İSTANBUL UNIVERSITY CERRAHPAŞA

HAYEF: Journal of Education, 22; 1-9

DOI: 10.5152/hayef.2025.24032

Received: October 8, 2024
Revision Requested: October 24, 2024
Last Revision Received: October 29, 2024
Accepted: October 29, 2024
Publication Date: January 20, 2025

HAYEF: Journal of Education

RESEARCH ARTICLE

The Relationship Between Parents' Emotion Regulation Skills, Parent–Child Relationship, and Social Problem-Solving Skills of Children Aged 4–6: A Structural Equation Modeling

Rümeysa ÇAKIR[1], Kazım BİBER[2], Caner BÖREKCİ[3]

[1]Independent Researcher, Balıkesir, Türkiye
[2]Department of Basic Education, Balıkesir University, Necatibey Faculty of Education, Balıkesir, Türkiye
[3]Balıkesir University, Research Center for Information Technologies, Balıkesir, Türkiye

What is already known on this topic?

- *Early childhood is a crucial period for the development of cognitive, physical, emotional, and social skills. Mechanisms for addressing social challenges should be introduced during the preschool years.*
- *Previous studies have demonstrated that parents' emotional regulation skills and the quality of the parent-child relationship significantly influence children's social problem-solving abilities.*
- *Children who receive love, support, and trust from their parents are more adaptable to their environment and society.*

What this study adds on this topic?

- *This study indicates that parents' use of cognitive reappraisal is positively correlated with their children's social problem-solving skills, while emotional suppression is negatively correlated. This suggests that parents who can reframe negative emotions in a constructive manner enhance their children's ability to navigate social challenges.*
- *The findings emphasize that preschool curricula should focus on enhancing children's social problem-solving skills, and that training in emotion regulation for parents should be expanded.*

Abstract

Children are expected to recognize their daily life challenges and learn to navigate social issues. The early acquisition of social problem-solving skills enables children to grow into adults who can devise practical solutions to problems and foster positive relationships with their surroundings. In this context, the study aimed to analyze the relationship between two factors—emotion regulation skills and parent–child relationships—among parents of children aged four to six years attending preschool education and their children's social problem-solving abilities, using structural equation modeling. The research sample comprised 278 children (140 girls and 138 boys) enrolled in kindergartens and preschools within primary, secondary, and high schools in Balıkesir province and Sındırgı district during the 2022–2023 academic year, along with their mothers. The data collection tools included the Emotion Regulation Questionnaire, the Child–Parent Relationship Scale, the Wally Social Problem Solving Test, and a Demographic Information Form. The findings indicate that parents' emotion regulation skills and the parent–child relationship quality significantly predict children's social problem-solving abilities. Furthermore, a strong positive correlation was identified between the positive relationship dimension—one of the sub-dimensions of the parent–child relationship—and the children's social problem-solving skill scores. The most critical recommendation of the study is that preschool education programs should be designed to enhance children's social problem-solving skills and that training in emotion regulation for parents should be expanded.

Keywords: Emotion regulation, parent–child relationship, social problem-solving skills, structural equation modeling, Wally social problem solving test

Introduction

Parenting encompasses more than merely fulfilling a child's basic needs; it is a multifaceted process that entails numerous responsibilities. Parents play an active role in various areas, including creating a nurturing environment that fosters healthy growth and development, providing education, instilling discipline, and offering love and support. This role is crucial for helping children find their place in society and develop a strong sense of identity (Sert, 2006). A significant portion of children's learning occurs within the family, as parents serve as their first teachers. Parents' communication and interaction with their children directly impact their behaviors and attitudes. Positive behaviors in children are closely linked to the quality of their relationships with their parents (Kostelnik et al., 2004; Özyürek, 2004).

Emotions are complex psychological processes that arise from the interactions between an individual's internal and external worlds. These processes develop through encounters with both living and non-living entities. An individual's lifelong experiences are shaped and influenced by these emotional reactions. Recognizing and managing emotions, particularly during childhood, is crucial to personal development (Dağgül, 2016). According to Calkins and Hill, emotion regulation skills enable individuals to control how they experience and interpret emotions, allowing them to modify their emotional responses (Calkins & Hill, 2007, as cited in Calkins & Bell, 2010). This skill is not solely about eliminating negative emotions; it also involves the ability to direct and adjust one's emotions according to various conditions and situations, fostering positive life interactions (Aldao, 2013). Emotion regulation skills, essential for thriving in social contexts, enable individuals to recognize and manage their emotions while establishing healthy relationships. Furthermore, parents who possess these skills may indirectly facilitate the development of similar abilities in their children (Saltalı, 2010).

Corresponding author: Caner BÖREKCİ **E-mail:** caner.borekci@balikesir.edu.tr

Cite this article as: Çakır, R., Biber, K., & Börekci, C. (2025). The relationship between parents' emotion regulation skills, parent–child relationship, and social problem-solving skills of children aged 4-6: A structural equation modeling. *HAYEF: Journal of Education*, 22, 0032, doi: 10.5152/hayef.2025.24032

Emotionally healthy parents play a crucial role in shaping their children's emotional, social, and cognitive development, particularly during the early years, as well-established by Fox and Calkins (2003). When parents exhibit emotional maturity and stability, it fosters similar emotional development in their children. Children learn to manage their emotions and respond to various events or situations by observing their parents (Denham & Burton, 2003).

How parents interact with their children significantly influences the development of children's moral values, interpersonal skills, and self-perceptions. A child's interactions with their parents can impact their ability to communicate effectively with others throughout their current and future adult lives (Dönmezer, 2009). Research indicates that the quality of communication between a child and their mother and father and the relationship dynamics among the parents play a crucial role in shaping the child's social problem-solving competencies. Specifically, the relationships between the mother and father, the mother and child, and the father and child each independently affect these competencies (Dardağan, 2000). Another study examining parental styles and children's behaviors from a social perspective found that children who established close and sincere relationships with their parents exhibited more social behaviors than those who could not form such connections (Laible et al., 2004). Research has also confirmed that parents' attitudes, interests, and expectations toward their children influence their behavior. For instance, children of parents who adopt a harsh and authoritarian approach tend to exhibit more behavioral problems (Altay & Güre, 2012; Eisenberg & Mussen, 1989). The preschool years represent a critical period during which significant advancements occur in various cognitive, physical, emotional, and social domains. The skills acquired during the early years of a child's life directly impact their future (Özbey, 2009).

Consequently, it is essential to foster social problem-solving skills in early childhood and for parents to actively participate in this developmental process (Anlıak & Dinçer, 2005; D'Zurilla et al., 1998; D'Zurilla & Nezu, 1999). Studies have demonstrated that children with well-developed social problem-solving skills are more likely to resolve issues thoughtfully and exhibit less difficulty with self-control (Spivack & Shure, 1974). Furthermore, it has been noted that children who acquire these skills at an early age are more attuned to their emotions, which supports the development of harmonious behaviors in adulthood (Spivack & Shure, 1974).

The evolving educational paradigm indicates that coping mechanisms for social issues should be introduced to preschool-age children. This conclusion, derived from the current paradigm, emphasizes the importance of children's awareness of the coping strategies they employ during their preschool years (Dardağan, 2000). Social problem-solving can be understood as the interplay of cognition and behavior that individuals utilize to navigate the challenges they encounter in daily life effectively. This process encompasses several stages, including problem recognition, the generation of potential solutions, and the implementation those solutions. Social problem-solving skill reflects an individual's capacity to adapt to challenges at both personal and social levels (D'Zurilla et al., 2003). The difficulties an individual faces during the social problem-solving process can vary based on their evaluation of these challenges and the solutions they choose to pursue. The strategies individuals employ in this process are critical factors that influence their success. These strategies involve identifying problems, generating alternative solutions, and executing those solutions effectively. Proficient social problem-solving skills enable individuals to foster more harmonious relationships within their social environments and enhance their overall quality of life (D'Zurilla et al., 2003). Research indicates that children who can devise solutions to social problems often integrate diverse perspectives (Berk, 2013). To achieve this, children must be able to effectively direct their thinking styles and techniques (Spence, 2003).

In light of the information and research presented, when considering the relationships between social problem-solving skills, parental emotion regulation skills, and parent–child relationships, it is likely that factors such as a child's attachment to their parents, the quality of these relationships, the responses of the parent with whom the child first interacts in various situations, and the presence of emotion regulation skills will support the child in effectively resolving social problems in their interactions with peers and others throughout their life. This support will also facilitate the child's adaptation to their environment. The current study aims to elucidate the effects of parental emotion regulation skills and parent–child relationships on the social problem-solving skills of 4- to 6-year-old children attending preschool education, utilizing the structural equation modeling (SEM). In this context, the research sought answers to the following sub-problems.

1. What is the level of emotional regulation skills among parents?
2. What is the level of relationship between parents and their children?
3. What is the level of children's social problem-solving skills?
4. Is there a significant relationship between parents' emotion regulation behaviors and children's social problem-solving behaviors?
5. Is there a significant relationship between children's relationships with their parents and their social problem-solving behaviors?
6. Is there a significant relationship between parental emotion regulation skills, parent–child relationships, and children's social problem-solving skills?

Methods

The relational screening model, which accurately describes the current situation, was employed among various quantitative research methods in this study. The relational screening model is a research design that illustrates how two or more variables are interrelated and the extent of change in this relationship (Karasar, 2009). This model effectively presents the relationships between variables (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2011).

Structural equation modeling, as utilized in this study, is a statistical technique that enables researchers to uncover the underlying structures within the observed data and to comprehend the interactions among these structures. This research used SEM to test a specific theory and identify direct and indirect relationships between observable and latent variables (Timm, 2002). After verifying the assumptions, it was determined that the most suitable methods for data analysis were maximum likelihood and robust diagonally weighted least squares (RDWLS) from the categorical variable modeling alternatives. Robust diagonally weighted least squares is an alternative to the DWLS model for ordinal data, mainly when responses exhibit high skewness, kurtosis, or both (Distefano & Morgan, 2014; Muthén, 1993).

The model presented in Figure 1 was proposed to elucidate the relationship between parent's emotion regulation skills, parent–child relationships, and children's social problem-solving skills, which are believed to influence one another systematically within the context of this research.

According to the proposed model in the study, a relationship is expected to be observed between parents' emotion regulation skills and children's social problem-solving skills (Figure 1). The model suggests that parents' emotion regulation skills, the parent–child relationship, and children's social problem-solving skills will positively influence each other.

Participants

The research study group comprises 278 children enrolled in preschool education in the central districts of Karesi, Altıeylül, and Sındırgı in Balıkesir province during the 2023/2024 academic year.

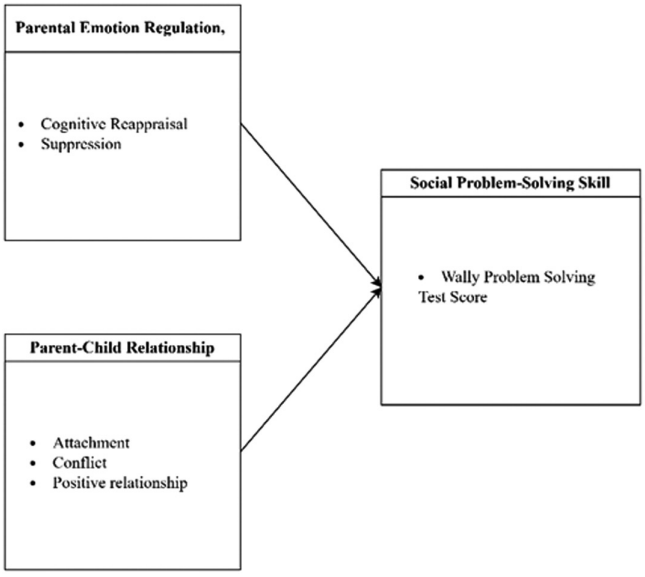


Figure 1.
Proposed Relational Model (The Relational Model Between Parental Emotion Regulation, Parent–Child Relationship, and Social Problem-Solving Skills.).

These participants and their mothers were selected using a convenience sampling method. Among the children, 140 are girls and 138 are boys.

When analyzing the demographic distribution of the research group, it is noted that 125 participants (45.0%) fall within the age range of 32–38 years, 92 participants (33.1%) are aged 25–31 years, 53 participants (19.1%) are in the age range of 39–45 years, four participants (1.4%) are aged 18–24 years, and the remaining four participants are aged 45 years and above. In terms of the educational backgrounds of the parents in the study group, it is observed that 95 parents (34.2%) have completed high school, 67 (24.1%) hold a bachelor's degree, 55 (19.8%) have an elementary education, 47 (16.9%) possess an associate degree, 11 (4.0%) have earned a master's degree, two (0.7%) are literate but have no formal education, and one (0.4%) holds a doctorate. Regarding the marital status of the parents, it was found that 262 parents (94.2%) are married, 11 (4.0%) are widowed, three (1.1%) are single, and two fall into the other category. When examining the employment status and professions of the parents, it was found that 141 parents (50.7%) are employed in various other categories, 42 (15.1%) work in the private sector, 35 (12.6%) are civil servants, 33 (11.9%) are laborers, 16 (5.8%) are tradespeople, and 11 (4.0%) are farmers.

When examining the incomes of the parents, it was found that 237 (85.7%) had a medium income level, 32 (11.5%) had a low-income level, and nine (3.2%) had a high-income level. Regarding the number of children, it was observed that 163 parents (58.6%) had two children, 74 (26.6%) had one child, 39 (14.0%) had three children, and two (0.7%) had four children. In terms of the quality time parents spend with their children, it was found that 116 parents (41.7%) spent between 1 and 3 hours with their child, 111 parents (39.9%) spent 3 hours or more, while 51 parents (18.3%) spent 1 hour or less of quality time with their child. When examining the children in the study group, it was found that 78 of them (28.1%) were six years old, 74 (26.6%) were 5.5 years old, 59 (21.2%) were five years old, 51 (18.3%) were 4.5 years old, and 16 (5.8%) were four years old. Regarding gender, it was determined that 140 children (50.4%) were girls and 138 (49.6%) were boys.

Measures, Data Collection, and Analysis

The Demographic Information Form, along with the Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (ERQ), Parent–Child Relationship Scale, and Wally Social Problem Solving Test, was utilized to present the demographic characteristics of the parents participating in the research group established by the researchers.

Based on the research conducted by Gross and John (2003), ERQ was adapted into Turkish by Yurtsever (2008). This survey consists of 10 items scored on a seven-point Likert scale. It includes two sub-dimensions: cognitive reappraisal (six items) and suppression (four items). High scores in the cognitive reappraisal sub-dimension indicate the frequency with which an individual employs cognitive reappraisal strategies to regulate their emotions. In the study, the Cronbach's alpha (α) value for the ERQ was calculated to be 0.80 for cognitive reappraisal and 0.73 for suppression. Additionally, McDonald's Omega (ω) values were calculated as 0.67 for cognitive reappraisal and 0.66 for suppression.

The scale developed by Pianta (1992) to measure parent–child relationships is based on the interaction between mother and child, attachment theory, and the Attachment Q-Set (Pianta 1992; Waters & Dean, 1985). This scale comprises three sub-dimensions and includes 30 items designed to assess various aspects of the parent–child relationship, including attachment, conflict, and positive relationships. In the study conducted by Özkan (2014), the 30-item "Child–Parent Relationship Scale" was adapted into Turkish. In the current study, the McDonald's Omega (ω) reliability coefficients were calculated as follows: 0.70 for the positive relationship dimension, 0.62 for the conflict dimension, and 0.76 for the attachment dimension.

The Wally Social Problem Solving Test is designed to assess the social problem-solving skills of children aged 3–8. Separate versions of the test have been developed for girls and boys. Each version comprises 15 images depicting conflict or problem situations that children may encounter in their relationships. In the version explicitly created for boys, the hypothetical child is depicted as a boy, while in the version created for girls, the hypothetical child is depicted as a girl. The test is administered to the child using these 15 images, illustrating various potential situations. Kayılı and Arı (2015) examined the test's validity and reliability. For the reliability study, techniques such as KR-20 internal consistency reliability, split-half reliability, and test–retest reliability were employed. In the current study, the reliability coefficients of the scale were calculated as follows: 0.79 for 4-year-old children ($n=67$), 0.80 for 5-year-old children ($=133$), and 0.81 for 6-year-old children ($n=78$). It was observed that the reliability coefficients for each age group exceeded 0.70. These high KR-20 reliability coefficients indicate that the scale is a reliable assessment tool for children aged 4–6 (Büyüköztürk, 2012).

The 18 preschool administrators of the schools to be included in the study were informed by the researcher about the current research. The scales, which were organized and consolidated within this framework, were distributed among teachers, and it was emphasized that the Demographic Information Form, Parent–Child Relationship Scale, and Emotion Regulation Scale would be filled out by mothers. At the same time, the researchers would administer the Wally Problem-Solving Skills Test one-on-one to the children.

The data obtained from the research were analyzed using SPSS version 21. Descriptive statistics were employed to determine levels and frequencies. The normality of the data distribution was assessed, and since the skewness and kurtosis values obtained from the scales fell between −2 and +2, it was concluded that the data exhibited a normal distribution (George & Mallery, 2010). This study conducted confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) separately for each scale to verify the factor structures. Confirmatory factor analysis was utilized to evaluate the validity of the measurement by examining the extent to which a pre-established or constructed framework aligns with the collected data. Additionally, SEM was employed to uncover the causal mechanisms influencing the observed relationships and to determine the strength and direction of the relationships between variables (Tüfekçi & Tüfekçi, 2006).

Ethical Considerations

Permission was obtained for the conduct of the study from the Balıkesir University Social and Human Sciences Ethics Committee (Approval no: 2022/05, Date: 11.10.2022).

Informed Consent

Since the participants in the study were parents and students enrolled in preschool education, informed consent was obtained from all participants and their parents. Prior to commencing the study, meetings were conducted with parents at the schools. During these meetings, the purpose of the study, the intended use of the results, and the data collection tools were presented to the parents. Subsequently, the consent form was completed by those parents who wished to participate in the study.

Results and Conclusion

Table 1 presents the findings related to the scales utilized in the research. In reference to the sub-problem, "What is the level of parents' emotion regulation skills?", the scores obtained by parents regarding their emotion regulation abilities are displayed. A higher score indicates that the corresponding emotion regulation strategy is employed more frequently, while lower scores suggest that individuals utilize these strategies less often. Gross and John (2003) established the scoring criteria for each strategy.

Accordingly, Cognitive Reappraisal: Men—4.6, Women—4.61.

The suppression of expression is quantified as follows: Men—3.64, Women—3.14.

In Table 1, it has been determined that the participants in the study have an average cognitive restructuring score of 5.10 ± 1.13 and an average suppression score of 3.86 ± 1.43. The arithmetic mean ($\bar{x}$) for the cognitive reappraisal sub-dimension was 5.10, while the arithmetic mean ($\bar{x}$) for the suppression dimension was 3.86. Additionally, the median value for the cognitive reappraisal sub-dimension was 5.17, whereas the median value for the suppression dimension was 4.00. Table 1 shows that parents' emotional regulation skills in the sub-dimension of "Cognitive Reappraisal" are above average. Furthermore, it is noted that the "Suppression" sub-dimension of parents' emotional regulation skills also exceeds the established average. The findings indicate that parents utilize the emotional regulation skill "Cognitive Reappraisal" more frequently than the "Suppression" dimension. In this context, it can be concluded that parents tend to restructure their emotions to modify the impact of the events and situations they encounter.

Individuals use cognitive reappraisal behaviors to reduce negative emotions and dysfunctional behavior patterns. The act of suppressing one's emotions, which prevents the expression of those emotions, is focused on the outcome. While suppression behavior successfully hides responses that indicate negative emotions, it is considered unsuccessful in helping the individual relax in response to those emotions. In this context, when comparing both concepts, cognitive reappraisal provides more significant benefits to the individual than suppression (Gross, 2001).

Table 1.
Descriptive Statistics for the Parent Emotion Regulation Skills Scale, Parent–Child Relationship Scale, and Wally Social Problem Solving Scale Sub-dimensions

Sub-Dimensions	Mean	Standard Deviation	Median	Mode
Cognitive reappraisal	5.10	1.13	5.17	6.00
Suppression	3.86	1.43	4.00	4.00
Positive relationship	3.85	0.40	3.92	4.17
Conflict	2.85	0.74	2.86	3.29
Attachment	2.78	0.70	2.73	2.55
Wally social problem solving	6.59	1.76	6.00	6.00

Regarding the second sub-problem, "What is the level of parents' relationships with their children?" Table 1 shows that the participants in the research have an average positive relationship score of 3.85 ± 0.40, an average conflict score of 2.85 ± 0.74, and an average attachment score of 2.78 ± 0.70. A high score in the closeness sub-dimension indicates a positive, sincere, and secure parent–child relationship. Conversely, a high score in the conflict sub-dimension suggests that the parent–child relationship involves conflicts. A high total score on the scale represents a negative relationship (Zhang & Chen, 2010).

The arithmetic mean ($\bar{x}$) of the positive relationship sub-dimension for the participating parents was found to be 3.85, the arithmetic mean ($\bar{x}$) for the conflict dimension was 2.85, and the arithmetic mean ($\bar{x}$) for the attachment sub-dimension was 2.78. In the research, the average positive relationship score of the parent–child relationship scale was higher than other sub-dimensions. This suggests that parents strive to establish a positive relationship with their children. The communication established by an individual during childhood, the environmental interactions they experience, and their communication with their parents are considered to lay the foundation for their interactions with others as they grow up. Research has indicated that children who receive love, support, and trust from their parents and surroundings are more adaptable within their environment and society (Tezel Şahin & Cevher, 2007). Another study supporting this research concluded that the bond established with the mother or other caregivers who meet care needs during early childhood and infancy significantly affects the degree and quality of the infant's attachment to the caregiver, influencing the child's entire life (Sümer & Şendağ, 2009).

Regarding the answer to the third sub-problem, "What is the level of children's social problem-solving skills?", it was found that the children participating in the study had an average Wally score of 6.59 ± 1.76. As the children's test scores increase, it is believed that their ability to cope with the problems they encounter improves. Given that the lowest possible score on the test is 0 and the highest possible score is 15, it can be concluded that the social problem-solving skills of the children participating in the study are average.

The findings related to the answer to the fourth sub-problem, "Is there a significant relationship between parents' emotion regulation behaviors and children's social problem-solving behaviors?" are presented in Table 2.

The analysis of Table 2 underscores the significant impact of parents' emotion regulation strategies—specifically cognitive reappraisal and suppression—on their children's social problem-solving skills. Cognitive reappraisal, a key sub-dimension of emotion regulation, was found to have a positive and statistically significant correlation with children's social problem-solving abilities ($r = 0.206$; $p < .001$). Cognitive reappraisal is defined as the parent's ability to reinterpret a negative emotional experience in a more positive or neutral light. This capacity to effectively manage and adapt emotional responses appears to create a positive ripple effect, enhancing the child's ability to approach and resolve social challenges more constructively. This finding aligns with previous research, which suggests that parents who are skilled at reframing emotional experiences can model adaptive problem-solving behaviors for their children (Morris et al., 2007; Nezu & Nezu, 2018). Consequently, children are likely to internalize these strategies and apply them when navigating social conflicts or dilemmas.

Conversely, the analysis reveals a negative and statistically significant relationship between emotional suppression and children's social problem-solving skills ($r = -0.247$; $p < .001$). Emotional suppression refers to a strategy in which parents inhibit the outward expression of

Table 2.
Correlation Analysis Between Social Problem Solving, Emotion Regulation, and Parent–Child Relationships

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Positive relationship (1)	–					
Conflict (2)	0.085	–				
Attachment (3)	−0.103	0.461***	–			
Cognitive reappraisal (4)	0.202***	−0.075	−0.071	–		
Suppression (5)	0.053	0.378***	0.188**	0.311***	–	
Wally problem solving (6)	0.400***	−0.285***	−0.301***	0.206***	−0.247***	–

Note: ***Indicates statistical significance at $p < .001$; **Indicates statistical significance at $p < .01$.

their emotions. Although this approach may appear to be an effort to maintain a calm environment, it can have unintended negative consequences for children's social development. When parents consistently suppress their emotions, children may receive conflicting cues or learn to downplay their own emotional experiences, which hinders their ability to communicate effectively and address social challenges. This finding aligns with evidence from developmental psychology that highlights the detrimental effects of emotional suppression on emotional intelligence and problem-solving abilities (Hajal & Paley, 2020; Hughes, 1997). As a result, children may struggle to identify and regulate their emotions, adversely affecting their interactions with peers and diminishing their effectiveness in managing social problems.

Additionally, the relationships presented in the table offer further context for understanding these findings. The strong positive correlation between positive parent–child relationships and social problem-solving skills ($r = 0.400$; $p < .001$) suggests that nurturing and supportive interactions likely enhance a child's confidence and ability to resolve social conflicts. This relationship indicates that when parents cultivate a positive, open, and communicative environment, children feel more supported in expressing their emotions and addressing issues independently. Conversely, the negative correlation between conflict in the parent–child relationship and social problem-solving skills ($r = -0.285$; $p < .001$) underscores that exposure to unresolved conflicts or negative interactions may hinder a child's social competence.

Moreover, the table illustrates the intricate interplay between attachment and various dimensions of emotion regulation. The moderate positive correlation between conflict and emotional suppression ($r = 0.378$; $p < .001$) suggests that parents who experience higher levels of conflict are more likely to suppress their emotions, which may inadvertently impact their children's emotional and social competencies. Conversely, the absence of significant correlations between positive parent–child relationships and emotional suppression indicates that such suppression is less prevalent in more nurturing family environments. This further reinforces the notion that open emotional expression is essential for the development of children's social problem-solving skills (Asiegbu, 2024; De Raeymaecker & Dhar, 2022).

The research conducted by Bariola et al. (2012) examined children and their parents across a wide age range. The study aimed to investigate how emotion regulation skills within the family influence each other. The findings revealed that mothers' use of suppression strategies had a significant impact on their children's development of similar strategies. Specifically, mothers' suppression of emotions led to a tendency for their children to control their emotional reactions, which increases the likelihood of intergenerational transmission of emotional expression styles.

Rogers et al. (2016) found that mothers valuing their children's emotions is crucial in predicting children's emotional variability. Mothers not underestimating their children's emotions and using cognitive reappraisal strategies contribute significantly to children's emotional adaptation. Furthermore, mothers' emotion regulation strategies directly impact children's emotional variability and social adjustment. Specifically, reappraisal and suppression strategies used by mothers have a direct effect on children's emotion regulation skills (Rogers et al., 2016).

Morelen et al. (2016) found that mothers' inadequate emotion regulation skills were directly linked to children's emotional dysregulation. Specifically, the study revealed that mothers' inability to regulate emotions adversely affected children's adaptive emotion regulation skills (Morelen et al., 2016). In a subsequent study, Fırat (2020) explored the relationship between mothers' emotion regulation and children's emotional development in younger age groups. The results showed that mothers' emotion regulation difficulties significantly impacted children's emotion regulation skills, underscoring the importance of effective maternal emotion regulation for children's emotional well-being.

Bilge and Sezgin (2020) investigated the relationship between emotion regulation skills in children aged 3–6 years and emotion regulation difficulties in their mothers. The study revealed that mothers' emotional difficulties had a significant impact on children's ability to regulate their own emotions, highlighting the importance of parents' emotional well-being for children's emotional development. Additionally, Behrendt et al. (2019) found that mothers' depressive symptoms were indirectly linked to social, emotional, and behavioral problems in children. This research suggests that parents' emotional states can significantly impact children's overall behavioral and emotional health.

Research by Gross and John (2003) demonstrated how emotion regulation strategies and empathy can be combined to improve children's social problem-solving skills. Empathy has been reported to significantly affect children's social adjustment (Reniers, et al., 2011). An increase in parental suppression behavior was associated with a decrease in children's social problem-solving levels. Emotion suppression requires a high level of cognitive effort and may cause negative emotions to accumulate without resolution (Gross & Levenson, 1993; John & Gross, 2004; Richards & Gross, 1999). Parents' methods of coping with their emotions are critical in serving as positive role models for their children. If parents ignore or deny their emotions, their children's ability to establish positive relationships with those around them and to cope with the problems they face may be impaired.

Parents' emotional states and how they cope with these states pose a potential risk to the support offered to children and influence children's emotional and behavioral skills. Developing healthy emotion regulation strategies in parents will contribute to children's social and emotional development. Research indicates that parents' emotion regulation skills indirectly affect children's social problem-solving abilities and play a crucial role in their capacity to resolve social challenges (Low et al., 2019; Morris et al, 2007). In this context, developing interventions focusing on parents' emotion regulation strategies may positively affect children's well-being.

Table 2 examined the relationship between children's relationship with their parents and their social problem-solving behaviors. A significant positive relationship was found between the "Positive Relationship" sub-dimension of the parent–child relationship and social problem-solving ($r = 0.400$, $p < .001$). As the positive relationship between parents and children increases, so does the level of social problem-solving behavior in children. In contrast, a negative and statistically significant relationship was found between the "Conflict" sub-dimension of the parent–child relationship and social problem-solving ($r = -0.285$, $p < .001$). As conflict between parents and children increases, the level of social problem-solving behavior decreases. Furthermore, a negative and statistically significant relationship was found between the "Attachment" sub-dimension of the parent–child relationship and social problem-solving skills in children ($r = -0.301$, $p < .001$). As attachment between parents and children increases, children's level of social problem-solving decreases. These findings suggest that improving emotion regulation skills in parents may be beneficial for supporting children's social problem-solving behaviors (Denham et al., 2004; Mason et al., 2016).

Studies by Özyürek (2004) and Tam et al. (2012) demonstrate that the interaction between parents and children plays a crucial role in acquiring positive behaviors and developing social skills. By modeling their parents' behavior, children gain insight into their roles and perspectives, significantly influencing their feelings of respect and affection for their parents.

Children's respect for and feelings towards their parents profoundly imprint their overall quality of life and psychosocial development. The parent–child relationship quality significantly influences children's emotional development, self-regulation skills, academic performance, and fundamental behavioral structures, including language and social development. Parents' warm and supportive attitudes are crucial for children's ability to effectively resolve conflicts and address challenges. Positive parent–child relationships enable children to learn and practice new social and cognitive skills meaningfully and systematically. Studies by Myers and Pianta (2008) and Parke and Buriel (1998) indicate that hostile, aggressive, and conflictual parent–child relationships may lead children to adopt similar negative relationship models in their interactions with others. Such detrimental relationship patterns can adversely affect children's adaptation and the quality of their interactions in social environments. The research conducted by Simkiss et al. (2013) demonstrated that conflictual and problematic parent–child relationships contribute to behavioral issues in early childhood and preschool-aged children. These findings suggest that early parental relationships may significantly influence children's long-term behavioral and psychological well-being. A study conducted by Zhang and Chen (2010) analyzed the mediating role of parent–child relationships in the social competencies of preschool children. The findings indicated that both mother–child and father–child relationships positively influenced children's social competencies and facilitated children's adaptation to preschool educational institutions.

These studies thoroughly examine the role of the parent–child relationship in children's development and emphasize how these dynamics shape children's social and academic lives. Mother–child interactions significantly influence children's social adjustment and behavior. Research indicates that when mothers are sensitive and supportive toward their children, those children are more likely to develop effective problem-solving skills in their social environments. Such positive parental attitudes play a crucial role in reducing aggressive behaviors in children (Raikes & Thompson, 2008). However, not all mother–child relationships progress positively. A lack of maternal support or a mother's inability to provide emotional guidance can lead to negative emotional experiences for children (Dizman & Gürsoy, 2005). To establish a healthy relationship, mothers should be empathetic, cooperative, and capable of understanding and accepting their child's feelings and thoughts. Mothers who adopt a rigid and one-sided communication style are less likely to foster healthy relationships with their children. Children raised in a nurturing family environment tend to develop into more independent and confident individuals when they feel understood and accepted within their family (Tezel Şahin, 2014).

To verify the data related to the "Proposed Model" illustrated in Figure 1 for the final sub-problem, is there a relationship between parents' emotion regulation skills, parent–child relationships, and children's social problem-solving skills? Factor analysis was conducted separately for each scale. Confirmatory factor analysis is employed to evaluate the validity of a measurement by examining the extent to which a pre-constructed or constructed framework aligns with the collected data. Grounded in theoretical foundations, CFA assesses the consistency between factors derived from multiple variables and empirical data, as well as their fit with the research sample. According to the CFA results for the parental emotion regulation scale (cognitive reapp raisal/suppression), the fit indices were as follows: $\chi^2 = 103$, $\chi^2/df = 3.02$, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = 0.07 (90% CI (0.06, 0.07)), CFI = 0.91, and Tucker–Lewis index (TLI) = 0.92. For the Parent–Child Relationship Scale (conflict/positive relationship/at tachment), the fit indices were: $\chi^2 = 805$, $\chi^2/df = 2.02$, RMSEA = 0.06 (90% CI (0.05, 0.06)), CFI = 0.91, and TLI = 0.90 (See Appendix 2 for item factor loadings calculated after the confirmatory factor analysis for the scales.). The fit measurements of the parameters obtained from the CFA analyses for both scales were determined to fall within acceptable limits (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Schumacker & Lomax, 1996).

Then, a SEM analysis was conducted for the proposed relational model illustrated in Figure 1, based on the information gathered from the literature review within the theoretical framework. The model proposes a relationship among parental emotion regulation (cognitive reappraisal and suppression), the parent–child relationship (positive interactions, conflict, and attachment), and social problem-solving skills in preschool children. The model's fit evaluation results indicate that the regression weights between the variables are presented in Appendix 1 with $p < .001$ and $p < .05$ significance levels.

When examining the goodness-of-fit indices of the model presented in Table 3, the χ^2/df value is found to be 2.55, which falls within the acceptable fit criteria established by Kline (2011). The RMSEA fit index also indicates an acceptable fit, with a value of 0.058. Additionally, the TLI/non-normed fit index (), CFI, and normed fit index (NFI) values were assessed, and it was concluded that all these indices demonstrate

Table 3.
Fit Index Values and Reference Ranges for Path Analysis

Fit Index	Structural Equation Model	Perfect Fit Criteria	Acceptable Fit Criteria	Evaluation
$\chi^2/(df)$	1953/(764) = 2.55	$0 \le \chi^2 \le 2$	$2 \le \chi^2 \le 3$	Acceptable fit
RMSEA	0.058	$0 \le$ RMSEA ≤ 0.05	$0.05 <$ RMSEA ≤ 0.08	Acceptable fit
TLI/NNFI	0.91	$0.95 \le$ TLI ≤ 1.00	$0.90 \le$ TLI < 0.95	Acceptable fit
CFI	0.91	$0.95 \le$ CFI ≤ 1.00	$0.90 \le$ CFI < 0.95	Acceptable fit
NFI	0.91	$0.95 \le$ NFI ≤ 1.00	$0.90 \le$ NFI < 0.95	Acceptable fit

Note: Anderson & Gerbing (1984); Hooper, Coughlan, and Mullen (2008); Brown (2015).
CFI, comparative fit index; NFI, normed fit index; NNFI, non-normed fit index; RMSEA, root mean square error of approximation; TLI, Tucker–Lewis index.

Table 4.
Values Related to Predictability and Relationships of Independent Variables

Independent Variables	Standardized Regression Coefficients	SE	*t*	*p*
Positive relationship	1.372	0.173	0.62	<.001
Conflict	−0.397	0.606	−0.08	.005
Attachment	0.433	0.335	0.14	.019
Cognitive reappraisal	0.771	0.461	0.15	.009
Suppression	−0.853	0.386	0.26	.034

$R^2 = 0.48$, $F = 47.824$ ($df = 5/278$; $p < .01$).

acceptable fit (Schermelleh-Engel et al., 2003). Upon reviewing the fit index values of the path model derived from data collected from parents and children, it is evident that the structural model aligns well with the data. Consequently, it was demonstrated that parents' emotion regulation skills and parent–child relationships significantly predict children's social problem-solving skills (Table 4). According to the structural equation model, a strong positive relationship exists between the positive relationship dimension, a sub-dimension of the parent–child relationship, and the Wally scores.

In this study, the evaluation of the correlations between social problem-solving skills, emotion regulation, and parental relationships yielded findings that were largely consistent with existing literature, while others diverged. The weak positive relationship between positive relationships and conflict was not statistically significant. This observation aligns with the study conducted by Feldman and Wentzel (1990), which examined the relationship between the quality of parent–child relationships and the level of conflict. They noted that positive contexts may help maintain low levels of conflict; however, this relationship is not always robust.

On the other hand, the weak negative relationship between attachment and positive relationships was not statistically significant. In the classical studies conducted by Ainsworth et al (1978), it was stated that secure attachment styles promote positive parent–child relationships. However, it was also emphasized that, in some cases, this relationship may be weak or statistically insignificant. Therefore, these findings appear to provide important context regarding cultural differences, consistent with the results of the present study.

The strong positive relationship between attachment and conflict is further supported by Hazan and Shaver (1994). The researchers discovered that insecure attachment styles were linked to higher levels of conflict. This finding is significant as it corroborates the results of the current study.The positive and significant relationship between cognitive reappraisal and social relationships is further supported by the study conducted by Gross and John (2003). Their findings indicate that emotion regulation strategies enhance positive social interactions. This evidence reinforces the conclusion that cognitive reappraisal strategies have a beneficial impact on social relationships.

In addition to corroborating the findings mentioned above, the meta-analysis conducted by Aldao et al. (2010) indicated that the relationship between emotion regulation strategies and conflict is generally weak. While this finding aligns with the results of the current study, it highlights that emotion regulation is merely one of the predictors of conflict.

Recent research has also consistently underscored the significance of positive parent–child relationships and parental emotional awareness in shaping children's social and emotional development. Siffert (2012) explored the impact of parental relationships on gender-based functioning among men, utilizing structural equation modeling to demonstrate that healthy family interactions significantly influence psychological well-being. Dereli (2016) examined the relationship between parent–child interactions and emotional regulation in children aged 4–5, finding that nurturing and emotionally supportive relationships foster better emotional understanding and problem-solving abilities. Similarly, Yükçü and Demircioğlu (2021) emphasized the role of parents' emotional literacy in enhancing children's emotion regulation and social problem-solving skills, indicating that emotionally aware parenting practices lead to more adaptive social behaviors in children. Hughes-Belding et al. (2022) further reinforced these findings by investigating the influence of home visit quality on parent–child interactions. Their study revealed that high-quality interventions improve parent–child interactions, which, in turn, lead to positive social and emotional outcomes for children. Collectively, these studies highlight the crucial role of positive parent–child dynamics and parental emotional regulation in supporting children's social competence and overall development.

All these results, including the significant correlations between Wally's social problem solving and positive relationships, conflict resolution, attachment, cognitive reorganization, and emotional suppression, highlight an area that aligns with existing studies in the literature. Furthermore, they underscore the largely consistent findings with previous research while revealing a relational dynamic in which cultural influences and daily experiences can also impact emotional regulation and social problem-solving skills. Consequently, the results of the current study affirm that social problem-solving skills are crucial for children's social and emotional development.

Recommendations

Parents play a crucial role in helping children develop emotional regulation and social problem-solving skills. They support their children's emotional and social development, foster healthy relationships, and assist them in coping with life's challenges. In this context, the following suggestions are based on research findings.

Parents' emotional regulation skills significantly impact their children's social problem-solving abilities. Healthy emotional regulation strategies, such as cognitive reappraisal, facilitate the development of children's social skills, while unhealthy strategies, such as emotional suppression, can hinder these skills. Consequently, parents can greatly enhance their children's social and emotional development by improving their own emotional awareness and fostering healthy relationships with their children. Family training sessions focused on emotion regulation strategies, along with workshops on emotion regulation and social skills, can be organized for parents. Parents can create an emotional diary with their children to help them express their feelings. Daily emotions can be recorded through drawings or writing in this diary. While parents strive to address the challenges they encounter in their own lives from a different perspective, they can also educate their children by transforming negative situations into positive learning experiences. Positive parent–child relationships must be cultivated. To achieve this, it is essential to foster open communication, create a supportive environment, and nurture a warm and loving bond. Therefore, parents should dedicate effective and meaningful time to their children by addressing their questions, celebrating their successes, highlighting the educational aspects of challenges, and maintaining physical affection. Parents and teachers can assist children in addressing social issues by organizing role-playing games, creating various scenarios, and developing solutions within these contexts.

Availability of Data and Materials: The data that support the findings of this study are available on request from the corresponding author.

Ethics Committee Approval: Ethics committee approval was received for this study from the Ethics Committee of Balıkesir University (Approval no: 2022/05, Date: 11.10.2022).

Informed Consent: Written informed consent was obtained from all participants and their parents who participated in this study.

Peer-review: Externally peer-reviewed.

Author Contributions: Concept – R.Ç., K.B., C.B.; Design – R.Ç., K.B., C.B.; Supervision – K.B.; Data Collection and/or Processing – R.Ç., K.B., C.B.; Literature Search – R.Ç.; Writing Manuscript – R.Ç., K.B., C.B.; Critical Review – R.Ç., K.B., C.B.

Declaration of Interests: The authors have no conflict of interest to declare.

Funding: The authors declared that this study has received no financial support.

References

Marcus, A. K. (2024). Understanding the impact of parent-child relationships on emotion regulation: A comprehensive review. *Newport International Journal of Current Issues in Arts and Management*, *4*(1), 25–31. [CrossRef]

Ainsworth, M. D. S., Blehar, M. C., Waters, E., & Wall, S. (1978). *Patterns of attachment: A psychological study of the strange situation*. Erlbaum.

Aldao, A. (2013). The future of emotion regulation research: Capturing context. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, *8*(2), 155–172. [CrossRef]

Aldao, A., Nolen-Hoeksema, S., & Schweizer, S. (2010). Emotion-regulation strategies across psychopathology: A meta-analytic review. *Clinical Psychology Review*, *30*(2), 217–237. [CrossRef]

Altay, F. B., & Güre, A. (2012). Okul öncesi kuruma (devlet-özel) devam eden çocukların sosyal yeterlik ve olumlu sosyal davranışları ile annelerinin ebeveynlik stilleri arasındaki ilişkiler. *Kuram ve Uygulamada Eğitim Bilimleri*, *12*(4), 2699–2718.

Anlıak, Ş., & Dinçer, Ç. (2005). The evaluation of the interpersonal problem solving skills of the children attending to the preschools applying different educational approaches. *Ankara University Journal of the Faculty of Educational Sciences*, *38*, 149–166.

Bariola, E. J., Hughes, E. K., & Gullone, E. (2012). Relationships between parent and child emotion regulation strategy use: A brief report. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, *21*(3), 443–448. [CrossRef]

Behrendt, H. F., Scharke, W., Herpertz-Dahlmann, B., Konrad, K., & Firk, C. (2019). Like mother, like child? Maternal determinants of children's early social-emotional development. *Infant Mental Health Journal*, *40*(2), 234–247. [CrossRef]

Berk, L. E. (2013). *Çocuk gelişimi* B. Onur & A. Dönmez (Çev). İmge Kitabevi.

Bilge, Y., & Sezgin, E. (2020). Anne ve çocuk duygu düzenleme arasındaki ilişkide annenin kişilik özelliklerinin ve bağlanma stillerinin aracı rolü. *Anadolu Psikiyatri Dergisi*, *21*, 310–318.

Büyüköztürk, Ş. (2012). *Sosyal bilimler için veri analizi el kitabı*. Pegem Akademi Yayıncılık.

Calkins, S. D., & Bell, M. A. (2010). *Child development at the intersection of emotion and cognition*. American Psychological Association.

Dağgül, H. C. (2016). *Okul öncesi dönem çocuklarının öz düzenleme becerileri ile ebeveynlerin çocuk yetiştirme stilleri arasındaki ilişkinin incelenmesi. Yayımlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi.* Kıbrıs: Doğu Akdeniz Üniversitesi, Öğretim ve Araştırma Enstitüsü.

Dardağan, M. P. (2000). İlköğretim dönemi çocukların sosyal ve akademik becerilerini geliştirmede yardımcı ebeveyn eğitim programının değerlendirilmesi. *Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi*. İstanbul: Marmara Üniversitesi.

De Raeymaecker, K., & Dhar, M. (2022). The influence of parents on emotion regulation in middle childhood: A systematic review. *Children*, *9*(8), 1200. [CrossRef]

Denham, S. A., Blair, K. A., Kochanoff, A., & Whipple, B. (2004). Playing it cool: Temperament, emotion regulation, and social behavior in preschoolers. *Journal of School Psychology*, *42*(5), 419–443. [CrossRef]

Denham, S. A., & Burton, R. (2003). *Social and emotional prevention and intervention programming for preschoolers*. Kluwer Publishers-Plenum.

Dereli, E. (2016). Prediction of emotional understanding and emotion regulation skills of 4–5 age group children with parent-child relations. *Journal of Education and Practice*, *7*(21), 65–77.

Distefano, C., & Morgan, G. B. (2014). A comparison of diagonal weighted least squares robust estimation techniques for ordinal data. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, *21*(3), 425–438. [CrossRef]

Dizman, H., & Gürsoy, F. (2005). İlköğretim dördüncü ve beşinci sınıfa devam eden anne yoksunu olan ve olmayan çocukların saldırganlık eğilimleri. *Kastamonu Eğitim Dergisi*, *13*(2), 437–446.

Dönmezer, İ. (2009). *Ailede iletişim ve etkileşim*. Hegem Yayınevi.

D'Zurilla, T. J., Chang, E. C., & Sanna, L. J. (2003). Self-esteem and social problem solving as predictors of aggression in college students. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, *22*(4), 424–440. [CrossRef]

D'Zurilla, T. J., Maydeu-Olivares, A., & Kant, G. L. (1998). Age and gender differences in social problem-solving ability. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *25*(2), 241–252. [CrossRef]

D'Zurilla, T. J., & Nezu, A. M. (1999). *Problem-solving therapy: A social competence approach to clinical intervention*. Springer Publishing Company.

Eisenberg, N., & Mussen, P. (1989). *The roots of prosocial behavior in children*. Cambridge University Press.

Feldman, S. S., & Wentzel, K. R. (1990). Relations among family interaction patterns, classroom self-restraint, and academic achievement in preadolescent boys. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *82*(4), 813–819. [CrossRef]

Fırat, B. (2020). *Annelerin duygu düzenleme güçlükleri ve erişkin bağlanma stillerine göre 48–72 aylık çocukların duygu düzenleme becerilerinin incelenmesi. Yayımlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi*. İstanbul: Arel Üniversitesi, Lisansüstü Eğitim Enstitüsü.

Fox, N. A., & Calkins, S. D. (2003). The development of self-control of emotion: Intrinsic and extrinsic influences. *Motivation and Emotion*, *27*(1), 7–26. [CrossRef]

Fraenkel, J. R., Wallen, N. E., & Hyun, H. H. (2011). How to design and evaluate research in education. *Humanities and/Social Sciences/Languages*. McGraw-Hill.

George, D., & Mallery, M. (2010). *SPSS for Windows step by step: A simple guide and reference, 17.0 update.* Pearson.

Gross, J. J. (2001). Emotion regulation in adulthood: Timing is everything. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, *10*(6), 214–219. [CrossRef]

Gross, J. J., & John, O. P. (2003). Individual differences in two emotion regulation processes: Implications for affect, relationships, and well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *85*(2), 348–362. [CrossRef]

Gross, J. J., & Levenson, R. W. (1993). Emotional suppression: Physiology, self-report, and expressive behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *64*(6), 970–986. [CrossRef]

Hajal, N. J., & Paley, B. (2020). Parental emotion and emotion regulation: A critical target of study for research and intervention to promote child emotion socialization. *Developmental Psychology*, *56*(3), 403–417. [CrossRef]

Hazan, C., & Shaver, P. R. (1994). Attachment as an organizational framework for research on close relationships. *Psychological Inquiry*, *5*(1), 1–22. [CrossRef]

Hu, L., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, *6*(1), 1–55. [CrossRef]

Hughes, D. A. (1997). *Facilitating developmental attachment: The road to emotional recovery and behavioral change in foster and adopted children*. Rowman & Littlefield Publishing Group Publishers.

Hughes-Belding, K., Peterson, C., Jeon, H. J., & Brown, D. (2022). Relations among home visit quality, parent-child interactions, and children's outcomes. *Children and Youth Services Review*, *136*, 106455. [CrossRef]

John, O. P., & Gross, J. J. (2004). Healthy and unhealthy emotion regulation: Personality processes, individual differences, and life span development. *Journal of Personality*, *72*(6), 1301–1333. [CrossRef]

Karasar, N. (2009). *Bilimsel araştırma yöntemleri*. Nobel Yayınları.

Kayılı, G., & Arı, R. (2015). Wally sosyal problem çözme testi: Geçerlik ve güvenirlik çalışması. *Uluslararası Eğitim Bilimleri Dergisi*, *3*, 51–60.

Kline, R. B. (2011). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling*. The Guilford Press.

Kostelnik, M., Soderman, A. K., & Whiren, A. P. (2004). *Developmentally appropriate curriculum best practices in early childhood education*. Pearson Education Inc.

Laible, D., Carlo, G., Torquati, J., & Ontai, L. (2004). Children's perceptions of family relationships as assessed in a doll story completion task: Links to

parenting, social competence, and externalizing behavior. *Social Development*, *13*(4), 551–569. [CrossRef]

Low, R. S. T., Overall, N. C., Cross, E. J., & Henderson, A. M. E. (2019). Emotion regulation, conflict resolution, and spillover on subsequent family functioning. *Emotion*, *19*(3), 455–468. [CrossRef]

Mason, W. A., January, S. A. A., Fleming, C. B., Thompson, R. W., Parra, G. R., & Haggerty, K. P. (2016). Parent training to reduce problem behaviors over the transition to high school: Tests of indirect effects through improved emotion regulation skills. *Children and Youth Services Review*, *61*, 200–209. [CrossRef]

Morelen, D., Shaffer, A., & Suveg, C. (2016). Maternal emotion regulation: Links to emotion parenting and child emotion regulation. *Journal of Family Issues*, *37*(13), 1891–1916. [CrossRef]

Morris, A. S., Silk, J. S., Steinberg, L., Myers, S. S., & Robinson, L. R. (2007). The role of the family context in the development of emotion regulation. *Social Development*, *16*(2), 361–388. [CrossRef]

Muthén, B. O. (1993). Goodness of fit with categorical and other non normal variables. In K. A. Bollen & J. S. Long (Eds.). *Testing structural equation models* (pp. 205–243). Sage.

Myers, S. S., & Pianta, R. C. (2008). Developmental commentary: Individual and contextual influences on student–teacher relationships and children's early problem behaviors"s early problem behaviors. *Journal of Clinical Child and Adolescent Psychology*, *37*(3), 600–608. [CrossRef]

Nezu, A. M., & Nezu, C. M. (2018). *Emotion-centered problem-solving therapy: Treatment guidelines*. Springer Publishing.

Özbey, S. (2009). *Anaokulu ve anasınıfı davranış ölçeği'nin (PKBS–2) geçerlik güvenirlik çalışması ve destekleyici eğitim programının etkisinin incelenmesi*. *Yayımlanmamış Doktora Tezi*. Ankara: Gazi Üniversitesi, Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü.

Özkan, T. (2014). *Çocuğu okul öncesi eğitim kurumuna devam eden babalara uygulanan baba katılım programının baba çocuk ilişkisi üzerine etkisi*. *Yayımlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi*. Ankara: Gazi Üniversitesi.

Özyürek, A. (2004). *Kırsal bölge ve şehir merkezinde yaşayan anne-babaların çocuk yetiştirme tutumlarının incelenmesi*. *Yayımlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi*. Ankara: Gazi Üniversitesi, Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü.

Parke, R. D., & Buriel, R. (1998). Socialization in the family: Ethnic and ecological perspectives. In N. Eisenberg & W. Damon (Eds.). *Handbook of child psychology: Social, emotional, and personality development*. Wiley.

Pianta, R. C. (1992). *Child parent relationship scale*. Unpublished measure. University of Virginia.

Raikes, H. A., & Thompson, R. A. (2008). Attachment security and parenting quality predict children's problem-solving, attributions, and loneliness with peers. *Attachment and Human Development*, *10*(3), 319–344. [CrossRef]

Reniers, R. L. E. P., Corcoran, R., Drake, R., Shryane, N. M., & Völlm, B. A. (2011). The QCAE: A questionnaire of cognitive & Affective empathy. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, *93*(1), 84–95. [CrossRef]

Richards, J. M., & Gross, J. J. (1999). Composure at any cost? The cognitive consequences of emotion suppression. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *25*(8), 1033–1044. [CrossRef]

Rogers, M. L., Halberstadt, A. G., Castro, V. L., MacCormack, J. K., & Garrett-Peters, P. (2016). Maternal emotion socialization differentially predicts third-grade children's emotion regulation and lability. *Emotion*, *16*(2), 280–291. [CrossRef]

Saltalı, N. (2010). Duygu eğitiminin okulöncesi dönem çocuklarının duygusal becerilerine etkisi. *Yayımlanmamış Doktora Tezi*. Konya: Selçuk Üniversitesi, Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü.

Schermelleh-Engel, K., Moosbrugger, H., & Müller, H. (2003). Evaluating the fit of structural equation models: Tests of significance and descriptive goodness-of-fit measures. *Methods of Psychological Research Online*, *8*(2), 23–74.

Schumacker, R. E., & Lomax, R. G. (1996). *A beginner's guide to structural equation modeling*. Erlbaum.

Sert, S. (2006). Farklı çocuğun anne babası olmak. *SAPİENS Özel Eğitim ve Rehabilitasyon Dergisi*, *2*(4), 3–71.

Siffert, K. (2012). *A structural equation model investigating parental relationships and gendered-functioning among men: Links to Kohut's self psychology* [Doctoral Dissertation]. Houston: University of Houston.

Simkiss, D. E., Snooks, H. A., Stallard, N., Kimani, P. K., Sewell, B., Fitzsimmons, D., Anthony, R., Winstanley, S., Wilson, L., Phillips, C. J., & Stewart-Brown, S. (2013). Effectiveness and cost-effectiveness of a universal parenting skills programme in deprived communities: Multicentre randomised controlled trial. *BMJ Open*, *3*(8), 1–18. [CrossRef]

Spence, S. H. (2003). Social skills training with children and young people: Theory, evidence and practice. *Child and Adolescent Mental Health*, *8*(2), 84–96. [CrossRef]

Spivack, G., & Shure, M. B. (1974). *Social adjustment of young children*. Jossey-Bass.

Sümer, N., & Anafarta-Şendağ, M. (2009). Orta çocukluk döneminde ebeveynlere bağlanma, benlik algısı ve kaygı. *Türk Psikoloji Dergisi*, *24*, 86–101.

Tam, C. L., Lee, T. H., & Har, W. M. (2012). Parental authority, parent-child relationship and gender differences: A study of college students in the Malaysian context. *Australian Journal of Basic and Applied Sciences*, *6*(2), 182–189.

Tezel Şahin, F. (2014). Mother- child relation and factors affecting this relation. *International Journal of Science Culture and Sport (IntJSCS), 2*(3), 79–88. (doi :[CrossRef])

Tezel Şahin, F., & Cevher, F. N. (2007). *Türk toplumunda aile-çocuk ilişkilerine genel bir bakış*. Ankara: Atatürk Kültür, Dil ve Tarih Yüksek Kurulu.

Timm, N. H. (2002). *Applied multivariate analysis*. Springer-Verlag.

Tüfekçi, N., & Tüfekçi, K. (2006). Bankacılık sektöründe farklı olma üstünlüğünün ve müşteri sadakatinin yarattığı değer: Isparta ilinde bir uygulama. *Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, *4*, 170–183.

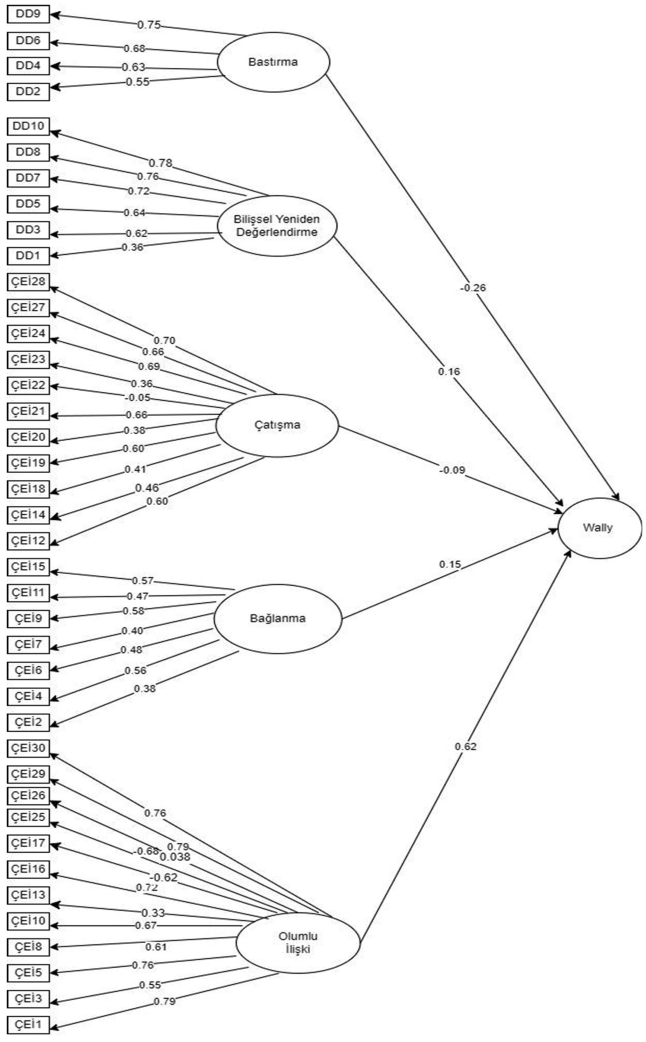
Yükçü, Ş. B., & Demircioğlu, H. (2021). Examining the predictor effect of parents' emotional literacy level on the emotion regulation and social problem-solving skills of children. *Early Child Development and Care*, *191*(8), 1257–1273. [CrossRef]

Yurtsever, G. (2008). Negotiators' profit predicted by cognitive reappraisal, suppression of emotions, misrepresentation of information and tolerance of ambiguity. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, *106*(2), 590–608. [CrossRef]

Zhang, X., & Chen, H. (2010). Reciprocal influences between parents' perceptions of mother-child and father-child relationship: A short term longitudinal study in Chinese Preschoolers. *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, *171*(1), 22–34. [CrossRef]

Appendices

Appendix 1. Model.



Appendix 2. Item Factor Loadings Calculated at the End of Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Scales.

Parental Emotion Regulation Scale

	Factor	
	Cognitive Reappraisal	**Suppression**
PERS10	0.771	
PERS8	0.724	
PERS7	0.677	
PERS3	0.666	
PERS5	0.644	
PERS1	0.464	
PERS6		0.773
PERS4		0.719
PERS9		0.691
PERS2		0.671

Parent–Child Relationship Scale

	Factor		
	Positive Relationship	**Conflict**	**Attachment**
PCR1	0.621		
PCR3	0.621		
PCR5	0.619		
PCR8	0.607		
PCR10	0.595		
PCR13	0.590		
PCR16	0.574		
PCR17	0.489		
PCR25	0.446		
PCR26	0.445		
PCR29	0.432		
PCR30	0.420		
PCR2		0.385	
PCR4		0.676	
PCR6		0.555	
PCR7		0.489	
PCR9		0.488	
PCR11		0.463	
PCR15		0.408	
PCR12			−0.417
PCR14			0.480
PCR18			0.345
PCR19			0.576
PCR20			0.536
PCR21			0.515
PCR22			0.483
PCR23			0.431
PCR24			−0.412
PCR27			−0.401
PCR28			0.480

Appendice 3. Path Coefficients and *t*-Values Related to the Model

			95% Confidence Interval				
Latent Variable	**Observed Variable**	**Se**	**High**	**Low**	*β*	***t***	***p***
Positive relationship	PCR1	0.0349	0.7232	0.86	0.7916	22.681	<.001
	PCR3	0.0472	0.4609	0.646	0.5534	11.719	<.001
	PCR5	00398	0.6878	0.8436	0.7657	19.258	<.001
	PCR8	0.0494	0.5208	0.7145	0.6177	12.495	<.001
	PCR10	0.0393	0.5936	0.7476	0.6706	17.07	<.001
	PCR13	0.0509	0.2361	0.4356	0.3359	6.6	<.001
	PCR16	0.0344	0.6531	0.7881	0.7206	20.919	<.001
	PCR17	0.0527	−0.7279	−0.5213	−0.6246	−11.855	<.001
	PCR25	0.0468	−0.774	−0.5906	−0.6823	−14.585	<.001
	PCR26	0.0669	−0.0923	0.17	0.0389	0.581	.0461
	PCR29	0.0312	0.729	0.8511	0.79	25.358	<.001
	PCR30	0.03	0.7027	0.8205	0.7616	25.349	<.001
Conflict	PCR2	0.0707	0.2417	0.5189	0.3803	5.378	<.001
	PCR4	0.0675	0.4251	0.6895	0.5573	8.261	<.001
	PCR6	0.0601	0.3534	0.5891	0.4713	7.838	<.001
	PCR7	0.0649	0.2775	0.532	0.4047	6.235	<.001
	PCR9	0.055	0.473	0.6886	0.5808	10.558	<.001
	PCR11	0.0604	0.3508	0.5874	0.4691	7.771	<.001
	PCR15	0.0566	0.4607	0.6824	0.5716	10.107	<.001

Attachment	PCR12	0.0476	0.5007	0.6871	0.5939	12.484	<.001
	PCR14	0.0583	0.3482	0.5766	0.4624	7.936	<.001
	PCR18	0.0567	0.2956	0.518	0.4068	7.173	<.001
	PCR19	0.0449	0.5103	0.6864	0.5983	13.321	<.001
	PCR20	0.0598	0.2646	0.4991	0.3818	6.382	<.001
	PCR21	0.044	0.5705	0.7432	0.6569	14.915	<.001
	PCR22	0.0666	−0.1777	0.0835	−0.0471	−0.707	.048
	PCR24	0.0401	0.6148	0.7719	0.6934	17.305	<.001
	PCR23	0.0563	0.2475	0.4682	0.3578	6.355	<.001
	PCR27	0.0427	0.5792	0.7466	0.6629	15.528	<.001
	PCR28	0.0404	0.6157	0.7739	0.6948	17.212	<.001
Cognitive reappraisal	PERS1	0.0508	0.2636	0.4626	0.3631	7.154	<.001
	PERS3	0.0391	0.5389	0.6922	0.6155	15.738	<.001
	PERS5	0.0409	0.5582	0.7184	0.6383	15.618	<.001
	PERS7	0.0336	0.6552	0.7871	0.7211	21.435	<.001
	PERS8	0.0302	0.7011	0.8197	0.7604	25.14	<.001
	PERS10	0.0268	0.7311	0.8362	0.7836	29.243	<.001
Surrpression	PERS2	0.0508	0.4457	0.6449	0.5453	10.731	<.001
	PERS4	0.0489	0.5324	0.7239	0.6282	12.856	<.001
	PERS6	0.0431	0.5961	0.7648	0.6804	15.805	<.001
	PERS9	0.0453	0.6567	0.8343	0.7455	16.453	<.001
Wally	WP	0.074	1.1132	1.4033	1	17.002	<.001