs are integrated into the self-descriptions. They have a more developed sense of worth (Harter, 1999). Therefore, it is possible to see the normative structure of descriptions of self vary based on cognitive maturity and the developmental level of the children. However, regardless of very early period, the children realize and acknowledge that the other people in their lives have an opinion of them based on their own values, standards and beliefs; which through increasing cognitive capabilities, becomes part of their self-perception in terms of both competences and self-worth beliefs.

2.2.3 Perceived Competence

Harter (1982) believed that self-perception is based on perceived competence which suggests that how one perceives their sufficiency in the different life areas. Perceived competence appeared as key component of self-perception beliefs starting from very

early ages since the children defines themselves based on their capabilities as it is stated in the earlier part (Harter, 1999). It lays on the basic premise that not every individual might feel the same way about distinct areas in their lives, for example some might feel more or less competent (Harter, 1982; Harter, 1999).

There are different self-related terms also used perceived competence as the core. One of them is self-efficacy which suggests that one's beliefs regarding his/her abilities to acquire information and perform in a desired way (Schunk & Pajares, 2001). Self-efficacy is a belief that a person is able to achieve something. It is also claimed that self-efficacy has an influence on people's thoughts, feelings, motivation and behaviors (Bandura, 1994). The people with strong self-efficacy beliefs usually set higher expectations from themselves, usually engaged in a task for longer periods of time and have the sense of control over the task which, in turn diminish their risk for depression (Bandura, 1994). The most significant similarity in the notions of self-concept and self-efficacy is the perceived competence. In a recent study, it was investigated whether the notions of self-concept and self-efficacy overlap. Based on the findings, the essence of both these constructs was identified as perceived competence (Hughes, Galbraith, & White, 2011).

The children’s perception of their competence in different areas indicates how they perceive oneself as a person. Since the self-concept was criticized due to the problems both as its all-encompassing nature which leads to difficulties in measurement (Harter, 1982). For all these reasons, the recent studies indicated that in terms of definition, the self-perception is more multidimensional indicating that the domain-specific self-concepts (Bong & Skaalvik, 2003; Harter, 2006). Therefore, in building the self-perception profile, the domains for perceived competence beliefs was categorized based on children’s self-descriptions in different ages. For the

adolescence period, the new domains such as romantic appeal was introduced since the children begin to have new roles (Harter, 1982).

2.2.4 Self-esteem or global self-worth

It was claimed that on the top of perceived competence beliefs in different domains, there is a general belief about oneself regarding its worthiness starting from eight years old, indicating the hierarchical nature of self-perception (Harter, 1982; Harter, 1999). A sense of worth appears through increasing cognitive skills of I-self (Harter, 1999). Therefore, the global self-worth, or self-esteem, can be categorized as a higher rank in comparison with the perceived competence beliefs (Harter, 1999). Also, it is important to see that even though the person feel adequate in some areas, it does not always mean that s/he will have high global self-worth. In order to have high self-esteem, the person feels competent in the areas that are attached importance by him/her. Especially, the conflict between high importance and low competence beliefs might end up with the low general self-beliefs (Harter, 1993).

In terms of measuring global self-worth, it was calculated as the sum of competence beliefs, but rather it is a construct of its own, asking whether one likes herself/himself as a person, feels content about the way s/he is and so on (Harter, 1982). Apart from global self-worth as a construct, it is worth examining that the relationship between perceived competence beliefs in different fields and global self-worth. It was found that the all the different areas were found to be related with global self-worth (Harter, 1993).

In addition, even though the children are not able to verbalize their global self-worth beliefs, the people around them interpreted children's behaviors as high self-regard or low self-regard. It shows that even if the children are not able to verbalize their idea of general self-beliefs, they manifest these beliefs through their behaviors.

There are different studies conducted which perceived competence beliefs were predictors in terms of different age groups and gender. It is important to note that the physical appearance, display of external self was best predictor for global self-worth beliefs, display of internal self at both age eight and 11. It was found the best predictors were physical appearance, social competence and scholastic competence, respectively when they were eight. However, three years later, it was found that there were only two significant predictors left, namely physical appearance and scholastic competence. The difference seems to be a result of changes in self-perception between before and after going through teenage period (Granleese & Joseph, 1994). Also, in a different study for both girls and boys, the global self-worth beliefs were mostly highly predicted by physical appearance beliefs than the other competence areas. The other predictors in competence areas were academic, behavioral and social acceptance for boys and were behavioral, social and academic competence for girls, respectively. Interestingly for this sample, the athletic competence was not a significant predictor. These predictors explained almost 59% of the variance in global self-worth beliefs (Van den Bergh & Marcoen, 1999).

The common finding for both of these studies, the physical appearance was found to be best predictor in different age and gender groups. It could be the fact that the appearance is all-present characteristic, such as it is something out there about the

person, rather than the other areas which are somewhat controllable such as academic or social abilities (Harter, 1993). Therefore, there seems to be a strong link between one's look and her/his self-esteem beliefs.

2.2.5 Gender differences in self-perception

There are gender differences has been found in terms of different sub-areas of self-perception. It was reported that the girls and boys tend to describe themselves in different manner for different age groups (Harter, 1999). The main findings of the studies were that the girls reported themselves lower than boys in the areas of bodily characteristics and sports competence (Harter, 1999). In the interpretation of these results, it was pointed out that the sports are considered as a traditionally masculine area compared to other domains so that boys are provided more chances to improve their skills in terms of socialization differences. On the contrary for girls, the sports are discouraged because for example, the female players are not usually presented as role models. Also, the body shape of female athletes is not a perfect match to the slim female models. In terms of appearance, the women's attractiveness is defined through physical look which makes them very conscious about how they look (Harter, 1999). In a meta-analysis conducted with thirteen different samples, it was found that boys' descriptions of themselves in five competence areas indicated less asymmetry than the girls' (Harter, 1999).

In another study, it was found that the adolescent girls who had higher identification with traditional female characteristics described themselves less positive in the areas of sports and appearance compared to the girls who reported lower identification (Harter, 1999). Therefore, it can be assumed that the girls are at

risk with regard to the fact that the higher gender stereotypes scores, the more negatively evaluate themselves in terms of looks and sports. Also, it is important to note that the girls identifying themselves more with femininity reported themselves lower in cognitive abilities compared to girls who identified themselves with both gender (Harter, 1999). In a longitudinal study, it was found that both boys' and girls' perception of their looks were similar in elementary school but over time, the girls' competence in their looks showed a drastic decline (Harter, 1993).

In a different study, the gender differences were found, for example, the boys reported higher scores in social and sports competence, appearance and global self-worth. Only the younger girls perceived themselves higher in behavioral conduct than the younger boys, however, there was no gender difference in higher grades, indicating the changes in gender differences with age (Van den Bergh & Marcoen, 1999). Based on these findings, it seems that children's competence and their self-esteem beliefs differ depending on their age, gender and gender stereotypes that they might internalize.

2.2.6 The mothers' gender stereotypes as predictor

The gender stereotypical beliefs of parents have an effect on how they perceive their children and what they expect from their children. There is a substantial number of research that indicating that parents interpret their sons' math abilities higher even if there are no actual differences in terms of their test scores or the girls have better results (Eccles et al.,1990; Eccles & Jacobs, 1990; Jacobs, 1991). Therefore, it is suggested that gender-stereotypical beliefs that parents hold have an effect on how they perceive their own children's competence. It is reasonable to ask to what extent

parents' gender stereotypes affect how parents view their children's abilities. Furthermore, these beliefs are not just restricted to the academic domains, but also non-academic domains are classified as male and female such as team sports seen as a male-dominated area, whereas females are believed to have better social skills (Eccles & Jacobs, 1990; Eccles et al., 1990). Therefore, it seems that the parents might use these gender stereotypes as a framework when they evaluate their children's abilities and performances, in turn it might have an effect on children's self-perception.

In two longitudinal studies, one of them was conducted with preadolescents and the other one with elementary school aged children, respectively, the parents were asked about their children's current competence and future performance expectations in three areas such as math, English and sports. It was found that the parents gave their sons significantly higher scores in sports than the girls and the opposite pattern was found for the English. In terms of math abilities, these gender differences in parents' perception of their children's abilities intensified favoring the boys as the children grew older (Eccles et al., 1990).

In a previous study, it was found that even though parents' gender stereotypes regarding math as male area did not predict their children's ability beliefs in math, the relationship between parents' gender stereotypes and their daughters' ability perception was mediated by parents' obtrusive support in their homework. Also, it was suggested that even though parents involved more in their sons' homework, the girls were more negatively affected from their involvement which might be result from they communicate their gender stereotypes through the involvement in homework (Bhanot & Jovanovic, 2005).

Even though the achievement results showed otherwise, it is still believed that there is gender difference in terms of competence favoring boys. The children's math grades, how many hours they work, and teachers' perception of children were taken into account; however, none of these variables showed any real difference between girls and boys. When the perceptions of parents were examined, it was found that the parents believed that their daughters found math more difficult than their sons. Even the factors like ability and work hours were controlled, the parents' beliefs in their children in terms of math changed significantly with the gender of the child (Eccles et al., 1990).

In another study, in terms of achievement in math, sports and social skills, mothers' gender stereotypes were significantly associated with their evaluation of children's math skills depending on the child's gender. It might mean that mothers' who held the stereotypes of males having higher math competence, had higher evaluation of their sons' competence and lower evaluation of their daughter's competence which had similar findings in the sports. In terms of social skills favoring girls, mothers with strong gender stereotypes regarding social skills reported higher perceptions of their daughters' competence and lower perception of their sons' social competence (Jacobs & Eccles, 1992). Therefore, all these studies indicated that the parents' perception of their children was not only based on previous performance or the effort but also it was influenced by the gender stereotypes in that society.

It is important to note that in this study, mothers' gender stereotypes did not directly predict children's self-perception in the areas of math and social skills. However, the mothers' gender stereotypes had direct influence on their children's sports ability perception (Jacobs & Eccles, 1992).

Furthermore, the interaction between parents' gender stereotypes and the children's gender had an influence on the attributions regarding their children's ability. For example, in a study, it was found that the parents of boys attributed the achievement in math to talent, whereas the parents of girls explained this achievement as a result of hard work (Eccles et al., 1990). Therefore, if the parents thought that the talent was more important to be successful in math, they also believed that their children had talent for math. On the other hand, the parents who connected the success to the hard work were more likely to believe that their children were not talented in math. Also, for the parents believing that their children were less talented in math, the anticipations related to future performances disappeared. Therefore, these attributions to talent or hard work had an effect on the parents' interpretation of children's competencies. The similar results were found related to English studies but this time, the girls were thought as talented ones (Eccles et al., 1990).

In addition to these studies, in another research, when the child's gender interacted with parents' gender stereotypes, it had a significant impact on parents' attributions for success to the ability and for failure to lack of ability (Rouland, Rowley, & Kurtz-Costes, 2013). It was found that the parents reported girls as much better in literacy than boys and the boys as somewhat better in math than girls. In terms of literacy, the gender of the child had a significant effect on boys' parents' attributions for failure of boys to lack of ability. Also, it was found that parents who held traditional academic gender stereotypes related to literacy were more inclined to attribute their girls' success to ability and less inclined attribute their sons' success to ability. The parents of boys who had math-related gender stereotypes were tended attribute their sons' failure to not working hard enough. But the more traditional

attitudes the parents held, the less likely they attributed their girls' math success to the ability. The opposite was found for the literacy (Rouland et al., 2013). Therefore, even though these studies suggested that parents' gender stereotypes had an indirect influence on children's self-perceptions, in this study, the predictive role of mothers' gender stereotypes and the effect of gender as moderator was examined.

2.2.7 The children's gender stereotypes as predictor

The stereotypes function both directly by influencing performance during an act that stereotypes consisted or indirectly by incorporating into one's self-perception (Boiché, Chalabaev & Sarrazin, 2014). As an example of indirect influence of gender stereotypes, the term, cognitive balance was used. According to Heider (1946), cognitive balance refers to an inclination of integrating gender stereotypes with one's own gender identity which turns into one's self-concept (Cvencek et al., 2011). When the concept of cognitive balance is applied to math-gender stereotypes and gender identity, it can be said that since the society has an academic gender stereotype referring to math seen as a boy area, the person integrates this stereotype with her/his own gender, and as a result it generates person's self-concept. Thus, the girls might have difficulty in combining the math with their self-concept by thinking that math is not for girls (Cvencek et al., 2011). Therefore, it is possible to claim that the term, cognitive balance is related to indirect influence of gender stereotypes.

In a research, it was aimed to assess both explicitly and implicitly for elementary school children's math-gender stereotypes and math regarding self-beliefs in which as explicit self-concept measure, the children were asked to report either the boy or the girl likes math in given pictures and as implicit self-concept

measure, Implicit Association Test for children was used to determine the relative strength of the relations between four variables, girls, boys, math and reading. The results showed that on both implicit and explicit measures, in terms of gender stereotypes the boys tended to more strongly associate math-related statements with their own gender identity but also the girls were associated math with boys, but their association was weaker which might suggest that math-gender stereotypes have different effects on girls and boys. The relationship between gender stereotypes about math and math regarding self-beliefs was positive but small. The results serve as an evidence for the premise suggesting that children who identified themselves with their own gender were more likely to incorporate gender-related stereotypes within themselves which in turn, had an impact on their self-concept (Cvencek et al., 2011).

As a direct influence of gender stereotypes on one's self-perception, a phenomenon called "stereotype threat" proposes that if there is a common belief that women are not able to that specific area, when the women identity is made apparent, their performance is affected by this intimidating environment (Tomasetto et al., 2011, p. 943). In terms of math beliefs, since there is a common belief that the girls can't do math, their math performance might be influenced by the fear of approving this belief. It could be claimed that the stereotype threat indicates the direct way of stereotypes that influence children's performance. In a research, the girls aged between five and seven were randomly assigned into two groups; in one of them, the girls were told a story including feminine characteristics and in the other one, they were told a story including landscape details and all girls were asked to draw a picture. The experimental group was used as measure of stereotype threat. In this research, it was investigated that the children's math performance was affected by

stereotype threat in relation with their parents' gender stereotypes. In the results, it was found that stereotype threat was significant predictor of the math performance indicating that when the gender identity was made obvious through story as a part of experimental group, it resulted in a decline in math performance of the girls. Also, especially the relationship between stereotype threat and mothers' gender stereotypes was significant predictor. When the mothers' approved math-related gender stereotypes, the stereotype threat negatively influenced the girls' math performance, whereas when the mothers did not agree with gender stereotypes, stereotype threat did not have an impact on children's math performance. Therefore, even though the children did not report any math related gender stereotypes, their performance was affected when their gender identity made obvious especially depending on whether their mothers hold strong gender stereotypes (Tomasetto et al., 2011). In another study conducted with Czech children in preadolescence and adolescence period, there was a relationship between older boys' test scores and their gender stereotypes, indicating that male adolescents' math performance was increased as their gender stereotypes became more conventional which represent the direct influence of gender stereotypes (Smetackova, 2015). Therefore, based on these two phenomena, it is possible to say that the children's gender stereotypes might have an influence on their self-perception in which gender could be a moderator.

2.2.8 The mothers' perception of their children as predictor

It is stated that the self-competence beliefs, the task-related beliefs and expectations does not only come from the reality itself but also it comes from parents serving as "expectancy socializers" (Parsons et al., 1982, p. 311). The parents have the

expectancies from their children for future achievements and these expectations seem to differ based on gender of the child. They show these expectations through direct comments regarding the child's ability and the task, through encouragements and help with the homework and so on (Parsons et al., 1982). The developing self-related beliefs of children is influenced by their parents (Brummelman & Thomaes, 2017; Cooley, 1902; Harter, 1999).

It was suggested that parents' own self-evaluations might have an influence on children's perceived competence beliefs due to modeling and socialization of their expectations. In terms of math achievement, if mothers and fathers have different behaviors such as fathers assisting in math homework, the children might also have model these behaviors. The parents' beliefs and expectations regarding their children's ability was transmitted through socialization (Parsons et al., 1982). In a research, the parents' attitudes toward math and their own perceived competence were asked in order to assess parents as role models and also what they expect from their children and their perception of children's ability were asked and the children were also asked about their perceived competence beliefs in given subjects. It was found that the fathers and sons had higher competence beliefs regarding math; even though, girls performed better than the boys and mothers had higher scores than fathers in their years in school. It was revealed the gender of the child was a significant predictor of parents' perception of math ability and the given importance for math. In terms of socializing their expectations, it was found that even though parents of girls did not report their daughters' ability lower than parents of boys, they reported that math was harder for the girls and so, they needed show more effort than boys. In addition to these findings, the parents' perceptions regarding their children's abilities, the required effort for that task and their future expectations predicted their

children's perception of their own abilities, the effort required for the task and their own expectations. Therefore, if the parents thought that their children had lower math abilities and they needed more effort, the children also interpreted similarly their competence and effort for the task. The most striking results was that the parents' perception of their children's competence was more critic for children's competence beliefs than their previous performance (Parsons et al., 1982).

In a longitudinal study, the children's perceived competence beliefs and their task-related beliefs were examined in relation to their parents' perceptions in the areas of math and English. In the results, the mothers' and fathers' perception of their children's competence were stronger predictor of the children's perceived competence than children's actual grades. It was also indicated that the relationship between children's grades and their competence beliefs in English was mediated by how parents perceive their children's abilities, indicating that the parents' perception plays a role in interpreting the actual results, such as grades and incorporating these into the children's self-perception beliefs. Therefore, it is suggested that the parents transmit their beliefs and expectations through socialization which exert an influence on how the children evaluate and interpret the actual evidence such as their grades (Frome & Eccles, 1998).

In a study, the high achiever children's perceived competence beliefs varied so that the impact of the how parents perceive their children's ability was explored. In the results, the children who underestimated their abilities reported that they had lower expectations for their future, evaluated themselves lower than their classmates and suggested that it took more effort for them to be successful. Apart from that, these children stated that their parents perceived their abilities lower, expected less from them and put more pressure on them. It was found that the parents of children

who had lower perceived competence held lower perceptions of their children's competence compared to the parents of children with average and higher competence beliefs. There was a strong relationship between children's self-perception, their perception of their parents' appraisal of themselves and the parents' actual beliefs of their children's competence. The further analysis showed that children's perception of parents' appraisal and their competence beliefs were originated from their parents' perception of their children's abilities rather than the actual test scores. This research indicated that the children's perceived competence beliefs was directly affected by perceived parental beliefs and parents' actual beliefs. Therefore, this research exemplified the importance of parents' perception on children's perceived competence (Phillips, 1987).

Furthermore, in a longitudinal study, the mothers' math-related gender stereotypes and mothers' perception of their children's future success in math were assessed when the children were in middle school, the children's self-perception of their math ability was asked at tenth grade, math-career related self-efficacy at age 19 and finally, their occupational choices at age 24 were asked. The children's self-perception beliefs and career choices were used as outcome variables in the regression analysis. The mothers' perception of their future success had both direct effect and also indirect effect through children's self-perception in high school on children's career-related self-perception in math and science. Therefore, it is possible to suggest that if mothers perceived their children competent in terms of math abilities, the children perceived their competence higher in high school and also had higher math career related self-efficacy at age 19. However, mothers' perception of their children's their future success in math only positively predicted their daughters' occupational decisions in the physical sciences, indicating the importance of

mothers' opinions on their daughters' competence has long-lasting effects in terms of their life decisions in terms of their participation in science-related career, but interestingly not for their sons. However, in this study, mother's gender stereotypes were not predicted either their self-competence beliefs or career-related decisions (Bleeker & Jacobs, 2004).

Based on these studies, the parents have significant influence on children's competence beliefs through conveying their own opinions. Therefore, in this research, it was expected that the parents' belief about their children's competence have a significant influence on children's perceived competence beliefs. In this relationship, the gender of the child is the moderator so that the parents' and children's perception regarding competence might show differences in terms of children's gender for different areas of competence.

2.3 Summary

The children's development is influenced by both their interactions in their personal environment but also by the societal factors through using Bronfenbrenner's ecological model as a general framework. Also, in order to explain within the microsystem, the parents play crucial role in children's both self-concept development but also their gender stereotypes. In that sense, first of all, the children's gender stereotypes were examined in relation with mothers' gender stereotypes and children's gender.

Their children's self-perception is especially important because these beliefs have a direct effect on children's actual performance, future expectations, activity

choices and occupational preferences (Tomasetto et al., 2011). Also, in terms of global self-worth beliefs, or self-esteem, its direct association with the children's emotional well-being was supported (Harter, 1999). These findings manifest that how the children perceive themselves do matter in terms of their current and future functioning. Therefore, it is important for us as counselors to understand the factors that have influence on children's self-perception. By taking the perspective of "looking-glass-self", what significant others actually think of children, whether they appreciate their competence and accept as a worthy human-being or not has a significant implication on children's self-perception combined with the children's perceived support from others (Harter, 1999; Juhasz, 1992). In that sense, the mothers' perception of their children's competence in different fields became even more powerful predictor of the children's own perceived competence beliefs than their previous grades (Eccles et al., 1990; Jacobs, 1991; Jacobs & Eccles, 1992; Parsons, 1982; Phillips, 1987). Therefore, in this study, the role of mothers' perception of their children is examined. In addition, the previous studies showed that even though the girls had higher scores, or children's grades did not differ in terms of gender, the mothers perceived their daughters' competence lower compared to the boys, indicating that the societal factors such as gender stereotypes could have an influence on how people think of others and themselves (Eccles et al., 1990; Jacobs, 1991; Jacobs & Eccles, 1992). Therefore, both children's and mothers' gender stereotypes could also be predictor of children's self-perception.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

3.1 Participants

Target population of this study was the children in preadolescence period and their mothers. In this study, the middle school children are selected because in this developmental period, the advancing social maturity of the children make them be able to express the societal gender roles and to integrate these stereotypes into their lives in terms of academically and socially (McHale, Crouter & Tucker, 1999). In this study, the data collected through both home visits and schools in two cities. For schools, convenience sampling method was used to reach the participants through the school counselors and teachers in five middle schools from which three of them was private and two of them was public schools. Furthermore, the home visits were made by the researchers for the eligible families both in a big metropolitan city and a small city. For the further home visits, the snowball method was used through the help of the families. The data collected from 291 children and their mothers, however, 21 of them was collected from twins and siblings in which mothers separately filled the questionnaire for her each child. Since there was not enough sibling data to compare, only 270 children and their mothers were used. The majority of data, 94.8% was collected from the big city (n = 256), only 5.2% of data was collected from small one (n = 14). The detailed information about demographic characteristics of sample reported by the mothers was presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Mother Reported Demographic Characteristic of Sample

Demographic Variable (N = 270)	M	SD
CHILD AGE (YEARS)	11.69	1.35
CHILDREN'S SPA	89.89	10.17
Demographic Variable (N = 270)	n	%
GENDER		
Female	146	54.1%
Male	124	45.9%
TYPE OF SCHOOL		
Public school	141	52.2%
Private school	129	47.8%
GRADE		
5th grade	75	27.8%
6th grade	57	21.1%
7th grade	70	25.9%
8th grade	68	25.2%
MARITAL STATUS		
Married	244	90.4%
Not married	13	4.8%
Missing	13	4.8%
MOTHERS' EDUCATION		
Primary School	79	29.3%
Middle School	24	8.9%
High School	65	24.1%
Vocational School of Higher Education	23	8.5%
University	46	17.0%
Master's degree	10	3.7%
Others	10	3.7%
Missing	13	4.8%
FATHERS' EDUCATION		
Primary School	53	19.6%
Middle School	31	11.5%
High School	86	31.8%
Vocational School of Higher Education	9	3.3%
University	54	20.0%
Master's degree	13	4.8%
Others	4	1.5%
Missing	20	7.4%
MOTHERS' EMPLOYMENT STATUS		
Never worked	84	31.1%
Early employment	66	24.4%
Still working	107	39.6%
Missing	13	4.8%
INCOME		
Less than 2000	53	19.6%
2000 – 3999	77	28.5%
4000 – 5999	46	17.0%
6000 – 7999	25	9.3%
9000 – 9999	14	5.2%
More than 10000	31	11.5%
Missing	24	8.9%

Furthermore, as a part of home-context related questions, both mothers and children were asked about the roles at home through two questions, one of them is that who is taking care of the children at home, and the other one is that who is the decision maker about child-related topics at home in order to acquire as much information as possible to contribute to the understanding of the sample. The number and frequency of responds of participants were presented in Table 2. Based on these results, it could be pointed out that parents and children share similar opinions about aforementioned roles in their homes. It is important to note that even though the decision maker was reported as both of the parents, the majority of mothers and children considered their mothers as primary caregiver.

Table 2. The Roles at Home Reported by Mothers and Children

	Mothers' responds		Children's responds	
	n	%	n	%
Who is taking care of children at home? *				
Mother	247	91.5%	250	92.6%
Father	101	37.4%	143	53%
Other relatives	16	5.9%	23	8.5%
Nanny	6	2.2%	8	3%
Others	8	3%	9	3.3%
Who makes the decisions about children at home? *				
Only mother	14	5.2%	16	5.9%
Only father	11	4.1%	12	4.4%
Both parents	231	85.6%	230	85.2%
Siblings	20	7.4%	18	6.7%
Other relatives	5	1.9%	4	1.5%
Others	6	2.3%	8	3.2%

*. The participants were given multi-response option.

3.2 Measures

First of all, the same form of gender stereotypes questionnaire was given for both mothers and children (Appendix A and B). For mothers' perception of their children, Harter's Self-Perception Profile for Children was adapted and used (Appendix C and D). The mothers are also given demographic information form (Appendix E and F) and home-context related questions form (Appendix G and H). In addition to gender stereotype questionnaire, the children were given Self-Perception Profile for Children (Appendix I and J) and home-context related questions (Appendix K and L). Both mothers and children were asked to read and sign informed consent form (Appendix M and N).

3.2.1 The Gender Stereotype Questionnaire - Child and Mother Form

This questionnaire was developed by the researcher to measure the gender stereotypes of the mothers and the children. This scale consists of two parts regarding talent and usefulness in the future. The talent part represents the current situation of children while usefulness represents the future related expectations, since both of them was important for counselors to understand. In these parts, there are 14 items, which were designed to measure stereotypical beliefs related to the academic and non-academic domains. The academic domains include math, computer/technology, science (e.g. physics, chemistry and biology), social studies (e.g. history and geography), language arts (e.g. Turkish, grammar), foreign languages (e.g. English and German). Non-academic domains are consisted of dance/traditional Turkish dance, martial arts (e.g. taekwondo, karate), team sports (e.g. football, volleyball), individual sports (e.g. tennis, swimming), fine arts (e.g.

painting, music) and social skills in three questions, making friends, sustaining friendships, and being popular.

These domains were adopted from a study of Andre, Whigham, Hendrickson, and Chambers (1999); and modified for the Turkish education system and culture. In the first section, the participant was asked which gender they think is more talented in the given domains. This part of the questionnaire was originally developed by Parsons et al. (1982) and used in other studies; namely Jacobs and Eccles (1992) and Bhanot and Jovanovic (2009). In the second section, it is asked that for which gender these domains will be more useful after the graduation and having a job (Andre et al.,1999; Bhanot & Jovanovic, 2009; Jacobs & Eccles, 1992). The same questionnaire was used for both mothers and their children. A pilot study with a group of parents from different backgrounds was conducted to examine the face validity of the measure but not with the children. The responses of the parents showed a great deal of variance, showing that the measure of gender stereotypes scale measured what it was supposed to measure.

For each item, three response categories are available for respondents to choose; boys, girls and both boys and girls. The pictures were used to be more reader-friendly for each response category. Originally the scale was developed with three options for each item; labels are “the girls are more talented”, “the boys are more talented” and “both boys and girls are equally talented” for the first part; and “it is more useful for the girls”, “it is more useful for the boys” and “it is useful for both girls and boys” for the second part. Upon the request of National Education Directorate, the labels were simplified to ‘girls’, ‘boys’, and ‘both’.

The responses were coded as 1 for ‘only boys’ and ‘only girls’ options, whereas the response ‘both’ was coded as 0. Then the scores for each 28 items in both talent and usefulness parts were summed up to get an overall score for gender stereotype. The higher the scores are, the stronger gender stereotypes of respondents and lower scores represent weaker gender stereotypes or none.

Furthermore, the reliability analysis was conducted for both mother and children data. Since the responses were coded as 0 or 1, for reliability analysis, the KR-21 was used. KR-21 for talent part was .81 and for usefulness part was .86 in the mother form. The item-total correlation ranged between .22 and .55 for talent part and between .38 and .54 for usefulness part. KR-21 for 28-item gender stereotypes questionnaire altogether was .89 and the range of item-total correlation was .25 and .53 in the mother form.

In the children’s form, KR-21 for talent subscale was .70 and for usefulness subscale was .78. The item-total correlations ranged between .15 and .39 for talent subscale and .28 and .46 for usefulness subscale. KR-21 for gender stereotypes questionnaire altogether was .84 with the item-total correlations ranged between .21 and .47 in the children’s form. Although ideally Cronbach’s alpha is better at around .90; however, .70 is considered to be acceptable for the research purposes (Allen & Bennett, 2010).

Prior to analysis, out of 291 cases, four of the responses from mothers’ gender stereotypes were deleted by the researcher since they did not respond more than 30% of the items. Also, 16 of the mothers did not respond this questionnaire. In total, 20 of mothers was not involved in the analysis. For the ones who had up-to-six missing items, the researcher used data imputation method based on their orientation

in the responses. In total, for 18 mothers and 20 children, the researcher filled their missing items. From 291 cases of participants, 10 of the children did not respond the gender stereotype questionnaire.

3.2.2 Harter's self-perception profile for children

This scale was developed by Harter (1982) to measure the self-evaluations of children in different domains namely, scholastic competence, social competence, athletic competence, physical appearance, behavioral conduct, and global self-worth. Scholastic competence refers to the children's perception of their own cognitive abilities regarding the school-related studies. In terms of social competence, it is suggested that even though social-related ability beliefs regarding social skills might not always indicate the self, these items were created as a way of whether one thinks oneself as successful in that area. The area of athletic competence is related to one's perception of competence in sports. Physical appearance refers to whether the person is contented about how they look. Behavioral conduct suggests that whether the person behaves the way one is supposed to behave and conduct the acceptable behaviors. Global self-worth refers to the one's general view of oneself as in being happy about who one is, rather than domain specific competence beliefs. However, it is important to mention that the sum of domain-specific competence beliefs does not generate global self-worth but rather it is separate construct (Harter, 2012). Therefore, during factor analyses, the global self-worth was separately analyzed since it represents a more superior order within this competence beliefs. There are 36 questions, for each domain, six questions were given.

This scale can be implemented for the children between third and eighth grades. The format of the questionnaire is "structured alternative format" in which the child is given two statements about children and they are expected to choose one of them in "really true for me" and "sort of true for me" (Harter, 2012, p.4). This format was especially designed in order to decrease the social desirability in children. The scoring was done for each item from one as in the lowest level of self-perception to four as in the highest level of self-perception. The lower scores represent lower self-perception in terms of competence beliefs and self-worth.

The internal consistency reliabilities for eight different samples were found to be high and quite acceptable (Harter, 2012). The Cronbach's alpha ranged from .80 to .85 for scholastic competence; from .75 to .84 for social competence; from .76 to .91 for athletic competence; from.76 to .88 for physical appearance; from .71 to .87 for behavioral conduct and from .78 to .87 for global self-worth. The test-retest reliability was not recommended to conduct due to the ever-changing nature of the self-perception (Harter, 2012).

The validity of Self-Perception Profile for Children was collected through different methods (Harter, 2012). The face validity was achieved by making the items as clear as possible to become understandable for every child. By using factor analysis techniques, the factorial validity was examined. There were no cross-loadings occurred for the items. In the factor analysis of the original form, the area of global self-worth is not included due to the fact that even though it is related to all other areas. It is a general understanding of oneself based on perceived competency in these areas. The factor analysis results for these five areas were reported as following: the items' loading ranged from .52 to .88 for scholastic competence; from .41 to .82 for social competence; from .41 to.90 for athletic competence; from .28 to

.84 for physical appearance; and from .33 to .85 for behavioral conduct. For convergent validity, by using a different instrument of same construct, namely Marsh's Self-Description Questionnaires (1991), the parallel forms method has been used in which, only four of the subareas could be compared. The correlations for scholastic competence was found .60; the social competence correlates at .68; the correlations for athletic competence was .69 and the correlation of global self-worth subscale was .56 (Harter, 2012). For construct validity, the empirical support has been provided for the theoretical model between competence areas and general self-belief area. For the theoretical model, aforementioned theory of Cooley's perspective was used and for the consequences of low general self-belief, the multiple ways leading to depression was supported through different studies (Harter, 1999; Harter, 2012). Therefore, it is possible to conclude that the measure is assessing what is planned to do.

The Turkish form was translated and adapted by Şekercioğlu (2009) and the original design of Self-Perception Profile of Children was found to be reliable and valid for Turkish culture. In Turkish adaptation study, the scale was standardized for the children aged between eight and 14. In the Turkish adaptation study, in the data collected from the children between third and eighth graders, Cronbach's alphas were reported as .72 for scholastic competence, .54 for social acceptance, .68 for athletic competence, .77 for physical appearance, .69 for behavioral conduct and .73 for global self-worth which were considered as acceptable compared to the data collected from other countries. The test-retest reliability was ranged between .71 and .77 for different subtests (Şekercioğlu, 2009).

It is mentioned that the same items can be used to understand the adults' perception of competence of the child. It is suggested that it could be interesting to

compare the consistencies and inconsistencies between the competence beliefs, whereas it is cautioned that the child's beliefs do not always have to result of mothers' reflection of their competence (Harter, 2012). Therefore, the same questionnaire was used for the mothers to measure their perception of the children. Only the direction given to the mothers is modified and the response choices are changed as "really true for my child" and "sort of true for my child" but the items and the format of the scale remain unchanged.

The reliability analysis for mothers' perception of their children's competence beliefs in six areas was conducted for the sample of the current study. The Cronbach's alpha values for mothers' perception of their children's scholastic competence was .68, social competence was .55, athletic competence was .69, physical appearance was .74, behavioral conduct was .71 and global self-worth was .68. So, in this sample, the Cronbach's alphas for mothers' perception of their children's competence ranged between .55 and .76. All of the Cronbach's alpha values for subscales presented in Table 3.

For children, the Cronbach's alpha of children's perceived competence in scholastic competence area was .74, in social competence area was .58, in athletic competence area was .72, in physical appearance was .80, in behavioral conduct area was .69, and in global self-worth was .74. Therefore, in this sample, the Cronbach's alpha values of children's perceived competence beliefs in six areas was ranged between .58 and .80, as stated in Table 3.

Table 3. The Cronbach Alpha Values of Children's Self-Perception Profile

	Reliability Analysis for Self-Perception Profile by Harter (2012)	Reliability Analysis for Self-Perception Profile in Turkish form (3rd and 8th) (Şekercioğlu, 2009)	Present Study's Results	
			Children Form	Mother Form
Scholastic Comp.	.80 - .85	.72	.74	.68
Social Comp.	.75 - .84	.54	.58	.55
Athletic Comp.	.76 - .91	.68	.72	.69
Phys. Appearance	.76 - .88	.77	.80	.74
Beh. Conduct	.71 - .87	.69	.69	.71
Global Self-Worth	.78 - .87	.73	.74	.68

3.2.3 Demographic form

The items regarding the demographic information were developed by the researcher of this study. In this form, the mothers reported about birth date, gender, the school and grade level of their children participating the study. Information regarding mothers' and fathers' age, their educational level, the mothers' employment status was also obtained in order to acquire a better understanding of the sample. Besides, who is taking care of the children and who is the decision maker at home in child-related issues were added to the instrument as a part of roles at home questions. Only mothers additionally were asked to report their children's previous SPA.

In the original demographic form, grades for every single subject matter were planned to be asked. However, upon the request of National Education of Directorate only children's previous semester's grade point of average (SPA) was asked in the form.

3.3 Procedure

First, the ethics approval was obtained from Institutional Review Board for Research with Human Subjects at Boğaziçi University in March 2017 as stated in Appendix O. Then, the permission from National Education Directorate of the Province was obtained in April 2017 in order to conduct research in the middle schools as stated in Appendix P.

In total, the data were collected from 291 children and their mothers through home visits and schools to reach as many participants from various backgrounds as possible. In 21 cases, the families with twins and siblings continuing middle school, the data were collected from both children and mothers filled the form for each child separately. However, with random selection, only one child's datum was left in the dataset and the other was deleted. Therefore, in total, home visits made up 52.6% (n = 142) of the sample whereas 47.4% (n = 128) of the sample were collected from schools.

The data had been collected from May 2017 till November 2017. Around 276 questionnaires were distributed in the five different schools of which two of them were public and the rest was private. The schools were chosen based on their convenience. The researcher personally met with the administrative staff and school counselors and informed them about the research. In the schools, with the help of school counselors, some classes were chosen. In these classes, the informed consent form and the mothers' questionnaire including the demographic form, roles at home questions, mothers' gender stereotypes scale and mothers' perception of their children adapted from Harter's Self-Perception Profile for Children were sent to families via their children. In total, 128 of the mothers signed the informed consent

form and filled out questionnaires. The children whose mother signed the consent form were given the child questionnaire. In the schools, the questionnaire was administered by the researcher in groups. For the Self-Perception Profile, the instructions were given by the researcher as it is specified in the manual of the scale.

In addition, the 142 home visits were conducted by the researcher in two cities by using the snowball sampling technique. These families were chosen based on their convenience and being a volunteer. During the home visits, some of the mothers needed help to fill the form. In almost 70 cases during the home visits, the researcher has read the forms for the mothers based on their requests. Both the mothers and children were asked to sign the informed consent form. Then, the questionnaires were given to both parents and children. In some cases, the children and mothers were filled the form in the different rooms; however, in others this condition could not achieved due to the limitation of the house. In this case, the mothers and children were asked not to involve each other's response processes. Also, a logbook for the home visits was kept by the researcher to note the nature of the responding process, such as whether mother filled out the survey by herself or not.

Since two different procedures for data collection were used, Independent Sample t Test method was used in which some of the variables showed significant differences as presented in the Table 4. In terms of both mothers' and children's gender stereotypes scores, the data collected from home visits showed stronger stereotypical responses compared to from school. On the other hand, in school-based data, the mothers' perception of their children was significantly higher than the mothers from home visits in mothers' perception in scholastic competence, in social competence, in behavioral conduct and in global self-worth area.

Table 4. Descriptive Analysis for Data Collection Procedure

Measures	Data Collection Mode				*t*-test
	School		Home visits		
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
MGS	9.75	7.04	13.11	5.93	-4.09**
CGS	10.05	6.23	12.82	5.23	-3.90**
MPC_Scholastic	3.36	.55	3.12	.55	3.40*
MPC_Social	3.10	.52	2.90	.57	2.75*
MPC_AC	2.87	.65	2.94	.55	-.84
MPC_PA	3.26	.62	3.12	.66	1.60
MPC_BC	3.24	.57	2.94	.62	3.82**
MPC_GSW	3.37	.47	3.15	.55	3.23*
CSP_Scholastic	3.20	.64	3.08	.61	1.45
CSP_Social	3.11	.61	3.06	.57	.75
CSP_AC	2.95	.69	3.03	.58	-1.07
CSP_PA	3.07	.74	3.08	.74	-.08
CSP_BC	3.18	.56	3.11	.60	.10
CSP_GSW	3.49	.54	3.35	.58	1.96

*p < .01, **. p < .001

MGS (Mother Gender Stereotype Scale), CGS (Child Gender Stereotype Scale), MPC (Mothers' Perception of their Children), CSP (Children's Self-Perception), MPC_AC & CSP_AC (Athletic Competence), MPC_PA & CSP_PA (Physical Appearance), MPC_BC & CSP_BC (Behavioral Conduct), MPC_GSW & CSP_ GSW (Global Self-Worth).

The difference between two data collection modes was examined in detail by further analyses. First of all, background characteristics of two sample was analyzed. A Pearson's chi-square test of contingencies was used to evaluate whether the data collection procedure was related to the type of school that children attend. The chi-square was statistically significant, $\chi^2(1, N = 270) = 142.04$, $p < .001$, with the large effect size, $\phi = .72$. As illustrated in the Figure 1, the data from home visits were mostly from children in public school and the data from school were from the children in private schools.

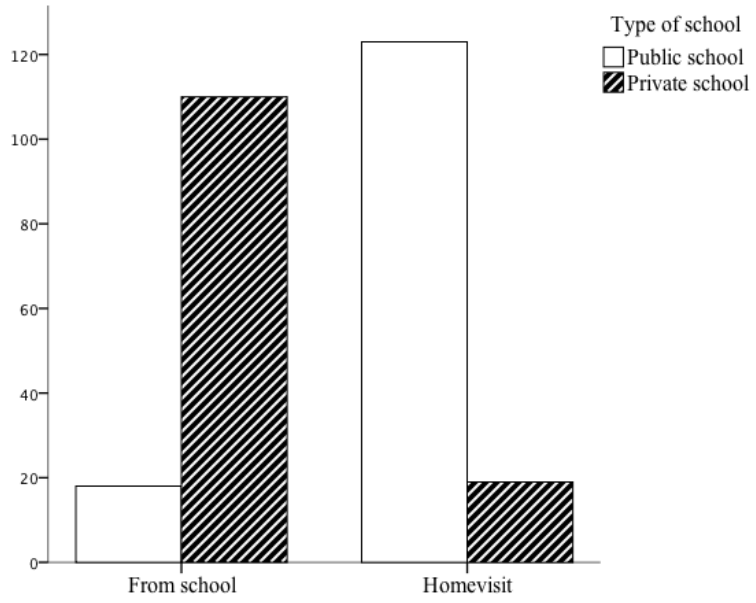


Fig. 1 The type of school based on data collection procedure

A Pearson's chi-square test of contingencies was used to evaluate whether the data collection procedure was related to the mothers' educational level. The chi-square was statistically significant, $\chi^2(5, N = 274) = 51.5$, $p < .001$, with the large effect size, $\phi = .46$. As it could be observed in Figure 2, the data collection procedure was also associated with mothers' educational level.

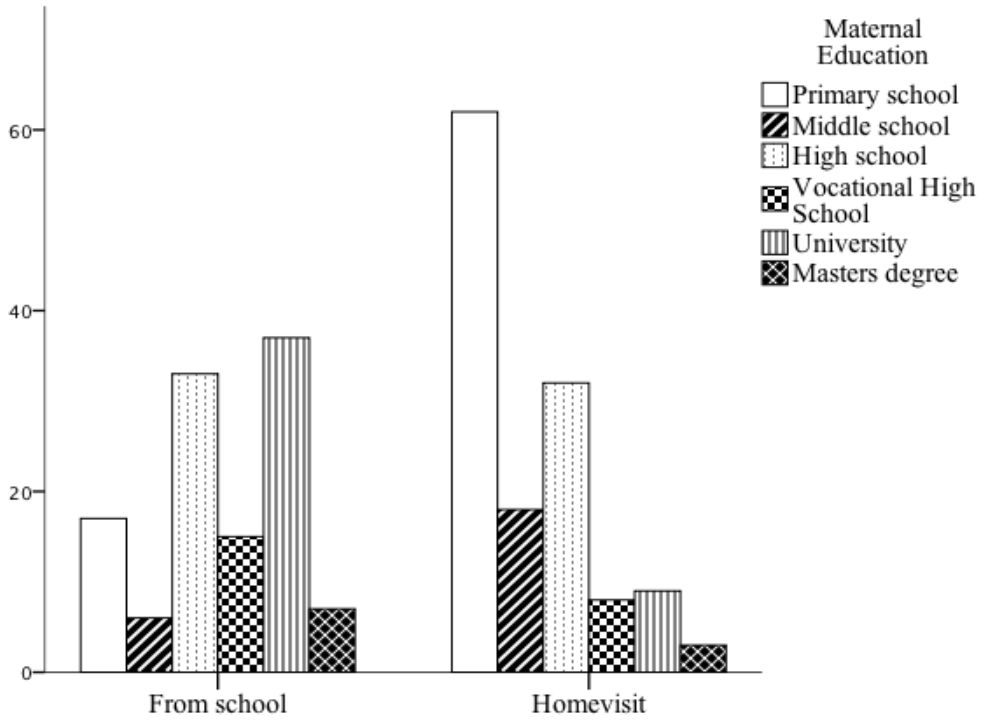


Fig. 2 The educational background of mothers based on data collection procedure

An independent samples *t* test was used to compare the gender stereotypes scores of mothers whose children are going to public school and to private school. The *t* test analysis was significant with the mothers of public school attenders reporting higher stereotypic scores than the mothers of private school attenders. Also, the children going to public school gave more stereotypic answers than children going to private school. Also, the mean differences on mothers' perception of their children's competence in six different were compared the significant differences were found in four areas, mothers' perception in scholastic competence, in social competence, in behavioral conduct and in global self-worth area. The results indicated that the mothers whose children attending in private school perceived their children's competence significantly higher than the mothers of children attending public school. However, in terms of children's perception of their competence, there

were no differences between children attending public school and children attending private school. The detailed analysis of *t* test results can be found in Table 5.

Table 5. Descriptive Analysis for School Type

Measures	School type				*t*-test
	Public School		Private School		
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
MGS	13.04	6.09	9.93	6.9	3.78***
CGS	12.52	5.39	10.42	6.17	2.94**
MPC_Scholastic	3.11	.57	3.37	.52	-3.69***
MPC_Social	2.91	.53	3.09	.58	-2.51*
MPC_AC	2.92	.56	2.91	.64	.16
MPC_PA	3.16	.63	3.2	.67	-.55
MPC_BC	2.95	.6	3.22	.6	-3.49**
MPC_GSW	3.14	.54	3.38	.48	-3.53***
CSP_Scholastic	3.12	.58	3.16	.67	-.56
CSP_Social	3.08	.54	3.09	.63	-.28
CSP_AC	2.97	.61	3.02	.66	-.56
CSP_PA	3.09	.73	3.06	.76	.31
CSP_BC	3.17	.56	3.11	.62	.82
CSP_GSW	3.38	.58	3.46	.55	-1.20

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

MGS (Mother Gender Stereotype Scale), CGS (Child Gender Stereotype Scale), MPC (Mothers' Perception of their Children's Competence), CSP (Children's Self-Perception), MPC_AC & CSP_AC (Athletic Competence), MPC_PA & CSP_PA (Physical Appearance), MPC_BC & CSP_BC (Behavioral Conduct), MPC_GSW & CSP_GSW (Global Self-Worth).

In comparison of these two tables, it could be asserted that in the exact same areas such that mothers' and children's gender stereotypes, mothers' perception of their children in scholastic competence, social competence, behavioral conduct and global self-worth, the significant *t* test differences were found.

In the linear regression analysis conducted with three variables as predictors, namely data collection procedure, mothers' education and the school type, the

outcome variable was children's gender stereotypes, only outcome variable. It was found that the data collection procedure was significant predictor children's gender stereotypes ($\beta = .24$, $t = 2.68$, $p < .05$), Since the home visit were made with the mothers from lower SES backgrounds and sending their children in public school and the data collected from school were mainly from private schools with higher SES, it could be asserted that the difference between two data collection procedures was mainly due to socio-economic status of families. However, in the analysis where children's gender stereotypes were used as outcome variable, the data collection procedure was used as a control variable.

3.4 Data Analysis

In order to analyze the current data, the Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS – v. 23) was used. The significance level is decided at .05, unless otherwise indicated. The group differences were explored through Independent Sample *t* Test. In addition to this, Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to determine the nature of the relationships among variables of interests.

The Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis was used to explain children's gender stereotypes in the first question and children's self-perception in the second question. To estimate the variance in children's gender stereotypes as a part of first research question, children's age, type of school and maternal education was entered as control variables at the first step and mothers' gender stereotypes and gender was entered at the second step. For the second research question, the control variables such as gender and age of the children, type of school, mothers' education and children's SPA was entered. To estimate the proportion of children's self-perception, mothers' and children's gender stereotypes and mothers' perception of

their children's competence were added into multiple regression analysis was performed. In addition, the interaction terms between the predictor variables and child's gender were also calculated and separately entered into multiple regression at the third step.

The assumptions of multiple regression analysis were evaluated prior to conducting the analysis. First of all, each variable in the regression analysis was checked whether it contains the outliers through the use of stem-and-leaf plots and boxplots. Secondly, the normality, linearity and homoscedasticity of residuals were checked from the residuals scatterplots. Also, the predictors in the regression model were checked for multicollinearity and singularity in order not to inhibit the ability of the predictors.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1 Preliminary analysis

In preliminary analysis, Independent Sample t test and Pearson Correlation was conducted for group differences and relationships.

4.1.1 Gender differences

Table 6 shows the means and standard deviations of every measure and subscales of these measures of overall sample, females and males and an independent sample *t* test was used to compare mean scores by gender in all measures. The mothers of girls perceived their children's competence higher in academic and behavioral area than the mothers of boys whereas, mothers of boys perceived their children's physical appearance higher than the mothers of girls. For children, only in behavioral conduct area, the girls perceived themselves more competent than the boys.

Table 6. Descriptive Analysis of All Variables Based on Gender

Measures	Overall		Children's gender				*t*-test
			Female		Male		
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
MGS	11.64	6.63	11.51	6.69	11.81	6.59	-.35
CGS	11.56	5.86	10.92	6.05	12.30	5.56	-1.90
MPC_Scholastic	3.22	.56	3.35	.53	3.07	.56	4.09***
MPC_Social	2.98	.56	2.97	.57	2.99	.55	-.20
MPC_AC	2.91	.59	2.86	.62	2.97	.56	-1.38
MPC_PA	3.18	.65	3.09	.68	3.27	.59	-2.13*
MPC_BC	3.07	.61	3.18	.61	2.93	.59	3.27**
MPC_GSW	3.24	.53	3.23	.56	3.25	.49	-.30
CSP_Scholastic	3.14	.63	3.20	.64	3.07	.61	1.65
CSP_Social	3.08	.58	3.10	.63	3.06	.53	.60
CSP_AC	2.99	.63	2.96	.68	3.03	.57	-.94
CSP_PA	3.08	.74	3.07	.79	3.09	.68	-.28
CSP_BC	3.15	.59	3.22	.58	3.06	.59	2.15*
CSP_GSW	3.42	.57	3.42	.59	3.41	.54	.12

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

MGS (Mother Gender Stereotype Scale), CGS (Child Gender Stereotype Scale), MPC (Mothers' Perception of their Children's Competence), CSP (Children's Self-Perception), MPC_AC & CSP_AC (Athletic Competence), MPC_PA & CSP_PA (Physical Appearance), MPC_BC & CSP_BC (Behavioral Conduct), MPC_GSW & CSP_ GSW (Global Self-Worth).

4.1.2 Correlations among variables of interest

The relationships among mothers' and children's gender stereotypes beliefs and mothers' perception of their children's gender stereotypes and children's own perceived competence beliefs were investigated using Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient as illustrated in Table 7. In all six perceived competence areas, the mothers' perception of their children was related to their children's perceived competence beliefs such that for scholastic competence (.43); for social competence (.38); for athletic competence (.39); for physical appearance (.41); for behavioral conduct (.47); and for global self-worth (.29).

Furthermore, there was a significant positive relationship between mothers' and children's gender stereotypes, (.32). The mothers' gender stereotype scores were negatively related to their perception of their children's competence beliefs in five areas, namely scholastic competence (-.15); social competence (-.20); physical appearance (-.13); behavioral conduct (-.13) and global self-worth (-.19). Also, there was a significant negative relationship between mothers' gender stereotypes and children's social competence beliefs, (-.14), but not in other areas. The relationship between children's gender stereotypes and their perception of their perceived competence beliefs was also examined. It was found that only in children's athletic competence beliefs, there was a positive significant relationship, (.14). The correlation results were also presented as a function of gender in Table 8.

Table 7. Correlations among Variables of Interest

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. MGS	1	.32**	-.15*	-.20**	-.00	-.13*	-.13*	-.19**	-.03	-.14*	.05	-.07	-.03	-.09
2. CGS		1	-.13*	-.07	.07	.03	-.10	-.02	-.09	.02	.14*	-.11	-.03	-.09
3. MPC_Scho			1	.31**	.19**	.25**	.50**	.38**	.43**	.21**	.06	.13*	.30**	.23**
4. MPC_Social				1	.33**	.32**	.27**	.4**	.13*	.38**	.17**	.17**	.14*	.22**
5. MPC_AC					1	.24**	.11	.29**	.21**	.23**	.39**	.22**	.10	.13*
6. MPC_PA						1	.41**	.55**	.11	.15*	.09	.41**	.22**	.23**
7. MPC_BC							1	.58**	.25**	.18**	.07	.20**	.47**	.28**
8. MPC_GSW								1	.19**	.23**	.09	.20**	.31**	.29**
9. CSP_Scho									1	.46**	.33**	.36**	.50**	.51**
10. CSP_Social										1	.48**	.39**	.45**	.52**
11. CSP_AC											1	.4**	.32**	.37**
12. CSP_PA												1	.47**	.62**
13. CSP_BC													1	.57**
14. CSP_GSW														1

*. $p < .05$, **. $p < 0.01$

MGS (Mother Gender Stereotype Scale), CGS (Child Gender Stereotype Scale), MPC (Mothers' Perception of their Children's Competence), CSP (Children's Self-Perception), MPC_AC & CSP_AC (Athletic Competence), MPC_PA & CSP_PA (Physical Appearance), MPC_BC & CSP_BC (Behavioral Conduct), MPC_GSW & CSP_ GSW (Global Self-Worth).

Table 8. Correlations among All Variables as a Function of Gender

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. MGS	1	.29**	-.24*	-.17	.08	-.12	-.18	-.21*	.05	-.1	.17	-.08	-.04	-.18
2. CGS	.35**	1	-.05	.01	.11	.08	-.08	.04	-.01	-.07	.19*	-.24**	-.16	-.24**
3. MPC_Scho	-.07	-.14	1	.34**	.19*	.25**	.41**	.39**	.27**	.21*	-.04	.09	.28**	.24*
4. MPC_Social	-.23*	-.14	.31**	1	.41**	.25**	.28**	.35**	.05	.35**	.15	.17	.10	.16
5. MPC_AC	.05	.02	.25**	.28**	1	.21*	.24**	.36**	.16	.20*	.22*	.07	.15	.05
6. MPC_PA	-.16	-.04	.34**	.37**	.25**	1	.32**	.50**	.04	.02	-.03	.26**	.15	.16
7. MPC_BC	-.08	-.08	.52**	.28**	.05	.54**	1	.56**	.20*	.12	-.00	-.02	.49**	.24**
8. MPC_GSW	-.18*	-.06	.41**	.44**	.23**	.58**	.62**	1	.12	.19	-.05	.05	.37**	.26**
9. CSP_Scho	-.08	-.13	.53**	.19*	.27**	.20*	.26**	.25**	1	.4**	.29**	.34**	.52**	.46**
10. CSP_Social	-.17	.09	.19*	.41**	.27**	.25**	.20*	.26**	.51**	1	.36**	.35**	.42**	.46**
11. CSP_AC	-.04	.09	.16	.18*	.50**	.17	.15	.18*	.38**	.56**	1	.19*	.20*	.22*
12. CSP_PA	-.06	-.03	.17	.18*	.32**	.50**	.36**	.30**	.39**	.42**	.52**	1	.4**	.62**
13. CSP_BC	-.02	.10	.27**	.17	.08	.31**	.42**	.28**	.48**	.47**	.42**	.54**	1	.57**
14. CSP_GSW	-.03	.02	.22*	.26**	.19*	.28**	.30**	.31**	.56**	.57**	.48**	.63**	.58**	1

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

Note. Intercorrelations for males are presented above the diagonal, and intercorrelations females are presented below the diagonal.

MGS (Mother Gender Stereotype Scale), CGS (Child Gender Stereotype Scale), MPC (Mothers' Perception of their Children's Competence), CSP (Children's Self-Perception), MPC_AC & CSP_AC (Athletic Competence), MPC_PA & CSP_PA (Physical Appearance), MPC_BC & CSP_BC (Behavioral Conduct), MPC_GSW & CSP_ GSW (Global Self-Worth).

4.2 Results according to research questions

First of all, the multiple regression assumptions were checked for outliers. It was found that for each variable there are several outliers; however, removing them was not helpful. For this reason, they were decided to not be removed from the data. Normal P-Plots were checked, they were found to be almost in line. Then, standardized residuals, Mahalanobis distance, and Cook's distance did not show any out of normal value. For collinearity diagnostics, tolerance and VIF value did not indicate any problem.

4.3.1 Children's gender stereotypes as an outcome variable

R.Q.1 To what extent, do mothers' gender stereotypes and gender of the child predict children's gender stereotypes?

a. Does the interaction between these two variables predict children's gender stereotypes?

A three-step hierarchical multiple regression was conducted with children's gender stereotypes as the dependent variable. Data collection procedure, children's age, the school type and mothers' education were entered at the Step 1 because of their relevance to children's gender stereotypes, explaining 11.5% of the variance in children's gender stereotypes. After the entry of mothers' gender stereotypes and gender at step 2, the total variance explained by the model as a whole was 20.4%, ΔF (2, 226) = 12.69, $p < .001$. At step 3, the interaction between gender and mothers' gender stereotypes were entered. However, the interaction was not significant, ΔR^2 = .001, ΔF (1, 225) = .30, $p > .05$. In total, this model explained 20.6% of total variance in children's gender stereotypes, R^2 = .206, adjusted R^2 = .181, F (7, 225) =

8.32, $p < .001$. By Cohen's (1988) conventions, a combined effect of this magnitude can be considered "medium" ($f^2 = .26$). The detailed results are presented in Table 9.

Table 9. Multiple Regression Analysis of Children's Gender Stereotypes

Variable	*B*	*SEB*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1				.11	.11***
Data collection	2.60	1.04	.22*		
Child's age	-.02	.02	-.07		
Type of school	.52	1.18	.04		
Maternal edu	-.28	.11	-.20*		
Step 2				.20	.08***
MGS	.22	.05	.25***		
Gender	2.01	.69	.17**		
Step 3				.21	.00
GxMGS	-.06	.11	-.07		

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

4.2.2 Children's self-perception beliefs as an outcome variable

R.Q.2 To what extent, do mothers' and children's gender stereotypes and mothers' perception of their children's competence beliefs predict children's self-perception beliefs in six areas, namely scholastic competence, social competence, athletic competence, physical appearance, behavioral conduct and global self-worth?

a. Does gender interact with any of these predictor variables?

4.2.2.1 Children's scholastic competence beliefs as an outcome variable

As presented in Table 10, a three-step hierarchical multiple regression was conducted with children's scholastic competence as the dependent variable. Children's age, children's gender, maternal education, type of school the children attend and children's SPA in previous semester were entered at step 1 of the regression. At step

2, children's gender stereotypes, mothers' gender stereotypes and mothers' perception of children's scholastic competence were entered. At step 3, the interaction between gender and the predictor variables was entered. On step 1 of the hierarchical MRA, children's age, children's gender, maternal education, type of school and children's SPA accounted for a significant 12.3% of variance in children's scholastic competence, $R^2 = .123$, F (5, 194) = 5.45, $p < .001$. On step 2, mothers' gender stereotypes, children's gender stereotypes and mothers' perception of children's scholastic competence were added to the regression equation, and accounted for an additional 8% of the variance, $\Delta R^2 = .084$, ΔF (3, 191) = 6.72, $p < .001$. On step 3, the interaction between gender and mothers' perception of their children's scholastic competence was added to the regression equation, and accounted for additional 2% of the variance, $\Delta R^2 = .019$, ΔF (1,190) = 4.72, $p < .05$. In combination, all the predictor variables explained 22.6% of the variance in children's scholastic competence perception, $R^2 = .226$, adjusted $R^2 = .189$, F (9, 190) = 6.17, $p < .001$. By Cohen's (1988) conventions, a combined effect of this magnitude can be considered "large" ($f^2 = .29$). However, the interaction between gender and mother's gender stereotypes and between gender and children's gender stereotypes did not account for additional significant variance.

The interaction between gender and mother's perception of their children's competence in scholastic area was illustrated in Figure 3, indicating that mothers' perception of their daughters' scholastic competence had higher influence on their daughters' perceived competence beliefs in scholastic area (r (141) = .53, $p < .01$) compared to the effect of mothers of boys on their sons' perceived competence beliefs (r (120) = .27, $p < .01$).

Table 10. Multiple Regression Analysis of Children's Scholastic Competence

Variable	*B*	*SEB*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1				.12	.12**
Child's age	.00	.00	-.01		
Gender	-.07	.08	-.06		
Maternal edu	.01	.01	.06		
Type of school	-.09	.11	-.08		
Children's SPA	.02	.00	.34*		
Step 2				.21	.08**
MGS	.01	.01	.14*		
CGS	-.01	.01	-.07		
MPC_scho	.32	.08	.30**		
Step 3				.22	.02*
GxMPC_scho	-.31	.14	-.84*		

*. p <.05, **. p < .001

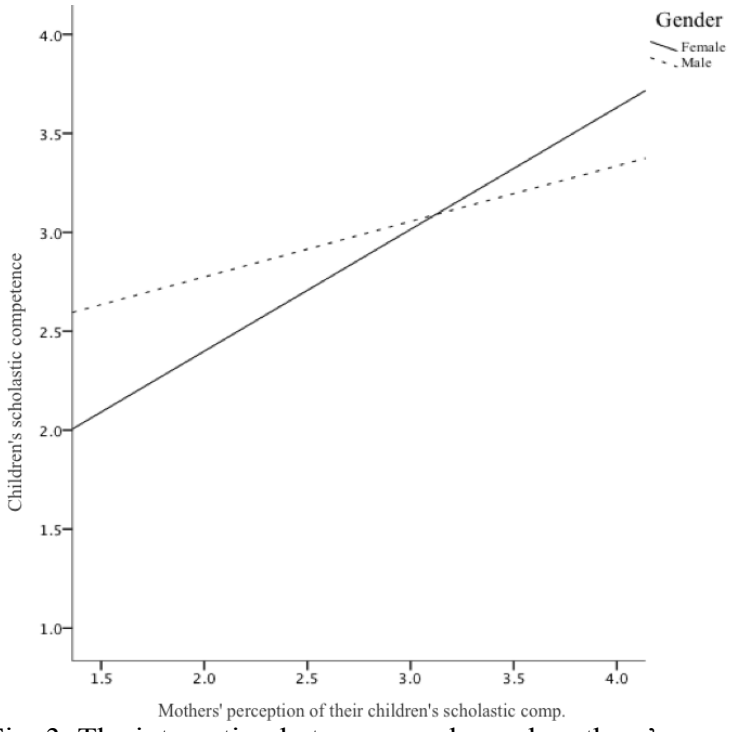


Fig. 3 The interaction between gender and mothers' perception of their children's scholastic competence

4.2.2.2 Children's social competence beliefs as an outcome variable

On step 1 of the hierarchical MRA, children's age, gender, maternal education, type of school and children's SPA accounted for a significant 3% of variance in children's social competence, $R^2 = .03$, F (5, 194) = 1.34, $p > .05$. On step 2, mothers' gender stereotypes, children's gender stereotypes and mothers' perception of children's social competence were added to the regression equation, and accounted for an additional 16.6% of the variance, $\Delta R^2 = .166$, ΔF (3, 191) = 13.24, $p < .001$. On step 3, the interaction terms between gender and children's gender stereotypes, gender and mothers' gender stereotypes and gender and mothers' perception of their children's social competence were not accounted for any additional variance, so that they were not involved in the analysis. In combination, all the predictor variables explained 20% of the variance in children's social competence, $R^2 = .20$, adjusted $R^2 = .166$, F (8, 191) = 5.96, $p < .001$. By Cohen's (1988) conventions, a combined effect of this magnitude can be considered "medium" ($f^2 = .25$). The values are reported in Table 11.

Table 11. Multiple Regression Analysis of Children's Social Competence

Variable	*B*	*SEB*	*β*	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1				.03	.03
Child's age	.00	.00	-.01		
Gender	-.06	.08	-.05		
Maternal edu	.02	.01	.13		
Type of school	-.12	.11	-.10		
Children's SPA	.01	.00	.13		
Step 2				.20	.17*
MGS	.00	.01	.03		
CGS	.00	.01	.03		
MPC_social	.42	.07	.42*		

* $p < .001$

4.2.2.3 Children's athletic competence beliefs as an outcome variable

As illustrated in Table 12, on step 1 of the hierarchical MRA, children's age, gender, maternal education, type of school and children's SPA accounted for a significant 3% of variance in children's athletic competence, $R^2 = .03$, F (5, 194) = 1.17, $p > .05$. On step 2, mothers' gender stereotypes, children's gender stereotypes and mothers' perception of children's athletic competence were added to the regression equation, and accounted for an additional 18% of the variance, $\Delta R^2 = .177$, ΔF (3, 191) = 14.16, $p < .001$. In combination, all the predictor variables explained 20.6% of the variance in children's athletic competence perception, $R^2 = .206$, adjusted $R^2 = .173$, F (8, 191) = 6.19, $p < .001$. By Cohen's (1988) conventions, a combined effect of this magnitude can be considered "medium" ($f^2 = .26$).

As step 3, the interaction terms were entered, however only the interaction term between gender and mothers' gender stereotypes was significant. However, in further analysis, mothers' gender stereotypes scores were not correlated with neither their daughters' (r (141) = -.04, $p > .05$); nor their sons (r (120) = .17, $p > .05$) in

athletic competence beliefs. For this reason, since it is practical value is low, it was not considered as significant.

Table 12. Multiple Regression Analysis of Children's Athletic Competence

Variable	*B*	*SEB*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1				.03	.03
Child's age	-.00	.00	-.13		
Gender	.00	.09	.00		
Maternal edu	.02	.01	.13		
Type of school	-.02	.12	-.02		
Children's SPA	-.00	.00	-.02		
Step 2				.21	.18*
MGS	.01	.01	.09		
CGS	.01	.01	.11		
MPC_AC	.40	.07	.39*		

*. $p < .001$

4.2.2.4 Children's physical appearance beliefs as an outcome variable

As displayed in Table 13, in step 1 of the hierarchical MRA, children's age, gender, maternal education, type of school and children's SPA accounted for a significant 10.6% of variance in children's physical appearance, $R^2 = .11$, F (5, 194) = 4.60, $p <$ .01. On step 2, mothers' gender stereotypes, children's gender stereotypes and mothers' perception of children's physical appearance were added to the regression equation, and accounted for an additional 15.4% of the variance, $\Delta R^2 = .154$, ΔF (3, 191) = 13.25, $p < .001$. The interaction terms between child's gender and children's gender stereotypes, child's gender and mothers' gender stereotypes and child's gender and mothers' perception of their children's physical appearance were not accounted for any additional variance, so that they were not involved in the analysis.

In combination, all the predictor variables explained 26% of the variance in children's perception of their physical appearance, $R^2 = .26$, adjusted $R^2 = .229$, F (8, 191) = 8.39, $p < .001$. By Cohen's (1988) conventions, a combined effect of this magnitude can be considered "large" ($f^2 = .35$).

Table 13. Multiple Regression Analysis of Children's Physical Appearance

Variable	*B*	*SEB*	*β*	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1				.11	.11**
Child's age	-.01	.00	-.31***		
Gender	-.03	.10	-.02		
Maternal edu	.01	.02	.07		
Type of school	.01	.14	.00		
Children's SPA	.00	.01	.06		
Step 2				.26	.15***
MGS	.01	.01	.13		
CGS	-.02	.01	-.15*		
MPC_PA	.44	.07	.38***		

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

4.2.2.5 Children's behavioral conduct beliefs as an outcome variable

As presented in Table 14, on step 1 of the hierarchical MRA, children's age, children's gender, maternal education, type of school and children's SPA accounted for a significant 10.9% of variance in children's behavioral conduct, $R^2 = .109$, F (5, 194) = 4.76, $p < .001$. On step 2, mothers' gender stereotypes, children's gender stereotypes and mothers' perception of children's behavioral conduct were added to the regression equation, and accounted for an additional 20.4% of the variance, $\Delta R^2 = .204$, ΔF (3, 191) = 18.95, $p < .001$. In combination, all the predictor variables explained 31.4% of the variance in children's perception of their behavioral conduct,

R^2 = .314, adjusted R^2 = .28, F (8, 191) = 10.90, p < .001. By Cohen's (1988) conventions, a combined effect of this magnitude can be considered "large" (f^2 = .46). On the step 3, the interaction terms between gender and mothers' gender stereotypes and mothers' perception of their children did not account for any significant variance. However, the interaction between gender and children's gender stereotypes was significant but the girls' gender stereotypes beliefs was not correlated to their competence beliefs in behavioral conduct (r (141) = .10, p > .05); for boys, there was also no significant relationship (r (120) = -.16, p > .05). Since there was question about its practicality, it was not considered as significant.

Table 14. Multiple Regression Analysis of Children's Behavioral Conduct

Variable	*B*	*SEB*	*β*	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1				.11	.11***
Child's age	-.00	.00	-.13		
Gender	-.14	.08	-.12		
Maternal edu	.01	.01	.04		
Type of school	-.16	.11	-.13		
Children's SPA	-.02	.00	.29***		
Step 2				.31	.20***
MGS	.01	.01	.07		
CGS	-.00	.01	-.04		
MPC_BC	.45	.06	.48***		

*. p < .05, **. p <.01, ***. p < .001

4.2.2.6 Children's global self-worth beliefs as an outcome variable

On step 1 of the hierarchical MRA, children's age, children's gender, maternal education, type of school and children's SPA accounted for a significant 9.6% of variance in children's global self-worth beliefs, R^2 = .096, F (5, 194) = 4.14, p < .01. On step 2, mothers' gender stereotypes, children's gender stereotypes and mothers'

perception of children's global self-worth were added to the regression equation, and accounted for an additional 5.7% of the variance, $\Delta R^2 = .057$, $\Delta F\ (3, 191) = 4.27$, $p < .01$. On step 3, the interaction between child's gender and children's gender stereotypes, G x CGS was added to the regression equation, and accounted for additional 2.9% of the variance, $\Delta R^2 = .029$, $\Delta F\ (1,190) = 6.67$, $p < .05$. In combination, all the predictor variables explained 18.2% of the variance in children's global self-worth beliefs, $R^2 = .182$, adjusted $R^2 = .143$, $F\ (9, 190) = 4.70$, $p < .001$. By Cohen's (1988) conventions, a combined effect of this magnitude can be considered "medium" ($f^2 = .22$). The results are reported in Table 15.

Furthermore, interaction term between gender and children's gender stereotypes was significant (Figure 4), indicating that the girls' gender stereotypes beliefs was not related to their global self-worth beliefs ($r\ (141) = .02$, $p > .05$); whereas for boys, there was a significant negative relationship ($r\ (120) = -.24$, $p < .01$). It suggests that the stronger the gender stereotypes the boys held, the lower they perceived their own global self-worth. However, for females, holding gender stereotypes did not have such an effect. The interaction term between mothers' gender stereotypes and mothers' perception of their children's global self-worth beliefs was not significant.

Table 15. Multiple Regression Analysis of Children's Global Self-Worth

Variable	*B*	*SEB*	*β*	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1				.10	.10**
Child's age	-.00	.00	-.14*		
Gender	-.02	.08	-.02		
Maternal edu	.02	.01	.18*		
Type of school	-.04	.10	-.04		
Children's SPA	.01	.00	.18*		
Step 2				.15	.06**
MGS	.01	.01	.09		
CGS	-.01	.01	-.10		
MPC_GSW	.24	.07	.24**		
Step 3				.18	.03*
GxCGS	-.03	.01	-.44*		

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

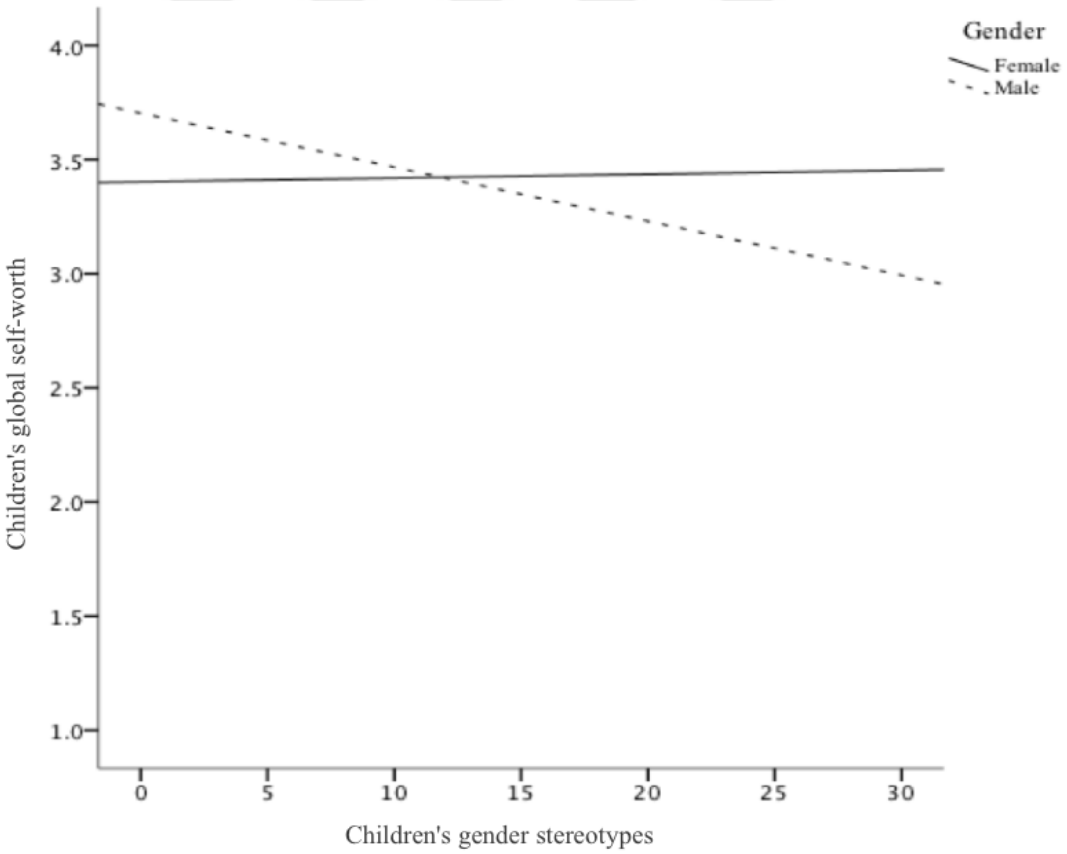


Fig. 4 The interaction between gender and children's gender stereotypes

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

In this chapter, the summary of the current study including the review of major findings is presented. In the general discussion, the findings from the preliminary analysis is reviewed. Then, the findings are discussed in relation with the research questions based on the previous literature. It is followed by the limitations of the study and recommendations for future research and implications of the study.

5.1 General discussion

5.1.1 Mothers' and children's gender stereotypes

It was expected that the male children reported higher scores in gender stereotypes compared to female children based on previous literature. Although the males had higher scores in this scale compared to the females, the difference was not statistically significant. In some previous studies, the boys reported higher gender stereotypes scores compared to the girls (Park et al., 2012; Schuette & Killen, 2009; Smetackova, 2015). This is explained as the boys wants to maintain their relatively higher prestige in the society (Leaper, 2002). However, the findings of other studies suggested that boys and girls did not differ in their attitudes (Endendijk et al., 2013).

The findings of the current study showed a weak relationship between mothers' and children' gender stereotypes. Based on the Social-Cognitive Theory, the parents directly teach and indirectly model and interact these gender roles and reinforce these behaviors in their children and encourage them to behave similarly (Bussey & Bandura, 1999). Therefore, the parents and their children are expected to

have similar attitudes in terms of gender roles (Bussey & Bandura, 1999; Marks et al., 2009). However, according to the Gender Schema Theory, children perform as active agents when they build their own gender schemas. Since the children are responsible for their own gender role socialization, it is possible for them to have different gender role attitudes from their parents (Marks et al., 2009; Shaffer, 2009). The findings of some studies showed only modest and even nonsignificant results between parents' and children's gender stereotypes (e.g., Crouter et al., 2007). The current findings seem to be in line with the gender schema theory in the sense that although children' gender roles attitudes overlap with their mothers' to some extent, they mostly differ from their mothers' in their gender stereotype attitudes. Preadolescence is a life period in which peers may begin to have stronger influence on children than their parents. Therefore, in that sense, they might use their relationships with their peers as a source of gender role stereotypes. Also, based on their observations in their school life, they might generate their own gender-related attitudes different than their mothers.

5.1.2 Mothers' perceptions of their children and children's self-perception

The association between the mothers' perception of their children and their children's self-perception was examined in six different areas and the mean scores for all areas were compared based on gender.

The mothers' perception of their children's competence was significantly related to children's perceived competence beliefs in all six areas. Their correlation ranged from weak to moderate. According to Kenny (1988), there was no consistency between self-reports and how they viewed by others; however there was somewhat relationship between mothers' and children's reports. In a meta-analysis,

the association between children's reporting themselves and their parents reports regarding children's social and emotional functioning was weak, indicating that the children's self-evaluations cannot be an alternative for the others' reports but they show a different kind of information (Achenbach, McConaughy, & Howell, 1987). In addition, Harter (2012) suggested that even though Harter's Self-Perception Profile could be used for adults, if there is no relationship or weak-to-moderate relationship between children's and adults' perception, it does not necessarily mean that it is a problem of validity of scale but rather, it was resulted from different perceptions. Therefore, it is possible for children and their mothers to have only somewhat agreement in their perception.

In this study, the mothers of girls perceived their children's scholastic competence and behavioral conduct higher than the mothers of boys, which seems to be in line with existing findings with children (Şekercioğlu, 2009). In terms of physical appearance, mothers of boys perceived their children's competence beliefs better than the mothers of girls, as consistent with the results of Harter (2012). Therefore, even though there was no exact match for the gender differences in children's competence beliefs in this study, it could be asserted that the mothers' perception of gender differences was consistent with the previous studies.

Furthermore, the children's self-perception differed only in behavioral conduct, in which girls reported themselves more competent similar to their mothers' perception and consistent with the previous findings (Harter, 2012; Van den Bergh & Marcoen, 1999). It was suggested that girls perceived themselves as well-behaved which could be explained as the girls might attribute the gender stereotypes and societal expectations to their characteristics (Van den Bergh & Marcoen, 1999). The societal expectations may let girls to be more well-behaved, good, mannerly and

polite, thus the only gender difference in behavioral conduct beliefs can be explained by internalization of these attitudes.

In the previous studies, the gender differences were quite obvious compared to this study. For example, Harter (2012) revealed that the girls perceived themselves more behaviorally competent whereas boys perceived themselves more competent in terms of athletics, appearance and self-worth. On the other hand, in the Turkish adaptation study, it was found that girls perceived themselves more competent in scholastic competence, behavioral conduct and self-worth while the boys perceived themselves better only in athletic competence, however, since the effect size of these difference was relatively small, their practical significance was questioned and reported as not significant (Şekercioğlu, 2009). Also in a French sample, the boys had higher scores in their perception of their athletic competence than the girls (Bois, Sarrazin, Brustad, Trouilloud, & Cury, 2002). In a Belgian sample, the boys reported higher scores in their social and athletic skills, appearance and self-worth, whereas the girls perceived themselves more behaviorally competent (Van den Bergh & Marcoen, 1999). However, these results was not supported by this study.

5.1.3 The relationship between gender stereotypes and self-perception

In this study, it was found that the mothers' gender stereotypes were negatively associated with their perception of their children's perceived competence beliefs in five areas, namely scholastic competence, social competence, physical appearance, behavioral conduct, and global self-worth. Even though the relationship between these variables are weak, it is possible to say that as the gender stereotypes that mothers held got stronger, their perception of their children's competence got worse, indicating that the mothers' gender stereotypes had a negative influence on how they

perceived their children. Only in the athletic competence area, it was also found that the mothers' gender stereotypes were not associated with mothers' perception of their children's athletic competence. Similarly, in a previous study, it was also found that the predictors of mothers' perceptions of their children's athletic competence were children's previous sports performance and children's self-perception, indicating that for that sample, mothers' perception of their children's athletic competence was based on a more objective criterion such as children's performance (Bois et al., 2002). Therefore, there might be no relationship between mothers' gender stereotypes and their perception of their children's sports competence. On the other hand, the only area that the boys' gender stereotypes and their athletic competence beliefs was positively related, but not the girls'. In a previous study, children's gender predicted their higher athletic competence beliefs (Jacobs & Eccles, 1992). In a different study, the adolescent boys showed higher gender stereotypes endorsement for sports as a male area in terms of ability and given importance compared to girls (Boiché et al., 2014).

Since the mothers' gender stereotypes was associated with how they perceive their children in five areas, it could be mentioned that mothers' might hold gender different expectations for their daughters and sons, in turn this might have influence on how they perceive their children's competence.

On the contrary to the mothers' results, children's gender stereotypes were related with children's perceived competence beliefs, only in one field, namely athletic competence. However, it is possible to observe that there is a more consistent relationship between mothers' gender stereotypes and how they perceive their children in five different areas, whereas children's gender stereotypes and their self-perception were only associated in one area.

There was a relationship between mothers' gender stereotypes and children's self-perception in only one area, namely children's social competence. In that sense, as the mothers' gender stereotypes scores increased, the children's own social competence was got worse. In a previous study, it was found that the mothers' gender stereotypes regarding the children's ability in social areas did not have an influence on children's social competence (Jacobs & Eccles, 1992). However, this study showed a negative association between these two variables which might be result of cultural differences as well. The previous studies suggested that the parents in other cultures believed that the girls to socially be more competent (Jacobs & Eccles, 1992) which could be different in Turkey.

5.2 Discussion in relation to research questions

5.2.1 Children's gender stereotypes as an outcome variable

R.Q.1 To what extent, do mothers' gender stereotypes and gender of the child predict children's gender stereotypes?

a. Does the interaction between these two variables predict children's gender stereotypes?

In this study, in the multiple regression analysis of children's gender stereotypes, at stage one, the control variables were data collection procedure, children's age, type of school and maternal education. In this analysis, the children's SPA was not included in the control variables due to its irrelevance to children's gender stereotypes. Since in children's gender stereotypes there was a difference between

data collected from home visits and through school, data collection procedure was used as a control variable in which it was significant. In addition, the mothers' education level was found to be significant. Also, in preliminary analysis, it was found that mothers' education level was negatively related to their own and their children's gender stereotypes. As the mothers' education level decreased, the gender stereotypes become stronger. Similar to our results, in previous studies, it was found that the lower the maternal education, the stronger the gender stereotypes they held (Endendijk et al., 2013; Jan & Janssens, 1998).

The child's age was used as a control variable because in some studies, older children had stronger gender stereotypes (e.g., Schuette & Killen, 2009). However, in a different study, in comparison of gender role attitudes of high school and university students, the college students (with average age 18.73) were found to be less conservative than the high school students (with average age 15.3) (Jackson et al., 1994). Therefore, some studies suggested that as the children grow older, they tend to count more on the society-based gender stereotypes (e.g., Schuette & Killen, 2009); on the other hand, in some other studies, the flexible thinking increases with age leading to less stereotypical thinking (e.g., Jackson et al., 1994). In current study, there were no age differences in gender stereotypes which may be result of the fact that age range was limited.

At second step of the regression analysis, both mothers' gender stereotypes and the child's gender showed unique contribution in the regression analysis after variables controlled in the first step. In a previous study, both parents' explicit and implicit gender stereotypes as predictors, the children's gender stereotypes were only predicted by mothers' implicit gender stereotypes about children (Endendijk et al., 2013). Also, in a different study, children's gender stereotypes were influenced by

mothers' gender stereotypes (Jan & Janssens, 1998). According to the Social-Cognitive Theory, the parents play important role in shaping their children's gender role attitudes in both direct ways such as teaching about the roles, and also indirect ways such as modeling, interacting their differential expectations and so on (Bussey & Bandura, 1999; Leaper, 2002). Therefore, the results supported the premise that their mothers' gender role attitudes have significant influence on their children's attitudes (Bussey & Bandura, 2009; Endendijk et al., 2013).

Apart from that, even though in the preliminary analysis, *t* test value did not show any gender differences in children's gender stereotypes, in the regression analysis, the gender was a predictor in which males had stronger gender stereotypes compared to females. The difference between *t* test and regression analysis could be related to its interaction with the other variables in the regression. This result was well-supported by the previous studies (Park et al., 2012; Schuette & Killen, 2009; Smetackova, 2015; Turner & Gervai, 1995) which suggested that the males have stronger gender role attitudes because they want to preserve their relatively higher status in the society (Leaper, 2002).

It was expected that there would be a stronger relationship between mothers' and daughters' gender stereotypes due to gender as a moderator based on Social-Cognitive Theory, the children model their same-gender parents since they are seen as a model of feminine or masculine behaviors (Bussey & Bandura, 1999). In a previous study, the gender of child played role as a moderator in the relationship between maternal implicit (e.g., a task in which the person is required to categorize the career-related characteristics into women and men within seconds) gender stereotypes and children's gender stereotypes, indicating that the mothers and daughters had stronger association in this relationship compared to mother-son dyads

(Endendijk et al., 2013). On the other hand, in a different study, there was not any significant difference between mother-daughter and mother-son dyads in their gender role attitudes which was explained as the mothers are less conventional in their attitudes and behave more equally towards their children (Kulik, 2002). However, the interaction between gender of the child and mothers' gender stereotypes in predicting children's gender stereotypes was not significant. Since in our country, children's care and nurturance are still primarily considered as the mothers' responsibility, both boys and girls might be equally affected by the mothers similar to the study conducted by Kulik (2002).

5.2.2 Multiple regression analysis for children's self-perception

R.Q.2 To what extent, do mothers' and children's gender stereotypes and mothers' perception of their children's competence beliefs predict children's perceived competence beliefs in six areas, namely scholastic competence, social competence, athletic competence, physical appearance, behavioral conduct and global self-worth?

a. Does gender interact with any of these predictor variables?

5.2.2.1 The control variables

The children's age, gender, maternal education, type of school and children's SPA was entered as control variables at step one. The children's SPA was found to be significant in three areas, namely scholastic competence, behavioral conduct and global self-worth. Apart from that, only children's age was a significant in children's physical appearance and global self-worth beliefs. Mothers' educational level was significant for children's global self-worth beliefs. After controlling all these variables, the mothers' perception of their children in all areas seem to be the most

important predictor in children's perception of themselves.

The children's SPA results could be interpreted as the indicator of actual performance in the scholastic area so, it was indeed expected to explain children's perception of their own competence in scholastic area in line with the previous findings (Frome & Eccles, 1998; Jacobs & Eccles, 1992; Phillips, 1987). According to Jussim (1991), the grades are more likely to reflect teachers' evaluation of performance, rather than a standard test result. For this reason, the teachers could be seen as significant others in children's lives to have an influence on children's perception of themselves.

The children's SPA was found to be a significant contributor to children's behavioral conduct beliefs as well. Since the behavioral conduct was defined as the belief that whether the children behaved as they are supposed to behave (such as following rules etc.), it is also possible that the children having higher SPA were also well-behaved ones and perceived themselves as more behaviorally competent. In a study, it was found that the academically high achiever children in 7th grade had also higher scores in behavioral conduct compared to lower achiever ones (Alves-Martins, Peixoto, Gouveia-Pereira, Amaral, & Pedro, 2002). It was found that in this scale, the two areas that were highly related were scholastic competence and behavioral conduct, indicating the relationship between grades and behavior (Harter, 2012).

For global self-worth beliefs, even if its beta value is relatively small, this result indicates that the effect of grades on the children's general perception of themselves as a person. Previous findings revealed that the scholastic competence beliefs in high school and university predicted the female university students' self-esteem beliefs, indicating the impact of perceiving oneself as academically good

student on global self-esteem beliefs (Richman & Shaffer, 2000). The results of another study demonstrated that when the children in 7th grade had lower academic achievement, they had relatively lower global self-worth. On the other hand, this situation differs in 8th and 9th grades in which the children's self-esteem was not influenced by lower achievement levels, which might be due to changing developmental period, in the earlier years, the grades and perceiving oneself as scholastically more competent might be more important for children's self-esteem compared to teenage years (Alves-Martins et al., 2002). Therefore, it is possible to claim that also along with the results in current study, in the early adolescence period, the grades might still be related with children's global self-worth beliefs.

Children's age significantly predicted both children's physical appearance beliefs and global self-worth beliefs. The effect of age on children's physical appearance indicates that as the children got older, their evaluation of their physical appearance decreased. In a previous study in which the children received Harter's Self-Perception Profile in three years intervals, it was found that their competence beliefs in physical appearance were significantly got worse when they become 11 years old (Granleese & Joseph, 1994). In another study, the results showed that the 4th graders reported higher scores in physical appearance subscale than 5th and 6th graders (Van den Bergh & Marcoen, 1999). By considering the results, it could be asserted that with the increasing age, children's appearance becomes more important as they get more self-conscious due to adolescence period. Also, their age negatively predicted their global self-worth beliefs which could be related to adolescence period. It could be also related to the physical appearance beliefs were the most important predictor of children's global self-worth beliefs (Harter, 1999; Van den Bergh & Marcoen, 1999).

In addition, the maternal education was a significant predictor for children's global self-worth beliefs, indicating that as mothers' educational level increased, the children's global self-worth beliefs got better. This result indicates that mothers' educational level carries importance regarding children's self-esteem beliefs. It might be related to the parenting attitudes and skills which seems to be based on mothers' educational level.

5.2.2.2 Children's scholastic competence as an outcome variable

Among all variables, the only unique contribution to children's perception regarding scholastic competence was children's previous semester point of average (SPA) in the first step and mothers' gender stereotypes and mothers' perception of their children's scholastic competence in the second step. The finding that mothers' perception of their children's scholastic competence predicted the children's scholastic competence beliefs was consistent with the previous studies (Frome & Eccles, 1998; Jacobs, 1991; Jacobs & Eccles, 1992; Phillips, 1987). In a previous study, it was found that the interaction of mothers' gender stereotypes with child's gender had predicted the mothers' perception and in turn, indirectly predicted the children's self-perception, favoring the boys. Therefore, even though the girls had higher grades, the boys had higher ability perception (Jacobs, 1991). However, in this study, there was direct predictive role of children's scholastic competence beliefs. The children's gender stereotypes had no unique contribution to children's scholastic competence. The interaction between gender and mothers' perception of their children's scholastic competence was found to be significant.

It is possible to say that the children's scholastic competence beliefs were more affected by their grades than their mothers' perception of their competence,

even if the difference was small. In the previous studies, mothers' perception was found be more important to predictor than children's previous performance (Frome & Eccles, 1998; Phillips, 1987). Since SPA indicate a general point rather than a single lesson result, it is possible to give children more valid information regarding their competence. Still it could be observed that the mothers' perception of children's scholastic competence was as effective as grades. In addition, since the mothers' gender stereotypes might influence on children's perception beliefs regarding academic area, mothers' attitudes might distort children's self-perception beliefs in this area.

The interaction between mothers' perception and the children's gender was significant, indicating that the mothers' effect on their daughters' scholastic competence beliefs was stronger than on their sons'. In other words, when the mothers' thought that their daughters were competent at school, their daughters' perception of their competence increased more than the mother-son dyads. In a previous study, the mothers' perception of their daughters was more congruent with their daughters' self-perception beliefs which might be result of the fact the mothers have different kind of relationship on their same-gender children (Rouland et al., 2013). It is important to note that the reason why the girls were perceived as more competent could be the actual achievement differences between boys and girls in Turkey. For example, in this study, it was found the girls' mean of SPA results were significantly higher than the boys. Also, according to Annual Education Monitoring Report published by Education Reform Initiative (ERG), the gender differences in Turkish students' achievement were examined based on the results of PISA 2015 and their related variables. According to PISA results, in Turkish literacy, the fifteen-years-old girls had 28 points higher than the boys; however, this difference decreased

to 25 when the children in middle school was excluded. Both of the results were statistically significant. In terms of math literacy, the boys performed five points higher than the girls which was not statistically significant, however once the middle school students were excluded, these differences become nine points and statistically significant. Also, for science literacy, girls performed seven points higher than the boys, again these differences dropped four points when the middle school students were excluded and none of them was statistically significant ("Education Monitoring Report 2016-17", 2017).

In the report, it was also found that the boys received less parental support compared to the girls and they had less conversations with their parents. The girls continued their education in well-disciplined schools in which the school hours were longer. In addition, compared to the boys, the girls were more ambitious, their sense of belonging was greater in schools and they studied more at home. However, the interesting thing was that even though the girls seemed to have all the advantages, they did not turn these advantages into the performance scores as much as the boys ("Education Monitoring Report 2016-17", 2017). Therefore, based on these explanations, the positive effect of familial support on the daughters' perception of their competence at school was also supported by this study. However, PISA 2015 results showed that there is a difference when the middle school students participated into results. Therefore, since this study was conducted with middle school students, this study only partially explains these results. For this reason, it is important to see that the girls received more support from the parents compared to the boys which in turn, might end up with perceiving themselves as more competent.

Even though the mothers indeed observe the achievement differences between girls and boys, their perception of their daughters' and sons' perceived

competence beliefs had a differential influence on children's self-perception. The girls seem to be more positively affected by their mothers' high perceptions of their competence compared to boys. In addition, the girls and boys were differentially affected from mothers' involvement which also seems to be influenced by mothers' different expectations and beliefs regarding their boys and girls. For example, in a previous study, the mothers' involvement had a positive effect on girls' self-evaluation on science, especially mothers' encouragement predicted the girls' higher self-evaluations. On the other hand, the boys' self-evaluation was negatively related with the mothers' involvement in homework support and encouragement. Specifically, these behaviors lowered the boys' self-evaluations on science (Bhanot & Jovanovic, 2009). Therefore, it is possible to see that the girls are more open to and affected by the positive messages from their mothers regarding their scholastic competence compared to the boys. For boys, the encouragement and helping with their homework might have a negative influence on boys' perception of themselves. In that sense, since in Turkey the girls had difficulty in turning advantages into success in the following years based on the Educational Monitoring Report 2016-17 (2017), the mothers' perception of their daughters' competence might help the girls to improve their performance.

5.2.2.3 Children's social competence as an outcome variable

Only mothers' perception of their children's social competence had a unique contribution for the variance of children's social competence. In a previous study, it was found that the children's social competence beliefs were predicted by their mothers' perception of their competence compared to other predictors such as mothers' gender stereotypes and teachers' reports (Jacobs & Eccles, 1992).

Similarly, also in this study, both mothers' gender stereotypes did not yield any contribution.

It is important to take into account that the explanation power of this model was expected to be relatively lower compared to other competence areas because the children use their peers as a source to develop their competence beliefs in social areas rather than their mothers' perception. Also, it was found that the areas of social competence, appearance and sports competence, peers' opinions and appreciation mattered more than the parents' approval (Harter, 1999). In a previous study, the children's perception of their social competence and the parents' ratings on their children's competence did not correlate with each other, suggesting that the parents might have different criteria for social competence than the children and for this reason, their agreement was low (Schneider & Byrne, 1989). In a meta-analysis study, the children's and adolescents' reports on their own social competence and others' reports were compared. It was found that the correlation among children's and parents' reports were higher in childhood, whereas during adolescence, self- and peer-reports were higher in their correspondence (Renk & Phares, 2004), indicating that since the children spend more time with their friends in adolescence period, they might receive more feedback from their peers and/or their peers' opinions could be more important for them in developing their "looking-glass self" (Cooley, 1902; Harter, 1999). Even though this result only shows us the agreement among different sources on children's social competence, it is important to see that as the period in children's lives changes, the actors in their lives beliefs change as well. It shows that in pre-adolescence period, in-between period with the childhood and adolescence, their peers' opinions might start to become as important as their mothers' perception in forming their competence beliefs.

5.2.2.4 Children's athletic competence as an outcome variable

Only mothers' perception of their children's athletic competence significantly contributed in the variation in athletic competence which supports the previous findings showing that the higher the mothers' perception of their children's athletic competence, the higher the children's athletic competence beliefs were even after controlling children's previous athletic competence beliefs and children's previous sports achievement (Bois et al., 2002).

The interaction term between the child's gender and the mothers' gender stereotypes was significant. However, the correlation by gender showed that mothers' gender stereotypes do not have significant relationship with either girls' or boys' athletic competence. Therefore, it was not considered as significant. On the other hand, in a previous study, the children's gender, their mothers' gender stereotypes and the interaction term between mothers' gender stereotypes and children's gender had a direct influence on children's athletic competence. Also, as mothers with strong gender stereotypes favoring boys in sports, boys had higher self-perception in sports which was not supported by this study (Jacobs & Eccles, 1992). Furthermore, even though in this study, gender had no moderator effect on mothers' perception of their children, in another study, the gender was a moderator in the relationship between mothers' perception of their daughters' competence and girls' athletic competence, but not for boys. In that sense, the boys might use other sources of information for their perceived competence beliefs rather than their mothers' perception such as their father, teachers or peers (Bois et al., 2002). Since the other people than their mothers could be an important source, again this model is only partially explained the children's athletic competence.

However, the sports involvement and participation are important for both boys and girls. All children's perceived competence beliefs regarding athletics are especially important since the sports is not compulsory, rather a free time activity. For this reason, if children perceived themselves as highly competent at sports, this might influence their involvement in sports events, clubs and so on. Even though in this study, the past sports performance was not included, the previous studies showed that the children's perception of their sports competence was predominantly predicted by their mothers' perceptions than the previous performance (Bois et al., 2002; Jacobs & Eccles, 1992). Therefore, what their mothers think of the children is quite important for children's sports involvement which has a lot positive effect on their development (Leaper, 2002).

5.2.2.5 Children's physical appearance beliefs as an outcome variable

In physical appearance beliefs, at first step, children's age was only significant variable and at second step, the children's gender stereotypes and mothers' perception of their children's competence beliefs regarding physical appearance had significantly contributed to children's physical appearance beliefs. It was also found that the mothers' perception of their daughters' physical appearance was more strongly associated with the girls' self-perception, compared to the relationship between mothers and sons. Previous study revealed that the satisfaction from girls' own bodies was negatively predicted by the feedback they received from their only mothers, whereas for boys, it was negatively predicted only from the messages from their fathers, indicating that the perceived messages from same-gender parents might play important role on their discontent regarding their body shape (McCabe & Ricciardelli, 2003). In a different study, the more boys invested in their gender

identity, the more they affected from media. Both of these factors predicted boys' desire to be more muscular (Smolak & Stein, 2006).

In addition, the children's own gender stereotypes predicted their competence beliefs in this area. Interestingly, as the children gave more stereotypical responses, their beliefs in their competence in physical appearance area got worse. In further analysis, even though the interaction term between gender and children's gender stereotypes was not significant, the correlation results between children's gender stereotypes and their physical appearance beliefs was differed. There was a negative relationship between them for males, but not for females. These results indicated that the boys were more negatively affected by their own gender stereotypes compared to the girls. This result is especially interesting because it was expected that the societal expectations put more pressure on girls than the boys in terms of physical appearance, however, it might be result of the expectations regarding ideal male body form on the boys' self-perception was often overlooked. Previous study suggested that the perceived societal pressures played a predictor role in body image and strategies for body changes for both adolescent girls and boys. Especially for boys, the messages related to muscle building had an influence on their perception of their body form and the strategies to change their body, showing that the sociocultural messages perceived by boys had an impact on their beliefs regarding their own body (McCabe & Ricciardelli, 2003). Also, for girls, the effect of their gender stereotypes might increase in the adolescence period.

5.2.2.6 Children's behavioral conduct beliefs as an outcome variable

At step 1, children's SPA was the only unique predictor and at step 2, only the mothers' perception of their behavioral conduct was the unique contributor to the

children's self-perception. The explanation power of this 2-step model was relatively higher than the other areas. Behavioral conduct is by definition whether the children behave as they are expected to behave. Therefore, the significant others' opinions, especially mothers about the child might matter more than the other areas. Since children learn what they are supposed to do from their families, the feedback they receive from what they should or should not do is important for them to build their own competence beliefs. For this reason, this model's predictive power might be stronger than the other areas. Also, Harter (1999) presented that the perceived parental support for academic and behavioral area was more important source.

It is the only area that there was gender difference in children's competence beliefs, in which the girls perceived themselves more competent. In the previous studies, it was suggested that since there are more expectations for girls regarding behaving nicely, these societal beliefs might have internalized them (Van den Bergh & Marcoen, 1999). However, on the contrary to expectations, either mothers' or their children's gender stereotypes did not predict the children's behavioral conduct beliefs. There was no similar study to compare this result so to our knowledge, this is the first study in this area. The interaction between gender and children's gender stereotypes was a significant predictor of children's behavioral conduct beliefs. However, in the correlation analysis by gender, the relationship between them was not significant for both boys and girls, so none of the interactions were significant.

5.2.2.7 Children's global self-worth beliefs as an outcome variable

At step 1, three control variables, namely children's age, maternal education, children's SPA were significant and at step 2, mothers' perception of their children's global self-worth beliefs was the only unique contributor. The interaction between

children's gender and children's gender stereotypes was a significant predictor of children's self-worth beliefs. In further analysis, it was found that although the relationship between females' gender stereotypes and their global self-worth beliefs was not significant. For the boys, this relationship was negative and significant, indicating that having strong gender stereotypes had a negative influence on boys' global self-worth beliefs. As in the physical appearance, the boys tend to be more negatively affected by holding gender stereotypes compared to girls.

This study indicates that the children's sense of worth as a person was predicted by how their mothers perceived their sense of worth to some extent. In a previous study, it was suggested that the girls' self-esteem was more responsive to environmental factors than the boys (Brutsaert, 1990). For instance, in a study, the girls' and boys' self-esteem was assessed in three different time periods and also, their emotional support from parents and their sense of internal control. It was found that in early adolescence period, the girls' self-esteem was predicted by the emotional support of their parents, whereas boys' self-esteem was predicted by the sense of internal control they get from their school subjects. However, in middle adolescence period, the predictor of girls' self-esteem became more likely to the boys because it was also predicted by the sense of control (Brutsaert, 1990). Therefore, it is possible to see that over the years, for both boys and girls, the predictor becomes an internal source, rather than an external source such as support from parents. However, as the current study suggested, both boys' and girls' self-worth beliefs predicted by their mothers' perception, indicating that an external source has still influence on children's self-esteem in preadolescence years.

Interestingly, in this study, having stronger gender stereotypes had a negative influence on boys' self-worth beliefs. This situation might be a result of the fact that

holding stronger gender stereotypes puts pressure on boys to preserve their perceived higher status on society which in turn, makes their self-worth beliefs more delicate and responsive to internal threats. For example, in an experimental study, the male participants were given the role of subordinate and superior in the presence of female or male confederate and after that their self-descriptions were implicitly and explicitly assessed in order to observe the flexibility of self-conceptions. It was found that when the men were given a more compliant and lower role, they described themselves in a more traditionally masculine roles in implicit measures, but not the explicit ones. Since the men were given stereotypically feminine role, their masculine self-concepts might be intimidated and therefore, they might feel the need to over-emphasize their masculine characteristics. This study indicates that in response to environmental cues, their self-descriptions has shown differences based on perceived threats to the conventional male roles (McCall & Dasgupta, 2007). This study also indicates that the boys' self-concept beliefs are responsive and affected by the internal factors such as gender stereotypes.

This model had the lowest predictive power for children's global self-worth beliefs among all areas. It might be result of the fact that since these beliefs are more general state than area-based competence beliefs, there might be more different variables contributing as well.

5.3 Limitations of the study and recommendations for further research

In this study, the parents and children's gender stereotypes were assessed through a gender stereotype scale only including academic and non-academic areas. The gender stereotypes scores were calculated as a general score rather than to explaining whether they are favoring the girls or the boys. Therefore, in further studies, in terms

of gender stereotypes, learning about which gender group is favored could give us a more comprehensive picture to understand their effect on children's self-perception. Also, rather assessing general gender stereotype attitudes, both children's and mothers' specific gendered self-concept could be asked which might be higher in its predictive power. Also, gender stereotypes including only girls and boys were assessed, however gender diversity and stereotypes regarding other gender could have been included.

In addition, the indirect effect of mothers' gender stereotypes on children's self-perception through mothers' perception of their children could have been investigated similar to previous studies (Jacobs, 1991; Jacobs & Eccles, 1992).

Furthermore, it could be better compare the effects mothers' actual perception of their children and the children's opinions of their mothers' perception on the children's self-perception beliefs. Even though in previous studies, it was suggested that only mothers' beliefs were more significantly associated with the children's perception of themselves (Parsons et al., 1982), it would be interesting to include the fathers into the study to understand their influence on children's gender stereotypes and children's self-perception.

Also, in terms of age range, the children between 12 and 14 can be considered as adolescents, therefore, in further studies, only children or only adolescents could be investigated. In recent years, the middle schools were separated into two groups, normal middle schools with mixed-sex education and religious vocational middle schools *(imam hatip ortaokulları)* with single-sex education. It would be interesting to see whether there were any differences in terms of gender stereotypes and self-perception. There were group differences between public and private schools, so that a follow-up study could be done regarding these school type differences.

5.4 Implications of the study

In conclusion, it is possible to observe that the mothers' perceptions of their children's competence beliefs predicted the children's perceived competence beliefs in all six areas, school, social relationships, sports, physical appearance, behavioral conduct and global self-worth. The current views focus more on bidirectional relationship between children and parents rather than a unidirectional effect of parents on children (Maccoby, 2003). Therefore, it is important to point out that the child-parent relationships are not the product of either the parent or the child but mutual and interdependent (Maccoby, 2003).

This study showed that the mothers' perception of their children is actually matters more than other control variables and gender stereotypes both mothers and children hold for their perceived competence beliefs. As counselors, we tend to work only with child to improve their competence beliefs and to help them have more realistic self-perception and boost their self-esteem and overlook the perspectives of parents, especially mothers. Therefore, as an important implication of this study, we need to work with the parents to make their perspectives more realistic for their children almost as much as with the children in order to improve the children's self-perception which in turn might positively impact their functioning.

In addition, the gender stereotypes could have important implications on individuals' lives. Since for counselors, it is important to evaluate a person in one's context, it is especially worth mentioning the gender stereotypes in both society and in the home context that might influence the children's self-perception. For example, as Harter (1999) mentioned that there are different ways to achieve a positive self-regard, one of them is that feeling supported by the important people in their lives

such as their parents, teachers and peers and the other way is feeling competent in some areas that they give importance. Also, it was also suggested that the children might need "scaffolding" to examine the reasons behind the negative perception of themselves and acquire an understanding (Harter, 1999, p. 348). In that sense, the children's relationship with their parents, especially mothers, and received support from them is especially important. Our duty is also to work through parental attitudes that might negatively intervene the children's social-emotional functioning and sense of self-worth. The ultimate aim is to help children not to be engaged with others' views but evaluate themselves through their own values.

5.5 Conclusion

In conclusion, the mothers' educational level, gender stereotypes and child's gender were appeared to be predictors for children's gender stereotypes, indicating that the effect of mothers on children's gender role attitudes. As the Social-Cognitive Theory suggested, the parents play important role in shaping their children's gender role attitudes through direct and indirect ways (Bussey & Bandura, 1999). In addition to this, gender makes difference in terms of holding gender stereotypes, indicating that being a boy and being a girl does not always have the same meaning if there are gender inequalities in a society.

For all six areas of self-perception measured by Harter's scale, the most significant contributor was mothers' perception of their children in that particular area, indicating that mothers play such an important role in children's self-perception. The symbolic interactionist and social developmental perspective suggested that the children's perceived support from their parents played a role in their developing self-perception (Brummelman & Thomaes, 2017; Harter, 1999;

Harter, 2012). Therefore, it is already expected that the perceived appreciation from parents is significant in children's creation of their sense of self, but what do the parents actually think of their children was also a predictor of children's self-perception. This is also in line with the previous findings that the parents' perception of their children's competence was the strongest predictor in their children's self-perception that even surpass the actual performance (Frome & Eccles, 1998; Parsons et al., 1982; Phillips, 1987). In adolescence period, the effect of parents is expected to decrease since the peers gain importance in children's lives, especially in terms of sports, social skills and appearance (Harter, 1999). However, the current study suggests that the mothers still have an important role in children's lives during adolescence, even in the areas that are primarily concern of children's own social lives, supporting the "looking-glass-self" view and social developmental perspective (Brummelman & Thomaes, 2017; Cooley, 1902; Harter, 1999). But also, this situation could be related to interdependent familial relationships of Turkish culture due to the interdependent familial relationships because it was expected the influence of mothers is expected to decrease in preadolescence period.

APPENDIX A

GENDER STEREOTYPES QUESTIONNAIRE

MOTHER AND CHILD FORM

1. In the following, the children's courses in school, the activities that they participate in sports and fine arts and also, their social relationships with their peers were listed. In these various courses and activities, the achievement of girls and boys may be similar and different. Please put an *X* in the box of which gender is more talented in these areas.

	Girls 	Boys 	Both 
Mathematics			
Computer/Technology			
Science (Physics, chemistry, biology)			
Social Sciences (History, geography)			
Literacy (Turkish, grammar)			
Language arts (English, German)			
Dance/Traditional Turkish dance			
Martial arts (Taekwondo, karate)			
Team sports (Football, volleyball)			
Individual sports (Tennis, swimming)			
Fine arts (Paintings, music)			
Making friends			
Sustaining friends			
Being popular			

2. Please put an *X* for which gender these courses and activities are more useful after graduation or starting to work.

	Girls 	Boys 	Both 
Mathematics			
Computer/Technology			
Science (Physics, chemistry, biology)			
Social Sciences (History, geography)			
Literacy (Turkish, grammar)			
Language arts (English, German)			
Dance/Traditional Turkish dance			
Martial arts (Taekwondo, karate)			
Team sports (Football, volleyball)			
Individual sports (Tennis, swimming)			
Fine arts (Painting, music)			
Making friends			
Sustaining friends			
Being popular			

APPENDIX B

GENDER STEREOTYPES QUESTIONNAIRE

MOTHER AND CHILD FORM

(TURKISH)

1. Aşağıdaki ölçeğin ilk bölümünde öğrencilerin okuldaki dersleri, spor ile sanat alanında katıldıkları faaliyetler ve akranlarıyla olan sosyal ilişkileri sıralanmıştır. Çeşitli ders ve faaliyetlerde, kız ve erkek öğrencilerin başarı düzeyi benzerlik veya farklılık gösterebilir. Bu belirtilen alanlarda genel olarak hangi cinsiyetten öğrencinin daha yetenekli olduğunu belirtiniz.

	Kız 	Erkek 	Her ikisi de 
Matematik			
Bilgisayar/Teknoloji			
Fen Bilgisi (Fizik, kimya, biyoloji)			
Sosyal Bilgiler (Tarih, coğrafya)			
Dil Bilgisi (Türkçe, dilbilgisi)			
Yabancı dil (İngilizce, Almanca)			
Dans/Folklor			
Dövüş sporları (tekvando, karate)			
Takım sporları (Futbol, voleybol)			
Bireysel sporlar (Tenis, yüzme)			
Sanat (Resim, müzik)			
Arkadaş edinme			
Arkadaşlıklarını sürdürebilme			
Popüler olma			

2. Okuldan mezun olduktan sonra ya da işe başladıktan sonra aşağıdaki ders ve faaliyetlerin hangi cinsiyetten öğrencilerin daha çok işine yarayacağını belirtiniz.

	Kız 	Erkek 	Her ikisi de 
Matematik			
Bilgisayar/Teknoloji			
Fen Bilgisi (Fizik, kimya, biyoloji)			
Sosyal Bilgiler (Tarih, coğrafya)			
Dil Bilgisi (Türkçe, dilbilgisi)			
Yabancı dil (İngilizce, Almanca)			
Dans/Folklor			
Dövüş sporları (tekvando, karate)			
Takım sporları (Futbol, voleybol)			
Bireysel sporlar (Tenis, yüzme)			
Sanat (Resim, müzik)			
Arkadaş edinme			
Arkadaşlıklarını sürdürebilme			
Popüler olma			

APPENDIX C

MOTHERS' PERCEPTION OF THEIR CHILDREN SCALE

We have some sentences here and, as you can see from the top of your sheet where it says "What my child is like", we are interested in your perception of what kind of person your child is like. This is a survey, *not* a test. There are no right or wrong answers.

First, we explain how these questions work. There is a sample question at the top, marked (a). This question talks about two kinds of kids, and we want to know which kids are most like *your child*.

(1) So, what I want you to decide first is whether *your child* is more like the kids on the left side who would rather play outdoors, or whether your child is more like the kids on the right side who would rather watch T.V. Don't mark anything yet, but first decide which kinds of kids are *most like your child*, and go to that side of the sentence.

(2) Now the *second* thing I want you to think about, now that you have decided which kinds of kids are most like your child, is to decide whether that is only *sort of true for your child,* or *really true for your child*.

(3) For each sentence, you only check one box. Sometimes it will be on one side of the page, another time it will be on the other side of the page, but you can only check *one box* for each sentence. You *don't* check both sides, just the *one* side most like your child.

	Really True for my child	Sort of True for my child				Sort of True for my child	Really True for my child
			Sample Sentence				
a.	☐	☐	Some kids would rather play outdoors in their spare time	**BUT**	Other kids would rather watch T.V.	☐	☐
1.	☐	☐	Some kids feel that they are very good at their school work	**BUT**	Other kids worry about whether they can do the school work assigned to them	☐	☐
2.	☐	☐	Some kids find it hard to make friends	**BUT**	Other kids find it pretty easy to make friends	☐	☐
3.	☐	☐	Some kids do very well at all kinds of sports	**BUT**	Other kids don't feel that they are very good when it comes to sports	☐	☐
4.	☐	☐	Some kids are happy with the way they look	**BUT**	Other kids are *not* happy with the way they look	☐	☐
5.	☐	☐	Some kids often do not like the way they behave	**BUT**	Other kids usually like the way they behave	☐	☐
6.	☐	☐	Some kids are often unhappy with themselves	**BUT**	Other kids are pretty pleased with themselves	☐	☐
7.	☐	☐	Some kids feel like they are just as smart as other kids their age	**BUT**	Other kids aren't so sure and wonder if they are as smart	☐	☐
8.	☐	☐	Some kids know how to make classmates like them	**BUT**	Other kids don't know how to make classmates like them	☐	☐
9.	☐	☐	Some kids wish they could be a lot better at sports	**BUT**	Other kids feel they are good enough at sports	☐	☐
10.	☐	☐	Some kids are happy with their height and weight	**BUT**	Other kids wish their height or weight were different	☐	☐
11.	☐	☐	Some kids usually do the right thing	**BUT**	Other kids often don't do the right thing	☐	☐

	Really True for my child	Sort of True for my child				Sort of True for my child	Really True for my child
12.	☐	☐	Some kids don't like the way they are leading their life	**BUT**	Other kids *do* like the way they are leading their life	☐	☐
13.	☐	☐	Some kids are pretty slow in finishing their school work	**BUT**	Other kids can do their school work quickly	☐	☐
14.	☐	☐	Some kids don't have the social skills to make friends	**BUT**	Other kids do have the social skills to make friends	☐	☐
15.	☐	☐	Some kids think they could do well at just about any new sports activity they haven't tried before	**BUT**	Other kids are afraid they might not do well at sports they haven't ever tried	☐	☐
16.	☐	☐	Some kids wish their body was different	**BUT**	Other kids like their body the way it is	☐	☐
17.	☐	☐	Some kids usually act the way they know they are supposed to	**BUT**	Other kids often don't act the way they are supposed to	☐	☐
18.	☐	☐	Some kids are happy with themselves as a person	**BUT**	Other kids are often not happy with themselves	☐	☐
19.	☐	☐	Some kids often forget what they learn	**BUT**	Other kids can remember things easily	☐	☐
20.	☐	☐	Some kids understand how to get peers to accept them	**BUT**	Other kids don't understand how to get peers to accept them	☐	☐
21.	☐	☐	Some kids feel that they are better than others their age at sports	**BUT**	Other kids don't feel they can play as well	☐	☐
22.	☐	☐	Some kids wish their physical appearance (how they look) was different	**BUT**	Other kids like their physical appearance the way it is	☐	☐
23.	☐	☐	Some kids usually get in trouble because of things they do	**BUT**	Other kids usually don't do things that get them in trouble	☐	☐
24.	☐	☐	Some kids like the kind of person they are	**BUT**	Other kids often wish they were someone else	☐	☐

	Really True for my child	Sort of True for my child				Sort of True for my child	Really True for my child
25.	☐	☐	Some kids do very well at their classwork	**BUT**	Other kids don't do very well at their classwork	☐	☐
26.	☐	☐	Some kids wish they knew how to make more friends	**BUT**	Other kids know how to make as many friends as they want	☐	☐
27.	☐	☐	In games and sports some kids usually watch instead of play	**BUT**	Other kids usually play rather than just watch	☐	☐
28.	☐	☐	Some kids wish something about their face or hair looked different	**BUT**	Other kids like their face and hair the way they are	☐	☐
29.	☐	☐	Some kids do things they know they shouldn't do	**BUT**	Other kids hardly ever do things they know they shouldn't do	☐	☐
30.	☐	☐	Some kids are very happy being the way they are	**BUT**	Other kids wish they were different	☐	☐
31.	☐	☐	Some kids have trouble figuring out the answers in school	**BUT**	Other kids almost always can figure out the answers	☐	☐
32.	☐	☐	Some kids know how to become popular	**BUT**	Other kids do not know how to become popular	☐	☐
33.	☐	☐	Some kids don't do well at new outdoor games	**BUT**	Other kids are good at new games right away	☐	☐
34.	☐	☐	Some kids think that they are good looking	**BUT**	Other kids think that they are not very good looking	☐	☐
35.	☐	☐	Some kids behave themselves very well	**BUT**	Other kids often find it hard to behave themselves	☐	☐
36.	☐	☐	Some kids are not very happy with the way they do a lot of things	**BUT**	Other kids think the way they do things is fine	☐	☐

APPENDIX D

MOTHERS' PERCEPTION OF THEIR CHILDREN SCALE

(TURKISH)

Burada bazı cümleler bulunmakta ve ilk sayfanın başında görebileceğiniz gibi "Çocuğunuz Nasıl Biri?" yazıyor. Bu soru ile kastettiğimiz şey, çocuğunuzu nasıl biri olarak algıladığınızdır. Bu bir taramadır, test değildir. Burada doğru ya da yanlış cevap yoktur.

Öncelikle bu cümlelerin nasıl cevaplandırılması gerektiğini açıklayalım. Burada, baş tarafta, (a) ile işaretlenmiş olan örnek bir cümle bulunmakta. Bu cümle iki tür çocuktan bahsediyor ve biz hangi çocuğun sizin çocuğunuza benzediğini öğrenmek istiyoruz.

(1) Şimdi öncelikle çocuğunuzun "daha çok dışarıda oynamayı tercih eden sol taraftaki çocuğa mı" yoksa "daha çok televizyon izlemeyi tercih eden sağ taraftaki çocuğa mı" benzediğine karar vermenizi istiyorum. Henüz bir şey işaretlemeyin. Önce hangi taraftaki çocuğa daha çok benzediğinize karar verin ve sonra o taraftaki cümleye gidin.

(2) Şimdi, ikinci işlem olarak, hangi tür çocuğa daha çok benzediğiyle ilgili olarak bunun çocuğunuz için "kısmen mi doğru olduğuna" yoksa "tamamen mi doğru olduğuna" karar vermenizi istiyorum.

(3) Her bir cümle için yalnızca bir kareyi işaretleyiniz. İşaretlemeleriniz bazen sayfanın bir tarafında, bazense sayfanın diğer tarafında olacak. Ancak her bir cümle için yalnızca bir kareyi işaretleyebilirsiniz. Her iki tarafı da işaretlemeyin, sadece size benzeyen tarafı işaretleyin.

	Çocuğuma Tamamen Uygun	Çocuğuma Kısmen Uygun				Çocuğuma Kısmen Uygun	Çocuğuma Tamamen Uygun
ÖRNEK CÜMLE							
(a)	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, boş zamanlarında dışarıda (sokakta) oynamayı tercih ederler	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, televizyon izlemeyi tercih ederler	☐	☐
1.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, okul etkinliklerinde çok *iyi* olduklarını düşünürler	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, kendilerine verilen okul etkinliklerini yapıp yapamayacakları konusunda *endişelenirler.*	☐	☐
2.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar için arkadaşlık kurmak *zordur*	AMA	Diğer çocuklar için arkadaşlık kurmak oldukça *kolaydır.*	☐	☐
3.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, her türlü sporu çok *iyi* yaparlar	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, konu spora gelince çok iyi olduklarını *düşünmezler.*	☐	☐
4.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, görünüşlerinden *memnundurlar*	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, görünüşlerinden memnun *değillerdir.*	☐	☐
5.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, davranış biçimlerinden çoğu zaman memnun *değillerdir*	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, davranış biçimlerinden genellikle *memnundurlar.*	☐	☐
6.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, çoğu zaman kendilerinden memnun *değillerdir*	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, kendilerinden oldukça *memnundurlar.*	☐	☐
7.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, *yaşıtları kadar akıllı* olduklarını düşünürler	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, yaşıtları kadar akıllı olduklarından emin değillerdir ve akıllı olup olmadıklarını *merak ederler.*	☐	☐

	Çocuğuma Tamamen Uygun	Çocuğuma Kısmen Uygun				Çocuğuma Kısmen Uygun	Çocuğuma Tamamen Uygun
8.	☐	☐	Bazı çocukların *çok sayıda* arkadaşı vardır	AMA	Diğer çocukların pek fazla arkadaşı *yoktur.*	☐	☐
9.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, sporda çok daha iyi (başarılı) olabilmeyi isterler	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, sporda zaten yeterince iyi (başarılı) olduklarını düşünürler.	☐	☐
10.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, boylarından ve kilolarından *memnundurlar*	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, boylarının veya kilolarının *farklı* olmasını isterler.	☐	☐
11.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, genellikle *doğru* olan şeyleri yaparlar	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, çoğu zaman doğru olan şeyleri *yapmazlar.*	☐	☐
12.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, sürdürdükleri yaşam biçiminden memnun *değillerdir*	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, sürdürdükleri yaşam biçiminden *memnundurlar.*	☐	☐
13.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, okul etkinliklerini bitirmekte oldukça *yavaştırlar*	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, okul etkinliklerini *çok çabuk* bitirebilirler.	☐	☐
14.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, daha çok arkadaşının olmasını isterler	AMA	Diğer çocukların zaten istedikleri kadar çok arkadaşı vardır.	☐	☐
15.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, daha önce hiç denemedikleri yeni sporları hemen iyi yapabileceklerini düşünürler	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, daha önce hiç denemedikleri sporları iyi *yapamayacaklarından* çekinirler.	☐	☐
16.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, vücutlarının *farklı* olmasını isterler	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, vücutlarını *olduğu gibi* severler.	☐	☐
17.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, genellikle kendilerinden *beklendiği gibi* davranırlar	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, çoğu zaman kendilerinden beklendiği gibi *davranmazlar.*	☐	☐
18.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, bir birey (kişi) olarak kendilerinden *memnundurlar*	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, çoğu zaman kendilerinden memnun *değillerdir.*	☐	☐
19.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, öğrendikleri şeyleri çoğunlukla *unuturlar*	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, öğrendiklerini *kolayca* hatırlayabilirler.	☐	☐

	Çocuğuma Tamamen Uygun	Çocuğuma Kısmen Uygun				Çocuğuma Kısmen Uygun	Çocuğuma Tamamen Uygun
20.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, yapacakları şeyleri her zaman *çok sayıda* arkadaşı ile birlikte yaparlar	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, yapacakları şeyleri genellikle *yalnız başlarına* yaparlar.	☐	☐
21.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, sporda diğer yaşıtlarından *daha iyi* olduklarını düşünürler	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, yaşıtları kadar iyi oynayabileceklerini *düşünmezler.*	☐	☐
22.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, fiziksel görünüşlerinin (nasıl göründüklerinin) *farklı* olmasını isterler	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, şu andaki fiziksel görünüşlerinden *memnundurlar.*	☐	☐
23.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, yaptıklarından dolayı genellikle başlarını *belaya* sokarlar	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, genellikle başlarını belaya sokacak şeyler *yapmazlar.*	☐	☐
24.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, *kendileri gibi* olmaktan *memnundurlar*	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, çoğunlukla başka biri gibi olmayı isterler.	☐	☐
25.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, sınıf içi etkinliklerde *çok iyidirler*	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, sınıf içi etkinliklerde çok iyi *değillerdir.*	☐	☐
26.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, daha çok sayıda yaşıtı tarafından sevilmek isterler	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, zaten birçok yaşıtının kendilerini *sevdiğini* düşünürler.	☐	☐
27.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, spor yapmak ve oyun oynamak yerine, genellikle kenarda durup *seyrederler*	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, sadece seyretmek yerine genellikle *oynarlar.*	☐	☐
28.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, yüzlerinin veya saçlarının olduğundan *farklı* görünmesini isterler	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, yüzlerini ve saçlarını olduğu *gibi* severler.	☐	☐
29.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, *yapmamaları gereken* şeyleri bildikleri halde yaparlar	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, yapmamaları gerektiğini bildikleri şeyleri *hemen hemen hiç* yapmazlar.	☐	☐
30.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, şu andaki durumlarından çok *mutludurlar*	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, *farklı* olmayı isterler.	☐	☐

	Çocuğuma Tamamen Uygun	Çocuğuma Kısmen Uygun				Çocuğuma Kısmen Uygun	Çocuğuma Tamamen Uygun
31.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, okuldaki sorulara cevap bulmakta *zorluk* çekerler	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, hemen hemen *her zaman* cevapları bulabilirler.	☐	☐
32.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, diğer yaşıtları arasında *popülerdir* (herkesçe tanınır)	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, çok popüler *değillerdir.*	☐	☐
33.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, açık alanlarda oynanan yeni oyunlarda çok iyi *değillerdir*	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, yeni oyunlarda hemen *başarılı* olurlar.	☐	☐
34.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, güzel veya yakışıklı olduklarını düşünürler	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, pek de güzel veya yakışıklı olmadıklarını düşünürler.	☐	☐
35.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, kimse söylemeden nasıl davranmaları gerektiğini çok iyi bilirler	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, nasıl davranmaları gerektiğini bulmakta genellikle zorlanırlar.	☐	☐
36.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, yaptıkları çoğu şeyi yapma şeklinden memnun değillerdir.	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, yaptıkları şeylerin yapılış şeklinin *iyi* olduğunu düşünürler.	☐	☐

APPENDIX E

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FORM FOR MOTHERS

This form is prepared with an aim to gain information regarding your personal and family life, your gender-related opinions, and your perception of your child who participates in this study.

Only your answers will be used in this study and the information you provide will be kept completely confidential. You do not need to provide any information that will disclose your identity, including your name. There is no right or wrong answer to any statement. Express your opinion about each statement.

Thank you for participating in this study.

For the child who participate in this study:

Date of birth: _____

Gender: _____

School:

Public school ____ Private school ____

Grade: ____

How many children do you have? ____

Date of birth of your children:

1. _____
2. _____
3._____
4._____
5. _____

Gender of your children:

1. Female ____ Male ____
2. Female ____ Male ____
3. Female ____ Male ____
4. Female ____ Male ____
5. Female ____ Male ____

Your current marital status: Married ____ Not married ____

Your year of birth: _____

Your husband's year of birth: _____

The school you graduated from:

1 ____ Primary school
2 ____ Middle school
3 ____ High school
4 ____ Vocational collage (2 years)
5 ____ University (4 years)
6 ____ Graduate school
7 ____ Others (please state_____)

The school your husband graduated from:

1 ____ Primary school
2 ____ Middle school
3 ____ High school
4 ____ Vocational collage (2 years)
5 ____ University (4 years)
6 ____ Graduate school
7 ____ Others (please state_____)

Do you work?

1____ Yes, I work.
2 ____ No, I don't.

If yes,

Your job: _____

Since what year do you work? ____

How many hours a week do you work? ____

If no,

If you have worked before, how long have you worked? _____

What is the total monthly income of the family?

1____ Less than 2.000
2 ____ 2.000 - 3.999
3 ____ 4.000 - 5.999
4 ____ 6.000 - 7.999
5 ____ 8.000 - 9.999
6 ____ More than 10.000

Your child's previous semester's point of average: _____

APPENDIX F

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FORM FOR MOTHERS

(TURKISH)

Bu anket yürütülecek olan bir yüksek lisans tezi kapsamında hazırlanmıştır. Sorular, kişisel bilgileriniz, aile hayatınız, cinsiyete bağlı kalıp yargılarınız ve araştırmaya beraber katıldığınız çocuğunuzla ilgili düşüncelerinizle ilgili çeşitli bölümlerden oluşmaktadır.

Bu araştırmada kullanılacak olan sadece cevaplarınızdır ve cevaplarınız tamamıyla gizli kalacaktır. Adınız dahil kimliğinizi belirleyecek bir bilgi vermenize gerek yoktur. Soruların doğru ya da yanlış cevapları yoktur. Cevaplarınızı verirken sadece kendi görüşlerinizi göz önünde bulundurunuz.

Bu araştırmaya katıldığınız için teşekkür ederiz.

Sizinle beraber bu araştırmaya katılan çocuğunuzun;
Doğum tarihi: _____
Cinsiyeti: _____

Okulu:
Devlet okulu ____ Özel okul ____
Sınıfı: ____

Toplam kaç çocuğunuz var? ____
Çocuklarınızın doğum tarihi:
1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

Çocuklarınızın cinsiyeti;
1. Kız ____ Erkek ____
2. Kız ____ Erkek ____
3. Kız ____ Erkek ____
4. Kız ____ Erkek ____
5. Kız ____ Erkek ____

Şu anki medeni durumunuz: Evli ____ Evli değil ____

Sizin doğum yılınız: _____

Eşinizin doğum yılı: _____

En son mezun olduğunuz okul:
1 ____ İlkokul
2 ____ Ortaokul
3 ____ Lise
4 ____ Meslek Yüksek Okulu (2 yıllık)
5 ____ Üniversite (4 yıllık)
6 ____ Lisans Üstü
7 ____ Başka (belirtiniz_____)

Eşinizin en son mezun olduğu okul:
1____ İlkokul
2 ____ Ortaokul
3 ____ Lise
4 ____ Meslek Yüksek Okulu (2 yıllık)
5 ____ Üniversite (4 yıllık)
6 ____ Lisans Üstü
7 ____ Başka (belirtiniz_____)

Şu an çalışıyor musunuz?
1____ Evet ise
2 ____ Hayır ise
Eğer daha önce çalıştıysanız, hangi yıllar arasında çalıştınız? _____

İşiniz: _____

Hangi yıldan beri çalışıyorsunuz? ____

Haftada kaç saat çalışıyorsunuz? ____

Ailenin toplam aylık geliri ne kadardır?
1____ 2.000 ve altı
2 ____ 2.000 - 3.999
3 ____ 4.000 - 5.999
4 ____ 6.000 - 7.999
5 ____ 8.000 - 9.999
6 ____ 10.000 ve üstü

Çocuğunuzun geçen dönem sonu ortalama puanı: _____

APPENDIX G

HOME-CONTEXT RELATED QUESTIONS FOR MOTHERS

In the following, there are some questions regarding your home-context. Please place an X which best describes your present home-context situation.

1. In your house, who takes care of the children? (You can select more than one answer.)

____ Mother

____ Father

____ Other relatives (E.g., grandparents, aunt etc.)

____ Nanny

____ Others (Please state _____)

2. Who is the decision maker about the child involving in this study? (You can select more than one answer.)

____ Only mother

____ Only father

____ Both mothers and fathers

____ Older siblings

____ Other relatives (E.g., grandparents, aunt etc.)

____ Others (Please state _____)

APPENDIX H

HOME-CONTEXT RELATED QUESTIONS FOR MOTHERS

(TURKISH)

Aşağıda ev yaşamınızla ilgili sorular verilmiştir. Kendi ev yaşamınızı düşünerek soruların yanındaki boşluğa X işareti koyunuz.

1. Evinizde çocuğunuzun bakımıyla en çok kim ilgilenir? (Birden fazla seçenek işaretleyebilirsiniz.)

____ Anne
____ Baba
____ Diğer akrabalar (Örn., teyze, hala vb.)
____ Bakıcı
____ Diğer (belirtiniz _____)

2. Bu araştırmaya beraber katıldığınız çocuğunuzla ilgili kararlarda ev içinde en çok kimlerin sözü geçer? (Birden fazla seçenek işaretleyebilirsiniz.)

____ Sadece annenin
____ Sadece babanın
____ Hem annenin hem babanın
____ Kardeşlerin
____ Diğer akrabaların (Örn., anneanne, babaanne, dede vb.)
____ Diğer (belirtiniz _____)

APPENDIX I

SELF-PERCEPTION PROFILE FOR CHILDREN

We have some sentences here and, as you can see from the top of your sheet where it says "What I am like", we are interested in what each of you is like, what kind of a person you are like. This is a survey, *not* a test. There are no right or wrong answers. Since kids are very different from one another, each of you will be putting down something different.

First, let me explain how these questions work. There is a sample question at the top, marked (a). I'll read it out loud and you follow along with me. This question talks about two kinds of kids, and we want to know which kids are most like *you*.
(1) So, what I want you to decide first is whether *you* are more like the kids on the left side who would rather play outdoors, or whether you are more like the kids on the right side who would rather watch T.V. Don't mark anything yet, but first decide which kinds of kids are *most like you*, and go to that side of the sentence.
(2) Now the *second* thing I want you to think about, now that you have decided which kinds of kids are most like you, is to decide whether that is only *sort of true for you,* or *really true for you*. If it's only sort of true, then put an X in the box under Sort of True for me; if it's really true for you, then put an X in that box, under Really True for me.
(3) For each sentence, you only check one box. Sometimes it will be on one side of the page, another time it will be on the other side of the page, but you can only check *one box* for each sentence. You do not check both sides, just the *one* side most like you.

What I Am Like

Name_____ Age____ Birthday _____ ☐ Boy ☐ Girl
Month Day (check one)

	Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
			Sample Sentence				
a.	☐	☐	Some kids would rather play outdoors in their spare time	**BUT**	Other kids would rather watch T.V.	☐	☐
1.	☐	☐	Some kids feel that they are very good at their school work	**BUT**	Other kids worry about whether they can do the school work assigned to them	☐	☐
2.	☐	☐	Some kids find it hard to make friends	**BUT**	Other kids find it pretty easy to make friends	☐	☐
3.	☐	☐	Some kids do very well at all kinds of sports	**BUT**	Other kids don't feel that they are very good when it comes to sports	☐	☐
4.	☐	☐	Some kids are happy with the way they look	**BUT**	Other kids are *not* happy with the way they look	☐	☐
5.	☐	☐	Some kids often do not like the way they behave	**BUT**	Other kids usually like the way they behave	☐	☐
6.	☐	☐	Some kids are often unhappy with themselves	**BUT**	Other kids are pretty pleased with themselves	☐	☐
7.	☐	☐	Some kids feel like they are just as smart as other kids their age	**BUT**	Other kids aren't so sure and wonder if they are as smart	☐	☐
8.	☐	☐	Some kids know how to make classmates like them	**BUT**	Other kids don't know how to make classmates like them	☐	☐
9.	☐	☐	Some kids wish they could be a lot better at sports	**BUT**	Other kids feel they are good enough at sports	☐	☐
10.	☐	☐	Some kids are happy with their height and weight	**BUT**	Other kids wish their height or weight were different	☐	☐
11.	☐	☐	Some kids usually do the right thing	**BUT**	Other kids often don't do the right thing	☐	☐

	Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
12.	☐	☐	Some kids don't like the way they are leading their life	BUT	Other kids *do* like the way they are leading their life	☐	☐
13.	☐	☐	Some kids are pretty slow in finishing their school work	BUT	Other kids can do their school work quickly	☐	☐
14.	☐	☐	Some kids don't have the social skills to make friends	BUT	Other kids do have the social skills to make friends	☐	☐
15.	☐	☐	Some kids think they could do well at just about any new sports activity they haven't tried before	BUT	Other kids are afraid they might not do well at sports they haven't ever tried	☐	☐
16.	☐	☐	Some kids wish their body was different	BUT	Other kids like their body the way it is	☐	☐
17.	☐	☐	Some kids usually act the way they know they are supposed to	BUT	Other kids often don't act the way they are supposed to	☐	☐
18.	☐	☐	Some kids are happy with themselves as a person	BUT	Other kids are often not happy with themselves	☐	☐
19.	☐	☐	Some kids often forget what they learn	BUT	Other kids can remember things easily	☐	☐
20.	☐	☐	Some kids understand how to get peers to accept them	BUT	Other kids don't understand how to get peers to accept them	☐	☐
21.	☐	☐	Some kids feel that they are better than others their age at sports	BUT	Other kids don't feel they can play as well	☐	☐
22.	☐	☐	Some kids wish their physical appearance (how they look) was different	BUT	Other kids like their physical appearance the way it is	☐	☐
23.	☐	☐	Some kids usually get in trouble because of things they do	BUT	Other kids usually don't do things that get them in trouble	☐	☐
24.	☐	☐	Some kids like the kind of person they are	BUT	Other kids often wish they were someone else	☐	☐

	Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
25.	☐	☐	Some kids do very well at their classwork	BUT	Other kids don't do very well at their classwork	☐	☐
26.	☐	☐	Some kids wish they knew how to make more friends	BUT	Other kids know how to make as many friends as they want	☐	☐
27.	☐	☐	In games and sports some kids usually watch instead of play	BUT	Other kids usually play rather than just watch	☐	☐
28.	☐	☐	Some kids wish something about their face or hair looked different	BUT	Other kids like their face and hair the way they are	☐	☐
29.	☐	☐	Some kids do things they know they shouldn't do	BUT	Other kids hardly ever do things they know they shouldn't do	☐	☐
30.	☐	☐	Some kids are very happy being the way they are	BUT	Other kids wish they were different	☐	☐
31.	☐	☐	Some kids have trouble figuring out the answers in school	BUT	Other kids almost always can figure out the answers	☐	☐
32.	☐	☐	Some kids know how to become popular	BUT	Other kids do not know how to become popular	☐	☐
33.	☐	☐	Some kids don't do well at new outdoor games	BUT	Other kids are good at new games right away	☐	☐
34.	☐	☐	Some kids think that they are good looking	BUT	Other kids think that they are not very good looking	☐	☐
35.	☐	☐	Some kids behave themselves very well	BUT	Other kids often find it hard to behave themselves	☐	☐
36.	☐	☐	Some kids are not very happy with the way they do a lot of things	BUT	Other kids think the way they do things is fine	☐	☐

APPENDIX J

SELF-PERCEPTION PROFILE FOR CHILDREN

(TURKISH)

Burada bazı cümleler bulunmakta ve ilk sayfanın başında görebileceğiniz gibi "Ben Kimim" yazıyor. Bu soru ile kastettiğimiz şey her birimizin kim olduğu veya ne tür bir kişi olduğunuzdur. Bu bir taramadır, test değildir. Burada doğru ya da yanlış cevap yoktur. Her çocuk, bir diğerinden farklı olduğu için, cümlelere her birinizin farklı cevaplar vermesi doğaldır.

Öncelikle bu cümlelerin nasıl cevaplandırılması gerektiğini açıklayalım. Burada, baş tarafta, (a) ile işaretlenmiş olan örnek bir cümle bulunmakta. Bu cümleyi yüksek sesle okuyacağım. Lütfen benimle birlikte takip edin. Bu cümle iki tür çocuktan bahsediyor ve biz hangi çocuğun size benzediğini öğrenmek istiyoruz.

(1) Şimdi öncelikle "daha çok dışarıda oynamayı tercih eden sol taraftaki çocuğa mı" yoksa "daha çok televizyon izlemeyi tercih eden sağ taraftaki çocuğa mı" benzediğinize karar vermenizi istiyorum. Henüz bir şey işaretlemeyin. Önce hangi taraftaki çocuğa daha çok benzediğinize karar verin ve sonra o taraftaki cümleye gidin.

(2) Şimdi, ikinci işlem olarak, hangi tür çocuğa daha çok benzediğinizle ilgili olarak bunun sizin için "kısmen mi doğru olduğu" yoksa "tamamen mi/gerçekten mi sizin için doğru olduğuna karar vermenizi istiyorum.

(3) Her bir cümle için yalnızca bir kareyi işaretleyiniz. İşaretlemeleriniz bazen sayfanın bir tarafında, bazense sayfanın diğer tarafında olacak. Ancak her bir cümle için yalnızca bir kareyi işaretleyebilirsiniz. Her iki tarafı da işaretlemeyin, sadece size benzeyen tarafı işaretleyin.

	Bana Tamamen Uygun	Bana Kısmen Uygun				Bana Kısmen Uygun	Bana Tamamen Uygun
ÖRNEK CÜMLE							
(a)	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, boş zamanlarında dışarıda (sokakta) oynamayı tercih ederler	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, televizyon izlemeyi tercih ederler	☐	☐
1.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, okul etkinliklerinde çok *iyi* olduklarını düşünürler	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, kendilerine verilen okul etkinliklerini yapıp yapamayacakları konusunda *endişelenirler*.	☐	☐
2.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar için arkadaşlık kurmak *zordur*	AMA	Diğer çocuklar için arkadaşlık kurmak oldukça *kolaydır*.	☐	☐
3.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, her türlü sporu çok *iyi* yaparlar	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, konu spora gelince çok iyi olduklarını *düşünmezler*.	☐	☐
4.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, görünüşlerinden *memnundurlar*	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, görünüşlerinden memnun *değillerdir*.	☐	☐
5.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, davranış biçimlerinden çoğu zaman memnun *değillerdir*	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, davranış biçimlerinden genellikle *memnundurlar*.	☐	☐
6.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, çoğu zaman kendilerinden memnun *değillerdir*	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, kendilerinden oldukça *memnundurlar*.	☐	☐
7.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, *yaşıtları kadar akıllı* olduklarını düşünürler	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, yaşıtları kadar akıllı olduklarından emin değillerdir ve akıllı olup olmadıklarını *merak ederler*.	☐	☐

	Bana Tamamen Uygun	Bana Kısmen Uygun				Bana Kısmen Uygun	Bana Tamamen Uygun
8.	☐	☐	Bazı çocukların *çok sayıda* arkadaşı vardır	AMA	Diğer çocukların pek fazla arkadaşı *yoktur*.	☐	☐
9.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, sporda çok daha iyi (başarılı) olabilmeyi isterler	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, sporda zaten yeterince iyi (başarılı) olduklarını düşünürler.	☐	☐
10.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, boylarından ve kilolarından *memnundurlar*	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, boylarının veya kilolarının *farklı* olmasını isterler.	☐	☐
11.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, genellikle *doğru* olan şeyleri yaparlar	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, çoğu zaman doğru olan şeyleri *yapmazlar*.	☐	☐
12.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, sürdürdükleri yaşam biçiminden memnun *değillerdir*	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, sürdürdükleri yaşam biçiminden *memnundurlar*.	☐	☐
13.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, okul etkinliklerini bitirmekte oldukça *yavaştırlar*	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, okul etkinliklerini *çok çabuk* bitirebilirler.	☐	☐
14.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, daha çok arkadaşının olmasını isterler	AMA	Diğer çocukların zaten istedikleri kadar çok arkadaşı vardır.	☐	☐
15.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, daha önce hiç denemedikleri yeni sporları hemen iyi yapabileceklerini düşünürler	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, daha önce hiç denemedikleri sporları iyi *yapamayacaklarından* çekinirler.	☐	☐
16.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, vücutlarının *farklı* olmasını isterler	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, vücutlarını *olduğu gibi* severler.	☐	☐
17.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, genellikle kendilerinden *beklendiği gibi* davranırlar	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, çoğu zaman kendilerinden beklendiği gibi *davranmazlar*.	☐	☐
18.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, bir birey (kişi) olarak kendilerinden *memnundurlar*	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, çoğu zaman kendilerinden memnun *değillerdir*.	☐	☐
19.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, öğrendikleri şeyleri çoğunlukla *unuturlar*	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, öğrendiklerini *kolayca* hatırlayabilirler.	☐	☐

	Bana Tamamen Uygun	Bana Kısmen Uygun				Bana Kısmen Uygun	Bana Tamamen Uygun
20.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, yapacakları şeyleri her zaman *çok sayıda* arkadaşı ile birlikte yaparlar	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, yapacakları şeyleri genellikle *yalnız başlarına* yaparlar.	☐	☐
21.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, sporda diğer yaşıtlarından *daha iyi* olduklarını düşünürler	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, yaşıtları kadar iyi oynayabileceklerini *düşünmezler*.	☐	☐
22.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, fiziksel görünüşlerinin (nasıl göründüklerinin) *farklı* olmasını isterler	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, şu andaki fiziksel görünüşlerinden *memnundurlar*.	☐	☐
23.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, yaptıklarından dolayı genellikle başlarını *belaya* sokarlar	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, genellikle başlarını belaya sokacak şeyler *yapmazlar*.	☐	☐
24.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, *kendileri gibi* olmaktan *memnundurlar*	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, çoğunlukla başka biri gibi olmayı isterler.	☐	☐
25.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, sınıf içi etkinliklerde *çok iyidirler*	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, sınıf içi etkinliklerde çok iyi *değillerdir*.	☐	☐
26.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, daha çok sayıda yaşıtı tarafından sevilmek isterler	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, zaten birçok yaşıtının kendilerini *sevdiğini* düşünürler.	☐	☐
27.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, spor yapmak ve oyun oynamak yerine, genellikle kenarda durup *seyrederler*	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, sadece seyretmek yerine genellikle *oynarlar*.	☐	☐
28.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, yüzlerinin veya saçlarının olduğundan *farklı* görünmesini isterler	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, yüzlerini ve saçlarını olduğu *gibi* severler.	☐	☐
29.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, *yapmamaları gereken* şeyleri bildikleri halde yaparlar	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, yapmamaları gerektiğini bildikleri şeyleri *hemen hemen hiç* yapmazlar.	☐	☐
30.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, şu andaki durumlarından çok *mutludurlar*	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, *farklı* olmayı isterler.	☐	☐

	Bana Tamamen Uygun	Bana Kısmen Uygun				Bana Kısmen Uygun	Bana Tamamen Uygun
31.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, okuldaki sorulara cevap bulmakta *zorluk* çekerler	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, hemen hemen *her zaman* cevapları bulabilirler.	☐	☐
32.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, diğer yaşıtları arasında *popülerdir* (herkesçe tanınır)	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, çok popüler *değillerdir*.	☐	☐
33.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, açık alanlarda oynanan yeni oyunlarda çok iyi *değillerdir*	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, yeni oyunlarda hemen *başarılı* olurlar.	☐	☐
34.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, güzel veya yakışıklı olduklarını düşünürler	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, pek de güzel veya yakışıklı olmadıklarını düşünürler.	☐	☐
35.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, kimse söylemeden nasıl davranmaları gerektiğini çok iyi bilirler	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, nasıl davranmaları gerektiğini bulmakta genellikle zorlanırlar.	☐	☐
36.	☐	☐	Bazı çocuklar, yaptıkları çoğu şeyi yapma şeklinden memnun değillerdir.	AMA	Diğer çocuklar, yaptıkları şeylerin yapılış şeklinin *iyi* olduğunu düşünürler.	☐	☐

APPENDIX K

HOME-CONTEXT RELATED QUESTIONS FOR CHILDREN

In the following, there are some questions regarding you and your family. Please place an X which best describes your present home-context situation.

1. In your house, who takes care of you and your siblings? (You can select more than one answer.)

____ Mother

____ Father

____ Other relatives (E.g., grandparents, aunt etc.)

____ Nanny

____ Others (Please state _____)

2. In your house, who makes the decisions about you and your siblings? (You can select more than one answer.)

____ Only mother

____ Only father

____ Both mothers and fathers

____ Older siblings

____ Other relatives (E.g., grandparents, aunt etc.)

____ Others (Please state _____)

APPENDIX L

HOME-CONTEXT RELATED QUESTIONS FOR CHILDREN

(TURKISH)

Aşağıda seninle ve ailenle ilgili bazı sorular verilmiştir. Soruların yanlarında gördüğün boşluğa X işareti koyarak cevaplayabilirsin.

1. Evinizde senin ve kardeşlerinin bakımıyla en çok kim ilgilenir? (Birden fazla seçenek işaretleyebilirsin.)

____ Anne
____ Baba
____ Diğer akrabalar (Örn., anneanne, dede, hala vb.)
____ Bakıcı
____ Diğer (belirtiniz _____)

2. Evinizde seninle ve kardeşlerinle ilgili kararlar verilirken en çok kimlerin sözü geçer? (Birden fazla seçenek işaretleyebilirsin.)

____ Sadece annenin
____ Sadece babanın
____ Hem annenin hem babanın
____ Kardeşlerin
____ Diğer akrabaların (Örn., anneanne, dede, hala vb.)
____ Diğer (belirtiniz _____)

APPENDIX M

INFORMED CONSENT

The institution supporting for this study: Boğaziçi Üniversitesi
The name of the study: Gender Stereotypes and Middle-School Children's Self-Perception: A Comparison of Mothers' and Children's Reports
Project Coordinator: Assist. Prof. Nihal Yeniad & Assist. Prof. Bengü Börkan
E-mail address: nihal.yeniad@boun.edu.tr & bengu.borkan@boun.edu.tr
Telephone: 0212 359 65 74 & 0212 359 46 14
The name of the researcher: Elif Özen
E-mail address: ozenelif@ymail.com
Telephone: 0534 513 74 47

Dear Parents,

A study called Gender Stereotypes and Middle-School Children's Self-Perception: A Comparison of Mothers' and Children's Reports is conducted by Elif Özen, a Master's student in the Guidance and Psychological Counseling Program at Boğaziçi University under the supervision of Assist. Prof. Nihal Yeniad and Assist. Prof. Bengü Börkan. In this study, the relationship between mothers' and children's gender stereotypes, mothers' perception of their children and children's self-perception is investigated.

We need your participation to carry out this study. This study attempts to understand the factors influencing children's self-perception and, in particular the role of mothers in this perception. Thus, this study might improve our understanding of the children's self-perception and so, might help them to develop their sense of competence. If you agree to participate in this study, you and your child will fill out a questionnaire. It was consisted of questions regarding you and your home-context (e.g., demographic information), your perception of your children and your beliefs regarding girls and boys. The scales take approximately 15 minutes. With your approval, your children will be asked for their consent. Through this approval, your children will asked to fill out a similar questionnaire.

This study is conducted for completely scientific reasons and the information you provide will be kept completely confidential. In order to match your and your children's questionnaires, an ID number will be given. All the questionnaires will be collected in a locked cabinet and will be destroyed after the study is finalized.

Your participation in this study depends completely on your own volition. We will not pay you in the end. This questionnaire does not contain any personal inconveniences. You and your child may decide to withdraw from this study at any point.

For further questions related to this study, you may contact Assist. Prof. Nihal Yeniad (Telephone: 0212 359 69 02, Address: Boğaziçi University, Faculty of

Education, 34342 Bebek, İstanbul). If you agree to participate in this research, please sign this form and return it to school in a closed envelope through your child's help.

I, (name of the participant), ..., have read this form, and understood the scope and requirements of this study. I am fully aware of my right to ask any question. I understand that my child and I withdraw from this study at any point. I agree that the information I provide will be used for educational purposes.

I voluntarily agree to participate and agree my child to participate in these conditions without any pressure or coercion.

I do not want to take or I take a copy of this form (in this case the researcher keeps this copy).

Mothers' ID: .....
Signature: .....
Date: ...../...../.....

Child's ID: .....
Signature: .....
Date: ...../...../.....

Name and Surname of the Researcher: Elif Özen
Signature: .....
Date: ...../...../.....

APPENDIX N

INFORMED CONSENT

(TURKISH)

Araştırmayı destekleyen kurum: Boğaziçi Üniversitesi
Araştırmanın adı: Ortaokulda Cinsiyetçi Kalıp Yargılar ve Benlik Algısı: Anne ve Çocukların Bildirimlerinin Karşılaştırılması
Proje Yürütücüsü: Yrd. Doç. Dr. Nihal Yeniad & Yrd. Doç. Dr. Bengü Börkan
E-mail adresi: nihal.yeniad@boun.edu.tr & bengu.borkan@boun.edu.tr
Telefonu: 0212 359 65 74 & 0212 359 46 14
Araştırmacının adı: Elif Özen
E-mail adresi: ozenelif@ymail.com
Telefonu: 0534 513 74 47

Sayın Veli,

Boğaziçi Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri bölümü öğretim üyesi Yrd. Doç. Dr. Nihal Yeniad ve Yrd. Doç. Dr. Bengü Börkan gözetiminde yüksek lisans öğrencilerinden Elif Özen, "Ortaokulda Cinsiyetçi Kalıp Yargılar ve Benlik Algısı: Anne ve Çocukların Bildirimlerinin Karşılaştırılması" isimli bilimsel bir araştırma projesi yürütmektedir. Bu çalışmada annelerin ve çocuklarının kız ve erkek öğrencilere dair inanışlarının, annelerin çocuklarını nasıl algıladığı ve çocukların benlik algıları arasındaki ilişki incelenecektir.

Bu araştırmada bize yardımcı olmanız araştırmanın gerçekleştirilmesi için elzemdir. Bu çalışmayla çocukların benlik algılarını etkileyen faktörler ve özellikle de annelerin bu algıdaki rolü anlaşılmaya çalışılacaktır. Bu sayede çocuklarımızı daha iyi anlamamız ve onlara kendi yeterlilik algılarını geliştirmeleri için yardımcı olmamızı sağlayabileceği düşünülmektedir. Bu araştırmaya katılmayı kabul ettiğiniz takdirde, sizden ve çocuğunuzdan bir anket doldurmanızı rica edeceğiz. Bu ankette, sizin hakkınızda olan ev yaşamınız (örn., demografik bilgiler) ve çocuğunuzun benlik algısına dair düşüncelerinizin yanı sıra kız ver erkek öğrencilerin farklı alanlardaki yeteneklerine dair görüşleriniz hakkında sorular bulunmaktadır. Bu anketi doldurmak en fazla 15 dakikanızı alacaktır. Sizden gelen onayla birlikte çocuğunuzdan da araştırmaya katılımına dair onayı alınacaktır. Alınan onayla beraber, çocuğunuza sizin doldurduğunuz anketlerin benzeri anketler uygulanacaktır.

Bu araştırma bilimsel bir amaçla yapılmaktadır ve katılımcı bilgilerinin gizliliği esas tutulmaktadır. Anketlerde sizin ve çocuğunuzun anketlerini eşleştirebilmemiz amacıyla isimleriniz yerine bir ID numarası kullanılacaktır. Anketlerin tamamı araştırma projemiz süresince kilitli bir dolapta muhafaza edilip araştırma sona erdiğinde yok edileceklerdir.

Çalışmaya katılım gönüllülük esasına dayalıdır. Katılımız karşılığında size bir ödeme yapılmayacaktır. Yapılacak uygulama kişisel rahatsızlık verecek soruları

içermemektedir. Fakat siz ve çocuğunuz kendinizi rahatsız hissetmeniz durumunda uygulamayı yarıda bırakma hakkına sahipsiniz.

Araştırma projesi hakkında daha fazla bilgi almak istediğiniz takdirde lütfen Boğaziçi Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü Öğretim Üyesi Yrd. Doç. Dr. Nihal Yeniad ile temasa geçiniz (Telefon: 0212 359 65 74, Adres: Boğaziçi Üniversitesi, Eğitim Fakültesi, 34342 Bebek, İstanbul). Eğer bu araştırma projesine katılmasını kabul ediyorsanız, lütfen bu formu imzalayıp kapalı bir zarf içerisinde bize çocuğunuz yardımıyla geri yollayın.

Ben, (katılımcının adı) ....., yukarıdaki metni okudum ve katılmam istenen çalışmanın ne amaçla yapıldığını ve kapsamının ne olduğunu, gönüllü olarak yapmam beklenenleri tamamen anladım. Çalışma hakkında soru sorma imkânım olduğunun farkındayım. Bu çalışmayı, ben ve çocuğum istediğimiz zaman ve herhangi bir neden belirtmek zorunda kalmadan bırakabileceğimizi ve bıraktığımız takdirde herhangi bir olumsuzluk ile karşılaşmayacağımızı anladım. Verdiğim bilgilerin eğitim amaçlı kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum.

Bu koşullarda söz konusu araştırmaya gönüllü olarak, hiçbir baskı ve zorlama olmaksızın katılmayı ve çocuğumun katılmasını kabul ediyorum.

Formun bir örneğini aldım / almak istemiyorum (bu durumda araştırmacı bu kopyayı saklar).
Veli Kodu: .....
İmzası: .....
Tarih: ...../...../.....

Çocuk Kodu: .....
İmzası: .....
Tarih: ...../...../.....

Araştırmacının Adı-Soyadı: Elif Özen
İmza: .....
Tarih: ...../...../.....

APPENDIX O

ETHICS COMMITTEE APPROVAL

T.C.
BOĞAZİÇİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ
İnsan Araştırmaları Kurumsal Değerlendirme Alt Kurulu

Sayı:09 - 2017

3 Mart 2017

Elif Özen

Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü

Sayın Araştırmacı,

"Ortaokulda Cinsiyete Bağlı Kalıp Yargıların Yeterlilik Algısı Üzerindeki Etkisi: Anne ve Çocukların Bildirimlerinin Karşılaştırılması" başlıklı projeniz ile ilgili olarak yaptığınız SBB-EAK 2017/6 sayılı başvuru İNAREK/SBB Etik Alt Kurulu tarafından 3 Mart 2017 tarihli toplantıda incelenmiş ve uygun bulunmuştur.

Saygılarımızla,

İnsan Araştırmaları Kurumsal Değerlendirme Alt Kurulu

Doç. Dr. Ebru Kaya

Yrd. Doç. Dr. İnci Ayhan

Yrd. Doç. Dr. Gül Sosay

Yrd. Doç. Dr. Mehmet Nafi Artemel

Yrd. Doç. Dr. Bengü Börkan

APPENDIX P

PERMISSION FROM NATIONAL EDUCATION

DIRECTORATE OF THE PROVINCE

T.C.
İSTANBUL VALİLİĞİ
İl Millî Eğitim Müdürlüğü

Sayı : 59090411-44-E.5969774 28.04.2017
Konu: Anket ve Araştırma İzin Talebi

Sayın: Elif ÖZEN

İlgi: a) 18.04.2017 tarihli dilekçeniz.
b) Valilik Makamının 26.04.2017 tarih ve 5820585 sayılı oluru.

"Ortaokullarda Cinsiyete Bağlı Kalıp Yargılarının Yeterlilik Algısı Üzerindeki Etkisi: Anne ve Çocukların Bildirimlerinin Karşılaştırılması" konulu teziniz hakkındaki ilgi (a) dilekçe ve ekleri ilgi (b) valilik onayı ile uygun görülmüştür.

Bilgilerinizi ve söz konusu talebiniz; bilimsel amaç dışında kullanmaması, **uygulama sırasında bir örneği müdürlüğümüzde muhafaza edilen mühürlü ve imzalı veri toplama araçlarının uygulanması,** katılımcıların gönüllülük esasına göre seçilmesi, araştırma sonuç raporunun müdürlüğümüzden izin alınmadan kamuoyuyla paylaşılmaması koşuluyla, gerekli duyurunun araştırmacı tarafından yapılması, okul idarecilerinin denetim, gözetim ve sorumluluğunda, eğitim-öğretimi aksatmayacak şekilde ilgi (b) Valilik Onayı doğrultusunda uygulanması ve işlem bittikten sonra 2 (iki) hafta içinde sonuçtan Müdürlüğümüz Strateji Geliştirme Bölümüne rapor halinde bilgi verilmesini rica ederim.

Harun TÜYSÜZ
Müdür a.
Müdür Yardımcısı

EK:1- Valilik Onayı
2- Ölçekler

İl Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü Binbirdirek M. İmran Öktem Cad.
No:1 Eski Adliye Binası Sultanahmet Fatih/İstanbul
E-Posta: sgb34@meb.gov.tr

A. BALTA VHKİ
Tel: (0 212) 455 04 00-239
Faks: (0 212)455 06 52

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T.C.
İSTANBUL VALİLİĞİ
İl Millî Eğitim Müdürlüğü

Sayı : 59090411-20-E.5820585 26/04/2017
Konu: Anket ve Araştırma İzin Talebi

VALİLİK MAKAMINA

İlgi: a) 18.04.2017 tarihli dilekçe.
b) MEB. Yen. ve Eğ. Tek. Gn Md. 07.03.2012 tarih ve 3616 sayılı 2012/13 nolu gen.
c) Milli Eğitim Araştırma ve Anket Komisyonunun 24.04.2017 tarihli tutanağı.

Boğaziçi Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü yüksek lisans öğrencisi Elif ÖZEN'in **"Ortaokullarda Cinsiyete Bağlı Kalıp Yargılarının Yeterlilik Algısı Üzerindeki Etkisi: Anne ve Çocukların Bildirimlerinin Karşılaştırılması"** konulu tezi kapsamında, ilimiz Beyoğlu, Bağcılar, Üsküdar, Sancaktepe, Başakşehir, Kadıköy ve Çekmeköy ilçelerinde bulunan ortaokullarda öğrenim gören öğrenci ve öğrencilerin annelerine; anket uygulama istemi hakkındaki ilgi (a) dilekçe ve ekleri Müdürlüğümüzce incelenmiştir.

Araştırmacının; söz konusu talebi; bilimsel amaç dışında kullanılmaması, **uygulama sırasında bir örneği müdürlüğümüzde muhafaza edilen mühürlü ve imzalı veri toplama araçlarının uygulanılması, katılımcıların gönüllülük esasına göre seçilmesi, araştırma sonuç raporunun müdürlüğümüzden izin alınmadan kamuoyuyla paylaşılmaması koşuluyla, okul idarelerinin denetim, gözetim ve sorumluluğunda, eğitim-öğretimi aksatmayacak şekilde ilgi (b) Bakanlık emri esasları dâhilinde uygulanması, sonuçtan Müdürlüğümüze rapor halinde (CD formatında) bilgi verilmesi kaydıyla** Müdürlüğümüzce uygun görülmektedir.

Makamlarınızca da uygun görülmesi halinde olurlarınıza arz ederim.

Ömer Faruk YELKENCİ
Milli Eğitim Müdürü

OLUR
26/04/2017

Ahmet Hamdi USTA
Vali a.
Vali Yardımcısı

Ek:1- Genelge
2- Komisyon Tutanağı

İl Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü Binbirdirek M. İmran Öktem Cad.
No:1 Eski Adliye Binası Sultanahmet Fatih/İstanbul
E-Posta: sgb34@meb.gov.tr

A. BALTA VHKİ
Tel: (0 212) 455 04 00-239
Faks: (0 212)455 06 52

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