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Emotional Redemption: Exploring the Relationship Between Life Story Narratives,
Reflective Parent-Child Emotion Socialization, Planned Emotion Socialization, and Well-
Being Among First-Time Parents

A Dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction
of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

in

Psychology

by

Alisha Catherine Conover

September 2023

Dissertation Committee:

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This Dissertation of Alisha Catherine Conover is approved:

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ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION

Emotional Redemption: Exploring the Relationship Between Life Story Narratives, Reflective Parent-Child Emotion Socialization, Planned Emotion Socialization, and Well-Being Among First-Time Parents

by

Alisha Catherine Conover

Doctor of Philosophy, Graduate Program in Psychology
University of California, Riverside, September 2023
Dr. Elizabeth Davis, Chairperson

Parents' behaviors surrounding emotions, which broadly encompass responses to children's emotions, discussion of emotion, and parents' regulation and expression of their own emotions all serve to inform (i.e., socialize) the child about the appropriate and acceptable ways to experience and share emotions within the family system. These emotion socialization behaviors contribute to a wide variety of child outcomes across the lifespan, including the transmission of emotion socialization practices from parent to child. The purpose of this dissertation was to investigate how first-time parents' self-awareness surrounding their subjective childhood experiences of emotion socialization informed their plans for future emotion socialization practices with their child. Narrative identity methodologies were used to capture how self-awareness of emotion development can be relevant to (a) personal identification of change and stability in facets of emotion development across childhood and adulthood (e.g., remembered childhood experiences, current emotional functioning, etc.), (b) shaping the socialization plans and practices of new parents, and (c) overall psychological well-being.

One hundred first-time parents ($M_{age} = 30.14$ years, $SD = 0.52$, 66 mothers) with a child under the age of 3 years participated. Participants completed a survey in which they were asked to reflect on their emotional experiences, both in childhood with their parents and currently as a first-time parent with their own child, by responding to a series of open-ended narrative prompts. The narrative prompts captured a sad childhood emotional experience, angry emotional experience, and a turning point in which they recalled wanting to parent their child's emotions differently than their parents. Individual differences in how first-time parents explored and made meaning of these childhood emotional experiences were conceptualized as self-awareness and used two narrative identity themes: exploratory processing and meaning making. These narrative themes were coded within the narratives of negative childhood emotional experiences. Greater exploratory processing and greater meaning making were expected to relate to planned emotion socialization and wellbeing. To capture well-being, emotional functioning, retrospective socialization practices of their parents in childhood, and their own socialization practices, self-report measures were also administered.

Findings revealed that first-time parents reported having plans for more supportive and less non-supportive emotion socialization only when they remembered their parents in childhood providing more non-supportive and less supportive emotion socialization. Examination of narrative themes found greater exploratory processing was associated with plans for more supportive reactions, whereas greater meaning making was associated with wellbeing. Remembered emotion socialization was tested as a possible moderator of self-awareness and planned emotion socialization. First, results

found that participants who remembered more non-supportive parental reactions and engaged in higher exploratory processing reported plans for less non-supportive reactions. Second, participants who remembered less supportive reactions and illustrated higher meaning making reported plans for less non-supportive reactions.

The integration of remembered emotion socialization, exploratory processing, and meaning making predicted plans for optimal emotion socialization practices (more supportive and less non-supportive) in first-time parents. This dissertation illustrated that a multi-method assessment of emotion socialization within and across childhood and adulthood is necessary to understand how the subjective experiences of emotional childhood events contribute to planned emotion socialization as a first-time parent. Finally, the results emphasize how the narrative identity approach can be used in emotion development research to investigate the adaptive implications of self-awareness on emotional functioning and planned emotion socialization.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

How humans think about, feel, and behave towards emotions are important processes that are initially shaped in childhood through the parent-child relationship. The childhood environment and parent-child relationship have been associated with psychological adjustment and socioemotional functioning across development. For example, it is well established that parental responses to their child's emotions may influence the child's immediate and long-term ability to express, understand, and regulate emotions in adaptive or maladaptive ways, which can have implications for later interpersonal relationships in adulthood including with their own child (Eisenberg et al., 1998). Parent characteristics (e.g., reactivity, emotion regulation, emotion expression, interpersonal emotion regulation) contribute heavily to the family environment in which the child's emotional functioning is socialized (Morris et al., 2007). Factors like supportive and non-supportive parental emotion-related socialization behaviors, family emotional climate, and parents' own emotion management have been linked to a wide variety of child outcomes across the lifespan, suggesting that intergenerational transmission of socioemotional functioning occurs in the context of a family system (e.g., grandparents to parents to children). However, the scarcity of studies examining the transmission of emotion socialization practices from parent to child leaves unanswered questions about psychological mechanisms that would distinguish families in which the

intergenerational transmission of emotion socialization practices is maintained from families in which the cycle is changed or updated.

One possibility is that emotion socialization practices could be transferred through parenting practices used by the child when they become a parent, which are either maintained or changed through the adult child's self-awareness of their childhood family environment and its socioemotional functioning. Parents who come from a childhood family environment that was emotionally non-supportive (e.g., in which parents relied on non-supportive emotion socialization practices) are more likely to have difficulty regulating emotions and may avoid or dismiss their own child's emotional experiences. Taken together, the above illustrates how parents' supportive and non-supportive emotion socialization practices during childhood can be intergenerationally transmitted through the adult child's socioemotional functioning and emotion socialization practices as a parent. However, adult children who have greater self-awareness that their family environment in childhood was emotionally non-supportive may opt to break (i.e., change and/or update) the intergenerational cycle of non-supportive emotion socialization practices and instead improve their own socioemotional functioning and use more supportive emotion socialization practices with their child. Considering that parenting provides a rich context for providing emotional connection, this study explored the maintenance and breakdown of family emotion socialization patterns through the process of retrospective and prospective storytelling.

For this study, generational changes across a family's emotion socialization practices are hypothesized to be related to an individual's own awareness of their parent-

child relationship in childhood and their own socioemotional functioning (i.e., *self-awareness*). Self-awareness is adapted from narrative identity work and is assessed when participants report retrospectively about their emotional experiences with parents in childhood and report on their planned emotional experiences with their own child now and in the near future. This awareness of how the stories of an individual's emotional experiences across developmental time intertwine helps to explain how an individual continues to assert a consistent sense of who they are emotionally across the many different periods and social contexts they experience throughout life (Erikson, 1963; McAdams, 2018).

By bridging emotion socialization research and narrative identity methodologies, self-awareness can serve as a mechanism to identify contextual and individual factors that contribute to the maintenance and breakdown of parental emotion socialization practices across generations within a family. The goal of this dissertation is to examine the stability and change of intergenerational emotion socialization within a family system by investigating the impact of remembered childhood emotion socialization and planned emotion socialization from the subjective experiences of first-time parents. Additionally, I explore the viability of narrative methodologies to capture self-awareness of an individual's memories and perspectives surrounding their own socioemotional functioning. I also investigate individual differences that impact how emotion socialization behaviors, meta-emotion philosophies, and the transition to parenthood are maintained and changed from one generation to another within a family system. Lastly, in this dissertation I examine the self-awareness of individuals transitioning to

parenthood to see how the relationship between planned emotion socialization, remembered childhood socialization, and self-awareness relate to well-being. Taken together, findings from this investigation will shed light on the feasibility of using a narrative identity framework to (a) contextualize findings in emotion research, (b) highlight the adaptive functioning of self-awareness on updating and maintaining intergenerational patterns of emotion socialization, and (c) illustrate how the subjective experience of remembered childhood experiences contributes to planned emotion socialization.

Emotions as a Social Construction

The sociodynamic model of emotions proposes that emotions cannot be examined outside of their social context, assuming that emotions are tied to the interpersonal context in which they take place and are functional to the specific social and cultural context through which they emerge. The key point is that the features of an emotion – physical features (physiological arousal, facial expression, autonomic nervous system changes), affective features (positive and negative valence), appraisal features (how the situation is experienced, is it novel or familiar, approach or avoid), and functional features (refers to the goal the person is trying to meet, behavior enacted) – derive from and are informed by interpersonal contexts (Hoemann et al., 2019; Mesquita & Boiger, 2014). Recent research examining the impact of interpersonal dyads with relational history (e.g., parent-child relationships, friendships, intimate relationships) has found evidence that social interactions with close others provide insight on which emotions are valued (e.g., emotions that are promoted) and which emotions are disvalued (e.g.,

emotions that are prevented or discouraged) within that sociocultural context (Bruder et al., 2012; Butler & Randall, 2012; Kuppens et al., 2003; Mesquita & Boiger, 2014).

When thinking about the impact of interpersonal dyads in structuring an individual's emotional functioning, parents' emotion socialization practices via behaviors expressed directly through conversations and responses toward the child and indirectly through the family climate become extremely relevant experiences that the child uses to appraise which emotions are supported versus not in the family system. This suggests that how a child comes to interpret and express various emotions is embodied within a family-specific context driven by the dyadic parent-child relationship. To this point, the childhood family environment is an important context to study variability in how parents' emotion socialization practices shape the child's perception about what emotions are appropriate and what emotions are inappropriate in the context of the family system and within their own developing emotional repertoire. In some families, for instance, the emotional climate is one of anxiousness and stress, meaning that an individual whose emotional development occurred in that context would feel more comfortable feeling anxious or stressed and less comfortable feeling joyful or happy because that is not what was valued in their family (e.g., joy is an unfamiliar emotion). Thus, a sociodynamic emotion model holds that emotion development is largely a byproduct of social learning through the interpersonal interactions of the family context via parents' direct and indirect emotion socialization responses (Mesquita & Boiger, 2014). However, the sociodynamic emotion model also lends support to novel emotion socialization research, like the current study, by illustrating the dynamic nature of emotion development. The

capacity for someone's internal working model of supported and non-supported emotions to change is influenced by the interpersonal relationships and social environments that emerge over time (i.e., the lifespan). This perspective on emotions highlights the ability for individuals to construct and model emotions that might not have been familiar to the individual in childhood. To the extent that stability and change in the intergenerational transmission of emotion socialization across a family can be captured, the approach that views emotions as socially constructed through interpersonal relationships provides a strong foundation.

Meta-emotion Philosophy

Emotion understanding, or the extent to which a person can express and understand her own and others' positive and negative emotions, unfolds through social interactions and relationships. The family environment, specifically the parent-child relationship, directly and indirectly provides emotional experiences via the child learning what emotions, emotional responses, and emotional expressions are supported and not supported within the specific social context of their family system (Mesquita et al., 2014). However, as the child ages and the social environment changes, other interpersonal relationships outside of the family context (e.g., friends, partners, mental health advocates, etc.) can directly and indirectly provide emotional experiences that are unfamiliar to the child and through these experiences the child can learn how to express and understand emotions that might not have been supported in their childhood. For example, to return to the previous example of a person raised in a family climate of anxiousness and stress, the person will initially be comfortable experiencing those

emotions, but as they age and engage in other social contexts outside of the family, will learn that continuous feelings and emotions of anxiety and stress are not valued in social contexts outside of the family and as a result will be encouraged to express and understand emotions that are valued interpersonally. To this point, I predict that a better understanding and self-awareness of one's own emotions, and how they were socialized by family (e.g., parents) in childhood, allows for more supportive socialization of the next generation (e.g., children). Gottman and colleagues (1996) found that adaptive emotional communication (e.g., being able to talk about feelings) is achieved through awareness of one's own emotional state and the emotional state of other family members. This ability to adaptively engage in emotional communication is reliant on the parents' meta-emotion philosophy or the organized beliefs, feelings, and thoughts the parent has surrounding their own emotions and their child's emotions. This established parenting concept also guides the emotion socialization behaviors that a parent utilizes with their child and is embedded in parenting skills that teach the child how to regulate their emotions (Gottman et al., 1996; Katz et al., 2012). As an example, an individual who is not aware of their dysregulation surrounding anger might express their own anger in a maladaptive way and be inflexible and rigid in their interactions with their child's anger. These experiences will then teach (i.e., socialize) the child that anger is an emotion that is not appropriate to express, will provide the child with a maladaptive way of expressing anger, and will limit the child's adaptive regulatory skills surrounding anger. In this example, the parent's dismissing meta-emotion philosophy is maladaptive and they in turn are transmitting maladaptive skills to the child. As another example, someone raised

in a household that handled anger poorly but became aware of their dysregulation surrounding anger in adulthood might have worked towards more adaptive regulatory strategies for expressing anger and will in turn be aware of their own anger, be able to talk about their feelings of anger, and assist their child with strategies for how to handle anger. In this example, the parent's emotion coaching meta-emotional philosophy has been updated from that of their childhood family context through self-awareness and the parent will be able to provide their child with adaptive skills to handle anger. In these two examples, the parent's awareness of their own emotions is a key component in determining whether they can adaptively assist and support their child's emotions. When thinking about this from an intergenerational family perspective, it can become increasingly difficult to provide the next generation with adaptive skills for socioemotional functioning if the individual is unaware that the emotion management strategies, they learned in childhood are unhelpful and they consequently maintain a dismissing meta-emotion philosophy. The impact of an individual's meta-emotion philosophy is heavily influenced by the parent-child subsystem but can be updated through self-awareness and other interpersonal relationships outside of the childhood home.

Research on the subject has found that parents who are aware of their own emotions and aware of and able to assist their child in understanding their emotions report having better interpersonal relationships within the parent-child context (Morris et al., 2007). Similarly, emotional connection to the self allows for emotional connection with others and can potentially have adaptive implications for domains outside of family

dynamics, such as interpersonal relationships and well-being. The concept of meta-emotion in this dissertation is operationalized to understand the parent-child subsystem at two levels: (1) the childhood family context (e.g., as a child being socialized) and (2) the current family context (e.g., as a parent socializing their child), to examine how emotion management is maintained and broken down across generations within a family.

Often, dysfunctional family patterns repeat from generation to generation until an individual becomes aware of the pattern, identifies the dysregulation, and interrupts the pattern for future generations in the family system. To better understand how parents' awareness of their own emotional lives allows them to attempt to understand and connect with their child's emotional life, a better understanding of emotion socialization and self-awareness is needed.

Parental Emotion Socialization

It is thought that parents' behaviors, discussions, and management of their child's emotions provide an environment for the child to learn about the consequences and support they will receive when expressing certain emotions with others (Thompson, 1994). Parents who utilize non-supportive socialization practices in response to their child's negative emotions perpetuate the notion that certain emotions are not allowed within the family environment and often have children who experience some degree of emotion dysregulation. On the other hand, parents who utilize supportive socialization practices toward their child's negative emotions often have children that engage in adaptive emotion regulation strategies (Eisenberg et al., 1997). How and to what extent parents teach children about emotions in childhood is an important aspect of parenting

and the sociocultural context of the parent-child subsystem informs children about the “acceptable” ways to regulate, understand, discuss, and express their own and others’ emotions – a skill that is utilized in other interpersonal relationships across the lifespan (Eisenberg et al., 1996; Gottman et al., 1996; Thompson, 1991). The child is being socialized indirectly through observing their parent’s own emotion expressiveness, but also directly through the parent’s responses to the child’s emotions.

Parental responses to children’s emotions, how parents discuss emotions within the family system, and how parents regulate and express their own emotions all serve to inform (i.e., socialize) the child about what their parents perceive as appropriate and acceptable ways to experience and share emotions (Eisenberg et al., 1998). Past research on socialization has found that non-supportive parental responses to children’s harmless negative emotions have been linked to negative outcomes across intrapersonal and interpersonal contexts (Eisenberg et al., 2010; Shewark & Blandon, 2014) and supportive parental responses to children’s harmless negative emotions have been linked to positive outcomes (Blandon et al., 2010; Eisenberg et al., 1996). Parents’ behaviors – responses toward children’s emotions, emotional expression, and discussion of emotions – provide valuable information to the child about what range of emotions are allowed or “accepted” within the family. This dynamic process of parental emotion socialization illustrates the notion that the quality of the parents’ emotion-related socialization behaviors feeds into and likely affects the quality of the parent-child relationship as well as the quality of the child’s socioemotional functioning. Empirical findings have indicated that non-supportive socialization practices towards children’s sadness and anger are associated

with significant developmental differences in children's emotionality, in which children with non-supportive parents utilize less adaptive regulatory strategies and are unable to constructively deal with negative emotions (Eisenberg et al., 1998). Similarly, adult perceptions of their parents' use of non-supportive emotion socialization strategies in childhood are related to lower levels of emotion regulation skills and greater use of maladaptive regulatory strategies in adulthood (Cabecinha-Alati et al., 2019).

Implications for Emotion Development

Across development, the emotions an individual feels comfortable utilizing and expressing are contingent on the functionality of those emotions in the interpersonal contexts of their childhood (i.e., the childhood family's emotional climate). For instance, a child who is aware that anger is not an emotion that can be expressed in their household might learn to suppress this emotion and will, more likely than not, grow up to be an adult that does not feel comfortable expressing their anger in interpersonal relationships and does not see the functional use of being angry. Interpersonally, parents play a critical role in teaching children about positive and negative emotions through direct socialization practices, discussions, and unconscious behaviors that illuminate the parents' meta-emotional philosophy (Katz et al., 2012; Mesquita et al., 2014). As mentioned previously, a parent's meta-emotion philosophy can determine the emotional climate that the child experiences and can also inform about the emotion socialization practices that are utilized across generations of a family. By utilizing a meta-emotion philosophical approach in conjunction with the socialization of emotion model, we can better understand emotion socialization practices across a family system and can also

examine how parents' thoughts and feelings about their own emotions can inform how they respond to their child's emotions (Eisenberg et al., 1996; Gottman et al. 1996; Katz et al., 2012).

As socializers, parents directly influence how children respond to and cope with emotionally charged events simply through their own responses to their child's facial, behavioral, or verbal expressions of positive and negative emotions (Parke, 1994). While supportive parent socialization practices have been linked to positive child outcomes, non-supportive parent socialization practices (i.e., minimizing reactions, punitive reactions, distress reactions) have been linked to maladaptive child outcomes such as poor anger regulation, avoidant coping, and emotion suppression (Eisenberg et al., 1998; Eisenberg et al., 1996; Fabes et al., 2002; Hastings et al., 2008). Similarly, parental discussion of emotions indirectly influences children's socioemotional development and serves as a predictor for several child outcomes including well-being and emotion regulation capacity (Eisenberg et al., 2015). Encouraging sensitive and thoughtful conversations about positive and negative emotional experiences can give children the tools needed to communicate their own emotions and understand the emotions of others within the context of social relationships (Lau, 2006). Moreover, parents' own emotion regulation contributes to emotion socialization by modeling emotion regulation strategies for children and by influencing the supportive and non-supportive nature of parents' emotion socialization practices (Hajal & Paley, 2020). How a parent regulates their own negative emotional experiences can have implications for mental health difficulties. Emotion dysregulation and mental health difficulties might compromise the parent's

efforts to effectively respond to and socialize their child's emotional learning (Havinghurst & Kehoe, 2017). These emotion-eliciting social transactions between the parent and child across childhood contribute to the child's success in identifying feelings, communicating their own positive and negative emotions, and providing successful emotion coping strategies for themselves as well as others.

Because children find it more difficult to cope with negative emotions such as sadness, anger, or fear compared to positive emotions, they often rely on their parents to help assist them in managing their negative emotions (Ramsden & Hubbard, 2002). Parents' capability to successfully respond to their children's negative emotions provides valuable information to their children about appropriate emotional displays and successful coping strategies for negative emotional experiences. While supportive parent socialization practices have been linked to positive child outcomes, non-supportive parent socialization practices (i.e., minimizing reactions, punitive reactions, distress reactions) have been linked to maladaptive child outcomes such as poor anger regulation, avoidant coping, and emotion suppression (Eisenberg et al., 1998; Eisenberg, Fabes, & Murphy, 1996; Fabes et al., 2002). This means that parents' non-supportive socialization practices, like dismissal and invalidation of children's negative emotion expressions, provide the child with a dyadic social relationship that hinders the development of adaptive emotion regulation skills and can have long-term implications for the child's ability to manage their own negative emotions as well as the negative emotions of others (Gottman et al., 1997).

These long-term implications become even more critical as the child begins to engage in social relationships outside of the parent-child dyad, because the socioemotional skills learned within the dyad become the schemas by which the child emotionally interacts with their social environment. For example, negative and non-supportive parental responses to a child's emotions tend to be linked with persisting displays of negative emotion and relatively low levels of positive emotions across adulthood (Denham, 1989). This means that the child in adulthood would have a difficult time interpersonally supporting their own and others' positive emotions because they are unfamiliar with how to manage them. On the other hand, positive and supportive parental responses to a child's emotions are associated with greater life satisfaction and socioemotional capabilities in adulthood (Aquilino & Supple, 2001). This means that the child in adulthood would more readily be able to interpersonally support their own and others positive and negative emotions. This suggests that the parent-child relationship, and the formative emotional context of this relationship, has strong implications for an individual's capabilities surrounding emotion expression, understanding, and regulation across the lifespan.

Taken together, the research on emotion socialization recognizes the role of the family system, more specifically the parent-child relationship, as a pervasive and highly influential context through which children learn about emotions. For example, current empirical evidence suggests that the quality of parental emotion socialization may play an important role in the transmission of parent dysfunction from parent to child (Suveg et al., 2011; Kerns et al., 2017; Thomassin et al., 2017). Eisenberg, Spinrad, and

Cumberland's (1998) model of emotion socialization is highly relevant to the intergenerational transmission of such practices, illustrated through an individual's recollection of supportive parental responses to their emotions in childhood contributing to displays of more sensitive and supportive responses to their own child in infancy (Leerkes et al., 2020). The findings suggest that remembered childhood experiences of non-supportive responses predict significantly more non-supportive responses to their own infant child's distress. That is, remembered childhood experiences of non-supportive emotion socialization likely contribute to the belief that negative emotions are an inconvenience and should be minimized, leading first-time parents to replicate this type of parenting with their own children. However, remembered supportive emotion socialization in childhood did not significantly predict more supportive responses to their own infant child's distress, but did modestly correlate with self-reported supportive emotion socialization at 15 months – though remembered childhood emotion socialization was captured prenatally. Leerkes and colleagues (2020) propose that remembered supportive emotion socialization may not be a significant predictor because negative childhood emotional experiences are more memorable and have a more powerful legacy on socioemotional functioning, making them more readily self-reported. However, given the limited empirical research on intergenerational transmission of emotion socialization, I believe that both findings are informative to the current study since suggested future directions are being accounted for here. For example, this empirical study will utilize the Remembered Responses to Negative Emotions Scale (RRNES; Leerkes et al., 2020) but will also consider self-awareness as an influential

emotion regulation process and the transition to parenthood as a key developmental stage at which to assess remembered childhood parenting. Perhaps these additional considerations within the scope of this dissertation will help identify mechanisms for better capturing how remembered childhood emotion socialization can predict first-time parents' emotion socialization. In fact, the parent-child relationship provides a rich context for structuring the child's emotional development (e.g., emotion regulation strategies, emotional expression, emotional understanding, and interpersonal emotion regulation) across the lifespan and examination of emotion socialization practices across generations is needed to explain how an individual's emotional development contributes to the maintenance and breakdown of a family's meta-emotional philosophy.

Intergenerational Transmission of Parental Emotion Socialization

While a large majority of the literature on parental emotion socialization has focused on child outcomes, the field has recently begun to focus on how parental emotion socialization practices and parental meta-emotional philosophy in childhood are associated with adult outcomes (Cabecinha-Alati et al., 2020; Gottman et al., 1996; Leerkes et al., 2020). This up-and-coming framework suggests that parents' emotion-related socialization behaviors (a) are informed by their meta-emotional philosophy, (b) influence their child's socioemotional development, and (c) have long-term consequences for their child's emotion regulation capacity and emotional functioning in adulthood. While emotion socialization research on adult outcomes is limited, the research demonstrates that non-supportive parental emotion socialization practices in childhood impact the child's mental health symptoms (i.e., internalizing behaviors, anxiety,

depression, etc.) and can contribute to the child's emotion regulation difficulties in adulthood (Denham et al., 2007; Gruhn & Compas, 2020). Consequently, the limited research suggests that emotion-related socialization behaviors (ERSB) are intergenerationally transmitted within a family from one generation of parents to the next. For example, the mental health symptoms and emotion regulation difficulties that develop and emerge in a child's eventual adulthood are in part a consequence of the non-supportive responses provided by their parent in childhood (e.g., more non-supportive emotion socialization). Likewise, there is evidence that emotion dysregulation and maladaptive mental health symptoms coupled with remembered experiences of non-supportive ERSB's in childhood is associated with similar non-supportive parenting responses provided by the child when they become a parent (Eisenberg et al., 1997; Leerkes et al., 2015). The dynamic interpersonal process of parenting requires that an individual regulates their own emotions while simultaneously engaging in emotional co-regulation with their child's difficult emotional experiences (Rutherford et al., 2015). When a parent experiences emotion regulation difficulties, non-supportive emotion socialization behaviors are more commonly utilized which in turn, maladaptively influence a child's emotional understanding, expression, and regulation of positive and negative emotions. For example, new mothers who recalled their own mothers as being emotionally non-supportive in childhood provided less supportive responding to their own toddlers in distressing situations (Leerkes et al., 2015; 2020). Similarly, recollections of mothers' non-supportive emotion socialization practices in childhood have been associated with emotion regulation difficulties and depressive symptoms in new mothers

as they transition into parenthood (Cao et al., 2018). These findings suggest that the family of origin has consequential long-term effects on the social and emotional outcomes of an individual, including behaviors and practices associated with parenting the next generation within a family system.

Examining patterns in the emotion socialization practices and parental meta-emotion philosophy of a family system (e.g., childhood family to current family) can help researchers better understand the intergenerational transmission of adaptive and maladaptive socioemotional functioning within families. While emotion researchers have established that emotional experiences in the context of parent-child interactions have long-term implications for an individuals' personal and relational well-being in adulthood (Eisenberg et al., 1998; Morris et al., 2007), research examining the multifaceted construct of intergenerational transmission of socializing behaviors across families remains scarce.

Current examination of this concept suggests that remembered non-supportive parental socialization practices in childhood contribute to adult children's own difficulty in providing supportive responses to their toddlers' negative emotions (Leerkes et al., 2020). This supports the idea that emotion socialization practices utilized by parents are shaped in some capacity by the parenting practices they remember receiving in childhood. This framework, of intergenerational transmission of emotion socialization, draws on past parenting research that examined the relationship between positive and negative parenting domains in childhood and the indirect effect those parenting practices have on the child's capacity for parenting in adulthood (Belsky & Jaffee, 2006). In the

scope of parenting domains, receiving positive or negative parenting in childhood enhances or diminishes a variety of socioemotional skills for the child (i.e., emotion regulation, social competence, intimate relationships) which in turn indirectly affects the parenting capacity of the child in adulthood. (Leerkes et al., 2020). Relating to this framework, the current study will assess the intergenerational transmission of parental emotion socialization practices by directly examining the capacity for adult children to remember how their parents socialized them in childhood, and how this remembered socialization contributes to the emotion socialization practices utilized by the adult child as they transition to parenthood, suggesting continuity across generations.

Retrospection as a Mechanism in Intergenerational Transmission of Emotion

Socialization

Perhaps the biggest problem facing research on the intergenerational transmission of emotion socialization is the need to understand how socialization practices used by parents come to be associated with the socialization practices of their children, and what developmental pathways propel similarities and differences across generations. The promise of understanding mechanisms in intergenerational transmission of emotion socialization is the potential to inform more precise targets for mechanisms that could modify the transmission of non-supportive socialization practices. Thus, a particular focus of the current study is on using retrospective reports as a potential mechanism for capturing the emotional context of individuals' lives in childhood. However, before addressing the use of retrospective reports it is important to outline the reliability of such measures. Researchers now have a more nuanced understanding of memory and self-

concept in relation to the development of autobiographical memories. That is, previous research on the fragility of childhood memory is now understood as specific to infancy and very early childhood, before episodic memory development occurs. What follows is an updated understanding of current theories on memory development and episodic memory to better characterize the feasibility of retrospective reports regarding their ability to accurately reflect childhood memories.

Memory Development in Middle Childhood Allows for Childhood Retrospection

Developmental changes in children's self-concept and memory capabilities across middle childhood (e.g., ages 5 – 9) provide the foundation for autobiographical memory and contribute to the sense of continuity of the self over time (Nelson & Fivush, 2004). Past research has shown there is a robust improvement in episodic memory-- the ability to encode, store, and retrieve an event as it relates with contextual content-- across middle childhood. One study that examined storytelling of remembered event experiences by children and adults (e.g., ages 5 – 22) found that children as young as 5 years can generate meaningful assessments of event memorability just as well as adults, and that event recency did not have a significant effect across age (Ghetti & Alexander, 2004). Memory development in middle childhood predominantly involves increasingly skilled encoding and retention of complex event representations which enables individuals to remember detailed and salient episodes of past events (Ghetti & Bunge, 2011). Additionally, by the age of 5, children begin to attain insight into their own and others' internal agendas through a process known as theory of mind. This cognitive capability increases children's ability to reflect on and remember relevant information that is

independent to their own personal story and memories (McAdams, 2019). Together this evidence supports that children as young as 5 years old have the cognitive skills necessary to utilize more sophisticated strategies to regulate memory accuracy and semantic organization.

Furthermore, when assessing the accuracy of an individual's autobiographical narrative, or life story, theories of the development of memory suggest that by the age of 5 to 7 years children are able to create more complex forms of declarative memory outside of general routines and scripts, if they have the emotional understanding to encode memories that are personally relevant or significant (Klemfuss et al., 2016). Memory is multi-faceted, and a child's ability to take on more complex processes involves the development of a host of other cognitive operations including the development of language, emotion, and self-concept. In early childhood, children often give event information because they do not yet have skills in emotion knowledge and self-concept needed to detail the autobiographical memory (Rovee-Collier, 1999). Cross-cultural research has found that emotion knowledge and an understanding of the self as separate from others contributes greatly to autobiographical memory development. Children as young as 4 years who displayed more emotion understanding and theory of mind reported more specific recall of accurate autobiographical information (Wang, 2008).

The collection of previous research on memory development highlights support for children's ability to successfully encode episodic memories in middle childhood, especially if the memories are emotionally relevant. In addition, adults are able to

accurately recall episodic memories from as early as when they were five years old. Based on this previous research, requesting participants to reflect on a negative emotional event that occurred between the ages of 5 – 7 would provide the guidance and structure necessary for them to provide a detailed, accurately recalled, personally significant, event episode from their childhood. Therefore, this dissertation study asked individuals who have recently transitioned to parenthood to provide detailed subjective accounts of emotional experiences (i.e., narrative prompts) and retrospective reports on their childhood between the ages of 5 – 7 years old. By utilizing narrative identity and autobiographical reasoning methodologies in addition to retrospective reports, research will be able to examine the similarities and changes in parental emotion socialization practices across a family and can also begin to capture individual factors, like the stories an individual remembers from their childhood, that help explain why these similarities and changes occur.

Retrospective Reports of Parental Emotion Socialization

Empirical evidence supports the use of retrospective reports of emotional concepts because emotionally valenced experiences are more likely than neutral experiences to be accurately remembered memories as opposed to just known memories about childhood (Pasupathi, 2001). Past research has also shown the reliability of autobiographical (e.g., personally remembered) memories because they are a product of the sociocultural contexts of family and social environments and help to inform coherent emotional experiences across the individual's lifetime. This suggests that how someone remembers and recalls their past emotional experiences in childhood can influence their

expectations and management of future emotional experiences, like becoming a new parent (Lindsay et al., 2004; Pasupathi, 2001).

Retrospective reports often raise questions concerning factual accuracy and validation of remembered events in childhood because the self-reports are subjective (as already mentioned). There is evidence that adults' retrospective reports of their parents' parenting practices in childhood correlate both with their parents' own self-reports of parenting, and with their siblings' reports of parenting, further lending support to the validity of retrospective reports (Harlaar et al., 2008; Parker, 1981). While retrospective reports can broadly capture the similarities and changes in emotion socialization practices across a generation, these reports fail to capture how the subjective recollection of childhood likely influences the individual's own emotional functioning, which in turn directs prospective parenting beliefs and practices. It is through the process of attaining *self-awareness* that an individual can understand and capture the relevance of their childhood experiences as contributing to their parenting beliefs and practices surrounding emotions. Currently, a plethora of socioemotional factors (e.g., emotion regulation, emotional understanding, physiology of child when parent is present) can be assessed to examine how socioemotional functioning is transmitted across generations; yet these objective measures fail to capture the subjective nature of what is remembered from childhood and the variability with which individuals make meaning of these remembered childhood experiences. To examine the individual factors that contribute to the maintenance and breakdown of emotion socialization practices across generations of a

family, measures are needed that capture *how* a new parent reflects on and makes meaning of their childhood emotional experiences.

Current work in the field of emotion socialization is moving toward a better understanding of how childhood emotional experiences in the family of origin (e.g., the childhood family) affect parents' emotion socialization behaviors toward their own child and how this is linked to child outcomes within the next generation of the family. Currently, emotion research focused on the intergenerational transmission of emotion socialization utilizes a modified version of the Coping with Children's Negative Emotions Scale (CCNES; Fabes, Eisenberg, & Bernzweig, 1990), and asks participants to remember their experiences in childhood and self-report on how their parents responded to their negative emotions. This retrospective report has been used in past research to predict individual differences in adaptation of parents' socialization practices and other adult domains (e.g., mental health outcomes, emotion regulation capability, romantic relationships) (Bradbury & Shaffer, 2012; Leerkes et al., 2015, 2020). This dissertation will utilize similar retrospective reports of parental emotion socialization practices in childhood to capture supportive and non-supportive practices and will compare these to the adult child's own emotion socialization practices with their child as a new parent.

Prior research, while limited, has utilized remembered parental emotion socialization in childhood as a mechanism for capturing the variability in adult outcomes of supportive and non-supportive emotion socialization experienced in childhood. This research has found that retrospective reports of non-supportive emotional responses by parents in childhood relate to maladaptive emotion regulation strategies and greater

emotion dysregulation for the child in adulthood (Leerkes et al., 2020). Based on these outcomes, prior research highlights the intergenerational cycle of emotion socialization through which the process of socialization practices experienced in childhood impacts the child's socioemotional functioning across the lifespan which eventually impacts the adult child's ability to adaptively socialize their child.

Narrative identity approaches that focus on how a person might change over time consider (1) what individuals use the memories of their life for and (2) how memories from the past are employed in adaptive and maladaptive ways across the individual's everyday life (Bluck et al., 2005). The memories that people remember and use in their understanding of who they are currently allows for the development of self-continuity which is directly related to self-concept and directing future behaviors (Lind & Thomsen, 2017). The construction and reconstruction of an individual's autobiographical narrative or life story is continually updated across chronological time as they recall and reflect on their past experiences in reference to their current self and current experiences.

Normative and non-normative life events and experiences challenge or disrupt continuity between the past and present versions of themselves. How the individual navigates these disruptions in self-continuity may affect aspects of psychological well-being and decision-making about the future self – which can encourage adaptive growth, meaning-making, and renovations and reconstructions of the self-concept and life story over time (Bluck & Liao, 2013; McLean et al., 2007). As individuals transition into parenthood, they are challenged with the task of maintaining self-continuity by redefining their past

experiences to align with who they are currently as a first-time parent by interpreting the impact of these events differently.

Planned Emotion Socialization

The transition to parenthood provides an opportunity for the individual to recognize the critical role they will play in their child's socioemotional development as a parent, their beliefs about various parenting practices, and a rich context for reflecting back on their childhood experiences. Previous research provides support for the notion that as individuals move into parenthood, they recall the past dyadic interactions with their parent(s) in ways that are richer in interpretation and give meaning to their experiences as they relate to parenthood (Pasupathi & Wainryb, 2010). Reflecting on childhood (e.g., retrospective awareness) allows an individual to (a) gain an autobiographical understanding of the quality of emotional support received in childhood, (b) actively think about how the quality of the support received from a parent in childhood has contributed to current emotional expression and functioning, and (c) assess where and why similarities and differences in emotion socialization behaviors across a familial generation arise. The transition to parenthood also provides a unique opportunity for first-time parents to think about their emotion-related beliefs and planned behaviors for how they manage and interact with their child's emotions.

Thus, this study will focus on individuals who have recently transitioned to parenthood to best illustrate how the level of self-awareness about how one experienced emotion socialization in childhood contributes to the similarities and changes they want to incorporate as they socialize their child through parenting practices and discussions

about emotions. This study will also examine how self-awareness may contribute to adaptive changes in an individual's socioemotional functioning from childhood to adulthood, ultimately improving the capacity to provide more supportive (and less non-supportive) parental emotion socialization practices to their own child. However, given that this study focuses on first-time parents it is necessary to highlight the potential discrepancy in first-time parents' beliefs (or plans) surrounding socializing their child's emotions and their actual enacted socialization behaviors. Given the subjective focus of this dissertation and the inclusion of self-reported measures the current study will focus on participants' plans for emotion socialization to better understand how self-awareness of childhood experiences can contribute to plans for parenting children's emotions.

Parenting Beliefs and Parenting Behaviors

The transition to parenthood is a period in which many parents begin to plan for how they want to raise their child. Research on emotion development typically focuses on two broad domains of parenting: parenting beliefs and parenting behaviors. Parenting beliefs, in the context of emotion development, illustrate how thoughts surrounding how a parent wants to emphasize the value and/or danger of emotions within their household guide emotion-related socialization behaviors (Castro et al., 2014). Previous research on emotion-related beliefs has found that parents either view emotions as valuable or problematic. Parents who hold beliefs that emotions are valuable and provide opportunity for intimacy often engage in supportive socialization behaviors where they respond to and encourage their child's emotions. In contrast, parents who hold beliefs that emotions are problematic or dangerous often respond to children's emotions with minimization or

dismissal (Gottman et al., 1996). For example, a parent who finds negative emotions dangerous would not want to encourage the child to express negative emotions and therefore the parent's behavior would be to ignore or not respond to the child's bid for attention. Thus, the parent's own beliefs surrounding negative emotions indicate risk for non-supportive emotion socialization behaviors. Emotion-related behaviors include active acknowledgement and instruction of children's emotions through practices like labeling and teaching. Previous research has shown that when a parent values emotions and helps the child identify what they are feeling, children display greater emotion regulation skills and fewer internalizing problems (Havinghurst et al., 2010). This suggests that emotion-related parenting beliefs may encourage and support the use of specific emotion-related parenting behaviors, and vice versa (Barnett et al., 2010). However, previous research has suggested that the strength of the relationship between beliefs and behaviors is influenced by the individual's experience and norms that they have been socialized with (Ajzen, 2001). With this in mind, parenting behaviors and beliefs about emotion socialization will either match or mismatch and this could present either risk or protection for child internalizing and externalizing behaviors (Denham et al., 1997). For example, optimal parenting beliefs surrounding a child's emotion development could amplify positive parenting behaviors in the responsiveness to their child's emotions. Alternatively, non-supportive parenting behaviors could amplify the effects of suboptimal parenting beliefs. In this study, I ask first-time parents to self-report on their own emotion socialization practices which is undoubtedly being influenced by their own beliefs and behaviors about how they want to respond to their child's emotions. Parenting behaviors and beliefs are

influenced by the context and social considerations of the individual's lived experience. By assessing first-time parents' subjective depiction of their own socialization practices, I will be able to capture the clear similarities and differences that they are implementing from their own childhood experiences.

Self-awareness

An individual defines themselves in the present through their subjective interpretation and perspective of the past (Fivush, 2011). That is, the stories and memories that a person recalls from their past become valenced by the unique emotional and personalized perspective of how that past event has impacted the individual and contributed to who they are now. At every stage of the lifespan, people reflect on the events and episodic details of their past through sharing stories, reflecting on their memories, and sharing experiences with others, and in so doing the individual is interpreting the intentions, thoughts, and feelings of the self and potentially the other people in the story as well (Gryzman & Mansfield, 2017; Nelson & Fivush, 2004; Reese et al., 2011). Support for this meaning-making process has suggested that the emotional content of our past experiences is the link that informs the current self about why a past event is being recalled and is personally significant (Fivush et al., 2003; Oppenheim, 2006). In other words, the value of narrative research is primarily in what it reveals about the psychological understanding individuals have at a given point in time – their *self-awareness* (Gryzman & Mansfield, 2017). By having first-time parents reflect on their childhood and provide stories about their emotional experiences with their parent(s) and their emotional experiences currently as they transition to parenthood, the current

research can examine the meaning that individuals extract from those remembered childhood emotional experiences and how the subjective interpretation of those experiences is contributing to their socioemotional functioning and emotion socialization practices.

Self-awareness and Emotion Development

The concept of self-awareness in this study is derived from the Narrative Identity framework (described below), which claims that individual differences manifest through the stories people tell about their significant life experiences and these stories are required to truly know a person and his or her personality (McAdams, 1995, 2001; McAdams & McLean, 2013). In this regard, narrative identity is important for understanding the development of personality but is also able to capture the development of social and personal functioning across the lifespan (Adler et al., 2016; Dunlop et al., 2019; McAdams et al., 2001). In developmental science there is a growing acceptance of a person-oriented approach in which the individual is seen as an organized whole whose functioning and development must be observed in totality (Bauer & McAdams, 2010). Viewing emotion development from a person-oriented approach allows the field to better understand how individual differences displayed across an individual's lifetime ultimately affect socioemotional functioning and well-being. Drawing on similar research, Dunlop (2015, 2017, 2019) proposed that narrative identity can be used to assess specific domains within the life story to provide (1) a better understanding of the subjective experiences' individuals represent as relevant to narrative representations of the domain and (2) stronger relations with domain-specific indicators of functioning,

when compared to using more generalized narrative identities. Dunlop (2015) suggests that an individual's overarching narrative of "who they are" is made up of smaller stories that describe their various identities, for example, as a partner, parent, friend, etc. and feed into the broader generalized narrative. With this in mind, the current study captured smaller stories about the emotional events in an individuals' childhood and parenthood to better understand the emotion socialization practices and emotional experiences that are contributing to the individual's socioemotional functioning. Furthermore, by collecting key negative emotional scenes from participants' childhoods this study allows me to investigate the subjective narrative themes that can capture the narrator's general socioemotional functioning and their planned emotion socialization practices to their child. Additionally, narrative storytelling within emotion research can be utilized to contextualize the findings and highlight individual differences within the domain of emotional experiences across the lifespan. In this dissertation, I hypothesize that the level of self-awareness an individual has of their emotional life narrative, indicated by the interpretive content they provide in the stories of their childhood emotional experiences, will directly impact the individual's socioemotional functioning and influence parenting style. Self-awareness will also be assessed as a potential mechanism for updating and changing maladaptive intergenerational meta-emotion philosophies and socialization practices across a family. For example, if self-awareness corresponds positively with supportive socialization tendencies, better socioemotional functioning, and greater well-being then future intervention-based emotion science work can examine how to promote

self-awareness in the emotion development narratives of an individual to enhance participants' socioemotional functioning and parenting practices.

Narrative Identity

Narrative identity provides a framework through which the introspection and awareness described above can be understood and captured. People have an internalized evolving story or narrative that allows them to reconstruct the history of their past in a personalized way to explain how they have come to be who they are currently and to explain who they anticipate becoming in the future. This evolving narrative provides us with temporal coherence (e.g., chronological representations of our life) and psychosocial purpose (e.g., self-understanding, successful social relationships, growth toward an ideal self across the lifespan) which allows for individuals to better understand the dynamic interpersonal and social contexts in which they develop (Erikson, 1994; McAdams, 2018, 2019). Personal relationships, societal norms, and the culture of a family shape the initial form and content of an individual's story (McLean et al., 2007). This suggests that to form an accurate and coherent narrative across adulthood, an individual must be able to understand the intentions and motivations of other people within the memories of their past. This retrospective understanding is important because it allows the individual to contemplate how those interpersonal and social contexts of the past have contributed to behavioral, emotional, and social patterns that have either changed or remained the same for that person across their lifespan. Whether describing a difficult or an exciting experience, how the individual tells that story provides insight into the meaning those events hold for them. Through the representation of their childhood emotional

experiences and life emotional experiences in a narrative framework, individuals can personally conceptualize the meaning of their collective emotional experiences and provide a sense of interpretive understanding of why they are the way they are, *emotionally*.

Narrative identity theory postulates that a person's internalized and evolving life story is woven together by narratives, or stories, of personal experiences that are reconstructed representations of past events, current events, and anticipated future events which all together allow the individual (and researchers) to meaningfully understand lived experiences within the context of what remembering serves in that moment (Adler et al., 2017; Fivush, 2010). In this sense, narrative research is not concerned about the accuracy of memory but rather the functional utility of recalling that memory and how what is being remembered might relate to other outcomes. Specifically, the way in which a person constructs stories about themselves and others across periods in their lives allows them to synthesize a story about their life that encapsulates a coherent account of identity and meaning – we must understand our past self to make meaning of our present self and inform the goals of our future self (McAdams & McLean, 2013; Singer, 2004). In this sense, research on narrative identity has established that the reason an individual shares a particular memory, via storytelling and reflection, matters in that context and often must contribute to the meaning of why they are the way they in that context (McAdams, 2013; McLean, 2005). However, the capacity for individuals to develop a narrative identity is underscored by the significant role of sociohistorical and family contexts in formulating a meaningful story of one's life (McAdams, 2013).

Narrative Identity as a Framework for Examining Self-awareness

How someone reflects on their past and the emotional events of their childhood contributes to their understanding of who they are currently as an adult and how they might want to parent their child in the future. For instance, someone who is subjectively aware of how their parents socialized them to think, feel, and behave towards their own and others' emotions will retrospectively reflect on their family of origin's socialization practices and be able to describe how this has impacted their current emotional expression and management and be able to integrate whether they are going to maintain or adjust their current family's meta-emotional philosophy as they socialize their own child. In the current study, I hypothesized that the presence of self-awareness would relate to the intergenerational transmission of maladaptive emotion socialization practices such that more self-awareness would be associated with more supportive emotion socialization practices than were previously experienced. For example, a first-time parent that provides an emotional life narrative describing their parent's non-supportive emotion socialization in childhood who comments on how that affected their socioemotional development and what they have done to improve their socioemotional functioning as an adult (high self-awareness) would be expected to be able to utilize healthy and adaptive socialization practices with their child to disrupt the intergenerational transmission of maladaptive emotion socialization practices across the family. As outlined in the example, a narrative identity framework will allow for a further understanding regarding the functioning of self-awareness within the intergenerational transmission of emotion socialization across a family system.

With this theoretical model in mind, different family cultures offer different themes, examples, and plots, via the emotion socialization practices displayed in the family, for how to construct narrative identity surrounding emotions. However, beginning in childhood, the narrator actively appropriates, sustains, and modifies the family themes, examples, and plots as they tell their own stories that capture their subjective experience (McAdams & McLean, 2013). In this sense, I propose that narrative identity methodologies (i.e., subjective open-ended written responses that are thematically coded) can be used to quantify individual differences in (a) narrative valence, (b) meaning making, (c) exploratory processing, and (d) redemptive sequences as mechanisms of how self-awareness either maintains or breaks down familial patterns of emotion socialization across generations. Adults who narrate the emotional events of their past in more self-reflective and individualized ways have reported better psychological health and are also better at coping with and regulating their emotions (Pennebaker & Chung, 2007). However, it is unknown how perceptions of emotional support received from parents in childhood, or the stability/change in socioemotional functioning from childhood to present-day adulthood may influence the emotion socialization practices people utilize with their own children as they become parents. Below, I will make the case that incorporating narrative identity and its methodologies into emotion socialization research would enhance the field's understanding of socioemotional development across the lifespan and inform how emotion philosophy and socialization practices are transmitted intergenerationally across a family, for better or worse.

By utilizing a narrative identity approach to capture socioemotional functioning across the lifespan, this dissertation will examine how the stories an individual tells about their subjective and interpretive recollections of emotional events in childhood can serve as an indicator for socioemotional functioning and provision of better (e.g., more supportive and less non-supportive) emotion socialization as a first-time parent. Narrative methodology from a developmental perspective is focused on the dynamic process of interpreting past experiences and constructing knowledge about those experiences to progress forward and shape the self, memory, and understanding of life's events. The socialization-based narrative prompts within this study will aim to capture individual differences in self-awareness of how an individual, as a first-time parent, feels their parenting practices and socioemotional functioning are similar and different to the emotion socialization behaviors and the meta-emotion philosophy of their family of origin. The awareness of how and in what ways an individual is deciding to maintain and/or break down their family's meta-emotion philosophy can provide insight into how socialization of children's emotions changes across generations. A hypothetical example makes this point clearly. Knowing that a first-time mother and father that were both raised in homes with more non-supportive than supportive socialization practices are now supporting their own child's negative emotions provides important information about individual differences; it suggests that non-supportive emotion socialization received in childhood may not be associated with non-supportive responses to children's negative emotions. However, examining individual differences in narrative identity adds explanatory power. For example, the mother narrates that she uses more supportive

responses to her child's sadness because her parents called her a cry baby in her childhood, and she wants her child to know it's okay to cry. In contrast, the father narrates that he uses more supportive responses because in childhood his father told him crying was weak and he believed that until in college his partner encouraged him to talk about his sadness and cry. So, the father provides more supportive responses to his child's sadness because he wants his child to know that sadness is not a weakness. For these two hypothetical examples, the themes within their narratives reveal additional information about the connections between their individual developmental experiences and their socialization practices that would not be captured by objective measures alone.

Therefore, narrative constructs of socioemotional development across the lifespan offer a rich context for understanding how an individual's current socioemotional functioning (i.e., how an individual thinks about, feels, and behaves toward emotions) operates comparatively with the patterns established in their family of origin throughout childhood. Previous research has established that reminiscing serves a *directive function* in that it involves reflecting on past experiences to gain insight from them and guide present and future behavior (Bluck & Liao, 2013). Meaning making and exploratory processing are key constructs that help to identify adaptive and change-promoting differences in how individuals make sense of their life experiences and narrate coherent and meaningful stories. For example, greater exploratory processing in narrating experiences allows an individual to formulate a link between negative experiences in the past and self-continuity (i.e., stability of the self across the lifespan) toward positive experiences in the present and future that predict healthy outcomes in adulthood, such as

improved psychological maturity (Pals, 2006). Additionally, examining the stories individuals articulate about their past allows us to capture meaning-making, which is the degree to which one learns something about oneself or gains insight from reflecting on the past events of one's life (McLean & Andrea, 2009). Coding for meaning-making and exploratory processing allowed me to investigate the self-awareness an individual has of how their socioemotional functioning has changed over time. Additionally, I was able to use these narrative themes to capture how each participant has reflected on their childhood to make meaning of and explore how their parents responded to their negative emotions.

This dissertation will examine the level of self-awareness (i.e., meaning making and exploratory processing) the individual provides as they retrospectively engage in storytelling on parent socialization behaviors and emotional experiences in childhood. This subjective approach will expand emotion socialization and narrative identity research by unpacking how socialization practices are maintained and broken down across generations of a family and identifying narrative themes that might contribute to various socioemotional outcomes. The current study will evaluate the emotional valence and importance that an individual attributes to their remembered childhood emotional experiences, parent-child relationship, and socioemotional development to identify how an individual's remembered childhood experiences shape their emotion-related parenting beliefs and behaviors. To this point, utilizing narrative methodologies in emotion socialization research will allow the field to capture the unique and individualized experiences that contribute to how an individual comes to use certain parenting practices

over others and how socioemotional cultures of a family (i.e., meta-emotional philosophies) impact the socialization practices of first-time parents; all factors that cannot be effectively captured by self-reports (Bluck et al., 2005; McAdams, 2018; Lind & Thomsen, 2017).

Characteristics of Narrative Identity

Narratives about the emotional experiences of one's life offer a feasible mechanism to capture subjective emotional concepts (e.g., emotion socialization, attachment, narrative identity, autobiographical memories, etc.) across various contexts in time (e.g., the parent-child relationship, the individual's emotional experiences) to better understand how a pattern of socioemotional factors emerges across development. Using a narrative framework to capture continuity of emotional development over time is an important next step for emotion development research, especially considering the growing importance of "understanding your emotional self". Participants who share highly self-aware stories will describe how their socioemotional functioning has grown and changed as a product of reflecting on their childhood negative emotional events. To assess this possibility, the current study will examine the relationship between first-time parents' emotion socialization practices and levels of self-awareness, which will be captured using the narrative themes of meaning making and exploratory processing.

Meaning Making Themes

Individuals appraise or assign meaning to their past experiences. Meaning making has been operationalized as gaining insight, learning life lessons, and using memories about the past to direct current and future behavior (Bluck et al., 2005; McLean, 2005).

Thus, meaning making has two defining components which are reflecting on past events to (1) extract lessons and insights and (2) guide or direct future thoughts and behaviors. Individuals often tell stories more than once across their lifetime and the meaning associated with these memories varies through the way an event is storied and narrated at that point in the narrator's life (McLean et al., 2007). Meaning making can be positive or negative. Greater positive meaning-making has been associated with greater personal growth and well-being, whereas providing little to no meaning making or negative meaning-making has been associated with maladaptive outcomes such as diminished mental health and wellbeing (McLean & Fournier, 2008). In the scope of this study, meaning making themes will be assessed via individuals' remembered negative childhood emotional experiences and current emotion experiences with the goal of capturing the insight and lessons learned as they reflect on the emotion socialization practices from their childhood and how it has contributed to their emotion socialization practices in parenthood.

Exploratory Processing Themes

Exploratory processing can be broadly defined as an active, engaged effort to explore, reflect on, or analyze a difficult experience with a desire to learn from it and incorporate a sense of change (Pals, 2006). While there is a lot to unpack in this construct, the primary interest is the level of investigation and complexity the narrator brings to processing how the affective experience has impacted them. Additionally, exploratory processing captures how open to change the narrator is in how they make sense of the impact the difficult experience has had on them over time. Previous research

suggests that subjective well-being and maturity are associated with higher levels of exploratory processing (Bauer & McAdams, 2010). In the scope of this study, exploratory processing will be assessed via individuals' remembered negative childhood emotional experiences and current emotion experiences, with the goal of capturing the detail provided and whether a sense of change had been incorporated as they reflect on the emotion socialization practices from their childhood and how it has contributed to their emotion socialization practices in parenthood.

Redemptive and Contaminated Themes

One of the most common uses of narrative methods is the assessment of redemptive or contaminated themes across an individuals' life story. A redemptive theme suggests that the individual has overcome negative life experiences and has emerged strengthened from them (McAdams, 2009). However, empirical evidence shows that in order to articulate a redemptive narrative theme an individual must be able to explore the remembered negative socialization experiences of their childhood in depth and be able to articulate a positive resolution of the event via the supportive socialization they articulate utilizing as a first-time parent and/or through an understanding of why their parents utilized non-supportive socialization (McAdams, 2009; Pals, 2006). A contaminated theme suggests that an individual must be able to explore the remembered positive experiences of their childhood socialization in depth and be able to articulate a negative resolution to the event (i.e., reasoning as to why they are non-supportive of their child's negative emotions), the opposite of redemption. Accordingly, narratives that demonstrate a redemptive theme are associated with higher levels of happiness and emotional well-

being and contaminated narratives are associated with lower levels of happiness and emotional well-being (Pals, 2006). In the scope of this study, redemptive and contaminated themes were assessed by the emotional valence of remembered childhood experiences and current emotion experiences with the goal of capturing the maintenance and breakdown of emotion socialization practices from childhood to new parenthood.

Validity and Reliability of Narrative Identity

Narrative methodologies provide subjective information about whether an individual is aware of the quality of the emotional input they received in childhood and how that awareness contributes to who they are currently. As mentioned previously, this awareness serves as an important expansion for emotion development research, because narrative approaches would allow researchers to evaluate how a person has come to remember their socialization in childhood and what that is contributing to the adaptive and/or maladaptive emotional behaviors they are utilizing with themselves and others (e.g., their children). In addressing concerns of reliability and validity, McAdams (2018; 2019), has suggested that researchers use a multi-method approach whereby participants are given the freedom to craft their own narrative responses and then from there: (1) coders score open-ended narratives for objectively defined themes that have been established in narrative identity and emotion science work (i.e., code for themes of contamination, redemption, emotional valence, exploratory processing, meaning making, etc.) and (2) participants report on a variety of other measures. By using this multi-method approach, researchers can capture the subjective experience of the respondent and the objective reports of various constructs. This multi-method approach allows research

in this area to account for construct validity, defined as the extent to which a test measures what it claims to measure, because the themes that coders are scoring relate to established constructs within narrative identity and emotion development which have been found to have high test-retest reliability (Bluck & Liao, 2013; McAdams, 2018). This approach can also improve reliability, which can be defined as the consistency of a measure, by carefully designing the coding manual, having multiple coders reach suitable agreement, and reporting multiple reliability indexes that provide clearer information on the nature of agreement (e.g., kappa and percent agreement, kappa and delta) (Syed & Nelson, 2015). Overall, the field of narrative identity is still developing, and the incorporation of self-awareness into intergenerational emotion development is a new layer of research across both fields. With this consideration in mind, it is good practice to be flexible in using multiple approaches to capture the totality of the individual and to be mindful and intentional in documenting the thought and action process as thoroughly as possible to continue to contribute to a high level of consistency within the field (Syed & Nelson, 2015).

The biggest challenge or weakness to narrative identity and retrospective reporting, according to scientific standards, is the notion that we are relying on the individual to produce accurate, objective, and correct memories. In some cases, past research has shown that adults can produce false memories – increasing the times an event happens in childhood, remembering memories as more positive – which illustrates potential concerns for factual reports (Lindsay et al., 2004). However, within the narrative construct factual accuracy is not of interest, rather *personal interpretation* and

emotional meaning surrounding the story of the past is of interest. Furthermore, when assessing the accuracy of an individual's autobiographical narrative or life story, researchers in the field argue that the subjective nature means that the primary concern is not how well people remember their personal past but *why* individuals remember both the events they do and how those memories are contributing to the individuals' narrative identity (Bluck et al., 2005). Autobiographical reasoning, a construct within narrative identity, can be defined as the process by which an individual actively reflects on the remembered events of their lives to reconstruct and create their life story over time. This is an informative model for how an individual might remember and make meaning of their childhood (Bluck & Liao, 2013).

Taken together, retrospective reports and autobiographical narratives are both necessary to address the extent to which an individual has reflected on the emotional experiences of their childhood and how they have reconstructed these personal experiences to better understand how their emotional development across time has changed or remained the same in their life thus far. Self-awareness surrounding emotional development is the subjective perception of how our remembered past, perceived present, and imagined future interconnect and inform how our emotional self has come to be in the present and what, if anything, we need to change to become the version of our emotional self we want to become in the future. This self-reflective process builds chronologically as we retrospectively look back and effortfully process how our autobiographical remembering and insight gained shapes our emotional experiences both in childhood and as adults (Bluck & Liao, 2013). Essentially, it is

through narrative mechanisms that we can reflect on our emotion development within childhood and understand how these experiences might confer adaptive and/or maladaptive impacts on our emotion regulation, understanding, expression, and discussion.

In conclusion, the biggest challenges with narrative identity approaches and retrospective reports are concerns about accuracy and the subjective component. However, the dynamic and contextualized nature of stories, or personal experiences, reflects explicit efforts of meaning-making on the part of the individual, or storyteller, and provides an implicit measure of how the individual fits into their family's own structure of socioemotional functioning. The methodological purpose of this dissertation is to explore how narrative identity themes can be applied as a necessary framework for capturing variations in the levels of self-awareness and how that relates to a person's socioemotional development across the lifespan: in childhood with the parents, currently, and in the near future as a parent in adulthood. As past research on memory has concluded, there is a distinct difference between knowing (e.g., know the objective fact) and remembering (e.g., representing one's own subjective act of experiencing the fact) (Perner & Ruffman, 1985). By incorporating narrative identity constructs and retrospective report methodologies into research examining factors that contribute to socioemotional development we are beginning to unpack novel approaches for examining emotion socialization across generations of a family system. These novel methodologies focused on retrospective reports will allow emotion research to more carefully examine how individuals, subjectively, reference their emotion development across the lifespan

and make sense of the social and cultural influences that have impacted their development. Context matters, and the use of narratives will allow researchers to explore the individual differences that are contributing to the patterns of intergenerational transmission of emotion socialization within a family system.

Well-Being as a Shared Outcome for Emotion Socialization and Narrative Identity

It appears that the impact on an individual's well-being is the common ground shared by emotion socialization and narrative identity. Therefore, this study examined the impact of these psychological concepts on well-being. Previous research in emotion socialization has found that parenting practices influence the well-being of children in adolescence and adulthood. Parents who provide more non-supportive emotion socialization often have children who exhibit internalizing and externalizing problems (Aquilino & Supple, 2000). Additionally, other emotion socialization research has found a negative relation between parents' non-supportive emotion socialization responses (e.g., neglectful, punitive) and emerging adult emotional well-being (O'Leary et al., 2019). This negative relationship was not found to be consistent across all parents and emotions, which suggests that individual differences in how a person makes meaning of their past might be an informative missing piece of the picture. The relationship between emotion socialization and well-being suggests that the socialization practices an individual experiences in childhood play an important role in the socioemotional functioning of the individual which in turn impact well-being. Despite such an important influence, the role of emotion socialization in the development of well-being is often overlooked and limited to the development of ER and internalizing/externalizing behaviors. However, by

incorporating narrative identity methodologies into emotion socialization research the field can begin to investigate how direct and indirect socialization across childhood impacts well-being and functioning in adulthood, at a more subjective and personal level. To do this, emotion socialization in childhood and how it has impacted that person's well-being should be examined from the perspective of the individual's life story.

Narrative identity research refers to the internal life story that an individual constructs to make sense of his or her life. Research throughout the field has found that individuals who are able to successfully narrate how their past experiences influence how they have become the person they are currently report greater well-being (Bauer et al., 2008; McAdams, 2009). More specifically, people that report greater well-being tend to emphasize personal growth in their stories, follow a redemptive sequence (e.g., bad to good), and describe difficult times as transformative where they have gained new insights about the self and improved from the beginning to end of the story (Adler et al., 2017; Bauer et al., 2008; McAdams, 2009). These narrative themes of meaning-making and growth in life stories support an intrinsic motivation that guides the individual to continually think about how they have become who they are today which improves well-being (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Taken together, the current study utilizes narratives as a novel mechanism for capturing how socialization practices in childhood and a person's self-awareness of those experiences impact a person's well-being outside of just externalizing and internalizing behaviors.

Current Study

The goal of this dissertation is to investigate how new parents subjectively construct their experiences of emotion socialization, as they recall their childhoods and reflect on their lives as they currently are. I used narratives to capture how self-awareness of emotion development can be relevant to (a) personal identification of change and stability in facets of emotion development across developmental phases (e.g., remembered childhood, transition to parenthood, etc.), (b) shaping the socialization plans and practices of new parents, and (c) overall psychological well-being. Research on the structure of life story narratives has focused on identity formation with the unique narrative identity component of subjective construction (i.e., constructing stories about memorable events, making meaning of them, and continually revising the significance and purpose as new information and self-understanding develops across life) serving as a mechanism of psychological functioning (Bruner, 1990; Habermas & Bluck, 2000; McAdams, 2001; McLean, Pasupathi, & Pals, 2007). However, narrative identity could serve as a useful mechanism for emotion development research as well. Little is known about how someone's self-awareness of their own emotional development can impact well-being and the intergenerational transmission of a family's emotion socialization practices.

This dissertation examined self-awareness across different developmental stages of life, in relation to intergenerational transmission of emotion socialization practices in the transition to parenthood, and in relation to well-being, to answer three primary research questions:

1. Does remembered childhood emotion socialization relate to planned emotion socialization as a first-time parent?

Hypothesis 1: Overall, I expected that there would be a positive relationship between remembered childhood emotion socialization and planned emotion socialization, suggesting stability of emotion socialization practices and behaviors across generations in a family. Remembered supportive childhood emotion socialization was expected to positively correlate with planned supportive emotion socialization; whereas remembered non-supportive childhood emotion socialization was expected to positively correlate with planned non-supportive emotion socialization.

2. What is the association between facets of self-awareness and first-time parents' plans for supportive emotion socialization practices? Is the association moderated by remembered emotion socialization?

Hypothesis 2a: Greater exploratory processing will relate positively to planned supportive emotion socialization and negatively to planned non-supportive emotion socialization in first-time parents.

Hypothesis 2b: The effect of exploratory processing on planned supportive emotion socialization will be moderated by remembered childhood emotion socialization – that is, the positive relationship between exploratory processing and planned supportive emotion socialization will be stronger for participants who remember their childhood emotion socialization as having been more non-supportive and less supportive. The effect of exploratory processing on planned

non-supportive emotion socialization in first-time parents will be moderated by remembered childhood emotion socialization – that is, the negative relationship between exploratory processing and planned non-supportive emotion socialization will be stronger for participants who remember their childhood emotion socialization as having been more non-supportive and less supportive.

Hypothesis 2c: Greater meaning making will positively relate to planned supportive emotion socialization in first-time parents and negatively relate to planned non-supportive emotion socialization.

Hypothesis 2d: The effect of meaning making on planned supportive emotion socialization in first-time parents will be moderated by remembered childhood emotion socialization – that is, the positive relationship between meaning making and planned supportive emotion socialization will be stronger for participants who remember their childhood emotion socialization as having been more non-supportive and less supportive. The effect of meaning making on planned non-supportive emotion socialization in first-time parents will be moderated by remembered childhood emotion socialization – that is, the negative relationship between meaning making and non-supportive emotion socialization will be significantly moderated for participants who remember their childhood emotion socialization as having been more non-supportive and less supportive.

3. What is the association between planned emotion socialization (more supportive versus more non-supportive) and well-being in first-time parents? Is the association moderated by self-awareness?

Hypothesis 3a: Plans for more supportive emotion socialization will positively relate to well-being. In contrast, I hypothesize that plans to engage in more non-supportive emotion socialization will negatively relate to well-being.

Hypothesis 3b: The relationship between planned supportive emotion socialization and well-being in first-time parents will be moderated by exploratory processing, such that the positive relationship between planned supportive emotion socialization and well-being will be stronger as exploratory processing increases. In contrast, I predict that the relationship between planned non-supportive emotion socialization and well-being will be moderated by exploratory processing, such that the negative relationship between planned non-supportive emotion socialization and well-being will be stronger as exploratory processing increases.

Hypothesis 3c: The relationship between planned supportive emotion socialization and well-being in first-time parents will be moderated by meaning making, such that the positive relationship between planned supportive emotion socialization and well-being will be stronger as meaning making increases. In contrast, I predict that the relationship between planned non-supportive emotion socialization and well-being will be moderated by meaning making, such that the negative relationship between planned non-supportive emotion socialization and well-being will be weaker as meaning making increases.

Self-awareness and Within-Person Stability and Change in Narratives

A second goal of this dissertation is to investigate the extent to which self-awareness of one's own emotional development across time can be captured and assessed within the narrative identity framework (e.g., autobiographical reasoning, life story narrative). More specifically, I explored how the similarities, differences, and stability between an individual's past emotional self, current emotional self, and future emotional self can contribute to well-being and current socioemotional functioning as a parent (e.g., emotion regulation, emotion socialization). How this self-awareness might function as a mechanism for identifying intergenerational changes in emotion socialization was also of interest. To this end, I examined narrative responses to identify constructs of redemptive sequences as they relate to well-being. In particular, the narrative responses were examined for (1) a transition from negative to positive valence as an individual discusses remembered childhood emotion socialization and planned emotion socialization as a first-time parent and (2) a concept of personal growth suggesting that the individual has transformed what was bad in their childhood into something good as a first-time parent.

Additionally, this dissertation investigated the extent to which narrative form can function as a mechanism for identifying the stability and change between first-time parents' emotion socialization practices and behaviors and their remembered childhood emotion socialization. Specifically, the purpose of this is to identify themes across participants that can help researchers conceptualize and identify the interactions, processes, and variables that contribute to emotion socialization practices being

maintained versus changed across the various generations of a family. I hypothesize that individuals with greater self-awareness will narrate stories with redemptive sequences.

Thus, the overarching aim of this dissertation was to investigate first-time parents' planned emotion socialization strategies in relation to the subjective interpretation of remembered childhood emotion socialization to understand how and why emotion socialization strategies remain the same or change across generations. Additionally, I sought to explore the subjective and qualitative account of individuals' experiences of emotion socialization by asking them to reflect on their childhood, emotional experiences across their life thus far, and on their transition into parenthood.

Chapter 2

Methods

Participants

One hundred first-time parents, 66 mothers and 34 fathers (20 – 48 years old: $M_{age} = 30.14$; $SD = .52$), with a biological child (44% girls) under the age of 36 months (1 – 36 months: $M_{age} = 17.89$ months; $SD = .96$) took part in the study. All participants indicated that their current residence was in the United States, that they were fluent in reading and writing the English language, and that they had only one child born between 2020 – 2022. In this nationally representative sample, 81 participants reported living in a household with their partner and child only, 9 reported living in a household with their partner, child, and extended family member(s), 4 reported living with their child and extended family member(s), and 6 reported not living with their child. 69 participants were married to the child’s other parent, 17 were cohabiting or in a domestic partnership with the child’s other parent, and 14 endorsed “never being married” to the child’s other parent.

Participants self-reported race as White/Caucasian (69), Black or African American (10), Hispanic/Latino (10), Bi-racial (9), and Asian American (2). Annual household family income ranged from less than \$10,000 to greater than \$200,000. Specifically, participants reported income of \$40,000 or less (23%); \$40,000 - \$60,000 (15%); \$60,000 - \$99,000 (38%); and greater than \$100,000 (24%). 15 participants completed some high school or earned a high school degree, 2 completed trade school, 23 completed some college, 45 graduated with a bachelor’s degree, and 15 completed some

graduate training or earned a graduate degree. This study focused on first-time parents and because of this inclusion criteria only participants that were English speaking, resided in the United States, and had a biological child under the age of 3 were eligible.

Procedure

The study was approved by the University of California, Riverside institutional review board (HS#22-149) before any study procedures began. The survey study was piloted to ensure narrative prompts were accurately understood and to capture an accurate time of completion to compensate participants accurately (details of the pilot testing approach are provided in Appendix A).

During data collection, participants completed a survey in which they were asked to reflect on their emotional experiences, both in childhood with their parents and currently as a first-time parent with their own child, along with other reports to capture their well-being, emotional functioning, and socialization practices. Recruitment occurred via the online research platform Prolific (www.prolific.co) between January and February of 2023. Participants completed a survey that included open-ended narrative prompts followed by a series of validated questionnaires. The study description shared on Prolific indicated that the single-session study would take about an hour and a half, during which potential participants would reflect on their emotions and experiences in childhood as well as currently, as a new parent. Participants who decided to take part were routed to Qualtrics, an online survey-based platform which hosted the study. Before beginning the survey, participants read a cover letter explaining the general aims of the study and provided their consent to participate. To provide consent and opt-in to participate, they

were directed to continue to the survey only if they chose to participate in the study. The survey elements were completed in the same order for each participant. Upon starting the survey, participants completed narrative prompts on emotional experiences in childhood and adulthood: a sad event in childhood, sharing how they experience their own sadness, how they respond to their child's sadness currently, an angry event in childhood, sharing how they experience their own anger, how they respond to their child's anger currently, and a turning point about an experience from their childhood where they decided they wanted to do something similar or different from their parents when they became a parent. Additional, open-ended responses gathered information about parents' transition to parenthood, but these were not examined further for this dissertation. After the narrative portion was complete, they completed a series of non-narrative measures examining remembered socialization experiences from their childhood, planned and utilized socialization practices with their child, dysregulation of emotions, well-being, and emotional awareness. After completing the survey, participants were debriefed and received \$12 as compensation. The narrative prompts were later coded by a team of research assistants for various narrative themes described below. The full survey design and order of measures is presented in Appendix B.

Non-Narrative Measures

Demographics

Participants reported on demographics, including their race/ethnicity, gender identity, income, occupation, marital status, and relationship status. They also reported on household demographics including who they currently live with, their child's age and

gender, their total household income, and current financial stress. Demographics for their childhood family of origin household were also assessed, including financial stress, parents' marital status, and whether the mother and father they refer to throughout the narrative prompts were their biological parents. Participants also selected the kinds of parenting resources they utilized from an extensive array of options. They were also asked to report what they considered to be their most utilized parenting resource throughout their transition to parenthood; responses included their parents ($N = 22$), online parenting support groups/communities ($N = 18$), friends ($N = 14$), TikTok ($N = 10$), parenting books ($N = 9$), online parenting blogs ($N = 7$), myself/my experiences ($N = 4$), doctor's advice or scientific research ($N = 3$), their partner's parents ($N = 3$), siblings ($N = 3$), grandparents ($N = 3$), Instagram ($N = 3$), and Facebook ($N = 1$). Questions also asked whether participants had ever attended therapy, counseling, or utilized other mental health resources and responses included: no ($N = 30$); yes, before having their child ($N = 46$); yes, after having their child ($N = 2$); and yes, both before and after the birth of my child ($N = 22$). Similar questions asked individuals to report what non-clinical person(s) they reach out to when experiencing emotional or psychological distress; and whether they currently attend or intend to utilize mental health services ($No = 72$; *No, but I intend to* = 14; *Yes* = 14). See Tables 1 and 2 for a full overview of participant demographics.

Remembered and Planned Emotion Socialization Practices

Remembered childhood emotion socialization. Participants reported on their childhood emotion socialization experiences with their mother and father (separately) using the Remembered Responses to Negative Emotions Scale (RRNES; Leerkes, Bailes,

& Augustine, 2020), a revised version of the Coping with Children's Negative Emotions Scale (CCNES) that is retrospective. The CCNES (Fabes, Eisenberg, & Bernzweig, 1990; Eisenberg, Fabes, & Murphy, 1996) was created to assess parents' typical reactions to their children's negative emotions. The scale includes 12 different scenarios (e.g., being teased by friends, being scared of injections, being nervous about possibly embarrassing herself/himself in public) that describe a child who is upset, worried, sad, and/or angry within the scenario. For each scenario there are six corresponding descriptions of parental reactions (e.g., I would: "send my child to his/her room to cool off", "comfort my child and try to get him/her to forget about the accident", etc.). For each of the six reactions, parents indicate the likelihood that they would have each reaction toward their child on a scale from 1 (*very unlikely*) to 7 (*very likely*).

The six reactions to children's negative affect are composed of the average of items across six subscales that represent unique dimensions of parental reactions to children's negative emotions. There are three supportive subscales: (a) *emotion-focused reactions*—the degree to which parents respond with strategies that help the child feel better, (b) *problem-focused reactions*—the degree to which parents help or encourage the child to solve the problem that caused the child's distress or cope with it, and (c) *expressive encouragement*—the degree to which parents encourage children to express negative affect or validate their children's negative emotional states. There are three non-supportive subscales: (a) *minimizing reactions*—the degree to which parents minimize the seriousness of the situation or devalue the child's distress, (b) *punitive reactions*—the degree to which parents respond with punitive reactions that decrease their exposure or

need to deal with the negative emotions of their children, and (c) *distress reactions*—the degree to which parents experience distress when children express negative affect. The 12 items in each subscale are averaged to create a composite score for each of the six dimensions (Fabes, Poulin, Eisenberg, & Madden-Derdich, 2002).

As mentioned previously, in this study participants completed a modified version of the CCNES in which they recalled their experiences with their mothers and fathers (separately) in childhood, when ages 5 – 7 years old, and rated the extent to which each parent responded to their negative emotions in specific ways across the original 12 scenarios in the CCNES. For each situation participants were asked to, “think back to your childhood with your mother/father, specifically around the ages of 5 - 7 years old” and indicate on a 7-point scale from 1 (*very unlikely*) to 7 (*very likely*) the likelihood that their own parents would respond to them in the ways listed for each item. Participants were also told that some of the items may not have happened in their childhood and were asked to “respond based on how you think your mother/father would have responded”. A separate composite score for each of the six dimensions of parental reactions was created for mothers and fathers as the average of all the items within each subscale (Fabes et al., 2002).

After obtaining and averaging the separate composite scores for each subscale, I computed an overall supportive and overall non-supportive scale score (e.g., Davidov & Grusec, 2006; Nelson et al., 2009; Shadur & Hussong, 2019). Two remembered parental responses, calculated separately for mother and father, were captured: (1) remembered supportive emotion socialization (an average of remembered expressive encouragement,

remembered emotion-focused, and remembered problem focused responses) and (2) remembered non-supportive emotion socialization (an average of remembered distress, remembered minimizing, and remembered punitive responses). Higher scores on the remembered supportive emotion socialization composite indicated more extensive use of remembered supportive reactions such as emotion-focused, problem-focused, and expressive encouragement toward children's emotion. Higher scores on the remembered non-supportive emotion socialization composite indicated more extensive remembered non-supportive reactions including distress, punitive, and minimizing of children's emotions.

Planned socialization of their child's negative emotions. Participants' planned responses to their child's negative emotions were assessed using the Coping with Toddlers' Negative Emotions Scale (CTNES; Spinrad, Eisenberg, Kupfer, Gaertner, & Michalik, 2004) which was adapted from the Coping with Children's Negative Emotions Scale (Fabes, Eisenberg, & Bernzweig, 1990; Eisenberg, Fabes, & Murphy, 1996) described previously. This instrument presented participants with 12 hypothetical situations in which their child might become upset, distressed, worried, or angry within their first few years of life (toddlerhood). For example, one item is, "If my child is going to spend the afternoon with a new babysitter and becomes nervous and upset because I am leaving him/her, I would: ..." and then seven different possible reactions are presented. The possible reactions within the original CTNES include the six reactions present in the CCNES and a seventh reaction, *granting wishes* - the degree to which parents grant children's wishes to avoid or remove the problem that caused the child's

distress. However, I opted to omit the “granting wish” scale to shorten the measure and have it mirror the retrospective reports of their parents’ emotion socialization practices. For each situation, participants were asked to “rate the likelihood that you would respond in the ways listed for each item” on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 = *very unlikely* to 7 = *very likely* based on how they would respond currently with their child or how they plan to respond to their child in upcoming years (e.g., as the child enters toddlerhood). For example, one item is “If my child is going to spend the afternoon with a new babysitter and becomes nervous and upset because I am leaving him, I would: ...” and then six different possible reactions are presented. The six reactions again included: (a) *Distress* – “feel upset myself”, (b) *Punitive* - “tell my child that he won't get to do something else enjoyable, such as going to the playground or getting a special snack, if he doesn't stop behaving that way”, (c) *Minimizing* – “tell him that it's nothing to get upset about”, (d) *Expressive Encouragement* - “tell my child that it's ok to be upset”, (e) *Emotion Focused* - “distract my child by playing and talking about all of the fun he will have with the sitter”, (f) *Problem Focused* - “help my child think of things to do that will make it less stressful, like calling him once during the afternoon”. Six composite scores for each dimension of participants’ reactions to their child’s negative affect was created as the average of the 12 items in each subscale (Fabes et al., 2002). Then, like the RRNES, after obtaining and averaging the composite scores for each subscale, two composite scores were calculated: an overall supportive scale (by averaging expressive encouragement, emotion-focused, and problem-focused reactions) and overall non-supportive scale (by averaging distress, punitive, and minimizing reactions). Participants who scored higher

on the supportive emotion socialization composite indicated more extensive plans to utilize supportive reactions (e.g., emotion-focused, problem-focused, and expressive encouragement of emotion) toward their child. Participants who scored higher on the non-supportive emotion socialization composite indicated more extensive plans to utilize non-supportive reactions (e.g., distress, punitive, and minimizing) toward their child.

Well-Being

Participants' well-being was measured using a composite score of three variables described in detail below: (a) subjective happiness (1= *less subjective happiness* to 7 = *greater subjective happiness*), psychological well-being (1= *strongly disagree* to 6 = *strongly agree*), and satisfaction with life (5 = *extremely dissatisfied* to 35 = *extremely satisfied*) (Kraus et al., 2009). Considering that each scale is different, the variables were standardized before being combined in the objective well-being composite. To create the standardized composite score, the average of the three z scores was used. The composite score was used to assess objective well-being of participants in the final analyses.

Subjective Happiness. Participants completed the Subjective Happiness Scale (SHS; Lyubomirsky & Lepper, 1999), a 4-item scale of global subjective happiness ($\alpha = .79$ to $.94$ in the different samples). Two items asked respondents to characterize themselves using both absolute ratings (e.g., "In general, I consider myself:") and ratings relative to peers (e.g., "Compared with most of my peers, I consider myself:"). For the first two items, participants rated themselves on a 7-point scale from 1 = *Not a very happy person/Less happy* to 7 = *A very happy person/More happy*. Whereas the other two items offered brief descriptions of happy and unhappy individuals and asked respondents

the extent to which each characterization described them (e.g., “Some people are generally very happy. They enjoy life regardless of what is going on, getting the most out of everything. To what extent does this characterization describe you?”, “Some people are generally not very happy. Although they are not depressed, they never seem as happy as they might be. To what extent does this characterization describe you?”). Participants again rated themselves on a 7-point scale from 1 = *Not at all* to 7 = *A great deal*. Each participant was asked to select the point on each 7-point scale that felt most appropriate in describing themselves currently. Lower scores indicated less subjective happiness.

Psychological Well-Being. The short version of the Psychological Well-being Scale (PWB-18; Ryff, 1989) is an 18-item measure that is used to assess positive psychological functioning in six theoretically distinct subscales: Autonomy (e.g., “I have confidence in my opinions, even if they are contrary to the general consensus”); Environmental Mastery (e.g., “In general, I feel I am in charge of the situation in which I live”); Personal Growth (e.g., “I think it is important to have new experiences that challenge how you think about yourself and the world”); Positive Relations With Others (e.g., “People would describe me as a giving person, willing to share my time with others”); Purpose in Life (e.g., “Some people wander aimlessly through life, but I am not one of them”); and Self-acceptance (e.g., “When I look at the story of my life, I am pleased with how things have turned out”). Support for good construct validity and criterion-related validity of the Short-Form PWB-18 has been found across multiple studies (Ryff & Keyes, 1995; Ryff et al., 2010). Previous research, relevant to the current dissertation, has used the PWB-18 and found that adults report greater psychological

well-being when they remember having had supportive and affectionate relationships with their parents in childhood (An & Cooney, 2016). Participants rated how much they disagree or agree with each statement on a six-point Likert scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 6 (*strongly agree*). An example of an item is: “In general I feel confident and positive about myself”. There are seven items that are reverse-scored so that higher scores reflect greater well-being, an example of a reverse-scored item is: “I don’t have a good sense of what it is I’m trying to accomplish in life”. For this dissertation, subscales were not of interest but the total sum was; summed scores across the 18 items ranged from 18 – 108 with higher scores indicating greater psychological well-being.

Satisfaction with life. The Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS; Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985) is a 5-item measure that assesses global life satisfaction. The SWLS has been shown to be a valid and reliable measure of life satisfaction, suited for use with a wide range of age groups and applications (Diener et al., 1993; Pavot et al., 1991). Additionally, the satisfaction with life scale has been recommended as a complement to scales that focus on emotional well-being because it assesses an individual's conscious evaluative judgment of his or her life by using the person's own criteria and assessment (Pavot & Diener, 1993). Participants rated items including, “in most ways my life is close to my ideal” on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 = *Strongly Disagree* to 7 = *Strongly Agree*. Items are scored as a total sum of the 5 items, ranging from 5 (e.g., extremely dissatisfied) to 35 (e.g., extremely satisfied), with higher scores reflecting greater satisfaction with life.

Emotional Functioning

Emotional Awareness. The Emotional Awareness Scale (EAS; Kaplan & Tivani, 2014) is a 12-item measure of conceptions about emotional awareness and self-awareness and includes items such as, “When I experience anger, I am fully aware of it” and “At any given moment, I am aware of which specific emotion I am feeling”. Four items are reverse scored, for example, “When I feel fear, understanding what I feel is not a priority for me”. Participants were asked to rate how much each statement represented their experience on a 5-point scale from 1 = *almost never/not at all* to 5 = *almost always/very much*. Items were averaged to compute an aggregate score such that higher scores indicated greater emotional awareness.

Emotion Regulation Skills. The Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale (DERS; Gratz & Roemer, 2004) is a 36-item self-report scale designed to assess how individuals relate to their emotions across six subscales: (a) *nonacceptance of emotional responses* - “When I’m upset, I become angry with myself for feeling that way”; (b) *difficulty engaging in goal-directed behavior* – “When I’m upset, I have difficulty focusing on other things”; (c) *impulse control difficulties* – “I experience my emotions as overwhelming or out of control”; (d) *lack of emotional awareness* – reverse-coded responses to items like “I pay attention to how I feel”; (e) *limited access to emotion regulation strategies* – “When I’m upset, I believe that I will remain that way for a long time”; and (f) *lack of emotional clarity* – “I am confused about how I feel”. Participants endorsed responses on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*almost never*) to 5 (*almost always*) for each statement. Previous research suggests that the DERS has high internal

consistency, good test–retest reliability, and adequate construct and predictive validity (Bardeen & Fergus, 2014; Gratz & Roemer, 2004; Weinberg & Klonsky, 2009). For the purpose of this dissertation, consistent with prior studies, all 36 items were summed to create a total score for emotion dysregulation with higher scores suggesting greater emotion regulation problems.

Narrative Measures

To assess narrative measures, participants engaged in a written interview adapted from the Life Story Interview (LSI) developed by McAdams (1993, 1995) and the Meta-Emotion Interview developed by Katz and Gottman (1986). I followed components of the Life Story Interview and adapted various narrative prompts within the Critical Events section to focus on what these key events say about who the participant is as a person and as a first-time parent. The three critical events included: an important childhood scene that was adapted to focus on an angry event from childhood, an important childhood scene that was adapted to focus on a sad event from childhood, and a turning point event that was adapted to focus on the moment they realized they wanted to respond to their child’s emotions either similarly or differently than what they experienced in childhood. After completing the important childhood scenes focused on sadness and anger, I followed the Meta-Emotion Interview questions and asked parents about their own experience of anger and sadness and their feelings, attitudes, and behaviors about their child’s anger and sadness (see Appendix B for full narrative interview).

In this interview, the narrative prompts were broken down into specific questions in which participants wrote out their responses on a computer in a provided text box

within the survey and at certain points were asked to meet a sentence requirement (e.g., about 3+ sentences). This was to ensure that participants addressed all components of the prompt. Participants were first prompted to provide a brief open-ended description of what emotion(s) were difficult for their family to talk about during their childhood. For this dissertation, this information served purely to prepare participants to begin reflecting on their childhood experiences. Following the primer, the first narrative prompt was pertaining to a key scene within their childhood when participants remembered feeling sad, followed by a description of their current experience with sadness, and an explanation of how they would like to or currently do respond to their own child's sadness. The same narrative structure was then followed for anger. For these two narrative prompts on anger and sadness, the beginning questions were adapted from the critical events section within the LSI (McAdams, 1993, 1995) and asked participants to focus on a(n) angry/sad childhood memory when they were 5 – 7 years of age and to explain in detail what happened, who was involved, and how they think this event has contributed to who they are as a person and a first-time parent.

For reference, here are the adapted versions of the important childhood scene prompts: *Please describe a memory from your childhood that stands out as especially sad(angry) in some way. This would be a specific negative event or emotional experience from your childhood that led to you feeling sad(angry) as a child. Please describe this negative memory in detail. What happened, how old were you, when and where were you, who was involved, and what were you thinking and feeling? (About 5+ sentences).*

Why do you think the memory you just described stands out to you now, especially as an adult and first-time parent? What do you think this memory says about you and who you are? Please explain (About 3+ sentences).

Additionally, the second part of the narrative prompts about anger and sadness asked participants to examine their own experience of those emotions currently and their actions and behaviors towards their first child's sadness and anger, which was adapted from the Meta-Emotion Interview (Gottman et al., 1996). Questions included: *Please describe how your mother (father) typically responded to your sadness (anger) growing up; Do you think how you express and experience your sadness now is the same as when you were a child?; Please describe how you would respond to your own child's sadness (anger).* Finally, participants were asked why they think their parents acted the way they did in response to their sadness/anger during childhood to assess the awareness the individual has about the socialization practices of their parents across their childhood (Milan et al., 2021).

Participants also shared a narrative pertaining to a turning point in their life when they realized they wanted to parent similarly or differently from their parents (McAdams, 2008; McLean & Fournier, 2008). The turning point prompt was:

In looking back over your life, it may be possible to identify certain key moments that stand out as "turning points" – or events/situations that marked an important change in you or your life story. Turning points can occur in many different spheres of a person's life – in relationships with other people, in work and school, in outside interests, etc. I would like you to identify a turning point that focuses on an event/situation that

made you realize that you wanted to parent your child and respond to your child's emotions either similarly or differently than your parents did with you. If you cannot identify a key turning point that stands out clearly, please describe some event in your life wherein you went through an important change in how you wanted to respond to and express emotions with your child. Again, for this event please describe what happened, where and when, who was involved, and what you were thinking and feeling (About 5+ sentences).

The purpose of the angry, sad, and turning point narrative prompts is to capture participants' understanding of the emotion socialization practices in their childhood (e.g., when they were 5 – 7 years old) and in their current family with their biological child under the age of 3 years old. Responses to other brief narrative prompts about participants' experiences with transitioning to parenthood and how they would respond to their child crying were also collected but will not be discussed further in this dissertation (see Appendix B).

Finally, throughout the narrative section participants also answered a variety of multiple-choice questions to capture self-ratings pertaining to the narrative prompts. Previous research supports the use of self-ratings to assist in capturing narrative themes from the perspective of the narrator rather than coders alone (Dunlop et al., 2022). Participants were asked how similar their response as a parent to their child's sadness was to their mother and father individually, and selected one of the following options for each parent: More Similar (Mother: $n = 12$; Father: $n = 3$), Somewhat Similar (Mother: $n = 18$; Father: $n = 17$), Exactly the Same (Mother: $n = 2$; Father: $n = 4$), Somewhat Different

(Mother: $n = 16$; Father: $n = 20$), and More Different (Mother: $n = 47$; Father: $n = 55$). Similarly, participants were asked whether or not their response as a parent to their child's anger is similar to their mother and father, and selected one of the following options separately for each parent: More Similar (Mother: $n = 9$; Father: $n = 4$), Somewhat Similar (Mother: $n = 17$; Father: $n = 13$), Exactly the Same (Mother: $n = 4$; Father: $n = 5$), Somewhat Different (Mother: $n = 24$; Father: $n = 18$), and More Different (Mother: $n = 46$; Father: $n = 60$). Participants were also asked whether they believed their emotional experiences in childhood with their parents were more positive ($n = 45$), more negative ($n = 46$), or non-existent ($n = 9$). And the final question in the narrative section of the survey asked participants whether they had previously thought about the topics they just wrote about within the narrative prompts and were asked to select one of the following options: I have never thought about it ($n = 11$), I have thought about it a little bit ($n = 30$), or I have thought about it a lot ($n = 59$).

Data Coding of Narrative Measures

As data were being collected, I reviewed the narrative responses and de-identified all the data before inputting them into a master spreadsheet. I separated out a variety of key questions within the narrative prompts to make sure that participants were addressing all components of the prompt in their responses (e.g., why they thought the memory they described stood out to them now as an adult and parent, why they think their parents responded the way they did toward their sadness/anger). After data were de-identified, I collapsed all the open-ended responses relevant to each narrative prompt into one complete narrative or story based on prompt type (e.g., sad childhood event narrative,

angry childhood event narrative, sad adulthood narrative, angry adulthood narrative, turning point narrative) rather than keeping the responses to key questions separate. For example, the sad childhood event narrative and all the key questions within this narrative were collapsed into a single story that included the recollection of the memory, how their parents responded to them in that memory, why they think that memory stands out to them now as a parent, how that memory has contributed to who they are today, and why they think their parents responded to their sadness that way. Similarly, for the sad adult narrative one story was captured by collapsing key questions asking the participants how they experience sadness now and if it is the same as when they were a child and how they want to or plan to respond to their own child when they are experiencing sadness. The same process was followed for the angry childhood narrative and angry adult narrative. For the transition to parenthood and turning point narratives, participants received one prompt with no separated key questions, so nothing was collapsed. After all data were de-identified and questions were collapsed into stories, I collated them into separate spreadsheets based on prompt type. Additionally, I created an overall sad narrative and overall angry narrative by combining the sad(angry) childhood event narrative(s) and sad(angry) adult narrative(s) to capture how each participant has experienced sadness anger in the past, present, and future. The sad narrative and angry narrative will be examined for narrative themes of meaning making, exploratory processing, and redemption.

Before coding began, I read 40% of the narratives provided in response to each narrative prompt (around 200 stories) and determined the narrative themes that were

shared across prompts and were captured in the specific prompt types. Narrative themes, a conception within the field of narrative identity, have been assimilated across many psychological disciplines and focus on analyzing the salient content of people's stories to understand the narrative features of humans' lives (McAdams, 2011). For this dissertation, narrative themes of meaning making, valence, exploratory processing, and redemption, all which have appeared in previous research, were examined (Dunlop, 2016; 2021; McAdams, 1999; McLean & Pratt, 2004; Pals, 2006). Each of the established narrative themes will be explained in detail in the upcoming sections and were adapted to focus on emotional experiences and/or who the individual is emotionally rather than identity, for the purpose of this dissertation.

After I established the coding systems that would be used for each narrative theme (e.g., meaning making, valence, exploratory processing, and redemption), I trained undergraduate research assistants to assist me in coding the narratives (~ 700 narratives total). To establish inter-rater reliability, trained research assistants who were blind to the hypotheses of the study coded de-identified and randomized transcriptions based on coding manuals of the established narrative themes. Narratives were randomized within the data set for each narrative theme, so that no single coder could identify multiple narratives for one participant. For each narrative theme, a team of two undergraduate research assistants were trained extensively on the coding processes and practiced quantifying the narrative theme using pilot data until percent agreement between coders reached 80% or better. Two coders quantified meaning making within the angry narrative, sad narrative, and turning point narrative (300 narratives total). Two coders

quantified valence within the angry childhood event narrative, sad childhood event narrative, angry adulthood narrative, and sad adulthood narrative (400 narratives total). Two coders quantified exploratory processing within the angry narrative, sad narrative, and turning point narrative (300 narrative total) and two coders quantified redemption in the angry narrative and sad narrative (200 narratives total). Coding for each narrative theme was completed simultaneously within each coding team and was distributed in batches of 40, 50, and 60 narratives until all narratives were coded. Each coding team met with me weekly until coding was completed to discuss discrepancies in how they quantified the narrative theme, and each coder was given a chance to talk through why they chose the code. When discrepancies in the coding arose, they were resolved through consensus, by the two coders and me; the final set of codes for analysis are based on multiple inputs from trained researchers who understand the coding system. Establishing interrater reliability is an iterative and careful process which explains why the reliability may vary across different narrative themes or narrative prompts (Syed & Nelson, 2015). Guided by this previous research, interrater reliability was calculated based on the entire data set for each narrative theme. Calculations showed good average interrater reliability for each of the narrative themes across narrative prompts: meaning making ($ICC = .758$), valence ($ICCs > .672$), exploratory processing ($ICC = .703$), and redemption (87% agreement, $k = .547$).

Narrative Themes

Meaning Making. The narrative theme of meaning making was applied to the sad narrative, angry narrative, and turning point narrative for each participant based on its

established ability to capture the degree to which individuals have learned something or made meaning of something from their past experiences (McLean & Pratt, 2006; McLean et al., 2020). Similar to this research, meaning making of childhood emotional experiences was coded on a four-point scale including: 0 = No explanation of meaning of childhood emotional experiences, 1 = Lesson learned from childhood emotional experiences, 2 = Some growth or changes in the emotional self but specifics about the changes or why they have changed is unclear, and 3 = The narrator gained specific insight from their childhood emotional experiences that applies to broader areas of the narrator's emotional self now (e.g., this goes beyond the specific event to explicit transformations in one's understanding of their emotions). Each first-time parent received a score for the sad narrative, the angry narrative, and the turning point narrative (see Table 3 for narratives examples). To capture a singular individual score for meaning making I aggregated the codes for the sad narrative, angry narrative, and turning point narrative with higher scores representing greater meaning making about how their childhood emotional experiences have transformed their emotions. The degree of inter-rater reliability of meaning making ($ICC = .758$) was adequate.

Valence. Drawing from previous research examining valence within narratives (Dunlop, 2016; McAdams, 2001; McLean et al., 2020), it was operationalized as the degree to which an entire story is emotionally positive relative to emotionally negative captured on a five-point scale ranging from: 1 = very negative, 2 = negative/somewhat negative, 3 = neutral or mixed, 4 = positive/somewhat positive, 5 = very positive. Narratives with scores of a 1 or 2 captured more negatively valenced stories whereas

narratives with a 4 or 5 captured positively valenced stories. Valence was coded independently for each of the following narratives: sad childhood event narrative, sad adulthood narrative, angry childhood event narrative, and angry adulthood narrative. Once all the narratives were coded, the valence scores for the sad childhood event and angry childhood event were averaged to represent the valence of childhood emotional experiences. Similarly, the valence scores for the sad and angry adulthood-focused narratives were averaged to represent the valence of adulthood emotional experiences. The degree of inter-rater reliability for valence in sad childhood event narratives ($ICC = .672$), sad adulthood narratives ($ICC = .718$), angry childhood event narratives ($ICC = .681$), and angry adulthood narratives ($ICC = .749$) was adequate. Table 4 contains examples of narratives that show more negative valence relative to more positive valence across the prompt types.

Exploratory Processing. Previous research has argued that individuals who keep themselves connected to the impact of negative emotional experiences in their past can utilize it to promote a change and experience growth or transformation, a concept called exploratory processing (Pals, 2006a, 2006b). In this dissertation, participants' sad, angry, and turning point narratives were coded independently for exploratory processing or how effortful and engaged the narrator was in reflecting on a negative emotional experience in childhood and exploring how they learned from it and articulated a sense of change into who they are now as an adult and first-time parent. Consistent with previous research (Pals, 2011), two narrative qualities were considered when coding for exploratory processing in the current study: (1) the detail and complexity provided in how the

narrative is told and (2) what the narrator explicitly says about the impact of the event and their openness to explore and change. For each of the narratives, exploratory processing was rated on a four-point scale which included: 1 = Narrative is minimally exploratory, 2 = Narrative is somewhat exploratory, 3 = Narrative is clearly exploratory, 4 = Narrative is highly exploratory. Analogous to meaning making, the exploratory processing scores were averaged across sad, angry, and turning point narratives to create a single exploratory processing score for childhood emotional experiences. Narratives with higher exploratory processing scores were typically more elaborative and richer with details and contained mention of emotion regulation skills, awareness of emotional growth or change, and/or specific applications for current and future efforts to improve emotionally (see Table 5 for narrative examples). The degree of inter-rater reliability for exploratory processing ($ICC = .703$) was acceptable.

Redemption: A Positive Resolution. The concept of redemption — narrating a negative emotional experience in a way that suggests growth or resolution has been made — is a foundational component of narrative identity work that is probably the most studied theme in this subfield of psychology (McAdams et al., 2001; McLean et al., 2020). For this dissertation, each person’s angry and sad narratives were analyzed independently and coded for redemption (present when a narrative starts negatively but ends positively) and contamination (present when a narrative starts positively but ends negatively), using the presence (“1”) and absence (“0”) system introduced by McAdams (1998). This process resulted in codes that captured redemption and contamination for each sad and angry narrative.

However, contamination was not present in the sad and angry narrative stories and therefore analyses examining contamination were not conducted. The lack of contaminated imagery could be a methodological artifact here--due to the prompts asking first-time parents to share a negative childhood emotional experience (e.g., sad childhood event, angry childhood event), none of the narratives started positively. For this dissertation, a redemptive theme was coded as present (“1”) if the overall narrative prompt described an event or series of events in childhood that moved from a bad or negative experience to a better or more positive experience as the narrator illustrated their current experiences with sadness and anger in adulthood, suggesting that the negative childhood event was redeemed or made better by considering the positive experiences they now have (McAdams, 2011). For example, if the participant describes their childhood as negative but their current emotion regulation and socialization practices with their child as positive that would be redemptive. A narrative was categorized as not redemptive (“0”) if the individual described the same valence across the entire narrative and/or if there was not a clear transition from a negative valence to a positive valence across the narrative. Table 6 provides examples of narratives where redemption is present and absent. The degree of inter-rater reliability of redemption (87% agreement, Cohen’s $k = .547$) was acceptable. In line with previous research (Dunlop et al., 2019; 2021), ratings of redemption were averaged across each participant’s sad and angry narratives, resulting in a single score of redemption for each person. Therefore, the mean values of redemption reported in Table 2 indicate the percentage of stories in this sample containing a redemptive theme.

Chapter 3

Results

Results are organized into two sections. Preliminary analyses are presented first; these include descriptive information, exploration of bivariate correlations among variables, assessment of possible covariates, and data reduction techniques. The second section presents the primary analyses, in which my research questions and subsequent analyses for each will be presented in turn. For each research question I provide an overview of the inferential statistics used, describe necessary descriptive statistics for relevant variables, briefly discuss the relevant hypotheses, and finally present the results relevant to each research question.

Preliminary Analyses

Descriptive information, including the participant demographics and means and standard deviations for the non-narrative and narrative variables of interest, is presented in Tables 1 and 2. I conducted exploratory analyses of how non-narrative (e.g., emotion dysregulation, emotional awareness, wellbeing, planned supportive and non-supportive reactions, remembered parental reactions) and narrative variables (e.g., valence, meaning making, exploratory processing, redemption) relate to participants' demographics, biological child's age, and each other with a series of correlations. Correlations among all non-narrative variables of interest (e.g., emotion dysregulation, emotional awareness, wellbeing, planned supportive and non-supportive reactions, remembered parental reactions), with demographics including participants' age, education level, household income, relationship status, and the biological child's age are presented in Table 7. Tables

8 – 11 present the correlations with demographics for each narrative variable of interest (valence, meaning making, exploratory processing, redemption, respectively) in turn to consider how each narrative theme is related to participants' age, education level, household income, and relationship status. Similarly, I examined correlations between each of the narrative variables (again considering valence, meaning making, exploratory processing, and redemption in separate tables) and the non-narrative variables of interest (e.g., DERS, Emotional Awareness, Wellbeing, planned supportive and non-supportive reactions, remembered parental reactions; see Tables 12 – 15). Finally, in Table 16, I present bivariate correlations that examine how all the narrative variables of interest interrelated.

Emotion Regulation and Emotional Awareness. Higher ratings of emotion dysregulation on the DERS were related to more remembered non-supportive parental reactions, $r = 0.28, p = .005$, and marginally related to fewer remembered supportive parental reactions, $r = -0.18, p = .068$ (see Table 7). Greater emotion dysregulation was also related to plans for non-supportive emotion socialization, $r = 0.36, p < .001$, but not to plans for supportive reactions. Additionally, ratings on the DERS were negatively correlated to ratings of emotional awareness, $r = -0.69, p < .001$, such that greater difficulty with emotion regulation was associated with less emotional awareness. Interestingly, emotional awareness was not related to remembered parental emotion socialization. Emotional awareness was marginally related to planned supportive reactions, $r = 0.19, p = .058$, and was negatively related to planned non-supportive reactions, $r = -0.33, p < .001$.

Gender. Several gender differences emerged between first-time mothers and fathers who participated. As shown in Table 17, first-time mothers reported greater supportive reactions to their child's emotions than did fathers, $t(98) = -2.18, p = .016, d = 0.46$. First-time fathers within this sample reported greater emotional awareness ($t(98) = 2.87, p = .003, d = 0.61$), greater wellbeing ($t(98) = -2.01, p = .023, d = 0.43$), and fewer difficulties with emotion regulation ($t(98) = -2.97, p = .002, d = 0.63$) than first-time mothers. First-time mothers demonstrated more exploratory processing than first-time fathers ($t(98) = -1.81, p = .037, d = 0.38$). However, there was no gender difference for meaning making, $t(98) = -0.36, p = .360, d = 0.08$. Participant gender will thus be considered as a covariate in analyses addressing planned supportive reactions, wellbeing, and exploratory processing.

Child gender. There was no significant effect of child gender on participants' planned supportive reactions (Girls: $M = 6.01, SD = 0.84$; Boys: $M = 5.95, SD = 0.91$), $t(98) = -0.359, p = .360, d = 0.07$. Similarly, there was no significant effect of child gender on participants' planned non-supportive reactions (Girls: $M = 2.67, SD = 0.69$; Boys: $M = 2.48, SD = 0.85$), $t(98) = -1.185, p = .119, d = 0.23$. Child gender was not a focus of this dissertation and will not be discussed further.

Race. In examining race and ethnicity differences, a one-way analysis of variance revealed a statistically significant difference in remembered parental supportive reactions [$F(4, 95) = 2.842, p = .028, \eta^2 = .11$]. Tukey's HSD test for multiple comparisons showed that the mean value of remembered supportive reactions was marginally different between African American participants ($N = 10$), who remembered more supportive

reactions, and Bi-racial participants ($N = 9$), who remembered fewer supportive reactions ($p = .053$, 95% C.I. = $-.012, 3.341$). There were no statistically significant differences between any other racial identities (p 's $> .167$). Race and ethnicity were not a focus of this dissertation outside of reporting demographic information and will not be discussed further.

Covariates. Including covariates in relevant linear regression models allows for an unbiased model and can reduce the error variance of the regression. For research questions 1 and 2, dependent variables include planned supportive emotion socialization and planned non-supportive emotion socialization. There were significant gender differences in planned supportive reactions (see Table 17), so gender was included as a covariate in all hierarchical multiple regression models where this variable was considered. Additionally, there was a significant association between planned supportive reactions and planned non-supportive reactions, $r = -0.22$, $p = 0.026$. To improve the accuracy and reduce error in the model, planned non-supportive reactions were included as a covariate in all hierarchical multiple regression models where the dependent variable was planned supportive emotion socialization. Similarly, planned supportive reactions were included in all hierarchical multiple regression models where the dependent variable was planned non-supportive emotion socialization. For research question 3 the dependent variable was wellbeing. An examination of preliminary findings revealed significant gender differences for wellbeing and planned supportive emotion socialization (see Table 17), thus gender is included as a covariate in all models where the dependent variable is wellbeing. Additionally, scores on the DERS were found to be related to both predictor

(e.g., remembered emotion socialization) and outcome variables (e.g., planned emotion socialization, wellbeing) and therefore the parameter estimates of subsequent regression models would be distorted in the measure of association between the predictors and the outcome if DERS scores were to be included. Given that the theoretical underpinning of the current dissertation is to examine the association between remembered emotion socialization and planned emotion socialization, DERS scores were not included in subsequent analyses.

Data Reduction

For this dissertation, exploratory processing and meaning making were aggregated across the three narrative prompts about emotional experiences across childhood and adulthood to result in one exploratory processing score and one meaning making score for each participant. This data reduction allowed for more straightforward interpretation of the patterns and relationships across the data and allowed me to investigate the feasibility of using narrative themes to better understand the planned emotion socialization of participants. However, it is important to note that most previous research in narrative identity (Dunlop et al., 2019; McAdams et al., 2004, 2006) has utilized average ratings of narratives because it provides the most reliable measure of the emergent narrative identity themes derived from key scenes situated within a particular dimension of the individual's life (e.g., love life narrative, cancer diagnosis narrative).

Exploratory processing. Each participant responded in writing to narrative prompts pertaining to a sad childhood event and how they currently manage their own and their child's sadness, an angry childhood event and how they currently manage their

own and their child's anger, and a turning point event where they described an event that made them realize they wanted to respond to their child's emotions similarly or differently than their parents had responded to them. Exploratory processing was assessed using an established narrative coding system, on a scale of 1 ("Narrative is minimally exploratory") to 4 ("Narrative is highly exploratory") for each of the participant's narrative responses to the three prompts (Pals, 2006). Higher values indicate more exploratory processing about the impact of negative childhood experiences. A one-way ANOVA was conducted to examine whether exploratory processing varied across prompt types: sad ($M = 3.06, SD = 0.81$), angry ($M = 2.95, SD = 0.88$), and turning point ($M = 2.94, SD = 0.85$). There was no effect of exploratory processing across prompts, $F(2, 297) = 0.62, p = .538, \eta^2 = .01$. Thus, in all subsequent analyses exploratory processing was examined as the average score across the three narrative prompts.

Meaning making. Meaning making was assessed using an established narrative coding system, on a scale of 0 ("No Meaning") to 3 ("High Meaning Making, Insights") for each of the participant's narrative responses to the three prompts (McLean et al., 2020). Higher values indicate more meaning making about how their negative childhood experiences have impacted their expression and experience of negative emotions (e.g., sadness and anger) and how they wish to respond to their child's negative emotions. I ran a one-way ANOVA to determine whether there were significant variations in meaning making across the sad ($M = 2.03, SD = 0.65$), angry ($M = 1.98, SD = 0.81$), and turning point ($M = 1.91, SD = 0.81$) prompt type and found there were not, $F(2, 297) = 0.75, p =$

.476, $\eta^2 = .01$. Thus, meaning making was examined as the average score across the three narrative prompts in all subsequent analyses.

Remembered parental emotion socialization. Each participant also completed a self-report measure of remembered parental reactions to their negative emotions in childhood for their mother and father separately. For this dissertation, remembered emotion socialization of each parent in childhood was simplified by averaging across mother and father to capture one remembered supportive reactions score and one remembered non-supportive reactions score. Higher values indicate that participants remembered their parents using those reactions more often in childhood (around the ages of 5 – 7). This data reduction allows for clearer depiction of the patterns and relationships in the data and enables me to investigate the general impact of childhood emotional experiences on planned emotion socialization practices and emotional functioning of participants.

To justify this averaging, I used two independent samples t-tests to determine whether there were significant differences in remembered emotion socialization of mother versus father. When examining remembered supportive reactions, I found that there was no difference, $t(198) = 1.61, p = .109, d = .16$, between mothers ($M = 3.45, SD = 1.63$) and fathers ($M = 3.08, SD = 1.61$). When examining remembered non-supportive reactions, there was again no difference, $t(198) = 0.18, p = .986; d = .06$, between remembered non-supportive reactions for mothers ($M = 3.89, SD = 1.43$) and fathers ($M = 3.88, SD = 1.41$). Thus, I averaged remembered emotion socialization scores across parents for subsequent analyses.

Correlational Analyses

Remembered Emotion Socialization and Planned Emotion Socialization. As mentioned above, I computed an aggregate score for *remembered supportive parental reactions* ($M = 3.26$, $SD = 1.36$, range: 1.00 – 7.00). I also computed an aggregate score for *remembered non-supportive parental reactions* ($M = 3.89$, $SD = 1.19$, range: 1.00 – 7.00). As shown in Table 7, remembered supportive reactions were strongly inversely related to remembered non-supportive reactions ($r = -0.57$, $p < .001$). Given this strong correlation, I sought to determine whether the two types of reactions could reasonably be jointly included as independent predictors in my planned regressions. I first examined multicollinearity for remembered supportive and non-supportive emotion socialization using the variance inflation factors (VIF) of the coefficients. All VIF values were below 5, indicating no issues of collinearity (Sheather, 2009). However, the likelihood of making a Type 1 error increases when two independent variables are correlated. Thus, I opted to drop the remembered supportive reactions variable from subsequent analyses to simplify models and minimize the Type 1 error risk. I chose to exclude remembered supportive rather than non-supportive reactions because the general tendency of participants in this sample was to recall experiencing predominantly non-supportive reactions from their parents in childhood. Specifically, participants recalled their parents' reactions as significantly more non-supportive ($M = 3.89$, $SD = 1.20$) than supportive ($M = 3.26$, $SD = 1.36$) as captured by their responses on the RRNES, $t(99) = -2.76$, $p = .007$, $d = .28$. I also examined the narrative stories of participants' childhood emotional experiences. A paired samples t-test revealed that participants described their parents'

reactions as significantly more non-supportive ($M = 1.30$, $SD = 0.98$) than supportive ($M = 0.81$, $SD = 0.63$) within their childhood narratives, $t(99) = -3.64$, $p < .001$, $d = .36$. Thus, I opted to drop remembered supportive reactions from further consideration to avoid inflated chance of making a Type 1 error that could result from including both remembered supportive and non-supportive reactions in subsequent analyses.

I followed the same procedure to create and screen variables indexing participants' *planned supportive reactions* (average of problem-focused, emotion-focused, and expressive encouragement; $M = 5.98$, $SD = 0.88$, range: 1.00 – 7.00) and *planned non-supportive reactions* (average of minimization, punitive, and distress reactions; $M = 2.56$, $SD = 0.79$, range: 1.00 – 7.00) to children's negative emotions. As depicted in Table 7, participants' planned supportive reactions were moderately inversely related to planned non-supportive reactions ($r = -0.22$, $p = .026$). I again examined the magnitude of multicollinearity for planned supportive emotion socialization and planned non-supportive emotion socialization using the variance inflation factors (VIF) of the coefficients. All VIF values were below the cutoff of 5, indicating no concerns with collinearity. Because of the significant but relatively modest level of association between planned supportive and non-supportive reactions, both were retained for analyses.

Self-Awareness and Planned Emotion Socialization. I investigated whether exploratory processing and participants' plans for emotion socialization practices were correlated, and whether meaning making and participants' plans for emotion socialization practices were correlated. I expected that greater exploratory processing and greater meaning making would be positively related to and predict more planned supportive reactions, which was partially supported;

exploratory processing was positively related to plans for more supportive reactions ($r = 0.59, p < .001$; see Table 13) and meaning making was marginally related to plans for more supportive reactions ($r = 0.18, p = .076$; see Table 14). Also of interest, exploratory processing and meaning making were positively related ($r = 0.37, p < .001$; see Table 16), supporting the conceptualization of the two narrative themes as both capturing self-awareness. Overall, planned supportive reactions were significantly correlated with exploratory processing and marginally correlated with meaning making.

Self-Awareness, Planned Emotion Socialization, and Wellbeing. I also ran a series of bivariate correlations to examine the magnitude and direction of the relationships among planned emotion socialization, exploratory processing, meaning making, and wellbeing (see Tables 9 and 10). Participants' plans to provide supportive reactions to their child were positively related to exploratory processing ($r = 0.59, p < .001$), but did not relate to wellbeing ($r = .04, p = .707$) or meaning making ($r = 0.18, p = .076$). Participants' plans to provide non-supportive reactions to their child were significantly negatively associated with wellbeing, ($r = -.22, p = .031$). Planned non-supportive reactions were not related to exploratory processing ($r = -0.15, p = .134$) or meaning making ($r = -0.16, p = .119$). I also examined whether exploratory processing and meaning making were associated with participants' wellbeing, using bivariate correlations. I found that exploratory processing was not significantly related to wellbeing ($r = -0.04, p = .710$) but meaning making was significantly positively related to wellbeing ($r = 0.20, p = .046$).

Research Question 1: Does remembered childhood emotion socialization relate to planned emotion socialization as a first-time parent?

In order to examine the hypotheses for research question 1, I ran two hierarchical multiple regression analyses to examine whether remembered emotion socialization predicted differences in participants' planned supportive and non-supportive planned reactions.

Remembered Socialization and Planned Supportive Reactions

Participants' plans for more supportive reactions were significantly associated with remembering more non-supportive parental reactions. To assess whether remembered emotion socialization predicted planned supportive emotion socialization I ran a hierarchical multiple regression with planned supportive emotion socialization as the dependent variable (see Table 19). The first step of the model included gender and planned non-supportive reactions as covariates, and the second step included remembered non-supportive reactions as a predictor. In the first step, $R^2 = 0.09$, $F(2,97) = 4.59$, $p = .012$, gender ($b = 0.36$, $t(97) = 1.98$, $p = .050$) and planned non-supportive reactions ($b = -0.22$, $t(97) = -2.07$, $p = .041$) significantly related to planned supportive reactions. In the second step, $R^2 = 0.18$, $F(3,96) = 6.94$, $p < .001$, the model was improved ($\Delta R^2 = 0.09$, $\Delta F(1,96) = 10.72$, $p = .001$), and remembered non-supportive reactions ($b = 0.22$, $t(97) = 3.28$, $p = .001$) was a significant (positive) predictor. These findings suggest that remembering one's parents as having been less tolerant (more non-supportive) of negative emotions in childhood was associated with participants' plans to provide more supportive emotional reactions in response to their own child's negative emotions.

Remembered Socialization and Planned Non-Supportive Reactions

I assessed whether remembered non-supportive emotion socialization predicted participants' plans for non-supportive emotion socialization using a hierarchical multiple regression model with planned non-supportive reactions as the dependent variable (see Table 20). The first step of the model included planned supportive reactions as a covariate and the second step included remembered non-supportive reactions as a main effect. Only planned supportive reactions was covaried in the model, as explained previously (no sociodemographic variables were necessary to covary). The first step of the model was significant, $R^2 = 0.05$, $F(1,98) = 5.08$, $p = .026$, such that planned supportive reactions did have a significant effect ($b = -0.20$, $t(98) = -2.25$, $p = .026$). In the second step, $R^2 = 0.07$, $F(2,97) = 3.90$, $p = .024$, remembered non-supportive parental reactions ($b = 0.11$, $t(97) = 1.62$, $p = .108$) was not a significant predictor and did not significantly improve the model, $\Delta R^2 = 0.03$, $\Delta F(1,97) = 2.63$, $p = .108$. Thus, the extent to which participants remembered their parents as being non-supportive in childhood did not relate to their plans to use non-supportive reactions with their own distressed child.

Exploration of Facets of Self-Reflection

Using univariate ANOVAs, I assessed whether participants' plans for supportive and non-supportive emotion socialization practices were associated with the extent to which they reflected on how similar or different from their parents they are on an emotional level (level of emotional reflection was reported as "never" thought about it ($N = 10$), thought about it "a little" ($N = 30$), or thought about it "a lot" ($N = 59$)). As a reminder, a key goal of this dissertation is to capture how variations in self-awareness

contribute to planned emotion socialization practices of first-time parents. I used a univariate ANOVA to examine the effect of reported level of reflection on planned supportive reactions and found a main effect, $F(2, 96) = 7.356, p = .001, \eta^2 = .14$. Tukey's HSD test adjusting for multiple comparisons showed that participants who had reflected "a lot" ($M = 6.22, SD = 0.75$) on their childhood emotional experiences had plans for more supportive reactions compared to both those who had "never" ($M = 5.33, SD = 0.97$) reflected on their childhood emotional experiences ($p = .006, 95\% \text{ C.I.} = 0.223, 1.573$) and those who had reflected "a little bit" ($M = 5.70, SD = 0.93$) on their childhood emotional experiences ($p = .016, 95\% \text{ C.I.} = 0.079, 0.965$). No difference in planned supportive reactions between "never" and "a little" reflection was detected ($p = .433$). This suggests that the process of reflecting back on childhood has implications for participants' planned supportive reactions.

I ran a second univariate ANOVA to compare the effect of level of reflection on planned non-supportive reactions and this revealed a marginally significant difference, $F(2, 96) = 3.031, p = .053, \eta^2 = .03$. Follow-up tests (Tukey's HSD test) showed that planned non-supportive reactions were higher for participants who had "never" ($M = 3.10, SD = 0.56$) reflected compared to those who had reflected "a little" ($M = 2.41, SD = 0.78$) on their childhood emotional experiences ($p = .042, 95\% \text{ C.I.} = 0.020, 1.367$). There were no significant differences between those who had "never" reflected and those who had reflected "a lot" ($M = 2.55, SD = 0.79$) on childhood emotional experiences ($p = .096$), nor between those who had thought about it "a little" versus "a lot" ($p = .706$). This

suggests that not engaging in the process of reflecting on childhood may have implications for participants' planned non-supportive reactions.

Summary

To sum up, my hypothesis that planned emotion socialization would be positively related to remembered emotion socialization received very little support. Planned supportive reactions were correlated to remembering parents using more non-supportive reactions; this association was still present when controlling for covariates. In contrast, planned non-supportive reactions were not correlated with remembered non-supportive reactions and did not significantly relate to remembered non-supportive reactions when covariates were considered. I also explored how reflecting on childhood experiences related to participants' planned emotion socialization. Greater reflection on childhood emotional experiences was associated with significantly greater plans for supportive reactions, whereas engaging in no reflection was associated with significantly greater plans for non-supportive reactions. Therefore, reflection, a necessary component in the process of self-awareness, may be contributing to the relationship between remembered emotion socialization and how participants plan to respond to their child's negative emotions. I sought to investigate this further in my second research question.

Research Question 2: What is the association between self-awareness and first-time parents' plans for supportive emotion socialization practices? Is the association moderated by remembered emotion socialization?

As explained previously, self-awareness is operationalized within the Narrative Identity framework to provide a better understanding of how individual differences

across narrative representations of childhood emotional experiences relate to socioemotional functioning. This framework holds that individuals who can reflect on their childhood and share detailed stories about those past emotional experiences and how they have impacted their current and future emotional functioning are demonstrating greater self-awareness. Exploratory processing and meaning making are narrative themes that capture distinct elements of the narrator's ability to process their unique past and understand how it has impacted them and contributed to who they are, known more broadly as self-awareness. I also sought to examine whether the associations between self-awareness facets and planned supportive and non-supportive reactions were qualified by participants' remembered experiences of emotion socialization in childhood. As a reminder, exploratory processing was averaged across the sad childhood, angry childhood, and turning point narrative prompts. Meaning making was averaged across the same prompts. The model building process for each of these hierarchical multiple regression models is as follows: step 1 entered all relevant covariates, step 2 entered the (mean-centered) main effects, and step 3 entered the two-way interaction (created after centering the variables; Williams, 2021).

To test my hypotheses, I ran four hierarchical multiple regression models: one to examine the main and interactive effects of exploratory processing and remembered non-supportive emotion socialization in predicting participants' planned supportive reactions, one to examine the main and interactive effects of exploratory processing and remembered non-supportive emotion socialization in predicting participants' planned non-supportive reactions, one to examine the main and interactive effects of meaning

making and remembered non-supportive emotion socialization in predicting participants' planned supportive reactions, and one to examine the main and interactive effects of meaning making and remembered non-supportive emotion socialization in predicting participants' planned non-supportive reactions.

Remembered Non-Supportive Emotion Socialization and Exploratory Processing

Planned Supportive Reactions. The first regression investigated planned supportive reactions as the dependent variable, exploratory processing and remembered non-supportive reactions as independent predictors, and the two-way interaction effect of exploratory processing and remembered non-supportive parental reactions (see Table 21). In the first step of the model, $R^2 = 0.09$, $F(2,97) = 4.59$, $p = .012$, gender ($b = 0.36$, $t(94) = 1.99$, $p = .050$), and planned non-supportive reactions ($b = -0.22$, $t(94) = -2.07$, $p = .041$) were entered as covariates and accounted for a significant amount of variance in planned supportive reactions. In the second step of the model, $R^2 = 0.39$, $F(4,95) = 15.15$, $p < .001$, the inclusion of exploratory processing ($b = 0.62$, $t(95) = 5.73$, $p < .001$) and remembered non-supportive parental reactions ($b = 0.08$, $t(95) = 1.30$, $p = .197$), improved model fit, $\Delta R^2 = 0.30$, $\Delta F(2,95) = 23.58$, $p < .001$. In the final step of the model, $R^2 = 0.39$, $F(5,94) = 12.02$, $p < .001$, the interaction between exploratory processing and remembered non-supportive parental reactions was not significant ($b = 0.02$, $t(94) = 0.24$, $p = .808$), and this step did not account for a significantly increased proportion of the variance in planned supportive reactions, $\Delta R^2 = 0.00$, $\Delta F(1,94) = 0.06$, $p = .808$.

In summary, gender and planned non-supportive reactions were significant covariates, exploratory processing significantly predicted planned supportive reactions but remembered non-supportive reactions did not, and there was no significant interaction effect found between exploratory processing and remembered non-supportive reactions. Thus, my first hypothesis was supported and planned supportive reactions were associated with exploratory processing. However, I also expected that a positive relationship between exploratory processing and planned supportive reactions would be stronger for participants who remembered more non-supportive reactions, but this was not supported--no moderation effect emerged.

Planned Non-Supportive Reactions. The second model examined planned non-supportive reactions as the dependent variable, exploratory processing and remembered non-supportive reactions as independent predictors, and the two-way interaction between exploratory processing and remembered non-supportive reactions (see Table 22). In the first step of the model, $R^2 = 0.05$, $F(1,98) = 2.69$, $p = .026$, planned supportive reactions ($b = -0.19$, $t(94) = -2.07$, $p = .041$) accounted for a marginal amount of variance in planned non-supportive reactions. In the second step of the model, $R^2 = 0.08$, $F(3,96) = 2.73$, $p = .048$, exploratory processing and remembered non-supportive parental reactions ($b = -0.09$, $t(94) = -0.67$, $p = .503$, and $b = 0.12$, $t(94) = 1.73$, $p = .086$, respectively) were added and there was no significant change, $\Delta R^2 = 0.03$, $\Delta F(2,96) = 1.53$, $p = .221$. In the final step of the model, $R^2 = 0.14$, $F(4,95) = 3.84$, $p = .006$, the two-way interaction between exploratory processing and remembered non-supportive parental reactions was significant ($b = -0.23$, $t(95) = -2.59$, $p = .011$) and did account for a significant proportion

of the variance in planned non-supportive reactions, $\Delta R^2 = 0.06$, $\Delta F(1,95) = 6.68$, $p = .011$.

Examination of the interaction plot (see Figure 1) and testing of simple slopes revealed interesting patterns of how remembered non-supportive parental reactions and exploratory processing related to planned non-supportive reactions. I probed the interaction by testing the conditional effect of exploratory processing on planned non-supportive emotion socialization at three levels of remembered non-supportive parental reactions: one standard deviation below the mean (low; 2.69), at the mean (average; 3.89), and one standard deviation above the mean (high; 5.09). When high levels of remembered non-supportive parental reactions were examined, more exploratory processing was associated with significantly lower plans for non-supportive reactions ($y = 2.80 - 0.51x$; $b = -0.51$, $SE = 0.21$, $p = .017$). However, exploratory processing did not relate to planned non-supportive reactions when remembered non-supportive parental reactions were at average ($y = 2.63 - 0.23x$; $b = -0.23$, $SE = 0.14$, $p = .111$) or low levels ($y = 2.46 + 0.04x$; $b = 0.04$, $SE = 0.14$, $p = .769$).

Overall, I hypothesized that greater exploratory processing would negatively predict planned non-supportive reactions, and this was not supported. However, remembered non-supportive reactions moderated the effect of exploratory processing on plans for non-supportive reactions, in line with my predictions.

Remembered Non-Supportive Emotion Socialization and Meaning Making

Predicting Planned Supportive Reactions. The third model examined planned supportive reactions as the dependent variable, meaning making and remembered non-

supportive reactions as independent predictors, and the two-way interaction of remembered non-supportive reactions and meaning making (see Table 23). In the first step of the model, $R^2 = 0.09$, $F(2,97) = 4.59$, $p = .012$, gender ($b = 0.36$, $t(97) = 1.99$, $p = .050$) and planned non-supportive reactions ($b = -0.22$, $t(97) = -2.07$, $p = .041$) each accounted for a significant amount of variance in planned supportive reactions. In the second step of the model, $R^2 = 0.20$, $F(4,95) = 5.89$, $p < .001$, I entered meaning making ($b = 0.23$, $t(95) = 1.56$, $p = .121$) and remembered non-supportive parental reactions ($b = 0.22$, $t(95) = 1.56$, $p = .001$); this step accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in planned supportive reactions, $\Delta R^2 = 0.11$, $\Delta F(2,95) = 6.66$, $p = .002$. In the final step of the model, $R^2 = 0.21$, $F(5,94) = 5.01$, $p < .001$, the interaction between meaning making and remembered non-supportive parental reactions ($b = 0.14$, $t(94) = 1.17$, $p = .243$) did not account for a significant proportion of the variance in planned supportive reactions, $\Delta R^2 = 0.01$, $\Delta F(1,94) = 1.38$, $p = .243$. The interaction between meaning making and remembered non-supportive parental reactions ($b = 0.14$, $t(94) = 1.17$, $p = .243$) was not a significant predictor of planned supportive emotion socialization, but remembered non-supportive parental reactions remained a significant predictor at this step of the model. In summary, gender and planned non-supportive reactions were significant covariates, meaning making was not a significant predictor but remembered non-supportive parental reactions was, and the interaction between meaning making and remembered non-supportive parental reactions was not significant. I had hypothesized that greater meaning making would be negatively associated with planned

non-supportive reactions and that remembered non-supportive reactions would moderate the relationship; these expectations were not supported.

Predicting Planned Non-Supportive Reactions. The fourth model examined planned non-supportive reactions as the dependent variable, remembered non-supportive reactions and meaning making as independent predictors, and the two-way interaction of remembered non-supportive parental reactions and meaning making (see Table 24). In the first step of the model, $R^2 = 0.05$, $F(1,98) = 5.08$, $p = .026$, participants' planned supportive reactions was a significant covariate ($b = -0.19$, $t(98) = -2.25$, $p = .026$). In the second step of the model, $R^2 = 0.09$, $F(3,96) = 3.01$, $p = .034$, meaning making and remembered non-supportive parental reactions ($b = -0.16$, $t(96) = -1.10$, $p = .272$, and $b = 0.10$, $t(96) = 1.53$, $p = .128$, respectively) were added to the model and there was no significant improvement, $\Delta R^2 = 0.04$, $\Delta F(2,96) = 1.93$, $p = .151$. In the final step of the model, $R^2 = 0.10$, $F(4,95) = 2.69$, $p = .036$, the interaction between meaning making and remembered non-supportive parental reactions ($b = -0.15$, $t(95) = -1.29$, $p = .201$) was entered, and also did not account for a significant proportion of the variance in planned non-supportive reactions, $\Delta R^2 = 0.02$, $\Delta F(1,95) = 1.65$, $p = .201$. In summary, planned supportive reactions were significantly negatively associated with planned non-supportive reactions, meaning making and remembered non-supportive parental reactions were not significant predictors, and the interaction between meaning making and remembered non-supportive parental reactions was also not a significant predictor in the model. Overall, I had hypothesized that meaning making would be negatively associated

with planned non-supportive reactions, and remembered non-supportive reactions would moderate this relation; this was not supported.

Summary

Exploratory processing and meaning making significantly related to planned emotion socialization independently and when considered in conjunction with remembered emotion socialization. There was a main effect of exploratory processing predicting planned supportive emotion socialization, suggesting that greater reflection on childhood emotional experiences is linked to more planned supportive reactions among first-time parents. However, for non-supportive reactions, exploratory processing alone was not a significant predictor. When remembered non-supportive reactions was considered as a moderator, however, the combination of remembering more non-supportive reactions and engaging in greater exploratory processing predicted reduced plans for non-supportive reactions. No moderation effect of remembered non-supportive reactions was found when examining the link between meaning making and plans for non-supportive reactions. Taken together, these findings suggest that self-awareness about how parental responses to negative emotions in childhood have contributed to current emotional functioning might enable more supportive emotion-related behaviors as a first-time parent. In a sense, this illustrates a redemptive pattern in the context of intergenerational transmission of emotion socialization.

Redemptive Narratives. Redemptive narratives represent the extent to which the stories participants told progressed from a negatively valenced beginning as they discussed emotional experiences in childhood to a positively valenced ending as they

discussed emotional experiences in adulthood and as a first-time parent. As previously discussed, ratings of redemption were averaged across each participant's sad narrative, angry narrative, and turning point narrative responses, resulting in a single score of these variables for each participant to capture redemption in the context of negative emotional experiences across childhood and adulthood, on a scale of 0 (*not redemptive*) to 1 (*very redemptive*). I examined the relationships between redemption, remembered non-supportive emotion socialization in childhood, and planned emotion socialization (see Table 15). Redemption was marginally correlated with remembered non-supportive parental reactions, $r = 0.19$, $p = .062$, such that narrating more redemptive stories was related to remembering more non-supportive parental reactions in childhood. Thus, participants' who narrated more redemptive stories remembered their childhood emotion socialization as being less supportive and/or more non-supportive. Interestingly, greater redemption was significantly associated with more plans for supportive emotion socialization, $r = 0.23$, $p = .024$ and marginally associated with less plans for non-supportive emotion socialization, $r = -0.18$, $p = .070$.

To probe this further, I ran an independent samples t-test to determine if having a redemptive narrative was associated with greater planned supportive emotion socialization. The results showed that participants with redemptive narratives ($M = 6.09$, $SD = 0.89$; $N = 91$) reported more plans for supportive reactions than participants who did not share redemptive narratives ($M = 5.25$, $SD = 0.96$; $N = 9$), $t(98) = -2.70$, $p = .008$, $d = 0.94$. However, there was no significant difference in plans for non-supportive reactions between participants with redemptive narratives ($M = 2.55$, $SD = 0.77$; $N = 91$)

and those without ($M = 2.67$, $SD = 0.93$; $N = 9$), $t(98) = 0.45$, $p = .327$, $d = 0.10$. This suggests that examining redemption within narratives about negative emotional experiences across childhood and adulthood provides a big picture representation of how self-awareness of negative childhood experiences can inform a change toward more supportive and less non-supportive planned emotion socialization for the next generation.

Research Question 3: What is the association between planned emotion socialization and wellbeing? Is the association moderated by self-awareness?

My third research question examined whether there was an association between planned emotion socialization and wellbeing and whether it was further moderated by exploratory processing and meaning making. I ran two hierarchical multiple regression analyses to examine main and interactive effects of exploratory processing and planned emotion socialization on participants' wellbeing, and two hierarchical multiple regression analyses to examine main and interactive effects of meaning making and planned emotion socialization on participants' wellbeing (composite). The model building process for each of these hierarchical multiple regression models is as follows: in step 1 I entered all relevant covariates, step 2 entered main effects, and step 3 entered the two-way interaction. As with the earlier analyses presented, the results I describe here will be the linear effects for mean-centered continuous variables and their interaction.

Exploratory Processing and Planned Emotion Socialization

The first model examined wellbeing as the dependent variable, planned supportive reactions and exploratory processing as independent predictors, and the two-way interaction of planned supportive reactions and exploratory processing (Table 25). In

the first step of the model, gender ($b = -0.36$, $t(98) = -2.01$, $p = .047$) accounted for a significant amount of variance in wellbeing, $R^2 = 0.04$, $F(1,98) = 4.05$, $p = .047$. The second step of the model, $R^2 = 0.05$, $F(3,96) = 1.69$, $p = .174$, included exploratory processing and planned supportive reactions ($b = -0.09$, $t(96) = -0.61$, $p = .544$, and $b = 0.13$, $t(96) = 1.03$, $p = .305$ respectively), and did not account for a significant proportion of the variance in wellbeing, $\Delta R^2 = 0.01$, $\Delta F(2,96) = 0.53$, $p = .590$. In the final step of the model, $R^2 = 0.05$, $F(4,95) = 1.33$, $p = .266$, the interaction term between exploratory processing and planned supportive reactions ($b = 0.06$, $t(95) = 0.52$, $p = .607$) was added and did not account for a significant proportion of the variance in wellbeing, $\Delta R^2 = 0.01$, $\Delta F(1,95) = 0.27$, $p = .607$. In summary, I had hypothesized that planned supportive reactions would positively relate to wellbeing, and that exploratory processing would moderate this relation, but neither expectation was supported.

I next investigated wellbeing as the dependent variable, exploratory processing and planned non-supportive reactions as independent predictors, and the interaction between exploratory processing and planned non-supportive reactions (see Table 26). In the first step of the model, gender ($b = -0.36$, $t(98) = -2.01$, $p = .047$) accounted for a significant amount of variance in wellbeing, $R^2 = 0.04$, $F(1,98) = 4.05$, $p = .047$. The second step of the model, $R^2 = 0.10$, $F(3,96) = 3.46$, $p = .019$, included exploratory processing ($b = -0.04$, $t(96) = -0.35$, $p = .724$) and planned non-supportive reactions ($b = -0.27$, $t(96) = -2.48$, $p = .015$) which did account for a marginally significant proportion of the variance in wellbeing, $\Delta R^2 = 0.06$, $\Delta F(2,96) = 3.08$, $p = .051$. In the final step of the model, $R^2 = 0.10$, $F(4,95) = 2.57$, $p = .043$, the interaction between exploratory

processing and planned non-supportive reactions ($b = 0.01$, $t(95) = 0.05$, $p = .958$) was added to the regression model and did not account for a significant proportion of the variance in wellbeing, $\Delta R^2 = 0.00$, $\Delta F(1,95) = 0.01$, $p = .958$.

Overall, gender was a significant covariate, planned non-supportive reactions was significantly negatively associated with wellbeing (as hypothesized), but exploratory processing was not associated with wellbeing; the interaction between exploratory processing and planned non-supportive reactions was also not significant.

Meaning Making and Planned Emotion Socialization

The third model investigated wellbeing as the dependent variable, planned supportive reactions and meaning making as independent predictors, and the interaction between planned supportive reactions and meaning making (see Table 27). In the first step of the model, gender ($b = -0.36$, $t(98) = -2.01$, $p = .047$) accounted for a significant amount of variance in wellbeing, $R^2 = 0.04$, $F(1,98) = 4.05$, $p = .047$. In the second step of the model, $R^2 = 0.09$, $F(3,96) = 2.97$, $p = .036$, meaning making ($b = 0.32$, $t(96) = 2.01$, $p = .048$) and planned supportive reactions ($b = 0.05$, $t(96) = 0.48$, $p = .629$) were entered and this step did not account for a significant proportion of the variance in wellbeing, $\Delta R^2 = 0.04$, $\Delta F(2,96) = 2.37$, $p = .100$. In the final step of the model, $R^2 = 0.09$, $F(4,95) = 2.32$, $p = .062$, the interaction term between meaning making and planned supportive reactions ($b = 0.11$, $t(95) = 0.65$, $p = .514$) was added to the regression model but did not account for a significant proportion of the variance in wellbeing, $\Delta R^2 = 0.01$, $\Delta F(1,95) = 0.43$, $p = .514$.

In summary, gender was a significant covariate, meaning making was a significant predictor of wellbeing but planned supportive reactions was not, and the interaction between meaning making and planned supportive reactions was not significant. I had hypothesized that planned supportive emotion socialization would positively predict wellbeing, but this was not supported. Meaning making was related to wellbeing but did not moderate the relationship between planned supportive emotion socialization and wellbeing.

The fourth model examined wellbeing as the dependent variable, planned non-supportive reactions and meaning making as independent predictors, and the interaction between meaning making and planned non-supportive reactions (see Table 28). In the first step of the model, $R^2 = 0.04$, $F(1,98) = 4.05$, $p = .047$, gender ($b = -0.36$, $t(98) = -2.01$, $p = .047$) accounted for a significant amount of variance in wellbeing. The second step of the model, $R^2 = 0.13$, $F(3,96) = 4.62$, $p = .005$, included meaning making ($b = 0.28$, $t(96) = 1.81$, $p = .073$) and planned non-supportive reactions ($b = -0.23$, $t(96) = -2.19$, $p = .031$), and did account for a significant proportion of the variance in wellbeing, $\Delta R^2 = 0.09$, $\Delta F(2,96) = 4.75$, $p = .001$. In the final step of the model, $R^2 = 0.14$, $F(4,95) = 3.93$, $p = .005$, the interaction between meaning making and planned non-supportive reactions ($b = 0.25$, $t(95) = 1.33$, $p = .188$) was added to the model and did not account for a significant proportion of the variance in wellbeing, $\Delta R^2 = 0.02$, $\Delta F(1,95) = 1.76$, $p = .188$.

Overall, my hypothesis that planned non-supportive emotion socialization would be negatively associated with wellbeing was supported. Meaning making was found to be

marginally associated with increased wellbeing. However, the hypothesis that meaning making would moderate the relationship between planned non-supportive reactions and wellbeing was not supported.

Summary

Taken together, findings that address research question 3 illustrate that planned non-supportive emotion socialization was significantly related to diminished wellbeing, whereas planned supportive emotion socialization surprisingly was not associated with wellbeing. Additionally, when examining narrative themes, only meaning making was related to wellbeing; exploratory processing was not. Lastly, I found no evidence that self-awareness moderated the effect of planned emotion socialization on wellbeing.

Chapter 4

Discussion

The primary goal of this dissertation was to improve understanding of first-time parents' subjective experiences of parental emotion socialization in childhood, which carry consequences for how they think about and respond to their own child's negative emotions. A secondary goal was to investigate how individual differences in self-awareness, or how an individual makes meaning of and explores the impact of negative childhood experiences, relates to their planned emotion socialization and wellbeing. A final goal of this dissertation was to document the extent to which personal identification of change and stability in facets of emotion development across developmental phases (e.g., remembered childhood, transition to parenthood, etc.) represents a novel component of socioemotional functioning. To capture self-awareness, I utilized narrative prompts and narrative themes, because the extent to which a narrative identity framework can be applied to emotion development research remains largely unexplored. Specifically, I aimed to (a) examine whether facets of first-time parents' narrative stories about remembered emotion socialization and negative emotional experiences in childhood related to plans and beliefs about emotion socialization practices, (b) investigate whether individual differences in self-awareness (exploratory processing and meaning making) related to planned emotion socialization and wellbeing, and (c) illustrate whether a narrative identity framework could be used to inform and contextualize how emotional experiences and expression of negative emotions (sadness and anger) differed across childhood and adulthood and related to differences in self-awareness. This research study

is one of the first to bridge the gap between emotion research and narrative identity constructs and a plethora of interesting findings emerged from this investigation, but I did not find support for most of my primary hypotheses. Therefore, I will begin by summarizing the findings for each research question and then synthesizing my interpretation of the findings and offering recommendations for future work in this area. Then, I will discuss the limitations of this study and provide the general conclusions of this dissertation.

Remembered and Planned Emotion Socialization

My first research question investigated whether remembered non-supportive emotion socialization experiences in childhood related to first-time parents' plans for emotion socialization. It is important to note that participants in this sample generally remembered their parents as being more non-supportive of their negative emotions in childhood. But participants reported plans to be much more supportive and much less non-supportive of their own child's emotions.

Remembered Non-Supportive Reactions

Remembering more non-supportive parental reactions was correlated with plans for more supportive emotion socialization. In addition, remembered non-supportive reactions significantly predicted planned supportive emotion socialization but did not predict planned non-supportive emotion socialization. Recent research focused on remembered emotion socialization has found that remembered supportive emotion socialization is not a significant predictor of planned supportive emotion socialization, which suggests that negative childhood emotional experiences may be more memorable

(Leerkes et al., 2020). The current findings align with this, as remembering non-supportive parental reactions does predict planned supportive reactions in first-time parents. These findings add to the limited but growing understanding of remembered emotion socialization and highlight the impact of negative emotional experiences within childhood as leaving a lasting impression. Perhaps negative childhood emotional experiences allow for greater room for improvement and offer first-time parents a model of how they might avoid responding to their child's negative emotions.

Despite this possibility, previous research has also identified that adult perceptions of parents' use of non-supportive emotion socialization strategies in childhood are related to lower levels of emotion regulation skills and greater use of maladaptive regulatory strategies in adulthood, both of which contribute to emotion socialization practices (Cabecinha-Alati et al., 2019). In a study by Leerkes and colleagues (2015), new mothers who recalled their own mothers as being emotionally non-supportive in childhood provided less supportive responding to their toddlers in distressing situations (Leerkes et al., 2015). Interestingly, the current study found that remembered non-supportive reactions did not predict planned non-supportive reactions, which supported my hypothesis which was unexpected and highlights the previously made point that negative childhood experiences are perhaps more salient and offer a better opportunity for change. This study asked participants to rate how often they had reflected on their childhood, which helps to contextualize the findings. I found that plans for supportive emotion socialization were significantly greater if first-time parents reported reflecting "a lot" on childhood emotional experiences, whereas plans for non-

supportive emotion socialization were significantly greater for first-time parents who reported never having reflected on their childhood emotional experiences. This suggests that it might not only be remembering non-supportive parental reactions that are contributing to plans for emotion socialization; how much the individual has reflected on these non-supportive experiences also seems to be playing a key role.

This negative childhood context may combine with reflection on the past and lead first-time parents to think more deeply about providing supportive reactions to their child. The importance of self-awareness is contributing to the relationship between remembered non-supportive emotion socialization and plans for supportive emotion socialization. This finding also provides evidence of intergenerational pathways in understanding emotion socialization and is consistent with limited findings that recalled childhood maternal non-supportive emotion socialization relates to mothers' adaptations in different domains (e.g., emotion regulation difficulties and couples' relationship satisfaction) postpartum (Cao et al., 2018). In contrast, first-time parents who self-reported lower ratings of reflection reported plans for more non-supportive reactions even if their childhood experiences were supportive, suggesting that reflecting on the past may serve as a way for individuals to think more carefully about how they want to manage their emotional responses to their child.

Self-Awareness and Planned Emotion Socialization

My second research question examined whether there was an association between self-awareness (exploratory processing and meaning making) and first-time parents' plans for emotion socialization. To address this, I used the narrative identity approach to

derive and quantify two narrative themes, capturing self-awareness, within stories about negative emotional experiences across childhood and adulthood. Current work utilizing the narrative identity approach is beginning to expand beyond the life story and emphasizes that narratives can represent an appropriate way to conceptualize the individual differences in which people understand any number of social and personal processes, not just their life story broadly (Dunlop et al., 2019). In this dissertation, I suggest that the narrative themes of exploratory processing and meaning making capture perceived self-awareness and can be applied to the narratives first-time parents have constructed about their negative emotional experiences in childhood and adulthood. Findings surrounding exploratory processing largely supported this; exploratory processing was found to significantly predict planned supportive emotion socialization. However, findings surrounding meaning making did not support an association between meaning making and planned supportive reactions.

Exploratory Processing and Planned Emotion Socialization

The narrative theme of exploratory processing across negative childhood emotional experiences (e.g., sad event, angry event, turning point) involves the narrator connecting themselves to the negative emotional impact of their childhood experiences and remembered parental emotion socialization, and using the memory as an incentive for positive change in planned emotion socialization. Thus, exploratory processing referred to any exploration of how their childhood experiences led to positive self-development, such as a positive shift in how the participant plans to respond to their own child's emotions. However, a higher exploratory processing score did not require a

positively valenced adult narrative; instead, the focus of this coding was to capture the extent to which the narrator was able to elaborate on their negative childhood experiences in a way that showcased an open exploration of how those past events directed changes in their behavior and emotional functioning now as an adult and first-time parent. The valence of the narrative and/or inclusion of positive emotions was not necessary to earn a high score on exploratory processing.

I hypothesized that higher exploratory processing would relate to plans for more supportive emotion socialization, and this was supported. Exploratory processing was positively associated with plans for greater supportive reactions and was a significant predictor of planned supportive emotion socialization. I had also hypothesized that higher exploratory processing would relate to plans for less non-supportive emotion socialization, which was not supported. In summary, greater exploratory processing positively predicted planned supportive emotion socialization but was not related to planned non-supportive emotion socialization. This may be because reasoning about negative emotional experiences in childhood often led first-time parents to identify negative feelings resulting from how their parent(s) responded to their negative emotions when they were a child. The ability to reflect on personal memories and narrate past experiences has been found to have adaptive implications that allow individuals to cope with aversive experiences, resolve negative affect, and draw on past emotions in the service of understanding the present and future (Fivush et al., 2011).

In line with previous research, findings demonstrated that first-time parents who naturally narrated difficult emotional experiences in childhood and articulated how those

experiences had impacted them tended to have higher levels of exploratory processing. In the same vein, first-time parents who remembered more non-supportive emotion socialization had plans for more supportive reactions. Previous research has found that parents who are aware of their own emotions are able to provide a unique level of understanding and assist their child's emotions (Morris et al., 2017). Adding to this, exploratory processing of negative childhood emotional experiences further highlights how new parents who are self-aware of their own emotions and how their parents have influenced them can in turn provide more supportive reactions and assist their child by providing better responses to their negative emotions. Thus, findings point to the value of indirectly examining exploratory processing and topics around emotion socialization within open-ended stories of the self to illustrate how facets of self-awareness and subjective experiences in childhood adaptively influence planned emotion socialization practices.

Remembered Non-Supportive Emotion Socialization Does Moderate the Relationship Between Exploratory Processing and Planned Non-Supportive Emotion Socialization

I explored whether the relationship between exploratory processing and planned supportive reactions would be stronger for participants who remembered more non-supportive reactions. I hypothesized that the relationship between exploratory processing and planned supportive reactions would be stronger for participants who remembered more non-supportive reactions, this was also not supported. Again, higher reported exploratory processing significantly predicted planned supportive reactions but there was

no moderation effect of remembered non-supportive reactions. I also explored whether greater exploratory processing would predict less planned non-supportive reactions, this was not supported. Planned non-supportive reactions were not predicted by exploratory processing or remembered non-supportive reactions.

However, the interaction between exploratory processing and remembered non-supportive reactions was significant, such that participants that remembered high non-supportive reactions from their parents in childhood and displayed low exploratory processing reported having more plans for non-supportive reactions. Participants who remembered high non-supportive parental reactions and displayed high exploratory processing reported having plans for less non-supportive reactions.

Taken together, greater exploratory processing of negative childhood experiences was found to predict more plans for supportive reactions regardless of remembered parental socialization. But greater exploratory processing of negative childhood experiences only predicted plans to use fewer non-supportive reactions when remembered parental reactions were highly non-supportive. Previous research has established that reflecting on past experiences can potentially serve to help someone gain insight and guide present and future behavior (Bluck & Liao, 2013). This suggests that the pattern established in the moderation effect is illustrating directive functions. For example, remembering greater non-supportive reactions in childhood and reflecting on those past negative childhood experiences might guide a new parent's future or planned emotion socialization to be less non-supportive. Additionally, exploratory processing captured in the stories of negative experiences and remembered emotion socialization in

childhood may foster a way of engaging in exploration of various identities associated with parenting (McLean & Pasupathi, 2012). For example, a first-time parent who reported remembering childhood emotion socialization as being somewhat supportive and more non-supportive might explore different trajectories of how to parent their own child. The findings demonstrate how qualities of exploratory processing within stories pertaining to childhood emotional experiences carried implications for participants' planned emotion socialization.

Meaning Making and Planned Emotion Socialization

Meaning making in this dissertation was defined as the extent to which participants were able to articulate a deep meaning and understanding of how their negative emotional experiences in childhood had contributed to their emotional functioning as adults and parents. Meaning making, as a narrative theme, captured the extent to which participants detailed how their emotional functioning had grown as a product of insights and or lessons that they learned from their past negative childhood emotional experiences. Throughout this study, narratives that lacked meaning tended to focus on describing the facts and details of the negative childhood event rather than reflecting on the insights, lessons, and meaning that was gained from the experience and how these have contributed to changes or growth in emotional functioning.

I hypothesized that meaning making would relate to plans for more supportive emotion socialization, but this was not supported. Meaning making was marginally positively associated with plans for greater supportive reactions but was not a significant predictor of planned supportive emotion socialization when accounting for covariates. I

had also hypothesized that higher meaning making would relate to plans for less non-supportive emotion socialization, which was not supported. Meaning making was not related to plans for non-supportive reactions and was not a significant predictor of planned non-supportive reactions.

The narrative theme of meaning making across negative childhood emotional experiences (e.g., sad event, angry event, turning point) was not associated with planned supportive reactions or planned non-supportive reactions. This might be because thinking deeply about negative emotional experiences in childhood led first-time parents to identify and take away a negative meaning or think more carefully about how they were negatively impacted by their parents and the childhood experience, ruminating on the negative experience itself rather than focusing on positive changes they could make as a first-time parent. Previous research in narrative identity has found that meaning making can resemble rumination as opposed to growth as individuals interpret their stories (McLean et al., 2018). Participants who remembered more non-supportive parental reactions and described their negative childhood experiences in detail might be illustrating high meaning making in describing the ways it has affected them as an adult and parent, but in a negative context. This provides evidence to suggest that the context of negative childhood experiences could potentially facilitate negative meaning associated with that event (McAdams, 2011; McLean et al., 2018). Given the lack of research on narrative identity and emotion socialization, additional work is needed to disentangle different forms of meaning making across various childhood experiences.

Remembered Non-Supportive Emotion Socialization Does Not Moderate the Relationship Between Meaning Making and Planned Emotion Socialization

Meaning making alone did not predict planned emotion socialization. I also examined whether meaning making related to first-time parents' planned emotion socialization and if remembered non-supportive parental reactions moderated the relationship. I hypothesized that greater meaning making would negatively predict plans for less non-supportive reactions and that greater remembered non-supportive reactions would enhance this relationship. This hypothesis was not supported. Meaning making was not significantly associated with planned supportive reactions and no moderation effect occurred. It was also expected that greater meaning making would predict plans for less non-supportive reactions and that greater remembered non-supportive reactions would enhance this relationship; this was not supported.

This suggests that making meaning of one's childhood negative emotional experiences, unlike exploratory processing, does not significantly predict planned emotion socialization and is not moderated by remembered emotion socialization. Previous research has stated that meaning making about life experiences is beneficial for psychological adjustment and wellbeing (Park, 2016). Perhaps meaning making about childhood experiences does not directly relate to active planning for parenting children's emotions whereas, exploratory processing about those childhood events does influence planning.

Self-Awareness: The Link Between Remembered and Planned Emotion

Socialization

It is important to consider the context in which meaning making and exploratory processing have previously been studied. Narrative identity research focused on exploratory processing has largely examined this theme within the context of difficult life event narratives, such that exploration is often constrained to negatively valenced past events (Pals, 2006). In contrast, meaning making has been examined across positive and negative contexts and focuses more on the narrator's ability to reflect back on the past experience and articulate meaning made from the event and whether that meaning is positive or negative (McLean et al., 2018). Perhaps the reason greater exploratory processing of remembered non-supportive reactions is related to greater plans for supportive reactions is because negative memories have been found to serve a directive function or highlight a need for change (Lind et al., 2019). Having greater exploratory processing surrounding how one's parents' non-supportive reactions (in a negative context) impacted emotional understanding could potentially highlight a need for change and motivate first-time parents to utilize less non-supportive reactions and more supportive reactions when responding to their own child's negative emotions. Meaning making about remembered parental reactions and planned emotion socialization within this dissertation suggests that reflecting on negative childhood experiences might not be a salient approach for capturing self-awareness. However, in this dissertation greater redemption was significantly associated with plans for more supportive emotion socialization and marginally associated with plans for less non-supportive reactions

suggesting that reflection and self-awareness are key aspects that allow individuals to learn from their childhood experiences. Self-awareness, captured through meaning making and exploratory processing, might be the process through which this redemptive change is occurring. Previous research examining the transmission of emotion socialization highlighted the need for future research to consider other skills outside of social information processing that could provide connections between remembered emotion socialization and responses to one's own child (Leerkes et al., 2020). The findings of this dissertation have done just that; one skill that could be providing stability and change between remembered and planned emotion socialization is self-awareness.

However, future work is needed to unpack this unique differentiation between exploratory processing and meaning making because they are both paramount to understanding variations in planned emotion socialization. It appears that in order to provide children with the most adaptive emotion socialization practices parents need to be aware of the supportive and non-supportive reactions displayed by their parents in childhood. Future work using narrative identity measures to examine emotion socialization could ask more specifically about how the narrator recalled their parents' responding to their negative emotions in childhood and how these recollections might inform their own parenting. Narrative identity researchers have suggested that incorporating more self-ratings may help address fundamental questions regarding the ways narratives change and stay the same throughout childhood and adulthood (Dunlop et al., 2021). Regarding self-awareness, it appears that exploratory processing and meaning making within narratives about childhood emotional experiences should be

considered as independent narrative themes as they both provide different implications for planned emotion socialization.

Planned Emotion Socialization and Wellbeing

My third and final research question investigated whether planned emotion socialization (supportive and non-supportive) was related to first-time parents' wellbeing. I hypothesized that planned supportive reactions would positively relate to wellbeing and planned non-supportive reactions would negatively relate to wellbeing, this was partially supported. Plans for more supportive reactions were not significantly related to wellbeing and did not predict wellbeing. However, plans for more non-supportive reactions did negatively relate to and predict diminished wellbeing. This could be related to other facets of dysregulated emotional functioning. For example, first-time parents who plan to utilize more non-supportive reactions also displayed higher scores on the DERS and perhaps both contributed to diminished wellbeing. Previous work, while limited, has suggested that emotion socialization strategies do predict wellbeing directly but when other predictors are accounted for (e.g., personality, attachment styles, emotion regulation strategies) this effect diminishes greatly (Liliana & Nicoleta, 2014). One study examining the effects of an emotion-focused parenting intervention found significant improvement in parents' supportive reactions and children's wellbeing but did not show changes in the parents' own wellbeing. The researchers suggested that a parent's ability to provide more supportive reactions to their own child might not map onto their own internal emotion management (Havighurst et al., 2009). The current findings were consistent with previous research and add to the research by highlighting the significant association between

planned non-supportive emotion socialization and diminished well-being. Therefore, the relationship between parents' non-supportive reactions and wellbeing might be a residual effect of individual differences in internal emotional functioning. For example, correlational findings illustrated that greater dysregulated emotion regulation and lower emotional awareness both related to diminished wellbeing and planned non-supportive reactions.

The Effect of Planned Emotion Socialization on Wellbeing when Considering Exploratory Processing as a Potential Moderator

I also examined whether planned emotion socialization (more supportive and more non-supportive) predicted first-time parents' well-being and if exploratory processing moderated the effect. I hypothesized that planned supportive reactions would positively relate to wellbeing and exploratory processing would enhance the relationship, though this was not supported. Wellbeing was not predicted by planned supportive reactions, exploratory processing, or their interaction effect. I also hypothesized that planned non-supportive reactions would negatively relate to wellbeing and exploratory processing would diminish the relationship, this was not supported. Plans for more non-supportive reactions did significantly predict diminished wellbeing but exploratory processing did not moderate the relationship.

This suggests that exploratory processing of childhood emotional experiences with one's parents does not predict wellbeing. Originally, wellbeing was included as an outcome in this study because narrative identity research focused on an individuals' life story has found significant associations between narrative themes and wellbeing.

However, as the current study highlights, wellbeing may not be a suitable outcome for examining emotion-focused narratives. One explanation for this supposition is that narrative identity methods often focus on the life story of an individual and how an individual's view of this story represents their subjective wellbeing. However, in this dissertation narrative identity methods are focusing on the individual's understanding of negative childhood emotional experiences as they relate to planned emotion socialization which does not suggest any overlap with subjective wellbeing. Previous literature utilizing narrative methodologies to assess domains of an individual's life (e.g., romantic relationships), rather than the life story overall, have established a need to situate the outcomes in the context of the domain being explored (Dunlop et al., 2020). For example, narrative accounts of romantic relationships that captured the past, present, and future examined relational outcomes (e.g., relationship satisfaction and attachment style; Dunlop et al., 2019). Thus, narratives focused on emotion socialization and negative childhood emotional experiences, like in this dissertation, are capturing more emotion-specific processes. The story-based materials and narrative themes generated in this dissertation may then be better suited to capture variations in outcomes pertaining to emotions and emotion socialization rather than general wellbeing.

The Effect of Planned Emotion Socialization on Wellbeing when Considering Meaning Making as a Potential Moderator

Additionally, I investigated whether meaning making moderated the relationship between planned emotion socialization and wellbeing. I hypothesized that planned supportive emotion socialization would positively predict wellbeing and that meaning

making would enhance the relationship, this was not supported. Meaning making was found to be significantly associated with wellbeing but planned supportive reactions and the interaction between meaning making and planned supportive reactions were not significant. I also hypothesized that planned non-supportive reactions would negatively predict wellbeing and meaning making would diminish the relationship, this was not supported. Meaning making was marginally positively associated and planned non-supportive reactions were significantly negatively associated with wellbeing. However, the interaction between meaning making and planned non-supportive reactions did not predict wellbeing. As previously discussed, it is possible that meaning making is potentially capturing a more *self-focused* awareness of how past childhood experiences have influenced individuals' emotion expression rather than how it has contributed to emotion socialization and plans for parenting children's emotions. This could explain why exploratory processing was not found to predict wellbeing but meaning making was found to be a significant predictor of wellbeing. Perhaps greater meaning making is related to a better understanding of how childhood experiences have influenced someone's internal emotional functioning, which in turn has implications for general wellbeing.

Limitations and Future Directions

This dissertation served as an initial step toward extending the narrative identity framework to the study of emotion development. It is also one of the first investigations to assess exploratory processing and meaning making to capture distinct facets of individuals' self-awareness. Future extensions of this work should investigate the use of

more narrative constructs, beyond exploratory processing and meaning making, to expand the themes that are best considered to capture self-awareness and inform socioemotional functioning across development. There are many ways in which the study of intergenerational transmission of emotion socialization can be incorporated into the narrative identity literature and vice versa. A closer examination of redemptive sequences and valence within the narratives can be adopted to highlight the affective quality of past and present narratives about emotional experiences.

In the current study, I chose to focus on negatively valenced narratives of participants' childhood experiences (e.g., sadness and anger), due to previously established measures that have successfully captured dimensions of emotion socialization (Eisenberg & 1998; Gottman et al., 1998). It should be noted that focusing on negative childhood emotional experiences throughout the prompts in this study contextualized the general understanding of childhood experiences as being inherently negative. The negatively valenced description of childhood experiences could have potentially biased the exploratory processing and meaning making of individuals. For example, contamination was not present in this dissertation because none of the narratives started positively since the childhood stories focused on a sad and angry emotional experience in childhood. In the future, researchers should move away from prompts specifying negative childhood emotional experiences in order to more fully capture how self-awareness about childhood experiences is contributing to emotion development and planned emotion socialization. Broadening the narrative prompts to capture individuals' defining childhood experiences and parental interactions generally might allow the interpretation

of childhood memories to be captured more organically. For example, rather than instructing participants to share a sad and angry emotional experience from childhood allowing them to think of a high point and low point from their childhood might allow for a broader understanding of how individuals reflect on their childhood experiences.

The current study found very little support for associations between planned emotion socialization and wellbeing. In addition, exploratory processing did not relate to wellbeing which was expected given it is a narrative identity theme. Future work focused on emotion socialization should not feel the need to investigate implications on general wellbeing but rather focus on implications related to emotion processes. More current work in the field of narrative identity has established that stories within certain domains of an individual's life should focus on implications that are specific to that domain (Dunlop et al., 2019).

In this dissertation participants completed measures in uniform order (with narrative prompts being collected before non-narrative measures and demographic information) and all in one sitting. Therefore, the existence of order effects within the study cannot be ruled out (Adler et al., 2017). The order could have also potentially primed participants to report more biased responses throughout the self-report measures considering they had just thought about and shared stories pertaining to negative childhood experiences and their experiences as a first-time parent with their child which puts these constructs at the forefront of their mind. Future research should try to eliminate order effects by having participants complete self-report measures and narrative prompts independently of each other or randomize the order of the presented survey.

Lastly, this study had a unique sample in the sense that most first-time parents remembered their parents as providing more non-supportive reactions and less supportive reactions which might have contributed to the lack of association found between remembered supportive reactions and planned emotion socialization. In addition, this sample of first-time parents were mostly millennials, about 30 years old, and many reported greater exploratory processing and meaning making suggesting that the historical changes in advocacy for mental health may very well be contributing to self-awareness and the attention first-time parents place on responding to their child's emotions. Future research should recruit for much larger sample sizes to broaden the type of analyses that can be performed and examine the impact of individual differences like age, race and ethnicity, and socioeconomic backgrounds on first-time parents plans for emotion socialization. This study was the first of its kind to operationalize narrative identity methods to inform individuals' self-awareness of childhood emotional experiences and provide subjective details to contextualize patterns found in planned emotion socialization of first-time parents. Given that the findings support the interdisciplinary integration of narrative identity into emotion research; future research should include a more careful analysis of narrative identity themes as they relate to emotional functioning.

To briefly highlight the applied implications of the current research, successful attempts at engaging in self-awareness (exploratory processing and meaning making) of childhood emotional experiences and variations in remembered emotion socialization were both associated with plans for more supportive reactions and plans for less non-

supportive reactions as a first-time parent. These core findings suggest that parent education surrounding the importance of self-awareness of childhood emotional experiences and remembered emotion socialization with parents would be a useful approach to target intervention efforts aimed at changing intergenerational socialization practices for the better (e.g., more supportive and less non-supportive). However, the current study focuses on planned emotion socialization which creates a limitation in the potential social desirability bias and in the study, design having the ability to assess what first-time parents are doing. Future work should investigate whether similar findings are found at different developmental stages to better understand how this might be impacting what the parent is actively doing to socialize the child's emotions.

Conclusion

Overall, this study made several novel contributions to the understanding of emotion socialization practices and has illustrated the relevance that the narrative identity framework holds for the study of emotion development. Planned emotion socialization was also found to be influenced by exploration of subjective experiences about negative emotional experiences and non-supportive parental emotion socialization in childhood. These patterns provide novel support that narrative identity approaches can be used to accurately capture how self-awareness of childhood emotional experiences and parental emotion socialization, via exploratory processing and meaning making, contributes to effortful plans for employing more adaptive emotion socialization as a first-time parent. Finally, this dissertation found that individual differences in self-awareness, or how an individual makes meaning of and explores the impact of negative childhood experiences

relates to wellbeing differently. Planned non-supportive emotion socialization predicted diminished wellbeing but greater meaning making was significantly associated with wellbeing. Ultimately, the findings outlined in this research represent integrating the narrative identity approach and emotion science to best understand how intergenerational transmission of emotion socialization practices are guided by subjective interpretation and self-awareness of childhood emotional experiences. Results from this dissertation suggest that an individuals' subjective interpretation of childhood emotional experiences and the amount of self-awareness they have surrounding these experiences are critical mechanisms that should be employed in emotion research to contextualize and better understand individual variations in emotion development and emotion socialization practices.

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Table 1. Frequencies

	N	%
Gender		
Males	34	34.0
Females	66	66.0
Race/Ethnicity		
Asian	2	2.0
African American	10	10.0
Hispanic/Latino	10	10.0
White	69	69.0
Biracial	9	9.0
Biological Child's Gender		
Boys	56	56.0
Girls	44	44.0
Relationship to Remembered Mother		
Biological	95	95.0
Stepparent	1	1.0
Adoptive Parent	4	4.0
Relationship to Remembered Father		
Biological	93	93.0
Stepparent	3	3.0
Adoptive Parent	4	4.0
Use of Mental Health Services		
No/Never	30	30.0
Yes, before my child was born	46	46.0
Yes, after my child was born	2	2.0
Yes/Always	22	22.0
Currently Using Mental Health Services?		
No	72	72.0
No, but I intend to	14	14.0
Yes	14	14.0
Top Choice of Parenting Resource		
Your Parents	22	22.0
Online Parenting Support Groups or Communities	18	18.0
Friends	14	14.0
TikTok	10	10.0
Parenting Books	9	9.0
Online Parenting Blogs or Websites	7	7.0
Myself/My Experiences	4	4.0
Partner's Parents	3	3.0
Siblings	3	3.0
Grandparents	3	3.0
Doctor's or Scientific Research	3	3.0
Instagram	3	3.0
Facebook	1	1.0
Redemptive Narratives		
Sad Narrative		
Yes	74	74.0
No	26	26.0
Angry Narrative		
Yes	71	71.0
No	29	29.0

Note. $N = 100$.

Table 2. Means & Standard Deviations

	Min	Max	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Demographics				
Age	20.00	48.00	30.14	5.16
Education Level	1.00	11.00	6.53	1.62
Household Income	1.00	12.00	5.30	2.43
Relationship Status	1.00	5.00	2.82	0.66
Child's Age (Months)	1.00	36.00	17.89	9.62
Non-narrative Measures				
Remembered Emotion Socialization in Childhood				
Both Parents' Overall Supportive	1.00	7.00	3.26	1.36
Both Parents' Overall Non-Supportive	1.00	7.00	3.89	1.19
Mother's Overall Supportive	1.00	7.00	3.45	1.63
Mother's Overall Non-Supportive	1.00	7.00	3.89	1.43
Father's Overall Supportive	1.00	7.00	3.08	1.61
Father's Overall Non-supportive	1.00	7.00	3.89	1.41
Planned Emotion Socialization of First-time Parent				
Overall Supportive	1.00	7.00	5.98	0.88
Overall Non-supportive	1.00	7.00	2.56	0.79
Well-Being				
Composite Score	-2.05	1.50	0.00	0.86
SHS	1.00	7.00	4.65	1.36
PWB-18	18.00	108.00	80.85	12.89
SWLS	5.00	35.00	24.28	7.22
Emotional Functioning				
Emotional Awareness	1.00	5.00	3.79	0.64
Difficulties with Emotion Regulation	36.00	156.00	80.94	28.87
Narrative Measures				
Meaning Making				
All Childhood Narratives	0.00	3.00	2.27	0.69
Sad Narratives	0.00	3.00	2.33	0.65
Angry Narratives	0.00	3.00	2.28	0.68
Turning Point Narratives	0.00	3.00	2.21	0.76
Valence				
Both Emotional Childhood Narratives	1.00	5.00	1.70	0.75
Sad Childhood Narrative	1.00	5.00	1.66	0.85
Angry Childhood Narrative	1.00	5.00	1.75	0.74
Both Emotional Adulthood Narratives	1.00	5.00	3.44	0.81
Sad Adulthood Narrative	1.00	5.00	3.40	1.09
Angry Adulthood Narrative	1.00	5.00	3.49	1.08
Exploratory Processing				
All Childhood Narratives	1.00	4.00	2.98	0.84
Sad Narratives	1.00	4.00	3.06	0.80
Angry Narratives	1.00	4.00	2.95	0.88
Turning Point Narratives	1.00	4.00	2.94	0.85
Redemptive Narratives				
Both Emotional Narratives	0.00	1.00	0.73	0.33
Sad Narratives	0.00	1.00	0.74	0.45
Angry Narratives	0.00	1.00	0.71	0.44

Note. $N = 100$. For analyses in this study, meaning making, valence, exploratory

processing, and redemption were averaged across coded key scenes and sad and angry narratives.

Table 3. *Meaning Making Examples Across Narrative Prompts*

Prompt	Description	Coding Scheme	Example Excerpt from Narrative
Sad Narrative	The degree to which one narrates their own self-understanding based on childhood emotional experiences and uses this knowledge to guide behavior and/or thoughts about who they are emotionally.	0 = No explanation of meaning of childhood emotional event	0 = "Nothing stands out to me as sad from my childhood. Growing up with the family dynamic I did, I know I just picked up on almost everything positive my parents have done".
		1 = Lesson learned from event	3 = "I think this memory sticks out because it's just such a vivid memory when I think back to that time of my life. I think it sticks out to me as an adult because I really try to process my emotions in a healthy way now, so I can help my child do the same. It also sticks out to me because I now stick up for myself in every situation in which I feel like I'm wronged. This incident could have a lot to do with that. As a child I would talk with my mom about my sadness, and she would talk about it or offer video games as a distraction. As an adult if I'm sad I want to talk about it with my spouse so I can process my emotions in a proper way and not take it out on the people that matter the most. I think this is because I know how I felt when my own dad took his emotions out on me, I don't want to be a repeat of that. I respond to my own child's sadness by trying to be as soothing as possible. I try to be there and talk in a soothing tone, be attentive and try to respond to everything that's going on with her. I try to make sure my actions are positive to try and keep her in a positive environment and mood. I think I'm this way because of my life experiences and not wanting grudges to form or other negative emotions. I'm the type of person who wants to fix a problem instead of ignoring it, especially a problem with negative emotions. Because those negative emotions will only fester and get worse".
Angry Narrative		2 = Vague meaning. Some growth/change, but specifics are unclear.	1 = "I remember one time my mom wouldn't let me go see a movie with a friend that was rated PG-13. I was probably 10 and she didn't think I should see it, but it was ok for my friend to see it. I got very angry that other kids would be able to go do things like that, and I couldn't. I reacted by yelling and getting super angry. Looking back, I realize she was just looking out for me and not wanting to expose me to things. As an adult I understand why she made the decision she made. I wouldn't want my child exposed to things at a young age too. I understand she was just doing what was best and that I shouldn't have reacted that way. After, I grew from the experience. You also learn what is important to be upset over and what isn't".
		3 = Narrator gleaned specific insight from the childhood emotional events that applies to broader areas of their emotions and life.	3 = "I used to sit in bed and just scream at night until my mom came and gave me what I wanted. And she would always just give me whatever I wanted. I think it built bad habits that as long as I threw big enough of a tantrum, I'd get what I wanted. It became a weird power dynamic that I don't think is healthy, I think parents have to discipline their children and be disciplined. My parents responded by basically just trying to appease me I suppose. I think this memory stands out to me because in retrospect, I was WAY out of line as a kid. And I was never properly corrected, and I think it built bad habits later in life where I would lash out in romantic relationships and stuff if I did not get my way. I think that still has residual effects on me now, but my wife and I work through things in a much healthier way. I've had to try to learn more humility and nuance and understanding. My anger is different than when I was a child. I've definitely learned not to respond to everything by the adult version of "throwing a tantrum" (which could mean, responding to conflict with an iron fist, or "punishing" a partner for upsetting me, or something of that nature). As I've gotten older, I've learned to break down these emotions to their root causes and work through them in a more productive way and see things from my wife's perspective. I think the way I was raised caused me to have much less empathy for others, or for women. It was just about me and what I wanted. I am very firm with my son that when he misbehaves, that's unacceptable and there are consequences that aren't negotiable.

Note. Higher scores are indicative of greater meaning making.

Table 4. Valence Examples Across Narrative Prompts

Description	Coding Scheme	Example Excerpt from Narrative
Positive relative to negative emotional content of the narrative as a whole story.	1 = Very Negative	1 = “My father was killed when I was 10 years old. He was murdered in a bar that he was bartending in by a very drunk man with a long criminal record. The guy ultimately got a very short sentence in jail, and tried to argue that because the bar was predominately Portuguese people, and my father was Portuguese, that he was being discriminated against. His argument was convincing to the jury. My mom tried to be there for me at first and as time went by, I think she struggled to know how to support me. Even though they were divorced they were still friends, so I know she was mourning his loss as well. It really shaped who I am. I was angry for a long time and have never really been able to accept it. As a parent it has made me very aware of how fleeting time is”. <i>Sad Childhood Event Narrative</i>
	2 = Negative or Somewhat Negative	2 = “I remember being angry at my best friend because she wouldn't play with a specific toy with me. I was probably 4 or 5. We were at our apartment complex, outside near the stream. It was just the two of us, but our moms decided that we had to separate and if we couldn't learn to get along. I was angry and felt very misunderstood. My parents threatened to separate me from my friend so that we could not be friends anymore. I think it stands out because my mom and her mom made this huge deal about us having to choose if we would remain friends, and they seemed confident that this was the best way to deal with the situation. But it wasn't. I think it shows that again, I was put in situations by my mother and that she had a great deal of influence over what I went through as a child”. <i>Angry Childhood Event Narrative</i>
	3 = Neutral or Mixed Positive and Negative Emotions	3 = “My parents split up when I was around 8. My mom didn't really know how to talk about things but would try to make sure we were okay. I was upset at first but when I got older, I realized it was the best thing for them. My mom would try to be there as much as she could. I don't want my child to have to experience the same thing. That was something that I will remember for the rest of my life”. <i>Sad Childhood Event Narrative</i>
	4 = Positive	4 = “I think how I express my sadness is different because I have learned to manage my sad moments better. I care more for my child and hope to give him everything I didn't get, especially uninterrupted education. I have picked a lot of traits from my mother and improved on most of them. I earn a little bit more, so I can provide for the family. I work partly at home and in the office, so I get to spend time with my child after school and during the weekends”. <i>Sad Adulthood Narrative</i>
	5 = Very Positive	5 = “To this day I really do not have much anger. If I do, I get over it very quickly. I did this as a child too. Every child is different, so I want to make sure my child has their own strategies to use when they are feeling angry. I want them to know that I will be there to listen and care for them and that I will do my very best to never get physical. My parents were always there to listen when I needed it, no matter what, and I think it made me feel really supported and loved as a child and I still feel that way now”. <i>Angry Adulthood Narrative</i>

Table 5. Exploratory Processing Examples Across Narrative Examples

Prompt	Description	Coding Scheme	Example Excerpt from Narrative
Sad Narrative	The extent to which a person explores the meaning of past childhood emotional events to understand the impact of these events and their potential to change the self	1 = Narrative is minimally exploratory or there is no evidence for exploratory processing	1 = "It stands out to me because I still remember that day like it was yesterday. No, I don't express sadness the same way as I did when I was a child. As a parent, I do anything in my power to make my child feel better when he is sad. I do just what my parents did for me when I was a child. Because it really helped me, and I think it is the best way to treat my child".
		2 = Narrative is somewhat exploratory, but it is not very developed and does not amount to much	4 = "It stands out because I wanted my mom to get away from my dad and that day when he called her crazy and laughed at her and we went outside and stood under the starfruit tree, I knew she'd never be happy around him. Yes, I am now someone who paints gardens as a side career and doing so relieves my sadness. Since it's too expensive to own a house and have my own garden, I find painting them is almost as good. My own child has her own little porch herb garden. We go to the porch herb garden and tend to it when she is sad, and it helps us both just as it helped my mom and me. I don't laugh away feelings for myself, or my child and it helps to do like my mother and acknowledge feelings and find a peaceful place to let them pass. I think this shows that because I felt I was a very wanted child I feel strong self-worth and I pass that on to my own daughter."
Angry Narrative		3 = Narrative is clearly exploratory, but not very well-elaborated	
		4 = Narrative is highly exploratory, well-elaborated, exploratory processing is a strong central theme of the narrative	2 = "I think it says I'm overly dramatic and have been. I have a problem containing that emotion and can't mask that. Even though I don't have a reason to be angry, or anger isn't even the true emotion that's what is expressed. I don't kick and punch the floor obviously now that I am an adult. I feel like it gives me that same kind of energy burst or something that needs to be expressed. I still don't contain it very well at all. I don't know how to address it really, so I just let her be mad and throw her fit. I tell her to breathe and to take a minute to herself and think about why she is really upset if she is dragging it out. I don't know how my father would address my anger because I never really showed him that emotion. I think I respond similar to the way my mother did because I don't know what else to do besides what I am already doing for her. Having her think about her emotions is the best thing I can maybe do I think"
			4 = "I think it stands out to me as an adult and first-time parent because my mom's reaction, though it probably came from a place of love, felt like it came from a place of her making the situation about herself. Instead of acknowledging/understanding where I was coming from, it felt like her response was more along the lines of, "I'm so mad for you!" and thus became about her emotions, not mine. I think this has contributed to the difficulties I experience expressing anger as an adult. To some extent, I still handle my anger the same as when I was a child. I try to express my anger more

**Turning
Point
Narrative**

openly (when appropriate, and in appropriate ways), and I recognize that I often look for a confidant of sorts to express anger to, instead of the person with whom I am angry. Maybe I liked that my mom seemed to take my side on things at the time, but as an adult, I don't know that I agree with how my mom responded to my expressions of anger. This is something I constantly wrestle with. My daughter is still very young, so when she expresses anger, it is very, very openly, and almost always directed at me (even if she is not actually angry with me). I am learning how to not have a big reaction when she expresses anger towards me, though sometimes I get wrapped up in her emotions and get frustrated with her. We both talk through it - how we are having big feelings, should take a deep breath, count to 5, etc., and are learning how to handle these expressions together. I've learned that my staying calm is the only way she and I can reasonably work through her anger together. As a parent, I disagree with how my parents responded to my anger when I was a child, so I strive to do better for my own child. When my daughter is older, I will certainly advocate for her and get angry on her behalf if needed, but I never want her moments of expression of anger to become about me and my emotions. I think this speaks to my own experiences as a child of a mother who tended to (and still tends to) make my emotions about herself. It simply doesn't feel great to have that kind of interaction with a parent".

1 = "I wanted to be a father. I felt it was my calling. There isn't a clear turning point for me. But I just think people should have more children. Children are necessary and good".

3 = "When I was 21 in 2017, I decided I wanted to move out of my mom's house and live with my boyfriend. I decided to leave without telling my mom because I knew if I told her I was leaving she would have been horrible towards me. When she found out I had a boyfriend she was really upset. Whenever I was away the whole day with him, she was upset. My mom was so strict and unwilling to watch me grow up that it made our relationship bad. Anyways the day I left was a turning point in my life. That is because I finally got freedom. As well as my relationship with my mom got better again. This situation made me want to be a parent the way my mom did when I finally moved out. It was so much more positive and cordial. She respected my boundaries and just treated me like an adult. I wished she would have done this earlier it would have saved to many fights we had. The relationship I have with my mom since I moved out is what I want to have with my daughter from her teenager years".

Note. Higher scores are indicative of greater exploratory processing.

Table 6. Redemptive Narrative Examples Across Narrative Examples

Prompt	Description	Coding Scheme	Example Excerpt from Narrative
Sad Narrative	Redemptive stories are defined by two features, the first being a negative beginning (e.g., negative or difficult life event, negative emotional state of narrator). Then if a negative beginning is present, determine whether the story contains a positive ending (e.g., positive life event, positive emotions, positive cognitive developments)	0 = Not present, the narrative is not redemptive 1 = Present, the narrative is redemptive	<p>0 = “I remember the night my dad didn't come home after work. My parents were splitting but I didn't know or understand. I was probably 7-8 years old. I remember my mom tucking me in when my dad usually did, and I was so sad and then my mom started crying too and I was so confused. In this scenario, my mom cried and hugged me and told me it'll be okay, and I'll see him soon. I've always remembered this memory. it was very sad but I think it sticks out to me right now because i never want any of my kids to feel that way. I do not really think how I experience sadness now is the same as a child. When I was sad, I would go hide in a room or bathroom or anywhere to get away. Now, I've been with my husband for 7 years and it took me a little bit to be able to cry in front of him and tell him how I was feeling instead of running away and hiding and trying to figure it out and calm myself down on my own. As a parent, I want my kids to tell me they are sad and why they are sad. I don't want them to be afraid to tell me anything. I think that my responses will be different than my parents because I didn't necessarily love how they responded to me. I want to respond to my kids differently in a way they won't be afraid to tell me when they are sad. I love my parents, but I think they taught me how to not go about things in this situation”.</p> <p>1 = “When I was 10, I got to have a visitation weekend with my mom. She ended up getting very drunk and trying to hurt my older brother. It was the first time that I was old enough to understand how bad the situation really was. I was very sad because I saw my mom for who she really was. This memory stands out to be because it has caused a lot of abandonment issues in my life. Before this incident happened, my mom had promised me that she would change for the better. With me being so young, I believed her. I wanted her to be better and for her to be a part of my life. As a little girl, I just wanted my mother to be involved. After the incident happened, and I saw with my own eyes how bad the situation really was, I was devastated. I realized that she had not changed and that I still would not have her present in my life. My dad came and picked my siblings up that night while my mom got sent off to rehab. He avoided talking about what happened. When I had my daughter, it brought back a lot of trauma because I could never understand how a mother could abandon their child-- when I loved mine so much. I believe that this incident made me into a more sensitive person and parent. I will always try to be the best version of myself that I can be for the sake of my children. I do not experience sadness the same way as when I was a child. Now that I am older, I understand that addiction is a disease. My mom did not choose to be an alcoholic. I have a good relationship with her now that she is 10 years sober. As a child, I felt abandoned and unloved. Now, when I recall the memories, I still feel some anger and sadness, but I also have understanding. I immediately respond to my child's sadness. Even though she is only a year old, I understand that her emotions are valid. I do not ever want to put her feelings on the backburner. My parents avoided talking about feelings and</p>

**Angry
Narrative**

ignored the cause of their sadness. I address the cause and try to navigate how to make it better. I think this shows that I have learned from emotional trauma and that I am open minded toward mental health”.

0 = “My parents divorcing when I was 8 lead me to be angry. Until I was old enough to understand things. I didn't realize that it was for the best. My parents just tried to keep me busy and not think about it. Even though I don't know how to deal with my emotions I know that I don't want my daughter to have to experience the same thing. How I express my anger is still the same as a child. I never really learned how to deal with my emotions. I want to be there for my child and let her know that it's okay. All I know is what my mom did the best she could to teach me how to deal with my emotions and my dad was never there. It has made it so that my emotions are still really hard for me to think about and handle as an adult”.

1 = “After my father passed away, I had an argument with my mother. And I said something along the lines of how I wished he was still alive, and I wanted to live with him. And I don't remember exactly what she said but she said some really mean things about him. And I was angry about that for a long time. I was probably 12 years old and living with my mom at the time. I remember not understanding why or how she could speak to me that way knowing that my father had died, it felt unforgivable at the time. Throughout my childhood, my mother continued to escalate situations as she always did. I realize now that my mom must have been very hurt and very sad in order to react that way toward me about my dad. I can't imagine speaking to my son that way, which means that I understand how emotional she must have been to have gotten to that point. I think now as an adult it makes me much more self-aware as a person and as a parent. My anger is different now that I am an adult. I rarely yell now; I take time to think and process before responding to the situation. I realize that big feelings don't require an urgent response, in fact you're better off thinking things through and coming back when you're calmer to resolve a problem. Obviously, I'm still human and I still occasionally have outbursts, but it's much more rare than it used to be. I just want him to know that even if he's angry that that's not a bad emotion, and he's allowed to be angry with me, himself, or anything else. But it's how he responds to his anger that's important. I'd like to try to teach him to breathe and escalate before responding. Again, my mom was very reactive and escalated a situation, which is exactly what I'm trying to avoid doing. Whereas my dad seemed more carefree and less personally offended by my emotions and I think I would like to be more like that toward my child”.

Note. A score of 0 represents the narrative is not redemptive and a score of 1 represents the narrative is redemptive.

Table 7. Associations Among Participants' Characteristics, Non-Narrative Measures, and Child's Age.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. Participant Age	1															
2. Education	0.27**	1														
3. Household Income	0.08	0.39**	1													
4. Relationship Status	0.04	0.21*	0.21*	1												
5. DERS	-0.26**	-0.12	-0.29**	-0.07	1											
6. Wellbeing	0.06	0.13	0.29**	0.24*	-0.60**	1										
7. Emotional Awareness	0.21**	0.16	0.27**	-0.01	-0.69**	0.49**	1									
8. Planned Supportive ES	-0.14	-0.03	0.01	-0.09	0.07	0.04	0.19	1								
9. Planned Non-Supportive ES	0.12	-0.05	-0.13	0.01	0.36**	-0.22*	-0.33**	-0.22*	1							
10. Father's Supportive ES	-0.01	0.01	0.01	0.02	-0.12	0.08	-0.09	-0.21*	0.19*	1						
11. Father's Non-Supportive ES	-0.02	-0.01	0.06	-0.02	0.19	-0.08	-0.05	0.27*	-0.01	-0.52**	1					
12. Mother's Supportive ES	0.07	0.16	-0.02	0.21*	-0.18	0.24*	0.02	-0.13	0.07	0.42**	-0.21*	1				
13. Mother's Non-Supportive ES	-0.06	-0.19	0.03	-0.14	0.28**	-0.17	-0.18	0.22*	0.16	-0.15	0.42**	-0.74**	1			
14. Parent's Supportive ES	0.03	-0.18	-0.01	0.13	-0.18	0.19	-0.05	-0.20*	0.16	0.84**	-0.43**	0.84**	-0.53**	1		
15. Parent's Non-Supportive ES	-0.04	0.10	0.05	-0.09	0.28**	-0.15	-0.14	0.29**	0.08	-0.39**	0.84**	-0.56**	0.85**	-0.57**	1	
16. Biological Child's Age	0.02	-0.20*	-0.16	-0.01	0.04	-0.14	-0.13	-0.03	0.09	-0.02	-0.10	0.08	-0.10	0.04	-0.12	1

Note. DERS = Difficulties with Emotion Regulation Scale; ES = emotion socialization * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Table 8. *Associations Among Participants’ Characteristics, Valence in Narratives, and Child’s Age.*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Participant Age	1										
2. Education Level	0.27**	1									
3. Household Income	0.08	0.39**	1								
4. Relationship Status	0.04	0.21*	0.21*	1							
5. Valence: Sad Child Narrative	-0.05	0.19	0.11	0.18	1						
6. Valence: Angry Child Narrative	-0.04	0.09	0.08	0.17	0.77**	1					
7. Valence: Childhood Narratives	0.05	0.17	-0.01	0.06	0.67**	0.65**	1				
8. Valence: Sad Adult Narrative	-0.05	0.07	0.09	0.23*	0.20*	0.26**	0.21*	1			
9. Valence: Angry Adult Narrative	0.16	0.14	0.27**	-0.03	0.17	0.23*	0.15	0.11	1		
10. Valence: Adulthood Narratives	0.07	0.15	0.24*	0.13	0.25*	0.33**	0.24*	0.75**	0.74**	1	
11. Biological Child’s Age	0.02	-0.20*	-0.15	-0.01	-0.01	-0.08	0.01	0.01	-0.05	-0.03	1

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Table 9. *Associations Among Participants' Characteristics, Exploratory Processing in Narratives, and Child's Age.*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Participant Age	1								
2. Education	0.27**	1							
3. Household Income	0.08	0.39**	1						
4. Relationship Status	0.04	0.21*	0.21*	1					
5. Exploratory Processing: Sad	-0.05	0.07	0.17	-0.09	1				
6. Exploratory Processing: Angry	-0.03	0.15	0.04	-0.02	0.58**	1			
7. Exploratory Processing: Turning Point	-0.08	-0.05	-0.05	-0.02	0.58**	0.60**	1		
8. Exploratory Processing: Overall	-0.06	0.06	0.06	-0.05	0.84**	0.86**	0.86**	1	
9. Biological Child's Age	0.02	-0.20*	-0.15	-0.01	-0.04	-0.08	0.01	0.01	1

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Table 10. *Associations Among Participants' Characteristics, Meaning Making in Narratives, and Child's Age.*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Participant Age	1									
2. Race and Ethnicity	-0.14	1								
3. Education	0.27**	-0.19	1							
4. Household Income	0.08	-0.08	0.39**	1						
5. Relationship Status	0.04	-0.03	0.21*	0.21*	1					
6. Meaning Making: Sad	-0.01	0.06	0.18	0.11	-0.07	1				
7. Meaning Making: Angry	0.02	0.24*	0.10	0.08	-0.04	0.56**	1			
8. Meaning Making: Turning Point	0.06	0.09	0.02	-0.01	0.09	0.42**	0.33**	1		
9. Meaning Making: Overall	0.03	0.17	0.12	0.09	-0.01	0.82*	0.79**	0.76**	1	
10. Biological Child's Age	0.02	0.19*	-0.20*	-0.15	-0.01	-0.04	-0.08	0.01	0.01	1

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Table 11. *Associations Among Participants' Characteristics, Redemption in Narratives, and Child's Age.*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Participant Age	1							
2. Education	0.27**	1						
3. Household Income	0.08	0.39**	1					
4. Relationship Status	0.04	0.21*	0.21*	1				
5. Redemptive Narrative: Sad	0.06	0.01	0.18	-0.02	1			
6. Redemptive Narrative: Angry	0.05	-0.17	-0.06	-0.11	0.07	1		
7. Redemptive Narrative: Overall	0.07	-0.11	0.08	-0.09	0.72**	0.74**	1	
8. Biological Child's Age	0.02	-0.20*	-0.15	-0.01	-0.02	0.15	0.09	1

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Table 12. Associations Among Non-Narrative Measures and Valence in Narratives.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. DERS	1															
2. Wellbeing	-0.60**	1														
3. Emotional Awareness	-0.70**	0.49**	1													
4. Planned Supportive ES	0.07	0.04	0.19†	1												
5. Planned Non-Supportive ES	0.36	-0.22*	-0.33**	-0.22*	1											
6. Father's Supportive ES	-0.12	0.08	-0.09	-0.21*	0.19*	1										
7. Father's Non-Supportive ES	0.19†	-0.08	-0.05	0.27**	-0.01	-0.52**	1									
8. Mother's Supportive ES	-0.18†	0.24	0.02	-0.13	0.07	0.41**	-0.21*	1								
9. Mother's Non-Supportive ES	0.28**	-0.17	-0.18†	0.22*	0.16	-0.15	0.43**	-0.74**	1							
10. Parents' Supportive ES	-0.18†	0.19†	-0.05	-0.20*	0.15	0.84**	-0.43**	0.84**	-0.53*	1						
11. Parents' Non-Supportive ES	0.28**	-0.15	-0.14	0.29*	0.09	-0.39**	0.84**	-0.56**	0.83*	-0.57**	1					
12. Valence: Sad Child Narrative	-0.19†	0.18	0.05	-0.19†	-0.05	0.30**	-0.31**	0.37**	-0.34*	0.40**	-0.39**	1				
13. Valence: Angry Child Narrative	-0.18†	0.14	-0.01	-0.18†	-0.04	0.29**	-0.33**	0.33**	-0.27**	0.37**	-0.36**	0.77**	1			
14. Valence: Childhood Narratives	-0.12	0.28*	0.10	-0.07	-0.10	0.17	-0.26**	0.29**	-0.36**	0.28**	-0.37**	0.67**	0.65**	1		
15. Valence: Sad Adult Narrative	-0.08	0.10	0.02	0.01	-0.15	0.02	-0.16	0.17	-0.18†	0.11	-0.20**	0.20**	0.26**	0.21*	1	
16. Valence: Angry Adult Narrative	-0.36**	0.28**	0.39**	0.09	-0.27**	0.13	-0.16	0.14	-0.16	0.16	-0.19†	0.17	0.23*	0.15	0.11	1
17. Valence: Adulthood Narratives	-0.29**	0.26*	0.27*	0.07	-0.28**	0.10	-0.22*	0.20*	-0.23*	0.18†	-0.26**	0.25**	0.33**	0.24*	0.74**	0.74**

Note. DERS = Difficulty with Emotion Regulation Scale; ES = emotion socialization. † $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 13. Associations Among Non-Narrative Measures and Exploratory Processing in Narratives.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. DERS	1														
2. Wellbeing	-0.60**	1													
3. Emotional Awareness	-0.70**	0.49**	1												
4. Planned Supportive ES	0.07	0.04	0.19†	1											
5. Planned Non-Supportive ES	0.36	-0.22*	-0.39**	-0.22*	1										
6. Father's Supportive ES	-0.12	0.08	-0.09	-0.21*	0.19*	1									
7. Father's Non-Supportive ES	0.19†	-0.08	-0.05	0.27**	-0.01	-0.52**	1								
8. Mother's Supportive ES	-0.18†	0.24	0.02	-0.13	0.07	0.41**	-0.21*	1							
9. Mother's Non-Supportive ES	0.28**	-0.17	-0.18†	0.22*	0.16	-0.15	0.42**	-0.74**	1						
10. Parents' Supportive ES	-0.18†	0.19†	-0.05	-0.20*	0.15	0.84**	-0.43**	0.84**	-0.53*	1					
11. Parents' Non-Supportive ES	0.28**	-0.15	-0.14	0.29*	0.09	-0.39**	0.84**	-0.56**	0.83*	-0.57**	1				
12. Exploratory Processing: Sad	0.07	-0.08	0.18†	0.54**	-0.17	-0.20*	0.26**	-0.39**	0.37**	-0.35**	0.37**	1			
13. Exploratory Processing: Angry	-0.01	0.01	0.16	0.46**	-0.14	-0.21*	0.26**	-0.27**	0.22*	-0.29**	0.28**	0.38**	1		
14. Exploratory Processing: Turning Point	0.13	-0.02	0.03	0.52**	-0.07	-0.13	0.22*	-0.19†	0.23*	-0.19†	0.28**	0.58**	0.60**	1	
15. Exploratory Processing: Overall	0.07	-0.04	0.15	0.59**	-0.15	-0.21*	0.29*	-0.33**	-0.32**	-0.32**	0.36**	0.54**	0.56**	0.86**	1

Note. DERS = Difficulty with Emotion Regulation Scale; ES = emotion socialization. † $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 14. Associations Among Non-Narrative Measures and Meaning Making in Narratives.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. DERS	1														
2. Wellbeing	-0.60**	1													
3. Emotional Awareness	-0.70**	0.49**	1												
4. Planned Supportive ES	0.07	0.04	0.19†	1											
5. Planned Non-Supportive ES	0.36	-0.22*	-0.33**	-0.22*	1										
6. Father's Supportive ES	-0.12	0.08	-0.09	-0.21*	0.19*	1									
7. Father's Non-Supportive ES	0.19†	-0.08	-0.05	0.27**	-0.01	-0.52**	1								
8. Mother's Supportive ES	-0.18†	0.24	0.02	-0.13	0.07	0.41**	-0.21*	1							
9. Mother's Non-Supportive ES	0.28**	-0.17	-0.18†	0.22*	0.16	-0.15	0.42**	-0.74**	1						
10. Parents' Supportive ES	-0.18†	0.19†	-0.05	-0.20*	0.15	0.84**	-0.43**	0.84**	-0.53*	1					
11. Parents' Non-Supportive ES	0.28**	-0.15	-0.14	0.29*	0.09	-0.39**	0.84**	-0.36**	0.85*	-0.57**	1				
12. Meaning Making: Sad	-0.11	0.17†	0.27**	0.17	-0.08	-0.07	-0.03	-0.01	-0.13	-0.04	-0.09	1			
13. Meaning Making: Angry	-0.11	0.24*	0.27**	0.17	-0.23*	-0.14	0.09	-0.18†	0.07	-0.19†	0.09	0.56**	1		
14. Meaning Making: Turning Point	0.10	0.07	0.12	0.08	-0.06	-0.18†	-0.02	-0.09	-0.07	-0.16	-0.05	0.42**	0.33**	1	
15. Meaning Making: Overall	-0.04	0.20*	0.27**	0.18	-0.16	-0.17	0.02	-0.12	-0.05	-0.17	-0.02	0.82**	0.79**	0.76*	1

Note. DERS = Difficulty with Emotion Regulation Scale; ES = emotion socialization. † $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 15. Associations Among Non-Narrative Measures and Redemption in Narratives.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. DERS	1													
2. Well-being	-0.60**	1												
3. Emotional Awareness	-0.70**	0.49**	1											
4. Planned Supportive ES	0.07	0.04	0.19†	1										
5. Planned Non-Supportive ES	0.36	-0.22*	-0.33**	-0.22*	1									
6. Father's Supportive ES	-0.12	0.08	-0.09	-0.21*	0.19*	1								
7. Father's Non-Supportive ES	0.19†	-0.08	-0.05	0.27**	-0.01	-0.52**	1							
8. Mother's Supportive ES	-0.18†	0.24	0.02	-0.13	0.07	0.41**	-0.21*	1						
9. Mother's Non-Supportive ES	0.28**	-0.17	-0.18†	0.22*	0.16	-0.15	0.42**	-0.74**	1					
10. Parents' Supportive ES	-0.18†	0.19†	-0.05	-0.20*	0.15	0.84**	-0.43**	0.84**	-0.53*	1				
11. Parents' Non-Supportive ES	0.28**	-0.15	-0.14	0.29*	0.09	-0.39**	0.84**	-0.56**	0.85*	-0.57**	1			
12. Redemptive Narrative: Sad	0.02	-0.08	0.08	0.05	-0.11	-0.25*	0.13	-0.31**	0.18†	-0.33**	0.18†	1		
13. Redemptive Narrative: Angry	-0.12	0.10	0.22*	0.28**	-0.16	-0.20*	0.09	-0.19†	0.06	-0.23**	0.09	0.07	1	
14. Redemptive Narrative: Overall	-0.06	0.01	0.20*	0.23**	-0.18†	-0.31**	0.15	-0.34*	0.17	-0.38†	0.19†	0.72**	0.74**	1

Note. DERS = Difficulty with Emotion Regulation Scale; ES = emotion socialization. † $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 16. Associations Among Valence, Meaning Making, Exploratory Processing, and Redemption in Narratives.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. Valence: Sad Childhood/Narrative	1															
2. Valence: Angry Childhood Narrative	0.77**	1														
3. Valence: Childhood Narratives	0.67**	0.65**	1													
3. Valence: Sad Adulthood Narrative	0.20*	0.26**	10.21*	1												
5. Valence: Angry Adulthood Narrative	0.17†	0.23*	0.15	0.12	1											
6. Valence: Adulthood Narratives	0.25*	0.33*	0.24*	0.75**	0.74**	1										
7. Meaning Making: Sad	-0.01	-0.14	0.13	0.03	0.09	0.08	1									
8. Meaning Making: Angry	-0.16	-0.19*	0.05	0.08	0.11	0.13	0.56**	1								
9. Meaning Making: Turning Point	-0.06	-0.05	0.19†	0.24*	-0.04	0.14	0.42**	0.33**	1							
10. Meaning Making: Overall	-0.10	-0.16	0.16	0.15	0.07	0.15	0.82**	0.78**	0.76**	1						
11. Exploratory Processing: Sad	-0.23*	-0.25*	-0.05	0.04	0.08	0.08	0.31**	0.45**	0.11	0.36**	1					
12. Exploratory Processing: Angry	-0.09	-0.20*	-0.04	0.12	0.06	0.12	0.26**	0.31***	0.18†	0.31**	0.57**	1				
13. Exploratory Processing: Turning Point	-0.18†	-0.23*	-0.08	-0.07	-0.01	-0.05	0.18†	0.29**	0.17	0.27**	0.58**	0.60**	1			
14. Exploratory Processing: Overall	-0.15†	-0.27*	-0.06	0.03	0.05	0.06	0.29**	0.41**	0.18†	0.37**	0.84**	0.88**	0.88**	1		
15. Redemption Narrative: Sad	-0.05	-0.14	0.03	0.26**	-0.04	0.14	0.16	0.28**	0.13	0.24*	0.27**	0.04	0.04	0.13	1	
16. Redemption Narrative: Angry	-0.20*	-0.16	-0.05	0.05	0.25*	0.20*	0.26**	0.33**	0.16	0.31**	0.55**	0.36**	0.57**	0.45**	0.07	1
17. Redemption Narrative: Overall	-0.17†	-0.20*	-0.02	0.21*	0.14	0.24*	0.29**	0.41**	0.20*	0.38**	0.45**	0.28**	0.28**	0.39**	0.72**	0.74**

Note. † $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Table 17. *T-test results comparing First-time Mothers and Fathers on Non-Narrative**Measures*

Participants	<i>First-time Fathers</i>		<i>First-time Mothers</i>		<i>t</i> (98)	<i>p</i>	Cohen's <i>d</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>			
Parents' Overall ES							
Supportive	3.54	1.36	3.12	1.34	1.49	0.07†	1.35
Non-Supportive	3.84	1.21	3.92	1.20	-0.30	0.38	1.20
Mom's Overall ES							
Supportive	3.89	1.58	3.22	1.61	1.99	0.02*	1.60
Non-Supportive	3.64	1.42	4.02	1.43	-1.27	0.10†	1.43
Dad's Overall ES							
Supportive ES	3.19	1.71	3.02	1.56	0.53	0.29	1.61
Non-Supportive	4.04	1.50	3.81	1.37	0.51	0.22	1.41
Participants							
Supportive	5.71	1.00	6.11	0.78	-2.17	0.02*	0.86
Non-Supportive	2.67	0.82	2.50	0.77	1.03	0.15	0.78
Emotional Awareness	4.04	0.58	3.66	0.63	2.87	0.01**	0.62
Wellbeing Composite	0.24	0.14	-0.12	0.86	2.01	0.02*	0.85
DERS	69.44	23.41	86.86	29.78	-2.97	0.01**	27.80

Note. Mean values for each of the analyses are shown for the First-time Fathers ($n = 34$)

and First-time Mothers ($n = 66$), as well as the results of t tests (assuming equal variance)

comparing the non-narrative measures between the first-time fathers and first-time

mothers. ES = emotion socialization, DERS = Difficulties with Emotion Regulation

Scale.

† $p < .10$ * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Table 18. *T-test results comparing First-time Mothers and Fathers on Narrative Themes*

Participants	<i>First-time Fathers</i>		<i>First-time Mothers</i>		<i>t</i> (98)	<i>p</i>	Cohen's <i>d</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>			
	<hr/>						
Valence							
Sad Childhood Event	1.85	1.07	1.56	0.70	1.63	0.08	0.85
Angry Childhood Event	1.91	0.75	1.67	0.73	1.57	0.07 [†]	0.74
Childhood Narrative	1.88	0.64	1.61	0.56	1.22	0.11	0.59
Sad Adult Narrative	3.50	1.11	3.35	1.01	0.66	0.26	1.09
Angry Adult Narrative	3.36	0.89	3.35	1.14	2.05	0.08	1.06
Adulthood Narrative	3.43	0.65	3.35	0.86	1.84	0.14	0.79
Meaning Making							
Sad	2.35	0.65	2.32	0.66	0.25	0.40	0.65
Angry	2.26	0.75	2.29	0.65	0.22	0.44	0.69
Turning Point	2.03	0.79	2.17	0.71	-0.87	0.19	0.74
Overall	2.21	0.59	2.26	0.53	-0.36	0.36	0.55
Exploratory Processing							
Sad	2.82	0.83	3.18	0.76	-2.52	0.02*	0.79
Angry	2.85	1.02	3.00	0.80	-0.73	0.23	0.88
Turning Point	2.74	0.86	3.05	0.83	-1.74	0.04*	0.84
Overall	2.80	0.79	3.08	0.67	-1.81	0.03*	0.71

Note. Mean values for each of the analyses are shown for the First-time Fathers ($n = 34$) and First-time Mothers ($n = 66$), as well as the results of t tests comparing the narrative themes between the first-time fathers and first-time mothers.

[†] $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Table 19. *Regression: Planned and Remembered Non-Supportive Reactions Predicting Planned Supportive Emotion Socialization*

Variable	B	95% CI for B		SE(B)	β	R ²	ΔR^2
		LL	UL				
Step 1						0.09	0.09**
Constant	5.96**	5.09	6.83	0.44			
Gender	0.36*	0.00	0.71	0.18	0.19*		
Planned NSR	-0.23*	-0.44	-0.01	0.11	-0.20*		
Step 2						0.18	0.09**
Constant	5.21**	4.27	6.15	0.47			
Gender	0.33*	-0.01	0.67	0.17	0.18*		
Planned NSR	-0.26*	-0.46	-0.05	0.10	-0.23*		
Remembered	0.22**	0.09	0.36	0.07	0.30**		

NSR

Note. $N = 100$. Dependent variable (DV): planned supportive emotion socialization; NSR = non-supportive reactions; CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit.

$\dagger p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Table 20. *Regression: Planned Supportive and Remembered Non-Supportive Reactions*

Predicting Planned Non-Supportive Emotion Socialization

Variable	B	95% CI for B		SE(B)	β	R ²	ΔR^2
		LL	UL				
Step 1						0.05	0.05*
Constant	3.75**	2.69	4.81	0.53			
Planned SR	-0.20*	-0.02	-0.02	0.09	-0.22*		
Step 2						0.07	0.03
Constant	3.58**	2.52	4.66	0.54			
Planned SR	-0.24*	-0.42	-0.06	0.09	-0.27*		
Remembered	0.11	-0.02	0.24	0.07	0.17		
NSR							

Note. $N = 100$. Dependent variable (DV): planned non-supportive emotion socialization;

SR = supportive reactions; NSR = non-supportive reactions; CI = confidence interval; LL

= lower limit; UL = upper limit.

$\dagger p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Table 21. Moderation Analysis: Planned Non-Supportive Reactions, Exploratory Processing, and Remembered Non-Supportive Emotion Socialization Predicting Planned Supportive Emotion Socialization

Variable	B	95% CI for B		SE(B)	β	R ²	ΔR^2
		LL	UL				
Step 1						0.09	0.09**
Constant	5.96**	4.09	6.83	0.44			
Gender	0.36*	0.00	0.71	0.18	0.19*		
Planned NSR	-0.22*	-0.44	-0.01	0.11	-0.20*		
Step 2						0.39	0.30**
Constant	6.07**	5.35	6.79	0.36			
Gender	0.19	-0.11	0.49	0.15	0.10		
Planned NSR	-0.16	-0.34	0.02	0.09	-0.14		
Remembered NSR	0.08	-0.04	0.21	0.06	0.11		
Exploratory	0.62**	0.41	0.84	0.11	0.51**		
Processing							
Step 3						0.39	0.00
Constant	6.04**	5.29	6.79	0.38			
Gender	0.19	-0.11	0.49	0.15	0.10		
Planned NSR	-0.15	-0.34	0.04	0.09	-0.14		
Remembered NSR	0.08	-0.05	0.21	0.06	0.11		
Exploratory	0.63**	0.39	0.88	0.12	0.52**		
Processing	0.02	-0.15	0.19	0.09	0.02		
EP X Remembered NSR							

Note. N = 100. Dependent variable (DV): planned supportive emotion socialization; NSR = non-supportive reactions; EP = Exploratory Processing; CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit.

†p <.10, *p <.05, **p <.01.

Table 22. Moderation Analysis: Planned Supportive Reactions, Exploratory Processing, and Remembered Non-Supportive Emotion Socialization Predicting Planned Non-Supportive Emotion Socialization

Variable	B	95% CI for B		SE(B)	β	R ²	ΔR^2
		LL	UL				
Step 1						0.05	0.05*
Constant	3.75**	2.69	4.81	0.08			
Planned SR	-0.19*	-0.37	-0.02	0.09	-0.22*		
Step 2						0.08	0.03
Constant	3.77**	2.46	5.08	0.07			
Planned SR	-0.20†	-0.42	0.02	0.11	-0.23†		
Remembered NSR	0.12	-0.02	0.26	0.07	0.18		
Exploratory Processing	-0.09	-0.36	0.18	0.14	-0.09		
Step 3						0.14	0.06**
Constant	3.73**	2.45	5.00	0.08			
Planned SR	-0.18	-0.39	0.03	0.11	-0.20		
Remembered NSR	0.14*	0.01	0.28	0.07	-0.22*		
Exploratory Processing	-0.23	-0.52	0.05	0.14	-0.21		
EP X Remembered	-0.23**	-0.40	-0.05	0.09	-0.27**		

NSR

Note. N = 100. Dependent variable (DV): planned non-supportive emotion socialization;

SR = supportive reactions; NSR = non-supportive reactions; EP = Exploratory

Processing; CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit.

†p <.10, *p <.05, **p <.01.

Table 23. Moderation Analysis: Planned Non-Supportive Reactions, Meaning Making, and Remembered Non-Supportive Emotion Socialization Predicting Planned Supportive Emotion Socialization

Variable	B	95% CI for B		SE(B)	β	R ²	ΔR^2
		LL	UL				
Step 1						0.09	0.09**
Constant	5.96**	5.09	6.83	0.44			
Gender	0.36*	0.00	0.71	0.18	0.19*		
Planned NSR	-0.22*	-0.44	-0.01	0.11	-0.20*		
Step 2						0.20	0.11**
Constant	6.02**	5.19	6.85	0.42			
Gender	0.33†	-0.01	0.67	0.17	0.18†		
Planned NSR	-0.23*	-0.44	-0.02	0.10	-0.21*		
Remembered NSR	0.22**	0.09	0.36	0.07	0.30**		
Meaning Making	0.23	-0.06	0.53	0.15	0.14		
Step 3						0.21	0.01
Constant	5.99**	5.17	6.82	0.42			
Gender	0.32†	-0.02	0.65	0.17	0.17†		
Planned NSR	-0.21*	-0.42	-0.01	0.11	-0.19*		
Remembered NSR	0.23**	0.09	0.36	0.07	0.31**		
Meaning Making	0.29†	-0.02	0.60	0.16	0.18†		
MM X Remembered	0.14	-0.09	0.38	0.12	0.11		

Note. N = 100. Dependent variable (DV): planned supportive emotion socialization; NSR

= non-supportive reactions; MM = Meaning Making; CI = confidence interval; LL =

lower limit; UL = upper limit.

†p <.10, *p <.05, **p <.01.

Table 24. Moderation Analysis: Planned Supportive Reactions, Meaning Making, and Remembered Non-Supportive Emotion Socialization Predicting Planned Non-Supportive Emotion Socialization

Variable	B	95% CI for B		SE(B)	β	R ²	ΔR^2
		LL	UL				
Step 1						0.04	0.05**
Constant	3.75**	2.69	4.81	0.53			
Planned SR	-0.19*	-0.38	-0.02	0.09	-0.22*		
Step 2						0.06	0.02
Constant	3.89**	2.77	5.01	0.56			
Planned SR	-0.22*	-0.41	-0.04	0.09	-0.25*		
Remembered NSR	0.10	-0.03	0.24	0.07	0.16		
Meaning Making	-0.16	-0.44	0.13	0.14	-0.11		
Step 3						0.06	0.08
Constant	3.77**	2.64	4.90	0.57			
Planned SR	-0.20*	-0.39	-0.02	0.09	-0.23*		
Remembered NSR	0.09	-0.04	0.23	0.07	0.14		
Meaning Making	-0.22	-0.52	0.08	0.15	-0.15		
MM X Remembered NSR	0.15	-0.37	0.08	0.11	-0.13		

Note. N = 100. Dependent variable (DV): planned non-supportive emotion socialization; NSR = non-supportive emotion socialization; SR = supportive reactions; MM = Meaning Making; CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit.

†p <.10, *p <.05, **p <.01.

Table 25. Moderation Analysis: Gender, Planned Supportive Emotion Socialization, and Exploratory Processing Predicting Wellbeing

Variable	B	95% CI for B		SE(B)	β	R ²	ΔR^2
		LL	UL				
Step 1						0.04	0.04*
Constant	0.60*	-0.01	1.22	0.31			
Gender	-0.36*	-0.72	-0.01	0.18	-0.22*		
Step 2						0.05	0.02
Constant	0.64*	0.01	1.28	0.32			
Gender	-0.39*	-0.76	-0.02	0.19	-0.21*		
Planned SR	0.13	-0.12	0.37	0.12	0.13		
Exploratory Processing	-0.10	-0.39	0.20	0.15	-0.08		
Step 3						0.05	0.08
Constant	0.62†	-0.03	1.26	0.32			
Gender	-0.39*	-0.76	-0.02	0.19	-0.21*		
Planned SR	0.16	-0.11	0.43	0.14	0.16		
Exploratory Processing	-0.09	-0.38	0.21	0.15	-0.07		
EP X Planned SR	0.06	-0.17	0.23	0.12	0.06		

Note. $N = 100$. Dependent variable (DV): wellbeing; SR = supportive emotion

socialization; EP = Exploratory Processing; CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit;

UL = upper limit.

† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Table 26. Moderation Analysis: Gender, Planned Non-Supportive Emotion Socialization, and Exploratory Processing Predicting Wellbeing

Variable	B	95% CI for B		SE(B)	β	R ²	ΔR^2
		LL	UL				
Step 1						0.04	0.04*
Constant	0.60*	-0.01	1.22	0.31			
Gender	-0.36*	-0.72	-0.01	0.18	-0.19*		
Step 2						0.10	0.06*
Constant	0.66*	0.04	1.27	0.31			
Gender	-0.39*	-0.76	-0.04	0.18	-0.22*		
Planned NSR	-0.27*	-0.48	-0.05	0.11	-0.24*		
Exploratory	-0.04	-0.28	0.19	0.12	-0.03		
Processing							
Step 3						0.10	0.00
Constant	0.66*	0.04	1.28	0.31			
Gender	-0.39*	-0.76	-0.04	0.18	-0.22*		
Planned NSR	-0.27*	-0.49	-0.04	0.11	-0.24*		
Exploratory	-0.04	-0.28	0.20	0.12	-0.03		
Processing	0.01	-0.28	0.29	0.14	0.01		
EP X Planned NSR							

Note. N = 100. Dependent variable (DV): wellbeing; NSR = non-supportive emotion socialization; EP = Exploratory Processing; CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit.

†p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01.

Table 27. Moderation Analysis: Gender, Planned Supportive Emotion Socialization, and Meaning Making Predicting Wellbeing

Variable	B	95% CI for B		SE(B)	β	R ²	ΔR^2
		LL	UL				
Step 1						0.04	0.04*
Constant	0.60*	-0.01	1.22	0.31			
Gender	-0.36*	-0.72	-0.01	0.18	-0.19*		
Step 2						0.08	0.04
Constant	0.65*	0.03	1.28	0.31			
Gender	-0.39*	-0.75	-0.03	0.18	-0.22*		
Planned SR	0.05	-0.15	0.25	0.10	0.05		
Meaning Making	0.31*	0.01	0.63	0.16	0.19*		
Step 3						0.09	0.01
Constant	0.65*	0.03	1.28	0.31			
Gender	-0.39*	-0.76	-0.04	0.18	-0.22*		
Planned SR	0.04	-0.15	0.24	0.10	0.05		
Meaning Making	0.35*	0.02	0.69	0.17	0.22*		
MM X Planned	0.11	-0.22	0.43	0.16	0.07		

SR
Note. $N = 100$. Dependent variable (DV): wellbeing; SR = supportive emotion socialization; MM = Meaning Making; CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit.

$\dagger p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Table 28. Moderation Analysis: Gender, Planned Non-Supportive Emotion Socialization, and Meaning Making Predicting Wellbeing

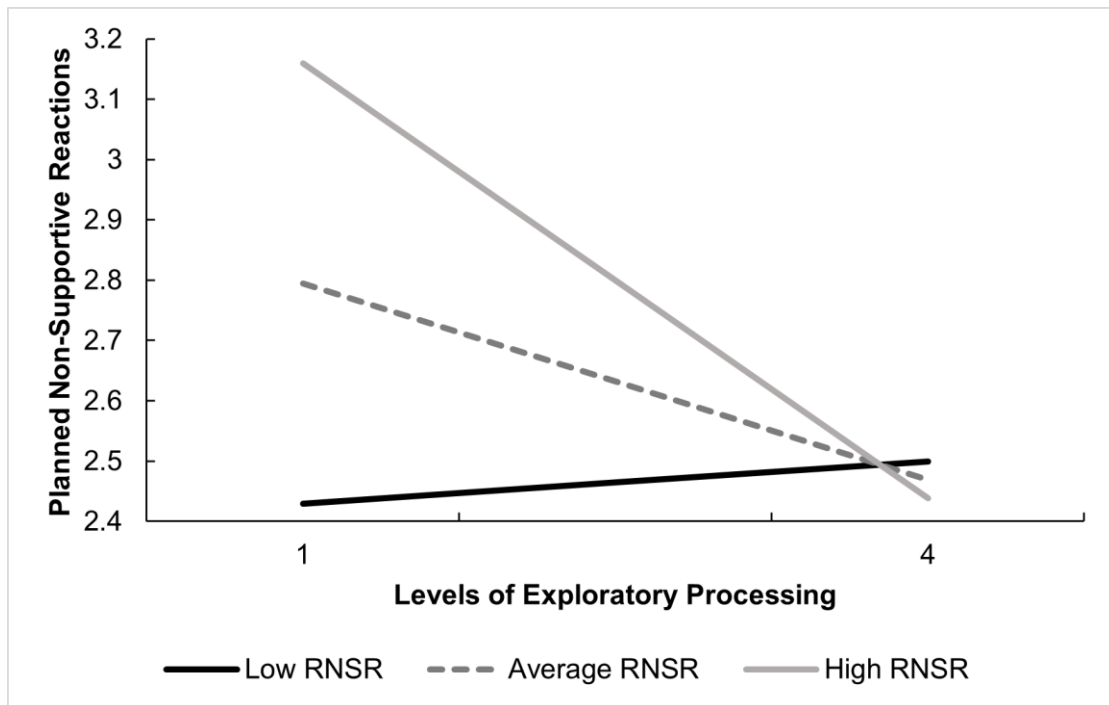
Variable	B	95% CI for B		SE(B)	β	R ²	ΔR^2
		LL	UL				
Step 1						0.04	0.04*
Constant	0.60*	-0.01	1.22	0.31			
Gender	-0.36*	-0.72	-0.01	0.18	-0.19*		
Step 2						0.12	0.09**
Constant	0.69*	0.09	1.28	0.30			
Gender	-0.41*	-0.76	-0.07	0.17	-0.23*		
Planned NSR	-0.23*	-0.44	-0.02	0.11	-0.21*		
Meaning Making	0.28†	-0.03	0.58	0.15	0.17†		
Step 3						0.14	0.02
Constant	0.67*	0.08	1.27	0.30			
Gender	-0.39*	-0.74	-0.05	0.17	-0.22*		
Planned NSR	-0.24*	-0.45	-0.03	0.11	-0.22*		
Meaning Making	0.29†	0.01	0.59	0.15	0.18†		
MM X Planned	0.25	-0.12	0.61	0.19	0.13		
NSR							

Note. $N = 100$. Dependent variable (DV): wellbeing; NSR = non-supportive emotion socialization; MM = Meaning Making; CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit.

† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Figure 1.

Interaction of Exploratory Processing and Remembered Non-Supportive Emotion Socialization Predicting Planned Non-Supportive Emotion Socialization



Note. The interaction was probed by testing the conditional effects of exploratory processing on planned non-supportive reactions at three levels of remembered non-supportive parental reactions: low = 1 standard deviation below the mean ($y = 2.46 + 0.04x$, $p = .769$), average = at the mean ($y = 2.63 - 0.23x$, $p = .111$), and high = 1 standard deviation above the mean ($y = 2.80 - 0.51x$, $p = .017$)*.

RNSR = remembered non-supportive reactions.

$\dagger p < .10$, $*p < .05$, $**p < .01$.

Appendix A

Pilot Study Details

The survey study was initially piloted by 15 individuals, both first-time parents and fellow grad students within the Emotion Regulation Lab, to assess whether each narrative prompt was being interpreted correctly regarding what it was asking for and to capture the average length of time to complete the survey. Initially, pilot participants were not addressing each of the questions asked within the prompt. For this reason, I separated out key questions from the narrative prompts asking directly why they thought the memory they described stood out to them now as an adult and parent and why they think their parents responded the way they did toward their sadness/anger. This change was made before data collection began. Additionally, it was found that the average time of completion was roughly an hour to an hour and a half which allowed me to compensate participants accurately for their time through Prolific.

Appendix B

Survey Design and Order of Measures

1. Study Overview and Introduction
2. Consent
3. Narrative Prompts and Open-Ended Responses
4. Remembered Responses to Negative Emotions Scale; RRNES for Mother
5. Remembered Responses to Negative Emotions Scale; RRNES for Father
6. Subjective Happiness Scale, SHS
7. Psychological Well-Being – Short Version; PWB-18
8. Satisfaction with Life Scale; SWLS
9. Difficulties with Emotion Regulation Scale; DERS
10. Emotional Awareness Scale; EAS
11. Coping with Toddlers Negative Emotions Scale; CTNES
12. Demographics
13. Debriefing
14. Compensation

Appendix C

Survey – Narrative Prompts and Measures

Structure of Narrative Prompts on Emotional Experiences (Adapted from: Gottman et al., 1996; McAdams, 1995; McLean et al., 2007; Milan et al., 2021)

In the following questions, we will be asking you to play the role of *storyteller* about your own life – to construct for us the story of your childhood, your family, and your experience as a new parent. As developmental, social, and emotional scientists, our goal is to collect as many different stories as we can in order to understand how people make sense of their own childhoods and their experiences as parents. Therefore, we are collecting and analyzing stories of adults from all walks of life, and we are looking for significant commonalities and differences in the stories that people tell us.

We will be asking you about some childhood experiences that you have had with your parents, and how those experiences may have affected your emotionality and your own views of parenting. In the next set of prompts we would like to ask you about your early relationship with your family, and what you think about the way those relationships may have affected you throughout your life so far.

We will focus mainly on your childhood. By childhood we mean that we want you to think back on your life and describe something that happened to you prior to 12 years of age, ideally between the ages of 5 - 7 if you can.

Childhood Emotional Experiences

1. Was a mother figure present during your childhood?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
2. Was a father figure present during your childhood?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
3. Think back on your childhood, which emotion or emotions were the hardest or most difficult for your family to talk about? (Check all that apply)
 - a. Sadness
 - b. Anger
 - c. Fear
 - d. Embarrassment
 - e. Happiness
 - f. Joy
 - g. Excitement
4. Out of all the emotions you selected above, please choose the one emotion you think was *most* difficult for your family to talk about/express.

- a. Which emotion did you choose? Describe in detail why you think this emotion was the hardest for your family to talk about and or express.

Sadness

Now, we will ask you to discuss how your family expressed and responded to **sadness**.

1. How did **your mother** typically respond to YOU when you were sad growing up (specifically when you were around the ages 5 -7 or as close to those ages as possible)? Why do you think your mother responded to your sadness this way? Please explain.
2. How did **your father** typically respond to YOU when you were sad growing up (specifically when you were around the ages 5 -7 or as close to those ages as possible)? Why do you think your father responded to your sadness this way? Please explain.
3. Please describe a memory from your childhood that stands out as especially sad in some way. This would be a specific negative event or emotional experience from your childhood that led to you feeling sad as a child. Please describe this negative memory in detail. What happened, how old were you, when and where were you, who was involved, and what were you thinking and feeling? (**About 5+ sentences**).
4. In the negative memory you just described, how did your parents respond to your sadness?
5. Why do you think the memory you just described stands out to you now, especially as an adult and first-time parent? What do you think this memory says about you and who you are? Please explain (**About 3+ sentences**).
6. Do you think how you experience and express your sadness now is the same as when you were a child? Why do you think this is? Please explain in as much detail as possible.
7. Now that you are a parent, please describe in detail how you currently respond or how you want to respond to your own child's sadness (**About 3+ sentences**).
8. Do you think how you respond to your own child's sadness is more similar to or more different from how **your mother** responded to your sadness?
 - a. More Similar
 - b. Somewhat Similar
 - c. Exactly the Same
 - d. Somewhat Different
 - e. More Different
9. Do you think how you respond to your own child's sadness is more similar to or more different from how **your father** responded to your sadness?
 - a. More Similar
 - b. Somewhat Similar

- c. Exactly the Same
 - d. Somewhat Different
 - e. More Different
10. Please describe in detail why you think your own response to your child's sadness is similar or different to how your parents typically responded to you when you were sad. Also, please say a word or two about what you think this says about you as a person or about your life experiences (**About 3+ sentences**).

Anger

Now, we will ask you to discuss how your family expressed and responded to **anger**.

1. How did ***your mother*** typically respond to YOU when you were angry growing up (specifically when you were around the ages 5 -7 or as close to those ages as possible)? Why do you think your mother responded to your anger this way? Please explain.
2. How did ***your father*** typically respond to YOU when you were angry growing up (specifically when you were around the ages 5 -7 or as close to those ages as possible)? Why do you think your father responded to your anger this way? Please explain.
3. Please describe a memory from your childhood that stands out as especially angry in some way. This would be a specific negative event or emotional experience from your childhood that led to you feeling angry as a child. Please describe this negative memory in detail. What happened, how old were you, when and where were you, who was involved, and what were you thinking and feeling? (**About 5+ sentences**).
4. In the negative memory you just described, how did your parents respond to your anger?
5. Why do you think the memory you just described stands out to you now, especially as an adult and first-time parent? What do you think this memory says about you and who you are? Please explain (**About 3+ sentences**).
6. Do you think how you experience and express your anger now is the same as when you were a child? Why do you think this is? Please explain in as much detail as possible.
7. Now that you are a parent, please describe in detail how you currently respond or how you want to respond to your own child's anger (**About 3+ sentences**).
8. Do you think how you respond to your own child's anger is more similar to or more different from how ***your mother*** responded to your anger?
 - a. More Similar
 - b. Somewhat Similar
 - c. Exactly the Same

- d. Somewhat Different
 - e. More Different
9. Do you think how you respond to your own child's anger is more similar to or more different from how ***your father*** responded to your anger?
- a. More Similar
 - b. Somewhat Similar
 - c. Exactly the Same
 - d. Somewhat Different
 - e. More Different
10. Please describe in detail why you think your own response to your child's anger is similar or different to how your parents typically responded to you when you were angry. Also, please say a word or two about what you think this says about you as a person or about your life experiences (**About 3+ sentences**).
11. Think back on your childhood (specifically when you were around the ages 5 -7 or as close to those ages as possible). Do you think your emotional experiences with your parents in childhood were overall more positive, more negative, or non-existent?
- a. More Positive
 - b. More Negative
 - c. Non-Existent

Becoming a Parent

Now that you have told me a little bit about your past, I would like you to consider your current life and the process of recently becoming a parent. I am interested in knowing about your experience of becoming a parent.

12. Please describe your own personal experiences surrounding your recent transition into parenthood. Why did you decide to become a parent? What impact has becoming a parent had on you? What do you think being a parent says about you and about your life?
13. Describe your relationship with your child currently. How do you think it is currently going with your child? Do you think it is going as you had planned or not as you had planned? Why do you think this is?
14. Now, imagine that your child is crying and please explain what you would do in this situation. Please provide as much detail as possible.
15. Why do you think that is the best way to respond to your child crying?
16. Do you think your emotional experiences with your child currently are overall more positive, more negative, or non-existent?
- a. More Positive
 - b. More Negative

c. Non-existent

17. In looking back over your life, it may be possible to identify certain key moments that stand out as “turning points” – or events/situations that marked an important change in you or your life story. Turning points can occur in many different spheres of a person’s life – in relationships with other people, in work and school, in outside interests, etc. I would like you to identify a turning point that focuses on an event/situation that made you realize that you wanted to parent your child and respond to your child’s emotions either similarly or differently than your parents did with you. If you cannot identify a key turning point that stands out clearly, please describe some event in your life wherein you went through an important change in how you wanted to respond to and express emotions with your child. Again, for this event please describe what happened, where and when, who was involved, and what you were thinking and feeling. **(About 5+ sentences)**
18. Before today, how much have you thought about how you are similar and/or different from your parents emotionally?
- I have never thought about it
 - I have thought about it a little bit
 - I have thought about it a lot

Remembered Responses to Negative Emotions Scale (RRNES) – Retrospective Report of Coping with Childrens Negative Emotions Scale (Adapted from Leerkes, Supple, Su, & Cavanaugh, 2015; Fabes, Poulin, Eisenberg, & Madden-Derdich, 2002)

Mother

DIRECTIONS: In the following items, think back to your childhood with your mother, specifically around the ages of 5 - 7. Please indicate on a scale from 1 (very unlikely) to 7 (very likely) the likelihood that your mother would respond to you in the ways listed for each item. Please read each item carefully and respond as honestly and sincerely as you can. Some of the items may not have happened in your childhood, please respond based on how you think your mother would respond. For each response, please circle a number from 1-7.

Response Scale:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Unlikely			Medium			Very Likely

1. If my mother were to see me become angry because I was sick or hurt and couldn’t go to my friend’s birthday party, she would:

a) send me to my room to cool off	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b) get angry at my me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

c) help me think about ways that I could still be with friends, (e.g., invite some friends over after the party)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d) tell me not to make a big deal out of missing the party	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e) encourage me to express my feelings of anger and frustration	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
f) soothe me and do something fun with me to make me feel better about missing the party	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. If my mother were to see me fall off my bike and break it, and then get upset and cry, she would:

a) remain calm and not let herself get anxious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b) comfort me and try to get me to forget about the accident	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c) tell me that I am over-reacting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d) help me figure out how to get the bike fixed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e) tell me it's okay to cry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
f) tell me to stop crying or I wouldn't be allowed to ride the bike anytime soon	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3. If my mother were to see me lose some prized possession and reacts with tears, she would:

a) get upset with me for being so careless and then crying about it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b) tell me that I was over-reacting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c) help me think of places I hadn't looked yet	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d) distract me by talking about happy things	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e) tell me it's okay to cry when I feel unhappy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
f) tell me that's what happens when I am not careful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

4. If my mother knew I was afraid of injections and saw me become quite shaky and teary while waiting for my turn to get a shot, she would:

a) tell me to shape up or I wouldn't be allowed to do something I likes to do (e.g., watch TV)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b) encourage me to talk about my fears	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c) tell me not to make a big deal of the shot	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d) tell me not to embarrass us by crying	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e) comfort me before and after the shot	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

f) talk to me about ways to make it hurt less (e.g., relaxing so it won't hurt or taking deep breaths)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
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5. If I was going over to spend the afternoon at a friend's house and became nervous and upset because my mother couldn't stay there with me, she would:

a) distract me by talking about all the fun I would have with my friend	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b) help me think of things that I could do so that being at my friend's house without her isn't scary	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c) tell me to quit over-reacting and being a baby	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d) tell me that if I don't stop that I won't be allowed to go out anymore	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e) feel upset and uncomfortable because of my reactions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
f) encourage me to talk about my nervous feelings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

6. If I was participating in some group activity with my friends and proceeded to make a mistake and then look embarrassed and on the verge of tears, my mother would:

a) comfort me and try to make me feel better	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b) tell me that I am overreacting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c) feel uncomfortable and embarrassed herself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d) tell me to straighten up or we would go home right away	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e) encourage me to talk about my feelings of embarrassment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
f) tell me that she would help me practice so that I could do better next time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

7. If I was about to appear in a recital or sports activity and I became visibly nervous about people watching me, my mother would:

a) help me think of things that I could do to get ready for my turn (e.g., do some warm-ups and not look at the audience)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b) suggest that I think about something relaxing so that my nervousness would go away	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c) remain calm and not get nervous herself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d) tell me that I was being a baby about it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e) tell me that if I don't calm down, we'll have to leave and go home right away	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

f) encourage me to talk about my nervous feelings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

8. If I received an undesirable birthday gift from a friend and looked obviously disappointed, even annoyed, after opening it in the presence of the friend, my mother would:

a) encourage me to express my disappointed feelings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b) tell me that the present could be exchanged for something t that I wanted	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c) <u>NOT</u> be annoyed with me for being rude	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d) tell me that I was overreacting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e) scold me for being insensitive to my friend's feelings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
f) try to get me to feel better by doing something fun	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

9. If I was panicky and couldn't go to sleep after watching a scary TV show, my mother would:

a) encourage me to talk about what scared me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b) get upset with me for being silly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c) tell me that I was over-reacting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d) help me think of something to do so that I could get to sleep (e.g., take a toy to bed, leave the lights on)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e) tell me to go to bed or I wouldn't be allowed to watch any more TV	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
f) do something fun with me to help me forget about what scared me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

10. If I was at a park and appeared to be on the verge of tears because the other children were being mean to me and wouldn't let me play with them, my mother would:

a) <u>NOT</u> get upset herself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b) tell me that if I started crying then we would have to go home right away	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c) tell me it's okay to cry when I feel bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d) comfort me and try to get me to think about something happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e) help me think of something else to do	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
f) tell me that I would feel better soon	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

11. If my mother saw that I was playing with other children and one of them called me names, and I began to tremble and become tearful, she would:

a) tell me not to make a big deal out of it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b) feel upset herself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c) tell me to behave or we would have to go home right away	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d) help me think of constructive things to do when other children tease me (e.g., find other things to do)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e) comfort me and play a game to take my mind off the upsetting event	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
f) encourage me to talk about how it hurts to be teased	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

12. If I was shy and scared around strangers and consistently became teary and wanted to stay in my bedroom whenever family friends came to visit, my mother would:

a) help me think of things to do that would make meeting my family friends less scary (e.g., take a favorite toy with him/her when meeting my friends)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b) tell me that it was okay to feel nervous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c) try to make me happy by talking about the fun things we could do with our family friends	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d) feel upset and uncomfortable because of my reactions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e) tell me that I must stay in the living room and visit with our family friends	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
f) tell me that I was being a baby	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Father

DIRECTIONS: In the following items, think back to your childhood with your father, specifically around the ages of 5-7. Please indicate on a scale from 1 (very unlikely) to 7 (very likely) the likelihood that your father would respond to you in the ways listed for each item. Please read each item carefully and respond as honestly and sincerely as you can. Some of the items may not have happened in your childhood, please respond based on how you think your father would respond. For each response, please circle a number from 1-7.

Response Scale:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Very
Unlikely

Medium

Very
Likely

1. If my father were to see me become angry because I was sick or hurt and couldn't go to my friend's birthday party, he would:

a) send me to my room to cool off	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b) get angry at my me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c) help me think about ways that I could still be with friends, (e.g., invite some friends over after the party)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d) tell me not to make a big deal out of missing the party	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e) encourage me to express my feelings of anger and frustration	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
f) soothe me and do something fun with me to make me feel better about missing the party	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. If my father were to see me fall off my bike and break it, and then get upset and cry, he would:

a) remain calm and not let himself get anxious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b) comfort me and try to get me to forget about the accident	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c) tell me that I am over-reacting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d) help me figure out how to get the bike fixed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e) tell me it's okay to cry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
f) tell me to stop crying or I wouldn't be allowed to ride the bike anytime soon	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3. If my father were to see me lose some prized possession and reacts with tears, he would:

a) get upset with me for being so careless and then crying about it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b) tell me that I was over-reacting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c) help me think of places I hadn't looked yet	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d) distract me by talking about happy things	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e) tell me it's okay to cry when I feel unhappy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
f) tell me that's what happens when I am not careful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

4. If my father knew I was afraid of injections and saw me become quite shaky and teary while waiting for my turn to get a shot, he would:

a) tell me to shape up or I wouldn't be allowed to do something I likes to do (e.g., watch TV)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b) encourage me to talk about my fears	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c) tell me not to make a big deal of the shot	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d) tell me not to embarrass us by crying	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e) comfort me before and after the shot	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
f) talk to me about ways to make it hurt less (e.g., relaxing so it won't hurt or taking deep breaths)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

5. If I was going over to spend the afternoon at a friend's house and became nervous and upset because my father couldn't stay there with me, he would:

a) distract me by talking about all the fun I would have with my friend	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b) help me think of things that I could do so that being at my friend's house without him isn't scary	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c) tell me to quit over-reacting and being a baby	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d) tell me that if I don't stop that I won't be allowed to go out anymore	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e) feel upset and uncomfortable because of my reactions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
f) encourage me to talk about my nervous feelings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

6. If I was participating in some group activity with my friends and proceeded to make a mistake and then look embarrassed and on the verge of tears, my father would:

a) comfort me and try to make me feel better	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b) tell me that I am overreacting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c) feel uncomfortable and embarrassed himself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d) tell me to straighten up or we would go home right away	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e) encourage me to talk about my feelings of embarrassment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
f) tell me that he would help me practice so that I could do better next time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

7. If I was about to appear in a recital or sports activity and I became visibly nervous about people watching me, my father would:

a) help me think of things that I could do to get ready for my turn (e.g., do some warm-ups and not look at the audience)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b) suggest that I think about something relaxing so that my nervousness would go away	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c) remain calm and not get nervous himself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d) tell me that I was being a baby about it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e) tell me that if I don't calm down, we'll have to leave and go home right away	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
f) encourage me to talk about my nervous feelings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

8. If I received an undesirable birthday gift from a friend and looked obviously disappointed, even annoyed, after opening it in the presence of the friend, my father would:

a) encourage me to express my disappointed feelings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b) tell me that the present could be exchanged for something t that I wanted	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c) <u>NOT</u> be annoyed with me for being rude	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d) tell me that I was overreacting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e) scold me for being insensitive to my friend's feelings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
f) try to get me to feel better by doing something fun	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

9. If I was panicky and couldn't go to sleep after watching a scary TV show, my father would:

a) encourage me to talk about what scared me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b) get upset with me for being silly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c) tell me that I was over-reacting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d) help me think of something to do so that I could get to sleep (e.g., take a toy to bed, leave the lights on)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e) tell me to go to bed or I wouldn't be allowed to watch any more TV	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
f) do something fun with me to help me forget about what scared me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

10. If I was at a park and appeared to be on the verge of tears because the other children were being mean to me and wouldn't let me play with them, my father would:

a) <u>NOT</u> get upset himself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b) tell me that if I started crying then we would have to go home right away	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c) tell me it's okay to cry when I feel bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d) comfort me and try to get me to think about something happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e) help me think of something else to do	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
f) tell me that I would feel better soon	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

11. If my father saw that I was playing with other children and one of them called me names, and I began to tremble and become tearful, he would:

a) tell me not to make a big deal out of it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b) feel upset himself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c) tell me to behave or we would have to go home right away	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d) help me think of constructive things to do when other children tease me (e.g., find other things to do)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e) comfort me and play a game to take my mind off the upsetting event	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
f) encourage me to talk about how it hurts to be teased	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

12. If I was shy and scared around strangers and consistently became teary and wanted to stay in my bedroom whenever family friends came to visit, my father would:

a) help me think of things to do that would make meeting my family friends less scary (e.g., take a favorite toy with him/her when meeting my friends)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b) tell me that it was okay to feel nervous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c) try to make me happy by talking about the fun things we could do with our family friends	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d) feel upset and uncomfortable because of my reactions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e) tell me that I must stay in the living room and visit with our family friends	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
f) tell me that I was being a baby	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Subjective Happiness Scale (SHS; Lyubomirsky & Lepper, 1999)

Instructions: For each of the following statements and/or questions, please select the point on the scale that you feel is most appropriate in describing you.

1. In general, I consider myself:

(1 = Not a very happy person, 7 = A very happy person)

2. Compared with most of my peers, I consider myself:

(1 = Less happy, 7 = More happy)

3. Some people are generally very happy. They enjoy life regardless of what is going on, getting the most out of everything. To what extent does this characterization describe you?

(1 = Not at all, 7 = A great deal)

4. Some people are generally not very happy. Although they are not depressed, they never seem as happy as they might be. To what extent does this characterization describe you?

(1 = Not at all, 7 = A great deal)

Psychological Well-being – Short Version (PWB-18; Ryff, 1989)

All items are rated on the same 6-point Likert-type scale: (1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Moderately disagree, 3 = Slightly disagree, 4 = Slightly agree, 5 = Moderately agree, 6 = Strongly agree)

1. I tend to be influenced by people with strong opinions. *
2. In general, I feel I am in charge of the situation in which I live.
3. I think it is important to have new experiences that challenge how you think about yourself and the world.
4. Maintaining close relationships has been difficult for me. *
5. I live life one day at a time and don't really think about the future. *
6. When I look at the story of my life, I am pleased with how things have turned out.
7. I have confidence in my opinions, even if they are contrary to the general consensus.
8. The demands of everyday life often get me down. *
9. For me, life has been a continuous process of learning, changing, and growth.
10. People would describe me as a giving person, willing to share my time with others.
11. Some people wander aimlessly through life, but I am not one of them.
12. I like most aspects of my life.
13. I judge myself by what I think is important, not by the values of what others think is important.
14. I am quite good at managing the many responsibilities of my daily life.

15. I gave up trying to make big improvements or changes in my life a long time ago. *
16. I have not experienced many warm and trusting relationships with others. *
17. I sometimes feel as if I've done all there is to do in life. *
18. In many ways, I feel disappointed about my achievements in life. *

* These questions are reverse-scored so that higher scores correspond to greater psychological well-being.

The Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS; Diener et al., 1985)

Please rate your agreement with each of the five statements below. Use the 7-point scale provided.

(1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Slightly disagree, 4 = Neither agree nor disagree, 5 = slightly agree, 6 = agree, 7 = strongly agree)

1. In most ways my life is close to my ideal.
2. The conditions of my life are excellent.
3. I am satisfied with my life.
4. So far, I have gotten the important things I want in life.
5. If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.

Emotional Awareness Scale (EAS; Kaplan & Tivani, 2014)

Please indicate how much each statement represents your own experience, by selecting a number from 1 to 5 for each statement, using the following scale. This item represents my experience.

1	2	3	4	5
almost never/not at all	rarely/slightly	sometimes/some what	Quite often/quite strongly	almost always/very much

1. When I experience anger, I am fully aware of it.
2. During a conversation with someone, I can pretty much sense what he or she is feeling.
3. Each day I am pretty much aware of any mood changes I experience, as well as why such changes occur.
4. Whatever I feel, I can sense what changes occur in my body.
5. When I feel fear, understanding what I feel is not a priority for me.
6. I often find myself run or driven by emotions without much awareness of what I really feel.
7. When I experience anxiety, I am often aware how and why it emerges.
8. I can often detect and recognize subtle and quick emotional changes in the people I interact with.
9. I get angry at people without knowing I am angry.

10. When I experience fear, I have a pretty good sense about the source of that emotion.
11. When I feel something bad inside, I avoid directly experiencing and getting to know it.
12. At any given moment, I am aware which specific emotion I am feeling.

Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale (DERS; Gratz & Roemer, 2004)

Instructions: For each item, please select the response that is most true for you.

1 = Almost never; 2 = Sometimes; 3 = About half the time; 4 = Most of the time; 5 = Almost Always

1. I am clear about my feelings.
2. I pay attention to how I feel.
3. I experience my emotions as overwhelming and out of control.
4. I have no idea how I am feeling.
5. I have difficulty making sense out of my feelings.
6. I am attentive to my feelings.
7. I know exactly how I am feeling.
8. I care about what I am feeling.
9. I am confused about how I feel.
10. When I'm upset, I acknowledge my emotions.
11. When I'm upset, I become angry with myself for feeling that way.
12. When I'm upset, I become embarrassed for feeling that way.
13. When I'm upset, I have difficulty getting work done.
14. When I'm upset, I become out of control.
15. When I'm upset, I believe that I'll remain that way for a very long time.
16. When I'm upset, I believe that I'll end up feeling very depressed.
17. When I'm upset, I believe that my feelings are valid and important.
18. When I'm upset, I have difficulty focusing on other things.
19. When I'm upset, I feel out of control.
20. When I'm upset, I can still get things done.
21. When I'm upset, I feel ashamed for feeling that way.
22. When I'm upset, I know that I can find a way to eventually feel better.
23. When I'm upset, I feel like I am weak.
24. When I'm upset, I feel like I can remain in control of my behavior.
25. When I'm upset, I feel guilty for feeling that way.
26. When I'm upset, I have difficulty concentrating.
27. When I'm upset, I have difficulty controlling my behavior.
28. When I'm upset, I believe there's nothing I can do to make myself feel better.
29. When I'm upset, I become irritated with myself for feeling that way.
30. When I'm upset, I start to feel very bad about myself.
31. When I'm upset, I believe that wallowing in it is all I can do.
32. When I'm upset, I lose control over my behaviors.

33. When I'm upset, I have difficulty thinking about anything else.
34. When I'm upset, I take time to figure out what I'm really feeling.
35. When I'm upset, it takes me a long time to feel better.
36. When I'm upset, my emotions feel overwhelming.

Coping with Toddlers' Negative Emotions Scale (CTNES; Spinrad et al., 2007)

Please read each item carefully and respond as honestly and sincerely as you can. Think of your relationship with your child currently and when necessary, think of how you might respond to your child in the future as they are growing up. For each question, please select from the scale of 1 (*very unlikely of me*) to 7 (*very likely of me*) for each item.

1. If my child becomes angry because he wants to play outside and cannot do so because he is sick, I would:
 - a. Feel upset myself
 - b. Tell my child we will not get to do something else fun (i.e., watch T.V., play games) unless he stops behaving like
 - c. Tell my child it's ok to be angry
 - d. Soothe my child and/or do something with him to make him feel better
 - e. Help my child find something he wants to do inside.
 - f. Tell my child that he is making a big deal out of nothing
 - g. Let my child play outside
2. If my child spilled something and made a big mess on the carpet, and then gets upset and cries, I would:
 - a. Comfort my child by picking him up and/or trying to get him to forget about the accident
 - b. Tell my child that he is overreacting or making a big deal out of nothing
 - c. Remain calm and not let myself get upset
 - d. Send my child to his room for making a mess
 - e. Help my child find a way to clean up the mess
 - f. Tell my child that it is ok to be upset
3. If my child loses some prized possession (for example, favorite blanket or stuffed animal) and reacts with tears, I would:
 - a. Go and buy my child a new item
 - b. Help my child think of other places to look for the toy
 - c. Distract my child with another toy to make him feel better
 - d. Tell my child that it is not that important
 - e. Tell my child it is his fault for not being careful with the toy
 - f. Feel upset myself
 - g. Tell my child it is okay to feel sad about the loss
4. If my child is afraid of going to the doctor or of getting shots and becomes quite shaky and teary, I would:
 - a. Tell him to shape up or he won't be allowed to do something he likes to do (i.e., go to playground)
 - b. Tell my child that it is ok to be nervous or afraid

- c. Tell my child that it's really no big deal
 - d. Comfort my child before and/or after the shot
 - e. Leave the doctor's office and reschedule for another time
 - f. Help him think of ways to make it less scary, like squeezing my hand when he gets a shot
 - g. Get nervous myself
5. If my child is going to spend the afternoon with a new babysitter and becomes nervous and upset because I am leaving him, I would:
- a. Distract my child by playing and talking about all of the fun he will have with the sitter
 - b. Feel upset or uncomfortable because of my child's reactions
 - c. Tell my child that he won't get to do something else enjoyable (i.e., go to playground, get a special snack) if he doesn't stop behaving like that
 - d. Tell him that it's nothing to get upset about
 - e. Change my plans and decide not to leave my child with the sitter
 - f. Help my child think of things to do that will make it less stressful, like me calling him once during the evening
 - g. Tell my child that it's ok to be upset
6. If my child becomes upset and cries because he is left alone in his bedroom to go to sleep, I would:
- a. Become upset myself
 - b. Tell my child that if he doesn't stop crying, we won't do something fun when he wakes up
 - c. Tell my child it's okay to cry when he is sad
 - d. Soothe my child with a hug or kiss
 - e. Help my child find ways to deal with my absence (hold a favorite stuffed animal, turn on a nightlight, etc)
 - f. Stay with my child or take him out of the bedroom to be with me until he falls asleep
 - g. Tell him that there is nothing to be afraid of
7. If my child becomes angry because he is not allowed to have a snack (i.e., candy, ice cream) when he wants it, I would:
- a. Send my child to his room
 - b. Give my child the snack that he wanted
 - c. Distract child by playing with other toys or games
 - d. Tell him that there is no reason to be upset
 - e. Tell my child it's okay to feel angry
 - f. Help my child think of something to eat that he is allowed to have between meals
 - g. Feel angry at my child's behavior
8. If my child becomes upset because I removed something that my child should have not been playing with, I would:
- a. Tell my child that if he touches it again he will not be allowed to do something enjoyable

- b. Help my child think of something else to do that is fun
 - c. Become upset myself
 - d. Tell my child it's okay to feel angry
 - e. Distract my child with something else interesting
 - f. Give my child what he wants
 - g. Ignore my child's upset reactions and take the object away
9. If my child wants me to play with him and I cannot do so right then (i.e., I am on the phone, in the middle of a conversation with someone), and my child becomes upset, I would:
- a. Feel upset myself
 - b. Tell my child that there is nothing to be upset about
 - c. Help my child find something to do while he waits for me to play with him.
 - d. Tell my child I won't play with him later if he doesn't stop behaving like that
 - e. Tell my child it's okay to be upset
 - f. Stop what I'm doing so I can play with my child
 - g. Soothe my child and talk to him to make him feel better
10. If my child is playing with a puzzle or shape sorter toy and cannot fit a piece correctly, and gets upset and cries, I would:
- a. Remain calm and not let myself get anxious
 - b. Take the toy away from my child
 - c. Comfort my child with a pat or a kiss
 - d. Put the piece in for my child
 - e. Tell my child it's okay to get frustrated and upset
 - f. Help my child figure out how to put the piece in correctly
 - g. Tell my child it's nothing to cry about
11. If my child has climbed onto a piece of playground equipment and gets stuck, and becomes nervous and begins to cry, I would:
- a. Become anxious myself
 - b. Help my child figure out how to get down from the climber
 - c. Take my child down from the climber
 - d. Tell my child he shouldn't have gone up by himself.
 - e. Tell my child its nothing to get upset about
 - f. Comfort my child with words or a pat
 - g. Tell my child it's okay to be afraid
12. If my child fell down and scraped himself while trying to get a favorite toy, I would:
- a. Become upset myself
 - b. Help my child figure out how to feel better (getting a band-aid)
 - c. Distract my child with something else
 - d. Tell my child that he should be more careful
 - e. Tell my child its nothing to get upset about
 - f. Tell my child it's okay to cry

Demographics Questionnaire (adapted from Clinical Psychologist Intake Questionnaires, Healthy Minds Study [HMS] Questionnaire, and General Information Questionnaire [GIQ])

1. Age:
2. What is your gender identity? (select all that apply)
 - a. Male
 - b. Female
 - c. Trans male/Trans man
 - d. Trans female/Trans woman
 - e. Genderqueer/Gender nonconforming
 - f. Self-identify (please specify)
 - g. Gender non-binary
3. How would you describe your sexual orientation? (Select all that apply)
 - a. Heterosexual
 - b. Lesbian
 - c. Gay
 - d. Bisexual
 - e. Queer
 - f. Questioning
 - g. Self-identify (please specify)
4. Please check the box(es) that best describe your racial background:
 - a. Asian American/Asian
 - b. African American/Black
 - c. Hispanic/Latin(x)
 - d. Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander
 - e. Caucasian/White
 - f. Middle Eastern, Arab, or Arab American
 - g. American Indian or Alaskan Native
 - h. Prefer not to say
 - i. Self-identify (please specify)
5. What is the highest level of education you have completed? (check one)
 - a. Grade school
 - b. Some high school
 - c. High school graduate
 - d. Trade, technical school, or some college
 - e. College graduate
 - f. Graduate training
 - g. Graduate degree

6. Please indicate total family income before taxes. (check one)
 - a. Under \$10,000
 - b. \$10,000 to \$19,000
 - c. \$20,000 to \$39,000
 - d. \$40,000 to \$59,000
 - e. \$60,000 to \$79,000
 - f. \$80,000 to \$99,000
 - g. \$100,000 to \$119,000
 - h. \$120,000 to \$139,000
 - i. \$140,000 to \$159,000
 - j. \$160,000 to \$179,000
 - k. \$180,000 to \$199,000
 - l. \$200,000 or more

7. How would you describe your financial situation right now?
 - a. Always stressful
 - b. Often stressful
 - c. Sometimes stressful
 - d. Rarely stressful
 - e. Never stressful

8. What are the ages and genders of the children living in your home?
 - a. Child #1
 - i. Age: (drop down menu)
 - ii. Gender: (check one)
 1. Male
 2. Female
 3. Other: (free response)
 - iii. Biological
 1. Yes
 2. No

9. With whom do you currently live? (check all that apply)
 - a. Spouse or significant other
 - b. Mother
 - c. Father
 - d. Brother
 - e. Sister
 - f. Friend or roommate
 - g. Partner's Mother
 - h. Partner's Father
 - i. Child/Children
 - j. Other: *free response, include relationship

10. Marital Status

- a. Single, never married
- b. Cohabiting
- c. Married
- d. Divorced
- e. Widowed
- f. Separated but not divorced

11. How would you characterize your current relationship status?

- a. Single
- b. In a relationship
- c. Married, in a domestic partnership, or engaged
- d. Divorced or separated
- e. Widowed
- f. Other (please specify)

Family/Social History

12. Did your parents marry?

- a. Yes
- b. No

13. Did your parents separate or divorce?

- a. Yes
- b. No
- c. If yes, when (how old were you)?
- d. With whom did you primarily live with while growing up?

14. How would you describe your financial situation while growing up?

- a. Always stressful
- b. Often stressful
- c. Sometimes stressful
- d. Rarely stressful
- e. Never stressful

15. Earlier in this survey, I asked you to talk about your family in childhood and describe your mother and father.

- a. When talking about your mother in childhood who are you talking about?
 - i. Biological Mother
 - ii. Stepmother
 - iii. Adopted Mother

- b. When talking about your father in childhood who are you talking about?
 - i. Biological Father
 - ii. Stepfather
 - iii. Adopted Father
16. What resources are you using to gain information about how to parent? (Select all that apply)
- a. Friends
 - b. Parents
 - c. Instagram
 - d. Tik Tok
 - e. Facebook
 - f. Parenting Magazines
 - g. Parenting Books
 - h. Online Blogs
 - i. Online Support Groups or Communities
 - j. Other: Fill in
17. Now, of all the resources you previously mentioned, where do you think you are getting most of your information on how to parent? (Select one).
- a. Friends
 - b. Parents
 - c. Instagram
 - d. Tik Tok
 - e. Facebook
 - f. Parenting Magazines
 - g. Parenting Books
 - h. Online Blogs
 - i. Online Support Groups or Communities
 - j. Other: Fill in

Mental Health Services Utilization and Help-Seeking

18. How much do you agree with the following statement?:
In the past 12 months, I needed help for emotional or mental health problems such as feeling sad, blue, anxious or nervous.
- a. Strongly agree (1)
 - b. Agree (2)
 - c. Somewhat agree (3)
 - d. Somewhat disagree (4)
 - e. Disagree (5)

f. Strongly Disagree (6)

19. If you were experiencing serious emotional distress, whom would you talk to about this? (Select all that apply)

- a. Professional clinician (e.g., psychologist, counselor, or psychiatrist)
- b. Friend
- c. Significant other
- d. Your Parents
- e. Family member that is not your parents
- f. Religious counselor or other religious contact
- g. Support group
- h. Other non-clinical source (please specify)
- i. No one

20. Have you ever received counseling or therapy for mental health concerns?

- a. No, never
- b. Yes, prior to having a child
- c. Yes, since I have had a child
- d. Yes, both of the above (prior to having a child and since having a child)

21. How old were you when you first received counseling or therapy?

- 0 – 10
- 11 – 20
- 21 – 30
- 31 – 40
- 40 and up

22. Are you currently receiving counseling or therapy?

- a. Yes
- b. No
- c. No, but I intend to.

23. In the past 12 months have you received counseling or support for your mental or emotional health from any of the following sources? (Select all that apply)

- a. Friend
- b. Significant other
- c. Your Parents
- d. Family member that is not your parents
- e. Religious counselor or other religious contact
- f. Support group
- g. Other non-clinical source (please specify)