# Factors Predicting Gender Roles in Children 

## Fatma Gözde Özdemir

Submitted to the<br>Institute of Graduate Studies and Research in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Science in
Developmental Psychology

Approval of the Institute of Graduate Studies and Research

Prof. Dr. Ali Hakan Ulusoy<br>Acting Director

I certify that this thesis satisfies all the requirements as a thesis for the degree of Master of Science in Developmental Psychology.

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Fatih Bayraktar<br>Chair, Department of Psychology

We certify that we have read this thesis and that in our opinion it is fully adequate in scope and quality as a thesis for the degree of Master of Science in Developmental Psychology.

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Şenel Hüsnü
Raman
Supervisor

Examining Committee

## 1. Prof. Dr. Biran Mertan

2. Assoc. Prof. Dr. Fatih Bayraktar
3. Assoc. Prof. Dr. Şenel Hüsnü Raman


#### Abstract

Children show feminine or masculine features at a very early age. These features gradually grow in children with the socialization process. With this process children behave in line with and show preference for same-gender peers and activities which are seen as appropriate for their sex. There are a number of factors that lead to these gender-appropriate behaviors and create gender roles. The aim of the current study was to determine the effects of stories about women superheroes on the perception of children's traditional gender roles. To date, there has been no research which has looked at the effects of female superheroes on gender stereotyping.

The sample consisted of 76 ( 37 male and 37 female) Turkish speaking children between the ages of 6-11 years. Children were separated into two groups: The experimental and control. It was hypothesized that children in the experimental group who listened to female superheroes stories would show reduced gender bias and traditional gender role typing at the post-test phase in comparison to the control group who listened to stories about animals. They were given a pre-test to determine their TV exposure and pre-existing gender stereotyping. Those in the experimental group were read the Supergirl stories for three consecutive weeks, whereas children in the control condition were simply read stories about animals. At the post-test phase both groups received the same battery of questions as the pre-test and also, Job Check List, Peer preference scale and Toy preference scale were used.


Findings showed that participants exposed to the experimental manipulation of storytelling, listed a significantly more number of female superheroes as their favorite
superhero than before the intervention. No difference between conditions for gender stereotyped attitudes after storytelling was obtained. Results are discussed in the light of previous studies.

Keywords: Gender, Gender Development, Gender Stereotyping, Gender Roles, Storytelling

## ÖZ

Çocuklar erken yaşta kadınsı ve erkeksi özellikler gösterir. Bu özellikler zamanla sosyalleşme süreci ile gelişir. Bu süreç ile birlikle, çocuklar kendi toplumsal cinsiyetlerine uygun aktivitelere ve kendileri ile aynı olan cinsiyette akranlara doğru yönelir. Toplumsal cinsiyet uyumlu davranışları destekleyen faktörler var ve bu faktörler toplumsal cinsiyet rollerini ortaya çıkarmaktadır. Bu çalışmanın amacı, çocukların geleneksel toplumsal cinsiyet rolleri perspektifleri üzerinde kadın süperkahramanların etkisini belirlemektir. Bu tarihe kadar, kadın süper kahramanlar ve bunun toplumsal cinsiyet rolleri üzerinde etkisini araştırmış bir çalı̧maya rastlanmamıstır.

Örneklem, 6-11 yaş arasında olan, Türkçe konuşan 76 (37 erkek ve 39 kız) katılımcıdan oluşmaktadır. Katılımcıların iki gruba ayrılmıştır: Deney ve kontrol grubu. Çalışmanın hipotezine göre, kadın süper kahraman hikayeleri dinleyen deney grubundaki çocuklar, manipülasyon sonrasındaki aşamada hayvan hikayeleri dinleyen kontrol grubuna kıyasla geleneksel cinsiyet kalıplarında azalma ve daha az cinsiyete dayalı önyargı gösterecektir. Çocukların televizyon kullanımı ölçmek için demografik sorular ve çocukların var olan cinsiyet rolü kalıplarını ölçmek için ise Cinsiyete Dayalı Tutum Ölçeği kullanılmıştır. Deney grubunda olan çocuklara Supergirl hikayeleri, kontrol grubundakilere ise hayvan hikayeleri araştırmacı tarafından birer hafta ara ile üç hafta boyunca okunmuştur. Manipülasyon sonrasındaki aşamada akran tercihi, oyun tercihi ve Meslek seçimi ölçekleri bütün katılımcılar için kullanılmıştır. Deneysel manipülasyon olan hikaye anlatımının sonucunda, çocukların verdiği verilere dayanarak kayda değer bir biçimde kadın kahramanların sayısında artış olduğu rapor
edilmiştir. Ayrıca, alınan sonuçlara göre, hikaye anlatımlarından sonra, deney ve kontrol grupları arasında toplumsal cinsiyete dayalı tutumlar açısından bir fark bulunamamıştır. Sonuçlar önceki çalışmalar ışığında tartışılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Toplumsal Cinsiyet, Toplumsal Cinsiyet Gelişimi, Toplumsal Cinsiyet Rolleri, Toplumsal Cinsiyet Kalıpları, Hikaye Okuma

To my family

## ACKNOWLEDGMENT

First of all, I would like to begin by expressing my sincere appreciation to my supervisor Assoc. Prof. Dr. Şenel Hüsnü Raman for generously sharing her time and expertise with valuable guidance extended to me. I am extremely happy and proud to have a chance to study with her and, also, grateful for her encouraging advices, suggestions and endearing me in the field. Her guidance gave me enthusiasm, motivation and helped me throughout this process with enjoyment.

Secondly and most importantly, I would like to thank my family for providing me with endless support and uninterrupted encouragement throughout my years and for writing my thesis. They have an undeniably significant role in achieving what I have aimed until now and it wouldn't be possible without their support.

Lastly, I would like to thank my dearest friends for their priceless support, warmth and non-stop affection for years. They made it possible to pass through every obstacle with their existence and encouragement.

This thesis is very first and minor contribution from me in the field of psychology, I hope that I would have more and greater contributions to this field.

## TABLE OF CONTENT

ABSTRACT ..... iii
ÖZ ..... v
DEDICATION ..... vii
ACKNOWLEDGMENT ..... viii
LIST OF TABLES ..... xii
1 INTRODUCTION .....  1
1.1 Theoretical Approaches to Gender Development .....  1
1.1.1 Social Learning Theory .....  2
1.1.2 Cognitive Developmental Theory ..... 3
1.1.3 Gender Schema Theory .....  4
1.2 The Influence of Media Sources on Gender-Role Development. .....  6
1.3 Effects of Counter-Stereotypical Models and Superheroes on Gender-Role
Perception. ..... 11
1.4 The Current Study ..... 15
2 METHOD ..... 16
2.1 Participants ..... 16
2.2 Materials ..... 16
2.2.1 Pre-test Measures ..... 16
2.2.1.1 Demographic Questionnaire ..... 16
2.2.1.2 Stereotyped Attitude Scale for Children (GASC) ..... 16
2.2.2 Post-test Measures ..... 17
2.2.2.1 Stereotyped Attitude Scale for Children (GASC) ..... 17
2.2.2.2 Job Check List ..... 17
2.2.2.3 Peer Preference ..... 17
2.2.2.4 Toy Preference ..... 18
2.2.3 Stories of Supergirl vs. Stories about Animals ..... 18
2.3 Procedure and Design ..... 18
3 RESULTS ..... 20
3.1 Preliminary Analysis ..... 20
3.1.1 Descriptive Statistics ..... 20
3.1.2 Chi Square Analysis ..... 20
3.1.3 Correlation ..... 21
3.2 ANCOVA ..... 22
3.2.1 Gender Stereotyped Attitude Scale for Children (GASC) ..... 22
3.2.2 Non-conforming Peer-> Masculine Girl (MG) ..... 22
3.2.3 Non-conforming Peer->Feminine Boy(FB) ..... 22
3.2.4 Feminine Toys ..... 22
3.2.5 Masculine Toys ..... 23
3.2.6 Flexibility in Occupational Perceptions ..... 23
4 DICUSSION ..... 25
4.1 Limitations ..... 29
4.2 Implications ..... 30
REFERENCES ..... 32
APPENDICES ..... 45
Appendix A: Television Viewing ..... 46
Appendix B: Gender Stereotyped Attitude Scale for Children. ..... 47
Appendix C: Peer Preference-Toy Preference. ..... 48
Appendix D: Job Check List ..... 49
Appendix E: Stories of Supergirl ..... 50

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Correlations among study variables ..... 21
Table 2. Means and standard deviations of variables ..... 24

## Chapter 1

## INTRODUCTION

Gender is one of the most prominent social categories in the world (Under \& Crawford, 1992) and has been conceptualized as a social construct (Annandale \& Clark, 1996). Bem (1983) stated that children show feminine or masculine features at a very early age. Also, she mentioned that they show preference for same-gender peers and activities which are seen as appropriate for their sex, usually suggested by one's culture. This process is called gender-typing whereby children gain values, behaviors and manners viewed as appropriate roles for their sex according to their culture (Hetherington, \& Parke, 1993). Such roles are described by society and applied to all individuals in respective category within that culture (Basow, 1980). This socialization process as well as socializing agents (parents, teachers, peers etc.) are responsible for gender-typing of individuals who are expected to behave accordingly (Paludi, 1998). Infants start to respond to both genders differently in the first year and by age 2, most children can label their gender and also show a tendency to prefer same gender-typed toys and activities, and after starting school they adopt the gender-typed behaviors of their own society (Lippman, McClendon-Magnuson, Collamer \& Shaffer, 1996).

### 1.1 Theoretical Approaches to Gender Development

A number of theories attempt to explain how gender develops. The current section will outline gender development based on the main theoretical approaches.

### 1.1.1 Social Learning Theory

Bandura (1978) stated that behaviors are controlled by their own consequences. People observe behaviors which are ignored, rewarded or rejected in the social environment which is called reinforcement and they use it while regulating their behaviors. Therefore, gender characteristics may be gained by reinforcement as well. Gender roles may be acquired through imitation and observation. A study by Perry and Bussey (1979) found that children's imitation was a viable way for gender-role development. They stated that children tend to imitate the behavior which they think is appropriate for their own sex. For instance, a boy might use a toy razor, whilst the father is shaving or a girl might feed her doll whilst mother feeds her baby. Therefore, in terms of gender roles when a boy sees his father watching sport channels a lot, he might develop the same kind of interests as a result of observation. Also, social learning theory indicates that society teaches children desirable traits with rewards and punishments, thus, they differentiate gender with process of social learning with time (Channa, 1995). Leaper and Bigler (2004) reported that there are indicators that parents' language determines children's thoughts about gender. Furthermore, Leaper and Friedman (2007) reported that there was a significant relation between parents' gender beliefs and their children's gender schema and they stated that parents' express their own attitudes about gender indirectly, for instance, if they constantly provide gender-typed toys and activities, they transfer attitudes about gender and their expectations. Friedman, Leaper and Bigler (2007) found a significant relation between mother's gender beliefs and young children's gender beliefs (3-5 years). Sinclair, Dunn and Lowery (2004), found that greater relevance between children's attitudes and parents' attitudes among children who identified themselves strongly with their parents than children who didn't. Moreover, Leaper and Friedman (2007) also, reported that teachers have an
influence on children's development of self-concept and attitudes, especially since teachers can transfer gendered beliefs through play activities, academic fields, sport activities.

### 1.1.2 Cognitive Developmental Theory

Kohlberg presented cognitive developmental theory in opposition to social learning theory in 1966 (Hetherington, \& Parke, 1993). Cognitive theorists mention specific motivational results of self-identification which means gender- identification brings a new motivation which is initiated and derived from the child, and this motivation leads the child to learn about these social categories which he or she is actively establishing (Martin \& Ruble, 2004). Bussey and Bandura (1992) examined the development of gender-related thoughts and actions in children. The aim of the study was to test the influence of social-approval nurtured by gender-linked personal standards on genderrelated conduct. It was hypothesized that children would demonstrate gender-typed behaviors that are socially approved and show gender-related behaviors, before they even show self-approval for same-gender typed action. Twenty girls and 20 boys were recruited for the study. Their age ranged 2.5 to 4.7 years. Children were separated to equal numbers for evaluation of levels of gender-conception. All children had a total of two sessions which were 3-5 days apart from each other. In the first session they measured the level of gender conception and on the second one they measured genderrelated knowledge. Findings showed that as age increases, social cognitive model of gender development is being shifter for gender-linked behaviors of children, thus, controlling changes from socially guided control to self-regulatory control, which means children control their own gender-linked behavior with their own regulation when age increase. Kohlberg (1966) stated that when children understand that gender categories are permanent, it is a critical regulator and motivator for learning concepts
of gender and gender behaviors. If child knows his/her gender is permanent, they will seek and be associated with gender-linked behaviors and norms. Gender-constancy is defined as someone stably categorizing himself/herself as male or female (Marcus \& Overten, 1978). Ruble et al. (2007) evaluated Kohlberg's statement in their study in which it was hypothesized that children would have the knowledge of gender stereotypes and gender category identification with increasing age, and show inflexible behaviors related to gender norms until 5 years old. The biggest purpose of the study was to test age-related changes for gender-related beliefs and relation of beliefs and stages of gender constancy in kids. Children were recruited, age raging on 3 to 7,48 female and 46 male. Children were separated into two groups which are younger and older. It was found that between 3 and 5 years old, stereotype knowledge, positive evaluation of one's own sex-category, the importance for sex-category and inflexibility of beliefs increase. It was reported that gender stability was connected with the gender construction process for children who are 3 to 5 years old. Moreover, when older children were included, consistency was more important, and it was linked with flexibility of gender norms. Findings showed that understanding consistency was connected with more flexibility rather than rigidity, hence gender constancy is a result of cognitive maturation.

### 1.1.3 Gender Schema Theory

Gender schema theory (Bem, 1981) suggests that children are active in their own gender development, where schemas are seen as very active constructions rather than passive replicas of the environment which means schemas lead in into active behaviors. Therefore, motivated children seek information about gender and identify themselves in one of the gender categories and develop manners accordingly. The theory also states that development and application of knowledge constructions
associated to gender play a significant role in gender development. Moreover, this theory stresses the importance of children's use of knowledge constructions to coordinate memory and also, how these knowledge constructions affect children's manners, attention and impressions of others (Martin, Ruble \& Szkrybalo, 2002). Accordingly, children develop ideas and theories about masculinity and femininity (gender schemas) at a very early age and, these influence their information processing and behavior. Children use these theories and ideas to make decisions, categorize information and regulate their behaviors (Starr \& Zurbriggen, 2017). Moreover, when children live in a gender-typed world, this process results in gender schema, they learn the attributes that are associated with their own gender and schemas lead them to choose gender -appropriate behaviors. When the self-concept is assimilated with the schemas, gender role adoption occurs and children adopt gender -appropriate behaviors that they are being exposed to. Thus, the theory conceptualizes gender stereotyping as a preparation to organize the world for one's gender and associations linked with related sex (Fagot \& Leinbach, 1989).

Gender schema theorists believe that gender schema is a process not a content (Bem, 1981; Bem 1983). This process is interpretive and constructive and also, dynamic and evolving and in this process what is perceived is a result of an interaction between incoming stimuli and present schema (Frawley, 2008). It was explained that gender typed people process information in the manner in which culture provides definitions of masculinity and femininity (Bem, 1982), hence they divide the world into two categories based on gender schema but not the contents of categories. Accordingly, gender -typed people do not differ from other people on how much masculinity or
femininity they own, they differ from other people according to their own selfconcepts and manners based on gender.

Bem (1983) stated that gender schema theory suggests that children can be raised in a way that is less gender schematic, thus they will avoid gender stereotyped attitudes and will learn sex differences without culture gender-linked network. If children grow up with people who are paying less attention to gender, they would not automatically use classifications. When they are taught the concept of sex and gender, they would not assimilate the unrelated dimensions of the schema.

### 1.2 The Influence of Media Sources on Gender-Role Development

There are a number of factors influencing gender role development in children. A significant factor influencing gender role development, which is the main focus of this study is the media. Media can be a strong model and source of gender-typing and being exposed to stereotyped characters, messages and beliefs in media (television, books, films etc.) may influence people's stereotypic perspectives, mostly children (Basow, 1980). According to social-cognitive theory, gender development can be influenced by viewing gender stereotypical behavior in the media such as storybooks, television and video games (Bussey \& Bandura, 1999). Media sources (books, television programs, cartoons, commercials and movies etc.) have a pervasive influence on gender-typing (Basow,1980).

According to Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological system theory, there are five systems (the micro-, meso-, exo-, macro- and chronosystem) that help explain how different environments each have an influence on a child's development in various ways. In order to explain media influences on gender development, the exosystem of the
ecological perspective can explain how the media shapes the context of childhood by influencing the messages related to gender appropriate norms they receive that shape their gender-typed behaviors (Jordan, 2004).

Moreover, Gerbner, Gross, Morgan, Signorielli and Shanahan (2002) stated that according to cultivation theory, television is centralized storytelling system, where drama, advisements and many programs bring consistent system of messages and images to every single home. This theory emphasizes that heavy viewers of television 'cultivate' attitudes that are in line with the world that is depicted and created by the world portrayed on television. In terms of gender-roles, this theory suggests that media images of women and men cultivate gendered beliefs and attitudes.

In her review Collins (2011) discussed how women are generally portrayed in traditional media (television, film, music, and newspapers) and new media (computers, mp3 players, video players, and cell phones). She reported that women were sexualized, subordinated and underrepresented across multiple media contents. Also, when women are sexually objectified, it affects women's and girls' emotional health, body image and self-esteem. Clothing women provocatively and presenting nudity lead boys to perceive women as objects. Furthermore, aside of women being represented as sexual objects, it was reported that women are presented stereotypically. According to this study, women are not only presented as having roles as house wife but they are pictured in relationship roles. Additionally, they are presented in cosmetics more than men, but men are mostly represented in car industry and electronics. Relatedly, men are mostly pictured as powerful, rational, pursuing and engaging in occupations, active and in control, but women are mostly demonstrated as
unemployed, merciful, having dependent roles, emotional and unambitious in the media (Unger \& Crawford, 1992; Hetherington, \& Parke, 1993; Bussey \& Bandura, 1999). In the study of Sommers-Flanagan, Sommers-Flanagan and Davis (1993), they examined music television according to gender based content. They found that women appeared less than men and they appear as male actors. On the other hand, women were constantly pictured as recipients. They suggested that this finding is related to gender role stereotypes where women are accepted as more passive and receptive than men.

In terms of children, Browne (1998), examined gender-role typing in television commercials aimed at children in Australia and United States of America. Findings suggested that in commercials aimed at children, boys were presented more dominant, active and aggressive than girls and also, boys outnumbered girls. Body language and facial expressions were observed in terms of sex-role reinforcement and girls were presented as more shy and giggly. In accordance with a previous study, Macklin and Kolbe (1984) examined television commercials aimed at children and found that most of the dominants characters were men. Male-oriented and neutral advertisements showed more activity than female-oriented advertisement.

Similarly, Taylor (2003) examined gender stereotypes in children's books. He reported that book contents include patriarchal and gendered codes and when children read these books they learn and regulate their behaviors accordingly. Fitzpatrick and McPherson (2010) dealt with the children's coloring books and gender stereotypes in their study. They found that males outnumbered female characters, stereotypes were common in the coloring books and especially aimed at girls, males were more in active
positions than females. Men were presented as older, stronger and more powerful than women. Women mostly remained young and childlike, but, men were mostly grownups. Also, they found that women were portrayed as humans that were followed by fantasy and animals, but men were portrayed as animals and superheroes with wild, strong and free characteristics. Gooden and Gooden (2001) reported that despite the representation of non-traditional roles and characteristics by men and women, children's books still show male domination and stereotyped women still were significant in number. Turner-Bowker (1996) found that men and women characters weren't presented equally in children's books, women were presented less in pictures and titles. She also found that men and women were described by different adjectives, such that "powerful" and "active" were used for men more than women and there were no adjectives describing women more positively compared to men. Furthermore, Kortenhaus and Demarest (1993) studied the prevalence of gender stereotypes and inequalities between men and women in children's book and found similar results. Men outnumbered women even if women were presented as active there was still a man more active and independent. Also, according to types of book, male animals were more than female animals in the story.

In one of the first experimental studies aimed at looking at the role of gender-typing influences of the media, Jennings (1975) aimed to determine if awareness of sextyping exist in preschool children and if children expressed preference for sex-typed (appropriate sex-role) character in a story. The hypothesis was that children would choose a story where there is a character consistent with their own gender and displaying appropriate sex-roles. There were 32 girls and 32 boys, from nursery and day-care centers, aged between 4 to 5 years. Both groups were told different brief
stories. Girls and boys were separated and they heard only two version of stories. In one story, the character had a very usual sex-role behavior, whilst in the other story, character behaved in manner of opposite sex. Thus, girls heard a story about a girl who wanted to be a ballerina. The second story was about a girl who wanted to be mail carrier. On the other hand, boys heard a story about a boy who wanted be a male dancer and secondly they heard a story about a boy who wanted be a mail carrier. Significant number of children preferred the story with usual sex-typed behavior for both sexes. Each group preferred the character that was appropriate to their own gender. Also, female children found the boy character more acceptable than male children found the girl character. In accordance to this study, children already categorize gender and prefer the appropriate gender role by age 4 to 5 .

Relatedly, Aubrey and Harrison (2004) examined children's favorite television programs with stereotypical, counter-stereotypical and neutral messages contained, and how non-manipulated television choices associated to sex-related perceptions of children. They aimed to determine if the type of content was related to the sex-role values of children and children's interpersonal interest to same or opposite sex characters. The study found that the number of male characters were more than female characters. They suggested that this finding might influence children and they may think that men are more important than women. Their sample was based on children's television program preference and included most preferred six television shows and they were all cartoons. Female stereotypical data wasn't enough to compare with male stereotypical data in the sample which means children's preference did not have enough female stereotypical character to measure. Generally, findings showed that
children preferred television shows that were gender neutral. Children did not favor the TV shows which were gender-stereotypical.

Conversely, Thompson and Zerbinos (1995) found that both genders were presented stereotypically in the cartoons in their study. They examined representations of gender in children's cartoons. It was reported that both males and females was portrayed with traditional gender roles. Male characters almost did everything because they appeared more often than women. Findings showed that women were pictured as more emotional, affectionate, romantic, sensitive and warm whereas men pictured responsible, independent, athletic and important.

### 1.3 Effects of Counter-Stereotypical Models and Superheroes on

## Gender-Role Perception

Given the prevalent findings of the presence of gender typed characters in children's media sources, this thesis is built on the assumption that exposing children to counter stereotypic representations of women and men may reduce stereotypical views of those groups. Research findings in fact suggest that exposure to counter stereotypic members of a particular social group can subvert people's automatic beliefs about that group. It has been proposed that automatic stereotyping may be continuous, so, when people see counter-stereotypes in the social environment more frequently, their automatic stereotyping may reduce (Asgari, Dasgupta, \& Cote, 2010; Gocłowska, Crisp \& Labuschagne, 2013). In one such study, merely thinking of counter-stereotypes was found to decrease stereotyping, such that those participants asked to create a mental image of a counter-stereotypic strong women resulted in significantly weaker levels of gender stereotyping (Blair, Ma \& Lenton, 2001).

According to content analysis of women's magazines found that exposure of articles that consisted of counter-stereotypical descriptions about women of color, increased the occupational expectations of women of color in Caucasians readers (Covert \& Dixon, 2008). Accordingly, another study demonstrated that Barack Obama as a positive, counter- stereotypical Afro-American example and his presidential campaign reduced the stereotyping for Afro-Americans (Plant et.al., 2009). In an early study Scherer (1970) stated that the media was a strong source for stereotyping dark-haired and dark-eyed people in Nazi Germany, people from Schutzstaffel (SS, Organization in Nazi Germany) who rated blue-eyed and blond-haired actors positively for personality attributes. His study found that SS people showed less negative evaluations to dark-haired and dark-eyed people after the exposure of counter-stereotypical heroes (i.e. dark-haired and dark-eyed actors) in movies.

In another study by Dasgupta and Asgari (2004), participants were shown famous women who were in leadership positions. It was found that being exposed to women in high profiles and counter-stereotypic leadership positions undermine people's beliefs of automatic stereotyping. Moreover, exposure to women leaders did not only reduce the stereotypic beliefs but also increased the counter-stereotypic beliefs.

In terms of children, in an early study Asby and Wittmaier (1978) examined the effect of stories about women in non-traditional occupation on girls. Participants were 29 female students and fourth graders. They were read stories about women in traditional occupations and women in non-traditional occupations. After the stories, they filled out a questionnaire that asked what they liked, what they did not like in the story and they filled out a job checklist in order to assess their occupation preferences. They
found that girls who were read stories of women in traditional roles had a tendency to make more traditional and stereotyping responses than others who were read stories of women in non-traditional roles. Girls who were read stories of non-traditional women tended to choose non-traditional jobs. In terms of experimenter bias, they also stated that female experimenter may be effective on results. She was the live role model which representing and supporting the women which has been told in stories. Results of this study suggest that gender bias should be eliminated in children books.

As an example of a counter-stereotypical representation of women, the current study was interested in the role of exposing children to women superheroes. Studies have shown that women superheroes are much less than their male counterparts (See Signorielli, 1990, 2001). Also, she stated in 2001, excessive television viewing was highly linked with development of stereotyped gender attitudes. Her review in 1990, it was reported that out of numerous content analyses, women were underrepresented and both male and female characters were presented traditional and stereotypical. Moreover, it was suggested that adults and children were exposed gender-typed images and children who watch television with these images are likely to identify themselves with same-sex characters.

Researchers have shown that children are susceptible to messages and behaviors portrayed by superheroes (Liss, Reinhardt, \& Fredriksen, 1983). Studies have shown that because identify more with heroic characters, this increases the likelihood that they might imitate the characters' behaviors (e.g., Hoffner, 1996; Potter, 1997). This has often been observed in children's "superhero play" during and outside class rooms as well as story writing times (e.g., Dyson, 1997).

Research with children in this area is quite limited however one related study by Coyne, Linder, Rasmussen, Nelson and Collier (2014) examined whether viewing superheroes (e.g. Spiderman, Batman, Captain America, X-men) in the media is connected with the male-stereotyped play and weapon play. They also alternatively tested whether male-stereotyped play and weapon play predicted superhero viewing over time. In this case, children's pre-existing gender roles perceptions would be predictor of media choice. Participants were parents of 134 children, age range 3 to 6 years old as well as their parents. For superhero exposure and male-stereotyped play, parents were asked to complete measures of gender stereotyping. They found that boys who viewed superhero shows were more gender stereotyped. Hence, malestereotyped play led to more superhero viewing for boys.

More in line with the methodology and hypotheses of the current study, was a recent study conducted by Spinner, Cameron and Calogero (2018), who examined stereotypic and counter-stereotypic peer influence on children's flexibility around toy play and preferences, playmate choice, and social exclusion behaviors through children's magazines. Ninety-six children participated whose ages ranged between $4-8$ years. They measured the conditions with a magazine reading activity. Participants viewed a page which showed a boy playing with a car and a girl playing with a pony in stereotypic condition, whereas boys were playing with a pony and girls were playing with a car in the counter-stereotypic condition. They assessed gender flexible toy preferences by showing participants four feminine and four masculine toys in which they were asked to state their preference. Gender-based social exclusion was also assessed by asking children to prefer a gender traditional vs. non-traditionally conforming peer. Results showed that most of the hypotheses were fully supported.

However, after exposure to counter-stereotypic content, children didn't show more gender flexible attitudes for gender-typed toys. However, children who were in the counter-stereotypic condition, showed more gender flexibility in attitudes for toy play and also, they labelled feminine toys and masculine toys as suitable for both genders compared to those who were in the stereotypic condition. They observed that children preferred same gender playmates more in the stereotypic condition, in contrast, children who were in counter-stereotypic condition did not show preference for same gender playmates. They reported that girls were less supportive for gender-based exclusion than boys in the stereotypic condition, whereas no significant difference was found between genders for support for gender-based exclusion in counter-stereotypic condition. Results suggested that exposure to counter-stereotypic content would be beneficial to reduce gender-typed attitudes and behavior. It will foster flexible thinking for gender-typed toy play for both genders.

### 1.4 The Current Study

In line with these findings, this current study was conducted with children who were between 6-11 years old. The aim of the study was to determine the effects of stories about women superheroes on perception of children's traditional gender roles. According to our knowledge, to date no research has looked at the effects of female superheroes and the effects on gender stereotyping. It was hypothesized that children who listened to female superheroes stories would show reduced gender bias and traditional gender role typing, specifically that they would show more flexibility in occupations, choose non-conforming peers and toy preference based on gender at the post-test phase.

## Chapter 2

## METHOD

### 2.1 Participants

The participants were selected by purposive/convenient sampling. 76 participants were taken in study. Their age ranged between 6 and 10 years ( $M=7.75, S D=.93$ ). Children younger than 6 years were excluded as they had likely not yet developed literacy skills needed to complete the research.

### 2.2 Materials

### 2.2.1 Pre-test Measures

Participants in both the control and experimental conditions received the following scales:

### 2.2.1.1 Demographic Questions

Demographic questions were assessed by asking questions such as age and gender. Relevant to the aims of the research, perceived frequency of TV viewing (1=do not watch TV at all, $5=$ watch a lot of $T V$ ), how many hours of TV viewing ( $1=0-2$ hours, $2=3-4$ hours, $3=5$ hours), top 5 favorite superheroes as well as frequency of viewing superhero programs $1=$ do not watch $T V$ with superheroes at all, $5=$ watch a lot of $T V$ with superheroes) were assessed.

### 2.2.1.2 Stereotyped Attitude Scale for Children (GASC)

The attitudes of children toward gender stereotypes were assessed by Gender Stereotyped Attitude Scale for Children (GASC) (Signorella \& Liben, 1985). This
scale measures the attitudes of children toward gender stereotypes. It has a list of activities, and children were asked whether they think these things can be done 'only by men' (coded as 1 ), 'only by women' (coded as 1 ), or by 'both men and women' (coded as 0). Scores could range from 0 to 34 and higher scores indicated more gender stereotyping.

### 2.2.2 Post-test Measures

After 3 consecutive weeks, participants in both the control and experimental conditions then received the following scales:

### 2.2.2.1 Stereotyped Attitude Scale for Children (GASC)

The same measure used in the pre-test was assessed once again.

### 2.2.2.2 Job Check List

Gender Flexibility in Occupational Perceptions was assessed by the Job Check List (Ashby \& Wittmaier, 1978). This is a measurement tool that assesses how children perceive a number of occupations based on gender. It consists of 30 jobs in which children were asked whether each job can be done by 'males', ‘females', or 'both male and female'. This time the coding was different such that only 'both male and female' would receive a scoring of 1 point (other two options 0 ). Scores could range from 0 to 30. Higher scores indicate high flexibility in occupational perception of the children.

### 2.2.2.3 Peer Preference

Peer preference was assessed by picture of boys and girls with toys. It consists of three pictures of boys (one with a stereotypically masculine toy, one with a stereotypically feminine toy, and one with no toy) and three pictures of girls (one with a stereotypically masculine toy, one with a stereotypically feminine toy, and one with no toy) (Martin \& Little, 1990). Children were shown each picture and asked to rate
(using a smiley face ranking scale; 1 not at all -5 very much) how much they would like to play with each boy and girl depicted in the picture.

### 2.2.2.4 Toy Preference

Toy preference was assessed by picture of twelve toys. It consisted of three categories which were toys stereotypically for boys (car, truck toolset etc.), toys stereotypically for girls (doll, pony, tea set etc.) and neutral toys (scooter, telescope, play-doe etc.) (Blakemore \& Centers, 2005). Children were shown each picture and asked to rate (using a smiley face ranking scale; 1 not at all -5 very much) how much they would like to play with each boy and girl depicted in the picture.

### 2.2.3 Stories of Supergirl vs. Stories about Animals

Participants in the experimental condition listened to stories of Supergirl as a Superhero. The stories were written by the researcher and her supervisor based on popular novels for children (such as Superman, Batman). These were three stories about Supergirl who is purposefully female. The stories consist of simple heroic humanistic acts of Supergirl such as saving lives, helping people in need and protecting animals. Children in the control condition however were read stories about animals and their actions (see Appendix for stories).

### 2.3 Procedure and Design

After obtaining ethical approval from EMU's ethics board, primary schools were approached and institutional and parental consent were initially obtained. The study was a pre-test-post-test non-equivalent control group quasi experimental design. Therefore, after obtaining consent, a random sample of 38 children were taken as the control group and 38 the experimental group. Children were tested in small groups (max. 5) at the primary schools in a quiet room. Both groups were given a pre-test to determine their TV exposure using five questions about TV exposure and children's
pre-existing gender stereotyping were assessed using the Gender Stereotyped Attitude Scale for Children (GASC). Those in the experimental group were then read the Supergirl stories for three consecutive weeks, whereas the children in the control condition were simply read stories about animals. At the post-test phase (typically the week after the last story was read), both groups received the same battery of questions as the pre-test and also, Job Check List, Peer preference scale and Toy preference scale. Participants were thanked and debriefed in simple terms.

## Chapter 3

## RESULTS

### 3.1 Preliminary Analysis

### 3.1.1 Descriptive Statistics

In terms of TV viewing 57.9 \% of children reported watching an average amount of TV (answering mostly: 'neither a lot nor too much'), $14.5 \%$ of the participants stated they watched TV with superheroes, although the majority ( $47.4 \%$ ) stated they watch an average ('not too much nor too little') amount of TV with superheroes. Out of the participants $83 \%$ stated watching an average of 0-2 hours of TV a day.

As for superheroes, only $36.8 \%$ of participants named a female as their favorite superhero, conversely $56.6 \%$ participants named a male superhero as their favorite superhero.

### 3.1.2 Chi Square Analysis

In order to assess whether the number of favorite female superheroes increased as a result of the story telling, a chi-square analysis was conducted. The difference in number of favorite female superheroes in pre-test phase between conditions was not significant, $\mathcal{X}^{2}(1, N=71)=3.41, p=.065, V=.219$. However, after the experimental manipulation of storytelling, the number of favorite female superheroes in post-test phase was significant based on condition, such that more female superheroes were counted as 'favorite' in the experimental condition compared to the control condition, $\not \chi^{2}(1, N=70)=6.10, p=.014, V=295$. These results showed that the stories were
effective in naming participants' favorite female superhero.

### 3.1.3 Correlation

As can be seen in Table 1, the correlations between variables were conducted and a number of significant relationships were obtained. There was correlation between flexibility in occupational perceptions and age. Also, there was a strong positive correlation between pretest of gender stereotyped attitudes (GASC) and posttest of gender stereotyped attitudes, and strong negative correlation between pre intervention GASC scores and flexibility in occupational perceptions. Furthermore, post GASC scores and flexibility in occupational perceptions had a strong negative correlation. Peer preference for feminine boy had a positive correlation with feminine toys and masculine toys. Moreover, a strong negative correlation was found between feminine toys and masculine toys.

Table 1. Correlations among study variables

|  | $\mathbf{1}$ | $\mathbf{2}$ | $\mathbf{3}$ | $\mathbf{4}$ | $\mathbf{5}$ | $\mathbf{6}$ | $\mathbf{7}$ | $\mathbf{8}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1.Age | - |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 2.Pre GASC | -.10 | - |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3.Post GASC | -.11 | $.67^{* *}$ | - |  |  |  |  |  |
| 4.MasculineGirlPeer | .40 | -.08 | .07 | - |  |  |  |  |
| 5.FeminineBoyPeer | -.11 | -.01 | .10 | .19 | - |  |  |  |
| 6.FeminineToys | -.11 | -.01 | .07 | -.08 | $.25^{*}$ | - |  |  |
| 7.MasculineToys | -.17 | .14 | .09 | .17 | $.26^{*}$ | $.42^{* *}$ | - |  |
| 8.Flex.Occup.Percep | $.26^{* *}$ | $-.59^{* *}$ | $-.77^{* *}$ | -.02 | -.03 | -.05 | -.17 | - |

[^0]
### 3.2 ANCOVA

In order to see the effect of condition on the dependent variables ANCOVA was conducted whereby gender and condition were the independent variables and age and pre intervention gender stereotyping scores (pre GASC) were the covariates. In general, assumptions were met for ANCOVA.

### 3.2.1 Gender Stereotyped Attitude Scale for Children (GASC)

There was not a main effect of condition $\left(F(1.70)=.07, p=.794, \eta^{2}=.001\right)$, in contrast, there was a main effect of gender $\left(F(1.70)=3,79, p=.056, \eta^{2}=.051\right)$. There wasn't interaction $\left(F(1.70)=.24, p=.628, \eta^{2}=.003\right)$ effect between gender and condition. According to these results, girls showed more stereotyped attitudes than boys (See table 2)

### 3.2.2 Non-conforming Peer-> Masculine Girl (MG)

There was no main effect of gender $\left(F(1.70)=.87, p=.353, \eta^{2}=.012\right)$ and condition $\left(F(1.70)=1.82, p=.182, \eta^{2}=.025\right)$ for MG. Furthermore, there was no interaction effect $\left(F(1.70)=1.14, p=.288, \eta^{2}=.016\right)$ between gender and condition from MG. The results suggest that males and females in two different conditions did not differ for MG.

### 3.2.3 Non-conforming Peer->Feminine Boy(FB)

ANCOVA showed that there wasn't a main effect for both gender $(F(1,70)=0.35$, $\left.p=.554, \eta^{2}=.005\right)$ and condition $\left(F(1.70)=0.80, p=.375, \eta^{2}=.011\right)$. Also, there was no interaction effect $\left(F(1.7)=0.18, p=.677, \eta^{2}=.002\right)$ between gender and condition. According to these results, males and females didn't show difference between conditions for FB.

### 3.2.4 Feminine Toys

Results indicated that there was main effect of gender $(F(1.70)=60.26, p<.001$, $\left.\eta^{2}=.463\right)$ but there wasn't main effect of condition $\left(F(1.70)=2,40, p=.126, \eta^{2}=.005\right)$.

Also there was no interaction effect $\left(F(1.70)=.37, p=.543, \eta^{2}=.012\right)$ between gender and condition. Accordingly, girls preferred feminine toys more than boys.

### 3.2.5 Masculine Toys

As feminine toys, results showed that there was main effect of gender $(F(1.70)=54.94$ , $p<.001, \eta^{2}=.440$ ) for masculine toys, but there wasn't main effect of condition $\left(F(1.70)=.781, p=.380, \eta^{2}=.011\right)$. Furthermore, there was no interaction effect $\left(F(1.70)=2.10, p=.152, \eta^{2}=.029\right)$ between gender and condition. Results suggest that gender made difference for preferring masculine toys. Boys preferred masculine toys more than girls.

### 3.2.6 Flexibility in Occupational Perceptions

There was no main effect of gender $\left(F(1.70)=0.07, p=.796, \eta^{2}=.001\right)$ and condition $\left(F(1.70)=.000, p=.985, \eta^{2}=.000\right)$ for flexibility in occupational perceptions. Furthermore, there was no interaction effect $\left(F(1.70)=2.38, p=.127, \eta^{2}=.033\right)$ between gender and condition. The results suggest that males and females in two different conditions did not differ for flexibility in occupational perceptions.

Table 2. Means and standard deviations of variables
Male
Female
M (SD)
M (SD)

|  | Experimental | Control | Total | Experimental | Control | Total |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Pre GASC | $22.88(6.47)$ | $21.52(5.76)$ | $44.40(12.23)$ | $22.13(3.37)$ | $20.18(3.50)$ | $42.31(6.87)$ |
| Post GASC | $18.31(7.50)$ | $17.86(7.40)$ | $36.17(14.90)$ | $20.09(3.02)$ | $18.12(3.53)$ | $38.21(6.55)$ |
| MasculineGirlPeer | $3.88(1.20)$ | $4.00(1.22)$ | $7.88(2.42)$ | $3.27(1.42)$ | $4.06(1.30)$ | $7.33(2.72)$ |
| FeminineBoyPeer | $1.88(0.96)$ | $2.19(1.47)$ | $4.07(2.43)$ | $2.14(1.04)$ | $2.18(1.29)$ | $4.32(2.33)$ |
| FeminineToy | $2.61(1.28)$ | $2.32(0.76)$ | $4.93(2.04)$ | $4.35(0.52)$ | $3.76(1.05)$ | $8.11(1.57)$ |
| MaculineToy | $4.26(0.78)$ | $4.06(0.91)$ | $8.32(1.69)$ | $2.36(0.70)$ | $2.72(1.16)$ | $5.08(1.86)$ |
| Flex.Occup.Percep. | $16.31(6.07)$ | $16.05(6.43)$ | $32.36(12.50)$ | $15.68(3.54)$ | $19(4.24)$ | $34.68(7.78)$ |

## Chapter 4

## DISCUSSION

This research aimed to investigate the effects of stories about women superheroes on the perception of children's traditional gender roles by analyzing children's stereotyped attitudes, gender flexibility in occupation as well as peer and toy preference. To the researcher's knowledge, there has been no research which has looked at the effects of female superheroes and its effects on gender stereotyping, therefore this study attempted to fill this void in the literature. It was hypothesized that children who listened to female superhero stories would show reduced gender bias and traditional gender role typing at the post-test phase.

According to results a large percentage of children did not name their favorite superhero as female at the pre-test phase. After the experimental manipulation of storytelling, children reported a significantly more number of female superheroes as their favorite than before the intervention. Representation of counter-stereotypic example was effective for their favorite preference. Moreover related to this result, Scherer (1970) stated that the media was a strong source for stereotyping and counterstereotyping decreases the negative evolution for targeted category which is why representation of such counter stereotypical representations of women is so important. Aubrey and Harrison (2004) stated that female characters were less than male characters on TV programs which may result with the thought that men are more important than women or children may think men are more capable than women.

Moreover, this also, may affect children's preference or perspective greatly. In the way of representing male or female may affect children's perspective. Thompson and Zerbinos (1995) reported that females, were represented as sentimental, affectionate, romantic, warm in contrast males were responsible, independent, athletic and important and also, male characters appeared the most, they did everything. Furthermore, more children naming their favorite superheroes as female, also, may affect the expectations from female characters positively. In the study by Covert and Dixon (2008), they stated that counter-stereotypical descriptions about women of color, increased the occupational expectations of them.

The current research aimed to find a difference between conditions whereby the experimental group was read female superhero stories and the control group was read animal stories. Findings showed that there was no difference between conditions for gender stereotyped attitudes after storytelling. This result wasn't consistent with literature (e.g. Asgari, Dasgupta, \& Cote, 2010; Gocłowska, Crisp \& Labuschagne, 2013; Blair, Ma \& Lenton, 2001; Asby \& Wittmaier, 1978; Dasgupta \& Asgari, 2004; Plant et.al., 2009; Scherer, 1970; Spinner, Cameron \& Calogero, 2017). This inconsistency may have many reasons, however, in the current study experimenter bias might have affected children's perspective on gender. The same female researcher read stories to children in both condition. This may have affected the control group and resulted in the lack of a difference between groups. In the review by Bigler (1999), she discussed the reasons why intervention studies might fail. She argued that when the experimenter is from the community as a counter-stereotypical character which is in the story of a particular intervention this could have an effect leading to a lack of difference between conditions such that the intervention might not affect or even
increase the child's stereotyped beliefs. Moreover, it also been stated that interventions might not be successful because of the time that study takes. Since, the current study took five weeks for each participant this might have affected the results.

The current study found a positive correlation between age and gender flexibility in occupational perceptions, therefore, children with higher age showed higher flexibility in occupational perceptions. This finding was consistent with the longitudinal study of Trautner et al. (2005) which reported that children reached highest rigidity at age 5-6 years, however after age 2 children became significantly more flexible in their gender stereotyping. Also, they reported that rigidity decreases in older ages, could be connected also other aspects of gender development such as preferences or behaviors. Also, cultural aspects might be important for the effectiveness of the intervention on flexibility. The Turkish culture has strong cultural norms about men and women which children begin to learn at a very early age. According to Sunar and Fişek (2005), the Turkish culture has sharp differences between men and women which include families' expectation for their children's subordination and children expected to accept their authority, where also, children must accept gender roles and identify themselves with these gender roles. Relatedly, Williams and Best (1990) stated that men and women in traditional cultures underline and give emphasis to gender role differences, but, those in modern cultures minimize gender role differences. Furthermore, there are some studies which show that parents endorse children's prejudice, stereotyping and beliefs on certain subjects (Aboud \& Doyle, 1996; Branch \& Newcombe, 1986). In the light of these studies, it might help to explain why the intervention in the current study was not enough strong to make difference a between conditions.

Furthermore, the current study found that gender had a significant effect for gender stereotyped attitudes. Female children showed more stereotyped attitudes for daily activities. This finding was inconsistent with the research of Signorella and Liben (1985), in which they found girls showed less stereotyped attitude than boys. The reason of the inconsistency could be that children don't simply prefer genderstereotypes accurately that related to their own gender, when they found connection with their own sex they are more capable and willing to learn stereotypes to support their positive gender identity (Serbin et al., 1993). Also, the female researcher might have been less effective for gender related behavior, therefore, Katz and Walsh (1991) reported that children are influenced more by male experimenter than female experimenters in terms of increasing flexibility in children's gender related behavior.

When one turns to the non-significant finding for preference of non-conforming peer it was found that boys or girls did not prefer the peer that was depicted as nonconforming (e.g., girl playing football, boy playing with doll). It might be due to a reliable finding in the literature in which children are consistently found to prefer same-sex more than opposite sex peers (Martin \& Little, 1990). Also, this might be result of children might seek the same gender peers as conclusion of cognitivedevelopmental phenomena where children label themselves male or female when they find categories corresponding to related-gender, thus, children are motivated to learn more about their gender by seeking out their peers that resemble them (Sebin et al.,1994). Sebin et al. (1993) stated that children don't simply prefer their own sex, they view it favorably. Additionally, preferring same-sex peers explained by Martin et al. (2011) that play types (rough-and-tumble play or imaginative play) plays a significant effect on gender-segregation in younger years where children prefer peers
of the same level of activity in play hence choosing the same gender. Another reason might be simply that children's liking is greater for their own gender. In the study of Bukowski, Gauze, Hoza and Newcomb (1993) with older children it was found that preferring same-sex peers is mostly related with liking, whereby all participants demonstrated greater liking for same-sex rather than the opposite-sex. However, lastly, the manipulation of the current study might have not been strong enough to influence the very sound finding of same-sex peer preference.

Relatedly, results showed that boys highly preferred masculine toys, and girls highly preferred feminine toys. These findings were consistent with the literature (e.g., Shaffer, 1996; Martin \& Little, 1990). Moreover, Leaper and Friedman (2007) stated that children's gender based toy preference might be the result of parents' transference of their own gender beliefs indirectly. Beside parents' influence also, sex-typed environment might support the sex-typed toys preference. Fagot, Leinbach and Hagan (1986) stated that strongly sex-typed environment and knowledge about gender labels may strengthen the children's sex typed toys choices may lessen their tendency to prefer opposite sex toys and activities. Environmental influences however were not examined in the current study but might be an important predictor for future research.

### 4.1 Limitations

Current study investigated the factors of gender stereotyping in children, however, as in all other studies, this study has some limitations.

One of these limitations, children were taken into post-test after one week, even some children who did not come at the week that they should take the post-test, took the test after 2 weeks, following the last storytelling session. This situation might have affected the results of current study and intervention could not be effective at this point.

One of the weaknesses of this study was female researcher might have affected the children's perfective on gender in both conditions, thus, no difference was found between conditions whereas difference was anticipated. Hence, future study may include both two of the genders, male and female, while research is being conducted, therefore, children's perspective may be affected minimum level in order to take more solid results.

Another limitation was that the research was conducted in study schools and children have come to study centers after school and immediately start their homework, therefore, they were taken into meetings for research mostly after they finished their homework when they supposed to be in playground instead. Since, study was taken 5 weeks for each child and being prevented from playing might cause boredom for children and they might not give valid answers for scales in order to finish the meeting faster.

Moreover, another limitation was the small sample size of the research. The study was conducted with 76 participants where each condition included 38 participants. This might affect the results of the study and future studies should extent the sample size in order to obtain more solid results.

### 4.2 Implications

Studies have shown that women superheroes are much less than male superheroes (Signorielli, 1990, 2001). The current study used female superhero stories as counterstereotypical representation for the experimental group, although we did not find a significant difference for gender stereotyped attitudes, storytelling was effective on awareness of women's addition to the superhero world. Making children aware that
female superheroes are as heroic as male superheroes, may change their perspective on female heroes. Therefore, as an implication, increasing the representation of women characters in the media (television, books, films etc.) might help towards children's realization that women are capable of going much more further than genderstereotypes suggest. Kortenhaus and Demarest (1993), stated that male characters outnumbered female characters which means children see more male character than female character helping them to develop a perspective of gender inequality. Representing more females and less stereotyped characters in fields of media may significantly affect people's perspectives, mostly children (Basow, 1980).

Furthermore, this study found that older children showed more flexibility than those who are younger which is consistent with the longitudinal study of Trautner et al. (2005). They found that children's gender rigidity was highest at the age of 5-6, but after two years -at age of 7-8- their gender flexibility increased. Therefore, when children with older age exposed to more counter-stereotypical representation may be more effective on gender flexibility.

To conclude, despite some non-significant findings, the study showed that male dominance in the world of superheroes can be changed by the use of female superheroes- whether based on gender, race, ethnicity or sexual orientationrepresentation matters.

## REFERENCES

Aboud, F. E., \& Doyle, A. B. (1996). Parental and peer influences on children's racial attitudes. International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 20(3-4), 371383.

Annandale, E., \& Clark, J. (1996). What is gender? Feminist theory and the sociology of human reproduction. Sociology of Health \& Illness, 18(1), 17-44.

Asgari, S., Dasgupta, N., \& Cote, N. G. (2010). When does contact with successful ingroup members change self-stereotypes? Social Psychology, Vol. 41(3), 203-211.

Ashby, M. S., \& Wittmaier, B. C. (1978). Attitude changes in children after exposure to stories about women in traditional or nontraditional occupations. Journal of Educational Psychology, 70(6), 945-949.

Aubrey, J. S., \& Harrison, K. (2004). The gender-role content of children's favorite television programs and its links to their gender-related perceptions. Media Psychology, 6(2), 111-146.

Basow, S. A. (1980). Sex-role stereotypes: Traditions and alternatives. Monterey, CA: Brooks.

Bandura, A. (1965). Influence of models' reinforcement contingencies on the
acquisition of imitative responses. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1(6), 589-595.

Bandura, A. (1978). Social learning theory of aggression. Journal Of Communication, 28(3), 12-29.

Bandura, A. (2001). Social cognitive theory: An agentic perspective. Annual Review of Psychology, 52(1), 1-26.

Bem, S. L. (1981). Gender schema theory: A cognitive account of sex typing. Psychological Review, 88(4), 354-364.

Bem, S. (1982). Gender schema theory and self-schema theory compared: A comment on Markus, Crane, Bernstein, and Siladi's' Self-schemas and gender. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 43(6), 1192-1194.

Bem, S. L. (1983). Gender schema theory and its implications for child development: Raising gender-aschematic children in a gender-schematic society. Signs: Journal of Women In Culture And Society, 8(4), 598-616.

Blair, I. V., Ma, J. E., \& Lenton, A. P. (2001). Imagining stereotypes away: the moderation of implicit stereotypes through mental imagery. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 81(5), 828-841.

Blakemore, J. E. O., \& Centers, R. E. (2005). Characteristics of boys' and girls' toys.

Sex Roles, 53(9-10), 619-633.

Branch, C. W., \& Newcombe, N. (1986). Racial Attitude Development among Young Black Children as a Function of Parental Attitudes: A Longitudinal and Cross-Sectional Study. Child Development, 57(3), 712-721.

Bronfenbrenner, U. (1979). The ecology of human development. Harvard university press.

Brown, J. D. (2002). Mass media influences on sexuality. Journal of Sex Research, 39(1), 42-45.

Browne, B. A. (1998). Gender stereotypes in advertising on children's television in the 1990s: A cross-national analysis. Journal of Advertising, 27(1), 83-96.

Bukowski, W. M., Gauze, C., Hoza, B., \& Newcomb, A. F. (1993). Differences and consistency between same-sex and other-sex peer relationships during early adolescence. Developmental Psychology, 29(2), 255-263.

Bussey, K., \& Bandura, A. (1992). Self-regulatory mechanisms governing gender development. Child Development, 63(5), 1236-1250.

Bussey, K., \& Bandura, A. (1999). Social cognitive theory of gender development and differentiation. Psychological Review, 106(4), 676-713.

Chalabaev, A., Sarrazin, P., Fontayne, P., Boiché, J., \& Clément-Guillotin, C. (2013). The influence of sex stereotypes and gender roles on participation and performance in sport and exercise: Review and future directions. Psychology Of Sport And Exercise, 14(2), 136-144.

Channa, S. (1995). Sex, gender and ideology-some reflection in gender consciousness and feminism. Indian Anthropologist, 25(2), 35-48.

Collins, R. L. (2011). Content analysis of gender roles in media: Where are we now and where should we go?. Sex Roles, 64(3-4), 290-298.

Covert, J. J., \& Dixon, T. L. (2008). A changing view: Representation and effects of The portrayal of women of color in mainstream women's magazines. Communication Research, 35(2), 232-256.

Coyne, S. M., Linder, J. R., Rasmussen, E. E., Nelson, D. A., \& Collier, K. M. (2014). It's a bird! It's a plane! It's a gender stereotype: Longitudinal associations between superhero viewing and gender stereotyped play. Sex Roles, 70(9-10), 416-430.

Crawford, M. E. (2006). Transformations: Women, gender, and psychology. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Dasgupta, N., \& Asgari, S. (2004). Seeing is believing: Exposure to
counterstereotypic women leaders and its effect on the malleability of automatic gender stereotyping. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 40(5), 642-658.

Dyson, A. H. (1997). Writing superheroes: Contemporary childhood, popular culture, and classroom literacy. New York: Teachers College Press.

Fagot, B. I. (1985). Beyond the reinforcement principle: Another step toward Understanding sex role development. Developmental Psychology, 21(6), 10971104.

Fagot, B. I., \& Leinbach, M. D. (1989). The young child's gender schema: Environmental input, internal organization. Child Development, 60(3), 663672.

Fagot, B. I., Leinbach, M. D., \& Hagan, R. (1986). Gender labeling and the adoption of sex-typed behaviors. Developmental Psychology, 22(4), 440-443.

Fitzpatrick, M. J., \& McPherson, B. J. (2010). Coloring within the lines: Gender stereotypes in contemporary coloring books. Sex Roles, 62(1-2), 127-137.

Frawley, T. J. (2008). Gender schema and prejudicial recall: How children misremember, fabricate, and distort gendered picture book information. Journal of Research in Childhood Education, 22(3), 291-303.

Friedman, C. K., Leaper, C., \& Bigler, R. S. (2007). Do mothers' gender-related attitudes or comments predict young children's gender beliefs? Parenting: Science and Practice, 7(4), 357-366.

Gelman, S. A., Taylor, M. G., Nguyen, S. P., Leaper, C., \& Bigler, R. S. (2004). Mother-child conversations about gender: Understanding the acquisition of essentialist beliefs. Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, i-142.

Gerbner, G., Gross, L., Morgan, M., Signorielli, N., \& Shanahan, J. (2002). Growing up with television: Cultivation processes. In Media effects (pp. 53-78). Routledge.

Gocłowska, M. A., Crisp, R.J., \& Labuschagne, K. (2013). Can counter-stereotypes boost flexible thinking? Group Processes \& Intergroup Relations, 16(2), 217231.

Gooden, A. M., \& Gooden, M. A. (2001). Gender representation in notable children's picture books: 1995-1999. Sex Roles, 45(1-2), 89-101.

Grusec, J. E., \& Lytton, H. (2012). Social development: History, theory, and research. Springer Science \& Business Media.

Hetherington, E. M. \& Parke, R. D. (1999). Child psychology: A contemporary viewpoint (4th ed.). New York, NY, US: McGraw-Hill.

Hoffner, C. (1996). Children's wishful identification and parasocial interaction with favorite television characters. Journal of Broadcasting \& Electronic Media, 40(3), 389-402.

Jennings, S. A. (1975). Effects of sex typing in children's stories on preference and recall. Child Development, 46, 220-223.

Jordan, A. (2004). The role of media in children's development: An ecological perspective. Journal of Developmental \& Behavioral Pediatrics, 25(3), 196206.

Katz, P. A., \& Walsh, P. V. (1991). Modification of children's gender-stereotyped behavior. Child Development, 62(2), 338-351.

Kohlberg, L. (1966). A cognitive-developmental analysis of children's sex-role concepts and attitudes. In E. E. Maccoby (Ed.), The Development of Sex Differences (pp. 82 - 173). Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Kortenhaus, C. M., \& Demarest, J. (1993). Gender role stereotyping in children's literature: An update. Sex Roles, 28(3-4), 219-232.

Leaper, C., \& Bigler, R.S. (2004). Gendered language an sexist thought. Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, 69(1), 128142.

Leaper, C., \& Friedman, C. K. (2007). The Socialization of Gender. In J. E. Grusec \& P. D. Hastings (Eds.), Handbook of socialization: Theory and research (pp. 561-587). New York, NY, US: Guilford Press.

Macklin, M. C., \& Kolbe, R. H. (1984). Sex role stereotyping in children's advertising: Current and past trends. Journal of Advertising, 13(2), 34-42.

Marcus, D. E., \& Overton, W. F. (1978). The development of cognitive gender constancy and sex role preferences. Child Development, 49(2), 434-444.

Martin, C. L., \& Little, J. K. (1990). The relation of gender understanding to children's sex-typed preferences and gender stereotypes. Child Development, 61(5), 1427-1439.

Martin, C. L., Fabes, R. A., Hanish, L., Leonard, S., \& Dinella, L. M. (2011). Experienced and expected similarity to same-gender peers: Moving toward a comprehensive model of gender segregation. Sex Roles, 65(5-6), 421-434.

Martin, C. L., Kornienko, O., Schaefer, D. R., Hanish, L D., Fabes, R. A., \& Goble, P. (2013). The role of sex of peers and gender-typed activities in young children's peer affiliative networks: A longitudinal analysis of selection and influence. Child Development, 84(3), 921-937.

Martin, C. L., \& Ruble, D. (2004). Children's search for gender cues: Cognitive
perspectives on gender development. Current Directions In Psychological Science, 13(2), 67-70.

Martin, C. L., Ruble, D. N., \& Szkrybalo, J. (2002). Cognitive theories of early gender development. Psychological Bulletin, 128(6), 903-933.

Paludi, D. (1998). Sex and gender: The human experience. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Perry, D. G., \& Bussey, K. (1979). The social learning theory of sex differences: Imitation is alive and well. Journal Of Personality And Social Psychology, 37(10), 1699.

Potter, J. (1997). Discourse analysis as a way of analyzing naturally occurring talk. Qualitative Research: Theory, Method and Practice, 2, 200-222.

Plant, E. A., Devine, P. G., Cox, W. T., Columb, C., Miller, S. L., Goplen, J., \& Peruche, B. M. (2009). The Obama effect: Decreasing implicit prejudice and stereotyping. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 45(4), 961-964.

Rheingold, H. L., \& Cook, K. V. (1975). The contents of boys' and girls' rooms as an index of parents' behavior. Child Development, 46(2), 459-463.

Rubin, K. H., Fein, G., \& Vandenberg B. (1983). Play. In E. M. Hetherington (Ed.),
P. H. Mussen (Series Ed.), Handbook of child psychology: Vol. 4. Socialization, personality, and social development (pp. 693-774). New York: Wiley.

Ruble, D. N., Taylor, L. J., Cyphers, L., Greulich, F. K., Lurye, L. E., \& Shrout, P. E. (2007). The role of gender constancy in early gender development. Child Development, 78(4), 1121-1136.

Scherer, K. R. (1970). Stereotype change following exposure to counter-stereotypical media heroes. Journal of Broadcasting \& Electronic Media, 15(1), 91-100.

Serbin, L. A., Moller, L. C, Gulko, J., Powlishta, K. K., \& Colburne, K. A. (1994). The emergence of sex segregation in toddler playgroups. In C. Leaper (Ed.), The Development of Gender and Relationships (pp. 7-18). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Serbin, L. A., Powlishta, K. K., \& Gulko, J. (1993). The development of sex typing in middle childhood. Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, 58(2), 1-99.

Signorella, M. L., \& Liben, L. S. (1985). Assessing children's gender-stereotyped attitudes. Psychological Documents, 15, 7.

Signorielli, N. (1990). Children, television, and gender roles: Messages and impact. Journal of Adolescent Health Care, 11(1), 50-58.

Signorielli, N. (2001). Television's gender role images and contribution to stereotyping: Past, present, future. Handbook of Children and the Media, 341358.

Sinclair, S., Dunn, E., \& Lowery, B. (2005). The relationship between parental racial attitudes and children's implicit prejudice. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 41(3), 283-289.

Slaby, R. G., \& Frey, K. S. (1975). Development of gender constancy and selective attention to same-sex models. Child Development, 46(4), 849-856.

Sommers-Flanagan, R., Sommers-Flanagan, J., \& Davis, B. (1993). What's happening on music television? A gender role content analysis. Sex Roles, 28(11-12), 745-753.

Spinner, L., Cameron, L., \& Calogero, R. (2018). Peer toy play as a gateway to children's gender flexibility: The effect of (counter) stereotypic portrayals of peers in children's magazines. Sex Roles, 79(5-6), 314-328.

Starr, C. R., \& Zurbriggen, E. L. (2017). Sandra Bem's gender schema theory after 34 years: A review of its reach and impact. Sex Roles, 76(9-10), 566-578.

Sutherland C. A., Young, A. W., Mootz, C. A., \& Oldmeadow, J. A. (2015). Face
gender and stereotypicality influence facial trait evaluation: Counterstereotypical female faces are negatively evaluated. British Journal of Psychology, 106(2), 186-208.

Liss, M. B., Reinhardt, L. C., \& Fredriksen, S. (1983). TV heroes: The impact of rhetoric and deeds. Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 4(2), 175187.

Lippman, M. Z., McClendon-Magnuson, D. J., Collamer, B. E., \& Shaffer, D. R. (1996). Study guide and activities for Shaffer's Developmental psychology: Childhood and adolescence (4th edition). Pacific Grove, Calif: Brooks/Cole Pub. Co.

Sunar, D., \& Fisek, G. O. (2005). Contemporary Turkish families. In J. L. Roopnarine, \& U. P. Gielen (Eds.), Families in global perspective (pp. 169183). Boston: Pearson.

Taylor, F. (2003). Content analysis and gender stereotypes in children's books. Teaching Sociology, 31(3), 200-311.

Thompson, T. L., \& Zerbinos, E. (1995). Gender roles in animated cartoons: Has the picture changed in 20 years?. Sex Roles, 32(9-10), 651-673.

Trautner, H. M., Ruble, D. N., Cyphers, L., Kirsten, B., Behrendt, R., \& Hartmann,
P. (2005). Rigidity and flexibility of gender stereotypes in childhood: Developmental or differential? Infant and Child Development, 14(4), 365-381.

Turner-Bowker, D. M. (1996). Gender stereotyped descriptors in children's picture books: Does "Curious Jane" exist in the literature? Sex Roles, 35(7-8), 461488.

Unger, R., \& Crawford, M. (1992). Women and gender: A feminist psychology, New York: McGraw-Hill.

Williams, J. E., \& Best, D. L. (1990). Cross-cultural research and methodology series, Vol. 6. Measuring sex stereotypes: A multination study (Rev. ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA, US: Sage Publications, Inc.

## APPENDICES

## Appendix A: Television viewing

## SORU KAĞIDI

## AÇIKLAMA

Aşağıda çocukların kavram gelişimleriyle ilgili bazı sorular verilmiştir. Herbir bölümdeki sorular çocuklara Gelişim Psikolojisi Master Programı öğrencisi Gözde Özdemir tarafından okunacaktır. Bu sorulara, çocukların içlerinden geldiği gibi yanıt vermeleri beklenmektedir. Bu araştrrmada toplanacak veriler bir bütün olarak değerlendirileceği için çocukların kimlikleriyle ilgili bilgi verilmesi gerekmemektedir.

Bu bir test veya sınav değildir.
Katkılarınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz.
Doç. Dr. Şenel Hüsnü Raman

## Kişisel Bilgiler

Yaş: [___]
Doğum tarihi: ..../..../....

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
\text { Cinsiyet: } & \left.\begin{array}{c}
\text { number }[\text { erkek }[1] \mathrm{klz}[2]
\end{array}\right] \\
\text { Yaş Grubu }[1=7 \mathrm{y}][2=9 \mathrm{y}][3=11 \mathrm{y}][4=13 \mathrm{y}] \\
\text { Anket tarihi: } \ldots . . / \ldots . . \ldots .
\end{array}
$$

## I - BOLUM TV Kullanımı

Q1: Günlük hayatında ne sıklıkla TV izliyorsun?
[1] Hiç izlemiyorum [2] İzlemiyorum [3] Ne çok ne de az izliyorum [4] İzliyorum [5] Çok izliyorum [6] (diğer): $\qquad$
Q2: Günlük hayatında sence kaç saat TV izliyorsun?
[1] 0-2 saat [2] 3-4 saat [3] 5 saat [4] (diğer): $\qquad$
Q3: En sevdiğin süperkahraman kimdir? (filter Q)

Q4: Bana 5 tane süperkahraman sayabilir misin?
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$

Q5. Günlük hayatında ne sıklıkla süperkahramanı olan programlar izliyorsun?
[1] Hiç izlemiyorum [2] İzlemiyorum [3] Ne çok ne de az izliyorum [4] İzliyorum [5] Çok izliyorum [6] (diğer): $\qquad$

## Appendix B: Gender Stereoyped Attitude Scale for Children (GASC) (Signorella \& Liben, 1985)

## Çocuklar için Cinsiyete Dayalı Tutum Ölçeği

'Burada bir faaliyet listesi var ve bana bunların erkek, kadın veya hem erkek hem de kadınlar tarafindan yapılabileceğini söylemeni istiyorum. Birkaç tane pratik yapalım. Bana hangisinin baba ya da anne olabileceğini gösterebilir misin?’
Cevap vermeleri için, çocuklara bir karton üzerine yerleştirilmiş figürlerin üç çizgi çiziminden birine işaret etmeleri söylenir: iki erkek, iki kadın, bir erkek ve bir kadın. Üç grup olacak olan figürlerin pozisyonları her çocuk için farklı olacaktır. Çocuklara 35 maddeden her birine "Bana kimin $\qquad$ olabileceğini gösterebilir misin?" sorusu sorulmuş olacaktır. Her öğenin sırası her
çocuk için rastgele seçilecektir.

|  | E | K | E\&K |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Plaja gitmeyi sevmek | E | K | E\&K |
| İnsanlara çok sarılmak | E | K | E\&K |
| Uçağ1 uçurmak | E | K | E\&K |
| Bale dansı yapmak | E | K | E\&K |
| Kart oynamak | E | K | E\&K |
| Kamyon sürmek | E | K | E\&K |
| Kek yapmak | E | K | E\&K |
| Öğretmen | E | K | E\&K |
| Çöpleri toplamak | E | K | E\&K |
| Mutfakta yemek yapmak | E | K | E\&K |
| Futbol oynamak | E | K | E\&K |
| Dışarıda bir şeyler yapmayı sevmek | E | K | E\&K |
| Dikiş makinası kullanmak | E | K | E\&K |
| Bir restoranda yemek yapmak | E | K | E\&K |
| Çimleri biçmek | E | K | E\&K |
| Masayı kurmak | E | K | E\&K |
| Şapka yapmak | E | K | E\&K |
| Hakem olmak | E | K | E\&K |
| Evi temizlemek | E | K | E\&K |
| Balık tutmak | E | K | E\&K |
| Hemşire | E | K | E\&K |
| Bisiklete binmek | E | K | E\&K |
| Lavaboyu tamik etmek | E | K | E\&K |
| Doktor | E | K | E\&K |
| Çocuklara bakmak | E | K | E\&K |
| Araba yarıştırmak | E | K | E\&K |
| Tiyatro yapmak | E | K | E\&K |
| Kendi bavullarını taşımak | E | K | E\&K |
| Zor bir bulmaca çözmek | E | K | E\&K |
| Bulaşık yıkamak | E | K | E\&K |
| Kar küreklemek | E | K | E\&K |
| Sekreter | E | K | E\&K |
| Sinemaya gitmeyi sevmek | E | K | E\&K |
| Arabayı tamir etmek | E | K | E\&K |

## Appendix C: Peer Preference/ Toy Preference (Martin \& Little, 1990)

Akran tercihi. - Çocuklara tek tek, üç erkek çocuk fotoğrafı (biri erkeksi bir oyuncakla, bir dişi oyuncakla ve bir oyuncağı olmayan) ve üç kız fotoğrafı (biri erkeksi bir oyuncakla, biri kadınsı bir oyuncakla ve oyuncaksız biriyle) gösterilecektir. Her çocuğa, her erkek veya kız ile ne kadar oynamak istedikleri sorulup, gülen yüzler ölçeğinden göstermeleri istenecektir. Her çocuk için resimlerin sırası rasgele seçilecektir

|  | $\mathbf{1}$ | $\mathbf{2}$ | $\mathbf{3}$ | $\mathbf{4}$ | $\mathbf{5}$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Maskülen kız |  |  |  |  |  |
| Feminen kiz |  |  |  |  |  |
| Nötr kız |  |  |  |  |  |
| Maskulen erkek |  |  |  |  |  |
| Feminen erkek |  |  |  |  |  |
| Nötr erkek |  |  |  |  |  |

Onunla birlikte oynamak ister miydin?
çok isterdim [1] isterdim [2] ne isterdim, ne istemezdim [3] istemezdim [4]
hiç istemezdim [5] bilmiyorum [6] diğer [7] (belirleyin): $\qquad$

Oyuncak tercihi. Her çocuğa, her erkek veya kız ile ne kadar oynamak istedikleri sorulup, gülen yüzler ölçeğinden göstermeleri istenecektir. Her çocuk için resimlerin sırası rasgele seçilecektir

|  | $\mathbf{1}$ | $\mathbf{2}$ | $\mathbf{3}$ | $\mathbf{4}$ | $\mathbf{5}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Sihirli Değnek |  |  |  |  |  |
| Çay seti |  |  |  |  |  |
| Pony |  |  |  |  |  |
| Bebek |  |  |  |  |  |
| Araba |  |  |  |  |  |
| Kamyon |  |  |  |  |  |
| Tamir Aletleri Seti |  |  |  |  |  |
| Jet |  |  |  |  |  |
| Lego |  |  |  |  |  |
| Playdoe |  |  |  |  |  |
| Scooter |  |  |  |  |  |
| Teleskop |  |  |  |  |  |

Oyuncakla birlikte oynamak ister miydin? çok isterdim [1] isterdim [2] ne isterdim, ne istemezdim [3] istemezdim [4] hiç istemezdim [5] bilmiyorum [6] diğer [7] (belirleyin): $\qquad$

Appendix D: Job Check List (Ashby \& Wittmaier, 1978)
Çocuklara ‘Aşağıdaki hangi meslekler kadınlar, erkeler yada iki cinsiyet tarafından yapilabilir?’ şeklinde sorulacaktır.

|  | E | K | E\&K |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Ordu Subayı | E | K | E\&K |
| Sanatçı | E | K | E\&K |
| Atlet | E | K | E\&K |
| Marangoz | E | K | E\&K |
| Kolej Profesör | E | K | E\&K |
| Dansçı | E | K | E\&K |
| Dişçi | E | K | E\&K |
| Fabrika İşçisi | E | K | E\&K |
| İtfaiyeci | E | K | E\&K |
| Petrol İstasyonunu Çalışanı | E | K | E\&K |
| Ev Hanımı | E | K | E\&K |
| Hakim | E | K | E\&K |
| Avukat | E | K | E\&K |
| Kütüphaneci | E | K | E\&K |
| Postacı | E | K | E\&K |
| Tamirci | E | K | E\&K |
| Film Yıldızı | E | K | E\&K |
| Müzisyen | E | K | E\&K |
| Gazeteci | E | K | E\&K |
| Ebeveyn | E | K | E\&K |
| Pilot | E | K | E\&K |
| Tesisatçı | E | K | E\&K |
| Polis Memuru | E | K | E\&K |
| Okul Müdürü | E | K | E\&K |
| Restoran Çalışanı | E | K | E\&K |
| Sattş Elemanı | E | K | E\&K |
| Bilim İnsanı | E | K | E\&K |
| Film Yönetmeni | E | K | E\&K |
| Veteriner hekim | E | K | E\&K |
| Yazar | E | K | E\&K |

Peki bu mesleklerden hangisini ileride yapmak istiyorsun? Bu listede olmayan meslekleri de seçebilirsin!

## Appendix E: Stories of Supergirl

## Hikaye 1

Supergirl alşsverişten dönüyordu. Güneş sstılyordu, hava harikayd.. Supergirl bir yandan ağ1r ağır yürüyordu bir yandan da kuşların sesini dinliyordu. İçinden 'ne kadar güzel bir gün' diye geçirirken aniden birinin bağırdığını duydu. Şaşırmıştı, etrafta bir hareket yoktu ancak bir yerlerden bağırma sesi geldiğine emindi. Ellerindeki poşetleri bir kenara bırakan Süpergirl, sesi rahat duyabilmek yükseldi. Binaların arasında uçmaya başlayan Süpergirl sese giderek yaklaşmıştı. Bu arada bağıran sesin bir erkek sesi olduğunu anladı ve sesten adamın korkmuş olabileceğini tahmin etti. Ses binaların arasından, içeriden geliyordu. Bu çığılıkların geldiğini apartmanı bulmasına az kalmıştı. Bir süre daha etrafına bakarak uçtu. Hangi apartman olduğunu bulabilmek için sesin geldiği yönü izlemeye başladı. Giderek yaklaşıyordu. Her binanın içine bakıyordu, tek tek kontrol ediyordu. Korkan adamın sesi daha da yakın ve yüksek gelmeye başladı. Sonunda Süpegirl hangi bina ve ev olduğunu buldu. Hemen içeriye girerek olaya müdahale etmeye karar verdi. İçeri girdiğinde gördüğü bir adamın kartal boğuştuğuydu. Kartal yolunu kaybetmişti ve farkında olmadan bir eve girmişti. Evinde uyuyan adam bir sesle uyanmış ve odasından çıktığında kartalı görmüş büyük bir panikle bağırmaya başlamıştı. Adam çaresizce kartalı dışarıya çıkarmaya çallşıyordu. Süpergirl eve geldi ve adama sakin olmasını ve ona yardım edeceğini söyledi. Kartala yavaşça yaklaşan Süpergirl sakinleştirici gücü ile kartalı pencereye doğru yönlendirmeye çallştt. Kartal da panik olmuştur. Sadece yolunu kaybetmiştir. Kartal sakinleşir ve Süpergirl bağlantı kurmuştur. Yavaşça pencereye doğru yönelir. Kartal ve Süpergirl birbirlerine bakarlar. Süpergirl gülümser ve kartalın başını okşar ve kartal gider. Artık yolunu bulmuştur ve özgürce uçar. Süpergirl, panik olan adama bir bardak su verir. Her şey yoluna girmiştir. Supergirl kartalı dışarı çıkararak yolunu bulmasına yardımcı olmuş, adamında zarar görmeden kurtulmasını sağlamıştır.

Adam Süpergirl'e tüm yardımlarından dolayı teşekkür eder, çok korkmuştu fakat artık rahat olduğunu aktarır.

## Hikaye 2

Dişarıda hava bulutluydu. Süpergirl kendine kahve yaptı ve evde kitap okumaya başladı. Sessizliği ve sakinliği seviyordu. Kendine zaman ayırmıştı o gün. Dışardan bir ses duydu. Çocuklar oyun oynuyor herhalde diye düşündü ve kitabını okumaya devam etti. Sesler daha fazla gelmeye başladı. Kontrol etmek için dişarıya çıktı. Penceren bakıyordu ancak herhangi bir şey göremedi. Tekrar içeri geçti ve okumaya koyuldu. Ama içi rahat değildi. Bir kulağı gelen seslerdeydi. Süpergirl'ün sesleri daha iyi duyma yeteneği vardı. Sonunda sesi tekrar duydu. Bu sefer kontrol etmek için aşağ1ya inmeye karar verdi. Sokağa çıktığında herhangi bir şey görmedi. Yürümeye başladı. 10 dakika sonra, duyduğu seslerin ve hislerinin yanlış olmadığına karar verdi. Göl kenarında ki ağaçlardan birinde bir çocuk sesi geliyordu. Göl kenarına daha yaklaştı. Göl çok sakindi. Etrafinda bir sürü, çeşit çeşit ağaçlar vardı. Ağaçların birinde bir çocuk ve kedi gördü. Çocuğun düşmesinden korkan Süpergirl, hızlıca yerden yükselerek çocuğu tuttu ve aşağıya indirdi. Çocuk parmağt ile kediyi işaret etti. Süpergirl tekrar yükseldi ve yavaşça kediyi sakinleştirdi ve indirdi. Süpergirl çocuğa neler olduğunu sordu.

Çocuk:
--Göl kenarında, kedi ile oynarken kedi korktu ve ağaca tırmandı. Bende kediyi kurtarmak için ağaca çıkmaya çalıştım, ancak yarı yolda nasıl tırmanacağını bilemedim, hem aşağya da inemedim, demiş. Çocuk konuşmaya devam etmiş:
--Bir süre sonra, çok yüksek olduğunu düşündüm. Korktum, yardım edin diye bağırmaya başladım, bir yandan kedi ile konuşarak inmesi için ikna etmeye çalıştım, demiş.

Korkmuş olan çocukla konuşan Süpergirl, ona bu şekil ağaca tırmanmaması gerektiğini düşebileceğini ve canının yanacağını anlattı. Çocuk Süpergirl'ü dikkatlice dinledi ve bir daha ağaca tırmanmayacağını söyledi. Sonra çocuk Süpergirl'e sarıldı. Tamamen
sakinleştikten ve korkusu geçtikten sonra ve onu ağaçtan indirdiği için teşekkür etti. Süpergirl hem kediyi hem de çocuğu rahatlattı. Daha sonra evine dönen Süpergirl, içi rahat bir şekilde kitabını okumaya devam etti.

## Hikaye 3

Süpergirl evde otururken arkadaşları aradı ve deniz kenarında buluşacaklarını söylediler. Hava güneşli ve çok güzeldi. hafif rüzgar vardı. Deniz kenarının eğlenceli olacağını düşünen Süpergirl arkadaşlarına geleceğini söyledi. Hazırlandı, arabasına atladı ve yola koyuldu. Kırmızı işıkta beklerken lunaparkın önünden geçen Süpergirl, çocukları eğlendiren bir palyaço gördü. Yeşil yandığında hareket eden Süpergirl, müziğin sesini açtı ve şarkıya eşlik ederek yoluna devam etti. Deniz kenarına vardığında arabasını park alanına park etti. Arkadaşlarının yanına vardı ve oturdular. Arkadaşları top getirmişti, herkes oynamak istedi. Süpergirl 'hadi oynayalım' dedi ve kumlara gidip top oynamaya başladılar. Karşılıklı top oynarlarken, hisleri kuvvetli olan Süpergirl bir şeylerin ters gittiğini düşündü. İskelede duran birinin denize düşüp bağırdığını duyan Süpergirl top oynamayı biraktı. Hemen yükseldi ve iskeleye doğru uçmaya başladı. İskeleye vardığında denizin içinde çırpınan yaşlı kadını gördü. Hemen denize atladı kadını tutup kaldırdı ve uçarak deniz kıyısına kumların üzerine bıraktı. Kadının nefes almakta zorlandığını gören Süpergirl ona ilk yardım yapmaya başladı. Kadının suni solunum yolu ile nefes almasını sağlamaya çalıştı. Biraz sonra kadın öksürerek uyandı. Korkuyla etrafina bakarak ne olduğunu anlamaya çalıştı. Kadınla oturan Süpergirl onu sakinleştirmeye çalışıp, korkusunun geçmesini sağladı. Kadın Süpergirl'e ne kadar minnettar olduğunu söyledi. Süpergirl bir insanın hayatını kurtarmış oldu. Herkes onu alkışlayarak kutladı. Daha sonra yaşlı kadın Süpergirl'e sarılarak teşekkür etti. Ailesi gelen yaşlı kadın hayatının kurtarıcısına teşekkür ederek oradan ayrıldı. Süpergirl kadının iyi ve mutlu olduğuna sevinerek arkadaşlarının yanına geri döndü. Arkadaşları da Süpergirl'ü tebrik ettiler. Daha sonra Süpergirl ve arkadaşları kumların üzerinde top oynamaya devam ettiler.


[^0]:    Note: *Correlation is significant at 0.05 level
    **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

