



Gender Perceptions of Prospective Teachers: The Role of Socio-Demographic Factors

Research Article

Erol ESEN¹, Yagmur SOYLU², Ali Serdar SAGKAL³

¹ Celal Bayar University, Psychological Counseling and Guidance, Manisa, Turkey, ORCID: 0000-0002-8285-2666

² Dokuz Eylul University, Psychological Counseling and Guidance, Izmir, Turkey, ORCID: 0000-0002-5562-6233

³ Aydın Adnan Menderes University, Psychological Counseling and Guidance, Aydın, Turkey, ORCID: 0000-0002-2597-8115

To cite this article: Esen, E., Soylu, Y., & Sagkal, A. S. (2019). Gender Perceptions of Prospective Teachers: The Role of Socio-Demographic Factors, *International Online Journal of Educational Sciences*, 11 (2), 201-213.

ARTICLE INFO

Article History:

Received 28.11.2018

Available online

17.04.2019

ABSTRACT

The aim of the present study was to understand how gender perceptions of prospective teachers differ in terms of socio-demographic factors. The study sample consisted of 1075 prospective teachers (738 females, 68.7%; 337 males, 31.3%). Stratified random sampling technique was used to recruit a representative sample. Perception of Gender Scale and Demographic Information Form were used as measuring instruments. Independent-samples t-test and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) were performed to test research hypotheses. The results of independent-samples t-test showed that gender perceptions differed according to gender and working status of mother. However, gender perceptions of prospective teachers did not differ according to family structure. The results of ANOVA tests indicated that gender perceptions of prospective teachers did not differ in terms of age groups. Nevertheless, it was determined that residential settlement where participants lived most, monthly family income, family type, parental educational levels had significant influences on gender perceptions of prospective teachers. The findings and limitations are discussed, suggestions for future research are provided.

© 2019 IOJES. All rights reserved

Keywords:

Gender, gender perception, prospective teachers

Introduction

Turkey has guaranteed the gender equality in the constitution and legislations, committed to develop policies, enacted and enforced laws for gender equality. Basically gender equality is accessing opportunities and rights, sharing resources and responsibilities within all areas of life without discrimination due to the gender (Lorber, 2012). Despite these facts, education system reproduces gender stereotypes and these stereotypical roles are reflected in the vocational and educational preferences of the students (National Action Plan on Gender Equality, 2008-2013). Thus, it can be proposed that the education system is a significant factor

¹ Corresponding author's address: Celal Bayar University, Faculty of Education, Psychological Counseling and Guidance, Manisa, Turkey

Telephone: 05497384204

e-mail: erol.esen@cbu.edu.tr

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.15345/iojes.2019.02.013>

that leads to maintenance of gender inequality in the society. Considering its' critical role in the education system, it is necessary to conduct studies on the gender perceptions of prospective teachers.

In this context, it is important to clarify conceptualization of sex and gender. Sex is used to explain the characteristics that differentiate females and males both biologically and physiologically. However, this concept is insufficient to understand the social expectations imposed on females and males. Gender is a concept that includes the values, judgments, and roles associated with the perceptions, attitudes, and expectations about females and males in a society. In other words, it is a construct that emphasizes the psychological and sociological aspects of being a woman or a man (Bhasin, 2000; Dökmen, 2017; Oakley, 2015). Indeed, the concept of gender is explained with gender roles and stereotypes (Vefikuluçay, Zeyneloğlu, Eroğlu, & Taşkın, 2007).

Gender roles assigned to females and males are more generally classified into two groups: traditional and egalitarian gender roles/perceptions. Egalitarian roles are defined as allocation of equal responsibilities between woman and man in various living settings such as domestic, professional, marital, social, and educational contexts and are preferably expected (Akın & Demirel, 2003; Basow, 1992; Sis Çelik, Pasinlioğlu, Tan, & Koyuncu, 2013). Nowadays, it is proposed that the roles of women and men have started to change in favor of women with the increase of education level of women and entering into working life (Aylaz, Güneş, Uzun, & Ünal, 2014). However, research results in the literature show that university students adopt traditional gender roles and that men have a more traditional perspective than women (Aylaz et al., 2014; Öngen & Aytaç, 2013; Vefikuluçay et al., 2007). In the traditional framework, it is expected of women to do housework and take care of the children, they are not expected to actively participate in professional life, and even when they are active, they are expected to remain in the shadow of men. For all that, men are expected to achieve more in education, to take over the economic responsibilities of the house, and to be the decision-makers (Dökmen, 2017). From this point of view, according to traditional roles, public area and political affairs are carried out by men and women, and household and family affairs are carried out by women (Vefikuluçay et al., 2007).

Consistent with previous explanations, the behaviors and traits that the society expects from women and men are considered as gender stereotypes. The personality traits, behaviors, and responsibilities that are generally appropriated to females and males by the society are transformed into gender stereotypes by the society. Gender roles are also conveyed to individuals in childhood, primarily through the family, school, peer groups, and the media. In particular, the family is considered to be the most effective structure in learning these patterns. For example, several factors such as the name given to the child and the games the child play strengthen the gender stereotypes in children (Dökmen, 2017).

Schools are one of the most critical settings where stereotypes about gender roles are transferred either explicitly or latently to children. Analysis of the educational content offered in schools would demonstrate that different stereotypes and expectations for women and men were adopted and the caregiver and nurturing role of the women is normalized. Female students are mostly guided towards social and verbal fields and male students are guided towards science and mathematics. Thus, it was considered that gendered attitudes, gender inequality, and discrimination are prevalent in Turkish education system (Sayılan, 2012). Gender and educational researches demonstrated that teachers were the carriers of gender stereotypes in the classroom and in their relationships with the students (Gray & Leith, 2004; Sayman, 2007). It is suggested that teachers should be trained about gender equality during professional training in order to become agents of change against gender stereotypes both in the schools and in society (Esen, 2013).

In conclusion, teachers play an important role in the reinforcement of gender perceptions in the field of education. Gender stereotypes may limit the educational and professional orientations of children and adolescents, perceptions related to academic competencies, emotional expression styles, and social

development. Therefore, determination of the gender perceptions of prospective teachers and identification of the stereotypes, if any, are very important for the students to reach their full potential (National Action Plan on Gender Equality, 2008). It was suggested that the attitudes of the teachers towards the students are important in the education process. It has been noted that since teachers are both role models for the students and have a great influence because they are the people who have the most frequent communication with the students following the family, their influence on the children is significant (Aslan, 2015). Thus, gender sensitive education comes to the forefront and it was suggested that the gender perceptions of prospective teachers are of critical importance. Considering both the critical role of teachers and the context of the interventions for gender equality, the first step in planning of prevention studies in order to reduce the negative perceptions of the subject when needed, is the determination the perceptions of prospective teachers on gender issues. The aim of the present study was to reveal how gender perceptions of prospective teachers differ in terms of socio-demographic factors (e.g., age, gender, family structure, family type, parental educational level, working status of mother, settlement where participants lived most, perceptions regarding residential settlement, and monthly family income).

Method

In this section, we presented detailed information about demographic characteristics of the participants, measures used in the study and data analysis process.

Participants

In the research in which prospective teachers' gender perceptions were examined, by using stratified random sampling, a total of 1075 participants (738 females, 68.7%; 337 males, 31.3%) were involved. Education faculties of Dokuz Eylul University, Aydın Adnan Menderes University, and Pamukkale University have 6345, 2897, and 4788 students, respectively. Sampling sizes for each faculty were calculated as 361, 338, and 356 participants, according to sampling size table for different population sizes (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970). Undergraduate programs of the faculties were regarded as subgroups or strata. Participants were randomly selected according to the ratio of each strata in the population (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). Demographic characteristics of the participants were presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of the sample

Variables	<i>f</i>	%
Gender		
Female	738	68.7
Male	337	31.3
Age		
18-20 years	557	51.8
21-23 years	450	41.9
24 years and above	68	6.3
University		
Dokuz Eylul University	373	34.7
Aydın Adnan Menderes University	330	30.7
Pamukkale University	372	34.6
Grade level		
Freshmen	348	32.4
Sophomore	361	33.6
Junior	209	19.4
Senior	157	14.6
Family type		
Extended Family	212	19.7
Nuclear Family	828	77
Single-parent Family	35	3.3
Maternal educational level		
Below primary school	118	11

Primary school	492	45.8
Middle school	127	11.8
High School	202	18.8
University	136	12.7
Paternal educational level		
Below primary school	36	3.4
Primary school	354	32.9
Middle school	173	16.1
High School	288	26.8
University	224	20.8
Monthly Family Income		
Below 1834TL	235	21.9
1834TL - 3740TL	545	50.7
3741TL - 7984TL	255	23.7
Above 7984 TL	40	3.7

Note. TL = Turkish Lira

As it is seen in Table 1, 51.8% of the participants aged 18 to 20 years, 41.9% aged 21 to 23 years, 6.3% aged 24 years and above; participants' mean age was 20.8 years ($SD = 2.38$, range = 18-43). Of the participants, 32.4% were freshmen, 33.6% were sophomore, 19.4% were junior, and 14.6% were senior students. A majority of the participants were coming from nuclear families (77%). In terms of parental educational level, most of the mothers (87.4%) and fathers (79.2%) had a high school and below educational degree. A majority of the sample (96.3%; monthly family income was below 7984TL) was coming from middle-to-low income families.

Measures

Perception of Gender Scale. Perception of Gender Scale which was developed by Altınova and Duyan (2013) consists of 25 items that assess gender role perceptions of adults. All the items are responded on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = Completely disagree to 5 = Completely agree. Total scores range from 25 to 125, with higher scores indicating positive gender perceptions. Positive perceptions point out egalitarian perspective about gender roles; contrary negative perceptions reflect traditional perspective. Perception of Gender Scale has been reported to possess good validity and reliability (Altınova & Duyan, 2013). Cronbach's alpha coefficient was .87 in the original research and .92 in the present research.

Demographic Information Form. The demographic characteristics of the sample were obtained via Demographic Information Form developed by the researchers. Demographic Information Form included questions related to age, gender, family structure, family type, parental educational level, working status of mother, settlement where participants lived most, and monthly family income.

Data Analysis

The SPSS 24.0 was used to analyze research data. Prior to main analyses (e.g., independent-samples t -test and ANOVA), data were checked for coding errors and statistical assumptions. In terms of univariate outliers, eight cases with standardized z -scores above ± 3 were removed from the data set. Skewness and kurtosis values ranging between -1 to +1 indicated that data had a univariate normal distribution. After preliminary analyses, descriptive statistics including the mean, standard deviation, and range of scores were examined. While independent-samples t -test was used to compare the values on gender perceptions for two groups, analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare gender perceptions for more than two groups. As the homogeneity of variances were unequal in the data set, Dunnett's C post hoc procedure was used to conduct multiple comparisons (Green & Salkind, 2005).

Findings

In this section, we presented findings with regard to descriptive statistics and main analyses regarding the roles of socio-demographic factors on gender perceptions of prospective teachers.

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics with regard to gender perceptions of prospective teachers are illustrated in Table 2.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics regarding prospective teachers' gender perceptions

Variable	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>sd</i>	Min-Max Scores	Kurtosis	Skewness
Gender perception	1067	106.30	14.67	61-125	.01	-.88

Based on descriptive findings, it can be proposed that gender perceptions of prospective teachers were positive (negatively skewed). That is, prospective teachers tend to report positive gender perceptions in the research. Total scores ranged from 61 to 125 on a 125-point scale. Mean score was 106.30 out of 125 and standard deviation was 14.67.

The Roles of Socio-Demographic Factors on Gender Perceptions of Prospective Teachers

Following descriptive statistics, we examined the roles of socio-demographic factors on gender perceptions of prospective teachers. Specifically, we examined that whether gender perceptions of prospective teachers differed significantly according to age, gender, family structure, family type, parental educational level, working status of mother, settlement where participants lived most, and monthly family income or not. In order to investigate whether gender perceptions of prospective teachers differed according to their gender, family structure, and working status of mother, independent-samples *t*-test was performed (see Table 3).

Table 3. Investigating gender perceptions of prospective teachers in terms of gender, family structure, and working status of mother

Independent variable		<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>sd</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Gender	Female	734	110.72	11.60	503.727	14.526	.000*
	Male	333	96.62	15.99			
Family Structure	Intact family	941	106.28	15.51	1004	-1.735	.083
	Divorced family	65	109.50	14.04			
Working Status of Mother	Non-working mothers	715	104.73	15.02	1065	-5.191	.000*
	Working mothers	352	109.46	13.48			

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

As seen in Table 3, the results of independent-samples *t*-test showed that prospective female teachers reported greater egalitarian gender perceptions compared to prospective male teachers ($t_{(503, 727)} = 14.526, p = .000$). In addition, it was observed that prospective teachers whose mothers working reported higher egalitarian gender perceptions ($t_{(1065)} = -5.191, p = .000$). However, gender perceptions of prospective teachers did not differ according to family structure ($t_{(1004)} = -1.735, p = .083$).

In the research, to examine whether gender perceptions of prospective teachers differed in terms of age, family type, parental educational level, settlement where participants lived most, and monthly family income or not, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed (for findings see Table 4). For multiple comparisons, Dunnett's C procedure was used. Dunnett's C test does not impose the homogeneity of variances (Green & Salkind, 2005).

Table 4. Investigating gender perceptions of prospective teachers in terms of age, family type, parental educational level, settlement where participants lived most, and monthly family income

	Independent variable	N	M	sd	F	p	Dunnett C	
Age	1. 18-20 years	555	107.20	13.93	2.230	.108		
	2. 21-23 years	448	105.29	15.20				
	3. 24 years and above	64	105.50	16.55				
Family Type	1. Extended family	210	101.84	16.72	13.108	.000	1<2*	
	2. Nuclear family	826	107.50	13.79				
	3. Single-parent family	31	104.57	16.53				
Maternal Educational Level	1. Primary school and below	608	104.68	15.16	7.844	.000	1<4*	
	2. Middle school	125	107.59	13.15				
	3. High school	200	107.20	14.30				
	4. University	134	110.99	13.07				
Paternal Educational Level	1. Primary school and below	388	103.30	15.79	8.885	.000	1<2*	
	2. Middle school	171	107.23	13.25			1<3*	
	3. High school	286	108.32	13.52			1<4*	
	4. University	222	108.16	14.31				
Settlement Where Participants Lived Most	1. Little towns/villages	164	101.88	16.03	7.679	.000	1<2*	
	2. Towns	360	106.08	14.53			1<3*	
	3. City centers	200	106.62	13.92			1<4*	
	4. Metropolis	343	108.44	14.09				
Monthly Family Income	1. Below 1834TL	233	103.28	14.93	6.680	.000	1<3*	
	2. 1834TL - 3740TL	543	106.15	15.09				
	3. 3741TL - 7984TL	253	108.84	13.41				1<4*
	4. Above 7984 TL	38	109.65	11.31				

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

As presented in Table 4, the result of one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicated that gender perceptions of prospective teachers did not differ in terms of age groups (18-20 years, 21-23 years, 24 years and above) ($F_{(2, 1064)} = 2.230, p = .108$). However, it was determined that family type (extended family, nuclear family, and single-parent family) had an significant influence on gender perceptions of prospective teachers ($F_{(2, 1064)} = 13.108, p = .000$). The results of Dunnett's C test indicated that gender perceptions of prospective teachers coming from nuclear families were more egalitarian in comparison to the group coming from extended families. Additionally, gender perceptions of prospective teachers differed significantly according to maternal educational levels (primary school and below degree, middle school degree, high school degree, and undergraduate degree) ($F_{(3, 1063)} = 7.844, p = .000$). The results of follow-up tests demonstrated that prospective teachers whose mothers graduated from undergraduate programs reported more egalitarian perspectives compared to prospective teachers whose mothers had a primary school degree or below. Besides, we examined gender perceptions of prospective teachers with regard to paternal educational level. Findings indicated that paternal educational level (primary school and below degree, middle school degree, high school degree, and undergraduate degree) had a significant influence on gender perceptions of prospective teachers as well ($F_{(3, 1063)} = 8.885, p = .000$). The results of Dunnett's C test indicated that prospective teachers whose fathers had middle school, high school, and undergraduate degree reported more egalitarian gender perceptions in comparison to prospective teachers whose fathers had primary school and below degree. Furthermore, it was determined that settlement where participants lived most (little towns/villages, towns, city centers, metropolis) had a significant influence on gender perceptions of prospective teachers ($F_{(3, 1063)} = 7.679, p = .000$). Follow-up test (Dunnett's C) was conducted to evaluate pairwise mean differences. There was a significant difference in the means between the group that lived in little towns/villages, towns, city centers, and metropolis. The group that lived in metropolis, city centers, and towns reported greater egalitarian gender perceptions in comparison to the group that lived mostly in little towns/villages. Lastly, the results demonstrated that there were statistically significant differences between gender perceptions and monthly

family income levels (1834TL and below, 1834TL to 3740TL, 3741TL to 7984TL, and 7984TL and above) ($F_{(3, 1063)} = 6.680, p = .000$). Dunnett's C procedure was conducted to assess pairwise mean differences. The results of Dunnett's C test demonstrated that prospective teachers whose families earn 3741TL-7984TL and 7984TL and above monthly family income reported more egalitarian gender perceptions in comparison to the group that had 1834TL and below monthly family income.

Discussion

The aim of the present study was to investigate the roles of socio-demographic factors (e.g., age, gender, family structure, family type, parental educational level, working status of mother, settlement where participants lived most, and monthly family income) on prospective teachers' gender perceptions. The results of the study indicated that prospective teachers' gender perceptions were more positive compared to previous studies in Turkey (Altuntaş & Altınova, 2015; Arabacıoğlu & Bağçeli Kahraman, 2017; Özpulat, 2016). In the studies of Altuntaş and Altınova (2015); Arabacıoğlu and Bağçeli Kahraman (2017) and Özpulat (2016) Perception of Gender Scale mean scores were found 87.01 ($SD = 19.21$), 87.71 ($SD = 19.21$), 83.97 ($SD = 12.86$) respectively, which was 106.30 ($SD = 14.67$) in our study. Also considering that Turkish society is still seen as a patriarchal society (Ergöl, Koç, Eroğlu, & Taşkın, 2012) and traditional gender roles are still prevalent and dominant across various social settings (Kuzgun & Sevim, 2004; Özaydınlık, 2014), prospective teachers' positive gender perceptions is a remarkable finding. However, participants' educational level could be one of the possible reasons of that positive perception. Additionally the ratio of female participants (68.7% in the present study) might have an important influence on this finding. A large-scale previous study (Esmer, Ertunç, & Pekiner, 2012) carried out in Turkey pointed out that traditional gender roles are still strong and there is a significant difference in gender role perceptions in terms of education level and gender.

Findings showed that age was not a significant variable on prospective teachers' gender perceptions, consistent with previous researches conducted with university students (Aydın, Özen Bekar, Gören, & Sungur, 2016; Aylaz et al., 2014; Kara & Güngörmüş, 2018). In the gender intensification hypothesis, it is mentioned that both men and women are more focused on the meaning of their gender during early puberty because of increased social pressure to obey the masculine and feminine gender roles (Hill & Lynch, 1983; Siyez, 2014). From this point of view, it is understandable that there is no age-related difference between university students and it is a period in which gender perceptions are established.

When prospective teachers' gender perceptions were evaluated in terms of gender, female prospective teachers' gender perceptions were significantly more positive than male prospective teachers. In other words, female participants' attitudes toward gender roles were more egalitarian. Consistent with this finding, studies conducted with university students both in Turkish culture (Aydın et al., 2016; Aylaz et al., 2014; Karasu, Göllüce, Güvenç, & Çelik, 2017; Öngen & Aytac, 2013; Pınar, Taşkın, & Eroğlu, 2008; Sis Çelik et al., 2013) and across cultures (Adachi, 2018; Bryant, 2003; Fényes, 2014; Frieze et al., 2003; Zhang, 2006) indicated that female students' perceptions are more positive. According to Rowley, Kurt-Costes, Mistry, and Feagans (2007), gender stereotypes have a positive impact on the lives of men and that might be one of the main reasons of their traditional views on gender roles compared to women. Schuler, Lenzi, Badal, and Nazneen (2018) stated that empowering of women's liberation and financial independence is seen as a threat to their power and control by men.

Results pointed out that family type is another significant factor on gender perceptions. Gender perceptions of prospective teachers from nuclear families were more positive than participants who grew up in extended families. From a global perspective, ratio of nuclear and single parent families is rapidly increasing compared to extended families. However, in developing countries, especially in rural regions, extended families are still common (Rankin & Aytac, 2006). Carlson and Knoester (2011) stated that children growing up in extended families experience more traditional roles about gender issues. Since most of the women

internalize and reflect that roles by unshared or exact responsibilities like loyalty to the family, cooking, childbearing, and meeting the needs of family members in this family structure. Also in extended families, housework is generally shared among women and distributing roles in certain ways leads to maintenance of traditional gender roles (Rout, Lewis, & Kagan, 1999).

Other significant factors on gender perceptions were maternal and paternal educational levels. Gender perceptions of prospective teachers whose parents graduated from undergraduate programs were more positive than those whose parents graduated from primary school and below. Similarly, previous researches (e.g, Crompton & Lyonette, 2005; Farré & Vella, 2012) pointed out that people who have higher educational levels demonstrate more egalitarian gender roles. Higher educational backgrounds lead individuals to question the gender stereotypes and to recognize female and male role models (Brooks & Bolzendahl, 2004; Pitt & Borland, 2009). Additionally, undergraduate programs provide skills and proficiencies for both women and men to get high status jobs. Therefore, both women and men have the opportunity to contribute equally to the family budget (Raley, Mattingly, & Bianchi, 2006). Equal contribution substantially affects the egalitarian climate in the family (Zuo & Tang, 2000). Economic inequality between partners reinforces the traditional perspective about gender roles and children are expected to be highly influenced by their parents' gender socialization (Boehnke, 2011).

In terms of the working status of mother, prospective teachers whose mothers are working reported more positive gender perceptions than those whose mothers are non-working. Working status of mother has an important and transformative impact on children's attitudes towards gender roles (Willets-Bloom & Nock, 1994). Gender roles and norms about being a man or a woman are obtained through a socialization process, which begins within the family by observing and modeling (Bronstein, 2006). According to Greenstein (1996), division of household responsibilities highly influences the children's gender perceptions and gender ideology. For instance, if a child observes different and separate responsibilities for mother and father in the family, she or he is expected to internalize traditional gender roles and expected not to become aware of that separating responsibilities is inequality. However, children of working mothers are less exposed to traditional gender roles as a result of observing the possible participation of fathers in childcare and housework (Deutsch, 2001; Deutsch, Servis, & Payne, 2001; Kulik, 2002).

In terms of settlement where the participants lived most, prospective teachers who lived most in metropolis, city centers, and towns reported more positive gender perceptions than who lived most in little towns/villages. Similar to the findings of the Turkey Values Research (Esmer et al., 2012), it was found that participants who have lived most in urban regions tend to be less traditional than participants who have lived most in rural regions regarding gender roles. Bolzendahl and Myers (2004) state that urban regions supply more heterogeneity about opportunities and tolerant positions on gender roles than rural regions. Also living in urban regions is closely related to factors that may affect people's view on gender issues, such as catching up with the revolutionary trend quickly, gaining awareness and liberties (İnce Yenilmez, 2015), and increasing interest on self-expression and individualism (Inglehart & Norris, 2003).

Monthly family income was also a significant factor on gender perceptions of participants. Prospective teachers whose monthly family income is 3741TL and above reported more egalitarian gender perceptions than participants whose monthly family income is 1834TL and below. Many studies from Turkey and across countries also suggested that as income increases, egalitarian views on gender roles become more prominent (Altuntaş & Altınova, 2015; Crompton & Lyonette, 2005; Erarslan & Rankin, 2013; Sunar & Fişek, 2005; won Kim et al., 2010). Different social and situational factors are influential in shaping gender perceptions (Boehnke, 2011). Economic background is also thought to be one of those factors. In high-income families, generally both parents work outside the house, and houseworks are shared differently compared to low-income families. Increasing women labor participation rates and changing family lives impact gender roles

directly (Jaumotte, 2003). Broadly, in low-income families, women are excluded from economic system and decision processes, they are expected to be mainly responsible for childcare and housework. As a result of that structure, traditional perspective might become more prevalent and dominant in the society (Lindsey, 2015). In this context, consistent with social learning theory, an individual from economically more advantageous family background might develop more egalitarian gender perceptions (Kulik, 2002).

The present study also has some limitations that should be considered when interpreting the findings. Findings are based on a self-report data. Socially desirable responding may limit the validity and reliability of self-report assessment. Socially desirable responding is the bias for participants to present an appropriate image of themselves (Huang, Liao, & Chang, 1998). King and Bruner (2000) reported that socially desirable responding generally increases in socially sensitive questions. Another limitation of the study is related to characteristics of the sample group. All participants have been enrolled in universities that are located in the west part of Turkey. Additionally, according to results of a research conducted in Turkey which examine the gender equality levels of cities, Izmir, Denizli and Aydin where the participants' universities located are respectively on 6th, 10th, and 18th places among 81 cities (Urul, 2016). This situation limits the generalizability of findings and suggests the need for further research on gender perceptions of prospective teachers from different regions.

According to latest Global Gender Gap Report (World Economic Forum, 2018) which measures gender-based gaps in access to resources and opportunities in four fundamental categories (economic participation and opportunity, educational attainment, health and political empowerment), Turkey was on the 131th place among 149 countries. At the same time gender gap in Turkey is above global average. Teachers are one of the most effective socializing agents in construction of gender role perceptions and attitudes with parents and peers (Basow, 1992). Prospective teachers' positive perceptions can be a promising finding to support that teachers may play a significant role in the close of the gender gap in Turkey. In this framework, to support that role and to improve their skills, gender equality training programs or lessons might be developed for prospective teachers. Also student club activities may be organized in universities for increasing gender equality awareness by creating an equal discussion atmosphere for both genders. According to the research findings based on the fact that men's gender perceptions are more traditional, it is thought that the participation of men will play a critical role in the activities to be planned.

REFERENCES

- Adachi, T. (2018). Work–family planning and gender role attitudes among youth. *International Journal of Adolescence and Youth*, 23(1), 52-60. doi: 10.1080/02673843.2016.1269655
- Akın, A., & Demirel, S. (2003). Toplumsal cinsiyet kavramı ve sağlığa etkisi. *Cumhuriyet Üniversitesi Tıp Fakültesi Dergisi*, 25(4), 73-82.
- Altınova, H. H., & Duyan, V. (2013). Toplumsal Cinsiyet Algısı Ölçeği'nin geçerlik güvenirlik çalışması [The validity and reliability of Perception of Gender Scale]. *Toplum ve Sosyal Hizmet*, 24(2), 9-22.
- Altuntaş, O., & Altınova, H. H. (2015). Toplumsal cinsiyet algısı ile sosyo-ekonomik değişkenler arasındaki ilişkinin belirlenmesi [Determining the relationship between gender perception and socioeconomic variables]. *Turkish Studies*, 10(6), 83-100. doi: 10.7827/TurkishStudies.7674
- Arabacıoğlu, B., & Bağçeli Kahraman, P. B. (2017). The relation between the gender stereotypes of children and the gender perceptions of their parents. *Current Research in Education*, 3(3), 95-104.
- Aslan, G. (2015). A metaphoric analysis regarding gender perceptions of preservice teachers. *Education and Science*, 40(181), 363-384. doi: 10.15390/EB.2015.2930
- Aydın, M., Özen Bekar, E., Gören, Ş. Y., & Sungur, M. A. (2016). Hemşirelik öğrencilerinin toplumsal cinsiyet rollerine ilişkin tutumları [Attitudes of nursing students regarding to gender roles]. *Abant İzzet Baysal Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 16(1), 223-242.
- Aylaz, R., Güneş, G., Uzun, Ö., & Ünal, S. (2014) Üniversite öğrencilerinin toplumsal cinsiyet rolüne yönelik görüşleri [Opinions of university students on gender roles]. *Sürekli Tıp Eğitimi Dergisi*, 23(5), 183-189.
- Basow, S. A. (1992). *Gender: Stereotypes and roles* (3rd ed.). Belmont, CA: Thomson Brooks/Cole Publishing Co.
- Bhasin, K. (2000). *Understanding gender*. New Delhi: Kali for Women.
- Boehnke, M. (2011). Gender role attitudes around the globe: Egalitarian vs. traditional views. *Asian Journal of Social Science*, 39(1), 57-74. doi: 10.1163/156853111X554438.
- Bolzendahl, C. I., & Myers, D. J. (2004). Feminist attitudes and support for gender equality: Opinion change in women and men, 1974-1998. *Social Forces*, 83(2), 759-789. doi: 10.1353/sof.2005.0005
- Bronstein, P. (2006). The family environment: Where gender role socialization begins. In J. Worell & C. D. Goodheart (Eds.), *Handbook of girls' and women's psychological health: Gender and well-being across the lifespan* (pp. 262-271). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Brooks, C., & Bolzendahl, C. (2004). The transformation of US gender role attitudes: Cohort replacement, social-structural change, and ideological learning. *Social Science Research*, 33(1), 106-133. doi: 10.1016/S0049-089X(03)00041-3
- Bryant, A. N. (2003). Changes in attitudes toward women's roles: Predicting gender-role traditionalism among college students. *Sex Roles*, 48(3-4), 131-142.
- Carlson, D. L., & Knoester, C. (2011). Family structure and the intergenerational transmission of gender ideology. *Journal of Family Issues*, 32(6), 709-734. doi: 10.1177/0192513X10396662
- Crompton, R., & Lyonette, C. (2005). The new gender essentialism—domestic and family 'choices' and their relation to attitudes. *The British Journal of Sociology*, 56(4), 601-620. doi: 10.1111/j.1468-4446.2005.00085.x
- Deutsch, F. M. (2001). Equally shared parenting. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 10(1), 25-28. doi: 10.1111/1467-8721.00107
- Deutsch, F. M., Servis, L. J., & Payne, J. D. (2001). Paternal participation in child care and its effects on children's self-esteem and attitudes toward gendered roles. *Journal of Family Issues*, 22(8), 1000-1024. doi: 10.1177/019251301022008003
- Dökmen, Z. Y. (2017). *Toplumsal cinsiyet sosyal psikolojik açıklamalar* [Society gender social psychological explanations]. İstanbul: Remzi Kitabevi.
- Erarslan, A. B., & Rankin, B. (2013). Gender role attitudes of female students in single-sex and coeducational high schools in İstanbul. *Sex Roles*, 69(7-8), 455-468. doi: 10.1007/s11199-013-0277-0

- Ergöl, Ş., Koç, G., Eroğlu, K., & Taşkin, L. (2012). Türkiye'de kadın araştırma görevlilerinin ev ve iş yaşamlarında karşılaştıkları güçlükler [Encountered difficulties of female research assistants at domestic and business life in Turkey]. *Yükseköğretim ve Bilim Dergisi*, 2(1), 43-49. doi: 10.5961/jhes.2012.032
- Esen, Y. (2013). A study for developing gender sensitivity in pre-service teacher education. *Education and Science*, 38(169), 280-295.
- Esmer, Y., Ertunç, B., & Pekiner, Y. (2012). *Türkiye değerler atlası 2012: Değişimin kültürel sınırları*. İstanbul: Bahçeşehir Üniversitesi Yayınları.
- Farre, L., & Vella, F. (2012). The intergenerational transmission of gender role attitudes and its implications for female labor force participation. *Economica*, 80(318), 219-247.
- Fényes, H. (2014). Gender role attitudes among higher education students in a borderland central-eastern european region called 'Partium'. *Center for Educational Policy Studies Journal*, 4(2), 49-70.
- Fraenkel, J. R., Wallen, N. E. (2006). *How to design and evaluate research in education* (6th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Frieze, I. H., Ferligoj, A. K., Kogovsek, T., Rener, T., Horvat, J., & Sarlija, N. (2003). Gender-role attitudes in university students in the USA, Slovenia and Croatia. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 27(3), 256-261. doi: 10.1111/1471-6402.00105
- Gray, C., & Leith, H. (2004). Perpetuating gender stereotypes in the classroom: A teacher perspective. *Educational Studies*, 30(1), 3-17. doi: 10.1080/0305569032000159705
- Green, S. B., & Salkind, N. J. (2005). *Using SPSS for Windows and Macintosh: Analyzing and understanding data* (4th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Greenstein, T. N. (1996). Husbands' participation in domestic labor: Interactive effects of wives' and husbands' gender ideologies. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 58(3), 585-595. doi: 10.2307/353719
- Hill, J. P. ve Lynch, M. E. (1983). *The intensification of gender-related role expectations during early adolescence*. J. Brooks-Gunn ve A. C. Peterson (Ed.), *Girls at puberty: Biological and psychosocial perspectives* (s. 201-228) içinde. New York: Plenum.
- Huang, C. Y., Liao, H. Y., & Chang, S. H. (1998). Social desirability and the Clinical Self-Report Inventory: Methodological reconsideration. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 54(4), 517-528. doi: 10.1002/(SICI)1097-4679(199806)54:4<517::AID-JCLP13>3.0.CO;2-I
- Inglehart, R., & Norris, P. (2003). *Rising tide: Gender equality and cultural change around the world*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- İnce Yenilmez, M. (2015). Female employment and gender inequality: Challenges and opportunities in Turkey. *Hacettepe University Journal of Economics & Administrative Sciences*, 26(1), 131-147.
- Jaumotte, F. (2003). *Female labor force participation: Past trends and main determinants in OECD countries*. Paris: OECD.
- Kara, F. M., & Güngörmüş, H. A. (2018). Spor bilimleri fakültesinde öğrenim gören gençlerin toplumsal cinsiyet rolüne ilişkin tutum düzeylerinin belirlenmesi: Demografik farklılıklar. *Journal of Human Sciences*, 15(4), 2468-2478.
- Karasu, F., Göllüce, A., Güvenç, E., & Çelik, S. (2017). Üniversite öğrencilerinin toplumsal cinsiyet rollerine ilişkin tutumları [The attitudes of the university students' regarding the gender roles]. *SDÜ Sağlık Bilimleri Dergisi*, 8(1), 21-27. doi: 10.22312/sdusbed.303098
- King, M. F., & Bruner, G. C. (2000). Social desirability bias: A neglected aspect of validity testing. *Psychology & Marketing*, 17(2), 79-103. doi: 10.1002/(SICI)1520-6793(200002)17:2<79::AID-MAR2>3.0.CO;2-0
- Krejcie, R. V., & Morgan, D. W. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 30(3), 607-610. doi: 10.1177/001316447003000308
- Kulik, L. (2002). Like-sex versus opposite-sex effects in transmission of gender role ideology from parents to adolescents in Israel. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 31(6), 451-457.

- Kuzgun, Y., & Sevim, S. A. (2004). Kadınların çalışmasına karşı tutum ve dini yönelim arasındaki ilişki [The relationship between attitudes towards women's work roles and religious tendency]. *Ankara Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Fakültesi Dergisi*, 37(1), 14-27.
- Lindsey, L. L. (2015). *Gender roles: A sociological perspective* (6th ed.). New York: Pearson Education.
- Lorber, J. (2012). *Gender inequality: Feminist theories and politics* (5th ed.). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- National Action Plan on Gender Equality (2008-2013). *Aile ve Sosyal Politikalar Bakanlığı Kadının Statüsü Genel Müdürlüğü*. Ankara.
- Oakley, A. (2015). *Sex, gender and society*. London: Routledge.
- Öngen, B., & Aytaç, S. (2013). Üniversite öğrencilerinin toplumsal cinsiyet rollerine ilişkin tutumları ve yaşam değerleri ilişkisi [Attitudes of university students towards gender roles and its' relationship with life values]. *Sosyoloji Konferansları*, 48(2), 1-18.
- Özaydınlık, K. (2014). Toplumsal cinsiyet temelinde Türkiye'de kadın ve eğitim [Women in Turkey on the basis of gender and education]. *Sosyal Politika Çalışmaları Dergisi*, 33, 93-112. doi: 10.21560/spcd.03093
- Özpulat, F. (2016). Üniversite öğrencilerinin öz-yeterlilik düzeyi ile toplumsal cinsiyet algısı ilişkisi: Beyşehir örneği [The relationship between self-efficacy level and gender perception of university students: Beyşehir example]. *International Journal of Human Sciences*, 13(1), 1222-1232. doi:10.14687/ijhs.v13i1.3570
- Pınar, G., Taşkın L., & Eroğlu, K. (2008). Başkent Üniversitesi yurdunda kalan gençlerin toplumsal cinsiyet rol kalıplarına ilişkin tutumları [The behaviours of the students in dormitory of Baskent University against sexual role patterns]. *Hacettepe Üniversitesi Sağlık Bilimleri Fakültesi Hemşirelik Dergisi*, 15(1), 47-57.
- Pitt, R. N., & Borland, E. (2009). Bachelorhood and men's attitudes about gender roles. *The Journal of Men's Studies*, 16(2), 140-158. doi: 10.3149/jms.1602.140
- Raley, S. B., Mattingly, M. J., & Bianchi, S. M. (2006). How dual are dual-income couples? Documenting change from 1970 to 2001. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 68(1), 11-28. doi: 10.1111/j.1741-3737.2006.00230.x
- Rankin, B. H., & Aytaç, I. A. (2006). Gender inequality in schooling: The case of Turkey. *Sociology of Education*, 79(1), 25-43. doi: 10.1177/003804070607900102
- Rout, U. R., Lewis, S., & Kagan, C. (1999). Work and family roles: Indian women in India and the west. *Indian Journal of Gender Studies*, 6(1), 91-105.
- Rowley, S. J., Kurtz-Costes, B., Mistry, R., & Feagans, L. (2007). Social status as a predictor of race and gender stereotypes in late childhood and early adolescence. *Social Development*, 16(1), 150-168. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-9507.2007.00376.x
- Sayılan, F. (2012). *Toplumsal cinsiyet ve eğitim* [Gender and education]. Ankara: Dipnot Yayınları.
- Sayman, D. M. (2007). The elimination of sexism and stereotyping in occupational education. *The Journal of Men's Studies*, 15(1), 19-30. doi: 10.3149/jms.1501.19
- Schuler, S. R., Lenzi, R., Badal, S. H., & Nazneen, S. (2018). Men's perspectives on women's empowerment and intimate partner violence in rural Bangladesh. *Culture, Health & Sexuality*, 20(1), 113-127. doi: 10.1080/13691058.2017.1332391
- Sis Çelik, A., Pasinlioğlu, T., Tan, G., & Koyuncu, H. (2013). Üniversite öğrencilerinin cinsiyet eşitliği tutumlarının belirlenmesi [Determination of university students' attitudes about gender equality]. *Florence Nightingale Hemşirelik Dergisi*, 21(3), 181-186.
- Sunar, D., & Fisek, G. (2005). Contemporary Turkish families. In J. P. Roopnarine & U. P. Gielen (Eds.), *Families in global perspective* (pp. 169-183). Boston: Pearson.
- Urul, A. K. (2016). *81 İl İçin Toplumsal Cinsiyet Eşitliği Karnesi 2016* [Gender Equality Report for 81 Cities, 2016]. Ankara: TEPAV Yayınları.
- Vefikuluçay, D., Zeyneloğlu, S., Eroğlu, K. ve Taşkın, L. (2007). Kafkas üniversitesi son sınıf öğrencilerinin toplumsal cinsiyet rollerine ilişkin bakış açıları [Perception of and views on gender roles of senior students enrolled at Kafkas University]. *Hemşirelik Yüksekokulu Dergisi*, 26-38.

- Willetts-Bloom, M. C., & Nock, S. L. (1994). The influence of maternal employment on gender role attitudes of men and women. *Sex Roles, 30*(5-6), 371-389.
- Won Kim, S., Fong, V. L., Yoshikawa, H., Way, N., Chen, X., Deng, H., & Lu, Z. (2010). Income, work preferences and gender roles among parents of infants in urban China: A mixed method study from Nanjing. *The China Quarterly, 204*, 939-959. doi: 10.1017/S0305741010001037
- World Economic Forum (2018). The Global Gender Gap Report 2018. Retrieved from http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_GGGR_2018.pdf
- Yılmaz, D. (2014). *Cinsiyet*. Siyez, D. M. (Ed.), Ergenlik (s. 162-185) içinde. Ankara: Nobel Akademik Yayıncılık.
- Zhang, N. (2006). Gender role egalitarian attitudes among Chinese college students. *Sex Roles, 55*(7- 8), 545-553. doi: 10.1007/s11199-006-9108-x
- Zuo, J., & Tang, S. (2000). Breadwinner status and gender ideologies of men and women regarding family roles. *Sociological Perspectives, 43*(1), 29-43. doi: 10.2307/1389781