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**FAMILIAL IMPACTS OF FATHERS ON
CHILDREN'S EMOTION REGULATION:
EXAMINING THE TRIPARTITE MODEL**

HANDENUR KALAY

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Handenur Kalay

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MASTER OF ART THESIS

A thesis submitted to
the School of Graduate Studies of Kadir Has University
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APPROVAL

This thesis titled THE FAMILIAL IMPACTS OF FATHERS ON CHILDREN'S EMOTION REGULATION: EXAMINING THE TRIPARTITE MODEL submitted by HANDENUR KALAY, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts in Psychology is approved by

Assoc. Prof. Dr., Aslı Çarkođlu (Advisor)
(Kadir Has University)

Asst. Prof., Berna Arslan Uzundađ
(Kadir Has University)

Asst. Prof., Hilal Ően
(MEF University)

I confirm that the signatures above belong to the aforementioned faculty members.

Prof. Dr., Mehmet Timur Aydemir
Director of the School of Graduate Studies
Date of Approval: 15/06/2022

DECLARATION ON RESEARCH ETHICS AND PUBLISHING METHODS

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- and that I commit and undertake to follow the "Kadir Has University Academic Codes of Conduct" prepared in accordance with the "Higher Education Council Codes of Conduct".

In addition, I acknowledge that any claim of irregularity that may arise in relation to this work will result in a disciplinary action in accordance with the university legislation.

Handenur Kalay

Date (15/06/2022)

To My Dearest Parents

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THE FAMILIAL IMPACTS OF FATHERS ON CHILDREN'S EMOTION
REGULATION: EXAMINING THE TRIPARTITE MODEL

ABSTRACT

Understanding the familial impacts and family emotional climate on children's socioemotional development has received a lot of attention in the developmental psychology field. In this study, we aimed to examine paternal emotion-related parenting practices and family emotional climate on emotion regulation of 7–11-year-old children. A sample of 74 father-child pairs completed a survey that explored the relationships between paternal reactions towards their child's sadness, paternal emotional expressivity towards other family members, interparental conflict, and child's emotion regulation. The results demonstrated that paternal positive emotional expressivity predicted children's emotion regulation both directly and indirectly via paternal reactions to their child's sadness. Mixed findings were noted about the paternal reactions as mediators of paternal positive emotional expressivity and children's emotional regulation. Paternal supportive reactions increased the positive association between paternal positive emotional expressivity and children's adaptive emotion regulation. On the other hand, we could not find a statistically significant association for paternal unsupportive reactions on the relationship between paternal positive expressivity and children's emotional adjustment. Higher levels of child's perceptions of interparental conflict predicted higher emotional regulation in the child. However, we were unable to find a significant association between children's exposure to interparental conflict and child's emotion regulation. Additionally, paternal reactions towards their child's sadness were insignificantly related with both paternal negative expressivity and interparental conflict. These findings highlight the need for further studies and better objective measurements of paternal emotional expressivity and interparental conflict. At the same time, this study provides further insights into fathers' unique contributions to their child's emotional development.

Keywords: Emotion regulation, Emotional socialization, Paternal Responsiveness, Paternal Reactions, Paternal expressivity, Interparental Conflict, Family Emotional Climate, Fatherhood.

BABALARIN ÇOCUKLARIN DUYGU DÜZENLEMESİ ÜZERİNDEKİ AİLESEL ETKİLERİ: ÜÇLÜ MODELİN İNCELENMESİ

ÖZET

Çocukların sosyo-duygusal gelişimi üzerindeki ailesel etkilerin ve aile duygusal ikliminin anlaşılması, gelişim psikolojisi alanında büyük bir öneme sahiptir. Bu çalışmada, 7 ile 11 yaş arası çocukların duygu düzenleme becerileri üzerine babaların duygu tabanlı ebeveynlik tutumları ve aile duygusal iklimini incelemeyi amaçladık. 74 baba-çocuk çiftinden oluşan örneklem, babanın çocuğunun üzüntüsüne yönelik tepkileri, babanın diğer aile üyelerine yönelik duygusal dışavurumu, ebeveynler arası çatışma ve çocuğun duygu düzenleme becerilerini inceleyen anketi tamamlamıştır. Sonuçlar, babanın olumlu duygusal dışavurumunun, babanın çocuğunun üzüntüsüne yönelik tepkileri aracılığıyla hem doğrudan hem de dolaylı olarak çocuğun duygu düzenlemesini yordadığını göstermiştir. Babanın olumlu duygusal dışavurumu ve çocuğun duygu düzenlemesinin araçları olarak baba tepkileri hakkında karışık bulgular kaydedilmiştir. Babanın destekleyici tepkileri, babanın olumlu duygusal dışavurumculuğu ile çocuğun duygusal uyumu arasındaki pozitif ilişkiyi arttırmıştır. Öte yandan, babanın olumlu dışavurumu ile çocuğun duygu düzenlemesi arasındaki ilişkide babanın destekleyici olmayan tepkileri için istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişki bulunamamıştır. Çocuğun ebeveynler arası çatışma algılarının daha yüksek seviyeleri, çocukta daha yüksek duygusal düzenlemeyi öngörmektedir. Ancak, çocukların ebeveynler arası çatışmaya maruz kalması ile çocuğun duygu düzenlemesi arasında anlamlı bir ilişki bulunamamıştır. Ek olarak, babanın çocuklarının üzüntüsüne yönelik tepkileri hem babanın olumsuz ifadeleri hem de ebeveynler arası çatışma ile önemsiz derecede ilişkili bulunmuştur. Bu bulgular, babanın duygusal dışavurumunun ve ebeveynler arası çatışmanın daha iyi objektif ölçümlere ve daha ileri tetkiklere duyulan ihtiyacı vurgulamaktadır. Aynı zamanda, bu çalışma, babaların çocuklarının duygusal gelişimine benzersiz katkıları hakkında daha derin bir anlayış sunmaktadır.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Duygu düzenleme, Duygusal sosyalleşme, Baba Duyarlılığı, Baba tepkileri, Baba dışavurumculuğu, Ebeveynler Arası Çatışma, Aile Duygusal İklimi, Babalık.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	v
ABSTRACT	vi
ÖZET	vii
LIST OF FIGURES	x
LIST OF TABLES	xi
LIST OF SYMBOLS	xii
1. INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Socialization of Emotion Regulation in Family	2
1.2 Theoretical Framework of Familial Influences	3
2. EMPIRICAL BACKGROUND OF FAMILIAL INFLUENCES ON EMOTION REGULATION	6
2.1 Parental Reactions Towards Children’s Emotions	6
2.2 Family Emotional Expressivity	10
2.3 Interparental Conflict	12
2.4 The Current Study	15
3. METHOD	18
3.1 Participants	18
3.2 Measures	22
3.2.1 Demographic information	22
3.2.2 Fathers’ involvement on child raising	22
3.2.3 Paternal reactions towards children’s emotions	23
3.2.4 Paternal emotional expressivity in the family	25
3.2.5 Interparental conflict	28
3.2.6 Emotional security	32
3.2.7 Children’s emotion regulation	34
3.3 Procedure	36
3.4 Data Preparation and Data Analyses Strategy	37
4. RESULTS	40
4.1. Descriptive Statistics	40
4.2 Bivariate Correlations	44
4.3 Results of the Main Hypotheses	47

4.3.1 Hypothesis 1: Fathers who express more positive emotions towards their family members are expected to have children who have higher emotional regulation.	47
4.3.2 Hypothesis 2: Fathers who express more negative emotion to their family members are expected to have children who are poorer in emotion regulation.	52
4.3.3 Hypothesis 3: Higher levels of interparental conflict are expected to be negatively associated with children’s emotion regulation.	55
5. DISCUSSION	58
5.1 Strengths and Limitations	65
5.2 Conclusion	67
REFERENCES	70
APPENDIX A	78
A.1 Informed Consent for Fathers	78
A.2 Demographic Information	79
A.3 Inventory of Father Involvement	80
A.4 Responses to Children’s Emotions Questionnaire	81
A.5 Self-Expressiveness in the Family Questionnaire	82
A.6 O’Leary-Porter Scale	84
A.7 Emotion Regulation Checklist	86
APPENDIX B	87
B.1 Informed Consent for Children	87
B.1 Conflict Properties Subscale of the Children’s Perception of Interparental Conflict Questionnaire	88
B.2 The Security in the Interparental Subsystem Scale	89
CURRICULUM VITAE	90

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 3.1 Distribution of the Ages of Children.....	19
Figure 3.2 Frequency Results of the Fathers' Education Level.....	20
Figure 3.3 Frequency of the Average Monthly Income in the Household.....	21
Figure 3.4 Mediation Model for the Current Study.....	39
Figure 4.1 Mediation Model for Hypothesis 1c.....	51

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1	Factor Loadings of Paternal Reactions to Children’s Emotion.....	24
Table 3.2	Factor Loadings of Paternal Emotional Expressivity in the Family.....	27
Table 3.3	Factor Loadings for Children’s Exposing to Interparental Conflict.....	29
Table 3.4	Factor Loadings for Children’s Perception of Interparental Conflict.....	31
Table 3.5	Factor Loading for Children’s Emotional Security.....	33
Table 3.6	Factor Loadings for Children’s Emotion Regulation.....	35
Table 4.1	t-test Results Comparing Boys and Girls on Target Variables.....	42
Table 4.2	Descriptive Statistics.....	43
Table 4.3	Bivariate Correlations Among Subscales of Paternal Reactions Scale.....	45
Table 4.4	Bivariate Correlations Among Variables.....	46
Table 4.5	Regression Analyses Summary for the Group of Hypothesis 1.....	48
Table 4.6	Mediation Analysis Summary for Hypothesis 1c.....	50
Table 4.7	Regression Analyses Summary for the Group of Hypothesis 2.....	53
Table 4.8	Regression Analyses Summary for the Group of Hypothesis 3.....	57

LIST OF SYMBOLS

α	The probability of making a Type I error
β	Standardized regression coefficient
χ^2	Chi-square test statistics
B	The regression coefficient (unstandardized)
F	F-ratio
n	Sample of the population
p	Probability, p-value
r	Pearson's correlation coefficient
R^2	The proportion of data explained by the model
t	Test statistics for Student's t-test
z	A data point expressed in standard deviation units

LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

CI	Confidence Interval
CFI	The comparative fit index
M	The mean
RMSEA	Absolute fit index
SD	The standard deviation
<i>SE</i>	The standard error
SRMR	Standardized root mean square residual

1. INTRODUCTION

Accumulated knowledge in the field of human development recognizes the formative importance of childhood experiences on the adult physical and mental health, psychological well-being, as well as social and professional achievements (Liew, 2012; Heckman et al., 2013; Daelmans et al., 2015; Smithers et al., 2018). More specifically, previous studies provide important evidence that chronic exposure to negative social and environmental conditions early in life has negative influences on children's cognitive and social development as well as severe lifelong health and behavioral consequences later in life (Shonkoff et al., 2009; McEwen & McEwen, 2017; Okan & WHO, 2019). Recent research has shown that children's self-regulation is an important variable from which these future outcomes can be predicted (for a meta-analysis, see Robson et al., 2020). Self-regulation is conceptualized as the internal or transactional capability of the individual to control impulses, adapt thought, feelings, behaviors, and manipulate attention (Zhou et al., 2012). According to the meta-analysis, preschool children's self-regulation abilities can have a significant role in predicting future outcomes which mentioned above in later childhood, adolescence, and even adulthood (Robson et al., 2020). While the importance of self-regulation on cognitive, physiological, social, and emotional development for later life is strongly emphasized in the field, the growing body of literature focuses on the impacts of contextual environmental factors on the development of self-regulation in childhood.

The studies in the field have used self-regulation and emotion regulation, two related yet distinct concepts, interchangeably at times (Koole et al., 2011; Gagne et al., 2021). In this study, the focus will be on the emotional aspects of self-regulation, thus we will only refer to emotional regulation. In addition to the neurobiological and cognitive maturation, emotion regulation develops with the child's temperament, increasing conceptual skills of emotional understanding, and various social influences related to the interpretation, management, and control of feelings (Thompson, 1994). In this study, we will focus on these social influences within the family context, and more specifically on the paternal influences on the child's emotion regulation. *Emotion regulation* is defined as intrinsic and extrinsic processes of monitoring, evaluating, and modifying the existence, duration,

and intensity of both positive and negative emotional reactions (Thompson, 1994; Eisenberg & Morris, 2002).

1.1 Socialization of Emotion Regulation in Family

Developmental psychologists have argued that children's emotion regulation abilities develop through social interactions primarily within the family, and other significant caregivers, neighbors, peers, and cultural accumulations (Gross & Thompson, 2006; Thompson & Meyer, 2007). Since the family-child relationship is considered as the most important form of this interaction (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2007), previous research stressed the effects of parental intra-personal and inter-personal emotion regulation and the parental practices on the child's development of emotion regulation (England-Mason & Gonzales, 2020; Eisenberg, 2020).

Children's emotional competence involving emotional understanding, experience, regulation, and expression develops through parents' reactions to emotions, parental expressions of emotions, and parents' discussions of emotions with their child or others (Eisenberg et al., 1998). In this regard, it was asserted that parents might socialize their children's emotion regulation directly by their own responses to their child's emotional needs or indirectly via their conduct in meeting the emotional demands of their marital relationship in the home (Meyer et al., 2014; Godleski et al., 2020).

Parents' direct socialization of emotion regulation begins almost at birth. Caregivers make efforts to soothe the baby's distress, which may be caused by hunger, fatigue, discomfort, or other reasons. For almost half a century, it has been known and empirically supported that certain distress-relief sequences, such as hearing the caregiver's footsteps, are easily learned by infants (Lamb, 1981). Thompson and Meyer (2007) argued that the learned association between distress, caregivers' approach, and the subsequent soothing has an initial effect on emotion regulation outcomes. As children grow older, parental direct interventions towards emotion regulation change as well. Reflecting and responding to the child's emotional expressions or even ignoring the child's negative expressions, distracting the child's attention away from the distressing situation, helping to solve problems that the child may find irritating, and trying to change the child's

emotional appraisal of distressing events are evaluated as direct familial impacts on children's emotion regulation (Thompson & Meyer, 2007). The frequency of these direct interventions decreases as the children achieve their own self-regulation strategies; however, they continue to have a lifelong impact on children's emotion regulation, regardless of whether they were adaptive or maladaptive.

Parents also socialize their children's emotion regulation indirectly by their own emotional beliefs and values which are the determinants of their own emotional conduct (Meyer et al., 2014). Children observe their parents' responses towards emotional situations and create a resource for themselves. When faced with certain situations that remind them of their parents' experiences, they can manage their emotional functions with these learned responses. Additionally, emotion regulation abilities of children are indirectly socialized by fulfilling the emotional demands of family life which include encouraging others to express their emotions, empathizing with the feelings of others, attending, and accepting others' emotional experiences, and showing them respect (Thompson & Meyer, 2007; Meyer et al., 2014). From this point of view, emotional conversations between parent-child or parent-parent dyads, providing space and comforting each other when family members experience their own emotions, and overall emotional expressions in the family environment have great importance on children's emotion regulation development.

1.2 Theoretical Framework of Familial Influences

In the present study, our focus will be on various familial influences that impact children's emotion regulation. In 2007, Morris and her colleagues introduced the Tripartite Model of Familial Influences (TMFI), a theoretical framework for how the emotional regulation of children is socialized within the family context. The model illustrates that families influence children's emotion regulation through three inter-related processes; these are children's observations of parents' emotion regulation, specific emotion-related parenting practices, and the emotional climate in the family.

Observations of children on parents' emotion regulation propose that children obtain information about emotion regulation over observational learning, modeling, social

referencing, and/or emotion contagion during parents' emotional displays and interactions (Parke, 1994; Morris et al., 2007; England-Mason & Gonzales, 2020). The modeling process hypothesizes that children implicitly learn to regulate emotions in a situationally acceptable and culturally appropriate way for future potential situations by parents' emotional attitudes and interaction styles (Morris et al., 2007). Consistent with the Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1977), parents supply valuable information to their children about expressing and regulating emotional states through their behaviors, attitudes, or thoughts such as their expectations, beliefs, and personal boundaries towards emotional expressivity.

Children's emotional competence and emotional understanding are influenced by the parental display of emotions, discussions about emotions, and parental attitudes towards children's emotions. *Emotion-related parenting practices* include emotion coaching or emotion dismissing behaviors, parents' reactions to children's emotions, parental encouragement to experience emotions, and initial teaching about emotion regulation strategies (Morris et al., 2007). Parental attitudes towards children's emotions are mainly classified as emotion coaching and emotion dismissing behaviors. More specifically, emotion coaching refers to viewing children's emotional experiences as an opportunity to develop intimacy with their child, teach the shared meaning of emotion, discuss the strategies for managing emotion, and helping the children to label the feeling (Eisenberg et al., 1998; Meyer et al., 2014). On the other hand, emotion dismissing refers to parents ignoring their own and their children's emotions, underestimating the importance of emotions, absenting themselves from their children's feelings, rejecting to help their children to relieve their negative emotions, and punishing them for expressing emotions (Eisenberg et al., 1998; Meyer et al., 2014). Not surprisingly, while parents who coach their children's emotions positively influence the development of emotion regulation; children of parents who dismiss their children's emotions do not grow up to regulate their emotions successfully (Morris et al., 2017).

Lastly, the *emotional climate in the family* refers to relationship qualities involving attachment, marital relationships, family relationships, and parenting styles, as well as the amount of positive and negative emotional expressiveness among the overall family members (Morris et al., 2007; Are & Shaffer, 2016). According to the model, the emotional predictability and stability of the family environment, parental expectations

and demands from children about emotional functioning, and the amount of both positive and negative emotional expressiveness in the family are the main constituents of the family emotional climate (Morris et al., 2007). The model illustrated that the emotional climate in the family could impact children's emotion regulation directly through its influence as an emotional stressor, or indirectly by altering the meaning of emotional conversation in the family (Raikes & Thompson, 2006). Additionally, the prevailing emotional climate in the family can also influence other relational dynamics in the home that may impact children's emotional functions.

2. EMPIRICAL BACKGROUND OF FAMILIAL INFLUENCES ON EMOTION REGULATION

Parents' own beliefs about emotion which involve beliefs in the importance of paying attention to emotion and controlling the emotional representation, and their own values about emotion which include accepting the validity of emotional experience, concerning emotion understanding, and emotional self-regulation determine the parental socialization efforts to children's emotion regulation (Meyer et al., 2014). As mentioned earlier, these parental socialization efforts influence the emotion regulation abilities of children directly and indirectly (Thompson & Meyer, 2007). Considering the Tripartite Model, while the emotion-related parenting practices might be evaluated as a direct effect; the emotional climate in the family could be classified as an indirect effect of parental socialization efforts. In the present study, in terms of the emotion-related parenting practices, the reactions of parents to children's emotions will be discussed; in addition, the family emotional climate will be represented by the emotional expressivity of the family and interparental conflict.

2.1 Parental Reactions Towards Children's Emotions

Children's emotion regulation capacity is mainly influenced by the parent-child conversation and develops through the impacts of parental responses to children's emotions (Godleski et al., 2020). These responses are classified as supportive and unsupportive reactions. Supportive parental reactions involve labeling emotions, coaching children, teaching appropriate emotion expression and regulation practices, comforting the child when they experience an emotion, and encouraging the child to express and regulate emotions. On the other hand, unsupportive parental reactions involve criticism, parents' suppressing or dismissing attitudes towards children's expression of emotion, punitive reactions to children's experiences of related emotion, minimizing the child's negative emotions in attempt to decrease the seriousness of the situation, and parental experience of distress in response to their child's negative affect (Eisenberg et al., 1998).

The common ground of previous studies demonstrated that there is a significant association between parents' supportive responses and children's positive emotion regulatory outcomes; whereas unsupportive parental reactions are generally associated with children's poor outcomes of emotion regulation development (Hooven et al., 1995; Shaffer et al., 2012; Han et al., 2015; Morris et al., 2017; England-Mason & Gonzales, 2020). More specifically, children who take coaching from their parents for their problem-solving attempts, inability to label emotions, or feelings of discomfort more easily and successfully regulate their emotions (Gottman et al., 1996; Zeytinoğlu et al., 2017); and these children have higher scores on emotion regulation measurements. On the other hand, children who are excluded, ignored, or punished by their parents for expressing a particular emotion do not have the same developmental success in emotion regulation (Morris et al., 2017).

Fosco and Grych (2013) conducted a study to develop a contextual framework for various family dynamics on children's emotion regulation. In this study, one key dimension of family functioning which has formative influences on children's emotion regulation was parents' responses to children's overall emotions. 4th and 5th grade children and their parents (mother and father pairs) participated in the study; parents were asked to complete the Warmth subscale of the Perspectives on Child Raising Questionnaire and were observed to measure their reactions to children's emotions. Additionally, children's emotion regulation abilities were measured by both child reports and parents' reports. The study illustrated that both mothers' and fathers' warm and supportive responses to children's emotions were associated uniquely with more adaptive emotion regulation skills of children; however, it is interesting that when the mothers' and fathers' responses were evaluated together within a whole-family context, fathers' responses were no more significantly associated with children's emotion regulation.

In another study conducted by Zhang et al. (2020), children who exhibited aggressive/oppositional behaviors at school entrance were examined longitudinally from kindergarten to second grade. The relationship between the supportive responses of mothers and the children's trajectories of physiological regulation and externalizing symptoms, which were used as indicators of emotion dysregulation, were investigated annually for three years. During the kindergarten year, parent-child interactions were videotaped and from these videos, the supportive emotion-related parenting and parental

warmth were coded. In addition, children's externalizing symptoms were measured annually by teacher reports. The results demonstrated that supportive emotion-related parenting was not associated with externalizing behaviors in kindergarten. However, supportive emotion-related parenting was found to significantly predict a decrease in the children's externalizing symptoms in later years. Thus, the study provides evidence that supportive emotion-related parenting is a cornerstone for the development of adaptive emotion regulation for school-aged children.

Besides the effects of supportive and unsupportive parental reactions on children's emotion regulation, the impacts of parents' responses to the children's positive and negative emotions also differ. Previous studies demonstrated that school-aged children who were exposed to unsupportive parental reactions to their negative emotions had higher internalizing and externalizing problems that were related to poorer emotion regulation development (Gottman et al., 1996; Eisenberg et al., 1998). The study conducted by Shaffer et al. (2012) aimed to examine the different effects of parental responses to children's negative emotions and to investigate its relations with children's emotion regulation skills. Mothers of children between the ages of 7 and 12 were asked to report their own responsiveness toward their children's negative emotions and their perception of their children's emotion regulation abilities. Results showed that while supportive parental reactions to children's negative emotions were associated with higher emotion regulation skills of children, unsupportive parental reactions were associated with children's higher emotion dysregulation and lower emotion regulation abilities.

Whereas it is emphasized that parental reactions to children's positive and negative emotions and the effects of these reactions on children's emotion regulation development may change, former studies have mainly focused on children's negative emotions as a combined form of sadness, anger, and fear. However, investigating more than one negative emotion in a compounded manner assumes that all negative emotions would receive same/similar reaction from parents, but this may not be an accurate assumption. Parental reactions towards children's specific negative emotions may change. While a parent may react supportively to a child's sadness expression, s/he may not react supportively to an expression of anger. Indeed, identical unsupportive reactions towards their children's sadness and anger by parents, may lead to different consequences. Therefore, there is a need for studies looking at specific negative emotions, differentially.

In the study by Cassano, Zeman, and Sanders (2014), it has been shown that sadness is an important emotion in the impacts of parental emotion socialization on children's emotion regulation. Therefore, in our study, the feeling of sadness was considered alone.

The majority of the research on the relationship between children's emotion regulation and parents' emotion socialization practices focuses entirely on mothers or considers fathers only in combination with mother responses. In this regard, previous studies demonstrated that fathers tend to use fewer emotion-coaching strategies than mothers do (Gottman et al., 1996); they are more likely to react by dismissing, distracting, and minimizing reactions (Cassano et al., 2007; Cassano & Zeman, 2010), and punishing reactions (Eisenberg et al., 1998) to their children's negative emotions than mothers' do (Han et al., 2015). Regardless of the fathers' higher levels of unsupportive reactions towards- their children's negative emotions, previous studies also indicated that fathers are more likely to engage with their children through stimulating and exploratory play activities (Mills-Koonce et al., 2015); rough-and-tumble plays (StGeorge & Freeman, 2017); and encouraging the children to engage with risk-taking behaviors (Cabrera et al., 2014) than mothers. Additionally, it was revealed that regardless of living together, fathers affect children's developmental stages through not quantity but the quality of spending time with their children depending on the fathers' level of involvement in child-care (Cabrera et al., 2000; Cabrera, Volling & Barr, 2018). These findings support the idea that fathers would play a unique role in their children's emotion regulation development within the family system.

Critically, because of the lack of studies about fathers, the maternal impacts have been generalized as overall parental socialization efforts. However, fathers' unique impacts on children's emotional development and even their overall fathering attitudes and behaviors might be influenced by their cultural masculinity norms (Cherry & Gerstein, 2021). It is important to consider the lack of knowledge regarding cultural fatherhood normativity when evaluating the literature on parental emotion socialization. Therefore, studies that look at the role of fathers and mothers differentially are also needed. In the current study, fathers' supportive and unsupportive reactions towards only their child's sadness were examined to understand the influences of parental emotional socialization on this specific emotion.

2.2 Family Emotional Expressivity

In terms of emotion-related conversations, previous studies show that the qualities of parent-child conversations impact children's emotional understanding and consequently their emotion regulation skills (Eisenberg et al., 1998; Morris et al., 2007). More specifically, parents who frequently mentioned emotions in the conversation have been found to have children who are more skilled in identifying emotions. It is argued that these kinds of emotion-related conversations between parents and their children provide opportunities to parents for teaching their children the shared meanings of emotions and to children for learning about emotions and their antecedents (Raikes & Thompson, 2006). On the other hand, the importance of emotional expressivity on children's emotion regulation is not limited to parent-child expressivity; its importance has been emphasized in the context of family dynamics. As mentioned earlier, emotional expressivity in the family is a component of the emotional climate in the family concept; and it is one of the important predictors of children's emotion regulation (Ramsden & Hubbard, 2002). However, it is worth noting that, although all these studies indicate a parental influence, they have to a large extent only sampled and studied mother-child dyads, which is a limitation. Unique contribution of fathers in this context is missing.

These studies show that positive family relationships and a cohesive emotional environment in the family encourage children to experience and learn about emotions; whereas negative family relationships tend to discourage them from identifying their emotional needs (Fosco & Grych, 2007; Thompson & Meyer, 2007). In a study by Eisenberg et al. (2001), Indonesian mothers of 3rd grade children were asked to report their own expressions of emotion in the family and their children's attentional and inhibitory control abilities. The study demonstrated that the negative emotional expressivity of parents was negatively and significantly associated with children's emotional functioning, while their positive expressivity had no effect. Similarly, Milojevich and Haskett (2018) who found that a higher level of negative, but not positive, expressiveness in the home predicted poorer self-regulation in children. In another study, Fosco and Grych (2013) asked participants to report their own frequency of positive and negative emotional expressivity toward other family members. They illustrated that children who have higher levels of positivity and cohesion and lower levels of negativity

in the family dynamics have more adaptive emotion regulation abilities. Comparably, Luebbe and Bell (2014) looked at adolescent-mother dyads, studying the association between the family emotional climate and internalizing symptoms among youth, which can be interpreted as indicators of poorer emotion regulation. The results showed that the negative emotional climate in the family with high negative emotional expressivity predicted more anxiety and depression in the adolescent. Lower maternal warmth and lower positive emotional expressivity were also shown to predict depression in adolescents.

Expressivity in the family could influence the development of children's emotion regulation directly through the impacts on children's emotional understanding and indirectly through both affecting the quality of conversation between family members and identifying the characteristics of the emotional environment in the home. The studies mentioned above illustrated the direct influences of familial emotional expressivity on children's emotion regulation. It is also claimed that emotional expressivity might influence other emotion-related parental practices (Eisenberg et al., 1998; Are & Shaffer, 2016; Morris et al., 2017). In a study which was conducted by Meyer and her colleagues (2014), an association between maternal emotion expression and their reactions to children's emotions was found. More specifically, their study pointed out that mothers who pay attention to the expression of emotions are more likely to demonstrate supportive reactions to their children's negative emotions. They are also more likely to have a greater positive emotional expression in their home environment. In contrast, mothers who tend to suppress their own emotions mainly respond unsupportively to their children's negative emotions, and, also, their family emotional environment is characterized more negatively. Another study conducted by Are and Shaffer (2016) provided a further explanation by investigating the effects of maternal emotion regulation difficulties on the relation between family emotional expressivity and children's emotion regulation abilities. The findings demonstrated that mothers who have fewer difficulties with emotion regulation tended to engage more positive emotional expression in the family environment; thus, their children have more adaptive emotion regulation abilities.

While it is claimed that the emotional climate in the family progresses comorbidly with other family dynamics; Haskett et al. (2012) demonstrated that higher positive emotional expressiveness is associated with better self-regulation, even in children who raised in

maltreated families, whereas higher negative expressiveness is associated with weaker development of self-regulation. In this context, Speidel et al. (2020) conducted an experimental study to emphasize the importance of intervention programs that focus on the familial impacts on children's emotion regulation, especially in disadvantaged groups. In the study, family dynamics associated with children's emotion regulation, which were positive parenting, positive and negative family expressiveness, and mother's sensitive guidance, were examined longitudinally across three-time points (baseline, 2 months, and 6 months later). Maltreating mothers who have 3-to-6 years old children were assigned randomly to intervention ($n = 81$) or control intervention ($n = 79$) conditions, as well as non-maltreating mothers ($n = 78$) were included as a control condition. Then, mothers who were assigned to the experimental conditions received Reminiscing and Emotion Training (RET) or individualized case management services; non-maltreating mothers did not receive any intervention. The overall results of the study demonstrated that sharper positive change in children's emotion regulation was significantly predicted by the maternal intervention. More specifically, children whose mothers received the RET intervention were rated as having a better change in emotion regulation from baseline to six months later compared to both children who were non-maltreated and in the case management condition. Similarly, a previous study has emphasized the efficacy of emotion socialization parenting programs on children's emotion regulation skills (for a review; see England-Mason & Gonzales, 2020).

2.3 Emotion Security Theory and Interparental Conflict

The role of the interparental relationship on children's emotional development is highlighted by Emotional Security Theory developed by Davies and Cummings in 1994. According to the theory, it is assumed that children may have trouble regulating their emotions if they recognize a threat in the environment (Davies & Martin, 2013). In the context of family conflict, there is an association between children's exposure to parents' conflict in the home and children's emotional insecurity which results in poorer emotion regulation abilities of children (Davies & Cummings, 1994; Eisenberg et al., 2001). More specifically, repeated exposure to parents' threatening, destructive conflicts endanger children's sense of security; and children who experience these kinds of parental relations

have higher levels of emotional distress and reactivity, and greater behavioral and emotional dysregulations (Siffert & Schwarz, 2011; Fosco & Grych, 2013; Gong & Paulson, 2017). Furthermore, children tend to engage in reactive behaviors in these times such as aggressive behaviors and defensive responses which are indicators of poorer emotion regulation (Mullin & Hinshaw, 2007).

In terms of the impacts of interparental conflict on the emotion regulation of children, it can be evaluated as a stressor which increases the negativity both in the home environment and in children's mood, thus forcing them to use emotion regulation strategies (Davies & Martin, 2013; Machado & Mossman, 2020). In this regard, it has been claimed that interparental conflict influences children's emotion regulation both directly by exposing the child to a more negative parental relationship and indirectly by affecting other family functioning. Previous studies have demonstrated that interparental conflict is associated with less positive parental responses to children's emotions and a less positive emotional climate in the family, resulting in greater hostility and tension and fewer positive relationships between family members (Fosco & Grych, 2013; Melim et al., 2019).

To explore the comprehensive effects of interparental conflicts on children's emotion regulation in the family context, besides investigating parental reactions to children's negative emotions and family expressivity, Fosco & Grych (2013) also asked participants to report interparental conflict in terms of frequency, intensity, and resolution. The study demonstrated that there is a significant association between exposure to more chronic and severe interparental conflict and less adaptive emotion regulation of children. Additionally, interparental conflict is indirectly associated with both mothers' and fathers' less warm and emotionally sensitive parenting, less family positivity, and higher family negativity. Although Fosco and Grych (2013) mentioned the resolution part of interparental conflict, their study was mainly focused on the conflict itself. While the influences of interparental conflict on children's socioemotional development were emphasized clearly, there is a need for examining the effects of interparental conflict resolution on children's socioemotional functioning, specifically on children's emotion regulation. Previous studies demonstrated that regardless of the frequency and intensity, the way to resolve the conflict is the most important factor for children's adjustment (Goodman et al., 1999; Goeke-Morey et al., 2007; McCoy et al., 2009).

In the context of interparental conflict resolution, interparental conflicts are categorized as constructive and destructive conflicts. While constructive conflict refers to positively handling the conflict by physical and verbal affection, problem-solving, or supporting; destructive conflict indicates managing the conflict in negative ways by physical and verbal aggression, threat, or personal insult. When the interparental conflicts are categorized as constructive vs. destructive conflict, the effects of interparental conflict on children's emotion regulation are differentiated. The association between interparental conflict and children's emotional functioning mainly depends on the strategies used by parents to handle the conflict (Goeke-Morey et al., 2007).

Previous studies demonstrated that constructive conflicts help children learn adaptive emotion regulation skills by supporting their emotional security; on the other hand, destructive conflicts endanger children's emotion regulation abilities by creating a distressing context in the home (McCoy et al., 2009; Koss et al., 2011). In a study, Siffert and Schwarz (2011) aimed to investigate the mediated effects of children's emotion regulation on the relationship between negative parental conflict resolution styles and children's internalizing and externalizing problems. The study was conducted with 4th grade students (9-to-12 years olds) and their mothers. The study demonstrated that negative parental conflict resolution styles were significantly associated with poorer emotion regulation abilities of children, resulting in children's internalizing and externalizing problems. Another study conducted by McCoy and her colleagues (2009), involving children who are 5-to-7 years old and their mothers and fathers, demonstrated that there was a positive association between constructive conflicts and children's emotional security, which may decrease the children's tendency of internalizing and externalizing problems.

Although there has been strong evidence for the relationship between interparental conflict resolution and children's emotion regulation, which is mediated by the emotional security of children, there have been no studies that directly address the link between the association of other parental functioning which impacts children's emotion regulation and emotional security of children. Previous studies which examined the association between children's emotion regulation and parents' reactions to their children's emotions, emotional expressivity within the family, and even interparental conflict, which was mentioned in the family context, were not based on emotion security theory. Thus, it is

important to combine these two pieces of literature to provide an in-depth understanding of the familial impacts on children's emotion regulation.

2.4 The Current Study

For almost three decades, parental emotion socialization literature acknowledges that children's emotion regulation is influenced by various familial dynamics. Previous studies demonstrated that children who receive more supportive parental responses to their emotions (Fosco & Grych, 2013); less unsupportive responses from their parents (Shaffer et al., 2012); those who are exposed to greater positive expressivity (Meyer et al., 2014); and lower negative expressivity in their home environment (Eisenberg et al., 2001); who witness more constructive interparental conflict (McCoy et al., 2009); and less destructive interparental conflict (Siffert & Schwarz, 2011) would develop more adaptive emotion regulation strategies. However, it should be noted that these studies mainly conducted with mothers, and they did not distinguish between children's negative emotions. The current study focuses on the contextual influences of familial environment from the fathers' perceptions and how these influences impact children's emotion regulation, with a particular stress on children's sadness.

The primary aim of this study is to investigate how the emotional climate in the family impacts the emotion regulation abilities of school-aged children. Although some researchers argue that parental responses differ based on the child's gender and age; some contradictory studies claim that only the age of children has a confounding effect on parental reactions. Accordingly, parents tend to express more supportive reactions towards younger children than older children regardless of child sex (Meyer et al., 2014; Shewark & Blandon, 2015). To avoid potential confounding of age, the age range was restricted to primary school children. Additionally, since the children were expected to fill out the questionnaires in an online meeting, it was expected that primary school children would be more mature and would be more likely to complete the questionnaire.

Previous studies which examined the familial impacts with different constructs mainly addressed the maternal influences on children's emotion regulation. A few studies conducted with mother-father dyads or only with fathers provided inconsistent results for

unique paternal influences (Fosco & Grych, 2013; Are & Shaffer, 2015; Iqbal & Akhter, 2019). In this study, we aimed to investigate the unique contribution of fathers on children's emotion regulation with Turkish samples.

The study also aims to examine the effects of paternal reactions to children's emotions on children's emotion regulation. Overall, the relationship between the emotional climate in the family and fathers' reactions to children's emotions, and their impacts on children's emotion regulation abilities had been under investigation. Additionally, fathers' involvement on the child raising and some demographic information were also measured for a control purpose.

In addition, children's emotional security in the relationship between parental socialization and children's emotion regulation has never been studied in the context of Emotion Security Theory, this study aims to fill that gap. Towards this end, children were also asked to fill out the survey measuring their emotional security and perception of their parental conflict.

In light of the current literature detailed above and the research questions mentioned, the following hypotheses are developed:

1) Fathers who express more positive emotions towards their family members are expected to have children who have higher emotional regulation.

1a) Fathers who express more positive emotions towards their family members are expected to react more supportively towards their child's sadness.

1b) Fathers who express more positive emotions towards their family members are expected to respond towards their child's sadness less unsupportively.

1c) Fathers' supportive and unsupportive reactions towards their child's sadness would mediate the relationship between paternal positive emotional expressivity towards their family members and children's emotion regulation.

2) Fathers who express more negative emotion towards their family members are expected to have children who are poorer in emotion regulation.

2a) Fathers who express more negative emotions towards their family members are expected to respond towards their child's sadness less supportively.

2b) Fathers who express more negative emotions towards their family members are expected to react more unsupportively towards their child's sadness.

2c) Fathers' reactions towards their child's sadness would mediate the relationship between paternal negative emotional expressivity towards their family members and children's emotion regulation.

3) Higher levels of interparental conflict resolution are expected to be positively associated with children's emotion regulation.

3a) Higher levels of interparental conflict resolution are expected to be positively associated with fathers' supportive responses towards their child's sadness.

3b) Higher levels of interparental conflict resolution are expected to be negatively related to fathers' unsupportive reactions toward their child's sadness.

3c) Fathers' reactions towards their child's sadness would mediate the relationship between interparental conflict resolution and children's emotion regulation.

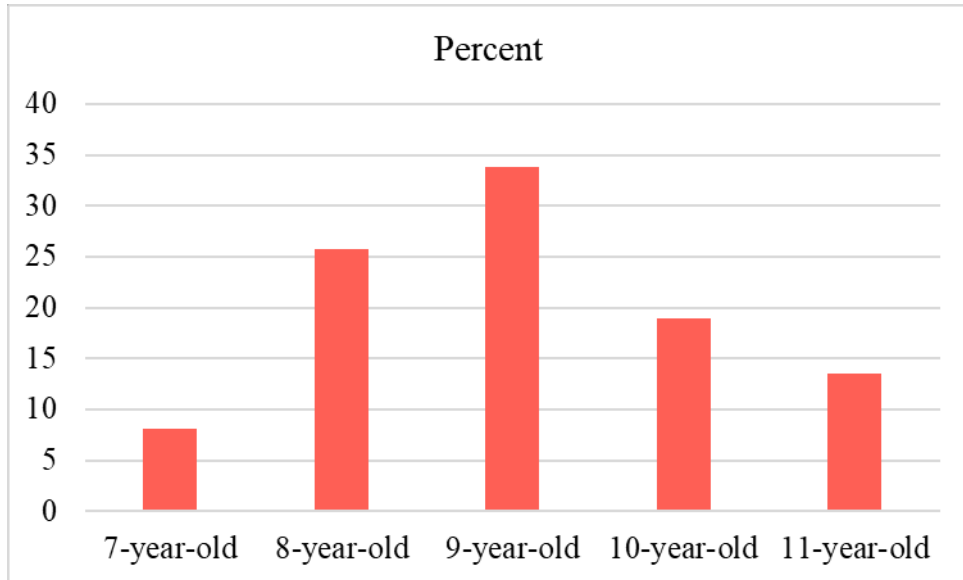
3. METHOD

3.1 Participants

Participants consisted of Turkish father-child dyads. Participant size was determined by using G*Power, G*Power Analysis of Linear Multiple Regression: Fixed model, R^2 increase proposed 73 total sample size with Effect size $f = 0.25$, $\beta = 0.95$ with seven predictor variables. Initially, a total of 85 fathers filled out the main questionnaires on either Qualtrics or hard copy surveys. The following participants were removed from the current study based on the given criteria: (a) two careless responders who did not complete half of the questionnaires, (b) one father was divorced, and (c) seven fathers who answered the questionnaires in the first stage, but their children did not attend the interview in the second stage. Lastly, one father-child pair was evaluated as an outlier, and they were filtered out as well. (See data preparation section below)

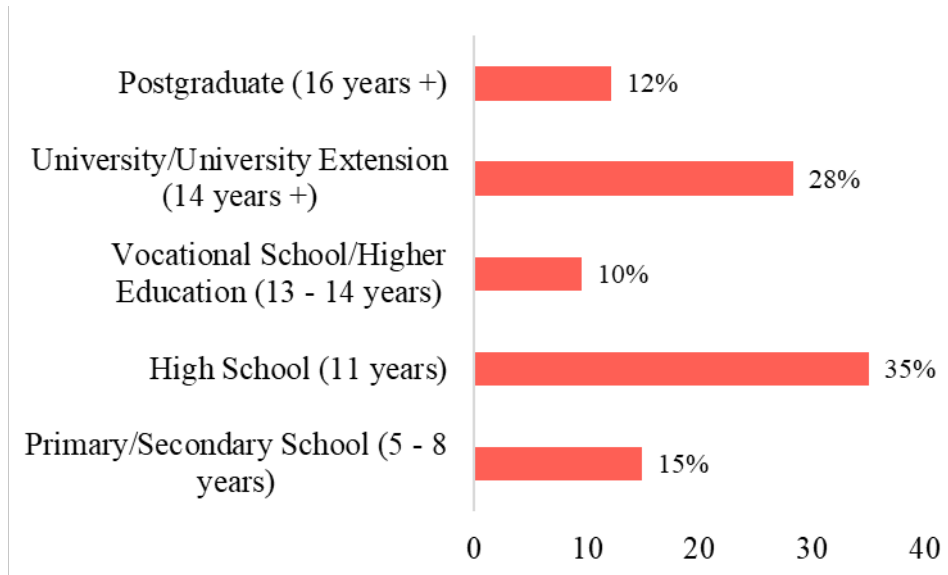
The final data set includes 74 father-child dyads with a child age range of 7 to 11 ($M_{age} = 9.04$, $SD = 1.15$). Of the children, 27 were girls (36%) and 47 were boys (64%). Data were collected from six 7-year-old (8%), 19 8-year-old (26%), 25 9-year-old (34%), 14 10-year-old (19%), and 10 11-year-old children (14%). (See Figure 3.1). The mean age of the fathers was 41.73 ($SD = 5.1$) with an age range between 32 to 54. SES has been operationalized as the fathers' education level and monthly family income. Of the 74 fathers, 11 fathers (15%) were primary or middle school graduates, 26 fathers (35%) graduated from regular or vocational high school, 28 fathers (38%) were college, university extension, or university graduates, while 9 fathers (12%) had post-graduate degrees. (See Figure 3.2). Additionally, participants were asked about their average monthly household income. Surprisingly, the sample had equal distribution among income levels (2.000-4.999 TL (19%), 5.000-7.999 TL (19%), 8.000-10.999 TL (20%), 11.000-13.999 TL (21%), lastly, 14.000 TL and above (21%). (See Figure 3.3). For a control purposes, participants were also asked to report their total number of children. Majority of the fathers have two children: 14 of them (19%) had one child, 43 of them (58%) had two children, 14 of them (19%) had three children, and only 2 of them (3%) had four children.

Figure 3.1 Distribution of the Ages of Children



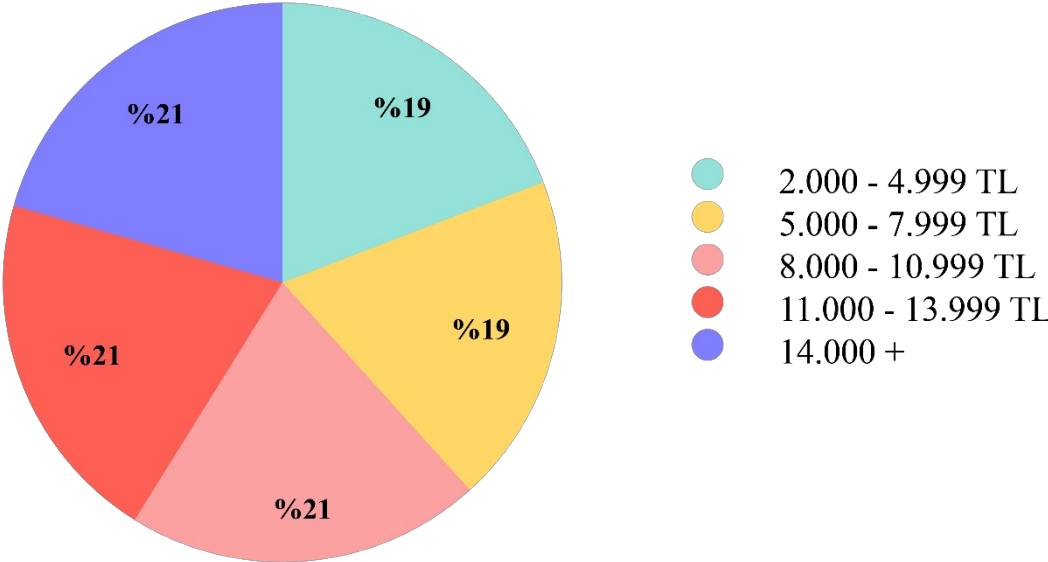
Note: The pie chart above illustrates the children's age distribution in the present study.

Figure 3.2 The Distribution of the Fathers' Education Level



Note: The frequency table illustrates the fathers' education levels.

Figure 3.3 The Distribution of the Average Monthly Income in the Household



Note: The pie chart illustrates the overall average monthly income in the household.

3.2 Measures

3.2.1 Demographic information

In the first part of the survey, the fathers were asked to answer demographic questions including their age, marital status, education level, monthly household income, number of children, and the name, age, and sex information of the target child. (see Appendix A.2)

3.2.2 Fathers' involvement on child raising

Fathers' involvement in childcare was assessed by using the Inventory of Father Involvement. The inventory was developed to measure fathers' evaluation of their own level of fatherhood involvement in child-raising (developed by Hawkins et al., 2002; adapted into Turkish by Ünlü, 2010).

The Turkish adaptation of the questionnaire consists of 26 items with six subscales. In the current study, the participants answered 12 items which are rotated in availability, disciplining, supporting emotionality, and providing subscales. Example items include “I am involved in the daily or regular routine of taking care of my children’s basic needs or activities (feeding, driving them places, etc.)”, “I praise my children for being good or doing the right thing”. The questionnaire was rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always).

The Turkish adaptation of the scale indicated poor reliability of the subscales but good internal consistency of the total score. Internal consistencies of the original study and current study are as follow: availability ($\alpha = .61$; $\alpha_{\text{current}} = .66$), disciplining ($\alpha = .55$; $\alpha_{\text{current}} = .34$), supporting emotionally ($\alpha = .59$; $\alpha_{\text{current}} = .37$), providing ($\alpha = .46$; $\alpha_{\text{current}} = .31$), and total ($\alpha = .86$; $\alpha_{\text{current}} = .63$), respectively. The last three factors consist of two items each, and the number of used items in the current study is less than in the original study. Therefore, the reliability was found to be lower than in the original study. Additionally, the sample size of the original study was 528. The small sample size in the current study was the reason of the lower alfa scores. (See Appendix A.3 for relevant items)

3.2.3 Paternal reactions towards children's emotions

Paternal reactions to children's emotions were assessed by using the sadness subscale of Turkish adaptation of the Responses to Children's Emotions Questionnaire (RCE; developed by O'Neal & Magai, 2005; adapted into Turkish by Ersay, 2014). The Parental Reactions to Children's Emotions Questionnaire was used to obtain paternal emotion socialization strategies toward their children's emotions. The fathers were asked to report the frequency of using different socialization strategies which are reward, punish, neglect, distract, and magnify in response to children's emotions. In order to reduce the number of variables for the analyses, reward and distract subscales were conceptualized as supportive reactions, while punishment, magnify, and neglect subscales were conceptualized as unsupportive reactions.

The questionnaire consists of 15 items for the sadness subscale, two items are reversed. A sample item from reward is "When my child was sad, I helped my child dealing with the upsetting situation", from punish "When my child is sad, I told her that she was acting like a baby", from neglect "When my child was sad, I ignored his sadness", from distract "When my child was sad, I bought her something she liked", and magnify "When my child is sad, I have stated that I am sad". Participants rated their reactions on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always). (See Appendix A.4 for relevant items)

The Turkish adaptation of the scale indicated good internal consistency for the five subscales; the scores are as follow: Reward ($\alpha = .83$), Punish ($\alpha = .84$), Neglect ($\alpha = .85$), Distract ($\alpha = .84$), and Magnify ($\alpha = .79$). For the current study, the Cronbach's Alpha scores are Reward ($\alpha = .74$), Punish ($\alpha = .55$), Neglect ($\alpha = .22$), Distract ($\alpha = .50$), and Magnify ($\alpha = .72$). It is important to note that internal consistency scores in the original study comes from total questionnaire which contains four subscales with 12 items for each reaction; however, the current study conducted with only sadness subscale with three items for each reaction. Therefore, the current study's alfa scores were lower.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was analyzed by using Jamovi to prove the original five factor structure of the scale. The results showed that the model has a moderate fit; [$\chi^2(80) = 130, p < .001, CFI = 0.848, RMSEA = 0.092$ (90% CI [.061, .120]), SRMR = 0.103]. (See Table 3.1 for factor loadings)

Table 3.1 Factor Loadings of Responses to Children's Emotions Questionnaire

Items No	Items	Factor Loadings
Factor 1: Rewarding reactions		
S3	Çocuğuma onu üzen durum ile baş etmesi için yardımcı oldum.	.80
S6	Onu neyin üzdüğünü sordum.	.55
S15	(Çocuğum üzgün olduğunda) onu rahatlattım.	.71
Factor 2: Punishing reactions		
S2	Çocuğuma üzülmeyi bırakmasını söyledim.	.78
S5	(Çocuğum üzgün olduğunda) ona bebek gibi davrandığımı söyledim.	.17
S9	Üzgün olmasını onaylamadığımı söyledim.	.69
Factor 3: Magnifying reactions		
S4	Çok üzüldüm.	.76
S8	Çok üzgün olduğumu belirttim.	.68
S13	(Çocuğum üzgün olduğunda) huzursuz oldum.	.60
Factor 4: Neglecting reactions		
S1(R)	Çocuğumun üzüntüsü ile ilgilendim.	-.73
S12(R)	(Çocuğum üzgün olduğunda) ona zaman ayırdım.	-.43
S14	Üzüntüsünü görmezlikten geldim.	-.02
Factor 5: Distracting reactions		
S7	(Çocuğum üzgün olduğunda) endişe etmemesini söyledim.	.33
S10	(Çocuğum üzgün olduğunda) ona sevdiği bir şey aldım.	.66
S11	(Çocuğum üzgün olduğunda) ona neşelenmesini söyledim.	.58

Note. Standardized estimates were reported. (R) indicates reversed items.

3.2.4 Paternal emotional expressivity in the family

Self-Expressiveness in the Family Questionnaire (SEFQ) was developed by Halberstadt et al. (1995), and it was used to measure the degree of self-expressiveness toward other family members. Fathers were asked to complete the questionnaire to report their own frequency of expressing positive and negative emotions toward other family members.

The original questionnaire consists of 40 items which were rated on a 9-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (not at all frequently) to 9 (very frequently). The short form of the questionnaire was used in the current study, which consists of 12 items in The Negative Expressiveness Subscale and 12 items in The Positive Expressiveness Subscale. Example items contain “Expressing sympathy for someone’s troubles”, “Telling family members how happy you are” for positive expressiveness, and “Expressing momentary anger over a trivial irritation”, “Blaming one another for family troubles” for negative expressiveness. Since other measurements in the current study were mainly rated on 4 to 5-point Likert scales, a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (not at all frequently) to 4 (very frequently) was used in this scale as well. Higher scores indicate more expression of positivity, negativity, and total. In terms of the validity and reliability of the original study of SEFQ, the Cronbach alpha scores are as follow: Positive ($\alpha = .92$), Negative ($\alpha = .85$), and Total ($\alpha = .89$). (See Appendix A.5 for relevant items)

The items were translated from English to Turkish by the researcher and were rated by three independent master’s students who are trained in psychological science and fluent in both English and their native language, Turkish. Then, another bilingual master’s student, who was fluent in both English and Turkish, back translated from Turkish to English. Lastly, the final version of the Turkish adaptation was rated by the supervisor. Cronbach’s Alpha correlation coefficients, Explanatory Factor Analysis and Confirmatory Factor Analysis were completed to examine the validity and reliability scores of the adapted scale.

In the Turkish adaptation of the Self-Expressiveness in the Family Questionnaire, reliability analysis was conducted separately for the positive expressiveness subscale, negative expressiveness subscale, and total scale. The internal consistency scores are as follows: Positive ($\alpha = .77$), Negative ($\alpha = .77$) and Total ($\alpha = .68$).

An Explanatory Factor Analysis (EFA) was conducted by using Jamovi on the 24 items with oblique rotation (oblimin) to examine the dimensionality of the data set. Four items with a KMO value less than .5 were omitted from the scale starting from the lowest value, respectively. The omitted items are as follows: “Threatening someone”, “Spontaneously hugging a family member”, “Praising someone for good work”, and “Putting down other people's interests”. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis, KMO = .659 (“mediocre” according to Field, 2009), and all KMO values for the remaining items were greater than .56 which is above the acceptable limit of .5 (Field, 2009). Bartlett’s test of sphericity $\chi^2(190) = 496, p < .001$, indicated that correlations between items were sufficient for EFA. An initial analysis was performed to obtain eigenvalues for each component, and the results revealed that the eigenvalues of the two components were greater than Kaiser’s criterion of 1. The results demonstrated that 20 items collapsed within two components with factor loadings were greater than .34, and the combination of these two components explained 30.2% of the total variance. The items that cluster on the same components suggest that factor 1 represents a negative emotional expressivity and factor 2 a positive emotional expressivity as in the original study. (See Table 3.2 for factor loadings)

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was also conducted by using Jamovi to confirm the original two factor structure of the questionnaire. The model fit indices indicated a moderate fit; [$\chi^2(169) = 293, p < .001$, CFI = 0.647, RMSEA = 0.10 (90% CI [.08, .119]), SRMR = 0.108].

Table 3.2 Factor Loadings of Self-Expressiveness in the Family Questionnaire

Item No	Items	Factor Loadings
Factor 1: Negative Expressivity		
1	Başkasının hareketlerini küçümsemek.	.36
2	Başkasının davranışından memnuniyetsizliği ifade etmek.	.50
4	Başkasının umursamazlığına öfkelenildiğini ifade etmek.	.58
5	Bir başkasının haksız davranışına karşı somurtkan olmak/surat asmak.	.49
6	Aile sorunları için birbirlerini suçlamak.	.64
8	Başkasını beğenmediğini belli etmek.	.49
9	Gerilim arttığında paramparça olmak.	.49
12	Başarısızlıkla sonuçlanan bir şey için hayal kırıklığını ifade etmek.	.64
16	Bir aile üyesiyle çekişmek.	.56
18	Önemsiz bir kırgınlık nedeniyle anlık öfke ifade etmek.	.38
Factor 2: Positive Expressivity		
10	Başkasının gelecek planları konusunda heyecanını ifade etmek.	.46
11	Hayranlığı belli etmek.	.68
13	Birine ne kadar güzel görüldüğünü söylemek.	.63
14	Birinin sorunlarına karşı sempati/anlayış göstermek.	.53
15	Birine karşı olan derin duyguları ya da sevgiyi ifade etmek.	.68
19	Bir aile üyesine sokulmak/sırnaşmak.	.34
20	Üzgün olan birini neşelendirmeye çalışmak.	.44
21	Aile üyelerine ne kadar mutlu olduğunu söylemek.	.52
23	Bir iyilik için minnettarlığını ifade etmek.	.41
24	Küçük bir hediye veya iyilikle birini şaşırtmak.	.45

Note. Factor loadings of Explanatory Factor *Analysis* were reported.

3.2.5 Interparental conflict

Children's exposure to interparental conflict were assessed by using the Turkish adaptation of the O'Leary Porter Scale (OPS; developed by Porter & O'Leary, 1980; adapted into Turkish by Sümer et al., 2009), the scale measures overt hostility and disagreements of the couple observed by the child and mainly indicates the frequency of the child's exposure to interparental conflict.

The Turkish adaptation of the scale consists of 15 items, rated on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Never) to 4 (Always). One of the items measures the frequency of affection between partners and this item is reversed. Example items include " Arguments are normal in any marriage. How often do you and your spouse argue in front of your child?", "How often do you and your partner say angry words to each other in front of your child?". Higher scores indicate higher exposure of children to interparental conflict. (See Appendix A.6 for relevant items)

The Turkish adaptation of the study indicated good internal consistency ($\alpha = .77$) as it does in the current study ($\alpha = .80$).

Confirmatory Factor Analysis of the O'Leary-Porter Scale was conducted in Jamovi as a single factor in accordance with the original of the questionnaire. The model fit indices demonstrated a moderate fit; [$\chi^2(90) = 126, p = 0.007, CFI = 0.847, RMSEA = 0.074$ (90% CI [.039, .102]), SRMR = 0.077]. (See Table 3.3 for factor loadings)

Table 3.3 Factor Loadings for O’Leary-Porter Scale

Items No:	Items	Factor Loadings
1	Ekonomik sıkıntılarının arttığı günlerde geçimle ilgili tartışmaları belirli zamanlara ve ortamlara sınırlamak zorlaşır. Siz ve eşiniz parasal konuları çocuğunuzun önünde ne sıklıkla tartışırsınız?	.58
2	Çocuklar genellikle anne ya da babasının birinden para veya izin isteyip alamadıklarında hemen diğerine giderler. Sizin çocuğunuz bunu yaptığında ne sıklıkla istediğini elde eder?	.40
3	Eşler genellikle çocuklarının disiplini konusunda anlaşmazlığa düşerler. Siz ve esiniz çocuğunuzun disiplini ile ilgili problemleri onun önünde ne sıklıkla tartışırsınız?	.58
4	Çocuğunuz ne sıklıkla sizi veya eşinizi, ailede kadının üstlenmesi gereken roller (örneğin; ev kadını olmak, çalışan kadın olmak, vb.) ile ilgili tartışırken duyar?	.56
5	Eşiniz ne sıklıkla sizi kişisel bir alışkanlığınız nedeniyle (örneğin; içki sigara içmek, söylenmek, özensiz olmak ve benzeri konularda) çocuğunuzun önünde eleştirir?	.42
6	Siz eşinizi ne sıklıkla kişisel bir alışkanlığı nedeniyle çocuğunuzun önünde eleştirirsiniz?	.69
7	Her evlilikte tartışmaların olması normaldir. Eşinizle tartışmalarınız ne sıklıkla çocuğunuzun önünde cereyan eder?	.65
8	Hepimiz aşırı stres altındayken elimizde olmadan kontrolümüzü biraz da olsa kaybederiz. Evliliğinizde öfke ne sıklıkla çocuğunuzun önünde fiziksel davranışlarla ifade edilir?	.47
9	Siz veya esiniz ne sıklıkla çocuğunuzun önünde birbirinize öfkeli sözler söylersiniz?	.64
10 (R)	Eşinizle birbirinize olan sevginizi ne sıklıkla çocuğunuzun önünde gösterirsiniz?	.26
11	Çocuğunuzun neler ve ne kadar yediği konusunda onun önünde eşinizle ne sıklıkla tartışırsınız?	.49
12	Esinizi çocuğunuzun çok şımarttığı için çocuğunuzun önünde ne sıklıkla eleştirirsiniz?	.44
13	Çocuğunuzla yeterince ilgilenmediği konusunda eşinizle çocuğunuzun önünde ne sıklıkla tartışırsınız?	.42
14	Eşler bazen çocuklarının üzerine gereğinden fazla düşüp onları aşırı korurlar. Siz eşinizle bu konuda çocuğunuzun önünde ne sıklıkla anlaşmazlığa düşersiniz?	.48
15	Okul başarısı ve ders çalışma konusunda çocuğunuzun önünde eşinizle ne sıklıkla tartışırsınız?	.50

Note. Standardized estimates were reported. (R) indicates reversed item.

Additionally, interparental conflict properties were also measured by Turkish adaptation of the Conflict Properties Subscale of the Children's Perception of Interparental Conflict Questionnaire (CPIP; developed by Grych et al., 1992; adapted into Turkish by Sayıl, Kındap-Tepe & Kumru, 2019). The conflict properties subscale consists of 17 items which indicates the interparental conflict in terms of frequency, intensity, and resolution. A sample of items includes "My parents are often mean to each other even when I am around", "My parents have broken or thrown things during an argument", "When my parents disagree about something, they usually come up with a solution", respectively. The questionnaire was rated on a 3-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (true) to 3 (false), and 8 items are reversed. Higher scores indicate lower frequency and intensity, and higher resolution of conflict between parents. (See Appendix B.2 for relevant items)

The Coefficient's Alpha for the conflict properties subscale indicated good internal consistency ($\alpha = .84$) in the Turkish adaptation study, as in the current study ($\alpha = .80$).

Confirmatory Factor Analysis was conducted by using Jamovi as a single factor as recommended in the adaptation study. The model fit indices indicated a moderate fit; [$\chi^2(119) = 267, p < .001, CFI = 0.544, RMSEA = 0.130$ (90% CI [.109, .151]), SRMR = 0.117]. (See Table 3.4 for factor loadings)

Table 3.4 Factor Loadings for Children's Perception of Interparental Conflict Scale

Items No	Items	Factor Loadings
1 (R)	Anne-babamın tartışıklarını hiç görmedim.	.32
2 (R)	Anne-babam tartışıklarında genellikle sorunu çözerler.	.51
3	Anne-babam tartışırken çıldırımış gibi olurlar.	.49
4	Anne-babam belli etmeseler bile onların çok tartışıklarını biliyorum.	.52
5	Anne-babamın tartışmaları bittikten sonra bile birbirlerine olan kızgınlıkları devam eder.	.62
6 (R)	Anne-babam bir anlaşmazlıkları olduğunda sakince konuşurlar.	.40
7	Anne-babam yanlarında ben olsam bile birbirlerine sık sık kötü davranırlar.	.73
8	Anne-babamı sık sık tartışırken görürüm.	.44
9 (R)	Anne-babam bir konu hakkında anlaşamadıklarında genellikle bir çözüm bulurlar.	.29
10 (R)	Anne-babam çok az tartışırlar.	.31
11 (R)	Anne-babam tartışıklarında genellikle hemen barışırlar.	.49
12	Anne-babam evde sıkça birbirlerinden şikayet ederler.	.55
13 (R)	Anne-babam tartışırken çok az bağırlar.	.30
14	Anne-babam tartışırken bir şeyler kırar veya fırlatırlar.	.33
15 (R)	Anne-babam tartışmaları bittikten sonra birbirlerine arkadaşça davranırlar.	.27
16	Anne-babam tartışırken birbirlerini itip kakarlar.	.50
17	Anne-babam tartışmaları bittikten sonra bile birbirlerine kötü davranmaya devam ederler.	.60

Note. Standardized estimates were reported. (R) indicates reversed items.

3.2.6 Emotional security

Children's emotional security was measured by the Turkish adaptation of The Security in the Interparental Subsystem Scale (SIS; developed by Davies et al., 2002; adapted into Turkish by Kuyucu Akyüz & Şendil, 2017).

The scale consists of 15 items with five subscales which are rated on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Absolutely inappropriate) to 4 (Absolutely appropriate). Example items contain "Feel sorry for one or both parents", "Feel like it is my fault", "Yell or say unkind things". (See Appendix B.3 for relevant items)

Internal consistency score were found similar with the Turkish adaptation study and the current study; the Cronbach Alpha scores are as follow: destructive family representations ($\alpha = .77$; $\alpha = .70$), behavioral dysregulation ($\alpha = .62$; $\alpha = .41$), emotional reactivity during conflict ($\alpha = .74$; $\alpha = .67$), post-conflict emotional reactivity ($\alpha = .71$; $\alpha = .47$), and self-blame ($\alpha = .68$; $\alpha = .70$), total ($\alpha = .81$; $\alpha = .79$), respectively. This scale was collected to be used as the control variable of the current study.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted in Jamovi. Model fit indices demonstrated that the model has a moderate fit; [$\chi^2(80) = 155, p < .001$, CFI = 0.687, RMSEA = 0.113 (90% CI [.086, .139]), SRMR = 0.105]. (See Table 3.5 for factor loadings)

Table 3.5 Factor Loading for Security in the Interparental Subsystem Scale

Items No	Items	Factor Loadings
Factor 1: Emotional Reactivity During the Conflict		
1	Üzgün hissederim.	.66
2	Korkmuş hissederim.	.54
3	Biri ya da her ikisi için üzülürüm.	.72
Factor 2: Behavioral Dysregulation		
4	Ailemdeki kişilere bağırırım ya da onlara kaba şeyler söylerim.	.51
5	Ailemdeki kişilere vurur, tekme tokat atar ya da bir şeyler fırlatırım.	.55
6	Maskaralık yapmaya çalışırım veya sorun yaratırım.	.33
Factor 3: Self-Blame		
7	Bana kızgın olduklarını hissederim.	.75
8	Benim hatammış gibi hissederim.	.50
11	Beni suçladıklarını düşünürüm.	.65
Factor 4: Destructive Family Representations		
9	Ailemizin geleceği için endişelenirim.	.71
10	Ailemin ileride ne yapacağı konusunda endişelenirim.	.96
12	Ayrılıp ayrılmayacaklarını ya da boşanıp boşanmayacaklarını merak ederim.	.38
Factor 5: Emotional Reactivity After the Conflict		
13	Bütün günüm berbat olur.	.57
14	Kendimi sakinleştiremem.	.23
15	Kötü duygularımdan kurtulamam.	.34

Note. Standardized estimates were reported.

3.2.7 Children's emotion regulation

The Emotion Regulation Checklist was used to assess the abilities of children's emotion regulation (ERC; developed by Shields & Cicchetti, 1997; adapted into Turkish by Batum & Yağmurlu, 2007). Fathers were asked to report their children's emotion regulation by using the Emotion Regulation subscale of the checklist.

The Emotion Regulation subscale consists of 9 items which were rated on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Never) to 4 (Always), two items are reversed, and one item is excluded from the total score as recommended by the author. Example items contain "Is empathetic toward others; shows concern when others are upset or distressed", "Displays appropriate negative emotions (anger, fear, frustration, distress) in response to hostile, aggressive, or intrusive acts by peers". Higher scores indicate more adaptive emotion regulation in children between the ages of 6 to 12. (See Appendix A.7 for relevant items)

The Coefficient's Alpha for the emotion regulation subscale was found .72, and it was found .58 in the current study.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis was performed by using Jamovi as a single factor since only one subscale was used. The results indicated that the model has a moderate fit; [$\chi^2(20) = 22.6, p = 0.308, CFI = 0.914, RMSEA = 0.042$ (90% CI [.00, .112]), SRMR = 0.068]. (See Table 3.6 for factor loadings)

Table 3.6 Factor Loadings for Emotion Regulation Checklist

Items No	Items	Factor Loadings
1	Neşeli bir çocuktur.	.33
2	Yetişkinlerin arkadaşça ya da sıradan (nötr) davranışlarına olumlu karşılık verir.	.48
3	Yaşlılarının arkadaşça ya da sıradan (nötr) davranışlarına olumlu karşılık verir.	.55
5	Üzüldüğünü, kızıp öfkelenildiğini veya korktuğunu söyleyebilir.	.29
6 (R)	Üzgün veya halsiz görünür.	.25
7 (R)	Yüzü ifadesizdir; yüz ifadesinden duyguları anlaşılmaz.	.25
8	Kendini başkalarının yerine koyarak onların duygularını anlar; başkaları üzgün ya da sıkıntılı olduğunda onlara ilgi gösterir.	.46
9	Yaşlıları ona saldırgan davranır ya da zorla işine karışır, bu durumlarda hissedebileceği olumsuz duyguları (kızgınlık, korku, öfke, sıkıntı) uygun bir şekilde gösterir.	.49

Note. Standardized estimates were reported. (R) indicates reversed items.

3.3 Procedure

Ethics committee approval was gathered from Kadir Has University Human Participants Ethic Committee (approval number: E-82741295-604.01.01-6761). Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, the study was mainly conducted via an online survey. Informative text about the study and invitations were shared by flyers published in football schools and local businesses in Istanbul, announcements posted on social media platforms, and snowball sampling technique was also employed. For the parents who accepted to attend the study, the researcher sent the online survey link, which is prepared using Qualtrics, and fathers were asked to complete the survey independently from their partners. In the first stage, their consent for interviewing their child and contact information was asked for the second step of the study. Then, fathers were asked to complete the demographic information, the Turkish adaptation of the Inventory of Fatherhood Involvement (Hawkins et al., 2002; Ünlü, 2010), the Turkish adaptations of the Responses to Children's Emotions Questionnaire (RCE; O'Neal & Magai, 2005; Ersay, 2014), the short form of Self Expressiveness in the Family Questionnaire (SEFQ; Halberstadt et al., 1995), the O'Leary Porter Scale (OPS; Porter & O'Leary, 1980; Sümer et al., 2009), and the Emotion Regulation subscale of the Emotion Regulation Checklist (ERC; Shields & Cicchetti, 1997; Batum & Yağmurlu, 2007).

After the fathers completed the survey, an online meeting with their child was scheduled to assess their child's reports. The data from the children were completed in an online meeting with the researcher to avoid the results being affected by the children's inexperience with questionnaires. In the online meeting, the children were assured that all their information will be kept confidential, their names will not be used anywhere, and their participation is based voluntary so they can abandon this interview at any time. With this information at the beginning, it was also ensured that the parents left their child alone with the researcher which was crucial for the accuracy of the results. Then the children were asked to complete Turkish adaptation of the Conflict Properties Subscale of the Children's Perception of Interparental Conflict Questionnaire (CPIP; Grych et al., 1992; Ulu & Fıfılođlu, 2002). Finally, to ensure that the survey did not leave the children in a negative mood, breathing exercises were used to calm them down and to thank them for their participation.

3.4 Data Preparation and Data Analyses Strategy

The data set was managed and analyzed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 20.0. Initially, descriptive statistics which include frequencies, percentages, mean, and standard deviation were calculated to identify the nature of the data set. None of the missing values were filtered out; mean replacement was applied for them. There were two missing values on the Inventory of Fatherhood Involvement, 10 missing values on the Responses to Children's Emotions Questionnaire, seven missing values on the Self-Expressiveness in the Family Questionnaire, and three missing values on the O'Leary-Porter Scale.

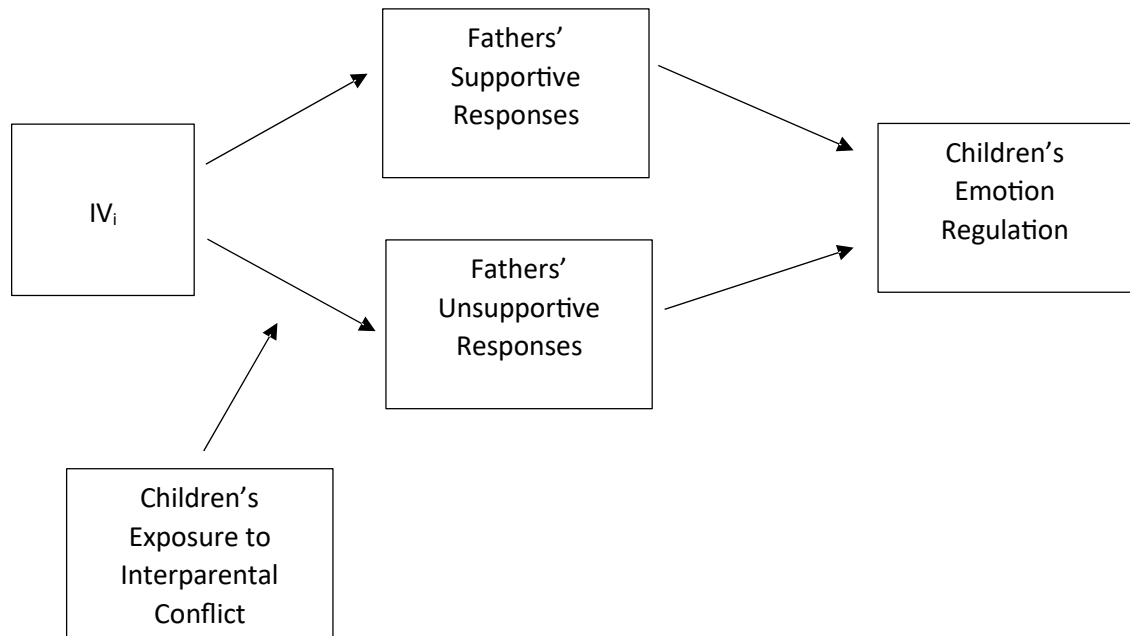
Mahalanobis Distance was used to determine the outliers on fathers and children, separately. Among the fathers, children's emotion regulation was the dependent variable, and all other variables obtained from the fathers were the independent variables. According to the Mahalanobis Distance measurement and Table C: Chi-Square Distribution [$\chi^2(8)$: 20.09, $p < .01$]; the 9th participant was evaluated as an outlier. Among the children, according to the Mahalanobis Distance measurement and Table C: Chi-Square Distribution [$\chi^2(2)$: 9.21, $p < .01$]; similarly, the 9th participant was evaluated as an outlier. Therefore, the participation of the 9th pair was excluded from the current study. In the end, a total of 11 pairs were excluded from the present study.

Confirmatory factor analyses by using Jamovi and reliability analyses by using SPSS were conducted to describe the construct validity and internal consistency of the measurements for the current sample. Explanatory factor analysis on the items of Self-Expressivity in the Family questionnaire was also performed to see their validity in the Turkish translation. Then, an independent sample t-test was conducted by using SPSS to compare the mean differences between boys and girls, to be able to evaluate the groups together. Following the independent sample t-test analysis, a series of descriptive statistics, correlations, and regression analyses were conducted to identify the pattern of the relationship between study variables and to ensure no assumptions were violated. Assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity were met for each regression analysis in the present sample. Intercorrelations on the subscales of the paternal reactions towards children's sadness scale between the subscales and children's emotional

regulation were used to reduce the number of variables in paternal reactions variables.
(See results section)

To address the main hypotheses of the study, a series of simple regression analyses were utilized to examine hypotheses 1, 1a, 1b, 2, 2a, and 2b in order to investigate the influences of paternal emotional expressivities towards other family members on children's emotional regulation and paternal reactions towards their children's sadness. Separate analyses were conducted for paternal positive expressivity and paternal negative expressivity towards other family members as if they were independent variables; and for children's emotional regulation and paternal reactions as if they were dependent variables, respectively. Following the simple regression analyses, several multiple hierarchical regression analyses were performed to analyze hypotheses 3, 3a, and 3b by using SPSS to identify the impacts of interparental conflict on children's emotional regulation and parental reactions towards their children's emotions. The first block of entry contained children's exposure to interparental conflict, and the second block of the entry included children's perceptions of interparental conflict. Lastly, a serial mediation analysis was conducted to test hypothesis 1c to examine the effects of paternal positive emotional expressivity on children's emotional regulation through paternal supportive reactions towards their children's sadness by using PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2013) on SPSS. The indirect effect was confirmed by using bias-corrected bootstrap samples (5000) and a Sobel test. A significant relationship was supported by the absence of zero within the confidence intervals (see Figure 4.3 for the research model).

Figure 3.4 Mediation Model for the Current Study



Note: IV₁ = Paternal Positive Expressivity, IV₂ = Paternal Negative Expressivity, IV₃ = Interparental Conflict. Moderator variable would be only used with IV₃.

4. RESULTS

The results section consists of three sections. First section involves descriptive statistics. Second section includes bivariate correlations of the study variables. The third section includes the results of our hypotheses testing.

4.1. Descriptive Statistics

Initially, an independent samples t-test analysis was conducted with the gender of children to examine the mean differences. The t-test analyses results demonstrated the only significant differences between boys and girls were on children's emotional security variable ($t = -2.73, p = .008$), which is the control variable, and children's perception towards interparental conflict ($t = .225, p = .027$). While one of them is the control variable and the other variable's p-value is greater than .01, boys and girls have been analyzed together to increase the power of the analyses.

We asked the fathers about their fatherhood involvement in child-raising, their reactions towards their children's negative emotions, their degrees of self-expressiveness towards other family members, the frequency of their children's exposure to interparental conflict, and their children's emotion regulation abilities. The participants indicated that they frequently involved child-raising in terms of availability in daily child-care routine (especially taking the child from one place to another), disciplining, emotional supporting, and financial providing. Those participants also stated that while they frequently react supportively towards their children's sadness, they sometimes react unsupportively. More specifically, they almost always used rewarding response (accepting or assisting in handling the relevant emotion) and frequently used distracting response (conforming to the child) towards their children's emotions; they sometimes reacted with the magnifying response which indicates reflecting emotional contagion as if they experienced the same emotion and punishing responses. On the other hand, neglect response was less preferred reaction; the fathers indicated that they rarely ignore their children's sadness. In terms of the level of self-expressiveness, the fathers indicated that they frequently positively express their feeling and rarely negatively express their feeling. According to the exposure to interparental conflict, those fathers expressed that their

children rarely expose to overt hostility or disagreements between their parents. Lastly, fathers reported their children's emotion regulation abilities. The means suggest that those children have appropriate emotion regulation abilities, they frequently regulate their emotions.

In the second part of the study, we asked the children about their perception of interparental conflict between their parents. As can be seen in Table 4.1, the means indicated that those children have mainly negative perception about the interparental conflict which imply higher frequency and intensity of interparental conflict and lower resolution of these conflicts. The children were also asked about their emotional security in the interparental subsystem, which indicates their responses and perceptions towards interparental conflict. The children stated that they rarely had an insecure perception of their parental system.

Table 4.1 t-test Results Comparing Boys and Girls on Target Variables

	Girl (<i>N</i> = 27)		Boy (<i>N</i> = 47)		<i>t</i> (72)	<i>p</i>
	M	SD	M	SD		
Children's age	8.81	1.27	9.17	1.07	-1.283	.204
Fatherhood involvement	49.95	4.74	49.24	4.33	.661	.511
Paternal supportive reactions	4.18	.60	4.18	.50	-.072	.942
Reward	4.44	.65	4.51	.46	-.571	.570
Distract	3.91	.73	3.86	.76	.307	.760
Paternal unsupportive reactions	2.65	.62	2.60	.52	.332	.741
Punish	3.06	.90	3.02	.88	.219	.828
Magnify	3.35	1.10	3.27	.77	.342	.733
Neglect	1.53	.38	1.52	.41	.097	.923
Paternal positive expressivity	3.43	.40	3.45	.43	-.146	.884
Paternal negative expressivity	1.97	.57	1.99	.49	-.121	.904
Interparental Conflict Exposure	23.56	4.85	23.97	5.38	-.333	.740
Interparental Conflict	46.70	4.89	43.96	5.14	2.251	.027
Children's emotional security	23.70	6.24	27.96	6.59	-2.725	.008
Children's emotion regulation	3.16	.49	3.09	.38	.662	.510

Note: M = Mean, SD = Standard Deviation.

Table 4.2 Descriptive Statistics

	M	SD	Min	Max
1 Fatherhood Involvement	49.50	4.46	38.00	60.00
2 Paternal Supportive Reactions	4.18	.53	2.50	5.00
Reward	4.48	.54	2.67	5.00
Distract	3.88	.74	2.33	5.00
3 Paternal Unsupportive Reactions	2.62	.56	1.00	3.78
Punish	3.03	.87	1.00	5.00
Magnify	3.30	.96	1.00	5.00
Neglect	1.52	.40	1.00	2.67
4 Paternal Positive Expressivity	3.44	.42	2.50	4.00
5 Paternal Negative Expressivity	1.98	.52	1.00	3.40
6 Interparental Conflict Exposure	23.82	5.16	15.00	39.00
7 Interparental Conflict	44.96	5.19	31.00	51.00
8 Children's Emotional Security	26.41	6.74	15.00	42.00
9 Children's Emotion Regulation	3.11	.42	2.00	4.00

Note: M = Mean, SD = Standard Deviation.

4.2 Bivariate Correlations

Initially, in order to reduce the number of variables for the analyses, an initial correlation analysis was conducted to examine the associations between the subscales of the Paternal Reactions to Children's Emotions Scale. Considering the statistical associations within the subscales and children's emotion regulation, as well as the conceptual similarity of the items; reward and distract subscales were combined as paternal supportive reactions towards their children's negative emotions; and punish, magnify, and neglect subscales were combined as paternal unsupportive reactions. Although the distraction subscale was positively correlated with the reward, punish, and magnify subscales; it was interpreted as supportive responses because it was positively associated with children's emotion regulation (See Table 4.3).

As indicated in Table 4.4, correlation analyses between father and child demonstrated that children's emotion regulation was significantly correlated with both paternal positive expressivity ($r = .25, p = .029$) and paternal supportive reactions ($r = .45, p < .001$). Also, there was a significant association between paternal positive expressivity and paternal supportive reactions ($r = .32, p = .005$). The results indicated that there were positive associations between children's emotion regulation abilities, fathers' positive expressivity toward other family members, and fathers' supportive reactions toward their children's sadness. On the other hand, there was no significant association between paternal negative expressivity or paternal unsupportive reactions and other target variables. (See Table 4.4) The only significant association of paternal unsupportive reactions was with paternal supportive reactions, ($r = .35, p = .002$), which was not the main concern of the current study. Interestingly, interparental conflict was also found positively associated with children's emotion regulation ($r = .28, p = .016$).

Control variables were also found significantly associated with target variables. Fatherhood involvement in child raising was positively associated with paternal supportive reactions ($r = .40, p < .001$), but negatively associated with children's exposure to interparental conflict ($r = -.24, p = .041$). Additionally, children's emotional security within the interparental subsystem was negatively associated with paternal positive expressivity ($r = -.29, p = .014$) and interparental conflict ($r = -.36, p = .002$).

Table 4.3 Bivariate Correlations Among Subscales of Paternal Reactions Scale

		1	2	3	4	5	6
1	Reward	-					
2	Punish	.148	-				
3	Magnify	.093	.516**	-			
4	Neglect	-.654**	.100	.064	-		
5	Distract	.370**	.602**	.437**	-.162	-	
6	ER	.409**	.077	.042	-.427**	.342**	-

Note: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$, two-tailed; ER stand for Children's Emotion Regulation.

Table 4.4 Bivariate Correlations Among Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 Child Age	-						
2 Monthly Income	-.01	-					
3 Fathers' Education Level	-.16	.52**	-				
4 Fatherhood Involvement	-.05	-.02	.03	-			
5 Supportive Reactions	.04	-.12	-.37**	.40**	-		
6 Unsupportive Reactions	.12	-.23*	-.35**	.01	.35**	-	
7 Positive Expressivity	.01	.15	-.02	.15	.32**	-.09	-
8 Negative Expressivity	-.05	.09	.17	-.16	-.09	.21	-.19
9 Children's Exposure to Interparental Conflict	.11	-.09	-.10	-.24*	-.03	.19	-.07
10 Interparental Conflict Resolution	.04	.15	.11	-.03	.09	-.08	.04
11 Children's Emotional Security	.03	-.09	.01	.01	-.06	.05	-.29*
12 Children's Emotion Regulation	-.10	.05	-.08	.19	.45**	-.04	.25*

Note: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$, two-tailed.

4.3 Results of the Main Hypotheses

4.3.1 Hypothesis 1: Fathers who express more positive emotions towards their family members are expected to have children who have higher emotional regulation.

A simple linear regression was conducted with children's emotion regulation as the dependent variable, and paternal positive emotional expressivity as the independent variable. The paternal positive emotional expressivity was found to have a statistically significant effect on their children's emotion regulation, $F(1, 72) = 4.96, p = .03$. The model suggested that paternal positive emotional expressivity explained 7% of the variance ($R^2 = .07$) in children's emotion regulation. An increase in paternal positive emotional expressivity significantly increased children's emotion regulation, $\beta = .25, t(72) = 2.23, p = .03$ (See Table 4.5). The result supports our hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1a claimed that *fathers who express more positive emotions towards their family members are expected to react more supportively towards their child's sadness*. Thus, a simple linear regression was calculated to predict the paternal supportive reactions based on paternal positive emotional expressivity. There was a positive significant association between paternal positive emotional expressivity and paternal supportive reactions toward children's emotions, $F(1, 72) = 8.39, p = .01$, and 10% of the total variance of fathers' supportive reactions toward their children's emotion was explained by fathers' positive emotional expressivity toward other family members ($R^2 = .10$). The results demonstrated that an increase in paternal positive emotional expressivity significantly increased paternal supportive reactions, $\beta = .32, t(72) = 2.90, p = .005$. The result supports hypothesis 1a.

Hypothesis 1b predicted that *fathers who express more positive emotions towards their family members are expected to respond towards their child's sadness less unsupportively*. According to the results, paternal positive emotional expressivity did not have a statistically significant association on paternal supportive reactions toward children's emotion, $F(1, 72) = .58, p = .45, R^2 = .03$. The results indicated that paternal positive emotional expressivity did not predict paternal unsupportive reactions, $\beta = -.09, t(72) = -.76, p = .45$. Thus, the results did not support hypothesis 1b.

Table 4.5 Regression Analyses Summary for the Group of Hypothesis 1

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Hypothesis 1: X \longrightarrow Y					
Constant	2.24	.39		5.69	.000
Paternal Positive Expressivity	.25	.11	.25	2.23	.03
Hypothesis 1a: X \longrightarrow M ₁					
Constant	2.77	.49		5.62	.000
Paternal Positive Expressivity	.41	.14	.32	2.90	.01
Hypothesis 1b: X \longrightarrow M ₂					
Constant	3.03	.54		5.59	.000
Paternal Positive Expressivity	-.12	.16	-.09	-.76	.45

Note. For hypothesis 1: DV = Children's Emotion Regulation. $R^2 = .07$; for hypothesis 1a: DV = Paternal Supportive Reactions. $R^2 = .10$; for hypothesis 1b: DV = Paternal Unsupportive Reactions. $R^2 = .01$.

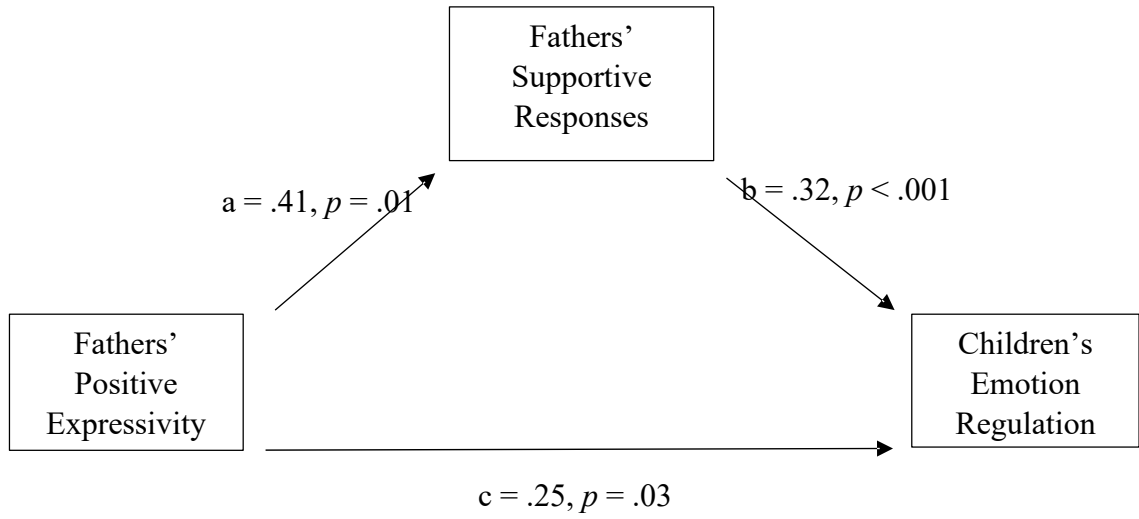
Hypothesis 1c predicted that fathers' *supportive and unsupportive reactions towards their child's sadness would mediate the relationship between paternal positive emotional expressivity towards their family members and children's emotion regulation*. A bootstrapping method was conducted using SPSS PROCESS Macro (Hayes, 2013) with children's emotion regulation as the outcome variable, paternal positive expressivity as the predictor variable, and paternal supportive reactions toward children's emotions as the mediator. While there was no significant association between paternal positive expressivity and paternal unsupportive reactions towards their children's sadness, a simple mediation analysis was constructed. The results indicated that paternal positive emotional expressivity was a significant predictor of paternal supportive reactions, $B = .41$, $SE = .14$, $95\%CI[.13, .69]$, $p = .005$, and that paternal supportive reactions toward their children's emotion was a significant predictor of children's emotion regulation $B = .32$, $SE = .09$, $95\%CI[.14, .49]$, $p < .001$. These results support our hypothesis. Paternal positive emotional expressivity towards other family members was no longer a significant predictor of children's emotion regulation after controlling for the fathers' supportive reactions towards their children's emotions $B = .12$, $SE = .11$, $95\%CI[-.10, .34]$, $p = .27$, consistent with full mediation. 21% of the total variance in children's emotion regulation was explained by the predictors ($R^2 = .21$). The results of the indirect effect based on 5000 bootstrap samples indicated a significantly positive indirect relationship between paternal positive emotional expressivity and children's emotion regulation mediated by paternal supportive reactions toward their children's emotions $B = .13$, $SE = .07$, $95\%CI[.03, .32]$. A Sobel test was performed, and it revealed that the indirect effect of paternal positive emotional expressivity was significant on children's emotion regulation ($z = 2.21$, $p = .03$). The results suggest that fathers' more positive emotional expressivity toward other family members was associated with children's emotion regulation scores that were approximately .13 points higher as mediated by fathers' supportive reactions towards their children's emotions. Thus, hypothesis 1c was supported. (See Table 4.6 and Figure 4.1)

Table 4.6 Mediation Analysis Summary for Hypothesis 1c

Variable / Effect	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	95% Confidence Interval	
X → Y	.12	.11	1.11	.27	-.10	.34
X → M ₁	.41	.14	2.90	.01	.13	.69
X → M ₁ → Y	.32	.09	3.63	<.001	.14	.49
Effects						
Direct	.12	.11	1.11	.27	-.10	.34
Indirect	.13	.07			.03	.32
Total	.25	.11	2.23	.03	.03	.48

Note: Based on 5000 bootstrap samples. X = paternal positive expressivity towards other family members, M = paternal supportive reactions towards their children's emotions, Y = children's emotion regulation.

Figure 4.1 Mediation Model for Hypothesis 1c



4.3.2 Hypothesis 2: Fathers who express more negative emotions towards their family members are expected to have children who are poorer in emotion regulation.

A simple linear regression was run to predict children's emotion regulation based on paternal negative emotional expressivity. There was no significant association between paternal negative emotional expressivity and children's emotion regulation, $F(1, 72) = .65, p = .42, R^2 = .01$. The results indicated that fathers' negative emotional expressivity toward other family members did not predict children's emotion regulation abilities, $\beta = -.10, t(72) = -.81, p = .42$ (See Table 4.7). Thus, hypothesis 2 has been rejected.

Hypothesis 2a predicted that *fathers who express more negative emotions towards their family members are expected to respond towards their child's sadness less supportively*. A simple linear regression analysis was run to examine the prediction of fathers' supportive reactions towards their children's emotional states based on their negative emotional expressivity towards other family members. Similarly, paternal negative emotional expressivity did not predict fathers' supportive responses toward their children's emotions, $F(1, 72) = .55, p = .46, R^2 = .01$. The results exposed that there was no statistically significant association between fathers' negative emotional expressivity and supportive reactions towards their children's emotions, $\beta = -.09, t(72) = -.74, p = .46$. Thus, the result did not support hypothesis 2a as well.

Hypothesis 2b claimed that *fathers who express more negative emotions towards their family members are expected to react more unsupportively towards their child's sadness*. A simple linear regression analysis was used to assess whether paternal negative emotional expressivity predicts fathers' unsupportive reactions toward their children's sadness. Likewise, fathers' negative emotional expressivity did not predict their unsupportive responses toward their children's emotion, $F(1, 72) = 3.31, p = .07, R^2 = .04$. The results demonstrated that there was no statistically significant association between paternal negative emotional expressivity and paternal unsupportive reactions towards children's emotions, $\beta = .21, t(72) = 1.82, p = .07$. Similarly, hypothesis 2b was not supported.

Table 4.7 Regression Analyses Summary for the Group of Hypothesis 2

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Hypothesis 2: X \longrightarrow Y					
Constant	3.27	.19		16.94	.000
Paternal Negative Expressivity	-.08	.09	-.10	-.81	.42
Hypothesis 2a: X \longrightarrow M ₁					
Constant	4.36	.25		17.69	.000
Paternal Negative Expressivity	-.09	.12	-.09	-.74	.46
Hypothesis 2b: X \longrightarrow M ₂					
Constant	2.17	.25		8.58	.000
Paternal Negative Expressivity	.22	.12	.21	1.82	.07

Note. For Hypothesis 2: DV = Children's Emotion Regulation. $R^2 = .01$; For Hypothesis 2a: DV = Paternal Supportive Reactions. $R^2 = .01$; For Hypothesis 2b: DV = Paternal Unsupportive Reactions. $R^2 = .04$.

Hypothesis 2c claimed that *fathers' reactions towards their child's sadness would mediate the relationship between paternal negative emotional expressivity towards their family members and children's emotion regulation*. Hypothesis 2 demonstrated that there was no significant association between paternal negative emotional expressivity and children's emotion regulation. The modern view of the mediation analysis suggests that no significant association between predictor and outcome variables is imposed for the mediational model. It is assumed that considering the limitations of the data collection and research design, mediation analysis can be performed even if the causality cannot be established definitively (Hayes, 2013). However, only if the independent variable is a statistically significant predictor of the mediator, that variable (possible mediator) can act as a mediator in the causal ranking of the independent variable and dependent variable (Baron & Kenney, 1986; Hayes, 2009, 2013; Abu-Bader & Jones, 2021). According to the previous results of hypothesis 2a and hypothesis 2b, there were no significant relationships between paternal negative emotional expressivity and paternal supportive reactions $b = -.21$, $SE = .13$, BCa CI [-0.460, 0.040], $p = .098$, and paternal unsupportive reactions $b = .17$, $SE = .14$, BCa CI [-0.107, 0.456], $p = .220$. As a consequence of the necessary condition have not been met, mediation analysis could not be constructed. Therefore, hypothesis 2c was rejected from the outset.

4.3.3 Hypothesis 3: Higher levels of interparental conflict resolution are expected to be positively associated with children's emotion regulation.

A two stages hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted to examine whether interparental conflict resolution significantly predicts children's emotion regulation after controlling children's exposure to interparental conflict. Children's exposure to the interparental conflict was entered at stage one, and interparental conflict resolution was entered at stage two with children's emotion regulation as the dependent variable. The hierarchical multiple regression indicated that at stage one, children's exposure to interparental conflict did not significantly contribute to the regression model, $F(1, 72) = 3.59, p = .06$. However, adding interparental conflict resolution to the second stage made the regression model significant and explained 11% of the total variance ($R^2 = .11$), $F(2, 71) = 4.47, p = .03$. The results revealed that there was a positive significant relationship between interparental conflict resolution and children's emotion regulation, which means that children who perceive higher levels of interparental conflict resolution tend to have greater emotion regulation score $\beta = .26, t(71) = 2.27, p = .03$ (See Table 4.8). Hypothesis 3 has been supported.

Hypothesis 3a predicted that *higher levels of interparental conflict resolution are expected to be positively associated with fathers' supportive responses towards their child's sadness*. A multiple regression analysis was carried out to investigate the relationship between interparental conflict resolution and paternal supportive reactions toward their child's sadness, after controlling children's exposure to interparental conflict. The results indicated that the overall model did not explain paternal supportive reactions toward child's sadness, $F(2, 71) = .32, p = .73$. Neither children's exposure to interparental conflict ($\beta = -.02, t(71) = -.12, p = .90$) nor children's perception toward interparental conflict resolution ($\beta = .09, t(71) = .77, p = .45$) did not significantly associate with fathers' supportive responses. Thus, hypothesis 3a was not supported.

Hypothesis 3b asserted that *higher levels of interparental conflict resolution are expected to be negatively related to fathers' unsupportive reactions toward their child's sadness*. A multiple regression analysis was conducted to investigate the relationship between interparental conflict resolution and paternal unsupportive reactions toward the children's emotional states, after controlling children's exposure to interparental conflict. The

results illustrated that the overall model did not significantly predict paternal unsupportive reactions toward child's sadness, $F(2, 71) = 1.36, p = .26$. Both children's exposure to interparental conflict ($\beta = .18, t(71) = 1.51, p = .14$) and their perception towards interparental conflict resolution ($\beta = -.05, t(71) = -.46, p = .65$) did not have any significant association on fathers' unsupportive reactions. Thus, hypothesis 3b has been rejected.

Hypothesis 3c claimed that *fathers' reactions towards their child's sadness would mediate the relationship between interparental conflict resolution and children's emotion regulation*. Although a significant relationship was found between interparental conflict resolution and children's emotion regulation scores (significance values reported in section above), no significant relationship was found between the independent variable and neither of the mediator variables. Therefore, mediation analysis could not be established because the fundamental condition could not be met. Thus, hypothesis 3c was rejected as well.

Table 4.8 Regression Analyses Summary for the Group of Hypothesis 3

Model		<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>R</i> ²
Hypothesis 3:							
1	Constant	3.53	.23		15.60	.000	
	Interparental Conflict Exposure	-.02	.01	-.22	-1.90	.06	.03

2	Constant	2.55	.49		5.22	.00	
	Interparental Conflict Exposure	-.02	.01	-.19	-1.64	.11	
	Interparental Conflict	.02	.01	.26	2.27	.03	.09

Hypothesis 3a:							
1	Constant	4.25	.30		14.34	.000	
	Interparental Conflict Exposure	<.00	.01	-.03	-.26	.82	.00

2	Constant	3.80	.66		5.77	.00	
	Interparental Conflict Exposure	<.00	.01	-.02	-.12	.90	
	Interparental Conflict	.01	.01	.09	.77	.45	.01

Hypothesis 3b:							
1	Constant	2.14	.30		7.04	.000	
	Interparental Conflict Exposure	.02	.01	.19	1.60	.11	.03

2	Constant	2.42	.68		3.57	.001	
	Interparental Conflict Exposure	.02	.01	.18	1.51	.14	
	Interparental Conflict	-.01	.01	-.05	-.46	.65	.04

Note. For Hypothesis 3: DV = Children's Emotion Regulation; For Hypothesis 3a: DV = Paternal Supportive Reactions; For Hypothesis 3b: DV = Paternal Unsupportive Reactions.

5. DISCUSSION

For a few decades, the importance of emotional regulation on individuals' future outcomes is strongly emphasized in the developmental psychology field. Therefore, understanding the effects of environmental factors on the development of children's emotion regulation has great importance. While the family is underlined as the most significant social group for children in which they learned and experienced the majority of the social attitudes (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2007; Đurišić, 2018), existing literature stressed the specific impacts of parents' contributions to children's positive emotional development in terms of their emotion-related parenting practices and their personal emotional adjustments (Thompson & Meyer, 2007; Eisenberg, 2020). However, previous studies on children's emotion regulation have been predominantly focused on maternal impacts; there have been limited work on fathers' unique contributions (Van Lissa & Keizer, 2020; Cherry & Gerstein, 2021; Davies et al., 2021). A recent meta-analysis about the paternal sensitivity and children's developmental outcomes revealed that there has been a significant growth in fathers' involvement in childcare in the Western, educated, industrialized, rich, and democratic (WEIRD) societies since the 1970s (Rodrigues et al., 2021). Thus, the current study aimed to contribute to filling a gap in the field by focusing on the direct and indirect impacts of fathers on children's emotional development with data from a Turkish father-child sample. The main concern of this study is to examine the unique contributions of fathers on children's emotion regulation abilities by investigating the cornerstones of familial emotion socialization strategies.

A theoretical framework about the familial impacts on children's emotion regulation development has been constructed by Morris and her colleagues (2007). According to the model, parents influence their children's emotion regulation by three interrelated processes which are modeling, emotion-related parenting practices, and emotional climate in the family. In the current study, emotion-related parenting has been conceptualized as paternal supportive and unsupportive reactions towards their children's sadness, and emotional climate in the family has been conceptualized as the fathers' positive and negative expressivity towards other family members and children's perceptions towards their parents' interparental conflict. The main research question of this study was how family emotional climate affects paternal emotional functioning in the

family context, and, consequently, children's emotion regulation. If the more positive emotional climate in the family influences the fathers' reactions to the children's emotions and reveals more adaptive emotion regulation of children, their integrations would provide a more robust explanation for the contextual influences on children's socioemotional abilities. Thus, it was expected that emotional climate in the family would be significantly associated with fathers' reactions to their child's emotions which would be the proximal predictor of children's emotion regulation.

More specifically, it has been aimed to explore the mediational effects of fathers' responses towards children's emotional states on their overall emotional climate in the family and their children's emotion regulation abilities. The impacts of fathers' positive and negative emotional expressivity towards other family members and interparental conflict on children's emotion regulation have been investigated. It was expected that while paternal emotional expressivity towards other family members would increase children's emotion regulation (H1), their negative emotional expressivity towards other family members (H2) and higher levels of interparental conflict (H3) would decrease children's emotion regulation, respectively. Additionally, the impacts of paternal positive and negative emotional expressivity towards other family members and interparental conflict on fathers' supportive and unsupportive reactions towards their children's sadness have been also examined. At this point, it was expected that while fathers who express more positive emotions towards other family members react more supportively and less unsupportively towards their children's sadness (H1a, H1b), fathers who express more negative emotions towards other family members and who experience higher levels of conflict with their partner would react less supportively (H2a, H3a) and more unsupportively (H2b, H3b) towards their children's sadness, respectively. Lastly, it was hypothesized that parental reactions towards their children's sadness would mediate the relationship between paternal positive emotional expressivity towards other family members (H1c), paternal negative emotional expressivity towards other family members (H2c), and interparental conflict (H3c) and children's emotion regulation.

Hypothesis 1, which claimed that paternal positive emotions towards other family members would increase children's emotional regulation, has been supported. It has been found that fathers who express their own emotions towards other family members more positively would likely have children who have adaptive emotion regulation abilities.

Existing studies did not show consistent evidence on the influences of parental emotional expressivity on children's emotion regulation. Some studies revealed that positive emotional expressivity within the family provides an adaptive environment for children to experience their emotions and consequently, they can learn how to react appropriately (Fosco & Grych, 2013; Speidel et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2021). On the other hand, some contradictory studies were failed to find any association between positive emotional expressivity within the family and child's emotional adjustment (Eisenberg et al., 2001; Milojevich & Haskett, 2018). The result of our first hypothesis was consistent with the studies which suggest a positive association between parental positive emotional expressivity and children's emotion regulation. The inconsistencies between the studies might be a result of the differences in measurement techniques, study design, participant diversities, or cultural differences. Eventually, our result indicated that the Turkish father's positive emotional expressivity has a positive influence on children's emotional regulation, as we expected.

Likewise, hypothesis 1a which expected that paternal higher levels of positive emotional expressivity would predict their more supportive reactions towards their child's sadness has also been supported. It means that fathers who express more positive emotions towards other family members increase their tendency to respond more supportively to their children's negative emotions, as was shown in the previous studies (Meyer et al., 2014; Bertie et al., 2021). These studies have been highlighted the mediational associations between parental reactions toward children's emotional needs and their overall internal and intrapersonal emotional functioning. In this regard, the influences of parental emotional expressivity on their emotion-related parenting practices have been identified. Specifically, it is stated that parents who express their own emotions positively towards other family members are more likely to respond supportively to their children's negative emotions. On the other hand, although a negative correlation between paternal positive emotional expressivity and their unsupportive reactions towards children's sadness was found, hypothesis 1b which hypothesized that higher levels of paternal positive emotional expressivity would decrease paternal unsupportive reactions towards their children's emotions was not supported. This discrepancy between the correlation results and the regression analysis may be due to the control variable of fathers' parenting qualities. The control variable indicated that the fathers participating in the current study

were frequently involved in the daily childcaring processes, which might be interpreted as that the participants are composed of involved fathers. Once the influence of involved parenting is removed, the significant link was also lost.

In the hypothesized mediational model, the mediating influences of fathers' supportive reactions, but not unsupportive reactions, towards their child's sadness on the association between the paternal positive emotional expressivity and children's emotion regulation were examined. Some studies about fatherhood suggest that fathers, who are characterized as being more permissive and physically interactive than mothers in childcare, develop children's self-regulation skills, provided they are warm and responsive (Stevenson & Crnic, 2013; Zhang, Liu & Hu, 2021). It means that fathers would contribute their children's emotional development only if they are warm and supportive. This might be the reason why fathers' unsupportive reactions towards their child's sadness did not associate with their emotional expressivity whereas supportive reactions did. In support of our hypothesis 1c, a pathway from paternal positive emotional expressivity to their supportive reactions towards their children's sadness and then to children's emotional regulation was found. These findings are consistent with the previous studies about the impacts of parental positive emotional expressivity on children's emotional adjustment (Fosco & Grych, 2013; Meyer et al., 2014; Bertie et al., 2021). Importantly, it should be noted that the association between paternal positive expressivity towards other family members and their children's emotion regulation was not significant after controlling for the effects of paternal supportive reactions towards their children's sadness. This result indicates that while fathers' higher levels of positive emotional expressivity towards other family members are entirely beneficial for their children's adaptive emotional adjustment, parents' responses towards children's negative emotions protect its place as a cornerstone of parental socialization practices. In support of the impacts of parental responses towards children's emotions, former evidence proved that while parental supportive reactions towards their children's emotional states improve their children's emotion regulation skills, their unsupportive reactions revealed poorer emotion regulation development in children (Morris et al., 2017; Di Giunta et al., 2021; Rodrigues et al., 2021; Byrd et al., 2022). Even though we could not find a significant relationship for paternal unsupportive reactions, this association between parents' emotion-related parenting practices and children's emotional adjustment has been proved

with Turkish mothers as well (Gülseven et al., 2018). Eventually, the most important result of this model is that fathers provide a unique contribution on children's emotional adjustment just as impressive as mothers, consistent with the Tripartite Model of Familial Influences.

It was also expected that higher levels of paternal negative emotional expressivity towards other family members would predict poorer emotional regulation abilities of children. Although it was found a slightly negative relationship between fathers' negative emotional expressivity within the family and children's emotion regulation, the results did not support hypothesis 2. Similarly, neither hypothesis 2a which claimed a negative association between paternal negative emotional expressivity and their supportive reactions to children's negative emotions nor hypothesis 2b which predicted a positive relationship between fathers' negative emotional expressivity and their unsupportive reactions towards their children's negative emotions were not supported. Although the findings demonstrated that paternal negative emotional expressivity slightly decreases their tendency to respond towards their children's sadness supportively, and marginally increases their leaning to respond to them unsupportively, the results were not supported statistically. Therefore, the hypothesized mediational model in hypothesis 2c which predict a pathway from paternal negative emotional expressivity to paternal reactions and in turn to children's emotion regulation could not be constructed because of the lack of evidence on the necessary conditions. Interestingly, these results are in contrast with the previous studies which demonstrated that parents' negative emotional expressivity in broader contexts of the household discourages the children to express their emotional states which cost poorer emotion regulation development (Luebbe & Bell, 2014; Speidel et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2021). Herein, self-report bias should be considered when discussing the results of paternal negative emotional expressivity in the present study. It was possible that while fathers evaluated themselves more generously in their positive expressivity towards other family members, they may have portrayed themselves more gently in their tendency to express their own negativity. The same situation should be acknowledged for self-reports of fathers in their supportive and unsupportive reactions towards their children's sadness.

While reviewing our findings, we were reminded of our observations during data collection and wanted to explore the impact of SES on emotion socialization attitudes. However, we

decided not to include these exploratory analyses in our main findings section as this was not a hypothesized relationship, thus our sampling did not have a relevant criteria for SES and this was an ad-hoc exploration. When we added fathers' education level and monthly average income at the first stage for hypothesis 2a, and hypothesis 2b; the multiple regression analysis revealed significant results (for 2a: $F(3, 72) = 2.95, p = .04$; for 2b: $F(3, 72) = 5.03, p = .003$) which indicated that fathers from lower socioeconomic backgrounds were more likely react less supportively and more unsupportively toward their child's sadness. Thus, we find it important to note that future studies examining fathers' impacts on children's emotional development should consider SES as a viable exploratory variable. In a study, Bozok (2018) claimed that while patriarchy defines the continuity between traditional fatherhood and modern fatherhood in the relations that fathers establish with both their children and their spouses, socioeconomic relations affect not only the social attributions and expectations of masculinity and fatherhood, but also the quantity and quality of the time that fathers and children spend together. Thus, to understand paternal impacts, it is necessary to understand the prevailing social and economic relations that surround it today. According to the Bozok's study (2018), masculinities in Turkey are shaped within today's capitalist patriarchal relations, as in the rest of the world. A gender role is attributed to men who work outside the home and provide for the family needs. Therefore, depending on the working life experienced in capitalist patriarchal relations, fathers cannot spend enough quality time with their children (Cabrera et al., 2000; Cabrera, Volling & Barr, 2018; Bozok, 2018). In this context, studies that will examine the impacts of Turkish fathers on the emotional development of children should pay particular attention to the socioeconomic status of fathers and the quality and quantity of time fathers and their children spent to further our understanding of this relationship.

From the point of view of interparental conflict, hypothesis 3 predicted that higher levels of interparental conflict resolution would predict higher emotion regulation in children, after controlling children's level of exposure to conflict between their parents. The results demonstrated that children's exposure to interparental conflict did not associate with their emotion regulation abilities. However, when children's perception of interparental conflict was added to the model, the results indicated that higher levels of interparental conflict resolution predict higher emotion regulation abilities of children. This result

support our expectations as consistent with the previous studies which proves that children with parents who can positively handle the interparental conflict through physical and verbal affection, warmth, and adaptive coping strategies tend to have higher emotion regulation abilities. Also, it has been known that children who grow up in a home characterized as more chaotic by frequent and intense hostility have less adaptive emotion regulation abilities (McCoy et al., 2009; Koss et al., 2011; Siffert & Schwarz, 2011; Hong et al., 2021).

In our study, children's perception of interparental conflict variable revealed frequency, intensity, and resolution parts; however, children's exposure to interparental conflict only indicated the frequency of the conflict. Thus, the inconsistencies between our results on children's exposure to interparental conflict and their perception of interparental conflict properties were also consistent with the previous studies which revealed that not frequency and intensity, but the resolution of the interparental conflict has the most important influences on children's emotional adjustment. On the other hand, while the children's perception of conflict properties between their parents was collected from children, children's exposure to interparental conflict was collected from fathers. This also may be another reason why exposure to interparental conflict does not seem to have an influence on children's emotion regulation, while children's perceptions of conflict between their parents have a significant influence. The different reporters may be reporting on different phenomenon. This point needs further exploration.

We failed to find support for the hypothesis 3a which expected that higher levels of interparental conflict resolution would increase fathers' supportive reactions towards their child's sadness. Similarly, hypothesis 3b, which predicted that higher levels of interparental conflict resolution would decrease fathers' unsupportive reactions towards their child's sadness, was not supported. Neither children's perception of interparental conflict nor the frequency of their exposure to conflict between their parents were not associated with paternal supportive and unsupportive reactions. However, there were marginal relationships between children's exposure to interparental conflict and fathers' reactions towards their child's sadness. More specifically, higher levels of exposure to the interparental conflict were slightly associated with lower levels of supportive parental reactions and higher levels of unsupportive reactions. On the other hand, while higher levels of children's perception towards interparental conflict marginally increased

fathers' supportive responses towards their children's sadness, it marginally decreased fathers' unsupportive responses, as expected. Even these results could not provide statistically significant evidence, they were consistent with the existing studies which revealed that chronic and hostile interparental conflict is comorbidly associated with a more negative emotional climate within the family and unsupportive parental functioning by higher levels of harsh parenting, less parental warmth, and lower levels of responsiveness to children's emotional states (Fosco & Grych, 2013; Melim et al., 2019; Hong et al., 2021). If the fathers in this study's data set consist of constructive and solution-oriented conflicting fathers, their reactions to their child's sadness may be affected by their constructiveness. As in hypothesis 2c, the hypothesized mediational model in hypothesis 3c, which is supposed to find a pathway from interparental conflict to parental reactions towards child's sadness, and subsequently to children's emotional regulation, could not be constructed due to the lack of evidence for necessary conditions.

To sum up, this study demonstrated that not paternal negative emotional expressivity, but paternal positive emotional expressivity towards other family members influences their children's emotion regulation abilities both directly and indirectly by increasing paternal supportive reactions towards children's sadness. Additionally, the study indicated that interparental conflict resolution increases children's emotion regulation development. However, according to the current study, fathers' reactions towards their child's sadness were not impacted by conflict with their partners.

5.1 Strengths and Limitations

Emotion regulation development of children has been mainly stressed through maternal emotion socialization practices in previous studies. However, for the last few decades, fathers have been recognized as playing an important role in child development as much as mothers. There were few studies which evaluate children's emotion regulation through the joint contributions of mothers and fathers, and fathers uniquely. Nevertheless, none of the studies examined paternal perceptions of family emotional climate as a context on children's emotion regulation. The strength of this study is in examining the fathers' unique contributions to their children's emotion regulation development.

Additionally, previous studies have been conducted by asking and then combining reactions to a number of negative emotions such as anger and sadness. However, as recommended in the Cassano, Zeman, and Sander's study (2014), it is important to identify parental socialization practices on a single negative emotion of children. From this viewpoint, parents' reactions towards their children's sadness, anger, or fear may not be the same. More specifically, parents' neglecting reactions towards their children's sadness and anger, or their magnifying responses towards their children's fear and sadness, might not have the same consequences for children's emotional regulation development. Thus, the second strength of the study is determining the impacts of paternal emotional socialization on children's sadness only.

Finally, in the context of children's emotion regulation, early childhood is evaluated as a crucial period for studying socioemotional development. On the other hand, teenagers draw attention through their rapid socio-emotional changes during adolescence. For these reasons, previous studies mainly focused on the emotion regulation development of preschoolers and adolescents. Middle childhood has been understudied empirically. Although the social environment of the school-age children begins to diversify with the friendships they make and their school life, the primary role models of these children are still their parents. Therefore, it is worth investigating the continuing impact of parents on children with increasing diversity in their emotional socialization. Overall, this study provided important evidence for future studies about fatherhood and parental intervention programs.

The results of this study should be evaluated by taking into consideration of some limitations as well. Most critically, Self-Expression in the Family Questionnaire was measured using a 4-point Likert scale instead of a 9-point Likert scale. In order to avoid the limits created by this mistake, a series of factor analyses, validity and reliability analyses were conducted. Although the questionnaire demonstrated good internal consistency in the current study, the results of the study should be interpreted considering the fact that the data in this study have a smaller variance range than should be given the original questionnaire guidelines.

Similarly, we restricted the reactions of fathers to children's emotions through the specific emotion, sadness. However, the measurement we used for children's emotion regulation

revealed a global emotion regulation score for both positive and negative emotions. In this context, distinct emotion-specific regulation measurements are needed. Also, the measurement tools we used were mainly adapted for mothers' reports. There is also a need for measurement which evaluate fathers' parenting. Future studies should focus on specific measurements.

In addition, we controlled fathers' involvement in childcare by using the availability, disciplining, supporting emotionality, and providing subscales of the Inventory of Father Involvement. However, an additional question about fathers' amount of time spent with the child might be an important variable as well. Future studies should consider both the quality and quantity of time spent between father and child.

Likewise, this study was conducted with father-child dyads by using a survey method. While children's participations were under the control of the researcher, fathers' participation could not be controlled in any way except by adding an attention question on every scale. As mentioned before, parental self-report techniques do not provide completely accurate results compared to objective measurements (Stoop & Cole, 2022). Thus, self-report bias should be recognized as a limitation of this study.

Additionally, while this study operationalized family emotional climate via paternal emotional expressivity and interparental conflict, only fathers who were married to their child's mother and lived in the same home were included in this study. Herein, future studies should also focus on the children of divorced families to understand the emotion regulation abilities of children who have divorced parents and have a stepparent as well. A family level measure of family emotional climate rather than single member report of emotional expressivity and conflict is also needed in the area.

Finally, the study sample was unequally divided between boys and girls. Although the t-test analysis results did not demonstrate significant differences in terms of the child's gender, this uneven distribution should still be acknowledged.

5.2 Conclusion

In this graduate thesis, a literature review was conducted concerning children's emotional regulation and familial socialization, parental responses towards children's emotional

states, family emotional expressivity, interparental conflict, and conflict resolution styles between spouses. In this context, the study was theoretically rooted in the Tripartite Model of familial influences on children's emotional regulation. Accordingly, three conceptual models were provided through fathers' emotional socialization practices. Then, the research design which involves characteristics of the participants, measurements used, procedure, and analysis strategies were introduced. Subsequently, the results of the current study were presented, and the findings were discussed while considering the potential limitations.

In the previous research, positive paternal emotional expressivity, supportive parental reactions towards children's negative emotional states, and constructive interparental conflict have been demonstrated to be related to higher emotional regulation of children. On the other hand, parental negative emotional expressivity, parental unsupportive responses towards children's negative emotions, and destructive interparental conflict have been demonstrated to be related to poorer emotional regulation development of children. In this regard, the current study aimed to examine fathers' unique contribution in line with the Tripartite Model on children's emotional adjustment. According to our results, paternal positive emotional expressivity towards other family members and their supportive responses towards their children's sadness increase their children's emotional regulation. Our findings about fathers' sensitive emotion-related parenting practices supported the existing literature. However, we were not able to find statistically significant evidence for the impacts of paternal negative emotional expressivity and paternal unsupportive reactions towards their children's sadness on children's emotional adjustment. The most interesting finding in our study was that children's higher levels of perception towards interparental conflict predicted their more adaptive emotional regulation, however, exposure to higher levels of interparental conflict was not. Unfortunately, we were unable to specify how interparental conflict increased children's ability to regulate emotion.

These findings presented valuable points regarding the role of fathers in children's socioemotional development. At this point, the positive and supportive role of fathers in the emotional socialization of children should be emphasized and fathers should be encouraged to demonstrate more warmth towards their children and be open to expressing their own emotions in a positive way towards their family members. Besides, further

examination of fathers' negativity within the family context and the inconsistencies between fathers' and children's perceptions of interparental conflicts would help to a more informed understanding of previous findings.

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APPENDIX A

A.1 Informed Consent for Fathers

Bu çalışma, Kadir Has Üniversitesi Psikoloji Bilimleri Yüksek Lisans öğrencisi Handenur Kalay'ın yüksek lisans tezi kapsamında, Kadir Has Üniversitesi Psikoloji Bölümü öğretim üyesi Doç. Dr. Aslı Çarkoğlu danışmanlığında yürütülmektedir. Çalışmanın amacı 8-10 yaş aralığındaki çocukların duygu düzenleme becerilerinin gelişiminde çeşitli ailesel etkilerin rolünü babaların bazı tutum ve davranışları üzerinden incelemektir. Bu amacı gerçekleştirebilmemiz için sizin ve çocuğunuzun bazı anketleri doldurmanıza ihtiyaç duymaktayız.

Çalışmaya katılım tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayalıdır. Sorulara vereceğiniz yanıtlar tamamen gizli tutulacak ve sadece araştırmacılar tarafından değerlendirilecektir; elde edilecek bilgiler yalnızca bilimsel araştırmalar için kullanılacaktır. Ankette size veya çocuğunuza rahatsızlık verebilecek herhangi bir soru bulunmamaktadır. Ancak, katılım sırasında sorulardan ya da herhangi başka bir nedenden ötürü kendinizi rahatsız hissetmeniz durumunda dilediğiniz an çalışmayı yarıda bırakıp çıkma hakkına sahipsiniz. Çalışmaya katılmayı kabul etmeniz durumunda, araştırma sonuçları açısından sağlıklı bilgiler edinilmesi için vereceğiniz cevaplarda samimi olmanız son derece önemlidir. Hiçbir sorunun doğru ya da yanlış cevabı yoktur. Lütfen her soru grubunun başındaki açıklamaları dikkatlice okuyun ve değerlendirmenizi buna göre yapın. Babalar ile gerçekleştirilecek birinci aşama yaklaşık olarak 15 dakika sürmektedir.

Araştırma sonuçlarının sağlıklı olması ve çocukların duygu düzenleme becerilerini etkileyen faktörlerin saptanması için önemli olan sizin cevaplarınızdır. Bu sebeple, çalışma esnasında rahatsız edilmediğiniz bir ortamda olmanız ve anketi doldururken sorular hakkında eşinizle ya da başka biriyle görüş alışverişinde bulunmamanızı rica ediyoruz; soruları kimseden etkilenmeden yalnız başınıza cevaplandırmanız bizim için çok önemli. Bu çalışmaya katıldığınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz. Çalışma hakkında daha fazla bilgi almak için Psikoloji Bilimleri Yüksek Lisans öğrencisi Handenur Kalay [redacted] ile iletişime geçebilirsiniz.

Araştırmaya katılmak istiyorsanız lütfen aşağıdaki “kabul ediyorum” seçeneğini işaretleyiniz ve bir sonraki sayfaya geçiniz. “Kabul ediyorum” seçeneğini işaretleyerek bu onam formunu okuduğunuzu, anladığınızı ve araştırmaya katılmayı kabul ettiğinizi belirtmiş olacaksınız.

Bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum, istediğim zaman yarıda kesip çıkabileceğimi ve çalışmanın ikinci aşamasında çocuğumla görüşüleceğini biliyorum. Verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı yayınlarda kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum.

Evet, kabul ediyorum.	
Hayır, kabul etmiyorum.	

A.2 Demographic Information

Katılımcı Numarası: Lütfen adınız ile soyadınızın baş harfini ve doğum tarihinizi gün-ay-yıl şeklinde kodlayınız. (Ör: HK16071995):

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1. Doğum yılınız:

2. Medeni durumunuz:

- Evli (Çocuğumun öz annesi ile evliyim)
 Evli (Çocuğumun öz annesinden farklı biri ile evliyim)
 Bekar (Boşandım)
 Bekar (Eşimi kaybettim)

3. Sizin eğitim durumunuzu öğrenebilir miyim?

İlkokul terk (5 yıldan az)	
İlkokul mezunu (5 yıl)	
Orta okul mezunu (8 yıl)	
Lise mezunu-Normal (11 yıl)	
Lise mezunu-Meslek (11 yıl)	
Yüksekokul-Üniversite 2 yıllık (13-14 yıl)	
Açık öğretim-Üniversite 4 yıllık (14 yıl +)	
Üniversite 4 yıllık (14 yıl +)	
Lisans üstü (16 yıl +)	

4. Hanenizin aylık ortalama toplam gelirinin ne kadar olduğunu öğrenebilir miyim?

100 – 1.999 TL		8.000 – 10.999 TL	
2.000 – 4.999 TL		11.000 – 13.999 TL	
5.000 – 7.999 TL		14.000 ve üstü	

5. Sahip olduğunuz çocuk sayısı (Çalışmaya katılan çocuğunuz dahil):

6. Çalışmaya katılacak olan çocuğunuzun:

İsmi:

Doğum Tarihi (gün/ay/yıl):

Cinsiyeti:

7. Çalışmanın ikinci aşamasına devam edebilmemiz için iletişim bilgilerinize ihtiyaç duymaktayız.

Telefon numaranız:

E-mail adresiniz:

A.3 Inventory of Father Involvement

Lütfen, son 12 ayda baba olarak yaşadığınız tecrübelerinizi düşününüz ve aşağıda listelenen her maddeyi, bu davranışı ne kadar yaptığınızı düşünerek cevaplandırınız.

	Hiçbir zaman	Çok nadir	Bazen	Sıklıkla	Her zaman
Çocuğumun katıldığı etkinliklere (okul etkinlikleri, spor, geziler vb.) katılırım.					
Çocuğumun temel ihtiyaçlarını sağlarım.					
Çocuğumu iyi olduğu ve doğru şeyler yaptığı için överim.					
Çocuğumla ilgili günlük/rutin işleri yaparım. (Çocuğun beslenmesi, bir yerden başka bir yere götürülmesi)					
Çocuğumu iyi bir şey yaptığımda ödüllendiririm.					
Çocuğumun finansal desteğini sağlamakta sorumluluk alırım.					
Dikkat sorusu (Bu satırı özellikle boş bırakınız)					
Çocuğuma onu sevdiğinizi söylerim.					
Çocuğum benimle konuşmak istediğinde sadece onunla konuşmak için zaman harcarım.					
Küçük yaştaki çocuğuma kitap okurum.					
Çocuğumu disipline ederim.					
Çocuğumun yapmaktan hoşlandığı şeylerde onunla vakit geçiririm.					
Çocuğumu ev işleri yapması için cesaretlendiririm.					

A.4 Responses to Children's Emotions Questionnaire

Bu ölçeği doldurmak için, çocuğunuzun son bir ay içinde yaşadığı duyguları düşünün. Çoğu çocuk, bir dizi duygu hisseder ve gösterir. Son zamanlarda çocuğunuzun üzgün, öfkeli, korkulu veya aşırı neşeli olduğunu görmüş olabilirsiniz. Çocuğunuz bu duyguları son haftalarda bir veya birden fazla da göstermiş olabilir.

A. Geçen ay içinde çocuğunuzun aşağıda yazılı olan duyguları ne SIKLIKLA gösterdiğini işaretleyiniz: 1 = Hiçbir zaman, 2 = Nadiren, 3 = Bazen, 4 = Sık sık, 5 = Her zaman.

	1	2	3	3	5
Çocuğunuz üzgün veya keyifsiz hisseder.					

Anneler ve babalar çocuklarının duygularına çok farklı şekillerde tepkiler verebilirler. Bu formda, bir çocuğun üzgün, kızgın, korkulu veya aşırı neşeli olduğunda anne babasının ona verebileceği tepkiler yer almaktadır. Bunlardan bazıları, hiçbir zaman göstermediğiniz, bazen gösterdiğiniz veya sık sık gösterdiğiniz tepkiler olabilir. Lütfen aşağıdaki her bir maddeyi son bir ayda çocuğunuzun duygularına verdiğiniz tepkileri düşünerek cevaplayınız. Eğer çocuğunuzun geçen ayda belirli bir duyguyu gösterdiğini hatırlayamıyorsanız, lütfen çocuğunuzun o duyguyu ifade ettiğini varsayın ve muhtemel tepkilerinizin ne olabileceğini düşünün.

B. Son bir ay içinde çocuğunuzun üzgün veya keyifsiz olduğu zamanları düşünün. Son bir ay içinde çocuğunuzun **ÜZGÜN** olduğu veya **KEYİFSİZ** hissettiği zamanlarda, aşağıdaki her bir tepkiyi ne sıklıkla gösterdiğinizi işaretleyiniz.

ÇOCUĞUM ÜZGÜN OLDUĞUNDA	1	2	3	4	5
Çocuğumun üzüntüsü ile ilgilendim.					
Çocuğuma üzölmeyi bırakmasını söyledim.					
Çocuğuma onu üzen durum ile baş etmesi için yardımcı oldum.					
Çok üzöldüm.					
Ona bebek gibi davrandığımı söyledim.					
Onu neyin üzöüğünü sordum.					
Endişe etmemesini söyledim.					
Çok üzöün olduğumu belirttim.					
Dikkat sorusu: Bu satırı özellikle boş bırakınız.					
Üzöün olmasını onaylamadığımı söyledim.					
Ona sevdiği bir şey aldım.					
Ona neşelenmesini söyledim.					
Ona zaman ayırdım.					
Huzursuz oldum.					
Üzüntüsünü görmezlikten geldim.					
Onu rahatlattım.					

A.5 Self-Expressiveness in the Family Questionnaire

Bu soru formu insanların aile içinde kendilerini ifade etme dereceleri hakkındadır. Soru formuna cevap verirken, aile üyeleri ile karşılaşılan her bir durumda kendinizi ne kadar sıklıkla ifade ettiğinizi düşünmeye çalışın. Aşağıda verilen ölçeği kullanarak, belirtilen her bir durumda kendinizi ne kadar sıklıkla ifade ettiğinizi en iyi belirten sayıyı yazınız. 1= Hiç uygun değil, 2= Çok az uygun, 3= Kısmen Uygun, 4= Tamamen uygun

	1	2	3	4
Başkasının hareketlerini küçümsemek				
Başkasının davranışından memnuniyetsizliği ifade etmek				
Birini yaptığı iyi bir iş için takdir etmek				
Başkasının umursamazlığına öfkelenildiğini ifade etmek				
Bir başkasının haksız davranışına karşı somurtkan olmak/surat asmak				
Aile sorunları için birbirlerini suçlamak				
Başkalarının merakını önemsiz görmek				
Başkasını beğenmediğini belli etmek				
Gerilim arttığında paramparça olmak				
Başkasının gelecek planları konusunda heyecanını ifade etmek				
Hayranlığı belli etmek				
Başarısızlıkla sonuçlanan bir şey için hayal kırılığını ifade etmek				
Dikkat sorusu: Bu satırı özellikle boş bırakınız.				
Birine ne kadar güzel görüldüğünü söylemek				
Birinin sorunlarına karşı sempati/anlayış göstermek				
Birine karşı olan derin duyguları ya da sevgiyi ifade etmek				
Bir aile üyesiyle çekişmek				
Bir aile üyesine durup dururken sarılmak				
Önemsiz bir kızgınlık nedeniyle anlık öfke ifade etmek				
Bir aile üyesine sokulmak/sırnaşmak				
Üzgün olan birini neşelendirmeye çalışmak				

Aile üyelerine ne kadar mutlu olduğunu söylemek				
Birini tehdit etmek				
Bir iyilik için minnettarlığını ifade etmek				
Küçük bir hediye veya iyilikle birini şaşırtmak				

A.6 O'Leary-Porter Scale

Ölçek, anne ve babaların farklı konularda çocukların önünde ne sıklıkla tartışıklarını ölçmeyi amaçlamaktadır. Verilen numaralandırma sistemini kullanarak, aşağıdaki durumları ne sıklıkla yaşadığınızı belirtin.

	Hiçbir zaman	Bazen	Sık sık	Her zaman
Ekonomik sıkıntıların arttığı günlerde geçimle ilgili tartışmaları belirli zamanlara ve ortamlara sınırlamak zorlaşır. Siz ve eşiniz parasal konuları çocuğunuzun önünde ne sıklıkla tartışırsınız?				
Çocuklar genellikle anne ya da babasının birinden para veya izin isteyip alamadıklarında hemen diğerine giderler. Sizin çocuğunuz bunu yaptığında ne sıklıkla istediğini elde eder?				
Eşler genellikle çocuklarının disiplini konusunda anlaşmazlığa düşerler. Siz ve eşiniz çocuğunuzun disiplini ile ilgili problemleri onun önünde ne sıklıkla tartışırsınız?				
Çocuğunuz ne sıklıkla sizi veya eşinizi, ailede kadının üstlenmesi gereken roller (örneğin; ev kadını olmak, çalışan kadın olmak, vb.) ile ilgili tartışırken duyar?				
Eşiniz ne sıklıkla sizi kişisel bir alışkanlığınız nedeniyle (örneğin; içki sigara içmek, söylenmek, özensiz olmak ve benzeri konularda) çocuğunuzun önünde eleştirir?				
Siz eşinizi ne sıklıkla kişisel bir alışkanlığı nedeniyle çocuğunuzun önünde eleştirirsiniz?				
Her evlilikte tartışmaların olması normaldir. Eşinizle tartışmalarınız ne sıklıkla çocuğunuzun önünde cereyan eder?				
Hepimiz aşırı stres altındayken elimizde olmadan kontrolümüzü biraz da olsa kaybederiz. Evliliğinizde öfke ne sıklıkla çocuğunuzun önünde fiziksel davranışlarla ifade edilir?				
Dikkat sorusu: Bu soruyu özellikle boş bırakınız.				
Siz veya eşiniz ne sıklıkla çocuğunuzun önünde birbirinize öfkeli sözler söylersiniz?				
Eşinizle birbirinize olan sevginizi ne sıklıkla çocuğunuzun önünde gösterirsiniz?				
Çocuğunuzun neler ve ne kadar yediği konusunda onun önünde eşinizle ne sıklıkla tartışırsınız?				
Eşinizi çocuğunuzun çok şımarttığı için çocuğunuzun önünde ne sıklıkla eleştirirsiniz?				

Çocuđunuzla yeterince ilgilenmediđi konusunda eřinizle çocuđunuzun önünde ne sıklıkla tartıřırsınız?				
Eřler bazen çocuklarının üzerine geređinden fazla düşün onları aşırı korurlar. Siz eřinizle bu konuda çocuđunuzun önünde ne sıklıkla anlaşmazlıđa düşersiniz?				
Okul başarısı ve ders çalışma konusunda çocuđunuzun önünde eřinizle ne sıklıkla tartıřırsınız?				

A.7 Emotion Regulation Checklist

Aşağıdaki listede bir çocuğun duygusal durumu ile ilgili çeşitli ifadeler yer almaktadır. Verilen numaralandırma sistemini kullanarak, aşağıdaki davranışları çocuğunuzda ne sıklıkla gözlemlediğinizi lütfen işaretleyiniz:

1= Hiçbir Zaman / Nadiren, 2= Bazen, 3= Sık sık, 4= Neredeyse her zaman

	1	2	3	4
Neşeli bir çocuktur.				
Yetişkinlerin arkadaşça ya da sıradan (nötr) yaklaşımlarına olumlu karşılık verir.				
Yaşıtlarının arkadaşça ya da sıradan (nötr) yaklaşımlarına olumlu karşılık verir.				
Mızımızdır ve yetişkinlerin eteğinin dibinden ayrılmaz.				
Üzüldüğünü, kızıp öfkeli olduğunu veya korktuğunu söyleyebilir.				
Üzgün veya halsiz görünür.				
Yüzü ifadesizdir; yüz ifadesinden duyguları anlaşılır.				
Kendini başkalarının yerine koyarak onların duygularını anlar; başkaları üzgün ya da sıkıntılı olduğunda onlara ilgi gösterir.				
Yaşıtları ona saldırgan davranır ya da zorla işine karışırsa, bu durumlarda hissedebileceği olumsuz duygularını (kırgınlık, korku, öfke, sıkıntı) uygun bir şekilde gösterir.				

APPENDIX B

B.1 Informed Consent for Children

Sevgili Babalar,

Daha önce katılmayı kabul ettiğiniz çalışmada anketi tamamladığınız için teşekkür ederiz. Çalışmanın ikinci aşaması kapsamında çocuğunuz ile çevrimiçi bir görüşme düzenlenecektir. Çalışmanın amacı 8-10 yaş aralığındaki çocukların duygu düzenleme becerilerinin gelişiminde çeşitli ailesel etkilerin rolünü babaların bazı tutum ve davranışları üzerinden incelemektir. Bu amacı gerçekleştirebilmek için çocuğunuzun da bazı anket sorularını cevaplandırmasına ihtiyaç duymaktayız.

Katılmasına izin verdiğiniz takdirde çocuğunuz ile çevrimiçi bir görüşme düzenlenecektir. Çocuğunuzun cevaplayacağı soruların onun psikolojik gelişimine olumsuz etkisi olmayacağından emin olabilirsiniz. Sizin ve çocuğunuzun cevaplayacağı anketlerde vereceğiniz yanıtlar tamamen gizli tutulacak ve sadece araştırmacılar tarafından değerlendirilecektir; elde edilecek bilgiler yalnızca bilimsel araştırma için kullanılacaktır. Ankette çocuğunuza rahatsızlık verebilecek herhangi bir soru bulunmamaktadır. Ancak, katılım sırasında sorulardan ya da herhangi başka bir nedenden ötürü kendisini rahatsız hissetmesi durumunda çalışmayı dilediği an yarıda bırakıp çıkmakta serbest olduğu bilgisi görüşme başında çocuğunuza açıklanacaktır.

Çalışmaya katılımı kabul etmeniz durumunda, araştırma sonuçları açısından sağlıklı bilgiler edinilmesi için çocuğun kendisini rahat hissettiği ve kimsenin etkisi altında kalmadan cevap verebilmesi için mümkünse yalnız olduğu bir ortamda görüşmenin gerçekleştirilmesi son derece önemlidir. Çocuğunuz ile gerçekleştirilecek görüşme yaklaşık olarak 10 dakika sürmektedir.

Bu çalışmaya katıldığınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz. Çalışma hakkında daha fazla bilgi almak için Psikoloji Bilimleri Yüksek Lisans öğrencisi Handenur Kalay [REDACTED] ile iletişime geçebilirsiniz.

Çalışmaya devam etmek istiyorsanız lütfen aşağıdaki “kabul ediyorum” seçeneğini tıklayınız. “Kabul ediyorum” seçeneğini tıklayarak bu onam formunu okuduğunuzu, anladığınızı ve çocuğunuzun araştırmaya katılmasını kabul ettiğinizi belirtmiş olacaksınız.

Çocuğumun bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılmasını kabul ediyorum ve istediği zaman yarıda kesip çıkabileceğini biliyorum. Verdiği bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı yayınlarda kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum.

B.2 Conflict Properties Subscale of the Children's Perception of Interparental Conflict Questionnaire

Her ailede anne ve babanın anlaşamadığı, tartıştığı zamanlar olur. Aşağıda anne-babaların tartıştığı zamanlarla ilgili bazı ifadeler yer almaktadır. Eğer anne ve babanız, sizinle birlikte aynı evde yaşamıyorsa, sorulara, aynı evde yaşarken anlaşamadıkları zamanları düşünerek cevap veriniz. Lütfen her bir ifade için size uyan rakamı daire içine alarak belirtiniz.

	Doğru	Bazen/ Biraz Doğru	Yanlış
Anne-babamın tartıştıklarını hiç görmedim.			
Anne-babam tartıştıklarında genellikle sorunu çözerler.			
Anne-babam tartışırken çıldırması gibi olurlar.			
Anne-babam belli etmeseler bile onların çok tartıştıklarını biliyorum.			
Anne-babamın tartışmaları bittikten sonra bile birbirlerine olan kızgınlıkları devam eder.			
Anne-babam bir anlaşmazlıkları olduğunda sakince konuşurlar.			
Anne-babam yanlarında ben olsam bile birbirlerine sık sık kötü davranırlar.			
Anne-babamı sık sık tartışırken görürüm.			
Anne-babam bir konu hakkında anlaşamadıklarında genellikle bir çözüm bulurlar.			
Anne-babam çok az tartışırlar.			
Anne-babam tartıştıklarında genellikle hemen barışırlar.			
Anne-babam evde sıkça birbirlerinden şikayet ederler.			
Anne-babam tartışırken çok az bağırlar.			
Anne-babam tartışırken bir şeyler kırar veya fırlatırlar.			
Anne-babam tartışmaları bittikten sonra birbirlerine arkadaşça davranırlar.			
Anne-babam tartışırken birbirlerini itip kakarlar.			
Anne-babam tartışmaları bittikten sonra bile birbirlerine kötü davranmaya devam ederler.			

B.3 The Security in the Interparental Subsystem Scale

1= Kesinlikle doğru değil, 2= Biraz doğru, 3= Kısmen doğru, 4= Tamamen doğru

Annemle babam bir tartışma yaşadığında

	1	2	3	4
Üzgün hissederim.				
Korkmuş hissederim.				
Biri ya da her ikisi için üzülürüm.				
Ailemdeki kişilere bağırırım ya da onlara kaba şeyler söylerim.				
Ailemdeki kişilere vurur, tekme tokat atar ya da bir şeyler fırlatırım.				
Maskaralık yapmaya çalışırım veya sorun yaratırım.				
Bana kızgın olduklarını hissederim.				
Benim hatammış gibi hissederim.				
Ailemizin geleceği için endişelenirim.				
Ailemin ileride ne yapacağı konusunda endişelenirim.				
Beni suçladıklarını düşünürüm.				
Ayrılıp ayrılmayacaklarını ya da boşanıp boşanmayacaklarını merak ederim.				

Annemle babam tartıştıktan sonra

Bütün günüm berbat olur.				
Kendimi sakinleştiremem.				
Kötü duygularımdan kurtulamam.				

CURRICULUM VITAE

Personal Information

Handenur Kalay

Academic Background

Bachelor's Degree Education: Kadir Has University, Psychology, 06.2018

Graduate Education: Kadir Has University, Psychological Sciences, 06.2022

Foreign Languages: English, Italian

Work Experience

Hope Foundation for Children with Cancer (KAÇUV), 06.2022 – Present

Tabiat Kindergarten, 09.2021 – Present

Keystone International School, 09.2018 – 04.2019

Kadir Has University Information Center, 11.2015 – 06.2018