

A DEVELOPMENTAL INVESTIGATION OF THE CONCEPT OF
NATIONALITY AND ITS RELATIONSHIP WITH SOCIAL EXPECTATIONS

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A DEVELOPMENTAL INVESTIGATION OF THE CONCEPT OF
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DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

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ABSTRACT

A Developmental Investigation of the Concept of Nationality and Its Relationship with Social Expectations

National identity has various components such as ethnic, civic, or cultural, and these are prioritized differently in different contexts. This dimensional perception of national identity has social implications regarding attitudes toward minorities or expectations from immigrants. The current study investigated the developmental course of this dimensional understanding and its relationship with children's expectations regarding the assimilation of immigrants among children in Turkey. Six-to-eight- and 9-to-11-years-old children (N = 83) were introduced two novel national groups and targets who are associated with two features implying membership in different national groups. Children were then asked which nation the target would belong to. Children were also presented with an immigration scene and asked whether the national identity and different features related to it would change after immigration. Overall, children prioritized the ethnic dimension of national identity over civic, cultural, and affective dimensions, and they prioritized the civic dimension over cultural and affective dimensions. Prioritization of ethnic over civic cues became stronger with age, but other contrasts were similar across age groups. Regarding assimilation expectations, children expected immigrants to follow the destination country's rules but expected them to keep the religion of the first country. Moreover, diversity exposure mostly predicted higher assimilation expectations, while prioritizing ethnic cues over civic ones predicted lower assimilation expectations. Finally, children expected national identity not to change after immigration, and this expectation increased as children prioritized ethnic cues over

civic cues. These findings contribute to our knowledge about the developmental process of national identity and children's perception of immigration.

ÖZET

Milliyet Kavramı ve Sosyal Beklentilerle İlişkisinin Gelişimsel Olarak İncelenmesi

Ulusal kimliğin etnik, yurttaşlık, kültürel gibi farklı bileşenleri vardır ve farklı bağlamlarda farklı şekilde önceliklendirilirler. Ulusal kimliğin bu boyutsal algısının, azınlıklara yönelik tutumlar veya göçmenlerden asimilasyon beklentisi gibi sosyal sonuçları vardır. Bu çalışma, ulusal kimliğin boyutsal anlayışının gelişim sürecini ve bunun göçmenler için asimilasyon beklentisiyle ilişkisini araştırdı. Altı - sekiz ve 9-11 yaş aralığındaki çocuklara (N = 83) iki yeni ulusal grup tanıtıldı ve farklı ulusal gruplara üyeliği işaret eden iki farklı özelliğe sahip kişiler gösterildi. Sonrasında çocuklara bu kişilerin hangi gruba ait olacakları soruldu. Ayrıca çocuklara bir göç sahnesi gösterildi ve göç sonrasında ulusal kimliğin ve ulusal kimlikle ilişkili çeşitli özelliklerin değişip değişmeyeceği soruldu. Bulgular, çocukların ulusal kimliğin etnik boyutunu yurttaşlık, kültürel ve duygusal boyutlarından daha fazla önceliklendirdiklerini, ve yurttaşlık boyutunu da kültürel ve duygusal boyutlarından daha fazla önceliklendirdiklerini gösterdi. Etnik boyutun yurttaşlık boyutuna göre önceliklendirilmesi yaşla beraber güçlendi, ama diğer karşılaştırmalarda grupları arasında fark görülmedi. Asimilasyon beklentisi göz önüne alındığında çocuklar, göçmenlerden gittikleri yeni ülkenin kurallarına uymalarını, ancak ilk ülkeye ait dinlerini korumalarını beklediler. Dahası, çeşitliliğe maruz kalma, çoğunlukla daha fazla asimilasyon öngörürken, etnik özellikleri yurttaşlıkla ilgili özelliklerden daha fazla önceliklendirmek, daha az asimilasyon öngördü. Son olarak, çocuklar göçten sonra ulusal kimliğin değişmemesini beklediler ve bu beklenti, çocukların etnik özellikleri, yurttaşlıkla ilgili özelliklerden daha fazla önceliklendirmesiyle artış

gösterdi. Bu bulgular, ulusal kimliğin gelişim süreci ve çocukların göç algısı hakkındaki bilgilerimize katkıda bulunmaktadır.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

"Above all nations is humanity."

Nation is a social construct influencing the social dynamics of societies. Even though it is a relatively novel concept compared to other factors creating social boundaries such as race or language, its impact on society can be substantial depending on its role in politics (e.g., Anderson, 2006; Larsen, 2017; Tamir, 2019). Since the French Revolution, nations have been perceived as social groups that gather members of a society together and create social boundaries. However, the construct of national identity does not necessarily have any observable, concrete cues; it is an "imagined community" defined by members of societies based on different features of the particular social groups (Anderson, 2006). In this construction process, the significant factors characterizing national identity were mainly languages shared by ethnic groups and territorial borders that divide people into different communities (Anderson, 2006). However, the elements that vary along with these "imagined communities" are not limited to territories or languages but can also include race (Devos & Banaji, 2005), ethnicity (Brown, 2011), religion (Ellwood-Lowe et al., 2020; Santhanagopalan et al., 2021) feelings for a nation (Brown, 2011; Cingöz-Ulu, 2008; Rodriguez et al., 2016), and even food (Lappalainen, 2009).

Previous research investigating the concept of national identity introduced a dimensional definition. According to this approach, several factors such as ethnicity or language might vary together in societies and create different dimensions for national identity, such as ethnic and civic dimensions (Cingöz-Ulu, 2008; Kohn, 1944; Larsen, 2017; Reijerse et al., 2013, Wakefield et al., 2011). These dimensions

can be dynamic and differ depending on culture and across time (Larsen, 2017). In other words, different social factors load on different dimensions depending on cultural context, and national identity definitions of societies change over the years. Furthermore, these dimensions may predict attitudes toward others. For instance, the ethnic definition of national identity is associated with more exclusive attitudes, whereas civic definition is associated with more inclusive attitudes toward minorities or immigrants (Kunovich, 2009; Pehrson et al., 2009; Pehrson & Green, 2010; Taniguchi, 2021; Verkuyten & Martinovic, 2015; Wakefield et al., 2011).

Even though the dimensions of national identity and its implications for intergroup attitudes are studied with adults in detail, a few studies investigated the developmental process of these dimensions, and these yielded a mixed set of findings (Brown, 2011; Ellwood-Lowe et al., 2020; Feeney et al., 2020, Violente et al., 2020). The current study aims to investigate children's understanding of different dimensions of national identity more comprehensively to have a better understanding of the developmental course of the conceptualization of national identity. Second, it aims to examine the role of this understanding in guiding children's expectations regarding the behaviors of immigrants. The final goal of the current research is to evaluate the relationship between parents' and their children's understandings of national identity. To my knowledge, this is the first study investigating the development of dimensions of national identity and its implications for expectations from immigrants in Turkey. The results are expected to be informative considering that nationalism is rising in Turkey (Sen, 2020), and that Turkey is hosting the highest number of refugees (around 3.5 million) in the world ("Refugees and Asylum Seekers in Turkey - UNHCR Turkey", 2021).

1.1 Adults' conceptions of national identity

The dimensions of national identity are well-studied with adult samples. In these studies, the most commonly mentioned aspects are ethnic and civic dimensions (e.g., Jones & Smith, 2001, Wakefield et al., 2011). Initially, the former was conceptualized as the Eastern Model of national identity, while the latter was conceptualized as the Western Model (Kohn, 1944). The Western and Eastern Models proposed by Kohn (1944) were dichotomous. He supposed that societies would have ethnic or civic representations of national identity. According to Kohn (1944), countries creating their borders before the spread of the nationalist idea, such as France or the UK, defined their nations in civic terms such as citizenship, while countries emerged after, or even thanks to, the spread of the nationalist idea, such as Germany, used ancestry and shared history to define national identity. Later research indicated that the representations of national identity might not be dichotomous but continual or multi-dimensional and that societies might define their national identities by both ethnic and civic factors (Jones & Smith, 2001; Larsen, 2017; Reeskens & Hooghe, 2010; Shulman, 2002). To exemplify, people might think that both having parents coming from a certain nation (ethnic) and voting in a country (civic) are essential to be a part of a nation.

The civic dimension of national identity is mainly characterized by acquired features that people can perform voluntarily, such as carrying out citizenship duties or loving a country (Jones & Smith, 2001). On the other hand, the ethnic dimension of national identity is defined by ascribed features transferred between generations such as ancestry or having parents belonging to a given nation. However, previous research suggests that grouping these features as ethnic or civic may not be straightforward, given that the components of these dimensions vary across societies

(Reesken & Hooghe, 2010; Shulman, 2002) and time (Larsen, 2017; Tamir, 2019). For instance, Larsen (2017) investigated the International Social Survey Program (ISSP) data from 44 countries over two decades. Using factor analyses, he observed two major factors for national identity: The first factor was the mobilization of national attitude (how important national identity is perceived), and the second factor was the ethnic-civic definition of national identity. The results showed that the components of ethnic-civic constructions varied depending on how important national identity is perceived in societies. To exemplify, *to be able to speak the language of the country* emerged on the ethnic side when national identity was perceived important and on the civic side when national identity was perceived as unimportant. Moreover, the results showed that the position of countries in the ethnic-civic dimension varied in different time points. Several countries, such as Russia or Hungary, moved along the dimensions throughout the assessments in 1995, 2003, and 2013 (Larsen, 2017).

Besides variations in components of ethnic-civic dimensions, the number of dimensions that emerge in societies can also vary. A considerable amount of research shows different dimensions of national identity, in addition to ethnic and civic dimensions, depending on the cultural context (e.g., Cingöz-Ulu, 2008; Janmaat, 2006; Reijerse et al., 2013; Taşdemir, 2018; Taşdemir & Öner-Özkan, 2016). For instance, cultural features shared by a particular society, such as *religion* and *protecting the culture of the society* are evaluated as part of the ethnic dimension in some studies (e.g., Jones & Smith, 2001; Rothi, et al., 2005). However, Reijerse et al. (2013) argue that cultural features are distinct from the ethnic dimension and should be considered as a separate dimension. They collected data from six European countries including Belgium, France, Germany, Hungary, the Netherlands, and

Sweden, to assess dimensions of national identity. Their results indicated that factors such as *having ancestry* and *growing up in a family that belong to the nation* loaded on ethnic dimensions, while factors such as *respecting religion and symbols of the nation* and *protecting its culture* created a separate cultural dimension. The cultural dimension was positively correlated with the ethnic dimension and negatively correlated with the civic dimension that was constructed by features such as *accepting political participation*. Moreover, in a study conducted in Turkey, Cingöz-Ulu (2008) showed that some features characterized by emotional attachment to the country, such as *feeling Turkish* might form the affective dimension, a dimension distinct from ethnic and civic dimensions. Here, it should be noted that the dimensions that relate to national identity depend on the society. To exemplify, Reijerse et al. (2013) found a separate cultural dimension but not any affective dimension in six European countries they examined, while Cingöz-Ulu (2008) observed a distinct affective dimension, with ethnic and cultural items loading on a single dimension in Turkish society.

1.1.1 Societal implications

The dimensional understanding of national identity has different social implications. How people perceive and define their national group can influence their expectations about and attitudes towards others as well. People who define their nations in terms of ethnic aspects such as ancestry or mother tongue, can be less inclusive towards immigrants and minorities (Kunovich, 2009; Pehrson et al., 2009, Pehrson & Green, 2010; Taniguchi, 2021, Wakefield et al., 2011). One mechanism driving this relationship could be the perceived stability of these features: Ethnic features such as ancestry or mother tongue cannot be changed. Consequently, people might assume

that those who do not share these attributes cannot be “one of them” (Pehrson & Green, 2010). In fact, Pehrson et al. (2009) directly focused on social essentialism, the belief that some social divisions are biologically based and permanent (Gelman & Wellman, 1991), and investigated its role in the association between national identification and prejudice toward immigrants. They evaluated essentialism with a 5-item scale where participants rated how much they agreed with statements such as *from our ancestry, something deep in the heart clearly distinguishes the English from other nations, and it is our English blood that basically makes us who we are throughout our lives*. They concluded that essentialized beliefs about national identity based on blood and ancestry moderated the relationship between national identification and prejudice. For people who essentialized national identity, there was a positive relationship between them. On the other hand, defining national identity in terms of citizenship (civic dimension) is found to be related to more inclusive attitudes towards others (Kunovich, 2009; Pehrson & Green, 2010; Verkuyten & Martinovic, 2015; Wakefield et al., 2011). According to the civic view, anyone who has the country's citizenship and performs citizenship duties such as voting or respecting laws can be part of a given nation (Pehrson & Green, 2010).

The dimensions of national identity might also have implications for how people perceive multiculturalism, which involves preserving cultural identities of minorities (Devos et al., 2020; Moftizadeh et al., 2021; Verkuyten & Martinovic, 2015). Verkuyten and Martinovic (2015) suggest that people defining their nation more in civic terms might welcome cultural diversity, while people defining national identity in ethnic terms may oppose other cultures. Moreover, the perception of national identity can predict supporting or opposing to policies protecting minority cultures. For instance, Devos et al. (2020) showed that the ethnic dimension of

national identity, but not civic, predicted opposition to symbolic policies aiming to protect cultures of minority groups such as teaching languages of minority groups in primary schools. A more direct investigation of the relationship between dimensions of national identity and expectations from immigrants was conducted by Leong et al. (2020). The study was conducted in five countries: Finland, Canada, Australia, Singapore, and Japan. Participants were told the following: “The following is a list of characteristics, which local born people feel are important for an immigrant to have in order to be accepted and viewed as a full member of the society, like a native-born (country) citizen is”. Then, participants were asked to rate how important they think these characteristics are to accept immigrants to society. The list consisted of 20 social markers such as *belonging to one of main ethnic groups*, *giving up foreign cultural norms and behavior*, and *being able to speak with local accent*. They evaluated the national identity definitions of participants based on these markers. Their results revealed two main dimensions corresponding to ethnic and civic dimensions of national identity. Furthermore, the ethnic dimension was loaded by items requiring immigrants to assimilate to the local culture and included items such as *giving up foreign cultural norms and behaviors*, *enjoying typical country’s pastime*, and *behaving like a country person*. On the other hand, the civic dimension was mostly loaded by items related to citizenship such as *embracing a positive attitude to the recipient society*, *observing local law and customs*. Based on these results and the relation between the dimensions of national identity and multiculturalism, one might predict that people defining national identity in ethnic terms might be more likely to expect immigrants to assimilate and adopt the culture of the society they moved into, compared to those defining national identity in civic terms.

1.2 National identity understanding of children

Children start to form an understanding of national identity during preschool years. As early as 5-years-old, children begin to identify themselves by their nation (Barrett, 2005; Barrett & Oppenheimer, 2011). Subsequently, children acquire geographic knowledge of their countries and recognize salient national symbols such as the national flag (Barrett, 2007, Dautel et al., 2020). As they grow up, children's understanding becomes more systematic. Around 7-years, children acquire geographical knowledge of other nations (Barrett & Oppenheimer, 2011). Children also express national pride (Stavriniades & Georgiou, 2011), and tend to show ingroup positivity based on individuals' national identity (Barrett et al., 2004). Ingroup positivity decreases with age, namely; children tend to attribute not only positive but also some negative features to the members of their national group. However, children still attribute importance to their national identity and this tendency becomes stronger during middle childhood (Barrett et al., 2003). Furthermore, children make essentialist attributions about national identity; they think of national identity as an aspect that is stable and has a biological basis (Davoodi et al., 2020; Feeney et al., 2020; Hussak & Cimpian, 2019). This essentialist attribution is evident even among 5-years-olds, and it continues to be robust through middle childhood (Davoodi et al., 2020).

There are a few developmental studies investigating different factors that are associated with national identity (e.g., Carrington & Short, 1995; DeJesus et al., 2018; Lappalainen, 2009; Santhanagopalan et al., 2021) and fewer studies that focus on children's dimensional understanding of national identity (e.g., Brown, 2011; Ellwood-Lowe et al., 2020; Feeney et al., 2020; Violente, et al., 2020). First of all, language is perceived strongly related to national identity by children (Kinzler,

2021). Around 5-6 years old, children focus on the language spoken by people to make national identity judgments about them (DeJesus et al., 2018). Specifically, DeJesus et al. (2018) showed that both White and Korean children living in the United States mainly used language information to decide on someone's national identity. Regardless of the race of the targets, children thought that English speaker targets were American and Korean speakers were Korean. Children also associate religion with national identity (Ellwood-Lowe et al., 2020). Children living in a part of India where the majority of the population are Hindu, reliably chose Hindu people as more Indian than Muslim people (Santhanagopalan et al., 2021). In addition to language and religion, geographical location might be another influential factor associated with national identity during childhood. Carrington and Short (1995) showed, for instance, that children associate place of birth and national identity, reasoning that people are British because they were born in Britain. Even though these studies mentioned above do not investigate the ethnic-civic dimensions of national identity directly, the social cues children associate with national identity are related to these dimensions. For example, religion can be considered as a cultural component (e.g., Reijerse et al., 2013), place of birth can be considered as a civic component (e.g., Shulman, 2002), and native language might be considered as an ethnic component of national identity (e.g., Cingöz-Ulu, 2008).

A few developmental studies also directly evaluated ethnic-civic dimensions of national identity among children. Among these studies, Ellwood-Lowe et al. (2020) recruited 9-to-16 years old children in India. They used a large number of features associated with national identity (11) as in adult studies, and they asked children to rate how important these features to be a "true Indian" with a 5-point Likert scale, a higher score indicating more importance attributed to the feature.

Their results revealed four components of national identity: ethnic-cultural (e.g., having parents coming from India), civic (e.g., treating people of all religions equally), patriotism (e.g., being patriotic), and celebrating Ramadan. Further, the features loaded on civic dimension were rated as the most important to be a “true Indian” by children. However, this result was in conflict with other findings of the study. Specifically, children evaluated Hindus as more Indian than Muslims, and this association also predicted their support for social policies regarding minorities, in line with the ethnic-cultural definition (and in contrast to the civic definition) of national identity. One limitation of this study was that its sample was drawn from a single school emphasizing religious diversity, and this might limit the generalizability of the findings. Another study with a similar method was conducted by Brown (2011) in the United States. The author examined different components of national identity among 5-to-11 years old children. These were *being born in America, speaking English, living in America for most of their life, and loving America and living by its rules*. Brown (2011) asked children to rate how important these criteria are to be a “true American” and presented them with a 1 to 4 Likert scale. Children rated *loving America and living by its rule* as the most important, implying that children show a civic understanding. However, another task requiring participants to judge the Americanness of targets from different ethnicities indicated a different conceptualization of national identity. In this task, participants were told “Think about people who were born in America. In your opinion, how ‘American’ are people in these groups? Remember, you are thinking about people born in America” and asked to rate on 1 to 4 Likert scale. Children of all ages rated White targets as most American, followed by African Americans and Asian Americans in line with the ethnic representation of the national identity.

Violente, et al. (2020) used an innovative method by introducing children to targets that varied in terms of three characteristics: *speaking English*, *being born in America*, and *loving America*. For example, a target could be speaking English, and loving the U.S but not be born in the U.S. Then, they asked 3–to 5-year-olds to rate how American the character is by choosing one of three different sized flags to evaluate which characteristic is more associated with being American. Further, they showed children two foods or two sports, one item from each category being more American (baseball, hotdog) than the other (hockey and rice). To assess children’s prediction about the future preference of the target, the researchers asked children to predict which food or sport the target would like. They found that only the civic component (i.e., loving America) had an effect on national identity judgments. Children rated targets loving the United States as more American than targets who do not like the country. Furthermore, they found no difference regarding the predictions of children for the future preferences of targets.

Finally, Feeney et al. (2020) investigated dimensions of national identity in another culture, North Ireland, using a different method. They presented 4-to-11 years old children with some vignettes to investigate children’s ethnic-civic understanding. In these vignettes, the researchers manipulated the timing of arrival of the targets as an indicator of where the targets were born (i.e., the targets came from Poland to North Ireland 1 week ago or after the birth) as well as targets’ accents (Polish or North Irish accent). They asked children to judge the targets' and their children’s national identity. Children chose one of three answer options: North Irish, Polish, or both North Irish and Polish. Children showed both ethnic and civic dimensions of national identity and there was no developmental change.

Thus, the findings from developmental studies are somewhat controversial. For example, some findings were unexpected considering the implication of adult studies in the same society (e.g., Ellwood-Lowe et al., 2020), and some findings contradict the findings of the other tasks in the same study (e.g., Brown, 2011). Considering these studies, the method that is used to evaluate dimensions of national identity with children requires more attention. Furthermore, the investigation of dimensions of national identity might require a more comprehensive set of components given its complex and unsteady nature (e.g., Larsen, 2017).

1.3 Socialization processes in the acquisition of national identity understanding

Previous research points to parental influence in several contexts such as ingroup identification (Grusec, 2011), attitudes toward authorities (Tagar et al., 2014), attitudes toward social groups such as those based on race (Castelli et al., 2009), ethnicity (Jugert et al., 2016) or attitudes towards immigrants (Miklikowska, 2015). These studies focusing on different age groups varying from preschool ages to adolescence indicated that several aspects of parental attitudes, such as the degree of ingroup biases or support for social hierarchies might have a role on children's development of intergroup understanding and there usually is a positive correlation between parents' and their children's inter-group attitudes (Castelli et al., 2009; Jugert et al., 2016). A meta-analysis conducted by Degner and Dalege (2013) evaluated the overall effect size revealed by 131 studies focusing on the association between intergroup attitudes of parents and their children. Their results revealed a medium effect size, implying the reliability of the association between parental social attitudes and the social understanding of children.

Among theories explaining the development of social group understanding of children, societal-social-cognitive-motivational theory (SSCMT) proposed by Martyn Barrett (Barrett, 2007; Barrett & Oppenheimer, 2011) explains the role of parents comprehensively. According to SSCMT, parents might influence their children directly with their behaviors, labeling, and explanations. Parental influence might go even further. Parents decide on their children's school, control their reach social media and shape their social contact with other social groups such as different ethnicities or nations. Reizabal et al., (2004) showed, for instance, that the home environment influences children's self-categorization and national identification. They conducted the study in Basque Country and evaluated the effect of language usage at home. They showed that children who speak only the Basque language or both Basque and Spanish at home identified themselves as Basque more than children who speak only Spanish in the home environment. Similar results were also evident for national identification: Children from Spanish-speaking home environments showed higher Spanish identification, and children from home environments speaking Basque language showed higher Basque identification. In line with these findings, parents' national identity concepts might be associated with their children's understanding of national identity. However, to our knowledge, there is no study directly investigating the relationship between parents' understanding of national identity and the development of their children's dimensional understanding.

1.4 National identity in Turkey

Turkish national identity is formally defined in civic terms such as citizenship and territory. Article 66 of the Constitution of the Republic of Turkey states that “everyone connected to Turkish state by citizenship is Turkish.” However,

considering the history of the Turkish state, practices of Turkish nationalism are more in line with the ethnic definition of national identity, such as emphasizing Turkish language and Turkish culture, in particular religion (e.g., Christofis, 2019; Yeğen, 2007). Considering attitudes towards Kurds, the largest minority group in Turkey, Christofis (2019) explains that the Turkish Republic did not accept Kurds as a part of the nation with their culture. In line with ethnic nationalism, there has been practices to assimilate Kurdish culture, such as enforcing the use of Turkish language since the foundation of the country. The emphasis on the ethnic component of national identity has become arguably stronger through the history of the country and quite influential in the 1970-80s because of both Turkish and Kurdish nationalist movements. In the past 20 years, the government has placed greater emphasis on religion (Aktürk, 2018; Christofis, 2019; Saraçoğlu, 2018; Savaş, 2020). This strategy to gather different ethnic groups under Islam is argued to increase religious nationalism in the last two decades (Aktürk, 2018). Therefore, considering Turkey's history and current politics, Turkish national identity might be more in line with ethnic and cultural (religion) dimensions.

A few studies investigated the dimensions of Turkish identity with adults (e.g., Cingöz-Ulu, 2008; Taşdemir, 2018; Taşdemir & Öner-Özkan, 2016). Cingöz-Ulu (2008) revealed three major dimensions: ethnocultural, civic, and affective. The results showed that the civic dimension was loaded by items such as *having spent most of one's life in Turkey, adhering to citizenship obligations such as voting, having Turkish Republic ID*, while the ethnocultural dimension was formed by items such as *being a child of Turkish mother or father, having a mother tongue that is Turkish, being Muslim*. Furthermore, *feeling Turkish and regardless of ethnic background, feeling primarily as a Turk* created the so-called affective dimension.

Later, Taşdemir and Öner-Özkan (2016) evaluated participants' understanding of being Turkish qualitatively. They used the items mentioned by the participants in their first study to investigate different dimensions. Their study revealed similar, but not the same, features associated with Turkish identity, such as *coming from Turkish family, being Muslim, speaking Turkish, adhering to Atatürk's principle, living in Turkey, or feeling Turkish*. However, they introduced two different dimensions: national participation and national essentialism. National participation was loaded by items generally evaluated as cultural or civic: *contributing to Turkey, adopting Turkish culture, speaking Turkish, adhering to Atatürk's philosophy, living in Turkey, and having citizenship*. On the other hand, national essentialism dimension was loaded by more essentialist items that were previously evaluated as ethnic: *having Turkish mother or father, being Muslim, and willing to feel Turkish* (e.g., Jones & Smith, 2001, Reijerse et al., 2013).

Among the studies investigating dimensions of national identity in Turkey, Cingöz-Ulu (2008) revealed a complex structure of Turkish national identity in two studies. In the first study, a quantitative assessment requiring participants to rate how important several features to be truly Turkish, showed that participants rated affective features as the most important, followed by civic features and the ethno-cultural features. However, in the same study, a qualitative measure requiring participants to define their national ingroup indicated that the majority of participants defined their national ingroup in ethno-cultural terms (43% ethnic in contrast to 27% civic). Furthermore, the second study manipulating target characters' ethnic and civic features as strong and weak via vignettes indicated that participants attributed higher significance to ethno-cultural aspects. The author concluded that ethnic and cultural

features might be more heavily weighted in the definition of Turkish national identity.

There is no developmental study that investigated the dimension of national identity in Turkey. However, Davoodi et al. (2020) investigated 5 to 10-years-old children's and adults' essentialist beliefs about nationality in Turkey. They showed that both children and adults perceive nationality as a stable and biologically relevant attribute; it was perceived as the second most essentialized social category after gender among five categories; gender, nationality, religion, SES, sport teams. Children especially agreed that nationality is determined at birth, and people differing in nationality would have different brains. These results suggest that children might perceive national identity as a stable and biologically relevant concept, in line with the ethnic definition (Pehrson et al., 2009).

1.4.1 Immigrants in Turkey

Since the crisis in Syria in 2011, the number of refugees in Turkey has increased drastically. According to the Directorate General of Migration Management (n.d.), there were 3.559.041 Syrian refugees with temporary protection status in October of 2020. In addition to Syrians, Turkey hosts thousands of refugees from other countries such as Afghanistan (Hashemi & Ünlü, 2021). Furthermore, the perception of Syrian refugees in Turkey became more negative between 2017 and 2019 (Erdoğan, 2020). In 2017, %57 of people perceived Syrians as victims escaping from war, while this percentage decreased to 35 % in 2019. Therefore, it is crucial to investigate the perspective of children towards refugees. A previous study by Taşdemir (2018) evaluated the effect of two dimensions of national identity on attitudes toward Syrian refugees, namely national participation (consisting of civic and cultural aspects such

as citizenship and adopting Turkish culture) and national essentialism (consisting of ethnic aspects such as having Turkish parents). Their results indicated that both dimensions were partially related to negative attitudes towards Syrian refugees. This finding contradicts findings coming from other cultures (e.g., Kunovich, 2009; Pehrson & Green, 2010; Verkuyten & Martinovic, 2015; Wakefield et al., 2011). Therefore, it will be informative to further investigate the role of national identity understanding on attitudes towards and expectations about immigrants.

CHAPTER 2

THE CURRENT STUDY

The current study has three main goals. The primary goal is to investigate the developmental course of national identity conceptualization and its dimensions in Turkey. Previous research indicated that dimensions of national identity vary depending on cultural context (e.g., Larsen, 2017; Reesken & Hooghe, 2010). Cingöz-Ulu (2008) showed three dimensions of national identity in Turkey: ethnocultural, civic, and affective. However, there are studies indicating that ethnic and cultural definitions of national identity might be separated (e.g., Reijerse et al., 2013), and the understanding of national identity might vary across time as well depending on the political context (e.g., Larsen, 2017; Tamir, 2019). Therefore, the current study aims to evaluate ethnic and cultural dimensions separately to make a more comprehensive investigation. To assess which dimensions were more influential on children's judgment of national identity in Turkey, four dimensions of national identity were examined in total; ethnic, civic, cultural, and affective.

There are millions of people of Turkish ethnicity living in Germany (DESTATIC 2021, "Migration and integration" section). Even though they live in a geographical location associated with German Nation, these people's native language is Turkish, a language associated with Turkish Nation (e.g., DeJesus et al., 2018). How would children's perception of national identities of these people be, and which feature would be more influential on their perception? Defining national identity in ethnic terms would suggest that these individuals are Turkish while defining national identity in civic terms would suggest that they are German. In line with this question, the first part of the study assessed the relative importance of various features

associated with different dimensions of national identity. The ethnic cues were *having parents coming from the nation* and *having the mother tongue of the nation*, while the civic cues were *following the rules of a country* and *living in the country*. The cultural cues were *believing in the religion of the nation* and *cooking the food of the nation in special days*. Affective cues were *feeling of belonging to the nation* and *loving the country*. All cues but food in cultural dimension and loving the country in affective dimension were taken from a scale used by previous studies in Turkey (Cingöz-Ulu, 2008; Kurtiş et al., 2017). Food and loving the country were added to make sure each dimension is emphasized equally.

Previous studies indicate that asking children to decide based on contrasting cues is effective in evaluating the understanding of national identity in developmental studies (e.g., DeJesus et al., 2018, Santagapalon et al., 2021). Accordingly, children were asked to make national identity judgments about third parties based on pairs of cues that imply different dimensions of national identity. For example, the mother tongue (ethnic) of a target person was associated with one nation, whereas their religion (cultural) was associated with another nation. Children's decisions regarding the person's national identity were used to evaluate which cue was more strongly associated with national identity. Two novel national groups, Akas and Mims, were used to avoid potential existing biases children may have.

The second goal of the study is to investigate whether there is a relationship between children's perceptions of national identity (e.g., ethnic, cultural) and their expectations regarding the assimilation of immigrants. Investigating whether children think that national identity can change after immigration would have further implications for the concept of national identity, considering previous studies

showing essentialist attributions to national identity (Davoodi et al., 2020; Hussak & Cimpian, 2019). For these purposes, children saw one of the national groups introduced at the beginning immigrating to the geographical location of the other national group. Then, children were asked to make predictions regarding which features or behaviors of the migrating individuals should change as a result of moving. These features were national identity, language spoken at home, following the rules of a country, religion, food cooked in the special days, loving a country, and feeling of belonging to a nation.

The third goal of the current study is to investigate whether parents' conceptualization of national identity is related to their children's nationality concepts. Specifically, I examined whether children prioritize similar dimensions of national identity with their parents. Parents' understanding of national identity was evaluated by a parental survey that was sent before the experiment. This survey included various markers of Turkish national identity developed by Cingöz-Ulu (2008). It asked parents to rate several features which are related to different dimensions of national identity from 1 to 5 Likert scale, with higher ratings indicating greater importance attributed to a particular feature.

2.1 Hypotheses and exploratory questions

The current study has four hypotheses.

H1: The ethnic dimension of national identity would be prioritized more than civic and affective dimensions.

H2: The cultural dimension of national identity would be prioritized more than civic and affective dimensions.

H3: The older age group of participants would prioritize ethnic and cultural dimensions over others more than the younger age group would.

H4: Parents' national identity definition would predict their children's understanding of national identity.

In addition to these four hypotheses, there was two exploratory questions. First, the current study aimed to explore the effect of national identity definition on the assimilation expectations of children. Considering the previous literature, two predictions could be made about the relationship between children's dimensional understanding of national identity and their assimilation expectation. First, because ethnic dimension of national identity might predict essentialist attributions to national identity (e.g., Pehrson et al., 2009), children who define national identity in ethnic terms might perceive the features related to national identity more stable. Thus, they might expect more stability for the attributions of immigrants. Second, individuals holding an ethnic understanding of national identity might expect immigrants to adopt the new society's values (e.g., Leong et al., 2020). Thus, children who prioritize ethnic cues over others might also expect more change after immigration.

As the second exploratory question, it was aimed to investigate the effect of diversity exposure on children's understanding of national identity and their assimilation expectations. For this purpose, children's exposure to diversity was also measured. The previous research showed that diversity predicts positive or negative attitudes towards others such as immigrants (e.g., Laurance & Bentley, 2018; Schlueter & Wagner, 2008; Schmid et al. 2012) and might be influential on the construction process of national identity (Kukic, 2023). Therefore, in the current

study, diversity was measured to evaluate whether it influences the understanding of national identity and assimilation expectations for immigrants.

2.2 Method

2.2.1 Participants

The current study was conducted with 6-7- and 9-10-years old children. Children start to show a systematic understanding of nationality from 6-7 years old, and their understanding might mature and become more detailed by age (Barrett & Oppenheimer, 2011). Therefore, I chose these age groups to assess developmental change. All participants were majority Turkish children, recruited through the database and social media accounts of Boğaziçi University Baby and Child Laboratory and through snowball sampling in Ordu. Parents' ratings for their SES level on MacArthur Scale (Adler et al., 2000) which range from 1 to 10 as 10 showing the highest score were ranged from 1 to 8 with the mean score of 4.96. The study was approved by the Ethics Committee for Master and PhD Theses in Social Sciences and Humanities, in Boğaziçi University (See Appendix A). The sample size was calculated based on the effect sizes of the previous study investigating different social cues on national identity attribution (DeJesus et al., 2018). Accordingly, I planned to gather data from 40 children for each age group: 80 in total.

The final sample consisted of 43 6-7-years-olds (22 female; mean age: 7.10; ranged from 6.06 to 7.97) and 40 9-10-years-olds (19 female; mean age: 9.96; ranged from 9.07 to 10.9). Sixty-three of the children were test online via Zoom and 20 children were tested in person. Seven addition children were tested but excluded from the final sample. Three of them were too distracted during the experiment, two

of them were ethnic minorities, one of them was 8-years-olds and one of them had a disrupted internet connection during the online experiment.

2.2.2 Materials

2.2.2.1 Stimuli

Visual stimuli were created using Vyond (app.vyond.com). Two drawings of islands were used to present different geographical locations. They had similar features, yet they were easily distinguishable to prevent children from making choices based on islands. For example, both islands looked tropical, the drawings showed the seaside of islands, and the sea was on the left side in both drawings.

I created eighteen White adults and 52 White child characters with different clothing, hair and facial features. Eight adult characters (4 females) and four child characters (2 females) were used to introduce nations. I introduced two male and two female adult figures and two child figures (1 female) for each nation. The color of clothes on figures were varied within both national groups to prevent participants from perceiving color as a group cue. Forty-eight child figures (24 female) were created to be used for the experimental trials. I used additional drawings of two houses and two buildings presented as sanctuaries of nations' religions. The houses were identical except for their color. The sanctuaries were the same color (red) and the same size; the only difference was their shape to make sure they were distinguishable. Furthermore, two cartoons that represent two different dishes were used to represent the cultural foods of nations.

2.2.2.2 Parental survey

The parent survey had three parts. The first part included demographical information: age, SES, education level of both parents. The second part included an ethnic diversity scale. This scale consists of a single question asking parents to rate their child's exposure to ethnic diversity in 4 different environments: school, private social environments such as home or relatives, society such as neighborhood, and close friends of the child. Parents rated each environment 1 to 5; 1 refers to lowest ethnic diversity, and five refers to highest ethnic diversity (see Appendix B for the first and second part of the survey). The third part of the survey assessed dimensions of national identity using the Markers of Turkish Identity Scale (Cingöz-Ulu, 2008; Kurtiş et al., 2017). There were 20 items on this scale (e.g., coming from Turkish ancestry, feeling Turkish, believing democracy in Turkey), and it required the participants to rate how important each item is for Turkish identity (see Appendix C for the Markers of Turkish Identity Scale). The survey was sent to parents before the study.

2.2.3 Design and procedure

The study had a within-subject design. Online sessions were conducted via Zoom. Previous research suggested that conducting studies with children via Zoom yields similar results to face-to-face studies (Öner et al., 2021). In online sessions, stimuli were presented via Qualtrics while they were presented via PowerPoint during in-person sessions. There were two reasons why PowerPoint was used in the in-person sessions. First, there was not a stable internet connection in some locations where the sessions were run, and Qualtrics requires internet. Therefore, using Qualtrics could cause loading or disconnection problems. Second, while using Qualtrics, the

questions asked in trials (e.g., do you think this child belongs to Aka Nation or Mim Nation?) were written on the screen and could distract children. During online sessions, a certain part of the screen showing only visual stimuli was presented to children via Zoom. Thus, in both online and in-person sessions, children were presented with only visual stimuli, and all trials were randomized (for PowerPoints, its Macro feature was used to randomize the trials).

The study started with a warm-up session where children were asked to name colors and animals. After the warm-up session, children were introduced to two nations and their flags. The introduction was followed by two sequential parts of the experimental session investigating dimensions of national identity and assimilation expectations.

2.2.3.1 Warm-up trials

Before introducing nations, there were four warm-up trials; two color trials (green and yellow) and two animal trials (cow and owl). In color trials, children were presented with a colored column on the screen and asked to name the color. In animal trials, children were presented with an animal on a colored column and asked to name the animal. After warm-up trials, children were informed about the activity:

“You know that there are different nations in the world such as Turkish, German and French. These nations might have different features. Today, I will introduce you to two novel nations in our game. Then, I will present you with some children and I will share features of these children. After that, I will ask you which nation you think these children are from.”

The informing part was followed by familiarization trials.

2.2.3.2 Familiarization trials

After completing warm-up trials, two made-up national groups and their flags were introduced. Each nation was consisted of six cartoon figures (3 males) and was introduced sequentially.

The first group and its flag were presented on the left side of the screen, and children were told, “These people are from Aka Nation, and this is their flag”. Then, children were asked to recall the name of the nation. When children recalled the name correctly, the figures showing the first nation disappeared and the second group and their flag were presented on the right side of the screen. Children were told, “These people are from Mim Nation, and this is their flag.” Then, participants were asked to recall the name of the nation. When children recalled the name of the nation correctly, the group disappeared from the screen. Afterwards, both national groups and their flags were presented simultaneously. Children were asked to recall the names of nations correctly. In case children made any mistakes, they were corrected. The order of introduction of groups and their sides were counterbalanced.

2.2.3.4 Experimental trials

2.2.3.4.1 Children’s dimensional understanding of national identity

After the introduction, the first part of the study started, and different dimensions of national identity were contrasted. Here, children were asked to judge the national identity of the character based on two features corresponding to different nations. To ensure that children associated each feature with its target nation, the features were named with the name of nation. To exemplify, mother tongues were Aka/Mim languages and religions were Aka/Mim religions (see Table 1). Furthermore, the visual cues representing the features were presented with the flag of the

corresponding nation. There were two features for each dimension. For example, the mother tongue and the nation parents were coming from were features of the ethnic dimension and religion and the food cooked in the special days were features of the cultural dimension. Thus, four trials contrasted ethnic and cultural dimensions: mother tongue vs. religion, the national identity of parents vs. food, mother tongue vs. food, and the national identity of parents vs. religion. Given that there are six different pairs of dimensions to compare (i.e., ethnic vs. civic, ethnic vs. cultural, ethnic vs. affective, cultural vs. civic, cultural vs. affective, and civic vs. affective), there were a total of 24 trials in this part of the study.

On each trial, children were presented with one target in the middle of the screen and informed of the target's contrasting features implying different dimensions of national identity. The visual stimuli for features of nations such as speech bubbles for language or sanctuary images for religion were presented in the experimental trials to prevent participants from getting bored. In each trial, a visual stimulus representing one of the contrasting features was presented on the left side of the target, and the visual stimuli representing the second contrasting feature was presented on the right side of the target. For each feature, the flag of the corresponding nation was presented alongside with the feature. The left/right positions of stimuli were counterbalanced across trials, contrasting different pairs of dimensions. The order of these positions was also counterbalanced across children.

Table 1. Features of two nations

Feature	Dimension	Aka Nation	Mim Nation
Having parents coming from a nation	Ethnic	Having parents coming from Aka Nation	Having parents coming from Mim Nation
Mother tongue	Ethnic	Having mother tongue of Aka language (Akaca in Turkish)	Having mother tongue of Mim language (Mimce in Turkish)
Religion	Cultural	Believing in Aka Religion	Believing in Mim religion
Cooking the foods of a nation in special days	Cultural	Cooking Aka foods in special days	Cooking Mim foods in special days
Living in a country	Civic	Living in Aka Country	Living in Mim Country
Following the rules of a country	Civic	Following the rules of Aka Country	Following the rules of Mim Country
Loving a county	Affective	Loving Aka Country	Loving Mim Country
Feeling of belonging to a nation	Affective	Feeling of belonging to Aka Nation	Feeling of belonging to Mim Nation

To visually represent the first civic feature (living in a country), the island related to the nation was shown and children were told: "this child lives in Aka/Mim Country". To represent the second feature (following the rule of a country), a book having the image of the corresponding country on it was shown, and children were told: "this child follows the rules of Aka/Mim Country". To represent cultural features, religion, and food, sanctuary images for religion were shown and children were told "this child believes in Aka/Mim religion". To represent the food, food images were shown. For the affective dimension, a small heart figure to show "loving the country" was shown. To visualize "feeling of belonging to a nation", the national group introduced at the beginning of the study was shown. For the ethnic features, a speech bubble to represent mother tongues associated with the nations was shown. To represent "having parents from a nation", a figure consisting of one man and one woman as parents was shown.

To summarize, participants were presented with two features and their visual representations on all trials. On each trial, two features represented different dimensions of national identity and each feature implied a different nation. For example, children were presented with a character and told, for instance: "this child follow the rules of Aka Country and believes in Mim Religion". Then, children were asked to make national identity attributions based on these features by saying "Do you think which nation this child belongs to; Aka Nation or Mim Nation?"

2.2.3.4.2 Assimilation expectations

This part started with an immigration scene. Two islands along with human figures were presented on the screen. Children were shown that three people (2 adults and 1 child) of Mim/Aka Nation moving to Aka/Mim Island. Then, children were told,

"These people moved from Aka Country to Mim Country and started to live there." After immigration, figures showing immigrants were presented on Mim Island, and Aka Island disappeared from the screen. Children were told, "It has been a long time since these people have started to live here." Then experimental trials began.

In this part of the study, there were six trials to evaluate assimilation expectancies of children for six features: language spoken at home, religion, feeling of belonging to a nation, loving the country, following the rules of a country, and the food cooked in the special days. At the end, participants were also asked whether they think the immigrants belong to the Aka or the Mim nation. During all of these trials, the immigrant people were presented on Mim Island, and native people of the island were not in the scene to prevent any interference to children's judgments about immigrants.

For the language trial, speech bubbles referring to two languages were presented side by side above the human figures, and children were asked, "Do you think these people should speak Mim Language or Aka Language at home?". Two sanctuary buildings were presented at the same distance to human figures on the scene in the religion trial, and children were asked, "Do you think these people should believe in Mim religion or Aka religion?". In the feeling trial, two groups of people represented two nations and children were asked, "Do you think these people should feel that they belong to Aka Nation or Mim Nation?". In the loving trial, small heart figures appeared in addition to the flags of the nations above the figures, and children were asked that "Do you think these people should love Aka Country or Mim Country?". In the food trial, images of foods of the two nations were presented above the figures and children were asked, "Do you think these people should cook Aka foods, or Mim foods on special days?". In the following rules trial, two books

having the images of the corresponding country on them were presented and children were asked, “Do you think these people should follow the rules of Aka Country or Mim Country? And finally, in the national identity trial, children were asked, "Do you think these people are from Mim Nation, or to Aka Nation?". The second part of the study was over when all seven trials were completed. The order of all trials except for national identity trial were counterbalanced; national identity trial was always presented at the end. The sides of figures representing Aka and Mim Nation and the order of their appearance were counterbalanced across trials and their order of appearance was counterbalanced across children (see Appendix D for the Turkish script of the study)

2.3 Results

2.3.1 Descriptive information

As descriptive information, the SES and religiosity of parents were gathered in the parental survey. For the SES score ranging from 1 to 8, the mean score was 4.96 with standard deviation of 1.78. Religiosity scores of mothers ranged from 1 to 7, the mean score was 3.75 with the standard deviation of 1.88. Mean religiosity score for fathers was 3.64 with the standard deviation of 1.96. Given that there were no specific predictions about these variables and there were many missing data (especially for religiosity scores), these were not included in the analyses (see Appendix E for the detailed descriptive).

2.3.2 Scoring

First, I created continuous scores to evaluate children’s preferences between different dimensions of national identity. For each contrast of dimensions (e.g., ethnic vs.

civic), I created a continuous score based on children's decisions between features implying these dimensions. It was calculated by scoring which cues were prioritized throughout the trials within each contrast of dimensions. In each trial, prioritizing the cues implying one dimension (e.g., ethnic) was scored +1, and prioritizing the cues implying the other dimension (e.g., civic) was scored -1. Given that there were four trials for each contrast of dimensions (e.g., ethnic vs. civic), children's scores could range from -4 to +4.

Second, I created a continuous score for the assimilation expectations of children to evaluate whether their expectations differed from the chance level. For this purpose, I evaluated children's decisions across 6 trials of assimilation. In each trial, assimilation expectation was scored as 1, and stability expectation scored as 0. Thus, children's assimilation scores ranged from 0 to 6, with higher scores indicating higher assimilation expectation.

Furthermore, two additional scores were used to investigate the exploratory questions in the study. First, the score created for the ethnic-civic contrast (the ethnic-civic score) was used in the assimilation analyses. Given that I aimed to investigate if children's preference between ethnic and civic cues predicts their assimilation expectations, the ethnic-civic score was included as a predictor in GLMM analyses. Second, to explore the role of diversity in the national identity definition and assimilation expectations of children, I created a continuous score. In the parental survey, there were four questions asking parents to rate ethnic diversities of 4 environments of their children, ranging from 1 to 5, as 5 indicates the highest ethnic diversity. To calculate the diversity score, I took the average of the scores on these four questions. Thus, the diversity score ranged from 1 to 5.

2.3.3 Dimensions of national identity

Considering the dimensional understanding of national identity, there were three hypotheses. First, children were expected to prioritize the ethnic and cultural features over the civic and affective features. As the third hypothesis, I expected older children to prioritize the ethnic and cultural features more than younger children would. To investigate the first two hypotheses, I conducted single-sample t-tests for each contrast of dimensions of national identity to evaluate if children prioritized a dimension over the other. Furthermore, to investigate if there was an effect of age (the third hypothesis) and diversity (exploratory question), I conducted Generalized Linear Mixed Effect Models (GLMM) analyses by including age and diversity as the predictors. First, I started with single-sample t-tests for each comparison of dimensions of national identity to evaluate if children's decisions between pairs of dimensions (e.g., ethnic vs. civic) differed from chance. The dependent variable was the continuous score ranging -4 to 4 for the contrast as described in the scoring.. The two age groups were evaluated separately for a more detailed investigation. The t-test analyses were conducted with Jamovi statistical tool.

Second, I investigated which predictors could explain children's choices between different dimensions. For this, I conducted separate Generalized Linear Mixed-Effect Models (GLMM) analyses for each comparison of dimensions using R statistical software and the *lmer* function of the *lme4* package (Bates et al., 2014; R Core Team, 2013). I used the forward selection method and included each predictor consecutively. In each step, I used the model comparison by Chi-Square tests to evaluate if a particular predictor contributed to the model. To clarify, I compared the model including the predictor at the focus of the comparison and its nested model lacking only the predictor. I started by including the main effects and continued with

interactions. While keeping the main effects in the model regardless of the results of model comparison, I kept interactions in the model only if they contributed to the model. I started with Age. I compared the null model consisting of only the random effect (random intercept for participants) and the model including Age in addition to the random effect. Following that, I evaluated the effect of Diversity. After that, I added the interaction to the model and investigated if it contributed to the model fit. I created the final model based on these model comparisons by Chi-Square tests.

In each analysis, children's binary decisions between dimensions (e.g., ethnic vs. civic) at the focus of analysis was included as the output variable. I conducted a separate GLMM analysis for each comparison of dimensions, 6 in total. For trial-by-trial distribution of participants' choices, see Table 1.

Lastly, in all GLMM analyses, I controlled if there was an effect of Modality (online session or in-person sessions). In each analysis, I compared the final model with the extended model additionally including Modality. Results indicated that Modality did not improve the model fit in any analysis, therefore, it did not further evaluate.

2.3.3.1 Ethnic vs. civic dimensions

Two separate single-sample t-tests indicated that both younger and older children prioritized ethnic dimension of national identity over civic dimension (younger group: $t(42) = 3.28, p < .05, d = .5$; older group: $t(39) = 7.65, p < .001, d = 1.21$), (see Figure 1).

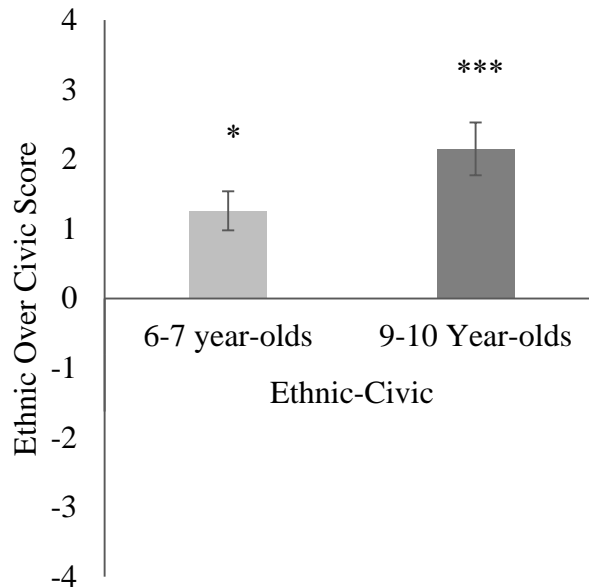


Figure 1. Ethnic over civic scores. $p^* < .5$, $p^{**} < .01$, $p^{***} < .001$

Then, I conducted a GLMM analysis. The output variable was the decision of children between ethnic and civic cues and the random effect was the random intercept for participants. Consecutive model comparisons through Chi-Square tests were conducted as described above. The results indicated that Age marginally improved the model ($\chi^2 = 3.48$, $df = 1$, $p = .06$). Diversity ($\chi^2 = .001$, $df = 1$, $p = .97$) and the interaction between Age and Diversity ($\chi^2 = .007$, $df = 1$, $p = .93$) did not significantly contribute to the model. Given that interactions should be kept in a model only if they improve the model fit, I dropped the interaction from the final model. Thus, the final model consisted of the fixed effects of Age, Diversity, and the random effect. The model summary indicated a difference between younger and older children. Older children prioritized ethnic cues over civic cues more than the younger group did ($Estimate = .72$, $SE = .33$, $p = .03$). However, there was no main

effect of Diversity ($Estimate = .005, SE = .14, p = .97$) (see Table F1 in the Appendix F for the model summary).

2.3.3.2 Ethnic vs. cultural dimension

Separate single sample t-tests for age groups showed that children prioritized ethnic dimension of national identity over the cultural dimension (younger: $t(42) = 7.94, p < .001, d = 1.21$; older: $t(39) = 9.07, p < .001, d = 1.43$) (see Figure 2).

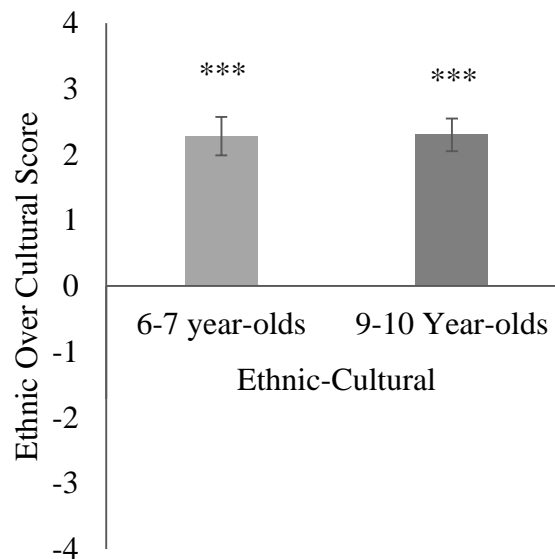


Figure 2. Ethnic over cultural scores. $p^* < .5, p^{**} < .01, p^{***} < .001$

GLMM analysis showed that the model fit was not improved by Age ($\chi^2 = .72, df = 1, p = .39$), and it was improved only marginally by Diversity ($\chi^2 = 2.82, df = 1, p = .09$). The interaction between Age and Diversity ($\chi^2 = .33, df = 1, p = .56$) did not improve the model. Thus, dropping the interaction from the model, the final model consisted of the fixed effects of Age and Diversity. The summary of the final model indicated no significant effect of Diversity ($Estimate = .25, SE = .14, p = .08$)

or Age (*Estimate* = -.2, *SE* = .32, *p* = .54) (see Table F2 in the Appendix F for the model summary).

2.3.3.3 Ethnic vs. affective dimensions of national identity

Separate one sample t-tests for age groups indicated that children prioritized the ethnic dimension of national identity over affective dimension (younger: $t(42) = 10.85$, $p < .001$, $d = 2.51$; older: $t(39) = 10.24$, $p < .001$, $d = 1.62$) (see Figure 3).

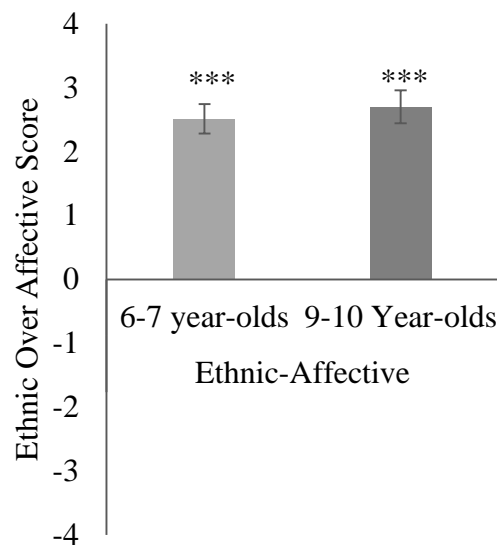


Figure 3. Ethnic over affective scores. $p^* < .5$, $p^{**} < .01$, $p^{***} < .001$

Model comparisons indicated that the model fit was not improved by Age ($\chi^2 = .3$, $df = 1$, $p = .58$), Diversity ($\chi^2 = .25$, $df = 1$, $p = .62$) or the interaction between Age and Diversity ($\chi^2 = .57$, $df = 1$, $p = .45$). Dropping the interaction from the model, the final model consisted of Age and Diversity. The summary of the final model indicated that there was no effect of Age (*Estimate* = -.20, *SE* = .33, $p = .53$) or Diversity (*Estimate* = .07, *SE* = .15, $p = .62$) (see Table F3 in the Appendix F for the model summary).

2.3.3.4 Civic vs. cultural dimension of national identity

I conducted separate single-sample t-tests for age groups to evaluate if children's decisions differed from the chance level. The results indicated that younger children prioritized civic dimension over cultural dimension, $t(42) = 4, p < .001, d = .61$, however, older children did not differentiate these two dimensions, $t(39) = 1.73, p = .09, d = .27$ (see Figure 4).

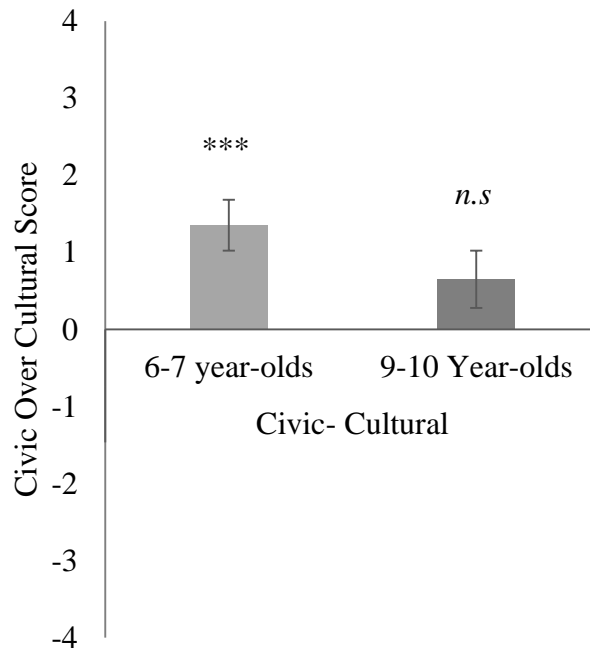


Figure 4. Civic over cultural scores. $p^* < .5, p^{**} < .01, p^{***} < .001$

GLMM analysis indicated that the model fit was not improved by Age ($\chi^2 = 1.37, df = 1, p = .24$), Diversity ($\chi^2 = .94, df = 1, p = .33$) or the interaction between Age and Diversity ($\chi^2 = .08, df = 1, p = .76$). Thus, the final model included Age and Diversity. The summary of the final model indicated no effect of Age (*Estimate* = $-.42, SE = .132, p = .19$) or Diversity (*Estimate* = $-.13, SE = .14, p = .33$) (see Table F4 in the Appendix F for the model summary).

2.3.3.5 Civic vs. affective dimensions of national identity

Two single sample t-tests indicated that both age groups prioritized civic dimensions over affective dimensions (younger: $t(42) = 5.34, p < .001, d = 1.86$; older: $t(39) = 4.42, p < .001, d = .7$) (see Figure 5).

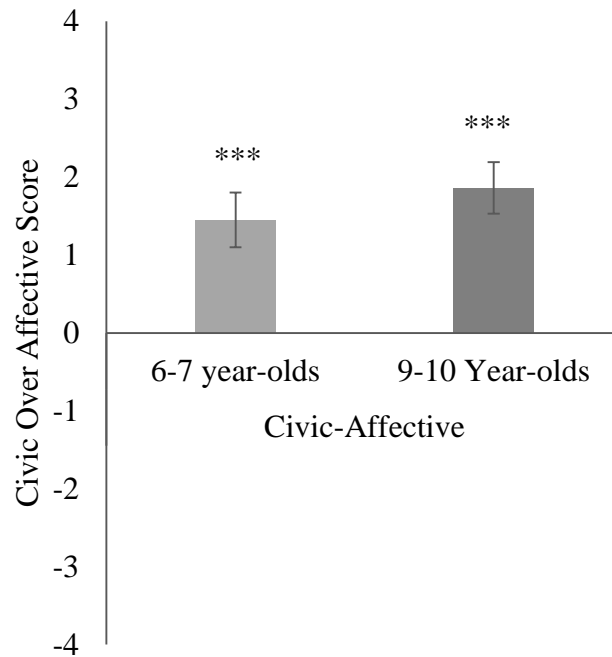


Figure 5. Civic over affective scores. $p^* < .5, p^{**} < .01, p^{***} < .001$

Model comparisons indicated that the model was not contributed by Age ($\chi^2 = .86, df = 1, p = .35$), Diversity ($\chi^2 = .21, df = 1, p = .65$) or the interaction between Age and Diversity ($\chi^2 = .37, df = 1, p = .54$). Thus, the final model consisted of Age, Diversity and the random effect. The summary of the final model indicated no effect of Age (*Estimate* = .21, *SE* = .35, *p* = .55) or Diversity (*Estimate* = .07, *SE* = .46, *p* = .65) (see Table 5 in the Appendix F for the model summary).

2.3.3.6 Cultural vs. affective dimensions of national identity

Single sample t-tests indicated that none of the age groups differentiated cultural and affective dimensions of national identity (younger: $t(42) = 1.5, p = .14, d = .29$; older: $t(39) = 0, p = 1, d = 0$) (see Figure 6).

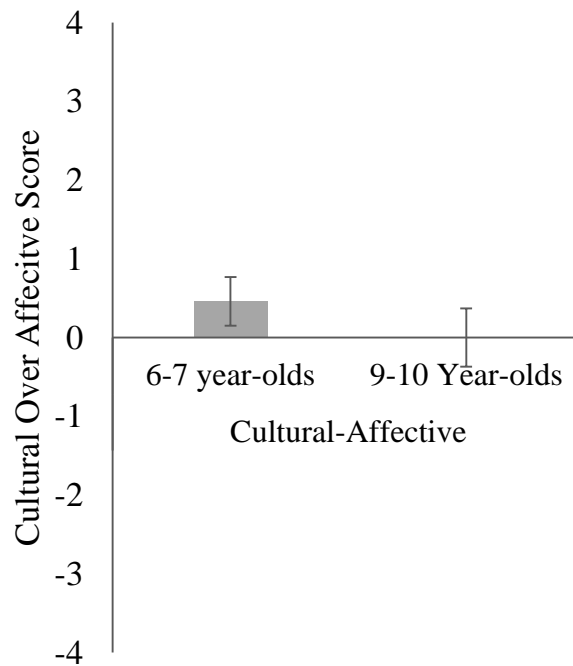


Figure 6. Cultural over affective scores. $p^* < .5, p^{**} < .01, p^{***} < .001$

Model comparisons indicated that the model fit was not improved by Age ($\chi^2 = .98, df = 1, p = .32$), Diversity ($\chi^2 = .239, df = 1, p = .12$) or their interaction ($\chi^2 = .09, df = 1, p = .76$). Thus, the final model consisted of Age, Diversity and the random effect. The summary of the final model indicated that there was no effect of Age (*Estimate* = .34, *SE* = .27, $p = .21$) or Diversity (*Estimate* = .18, *SE* = .12, $p = .12$) (see Table F6 in the Appendix F for the model summary).

Table 2. Trial-by-Trial Distribution of Participants' Choices

Contrast Type	Feature 1	Feature 2	Number of Participants Prioritizing Feature 1	Number of Participants Prioritizing Feature 2
Ethnic vs. Civic	Mother Tongue	Living in a Country	54	29
Ethnic vs. Civic	Mother Tongue	Following Rules of Country	57	26
Ethnic vs. Civic	Parents Coming from a Nation	Living in a Country	62	21
Ethnic vs. Civic	Parents Coming from a Nation	Following Rules of a Country	63	20
Ethnic vs. Cultural	Parents Coming from a Nation	Believing in a Religion	59	24
Ethnic vs. Cultural	Parents Coming from a Nation	Cooking Food of a Nation	71	12
Ethnic vs. Cultural	Mother Tongue	Believing in a Religion	61	22
Ethnic vs. Cultural	Mother Tongue	Cooking Food of a Nation	70	13
Ethnic vs. Affective	Mother Tongue	Loving a Country	71	12
Ethnic vs. Affective	Mother Tongue	Feeling of Belonging to Nation	59	24
Ethnic vs. Affective	Parents Coming from a Nation	Loving a Country	76	7
Ethnic vs. Affective	Parents Coming from a Nation	Feeling of Belonging to a Nation	68	15
Civic vs. Cultural	Living in a Country	Believing in a Religion	49	34
Civic vs. Cultural	Living in a Country	Cooking Food of a Nation	61	22
Civic vs. Cultural	Following Rules of a Country	Believing in a Religion	46	37
Civic vs. Cultural	Following Rules of a Country	Cooking Food of a Nation	65	18
Civic vs. Affective	Following Rules of a Country	Loving a Country	63	20
Civic vs. Affective	Following Rules of a Country	Feeling of Belonging to a Nation	53	30
Civic vs. Affective	Living in a Country	Loving a Country	62	21
Civic vs. Affective	Living in a Country	Feeling of Belonging to a Nation	57	26
Cultural vs. Affective	Believing in a Religion	Feeling of Belonging to a Nation	43	40
Cultural vs. Affective	Believing in a Religion	Loving a Country	54	29
Cultural vs. Affective	Cooking Food of a Nation	Feeling of Belonging to a Nation	37	46
Cultural vs. Affective	Cooking Food of a Nation	Loving a Country	42	41

2.3.4 Assimilation expectations of children

In term of assimilation expectations, I did not have any directional hypotheses but had two exploratory questions. I aimed to investigate if diversity had any effect on children's expectations. Furthermore, I aimed to investigate if children's preference between ethnic and civic cues would predict their assimilation expectations. To investigate these exploratory questions, I used GLMM analyses, including diversity and the ethnic-civic score as predictors in addition to age.

In order to investigate the assimilation expectation of children, I evaluated children's assimilation score varying from 0 to 6 as described in the scoring session. For this, I conducted single-sample t-tests to evaluate if the mean were different from three, which is the chance level on a scale ranging from 0 to 6. The results indicated that the overall assimilation score was at the chance level for both the younger children ($M = 3.35$, $SD = 1.81$; $t(42) = 1.26$, $p = .21$, $d = .16$) and the older children ($M = 2.83$, $SD = 1.32$; $t(39) = -.84$, $p = .41$, $d = .11$).

I conducted a GLMM analysis to evaluate if different predictors could explain the assimilation decision of children throughout the six trials. The output variable was children's binomial choice for features (Assimilation or Stability) in each trial. In the GLMM analysis, I used the forward selection method and evaluated the effect of each variable consecutively as identical to the analysis method used in the previous analyses above. I started with the evaluation of Age and the Ethnic-Civic Score that is calculated by scoring children's decisions on trials comparing the ethnic and civic cues, and Diversity. I evaluated Age, the Ethnic-Civic Score, and Diversity in respective order by model comparisons through Chi-Square tests. After evaluating the main effects, I evaluated if their interactions contributed to the model consecutively and I kept the interaction in the model only if they improved the model

fit. Thus, the final model consisted of the main effects and the interactions that significantly contributed to the model.

Model comparisons indicated that the model fit was not improved by Age ($\chi^2 = 2.38, df = 1, p = .12$), the Ethnic-Civic Score ($\chi^2 = .63, df = 1, p = .43$) or Diversity ($\chi^2 = 2.79, df = 1, p = .09$). Next, I evaluated if the interactions contributed to the model fit. The consecutive model comparisons indicated that the model fit was not improved by the interaction between Age and the Ethnic-Civic Score ($\chi^2 = 1.38, df = 1, p = .23$), the interaction between Age and Diversity ($\chi^2 = 0.31, df = 1, p = .58$), and the interaction between the Ethnic-Civic Score and Diversity ($\chi^2 = .001, df = 1, p = .99$). However, the model fit was improved by the three-way interaction between Age, the Ethnic-Civic Score and Diversity ($\chi^2 = 6.25, df = 2, p < .05$). Thus, the final model consisted of the random effect, Age, the Ethnic-Civic Score, Diversity, the three-way interaction between Age, the Ethnic-Civic Score, and Diversity. The summary of the final model indicated that there was an effect of Diversity on the assimilation decision of children. Assimilation expectations of children increased with Diversity (*Estimate* = -.27, *SE* = .12, *p* = .03). Furthermore, the results indicated that there was a significant interaction between Age, the Ethnic-Civic score, and Diversity (*Estimate* = .14, *SE* = .06, *p* = .01). To further examine this three-way interaction, separate analyses for each age group were performed, indicating that the Ethnic-Civic score and Diversity interaction was marginally significant for the younger group (*Estimate* = -.14, *SE* = .08, *p* = .08) as well as the older group (*Estimate* = .15, *SE* = .08, *p* = .07) (see Figure 7), and they showed different patterns. Specifically, for the younger age group, children who prioritized ethnic cues over civic more than the mean tended to expect more assimilation as the diversity exposure increased. On the other hand, for the older group, the increase in

diversity predicted more assimilation for children who prioritized ethnic cues over civic less than the mean. That means, the strength of children’s preference for ethnic cues over civic interacted with diversity increase differently for the two age groups. There was no effect of Age ($Estimate = -.39, SE = .27, p = .15$) or the Ethnic-Civic Score ($Estimate = .05, SE = .06, p = .4$) on the assimilation expectation of children (see Table F7 in the Appendix F for the model summary).

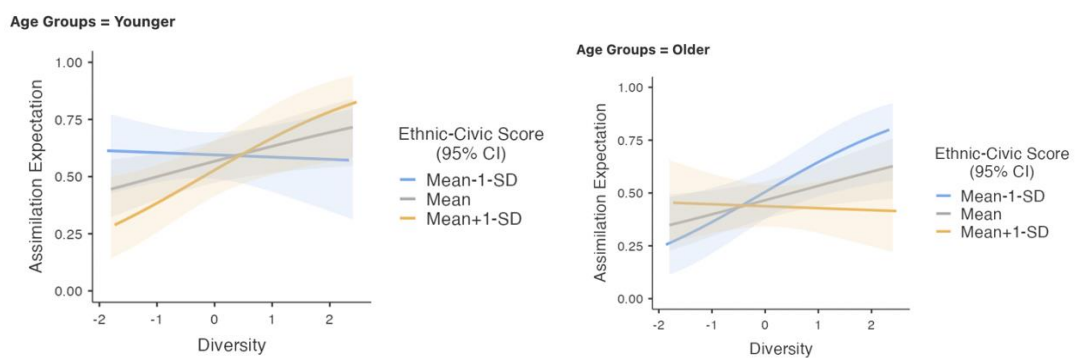


Figure 7. Interaction between the ethnic-civic score and diversity separately for age groups

Note: For Assimilation Expectation, “0” means expecting stability, and “1” means expecting assimilation. The graphs were created via Jamovi statistical tool.

After overall analysis, I investigated features implying different dimensions of national identity separately. Among these six assimilation trials, the ethnic cue was the language spoken at home, the cultural cues were religion and food cooked on special days, the civic cue was following the rules, and the affective cues were loving a country and feeling of belonging to a nation. For each of these dimensions, I first conducted a binomial test to evaluate if children’s assimilation decisions differ from chance level, as there were 1 or 2 trials giving binomial output for each dimension of national identity in the assimilation trials.

Following that, I conducted GLMM analyses for each dimension of national identity to evaluate if different factors explained the decision of children. In each GLMM analysis, I followed the same procedure as in the evaluation of overall assimilation described above. I evaluated the effects of age, ethnic-civic score, diversity, and the interaction between these variables. I kept the main effects in the model regardless of their contribution to the model while I kept the interactions in the model only if they had contributed to the model. Furthermore, I included the random intercept of participants as the random effect of all analyses.

2.3.4.1 Assimilation expectations for the ethnic cue

A binomial test indicated that children's assimilation decision for the ethnic cue (language spoken at home) was at chance level (Assimilation Expectation = 41%; 95% CI = .30 - .52, $p = .1$). Next, I conducted a GLMM analysis as described above. Consecutive model comparisons showed that the model fit was not improved by Age ($\chi^2 = 1.14$, $df = 1$, $p = .29$), Ethnic-Civic Score ($\chi^2 = .91$, $df = 1$, $p = .34$) or Diversity ($\chi^2 = .31$, $df = 1$, $p = .57$). Model comparisons looking at the interaction effects indicated that the model was not improved by the interaction between Age and the Ethnic-Civic Score ($\chi^2 = .41$, $df = 1$, $p = .52$) or the interaction between Age and Diversity ($\chi^2 = .14$, $df = 1$, $p = .70$). The interaction between Diversity and the Ethnic-Civic Score contributed to the model ($\chi^2 = 5.66$, $df = 1$, $p = .02$); therefore, I kept it in the model. The three-way interaction between Age, the Ethnic-Civic Score and Diversity did not improve the model fit ($\chi^2 = 2.65$, $df = 1$, $p = .1$) and was dropped from the model. Thus, the final model consisted of Age, the Ethnic-Civic Score, Diversity, the interaction between the Ethnic-Civic score and Diversity, and the random effect. The summary of the final model indicated that the interaction

between Diversity and the Ethnic-Civic Score had an effect on assimilation expectations for the ethnic cue ($Estimate = .28, SE = .14, p = .05$). For children whose ethnic-civic score was above the mean score, an increase in diversity predicted less assimilation expectation. On the other hand, for children whose ethnic-civic scores were below the mean, an increase in diversity predicted more assimilation (See Figure 8). Furthermore, there was a marginal effect of the Ethnic-Civic Score ($Estimate = .27, SE = .15, p = .07$). An increase in the Ethnic-Civic Score tended to predict more stability expectation for the ethnic cue. There were no other significant effects (see Table F8 in the Appendix F for the model summary).

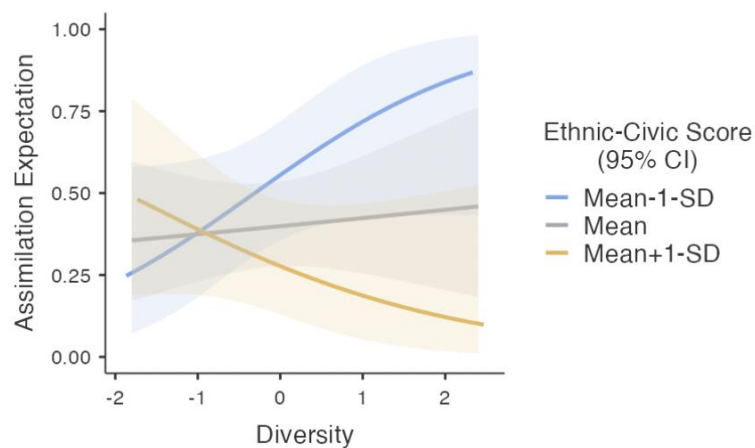


Figure 8. Interaction between the ethnic-civic score and diversity for assimilation expectations for the ethnic cue

Note: For Assimilation Expectation, “0” means expecting stability, and “1” means expecting assimilation. The graphs were created via Jamovi statistical tool.

2.3.4.2 Assimilation Expectations for the Civic Cue

I conducted a binomial test to evaluate if children’s assimilation expectations for the civic cue, following the rule of a country, differed from the chance level. The results indicated that children expected immigrants to change which country’s rules they should follow after immigration (Assimilation Expectation = 83%, 95% CI = .73 -

.90, $p < .001$). Furthermore, I conducted GLMM analysis to investigate the effect of predictors. Model comparisons indicated that the model fit was not improved by Age ($\chi^2 = .22$, $df = 1$, $p = .63$), the Ethnic-Civic Score ($\chi^2 = .11$, $df = 1$, $p = .74$) or Diversity ($\chi^2 = 0$, $df = 1$, $p = 1$). Further model comparisons indicated that the interaction between Age and the Ethnic-Civic Score did not contribute to the model ($\chi^2 = 2.46$, $df = 1$, $p = .12$). However, the interaction between Age and Diversity ($\chi^2 = 18.72$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$), and the interaction between the Ethnic-Civic Score and Diversity improved the model fit ($\chi^2 = 4.86$, $df = 1$, $p = .03$). Finally, the interaction between Age, Diversity and the Ethnic-Civic Score did not contribute to the model fit ($\chi^2 = 0.1$, $df = 1$, $p = .75$). Thus, the final model consisted of Age, the Ethnic-Civic score, Diversity, the interaction between Age and Diversity, the interaction between the Ethnic-Civic Score and Diversity, and the random effect. The summary of the final model indicated that there was an effect of the interaction between Age and Diversity on the assimilation expectation for the civic cue (*Estimate* = -23.34, *SE* = 9.62, $p = .02$). When diversity exposure was low, older children expected more assimilation than younger group did, however both age groups expected similarly high level of assimilation when diversity exposure was high (see Figure 9). Furthermore, the results indicated that there was an effect of the interaction between the Ethnic-civic score and Diversity (*Estimate* = -4.89, *SE* = 2.13, $p = .02$). For children whose ethnic-civic score was above the mean, an increase in diversity predicted more assimilation expectation. On the other hand, children whose ethnic-civic score was below the mean expected high level of assimilation regardless of diversity exposure (see Figure 10). Lastly, the model summary indicated a marginal effect of the Ethnic-Civic Score (*Estimate* = -4.07, *SE* = 2.32, $p = .08$). Children who prioritized ethnic cues over civic more tended to expect higher assimilation for the

civic cue. There was no effect of Age or Diversity (see Table F9 in the Appendix F for the model summary)

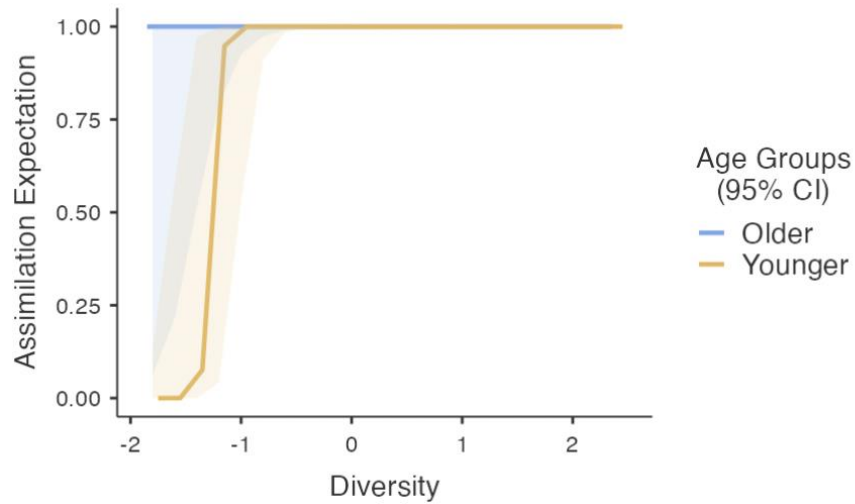


Figure 9. Interaction between age groups and diversity for assimilation expectations of civic Cue

Note: For Assimilation Expectation, “0” means expecting stability, and “1” means expecting assimilation. The graphs were created via Jamovi statistical tool.

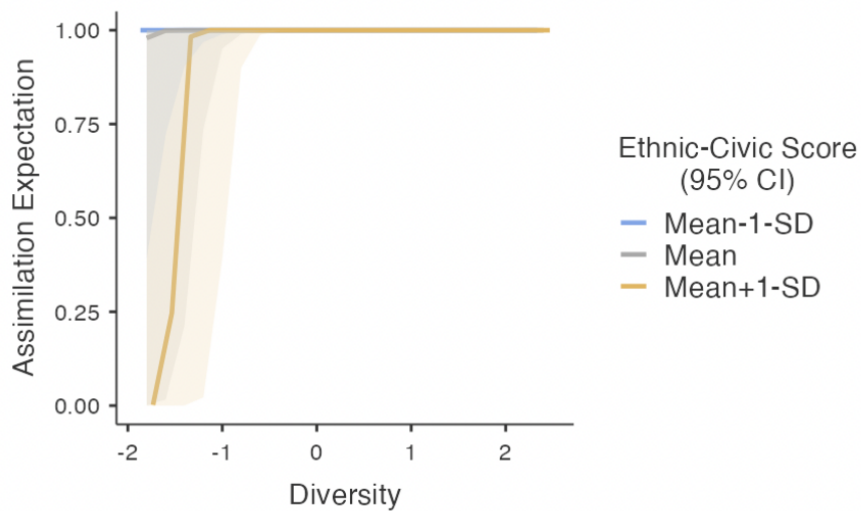


Figure 10. Interaction between the ethnic-civic score and diversity for assimilation expectation of civic cue

Note: For Assimilation Expectation, “0” means expecting stability, and “1” means expecting assimilation. The graphs were created via Jamovi statistical tool.

2.3.4.3 Assimilation expectations for affective cues

A binomial test indicated that children's decisions for assimilation of affective features (loving a country and feeling of belonging to a nation) were at chance level (Assimilation Expectation = 51%, 95% CI = .42 - .58, $p = 1$). Furthermore, to control if children's assimilation expectations were similar for both features, I conducted separate binomial tests for each feature. Results indicated that children's expectation for both features were at chance level (Loving the country: Assimilation Expectation = 51%, 95% CI = .39 - .61, $p = 1$; Feeling of belonging: Assimilation Expectation = 47%, 95% CI = .35 - .58, $p = .66$).

Next, I investigated if children's decisions were explained by the predictors by conducting GLMM analysis. Model comparisons showed that the model fit was not improved by Age ($\chi^2 = 08$, $df = 1$, $p = .77$), the Ethnic-Civic Score ($\chi^2 = .09$, $df = 1$, $p = .76$) or Diversity ($\chi^2 = .09$, $df = 1$, $p = .76$). Model comparisons showed that the model fit was improved by the interaction between Age and the Ethnic-Civic Score ($\chi^2 = 4.13$, $df = 1$, $p = .04$). However, it was not improved by the interaction between Age and Diversity ($\chi^2 < .001$, $df = 1$, $p = .94$), the interaction between the Ethnic-Civic Score and Diversity ($\chi^2 = .09$, $df = 1$, $p = .76$) nor the interaction between Age, the Ethnic-Civic Score and Diversity ($\chi^2 = 4.44$, $df = 1$, $p = .11$). Thus, the final model consisted of Age, the Ethnic-Civic Score, Diversity, the interaction between Age and the Ethnic-Civic Score, and the random effect. The model summary indicated that there was a marginal effect of the interaction between Age and the Ethnic-Civic Score on the decision of children ($Estimate = .48$, $SE = .25$, $p = .053$). Assimilation expectations of younger children, in contrast to older children, decreased as their ethnic-civic score increased. Evaluating age groups separately, the results indicated that the interaction was coming from contrasting patterns of the

effect of ethnic-civic score on assimilation expectation for age groups. For younger group, an increase in ethnic-civic score predicted a decreasing pattern for assimilation expectation ($Estimate = .28, SE = .17, p = .09$) while predicting an increasing pattern for older group ($Estimate = -.24, SE = .21, p = .24$) There was no other significant effect on the model summary (see Table F10 in the Appendix F for the model summary).

2.3.4.4 Assimilation expectations for cultural features

A binomial test indicated that children expected cultural features to be stable above chance level (Assimilation Expectation = 42%, 95% CI = .33 - .49, $p < .05$).

Afterward, I conducted separate binomial tests for each feature. The results indicated that children expected Religion to be stable above the chance level (Assimilation Expectation = 37%, 95% CI = .26 - .48, $p = .03$), however, their assimilation expectation for the Food was at chance level (Assimilation Expectation = 46%, 95% CI = .35 - .57, $p = .58$). Given that chance level analysis indicated different expectation for features, I checked their effect in the GLMM analysis that aims to investigate if the predictors could explain the decision of children.

GLMM analysis indicated that model fit was improved by Age ($\chi^2 = 11.87, df = 1, p < .001$) and Diversity ($\chi^2 = 8.34, df = 1, p < .01$) but not by the Ethnic-Civic Score ($\chi^2 = 2.65, df = 1, p = .1$). Furthermore, the model was not contributed by any interaction (Age and the Ethnic-Civic Score: $\chi^2 = .06, df = 1, p = .8$; Age and Diversity: $\chi^2 = .86, df = 1, p = .35$; the Ethnic-Civic Score and Diversity: $\chi^2 = .07, df = 1, p = .79$; Age, the Ethnic-Civic Score and Diversity: $\chi^2 = 4.79, df = 1, p = .15$). Thus, the final model consisted of Age, the Ethnic-Civic Score, Diversity and the random effect. To evaluate if type of feature has an effect on explaining

overall expectation of children for cultural features, I inserted Feature Type (2 levels: Religion and Food) into analysis. I compared the final model with the extended model additionally including Feature Type. The result indicated that Feature Type did not improve the model fit ($\chi^2 = 1.26$, $df = 1$, $p = .26$). Thus, I did not keep Feature Type in the model. The summary of the final model indicated that there was a main effect of Age. Younger children, compared to the older group, expected more assimilation for cultural features ($Estimate = -1.40$, $SE = .46$, $p < .01$). Furthermore, there was a main effect of Diversity. Assimilation expectation of children increased with Diversity ($Estimate = -.51$, $SE = .19$, $p < .01$). There was no effect of the Ethnic-Civic Score ($Estimate = .11$, $SE = .09$, $p = .25$) (see Table F11 in the Appendix F for the model summary).

2.3.4.5 Assimilation expectations for national identity

A binomial test indicated that children expected national identity to be stable after immigration (95% CI = .56 - .77, $p < .01$). Next, I conducted GLMM analysis to evaluate if children's decisions about national identity were influenced by the predictors. The consecutive model comparisons indicated that the model fit was not improved by Age ($\chi^2 = .89$, $df = 1$, $p = .34$), or Diversity ($\chi^2 = .03$, $df = 1$, $p = .86$). However, it was improved by the Ethnic-Civic Score ($\chi^2 = 5.51$, $df = 1$, $p = .02$). The interactions between Age and the Ethnic-Civic Score ($\chi^2 < .001$, $df = 1$, $p = .93$), Age and Diversity ($\chi^2 = 3.37$, $df = 1$, $p = .07$), the Ethnic-Civic Score and Diversity ($\chi^2 = .03$, $df = 1$, $p = .87$) were all non-significant. Finally, the three-way interaction between Age, the Ethnic-Civic Score and Diversity did not contribute to the model ($\chi^2 = 3.06$, $df = 1$, $p = .22$). Thus, the final model consisted of Age, the Ethnic-civic score, Diversity, and the random effect. The summary of the final model indicated

that the Ethnic-Civic Score had a main effect on the assimilation decision of children about national identity ($Estimate = .34, SE = .13, p = .01$). Children expected national identity to be more stable as their ethnic-civic scores increased. Lastly, there was no main effect of Age ($Estimate = .26, SE = .58, p = .66$) or Diversity ($Estimate = -.04, SE = .24, p = .86$) (see Table F12 in the Appendix F for the model summary)

2.3.5 The investigation of parents' dimensional understanding of national identity

As the fourth hypothesis of the current study, I expected national identity understanding of parents to predict the understanding of their children. Therefore, I started with the evaluation of the dimensions indicated for the parents' national identity definitions. For this evaluation, I conducted Principal Component Analyses and Exploratory Factor Analysis.

First, I started by conducting Principal Component Analysis (PCA) to investigate how the items accumulate together and form components. In PCA, I used the oblimin rotation technique and took Eigenvalues over 1 and loadings over .4 as the thresholds to decide the number of components. Based on Eigenvalues, the results indicated four different dimensions explaining 72.3% of the variance in the data in total. However, there were two items cross-loading for two different components (being able to speak Turkish and accepting Anatolia as homeland). Therefore, I excluded these items and conducted a new PCA based on the same criteria. The results indicated three components explaining 67% of the total variance in the data. (See figure 11 for the eigenvalues)

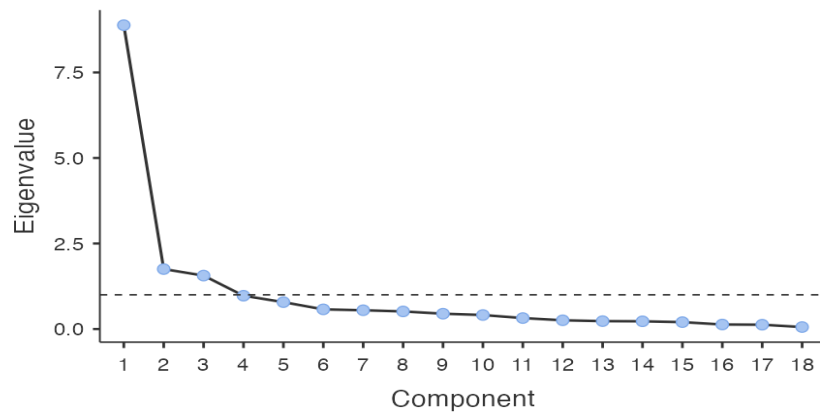


Figure 11. Eigenvalues of components emerged in principle component analysis
 Note: The line indicates Eigenvalue = 1.

After deciding the number of components in the CPA, I conducted an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), which evaluates the communalities between the factors. I set the number of the factors to 3 based on PCA, and I used Oblimin Rotation and Principal Axis Extraction. The EFA indicated that 12 items were loaded on the first factor, which explained 38.4% of the variance in the data. Furthermore, three items were loaded on the second factor, which explained 12.1% of the variance, while the last three items were loaded on the third factor, which explained 10.9% variance in the data (see Table 3 for distribution of items to factors).

Based on the item distribution, the second factor consisted of the affective features while the third factor consisted of civic items. However, the first factor included both ethnic and civic items, such as coming from Turkish race, and owning Turkish ID card. Therefore, I decided that the factor distribution did not indicate a clear distinction for the understanding of parents. I did not analyze further.

Table 3. Factors Loadings of Items in the Markers of Turkish Identity Scale

Items	Factor			Uniqueness
	1	2	3	
Having a Turkish name	0.896			0.237
Not being a citizen of another country	0.825			0.384
Being Muslim	0.814			0.364
Being not influenced by cultures other than Turkish culture	0.809			0.384
Being born in Turkey	0.780			0.426
Coming from Turkish race	0.762			0.323
Having spent most of one's life in Turkey	0.696			0.439
Having a Turkish Republic Identity Card	0.674			0.388
Being Turkish citizen	0.656			0.338
Being a child of a Turkish mother or father	0.651			0.350
Having a mother tongue that is Turkish	0.645			0.368
Speaking Turkish In daily life	0.520			0.432
Regardless of ethnic background, feeling primarily as a Turk		0.793		0.334
Feeling Turkish		0.716		0.418
Feeling belonged to the homeland of Turkey		0.539		0.377
Adhering to citizenship obligations such as voting and paying taxes			0.823	0.329
Owning and respecting Turkish laws and institutions			0.746	0.379
Believing in democracy in Turkey			0.472	0.679

CHAPTER 3

DISCUSSION

The current study examined children's perceptions of different dimensions of national identity, which dimension they prioritize and whether this prioritization plays a role in their expectations regarding immigrants' assimilation. The results indicated that children associated several features with national identity, and they prioritized certain features over others in consistent ways. Specifically, children prioritized the cues related to the ethnic dimension the most, and features related to the civic dimension were prioritized more than cultural and affective features. There was no effect of age on how children prioritized different dimensions over each other, with the exception of ethnic and civic dimensions. For this contrast, older children prioritized the ethnic dimension over civic more than younger children did.

In terms of the assimilation of immigrants, children did not have strong expectations about the stability of ethnic cues, but they expected the civic features to change after migration. For cultural features, children expected religion to be stable but food to change after migration. Overall, children expected national identity not to change after immigration.

Children's preferences between ethnic and civic features influenced children's assimilation expectations depending on their diversity exposure. Children who prioritized ethnic cues over civic cues more than average expected more stability for the ethnic cue as diversity increased. On the other hand, the effect of diversity was the contrary for children who prioritized ethnic cues over civic less than the mean of the group; they expected more assimilation as diversity increased.

3.1 Children's understanding of national identity

The findings indicated that children associate different features with national identity. Across trials, children prioritized some features over others, when asked to identify someone's nationality. For example, they prioritized the mother tongue of the character and the national identity of the character's parents over all other features. Similarly, which country the character lived in was a stronger cue than the food cooked on special days or which country the character loved, to define their national identity. These findings are in line with previous research indicating that children associate national identity with different cues such as ethnicity (Brown, 2011), religion (Ellwood-Lowe et al., 2020; Santhanagopalan et al., 2021), and feelings for a nation (Brown, 2011). While past research shows that when presented with contradicting features (e.g., DeJesus et al., 2018), children make consistent choices between these features to attribute characters' national identity, the current study evaluated a broader range of features that are related to national identity. Thus, its results provide a more comprehensive understanding of the concept of national identity in childhood.

Beyond associating different features with national identity, the current findings indicated that children possess a dimensional understanding of national identity, in line with previous research (e.g., Ellwood-Lowe et al., 2020; Feeney et al., 2020; Violente et al., 2020). The features related to the ethnic dimension of national identity were prioritized more than those implying other dimensions. Furthermore, the civic dimension of national identity was the second most prioritized. A previous study by Feeney et al. (2020) used a similar method and manipulated characters' accents and birthplaces to investigate the dimensional understanding of children. Based on children's choices among three options (Polish,

Irish, or both), they concluded that children hold both ethnic and civic views of national identity. The current study directly compared these two dimensions, showing that the ethnic dimension of national identity was more prioritized than the civic dimension. Nevertheless, these findings could be specific to children growing up in Turkey, where adults also show an ethnic perception of national identity (Cingöz-Ulu, 2008), and using similarly comprehensive methodology in different cultural contexts would advance our knowledge about developmental course of children's conceptions of national identity.

The current findings have similarities and differences with previous research conducted with adults in Turkey (e.g., Cingöz-Ulu, 2008). The current study found that children prioritized the ethnic dimension of national identity the most. Furthermore, their preference for ethnic cues over civic ones got stronger with age. These findings support previous research indicating that Turkish national identity was primarily defined by ethnic features (Cingöz-Ulu, 2008; Yeğen, 2007). We also observed an increase in this tendency with age, which might support the idea that acquiring the understanding of national identity might be a social learning process (e.g., Barrett, 2007; Barrett & Oppenheimer, 2011). Children might be learning which features are more related to their national identity through social interactions; they might observe how their parents and adults in society define their identity. Furthermore, the education system in Turkey might also promote children's ethnic understanding of national identity. Sen (2020) explains that the education system has been used to shape the understanding of national identity throughout the republic's history, and the current education curriculum emphasizes elements such as ancestry to define national identity. Thus, the understanding of children might become more similar to the understanding of adults with age. However, it should be noted that the

current study failed to indicate a direct connection between children's and their parents' dimensions of national identity. It aimed to evaluate the national identity understanding of parents and investigate if their understanding predicts their children's decisions. However, the result did not reveal a clear distinction between dimensions of national identity for parents. For example, being a child of a Turkish mother and father (ethnic feature) and being a Turkish citizen (civic features) were loaded on the same dimension. Therefore, further studies are necessary to investigate if there is a direct connection between children's and their parents' understanding of national identity.

A crucial finding of the current study is that children differentiated the ethnic and cultural dimensions of national identity. Children reliably prioritized ethnic features over cultural features. This finding supported the idea that the ethnic and cultural features might differ and create separate dimensions (e.g., Reijerse et al., 2013). Previous studies in Turkey presented a mixed set of findings about which dimensions emerged in adults' understanding of national identity. Cingöz-Ulu (2008) showed that ethnic and cultural features vary together and form a common ethnocultural dimension of national identity. On the other hand, Taşdemir and Öner-Özkan (2016) indicated that ethnic features separately created a dimension named national essentialism, while civic and cultural features were mostly loaded on the same dimension named national participation. They argued that national participation suggests a definition for national identity by sharing the same social values (owning citizenship, behaving in a socially appropriate way) and cultural values (adopting Turkish culture), which are possible to acquire. Our findings might partially support this argument. In the current study, younger children, but not older ones, differentiated civic and cultural features. This might suggest that with age, children

become more likely to attribute similar importance to civic and cultural features. However, it should be noted that the current study did not use a methodology that allows conducting a factor analysis which would allow us to directly investigate the factors emerging from children's answers (e.g., Likert scales to rate different features). Therefore, the finding that older children did not differentiate cultural and civic features might not necessarily mean these features would load on the same factor. Furthermore, most of the features used in the current study, but not all, were taken from the study of Cingöz-Ulu (2008), which had differences from the items in the study of Taşdemir and Öner-Özkan (2016). This also prevents direct inferences. Further studies are required to clarify which distribution of dimensions better fits children's understanding.

3.2 Children's assimilation expectations

The results of the current study shows that children's assimilation expectations might not be uniform and can change depending on the features related to national identity. Children expected the civic feature (which country's rules to be followed) of immigrants to change after moving. On the other hand, they expected one of the cultural features (religion) to be stable, while their expectation for the other (food cooked on special days) was at the chance level. Furthermore, they did not have clear expectations for the ethnic (the language spoken at home) and affective features (feeling of belonging to a nation and the country to be loved). These results suggest that children did not expect immigrants to change their whole identity but differentiate the features in a more nuanced way. Previous developmental research proposed a uniform expectation from the immigrants (e.g., Dunlea et al., 2022; Verkuyten et al., 2014). These studies imply that children think that immigrants are

able and want to change (Dunlea et al., 2022), and they value assimilation more than integration (Verkuyten et al., 2014). However, the current findings show that children expect some features to change but some to be preserved after immigration, suggesting an integration approach, namely keeping own values while also adapting to the new society (Berry, 1997). While children expected immigrants to keep their religion but change which country's rules they follow, these results do not directly speak to whether children prioritize integration over assimilation. Future studies could provide children with a third option to keep the values of the previous country while also acquiring the values of the immigrated country.

In the current study, the strength of children's preferences for ethnic cues over civic ones had an impact on assimilation expectations for different cues, depending on the level of diversity exposure. When diversity exposure was high, children who prioritized ethnic over civic cues more than average, expected the ethnic cue (the language spoken at home) not to change after moving to a new country. A similar effect of ethnic over civic preference was evident for also civic cue when diversity exposure was below the average. When diversity was low, children who prioritized the ethnic cue more than civic ones expected the civic feature to be stable. Moreover, children who prioritized ethnic cues over civic ones attributed more stability to national identity. These findings support the idea that ethnic dimension might predict essentialist attributions to national identity (e.g., Pehrson et al., 2009) and contradict the idea that children who prioritized ethnic cues could want immigrants to be assimilated (e.g., Leong et al., 2020). In the current study, children defining national identity in ethnic terms might have thought that national identity cannot be changed; thus, the features related to national identity cannot be assimilated. On the other hand, children who also relate civic features with

national identity might have thought that features related to national identity can be acquired. However, it should be noted that the influence of the preference of ethnic cues over civic ones in several cases was coming from interactions, mostly with diversity.

The current study revealed that diversity was a predictor explaining the assimilation expectations of children for several features. In most of the analyses, an increase in diversity exposure predicted higher assimilation expectations for immigrants. First, the overall assimilation expectation of children increased along with their exposure to diversity. Evaluating different dimensions separately, children expected the cultural features to be assimilated as their diversity exposure increased. Younger children, in contrast to older ones, expected the civic feature (which country's rules to be followed) to be assimilated more as diversity increased. Similarly, for the civic feature, an increase in diversity predicted more assimilation for children who prioritized ethnic cues over civic ones above average. For the ethnic feature (the language spoken at home), children's assimilation expectations remained at chance level. A past study conducted in Turkey, revealed that children's expectations about the stability of language, tend to decrease from 6 to 10 years (Soley & Davoodi, 2021). The authors argued that this might be related to their learning a second language in school and realizing that one can speak different languages. A similar reason might underlie children's choices in the current study. Moreover, for the ethnic feature, an increase in diversity predicted more assimilation expectations for the children whose ethnic over civic scores were below average. One of the reasons why diversity mostly predicted higher assimilation expectations from immigrants could be the effect of change in the sociocultural structure of Turkish society. According to the Directorate General of Migration Management

(n.d.), the number of refugees keeps increasing in Turkey in the last decades, and the majority of these refugees consist of Syrians (e.g., Hashemi & Ünlü, 2021). Furthermore, previous research indicated that Turkish people perceive Syrians as threats and have negative attitudes toward them (e.g., Erdoğan, 2020). In line with that, the tolerance for Syrian refugees might decrease over time, and people might oppose their culture more. In fact, previous research indicated that children expected higher assimilation for the immigrants that were not liked (e.g., Verkuyten et al., 2014). Given that the most encountered immigrants in Turkey are Syrians, children's perception of immigration might be influenced by Syrian refugees. Thus, children who are exposed to diversity might think that people should adapt to the new society and leave the values of the previous country. Nevertheless, these are speculations given that we did not collect information regarding the identities of different social groups children are exposed to. Further, it should be noted that the groups and countries in the current study were artificial and did not investigate children's assimilation expectations for real groups. Thus, further studies should investigate how using real social groups and the identities of social groups influences the assimilation expectation. Additionally, it should be noted that an increase in diversity was not always predicting higher assimilation expectations. To exemplify, for the children whose ethnic over civic scores were above average, an increase in diversity predicted more stability for the language spoken at home. Therefore, the influence of diversity might be shaped through interactions with other social constructs. Further research should focus on the effect of diversity on the developmental process understanding of national identity.

The results also revealed an interaction between age and diversity for the assimilation expectation of the civic feature (which country's rules to be followed).

An increase in diversity predicted higher assimilation expectation for younger children, while older children expected a high level of assimilation regardless of the diversity exposure. It is possible that media exposure might have a mediator effect in this interaction. In Turkish media, the number of negative news about immigrants reporting their crimes increased 35.1 times in the last ten years (Uslu & Kargin, 2022). Older children might be exposed to the negative news more (and for a longer time) through media than the younger group are; therefore, they might expect immigrants to follow the rules of the country they immigrated to regardless of the direct diversity exposure. On the other hand, a similar level of expectation might be reached through diversity exposure for younger children. However, the current study did not have any measure of media exposure. Further studies are required to make more direct inferences.

3.3 Implications for social essentialism

The current study also contributes to social essentialism research. Children presented with an immigration scene were asked if the national identities of immigrants should change after immigration, and children expected national identity to be stable after immigration. This finding aligns with previous research indicating that children essentialized national identity (e.g., Davoodi et al., 2020; Hussak & Cimpian, 2019). Furthermore, in the current study, essentialist attributions of children to national identity were stable through development; both age groups perceived national identity to be stable, in line with previous research conducted in Turkey. Davoodi et al. (2020) indicated that national identity was perceived as a biologically based and stable aspect, and children aged 5 to 10 indicated a similar level of essentialist attributions to national identity.

Stability attributions of children to national identity were predicted by children's preference for ethnic cues over civic ones. That means that children who prioritized ethnic cues over civic ones attributed more stability to national identity. This result contradicts the findings of a developmental study conducted by Feeney et al. (2020). They evaluated the essentialism scores of children by a questionnaire including questions such as if people can change their national identity and have two national identities. They investigated if there was a relationship between the essentialism scores and children's ethnic or civic understanding of national identity. They found that children's essentialist attribution to the national identity was not related to their ethnic (or civic) intuitions about national identity. On the contrary, the current study showed how national identity was conceptualized (prioritizing ethnic or civic cues) predicted children's stability expectations. This finding is parallel with adult literature indicating a relationship between the ethnic definition of national identity and essentialism (e.g., Pehrson et al., 2009). To my knowledge, this is the first developmental study indicating the relation between children's conceptualization of national identity and essentialist attributions to it. However, it should be noted that attributing stability to national identity is a sign of social essentialism, but essentialism is a broader concept having other components such as biological roots (Gelman et al., 2007). Therefore, future research is necessary to make a more comprehensive investigation of the relationship between the dimensions of national identity and essentialism.

3.4 Limitations and future directions

The current study has a few limitations. First, it evaluated the understanding of national identity and assimilation expectations of children by using made up nations

and countries. One reason behind this decision was to make a more objective investigation of the concept of national identity, given that presenting real groups could influence children's judgments depending on their knowledge and feeling for particular groups. Considering the political climate toward other nations in Turkey, some children could negatively perceive other nations. However, these risks could also propose benefits and allowed the current investigation to propose more generalizable real-life inferences.

Previous research indicated that national identity also has an emotional component (e.g., Cingöz-Ulu, 2008), and children might express national pride starting early in childhood (e.g., Barrett & Oppenheimer, 2011). Therefore, using real groups could be better for understanding the real-life perceptions of children. For example, instead of Aka and Mim, Turkish and German nationalities could be introduced, and features can be related to these groups (e.g., a child living in Germany and having Turkish mother tongue). Furthermore, previous research showed that children could have different expectations depending on the immigrant groups they were presented with (Verkuyten et al., 2014). Therefore, asking about real social groups could reveal how Turkish children perceive different immigrants in Turkey. Future research can present different real groups, such as Syrians and Germans, and ask if their features related to national identity should change after immigration. This question has a particular significance because of the increase in the number of immigrants coming from different national groups in Turkey, such as Syrians and Afghans (Erdoğan, 2020; Hashemi & Ünlü, 2020).

Second, the current study could not reveal the national identity understanding of participants' parents. Being able to investigate both the understanding of children and their parents could shed light on the developmental process. In the current study,

we were able to investigate the understanding of children and compare these findings with previous research conducted by Turkish adults. However, the understanding of national identity could change over time (Larsen, 2017), and individuals can prioritize different dimensions of national identity. Therefore, making inferences based on the previous research has limitations. The reason why the current study failed to reveal the understanding of parents can be the sample size. The studies investigating the dimensional understanding of adults with questionnaire use data coming from a few hundred (e.g., Cingöz-Ulu, 2008; Taşdemir & Öner-Özkan, 2016) or even thousand participants (e.g., Reijerse et al., 2013). Therefore, using a larger sample size can allow future research to investigate the relationship between children's and their parents' understanding of national identity.

In the current study, an item used as an ethnic cue was having parents coming from a certain nation. It is possible that this feature might be confusing because coming from a nation might be perceived as a feature related to citizenship. However, this case is more valid in societies where national identity and ethnicity are clearly separated such as the U.S. In the U.S., coming from the American nation would be perceived as a sign of national identity because it does not associate with ethnicity. However, in Turkey, the notion of “being Turkish” might be both implying coming from Turkish ethnicity as well as Turkish nation. Furthermore, previous research indicated that this item is perceived as an ethnic feature in Turkey (e.g., Cingöz-Ulu, 2008). Therefore, it is unlikely that this item caused confusion for children in the current study. Nevertheless, future research might evaluate a broader range of items and include additional features to eliminate the risk.

The present research was conducted with majority Turkish children. In future research, the same method can be applied to minority children in Turkey and

compare their perception of national identity with the majority group. Previous research suggests that minority groups might identify themselves with their minority features, and their identification might differ from the majority (e.g., Verkuyten & Yıldız, 2007). Considering the concept of national identity, how minority individuals identify themselves might predict which dimension would be prioritized. For example, ethnic minorities (e.g., Kurdish people in Turkey) defining their national identity as Turkish might prioritize the civic dimension over the ethnic dimension. Furthermore, it would be informative to examine different minority groups. For example, there might be differences between the national identity understanding of minorities whose homeland is Turkey, such as Kurdish people, and minorities who immigrated to Turkey, such as Syrians. For this comparison, the item set used in the study should be expanded by including features differentiating different minority groups better. For example, where someone is born can be an essential feature differentiating Kurds who are born in Turkey and Arabian children who immigrated to Turkey. In this case, Kurdish children who define their national identity as Turkish might think place of birth is a defining feature, while Arabian children moving to Turkey might think otherwise. Investigating the national identity understanding of different groups living in the same territories (Turkish, Kurdish and immigrant Arabians) might allow us to understand the interaction between different social constructs defining national identity.

In the current study, the participants were 6-7 and 9-10-years old. The youngest age was six years old because the previous research indicated that children start to show a consistent understanding of national identity around this age (e.g., Barrett & Oppenheimer, 2011). However, it is also possible that children might show an understanding of the national identity at earlier ages depending on the society.

(e.g., Barrett, 2007). Given that the emphasis on national identity has been increasing throughout the last 2 decades in Turkey (e.g., Sen, 2020), children might show an understanding at an earlier age. Furthermore, in the current study, there was a developmental change in children's understanding of national identity; they prioritized ethnic cues over civic more as they grew up. Studying with children older than ten years old could present additional developmental changes. For example, children older than ten years old could prioritize ethnic cues over others more than 6-7- and 9–10-year-olds. Therefore, future research might investigate a broader age range to investigate children's understanding of national identity.

3.5 Conclusion

The aim of the current study was to investigate children's dimensional understanding of national identity and its relationship with their assimilation expectations. The findings showed that children possess a dimensional understanding; they prioritized ethnic cues over all others and civic cues more than cultural and affective cues. Furthermore, children expected some features defining national identity to change while they expected other features to be preserved after immigration. These results might have implications for immigration studies. Considering that the concept of national identity gets more influential in societies and the number of immigrants is increasing all around the world, understanding the relationship between conceptualizations of national identity and attitudes towards immigrants can be informative to develop political regulations and educational programs. Particularly given the importance of the intervention programs targeting children's intergroup attitudes (e.g., Beelmann & Heinmann, 2014; Berger et al, 2016; Gönültaş & Mulvey, 2019), more research should focus on the developmental course of understanding

national identity. Studies examining factors influencing the assimilation expectations of children and how these factors interact with different variables such as the identity of the immigrant groups, would help us better understand these processes and develop more effective programs for more inclusive societies.

APPENDIX A
ETHICS APPROVAL

Evrak Tarih ve Sayısı: 19.12.2021-43504

T.C.
BOĞAZIÇI ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL VE BEŞERİ BİLİMLER YÜKSEK LİSANS VE DOKTORA TEZLERİ ETİK İNCELEME
KOMİSYONU
TOPLANTI KARAR TUTANAĞI

Toplantı Sayısı : 25
Toplantı Tarihi : 15.12.2021
Toplantı Saati : 15:00
Toplantı Yeri : Zoom Sanal Toplantı
Bulunanlar : Prof. Dr. Ebru Kaya, Prof. Dr. Fatma Nevra Seggie, Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Yasemin Sohtorik İlkmen
Bulunmayanlar :

Mahmut Kurupınar
Psikoloji

Sayın Araştırmacı,
"Milliyet Kavramı ve Sosyal Beklentiler ile İlişkinin Gelişimsel Olarak İncelenmesi" başlıklı projeniz ile ilgili olarak yaptığımız SBB-EAK 2021/83 sayılı başvuru komisyonumuz tarafından 15 Aralık 2021 tarihli toplantıda incelenmiş ve uygun bulunmuştur.

Bu karar tüm üyelerin toplantıya çevrimiçi olarak katılımı ve oybirliği ile alınmıştır. COVID-19 önlemleri kapsamında kurul üyelerinden ıslak imza alınmadığı için bu onay mektubu üye ve raportör olarak Fatma Nevra Seggie tarafından bütün üyeler adına e-imzalanmıştır.

Saygılarımızla, bilgilerinizi rica ederiz.

Prof. Dr. Fatma Nevra SEGGIE
ÜYE

e-imzalıdır
Prof. Dr.Fatma Nevra SEGGIE
Raportör

SOBETİK 25 15.12.2021

Bu belge 5070 sayılı Elektronik İmza Kanununun 5. Maddesi gereğince güvenli elektronik imza ile imzalanmıştır.

APPENDIX B

PARENTAL SURVEY

Cevaplarınız gizli tutulacak ve bilgileriniz herhangi bir amaçla çalışmalarımızda kullanılmayacaktır, Cevaplarınız sadece anonim yanıtların özetini raporlamamız için gerekmektedir. Soruları cevaplamak istemiyorsanız lütfen aşağıda belirtiniz.

1. Ebeveyn

1) Doğum yeri:

2) Cinsiyet:

3) Ulusal kimliğimi şu şekilde tanımlarım:

Bu soruyu cevaplamamayı tercih ederim

4) Meslek:

Bu soruyu cevaplamamayı tercih ederim.

5) Tamamlanmış en üst eğitim seviyesi:

İlkokul Ortaokul Lise terk Lise Lisans terk Lisans Lisansüstü
(lütfen açıklayınız)_____

Bu soruyu cevaplamamayı tercih ederim.

6) Kendinizi ne kadar dindar olarak tanımlarsınız?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Bu soruyu cevaplamamayı tercih ederim.

2. Ebeveyn

1) Doğum yeri:

2) Cinsiyet:

3) Ulusal kimliğimi şu şekilde tanımlarım:

Bu soruyu cevaplamamayı tercih ederim.

4) Meslek:

Bu soruyu cevaplamamayı tercih ederim.

5) Tamamlanmış en üst eğitim seviyesi

İlkokul Ortaokul Lise terk Lise Lisans terk Lisans Lisansüstü
(lütfen açıklayınız)

Bu soruyu cevaplamamayı tercih ederim.

6) Kendinizi ne kadar dindar olarak tanımlarsınız?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Bu soruyu cevaplamamayı tercih ederim.

Çocuk

1) Doğum yeri:

2) Anadil(ler)i:

3) Çocuğunuzun ulusal kimliğini şu şekilde tanımlarım:

Bu soruyu cevaplamamayı tercih ederim.

4) Çocuğunuzun cinsiyeti:

5) Çocuğunuz okula gidiyor mu? Evet Hayır

Evet ise, lütfen kaçınıcı sınıfta olduğunu belirtiniz

6) Lütfen çocuğunuzun sosyal çevresini etnik köken /ırk çeşitliliği açısından derecelendiriniz (1: etnik köken/ırk bakımından hiç çeşitli değil, 5: etnik köken/ırk bakımından çok çeşitli)

• Okul ortamı:

1 2 3 4 5

• Özel sosyal çevre (örneğin, ev ortamı, akrabalar, aile dostları vb.):

1 2 3 4 5

• Toplum (örneğin, yaşadığınız mahalle ya da şehirdeki topluluk):

1 2 3 4 5

• Çocuğunuzun yakın arkadaşları:

1 2 3 4 5

Bu soruyu cevaplamamayı tercih ederim.

7) Çocuğunuzun Türkçe dışında sıklıkla duyduğu başka bir dil ya da diller var mı?

Evet Hayır

Evet ise, lütfen hangi diller olduğunu ve hangi durum(lar)da maruz kaldığını belirtiniz:

Bu soruyu cevaplamamayı tercih ederim.

8) Çocuğunuz Türkiye dışında bir ülkede yaşadı mı? Evet Hayır
Evet ise, lütfen nerede ve ne kadar süre yaşadığını belirtiniz:

Bu soruyu cevaplamamayı tercih ederim.

Aşağıdaki merdivenin Türkiye’de insanların ekonomik olarak bulunduğu konumları temsil ettiğini düşünün. Merdivenin en üst basamağında ekonomik olarak en iyi durumda olan yani en yüksek kazançlı mesleklere sahip kişiler var. Merdivenin en alt basamağında ise; ekonomik olarak en kötü durumda olanlar yani, en düşük kazanç seviyesindeki mesleklere sahip kişiler ya da işsizler var. Merdivende ne kadar üst basamaktaysanız, en iyi durumda olan kişilere o kadar yakınsınız, merdivende ne kadar alt basamaktaysanız, en kötü durumda olan kişilere o kadar yakınsınız demektir.

Kendinizi bu merdivenin hangi basamağına konumlandırırdınız? Lütfen yaşamınızın bu döneminde Türkiye'deki diğer insanlara kıyasla kendinizi merdivenin hangi basamağında gördüğünüzü, o basamağı temsil eden sayıyı aşağıdaki ölçekte işaretleyerek belirtiniz.



1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Bu soruya cevap vermemeyi tercih ederim

APPENDIX C

THE MARKERS OF TURKISH IDENTITY SCALE

**‘Sizce Türk olmak için aşağıdaki maddelerin her biri ne kadar önemlidir?
(1-hiç önemli değil, 5-çok önemli)’**

- ___1. Türk soyundan gelmek...
- ___2. Türkiye’de doğmuş olmak...
- ___3. Bir Türk ismine sahip olmak...
- ___4. Hayatının çoğunu Türkiye’de geçirmiş olmak...
- ___5. Türk bir anne ya da babanın çocuğu olmak...
- ___6. *Kendini* Türk hissetmek...
- ___7. Türk kimlik belgesine sahip olmak...
- ___8. Etkin kökeni ne olursa olsun kendini öncelikle Türk saymak...
- ___9. Türk vatandaşı olmak...
- ___10. Müslüman olmak...
- ___11. Türk kanun ve kurumlarına sahip çıkmak ve saygı duymak...
- ___12. Gündelik hayatta Türkçe konuşmak...
- ___13. Oy kullanmak ve vergi ödemek gibi vatandaşlık görevlerini yerine getirmek...
- ___14. Başka bir ülkenin vatandaşı olmamak...
- ___15. Türkiye’de demokrasiye inanmak...
- ___16. Türkçe konuşabilmek
- ___17. Anadolu’yu vatan kabul etmek...
- ___18. Türk kültürü dışındaki kültürlerden etkilenmemiş olmak...

___19. Türkiye anavatanına ait olduğunu hissetmek...

___20. Anadili Türkçe olmak...

APPENDIX D

SCRIPT OF THE STUDY IN TURKISH

“Merhaba (X)! Benim adım (X). Bugün seninle birlikte bir oyun oynayacağız. Bu oyunda ben sana bazı kişiler göstereceğim ve sonrasında sana onlar hakkında bazı sorular soracağım. Bu oyunda doğru ya da yanlış cevap yok. Bu yüzden istediğin gibi cevap verebilirsin. Başlamaya hazır mısın?”

Isınma Bölümü

Deney sorumlusu çalışmanın başında 4 ayrı slaytta iki farklı renk ve iki farklı hayvan görseli göstererek, ekrandaki renklerin ve hayvanların ismini soracaktır. Bu bölüm çocuğun çalışmaya ısınmasının yanı sıra, deney sorumlusunun sesini duyabildiğini ve ekrandaki görselleri görebildiğini teyit etmek üzere eklenmiştir.

Ardından, çocuğa çalışma hakkında bilgi verilecektir:

“Biliyorsun ki dünyada Türkler, Almanlar, Fransızlar gibi farklı milletler var. Bu milletlerin farklı özellikleri olabiliyor. Ben bugünkü oyunumuzda sana iki yeni millet tanıtacağım. Daha sonra bazı çocuklar gösterip, seninle bu çocukların özelliklerini paylaşacağım. Sonrasında senin bu çocukların hangi millettten olduğunu düşündüğünü soracağım”

Bilgilendirme sonrasında bir sonraki bölüme devam edilecektir.

Eğitim Bölümü

Bu bölümde çocuğa, altışar çizim karakterden oluşan 2 farklı uydurulmuş millet (Aka milleti ve Mim milleti) ve bu milletlerin uydurulmuş bayrakları sırası ile tanıtılacaktır. Çocuğa “Şimdi sana iki farklı millet tanıtacağım” diyerek ilk grup ve bayrağı gösterilecektir. “Bu kişiler Aka milletinden ve bu da onların bayrağı” diye söylenecek ve sonra “bu kişiler hangi millettendi, bana söyleyebilir misin?” diye sorulacaktır. Ardından, Aka milletinden olan kişiler ekrandan kaybolacak ve ikinci millet (Mim milleti) aynı şekilde tanıtılacaktır. Ardından, çocuğun bu milleti öğrendiği teyit edilecektir. Sonrasında 2 millet ve bayrakları eş zamanlı yan yana gösterilecek ve çocuğun bu bilgileri öğrendiği teyit edilecektir. Milletlerin hangisinin önce tanıtıldığı değişecektir.

Test Bölümü

Test Bölümü 2 aşamadan oluşacaktır. İlk aşama, çocuğun millet çıkarımlarını değerlendirecektir. İkinci aşama, çocuğun göç durumunda beklentilerini inceleyecektir.

İlk Aşama

Bu aşamada, çocuğa her denemede daha önce görmediği 1 tane çizim karakter gösterilecektir. Her bir çizim karakter için 2 farklı özellik tanıtılacaktır ve bu

özellikler millet kavramının farklı boyutlarının bileşeni olacaktır. Çalışmada, milliyet kavramının toplamda 4 farklı boyutu değerlendirilecektir. Her boyut için ikişer özellik sunulacaktır.

- 1- Etnik boyutu
 - a. Annesi-babası bir millettten (Aka/Mim milleti) olması
 - b. Ana dili bir milletin dili (Akaca/Mimce dili) olması
- 2- Kültürel boyutu
 - a. Bir milletin dinine (Aka/Mim dini) inanması
 - b. Özel günlerde bir milletin yemeklerinden (Aka/Mim yemekleri) pişirmesi
- 3- Afektif boyutu
 - a. Kendini bir millete (Aka/Mim milleti) ait hissetmesi
 - b. Bir ülkeyi (Aka/Mim Ülkesi) sevmesi
- 4- Vatandaşlık boyutu
 - a. Bir ülkede (Aka/Mim Ülkesi) yaşıyor olması
 - b. Bir ülkenin (Aka/Mim Ülkesi) kurallarına uyması

Çocukların bu boyutlardan hangilerini daha önemli göreceğini anlamak için, farklı boyutlardan gelen bu 2 özelliğten biri Aka milletini ve biri Mim milletini işaret ediyor olacaktır. Örneğın, bir çizim karakter gösterilecek ve “Bu kişı Aka dinine inanıyor (kültürel) ve kendini Mim milleteine ait hissediyor (afektif)” diyerek tanıtılacaktır. Sonrasında çocuğaa “Sence bu kişı Aka milletinden midir, Mim milletinden midir?” diye sorulacaktır. Çocuk iki millettten birini seçerek cevap verebilecektir.

Farklı boyutların her özelliğı birbiri ile bu şekilde karşılaştırılacaktır. Her boyutun ikişer özelliğı olduđu için her ikili boyut eşleşmesi için 4 deneme yapılacaktır. 4 farklı boyut toplamda 6 farklı şekilde eşleşecektir.

- 1- Etnik- Kültürel
- 2- Etnik- Afektif
- 3- Etnik- Vatandaşlık
- 4- Kültürel- Afektif
- 5- Kültürel- Vatandaşlık
- 6- Afektif- Vatandaşlık

Böylece, bu kısımda 24 farklı deneme gerçekleştirilecektir. Denemelerin uygulanma sırası değışecektir.

İkinci Aşama

İkinci aşamanın başında, çocuğaa Aka Ülkesinde Aka milletinden insanlar ve Mim Ülkesinde Mim milletinden insanlar gösterilecektir. Burada millet ve ülke bilgisi çocuklara hatırlatılacaktır. Daha sonra, Aka milletinden 3 kişının Mim Ülkesine taşındığı gösterilecektir. Ve çocuklara “Bu kişiler buraya göç etmişler ve burada yaşamaya başlamışlar. Aradan uzun bir zaman geçmiş” denilecektir. Daha

sonrasında sadece göç eden kişiler gösterilecektir ve çocuğa 7 farklı soru sorulacaktır.

- 1- Sence bu kişiler evlerinde Akaca mı konuşmalı, Mimce mi?
- 2- Sence bu kişiler Aka Ülkesi'nin kurallarına mı uymalı, Mim Ülkesi'nin kurallarına mı?
- 3- Sence bu kişiler Aka milletine mi ait hissetmeliler, Mim milletine mi?
- 4- Sence bu kişiler Aka dinine mi inanmalılar, Mim dinine mi?
- 5- Sence bu kişiler özel günlerde Aka yemekleri mi pişirmeliler, Mim yemekleri mi?
- 6- Sence bu kişiler Aka Ülkesi'ni mi sevmeliler, Mim Ülkesi'ni mi?
- 7- Sence bu kişiler Aka milletinden midir Mim milletinden mi?

İlk 6 sorunun sorulma sırası değişecektir ama millet sorusu hep en sonra sorulacaktır. Bu aşamadan sonra çalışma tamamlanmış olacaktır. Araştırmacı “Oyunumuzu tamamladık! Benimle oynadığın için çok teşekkür ederim” diyecektir.

APPENDIX E
DESCRIPTIVE INFORMATION

Table E1. Descriptive for SES and Religiosity Information

Variable	<i>Missing</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Median</i>	<i>Range</i>
SES	10	4.96	1.78	5	1-8
Religiosity of Mother	20	3.75	1.88	4	1-7
Religiosity of Father	22	3.64	1.96	4	1-7

Table E2. Frequency Table for SES

Levels	<i>Counts</i>	% of Total
1	4	5.5
2	2	2.7
3	8	11
4	12	16.4
5	20	27.4
6	14	19.2
7	6	8.2
8	7	9.6

Table E3. Frequency Table for Religiosity of Mothers

Levels	<i>Counts</i>	% of Total
1	9	14.3
2	10	15.9

3	11	17.5
4	9	14.3
5	13	20.6
6	4	6.3
7	7	11.1

Table E4. Frequency Table for Religiosity of Fathers

<i>Levels</i>	<i>Counts</i>	<i>% of Total</i>
1	12	19.7
2	8	13.1
3	10	16.4
4	8	13.1
5	13	21.3
6	3	4.9
7	7	11.5

APPENDIX F

SUMMARIES OF FINAL MODELS FOR GLMM ANALYSES

Table F1. The GLMM Model Summary for Ethnic vs. Civic Comparison

Fixed Effects	<i>Estimate</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>
(Intercept)	.61	.23	2.67	.007
Age	.72	.33	2.17	.03
Diversity	.005	.14	.04	.97

Note: The Final Model in R: Decision ~ Age + Diversity + (1|Participant)

Table F2. The GLMM Model Summary for Ethnic vs. Cultural Comparison

Fixed Effects	<i>Estimate</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>
(Intercept)	.1.49	.25	5.02	<.001
Age	-.19	.32	-.62	.54
Diversity	.25	.14	1.79	.08

Note: The Final Model in R: Decision ~ Age + Diversity + (1|Participant)

Table F3. The GLMM Model Summary for Ethnic vs. Affective Comparison

Fixed Effects	<i>Estimate</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>
(Intercept)	.1.45	.25	5.78	<.001
Age	.21	.33	.63	.53
Diversity	.07	.15	.5	.62

Note: The Final Model in R: Decision ~ Age + Diversity + (1|Participant)

Table F4. The GLMM Model Summary for Civic vs. Cultural Comparison

Fixed Effects	<i>Estimate</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>
(Intercept)	-.99	.24	-4.1	<.001
Age	.42	.32	1.3	.19
Diversity	-.13	.14	-.97	.33

Note: The Final Model in R: Decision ~ Age + Diversity + (1|Participant)

Table F5. The GLMM Model Summary for Civic vs. Affective Comparison

Fixed Effects	<i>Estimate</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>
(Intercept)	1.14	.26	4.04	<.001
Age	-.21	.34	-.6	.55
Diversity	.07	.15	.46	.65

Note: The Final Model in R: Decision ~ Age + Diversity + (1|Participant)

Table F6. The GLMM Model Summary for Cultural vs. Affective Comparison

Fixed Effects	<i>Estimate</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>
(Intercept)	.23	.19	1.21	.22
Age	-.34	.27	-1.25	.21
Diversity	.18	.12	1.54	.12

Note: The Final Model in R: Decision ~ Age + Diversity + (1|Participant)

Table F7. The GLMM Model Summary for Overall Assimilation Expectation

Fixed Effects	<i>Estimate</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>
(Intercept)	-.06	.13	-.45	.65
Age	-.39	.27	-1.45	.15
Ethnic-Civic Score	.05	.06	.80	.43
Diversity	-.27	.12	-2.24	.03
Age X Ethnic-Civic Score X Diversity	.15	.06	2.49	.01

Note: The Final Model in R: Decision ~ Age + Ethnic-Civic Score + Diversity + Age X Ethnic-Civic Score X Diversity + (1|Participant)

Table F8. The GLMM Model Summary for Assimilation Expectation for Ethnic Feature

Fixed Effects	<i>Estimate</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>
(Intercept)	.22	.39	.57	.57
Age	.40	.55	.72	.47
Ethnic-Civic Score	.27	.15	1.80	.07
Diversity	-.09	.27	-.37	.71
Ethnic-Civic Score X Diversity	.28	.14	1.98	<.05

Note: The Final Model in R: Decision ~ Age + Ethnic-Civic Score + Diversity + Ethnic-Civic Score X Diversity + (1|Participant)

Table F9. The GLMM Model Summary for Assimilation Expectation for Civic

Feature

Fixed Effects	<i>Estimate</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>
(Intercept)	-27.74	11.09	-2.5	.01
Age	-7.75	8.77	-.88	.38
Ethnic-Civic Score	-4.08	2.32	-1.76	.08
Diversity	-3.87	3.78	-1.02	.31
Age X Diversity	-23.35	9.67	-2.42	.02
Ethnic-Civic Score X Diversity	-4.89	2.13	-2.29	.02

Note: The Final Model in R: Decision ~ Age + Ethnic-Civic Score + Diversity + Age X Diversity + Ethnic-Civic Score X Diversity + (1|Participant)

Table F10. The GLMM Model Summary for Assimilation Expectation for Affective

Feature

Fixed Effects	<i>Estimate</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>
(Intercept)	.09	.34	.27	.79
Age	-.09	.49	-.17	.86
Ethnic-Civic Score	-.23	.19	-1.20	.23
Diversity	.06	.19	.30	.77
Age X Ethnic-Civic Score	.47	.21	1.93	.05

Note: The Final Model in R: Decision ~ Age + Ethnic-Civic Score + Diversity + Age X Ethnic-Civic Score + (1|Participant)

Table F11. The GLMM Model Summary for Assimilation Expectation for Cultural Feature

Fixed Effects	<i>Estimate</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>
(Intercept)	1.18	.33	3.59	<.001
Age	-1.40	.46	-3.07	< .01
Ethnic-Civic Score	.11	.09	-1.14	.25
Diversity	-.51	.19	-2.69	<.01

Note: The Final Model in R: Decision ~ Age + Ethnic-Civic Score + Diversity + (1|Participant)

Table F12. The GLMM Model Summary for Assimilation Expectation for National Identity

Fixed Effects	<i>Estimate</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>
(Intercept)	.82	.38	2.16	.03
Age	.26	.58	.45	.65
Ethnic-Civic Score	.34	.13	2.55	.01
Diversity	-.04	.24	-.18	.86

Note: The Final Model in R: Decision ~ Age + Ethnic-Civic Score + Diversity + (1|Participant)

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