MEDIATING ROLE OF SELF-REGULATION BETWEEN PARENTING,
ATTACHMENT, AND ADJUSTMENT IN MIDDLE ADOLESCENCE

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ABSTRACT

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Adolescence is characterized as the transition period from childhood to
adulthood and healthy adjustment invokes internal and external resources. The
individual resources consist of the regulatory abilities, which are influenced by
emotional family context. Emotional family context includes factors such as
parenting, attachment quality to parents, and the level of marital conflict between
parents. However, these three research areas have relatively remained separate from
each other and the period of adolescence is mostly neglected in longitudinal
research. In order to partially fill in this gap, both cross-sectional and longitudinal
relationships between proximal family contextual factors, regulatory abilities and
psychosocial adjustment of the adolescents were examined by collecting data from
first and second grade students of two high schools (N = 426), their teachers (N =
353), and parents (N = 187 for mothers, N = 175 for fathers). In line with the
propositions of the Attachment (Bowlby, 1969; 1973) and Self-Determination
Theories (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 1985), and the frameworks within marital conflict
literature (Davies & Cummings, 1994; Grych & Fincham, 1990), it was anticipated
that parental warmth, behavioral control, and secure attachment to both parents
would influence regulatory capacities of the adolescents positively, and healthy
regulation processes would be related to successful psychosocial adjustment of the
adolescents. On the other hand, parental rejection, comparing adolescents with

others, psychological control, and marital conflict would predict low levels of regulatory abilities, and in turn, they would be associated with poor psychosocial adjustment. Similarly, the longitudinal effects of marital conflict on parenting and the effects of attachment quality to parents on regulatory development of the adolescents were also examined.

Participants completed multiple measures of the major variables in the study. The structural equation modeling (SEM) analyses were used to test the proposed mediated models. The findings of the study mostly supported the direct effects of emotional family context on regulatory abilities of the adolescents, their problem behaviors, and the quality of the relationships with their peers. The results were generally consistent with the previous research in the Western cultures. Positive emotional family context variables were related with the healthy development, whereas negative ones were related with poor developmental outcomes. The results of covariance analyses also showed that attachment strength to parents and the quality of peer relationships were related with healthy regulatory processes of the adolescents. The longitudinal SEM analyses showed that externalization problems of the adolescents, which were associated with the marital conflict between parents, predicted higher levels of negative parenting in the long run. Additionally, secure attachment to parents predicted high levels of positive and low levels of negative parenting, all of which were associated with adolescents' high levels of positive regulatory capacities. This study contributed to the understanding of the effects of emotional family context on adolescent optimal development through time and showed that for a healthy adjustment, high-quality close relationships both with the family and the peers were required.

ÖZ

ORTA ERGENLİKTE ÖZDENETİM BECELERİNİN EBEVEYN DAVRANIŞLARI, BAĞLANMA VE PSİKOLOJİK UYUM ARASINDAKİ ARACI ETKİSİ

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Ergenlik çocukluktan yetişkinliğe geçişte kritik köprü dönemdir ve ergenin sağlıklı psikolojik gelişimi içsel ve dışsal kaynaklara ihtiyaç gösterir. Bireysel kaynaklar duygusal aile ortamı tarafından etkilenen özdenetim becerilerini içerir. Yakın duygusal aile ortamı, ebeveyn davranışları, ebeveynlerle kurulan güvenli bağlanma ve aile içinde ebeveynler arası çatışma gibi faktörlerden oluşur. Ancak, literatürde bu üç araştırma alanı birbirinden görece bağımsız olarak incelenmiş ve ergenlik dönemi boylamsal araştırmalarda genellikle ihmal edilmiştir. Bu boşluğu kısmen doldurmak için, duygusal aile ortamı, ergenlerin özdenetim becerileri ve psikososyal gelişimleri iki lisenin 1inci ve 2nci sınıf öğrencileri (N = 426), öğretmenleri (N = 353), anne (N = 187) ve babalarından (N = 175) toplanan veriler kullanılarak kesitsel ve boylamsal olarak incelenmiştir. Evlilik içi çatışma yaklaşımları (Davies & Cummings, 1994; Grych & Fincham, 1990), bağlanma (Bowlby, 1969; 1973) ve Kendini Belirleme Kuramları (KBK; Deci & Ryan, 1985) önermelerine dayanarak, sıcak-ilgili ve davranış denetimi yüksek ebeveynlik ve ebeveyne güvenli bağlanmanın ergenin denetim becerilerini olumlu olarak yordayacağı ve sağlıklı özdenetim süreçlerinin de ergenin başarılı psikososyal uyumuyla ilişkili olacağı öngörülmüştür. Diğer taraftan, reddedici, kıyas yapan ve psikolojik kontrol düzeyi yüksek ebeveyn davranışlarının ve yüksek düzeydeki

evlilik içi çatışmanın ergenlerin denetim becerilerini olumsuz olarak yordayacağı ve aracı değişken olarak düşük özdenetim becerilerinin de ergenin uyumunun bozulması ile yakın ilişkili olacağı öngörülmüştür. Bunlara ek olarak evlilik içi çatışmanın ebeveyn davranışları üzerindeki ve ebeveyne güvenli bağlanmanın ergenin özdenetim becerileri üzerindeki etkileri boylamsal olarak incelenmiştir.

Katılımcılar araştırmada yer alan temel değişkenlerin çoklu ölçümlerini doldurmuşlardır. Önerilen aracılı modeller yapısal eşitlik modeli (YEM) analizi kullanılarak sınanmıştır. Çalışmanın bulguları çoğunlukla duygusal aile içi ortamın ergenin özdenetim becerileri, sosyal uyumu ve arkadaşlık ilişkileri kalitesini doğrudan etkilediğini göstermiştir. Sonuçlar geçmiş çalışmalarla tutarlı olarak bağlanma kuramı, KBK ve evlilik içi çatışma yaklaşımlarının önerilerini destekler niteliktedir. Olumlu duygusal aile içi ortam sağlıklı ergen gelişimi ile olumlu ilişki göstermiştir. Ancak, olumsuz duygusal aile içi ortamın ergenin psikolojik gelişimi üzerinde olumsuz etkileri olduğu bulunmuştur. Yapılan ANCOVA analizi sonuçları ebeveynlere güvenli bağlanmanın ve arkadaşa bağlanmanın özdenetim süreçleri ile olumlu yönde ilgili olduğunu göstermiştir. Boylamsal YEM analizleri, evlilik içi çatışma ile ilişkili olarak ergenin dışsallaştıma sorunlarının uzun dönemde olumsuz ebeveynlik davranışlarını yordadığını göstermiştir. Buna ek olarak, ebeveynlere güvenli bağlanma uzun dönemde olumlu ebeveynlik davranışlarını pozitif, olumsuz olanları ise negatif yönde yordamıştır. Olumlu ebeveyn davranışları ise ergenin işlevsel özdenetim becerilerini olumlu olarak etkilerken olumsuz ebeveyn davranışları olumsuz özdenetim becerileri ile yüksek düzeyde ilişki göstermiştir. Bu çalışma duygusal aile içi ortamın ergen gelişimi üzerindeki etkilerinin anlaşılmasına katkı sağlamış ve sıcak ebeveyn ve arkadaş ilişkilerinin ergenin sağlıklı psikolojik uyumu için gerekli olduğunu göstermiştir.

Anahtar kelimeler: Bağlanma Kuramı, Kendini Belirleme Kuramı, evlilik içi çatışma, özdenetim, ergenlik uyumu

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Introduction

The aim of the present study is to examine the role of marital conflict, attachment quality to parents, and parenting styles in predicting high school adolescents' adjustment outcomes longitudinally. Specifically, from the perspective of global outlooks on family (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Cox & Paley, 1997), the determining force underpinning human development in terms of social adjustment as well as emotional and cognitive formation is the family environment. The available literature suggests that the one of the determinants of the family environment, which is defined as the emotional climate in family environment, subsumes marital conflict, parental attachment, and parenting styles, and influences primarily the emotion regulation (ER) capacity of the developing human-being with ramifications in social and psychological outcomes (e.g., Morris, Silk, Steinberg, Myers, & Robinson, 2007).

There is a well documented link between marital conflict, parenting styles, and attachment styles with child outcomes in both attachment and child development literatures. However, rather than taking a parsimonious approach, previous studies have concentrated on documenting the effects of either parenting or parental attachment on child outcomes (Cummings & Cummings, 2002). Additionally, although the role of parenting and marital conflict on ER has been well documented through early and middle childhood phases, the literature lacks a clear outlay of these processes during adolescence as well as in non-western cultures (Parke, McDowell, Clads, & Leidy, 2006). Furthermore, a few studies focused on the assessment of adolescent development from the attachment perspective regardless of the fact that adolescence is conspicuous as a transitional period from childhood to adulthood (e.g., Soares, Fremmer-Bombik, Grossman, & Silva, 2007). Thus, despite a partial overlap between these research areas, the literature suggests a consolidation between them for a more parsimonious perspective on development, and points the direction

of adolescence as the most promising period for this research (see Morris et al., 2007).

Adolescence is a pathway between childhood and adulthood accompanied with novel problems associated with pubertal, cognitive, and social changes. The child experiences turbulence through these transformations, which requires adaptation on the part of the child as well as on the family patterns. Yet, the positive emotional climate, which consist of the guidance of parents through effective parenting styles and secure relations between the adolescent and parents hand in hand with the emotional resources enabling parents to provide these services, may equip the adolescent with the capacity to tackle with these problems. Hence, these factors may provide the prospective adult the opportunity for a smooth shift through adolescence (Steinberg & Silk, 2002).

The literature attests that the availability of positive family emotional factors enables the child to acquire the capacity to regulate emotions adequately that in turn foster social and psychological development. This capacity is deemed pre-eminent especially during adolescence while there is an emotional upheaval (Allen & Miga, 2010). However, there exists scarce research which inquires the role of ER as a mediator between the multiple family factors and adolescent outcomes. Also, during this period, relations with peers thrive and some attachment functions are transferred onto peers although parents still serve as the primary attachment figures (Allen, 2008). Deviations from this normative development and becoming primarily peer-oriented may put the adolescent at risk for maladaptation (Diamond & Fagundes, 2008).

Based on the documented evidence, the present research focuses on the unique as well as mediated influences of parental attachment, parenting styles, and marital conflict on peer attachment representations, social and psychological problems of adolescents through self regulation (SR) skills, which encompass ER as a sub-domain (Vohs & Baumeister, 2004). Specifically, it is expected that (1) the parents who have low levels of marital conflict and construct secure attachment relations with their children are expected to have adolescents with high SR. Simultaneously, (2) the adolescents whose parents perform parenting behaviors characterized with high warmth and behavioral control, and low rejection and psychological control will have optimal regulatory skills. It is also expected that (3)

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the adolescents who are securely attached to their parents will transfer some of their attachment needs, such as secure base to their peers slower than their insecure counterparts and will have better regulatory skills. Consequently, (4) high regulatory skills are expected to mediate the relationship between positive emotional family context and adolescent's social adjustment measures, which are conceptualized as secure peer representations, low externalizing, and internalizing problems.

In sum, the present study aims to examine adolescent adjustment by using a variety of developmentally proximal factors and multiple reporters, namely, adolescents, parents, and teachers, and longitudinal data. Although it is acknowledged that these independent variables may have mediating or moderating relationships among each other in determining the outcomes, the primary aim of the present study is to document their relative importance in predicting adolescent regulation and their longitudinal effects on outcome variables.

Selective literature review will be presented in the following sections. First section provides definitions of SR and ER, their relation to each other and documents the contemporary approaches in both realms in terms of development. The second section outlays the background of attachment theory and elaborates on the development of child as it relates to attachment. Furthermore, this section also introduces the construction of attachment representations of close relationships through development and the role of affect regulation (AR) in this process. The third section provides an account on adolescent period, and reviews the literature on parenting and its influence on regulatory processes, child outcomes and peer representations of attachment. This section also summarizes the cultural implications of parenting as well as accompanying child outcomes. The last section reviews the literature on marital conflict, its influence on child outcomes, and possible cultural implications.

1.2 Self-Regulation and Its Developmental Outcomes

Social environment demands individuals to manage their lives effectively and achieve a smooth interaction within the social domain. The failure to regulate self is associated with an array of problems from drug abuse, obesity to criminal activities and aggression (Tice & Bratslavsky, 2000). Executive functions of the self enable self to promote self-directed actions among everyday demands of life, and SR and

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self-control are inseparable parts of it. In that sense, executive functions of the self broadly consist of making choices both in social situations and chores, making plans, carrying them out, managing temporal arrangements between tasks, solving problems and initiating or inhibiting behavior (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Muraven, & Tice, 1998; Schmeichel & Baumeister, 2004; Zelazo & Cunningham, 2007).

Vohs and Baumeister (2004; Tice & Bratslavsky, 2000) suggest a refined definition for SR and self-control, in which SR encompasses the conscious control of impulses called 'self-control'. Accordingly SR, which also includes ER as a sub-domain (see also Calkins & Hill, 2007), is defined as the overarching endeavors to alter the internal states and responses of the self in a goal-directed manner. In that sense, SR processes are subject to a feedback cycle, in which the progress is monitored according to a set of standards, and application of adequate behavior for alignment with the standards requires ego-strength (Tice & Bratslavsky, 2000).

The self-control/SR strength model (Muraven & Baumeister, 2000; Schmeichel & Baumeister, 2004) suggests that there are limited resources available to the executive functions of the self, and expending strength on one task limits the amount of resources left for subsequent tasks, hence impairs performance. In that sense, Baumeister et al. (1998; Muraven, Tice & Baumeister, 1998) showed that when resources of self were depleted in making choices, resisting to temptation, regulating affect and active responding to a situation, the residue resources for the subsequent tasks were left limited that resulted in a disturbed performance or led to a passive action. This is called the ego-depletion of the self (Baumeister et al., 1998).

The self-control/ SR strength model mainly suggests that similar to a muscle the strength could be replenished not only through rest but it could also be improved with constant exercise (Muraven & Baumeister, 2000; see also Schmeichel & Baumeister, 2004). In that sense, automatic activities, such as nonconscious goal-directed behavior (e.g. complying with situational norms) or cognitive activities (e.g. attending to goal-relevant stimuli, Moskowitz, 2002) that are frequently and consistently practiced, do not consume much energy (Fitzsimons & Bargh, 2004; Schmeichel & Baumeister, 2004). It was shown that early ability of preschool children to delay gratification, meaning to give up short-term rewards (e.g., one small marshmallow) to achieve bigger long-term rewards (e.g., two small

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marshmallows), predicted their increased cognitive and social competence as well as stress tolerance in adolescence (Mischel, Shoda, & Peake, 1988).

1.2.1 The Development of Self-Regulation in Infancy

There is a bi-directional influence between the SR and the social and cognitive developments of the child (Calkins & Hill, 2007; McCabe, Cunnington, & Brooks-Gunn, 2004). The cognitive and biological development of the infant allows for the preliminary practices of SR in the form of a relatively conscious self-control as the baby becomes a toddler. The development of representational thinking and the ability to recall memory enable the infant to construct cause and effect associations and remember them later on, hence to regulate behavior by inhibition, compliance to demands as well as voluntary initiation of activity such as walking (Kopp, 1982; McCabe et al., 2004). However, these crude forms of SR render the self-control consistency between tasks and time to be low, and with age the self-control consistency between tasks increases (Vaunghn, Kopp, & Krakow, 1984).

As self-control transforms into SR through constant monitoring of the child behavior, the individual differences in SR becomes distinctive starting from 30-months of age (Kopp, 1982; Vaunghn et al., 1984). However, the internalization of SR is not complete until after the child starts the school (Kopp, 1982; McCabe et al., 2004). In that sense, self determination theory (SDT) proposes a comprehensive approach for the internalization of SR. Thus, the next section elaborates on this theory and how internalization of SR proceeds through development.

1.2.2 Self-Determination Theory of Self-Regulation

The theory of self-determination (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 1985) is basically a theory of motivation. SDT claims that individuals have three primary needs, namely the need for autonomy, competence, and relatedness, all of which have consequences for personality development, SR and well-being if satisfied or thwarted (Ryan & Deci, 2000). For the relatedness need to be satisfied the person should feel warmth, affection and a sense of relatedness from others. Achievement through prolonged action and perseverance, and the feeling of effectiveness in interacting with the environment satisfies the need for competence. The feelings of control over own actions as an agent or initiator of actions satisfy the need for autonomy (Grolnick, Deci, & Ryan, 1997; Grolnick & Farkas, 2002).

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In SDT framework, self takes actions in volition if these needs are satisfied but it requires external control to regulate action if these needs are thwarted. The former type of self-motivation is related with higher behavior regulation as well as ER, improved well-being and better adjustment to social contexts (Deci & Ryan, 1987; Grolnick & Farkas, 2002; Ryan & Deci, 2000). In that sense, internalization of SR has ramification within the strength model of SR. First, the internalization of SR may cause the frequent and consistent application of behavior that leads to automatic application of regulation, which conserves energy (Fitzsimons & Barg, 2004; Schmeichel & Baumeister, 2004). Second, high motivation resulting in taking autonomous activity may consume less strength through either creating positive affectivity (Tice, Baumeister, Shmueli, and Muraven, 2007) or decreasing inner conflict between competing tasks. Muraven, Rosman, and Gagné (2007) showed that boosting volition to trigger autonomous motivation for the task inhibited the depletion of resources.

The application of SDT to developmental research, suggests that there are different levels of motivation that may lead the child take action according to the values of the parents. Specifically, the motivational antecedents of behavior may change from external regulation to complete volition (Grolnick et al., 1997). Hence, the external regulation in determining the desired behavior is transformed gradually into introjected regulation, then into identified regulation, and finally into integrated regulation. The optimum developmental outcome is the intrinsic regulation, in which the self integrates the transferred values into personality in harmony with already existing values and behaviors of self through passing preceding stages of regulation (Deci & Ryan, 2000). The improvement along this continuum is bound to the cognitive and emotional development of the child chronologically and the environmental facilitators, thus the highest level an adolescent can reach are the introjected regulation (Grolnick & Farkas, 2002). Yet, even in this phase of development, the adaptation of the child to the environment is smooth and in line with the family values where the facilitative environment is sustained (Grolnick et al., 1997).

In sum, the literature assents to the importance of SR for adaptation to the social environment. However, regulation of affect as an intrinsic part of SR requires special attention and this will be the subject of the next section.

1.2.3 Self Regulation and Affect Regulation

In the literature, AR is conceptualized as a specific type of SR aimed at altering the emotional experiences and their expressions. Affect, as a general category, includes emotions as a sub-category along with the others such as moods, stress responses, and motivational impulses (Gross, 1999; Gross & Thompson, 2007). According to Larsen and Prizmic (2004), "affect" refers to the feeling tones at any given time, and when feeling tones emanates from a cause to become the focus of awareness, they are called emotions. On the other hand, when the feeling tone does not have a clear cause to lurk in the background of consciousness, it is defined as the "mood" (Larsen & Prizmic, 2004). Another differentiating quality is that emotions create action tendencies whereas moods do have this potential to a lesser degree (Gross, 1998). Hence, AR is an overarching term to define the management of all subjective affective states (Larsen & Prizmic, 2004) including ER, mood regulation, coping, psychological defenses. Although mood regulation only refers to the alternation of emotional experiences, ER refers also to alternation of expression of emotions (Gross, 1998). Similarly, coping refers to dealing predominantly with negative emotions and a process of longer durations as compared to ER (Gross & Thompson, 2007).

SR strength model suggests that regulation of affective states, especially negative ones, has the primacy in competing for the scarce resources of self. Therefore, it plays a central role in SR failure, whereas positive affect replenishes depleted resources and inhibits ego-depletion (Baumeister, Zell, & Tice, 2007; Tice & Bratslavsky, 2000). Consequently, in the self-equilibrating process of SR, AR plays a vital role, hence requires close scrutiny in terms of its development and transformation into individual difference variables. The following section elaborates on ER as a sub-domain of AR. Yet, the development of AR within attachment relationships and its possible consequences will be reviewed within the section of attachment. Henceforth, all of the concepts relating to regulation will be used in line with the definitions given above.

1.2.3.1 Emotion Regulation

The fabric of civilization requires fostering smooth social interactions, which in turn, invokes regulation of emotions. Emotions emanate from social interactions, which give rise to individual goals (Gross & Thompson, 2007). In that sense, the

functionalistic perspective on emotions suggests that emotions have the motivating power to organize needs within environmental demands. Yet, situational demands may also require the regulation of emotions in order to reach the emotionally set-goals (Cole, Michel, & O'Donnell-Teti, 1994). Hence, ER refers to the regulation of emotions, not regulation of other self processes by emotions (Gross, 1999).

Thompson (1994) coined a comprehensive definition of ER stating that ER "…consists of the extrinsic and intrinsic processes responsible for monitoring, evaluating, and modifying emotional reactions, especially their intensive and temporal features to accomplish one's goal" (pp. 27-28). This definition suggests several implications about the nature of ER and emotions.

The first feature of this definition is to place ER within a functionalist perspective. In that formulation, ER is a tool to reach a self-set goal (Thompson, 1994; Thompson & Meyer, 2007). Hence, ER may include either increasing or decreasing both negative and positive emotions depending on the goals of the person in a given situation (Gross, 1999). For example, a person may want to stay angry in order to give a speech about injustice, or a doctor may try to look sad when telling the patient about his/her terminal condition (Tice & Bratslavsky, 2000). During development, the baby learns appropriate social goals related with social demands or the goals within intimate relations with the help of caregivers (Cassidy, 1994). As the baby develops s/he learns how to manipulate others to satisfy ER needs as well as how to get the attention of others to satisfy social interaction needs, such as playing (Kopp, 1989). In that sense, the baby develops discernable ER strategies to reach these goals (Cassidy, 1994). This topic will be elaborated in the following section within the attachment framework.

Three more implicit assumptions in this definition are important in determining the nature of ER. The first one is the fact that ER and emotions are closely intertwined, and ER is a component of emotional reactions (Thompson & Goodman, 2010). Werner and Gross (2010) suggests that the complete understanding fosters the control of any given thing. Thus, the recognition and clear understanding of emotions is an inseparable part of a well-adjusted ER and emotional clarity requires cognitive monitoring and evaluation of emotions (Thompson & Goodman, 2010; Thompson & Meyer, 2007). The second one proclaims that ER does not aim to transform emotional experiences completely but aims to modulate and modify their

intensity and duration without changing the valence of emotions. Hence, the complete transformation of negative emotions into positive ones is not the aim of ER. The last important feature of this definition suggests that ER may take place both through intrinsic and extrinsic processes. The caregivers' attempts to maintain the baby's affective states by constructing a daily routine or soothing the baby when required are construed as the extrinsic form of ER, which is the basic determinant of mutually intertwined biological and SR development of the child (Calkins & Hill, 2007; Kopp, 1982; Thompson, 1994; Thompson & Meyer, 2007).

The ramifications of extrinsic ER can be traced in different areas of development. In terms of cognition, better regulation of emotional states enhances attending to environmental stimuli and discriminating between them during infancy (Kopp, 1982). Past studies suggest that the constant activation of certain emotions, such as fear and anger, transforms the brain structure. In that sense, these processes create emotional biases (e.g., sensitivity to recognize them and to label ambiguous emotional expression of others as such), which in turn determine the development of the neurobiological emotional systems (Thompson & Meyer, 2007). In fact, appropriate extrinsic ER normalizes the physiological reactions of infants who are susceptible to stress and negative affectivity due to temperamental differences. For example, a baby who has a temperamentally low threshold for arousal may benefit more from the emotionally supportive caregiver in regulating physiological stress symptoms, thus learns and successfully internalizes ER strategies such as diverting attention from a stressful situation (see Calkins & Hill, 2007 for a review). Consequently, as ER is internalized within a caregiving environment, they transform into individual differences, which are systematically differentiated and can be behaviorally observed (Gross, 1999; Thompson, 1994; Thompson & Goodman, 2010).

1.2.3.2 Individual Differences in Emotion Regulation

Thompson (1994) suggests that extrinsic regulation of emotions continues through life time by the support of friends, parents or close others in addition to the internalized intrinsic ER techniques. The latter techniques include regulating attentional and cognitive processes as well as accessing to and manipulation of interpersonal and material resources. As the child internalizes these processes

through development, s/he learns to rely less on environmental cues and on available contextual structures. When ER is not internalized effectively, it requires greater effort causing ego-depletion, thus, it invokes the application of more rigid and maladaptive strategies by excluding more adaptive techniques (Ryan, Deci, Grolnick, & La Guardia, 2006; Thompson, 1994; Thompson & Meyer, 2007). In line with these, this section focuses on the intrinsic type of ER in line with the conceptualization of ER as an individual difference variable (Gross, 1999).

Regulation of emotions is a multi-faceted phenomenon and proceeds similarly both in successful ER and dysregulation of emotions. Successful ER requires first pausing at the face of emotion activation and then noticing it. The following step invokes deciding how controllable the emotions and situations are. The last step is to act in line with the long-term goals rather than immediate relief. In that sense, the success in regulating the emotions depends on the flexible and appropriate application of each ER step with the recognition and acceptance of emotions (Werner & Gross, 2010). According to Gross (1998), whether successful or not, ER processes may be distinguished into two; *antecedent-focused* and *response-focused* ERs. Antecedent-focused ER refers to the processes that take place either before the emotion arises or in the immediate arousal state. Response-focused ER refers to modulation of the emotion after it has already been evoked (Gross, 1998; Gross & Thompson, 2007; Werner & Gross, 2010).

Antecedent-focused ER includes situation selection, situation modification, attention deployment, and cognitive change. Thus, in situation selection the individual may behave in a manner to end up in situations where positive emotional experiences are likely. When it is not possible, one may bring a friend over for support to modify the aversive situation (Gross, 1998; Gross & Thompson, 2007). Antecedent-focused ER may also proceed even after the emotion evoking event happened. Attention deployment refers to diverting attention by distraction, worry and rumination rather than changing the person-environment configuration (Werner & Gross, 2010). Although it is after the fact, by taking an action such as focusing on more positive features of the situation or distracting the self, the individual tries to evade the negative emotion. In cognitive change, the individual tries to interfere with the own cognitive evaluations of the aversive situation. Although defenses such as denial, isolation, and intellectualization as well downward social comparison as a

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positive interpretation of the situation (e.g. comparing self with the less fortunate) fall into this category, the most important cognitive reframing technique is reappraisal. In reappraisal, the individual tries to change the situation cognitively in order to minimize or maximize the emotional impact (Gross, 1998; Gross & Thompson, 2007; Werner & Gross, 2010).

Response-focused ER focuses on the emotion when it has already aroused and refers to modulation of physiological, experiential and behavioral reactions (Gross, 1998; Gross & Thompson, 2007; Werner & Gross, 2010). Suppression as a form of response-focused ER refers to endeavors to erase the emotional experiences and inhibiting emotional expressivity by putting it out of mind. Salters-Pedneault, Steenkamp, and Litz (2010) proclaim that it is the constant use of suppression in a rigid fashion that causes ER failure rather than the infrequent use of suppression, which may be adaptive. These authors further suggest that suppression of emotions is generally followed by a rebound of increased emotionality, which is more pronounced for negative emotions rather than positive ones. In that sense, suppression causes emotion dysregulation and is found to be related with several negative consequences (see also Werner & Gross, 2010 for a review).

Regardless of the fact that ER involves each of these techniques, reappraisal and suppression are the two individual difference variables that yield an opportunity for discerning systematic differences between individuals in the complex ER process (John & Gross, 2004; John & Gross, 2007). In fact, Gross and John (2003) conceptualize reappraisal as the last resort to regulate emotions successfully and suggest that it can alter the rest of ER processes effectively. These authors found that reappraisal is associated with improved well-being, intimacy in close relationships, authenticity, and increased expression of positive and negative emotions as well as with decreased negative affectivity and rumination. In that sense, reappraisal enables individuals to express negative emotions without directing it to partner, and it was related with better recognition of emotions as well as with better emotional clarity and mood repair. Consequently, there was no correlation between suppression and reappraisal (Gross & John, 2003; See also John & Gross, 2007 for a review)

Suppression as an ER strategy reflects an unhealthy way of dealing with emotions, yet with age, emotion control may increase adaptively. Gross and John (2003) found that suppression was associated with low well-being, less experience

and expression of positive affect and with more negative affectivity, self perceptions of inautenticity, rumination, and avoidance of intimacy in close relationships. Additionally, suppression was related with lower clarity of emotions, mood repair, and memory for socially relevant information (see John & Gross, 2004 for a review). However, Gross, Carstensen, Pasupathi, Tsai, Skorpen, and Hsu (1997) found that with increasing age, negative affective experiences decreased whereas positive emotional experiences and emotional control increased. Similarly, John and Gross (2004) showed that as the individuals got older, they applied more of reappraisal and less of suppression in their endeavors to regulate emotions.

In sum, ER is at the center of SR and holds the explanatory potential for the development of the child. Indeed, the transitional changes during adolescence and the associated increased negative affectivity may render ER as the most important mediator in determining adolescent outcomes (Allen, 2008). Furthermore, natural inclination towards low endorsement of reappraisal and frequent use of suppression as well as higher negative affectivity in early years of adulthood (e.g., John & Gross, 2004) may render family relations more important in ER processes for the adolescents. However, the documented literature also suggests that SR as well as recognition and clear understanding of affective experiences may have crucial effects on development. For the sake of parsimony, SR and mood regulation (MR), which is indexed by clarity of affective experiences, the attention to affective experiences, and their repair (i.e., optimistic attitudes towards life; Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turver, & Palfai, 1995) will simultaneously accompany to reappraising and suppressive types of ER in revealing its mediating role in the current study. The current study will also inquire the interplay between these mediators in the long-run.

Given that ER is an integral part of the attachment processes, the first part of the following section outlays the main tenets of attachment theory, the normative development within attachment relations, the development of attachment patterns, ER and the working models of attachment in close relationships. The second part discusses the continuity and discontinuity in attachment representations first, which will be followed by endeavors to solve this controversy through introducing concepts like hierarchical organization of the attachment relations and attachment representations. Finally, in the third part, the role of AR as a potential adhesive in connecting early attachment with later development will be discussed.

1.3 History of Attachment Theory and Attachment through Development

1.3.1 Theoretical Background of Attachment Theory

Attachment theory basically explains how and why an emotional bond is formed between the child and the mother (Cassidy, 2008), yet it proposes a life span perspective on human development (Diamond & Faguendes, 2008). Attachment theory proposes that the harmonious affectional bond constructed between the child and caretaker provides security for the child. Indeed, these feelings of attachment security enable the child to function better psychosocially later in life through enhancing the resilience for future challenges of success, failure, and competition (Thompson, 1998).

Attachment theory has two principal components: The first one comprises the normative, species-typical development of the child by setting the stages passed through the development of attachment system and its organization with other systems. The second one is concerned with the individual differences in attachment patterns and the factors that affect the development of a given pattern (Simpson & Rholes, 1998). Hence, the first part of this section presents normative development of child from attachment perspective, the development of attachment patterns and ER, and further articulates the individual differences of attachment and internal working models or representations of attachment.

1.3.1.1 Normative Development of Attachment Processes

Attachment theory is the collaborative work of Bowlby (1969; 1973) who laid down the basic tenets of attachment theory through consolidating concepts from diverse disciplines, and Mary D. Ainsworth (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978) who supported its propositions through empirical evidence (see Bretherton, 1992 for an extensive review).

Bowlby (1969) suggests that human babies are born with a selectively evolved genetic built-in or instinctive tendency called attachment behavior system. This behavior system monitors proximity of the basic caregiver within felt secure limits called set-goals, thus enhances survival of the child by ensuring protection of the child from danger. The affective attachment bond between the primary caregiver and child develops through several phases. During the first phase, as attachment

system becomes active upon internal or external cues of danger (e.g. illness, fatigue, hunger loud noise, as well as darkness, strangeness), the infant seeks proximity of an undistinguished caregiver. As the infant reaches to 6-months old or the second phase, the proximity-seeking behavior becomes more selectively directed to the primary caregiver whom the infant associates with comfort and stress alleviation (i.e. safe haven). In the third phase, by gaining motor skills to move, the baby learns to use the caregiver as a secure base to explore the environment, and protests separations.

In the final phase of the attachment bond development, the child and caregiver develops goal-corrected partnership in which the child constructs the blueprints of internal working models of attachment based on previous experiences with the caregiver (Ainsworth, 1989; Bowlby, 1969). In this normative development, attachment behaviors transform into information in the form of expectations and beliefs that may guide relationship patterns of the child through life (Bowlby, 1973; Waters, Kondo-Ikemura, Posada, & Richters, 1991).

Bowlby (1969; 1973; Ainsworth, 1989) conceptualizes attachment behavior as one of the systems that reside in humans along with fear, exploration, sexual, parenting, and sociable systems. Cassidy (2008) suggests that all of these behavioral systems are functional in order to increase the survival and reproductive fitness of the human-being. From a general systems perspective, other behavioral systems work together with the attachment behavioral system to reach a dynamic equilibrium and their organization becomes more stable and complex as the child develops to characterize the personality of the individual. (Marvin & Britner, 1999). However, Sroufe and Waters (1977) proclaim that attachment system acts as a stimulant in the organization of these systems by setting the goal of felt security as the yardstick, and determines the balance between proximity-seeking and exploration behavior. It is this emotional process that determines the developmental outcomes for any given human-being.

1.3.1.2 Attachment Patterns in Infancy

Bowlby (1969; 1973) proposes that the availability and the responsiveness of the caregiver lead to a secure relationship between the child and the caregiver and determine the quality of the relationship. However, all of the family-reared children become attached to the mother or to a substitute figure. Hence, in cases where the

caregiver provides less than required availability and responsiveness to the child for inculcating feelings of security in the child, other patterns of attachment behavior develop. Ainsworth and her colleagues (1978) confirmed these patterns through a laboratory procedure called Strange Situation for one-year old babies.

In this procedure, in order to create a mild stressful environment for the infant, a stranger and the caregiver alternately come and leave the room filled with toys. During the procedure, there are two short separations from, and two reunions with the primary caregiver. The procedure ends with the reunion of the caregiver and the child. The important discriminating component of the procedure is the ability of the child to use the caregiver as a secure base to explore the environment when not stressed out, and as a safe haven upon reunion after being stressed out, hence ease of being comforted regardless of the cumulative stress through two sequential separations (Main, Kaplan, & Cassidy, 1985; Sroufe & Waters, 1977).

This procedure revealed three attachment patterns. These patterns classified children into three overarching categories called secure, insecure/ambivalent (also referred as anxious, resistant or preoccupied in the literature) and insecure/avoidance. In the secure category, although the child protests separation, s/he seeks proximity and maintains contact with joy upon reunion devoid of negative affectivity, and resumes exploration/play. The child also comfortably explores the environment in the presence of caregiver. In the insecure/ambivalent category, the infant shows extreme distress upon separation, and anger and resistance to caregiver upon reunion as well as inability to be soothed. Another defining feature of these babies is the restricted exploration even in the presence of caregiver. In the insecure/avoidant category, the infant exhibits active avoidance of caregiver in separation and reunion episodes, and shows excessive exploration. However, Ainsworth et al. (1978) could not categorize one group of children in any systematic attachment pattern and labeled them as unidentified since they exhibited unorganized behavior in response to separations and reunions. Later on, Main et al. (1985) labeled their primary category as insecure/disorganized-disoriented due to the fact that they vacillated between strong proximity seeking and avoidance behaviors, and displayed undirected affect and perplexity.

Actually, these patterns matched closely with the parenting provided by the primary attachment figure. Specifically, the caregivers of secure infants were

sensitive to the signals of the infant, responsive and accessible in times of need, whereas the caregivers of the insecure groups were insensitive to the signals of the infant. However, the insecure/avoidant group had caregivers who had been consistently insensitive, whereas the insecure/ambivalent group had caregivers who had been inconsistent in satisfying these needs (Main et al., 1985), yet the parents in the latter category constantly intruded the exploration attempts of their babies (Cassidy & Berlin, 1994; Selçuk, Günaydın, Sümer, Harma, Salman, Hazan, Doğruyol, & Öztürk, 2010). Based on the available evidence, Cassidy (1994) states that the primary attachment figures also teach their babies the blueprints of ER strategies, which match with each attachment pattern.

1.3.1.3 The Development of Emotion Regulation within Attachment Framework

Cassidy (1994) propose that attachment patterns dwell on the basic goal of maintaining proximity to the attachment figure, thus from a functionalist perspective (Thompson, 1994), this interaction of caregiver behavior and the attachment needs set the goal for ER. In that sense, the secure pattern develops as a result of interactively formed symbolic consent between the attachment figure and the baby about the proximity maintenance, thus reflects the security of the baby in the responsiveness and sensitivity of the caregiver to this agreement.

When such an agreement, which is based on the needs of the child lacks, the baby uses alternative strategies of ER to maintain proximity with the caregiver. Main (1990; cited in Berlin, Cassidy, & Appleyard, 2008) called these as the secondary strategies of attachment in order to reflect the fact that they come into play when the primary strategy of secure attachment is not appropriate. In other words, the child adapts to the caregiving environment and uses ER to manipulate the caregiver by adopting what Cassidy (1994) called maximizing or minimizing strategies. Although temperamental qualities of the baby may engender increased negative affectivity and difficulties in soothing the baby, the ER within the attachment relationship overrides the affects of temperament in determining the outcome (see Cassidy, 1994, for a review).

Within maximizing strategy or the preoccupied attachment, the child maximizes negative affect such as anger, sadness, distress or fear in order to get the attention of the caregiver. This may take a chronic and exaggerated form since

relaxing and soothing may jeopardize the proximity of the inconsistent and unreliable caregiver (Cassidy, 1994). However, this *hyperactivating* behavioral strategy creates constant activation of the attachment system and chronic obsession with the relationship (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2008), which may render other developmental tasks such as exploration less important for the baby. In that sense, Cassidy (1994) suggests that the baby directs all of the attention processes to the negative features of the situation in order to sustain the negative affectivity required to get the attention of the caregiver. According to Mikulincer and Shaver (2008; Cassidy & Berlin, 1994; Shaver & Mikulincer, 2007), this creates attentional biases to perceive even non-threatening contexts as threatening through development and adherence to chronic proximity seeking, which is reinforced with inconsistent rewards of relief and comfort.

Cassidy (1994) proposes that as an alternative secondary strategy of attachment, the minimizing strategy of avoidant babies is characterized with minimal expression of negative affectivity while in contact with the rejecting caregiver. This *deactivating* behavioral strategy of avoidance enables the baby to maintain proximity to the caregiver who holds the power to disrupt the attachment bond all together on increased demands for attention, and the baby enhances his/her chances for survival at the expense of downgrading the attachment relationship. In that sense, the baby keeps the attachment relationship at the minimum intimacy level by withholding negative affectivity as well as positive affectivity. The available evidence supports this conceptualization and shows that infants categorized as insecure/avoidant mask their negative affectivity, which was evident in physiological or observational measures (see Cassidy, 1994 for a review). Shaver and Mikulincer (2007; Cassidy, 1994; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2008) suggest that when proximity seeking is not a viable strategy for ER, chronic self-reliance, suppressing the activation of attachment system, avoiding negative affect and attending to contextual non-threatening cues are endorsed to minimize affective experiences.

Cassidy (1994) articulated that although acquiring the adequate strategies is adaptive in the short-run, the transference of these strategies in other social contexts may create problems in the long-run. Crugnola, Tambelli, Spinelli, Gazzotti, Caprin, and Albizzati (2011) found that ER strategies of 13 month old babies were consistent across social contexts. Specifically, secure babies interacted positively with their

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mothers or a stranger while regulating their emotions, whereas insecure/resistant babies used more of negative social engagement towards mother or the stranger such as shouting, throwing tantrums or objects. Avoidant babies, on the other hand, showed the least of both positive and negative social engagement strategies.

These development patterns of children also show variability in emotions experienced that can be attributed to the accompanying ER patterns. Kochanska (2001) found that the attachment patterns assessed at nine-months was related with discernable experiences of basic emotions of fear, anger and joy starting from 14-months of age and these marked differences increased through development as assessed at 33-months of age. Securely attached babies displayed more joy and less fear and anger especially in contexts that were designed to elicit such emotions (i.e., context congruent emotional experiences). Their development trajectory therefore reflects high joy, low anger, and fear. The anxious babies started with high fear and low joy, and as they grew older these patterns intensified. They also showed incongruent emotional response of fear in response to joyful contexts. The avoidant babies started with lowest fear, anger and joy, and showed marked increases in experiences of fear. The disorganized babies showed the highest increase of anger although their emotional experiences did not differ significantly from babies in other attachment pattern categories at the beginning. The available gender differences suggested that boys experienced anger more through development and girls reacted more with joy to fearful contexts.

Thompson and Goodman (2010) suggest that there is an intricate relation between ER, and understanding of emotions as well as their expressions (see also Werner & Gross, 2010) with systematic and strong ramifications observable in social competence development through years. Eisenberg, Spinrad, and Eggum (2010) proposed that although stable individual differences in ER are discernable starting from one to two years of age, the systematic associations between emotions, ER and social competence are discernable only after preschool years when the children start interacting with peers frequently. In the longitudinal study of Denham, Blair, DeMulder, Levitas, Sawyer, Auerbach-Major, and Queenan (2003), teachers and peers rated three to four years old boys who showed high emotional competence as indexed by emotional expressiveness, ER and emotion knowledge both concurrently and one year later. Furthermore, these boys' expression of high happiness and low

anger or sadness while interacting with peers made them socially competent at five years old.

The review of Thompson (2008) articulates that secure attachment pattern is the underpinning force in the successful development of ER and better emotional understanding, both of which fosters social competence. Several longitudinal studies using the ratings of elementary school teachers found that those children who had been classified as securely attached in infancy, had better understanding of negative emotions (Laible & Thompson, 1998) and were socially competent in the long-term (Simpson, Collins, Tran, & Haydon, 2007). Furthermore, the cross-sectional study of Colle and Del Guidice (2010) on middle childhood children found that secure attachment was associated with higher repertoire of complex ER strategies such as reappraisal. Similarly, Kerns, Abraham, Schlegelmilch, and Morgan (2007) showed that maternal security was associated with better ER and mood regulation whereas disorganized and ambivalent attachments were related with displays of higher negative mood during early adolescence.

The pervasive influence of secure parental attachment may also be traced in determining the perceptions of the self and others, hence renders it vital for the development of personality. The study of Sümer and Anafarta-Şendağ (2009) showed that secure attachment to both parents precluded the emanation of negative affectivity through fostering positive self perceptions. Specifically, they found that secure attachment to both parents were associated with high global self-worth feelings in early adolescents (i.e., children in middle childhood). The authors also found that the indicators of self-perception such as social acceptance, academic competence, and behavioral conduct (i.e., being content with own behavior) mediated the relationship between parental secure attachment and general anxiety level of these children. Similarly, secure parental attachment may also determine the perception of peers that may foster a smooth interaction pattern to cause low negativity. Specifically, for a middle childhood group of children, Lieberman, Doyle, and Markiewicz (1999) showed that secure attachment to parents especially to father was associated with low conflict in children's best friend close peer relationships, and Kerns, Klepac, and Cole (1996) found that securely attached friend pairs exhibited more responsiveness and less criticism when interacting with the best friend as compared to secure-insecure pairs. In that sense, secure attachment not only

restricts emanation of negative affectivity but also fosters social competence, both of which feed back into positive ER as conceptualized by Valiente and Eisenberg (2006).

Social competence has also long term consequences for developing friendships. Simpson et al. (2007) showed longitudinally that social competence in early elementary school mediated the association between early secure attachment classifications peer relationship quality in adolescence. In another study on middle childhood children, Kerns et al. (1996) showed that the peers of children with high maternal secure attachment rated them for being liked more. These secure children also reported more reciprocated friendships and feeling less lonely (Study 1). The meta-analysis of Schneider, Atkinson, and Tardif (2001) showed that the association between attachment quality to parents and peer quality was .25, but this increased as the child got older and when close friendships rather than generalized peer relationships were assessed. In support of this, in an adolescent sample, secure attachment was associated with the chances to forge high quality friendships, whereas own insecurity made others reluctant to form high quality friendships (Fraley & Davis, 1997).

The provided evidence suggests that secure attachment fosters social competence and interactions within friendships, and emotional competence plays an important role in this relationship with more clear-cut results starting with early school years. Furthermore, the secure attachment to both parents may assist ER by decreasing negative affectivity through fostering positive self-perceptions (e.g., Sümer & Anfarta-Şendağ, 2009) as well as through decreasing social interaction problems (e.g., Lieberman et al., 1999). Additionally, in the long-run, social competence or high quality peer relationships may feed back into ER (e.g., Valiente & Eisenberg, 2006). In fact, the reviewed literature also suggests that early secure attachment patterns may determine the quality of friendships during development, hence foster acquisition of additional social resources for ER (Fraley & Davis, 1997).

The transformation of attachment patterns into internal working models of attachments indeed enables these strings of associations as the cognitive capacity of the child develops. These internal working models refer to the elaborate schematic cognitive organization of preliminary forms of interaction with the caregiver and pave the way for further development. Thompson (2008) asserted that emotions

experienced in attachment relationships imbue these elaborate cognitive attachment representations since they are not neutral in nature.

1.3.1.4 Internal Working Models of Attachment

Bowlby (1973) proposes that the child develops working models of the self and the attachment figure to be extrapolated in the form of expectations that may guide own relationship patterns and personality development through life. By this way, the individuals are able to make attributions for the other's behaviors and take actions in line with them. In other words, the working models give meaning to the environment. Hence, these representations have "reality-creating" and "reality-regulating" functions besides its function as reflecting reality. As a result, the working models create defenses to protect themselves, thus their resistance to change increases (Bretherton & Munholland, 1999). Although working models are apt to change through experience due to a change in the environment and family system, they become less sensitive to change after five years of age. From then on these representations are inclined to be stable since expectation of each party in the interaction supports the status quo of the relation through leading the way of taking action (Bowlby, 1969; 1973).

1.3.1.5 Individual Differences in Attachment

Several developments in attachment research moved Attachment Theory into the realm of adulthood. The application of Adult Attachment Interview (Main et al., 1985) moved attachment into the level of representation and laid down the evidence for the intergenerational transmission of attachment patterns. The interview examines the coherence of mind and providing supportive examples for positive and negative experiences with parents in an undefended and convincing manner, which qualify secure style. Following them, Hazan and Shaver's (1987) pioneering study carried attachment research into the research on adult romantic relationships and revealed three category delineation of attachment styles by adapting Ainsworth's (Ainsworth et al., 1978) infant attachment patterns. The categories were usually assessed by self-reported measures and named as secure, avoidant, and anxious/ambivalent.

Following Bowlby's (1973) conceptualization of mental representations or working models of self and the other, Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) suggested a four category model in adult close relationships based on two dimensions in which

model of self was reflected as dependence and model of other was reflected as avoidance, by extending three- category measure of Hazan and Shaver (1987). Dependence being high refers to high dependence on others for maintaining a high positive self-regard or being low refers to a positive self regard, which is based on internal resources. Avoidance being high refers to discomfort with being close to others coupled with avoidance of contact with others in order to prevent aversive consequences of possible rejection. This downside potential stems from the low expectations of others as being accepting and responsive This dimension being low refers to comfort with being close to others and reflects high expectations of others being accepting and responsive.

According to this configuration, there exist four categories. The secure category subsumes qualities like being sociable and a positive self-concept along with the associated positive attributes. Although preoccupied category also reflects a sociable outlook, their high dependence renders them dependent on others for sustaining positive self-regard. Unlike Hazan and Shaver (1987), Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) split the category of avoidance into two; those who are high on avoidance but low on dependence (or attachment anxiety) are categorized as dismissing, while those who are high on both dimensions are categorized as fearful. Although dismissing avoidant ones incorporate positive self-regard, they are crippled in terms of being sociable. On the other hand, fearful ones lack both the ability to be sociable and to sustain positive self-regard internally. Several self report measures, such as Relationship Questionnaire (RQ) or Relationship Scales Questionnaires were developed by Bartholomew and her colleagues to assess four attachment patterns and/or the attachment mental models of self and others (e.g., Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994).

Brennan, Clark and Shaver (1998) converted the categorical approach of Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) into dimensions and replicated the dimensions proposed by Ainsworth in detecting infant attachment patterns (Ainsworth et al., 1978). This measurement tool called Experiences in Close Relationships Inventory (ECR) assesses the two dimensions, namely attachment related anxiety and avoidance in which anxiety dimension corresponds to the model of self and avoidance dimension corresponds to the model of other (Brumbaugh & Fraley, 2006; Fraley & Shaver, 2000). In that sense, the dimensional model also allows to form

categories where secure attachment pattern is reflected as being low on avoidance and anxiety. Yet, Sümer (2006) proposes that the dimensional approach to be more adequate in discerning differences among individuals. All of the above reviewed self-report measures detect generalized attachment orientations of individuals in the romantic relationships realm although they are also used for different relationships by adapting the wording appropriately.

In sum, attachment to parents has implications in diverse realms of development from construction of attachment representations to social competence through development. As reviewed above, the early development of attachment patterns and later individual functioning show close similarity, which enables the researchers to assume continuity of attachment functioning through life span. However, the intriguing questions such as whether attachment system works similarly and how it proceeds through life are topics of debate in attachment literature. The next part aims to clarify these issues and propose some explanations on the nature of attachment functioning and how it may change through development.

1.3.2 Bridging Early Attachment to Later Development

Researchers have puzzled whether the effects of early experiences can be empirically observed later in life and whether attachment orientations are stable or malleable across the life-cycles. Fraley and Shaver (2000) propose that from childhood to adulthood, individuals with different attachment patterns show similar cognitive, affective and behavioral tendencies through developmental trajectories of life. These observed analogies between infant attachment styles and those of adults in close relationships, and the relative stability of working models qualify attachment theory as a framework to adult relationships.

The meta-analysis conducted by Fraley (2002) showed that attachment patterns are expected to be relatively stable through childhood till adolescence since through this period they become highly organized in cognition on the foundations of preliminary cognitions emanating from early experiences. These cognitions act autonomously in subconsciousness leading social interaction processes throughout life, hence they create contexts, which further enable their stability. In that sense, the prototypes of early childhood attachment patterns are defined as attachment style

differences later in life, hence these differences render themselves adequate for attachment research for development periods.

Considering that the degree of continuity is moderate in size, it raises the possibility of change that brings in opposing claims. These claims rest on both the restricted intergenerational transmission of attachment styles and the moderate continuity of attachment patterns from childhood to adulthood. Allen, Boykin McElhaney, Land, Kuperminc, Moore, O'Beirne-Kelly, and Liberman-Kilmer (2003) showed that there existed only low correlation between concurrent maternal and adolescent attachment orientations. Additionally, the meta-analytic evidence in Vice's study (2004) suggested only moderate correlation between early childhood and adulthood attachment patterns and showed that some attachment patterns, such as anxious attachment style, were more prone to change than others.

Allen (2008) claims that attachment system is susceptible to environmental factors such as social or own psychological environments well into adolescence. Indeed, Thomson (2000) and Marvin and Britner (1999) posit that the working models solidifies through the years where children are exposed to different types of relations and individuals may form multiple attachments with significant others, such as mother and the father. Furthermore, changes in the life conditions attachment figure may bring accompanied changes into the development of the attachment patterns (Hamilton, 2000; Levy, Blatt, & Shaver, 1998; Waters & Cummings, 2000). In support of this provision it was shown that mothers and fathers differentially affect different personality aspects of the children (Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Collins & Read, 1990; Shaver, Belsky & Brennan, 2000; Sümer & Anafarta-Şendağ, 2009). Furthermore, Allen et al. (2003) found that the current interaction patterns between adolescent and parents explained adolescent state of mind with regards to attachment up to 40% and that concurrent provision of secure-base by the mother was more influential in determining adolescent attachment orientations than the current attachment orientations of the mother.

In explaining the reasons for the moderate correlation between early attachment patterns and later attachment styles, the hypothesis conceptualizing attachment cognitions as hierarchies and the transfer of attachment needs through development loom large. Hence, the following sections review the related literature.

1.3.2.1 Hierarchies of Attachment

Collins and Read (1994) posit that cognitive representations in adulthood are organized as an interconnected network described as a default hierarchy. At the top of the hierarchy, most general representations reside as an extrapolation of relational experiences with peers and caregivers. At the bottom more specific representations with special others are placed that are connected to general ones through medium level domain-specific representations, such as model of peer relationships and models of parent-child relationships. Several studies have supported the availability of domain-specific attachment representations and a moderate correlation between the domains of parental attachment and peer attachment (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987; Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Ross & Spinner, 2001)

Collins and Read (1994) proposed that the moderate correlation between different domains engenders due to the organization of different behavioral systems in different contexts. Specifically, they suggested that different domains require organization of different behavioral systems, such as caregiving, affiliation and sexuality being incorporated into the attachment system. Indeed, this dynamic organizational process may influence the working models in adulthood (Furman, Simon, Shaffer & Bouchey, 2002; Fraley & Shaver, 2000; Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Marvin & Britner, 1999). Yet the organization of these systems stems from the attachment system (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2003).

In sum, domain-specific attachment representations are related, but this association is only moderate. This requires the identification of the processes that may cause how different domains are related to each other as well as to reveal other factors that may be related to the development of domain-specific representations. Thus, transfer of attachment needs to others through development as an important factor may require special attention.

1.3.2.2 Transfer of Attachment Needs

Another phenomenon to foster the explanation for the moderate correlation between the domains is the fact that through development years, the attachment needs satisfied in infancy by the primary attachment figure transferred onto significant others (Ainsworth, 1989; Fraley & Shaver, 2000). The attachment needs

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consist of proximity seeking, secure base and safe haven functions. In proximity seeking, the individual seeks proximity to the attachment figure and protests separation accompanied with the feelings of distress. In the secure base function, the individual uses attachment figure as a base from which to explore the environment. In the safe haven function, the individual seeks attachment figure as a source of support, comfort and stress alleviation in times of fear or distress (Ainsworth et al., 1978). As these needs are gradually transferred unto other individuals, there exists a hierarchy in which the attachment figures are rank ordered in terms of their relative role in satisfying attachment needs. In this rank order, the attachment figures satisfying the attachment needs the most hold the top place of the hierarchy to be followed by the ones in decreasing importance.

Through development, attachment behaviors of developing human beings to parents change. Although the available research showed that the attachment security to parents decreases with age starting with middle childhood (Sümer & Anafarta-Şendağ, 2009), this decrease represents a decrease in dependency to parents (e.g., asking help from parents) rather than a decreases in trust in their availability (Lieberman et al., 1999). In fact, Rowe and Carnelley (2005) showed that through life as adolescents grew into adulthood, parents, especially mother did not lose the primary role as attachment figures but rather the individuals also considered friends as attachment figures by defining them close to self.

The transfer of attachment needs accompany the change in outward manifestations of attachment behavior to parents starting with middle childhood. Through the years of development, it was shown that human beings transfer satisfaction of their attachment functions from primary attachment figures to peers first and then to romantic partners (Hazan & Zeifman, 1994; Fraley & Davies, 1997; Trinke & Bartholomew, 1997). The literature review of Zeifman and Hazan (2008) suggests that during childhood years, the preference for peers attests the transference of proximity seeking needs. Kerns et al. (1996; Study 2) also showed that securely attached children reported that high companionship (i.e., proximity seeking) characterized their close peer relationships. As the child grows into adolescence, the safe haven needs are also transferred to peers (Zeifman & Hazan, 2008). Actually, in several researches, the adolescents and adults rated their friends as satisfiers of safe

haven and proximity seeking functions (Hazan & Zeifman, 1994; Fraley & Davis, 1997; Trinke & Bartholomew, 1997).

The reviewed literature suggests that peer relations during childhood and adolescence may only qualify as affiliative relationships (Markiewicz, Lawford, Doyle, & Haggart, 2006; Zeifman & Hazan, 2008). In that sense, as an indication of deviance from normative trends, both age inappropriate transfer or attachment needs and the complete transfer of needs in an early age may indicate some problems. Specifically, Kerns et al. (1996) found that the secure-insecure close peer pairs (girls but not boys) reported the highest level of intimacy in their relationships as compared to secure-secure pairs. Similarly, Diamond and Faguendes (2008) found that complete transfer of attachment needs to peers during adolescence was associated with disturbed ER and adjustment problems. These findings suggest that parental insecurity fosters transfer of safe haven needs to peers before transfer of proximity seeking needs as early as middle childhood, and promotes complete transfer of needs to peers in adolescents.

In sum, the parental attachment and peer attachment representations may be correlated only moderately due to two reasons. First, the organization of behavioral systems may differ in these two domains. Second, regardless of the fact that the reorganization may accommodate some needs of attachment, it is just a rudimentary reflection of full-blown attachment transfer (complete transfer of attachment needs) that will take place with the introduction of a lifetime partner later on (Zeifman & Hazan, 2008). In line with this, the current study aims to investigate the effects of both parental attachment security and the attachment needs transfer on adolescence adjustment measures and security in peer attachment representations.

The process detailing how the hierarchy of attachment representations or transfer of attachment proceeds, however, is not clear. Although the hierarchical nature of attachment representations suggests the generalized attachment representations as the mediator between attachment domains, Mikulincer and Shaver (2008) proclaim that attachment organization is actually an AR style, which may influence all aspects of personality. Actually, the reviewed developmental psychology literature within the framework of attachment discerns close associations between parental attachment and development of emotional understanding, AR, and social competence as well as child problems. Similarly, a more refined perspective

by Allen and Miga (2010) suggests that attachment to primary caregivers is the most proximal determinant of ER, which can be an adhesive enabling continuity from early attachment to later development. Hence, the next part reviews literature on attachment as an AR style, and further articulates it as a mediator between parental attachment and attachment transfer, and adolescent outcomes.

1.3.3 Affect Regulation within Attachment Framework

1.3.3.1 Individual Differences in Affect Regulation

Collins and Allard (2001) suggest that cognitive, affective and behavioral reactions are intertwined into the content and organization of internal working models. Although working models are organized as hierarchies to reflect different attachment styles in domain and specific-attachment relationships, the chronically endorsed attachment goals determine their organization and the threshold for the activation of attachment system. The available research supports this hierarchical organization in which domain representations subsume the relational schemas, and generalized working models of attachment subsume domain-specific representations (e.g., Overall, Fletcher, & Friensen, 2003). In this process, affective experiences act like a glue to subsume different experiences in life rather than their semantic content (Collins & Read, 1994; Pietromarco & Barrett, 2000). Furthermore, attachment relationships determine the dominant emotions accompanying each attachment strategy (e.g., Kochanska, 2001) and they increase the chances of the chronic style to be triggered upon the perception of similar affect due to perceptional biases (Collins & Read, 1994; Pietromarco & Barrett, 2000).

The dominant affective experiences of each attachment group are in fact discernible throughout life. The seminal study of Kobak and Sceery (1988) showed that the affective experiences of late adolescents with different attachment orientations with respect to parents were very similar to those of babies with different early attachment patterns. Specifically, the peers of secure adolescent reported them as having lower levels of hostility as compared to dismissing ones and lower levels of anxiety as compared to insecure ones. The peers of dismissing adolescents, on the hand, rated them as being highest in hostility as compared to all other groups although they had anxiety lower than the anxious group. The peers of the anxious group rated them the highest on anxiety level.

These chronic emotional experiences also shape the cognitive mapping of affect. Mikulincer and Orbach (1995) showed that secure individuals displayed relative ease in recalling negative emotional memories of early childhood. This indicates moderate levels of defensiveness, yet they experienced low levels of anxiety in this memory recalling process. Furthermore, they reported experiencing most dominant domain-congruent emotions such as anxiety, sadness or anger, and they rated the non-dominant emotions as being low. This findings suggested that secure individuals showed a highly differentiated patterns of emotional structure, which did not allow the dominant emotion in one episode (e.g., sadness from sad memory) to activate other negative non-dominant emotions (e.g., anger in recalling a sad episode).

Mikulincer and Orbach (1995) also showed that different configurations of affect accompanied insecurity. The avoidant people reported moderate levels of anxiety and high repression in recalling early negative memories due to the fact that they had the longest retrieval time. Although like their secure counterparts the memories recalled reflected only the dominant emotions being congruent with the episode, they reported the least intensity of both dominant and non-dominant emotions. In that sense, their AR was based on repression of negative memories that was evident in the hard time recalling them, and their emotional structure reflected nondifferentiated defensiveness towards negative emotions. On the other hand, the anxious-ambivalent participants displayed highest anxiety and lowest levels of repression in memory recall, and accessed easily to painful memories, especially the ones with high anxiety and sadness. Their emotional structure suggested a close connection between negative emotions since their dominant emotions in negative experiences activated other non-dominant emotions also. Hence, this nondifferentiated pattern of negative emotions overwhelmed them by intense negative emotions.

Gilliath, Bunge, Shaver, Wendelken, and Mikulincer (2005) showed that these affective configurations were also evident in the neural brain structure of insecure women. The brain structures of anxious women reflected an intense activation in the region of negative emotions and low levels of activation in regions for ER upon experiencing negative emotions while recalling them. Also, they had greater access to negative memories that was evident in activation of the wider

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region of the brain on negative emotionality. On the other hand, avoidant women were unable to deactivate crucial parts of brain for ER even when they did not experience negative emotions, and were also unable to increase activation of ER regions required especially for the successful suppression of negative emotions. In that sense, their neural brain structure reflected dysregulation of emotions rather than experiencing intense negativity upon exposure to them.

These emotional structures and dominant emotional experiences suggest that there are actually systematic differences between these groups for employing AR. In a related study, Kobak, Cole, Ferenz-Gillies, Fleming, and Gamble (1993, Study 1) showed that these attachment groups employed different AR strategies, similar to secure, maximizing and minimizing strategies observed in infancy (Cassidy, 1994). In fact, the secure group employed the primary attachment strategy labeled as secure patterns (e.g., primary strategy) whereas preoccupied ones resorted to hyperactivating strategy and avoidant ones resorted to the deactivating strategy. This finding accompanied with the finding that attachment system got activated due to the perceived threat to the self regardless of the attachment style (Mikulincer, Birnbaum, Woddis, & Nachimas, 2000), suggested that the inculcated attachment styles continued to lead the lives of individuals even later in life (Shaver & Mikulincer, 2002).

Selçuk et al. (2010) extended the conceptualization of Main et al. (1985) and showed that the generalized attachment representations of the mothers even in the romantic realm were closely associated with their sensitivity to their children's signals. Specifically, high maternal avoidance in marital relationships was associated with low maternal sensitivity and high discomfort with closeness and interpersonal distance even when the age and temperament of the child were controlled. On the other hand, high maternal anxiety was associated with low sensitivity. However, when child age and temperament were controlled for, this effect was not significant, which might indicate the inconsistent sensitivity to offspring associated with anxious attachment (e.g., Cummings & Cummings, 2002). This study suggests that the trigger of attachment system yields consistent patterns among different relational realms, and leads to the conclusion of an underlying mechanism that directs observable behavior.

Similarly, these strategies are also perceived in social interactions of adolescents even where attachment system is not supposed to be activated. Specifically, the study of Kobak et al. (1993) showed that in working together with their mothers in a problem-solving task, the secure adolescents employed constructive ER by using anger functionally and engaging in solving the problem. They displayed a balanced assertiveness accompanied with using emotions as a vehicle to accomplish the task. The dismissing adolescent employed a dysfunctional ER by using anger to distance self from the mother, being submissive and avoiding to solve problems. They also found that males employed a more active strategy to distance mother through anger whereas females were passive to let the mother take the lead in problem solving. Similarly, the study of Zimmerman, Maier, Winter, and Grossman (2001) showed that the secure attachment orientation was related to cooperation with best friend in solving a difficult problem despite high feelings of frustration, confusion and helplessness, in a group of adolescents. They also showed that avoidant attachment orientation was related with uncooperative behavior and distancing from the best friend upon high negativity.

Shaver and Mikulincer (2002) suggest a process model to explain the workings of attachment system as a vehicle to regulate affect. Upon the activation of the attachment system by threat detection (e.g., Mikulincer et al., 2000) in the first phase, the system monitors the viable regulation alternatives. In this second phase, secure individuals deal with this threat by either actively seeking proximity to close others or activating secure schemas of attachment even when close others are not physically available. This available secure base enables them to focus on problem-solving, actively coping with distress and resort to constructive ER such as reappraisal (Shaver & Mikulincer, 2007; see also Mikulincer & Shaver, 2008). In this process, they apply various coping mechanism in a flexible manner and they are tuned on to reality to regulate affect that enables them to revise existing schemas when required. In that sense, they have clarity of emotions, which enables them to recognize, evaluate and process even negative affect (Mikulincer & Florian, 2004). Their belief in personal competence for overcoming life obstacles and their coherent self-structure fosters their capacity to deal with stress without the actual presence of attachment figures. These qualities render strategic cognitive and affective maneuvers unnecessary (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2008).

Shaver and Mikulincer (2002) suggested that when secure schema activation is not a viable option, it invokes alternative strategies. In the hyperactivating strategy, proximity-seeking is still a viable option. In that sense, the anxious individuals show high efforts for proximity-seeking, which cause them to become preoccupied with attachment figures, hence vigilant to cues of rejection and unavailability of attachment figures. This interferes with their problem-solving capacities and undermines successful AR processes through overwhelming flow of emotions to increase anxiety even more. Through repeated experience, this process leads to a low threshold for threat detection and to bias the perception of threat in non-threatening situations (Mikulincer & Florian, 2004). Thus, in hyperactivating strategy, the attachment system is constantly active even when the contextual cues are neutral (Mikulincer et al., 2000), and this is very similar to the maximizing strategy used by infants in order to get the attention of attachment figures (Cassidy, 1994; Cassidy & Berlin, 1994). Furthermore, they are characterized with a pessimistic outlook towards overcoming stressful situations, hence are overwhelmed with feelings of helplessness (Mikulincer & Florian, 2004).

When proximity-seeking is not a viable alternative at all, the deactivation strategy comes into play as in the case of avoidant people (Shaver & Mikulincer, 2002). They mostly apply distancing strategies to keep the stress in a distance from the self. Hence, they lack clarity of emotions caused by suppression of negative emotions, which leads these feelings to display themselves somatically or appear in a dissociated manner. Although they present themselves as self-reliant and autonomous in coping with distress, hence avoid support seeking, these brittle feelings of mastery easily break under extreme stress that causes them to act like anxious-ambivalent ones (Mikulincer & Florian, 2004; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2008).

The recapitulation of the foregoing section suggests that each attachment style in regulating affect is systematically related to individual differences in AR. Secure individuals apply each ER technique successfully rendering response-focused regulations (Gross, 1999) unnecessary, and they are expected to use the technique of reappraisal effectively (Shaver & Mikulincer, 2007) as well as the cognitive safe haven through cognitive access to close others to reduce distress (McGowan, 2002). This mechanism may unfold differently for insecure individuals. Shaver and Mikulincer (2007) conclude that since the goal of anxious individuals is to get the

attention and support of attachment figures by heightening negative affectivity, it renders problem solving or other types of ER techniques irrelevant. Indeed, they probably use cognitive reframing in order to increase negativity by focusing on negative aspects of the situation. Furthermore, their negative self models render cognitive activation of close others more disruptive by increasing their distress level (McGowan, 2002). Their anxiety becomes intensified throughout the ER process and restricts the employment of neither reappraisal nor suppression (Shaver & Mikulincer, 2007). On the other hand, although avoidant individuals deal with negative emotions primarily by not encoding them from the beginning (Fraley, Garner, & Shaver, 2000b), they may not employ distancing when they experience extreme distress, hence resort to suppression rather than reappraisal (Mikulincer & Florian, 2004).

In addition to the different applications of ER, attachment strategies are related with other AR indices such as attention to affective experiences, clarity of emotions and optimistic attitudes towards life. Hence, secure attachment strategy is expected to associate with high levels of these indices to reflect high levels of AR. On the other hand, whereas anxious strategy may be related with low clarity of affective experiences and pessimistic attitude towards life, and high attention to affective states, avoidant attachment may be related with low clarity of affects and attention to affective states. The association between avoidant attachment and optimistic outlook of life is less conclusive, however, a logical conclusion suggests that their attitude towards life is less optimistic that secure individuals. Furthermore, these attachment strategies may also be associated with SR, in the sense that solving problems requires regulation and control of self. The willingness of secure and avoidant individuals to minimize negative affectivity in life suggests that they may also have high levels of generalized SR. On the other hand, the tendency of anxious strategy to disregard problem solving may suggest that it is associated with low levels of SR.

The close association between attachment strategies and regulatory processes through development and adulthood render them as the vehicle that carries the effects of parental attachment and attachment needs transfer on adolescent outcomes. The current study aims at documenting the mediating effects of these processes both concurrently and longitudinally. Hence, the following section discusses the

mediating role of AR. However, the parenting section will review the mediating role of general SR within the framework of SDT.

1.3.3.2 The Mediating Role of Affect Regulation

From the perspective of Attachment Theory, adolescence is a period in which cognitive, emotional and behavioral systems thus far organized around attachment relationships go through profound transformations. These transformations may activate the attachment system of adolescents to a frustrating point where secure attachment to parents may buffer such relationship undermining behavior (Allen, 2008). However, the mediating role of AR between attachment and outcome measures are evident starting from early years of development.

The available literature provides evidence for the mediating role of coping through development. Contreras, Kerns, Weimer, Gentzer, and Tomich (2000) found that the child-mother attachment security of fifth graders was associated with peer competence, and this association was partially mediated by constructive coping style of the child. This mediation was significant despite the fact that the data for each construct is collected from different reporters. Furthermore, this mediation was significant for children with high temperamental negative affectivity but not for the ones with low negative affectivity. In this sense, even if the child is prone to negative affectivity, the ability to cope with it hinders its potential to disturb peer competence and this ability develops in the context of parent-child relationship. In their study on adults, Wei, Heppner, and Mallinckrodt (2003) showed that generalized attachment anxiety and avoidance were related with decreased self-efficacy perceptions in solving problems. Specifically, high levels of anxiety and avoidance led people to perceive self as incapable of solving the problems and coping with them. Although perceived coping fully mediated the relationship between anxiety and psychological distress, it mediated this relation partially for avoidance. High avoidance was also directly related to higher psychological distress. However, as mentioned by Gross and Thompson (2007), coping is not similar to ER despite some overlaps.

Cooper, Shaver, and Collins (1998) demonstrated the mediating role AR between categorically measured generalized attachment styles and problem behavior as well as educational aspiration for a group of adolescents between the ages of 13 to 19. Specifically, secure adolescents had low depression, anxiety and hostility, and

high socially competence, all of which mediated the effect of secure attachment on positive overall social adjustment. The high levels of depression and hostility of anxiously attached participants mediated the association between of anxious-ambivalent attachment and high involvement in risky behavior and low educational aspirations. Although their anxiety levels also made them reluctant to get involved in these behaviors, their high level of hostility overcame the effects of anxiety, and increased the probability of them getting in risky behavior. Despite their high levels of depression and hostility, the avoidant individuals refrained from risky behavior and had low levels of educational aspirations since they had high anxiety and the lowest level of social competence.

Shaver and Mikulincer (2002) articulated that the avoidant category in the categorical measurement scale of Hazan and Shaver (1987) actually reflects a fearful attachment style. A research on early development showed that fearfulness of the baby was related with committed compliance with the caregiver. Namely, through development from 14 months to 45 months, the fearful babies showed an increased trend in obeying to the caregiver that was generalized to other contexts and other social interaction partners (Kochanska, Coy, & Murray, 2001). Actually, these findings support the results of Cooper et al. (1998) to deduce the result that fearful attachment makes the observation of problematic behaviors less likely.

These studies show the close connection between generalized attachment styles outcome measures and the mediating role of AR. However, the mediating role of AR between attachment to parents and outcome measures are less conclusive. In filling this gap, an experimental study of Mikulincer, Hischberger, Nachimas, and Gillath (2001) showed that the subliminal activation of secure-base schema increased the experienced positive affect, which in turn predicted positive evaluations of unrelated stimuli even in stressful contexts. This systematic effect was not found through different experiments for subliminal activation of positive primes of other kinds such as subliminal introduction of positive pictures.

Diamond and Faguendes (2008) showed the mediating role of disturbed AR between attachment insecurity, especially avoidant attachment to parents and adolescent problems (e.g., attentional, internalizing and externalizing problems). Dysfunctional AR was evident in suppression, low clarity of emotions and attention to the emotions, and pessimistic attitudes towards life, which was primarily related

with recovery from negative affectivity. The authors also found that complete transfer of attachment to peers was related to externalizing problems via disturbed AR processes except for suppression. Furthermore, peer-orientation (i.e., complete transfer of attachment needs to peers) was associated with higher exploration behavior and dependency. Additionally, for these adolescents, there was a main effect of parental insecurity on internalizing problems, depression and low quality of life. The authors claimed that complete transfer of attachment to peers during mid-adolescence was not normative, and this phase of development still required the use of parents as secure base figures. Furthermore, the adolescents who were able to use both parents and peers to satisfy attachment needs, in other words, broadened their attachment network, showed high levels of exploration behavior and low levels of dependency as well as low internalization and externalization problems.

In sum, attachment to parents is important for the internalizing and maintenance of effective AR through development (e.g., Kerns, Tomich, & Kim, 2006). Similarly, transfer of attachment needs may also influence the regulation of affect. Although the research inquiring its mediating role is rather circumstantial due to scarce available research (e.g., Diamonds & Faguendes, 2008), especially ER is very important in determining social and peer competence as well as externalizing and internalizing problems through childhood and adolescence. Furthermore, the evidence suggests that social competence predicts secure peer representations of attachment longitudinally (Simpson et al., 2007). Furthermore, high quality peer relationships may restrict negative affectivity (e.g., Kerns et al., 1996; Lieberman et al., 1999) to foster ER further (Valiente & Eisenberg, 2006) In sum, in the current study, it is expected that high parental security and normative transfer of attachment needs to peers in adolescence period such as proximity seeking and safe haven with a balanced attachment orientation to parents and peers will be associated with high AR and SR. Moreover, high levels of AR will mediate their relation on adolescent outcomes, namely high adjustment and secure peer representations. Additionally, secure parental attachment and balanced transfer of attachment needs may also be directly related to healthy adjustment and secure peer relationships, both of which may mediate their effects on AR longitudinally.

Parental attachment may only be one of the factors that determine the emotional family environment to determine regulatory processes (Morris et al.,

2007). Hence, the next sections review literature on other factors, which determine the emotional family environment, starting with parenting to be followed by marital conflict.

1.4 Parenting

1.4.1 Parenting and Adolescence as a Developmental Period

The adolescence period has been conceptualized differently through the years. During the first decades of 20th century, the pervasive conceptualization was that adolescence was a period where the adolescent should gain full independence from parents. Under the influence of psychoanalytic tradition, adolescence was perceived as a period characterized with high conflict between the family and the adolescent as the adolescent tried to gain independence from parents. This detachment process was accepted as a nominal or optimal experience. Steinberg (1990) claimed that this tradition considered the dysfunctional families as the reference point. Hence, he reviewed the gradual transformation of this negative conceptualization of adolescence into a more positive one. According to the new conceptualization that takes "normal families" as the reference point, the adolescents strive to gain autonomy but not independence from parents, and the conflict in the family sprang from trivial rather than major issues. In fact, he stated that the so called concept of 'generation gap' representing a major breach between generations in terms of attitudes and values were overrated, and the paramount mission of parents is to foster autonomy as well as relatedness in adolescents.

Such a conceptualization suggests a parallel transformation in conceptualization of parenting. Although in early and middle childhood, power assertion of parents may be instrumental in making the child obey the rules, through the developmental years, Baumrind (1968) suggested that open communication and reasoning should replace direct control and use of power. Indeed, as adolescents become more independent from parents, parents' ability to control the social context of adolescents diminishes where monitoring should replace direct supervision.

In conclusion, it is important how the conceptualization of parenting changed through the years to follow the change in the conceptualization of adolescence. Hence, the next part will outlay the difficulties and ambiguities encountered through this transformation process and the contemporary understanding of parenting.

1.4.2 Historical perspectives on parenting

Parenting is conceptualized as a vehicle by which parents try to socialize their children in accord with their own goals. The socialization goals may vary from specific to more global ones (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). The distinction between parenting practices and parenting styles suggest that the former relates to achievement of specific goals such as academic achievement or other valued accomplishment in the part of child, thus representing context dependent parental behavior. Darling and Steinberg (1993) suggest that the latter relates to general parental attitudes toward the child that create an emotional context, which enhances the internalization of these socialization goals, hence is independent of the content. Maccoby and Martin (1983) define these general parenting goals as the ability to sustain relatedness with other people and to be productive without any hindrance due to pathologies.

The typology of Baumrind (1968; 1991) was the first parsimonious approach for conceptualizing parenting styles in reaching the goal of balancing between societal and individual needs and responsibilities successfully (Darling & Steinberg, 1993). Her research distinguished three parenting typologies; authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive. These typologies were the different configurations of two parental qualities, namely responsiveness and demandingness. Responsiveness refers to parental support, attunement and acceptance of child's demands and needs in order to induce individuality, self-assertion and SR. Demandingness refers to the parental claims on the child to be an integrated member of the family by using supervision, control, demands of maturity, and confrontation of the child when disobedient. (Baumrind, 1968; 1991; 1996). In fact, these styles are a combination of the degree of freedom granted to the child and control over the activities of the child in an age appropriate manner. Being high in both dimensions, the authoritative families fosters both autonomous will of the child and conformity to set rules, and uses both reason and power to do so. Open communication between parent and child as well as consideration characterizes authoritative parenting style. Baumrind (1991) found that the adolescents from authoritative family were socially responsible,

academically competent, individuated, resilient and optimistic, and had a perception of their parents as loving and influential.

Baumrind (1968; 1991) found that different configurations of these dimensions gave rise to other styles. Parents with the authoritarian style act in a restrictive manner characterized with shaping, controlling and evaluating the attitudes and behavior of the child according to an absolute set of standards with high valuation of complete obedience to the point of crushing the will of the child. They also lacked care and consideration towards the child. In other words, they displayed high demandingness accompanied with low responsiveness. The parents with permissive style act in a permissive manner without any definitely set standards and make few demands on the child to act in a responsible and self-regulated manner. Yet, they display affectionate and caring behavior with consideration, namely they were low in demandingness and high in responsiveness. However, they both produced less than optimum outcomes with the authoritarian parenting producing worse outcomes; low levels of individuation, autonomy, academic competence, and social consciousness and high external locus of control. The adolescents from authoritarian families additionally had internalization problems whereas the ones from permissive families had the inclination to use illegitimate drugs to reflect externalization problems.

The work of Maccoby and Martin (1983) reconceptualized Baumrind's (1968) typology into dimensions where the permissive parenting distinguished into two; indulgent and negligent. Although indulgent parenting was similar to the conceptualization of permissive parenting of the foregoing typology, the negligent parenting consisted of low demandingness and responsiveness. Actually this type of parenting, which included rejection of the child or neglecting of child responsibilities completely, was associated with the worst outcomes in the child. Specifically, these adolescents had high externalization problems, very low SR, social responsibility and social competence, and were antisocial with high consumption of illegal drugs (Baumrind, 1991).

These seminal findings created a controversy whether parental control was beneficial or detrimental to child development, until the dimensional approach of Schaefer (1965a; 1965b) distinguished between firm control and psychological autonomy granting (Barber, 2002). Schaffer (1965a; 1965b) factor analyzed several

parenting behavior in an attempt to distil them into more refined dimensions, thus developed an index of parenting called the Children's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI). His endeavors produced three overarching orthogonal dimensions of parenting, namely acceptance versus rejection, autonomy versus psychological control, and firm control versus lax control. The acceptance versus rejection dimension consisted of positive evaluation sharing, expression of affection, emotional support, and equalitarian treatment on the positive pole, and ignoring, neglect, and rejection on the negative pole. The dimension of psychological autonomy versus psychological control consisted of intrusiveness, suppression of aggression, control through guilt, and parental direction. The firm control versus lax control dimension consisted of punishment and strictness on the firm control pole, and lax control and extreme autonomy on the lax control pole.

1.4.2 Dimensional Approach to Parenting

Grolnick and Gurland (2002) claim that according to decades long evidence, parenting may be subsumed under two primary dimensions, namely warmth or involvement and parental control. Steinberg (1990) suggested that each of these dimensions was related with different child outcomes and required close scrutiny, hence a dimensional approach was necessary for a more elaborated picture of the effects of parenting on child outcomes. Furthermore, the typological approach may reveal different outcomes in different cultures (Chao, 1994; 2001), thus it indicates that different dimensions of parenting may have important implications within a given culture (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2007; Sümer, Gündoğdu-Aktürk, & Helvacı, 2010). In that sense, Grolnick and Gurland (2002) articulate that the application of SDT framework into developmental literature provide the theoretical base to the empirically revealed dimensions of parenting.

Grolnick and Gurland (2002) also state that although different dimensions of parenting may be associated with different child outcomes, such parenting should be conceptualized as consistent across caregivers because the satisfaction of the aforementioned psychological needs are not restricted to only one distinguished caregiver. Hence, the present study adapts such an approach and articulates maternal and paternal parenting as the determinants of family context. The following parts review these dimensions and their possible outcomes, and documents the outcomes

of paternal and maternal parenting when necessary. Additionally, this section delineates SDT framework in explaining the mediating role of SR between parenting and developmental outcomes.

1.4.3.1 Parental Warmth vs. Rejection

The literature is replete with evidence that not only the existence or lack of parental warmth but also the existence of parental rejection may engender different child outcomes. The review of Farrington, Ullrich, and Salekin (2010) suggest that neglect, rejection and harsh parenting consisting of physical punishment increase the risk of child and adolescent psychopathology, which is an overarching definition for being antisocial and impulsive or having conduct and delinquency problems. Furthermore, rejection is also related with emotion dysregulation (Grolnick & Farkas, 2002; Morris et al., 2007) and both internalization and externalization problems in adolescents (Muris, Meesters, & van der Berg, 2003; Nishikawa, Sundbom, & Hägglöf, 2010). On the other hand, for adolescents, parental warmth was related with social initiative, positive attitudes towards interpersonal relationships, social competence, lower levels of depression (Barber, Stolz, & Olsen, 2005), higher self-esteem (Finkenauer, Engels, & Baumeister, 2005; Güngör,2000; Nishikawa et al., 2010), decreased internalization and externalization problems (Finkenauer et al., 2005; Güngör, 2000; Muris et al., 2003) as well as better self-control (Finkenauer et al., 2005), and regulation of behavior and emotion through fostering mutual positive interactions (Grolnick & Farkas, 2002; Morris et al., 2007). Indeed, the primary function of parental warmth is the inculcation of parental values into the child (Grolnick et al., 1997; Grolnick & Gurland, 2002).

Grolnick et al. (1997) proclaim that within the SDT framework, as the child develops in an emotionally positive context due to parental warmth, which satisfies the need for relatedness, the child's latitude for accepting of parents' endeavors to transfer their existing values into the child increases. Several studies supported this conceptualization and showed that the achievement of emotional autonomy without emotional support is associated with more negative self-views and feelings of lower perceived loveworthiness as well as decreased well-being (Ryan & Lynch, 1989; Soenens, Vansteenkiste, Lens, Luyckx, Goossens, Beyers, & Ryan, 2007). However, secure attachment and warmth may both satisfy the need for relatedness and foster

regulation of self, emotions and behaviors (Grolnick et al., 1997; Grolnick & Farkas, 2002).

Attachment literature usually perceives warmth and attachment being synonymous with each other regardless of the fact that they may in fact be orthogonal (Cummings & Cummings, 2002; MacDonald, 1992). In fact, MacDonald (1992; Cummings & Cummings, 2002) suggests that attachment system organization develops around fear, anxiety and disturbance, whereas the affectional system emanating parental warmth dwells on gratification and acts as a rewarding and motivational tool. These conceptualizations proclaim that these are two distinct emotional organizations of positive and negative affect. Actually, Cummings and Cummings (2002; Waters & Cummings, 2000) claim that rather than being a parent-child relationship dimension, attachment refers to the relative effectiveness of the parent to provide felt security to the child when stressed out. According to MacDonald (1992), despite the rapid construction of attachment bond whether secure or insecure, the simultaneous occurrence of parental warmth behavior along with it may change according to the culture or even the type of attachment classification.

Richaud de Minzi's (2006) study on the Argentinean children in their middle and late childhood revealed that attachment to parents and parent-child relationship styles were different constructs and positive parent-child relationship explained more variance than attachment to parents in children's social competence, which was conceptualized as the feelings of being accepted by others. Furthermore, both secure attachment to parents and acceptance by parents were associated with academic competence positively and with feelings of loneliness and depression negatively in this sample. Additionally, the analysis depicted the important roles fathers play in this developmental phase especially when the paternal aspects were negative.

1.4.3.2 Parental Control

Following the factor analytic solution of Schaffer (1965a; 1965b), Steinberg (1990) acknowledged that parental control should be conceptualized as two distinct forms of control; psychological and behavioral controls. Steinberg (1990) proclaimed that although psychological control was detrimental for the development of child's psychological competence and self-direction, the children needed parental behavioral control since it ensured the protection of the child from exposure to developmentally

available dangers and temptations. In disentangling the controversy in parental control, Grolnick and Gurland (2002) suggest that the psychological control may refer to such parenting as being controlling whereas behavioral control may refer to such parenting as being in control. Furthermore, Steinberg (1990) suggested that availability or absence of each dimension, which were psychological autonomy and behavioral control or demandingness, was related with different child outcomes. Hence the following sections inquire these two meaningful sub-dimensions of parenting control.

1.4.3.2.1 Psychological Control

Barber and Harmon (2002) define psychological control as the parent's psychological manipulation of the emotional relation between the parent and the child, and as the intrusion of the parent into the psychological world of the child in order to control child's thoughts and feelings. In that sense, the primary aim of the parent is to keep own parental position and psychological status in relation to the child. For such an end, parent may use two main overarching types of behavior, which are manipulative and constraining. Manipulative parental control consists of maneuvers such as guilt induction, love withdrawal and instilling anxiety. Constraining parental control, on the other hand, refers to parenting which restricts the child's verbal expression or devalues it, personal attack to the child, erratic emotional behavior and high parental expectations of the child (Barber, 1996; Barber, 2002; Barber & Harmon, 2002).

Within the SDT framework, the autonomy support satisfies the need for autonomy where the children regulate their behavior more effectively and internalize such behavior (Grolnick et al., 1997). Furthermore, autonomy support may induce children to practice SR without the side effects of anxiety, worry, and defensive coping (Grolnick & Gurland, 2002). Muraven et al. (2007) showed that autonomy granting preserve the internal self resources required to control the self in order to execute a depleting task, hence enabled these individuals to persevere self-control in subsequent tasks. Comparatively, the individuals whose autonomy was restricted performed poorly in the subsequent task. Autonomy support fosters interest in the task, creativity, cognitive activity, positive emotionality, more favorable perception of others in achievement contexts. It also increases self-esteem and decreases

aggressive behavior in interpersonal contexts (Deci & Ryan, 1987). In their cross-cultural study of adolescents, Barber et al. (2005; Barber, 1996) found that psychological control was related to both internalization (e.g. depression) and externalization (e.g. antisocial behavior) problems (see contradictory findings in the part "Parenting Dimensions, Child Outcomes, and Culture").

In their review, Grolnick and Farkas (2002; see also Morris et al., 2007) concluded that that parents who try to control the emotions of children, disturb the natural course of emotional flow, hence actually interfere with the internalization of autonomous ER and make them emotionally dependent. Several studies showed that psychological control was associated with low ER (Manzeske, & Dopkins-Stright, 2009) with disturbed SR (Moilanen, 2007), and a higher prevention focus (e.g. preventing negative experiences) as a motivation to regulate self (Doğruyol, 2008).

1.4.3.2.2 Parental Behavioral Control

The subsequent research clarified that the parental psychological and behavioral controls have distinct patterns and outcomes (e.g. Steinberg, Elmen, & Mounts, 1989). The confusion emanated from the fact that parental demandingness may be exercised through either providing structure for the child or setting inflexible standards to be complied strictly without taking into account the needs of the child. In fact, Barber et al. (2005) showed that for the phase of adolescence the former type of demandingness coincided with monitoring child behavior and acquiring knowledge about them to support the findings of Baumrind (1968; 1991).

Parental behavior control, which transforms into parental monitoring and knowledge in adolescence, is in fact beneficial for the psychosocial development of children and adolescents. Dishon and McMahon (1998) conceptualize parental monitoring as the parenting practices, which constitute paying attention to and active surveillance of the whereabouts, activities and adaptations of children. The studies of Brown, Mounts, Lamborn, and Steinberg (1993) and Dishon, Patterson, Stoolmiller, and Skinner (1991) found that parental monitoring diminished the chances to be involved with antisocial or deviant peers during middle childhood and adolescence (see Grolnick & Farkas, 2002 for review).

Kerr and Stattin (2000) revealed a new companion of parental monitoring, namely parental knowledge, which refers to how parents acquire the knowledge

about their children. Although the previous conceptualization of parental monitoring suggested it to be something parents do, subsequent research proved that children should also be involved actively in this process, thus parental monitoring is almost useless if it is not accompanied with parental knowledge (Crouter & Head, 2002; Stattin & Kerr, 2000). In that sense, high parental knowledge may in fact reflect the history of positive parent-child relationship, in which the adolescent feels confident to disclose self, thus provides efficiency to surveillance efforts of the parents. Barber and associates (1996; Barber et al., 2005) found that the parental behavioral control, which subsumed these two constructs, diminish internalization and externalization problems of adolescents consistently (see Crouter & Head for a review). Additionally, in a longitudinal study Galambos, Barker, and Almeida (2003) showed that behavioral control was associated with low externalization problems and susceptibility to deviant peer pressure among adolescents.

Grolnick et al. (1997) suggest that within SDT framework, parental behavior control satisfies the need for competence since it provides the required structure for internalizing the stamina to persevere, thus for internalizing behavioral regulation and parental values. Neglectful or uninvolved parenting characterized with low boundaries set for children put them at risk for SR problems (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). However, some other studies found no association between behavioral control and SR (Finkenauer et al., 2005; Harma, 2008; Körpe, 2010; Moilanen, 2007) or showed that existence of behavioral control may even cause emotion dysregulation in latter developmental periods such as in young adults (Manzeske & Dopkins-Stright, 2009).

Studies also demonstrated that, providing a structured environment may facilitate children's ER skills (Frick & Morris, 2004; Morris et al., 2007). Valiente and Eisenberg (2006) suggests that parenting apart from being important in instilling ER in children, is also a contributor to select and modify situations, which keeps the child's arousal level within manageable limits. Thus, improved ER leads to positive social behavior and social competence. Such behaviors, in turn, lead to selection and modification of better situations. Hence, parental behavioral control may also be as a facilitator of regulatory processes through lower internalization and externalization problems.

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In summary, four parenting dimensions, namely, warmth, rejection, psychological control and behavioral control are consistently related to externalization and internalization problems. The SDT framework suggests that SR is an important mediator between parenting dimensions and adolescent outcomes though parenting dimensions also have direct effects on child outcomes (e.g. Finkenauer et al., 2005; Moilanen, 2007). However, based on the reviewed evidence, parental behavior control may only directly influence externalization problems, and such behavior may influence better AR and SR longitudinally. One of the aims of the current study is to examine these associations both concurrently and longitudinally. Another aim of this study is to examine the role of parenting dimensions on peer attachment representations either directly or indirectly through SR. The next part summarizes the available research on these associations to depict that it is in fact plausible.

1.4.5 Parental Dimensions and Peer Relations

Peer relations are critical for socialization processes via social interaction. Peers provide social information in the form of positive and negative reinforcements about adequate forms of social interaction within the social context. Thus, peer relations provide such context to foster social adaptation through development (Eisenberg & Fabes, 1998; Hartup, 2009). The contribution of peer relations to the interpersonal development starts within the family although it is not clear whether peer and family relationships complement each other (e.g. additive contribution to developmental outcomes) or compensate for each other (e.g. patch up for the other's failure) (Ladd & Pettit, 2002).

In their review, Parker and Asher (1987) concluded that difficulties in peer relationships engender a variety of developmental maladjustments. Actually, adolescence is the period in which the peer relationships get more complex and important in order to satisfy several needs and as compared to previous developmental phases (Allen, 2008; Zeifman & Hazan, 2008). Furthermore, as Morris et al. (2007) articulate, children normatively start to use peers as ER agents starting with adolescence. Thus, the quality of peer relations is critical during this phase of development (Rubin, Fredstrom, & Bowker, 2008) both concurrently and longitudinally. Simpson et al. (2007), in their longitudinal study, found that secure

relationships with peers in adolescence were associated positively with positive daily experiences and negatively with negative affect expression in conflict resolution with romantic partners.

The quality of parenting is an important determinant of peer relations of children. In fact, MacDonald (1992) suggests that the activation of affiliation system in infants and children fosters the search for such affiliation in future relationships since it is basically a reward system. Regardless of the fact that the literature is replete with the evidence to support the mediating role of SR between parenting and social competence, which further fosters peer relationship quality (Morris et al., 2007; Parke et al., 2006; Rose-Krasnor & Denham, 2009), there is not much research on the mediating effects of regulatory processes to determine peer attachment representations, as an indicator of friendship quality. The literature, however, suggests that positive parenting may foster positive representations of others. The seminal work of Hazan and Shaver (1987) found that in adults early warm relationships with parents foster the chances of acquiring secure attachment representations of romantic partners whereas rejecting and cold parenting were associated with avoidant representations of romantic partners.

In a more direct research for the effects of parenting on peer representations, Nishikawa et al. (2010) found that parental rejection was positively associated with anxious/ambivalent attachment representations to peers whereas parental warmth was negatively associated with avoidant peer representations in a Japanese adolescent sample. For an adolescent sample from Netherlands, Muris et al. (2003) showed that low parental warmth and high parental rejection were both associated with insecurity in attachment to peers, especially with anxious/ambivalent attachment. On the other hand, Güngör and Bornstein (2010) found that parental warmth was negatively associated with anxious peer representations whereas only maternal warmth was negatively associated with avoidant peer representations (see also Güngör, 2000; Sümer & Ergin, 2004) for both Belgian and Turkish adolescents. They also found that older adolescents and girls reported more anxious attachment representations as compared to younger adolescents and boys. Sümer and Ergin (2004) also found that paternal rejection was associated with higher anxiety in attachment representations of generalized others for a sample of Turkish university students. In sum, these results suggest that parental rejection and warmth may both

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be related with anxiety and avoidance in attachment to peers, yet these results show variability between studies to reach clear cut conclusion about these associations.

Scarce evidence suggests that psychological control may also influence the development of peer attachment representations. In their cross-cultural research, Güngör & Bornstein, (2010) found that high parental psychological control was related with high peer attachment anxiety, whereas only maternal psychological control was related with high peer attachment avoidance for Belgian and Turkish adolescents. Furthermore, paternal psychological control was related with high peer attachment avoidance for Belgian adolescents only.

In sum, warmth, rejection, and psychological control predict peer attachment representations directly. However, the SDT framework suggests that these dimensions of parenting may determine the SR of the child. Furthermore, the circumstantial evidence in attachment literature suggests that the SR sub-domain AR as a generalized attachment style (e.g. Mikulincer & Shaver, 2003; 2008) may calibrate the representations within the hierarchy of attachment representations. Hence, the present study will investigate the direct role of parenting dimensions on attachment peer representations as well as their indirect effect via SR. Yet, the documentation of the intrinsic relation between parenting and child outcomes is not complete unless the role of culture is clearly examined. Hence, the next section provides a brief account on potential cultural influences on child outcomes.

1.4.5 Parental Dimensions, Child Outcomes, and Culture

Culture provides a socialization context in which the self finds its developmental trajectory via parenting practices, hence reflects its values (Chen & French, 2008; Kağıtçıbaşı, 2005; 2007; Markus & Kitiyama, 1991). Developing an autonomous but related self-concept is the primary mission of adolescence (Steinberg & Silk, 2002). This approach implies that separation from parents is of primary importance, and reflects individualistic value-orientation of the Western cultures (guided primarily by United States of America). On the other hand, cultures oriented towards collectivism consider relatedness and interpersonal relations most endearing, thus achievement of a related self is the primary mission for the developing child in group-oriented cultures (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2005). In this process, autonomy and relatedness do not necessarily exclude one another in the developing

self. In fact, they are orthogonal and the placement along these dimensions yields different construals of self (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2007).

Parents as socialization agents may inculcate autonomy and relatedness in the child in line with the culture, which determines their parenting practices as well as their perceived normality. For example, although authoritative parenting might be beneficial for the children from European American culture in predicting academic achievement, the authoritarian parenting was found to be more beneficial for the Chinese American first generation immigrant children dwelling in an interdependent culture (Chao, 2001). In fact, non-western cultures, which value relatedness over autonomy, foster interdependence and compliance of the child (e.g. low autonomy). In trying to reach the goal of this related-self, warm parenting, which may subsume hash discipline practices, may act a vehicle. Hence, although parental warmth determines a closely knit interpersonal relations and a diminished interpersonal distance, psychological control may be less disruptive for child outcomes, and indeed may foster emotional relatedness (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2007). The evidence suggests that parental warmth is associated with child outcomes and peer representations similarly across cultures (Aydın & Öztütüncü, 2001; Barber et al., 2005; Güngör, 2000; Güngör and Bornstein, 2010; Nishikawa et al., 2010; Sümer & Ergin, 2004) whereas the effects of parental control and harsh parenting on child outcomes may vary between cultures (Güngör & Bornstein, 2010; Kındap, 2011; Kındap, Sayıl, & Kumru, 2008; Krishnakumar, Buehler & Barber, 2003; Kağıtçıbaşı, 2007; Körpe, 2010; Pettit, Bates, & Dodge, 1997; Sümer & Kağıtçıbaşı, 2010. See Barber et al., 2005 and Harma, 2008 for contradictory findings).

The culture also acts as a total makeover agent in determining the psychoemotional development of its members. The seminal study of Markus and Kitiyama (1991) showed that the culture fosters the socialization of emotions accordingly. Additionally, as the cross-cultural study of Suh, Diener, Oishi, and Triandis (1998) depicted that culture moderates the association between negative emotions and well-being. Specifically, they found that although negative emotionality was correlated negatively with well-being in individualistic cultures, its correlation with well-being was low in collectivistic cultures. However, the authors also found some differences within collectivistic cultures that were related with the vertical hierarchical nature of the culture. Kağıtçıbaşı (2007) suggests that the

socially accepted values in collectivistic cultures hinges on autonomy granting. Her review shows that the vertical hierarchy or power distance reflects the cultural emphasis on obedience to authority as well as on social behavioral practices in line with the culturally determined social scripted behavior. On the other hand, cultures of relatedness (e.g., Turkey) value and foster autonomous behavior, which is antithetical within former type of collectivistic cultures. The findings of Suh et al. (1998) support these contentions. Specifically, they found that obedience to social norms improved well-being in collectivistic cultures with high vertical hierarchy whereas such association was not evident for cultures valuing both autonomy and enmeshed relatedness, such as Turkey.

Related with this, when the primary aim is to maintain social order as in the collectivistic ones, the ER practices also engender different outcomes in different cultures (Körpe, 2010; Matsumoto, Yoo, Nakagawa et al., 2008). Although Gross and John (2003) found that suppression was detrimental for well-being and correlated negatively with reappraisal, Matsumoto et al. showed that suppression of emotions was a common practice in collectivistic cultures, and it even correlated positively with reappraisal in cultures with less hierarchy (i.e., cultures of relatedness; Kağıtçıbaşı, 2007). The available evidence even suggests that parental psychological control may be a vehicle to instill suppression. Roth, Assor, Niemec, Ryan, and Deci (2009) found that the autonomy restriction through parental conditional positive regard was related with suppression in a group of Israeli adolescents. These authors conceptualized conditional positive regard as parental practices of providing attention and affection to the child being conditional on actions in line with parental expectations. Similarly, in a Turkish university sample, Körpe (2010) found that psychological control was positively associated with suppression, which did not mediate the relationship between psychological control and the self-control capacity left for subsequent tasks. In fact, in this study only suppression of positive feelings diminished self-control capacity. These findings are in line with the expectation that parental psychological control is a predictor of suppression practiced more upon negative emotions in collectivistic cultures.

Markus and Kitiyama (1991) also concluded that in collectivistic cultures, the individual behavior is context dependent rather than consistent across domain as in the individualistic cultures. This may influence the development of attachment

representations across cultures. İmamoğlu and İmamoğlu (2006) found that the preoccupied peer and romantic attachment representations were overrepresented in a sample of university students in Turkey, unlike individualistic cultures, in which secure romantic attachment was normative (Schmitt, Alcalay, Allensworth, Allik, Ault, Austers et al., 2004; You & Malley-Morrison, 2000). Although Van Ijzendoorn and Sagi-Schwartz (2008) and Sümer (2008) reported the overrepresentation of anxious attachment to primary caregiver in collectivistic cultures, it may even transfer into fearful representations in other domains (Schmitt et al., 2004; Wang & Mallinckrodt, 2006). In their cross-cultural study, Wang and Mallinckrodt (2006) found that the ideal attachment pattern among Taiwanese students was high on both anxiety and avoidance in romantic relationships as compared to Americans, and this attachment style overlapped closely with their actual attachment representations. High correlation between attachment anxiety and avoidance is also evident in a variety of studies in Turkey for both domain-specific representations and attachment to partners (Gündoğdu, 2010; Güngör, 2000; Sümer & Kağıtçıbaşı, 2010. See Güngör & Bornstein, 2010 for non significant correlation between attachment dimensions).

The recapitalization of arguments heretofore reflects that culture may influence different aspects of socialization from parenting styles to child outcomes. However, the review of Sümer et al. (2010) found that the majority of the research in Turkey on parenting focused on the effects of configurations of parenting by Baumrind (1968; 1991) through cross-sectional designs, and disregarded the cultural implications of parenting dimensions outlaid above. Although recent research in Turkey focuses more on adolescent development using dimensional parenting measures (e.g., Kındap et al., 2008) and the longitudinal effects of parenting (e.g., Kındap, 2011), this pervasive approach obscures the elaboration on the effects of parental dimensions such as psychological control on the unfolding processes such as SR and child outcomes such as peer attachment anxiety or avoidance. Furthermore, this approach also limits the identification of culture specific dimensions parenting (Sümer et al., 2010), such as parental comparison. Sümer and Ergin (2004) showed that parental comparison, which refers to comparing the child to others as examples to be emulated, was related with high levels of anxiety in the general attachment representations of others.

In order to fill in these caveats in developmental research, the current study aims also to take into account the role of culture on different factors. Specifically, although secure attachment to parents may engender secure peer attachment representations similarly across cultures, the parenting dimensions may determine the anxiety and avoidance dimensions of peer attachment representations. In that sense, culture specific parental dimensions such as parental psychological control and comparison may be related with anxiety in peer attachment relationships, whereas parental warmth may be related with the avoidance dimension in peer relationships. Furthermore, although suppression is generally considered as an ineffective form of ER, the culture may obscure its clear-cut role in dysregulation of emotions. The mediating role of SR between the parental constructs and adolescents' peer attachment representations will also be examined empirically in this study.

The current study has included marital conflict as the last family variable that may determine adolescent outcomes to be able to represent emotional family context with critical dimensions. The next section reviews the literature on marital conflict. The first part documents available perspectives on direct and indirect effects of marital conflict. The second part discusses about the cultural implications of marital conflict.

1.5 Marital Conflict

In addition to parental attachment and parenting, marital relationship is another factor that contributes to the emotional family environment (Cummings & Davies, 2002; Davies & Cummings, 1994; Ladd & Pettit, 2002; Morris et al., 2007; Parke et al., 2006). Substantial number of qualitative or quantitative meta-analysis proved that marital conflict is strongly associated with children's internalization and externalization problems (Davies & Cummings, 1994; Grych & Fincham, 1990), and this finding was consistent across age groups, gender of the child, and the marital status of parents (Buehler, Natony, Krishnakumar, Stone, Gerard, & Pemberton, 1997). Subsequent longitudinal research proved the predictive power of marital conflict on adolescent problems (e.g. ,Ha, Overbeek, Vermulst, & Engels, 2009).

Regardless of the fact that conflict is an inevitable part of marriage, the strong relationship between marital conflict and child problems necessitates to identify conflict qualities related with child problems as well as the possible factors that may

mediate this relationships (Davies & Cummings, 1994; Parke et al., 2006). In fact, the most important determinants of marital conflict on child outcomes are its frequency, intensity and the way it is handled by the couple. Its escalating intensity accompanied by insults and aggressive behavior frequently have the most negative effects on the child (Cummings & Keller, 2006). The review of the literature suggests that the endeavors to identify mediators resulted in different mechanisms to explain this association that can be categorized as its direct and indirect effects.

1.5.1 The Direct and Indirect Effects of Marital Conflict

In explaining the direct effect of marital conflict on child outcomes, the stressor effect of marital conflict on children and sensitization hypothesis complement each other. A variety of researchers accept the stressor role of marital conflict on children to disturb the developmental process concurrently and longitudinally (Cui, Conger, & Lorenz, 2005; Emery, 1982; Grych, Seid, & Fincham, 1992; Peris & Emery, 2004). However, marital conflict may also have a cumulative effect on children by increasing their sensitivity to negative events. The sensitization hypothesis of Davies and Cummings (1994) suggests that through perpetual exposure to marital conflict, the children's negative affectivity in response to negative events especially to conflict increases. Davies, Sturge-Apple, Winter, Cummings, and Farrell (2006) showed longitudinally that marital hostility and withdrawal increased the distress level of young children in response to marital conflict. It can be concluded marital conflict creates an accumulated emotional burden on the children that may not only diminish their capacity to regulate negativity (Cummings & Keller, 2006), but also hinder social competence development via higher externalizing problems (Kouros, Cummings, & Davies, 2010).

Modeling is as another explanation for the direct effect of marital conflict on child adjustment difficulties. Actually, modeling is a vehicle for intergenerational transfer of social behavior (Grych & Fincham, 1990). As claimed by Social Learning Theory, children learn vicariously how to handle situations from their parents (Emery, 1982) and aggressive or hostile behaviors performed during marital conflict may teach the children that such strategies are applicable in conflictual situations in different social settings (Grych & Fincham, 1990). Dadds, Atkinson, Turner, Blums, and Lendich (1999) showed that adolescents mostly adopted the behaviors of their

parents during conflict and applied these as personal styles while interacting with their siblings. Modeling is also relevant in teaching the child how to regulate emotions or to act while interacting with parents (Davies & Cummings, 1994; Morris et al., 2007). Van Doorn, Branje and Meeus (2007) found that during late childhood, children exhibited conflict resolution styles similar to the styles of their parents while interacting with their parents and adopted both similar positive and negative styles over a year. Furthermore, Kinsfogel and Grych (2004) found that adolescent boys from families with high marital conflict internalized attitudes justifying aggression in romantic relationships and showed difficulties in regulation of anger. Hence, the diminished socially competent behavior may feed back into ER negatively (Valiente & Eisenberg. 2006)

The indirect approaches comprise of the cognitive-contextual hypothesis (Grych & Fincham, 1990), the emotional security hypothesis (Davies & Cummings, 1994), and spillover hypothesis (Belsky, 1984; Emery, 1982). The first two hypotheses conceptualize the child as an active agent who tries to deal with the adversity created by marital conflict. In line with the cognitive-contextual model of Grych and Fincham (1990), Grych et al. (1992) proved that the high marital conflict increased the chances for the child to blame own self, feel threatened, and diminish feelings of being able to deal with it. These cognitions further mediated the relation between marital conflict and child externalization and internalization problems.

Davies and Cummings' (1994) emotional security hypothesis elaborates the cognitive conceptualization of marital conflict further by considering emotions and its regulation as the most important determinant of child problems (Cummings & Keller, 2006). It draws on from attachment theory to conceptualize child emotional security of parental relationships similar to parental attachment security of the child (Davies & Cummings, 1994; Cummings & Davies, 2002). The ultimate goal is to reach emotional security in terms of family relationships, hence to improve feelings of well-being and the capacity for ER (Cummings & Keller, 2006). When the child knows that the conflict will not pose any threat to family union or to subjective feelings of well-being, the child feels secure about the psychological and physical availability of parents, and has improved emotional security in face of stress (Davies & Cummings, 1994).

Cumming and Keller (2006) articulate that within the framework of emotional security hypothesis, children react to marital conflict at the behavioral, cognitive and emotional levels, each being similar to ER processes. In line with the emotional sensitization hypothesis, at the emotional level, the child facing frequent destructive marital conflict is overwhelmed continuously by negative affectivity, which causes emotional dysregulation. At the cognitive level, such marital conflict shapes negative parent, self and relationship representations, and fear of possible disturbance within parent-child relationships, such as the expectation of conflict spilling over into parent-child domain. At the behavioral level, the child may take several actions in order to regulate marital conflict by intervening into the conflict, avoiding it, or creating a scene to distract parents. Cummings, Schermerhorn, Davies, Goeke-Morey, and Cummings (2006) found that emotional security of the child as indexed by the combination of these processes mediated the association between marital conflict and internalization and externalization problems of children both concurrently and longitudinally. Furthermore, the association was stronger as the child got older.

Emotional insecurity of family relationships also create a constant preoccupation with family relationships, and this preoccupation deteriorate ER capacities further by undermining available internal resources for psychological processes (Cummings & Keller, 2006). In fact, Gottman and Katz (1989) showed that marital conflict was related with physiological indices of disturbed ER, which mediated the relation between marital conflict and low quality play of five-year old children with their best friends. As reviewed by Parke et al. (2006), this meditating role of ER between marital conflict and social competence of the children is also evident for older children, and for other child problems (Morris et al., 2007).

The last indirect effect model conceptualized as spillover hypothesis suggests that marital conflict spills into parenting to deteriorate it through diminishing psychological resources that may be used for parenting, and low quality parenting mediates the association between marital conflict and negative child outcomes (Emery, 1982; Belsky, 1984). Available meta-analysis proved that in fact marital conflict spilled over into parenting (Erel & Burman, 1995; Krishnakumar & Buehler, 2000).

In sum, marital conflict may influence child outcomes both directly and indirectly. Its stressor effect and modeling of the child may result directly in child maladjustment by increasing externalization and internalization problems. Similarly, the reviewed literature suggests that the high marital conflict is related with high negative perceptions of the self and the family as well as in emotional burden on the child. These may further disturb SR processes, which mediate its effects on child problems. For the sake of parsimony, this section requires to discuss the cultural implications of marital conflict. Hence, these will be discussed within the next part.

1.5.2 Cultural Implications of Marital Conflict

The culture may partially be protective against the negative effects of marital conflict that causes child problems due to the spillover of marital conflict into parenting. The study of Krishnakumar et al. (2003) showed that although marital conflict was directly associated with youth problems for both European American and African American adolescents, the mediating effects of most parenting dimensions were not evident for the African American participants. Specifically, marital conflict spilled into parental monitoring and maternal psychological control but not into maternal acceptance for these participants. Furthermore, in this group, only parental monitoring mediated the effects of marital conflict on externalizing youth problems. This is in line with the contention suggesting that psychological control may not be detrimental for child, and parental warmth may be more important for the healthy development of children in cultures holding different norms (e.g. Kağıtçıbaşı, 2007).

The support for the availability of spillover effect comes for the longitudinal research of Chang, Lansford, Schwartz, and Farver (2004). They found that marital conflict spilled into harsh parenting (i.e., physical punishment), which fully mediated its effects on child externalization problems in a Hong Kong Chinese sample of primary school children (i.e., collectivistic culture). Similarly, Sayıl and Kındap (2010) showed that marital conflict spilled onto mother and father parenting in the form of high levels of psychological control, which partially mediated the effects of marital conflict on bullying and feelings of loneliness in a group of Turkish adolescents. Furthermore, these authors found that marital conflict predicted lower

parental monitoring by mothers that in turn partially mediated its effects on bullying only for girls.

Past research in Turkish culture suggests also the availability of mediating mechanism rather than the direct effects of marital conflict on child outcomes. The study of Ulu and Fışıloğlu (2002) on a group of Turkish primary school students supported the causal relation between child perceived marital conflict and child adjustment problems. They identified the children's perceptions of the self and the marital conflict qualities as a mechanism that caused adjustment problems. Specifically, the child's perceptions of marital conflict as indexed by perceptions of marital conflict properties, threat and self-blame was related with the child internalization problems such as depression, and only child's perceived self-blame was related with externalization problems. The study of Harma (2008) in a group of Turkish middle childhood children also supports only the indirect effects of marital conflict on child problems. Specifically, the results of this study have shown that SR disturbances fully mediated the relationship between mother reported marital conflict and child adjustment. Furthermore, marital conflict was significantly associated positively with psychological control and negatively with parental behavioral control.

These studies suggest that culture does not render children immune to marital conflict, and some suggest only direct effects of marital conflict on child problems whereas others support the role of mediating mechanisms. In line with the marital conflict literature, it is proposed in the current study that marital conflict may influence child adjustment both directly and indirectly through disturbed regulatory processes. Additionally, disturbed regulatory abilities caused by marital problems may determine low peer security. This prediction is based on the theoretical relational configurations between marital conflict, ER and social competence (e.g., Morris et al., 2007; Parke et al., 2006). Furthermore, marital conflict is expected to disturb parenting directly in the long-run. Specifically, it may be expected that parenting may mediate the relationship between first phase measures of marital conflict and second phase measures of SR and child outcomes.

1.6 The Present Study: Hypotheses

The adolescence is a special developmental period and represents the transition from childhood to adulthood. In that sense, a healthy transition requires regulatory skills, which are closely associated with the emotional family environment. Past studies have provided abundant evidence to support the role of regulatory skills as mediators between family variables and adolescence outcomes. Yet, the dispersed nature of the available researches on this developmental period requires a more parsimonious approach, which will discern the relative importance of family factors defining the emotional family environment, and will reveal their associations with each other longitudinally. Although emotional family context does not include attachment need transfer as a variable, this study includes it for the sake of parsimony in determining the interplay between attachment variables.

The principal aim of the present study is to investigate the mediating role of SR between emotional family context (indexed by parental attachment, parenting and marital conflict), and peer attachment representations as well as adolescent problems concurrently via latent model analysis in Turkish cultural context (see Figure 1). The second aim is to reveal the long-term influences of the first phase measures (e.g., marital conflict or adolescent problems) on second phase measures (e.g., parenting). For this aim, a series of Latent Change Model (LCM) and regression analyses would be conducted.
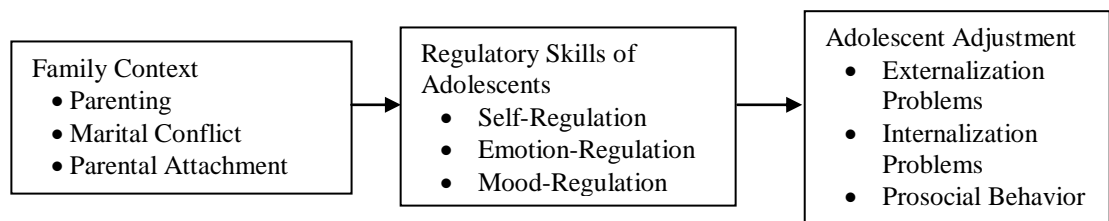
Figure 1.1 *Contextual Model for Family, Regulatory Abilities, Adolescent Outcomes*

Based on the reviewed literature, multiple constructs reviewed above are organized in a mediated model to better understand the antecedents and consequences of regulatory abilities among adolescents. The hypotheses of the present study are as follows:

Hypothesis 1: Considering the previous findings, emotional family context variables would be related with adolescent outcomes indirectly through regulatory skills. Specifically, secure parental attachment and warmth would be related with low externalizing and internalized adolescent problems through high regulatory abilities. However, parental behavioral control was not expected to be associated with adolescent outcome measures indirectly (H#1a). It was also expected that low levels of regulatory abilities would mediate the positive association between other emotional family context variables (i.e., parental psychological control, rejection, comparison and marital conflict) and adolescent outcomes, namely adolescent problems (H#1b).

Hypothesis 2: The emotional family context variables would also influence outcome variables directly. Specifically, parental attachment security, warmth, and behavior control were expected to positively predict better adolescent adjustment (H#2a). Furthermore, parental rejection, psychological control, comparison, and marital conflict were expected to negatively predict adolescent problems (H#2b).

Hypothesis 3: In line with the hierarchical nature of attachment representations, parental attachment would be related with peer attachment representations (H#3a). Furthermore, regulatory process would mediate this relationship (H#3b). Additionally, the parental secure attachment would predict adolescent adjustment both directly (H#3c) and indirectly (H#3d).

Hypothesis 4: The successful transfer of secure base attachment needs, which reflected both peer and parent orientation, would be related to high regulatory abilities, low anxiety in peer representations as well as low internalization and externalization problems (H#4a). Being completely peer orientated (i.e., transfer of secure base attachment needs to peers with low attachment to parents) would be associated with dysregulation of affect (in line with the findings of Diamond and Faguendes, 2008). Furthermore, since complete transfer of attachment reflected high needs to be close with friends, its similarity with anxious attachment (e.g. Mikulincer & Shaver, 2008), the adolescents who were peer oriented would also be high on peer attachment anxiety and low on avoidance. Similarly, peer orientation in attachment transfer would be related with high levels of externalizing problems (H#4b).

Hypothesis 5: The reviewed literature suggests that the regulatory processes reflect generalized attachment strategies, which may be related with domain-specific

peer representations in line with the conceptualization of attachment representations as hierarchies. In that sense, the specific configuration of AR process would be related with different peer attachment styles. Since adolescents start using their peer as regulatory agents during adolescents, the social adjustment of adolescents with different attachment styles will be different from each other. Specifically, adolescents who had secure peer representations would also have good regulatory skill, and they would be better adjusted as compared to other groups (H#5a). The adolescents who had anxious peer attachment representations would practice low reappraisal and suppression, and they would have low clarity of affective experiences and high attention to affect. They would also hold pessimistic attitudes towards life and suffer from social adjustment problems (H#5b). The adolescents with high peer avoidance would practice low reappraisal and high suppression, and they would have low clarity of affective experiences and attention to affect. They would also have adjustment problems (H#5c). The empirical evidence would determine the SR configurations and social adjustment of adolescents with fearful attachment representations.

Hypothesis 6: In line with the literature, parenting dimensions would influence the peer attachment dimensions. Specifically, it was expected that high parental warmth would be related to low peer attachment anxiety and especially maternal warmth would be related with low peer avoidance (H#6a), and parental psychological control and comparison would be related with high anxiety and avoidance in peer relationships. Especially, higher maternal psychological control would be associated with high avoidance in peer attachment representations (H#6b). Furthermore, it would be expected that regulatory processes would mediate the association between parenting dimensions and adolescent peer attachment representations (H#6c).

Hypothesis 7: Finally, some of the first phase measures were expected to determine the second phase measures. Specifically, in line with the spillover hypotheses, marital conflict measured in the first phase would be related with high psychological control and comparison, and low behavioral control in the second phase (H#7a). However, as extrapolated above, marital conflict would also be related with higher child problems. Patterson and Fisher (2002) propose that child non-compliant behavior may yield high negative parenting behavior. In line with this, it

was expected that the effect of high marital conflict on second phase negative parenting would be mediated through adolescent externalization and internalization problems (H#7b).

Hypothesis 8: Since parental behavior control was determined interactively between the adolescent and the parent, it would be expected that high parental attachment security in the first phase would determine high behavioral control in the second phase. Furthermore, in line with the attachment literature, it was also expected that first phase secure attachment to parents would be related with second phase positive parenting conceptualized as low parental comparison and psychological control (H#8a). Similarly, the effects of first phase secure parental attachment on second phase regulatory skills would be mediated through these parenting dimensions (H#8b)

CHAPTER II

METHOD

This chapter provides information about the procedures and methods used in the study. First, the section on participants introduces the participants and their demographic qualities, and the next section provides information about the procedure that was followed. Finally, the instruments used in the study are explained in detail.

2.1 Participants

The sample included students from two public high schools; one achievement oriented and one providing standard education. Within the Turkish educational system, it is mandatory for the children to complete an eight-year primary school education. However, most of the public and some of the private primary schools do not provide subsequent high school education. The educational system requires the primary school graduates to take a high school entrance examination in order to be admitted to most of the public or private high schools. The students who do not take this exam or receive low grades, may continue with their education at public or private high schools, which have low academic aspirations. The public high schools in this category are called the standard public high schools. The achievement oriented schools, which are famous for their academic success, require high grades in this exam and select their students from a pool of success oriented students. From then on, these schools will be referred to as achievement oriented high school (AOHS) and standard high school (SHS). In order to counterbalance the sample, in each high school, the half of the students were new comers and the other half were in their second year. In the AOHS, it was mandatory to attend to the preparatory courses during their first year at school. In that school, half of the students were from preparatory classes and the other half were from first year high school students.

Initially, 470 students between the ages of 13 to 17 from first (vs. preparatory students) and second grades (vs. first grade students) of the high schools were contacted. In the first phase, the 25 students were omitted from the study because either their parents did not approve to participate in the study or they did not complete the scales appropriately. The lack of data on SES or any other measure

constrained any analysis for comparing them with the participating sample. Eighteen of the participants had missing data above 20 %; hence they were removed from further analysis. This resulted in a sample size of 426 (mean age = 14.55, SD = .59) with 231 boys (54.4%) and 194 girls (45.5%). The number of students from the AOHS was 218 (51.2 % of the total sample), the number of students from the SHS was 208 (48.8% of the total sample). For AOHS, the number of students in the preparatory school was 112 (30.9 % girls) and 106 (36.8 %) were in the ninth grade. For the SHS, the number of students in the ninth grade was 122 (47.5 % girls) and 85 (43.5%) of them were in the students in the tenth grade.

One hundred and eighty seven mothers (with a response rate of 43.6 % of the participating sample) and 175 fathers (with a response rate of 41.1 %) returned the scales in the first phase of the study. Based on the adolescent reports, the 15.5 % of the families had one child, and 54.4 had two children (27.1 % had more than two) and the fathers had higher educational level than the mothers. Of the total sample, 4 % had mothers with no education (i.e. illiterate), 18.1 % had mothers with primary school education, 10.1 % had mothers with secondary school education, 32.4 % had mothers with high school education, and 38 % had mothers with university or higher education. Of the total sample, 8% had fathers with primary education, 7.5 % with secondary school, 26.3% with high school education, and 57.3 had fathers with university or higher education. The age of the parents and the SES status of the families were reported by only the parents. The parents reported on their ages and the SES status of the families. The mean age of the mothers were 42.43 (SD = 5.57) and the mean age of the fathers were 45.34 (SD = 5.57). The 94.6 % of the mothers (88.7 % of the adolescents reported intact families, N =378) were married with a small percentage being divorced or widowed (2.1 % and .2 % respectively). Based on the reports of mothers on a seven point scale, the 2.9 % of the families had monthly income less than 500 Turkish Liras, and 10.5 % had income more than 4000 Turkish Liras monthly (21.1 % between 1000-1500, 16.4 % between 1500-2000, 21.1 % 2000-3000, and 12.9 % between 3000-4000). The 53 % of the mothers reported as being housewives, where as 1.1 % were unemployed and 12.6 % were retired (33.3 % had a job). The 79.1 % of the fathers reported being employed at the time of the study (2.9 % were unemployed and 16.3 % were retired). Table 2.1 shows the

Table 2.1

Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

	Prep School N=112	9th Grade N=228	10th grade N=85	Total N=426
Gender				
Girls	60 (53.6 %)	97 (42.5 %)	37 (43.5 %)	194 (45.5%)
Boys	52 (46.4 %)	131(57.5 %)	48 (56.5 %)	231 (54.4 %)
Age				
Age 13-14	101 (91.8 %)	104 (45.8 %)	1 (1.2 %)	206 (49 %)
Age 15	9 (8.2 %)	111 (48.9 %)	77 (91.7 %)	197 (46.8 %)
Age 16-17	0	12 (5.3 %)	18 (7.2 %)	18 (4.2 %)
Mother Education				
Illiterate	0	3 (1.3 %)	1 (1.2 %)	4 (0.9 %)
Primary School	17 (15.3 %)	52 (22.7 %)	8 (9.5 %)	77 (18.2 %)
Secondary School	11 (9.9 %)	19 (8.3 %)	13 (15.5 %)	43 (10.1 %)
High School	36 (32.4 %)	72 (31.4 %)	30 (35.7 %)	138 (32.5 %)
University or More	47 (42.3 %)	83 (36.2 %)	32 (38.1 %)	162 (38.2 %)
Father Education				
Primary School	5 (4.5 %)	25 (10.9 %)	4 (4.8 %)	34 (8.1 %)
Secondary School	7 (6.4 %)	14 (6.1 %)	11 (13.3 %)	32 (7.6 %)
High School	25 (22.7 %)	21 (25.3 %)	21 (25.3 %)	112 (26.5 %)
University or More	73 (66.4 %)	124 (54.1 %)	47 (56.6 %)	244 (57.8 %)
Monthly Family Income				
>500 TL	1 (1.7 %)	2 (2.4 %)	1 (3.4 %)	4 (2.3 %)
500-1000 TL	6 (10 %)	16 (19.5 %)	2 (6.9 %)	24 (14 %)
1000-1500 TL	13 (21.7 %)	12 (14.6 %)	9 (31 %)	34 (19.9 %)
1500-2000 TL	13 (21.7 %)	13 (15.9 %)	5 (17.2 %)	31 (18.1 %)
2000-3000 TL	13 (21.7 %)	15 (18.3 %)	9 (31 %)	37 (21.6 %)
3000-4000 TL	5 (8.3 %)	14 (17.1 %)	2 (6.9 %)	21 (12.3 %)
<4000 TL	9 (15 %)	10 (12.2 %)	1 (3.4 %)	20 (11.7 %)

demographic characteristics of both adolescents and their parents. The response rate of the teachers was 82.9 % (N = 353).

In the second phase of the analysis, 376 adolescents were reached with an attrition rate of 11.7 %. The implemented one-way ANOVA analysis on the missing participants revealed that the demographics of the participants that took part in the second phase of the study were significantly different from the participants who did not. Specifically, boys, older adolescents and the adolescents who studied at SHS had higher missing data in the second phase of the study. Furthermore, the participants with the missing data generally reported higher negative father parenting behavior in the first phase of the study. For the parent sample, 49.2 % percent of the mothers (N = 92) and 50.3 % of the fathers (N = 88) completed and returned the batteries. Hence, the implemented longitudinal analysis excluded parent reports due to the high attrition rate. The 88 % of the teachers completed the measures which correspond to 375 students.

2.1 Procedure

Two procedural requirements were met in order to receive permission for collecting data for this study. First, the research proposal accompanied with the instruments to be used and the list of the selected high schools in Ankara for the current study were submitted to the Human Participants Ethic Committee of Middle East Technical University. After receiving the approval, the same documents were submitted to the Turkish Ministry of Education.

Upon receiving the permission to administer the questionnaire battery, the listed two high schools were contacted in October at the beginning of the fall semester. With the lead of the high school administrations and the cooperation of counseling teachers in charge, the available classes for the study were selected. In the first phase of the study, the adolescents were informed about the general aim of the study, and were given informed consent forms in the letter form for both their mothers and fathers. This letter consisted of a brief explanation and ensured anonymity of the study along with its aim and contact numbers of the researcher, and it requested the consent of each parent to participate and their permission for the participation of their adolescent in the study (see Appendix A). Upon receiving the approval, the adolescents were administered the questionnaire battery that will be

described below. For each class, the battery of questionnaires was administered in one class hour that was previously booked and an assistant researcher attended each session. Students were given an envelope containing the questionnaires for their parents, one copy for each parent after they completed the questionnaires. The assistant researchers instructed the participants that they should bring the questionnaires back within sealed envelopes within two weeks and to hand these to either the counseling teachers or to the study administrator. This battery of questionnaires had a cover letter for the parents with the instructions (see Appendix D). After that, the class teachers who were in charge of each class, were contacted and asked to rate their students on the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire that will be described below.

The second phase (wave) of the study took place about six months later, in May, at the end of spring semester. In this phase, a sub-set of the first phase scales were administered to the adolescents, who had participated in the first phase following the same procedure described above. At the end of each second phase administration, only adolescents whose parents completed the first phase scales were provided with an envelope with the same contents as in the first phase except the cover page. The adolescents were told to bring back these envelopes within two weeks. Similarly, in the second phase, class teachers filled out the same scales for their students administered in the first wave of the study. However, in the second phase of the study, four teachers as surrogate reporters replaced the teachers who reported on adolescent outcome behaviors in the first phase.

2.3 Instruments

The students completed the measures on attachment transfer, perceived parenting and attachment for both parents, self-perceived marital conflict, own self-regulation (SR), mood regulation, emotion regulation (ER), aggression in peer relationships as well as attachment peer representations. Parents completed the measures of their own parenting styles along with their perceptions of marital conflict and reported on the Strengths and Difficulties Inventory for their participating children. Teachers also rated the same instrument for each student in their class.

2.3.1 Demographic Information

The first part of the instruments for adolescents and parents consisted of the questions on demographic information. In this questionnaire, the adolescents reported their birthday, gender, name of their school, their class, school number, number of siblings, educational status of both of their parents and their grades in mathematics, Turkish, and science classes in the previous semester (see Appendix B). Although students' School ID numbers were taken in order to matching the data in two waves, confidentiality was assured that their reports would be kept anonymous. Similarly, in the first part of the questionnaire, the parents reported on their educational status, family background, their level of income, and the school number and class of the adolescent (see Appendix E). The cover letter ensured that their ratings would also be kept anonymous.

In the second phase, adolescents reported their gender, birthday (these were asked again to fill the missing demographic data in the first phase), class and school number, their grades in mathematics, Turkish and science classes at the end of first semester. The parents reported only the class and school number of their children.

2.3.2 WHO-TO

The WHO-TO scale was used to identify the attachment figures that the adolescent used to satisfy three attachment needs; proximity seeking, safe haven, and secure base, only in the first phase of the study. The WHO-TO scale was first developed by Hazan and Zeifman (1994) to map out the transfer of attachment functions from parents to peers. In this original form, the participants write down the names of the two preferred attachment figures along with the nature of their relationship (e.g., friend, mother, etc.) for each attachment function. There are two items for three attachment functions, with the total of six items. Although there is a recent version of this measure (e.g., Trinke & Bartholomew, 1997), the old version revised by Fraley and Davis (1997) was chosen for its brevity. Apart from mapping out attachment transfer, the scale was also used to discern attachment hierarchies of the subject and to measure attachment strength of the subject for each figure (Feeney, 2004).

In the current study, the revised version by Fraley and Davis (1997) was adapted to Turkish. The scale was translated into Turkish by the researcher. The spelling and compatibility of translation were checked through back-translation. In the present study, the participants were asked to report hierarchically three people whom they used to meet attachment functions in their social network as well as the nature of their relationship. Three instead of two names were asked in order to better discern the attachment hierarchies and attachment strengths. A sample item for proximity seeking function is "Who is the person you most like the spend time with?", for safe haven is "Who is the person you want to be with when you are feeling upset or down?" and for secure base is "Who is the person you can always count on?" (see Appendix C).

Since this scale was scored differently than the Likert-type scales with continuous measures, Fraley and Davis (1997) only reported test-retest correlation of .77 and a reproducibility coefficient of .93 by testing reproducibility of the attachment transfer patterns for adolescents. The deviations included cases such as the proximity seeking function was met by mother whereas secure base function was met by the peer during this phase of development. In such deviations, the attachment function transfer does not match with normative development of adolescents. In the current study, a different scoring system of Feeney (2004) was applied.

The adapted scoring system reveals the hierarchical frequency of each attachment figure. The attachment strength scores were computed for mothers, fathers, siblings (older or younger), and the peers as a whole. The hierarchical placement of the target determines the score received. Specifically, the target(s) is assigned a score of '3' if placed as the first one for a given item, a '2' if placed as the second, and a '1' if placed as the third. The total score representing attachment strength was computed by adding the received scores across functions. Hence, the total score for a given attachment figure ranges between 0 and 30, and higher scores correspond to stronger attachment to the given figure. Similarly, the scores of attachment figures can be computed for each function separately and reflect the degree of preference for that figure in meeting the given attachment function (i.e., proximity seeking, safe haven or secure base). In the current study, the Cronbach alpha coefficients were .77 for mothers, .78 for fathers, .79 for older or younger siblings, and .80 for best friend.

2.3.3 Kern's Security Scale (KSS)

The Kern's Security Scale (KSS; Kerns, et al., 1996) measures the attachment security of adolescents to both parents separately using 15 items. Although this scale is mostly used for middle childhood period, it can also be used for early adolescents. The items of the KSS refer to three areas of a secure relationship between the child and the parent. First one is the degree of child's perceived trust on the responsiveness and the availability of the attachment figure and second one is the degree of the child's reliance on the attachment figure in times of distress. The third one is the degree of the child's perception of easiness and willingness to communicate with the attachment figure. This measure was rated by the adolescents only in the first phase of the study (see Appendix C).

KSS is organized in the form of Harter type scale, which uses "Some kids….other kids" format. An exemplar item is "Some kids find it easy to trust their mom BUT other kids are not sure if they can trust their mom". The children first decide which statement is most closely characterizes them and then rate the selected statement as being "really true" or "sort of true" for them. This scoring is converted into a 4-point scale and higher scores reflect secure attachment to that particular attachment figure. The KSS can also be used for fathers by using appropriate rewording. The security scores can be computed by either taking the total score or averaging the score. Kerns et al. (1996) administered this study on children between the ages of 10 to 12, and revealed that there was basically one factor to the scale with a reliability of .84. The test-retest correlation of the scale was .75 for approximately two weeks time interval in a pilot study. KSS was adapted to Turkish previously by Sümer and Anafarta-Şendağ (2009). They found that the Cronbach alpha reliabilities were .84 for mothers and .88 for mother in a 11 and 12 years old children Turkish sample.

Lieberman et al. (1999) used this scale in a different format for older children in high school in order to explore developmental changes during young adolescence. Specifically, they divided it into two sub-scales in a-priori fashion. The first subscale was called dependency, which measured the degree the adolescent seek help or valued parental help. It consisted of nine items (e.g., "Some kids do not really need

their mom/dad for much, BUT other kids need their mom/dad for a lot of things."). The other subscale was called availability and measured the adolescents' perceptions of their parents as available by six items (e.g., "Some kids wish they were closer with their mom/dad, BUT other kids are happy with how close they are with their mom/dad."). The Cronbach alpha reliabilities were .85 for dependency and .74 for availability of the mothers, and .87 for dependency and .77 for availability of fathers. Lieberman et al. (1999) showed that through development the dependency scores of adolescents decreased whereas availability scores of boys and girls did not change, especially for mothers. Only girls perceived their fathers less available with increasing age.

In the current study, the factor structure of all the scales for both mothers and fathers or self-reported measured were examined through exploratory factor analyses. A principle component analysis with varimax rotation was run on items of the scales separately for mothers and fathers. The number of factors to rotate was based on the criterion eigenvalues, the scree plot, consistency between parallel forms (adolescent reports for each parent, and parent reports) and the interpretability of the factor solution provided by the factor analyses for all the exploratory factor analyses, which were employed in the current study. In cases where the factor solution produced dimensions that restricted the interpretations of the dimensions, the original scales were taken as the reference points. The items were selected in an iterative fashion based on two criteria. Accordingly, sub-scales contained the items, which either had loadings higher than .35 or contributed significantly to the internal consistency of the scales.

In the current study, following Lieberman et al. (1999), the three exploratory factor analyses solution of the present scale was forced into two factors. This procedure revealed that two items had high cross loadings among two scales for the adolescents' reports of mother attachment. These two items belonged to the dependency scale in Lieberman et al.'s (1999) study whereas they loaded on the availability scale in the present study. Hence, these items were removed from further analysis for mothers. Adolescent reports of father attachment also provided a three factor solution, which was forced into two factor structure. In this analysis, availability item stating "Some kids think their mom/dad spends enough time with them, but other kids do not think their mom/dad spends enough time with them"

loaded on both sub-scales, thus removed from further analysis. Although the two items, which cross loaded for mother attachment of adolescents, did not cause any problems for father reports, they were removed from further analyses for the sake of parsimony in the current study. The examination of these items revealed that they had high correlations with items from both sub-scales. The same procedure was applied for the cross loading item for father attachment while constructing dimensions for adolescent reports of mother attachment. Hence, the factor analyses of these parallel forms produced two-factor solution in line with Lieberman et al. (1999) albeit one dependency item loaded on the availability scale in the current study.

The results revealed two interpretable factors for both of the parallel forms, namely availability and dependency. Final solution explained 49.33 % of total variance for mother reports of adolescents and 51.89 % of total variance for their reports on father attachment. The availability dimension represented the perceived availability of each parent by the adolescent. This factor consisted of 6 items and explained the 37.05 % of the total variance with an eigenvalue of 4.45 for mothers and it explained the 41.03 % of the total variance for fathers with an eigenvalue of 4.92. This sub-scale had acceptable internal consistency coefficients with .81 for mothers and .82 for fathers. The second dimension, dependency represented the degree of adolescent seeking help from parents and valuing it, and had six items to the scale. This sub-scale explained the 12.29 % of the total variance with an eigenvalue of 1.47 for mothers and it explained the 10.86 % of the total variance for fathers with an eigenvalue of 1.30. This sub-scale also had acceptable internal consistency coefficients with .76 for mothers and .79 for fathers.

2.3.5 Parental Behavior Scale

A number of measures were used to assess a wide variety of parenting behaviors as perceived by the adolescents and parents. The first one was the My Memories of Upbringing-Short Version (EMBU), which was developed by Arrindell, Sanavio, Aguilar, Sica, Hatzichristou, Eisemann et al. (1999), and measured the late adolescents' retrospective accounts on the perceived parental warmth, rejection, and over protection in the behavior of the parents by using 23 items cross-culturally. The current study used only parental warmth consisting of nine items and parental

rejection consisting of eight items with a total of 17 items from the short version. Parental warmth refers to the affectionate, stimulating and praising behaviors of the parent towards the subject. Parental rejection refers to the punitive, shaming, abusive and criticizing behavior of the parent towards the subject as well as the rejection of the subject as an individual by the parent. The participants rate the frequency of each behavior of the parent on a 4-point Likert-scale. The Cronbach alpha internal consistency coefficients for emotional warmth were between .79 and .81 for mothers, and were between .79 and .85. for fathers. The internal consistency correlations for rejection were between .74 and .79 for mothers, and were between .72 and .77 for fathers.

Sümer and Ergin (2004) adapted EMBU to Turkish by using a 6-point Likert scale. They reported Cronbach alpha internal consistency coefficient for mothers as .85 for emotional warmth and .77 for rejection. The Cronbach internal consistency coefficients for fathers were .89 for emotional warmth and .70 for rejection. Similar to this application, in the current study, the anchors are; 1 (never), 2 (once in a while), 3 (rarely), 4 (sometimes), 5 (often), 6 (all the time). Also, in the current study, the scale was in the present tense rather than past tense in order to reveal the parental behavior in the present time. This scale was administered to the adolescents only in the first phase of the study and they completed the measure for both their mothers and fathers, separately (see Appendix C). By using appropriate wording, the same items were also administered to both mothers and fathers following the procedures used by Sümer, Sayıl, Kazak-Berument, Doğruyol, Günaydın, Harma et al. (2009) only in the first phase (see Appendix F).

Sümer and Ergin (2004) also devised the scale for parental comparison, which the authors suggested to be a culturally relevant parenting style. Parental comparison refers to the behaviors of the parent comparing the child with friends and similar others to show them as examples to be emulated for or just to motivate them for studying hard. The participants rate five culturally relevant items (e.g., My mother/ father compares my grades with those of my friends) on a 6-point Likert scale with similar anchors to Turkish version of the EMBU. The Cronbach alpha internal consistency coefficient scores were .89 for maternal comparison and.85 for paternal comparison. In the current study, this scale was administered in both phases

of the study to adolescents (see Appendix C) and parents (see Appendix F) by wording it adequately and using a present tense instead of a past tense.

The Parental Psychological Control Scale (PPCS) measured the psychological control employed by parents as perceived by adolescents for both parents (see Appendix C), and by both parents (see Appendix F) in both phases. It consists of 32 items and assesses the degree of psychological control used on the adolescent by the parent. It actually consists of two different scales. Sixteen items were from the Psychological Control Scale-Youth Self-Report (PCS-YSR) by Barber (1996). Sixteen items were from the scale of Olsen, Yang, Hart, Robinson, Wu, Nelson, Nelson, Jin, and Wo (2002). This scale measures love withdrawal, guilt induction, and erratic emotional behaviors of parents, all of which represent different components of psychological control.

The cross-cultural study of Olsen et al. (2002) tested the factor structure of the scale through structural equation modeling (SEM). They revealed four psychological control dimensions, which were personal attack, erratic emotional behavior, guilt induction, and love withdrawal. They found high fit for the four factor model in different cultural samples, namely USA, China, and Russia. Furthermore, their analysis revealed that these factors showed invariance between cultures and gender. Specifically, the factor loadings across culture and gender were comparable.

Harma (2008) adapted the composed Psychological Control Scales to Turkish by using a sample of children between the ages of 12 and 14. In his study, explanatory factor analysis reexamined the factor structure of the scales as a composite for adolescent-reported mother and father behaviors as well as mother-reported own behavior. This analysis revealed two dimensions of psychological control, which were comparable across different reporters and adolescents' reports of parents. The first factor was called guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors, and represented parental behavior, which reflected parents' displeasure with the child's behavior as well as their endeavors to control the thoughts and actions of the child through instilling beliefs in the child that the child caused the parents' distress (e.g., "Makes me feel guilty when I misbehave."). Additionally, this factor subsumes parent's inconsistent behavior along with underestimating the child's thoughts and feelings (e.g., "Tries to change how I feel or think about things."). It consisted of 11 items and had internal consistency scores of .87 for mothers and .85 for fathers as

reported by adolescents, and .78 for mother-reported own behaviors. The second factor was called love withdrawal/irrespective, which represented parents' conditional regard to the child and their lack of respect for the child's needs and emotions (e.g., "My mother/father is less friendly with me, if I don't see anything her/his way."). This factor consisted of 14 items with internal consistency scores of .86 for mothers and .85 for fathers as reported by adolescents, and .78 for mother-reported own behavior. The current study used a 6-point Likert scale with anchors where 1 is "never" and 6 is "all the time".

The exploratory factor analysis was implemented on the merged scales of parenting. Since EMBU items loaded in separate factors quite adequately across reporters (i.e. adolescents' reports for mothers and fathers, mothers' and fathers' reports of own behaviors) in the preliminary analysis, they were factor analyzed separately in order to simplify the procedure of consistency among parallel forms. The following steps were taken in accordance to the standards explained above. The preliminary three factor solution restricted an adequate interpretation of the dimensions across reporters, thus the items were forced into a two factor solution. Items number 3 and 17 did not load on any factors respectively in mother reports and father reports. They were removed from further analysis for all reporters. Item number 5 reduced the internal consistency of the warmth as reported by mother, thus it was also removed from the analysis.

The results of the analysis suggested a two factor solution to the EMBU across reporters, namely parental warmth and rejection. The two factor solution explained 50.07 % of the total variance for adolescent reports on mother behavior, and 56.360 % for father behavior. Similarly, this factor solution explained 39.24 % and 46.85 % respectively for mother and father reports of EMBU. Parental warmth dimension had seven items and explained 35.52 % of the variance for adolescent reports on mothers with an eigenvalue of 4.97, and 43.36 % for adolescent reports of father parenting with an eigenvalue of 6.07. Furthermore, it explained the 31.37 % of the variance for father reports with an eigenvalue of 4.10 and 9.98 % for mother reported warmth with an eigenvalue of 1.40. Although the item number 6 loaded on the rejection dimension negatively higher than its positive loading on warmth in the mother forms, it was moved into the warmth dimension for the sake of consistency. The internal consistency coefficients for parental warmth were acceptable with

Cronbach alpha coefficients .86 and .88 for adolescent reports of mothers and fathers respectively, and they were .63 and .79 for mothers and fathers respectively. Parental rejection dimension had seven items and explained 14.56 % of the variance for adolescents' reports on mothers with an eigenvalue of 2.04, and it eaplained 13 % of the variance for adolescents' reports of father parenting with an eigenvalue of 1.82,. Furthermore, this factor explained 29.26 % of the variance for mother reports with an eigenvalue of 4.10, and 15.47 % for father reports with an eigenvalue of 2.17. Internal consistency coefficients for parental rejection were .73, and .81 as reported by adolescent respectively for mother and fathers, and they were .71 and .75 as reported by mothers and fathers, respectively.

Sequential exploratory factor analysis was implemented for the remaining composite items of parenting, which consisted of psychological control and comparison scales. In line with the previous analysis, a similar procedure enabled consistency between parallel forms. In sum, nine items were removed from further analysis. The results suggested a three factor solution across reporters with dimensions of love withdrawal/irrespective, guilt induction/emotional erratic behaviors, and comparison. The total variances explained by this structure were 53.79 % for adolescent reports of mothers, 56.71 for adolescent reports of fathers, 49.04 for mother reports, and 49.23 % for father reports.

The first dimension of psychological control with 13 items was called as love withdrawal as an abbreviation to parents' behavior, which underestimates the adolescent's needs and emotion, shows conditional regard, displays emotional erratic behavior towards the adolescent and attacks adolescent personally (e.g., "My mother/father will avoid looking at me when I has disappointed her/him."). This dimension explained 39.07 % of the variance for adolescent reported mother behavior with an eigenvalue of 10.94, and 41.80 % of the variance for adolescent reported father behavior with an eigenvalue of 11.70. It explained the 29.53 % of the mother reports with an eigenvalue of 7.97 and 31.82 % of the father reports with an eigenvalue of 8.91. The internal consistency coefficients of this dimension were .92 and .93 for adolescent reported mother and father behavior respectively. They were .88 for mother reports and .88 for father reports. The second dimension of psychological control with 10 items was called as guilt induction, and referred to parental behavior, which induces guilt in the adolescent on taking actions against the

expectations of the parent (e.g., "My mother/father lets me know when I have disappointed her/him."). This dimension explained 7.69 % of the variance for adolescent reported mother behavior with an eigenvalue of 2.15, and 7.95 % of the variance for adolescent reported father behavior with an eigenvalue of 2.23. It explained 11.31 % of the variance for mother reports with an eigenvalue of 3.05 and 11.11 % for the father reports with an eigenvalue of 3.11. The internal consistency coefficients of this dimension were .88 and .89 for adolescent reported mother and father behavior, respectively. They were .85 for both mother and father reports. The last dimension to the composite factor structure of parenting was comparison and had five items. It explained the 7.03 % and 6.79 % of the adolescent reported parenting for mother and father behavior, and 8.20 % and 6.30 % for mother and father reports, respectively. The internal consistency coefficients were .82 and .84 respectively for adolescent reports on mothers and fathers. They were .76 and .81 for mother and father reports.

2.3.5 Parental Behavioral Control Scale

Parental Behavior Scale was used to measure parental behavioral control behavior of parents as perceived by the adolescents and their parents in both phases. This scale consisted of Kerr and Stattin's (2000) parental knowledge and monitoring scales as well as four culturally relevant items. Sixteen items were taken from the original measure, which had a total of 24 items. Eight items were removed from the questionnaire since they were not adequate for this age sample. For example, the item "If you are out at night, when you get home, do you tell what you have done that evening" since it was not a frequent experience of this sample, which live mostly with their families.

Kerr and Stattin (2000) implemented a factor analysis on the items of the Behavioral Control Scale (BCS) for a sample of 14 years old adolescents and revealed two behavioral control dimensions, which were parental monitoring and parental knowledge. The sample items are "Do your parents know what you do during your free time?" for parental monitoring "Do you usually tell how school was when you get home (how you did on different exams, your relationships with teachers, etc.)?" for parental knowledge. They reworded the items when necessary and administered the same scale to the parents of the adolescents. The internal

consistency coefficients were .82 for both child-reported and parent-reported monitoring. The internal consistency coefficients were .78 for child-reported parental knowledge and .80 for parent-reported parental knowledge. Furthermore, the BCS subscales had satisfactory test-retest reliabilities (*r(36)=.83* for monitoring and *r(36)=.70* for parental knowledge).

Harma (2008) adapted these items into Turkish for a sample of children between 12 to 14 years old using a 4-point Likert type scale. Harma (2008) added four new items tapping culturally relevant behavior (e.g., Does your mother/father talk to your teacher about your academic performances?). He implemented an exploratory factor analysis on the total scale composed of items from BCS and four culturally relevant items with a total of 20 items. He found two dimensions similar to the findings of Kerr and Stattin (2000), namely parental knowledge and monitoring. The monitoring dimension consisted of eight items referring to the parents' knowledge about the adolescents' activities associations and whereabouts (e.g., "Do you talk about things that happened during your free time with your mother/father?"). The parental knowledge dimension consisted of nine items and referred to the level of information parents had about the daily activities of the adolescents and disclosure of the child (e.g., "Does your mother/father know where do you go after school?"). Cronbach alpha internal consistency coefficients of monitoring dimension were .87 for mothers and .88 for fathers as reported by adolescents, and .87 for mother-reported own behavior. For parental knowledge, the Cronbach alpha internal consistence coefficients were .88 for mothers and .87 for fathers as reported by adolescents, and .91 for mother-reported own behaviors.

The participants rated the scale on a 6-point Likert type scale with anchors from 1 (never) to 6 (all the time) (see Appendix C and Appendix F). The exploratory factor analysis followed similar standard procedures. The results suggested a two factor solution with a total of four items being removed from further analysis. These dimensions named as parental knowledge and monitoring explained 56.39 % and 61.92 % of the total variance for adolescents reported mother and father behavioral control respectively. Furthermore, this two factor solution explained 51.44 % and 52.99 % of the total variance for mother and father reported behavioral control respectively. The first dimension called parental knowledge had eight items and explained 47.79 % of the variance with an eigenvalue of 7.65, and 51.85 % of the

variance with an eigenvalue of 8.30 for adolescent-reported mother and father behavior respectively. The explained variances were 40.75 % with an eigenvalue of 6.52 and 40.56 % with an eigenvalue of 6.49 for mother and father reports respectively. The internal consistency coefficients were .89 and .91 for adolescent reported mother and father parental knowledge respectively. They were .84 and .90 for mother and father reports respectively. The second dimension called parental monitoring also had eight items and explained 8.59 % of the variance with an eigenvalue of 1.38, and 10.07 % of the variance with an eigenvalue of 1.61 for adolescent reported mother and father monitoring respectively. The explained variances were 10.69 % with an eigenvalue of 1.71 and 12.43 % with an eigenvalue of 1.99 for mother and father reports respectively. The internal consistency coefficients were .88 and .91 for adolescent-reported mother and father monitoring, and, were .83 and .80 for mother and father reports, respectively.

2.3.6 Marital Conflict

The Children's Perception of Interparental Scale (Grych et al., 1992) assessed the adolescent perceived conflict between their parents, and O'Leary and Porter scale (Porter & O'Leary, 1980) assessed it from spouses' point of view, in both phases of the study.

2.3.6.1 Children's Perception of Interparental Conflict

Children's Perception of Interparental Conflict Scale (CPIC; Grych et al., 1992) assessed the marital conflict as perceived by the adolescent. Grych et al. factor analyzed 48 items for a group of to 12 years old children and revealed three dimensions. Specifically, 17 of the items assessed Conflict properties (e.g., "When my parents have an argument they yell a lot."), 10 of the items assessed Threat (e.g., "When my parents argue I worry about what will happen to me."), and 16 of the items assessed Self-Blame (e.g., " My parents usually argue or disagree because of things that I do."). Children rated items about their parents' conflict and their own reactions to it on a 3-point Likert-type scale (1 = true, 3 = false). The authors reported that the internal consistencies of these factors ranged between .78 to .90 and the test-retest reliability varied between .68 and .76 over two weeks.

Sümer et al. (2009) adapted the scale to Turkish by using the standard translation-retranslating procedure. They factor analyzed 48 items for a sample of 4th

and 5th grade Turkish students that yielded three factors similar to the original factor analysis of Grych et al. (1992). They reported the Cronbach alpha internal consistency coefficients as .86 for conflict properties, .82 for both threat and self-blame.

Since a large number of scales were administered to adolescents, for the sake of brevity the adolescents only rated only the 17 item sub-set related with the conflict properties as revealed by the Sümer et al. (2009) (see Appendix C). However, the conflict property item "My parents have broken or thrown things during an argument" was replaced with another conflict property item "My parents get really mad when they argue". The analysis showed that the administered items had high internal consistency coefficients and were related with other constructs of the current study in line with the expectations. Although the principal component analysis with varimax rotation revealed a three factor solution, the items were forced into a single factor called children's perception of interparental conflict. This single factor solution explained a total of 43.46 % variance with an eigenvalue of 7.39. The internal consistency coefficient was acceptable with a Cronbach alpha score of.91.

2.3.6.2 Marital Conflict

O'Leary-Porter Scale (OPS; Porter & O'Leary, 1980) assesses the parents' perception of marital conflict, which occurs between the parents and in front of the target child using 10 items (e.g., "How frequently you argue with your spouse in front of your child?"). The items assesses the rate of marital conflict related with a wide variety of topics such as discipline and spouses' personal habits (e.g., " How frequently do you criticize your spouse because of his/her personal habits in front of your child?"), and the frequency of verbal and physical aggression. One item, which is reverse keyed, assesses the frequency of parent's behavior expressing affection to each other. The high scores obtained by summing the item ratings reflect high levels of overt marital conflict within the household. Porter and O'Leary (1980) reported Cronbach alpha internal consistency coefficient as .86, and test-retest reliability as .96 within two weeks.

Sümer et al. (2009) adapted the OPC to Turkish and they added five culturally relevant items to the scale. These items reflect the pervasive areas that may cause family dispute within Turkish culture (e.g., "How frequently do you argue with

your spouse in front your child about your child's academic achievement or studying?", "How often do you and your spouse argue in front of this child about what and how much the child should eat?"; "Husbands and wives may often be overprotective towards their children and cosset them. How often do you and your spouse dispute about that in front of this child?"). In that project, both mothers and fathers reported on the frequency of marital conflict on a 4-point Likert-type scale (1 = never, 4 = very often). The factor analysis showed that the administered scale had unidimensional structure and the cultural items fitted in well with the original items. The mean scores were computed separately for mother and father with higher scores indicating higher marital conflict. The Cronbach alpha internal consistency coefficients were .80 for mothers and .77 for fathers.

Both mothers and fathers completed OPS by using a 4-point Likert type scale in both phases of the study (see Appendix F). In the first phase, two items assessing the spouse's criticizing behavior of the other spouse were dropped from further analysis due to a mix-up in the administration. A single factor solution revealed that item number 10 did not load on marital conflict as reported by the mother, hence it was removed from further analysis for both parents. The single factor solution with 12 items explained a variance of 33.08 % for mother reports with an eigenvalue of 4.53 and 33.08 % for father reports with an eigenvalue of 4.30. The internal consistency coefficients were .84 and .82 for mothers and fathers respectively.

2.3.7 Self-Regulation of Adolescents

Adolescents rated their regulatory processes on a variety of scales in both phases (see Appendix C). The Adolescent Self-Regulatory Inventory measured SR capacities of the adolescents, and Emotion Regulation and Trait Meta-Mood scales assessed their affect regulation abilities.

2.3.7.1 The Adolescent Self-Regulatory Inventory

The Adolescent Self-Regulatory Inventory (ASRI) of Moilanen (2007) measures the capacity of the adolescents between the ages of 11 to 17 to regulate their thoughts, emotions, attention, and behaviors in a goal-oriented manner by using a 5-point Likert type scale (1= not at all true for me, and 5= really true for me). Although ARSI had originally 32 items (see Harma, 2008), the final version of the scale had 27 items, which produced two factors. Thirteen items assess the short-term

SR capacities of adolescents (e.g., "During a dull class, I have trouble forcing myself to start paying attention.") and 14 items capture their long-term SR capacities (e.g., "If something isn't going according to my plans; I change my actions to try and reach my goals."). Moilanen (2007) administered it to both adolescents and their parents to assess the SR capacity of adolescents, and reported the Cronbach alpha internal consistency coefficients as .70 for adolescents and .88 for parents in short-term SR, and as .82 and .91 for long-term SR respectively.

Harma (2008) adapted the ASRI into Turkish using 32 items by using a sample of 12 to 14 years-old Turkish students. The factor analytic solution revealed two orthogonal dimensions, but the items loaded on the factors reflected a different dimensional structure to the scale. Specifically, Harma (2009) found that one dimension reflected success in regulating the self whereas the other reflected failure in SR. The dimension named SR success tapped the success in monitoring, inhibiting and adapting own behaviors and emotions (e.g., "I can find a way to stick with my plans and goals, even when it's tough."). The second dimension named SR failure tapped unsuccessful SR behavior (e.g., "I lose control whenever I don't get my way."). In Harma's study, adolescents rated their own SR capacity and their mothers reported on SR capacity of their children using a 4-point Likert scale with anchors between 1"strongly disagree" to 4 "strongly agree". The Cronbach alpha internal consistency coefficients were .85 for adolescent- and .89 for mother-reported SR success, and they were .80 for adolescent- and .79 for mother-reported SR failure.

The principal component analysis with varimax rotation was run on the 27 items and revealed a two factor solution comparable to Harma's (2009) findings, with a total variance of 34.16 %. Items numbers 6 and 11 were removed from further analysis since they did not load on the obtained factors. Furthermore, item number 14 stating "If something isn't going according to my plans, I change my actions to try and reach my goal" was also removed since it had cross loadings on both dimensions. The dimensions were called as SR success and SR failure consistent with Harma's study. The success dimension had 17 items and explained the 23.36 % of the variance with an eigenvalue of 5.64 and an internal consistency coefficient of .87. The second factor called failure had seven items explaining 10.81 % of the variance with an eigenvalue of 2.56 and an internal consistency coefficient of .66.

2.3.7.2 The Emotion Regulation Questionnaire

Gross and John's (2003) 10-item Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (ERQ) was used to assess the individual differences in ER. The ERQ taps reappraisal and suppression as personalized ER strategies. Reappraisal dimension has six items, which refers to the reconceptualization of the situation in order to alter the impact of both generalized positive or negative emotional states (e.g., "When I want to fell less negative emotions, I change the way I'm thinking about the situation.") and specific negative (e.g., "When I want to fell less negative emotions (such as sadness or anger), I change what I'm thinking about.") or positive emotions (e.g., "When I want to fell more positive emotions (such as joy or amusement), I change what I'm thinking about."). The suppression dimension has four items (e.g., "I control my emotions by not expressing them."). Gross and John used the ERQ in four different samples, which included diverse ethnic minorities and the respondents rated the items in a 7-point Likert type scale with anchors between 1 "strongly disagree" to 7 "strongly agree". The internal consistency coefficients were between .75 and .82 for reappraisal and between .68 and .76 for suppression across these samples. They found that ethnic minorities suppressed more than European Americans.

The ERQ was adapted into Turkish for the aims of the study. The adaptation processes followed the standard procedure of translation-retranslation. The ERQ was administered to the participants in both phases of the current study by using a 6-point Likert type scale with anchors between 1"strongly disagree" to 6 "strongly agree" (see Appendix C). The exploratory factor analysis in the current study showed that the ERQ had basically two orthogonal dimensions of reappraisal and suppression, similar to those found in the original study. This solution explained a total variance of 49.68 %. The reappraisal dimension had six items and explained a variance of 33.64 % with an eigenvalue of 3.31. The suppression dimension had four items explaining 16.62 % of the variance. The internal consistency coefficients were .78 and .64 for reappraisal and suppression respectively, in the current study.

2.3.7.3 The Trait Meta-Mood Scale

The Trait Meta-Mood Scale (TMMS) of Salovey et al. (1995), assessed the management of mood. Salovey et al. extracted 30 items from a larger item set of 48

items devised before. They revealed a three dimensional factor structure for the shorter version that was comparable to the longer version. The first dimension called Repair has six items and assesses the optimistic attitudes about improving negative mood and the employment of distraction to improve it (e.g., "Although I am sometimes sad, I have a mostly optimistic outlook."). The second dimension called Attention has 13 items and assesses the awareness of emotions and the belief in the imperative role of emotions in life (e.g., "I don't usually care much about what I'm feeling."-reverse keyed). The last dimension called Clarity has 11 items and assesses the clarity of own feeling states as well as comfort with them (e.g., "I am rarely confused about how I feel."). The respondents rated these items on a 5-point Likert type scale with anchors from 1 "strongly disagree" to 5 "strongly agree". The mean scores reflect high positive placement on the dimensions. The Cronbach alpha coefficient were .82, .86, and .88 for repair, attention and clarity, respectively.

The TMMS was adapted into Turkish by following the standard translation-retranslation procedure. Only 29 of the items were administered due to these items being more representative for the mood regulation of adolescents as recommended by Lisa Diamond (personal communication via e-mail, 2009). Principal component analysis with varimax rotation revealed a four factor solution to the scale and it explained the 51.21 % of the total variance. In this process, 5 items were excluded due to the fact that they either did not load on the appropriate factors or they loaded equally on two or more factors. The remaining items loaded on four dimensions, which were interpretable and called as the attention, repair, clarity, and obsession with emotions. Similar to Salovey et al. (1995), the dimension called attention referred to the attending to emotions and beliefs in their vital roles in life. It consisted seven items and explained a variance of 21.26 % with an eigenvalue of 5.10 and had internal consistency coefficient of .79. The second factor called clarity referred to the clear perception of emotions and had six items. This dimension explained the 14.03 % of the variance with an eigenvalue of 3.37, and had internal consistency coefficient of .78. The third dimension called as the repair referred to the quick recuperation from the influence of negative emotionality and had five items. It explained the 9.60 % of the variance with an eigenvalue of 2.30 and had an internal consistency coefficient of .79. The last dimension was called obsession with emotions since the items, which were subsumed within this dimension, reflected

continuous involvement with emotions to the degree of losing the clear perception of emotions (e.g., "I often think about my feelings." and "My beliefs and opinions always seem to change depending on how I feel."). Although this dimension did not appear in the factor solution of Salovey et al. (1995), it was kept in the current analysis on the grounds that it may in fact reflect either a cultural perspective or represent the specific ER deficit for this specific period. It had six items and explained 6.33% of the variance with an eigen value of 1.58 and internal consistency coefficient of .57 (see Appendix H).

2.3.7.4 Coping Responses Inventory

The last measure is a subscale of the Coping Responses Inventory (CRI). It was developed by Moss (1988) and measured basic coping ability of the person with a problem-focused strategy (i.e., actively dealing with the problem) in four sub-scales and by avoiding the problem in four subscales. The respondent rates the frequency of practicing each behavior represented in 48 items with regards to the overarching introductory question of "When you have a problem, how often do you…" in a 4-point Likert type scale (from 1 "not at all" to 4 "fairly often") by focusing on a recent stressor. In the current study, only positive reframing, which is a sub-scale of approach coping with six items was used (e.g., "Tell yourself things to make yourself fell better"). Although Moss (1995) did not report the psychometric qualities of the scales, he showed that the approach coping as a whole was related with positive health outcomes for adults as well as for adolescents.

Positive reframing is adapted into Turkish through the standard procedure of translation-retranslation. The adolescents rated this scale composed in a 6-point Likert type by focusing how they generally handled the stressors in their lives. The principal component analysis with varimax rotation revealed a single factor solution explaining the 56.05 % of the total variance with an eigenvalue of 3.36. The internal consistency coefficient for the positive reframing dimension was .84.

2.3.8 Children's Social Behavior Scale

The adolescents rated their overt and relational aggression by using two subscales of the Children's Social Behavior Scale (CSBS) by Crick and Grotpeter (1995) who developed it for children between 3rd and 6th grade students. The CSBS assesses the social behavior of children with a three dimensional measure, and the

respondents reported on the aggressive behavior of their classmates on a 5-point scale. Seven-item relational aggression scale assesses the degree the focal peer's indulgence in attempts to harm or to threaten harming peer relations of others purposefully (e.g., "When angry at a peer, this child tries to get other children to stop playing with the peer or to stop liking the peer."). Four item overt aggression scale measures the focal peer's physical and verbal aggression to others (e.g., "This child tries to dominate or bully peers."). The Cronbach alpha internal consistency coefficients were .94 and .94 for relational aggression and overt aggression scales. The correlation between relational and overt aggression was .77 (Crick, 1996).

The two sub-scales of this measure were adapted into Turkish by Kındap (2011) by using a sample of Turkish adolescents. The wording was also changed so that adolescents rated the sub-scales in reference to their own aggressive behavior rather than their peers'. The Cronbach alpha coefficients for these two scales were .94 and .94 for relational aggression and overt aggression respectively.

In the current study, the adolescents rated the level of their aggressive behaviors on relational and overt aggression sub-scales of CSBS with a 6-point Likert type scale in both phases of the study (see Appendix C). Although the principal component analysis revealed a two factor solution in line with the original scale, the items were collapsed into one single factor due to the high cross loadings of items among sub-scales. This single dimension had 11 items and named as aggression. The single factor solution explained the total variance of 53.96 % with an eigenvalue of 5.94 and had an internal consistency coefficient of .91.

2.3.9 Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised

Dimensions of attachment avoidance and anxiety of adolescents in their peer attachment representations were measured using the Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised (ECR-R) developed by Fraley, Waller, and Brennan (2000a), which is a revised version of the Experiences in Close Relationships (ECR) of Brennan et al. (1998). Brennan et al. devised ECR through analyzing all of the available attachment measures at the time, and the factor analytic structure of the ECR revealed two basic adult attachment dimensions, namely anxiety and avoidance. It had 36 items, 18 for each dimension of attachment. Fraley et al. revised this scale by keeping the two dimensional structure with 18 items for each dimension using a

5-point Likert type scale. The anxiety subscale assesses desires to be close, and fear of abandonment and rejection accompanied with a preoccupation in close relationships (e.g., "I often worry that my partner will not want to stay with me"). The avoidance subscale assesses the need for high interpersonal distance in close relationships as well as excessive self-reliance and discomfort with dependency (e.g., "I don't feel comfortable opening up to romantic partners."). The item-response theory analysis showed that ECR-R inventory had high internal consistency and good construct validity.

Selçuk, Günaydın, Sümer, and Uysal (2005) adapted ECR-R inventory to Turkish by using a sample of Turkish university students. Selçuk et al. found that Cronbach alphas were .86 and .90 for attachment anxiety and avoidance, respectively. Furthermore, the test-retest coefficients were .82 and .81 for anxiety and avoidance, respectively. In order to assess peer attachment representations, the current study used the adequately worded version of the ECR-R by replacing the words romantic partners or my partner with close peers (e.g., Özen, Sümer, & Demir, 2011). For a sample of Turkish university students, Özen et al. (2011) found Cronbach internal consistency coefficients as .91 and .93 for anxiety and avoidance respectively.

The adolescents rated the ECR-R only in the first phase of the study (see Appendix C). The sequential principle component analysis with varimax rotation revealed two interpretable dimensions in line with the previous studies, namely anxiety and avoidance. Ten items were removed from further analysis due to the fact that they either did not load on the factors at all or loaded on the wrong dimension. The two factor solution explained a total variance of 46.70 %. The peer attachment anxiety dimension had 14 items and explained 26.71 % of the variance with an eigenvalue of 7.20. The peer attachment avoidance dimension had 12 items and explained a variance of 20 % with an eigenvalue of 4.94. The internal consistency coefficients were .92 and .87 for peer attachment anxiety and avoidance, respectively.

2.3.10 Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire

Goodman (1997) modified the Rutter Parent Questionnaire and added more items to devise the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ). The SDQ

assesses the 4 to 16 years old children's problems and prosocial behaviors. This five dimensional scale could be rated by different informants such as parents and teachers, and adolescents between the ages of 11 to 16 by altering the wording adequately. The SDQ has a total of 25 items, 10 of which are related with child strengths, and 14 of which are related to difficulties of the child. One item "Gets along better with adults than with other children" is suggested to be neutral. There are five items for each subscale corresponding to each dimension, namely hyperactivity (e.g., "Restless, overactive, cannot stay still for long."), emotional symptoms (e.g., "Often complains about head-aches, stomach-aches or sickness."), conduct problems (e.g., "Often has temper tantrums or hot tempers."), peer problems (e.g., "Rather solitary, tends to play alone."), and prosocial behaviors (e.g., "Considerate of other people's feelings."). The respondents rated the items on a 3-point Likert type scale from 1 "not true" to 3 "certainly true". The psychometric qualities across different informants and different samples were high.

Eremsoy (2005) adapted the SDQ into Turkish and revealed four dimensions, namely Conduct problems and Hyperactivity, Prosocial Behavior, Emotional Symptoms, and Inattention problems. Sümer et al. (2009) revealed a three factor structure to the scale based on the ratings of mothers for their 4th and 5th grade primary school children. Each of the revealed dimensions, which were named as prosocial behavior, and externalizing and internalizing problems, had seven items. The Cronbach alpha internal consistency coefficients were .72, .67 and .67 respectively for externalizing and internalizing problems, and prosocial behavior.

In the current study, both of the parents and the class teachers rated the adolescent behavior in both phases using SDQ (see Appendix F and Appendix G). The factor analysis revealed that the factor structures across reporters were not consistent. Therefore the factor structure obtained by Sümer et al (2009) was use in this study. The internal consistency coefficients for mother reports were .70, .71, and .69 respectively for prosocial behavior, and externalizing and internalizing problems. They were .78, .72, and .74 for father reports and .86, .80, and .79 for teacher reports, respectively.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

In this section, first, the results regarding data screening and cleaning are presented. The next sections provide the results of descriptive statistics and preliminary analysis. The following sections provide the findings regarding specific hypotheses of the study by using a variety of structural equation modeling (SEM), multiple regression analysis, and Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA). All of the analysis in the current study was conducted using SPSS 13.0 for Windows except for the structural equation modeling with LISREL 8.5.

3.1 Data Screening and Cleaning

The missing value analysis revealed that 18 of the adolescents had missing values higher than the 20 % of the main study variables. Although some of these adolescents completed the first few measures, the rest of the scales were left uncompleted. Thus, they were removed from further analysis along with the ratings of their parents and teachers as well as their reports on the second phase of the analysis. The remaining data was screened for univariate and multivariate outliers. The results of these analysis suggested that there were no outliers that needed to be discarded.

The analysis for skewness and kurtosis revealed that most of the positive parenting items were positively skewed suggesting higher ratings for these items across reporters. Similarly, the negative parenting items and the items representing higher marital conflict, problematic behaviors as well as anxious and avoidant attachment to peers were mostly negatively skewed across reporters. Their kurtosis levels were within acceptable range. It was expected that the parents would get involved more in positive parenting rather than the negative ones. Similarly, the adolescent problems were expected to be low, and that was consistent with the reported adolescent behavior across reporters. The distribution of items measuring the self-regulation (SR) abilities of adolescents was within normality range. Thus, all of these measures were kept as they were without implementing any transformation.

The Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was conducted on the missing values in order to reveal the structure of the missing data. The results suggested that mostly fathers of the boys did not complete the questionnaires in the first phase. The mothers who completed the scales, involved in higher levels of parental monitoring and they had less aggressive children as compared to the mothers who did not respond. Similarly, boys and students from standard high school (SHS) had higher attrition rate than girls and students from achievement-oriented high school (AOHS) in the second phase of the analysis. The analysis also showed that the adolescents with high attrition rate in the second phase, reported higher paternal rejection and love withdrawal as well as aggression in the first phase. The ones with lower second phase attrition rate reported higher father attachment availability and success in SR in the first phase. The differences between participants with high and low attrition rate were not significant for other demographic and main study variables.

3.2 Regression Imputation of Missing Data

Given that SEM analysis required high number of participants with full data and the missing data for teacher ratings did not match each other in two consecutive phases of the analysis (i.e., different classes had missing data in two phases), it required the missing values to be handled. Regression imputation was implemented to replace the missing values for cross-sectional father and teacher measures as well as for the few cross-sectional missing data of adolescents and mothers, and for the longitudinal adolescent and teacher measures. This technique uses the relationship between two or more variables, and estimates the value of the missing data from the overall relationship between the variable at stake and the other variables, preferably the highly related ones in the data set. The estimates are extracted from one or more variables through General Linear Regression analysis where the variable with the missing data is regressed upon the predictor variables (Hawthorne, & Elliot, 2005).

In this procedure, for each variable a regression analysis was implemented by using the demographic variables, gender, the type of school, and the education level of the mother. These demographic variables were used for imputation since gender and the type of high school were the ones that made the most significant differences between ratings of the participants. Age and mother education were also included since other studies in Turkey found these variables to be significant in determining

difference between ratings (e.g. Harma, 2008). The imputation of the missing values of the fathers also included their education level. Since the gender and age of the four students were missing, the missing values were replaced with means of these variables in these cases across reporters.

The second phase data for adolescents and teachers was also imputed by using the same procedure. The same demographic variables were used for this procedure in order to maintain consistency between phases and variables. The data reported by parents were not imputed in the second phase since the missing value percentages were above 20 %. Hence, the parent data from the second phase of the study were not used in any of the analysis testing the hypothesis.

3.3 Descriptive Statistics

The comparison of the means for parenting variables revealed that the means for positive parenting were higher across reporters above the mid-point of the scales, the highest being the parental monitoring. On the other hand, the mean scores for negative parenting variables were lower than the mid-point of the scales, the one with the lowest mean score being parental love withdrawal across reporters. Furthermore, the attachment availability of both parents was very high close to the top anchor of the scales whereas attachment dependency on both parents had means closer to the mid-point of the scales. The mean scores of the other family context variable, marital conflict was around the mid-point of the scales albeit adolescents' reports reflected a higher mean score as compared to those of the parents (see Tables 3.1, and 3.2).

The mean scores of the adolescent reports of attachment strength and dependent measures revealed that the adolescents had the highest mean level for attachment strength to best friends, repair of mood, and low mean levels for aggression, peer attachment anxiety and avoidance. A more detailed analysis revealed that mothers were the second figure satisfying attachment needs to be followed by fathers and siblings. The comparison of means between the abilities for regulating the self revealed that the means levels of the SR measures were around the mid-point of the scales (see Table 3.2).

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Table 3.1

Means and Standard Deviations for First Phase Adolescent Variables

	Means	Std. Dev.	Min.	Max.
Mother Attachment Strength	8.60	5.085	0.00	18.00
Father Attachment Strength	5.98	4.54	0.00	18.00
Sibling Attachment Strength	3.30	4.19	0.00	25.00
Best Friends Attachment Strength	10.17	8.06	0.00	36.00
Mother Warmth	4.80	0.92	1.57	6.00
Mother Rejection	2.22	0.85	1.00	5.14
Mother Comparison	3.11	1.31	1.00	6.00
Mother Love Withdrawal	1.94	0.91	1.00	6.00
Mother Guilt Induction	2.88	1.07	1.00	6.00
Mother Parental Knowledge	4.19	1.13	1.13	6.00
Mother Monitoring	5.00	0.97	1.63	6.00
Mother Attachment Availability	3.35	0.63	1.33	4.00
Mother Attachment Dependency	2.64	0.66	1.00	4.00
Father Warmth	4.44	1.20	1.00	6.00
Father Rejection	2.20	1.00	1.00	6.00
Father Comparison	2.68	1.34	1.00	6.00
Father Love Withdrawal	1.96	1.00	1.00	5.62
Father Guilt Induction	2.70	1.09	1.00	6.00
Father Parental Knowledge	3.69	1.22	1.00	6.00
Father Monitoring	4.58	1.22	1.00	6.00
Father Attachment Availability	3.22	0.67	1.00	4.00
Father Attachment Dependency	2.63	0.66	1.00	4.00
Interparental Conflict	2.14	0.59	1.00	4.00
Attention to Emotions	3.89	0.98	1.14	5.86
Clarity of Emotions	4.15	0.91	1.67	6.00
Repair of Emotions	4.24	1.07	1.00	6.00
Obsession with Emotions	3.86	0.79	1.00	6.00
Reappraisal	3.90	0.94	1.00	6.00
Suppression	3.83	0.99	1.00	6.00
Positive Reframing	4.13	1.04	1.00	6.00
Success in SR	2.91	0.46	1.29	4.00
Failure in SR	2.84	0.48	1.00	4.00
Aggression	2.31	1.05	1.00	6.00
Peer Attachment Anxiety	2.75	1.06	1.00	5.71
Peer Attachment Avoidance	2.76	0.91	1.00	5.58

Table 3.2

Means and Standard Deviations for Parent and Teacher Variables

	Means	Std. Dev.	Min.	Max.
Mother Warmth	5.34	0.54	3.14	6.00
Mother Rejection	1.80	0.65	1.00	4.00
Mother Comparison	2.37	0.95	1.00	5.40
Mother Love Withdrawal	1.62	0.59	1.00	4.08
Mother Guilt Induction	2.76	0.92	1.30	5.67
Mother Parental Knowledge	4.91	0.76	1.88	6.00
Mother Monitoring	5.75	0.41	3.25	6.00
Mother-Reported Marital Conflict	1.56	0.37	1.00	2.83
Mother-Reported Externalization Prob.	1.42	0.35	1.00	2.43
Mother-Reported Prosocial Behavior	2.65	0.29	1.43	3.00
Mother-Reported Internalization Prob.	1.39	0.35	1.00	2.86
Father Warmth	5.09	0.74	2.29	6.00
Father Rejection	1.83	0.69	1.00	4.43
Father Comparison	2.47	1.04	1.00	5.60
Father Love Withdrawal	1.69	0.60	1.00	4.15
Father Guilt Induction	2.68	0.94	1.30	5.20
Father Parental Knowledge	4.41	1.01	1.75	6.00
Father Monitoring	5.49	0.57	3.00	6.00
Father-Reported Marital Conflict	1.59	0.36	1.00	2.92
Father-Reported Externalization Prob.	1.40	0.35	1.00	2.43
Father-Reported Prosocial Behavior	2.61	0.35	1.43	3.00
Father-Reported Internalization Prob.	1.35	0.35	1.00	2.86
Teacher-Reported Externalization Prob.	1.40	0.33	1.00	3.00
Teacher-Reported Prosocial Behavior	2.44	0.41	1.00	3.00
Teacher-Reported Internalization Prob.	1.39	0.34	1.00	2.86
Phase-2				
Teacher-Reported Externalization Prob.	1,54	0,40	1,00	3,00
Teacher-Reported Prosocial Behavior	2,41	0,38	1,43	3,00
Teacher-Reported Internalization Prob.	1,36	0,37	1,00	2,57

The mean scores were lower than the mid-point of the scales for adolescent problems across parents and teachers. Furthermore, the mean scores of the adolescent

externalization and internalization problems were comparable to each other. Additionally, the mean scores of the adolescent prosocial behavior were high across reporters. Finally, the mean scores for same variables across reporters were comparable to each other (see Table 3.2).

The examination of mean scores in the second phase of the study and comparing them to those in the first phase suggested that they had similar structure and comparable mean levels (see Table 3.3). The following section presents the bivariate correlation analysis between the main study variables within and across reporters.

Table 3.3

Means and Standard Deviations for Second Phase Adolescent Variables

	Means	Std. Dev.	Min.	Max.
Mother Comparison	2.92	1.18	1.00	6.00
Mother Love Withdrawal	1.92	0.81	1.00	5.85
Mother Guilt Induction	2.82	1.07	1.00	6.00
Mother Parental Knowledge	4.03	1.07	1.00	6.00
Mother Monitoring	4.87	1.02	1.00	6.00
Father Comparison	2.59	1.24	1.00	6.00
Father Love Withdrawal	1.98	0.92	1.00	5.92
Father Guilt Induction	2.63	1.05	1.00	5.70
Father Parental Knowledge	3.59	1.17	1.00	6.00
Father Monitoring	4.42	1.14	1.00	6.00
Interparental Conflict	2.22	0.40	1.35	3.65
Attention to Emotions	3.93	0.89	1.00	6.00
Clarity of Emotions	4.02	0.86	1.00	6.00
Repair of Emotions	4.12	1.04	1.00	6.00
Obsession with Emotions	3.78	0.76	1.00	6.00
Reappraisal	3.73	0.89	1.00	6.00
Suppression	3.70	1.00	1.00	6.00
Positive Reframing	3.94	1,00	1.00	6.00
Success in SR	2.83	0.46	1.00	4.00
Failure in SR	2.81	0.47	1.00	4.00
Aggression	2.17	0.98	1.00	6.00

3.4 Preliminary Analysis

3.4.1 Bivariate Analysis for Adolescent Measures

In the initial phase of the statistical analysis, the Bivarite correlations of the adolescent variables were computed. As seen Table 3.4, the adolescent reports of parenting variables and attachment to parents were significantly correlated with each other, and the correlations were in the expected directions. The sub-dimensions of the constructs for mothers were also highly correlated with each other ($r (426) = .68$, $p<.01$ between love withdrawal and guilt induction, $r (426) = .70$, $p<.01$, between mother parental knowledge and monitoring, and $r (426) = .52$, $p<.01$ between mother attachment availability and dependency). For positive parenting behaviors, the highest positive correlations for mother warmth were with mother parental knowledge ($r (426) = .59$, $p<.01$), attachment availability and attachment dependency ($r (426) = .53$, $p<.01$, and $r (426) = .57$, $p<.01$, respectively). Although positive mother parenting variables and negatives ones showed moderate negative correlations among each other except for the high negative correlation between love withdrawal and attachment availability ($r (426) = -.56$, $p<.01$), the negative mother parenting behaviors had low but negative correlations with behavioral control variables. Mother rejection had the highest correlations with mother love withdrawal and guilt induction ($r (426) = .73$, $p<.01$, and $r (426) = .68$, $p<.01$ respectively).

The correlations for father variables showed a similar pattern, albeit with higher negative correlations between negative and positive parenting variables. The sub-dimensions of the same constructs were highly and positively correlated with each other ($r (426) = .66$, $p<.01$ between love withdrawal and guilt induction, $r (426) = .69$, $p<.01$, between parental knowledge and monitoring, and $r (426) = .61$, $p<.01$ between attachment availability and dependency). As expected, father warmth had high correlations with positive parenting variables with a range between .60 (with parental knowledge and parental monitoring) to .65 (with attachment availability). Similarly, parental warmth had moderate to high negative correlations with negative parenting variables, the one with father love withdrawal being the highest ($r (426) = -.56$, $p<.01$). Negative father parenting variables had high correlation among each other, ranging between .52 (between comparison and guilt induction) and .77 (between rejection and love withdrawal).

Table 3.4

Bivariate Correlations between Independent Variables for Adolescents

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1.M-A-S												
2.F-A-S	.41**											
3.S-A-S	-.05	-.11*										
4.BF-A-S	-.50**	-.45**	-.21**									
5.AM-WAR	.34**	.15**	.02	-.16**								
6.AM-REJ	-.20**	-.21**	-.02	.18**	-.36**							
7.AM-COM	-.13**	-.09	-.01	.10*	-.34**	.50**						
8.AM-LW	-.28**	-.20**	-.02	.21**	-.49**	.73**	.48**					
9.AM-GI	-.23**	-.22**	-.09	.22**	-.25**	.68**	.44**	.68**				
10.AM-PK	.40**	.18**	.02	-.20**	.59**	-.13**	-.07	-.23**	-.11*			
11.AM-MON	.36**	.18**	.03	-.20**	.48**	-.15**	-.10*	-.27**	-.14**	.70**		
12.AM-AV	.36**	.23**	.05	-.19**	.53**	-.43**	-.34**	-.56**	-.37**	.41**	.40**	
13.AM-DEP	.43**	.17**	.08	-.29**	.57**	-.39**	-.31**	-.45**	-.35**	.53**	.42**	.52**
14.AF-WAR	.18**	.38**	.02	-.15**	.51**	-.20**	-.22**	-.27**	-.17**	.40**	.43**	.38**
15.AF-REJ	-.23**	-.27**	-.01	.16**	-.29**	.54**	.38**	.49**	.52**	-.17**	-.26**	-.39**
16.AF-COM	-.11*	-.15**	.02	.05	-.17**	.31**	.55**	.28**	.34**	-.04	-.16**	-.25**
17.AF-LW	-.21**	-.31**	-.01	.17**	-.34**	.49**	.38**	.59**	.51**	-.24**	-.34**	-.46**
18.AF-GI	-.16**	-.17**	-.03	.12**	-.20**	.46**	.34**	.45**	.63**	-.15**	-.22**	-.29**
19.AF-PK	.13**	.38**	-.03	-.16**	.38**	-.10*	-.03	-.15**	-.11*	.59**	.40**	.25**
20.AF-MON	.21**	.33**	-.03	-.17**	.44**	-.15**	-.08	-.20**	-.12*	.57**	.65**	.31**
21. AF-AV	.17**	.35**	.03	-.14**	.34**	-.35**	-.28**	-.37**	-.31**	.27**	.33**	.55**
22.AF-DEP	.22**	.38**	-.01	-.19**	.35**	-.29**	-.17**	-.31**	-.28**	.36**	.31**	.36**
23.CPIC	-.10*	-.32**	-.01	.16**	-.30**	.38**	.19**	.34**	.36**	-.21**	-.15**	-.30**

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Table 3.4

Contd'

	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
13.AM-DEP										
14.AF-WAR	.36**									
15.AF-REJ	-.31**	-.51**								
16.AF-COM	-.16**	-.33**	.58**							
17.AF-LW	-.32**	-.56**	.77**	.53**						
18.AF-GI	-.26**	-.32**	.69**	.52**	.66**					
19.AF-PK	.30**	.60**	-.22**	-.03	-.30**	-.17**				
20.AF-MON	.35**	.60**	-.29**	-.15**	-.36**	-.19**	.69**			
21. AF-AV	.34**	.65**	-.53**	-.34**	-.56**	-.37**	.48**	.47**		
22.AF-DEP	.53**	.62**	-.48**	-.33**	-.49**	-.43**	.56**	.47**	.61**	
23.CPIC	-.25**	-.40**	.40**	.19**	.43**	.37**	-.40**	-.30**	-.43**	-.42**

Note. M-A-S=Attachment Strength to Mother; F-A-S=Attachment Strength to Father; S-A-S=Attachment Strength to Sibling; BF-A-S=Attachment Strength to Best Friends; AM-WAR=Adolescent-Reported Mother Warmth; AM-REJ=Adolescent-Reported Mother Rejection; AM-CO =Adolescent-Reported Mother Comparison; AM-LW=Adolescent-Reported Mother Love Withdrawal; AM-GI=Adolescent-Reported Mother Guilt Induction; AM-PK=Adolescent-Reported Mother Parental Knowledge; AM-MON=Adolescent-Reported Mother Monitoring; AM-AV=Adolescent-Reported Mother Availability; AM-DEP=Adolescent-Reported Mother Dependency; AF-WAR=Adolescent-Reported Father Warmth; AF-REJ=Adolescent-Reported Father Rejection; AF-COM=Adolescent-Reported Father Comparison; AF-LW=Adolescent-Reported Father Love Withdrawal; AF-GI=Adolescent-Reported Father Guilt Induction; AF-PK=Adolescent-Reported Father Parental Knowledge; AF-MON=Adolescent-Reported Father Monitoring; AF-AV=Adolescent-Reported Father Availability; AF-DEP=Adolescent-Reported Father Dependency; CPIC=Children's Perception of Interparental Conflict.

*p< .05: **p< .01.

The correlations between the adolescent-reported mother and father variables were all in the expected direction. Those who reported high levels of positive or negative mother parenting also reported high levels of positive or negative paternal behavior. The correlations between the same parenting variables across parents were highest between mother and father monitoring (r (426) = .65, p<.01) and the lowest between mother and father warmth (r (426) = .51, p<.01).

The correlations between parenting, attachment security, attachment strength, and interparental conflict were all in the expected directions. Specifically, the adolescents whose parents were warm and practicing higher behavioral control, reported satisfying their attachment needs with their parents. These adolescents also perceived lower levels of marital conflict in the household and had more secure relationships with their parents. Moreover, they chose their friends as satisfiers of their attachment needs less as revealed from the negative correlations between attachment strength to best friend, parental warmth and behavioral control (r (426)=-.16, p<.01, r (426) =-.20, p<.01, respectively for mothers, and r (426)=-.15, p<.01, r (426)=-.16, p<.01, and r (426)=-.17, p<.01 respectively for fathers). The adolescents who had mothers as attachment figures, also had higher attachment strength to their fathers (r (426) =.41, p<.01), lower attachment strength to their friends (r (426)=-.50, p<.01), and high attachment security to their mothers (r (426)=.36, p<.01, and r(426)=.43, p<.01 for attachment availability and dependency, respectively). The ones with fathers as attachment figures reported less perceived marital conflict (r (426)=-.32, p<.01) and high attachment security to their fathers (r (426)=.34, p<.01, and r(426)=.53, p<.01 for attachment availability and dependency, respectively). The adolescents who perceived their parents behaviors as negatively, chose their best friends as attachment figures, and reported higher marital conflict and being more insecure in their relations with their parents as well.

The correlation analyses between independent and dependent variables revealed that positive and negative emotional family context correlated with SR measures, aggression, and peer attachment dimensions in the expected directions, as seen in Table 3.5. Adolescents who were exposed to positive emotional family context, also had better positive SR, lower aggressive behavior and lower peer attachment anxiety as well as lower peer attachment avoidance. The lowest and

Table 3.5

Bivariate Correlations between Independent and Dependent Variables for Adolescents

	ATTE	CLAR	REP	OWE	REAP	SUPP	PORE	SUCC	FAIL	AGGR	P-ANX	P-AVO
M-A-S	.18**	.13**	.24**	-.11*	.07	-.10*	.15**	.13**	-.02	-.18**	-.22**	.07
F-A-S	.04	.15**	.24**	-.18**	.10*	-.01	.16**	.14**	-.09	-.12*	-.14**	.10*
S-A-S	-.05	.01	-.04	.03	.00	-.02	-.02	-.00	.06	-.02	-.03	.07
BF-A-S	.02	-.11*	-.18**	.08	-.08	-.06	-.14**	-.10*	.07	.14**	.11*	-.25**
AM-WAR	.19**	.33**	.34**	.05	.24**	-.05	.29**	.29**	.01	-.21**	-.22**	-.20**
AM-REJ	-.18**	-.17	-.22**	.15**	-.08	.20**	-.11*	-.17**	.18**	.25**	.25**	-.02
AM-COM	-.19**	-.11*	-.11*	.06	.01	.19**	-.08	-.19**	.05	.20**	.23**	-.02
AM-LW	-.25**	-.22**	-.33**	.07	-.11*	.15**	-.16**	-.27**	.16**	.34**	.28**	.03
AM-GI	-.17**	-.13*	-.23**	.14**	-.06	.14**	-.05	-.17**	.17**	.32**	.29**	-.04
AM-PK	.12*	.33**	.33**	-.00	.24**	.00	.29**	.32**	.01	-.17**	-.16**	-.17**
AM-MON	.17**	.25**	.31**	.02	.19**	.02	.27**	.37**	.07	-.28**	-.26**	-.16**
AM-AV	.26**	.28**	.32**	-.11*	.16**	-.06	.23**	.27**	-.07	-.27**	-.32**	-.13**
AM-DEP	.24**	.28**	.32**	-.04	.15**	-.12*	.21**	.26**	-.11*	-.23**	-.20**	-.03
AF-WAR	.15**	.33**	.34**	.05	.26**	.02	.28**	.35**	.04	-.23**	-.24**	-.26**
AF-REJ	-.26**	-.20**	-.27**	.12*	-.10*	.09	-.11*	-.25**	.10*	.31**	.33**	.04
AF-COM	-.17**	-.09	-.10*	.04	.03	.15**	-.03	-.17**	.03	.23**	.26**	.04

Table 3.5

Cond'

	ATTE	CLAR	REP	OWE	REAP	SUPP	PORE	SUCC	FAIL	AGGR	P-ANX	P-AVO
AF-LW	-.28**	-.26**	-.32**	.06	-.11*	.09	-.16**	-.33**	.09	.37**	.37**	.09
AF-GI	-.16**	-.11*	-.17**	.15**	-.04	.07	-.04	-.28**	.17**	.32**	.32**	.00
AF-PK	.03	.34**	.31**	-.02	.24**	.08	.24**	.27**	-.06	-.10*	-.11*	-.12*
AF-MON	.07	.28**	.30**	.01	.26**	.09	.26**	.31**	-.01	-.20**	-.21**	-.15**
AF-AV	.20**	.29**	.31**	-.12*	.16**	-.01	.19**	.32**	-.03	-.26**	-.29**	-.16**
AF-DEP	.15**	.31**	.31**	-.12*	.21**	.04	.20**	.31**	-.11*	-.20**	-.16**	-.04
CPIC	-.14**	-.31**	-.33**	.12*	-.21**	.02	-.22**	-.24**	.16**	.22**	.20**	.10*

Note. M-A-S=Attachment Strength to Mother; F-A-S=Attachment Strength to Father; S-A-S=Attachment Strength to Sibling; BF-A-S=Attachment Strength to Best Friend; CPIC=Children's Perception of Interparental Conflict; ATTE=Attention to Emotions; CLA=Clarity of Emotions; REP= Repair of Emotions; OWE=Obsession with Emotions; AM-WAR=Mother Warmth; AM-REJ =Mother Rejection; AM-COM=Mother Comparison; AM-LW=Mother Love Withdrawal; AM-GI=Mother Guilt Induction; AM-PK=Mother Parental Knowledge; AM-MON=Mother Monitoring; AM-AV=Mother Attachment Availability; AM-DEP=Mother Attachment Dependency; AF-WAR=Father Warmth; AF-REJ=Father Rejection; AF-COM=Father Comparison; AF-LW=Father Love Withdrawal; AF-GI=Father Guilt Induction; AF-PK=Father parental Knowledge; AF-MON=Father Monitoring; AF-AV=Father Attachment Availability; AF-DEP=Father Attachment Dependency; REAP=Reappraisal; SUPP=Suppression; POREF=Positive Reframing; SUCC=SR Success ; FAIL=SR Failure ; AGGR=Aggression; P-ANX=Peer Anxiety; P-AVO=Peer Avoidance.
*p< .05: **p< .01.

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highest significant correlations among positive emotional family context and positive SR were between clarity of emotions and attachment strength to the mother (r $(426)=.13, p<.05$), and success in SR and mother monitoring (r $(426)=.37, p<.01$), respectively. Although attachment strength to mother was not correlated with peer attachment avoidance, attachment strength to father had low correlation with it. Positive emotional family context was either not correlated or had correlations small in magnitude with obsession with emotions, suppression and SR failure.

Those adolescents perceiving the emotional family context as negative, also had lower levels of positive SR abilities, reported higher aggressive behaviors and reported higher levels of peer attachment anxiety. Especially, the adolescents who reported low levels of repair of emotions, also had mothers who practiced love withdrawal $(426)=- .33, p<.01$) as a form of control. Similarly, the adolescents who had low levels of success in SR, also reported their fathers as practicing love withdrawal $(426)=- .33, p<.01$). Additionally, the adolescents whose fathers practiced higher love withdrawal, had high levels of aggression and peer attachment anxiety $(426)=- .37, p<.01$, for both). Only negative parenting behaviors of the mother had consistent relations with negative SR behavior of the adolescent, especially with the suppressive type of ER. Specifically, as the mother rejected the adolescent, the adolescent reported higher levels of suppression ($r (426) = .20$, $p<.01$). The marital conflict also correlated negatively with positive SR capacity of the adolescents, the highest negative correlation being with clarity of emotions (r $(426)=- .33, p<.01$). The adolescents who reported high marital conflict, also practiced more negative SR behaviors of obsession with emotions ($r (426) = .12$, $p<.05$) and SR failure ($r (426) = .16, p<.01$, respectively), and they were more avoidant in their peer relationships ($r (426) = .10, p<.05$).

Although the correlations among positive SR measures were moderate to high in the expected directions, unexpectedly, they also had low to moderate positive correlations with negative SR measures (see Table 3.6). Specifically, although there was a low positive correlation between reappraisal and suppression as expected (r $(426) = .27, p<.01$), suppression was also positively correlated with both positive and negative SR measures, ranging from lowest with obsession with emotions (r $(426) =.15, p<.01$), to highest with positive reframing ($r (426) =.22, p<.01$), except with attention to emotions ($r (426) = - .35, p<.001$). The positive SR measure that

Table 3.6

Bivariate Correlations between Dependent Variables for Adolescents

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1.ATTE											
2.CLA	.08										
3.REP	.11*	.53**									
4.OWE	.04	.16**	.08								
5.REAP	-.18**	.46**	.56**	.14**							
6.SUPP	-.35**	.13**	.05	.15**	.27**						
7.PORE	-.05	.43**	.60**	.15**	.60**	.22**					
8.SUCC	.06	.48**	.49**	.06	.44**	.16**	.42**				
9.FAIL	.06	.02	-.03	.31**	.05	.08	.10*	-.08			
10.AGGR	-.33**	-.13*	-.23**	.07	-.10	.19**	-.11*	-.20**	.07		
11.P-ANX	-.23**	-.09	-.23**	.24**	-.03	.20**	-.00	-.18**	.16**	.61**	
12.P-AVO	-.23**	-.31**	-.28**	-20**	-.28**	.00	-.28**	-.26**	-.27**	.13**	.08

Note. ATTE = Attention to Emotions; CLA = Clarity of Emotions; REP = Repair of Emotions; OWE = Obsession with Emotions; REAP = Reappraisal; SUPP = Suppression; POREF =Positive Reframing; SUCC = SR Success ; FAIL = SR Failure ; AGGR = Aggression; P-ANX = Peer Anxiety; P-AVO = Peer Avoidance.
*p< .05; **p< .01.

was most significantly and highly correlated with other positive SR measures was repair of emotions, its lowest correlation being with (r (426) =.11, p<.05) and its highest correlation being with positive reframing (r (426) =.60, p<.01).

The SR measures were also related with peer attachment dimensions and aggression. Adolescents who had negative SR measures such as obsession with emotions and SR failure, also had higher peer attachment anxiety (r (426) =.24, p<.01, and r (426) =.16, p<.01, respectively) as well as lower attachment avoidance (r (426) =-.20, p<.01, and r (426) =-.27, p<.01, respectively). Similarly, the adolescent who suppressed their emotions more, were more anxious in their peer relationships (r (426) = .20, p<.01) and got involved in more aggressive behavior towards their friends (r (426) = .19, p<.01). Moreover, the more aggressive the adolescents got, the more anxious they got in their peer attachment relationships (r (426) = .61, p<.01). Although aggression with peers was also related with avoidance, this correlation was small in magnitude. The adolescent with better SR skills exhibited less aggressive behaviors. Specifically, as the adolescents attended more to their emotions, they reported lower levels of aggression (r (426) =-.33, p<.01) and peer attachment anxiety (r (426)=-.231, p<.01). As they were higher in clarity of emotions, they reported lower levels of peer attachment avoidance (r (426)=-.31, p<.01).

3.4.2 The Demographic Differences on the Main Study Variables

A series of ANOVAs were conducted in order to compare the means of different sub-groups based on the demographic variables. As can be seen in Table 3.7, the ANOVAs with gender revealed that the girls reported more positive parenting behaviors and less negative behaviors for parents. The mothers and fathers monitored their daughters more as compared to their sons ($M_{girls-mothers}$=5.39; $M_{boys-mothers}$=4.70, and $M_{girls-fathers}$=4.70; $M_{boys-fathers}$=4.40), and the daughters shared more information with their mothers as compared to sons ($M_{girls-mothers}$=4.46; $M_{boys-mothers}$=3.96). Girls also reported more attachment dependency on their mothers ($M_{girls-mothers}$=2.75; $M_{boys-mothers}$=2.55), availability of their fathers ($M_{girls-fathers}$=3.29; $M_{boys-fathers}$=3.16), attachment strength to mothers ($M_{girls-mothers}$=9.40; $M_{boys-mothers}$=7.90) and best friends ($M_{girls-mothers}$=11.28; $M_{boys-mothers}$=7.92) as well as less marital conflict as compared to boys (M_{girls}=2.24; M_{boys}=2.05). The girls also had

Table 3.7

Gender Differences on Main Study Variables

	Girls (N = 191)		Boys (N = 231)			
	Mean	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*	*F*	*Eta²*
M-A-S	9.40	4.95	7.90	5.08	9.47**	.02
F-A-S	5.01	4.08	6.81	4.75	17.26**	.04
BF-A-S	11.28	8.10	9.28	7.92	6.63*	.02
AM-WAR	4.97	.88	4.66	.94	11.91**	.03
AM-COM	2.85	1.33	3.31	1.24	13.53**	.03
AM-PK	4.46	1.04	3.96	1.16	21.07**	.05
AM-MON	5.39	.70	4.70	1.06	57.60**	.12
AM-DEP	2.75	.71	2.55	.59	10.17**	.02
AF-WAR	4.60	1.22	4.31	1.16	6.35*	.02
AF-REJ	2.07	.99	2.30	1.00	5.83*	.01
AF-COM	2.39	1.34	2.92	1.30	17.19**	.04
AF-LW	1.84	.90	2.05	1.06	4.90*	.01
AF-MON	4.79	1.20	4.40	1.21	10.93**	.03
AF-AV	3.29	.67	3.16	.65	4.27*	.01
M-COM	2.20	.91	2.53	.96	5.86*	.03
M-PK	5.11	.63	4.70	.82	15.29**	.03
M-MON	5.84	.28	5.66	.50	8.47**	.08
F-REJ	1.72	.64	1.95	.72	4.66*	.03
CPIC	2.24	.64	2.05	.53	11.62**	.03

Table 3.7

Cond'

	Girls (N = 191)		Boys (N = 231)			
	Mean	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*	*F*	*Eta²*
ATTEN	4.15	.93	3.68	.98	25.78**	.06
CLAR	4.06	.93	4.23	.88	3.88*	.01
SUPP	3.67	1.01	3.96	.95	8.96**	.02
FAIL	2.95	.49	2.76	.45	17.39**	.04
AGGRES	2.08	1.00	2.50	1.06	17.28**	.04
P-ANX	2.56	1.02	2.92	1.07	12.52**	.03
P-AVO	2.57	.90	2.92	.89	16.31**	.04
T-EXTER	1.27	.28	1.51	.33	62.23**	.13
M-EXTER	1.33	.31	1.52	.36	14.72**	.07
F-EXTER	1.33	.33	1.48	.36	8.82**	.05
T-PROSOC	2.59	.35	2.32	.43	50.00**	.11
F-PROSOC	2.66	.30	2.55	.38	4.89*	.03

Note. M-A-S=Attachment Strength to Mother; F-A-S=Attachment Strength to Father; BF-A-S= Attachment Strength to Best Friend; AM-WAR=Adolescent-Reported Warmth; AM-COM=Adolescent-Reported Mother Comparison; AM-PK=Adolescent-Reported Mother Parental Knowledge; AM-MON=Adolescent-Reported Mother Monitoring; AM-DEP=Mother Attachment Dependency; AF-WAR=Adolescent-Reported Father Warmth; AF-REJ=Adolescent-Reported Father Rejection; AF-COM=Adolescent-Reported Father Comparison; AF-LW=Adolescent-Reported Father Love Withdrawal; AF-MON=Adolescent-Reported Father Monitoring; AF-AV=Father Attachment Availability; M-COM=Mother-Reported Comparison; M-PK=Mother-Reported Parental Knowledge; M-MON=Mother-Reported Monitoring; F-REJ=Father-Reported Rejection; CPIC=Children's Perception of Interparental Conflict; ATTE=Attention to Emotions; CLAR=Clarity of Emotions; SUPP=Suppression; FAIL=SR Failure ; AGGR=Aggression; P-ANX=Peer Anxiety; P-AVO=Peer Avoidance; T-EXTER=Teacher-Reported Externalization Problems; M-EXTER=Mother-Reported Externalization Problems; F-EXTER=Father-Reported Externalization Problems; T-Prosoc=Teacher-Reported Prosocial Behavior; F-PROSOC=Father-Reported Prosocial Behavior.
*p< .05: **p< .01

higher attention to emotions (M_{girls}=4.15; M_{boys}=3.68) and failure of SR than boys (M_{girls}=4.70; M_{boys}=4.40). On the other hand, the boys reported higher father attachment strength ($M_{girls-mothers}$=5.01; $M_{boys-mothers}$=6.81), peer aggression (M_{girls}=2.08; M_{boys}=2.50), peer attachment anxiety (M_{girls}=2.56; M_{boys}=2.92), and avoidance (M_{girls}=2.57; M_{boys}=2.92).

There were significant gender differences in the reports of parents and teachers. Specifically, mothers reported that they monitored their daughters more (M_{girls}=5.84; M_{boys}=5.66), and they had higher parental knowledge about their daughters (M_{girls}=5.11; M_{boys}=4.70). The mothers of the boys also reported practicing higher parental comparison (M_{girls}=2.20; M_{boys}=2.53) and the fathers of the boys reported higher levels of own parental rejection behavior (M_{girls}=1.72; M_{boys}=1.95). Teachers and parents reported higher levels of externalization behavior for boys ($M_{girls-teachers}$=1.27; $M_{boys-teachers}$=1.51; $M_{girls-mothers}$=1.33; $M_{boys-mothers}$= .521; $M_{girls-fathers}$=1.33; $M_{boys-fathers}$=1.48) and teachers and fathers reported higher levels of prosocial behavior for girls ($M_{girls-teachers}$=2.59; $M_{boys-teachers}$=2.32; $M_{girls-fathers}$=2.66; $M_{boys-fathers}$=2.55).

The comparison of adolescents in terms of the high schools they were attending revealed that there were significant differences between the reports of adolescents, as seen in Table 3.8. The adolescents studying in AOHS had higher attachment strength to members of their families whereas the ones studying in SHS had higher attachment strength to their best friends (M_{SHS}=12.02; M_{AOHS}=8.51). Similarly, adolescent in SHS reported more negative parenting behaviors and less attachment availability to both mothers (M_{SHS}=3.25; M_{AOHS}=3.45) and fathers (M_{SHS}=2.95; M_{AOHS}=2.45) as compared to the adolescents in AOHS. They also reported higher perceptions of marital conflict (M_{SHS}=2.20; M_{AOHS}=2.08), obsession with emotions (M_{SHS}=3.95; M_{AOHS}=3.76), suppression (M_{SHS}=3.98; M_{AOHS}=3.68), aggression (M_{SHS}=2.58; M_{AOHS}=2.05) and peer attachment anxiety (M_{SHS}=3.05; M_{AOHS}=2.47).

The ratings of the teachers and the parents on some of the variables were also significantly different from each other in terms of students studying at different schools. Specifically, the mothers of the students in SHS reported higher rejection (M_{SHS}=1.93; M_{AOHS}=1.69), guilt induction (M_{SHS}=3.02; M_{AOHS}=2.54), and marital conflict (M_{SHS}=1.65; M_{AOHS}=1.48) whereas the ones whose children were studying at

Table 3.8

School Differences on Main Study Variables

	Standard High School (N = 208)		Achievement-Oriented High School (N = 218)			
	Mean	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*	*F*	*Eta^2*
M-A-S	7.84	4.93	9.33	5.13	9.30**	.02
F-A-S	5.19	4.37	6.74	4.58	12.85**	.03
BF-A-S	12.02	8.51	8.40	7.19	22.50**	.02
S-A-S	2.73	3.39	3.84	4.77	7.65**	.01
AM-REJ	2.33	.87	2.12	.82	6.45*	.02
AM-GI	3.05	1.08	2.71	1.02	11.44**	.03
AM-AV	3.25	.70	3.45	.55	10.77**	.03
AF-REJ	2.40	1.09	2.00	.88	18.21**	.04
AF-COM	2.87	1.43	2.50	1.23	8.37**	.02
AF-LW	2.11	1.15	1.81	.81	9.73**	.02
AF-GI	2.95	1.16	2.45	.97	23.17**	.05
AF-AV	3.11	.70	3.32	.62	11.48**	.03
M-REJ	1.93	.72	1.69	.56	6.57*	.03
M-GI	3.02	.94	2.54	.84	13.43**	.07
M-PK	4.75	.81	5.04	.70	7.05**	.04
M-CONF	1.65	.37	1.48	.35	9.69**	.05
F-REJ	1.97	.79	1.72	.58	5.69*	.03
F-GI	2.91	.92	2.51	.92	8.32**	.05
F-CONF	1.67	.40	1.52	.30	8.58**	.05

Table 3.8

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	Standard High School (N = 208)		Achievement-Oriented High School (N = 218)			
	Mean	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*	*F*	*Eta²*
CPIC	2.20	.59	2.08	.57	4.62*	.01
OWE	3.97	.79	3.76	.78	8.04**	.02
SUPP	3.98	1.04	3.68	.91	9.86**	.02
AGGRES	2.58	1.21	2.05	.80	28.84**	.06
P-ANX	3.05	1.10	2.47	.94	34.13**	.08
T-EXTER	1.44	.38	1.36	.27	6.59*	.02
M-EXTER	1.57	.38	1.30	.28	30.18**	.14
F-EXTER	1.53	.40	1.31	.27	18.30**	.10
T-PROSOC	2.38	.49	2.50	.32	9.16**	.02
T-INTER	1.45	.30	1.33	.37	12.91**	.03
M-INTER	1.44	.37	1.34	.32	4.09*	.02

Note. M-A-S=Attachment Strength to Mother; F-A-S=Attachment Strength to Father; BF-A-S=Attachment Strength to Best Friend; S-A-S=Attachment Strength to Sibling; AM-REJ=Adolescent-Reported Mother Rejection; AM-GI=Adolescent-Reported Mother Guilt Induction; AM-AV=Mother Attachment Availability; AF-REJ =Adolescent-Reported Father Rejection; AF-COM=Adolescent-Reported Father Comparison; AF-LW=Adolescent-Reported Father Love Withdrawal; AF-GI=Adolescent-Reported Father Guilt Induction; AF-AV=Father Attachment Availability; M-REJ=Mother-Reported Rejection; M-GI=Mother-Reported Guilt Induction; M-PK=Mother-Reported Parental Knowledge; M-CONF=Mother-Reported Marital Conflict; F-REJ=Father-Reported Rejection; F-GI=Father-Reported Guilt Induction; F-CONF=Father-Reported Marital Conflict; CPIC=Children's Perception of Interparental Conflict; OWE=Obsession with Emotions; SUPP=Suppression; AGGRES=Aggression; P-ANX=Peer Anxiety; T-EXTER=Teacher-Reported Externalization Problems; M-EXTER=Mother-Reported Externalization Problems; F-EXTER=Father-Reported Externalization Problems; T-PROSOC=Teacher-Reported Prosocial Behavior; T-INTER=Teacher-Reported Internalization Problems; M-INTER=Mother-Reported Internalization Problems.
*$p< .05$: **$p< .01$.

AOHS reported higher levels of parental knowledge (M_{SHS}=4.75; M_{AOHS}=5.04). The fathers of the students at SHS also reported higher levels of rejection (M_{SHS}=1.97; M_{AOHS}=1.72), guilt induction (M_{SHS}=2.91; M_{AOHS}=2.51), and marital conflict (M_{SHS}=1.67; M_{AOHS}=1.52) as compared to those at AOHS. The students at SHS were rated to have higher levels of externalization problems by teachers (M_{SHS}=1.44; M_{AOHS}=1.36), mothers (M_{SHS}=1.57; M_{AOHS}=1.30), and fathers (M_{SHS}=1.53; M_{AOHS}=1.31), and they were rated to have higher levels of internalization problems by teachers (M_{SHS}=1.45; M_{AOHS}=1.33) and mothers (M_{SHS}=1.44; M_{AOHS}=1.34) as compared to those students studying at AOHS. The teachers reported that the students at AOHS had higher levels of prosocial behavior as compared to the students at SHS (M_{SHS}=2.38; M_{AOHS}=2.50).

The ANOVAs conducted with other grouping demographic variables revealed that they only had minor impact on the adolescent reports. The ANOVAs comparing two age groups of 13-14 and 15-17 years old adolescents revealed that the younger adolescents had higher attachment strength to their mothers ($M_{younger}$ = 9.56; M_{older} = 7.92) and their fathers ($M_{younger}$ = 6.44; M_{older} = 5.54) than the older group. The younger group also reported higher mother parental knowledge ($M_{younger}$ = 4.40; M_{older} = 4.04) and mother attachment dependency at the marginal level ($M_{younger}$ = 2.72; M_{older} = 2.60).

Mother education was classified into three groups, the lowest education group subsuming the mothers with secondary school education or less, and the highest group subsuming the mothers with university education or higher education, with the ones with high school education representing the third group. The analysis revealed that the mothers with higher education had adolescents with higher attachment strength to their mothers ($M_{loweducation}$=7.64; $M_{moderateeducation}$=8.83; $M_{higheducation}$=9.16) and lower attachment strength to their siblings ($M_{loweducation}$=4.26; $M_{moderateeducation}$=3.41; $M_{higheducation}$=2.50). Similarly, comparing three groups of adolescents based on the three levels of father education revealed that as the fathers got more educated, they practiced less guilt induction on their child ($M_{loweducation}$=2.70; $M_{moderateeducation}$=2.91; $M_{higheducation}$=2.60) and had higher parental knowledge ($M_{loweducation}$=3.32; $M_{moderateeducation}$=3.63; $M_{higheducation}$=3.83). They also had adolescent with higher attachment strength to them ($M_{loweducation}$=4.92; $M_{moderateeducation}$=5.41; $M_{higheducation}$=6.58). As the income level of the families

increased, the adolescents reported lower levels of attention to emotions ($M_{lessthan1000}$ =4.38; $M_{between\ 1000-1500}$=4.11; $M_{between\ 1500-2000}$=3.71; $M_{between\ 2000-3000}$=3.82; $M_{morethan3000}$=3.45) and obsession with emotions ($M_{lessthan1000}$=4.09; $M_{between\ 1000-1500}$ =4.00; $M_{between\ 1500-2000}$=3.74; $M_{between\ 2000-3000}$=3.89; $M_{morethan3000}$=3.50).

3.4.3 Bivariate Analysis for Adolescent, Parent and Teacher Reported Measures

As seen in Table 3.9, bivariate correlation analysis of parent reported independent variables revealed mainly significant correlations in the expected direction. The highest correlation for mother reported variables was between rejection and love withdrawal (*r (187)= .64, p<.01*). Similarly, the highest correlation for father reported variables was between comparison and love withdrawal (*r (175)= .64, p<.01*). Furthermore, the correlations between the same variables across parents were moderate to high. Specifically, the highest correlation between the same variables across reporters was between mother and father reported marital conflict (*r (169)=.65, p<.01*) and the lowest was between mother and father reported warmth (*r (172 = .33, p<.01*). Furthermore, marital conflict had higher correlations with negative parenting behaviors as compared to those of the mothers.

The bivariate correlation analyses were also conducted for parent reported independent variables and the adolescent outcomes as reported by parents and teachers. As seen in Table 3.10, most of the emotional family context variables were correlated with parent-reported adolescent outcomes in the expected direction. Specifically, the adolescents whose parents reported more positive parenting behaviors and less negative parenting behaviors had less adjustment problems and also exhibited more prosocial behavior. The highest correlation for mother reports was between parental knowledge and prosocial adolescents behavior (*r (187)= .42, p<.01*), and the highest correlation for father reports were between love withdrawal and adolescent internalization problems (*r (175)=.47, p<.01*). The highest correlation between mother-reported family context variables and father-reported adolescent outcomes was between mother-reported parental knowledge and father-reported adolescent prosocial behavior (*r (173)=.35, p<.01*). Similarly, the highest correlation between father-reported family context variables and mother-reported adolescent outcomes was between father-reported love withdrawal and mother-reported adolescent internalization problems (*r (174)=.35, p<.01*). The analysis of

Table 3.9

Bivariate Correlations between Parent-Reported Independent Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. M-WAR																
2. M-REJ	-.48**															
3. M-COM	-.19**	.46**														
4. M-LW	-.45**	.64**	.31**													
5. M-GI	-.28**	.55**	.38**	.50**												
6. M-PK	.41**	-.22**	-.05	-.31**	-.20**											
7. M-MON	.41**	-.34**	-.18**	-.45**	-.33**	.61**										
8. M-CONF	-.30**	.25**	.25**	.47**	.34**	-.26**	-.28**									
9. F-WAR	.33**	-.23**	-.11*	-.19**	-.15**	.19**	.19**	-.20**								
10. F-REJ	-.25**	.60**	.34**	.48**	.43**	-.19**	-.25**	.31**	-.27**							
11. F-COM	-.11*	.32**	.42**	.29**	.21**	-.04	-.10*	.20**	-.12*	.56**						
12. F-LW	-.20**	.38**	.28**	.48**	.35**	-.11*	-.12*	.30**	-.42**	.64**	.45**					
13. F-GI	-.23**	.42**	.29**	.36**	.56**	-.13*	-.20**	.31**	-.13*	.57**	.51**	.54**				
14. F-PK	.18**	-.10*	-.09	-.14**	-.14**	.43**	.21**	-.22**	.59**	-.13*	-.04	-.31**	-.10*			
15. F-MON	.22**	-.17**	-.13*	-.26**	-.18**	.33**	.39**	-.20**	.54**	-.26**	-.14*	-.41**	-.14**	.59**		
16. F-CONF	-.20**	.30**	.25**	.41**	.35**	-.25**	-.33**	.65**	-.37**	.42**	.32**	.50**	.33**	-.32**	-.47**	

Note. M-WAR=Mother-Reported Warmth; M-REJ=Mother-Reported Rejection; M-COM=Mother -Reported Comparison; M-LW=Mother-Reported Love Withdrawal; M-GI=Mother-Reported Guilt Induction; M-PK=Mother-Reported Parental Knowledge; M-MON=Mother-Reported Monitoring; M-CONF=Mother-Reported Marital Conflict; F-WAR=Father-Reported Warmth; F-REJ=Father-Reported Rejection; F-LW=Father-Reported Love Withdrawal; F-GI=Father-Reported Guilt Induction; F-PK =Father-Reported Parental Knowledge; F-MON=Father-Reported Monitoring; F-CONF=Father-Reported Marital Conflict.
*p< .05: **p< .01.

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the correlations between parent reported family context variables and teacher reported adolescent outcomes revealed that most of the correlations were insignificant. Specifically, the only significant correlations were between father-reported rejection and teacher-reported internalization adolescent problems (r (153)= .17, $p<.05$) and mother-reported rejection and teacher-reported internalization problems (r (187)=.17, $p<.05$).

Table 3.10
Bivariate Correlations between Independent and Dependent Variables Reported by Parents and Teachers

	M-EXTER	M-PROSOC	M-INTER	F-EXTER	F-PROSOC	F-INTER	T-EXTER	T-PROSOC	T-INTER
1. M-WAR	-.23**	.21**	-.17*	-.25**	.12	-.12	.08	-.06	.00
2. M-REJ	.33**	-.09	.30**	.31**	-.14	.13	.07	-.12	.15*
3. M-COM	.13	-.07	.19*	.14	-.15*	.10	.05	-.05	.05
4. M-LW	.34**	-.17*	.31**	.33**	-.15	.23**	-.00	-.04	.00
5. M-GI	.30**	-.14	.30**	.27**	-.18*	.17*	-.05	-.01	.02
6. M-PK	-.37**	.42**	-.26**	-.27**	.35**	-.24*	-.01	.00	-.04
7. M-M	-.30**	.33**	-.19*	-.30**	.34**	-.16**	.01	-.02	-.03
8. M-CONF	.37**	-.25**	.42**	.28**	-.25**	.30**	.02	-.01	.12
9. F-WAR	-.16*	.19*	-.26**	-.28**	.36**	-.31**	.02	.00	-.05
10. F-REJ	.42**	-.18*	.33**	.43**	-.18*	.29**	.17*	-.09	.10
11. F-COM	.15*	-.08	.19*	.24**	-.08	.15*	.09	-.06	.06
12. F-LW	.33**	-.17*	.35**	.46**	-.27**	.47**	.06	-.02	.14
13. F-GI	.28**	-.22**	.27**	.31**	-.18*	.30**	-.03	.04	.06
14. F-PK	-.10	.14	-.22**	-.13	.34**	-.29**	.03	-.05	-.05
15. F-M	-.10	.20**	-.12	-.24**	.34**	-.25**	-.15	.13	-.13
16. F-CONF	.27**	-.19*	.33**	.38**	-.34**	.44**	-.00	-.02	-.01

Note. M-WAR=Mother-Reported Warmth; M-REJ=Mother-Reported Rejection; M-COM=Mother - Reported Comparison; M-LW=Mother-Reported Love Withdrawal; M-GI=Mother-Reported Guilt Induction; M-PK=Mother-Reported Parental Knowledge; M-MON=Mother-Reported Monitoring; M-CONF=Mother-Reported Marital Conflict; F-WAR=Father-Reported Warmth; F-REJ=Father-Reported Rejection; F-LW=Father-Reported Love Withdrawal; F-GI=Father-Reported Guilt Induction; F-PK=Father-Reported Parental Knowledge; F-MON=Father-Reported Monitoring; F-CONF=Father-Reported Marital Conflict; M-EXTER=Mother-Reported Externalization Problems; M-PROSOC=Mother-Reported Prosocial Behavior; M-INTER=Mother-Reported Internalization Behavior; F-EXTER=Father-Reported Externalization Problems; F-PROSOC=Father-Reported Prosocial Behavior; F-INTER=Father-Reported Internalization Behavior; T-EXTER=Teacher-Reported Externalization Problems; T-PROSOC=Teacher-Reported Prosocial Behavior; T-INTER=Teacher-Reported Internalization Behavior.
*$p< .05$: **$p< .01$.

The bivariate correlation analyses between adolescent outcome reported by parents and teachers revealed that the correlations were significant within reporters,

as seen Table 3.11. The highest correlations in magnitude were between mother-reported externalization and internalization problems ($r(187)=.53, p<.01$), between father-reported externalization and internalization problems ($r(175)=.49, p<.01$), and the negative correlation between teacher-reported externalization problems and prosocial behavior of adolescents ($r(353)=-.67, p<.01$). On the other hand, the correlations between parent reports were more consistently related with each other than their correlations with teacher reports. Specifically, the highest correlations between same dimensions across parents and teacher reports were between teacher and mother-reported internalization problems ($r(166)=.25, p<.01$) and between father and teacher-reported internalization problems ($r(153)=.22, p<.01$).

Table 3.11

Bivariate Correlations between Dependent Variables Reported by Parents and Teachers

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**
1.M-EXTER								
2.M-PROSOC	-.38**							
3.M-INTER	.53**	-.46**						
4.F-EXTER	.69**	-.37**	.42**					
5.F-PROSOC	-.29**	.51**	-.45**	-.39**				
6.F-INTER	.33**	-.31**	.61**	.49**	-.39**			
7.T-EXTER	.20*	-.02	.04	.20*	.00	-.05		
8.T-PROSOC	-.15*	.01	-.14	-.18*	.14**	-.03	-.67**	
9.T-INTER	.19*	-.08	.25**	.20*	-.17**	.22**	.37**	-.27**

Note. M-EXTER = Mother-Reported Externalization Problems; M-PROSOC = Mother-Reported Prosocial Behavior; M-INTER = Mother-Reported Internalization Behavior; F-EXTER = Father-Reported Externalization Problems; F-PROSOC = Father-Reported Prosocial Behavior; F-INTER = Father-Reported Internalization Behavior; T-EXTER = Teacher-Reported Externalization Problems; T-PROSOC = Teacher-Reported Prosocial Behavior; T-INTER = Teacher-Reported Internalization Behavior
*$p< .05$: **$p< .01$.

The bivariate correlation analyses were also conducted between adolescent and parent reported family context variable, as seen in Table 3.11. The correlations between the same dimensions across parents' and adolescents' reports were significant and in the expected direction. The highest and lowest correlations between mother reports and adolescent reports for emotional family context variables were for comparison ($r(187)=.42, p<.01$) and for monitoring ($r(187)=.23, p<.01$) respectively. Similarly, the highest and lowest correlations between father reports

Table 3.11

Bivariate Correlations between Independent Variables Reported by Adolescents and Parents

	M-A-S	F-A-S	S-A-S	BF-A-S	AM-WARM	AM-REJ	AM-COM	AM-LW	AM-GI	AM-PK	AM-MON
M-WARM	.26**	-.00	.01	-.10	**.34****	-.15*	-.05	-.26**	-.15*	.25**	.17*
M-REJ	-.20**	-.04	-.06	.13	-.34**	**.29****	.15*	.26**	.27**	-.14	-.09
M-COM	-.07	.05	-.13	.04	-.19*	.20**	**.42****	.09	.11	-.03	-.04
M-LW	-.08	-.02	-.03	.03	-.26**	.20**	.14	**.27****	.21**	-.14	-.11
M-GI	-.10	-.06	-.04	.03	-.28**	.22**	.16*	.23**	**.27****	-.08	-.06
M-PK	.24**	.11	-.04	-.01	.29**	-.11	-.01	-.14	-.08	**.35****	.26**
M-MON	.21**	.09	.02	-.13	.32**	-.23**	-.10	-.27**	-.20**	.26**	**.23****
M-CONF	-.26**	-.16*	-.08	.16*	-.29**	.17*	.08	.23**	.18*	-.25**	-.19**
F-WARM	.10	.21**	-.17*	.04	.13	.02	.13	-.01	-.05	.11	.07
F-REJ	-.12	-.04	-.06	.07	-.17*	.22**	.15*	.17*	.21**	-.07	-.10
F-COM	-.18*	.01	.03	.03	-.09	.14	.28**	.06	.15*	-.02	-.12
F-LW	-.03	-.07	-.09	-.03	-.04	.04	.03	.02	.15*	-.03	.01
F-GI	-.13	.00	.03	-.09	-.16*	.23**	.21**	.17*	.24**	-.03	-.03
F-PK	.22**	.21**	-.15*	-.01	.12	-.00	.09	.02	-.09	.35**	.14
F-MON	.09	.15	-.03	.01	.03	.05	.03	.01	-.09	.10	.09
F-CONF	-.15	-.15	-.04	.11	-.20**	.12	.15	.18*	.18*	-.24**	-.18*

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Table 3.10

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	AM-AV	AM-DEP	AF-WARM	AF-REJ	AF-COM	AF-LW	AF-GI	AF-PK	AF-MON	AF-AV	AF-DEP	CPIC
M-WARM	.22**	.23**	.11	-.09	-.11	-.06	-.19*	.04	.10	.11	.12	-.15*
M-REJ	-.23**	-.16*	-.14	.22**	.17*	.17*	.25**	-.03	-.09	-.18*	-.18*	.10
M-COM	-.08	-.16*	-.14	.21**	.33**	.21**	.17*	-.02	-.07	-.20**	-.17*	.07
M-LW	-.21**	-.14	-.10	.18*	.19**	.16*	.27**	-.07	-.12	-.12	-.17*	.13
M-GI	-.12	-.10	-.09	.19*	.16*	.16*	.29**	-.10	-.02	-.13	-.12	.12
M-PK	.16*	.23**	.22**	-.10	-.08	-.07	-.09	.21**	.20**	.21**	.18*	-.15*
M-MON	.18*	.21**	.09	-.14	-.11	-.07	-.11	.04	.12	.08	.08	-.15*
M-CONF	-.25**	-.22**	-.27**	.23**	.15*	.20**	.26**	-.16*	-.18*	-.26**	-.34**	**.34**
F-WARM	.06	.10	**.28**	-.15	-.06	-.06	-.06	.25**	.26**	.21**	.29**	-.31**
F-REJ	-.15	-.09	-.14	**.31**	.24**	.24**	.31**	-.02	-.08	-.20**	-.19*	.10
F-COM	-.06	-.11	-.05	.21**	**.46**	.19*	.27**	.10	-.02	-.15	-.14	.02
F-LW	-.09	-.07	-.17*	.20**	.17*	**.19***	.21**	-.15*	-.09	-.22**	-.21**	.19*
F-GI	-.13	-.05	-.07	.27**	.24**	.23**	**.36**	-.01	.02	-.21**	-.14	.09
F-PK	.12	.21**	.26**	-.13	-.01	-.06	-.10	**.45**	.33**	.28**	.37**	-.27**
F-MON	.05	.01	.18*	-.18*	-.09	-.11	-.08	.23**	**.29**	.19*	.20**	-.29**
F-CONF	-.23**	-.16*	-.16*	.21**	.13	.16*	.21**	-.16*	-.17*	-.22**	-.23**	**.32**

Note: M-WARM=Mother-Reported Warmth; M-REJ=Mother-Reported Rejection; M-COM=Mother -Reported Comparison; M-LW=Mother-Reported Love Withdrawal; M-GI=Mother-Reported Guilt Induction; M-PK=Mother-Reported Parental Knowledge; M-MON=Mother-Reported Monitoring; M-CONF= Mother-Reported Marital Conflict; F-WARM=Father-Reported Warmth; F-REJ=Father-Reported Rejection; F-LW=Father-Reported Love Withdrawal; F-GI=Father-Reported Guilt Induction; F-PK=Father-Reported Parental Knowledge; F-MON=Father-Reported Monitoring; F-CONF=Father-Reported Marital Conflict; M-A-S=Mother Attachment Strength; F-A-S=Father Attachment Strength; S-A-S=Sibling Attachment Strength; BF-A-S= Attachment Strength to Best Friends; AM-WARM=Adolescent-Reported Mother Warmth; AM-REJ=Adolescent-Reported Mother Rejection; AM-COM=Adolescent-Reported Mother Comparison; AM-LW=Adolescent-Reported Mother Love Withdrawal; AM-GI=Adolescent-Reported Mother Guilt Induction; AM-PK=Adolescent-Reported Mother Parental Knowledge; AM-MON=Adolescent-Reported Mother Monitoring; AM-AV=Adolescent-Reported Mother Availability; AM-DEP=Adolescent-Reported Mother Dependency; AF-WARM=Adolescent-Reported Father Warmth; AF-REJ=Adolescent-Reported Father Rejection; AF-COM=Adolescent-Reported Father Comparison; AF-LW=Adolescent-Reported Father Love Withdrawal; AF-GI=Adolescent-Reported Father Guilt Induction; AF-PK=Adolescent-Reported Father Parental Knowledge; AF-MON=Adolescent-Reported Father Monitoring; AF-AV=Adolescent-Reported Father Availability; AF-DEP=Adolescent-Reported Mother Dependency; CPIC=Children's Perception of Interparental Conflict.
*p< .05: **p< .01.

and adolescent reports for family context variables were for comparison ($r (172)=$ .46, p<.01), and for love withdrawal ($r (173) .19, p<.05$), respectively. Although attachment strength to mothers were correlated with the mothers' reports of marital conflict ($r(187)=-.26, p<.01$) and own parenting, the highest correlation being with mother warmth ($r(187)=.26, p<.01$), attachment strength to fathers were only correlated with father-reported warmth and parental knowledge ($r (173)=.21, p<.05$, for both). Additionally, although adolescent perceived interparental conflict had low correlations with mother-reported warmth and monitoring ($r (187)=-.15, p<.05$, for both), it correlated with most of the father-reported parenting, the highest being with father warmth ($r (173)=-.31, p<.01$). Adolescents perception of interparental conflict also correlated moderately with the marital conflict reported by mothers ($r (187 =.34, p<.01$) and fathers ($r (173)=.32, p<.01$).

As seen in Table 3.12, the bivariate correlations between parent-reported family context variables and adolescent-reported SR and dependent variables were mainly insignificant. The highest correlations in magnitude were between mother-reported conflict and positive reframing ($r (187)=-.20, p<.01$) and the lowest significant ones were between mother-reported monitoring and repair of emotions, and between mother-reported parental knowledge and success of SR ($r (187)=.15, p<.05$, for both). For father-reported family context variables, the highest significant correlation was between father-reported parental knowledge and repair of emotions ($r (171)=.23, p<.01$) and the lowest one was between father-reported guilt induction and suppression of emotions ($r (173)=.15, p<.05$).

Among the adolescent-reported dependent variables, peer attachment anxiety correlated significantly with all of the mother and father-reported emotional family context variables except for the father-reported warmth. The analysis suggested that the adolescents whose mothers were warm and controlling them behaviorally but not psychologically, were less anxious in their peer relations consistently. For mother reports, the highest correlation of peer anxiety in magnitude was with parental knowledge ($r (187)=- .30, p<.01$) and the lowest was with marital conflict ($r (187)= .21, p<.01$). Similarly, those adolescents with behaviorally but not psychologically controlling fathers were less anxious in their peer relations. For father reports, the highest correlation of peer anxiety in magnitude was with guilt induction ($r (168)= .29, p<.01$) and lowest was with parental knowledge ($r (167)=-.15, p<.05$).

Table 3.12

Bivariate Correlations between Independent Variables Reported by Parents and Dependent Variables Reported by Adolescents

	M-WARM	M-REJ	M-COM	M-LW	M-GI	M-PK	M-MON	M-CONF	F-WARM	F-REJ	F-COM	F-LW	F-GI	F-PK	F-MON	F-CONF
ATTE	.03	-.06	-.19**	-.03	-.06	.06	.08	-.05	.02	-.15	-.09	-.12	-.13	.07	.08	-.02
CLA	.14	-.00	-.03	.00	.04	.07	.06	-.11	.16*	.03	.03	.01	.01	.18*	.10	-.09
REP	.04	-.10	.00	-.11	-.10	.18*	.15*	-.15	.11	.04	-.05	-.07	-.13	.23**	.12	-.11
OWE	-.16*	.11	-.02	.17*	.05	-.14	-.13	.17	.02	.07	.10	.00	.14	-.08	-.03	.06
REAP	.06	-.03	.07	-.04	-.01	.09	.04	-.02	.07	.13	.14	.01	.05	.08	.00	.03
SUPP	.02	-.02	.11	.00	.05	-.06	-.06	-.03	.08	.08	.11	.02	.15*	.05	.06	-.06
PORE	.02	-.04	.05	.02	.06	.06	-.01	-.11	.12	.17*	.11	.04	.05	.07	-.00	-.10
SUCC	.12	-.00	-.02	-.02	-.04	.15*	.08	-.20**	.09	.01	.03	-.00	-.09	.09	.06	-.13
FAIL	-.10	.03	-.13	.08	.05	-.11	-.07	.10	.03	.00	-.01	-.01	.10	-.12	-.04	.11
AGGR	-.18*	.20**	.13	.13	.14	-.22**	-.22**	.11	-.07	.18*	.03	.08	.11	-.13	-.12	.07
P-ANX	-.22**	.25**	.23**	.28**	.23**	-.30**	-.26**	.21**	-.11	.17*	.19*	.18*	.29**	-.15*	-.18*	.18*
P-AVO	.00	-.06	-.04	-.06	-.04	-.15*	-.03	.01	-.05	.01	-.02	.05	.05	-.04	.01	-.07

Note. ATTE=Attention to Emotions; CLA=Clarity of Emotions; REP=Repair of Emotions; OWE=Obsession with Emotions; REAP=Reappraisal; SUPP=Suppression; POREF=Positive Reframing; SUCC=SR Success ; FAIL=SR Failure ; AGGR=Aggression; P-ANX=Peer Anxiety; P-AVO=Peer Avoidance; M-WARM=Mother-Reported Warmth; M-REJ=Mother-Reported Rejection; M-COM=Mother-Reported Comparison; M-LW=Mother-Reported Love Withdrawal; M-GI=Mother-Reported Guilt Induction; M-PK=Mother-Reported Parental Knowledge; M-MON=Mother-Reported Monitoring; M-CONF=Mother-Reported Marital Conflict; F-WARM= Father-Reported Warmth; F-REJ=Father-Reported Rejection; F-LW=Father-Reported Love Withdrawal; F-GI=Father-Reported Guilt Induction; F-PK=Father-Reported Parental Knowledge; F-MON=Father-Reported Monitoring; F-CONF=Father-Reported Marital Conflict.

*p< .05: **p< .01.

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Furthermore, the analysis suggested that the adolescents who had parents with high marital conflict, were more anxious in their peer relations. Adolescent-reported aggression had significant and negative correlation with mother reported behavioral control dimensions (r $(187)=-.22$, $p<.01$) and warmth (r $(187)=-$ $.18$, $p<.05$), and positively with rejection (r $(187)=$ $.20$, $p<.01$). Aggression did not correlate with any of the father-reported variables except for the rejection (r $(171)=.18$, $p<.05$). These analyses suggested that adolescents whose mothers were rejecting and were not behaviorally controlling, were more aggressive in their peer relations. Adolescent-reported peer avoidance did not correlate with any of the parent reported family variables except with mother-reported parental knowledge (r $(187)=-.15$, $p<.05$).

Table 3.13

Bivariate Correlations between Dependent Variables as Reported by Adolescents, Parents and Teachers

	MEXTER	MPROSO	MINTER	FEXTER	FPROSO	FINTER	TEXTER	TPROSO	TINTER
ATTE	-.10	.06	-.10	-.19*	.05	-.02	-.10	.08	-.05
CLA	-.00	.06	-.25**	-.07	.15	-.17*	.04	-.01	-.11*
REP	-.11	.12	-.34**	-.06	.15*	-.26**	-.06	.07	-.17*
OWE	.14	-.12	.18*	.07	.04	.11	.01	.04	.11
REAP	-.03	.05	-.23**	.02	.13	-.16*	-.03	.04	.02
SUPP	.05	-.05	-.05	.11	.11	-.05	.11*	-.08	.05
PORE	-.06	.05	-.13	.00	.10	-.15	-.02	.02	-.02
SUCC	-.22**	.11	-.22**	-.24**	.16*	-.20**	-.05	.06	-.13*
FAIL	.05	-.08	.17*	.04	-.04	.12	-.04	.10	.01
AGGR	.27**	-.23**	.21**	.21**	-.18*	.11	.32**	-.23**	.16*
P-ANX	.28**	-.27**	.29**	.28**	-.28**	.17*	.17**	-.09	.26**
P-AVO	.06	-.12	.15*	.02	-.07	.08	-.02	-.05	.03

Note. Attention to Emotions; CLA = Clarity of Emotions; REP = Repair of Emotions; OWE = Obsession with Emotions; REAP = Reappraisal; SUPP = Suppression; POREF = Positive Reframing; SUCC = SR Success ; FAIL = SR Failure ; AGGR = Aggression; P-ANX = Peer Anxiety; P-AVO = Peer Avoidance; MEXTER = Mother Reported Externalization Problems; MPROSO = Mother Reported Prosocial Behavior; MINTER = Mother Reported Internalization Problems; FEXTER = Father Reported Externalization Problems; FPROSO = Father Reported Prosocial Behavior; FINTER = Father Reported Internalization Problems; TEXTER = Teacher Reported Externalization Problems; TPROSO = Teacher Reported Prosocial Behavior; TINTER = Teacher Reported Internalization Problems;
*$p< .05$: **$p< .01$.

As can in Table 3.13, the adolescents who were not successfully regulating self as well as aggressive and anxious in peer relationships, were also experiencing more externalization and internalization problems as reported by parents and teachers as well as higher deficits in prosocial as reported by parents. Specifically, parents reported that the adolescents who were less successful in SR, had more externalization problems, the adolescents who were higher in clarity of emotions and were successful at reappraisal and repairing their moods, had less internalization problems, the highest correlation in magnitude being between repair of mood and internalization problems (*r (187)=-34, p<.01, and (r (173)=-.26, p<.05,* for mothers and fathers respectively). Similarly, parents reported that the adolescents who were successful at SR, repair of mood, and had clear perception of own emotions, also had less internalization problems, the highest correlation being with repair of mood (*r (347)=-.17, p<.05*).

3.4.4 Bivariate Analysis for Repeated Measures

3.4.4.1 Bivariate Analysis for Adolescents' and Teacher's Repeated Measures

The correlation analyses revealed significant associations between the first phase and second phase measures. There were high correlations between parental comparison, love withdrawal, and guilt induction as well as between sub-dimensions of behavioral control within and between reporters. Hence, in order to examine the associations between repeated measures, the parenting variables of comparison, love withdrawal, and guilt induction as well as behavioral sub-dimensions were collapsed into single variables within reporters and within parents for adolescents for the sake of parsimonia. Similar procedure yielded one composite parental attachment security of adolescents for each parent by collapsing attachment availability and dependency. Specifically, the mean scores of the associated variables provided the collapsed variables within reporters and parental domain variables for adolescents. This procedure yielded one composite attachment security for each parent in the first phase of the study and two composite variables named as psychological control and behavioral control for both phases of the study. Thus, the attachment security variable subsumed parental attachment availability and dependence, the psychological control variable consisted of the variables parental comparison, love

withdrawal, and guilt induction, and parental behavioral control consisted of parental knowledge and monitoring.

The analysis of the Bivariate correlations revealed that the repeated measures of adolescent-reported emotional family context, SR, aggression in peer relationships variables, and teacher-reported adolescent outcome variables were significantly and positively correlated with each other (see Table 3.14). The adolescent who perceived their parents as psychologically controlling or behaviorally controlling in the first phase, maintained their perceptions in the second phase of the study (*r (378)=.59, p<.01,* and *r (378)=.56, p<.01,* respectively). Similarly, the adolescents' perceptions of marital conflict was also consistent between two phases of the study (*r (378)=.56, p<.01*). The most consistent SR repeated measures were attention to emotions (*r (378)=.52, p<.01*), repair of emotions (*r (378)=.50, p<.01*), and the success of SR (*r (378)=.43, p<.01*). The teacher-reported adolescent prosocial behavior had the lowest correlation within repeated measures (*r (335)=.11, p<.05*). The within repeated measures correlation for teacher-reported externalization and internalization adolescent problems were moderate (*r (335)=.37, p<.01,* for both).

The correlations across variables were mostly significant and in the expected directions. Specifically, the adolescent who reported positive parenting behaviors in the first phase of the analysis, also rated their parents positively in the second phase, and reported them being low on negative parenting behaviors. Specifically, the parents who were warm towards their adolescents with secure attachment relationships in the first phase, practiced less psychological control (*r (378)=-.36, p<.01,* with warmth, and *r (378)=-.41, p<.01*, with parental attachment security) as well as more behavioral control (*r (378)=.46, p<.01,* with warmth, and *r (378)=.40, p<.01*, with parental attachment security) in the second phase. Their adolescents also had good SR skills in the second phase of the study, whereas rejection was associated with low positive SR, especially repair of mood (*r (378)=-.24, p<.01*). The adolescents who had high attachment strength to their mothers and fathers, perceived their parents less psychologically (*r (378)=-.18, p<.01,*and *r (378)=-.19, p<.01,* respectively) but high behaviorally controlling (*r (378)=.18, p<.01, p<.01*, for both). The low attachment strength to father was also related with high perceptions of interparental conflict (*r (378)=-.21, p<.01*) as well as lower positive SR abilities in the second phase, whereas low attachment strength to mother was related with higher

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Table 3.14

Bivariate correlations of Time1 and Time2 Variables as Reported by Adolescent and Teachers

TIME 2	TIME 1											
	M-A-S	F-A-S	S-A-S	BF-A-S	AP-WAR	AP-REJ	AP-PC	AP-BC	AP-ATT	CPIC	ATTEN	CLAR
AP-PC	-.18**	-.19**	-.09	.14**	-.36**	.56**	**.59****	-.24	-.41**	.32**	-.21**	-.18**
AP-BC	.18**	.18**	.02	-.01	.46**	-.18**	-.17**	**.56****	.40**	-.16**	.21**	.21**
CPIC	-.08	-.21**	-.04	.08	-.25**	.28**	.26**	-.17**	-.24**	**.56****	-.07	-.09
ATTEN	.18**	.05	-.04	-.02	.19**	-.26**	-.26**	.19**	.27**	-.07	**.52****	.14**
CLAR	.06	.07	.04	-.04	.19**	-.14**	-.17**	.21**	.21**	-.22**	.09	**.38****
REP	.09	.18**	-.03	-.10*	.20**	-.24**	-.19*	.20**	.21**	-.29**	.05	.29**
OWE	-.05	-.15**	.03	.11*	.02	.18**	.16**	-.02	-.12*	.15**	.04	.07
REAP	.07	.07	-.08	.06	.11*	.03	.01	.07	.05	-.16**	-.01	.19**
SUPP	-.07	-.05	-.00	-.01	-.15**	.21**	.16**	-.13*	-.16**	.05	-.29**	-.06
POREF	.11*	.16**	-.04	-.02	.17**	-.11*	-.09	.17**	.14**	-.19**	.05	.17**
SUCCE	.10	.11*	.03	-.10	.11*	-.17**	-.18**	.16**	.19**	-.23**	.01	.22**
FAIL	-.01	-.01	.08	.04	-.00	.06	.10*	-.01	-.10	.16**	.04	.01
AGGR	-.13**	-.05	-.12*	.06	-.11*	.28**	.28**	-.13*	-.20**	.11*	-.20**	-.08
T-EXT	-.14**	-.09	.02	.13*	-.12*	.14**	.11*	-.11*	-.07	.13*	-.10	-.01
T-PR	.14**	.00	-.01	-.05	.13*	-.09*	-.05	.15**	.11*	-.06	.13*	.04
T-INT	.04	.01	-.07	-.06	-.13*	.07	-.01	-.11*	-.04	.08	-.01	.01

Table 3.14

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TIME 2	TIME 1												
	REP	**OWE**	**REAP**	**SUPP**	**POREF**	**SUCCE**	**FAIL**	**AGGR**	**P-ANX**	**P-AVO**	**T-EXT**	**T-PR**	**T-INT**
AP-PC	-.24**	.11*	-.11*	.10	-.18**	-.24**	.08	.28**	.30**	.10	.12*	-.13*	.16**
AP-BC	.21**	-.04	.17**	-.10	.16**	.29**	-.04	-.19**	-.19**	-17**	-.16**	.17**	-.04
CPIC	-.13*	.14**	-.06	.02	-.08	-.14**	.13*	.19**	.24**	.03	.10	-.14*	.08
ATTEN	.12*	.10	-.05	-.24**	.04	.12*	.14**	-.20**	-.18**	-.21**	-.07	.05	.03
CLAR	.25**	-.09	.20**	-.03	.19**	.28**	-.19**	-.15**	-.17**	-.04	-.03	.08	-.02
REP	**.50****	-.08	.36**	-.01	.32**	.40**	-.21**	-.20**	-.22**	-.11*	.05	.04	-.15**
OWE	.00	**.33****	.09	.04	.11*	-.06	.23**	.09	.24**	-.12*	-.04	.03	-.16**
REAP	.30**	.03	**.36****	.06	.24**	.22**	-.07	-.03	.01	-.06	-.04	.11*	-.05
SUPP	-.03	.02	.12*	**.38****	.06	-.00	-.04	.09	.06	.17**	-.10	.03	-.03
POREF	.37**	.00	.31**	.03	**.37****	.32**	-.09	-.17**	-.10	-.09	-.05	.05	-.06
SUCCE	.32**	-.13*	.27**	.03	.22**	**.43****	-.27**	-.18**	-.15**	-.04	-.08	.15**	-.13*
FAIL	.03	.11	.04	.06	.09	-.08	**.34****	.08	.13*	-.10	.06	-.04	.11
AGGR	-.13*	.10	-.06	.11*	-.09	-.21**	-.02	**.29****	.22**	.10	.11*	-.17**	-.00
T-EXT	-.07	.06	.02	.04	-.03	-.09	-.04	.14**	.19**	.05	**.37****	-.13*	.29**
T-PR	.12*	.03	.05	-.02	.09	.14**	.05	-.06	-.10	-.08	-.13*	**-.11***	-.13*
T-INT	-.05	.09	.04	.03	.04	-.07	-.03	.02	.13*	.09	.01	.05	**.37****

Note. M-A-S=Mother Attachment Strength; F-A-S=Father Attachment Strength; S-A-S=Sibling Attachment Strength; BF-A-S=Attachment Strength to Best Friends; AP-WAR = Adolescent-Reported Parental Warmth; AP-REJ = Adolescent-Reported Parental Rejection; AP-PC = Adolescent-Reported Parental Psychological Control; AP-BC = Adolescent-Reported Parental Behavioral Control; AP-ATT = Adolescent-Reported Parent Attachment; CPIC = Children's Perception of Interparental Conflict; ATTE = Attention to Emotions; CLA = Clarity of Emotions; REP = Repair of Emotions; OWE = Obsession with Emotions; REAP = Reappraisal; SUPP = Suppression; POREF =Positive Reframing; SUCC = SR Success ; FAIL = SR Failure ; AGGR = Aggression; P-ANX = Peer Anxiety; P-AVO = Peer Avoidance; T-EXT = Teacher Reported Externalization Problems; T-PR = Teacher Reported Prosocial Behavior; T-INT = Teacher Reported Internalization Problems.*p*< .05; **p*< .01.

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aggression and externalization problems (r (378)=-.13, p<.01, and r (378)=-.14, p<.01, respectively), and lower prosocial behavior (r (378)=.14, p<.01) in the second phase. Furthermore, the marital conflict in the first phase was related with low positive SR processes, especially repair of the mood (r (378)=-.29, p<.01) and success in SR (r (378)=-.23, p<.01) in the second phase of the analysis.

Those who perceived themselves as competent at SR processes in the first phase, had also positive perceptions of their parents in the second phase. The highest correlation between SR variables and second phase parenting variables was between success in SR and parental behavioral control (r (378)=.29, p<.01). Furthermore, the adolescents who were good at practicing positive SR processes, managed to maintain their abilities, which was more consistent for the ones good at repairing their moods, reappraising, and SR success in the first phase. Similarly, the ones who failed in SR processes in the first phase, were not able to redeem themselves in positive SR processes, the highest negative correlation being with success in SR (r (378)=-.27, p<.01). The adolescents who were aggressive and anxious in their peer relationships in the first phase, perceived their parents as practicing more psychological control, lower behavioral control and exhibited low positive SR processes. Furthermore, the anxious ones were also more obsessed with emotions (r (378)=.24, p<.01) in the second phase, and for those adolescents, teachers reported higher problems (r (358)=.19, p<.01, with teacher-reported externalization problems, and r (358)=.13, p<.05) although not lower prosocial behavior. On the other hand, teachers reported only externalization problems for aggressive adolescents (r (358)=.14, p<.01). Although the adolescents who were avoidant in their peer relationships, perceived their parents as less controlling behaviorally (r (378)=-.17, p<.01), were also less attentive to their emotions (r (378) =-.21, p<.01) in the second phase, they did not report any major deficit in SR that was supported by the insignificant correlations between peer avoidance and teacher-reported adolescent outcomes.

3.4.4.2 Bivariate Analysis for Parents' and Adolescent's Longitudinal Measures

The analysis of bivariate correlation analysis between parent-reported variables in the first phase and the adolescent and teacher-reported variables in the second phase, as seen in Table 3.15, revealed that mothers who were warm and

Table 3.15

Bivariate correlations of Adolescent- and Teacher-Reported Time2 Variables with Parent-Reported Time1 Variables

TIME1-PARENT	TIME 2-ADOLESCENT VARIABLES							
	AP-PC	AP-BC	CPIC	ATTE	CLAR	REP	OWE	REAP
M-WAR	-.23**	.17*	-.15*	.06	.10	.09	-.08	-.04
M-REJ	.27**	-.07	.18*	-.11	-.08	-.04	.03	-.02
M-PC	**.33****	-.12	.18*	-.09	-.11	-.08	-.04	-.02
M-BC	-.22**	**.28****	-.14	.15	.11	.09	-.14	-.04
M-CONF	.23**	-.11	**.32****	-.08	-.07	-.02	.18*	-.01
M-EXT	.27**	-.21**	.22**	-.19*	-.05	-.08	.05	-.03
M-PR	-.17*	.15	-.11	-.03	.09	.13	-.08	.02
M-INT	.27**	-.18*	.28**	.00	-.21**	-.21**	.13	-.22**
F-WAR	-.15	.20*	-.31**	-.02	.08	.16*	-.11	.10
F-REJ	.21**	-.05	.08	-.12	.01	.01	.04	.06
F-PC	**.30****	-.09	.20*	-.07	-.05	-.15	.02	-.07
F-BC	-.14	**.26****	-.26**	.11	.10	.14	-.13	.09
F-CONF	.19*	-.11	**.23****	-.03	-.07	-.05	.15	-.03
F-EXT	.29**	-.15	.18*	-.22**	-.07	-.12	.08	-.01
F-PR	-.15*	.22**	-.13	.04	.11	.10	-.15*	.13
F-INT	.16*	-.08	.18*	.01	-.12	-.25**	.07	-.13

Table 3.15

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TIME1-PARENT	TIME 2-ADOLESCENT VARIABLES							
	SUPP	**PORE**	**SUCC**	**FAIL**	**AGGR**	**T-EXT**	**T-PR**	**T-INT**
M-WAR	-.01	.08	.15	.02	-.19*	-.04	.04	-.05
M-REJ	-.04	-.12	-.07	.01	.23**	.14	-.05	-.02
M-PC	-.05	-.15	-.11	-.07	.26**	.11	-.06	-.06
M-BC	-.08	.08	.16*	-.04	-.23**	-.19*	.18*	-.17*
M-CONF	-.11	-.11	-.05	.08	.10	.19*	-.10	.05
M-EXT	-.04	-.16*	-.23**	-.03	.28**	**.14**	-.05	.02
M-PR	.04	.08	.16*	-.09	-.11	-.07	**.06**	-.08
M-INT	-.02	-.16*	-.23**	.06	.10	.02	.04	**.06**
F-WAR	-.02	.17*	.14	-.04	-.05	-.03	-.02	-.05
F-REJ	.01	-.01	.03	-.05	.21**	.11	.02	.04
F-PC	-.00	-.11	-.07	-.10	.16*	-.02	.12	.00
F-BC	-.01	.11	.14	-.05	-.21**	-.03	.04	-.05
F-CONF	-.02	-.09	-.03	.06	.02	.06	-.01	-.03
F-EXT	.03	-.09	-.24**	-.10	.26**	**.12**	-.01	.02
F-PR	.06	.20**	.17*	-.09	-.13	-.07	**.03**	-.17*
F-INT	-.05	-.16*	-.27**	-.04	-.06	-.06	.10	**.06**

Note. M-WAR = Mother-Reported Warmth; M-REJ = Mother-Reported Rejection; M-PC = Mother-Reported Psychological Control; M-BC = Mother-Reported Behavioral Control; M-CONF = Mother-Reported Marital Conflict; M-EXT = Mother-Reported Externalization Problems; M-PR = Mother-Reported Prosocial Behavior; M-INT = Mother-Reported Internalization Problems; F-WAR = Father-Reported Warmth; F-REJ = Father-Reported Rejection; F-PC = Father-Reported Psychological Control; F-BC = Father-Reported Behavioral Control; F-CONF = Father-Reported Marital Conflict; F-EXT = Father-Reported Externalization Problems; F-PR = Father-Reported Prosocial Behavior; F-INT = Father-Reported Internalization Problems; AP-PC = Adolescent-Reported Parent Psychological Control; AP-BC = Adolescent-Reported Parent Behavioral Control; CPIC = Children's Perception of Interparental Conflict; ATTE = Attention to Emotions; CLA = Clarity of Emotions; REP = Repair of Emotions; OWE = Obsession with Emotions; REAP = Reappraisal; SUPP = Suppression; POREF =Positive Reframing; SUCC = S-R Success ; FAIL = S-R Failure ; AGGR = Aggression; T-EXT = Teacher-Reported Externalization Problems; T-PR = Teacher-Reported Prosocial Behavior; T-INT = Teacher-Reported Internalization Problems.

*p< .05; **p< .01.

behaviorally controlling and practicing low levels of psychological control in the first phase, had adolescents who perceived them as less psychologically controlling (r (187)=-.22, p<.01, and r (187)=.33, p<.01, respectively) in the second phase. However, for fathers, only the negative parenting variables, especially the father psychological control in the first phase were significantly correlated with adolescents' perception of parental psychological control (r (161)=.30, p<.01) in the second phase. Furthermore, the fathers who were warm and behaviorally controlling in the first phase, had adolescents who perceived their parents as behaviorally controlling in the second phase (r (161)=.20, p<.01, and r (161)=.26, p<.01, respectively). Moreover, the higher mother and fathers reported on the availability of marital conflict in the first phase, the higher was the adolescents' perceptions of parental psychological control (r (168)=.23, p<.01 and r (160)=.19, p<.05, respectively) and marital conflict (r (182)=.32, p<.01 and r (173)=.23, p<.01, respectively) in the second phase.

The correlations between the first phase parent-reported family context variables and second phase SR measures were mostly insignificant. Specifically, the adolescents who were exposed to marital conflict as reported by mothers to be more obsessed with emotions (r (182)=.18, p<.05), and those whose mothers were more behaviorally controlling had more success in SR (r (187)=.16, p<.05) in the second phase. Similarly, the adolescents whose fathers were warm towards them, were better at repairing their moods and positive reframing (r (174)=.16, p<.05, and, r (174)=.17, p<.05, respectively). Also, the parents practicing more negative parenting and more psychological and less behavioral control, had more aggressive adolescents in the second phase, the highest correlation being with mother psychological control (r (187)=.26, p<.01). Additionally, the mothers who behaviorally controlled their adolescents in the first phase, had adolescents with better adjustment outcomes as reported by teachers. Specifically, these adolescents had less externalization (r (185)=-.19, p<.05) and internalization problems (r (185) =-.17, p<.05), and were more prosocial (r (185)=-.18, p<.05) in the second phase.

The adolescent outcomes as reported by parents in the first phase were correlated significantly with most of the adolescent-perceived parenting dimensions in the expected directions, and most of their correlations with the second phase SR measures were insignificant. Specifically, the significant correlations between

parent-reported outcomes and adolescent SR were between internalization problems reported by mother and father and repair of emotions (*r (187)=-.24, p<.01* and *r (175)=-.27, p<.01,* respectively) as well as SR success (*r (187)=-.25, p<.01* and *r (175)=-.27, p<.01*, respectively). The adolescents who were rated as higher in externalization problems by mothers and fathers in the first phase, were less competent at SR success (*r (187)=-.23, p<.01*, and *r (175)=-.24, p<.01*, respectively), and they were more aggressive (*r (187)=.28, p<.01,* and *r (175)=.26, p<.01,* respectively). The correlations between first phase parent-reported adolescent outcomes and teacher-reported adolescent outcomes were insignificant, except for the fact that the adolescent who were prosocial in the first phase as reported by fathers, had less internalization problems in the second phase as reported by teachers (*r (172) = -.17, p<.05*).

3.5 Testing the Role of Emotional Family Context on Self-Regulation Processes and Adolescent Outcomes (Hypothesis # 1 and #2)

As seen in the Figure 1.1, the hypotheses suggested that positive emotional family context variables would lead adolescents to succeed in SR processes, and to socially adjust better, whereas negative parenting and interparental conflict would lead to failure in SR processes, which in turn would lead to worse adjustment adolescent outcomes. More specifically, the parental warmth, behavioral control, and secure parental attachment would predict high practices of repair of mood, attention to emotions, clarity of emotions, success in SR, reappraisal and positive reframing of the situations, whereas they would predict low endorsement of negative SR processes, which were obsession with emotions, suppression of emotions and failure in SR. These positive SR processes in turn would lead to low internalization and externalization problems as well as high prosocial adolescent behavior (H#1a). The negative parenting behaviors such as parental rejection, comparison and psychological control as well as interparental conflict would lead to failure in positive SR processes, all of which would lead to adjustment problems (H#1b). The hypothesis also predicted that the positive emotional family context variables would have direct influence on social adolescent adjustment (H#2a) whereas negative ones would lead to poor adjustment (H#2b). In order to test these hypotheses, a series of SEM analysis were conducted by using LISREL 8.80 (Jörekog & Sörbom, 1993). First, the proposed model was tested for the adolescent and teacher samples. The

second analyses used the adolescent and parent samples, which reflected the perceptions of the family members, thus contextualized the family more appropriately in order to test the hypotheses.

In testing the models, the strategies suggested by Kenny, Kashy, and Bolger (1998) and Anderson and Garbing (1988) were followed. Accordingly, the specification of the models consisted of testing first the measurement model, which provided evidence for how well the predefined variables measured the latent variables. This procedure included the confirmatory factor structure analysis for the latent variables all at once. The second step consisted of testing a number of alternative models along with the proposed model and comparing the goodness-of-fit statistics of these models. Covariance matrix was used in testing the measurement and the proposed models with maximum likelihood estimation. The number of criteria described the model fit in the following SEM analysis. For example, Bollen (1989) suggested that the ratio of 2,3 or even 5 for df: χ^2 indicate reasonable fit. Furthermore, Hu and Bentler (1999) noted that the values of RMSEA smaller than .05 with a confidence interval within the range of 0-.10 indicated close to appropriate fit. The authors also reported that the values for CFI, GFI, and AGFI, all of which were greater than .90, represented good fit of the model.

3.5.1 The Proposed Model for Emotional Family Context

The proposed model suggested that family context variables had direct effects on adolescent outcomes as well as its indirect effect mediated through SR processes. For this aim, this model was tested once for the sample of adolescents and teachers, and once for the sample of adolescents and parents only. Since a model with multiple indicators from the three sources (adolescents, parents, and teachers) had a number of statistical and identification limitations, the models was tested separately depending on the hypotheses tested and some of the variables were aggregated to decrease the number of indicators considering the conceptual similarity and the strength of correlations between indicators.

As reported in the preliminary analysis of the repeated measures section, the variables, which were comparison, love withdrawal and gilt induction, were collapsed into one indicator by computing their means for adolescents reported variables for mother and father as well as for each parent separately. A similar

procedure yielded one indicator for parental behavioral control for each parent by collapsing parental knowledge and monitoring, and one indicator for parental attachment security for each parent by collapsing attachment availability and dependency. The outcome variables were named as parental psychological control for the composite of comparison and psychological control sub-dimensions, as parental behavioral control for the composite of parental knowledge and monitoring and as parental attachment security for the composite of attachment availability and dependence. However, the fact that the latent variables had high correlations among each other and the changes in sample size in different analysis required to test the model by breaking it down into parts, in which composite variables were used where the latent variables had a large number of indicators.

3.5.1.1 The Proposed Model for Emotional Family Context Using Adolescent and Teacher Samples

The SEM analysis for the adolescent data involved the emotional family context latent variables, which were parental attachment, negative parenting, positive parenting, parental behavioral control, and interparental conflict. For each emotional family context latent variable adolescent ratings for each parent were used. Negative parenting with four indicators consisted of rejection and psychological control. Positive parenting had two indicators and consisted of parental warmth. Four indicators represented parental behavioral control, which consisted of parental knowledge and monitoring. Parental attachment security latent variable had two indicators, which were attachment security ratings of adolescents. Since latent variable of interparental conflict involved only one indicator, the total score of Children's Perception of Interparental Conflict (CPIC), in line with the suggestions of Kenny et al (1998), the error variance of the marital conflict was fixed to .056 by using the formula $(1-\alpha)$ x variance of total score of CPIC. The mediating latent variables included SR variables, which were grouped into two, namely negative SR and positive SR. Negative SR latent variable consisted of obsession with emotions, suppression, and failure of SR, and positive SR latent variable consisted of attention to emotions, repair of mood, clarity of emotions, reappraisal, positive reframing, and success in SR. Finally, the outcome latent variables of adolescent problems consisted of the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ) ratings of the teachers and

included externalization and internalization adolescent problems, and the prosocial adolescent behavior, which was reverse coded.

3.5.1.2 Measurement Model for the Proposed Model of Emotional Family Context

Figure 3.1 depicts the measurement model with seven latent variables. The initial estimation of the measurement model provided a poor fit to the data (χ^2 *(248, N =426) =1726.73, p<.00, GFI=.76, AGFI=68, NNFI=.86, CFI=.88, RMSEA=.12).* The negative SR indicator attention to emotions did not load on negative SR, thus it was removed from further analysis.

Table 3.16

The Bivariate Correlations between the Latent Variables of Measurement Model

	Patt	Negpar	Pospar	Pbc	Conf	Possr	Negsr
Patt	1						
Negpar	-.60**	1					
Pospar	.83**	-.64**	1				
Pbc	.62**	-.34**	.88**	1			
Conf	-.47**	.52**	-.54**	-.37**	1		
Possr	.41**	-.30**	.58**	.50**	-.40**	1	
Negsr	-.22*	.27*	.09	.01	.24*	.24*	1
Prob	-.18*	.23*	-.21*	-.21*	.07	-.03	.00

 Note. Patt = Parental Attachment; Negpar = Negative Parenting; Pospar = Positive Parenting; Pbc = Parental Behavioral Control; Conf; Interparental Conflict; Possr = Positive Self Regulation; Negsr = Negative Self Regulation; Prob = Adolescent Problems.
*p<.05; **p<.01.

As seen in Table 3.16, the structural correlations for the latent variable of positive parenting with parental attachment and parental behavior control were very high (*r = .83,* and *r = .88,* respectively). Since it was redundant, positive parenting was removed from the analysis. In order to improve the fit of the data to the model, post-hoc modifications were implemented based on the Modification Indices and theoretical relevance. Specifically, most of the parenting behaviors were perceived consistent with each other within and across parents. Thus, they might be highly dependent on one another, especially those within the latent variables. Thus, error variances between the following dimensions were added to the model; (1) mother psychological control and rejection, (2) father psychological control and rejection, (3) mother and father psychological control, (4) mother parental knowledge and

monitoring, and (5) father parental knowledge and father attachment security. At the same time, the unit of measurements of all the latent variables was fixed to the unit of measurement of the most highly loading observed variable.

The final measurement model including the fixed unit of analysis for each latent variable and added errors correlations improved fit of the model (χ^2 *(184, N =426) =614.87, p<.00, GFI=.88, AGFI=.84, NNFI=.93, CFI= 95, RMSEA=.07)*. As shown in Figure 3.1, all of the indicators loaded significantly on their latent variables. The loadings were between the range of changed between .89 (mother attachment security) and .95 (father attachment security) for parental attachment, between the range of .72 (mother rejection) and .77 (mother psychological control) for negative parenting, between the range of .77 (father monitoring) and .84 (mother monitoring). The loadings of positive SR were between .67 (clarity) and .79 (repair of mood), and they were between .33 (suppression) and .57 (obsession with emotions) for negative SR. The loadings of the problems indicator ranged between .39 (teacher reported internalization behavior) and .96 (teacher reported externalization behavior). The analysis of the structural correlations between the latent variables revealed that all correlations were similar to those at Table 3.16. This analysis revealed that the latent variables of SR were not related to the adolescent problems latent variable.

3.5.1.3 Testing the Proposed Structural Model of Emotional Family Context

Although the proposed model suggested that family context variables would both directly and indirectly predict the adolescent problems through positive and negative SR, the structural correlation between the SR and adolescent problems were insignificant. Only the proposed model including all the paths from emotional family context variables to positive SR, negative SR, and adolescent problems, was tested. After testing the model, the insignificant paths were trimmed. The fit of this model to the data was acceptable (χ^2 *(194, N =426) =674.09, p<.00, GFI=.87, AGFI=.83, NNFI=.93, CFI= 94, RMSEA=.08)* with the ratio of df: χ^2 being 3.5.

As seen in Figure 3.2, negative parenting predicted adolescent problems only (*standardized structural coefficient (β)=.18*), meaning that the adolescents whose

.61

.56 .38 .49 .46 .62

CLAR REP REAPPRA POREF SUCCE

.20 → AM-ATT .89

Parent Attachment

.09 → AF-ATT .95

-.15

.67 .79 .71 .73 .62

.44

-.18

.07

TEXTER

.96

-.71 .23

.49 → AM-REJ .72

.23 .47 → AF-REJ .73

Negative Parenting

.29 .41 → AM-PC .77

.10 .47 → AF-PC .73

Positive SR

-.34

-.04

.27

.37

-.32

-.47

.35 → AM-PKNO .81

.29 → AM-MON .84

Parental Behavioral Control

.47

.24

Adolescent Problems

.70

TPROR

.39

.33 → AF-PKNO .82

-.27 .40 → AF-MON .77

-.19

.04

.01

TINTER

.85

.51

-.40

.25

-.33

Marital Conflict

.16 → CPIC .91

.57

Negative SR

.57 .33 .44

OWE SUPP FAIL

.67 .89 .80

.07

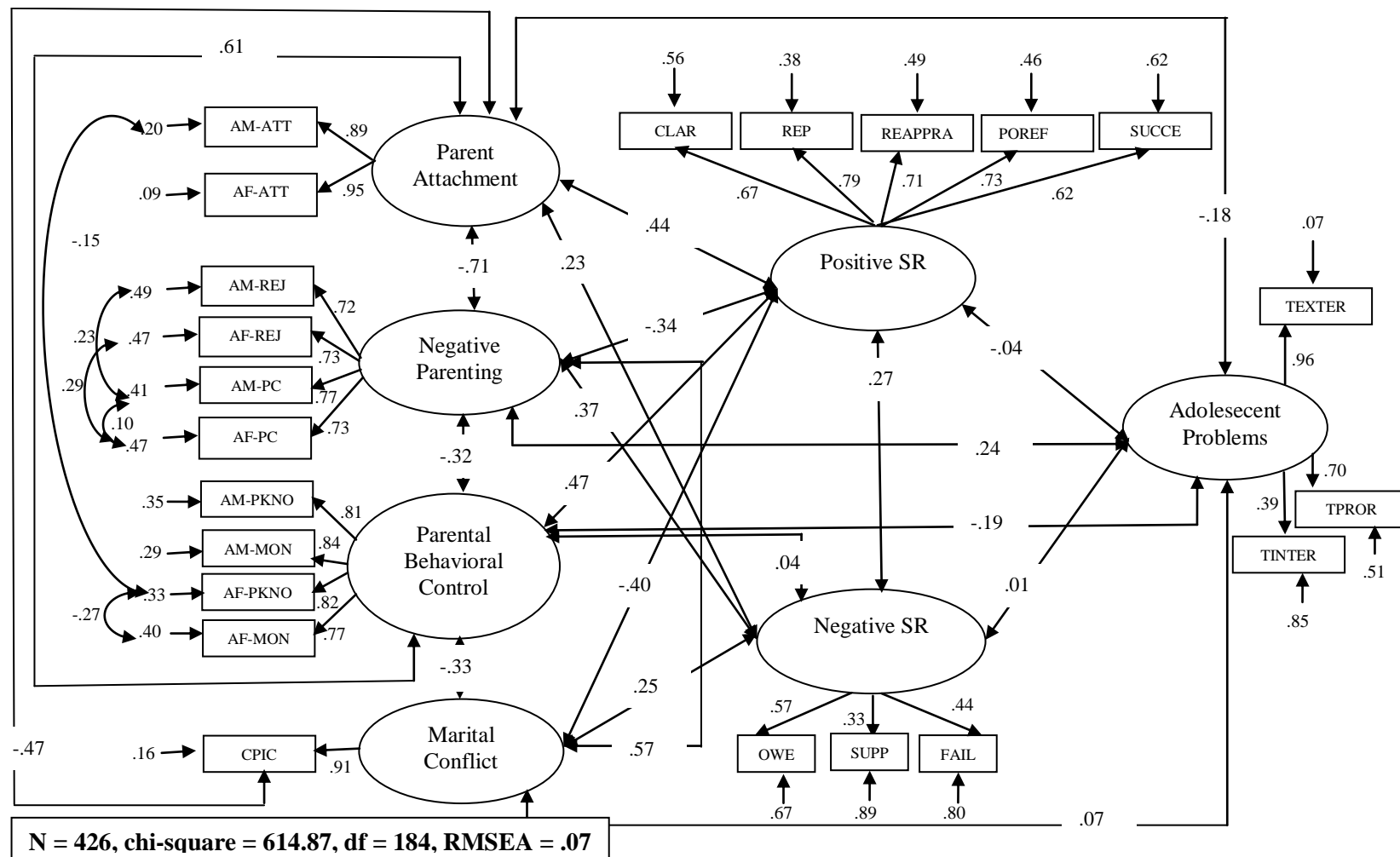**N = 426, chi-square = 614.87, df = 184, RMSEA = .07**

Figure 3.1. Measurement Model of Emotional Family Context using the Adolescent and Teacher Samples
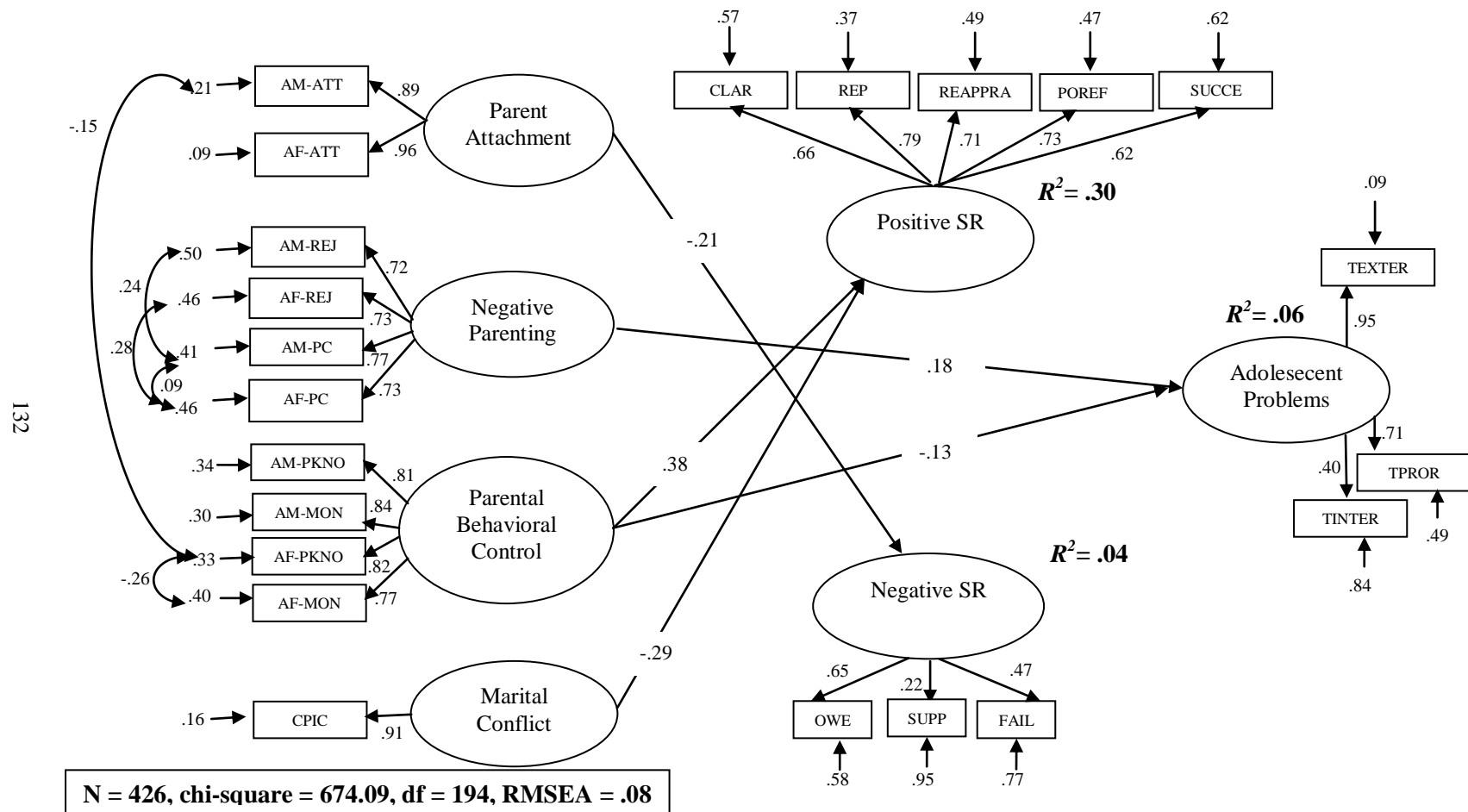
Figure 3.2 Structural Model of Family Context using the Adolescent and Teacher Samples

parents practiced more negative parenting, were perceived as having more adjustment problems as reported by their teachers. Additionally, secure attachment to parents predicted only negative SR negatively ($\beta = -.21$), meaning that the adolescents who were securely attached their parents, also did not employ negative SR strategies. Furthermore, marital conflict predicted positive SR only ($\beta = -.29$), meaning that the adolescents from the households with less interparental conflict, perceived themselves as more capable of involving in positive SR processes. Finally, parental behavior control predicted both positive SR and adolescent problems ($\beta = .38$, and $\beta = -.13$, respectively), showing that the adolescents whose parents were behaviorally controlling, were also good at indulging in positive SR processes, and were perceived as more adjusted by their teachers.

In sum, only direct effects of family context variables were significant in predicting adolescent development. Specifically, Parental behavioral control and marital conflict explained 30 % of the variance in adolescent positive SR, and parental attachment security explained the 4 % of the variance in negative SR. Finally, negative parenting and parental behavioral control explained 6 % of the variance in adolescent problems.

3.5.2.1 The Proposed Model for Emotional Family Context Using Adolescent and Parent Samples

The SEM analysis for the adolescent data involved the emotional family context latent variables, which were negative parenting, positive parenting, parental behavioral control, and interparental conflict. For each emotional family context latent variable adolescent ratings for each parent as well as the ratings of the parents were used. Negative parenting with eight indicators consisted of rejection and psychological control. Positive parenting had four indicators and consisted of parental warmth. Parental behavioral control had four indicators, which were derived from collapsing parental knowledge and monitoring and the marital conflict latent variable had three indicators. The mediating latent variables included SR variables, which were grouped into two. The negative SR latent variable consisted of obsession with emotions, suppression, and failure in SR, and positive SR latent variable consisted of repair of mood, clarity of emotions, reappraisal, positive reframing, and success in SR. Finally, the outcome latent variables of prosocial adolescent behavior,

externalization and internalization adolescent problems, each had two indicators, which consisted of SDQ ratings of each parent.

3.5.2.2 Measurement Model for the Proposed Model of Parenting

The measurement model with eight latent variables provided a poor fit to the data (χ^2 *(459, N =189) =1996.52, p<.00, GFI=.61, AGFI=52, NNFI=.79, CFI=.82, RMSEA=.13).* As seen in Table 3.17, structural correlations of the latent variable of positive parenting with negative parenting and parental behavior control (*r = -.64,* and *r = .90,* respectively) were high as well as the structural correlations of marital conflict with parental behavior control (*r = -.51).* Since the sample size was small, it required to remove positive parenting and marital conflict from further analysis due to the fact that these variables suppressed the effects of each other. A decision for conducting a separate SEM analysis for marital conflict was taken.

Table 3.17.
The Bivariate Correlations between the Latent Variables of Measurement Model

	Negpar	Pospar	Pbc	Conf	Possr	Negsr	Exter	Prosoc
Negpar	1							
Pospar	-.64**	1						
Pbc	-.39**	.90**	1					
Conf	.49**	-.62**	-.51**	1				
Possr	-.29*	.58**	.50**	-.40**	1			
Negsr	.49**	-.25*	-.26*	.29*	-.03	1		
Exter	.43**	-.40**	-.26*	.53**	-.12	.18	1	
Prosoc	-.19*	.55**	.40*	-.49**	.21*	-.09	-.60**	1
Inter	.33*	-.48**	-.34*	.66**	-.39**	.29*	.69**	-.73**

Note. Negpar = Negative Parenting; Pospar = Positive Parenting; Pbc = Parental Behavioral Control; Conf; Interparental Conflict; Possr = Positive Self Regulation; Negsr = Negative Self Regulation; Exter= Adolescent Externalization Problems; Prosoc=Adolescent Prosocial Behavior; Inter= Adolescent Internalization Problems.
*p<.05; **p<.01.

In order to improve the fit of the data to the model, post-hoc modifications were implemented based on the Modification Indices and theoretical relevance. Accordingly, error variances between the following dimensions were added to the model; (1) adolescent perceived mother psychological control and rejection, (2) adolescent perceived father psychological control and rejection, (3) adolescent

perceived mother and father rejection (4) mother and father-reported rejection, and (5) mother and father-reported behavioral control. At the same time, the units of measurements of all the latent variables were fixed to the unit of measurement of the most highly loading observed variable.

As seen in Figure 3.3, the final measurement model including the fixed unit of analysis for each latent variable and added errors correlations improved the model (χ^2(271, N =189)=644.96, p<.00, GFI=.79, AGFI=.73, NNFI=.85, CFI= .90, RMSEA=.09). All of the indicators loaded significantly on their latent variables. The loadings were between the range of.38 (father-reported rejection) and .84 (father-reported psychological control for negative parenting, between the range of .40 (father-reported behavioral control) and .80 (adolescent perceived behavioral control of father) for parental behavioral control. The loadings of positive SR were between .64 (positive reframing) and .78 (repair of mood), and they were between .27 (suppression) and .60 (obsession with emotions) for negative SR. The loadings were .82 and .81 for externalization problems, .69 and .73 for prosocial behavior, and .86 and .69 for internalization problems, for mothers and fathers respectively. The analysis of the structural correlations between the latent variables revealed that all correlations were similar to those at Table 3.17.

3.5.2.3 Testing the Proposed Structural Model of Parenting

In line with the proposed structural model, a saturated model with paths from parental psychological control and behavioral control to negative and positive SR, and with paths from negative and positive SR to adolescent adjustment measures was tested. However, a suppressor effect was evident, which precluded testing this model. A direct effect model, which included paths from parenting latent variables to SR and adolescent outcome variables, was tested. Accordingly, most of the insignificant paths were trimmed.

As seen in Figure 3.4, the fit of this model to the data was acceptable (χ^2 (283, N =189) =690.75, p<.00, GFI=.80, AGFI=.74, NNFI=.89, CFI= 90, RMSEA=.09) with the ratio of df: χ^2 being 2.4. Negative parenting predicted negative SR (*standardized structural coefficient (β) =.34*), prosocial behavior (*β = -.50*), and externalization (*β = .75*) and internalization problems (*β = .61*). These results indicated that the negative parenting involved in the emotional family context
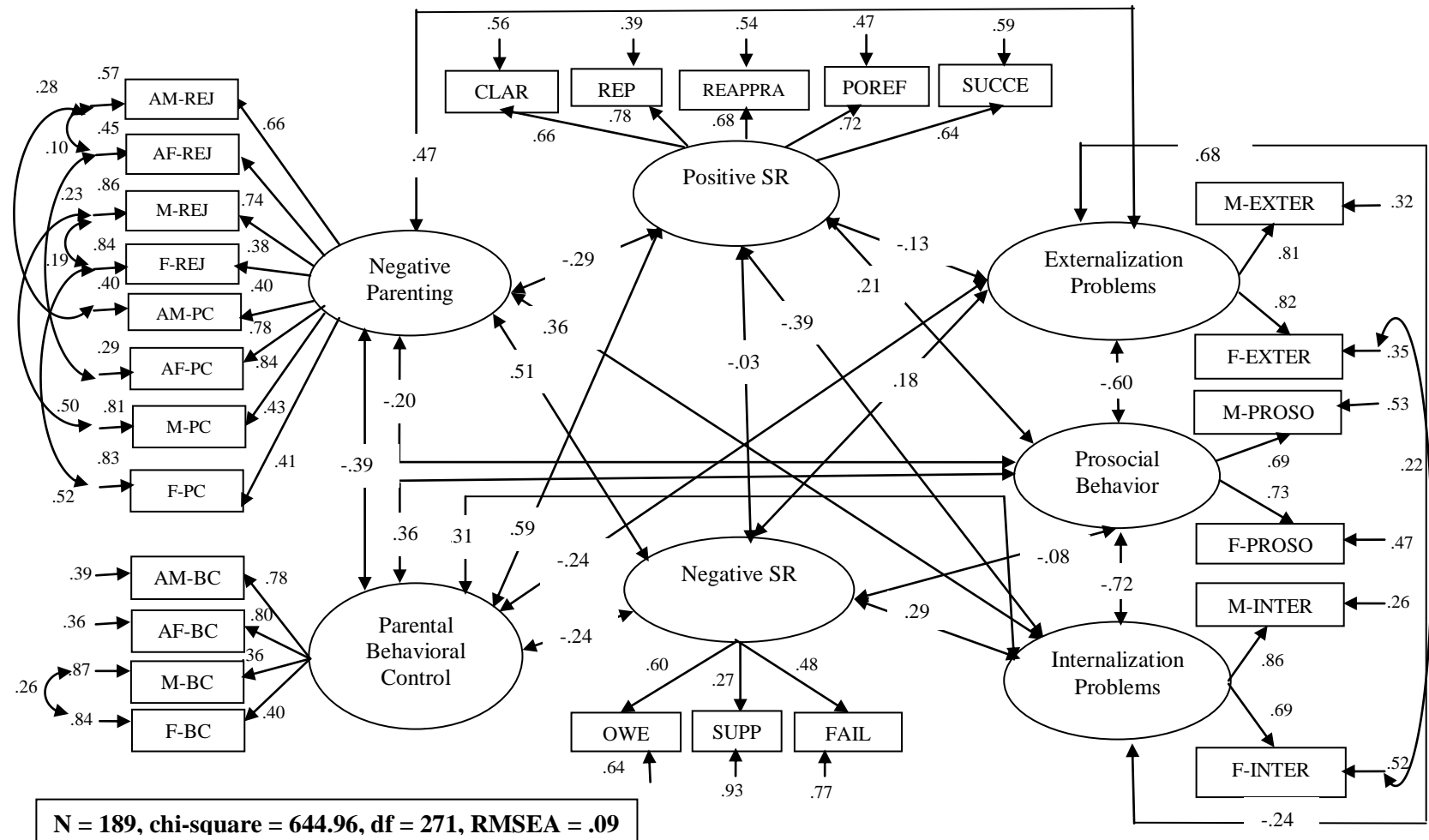
Figure 3.3. Measurement Model for Negative Parenting and Parental Psychological Control using Adolescent and Parent Samples

N = 189, chi-square = 644.96, df = 271, RMSEA = .09

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.57 .41 .54 .47 .58

CLAR REP REAPPRA POREF SUCCE

.77 .68 .73

.66 Positive SR R²=.37 R²=.57 .65

.57 .81 AM-REJ .45

.74 AF-REJ

.11

.57 .72 M-REJ .51

.63 F-REJ .53

.17 .75 AM-PC .61

.50

.69 AF-PC .55

.35 .62 M-PC .62

.64 F-PC .61

.33

Negative Parenting

.68 M-EXTER .29

.81

Externalization Problems

.75 .82

F-EXTER .37

R²=.35

-.50 M-PROSO .49

.61 .34 .61 .69

Prosocial Behavior .73

.22

F-PROSO .50

R²=.46

.45 AM-BC .72 .21

.31 AF-BC .83

.34

Parental Behavioral Control

Negative SR M-INTER .13

.88 M-BC R²=.12

.27 .42

.82 F-BC

.72 .24 .42 .86

.69

Internalization Problems

OWE SUPP FAIL F-INTER .58

.48 .94 .82

-.24

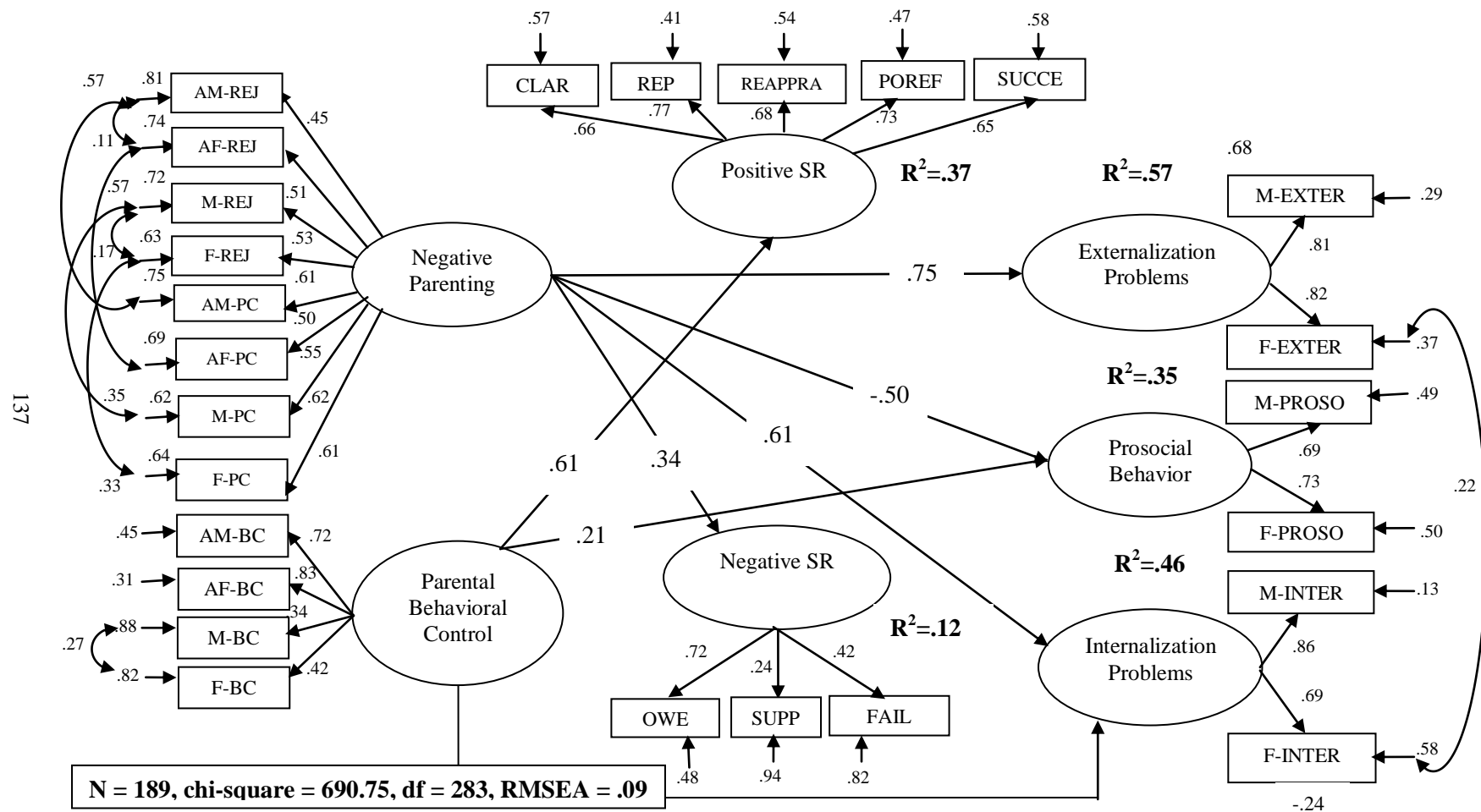**N = 189, chi-square = 690.75, df = 283, RMSEA = .09**

Figure 3.4. Structural Model for Negative Parenting and Parental Psychological Control using Adolescent and Parent Samples

predicted that the adolescents would get involved in negative forms of SR processes, and to have both externalization and internalization problems as well as low prosocial behaviors. The parental behavioral control predicted positive SR ($\beta = .61$), internalization problems ($\beta = -.16$) and prosocial behavior ($\beta = .21$), suggesting that the adolescents who were exposed to parental behavioral control in the family context, were involved in more positive SR practices, and were higher in social adjustment.

Taken together, only direct effects of negative parenting and parental behavior control predicted the adolescent development measures significantly. Negative parenting explained 12 %, 46 % and 57% of the variances in negative SR, adolescent internalization and externalization problems respectively. Additionally, parental behavior control explained 37 % of the variance in positive SR. Finally, negative parenting and behavioral control explained 35 % of the variance in adolescent prosocial behavior.

3.5.2.4 Measurement Model for the Proposed Model of Marital Conflict

The suppression effect caused by the high correlations between family context variables for adolescent and parents sample required to run a separate SEM analysis for marital conflict. A similar measurement model was run involving the marital conflict latent variable as the only family context variable, and the same negative and positive SR latent variables as well as the adolescent prosocial behavior, externalization and internalization problems as explained above. The initial estimation of the measurement model provided poor fit to the data (χ^2 *(104, N =189) =267.27, p<.00, GFI=.86, AGFI=.79, NNFI=.87, CFI=.90, RMSEA=.09).* The structural correlations between latent variables were approximately the same as in Table 3.17. However, the magnitude of the structural correlation between marital conflict and positive SR was reduced to -.26 from -.40. Furthermore, including both of the SR variables caused a suppression effect in the further steps of the analysis. Accordingly, the negative SR latent variable was removed from the model.

Post-hoc modifications were implemented based on the Modification Indices and theoretical relevance in order to improve the fit of the data to the model. Specifically, the marital conflict reported by both parents in fact were the ratings of their mutual interaction patterns, which might influence each other. Furthermore,

adolescent externalization and internalization problems might be partially dependent on each other, thus might influence the perceptions of the parents. Following this line of thought, error variances between the following dimensions were added to the model; (1) marital conflict ratings of mothers and fathers and (2) father perceived adolescent externalization and internalization problems. At the same time, the unit of measurements of all the latent variables was fixed to the unit of measurement of the most highly loading observed variable.

The final measurement model including the fixed unit of analysis for each latent variable, and added errors correlations improved the model (χ^2 *(65, N =189) =133.43, p<.00, GFI=.91, AGFI=.85, NNFI=.94, CFI= .96, RMSEA=.08).* As shown 3.5, all of the indicators loaded significantly on their latent variables. The loadings of marital conflict ranged between .43 (father-reported marital conflict) and .67 (adolescents' perception of marital conflict). The loadings of positive SR were between .63 (SR success) and .79 (repair of mood). The loadings were .89 and .76 for externalization problems, .73 and .68 for prosocial behavior, and .93 and .65 for internalization problems, for mothers and fathers respectively. The examination of structural correlations between latent variables revealed that marital conflict correlated negatively with positive SR and adolescent prosocial behavior (*r = -.61,* and *r = -.49,* respectively) and positively with externalization and internalization problems (*r = .50,* and *r = .72,* respectively). Furthermore, positive SR had was negatively correlated with internalization and externalization problems of adolescent (*r = -.37,* and *r = -.12,* respectively) and positively with adolescent prosocial behavior (*r = .20*). The internalization problems correlated negatively with prosocial behavior and positively with internalization problems (*r = -.57,* and *r = .61,* respectively). The correlation between prosocial behavior and internalization problems were -.68.

3.5.2.5 Testing the Proposed Structural Model of Marital Conflict

The proposed model required to take into account the insignificant relations between the mediators and adolescent outcome measures. Thus, the model, which was tested, included all the paths from contextualized emotional family variable of marital conflict to positive SR and outcome variables and the paths from positive SR to adolescent adjustment measures. The insignificant paths were removed from the
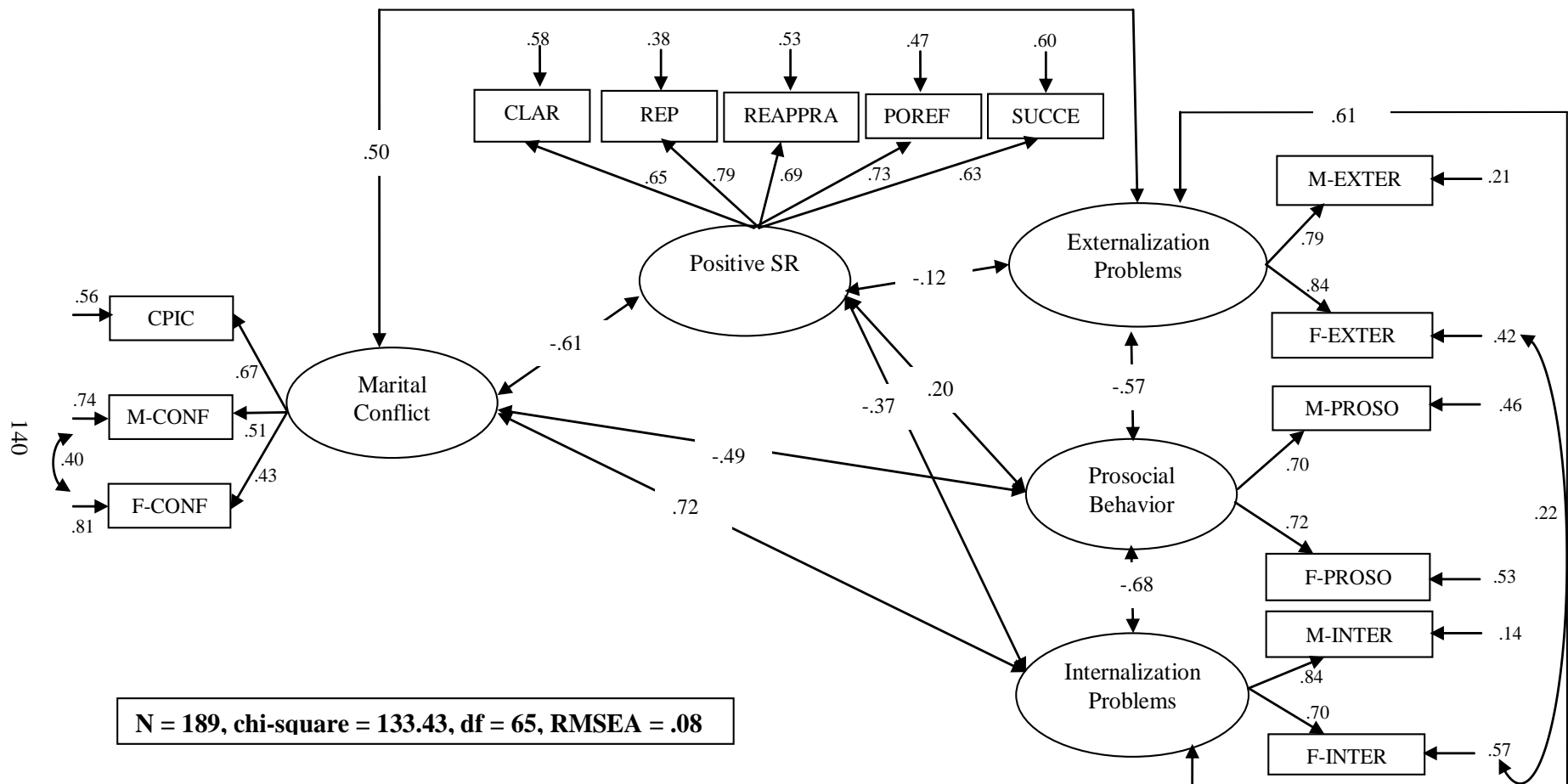
Figure 3.5. Measurement Model for Marital Conflict using Adolescent and Parent Samples
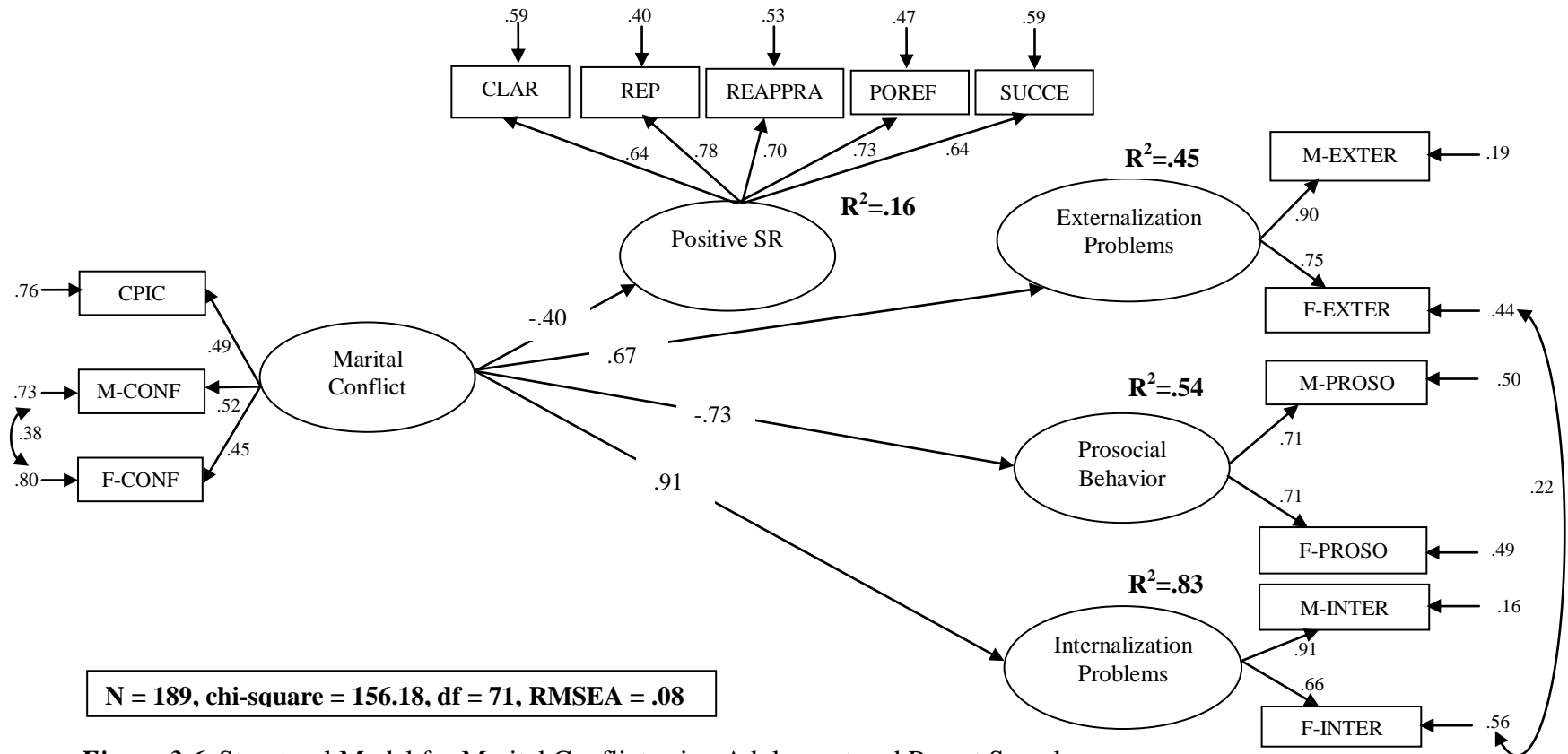
Figure 3.6. Structural Model for Marital Conflict using Adolescent and Parent Samples

The figure contains the following labeled elements:

Top row boxes: CLAR (.59), REP (.40), REAPPRA (.53), POREF (.47), SUCCE (.59)

Loadings from Positive SR: .64, .78, .70, .73, .64

R²=.16 (Positive SR)
R²=.45 (Externalization Problems)
R²=.54 (Prosocial Behavior)
R²=.83 (Internalization Problems)

Marital Conflict indicators: CPIC (.76, .49), M-CONF (.73, .52), F-CONF (.80, .45)
Correlation between M-CONF and F-CONF: .38

Paths from Marital Conflict: -.40 (to Positive SR), .67 (to Externalization Problems), -.73 (to Prosocial Behavior), .91 (to Internalization Problems)

Externalization Problems: M-EXTER (.19, .90), F-EXTER (.44, .75)
Prosocial Behavior: M-PROSO (.50, .71), F-PROSO (.49, .71)
Internalization Problems: M-INTER (.16, .91), F-INTER (.56, .66)

Correlation: .22

N = 189, chi-square = 156.18, df = 71, RMSEA = .08

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analysis. The model, which included the direct paths from marital conflict to SR and adolescent adjustment measures (χ^2*(71, N =189)=156.18, p<.00, GFI=.89, AGFI=.84, NNFI=.93, CFI= 95, RMSEA=.08)* with the ratio of df: χ^2 being 2.1. As seen in figure 3.6, marital conflict predicted positive SR (*standardized structural coefficient (β) = -.40*), prosocial behavior (*β = -.73*), and externalization (*β = .67*) and internalization problems (*β = .91*). These results indicated that the availability of marital conflict in the family context led adolescents to disturb positive SR processes and adolescent prosocial behavior. Furthermore, the higher the marital conflict, the higher were adolescent problems, both externalization and internalization.

Overall, the results suggested that marital conflict predicted positive SR and adolescent adjustment directly. Marital conflict explained 16 %, 45 %, 54 % and 83 % of the variances in positive SR, externalization problems, prosocial behavior, and internalization problems, respectively.

3.5.2.6 The Proposed Model for Adolescent Attachment and Adolescent Adjustment

Present analysis used the data by adolescents and parents similar to the previous analysis. Each parental attachment security had two indicators, which were attachment availability and dependency for mothers and fathers. The mediating latent variables included negative SR latent variable, which consisted of obsession with emotions, and failure of SR, and positive SR latent variable consisted of repair of mood, clarity of emotions, reappraisal, positive reframing, and success in SR. Finally, the outcome latent variables of externalization and internalization adolescent problems each had two indicators, which consisted of the SDQ ratings of each parents.

### 3.5.2.7 Measurement Model for the Proposed Model of Parental Attachment Security

The initial measurement model with six latent variables provided an acceptable fit to the data (χ^2 *(114, N =189) =263.21, p<.00, GFI=.87, AGFI=.80, NNFI=.87, CFI=.91, RMSEA=.08).* However, the analysis of the structural correlations revealed that the correlation between mother and father attachment security was very high (*r = .81*), which compelled to merge the parental attachment dimensions into one latent variable. Additionally, the analysis revealed that the

indicator of negative SR, which was suppression, had a loading of .22, hence it was removed from further analysis. Similarly, the latent variable prosocial behavior was excluded from further analysis due to the suppressor effect. The post-hoc modifications included the added error variances between; (1) mother availability and father availability, (2) mother dependency and mother availability, and (3) the latent variables of externalization and internalization problems of adolescents. At the same time, the units of measurements of all the latent variables were fixed to the unit of measurement of the most highly loading observed variable.

The final measurement model including the fixed unit of analysis for each latent variable and added errors correlations improved the model (χ^2 *(78, N =189) =164.91, p<.00, GFI=.90, AGFI=.84, NNFI=.91, CFI= .93, RMSEA=.08).* As shown in Figure 3.7, all of the indicators loaded significantly on their latent variables. The loadings of the indicators on parent attachment security ranged between .37 (mother attachment dependency) and .94 (father attachment dependency). The loadings of positive SR were between .64 (SR success) and .78 (repair of mood), and they were .48 (SR failure) and .64 (obsession with emotions) for negative SR. The loadings of externalization and internalization behavior were .85 and .78, and .87 and .68, for mothers and fathers respectively. The analysis of the structural correlations between the latent variables revealed that parent attachment security was significantly and positively correlated with positive SR (*r = .52*), and it was negatively correlated with negative SR (*r = -.39*), adolescent externalizing (*r = -.16*) and internalizing problems (*r = -.36*). Positive SR correlated negatively with externalization and internalization problems (*r = -.13* and *r =-.39*, respectively), and negative SR was positively correlated with adolescent externalization and internalization problems (*r =.18* and *r =.33*, respectively). The structural correlation between adolescent externalization and internalization problems was positively significant (*r = .67*).

3.5.4.2 Testing the Proposed Structural Model of Parental Attachment Security

The proposed model predicted that attachment security to parents would predict adolescent outcomes both directly and indirectly through positive and negative SR. For this aim, a saturated model, which included all the paths from

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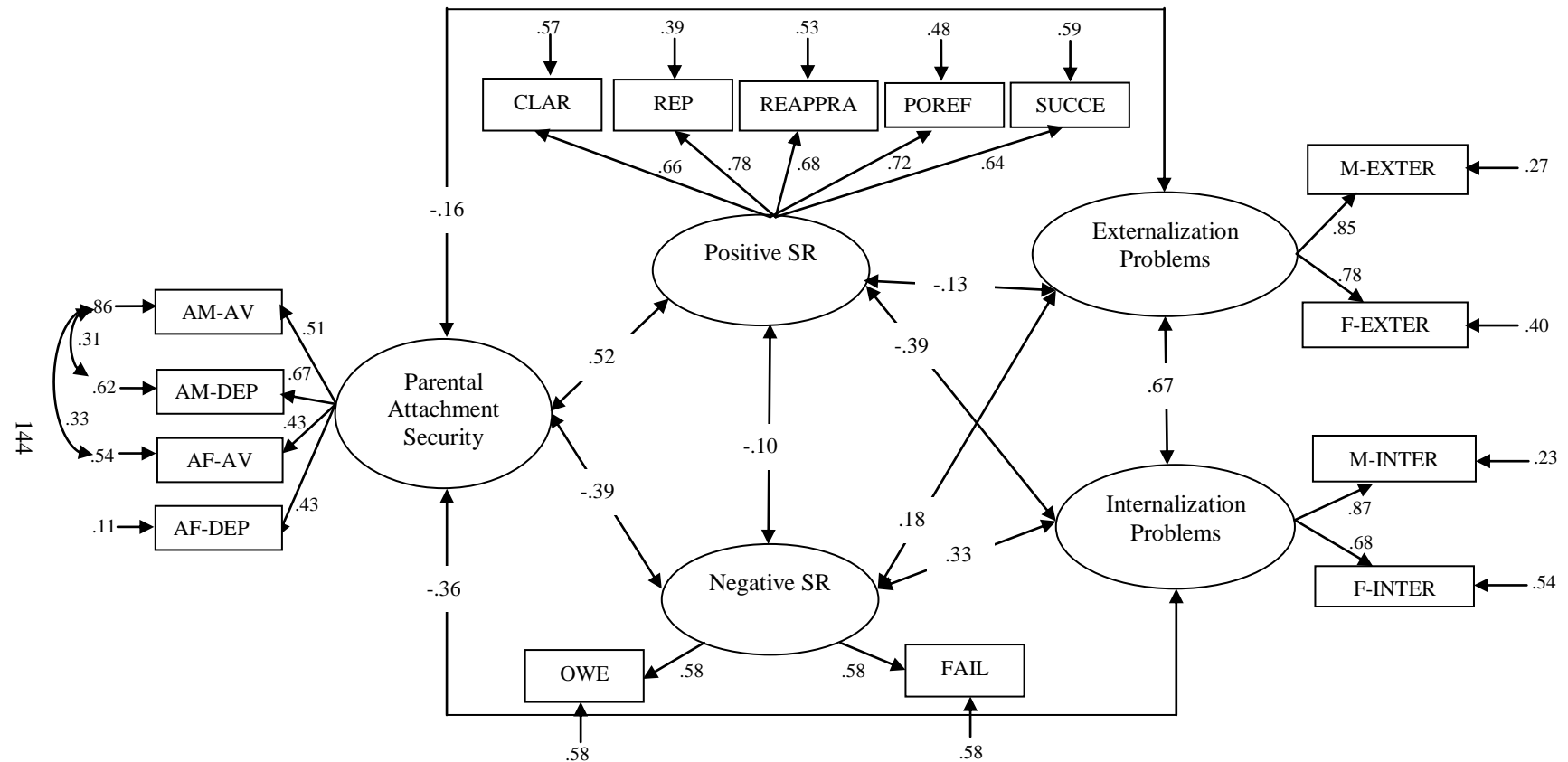
Figure 3.7. Measurement Model for Parental Attachment Security using Adolescent and Parent Samples

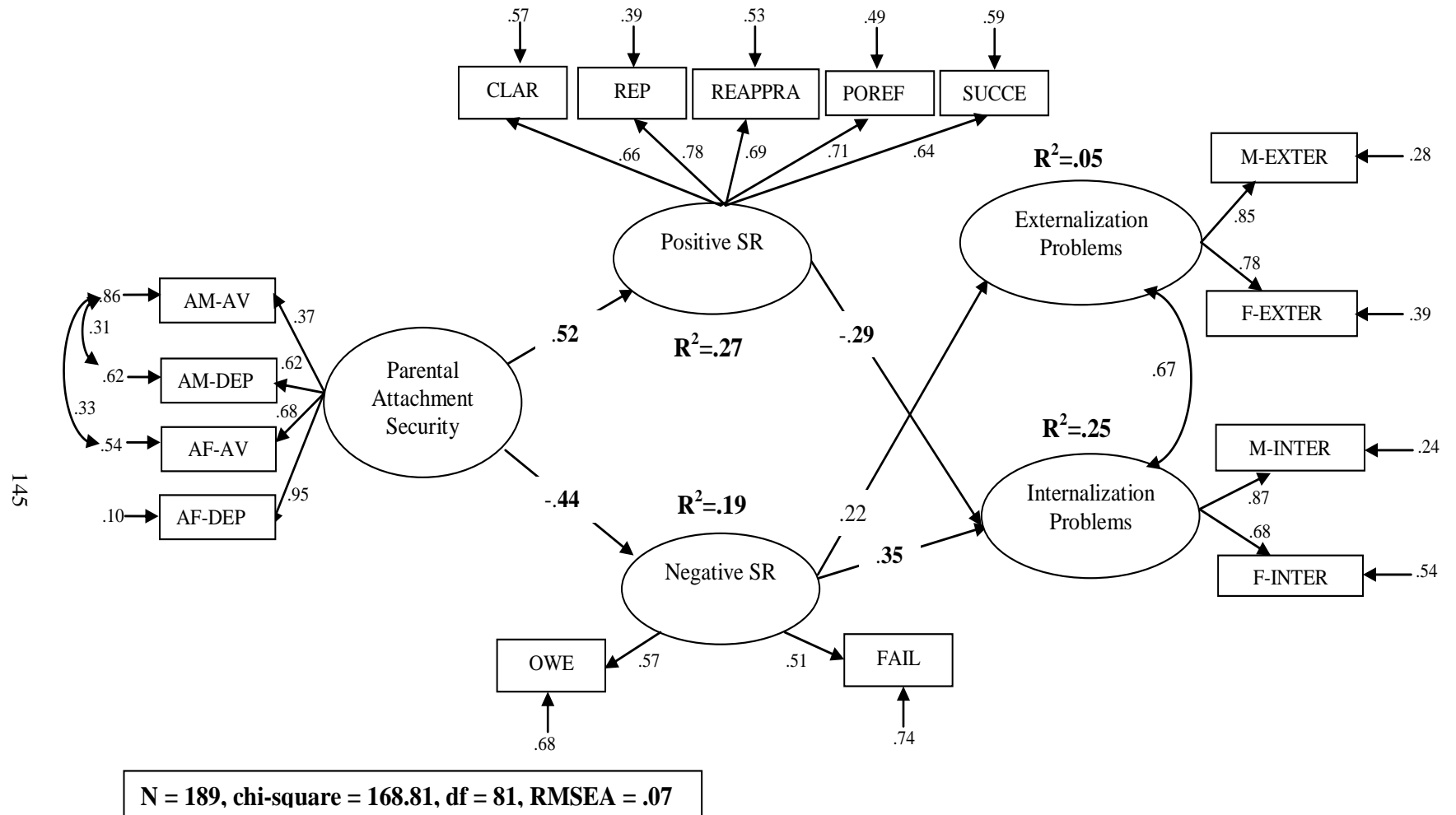N = 189, chi-square = 168.81, df = 81, RMSEA = .07

Figure 3.8. Structural Model for Parental Attachment Security using Adolescent and Parent Samples

parent attachment security to other latent variables as well as the paths from positive and negative SR to adolescent outcome latent variables were tested and most of the insignificant paths were trimmed. The insignificant path from negative SR to externalization problems was kept in order to keep that latent variable within the model. The fit of this model to the data was acceptable (χ^2 *(82, N =189) =166.81, p<.00, GFI=.89, AGFI=.85, NNFI=.91, CFI= 93, RMSEA=.07)* with the ratio of df: χ^2 being 2.2.

As seen in figure 3.8, parental attachment security predicted positive SR (*standardized structural coefficient (β) =.52*) and negative SR (*β= -.44*). These findings suggested that the adolescents, who had high parental attachment security, also practiced more positive SR and less negative SR. Furthermore, both positive and negative SR variables predicted adolescent internalization problems (*β= -.29* and *β= .35*, respectively). In sum, the adolescents who practiced positive SR had lower internalization problems, whereas the adolescents, who practiced negative SR, had higher internalization problems.

The model showed that parental attachment predicted positive and negative SR directly. Furthermore, positive and negative SR latent variables predicted only adolescent internalization problems directly. Their mediating effect was also significant. Specifically, positive and negative SR variables mediated the effect of parental attachment security on adolescent internalization problems. Overall, the parental attachment explained 27 % of the variance in positive SR, 19 % of the variance in negative SR. Furthermore, positive and negative SR latent variables explained 25 % of the variance in adolescent internalization behaviors. The total indirect effect of parental attachment security on adolescent internalization problems was -30.

In sum, the SEM analysis mostly supported the direct effect of positive and negative context variables on SR and adolescent outcomes (H#2a, and H#2b), whereas the mediating effects of SR measures were only evident for marital conflict and parental attachment security for internalization problems of adolescents. These results supported the predictions of the present study only partially (i.e., H#1a, and H#1b).

3.6 Testing the Role of Parental Attachment on Adolescent Peer Attachment Representations (Hypothesis # 3)

3.6.1 The Proposed Model for Parental Attachment Security and Peer Attachment Representations

The hypotheses suggested that the emotional family context latent variable attachment security to each parent would predict peer attachment dimensions directly (H#3a) and indirectly via positive and negative SR measures (H#3b). This analysis only used the adolescent sample. Each parental attachment security had two indicators, which were attachment availability and dependency for mothers and fathers. The mediating latent variables included SR variables, which were grouped into positive and negative SR. Negative SR latent variable consisted of obsession with emotions, suppression, and failure of SR, and positive SR latent variable consisted of attention to emotions, repair of mood, clarity of emotions, reappraisal, positive reframing, and success in SR. Since outcome latent variables of peer attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance involved only one indicator, their error variance were fixed to .089 and .107 respectively by using Kenny et al.'s (1998) formula, which was (1-α) x variance of total score of peer attachment anxiety and avoidance.

3.6.2 Measurement Model for the Proposed Model of Parental Attachment Security and Peer Attachment Representations

Figure 3.9 depicts the measurement model with six latent variables. The initial estimation of the measurement model provided a mediocre fit to the data (χ^2 (64, N =426) =300.02, p<.00, GFI=.91, AGFI=85, NNFI=.88, CFI=.91, RMSEA=.09). In order to improve the fit of the data to the model, post-hoc modifications were implemented based on the Modification Indices and theoretical relevance. An error variance was added between mother and father attachment dependency variables. At the same time, the units of measurements of all the latent variables were fixed to the unit of measurement of the most highly loading observed variable.
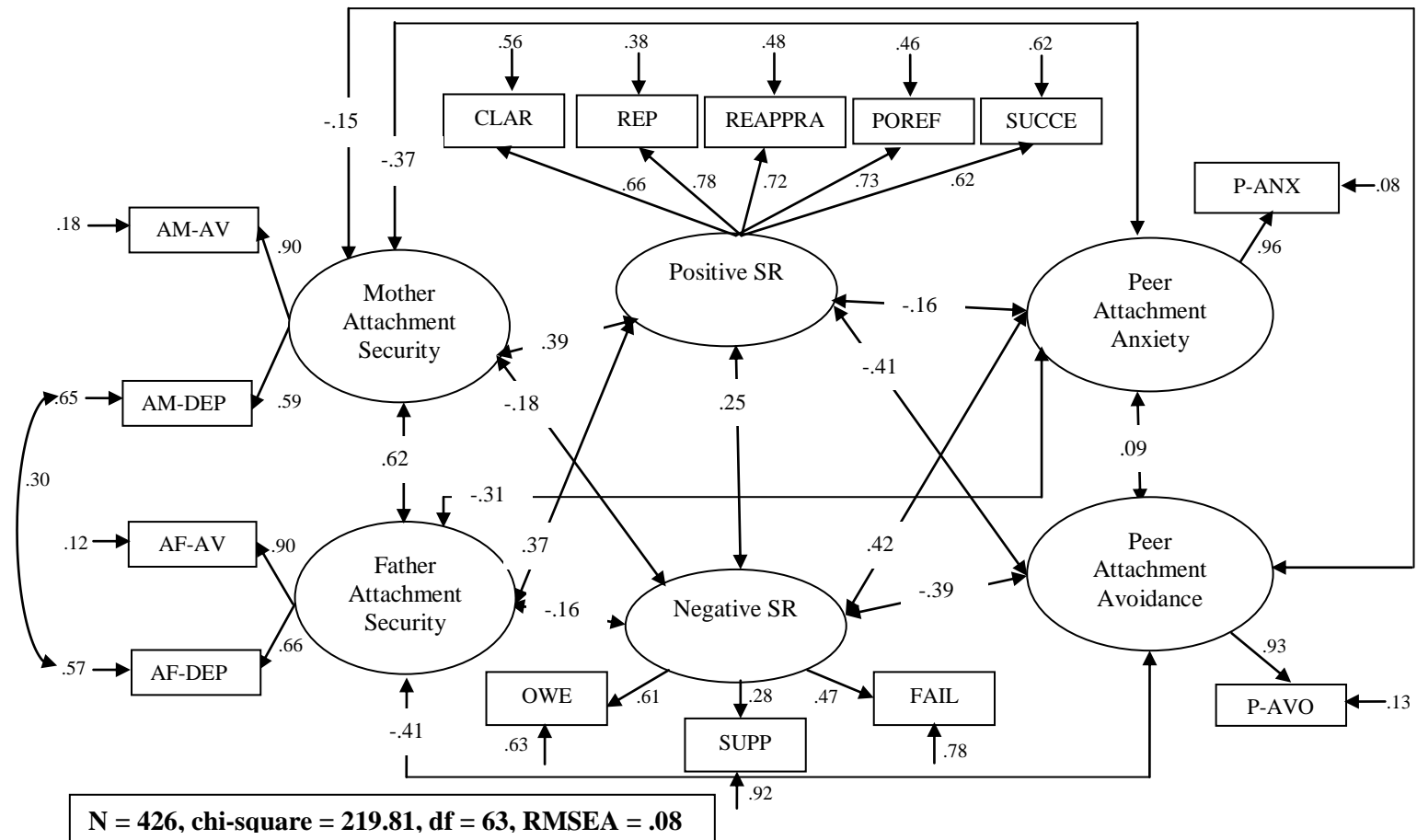
147

Figure 3.9. Measurement Model for Mother and Father Attachment Security using Adolescent Sample
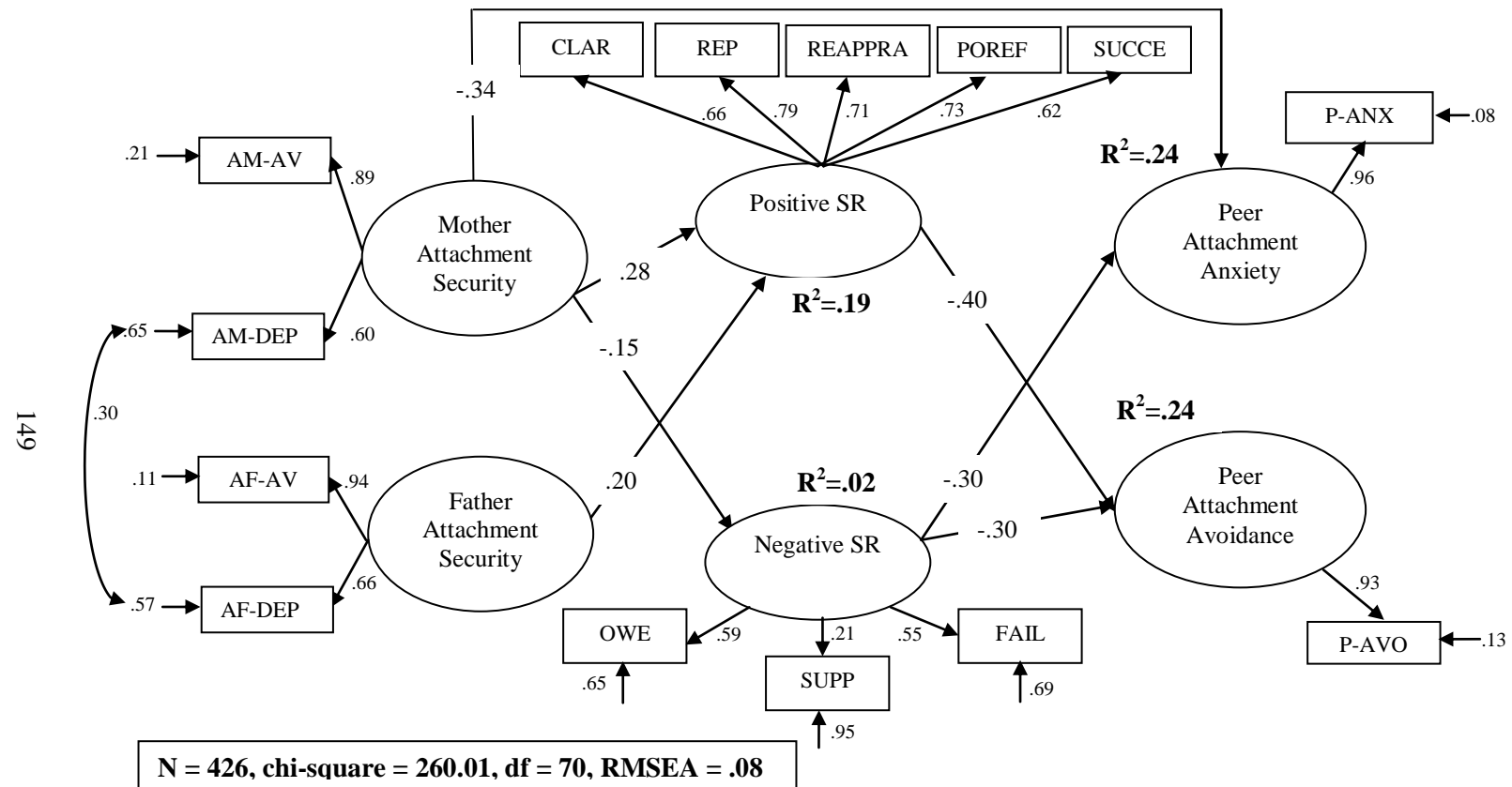
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Figure 3.10. Structural Model for Mother and Father Attachment Security using Adolescent Sample

The final measurement model including the fixed unit of analysis for each latent variable and added errors correlations improved the model (χ^2 *(63, N =426) =219.81, p<.00, GFI=.88, AGFI=.89, NNFI=.92, CFI= .94, RMSEA=.08).* As shown in Figure 3.9, all of the indicators loaded significantly on their latent variables. The loadings of the indicators on mother attachment security were .90 for mother attachment availability and .59 for mother attachment dependency, and the loadings of father attachment security were .94 for father availability and .66 for father attachment dependency. The loadings of positive SR were between .62 (success) and .78 (repair of mood), and they were between .28 (suppression) and .61 (obsession with emotions) for negative SR. The loadings of peer attachment anxiety and avoidance were .96 and .93 respectively. The analysis of the structural correlations between the latent variables revealed that mother attachment security was significantly and positively correlated with father attachment security ($r = .62$) and positive SR ($r = .39$), and it was negatively correlated with negative SR ($r = -.18$), peer attachment anxiety ($r = -.37$) and avoidance ($r = -.15$). Similarly, father attachment security was correlated significantly and positively with positive SR ($r = .37$), and it was negatively correlated with negative SR ($r =-.16$), peer attachment anxiety ($r = -.31$) and avoidance ($r = -.17$). The analysis of the structural correlations of positive SR revealed that it was positively correlated with negative SR ($r = .25$), and negatively with peer attachment anxiety ($r = -.16$) and avoidance ($r = -.41$). Negative SR was positively correlated with peer attachment anxiety ($r = .42$) and negatively with peer attachment avoidance ($r = -.39$). The structural correlation between peer attachment anxiety and avoidance was insignificant.

3.6.3 Testing the Proposed Structural Model for Parental Attachment Security and Peer Attachment Representations

The proposed model suggested that attachment security to parents would predict peer attachment anxiety and avoidance both directly and indirectly through positive and negative SR. A saturated model including all the paths from parent attachment security to other latent variables as well as the paths from positive and negative SR to peer attachment latent variables were tested and the insignificant paths were trimmed. The fit of this model to the data was acceptable (χ^2 *(70, N =426) =260.01, p<.00, GFI=.92, AGFI=.88, NNFI=.91, CFI= 93, RMSEA=.08)*

with the ratio of df: χ^2 being 3.7. As seen in figure 3.10, mother attachment security predicted positive SR (*standardized structural coefficient (β) =.28*), negative SR (*β= -.15*), and peer attachment anxiety (*β= -.34*). On the other hand, father attachment security predicted only positive SR (*β=.20*). These findings suggested that the adolescents who had high attachment security to their mothers, also practiced more positive SR and less negative SR and had low peer attachment anxiety. Additionally, the adolescents who had more secure relations with their fathers practiced more positive SR. The effects of SR measures were also evident. Specifically, positive SR predicted peer attachment avoidance negatively (*β=-.40*), whereas negative SR predicted peer attachment anxiety positively (*β=.30*) and peer attachment avoidance negatively (*β=-.30*). In other words, adolescents who employed both negative and positive SR strategies had lower peer attachment avoidance, whereas those who employed negative SR strategies had higher peer attachment anxiety.

These findings suggested that mother attachment security predicted both SR measures and peer attachment anxiety directly, whereas father attachment security predicted only positive SR directly. Furthermore, positive SR predicted only peer attachment avoidance, and negative SR predicted both peer attachment dimensions. Additionally, there were significant mediating effects of positive and negative SR measures. Specifically, positive SR mediated the effects of mother and father attachment security on peer attachment avoidance, and negative SR mediated the effects of mother attachment security on peer attachment dimensions. Overall, mother and father attachment security explained 19 % of the variance in positive SR, and mother attachment security explained the 2% of the variance in negative SR. Additionally, positive and negative SR measures explained the 24 % of the variance in peer attachment avoidance, and mother attachment security and negative SR explained the 24 % of the variance on peer attachment anxiety. Although the total effect of mother attachment security on peer attachment anxiety was -.39, its indirect effects on peer attachment anxiety and avoidance were insignificant. The indirect effect of father attachment was -.08 on peer attachment avoidance and significant. In sum, the results supported the hypotheses 3a and 3b partially.

3.7 Testing the Role of Attachment Transfer on Self-Regulation Dimensions (Hypothesis # 4)

The hypothesis concerning the attachment transfer of secure base suggested that the adolescents who successfully oriented to both parents and friends or to only parents, would have better SR, peer attachment representations, and social adjustment (H#4a). The adolescents who transferred their secure base needs to peers completely would have more disturbed SR and they suffer from poor socioemotional adjustment compared to the ones who satisfied their secure base needs with parents or with both parents and peers. They would also have higher peer attachment anxiety lower peer attachment avoidance as compared to other groups (H#4b).

The testing the hypothesis using ANCOVA required splitting adolescents into groups, which subsumed the adolescents according to their figure of secure base attachment need satisfaction. Four groups were created by using the median split of total secure base scores for parents and best friends (e.g. Özen et al., 2011). Hence, the first cluster of adolescents included the ones who had lower secure base, characterized by below the median reports of both the parents and best friends. The second cluster group had adolescents who reported best friends as their secure base figure, and the third one included the ones who reported parents as their secure base. The last group of adolescents reported both parents and best friends as their secure base attachment figures. The cluster analysis yielded four groups with 109 (25.6 %) adolescents with low secure base figure, 165 (38.7 %) with best friends as attachment figures, 120 (28.2 %) with parents as secure base figures, and 32 (7.5 %) with both parents and best friends as secure base attachment figures.

A series of 4 group between-subject ANCOVA were employed to compare the means of different sub-groups on SR measures, aggression, and teacher-reported adolescent adjustment outcomes as well as peer attachment dimensions, with a total of 14 variables. As seen in Table 3.18, the results indicated that the main effects of groups on most of the dependent variables were significant and post-hoc analysis with LSD revealed the group differences for these variables. The parent and all secure base groups were significantly better in clarity of emotions than low secure base or best friend secure base groups. Furthermore, the group who had their parents as their secure base figures were better in repair of mood and low in obsession with

Table 3.18

Tukey LSD Pairwise Comparison of Secure Base Groups on Adolescent Outcomes by Controlling Gender

Adolescent Variables	WHO-TO Groups (Adjusted Means)				F	Partial Eta^2
	No Secure Base	Friend Secure Base	Parent Secure Base	All Secure Base		
Attention to emotions	3.88$_a$	3.83$_a$	3.93$_a$	4.11$_a$	.90	.01
Clarity of Emotions	4.02$_a$	4.05$_a$	4.33$_b$	4.42$_b$	3.98**	.03
Repair of Emotions	4.15$_a$	4.05$_a$	4.56$_b$	4.40$_{a,b}$	5.82**	.04
Obsession with Emotions	3.92$_a$	3.96$_a$	3.66$_b$	3.92$_{a,b}$	3.98**	.03
Reappraisal	3.84$_a$	3.85$_a$	4.07$_a$	3.73$_a$	1.95	.01
Suppression	3.90$_a$	3.82$_a$	3.81$_a$	3.68$_a$	.71	.00
Positive Reframing	4.14$_a$	3.98$_{a,b}$	4.31$_b$	4.16$_{a,b}$	2.31	.02
Success in SR	2.89$_{a,b}$	2.85$_a$	3.00$_b$	3.01$_{a,b}$	2.87*	.04
Failure in SR	2.83$_a$	2.89$_a$	2.81$_a$	2.81$_a$	.78	.01
Aggression	2.30$_a$	2.56$_b$	2.04$_c$	2.06$_{a,c}$	6.68**	.05
Peer Anxiety	2.76$_{a,b}$	2.98$_b$	2.49$_c$	2.51$_{a,c}$	5.91**	.04
Peer Avoidance	2.93$_a$	2.51$_b$	2.95$_a$	2.71$_a$	7.87**	.05
Externalization Problems (Teacher)	1.39$_{a,b}$	1.46$_a$	1.33$_b$	1.36$_{a,b}$	4.20**	.03
Prosocial Behavior (Teacher)	2.42$_a$	2.39$_a$	2.52$_b$	2.43$_{a,b}$	2.77*	.02
Internalization Problems (Teacher)	1.37$_a$	1.46$_b$	1.34$_a$	1.32$_a$	3.78*	.03

Note. Values with the same subscript are not significantly different from each other
$p*<.05; p**<.01.$

emotions than low secure base and best friends as secure base groups. The best friend as secure base group had adolescents who were more aggressive than all the other groups, and they were more anxious in the peer attachment relations as compared to parents and all as secure base figures groups. They also had lower peer attachment

avoidance as compared to the parent secure group. Furthermore, teachers reported more externalization problems for the adolescents in the best friend secure base groups than parent secure group. Teachers also reported that parents as secure base group were higher in prosocial behavior than best friend secure base and low secure base groups. Finally, teachers reported less internalization problems for parents as secure base and all secure base groups than the others, and low secure base group had less internalization problems than best friend secure base group.

These results suggested that the adolescents who had their parents as secure base figures were better at most of the SR measures, especially than the group who had their best friends as secure base figures. The adolescents who had both parent and best friends as secure base figures did not differ from all other groups on most of the SR variables although they were rated as better adjusted than no secure base or best friends as secure base groups by teachers. These findings partially supported hypotheses 4a and totally supported hypothesis 4b.

3.8 Testing the Role of Peer Attachment Style on Adolescent Outcomes (Hypothesis # 5)

It was hypothesized that adolescent peer attachment style would influence their SR styles and social adjustment. Specifically, adolescents who had secure peer representations would have good regulatory skills, and they would be better adjusted as compared to other groups (H#5a). The adolescents who had anxious peer attachment representations would practice low reappraisal and suppression, they would have low clarity of affective experiences and high attention to affect. They would also hold pessimistic attitudes towards life and suffer from social adjustment problems (H#5b). The adolescents with high peer avoidance would practice low reappraisal and high suppression, and they would have low clarity of affective experiences and attention to affect. They would also have adjustment problems (H#5c).

Median split yielded four clusters of peer attachment groups, namely, secure, anxious, avoidant and fearful, in order to test the hypothesis. The peer attachment secure group included 127 (29.8 %) adolescents, and the number of adolescents were 85 (20 %) in peer avoidant group, 86 (20.2 %) in peer anxious group, and 128 (30 %) in peer fearful group. A series of four group between-subject ANCOVA by controlling gender was implemented to compare the means of different sub-groups

on the SR, aggression, and teacher-reported adolescent adjustment outcomes, with a total of 12 variables. The analysis revealed that the group differences were significant for attention to emotions, clarity of emotions, repair of mood, obsession with emotions, reappraisal, suppression, positive reframing, success and failure in SR, aggression, and teacher reported internalization problems, as seen in Table 3.19.

Table 3.19

Tukey LSD Pairwise Comparison of Peer Attachment Style Groups on Adolescent Outcomes by Controlling Gender

Adolescent Variables	Peer Attachment Style Groups (Adjusted Means)				F	Partial Eta^2
	Peer Secure	Peer Avoidant	Peer Anxious	Peer Fearful		
Attention to emotions	4.21$_a$	3.79$_b$	3.84$_b$	3.681$_b$	7.03**	.05
Clarity of Emotions	4.48$_a$	3.88$_b$	4.28$_a$	3.91$_b$	12.26**	.08
Repair of Emotions	4.72$_a$	4.12$_b$	4.16$_b$	3.91$_b$	13.47**	.09
Obsession with Emotions	3.80$_a$	3.55$_b$	4.18$_c$	3.92$_a$	10.33**	.07
Reappraisal	4.10$_a$	3.76$_b$	4.05$_a$	3.70$_b$	5.09**	.04
Suppression	3.71$_{a,c}$	3.65$_a$	4.05$_b$	3.91$_{b,c}$	3.42*	.02
Positive Reframing	4.33$_a$	3.94$_b$	4.27$_a$	3.96$_b$	4.06**	.03
Success in SR	3.07$_a$	2.94$_b$	2.94$_b$	2.73$_c$	12.08**	.08
Failure in SR	2.84$_a$	2.73$_a$	3.09$_b$	2.76$_a$	11.76**	.08
Aggression	1.70$_a$	1.90$_b$	2.89$_c$	2.79$_c$	47.62**	.25
Externalization Problems (Teacher)	1.39$_a$	1.46$_b$	1.33$_a$	1.36$_a$	2.22	.02
Prosocial Behavior (Teacher)	2.44$_a$	2.45$_a$	2.49$_a$	2.40$_a$	.89	.01
Internalization Problems (Teacher)	1.36$_a$	1.31$_b$	1.41$_{a,c}$	1.47$_c$	4.49**	.03

Note. Values with the same subscript are not significantly different from each other. p*<.05; p**<.01.

A post-hoc analysis with LSD analysis revealed that the adolescents with secure attachment peer styles were higher in attention to emotions and repair of emotions than any other group. Secure and anxious adolescents were higher in clarity of emotions, reappraisal and positive reframing than the other groups. Avoidant adolescents had the lowest and the anxious group had the highest scores on obsession with emotions, where secure and fearful adolescents groups fell in between. Secure and avoidant adolescents suppressed less than the anxious and fearful adolescent groups, and the former groups were less aggressive than the latter ones. Furthermore, secure group had the highest success in SR, to be followed by anxious and avoidant adolescents, which did not differ from each other. Fearful adolescents had the lowest scores on success in SR. Moreover, the anxious group had the highest scores on failure of SR, in which the other groups did not differ from each other. Teachers reported that secure adolescents had lower internalization problems than fearful adolescents, and avoidant adolescents had lower internalization problems than anxious and fearful adolescents.

In sum, the results suggested that the adolescents who had secure peer attachment styles, had also higher levels of positive SR, and lower levels of internalization problems as compared to other groups to support the hypotheses 5a. Furthermore, the results partially supported the hypotheses 5b and 5c. Specifically, although the hypotheses 5b predicted that adolescent with anxious peer attachment style would practice low reappraisal, suppression, low positive reframing, and would have low clarity of emotions, they actually employed reappraisal, suppression and positive reframing and very not different from secure group in clarity of emotions. Furthermore, hypotheses 5c predicted that adolescents with avoidant peer attachment style would suppress more did not hold true either. Furthermore, although they did not practice most of the SR practices, their social adjustment was not worse than the secure group. The hypotheses 5b and 5c were partially supported.

3.9 Testing the Role of Parenting on Peer Attachment Dimensions (Hypothesis # 6)

The hypothesis predicted that high parental warmth would be related with low peer attachment anxiety and avoidance. Especially maternal warmth would predict lower levels of peer avoidance (H#6a). Additionally, high parental psychological control and comparison would be related to high peer attachment anxiety and

avoidance. The psychological control of the mothers especially would predict higher levels of avoidance in peer relationships (H#6b). Finally, regulatory processes would mediate the association between parenting dimensions and adolescent peer attachment representations (H#6c).

3.9.1 The Regression Analyses for Parenting Dimensions

The relative effects of parenting on peer attachment dimensions were tested by separate hierarchical regression analysis for mother and father parenting in order to prevent any suppressor effects due to the availability of high correlations between mother and father parenting dimensions. Furthermore, the hierarchical regressions were run separately for peer attachment anxiety and avoidance. In the first step of all regression analysis, a block of demographic variables, which were gender and age were entered. Mother education was not included in the analysis since it was not significantly related to any of the variables in the preliminary analysis conducted by ANOVA. In the second step of the analysis, a block of parenting dimensions, which included parental warmth, comparison, love withdrawal, and guilt induction of each parent.

As seen in Table 3.20, R^2 change was significant when parenting variables of the mother were added into the model, in which demographic variables predicted peer attachment anxiety. The regression analysis, which included the demographic and all the parenting variables in the equation and peer attachment anxiety as the dependent variable, was significant, R=.40, F (6, 382) =11.754, p< .01. The R^2 change was also significant when the model included parenting dimensions of the fathers as well as the demographic variables. This model was also significant with R=.42, F (6, 382) =13.01, p< .01. As a result, the boys were more anxious than girls. Furthermore, the older adolescents were less anxious that the younger ones. Among the parenting dimensions of the mother, only mother guilt induction predicted the peer anxiety level of the adolescents. However, mother warmth was significant at the marginal level (*p = .051*). Specifically, the adolescents whose mothers were inducing guilt into their adolescents to control them and low on warmth were more anxious in their peer relations. Furthermore, among the parenting dimensions of the fathers, only father love withdrawal predicted anxiety level of the adolescents. Specifically,

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the adolescents whose fathers were withdrawing love to control their children, were more anxious.

Table 3.20

Gender, Age, and Parenting Styles Regressed on Peer Attachment Dimensions for Mothers and Fathers

	Mother Parenting		Father Parenting	
	β	$R^2 \Delta$	β	$R^2 \Delta$
DV: Peer Attachment Anxiety				
Step 1				
Gender	.20**	.05**	.20**	.05**
Age	-.11*		-.11*	
Step 2				
Gender	.17**	.11**	.14**	.13**
Age	-.11**		-.10*	
Parenting				
Parental warmth	-.11†		-.04	
Parental comparison	.07		.06	
Parental love withdrawal	.09		.22**	
Parental guilt induction	.18**		.12	
ΣR^2		.16		.17
DV: Peer Attachment Avoidance				
Step 1				
Gender	.18**	.03**	.18**	.03**
Age	-.08		-.08	
Step2				
Gender	.17**	.04**	.16**	.07**
Age	-.10		-.08	
Parenting				
Parental warmth	-.21**		-.31**	
Parental comparison	-.10		-.02	
Parental love withdrawal	-.01		-.06	
Parental guilt induction	-.06		-.60	
ΣR^2		.08		.11

Note. Gender: 1=Girls, 2=Boys.

†= Significant at *p* = .051; *p<.05; **p<.01.

Similar regression analysis for peer attachment avoidance as dependent variable revealed that the R^2 change was significant when the model included

parenting dimension of mothers in addition to the demographic variables, R=.27, F(6, 382)=5.18, p< .01, as seen in Table 3.20. The R^2 was also significant when the model included parenting dimensions of the fathers in addition to the demographic variables, R=.32, F (6, 382) =7.47, p< .01. The results revealed that gender predicted peer attachment avoidance. Specifically, boys were more avoidant than girls. Furthermore, among the parenting dimensions, both mother and father warmth predicted avoidance. Specifically, the adolescents whose parents were low on parental warmth had higher levels of avoidance.

3.9.2 The Proposed Model for Parenting and Adolescent Peer Attachment Representations

The role of regulatory processes between parenting dimensions of parental warmth, psychological control and comparison, and adolescents' peer attachment representations was tested by conducting SEM analyses using the adolescent sample. The proposed model suggested that parental warmth, psychological control and comparison would predict peer attachment dimensions of adolescents, and the positive and negative SR would mediate the effects of parenting dimensions on peer attachment anxiety and avoidance. In order to rule out any suppressor effect, two models were tested, one for parental psychological control, which subsumed parental psychological control and comparison, and the other for parental warmth. In the proposed model for parental warmth, the parental warmth latent variable with two indicators included parental warmth of both parents. Two latent variables for regulatory processes were positive and negative SR. Similar to the previous analyses the positive SR with five indicators consisted of repair of mood, clarity of emotions, reappraisal, positive reframing, and success in SR. The negative SR latent variable with three indicators included obsession with emotions, suppression, and SR failure. The outcome latent variables of peer attachment anxiety and avoidance had one indicator for each, namely the adolescents' ratings of anxiety and avoidance dimensions of Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised (Fraley et al., 2000). Similar to the previous analysis, their error variances were fixed to .089 and .107 respectively (Kenny et al., 1998).

The second proposed model included parental psychological control latent variable instead of parental warmth. The parental psychological control latent variable with six indicators included parental comparison, love withdrawal, and guilt

induction for each parent. The mediator and outcome latent variables were similar to the ones described above. Since the adolescent peer attachment avoidance dimension did not correlate with parental psychological control, only peer attachment anxiety was used as the outcome latent variable in this analysis.

3.9.2.1 Measurement Model for the Proposed Model of Parental Warmth

Figure 3.11 depicts the measurement model with five latent variables. The initial estimation of the measurement model provided adequate fit to the data (χ^2 *(46, N =426) =162.12, p<.00, GFI=.94, AGFI=.90, NNFI=.92, CFI=.94, RMSEA=.08).* In order to improve the fit of the data to the model, the units of measurements of all the latent variables were fixed to the unit of measurement of the most highly loading observed variable.

The final measurement model including the fixed unit of analysis for each latent variable and added errors correlations improved the model (χ^2 *(46, N =426) =162.12, p<.00, GFI=.94, AGFI=.90, NNFI=.92, CFI= .94, RMSEA=.08).* As shown in Figure 3.11, all of the indicators loaded significantly on their latent variables. The loadings of the indicators parental warmth were .69 for mother warmth and .74 for father warmth. The loadings of positive SR were between .62 (success) and .78 (repair of mood), and they were between .27 (suppression) and .59 (obsession with emotions) for negative SR. The loadings of peer attachment anxiety and avoidance were .96 and .93 respectively. The analysis of the structural correlations between the latent variables revealed that parental warmth was significantly and positively correlated with positive SR (*r = .76*) and it was negatively correlated with peer attachment anxiety (*r = -.32*) and avoidance (*r = -.35*). The correlation between parental warmth and negative SR was insignificant. The analysis of the structural correlations of positive SR revealed that it was positively correlated with negative SR (*r = .24*), and negatively with peer attachment anxiety (*r = -.16*) and avoidance (*r = -.41*). Negative SR was positively correlated with peer attachment anxiety (*r = .42*) and negatively with peer attachment avoidance (*r = -.40*). The structural correlation between peer attachment anxiety and avoidance was insignificant.
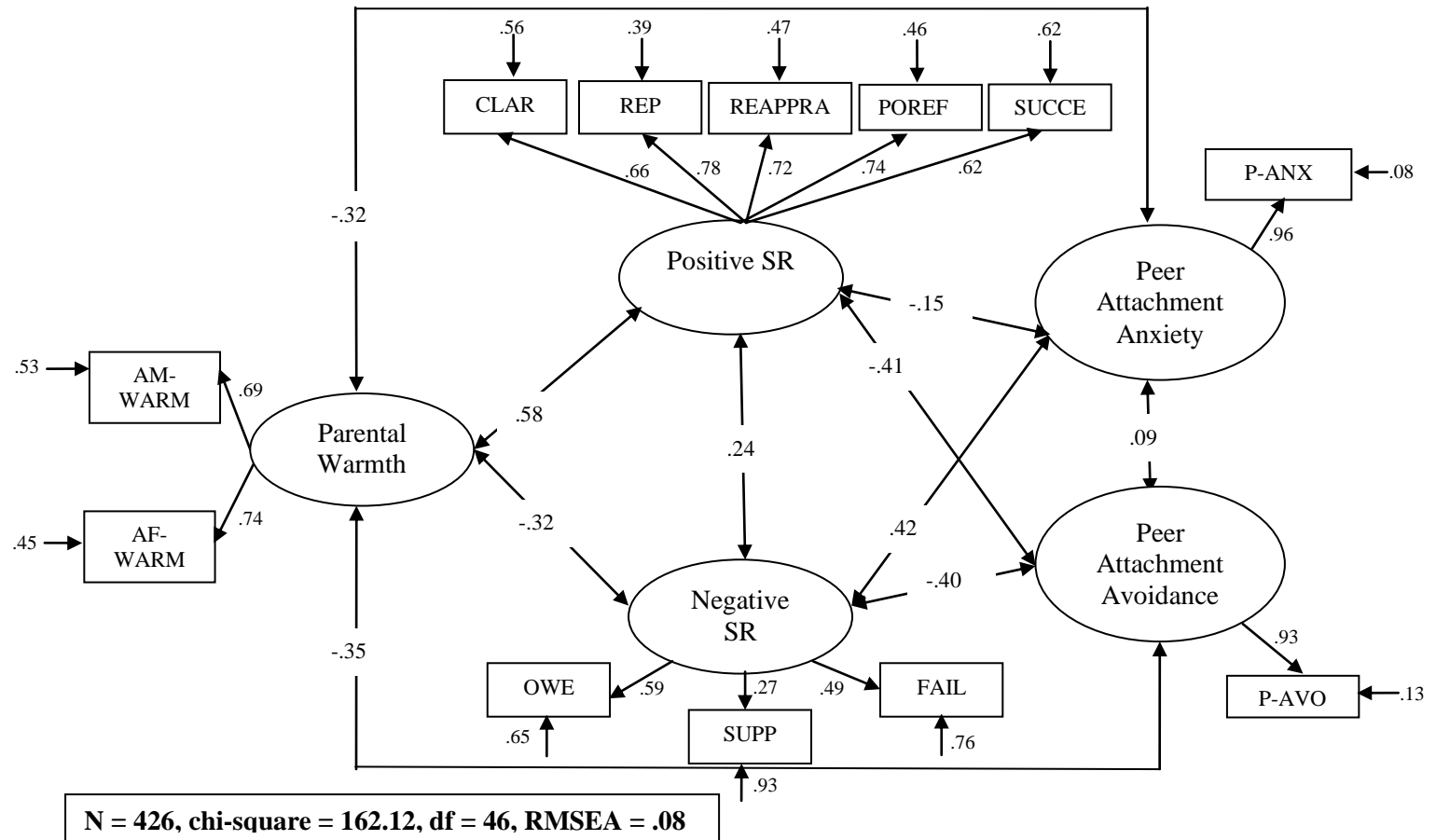
Figure 3.11. Measurement Model for Parental Warmth using Adolescent Sample

3.9.2.2 Testing the Proposed Structural Model for Parental Warmth

The proposed model suggested that parental warmth would predict peer attachment anxiety and avoidance both directly and indirectly through positive and negative SR. Since the structural correlations between parental warmth and negative SR was insignificant, the model including all the paths from parental warmth to positive SR, peer anxiety and avoidance as well as the paths from positive and negative SR to peer anxiety and avoidance was tested and the insignificant paths were trimmed except for the path from parental warmth to negative SR in order to keep it within the model. The fit of this model to the data was acceptable (χ^2 *(49, N =426) =179.28, p<.00, GFI=.93, AGFI=.90, NNFI=.92, CFI= 94, RMSEA=.08)* with the ratio of df: χ^2 being 3.7. As seen in figure 3.12, parental warmth predicted positive SR (*standardized structural coefficient (β) =.59*), peer attachment anxiety (*β= -.38*), and avoidance (*β= -.19*). These findings suggested that the adolescents, whose parents practiced higher parental warmth, had higher positive SR as well as more secure peer attachment relationships. The effects of SR measures were also evident. Positive SR predicted only peer attachment avoidance negatively (*β=-.25*) and negative SR predicted peer attachment anxiety positively (*β=.43*), whereas it predicted peer attachment avoidance negatively (*β=-.27*). In other words, adolescents who employed negative or positive SR strategies had lower peer attachment avoidance, whereas those who employed negative SR strategies had higher peer attachment anxiety.

Taken together, these results suggested that parental warmth predicted positive SR and peer attachment dimensions of adolescents directly, and it did not predict negative forms of regulatory processes. Additionally, positive SR predicted only peer attachment avoidance, and negative SR predicted both of the peer attachment dimensions. Also, there was a significant mediating effect of positive SR on the association between parental warmth and peer attachment avoidance. Overall, parental warmth explained 35 % of the variance in positive SR, and parental warmth and negative SR explained 29 % of the variance in peer attachment anxiety. Furthermore, parental warmth, positive and negative forms of regulatory processes
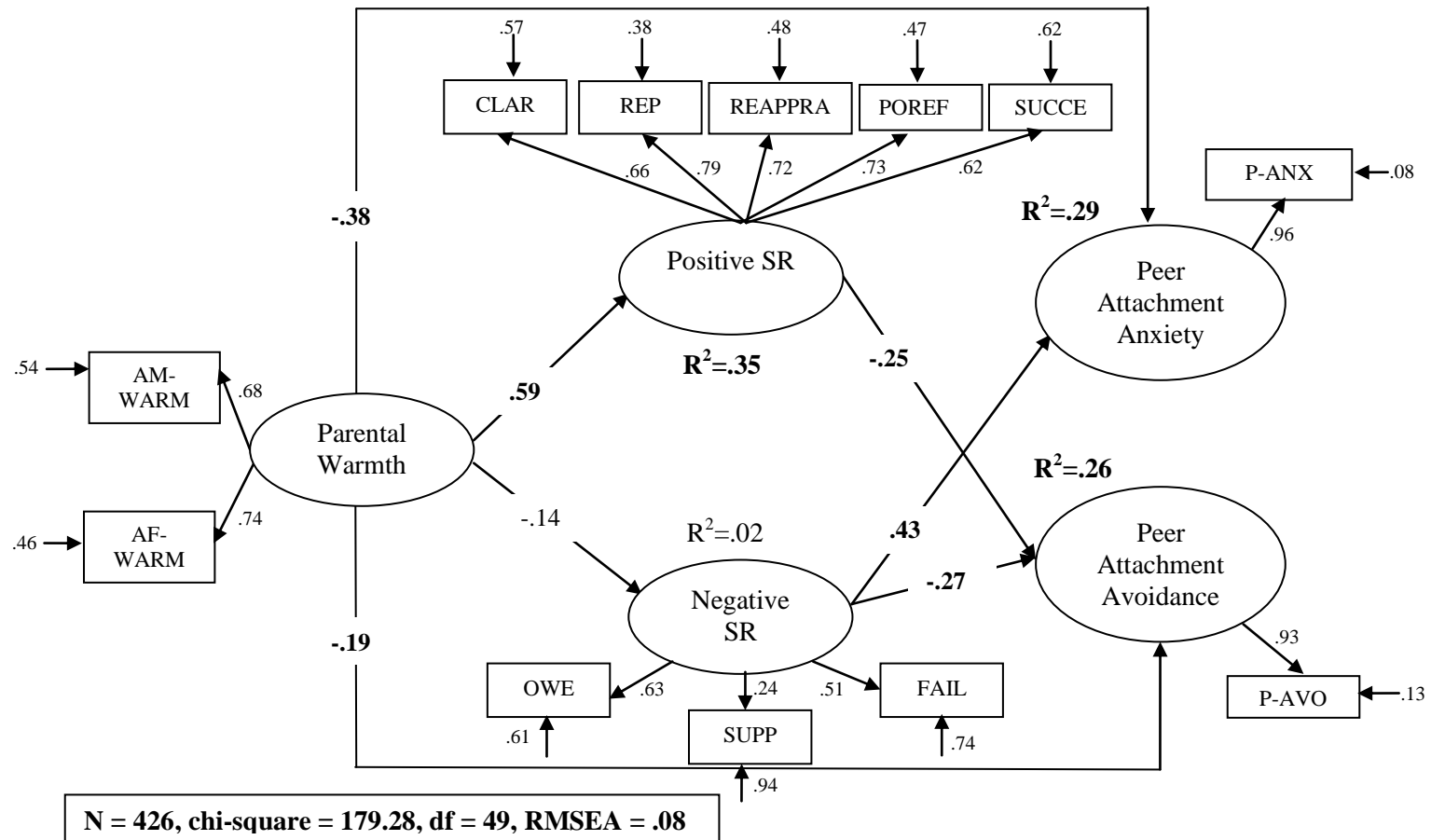
Figure 3.12. Structural Model for Parental Warmth using Adolescent Sample

explained 26 % of the variance in peer attachment avoidance. The total effect of parental warmth on peer attachment avoidance was -.43, and its indirect effects on peer attachment avoidance was -.21 and significant. In sum, positive SR mediated the effects of parental warmth on peer attachment avoidance.

3.9.2.3 Measurement Model for the Proposed Model of Parental Psychological Control

Figure 3.13 depicts the measurement model with four latent variables. The initial estimation of the measurement model provided poor fit to the data (χ^2 *(85, N =426) =471.78, p<.00, GFI=.87, AGFI=.82, NNFI=.86, CFI=.88, RMSEA=.10).* In order to improve the fit of the data to the model, post-hoc modifications were implemented based on the Modification Indices and theoretical relevance. An error variance was added between (1) mother guilt induction and father love withdrawal, (2) mother and father comparison, and (3) mother and father guilt induction variables. The units of measurements of all the latent variables were also fixed to the unit of measurement of the most highly loading observed variable.

The final measurement model including the fixed unit of analysis for each latent variable and added errors correlations improved the model (χ^2 *(92, N =426) =320.94, p<.00, GFI=.91, AGFI=.87, NNFI=.91, CFI= .93, RMSEA=.08).* As shown in Figure 3.13, all of the indicators loaded significantly on their latent variables. The loadings of the indicators parental psychological control were between .46 (Mother comparison) and .89 (Father love withdrawal). The loadings of positive SR were between .62 (success) and .79 (repair of mood), and they were between .38 (suppression) and .54 (obsession with emotions) for negative SR. The loading of peer attachment anxiety was .96. The analysis of the structural correlations between the latent variables revealed that parental psychological control was significantly and negatively correlated with positive SR (*r =-.33*) and it was positively correlated with negative SR (*r =.25*) and peer attachment anxiety (*r =.44*). The analysis of the structural correlations revealed that positive SR was positively correlated with negative SR (*r = .25*), and negatively with peer attachment anxiety (*r = -.16*), and negative SR was positively correlated with peer attachment anxiety (*r = .47*).
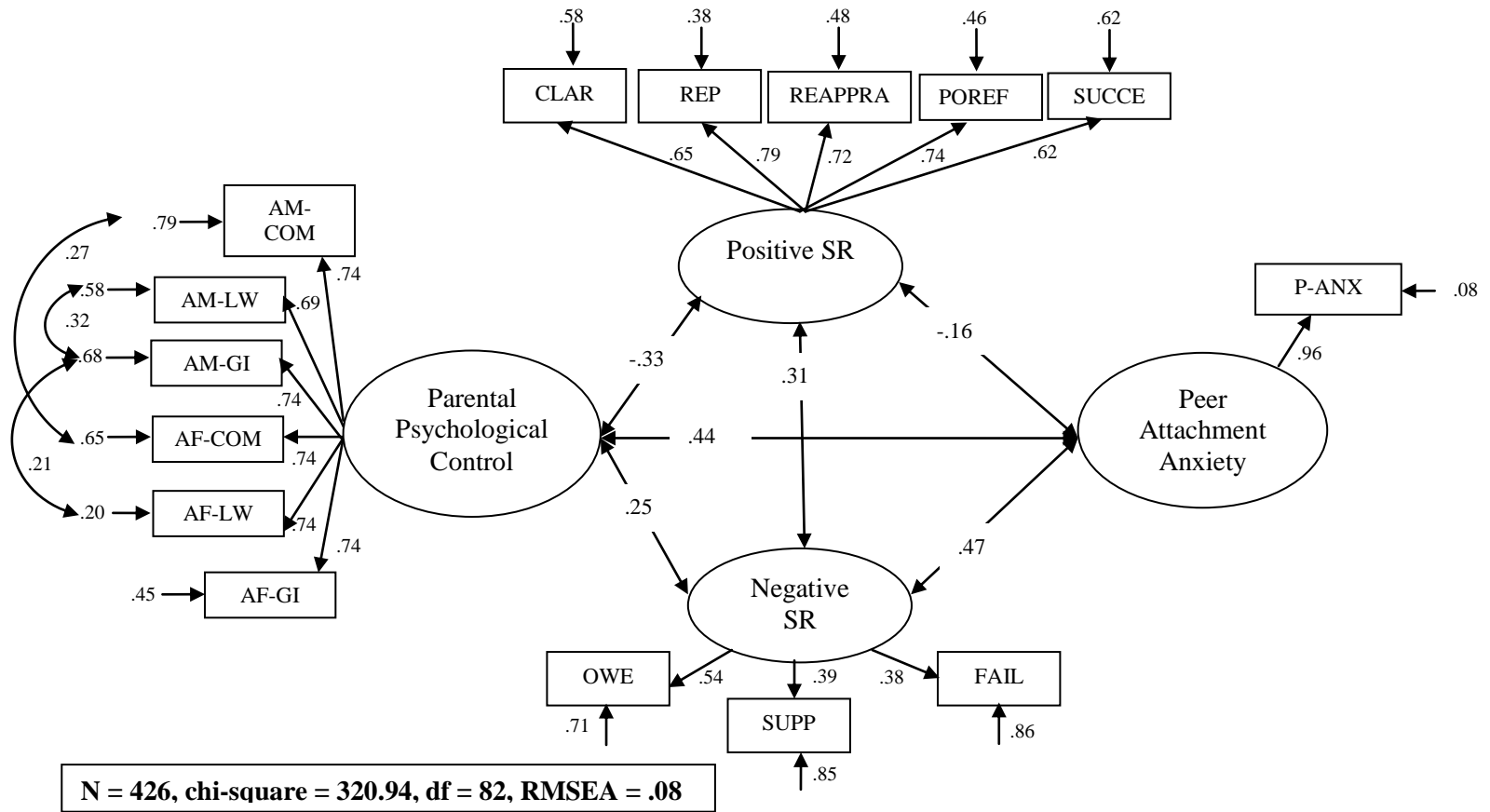
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Figure 3.13. Measurement Model for Parental Psychological Control using Adolescent Sample

3.9.2.4 Testing the Proposed Structural Model for Parental Psychological Control

The proposed model suggested that parental psychological control would predict peer attachment anxiety both directly and indirectly through positive and negative SR variables. A saturated model including all the paths from parental psychological control to positive and negative SR measures, peer anxiety as well as from positive and negative SR to peer attachment anxiety was tested. After trimming the insignificant paths from the model, the fit of this model to the data was acceptable (χ^2 *(84, N =426) =343.37, p<.00, GFI=.90, AGFI=.86, NNFI=.91, CFI= 93, RMSEA=.09)* with the ratio of df: χ^2 being 3.6. As seen in figure 3.14, parental psychological control predicted positive SR (*standardized structural coefficient (β) =-.33*), negative SR (*β=.20*), and peer attachment anxiety (*β=.37*). In other words, the adolescents whose parents practiced higher parental psychological control had higher levels of negative SR and peer attachment anxiety, and lower levels of positive SR abilities. Only the effect of negative SR on peer attachment anxiety was evident (*β=.34*). Specifically, although positive SR did not influence peer attachment anxiety, negative forms of regulation was related with higher levels of peer attachment anxiety.

These results suggested that parental psychological control predicted positive and negative forms of regulation as well as anxiety in peer relationships. Furthermore, only negative forms of regulation predicted higher levels of anxiety in peer attachment relationships. There was a small but significant mediating effect of negative SR measures on the association between parental psychological control and peer attachment anxiety. Overall, parental psychological control explained 11 % of the variance in positive SR and 4 % of the variance in negative SR. Parental psychological control and negative SR explained 30 % of the variance in peer attachment anxiety. The total effect of parental psychological control on peer attachment anxiety was .44, and its indirect effect on peer attachment anxiety was .07 and significant.

.58　.37　.48　.46　.62

| CLAR | REP | REAPPRA | POREF | SUCCE |

.65　.79　.72　.73　.62

Positive SR

AM-COM
.79　.27

AM-LW
.59　.33　.69

AM-GI
.68　.74

AF-COM
.65　.74

AF-LW
.21　.20　.74

AF-GI
.45

.74

Parental
Psychological
Control

-.33

$R^2=.11$

$R^2=.30$

P-ANX　.08

.96

Peer
Attachment
Anxiety

.37

.20

$R^2=.04$

.34

Negative
SR

OWE　.63　.27　.46　FAIL

.61

SUPP

.93

.79

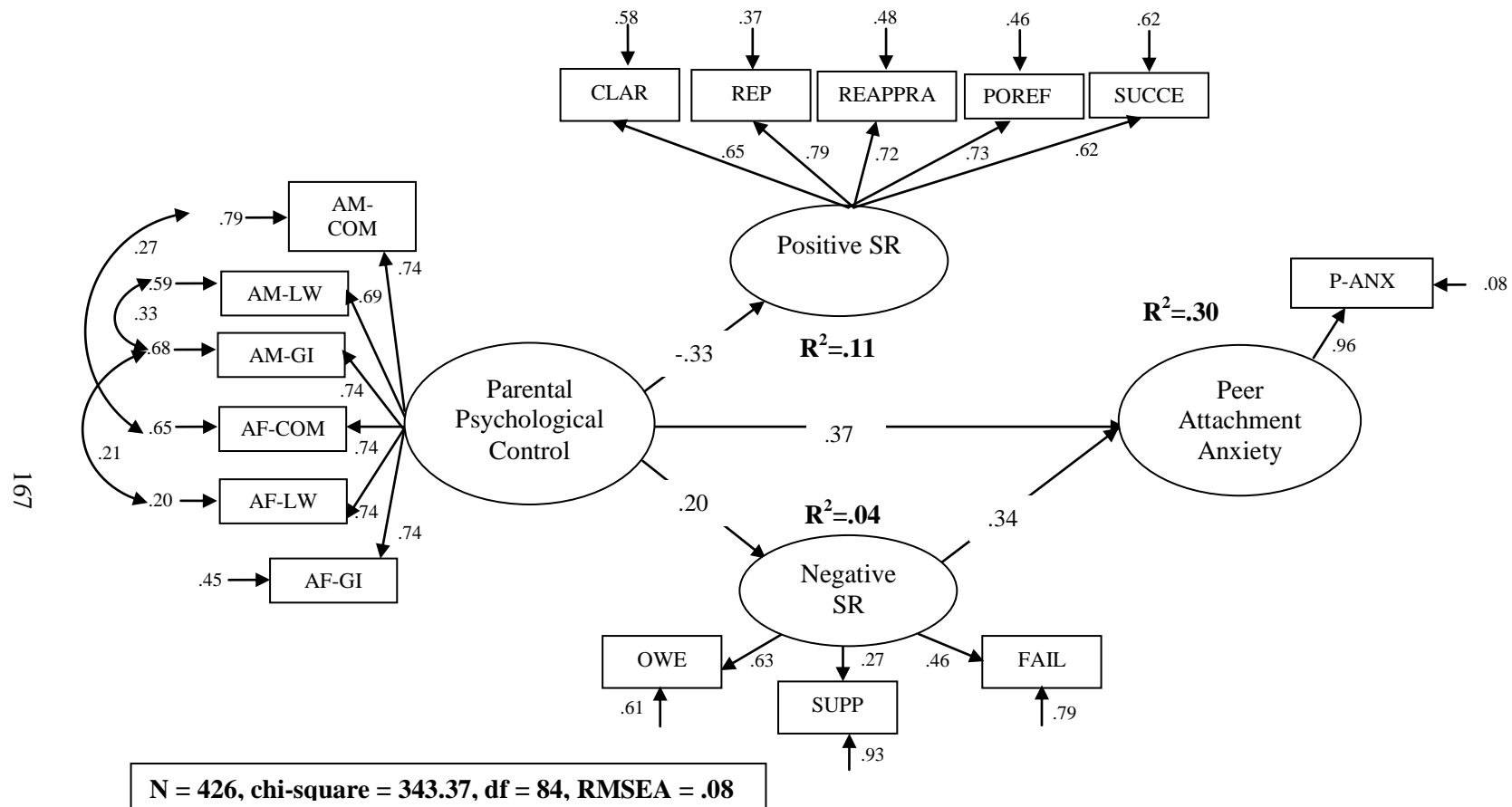**N = 426, chi-square = 343.37, df = 84, RMSEA = .08**

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Figure 3.14. Structural Model for Parental Psychological Control using Adolescent Sample

Taken together, these findings partially supported the hypothesis 6a, which predicted that parental warmth influenced the peer attachment dimensions of anxiety and avoidance, and especially maternal warmth was important in determining peer attachment avoidance. The results showed that parental warmth by both parents predicted peer attachment avoidance and anxiety, and maternal warmth was an important predictor of peer anxiety when the parenting dimensions entered into the regression analysis as a whole. The findings partially supported the hypothesis 6b. Specifically, although it was suggested that parental psychological control especially by the mother and parental comparison would predict peer attachment avoidance, none of these parenting dimensions predicted peer attachment avoidance separately or in the form of a latent variable. The analyses showed that the part of the hypothesis suggesting parental psychological control and comparison would predict peer attachment anxiety hold true. Specifically, the regression analyses showed that maternal guilt induction and paternal love withdrawal predicted peer attachment anxiety. Additionally, the SEM analysis showed that the latent variable of psychological control composed of parental psychological control and comparison predicted peer attachment anxiety. The analysis also supported hypothesis 6c. Specifically, positive regulatory processes mediated the association between parental warmth and peer avoidance, and negative regulatory processes mediated the association between the parental psychological control and comparison, and peer attachment anxiety albeit this mediation was small in magnitude.

3.10 Testing the Role of First Phase Marital Conflict on the Second Phase Parenting (Hypothesis # 7)

3.10.1 The Proposed Model for the Longitudinal Effects of Marital Conflict

The proposed model of martial conflict suggested that first phase marital conflict would predict the second phase parental comparison and psychological control as well as behavioral control (Hypotheses H#7a). Furthermore, adolescent externalization and externalization problems would also mediate the effects of marital conflict on second phase parenting (Hypotheses H#7b). This analysis used adolescent and parent sample since the second phase parenting measures by parents were not available due to the high attrition rate of parents. Accordingly, the current analysis used parent reports for latent variables only for marital conflict and

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adolescent problems in order to use similar indicators for latent variables of parenting in both phases. Consequently the analysis included adolescents whose parents reported in the first phase only.

The first phase emotional family context latent variables consisted of parental psychological and behavioral control, and marital conflict. The mediating latent variables comprised adolescent externalization and internalization problems. Finally, the outcome latent variables consisted of second phase parental psychological and behavioral control. The analysis included the first phase parental psychological and behavioral control latent variables in order to control their effects on the second phase measures. In the following SEM analysis, the first phase parental psychological control latent variable had six indicators, which were adolescent-perceived comparison, love withdrawal and guilt induction for each parent. Similarly, the parental behavioral control had four indicators, namely adolescent-perceived parental knowledge and monitoring of each parent. The contextualized marital conflict included the adolescent-perceived interparental conflict as well as the mothers' and fathers' perception of marital conflict. The latent variable of adolescent externalization problem had three indicators, which were SDQ ratings of each parent and adolescents' reports of own aggression. The internalization problems with two indicators consisted of the SDQ ratings of each parent. In line with the hypotheses, the current analysis excluded the parents' ratings of adolescent prosocial behavior. The second phase parenting latent variables consisted of the same indicators as rated by the adolescents in the second phase.

3.10.2 Measurement Model for the Proposed Model for the Longitudinal Effects of Marital Conflict

The measurement model involved seven latent variables, as seen in Figure 3.15. The initial analysis of measurement model included the correlated error terms between the same indicators of the first and second phase parenting latent variables. The initial estimation of the measurement model provided poor fit to the data (χ^2 $(322, N = 189) = 1255.34, p<.00, GFI=.68, AGFI=.59, NNFI=.87, CFI=.82, RMSEA=.12$). In order to improve the fit of the data to the model, several modifications were performed in line with the suggestions of the Modification Indices and theoretical relevance, as explained in testing hypothesis #1 and #2.
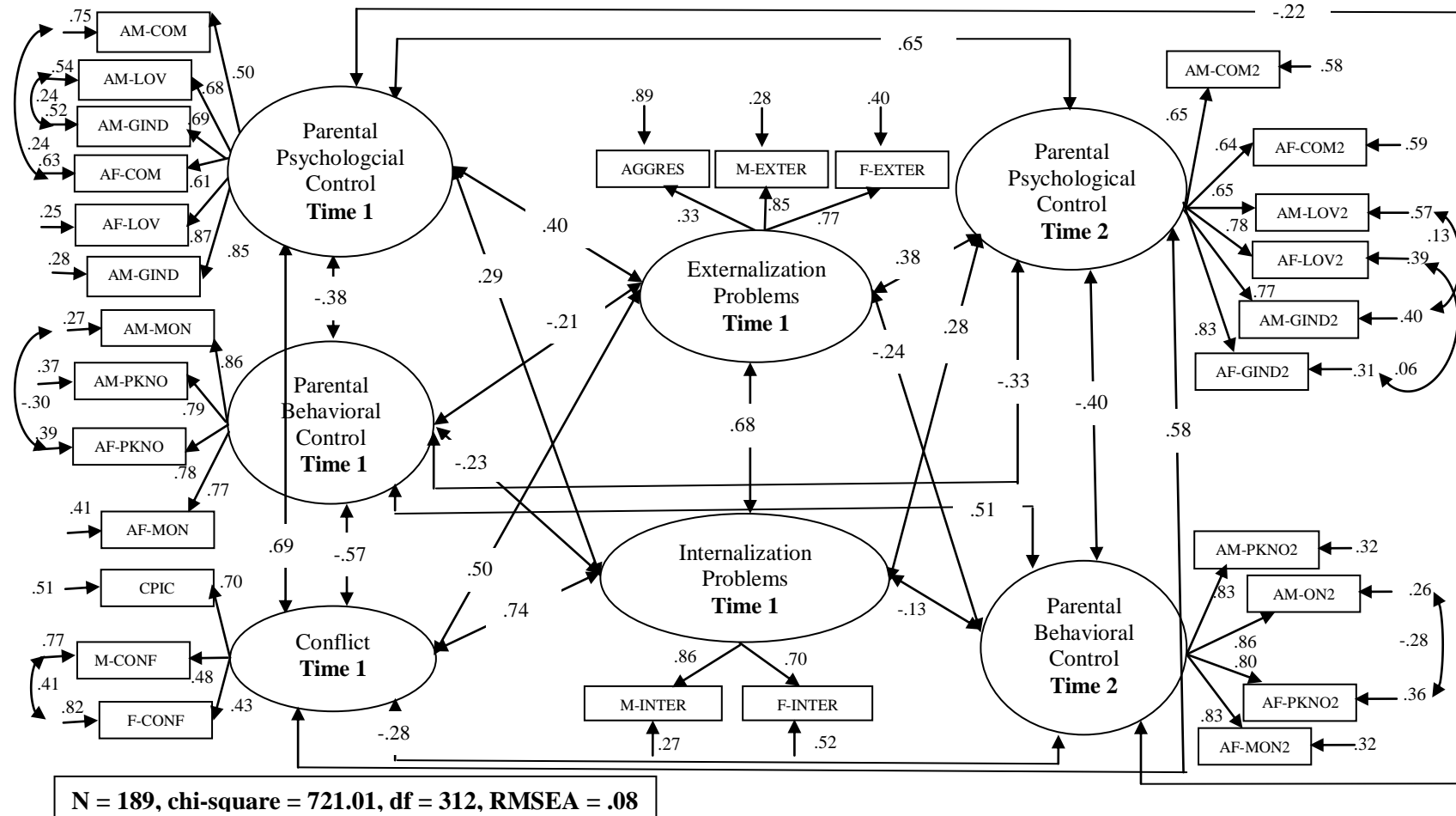
Figure 3.15. Measurement Model for the Longitudinal Effects of Marital Conflict on Second Phase Parenting

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Specifically, error variances between the following dimensions were added to the model; (1) adolescent-perceived mother love withdrawal and guilt induction in both phases, (2) adolescent-perceived mother and father comparison, (3) adolescent-perceived mother monitoring and father parental knowledge in both phases, (4) mothers' and fathers' reports of marital conflict, and (5) second phase adolescent-perceived mother and father guilt induction and mother love withdrawal. Finally, the units of measurements of all the latent variables were fixed to the unit of measurement of the most highly loading observed variable.

The final measurement model including the fixed unit of analysis for each latent variable, and added errors correlations improved the model (χ^2 (312, N =189) =721.01, p<.00, GFI=.79, AGFI=.72, NNFI=.92, CFI= .9, RMSEA=.08). As shown in Figure 3.15, all of the indicators loaded significantly on their latent variables. The loadings of first phase psychological control ranged between .50 (adolescent-perceived mother comparison) and .87 (adolescent-perceived father love withdrawal). The loadings of first phase behavioral control were between .77 (adolescent-perceived father parental knowledge) and .87 (adolescent-perceived-mother monitoring). The loadings of marital conflict ranged between .43 (father-reported marital conflict) and .70 (adolescents' perception of interparental conflict). The loadings were between .33 (adolescents' reports of own aggression) and .85 (mother-reported adolescent externalization problems) for externalization problems, and between .70 and .86 for mothers' and fathers' reports of internalization problems, respectively. The loadings of the second phase psychological control ranged between .64 (adolescent-perceived father monitoring) and .83 (adolescent-perceived father guilt induction), and loadings of second phase behavioral control were between .83 (adolescent-perceived father monitoring) and .86 (adolescent-perceived mother monitoring). The analysis of structural correlations revealed that the first phase parental psychological control was significantly and positively correlated with marital conflict ($r = .70$), internalization and externalization problems ($r = .30,$ and $r = .40,$ respectively), and second phase negative parenting ($r = .65$). It was also negatively correlated with first and second phase parental behavioral control ($r = -.38,$ and $r = -.24, respectively$). First phase parental behavioral control was positively correlated with second phase parental behavioral control ($r = .53$), and it was negatively correlated with marital conflict ($r = -.57$),

internalization and externalization problems ($r = -.22,$ and $r = -.24,$ respectively), and second phase parental psychological control ($r = -.34$). The marital conflict latent variable was positively correlated with internalization and externalization problems ($r = .74$ and $r = .50,$ respectively), and second phase parental psychological control ($r = .61$), whereas it correlated negatively with second phase parental behavioral control ($r = -.30$). The correlation of the externalization problems was positive with internalization problems ($r = .68$) as was its correlation with second phase parental psychological control ($r = .38$), whereas it was negatively correlated with second phase parental behavioral control ($r = -.28$). Similarly internalization problems were positively correlated with second phase psychological control ($r = .30$) whereas its correlation with second phase behavioral control was insignificant. The two second phase parenting latent variables were negatively correlated with each other ($r = -.44$).

3.10.3 Testing the Proposed Structural Model for the Longitudinal Effects of Marital Conflict

The proposed model included all the paths from marital conflict to adolescent problems and the second phase parenting measures and the first phase psychological and behavioral control had paths only to their respective measures in the second phase. Furthermore, the mediating variables of externalization and internalization problems had paths to second phase parenting measures except for the path from internalization problems to behavioral control, since their structural correlation was insignificant. The analysis revealed that the paths from internalization problems to second phase psychological control and from externalization problems to second phase parenting measures as well as the paths from marital conflict to second phase parenting were insignificant, thus they were removed from further analysis. The model, in which only the direct effects of marital conflict on adolescent problems when the effects of second phase measures were controlled by the first phase parenting measures, yielded acceptable fit to the data ($\chi^2(325, N = 189)=768.16,$ $p<.00,$ GFI=.77, AGFI=.72, NNFI=.92, CFI= 93, RMSEA=.09) with the ratio of df: χ^2 being 2.4. As seen in Figure 3.16, marital conflict predicted concurrent externalization (*standardized structural coefficient (β) =.71*) and internalization problems ($\beta=.79$). Additionally, first phase psychological control predicted second
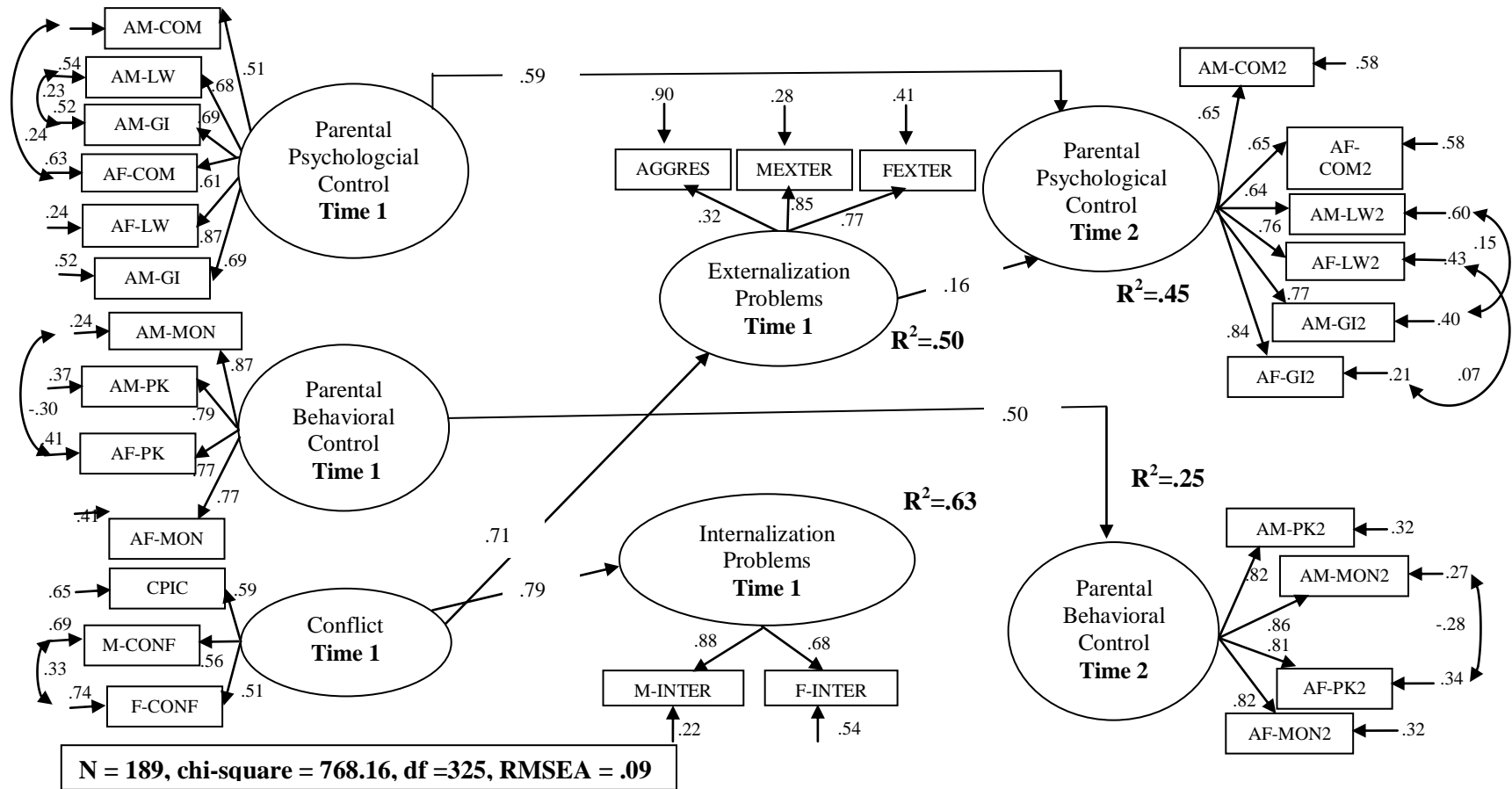
Figure 3.16. Structural Model for the Longitudinal Effects of Marital Conflict on Second Phase Parenting

phase parental psychological control (β = .*59*), and first phase behavior control predicted second phase behavior control (β = .*50*). Furthermore, the first phase adolescent externalization problems predicted the second phase parental psychological control positively (β = .*59*).

The present analysis suggested that the most important predictors of the second phase parenting was the accompanying first phase parenting, and marital conflict predicted the adolescent problems directly. Furthermore, adolescent externalization problems predicted the second phase parental psychological control. Accordingly, the externalization problems mediated the effects of marital conflict on the second phase parental psychological control. Overall, parental behavioral control explained the 25 % of the variance in the second phase parental behavioral control, and marital conflict explained 50 % and 63 % of the first phase adolescent externalization and internalization problems, respectively. Additionally, parental psychological control and adolescent externalization problems in the first phase explained the 45 % of the variance in the second phase parental psychological control. Finally, the total effect of marital conflict on second phase parental psychological control was .11.

The findings of this analysis did not support the spillover hypothesis (H#7a). On the other hand, adolescent problems mediated the effects of first phase marital conflict on second phase psychological control. The current findings supported the hypotheses of the study (H#7b) only for the externalization problems but not for the internalization problems.

3.11 Testing the Role of First Phase Parental Attachment on Second Phase Parenting (Hypothesis # 8)

3.11.1 The Proposed Model of the Longitudinal Effects of Parental Attachment Security on Parenting

The proposed model of parental attachment suggested that attachment security to parents would predict the second phase parental comparison and psychological control negatively and behavioral control positively (Hypothesis #8a). Furthermore, the second phase parenting would mediate the effects of parental attachment security on second phase regulation measures (Hypothesis #8b). This analysis used only the adolescent sample.

The first phase emotional family context latent variables consisted of parental attachment security. The mediating latent variables comprised second phase parental psychological and behavioral control. Finally, the outcome latent variables consisted of second phase positive and negative SR measures. In order to control for the second phase SR measures, the first phase SR measures were also included. In the following SEM analysis, parental attachment security latent variable had two indicators, which were maternal and paternal attachment security of the adolescents. The parental psychological control latent variable consisted of two indicators, which were the composite measures of comparison and psychological control for each parent. Similarly, the parental behavioral control latent variable consisted of two indicators; parental behavioral control for each parent. The first phase positive SR consisted of five indicators, namely the first phase adolescent clarity of emotions, repair of mood, reappraisal, positive reframing, and SR success. The first phase negative SR had three indicators; obsession with emotions, suppression, and failure of SR. The second phase ratings of these measures comprised the second phase positive and negative SR, respectively.

3.11.2 Measurement Model for the Proposed Model of the Longitudinal Effects of Parental Attachment Security on Parenting

The measurement model involved seven latent variables, as seen in Figure 3.17. The initial analysis of measurement model included the correlated error terms between the same indicators of the first and second phase SR latent variables. The initial estimation of the measurement model provided acceptable fit to the data (χ^2 *(161, N =426) =478.19, p<.00, GFI=.90, AGFI=.86, NNFI=.92, CFI=.94, RMSEA=.07).* Thus, additional modifications were not added to the model but the units of measurements of all the latent variables were fixed to the unit of measurement of the most highly loading observed variable.

The final measurement model including the fixed unit of analysis for each latent variable improved the model (χ^2 *(142, N =426) =422, p<.00, GFI=.91, AGFI=.87, NNFI=.91, CFI= .94, RMSEA=.07).* As shown in Figure 3.17, all of the indicators loaded significantly on their latent variables. The loadings of parental

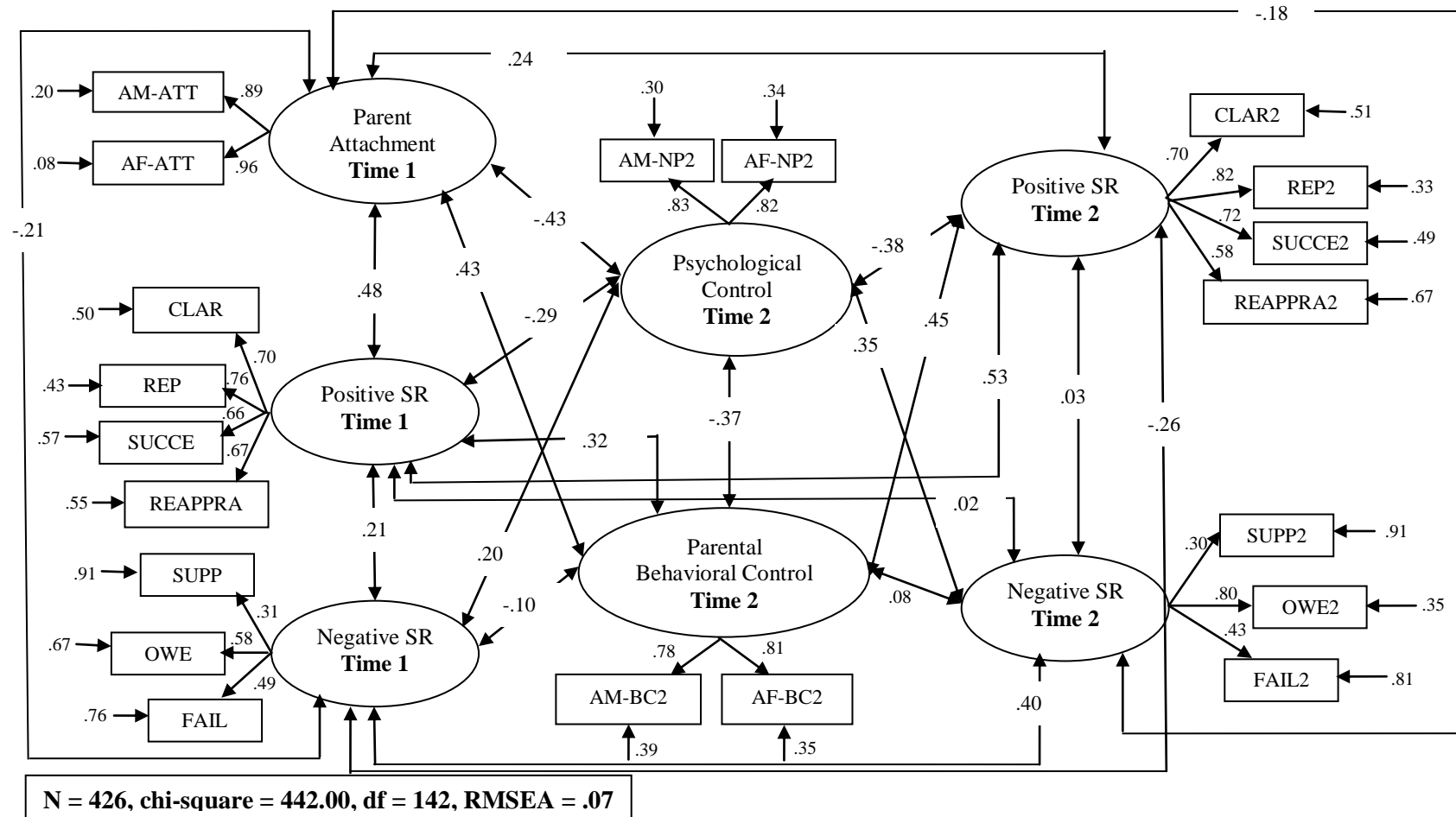**N = 426, chi-square = 442.00, df = 142, RMSEA = .07**

Figure 3.17. Measurement Model for the Longitudinal Effects of Parental Attachment on Self-Regulation using Adolescent Sample

attachment security were .89 (mother attachment security) and .96 (father attachment security). The loadings of second phase psychological control were .82 and .83 for father and mother, respectively, and they were .78 and .81 for mother and father behavioral control, respectively. The loadings of first phase positive SR were between .58 (reappraisal) and .82 (repair of mood), and the loadings of negative SR ranged between .31 (suppression) and .58 (obsession with emotions). The loadings of second phase positive SR were between .58 (reappraisal) and .82 (repair of mood), and the loadings of negative SR ranged between .30 (suppression) and .80 (obsession with emotions). The analysis of structural correlations revealed that the parental attachment security was significantly and positively correlated with first phase positive SR ($r = .48$), second phase parental behavior control ($r = .24$), and positive SR ($r = .24$), and negatively with first phase negative SR ($r = -.21$), second phase parental psychological control ($r = -.43$), and negative SR ($r = -.18$). The first phase positive SR correlated positively with first phase negative SR ($r = .21$), second phase parental behavioral control ($r = .32$) and positive SR ($r = .53$), and negatively with second phase parental psychological control ($r = -.30$). Negative SR had positive correlations with second phase parental psychological control ($r = -.21$) and negative SR ($r = -.40$), and it was negatively correlated with second phase positive SR ($r = -.26$). The second phase parental psychological control had positive association with second phase negative SR ($r = .36$), and negative associations with second phase parental behavior control ($r = -.37$) and positive SR ($r = -.38$). The structural correlation between second phase parental behavioral control and positive SR was positive and significant ($r = .45$). The structural correlations between second phase SR measures were not significant.

3.11.3 Testing the Proposed Structural Model of the Longitudinal Effects of Parental Attachment Security on Parenting

The proposed model included all the paths from parental attachment security to second phase parenting and latent variables of SR. The first phase SR measures had paths only to their respective measures in the second phase and the mediating variables of second phase parental psychological and behavior control had paths to second phase SR measures except for the path from behavioral control to negative SR since their structural correlation was insignificant. The analysis revealed that the paths from parental attachment security to second phase SR measures were

insignificant, thus they were removed from further analysis. The model, in which the direct effect of parental attachment security on second phase parenting as well as its mediated effect on SR measures via parental psychological and behavioral control when the effects of second phase SR measures were controlled by the first phase SR measures yielded acceptable fit to the data (χ^2*(153, N =426)=508.37, p<.00, GFI=90, AGFI=.86, NNFI=.90, CFI=.92, RMSEA=.07)* with the ratio of df: χ^2 being 3.3. As seen in Figure 3.18, parental attachment security predicted second phase psychological control (*standardized structural coefficient (β) =-.42*) and parental behavior control (*β=.42*). The second phase psychological control predicted second phase positive SR (*β = -.17*) and negative SR (*β = .29*), and second phase parental behavior control predicted only second phase positive SR (*β = .28*). As expected, the first phase positive and negative SR latent variables predicted their repeated measures at the moderate level (*β=.38,* and *β=.35*, respectively)

According to these results, adolescents who reported high attachment security to parents in the first phase also reported high parental behavioral control and low parental psychological control in the second phase. Additionally, the adolescents who reported low parental psychological and high behavior control in the second phase reported high positive SR and low negative SR in the second phase. The indirect effects of parental attachment security on positive and negative SR were significant. Overall, the results suggested that parental attachment security explained 18 % of the variances in both parental psychological control and parental behavioral control in the second phase. The first phase positive SR and second phase parental psychological and behavioral control explained 34 % of the variance in the second phase positive SR and first phase negative SR and second phase parental psychological control explained the 22 % of the variance in second phase negative SR. Finally, the total standardized indirect effect of parental attachment security was -.11 on second phase negative SR, it was .19 on second phase positive SR. In sum, attachment security to parents predicted lower psychological control and higher behavior control in the second phase as expected (H #8a). Moreover, the second phase parental psychological and behavior control mediated the effects of parental attachment security on positive and negative SR as expected (H #8b).
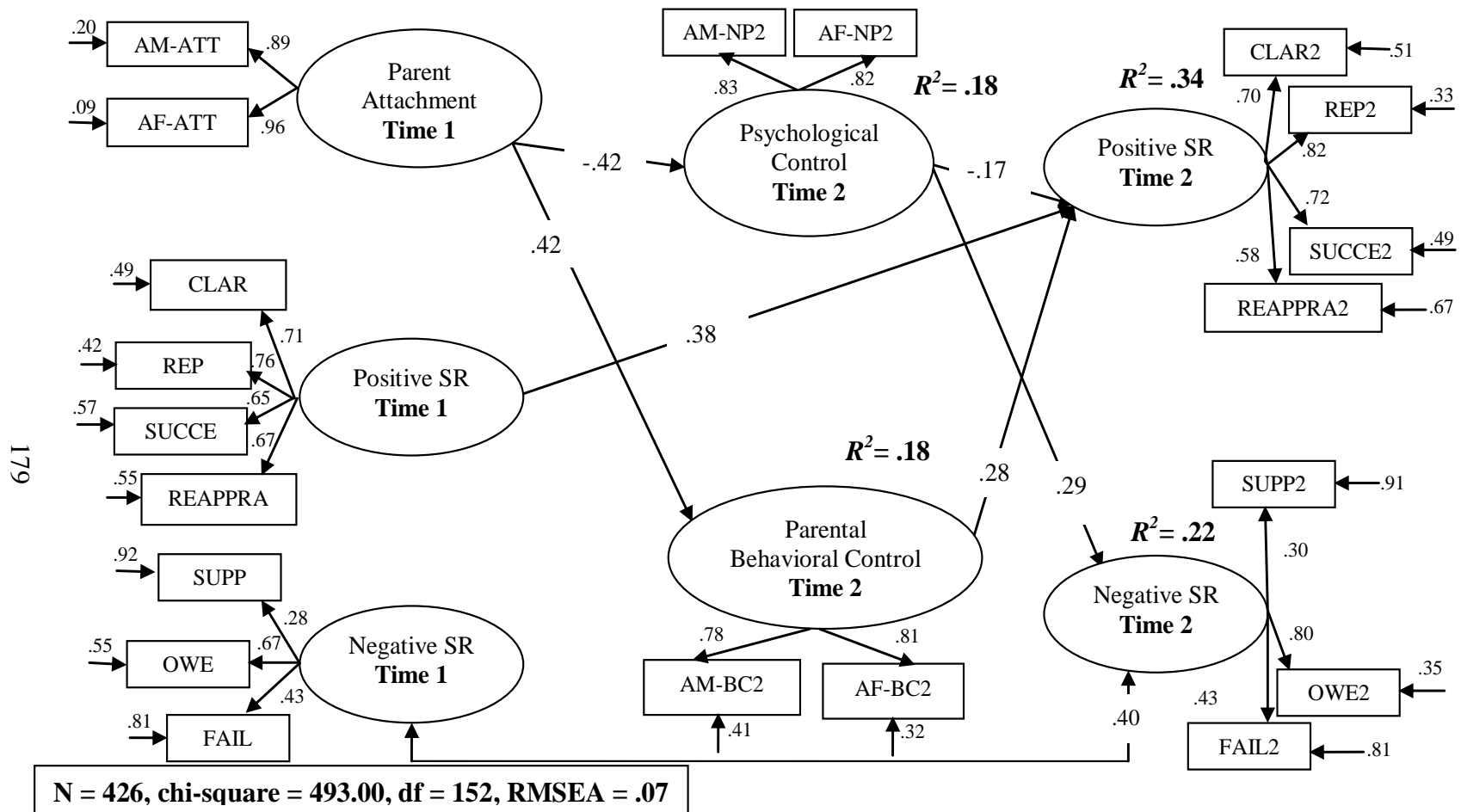
Figure 3.18. Structural Model for the Longitudinal Effects of Parental Attachment on Self-Regulation using Adolescent Sample

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

The primary goal of the present was to examine the proximal and distant determinants of adolescent psychosocial adjustment. Based on the theoretical conceptualization by Morris et al. (2007), the current study focused on the main question of the effects of emotional family context on adolescent development, and the mediating effects of SR within this relationship both by cross-sectional and longitudinal analysis. In order to rule out the problem of common method variance, the analysis focused on testing these associations by contextualizing emotional family context and adolescent outcomes from the perspectives of different reporters when possible. Additionally, the analysis tested more specific associations between parent-child relations SR, and adolescent outcomes by relying on the reports of adolescents. The present chapter discusses the results of the analysis by addressing the cluster of research questions parsimoniously. The section following the discussion of the results presents the limitations and suggestions for future research. The last section discusses the major contributions of the present study.

4.1 Preliminary Statistics of Main Variables

4.1.1 The Analysis of Descriptive Statistics

According to the means scores of the parenting variables, which were reported by both adolescents and parents, the positive parenting dimensions had higher means as compared to negative parenting. This finding showed the more pervasive nature of positive parenting than negative parenting. Among the negative parenting dimensions, the analysis of the means revealed that the parental love withdrawal and rejection have the lowest mean scores across reporters to suggest these were the least pervasive parental behaviors. This supported the findings that love withdrawal was more harmful than guilt induction in a relation-oriented Turkish culture (Sümer & Kağıtçıbaşı, 2010), and both guilt induction and parental comparison were cultural phenomena (Harma, 2008; Sümer & Ergin, 2004).

Among the positive parenting dimensions, parental monitoring had the highest mean scores across participants, and parental knowledge had comparable mean scores albeit lower. These might indicate that parental monitoring along with parental knowledge acquisition was a common practice among the parents of the adolescents in this age group. As Baumrind (1968; 1991) have proposed, during adolescence, parental monitoring and open communication should replace supervision. The comparison of means between different dimensions of attachment security to parents revealed that the mean scores of attachment availability were higher than attachment dependency. Furthermore, the age differences on main variables showed that older adolescents had lower mean scores for attachment dependency to both parents. These supported the findings of Lieberman et al. (1999), which reported that the level of dependency was lower as the child got older, although the availability of parents were still important.

The analysis of the mean scores also yielded some conclusions about the nature of attachment and self-regulation (SR) measures. The comparison of mean scores among the total attachment strength to different attachment figures revealed that for this age group of adolescents, attachment strength to best friend was higher than that of parents, especially fathers. Zeifman and Hazan (2008; Fraley & Davis, 1997) reported that during adolescence, most of the attachments needs were transferred unto best friends. However, Rowe and Carnelly (2005) also showed that the role of parents, especially mothers did not diminish as the primary attachment figures. Accordingly, the high mean scores for attachment strength both to mother and best friend supported that best friends were important during adolescence as well as mothers. The comparison of means showed that the most commonly practiced SR methods were clarity of emotions, repair of mood, positive reframing, and success in SR. These findings imply that successful emotion regulation (ER) starts with clear understanding of emotions and accepting them accompanied with positive attitudes towards life should (Mikulincer & Florian, 2004; Werner & Gross, 2010). The low mean scores of peer attachment anxiety and avoidance supported the normative nature of secure attachment (Van Ijzendorn & Sagi-Schwartz, 2008; Sümer, 2008).

4.1.2 The Bivariate Analysis of Main Variables in the First Phase of the Study

The high and positive correlations of the same parenting dimensions across reporters reflected the reliability of these variables. The fact that positive and negative parenting dimensions correlated highly in the reports of adolescent across mothers and fathers suggested that adolescents perceived the parenting of each parent more similar than distinct. Furthermore, the medium to high correlation between the parenting dimensions, especially the negative ones, across parents suggested that the parents might in fact influence parenting styles of each other, although not as highly as the adolescents perceived them to be. Parke (2002) suggested that parents influenced each other and the parenting of the fathers were more dependent on parenting of the mothers. Although there was an apparent bi-directional influence between parents, the more dominant role of mothers as determinant of parenting needed further investigation. Finally, the high correlations between parental warmth, monitoring, and parental knowledge supported the conceptualization of Crouter and Head (2002; Barber et al., 2005) stating that high parental knowledge might reflect a positive parent-child relationship history, during which planted confidence in the child to disclose freely.

Overall, the correlations between emotional family context variables were in the expected directions. Cummings and Cummings (2002) articulated that the different constructs of parental attachment and parental warmth were related with each other to the degree that parental warmth fostered secure attachment. The high correlations between parental warmth and the dimensions of attachment security to parents supported this conceptualization. Furthermore, marital conflict correlated positively with negative parenting, and negatively with positive parenting dimensions in both the adolescents' and parents' reports, and the positive correlations between negative parenting and marital conflict were higher in father reports as compared to those of the mothers. Emery (1982) suggested that marital conflict spilled unto parenting by undermining the available resources for adequate parenting, and Parke (2002) concluded in his review of the literature that marital relationships were more important for fathers for them to construct good parent-child relationships as compared to mothers. These arguments may provide explanations for

the high correlations between negative parenting and marital conflict especially in father reports.

The negative correlations between marital conflict and attachment strength as well as parental attachment security dimensions suggested that marital conflict also disturbed the adolescents' attachment relations with their parents. Furthermore, negative parenting dimensions and marital conflict were associated positively with attachment strength to best friends. These findings are in line with the conceptualization of Diamond and Fagundes (2008), who concluded that parental attachment insecurity might foster the satisfaction of attachment needs outside the family. These results seem to extend previous findings and suggested that the negative emotional family context might also urge adolescents into that direction.

Additionally, positive parenting and parental attachment security were associated positively with healthy regulatory abilities of adolescents, and negatively with the unhealthy ones, whereas the reverse was true for negative parenting and marital conflict. These findings supported the important role of positive emotional family context for the development of healthy regulations of emotions as suggested by Morris et al. (2007). Similarly, Self-Determination Theory (SDT; Grolnick at al., 1997) proposes that adequate parenting satisfied these primary needs and these in turn induced internalization of SR within the child. Although the internalization of SR was not investigated in this study, the correlations suggested that the parenting dimensions were important for the healthy regulation of self.

Positive emotional family context was associated with low levels of aggression and peer attachment anxiety. These correlations suggested that emotional family context was very important for the problems of the adolescent. Although negative and positive parenting had comparable correlations with these outcome variables across reporters, the mother's monitoring and parental knowledge correlated higher than the father's respective parenting with aggression and peer attachment anxiety. Actually low monitoring, especially by mothers might increase susceptibility to peer pressure to render these adolescents more aggressive (Galambos et al., 2003). The study of Barber et al. (2005) also supported the dominant role of mother in the association between monitoring and adolescents problems. Additionally, the parental psychological control and peer attachment anxiety were positively correlated. This may suggest that psychological control

might be a specific means used for the socialization of the child in line with the cultural inclination for overrepresentation of anxious attachment (Sümer, 2008; Van Ijzendoorn & Sagi-Schwartz, 2008). On the other hand, both peer attachment anxiety and avoidance were associated negatively with parental warmth, parental knowledge, and monitoring. This might indicate that it was rather the secure attachment that was the norm (e.g., Sümer, 2008), in which parental warmth was very important for development of culturally aligned self-construal as proposed by Kağıtçıbaşı (2007). The current study extended their findings and suggested that this positivity actually might spill over unto peer relationships and parental supervision was also important in constructing secure relationships with peers.

The analysis revealed that attachment strength to both mother and father were both related with low levels of aggression and anxiety, whereas attachment strength to best friend was correlated positively with these outcomes. This finding might suggest that either insecure attachment with parents might render adolescents to be exposed to peer, which in turn might insinuate deviant behavior within adolescents, or satisfaction of attachment needs with best friends might undermine attachment relations with the parents. Furthermore, attachment strength to parents was consistently and positively related with healthy SR measures, whereas attachment strength to best friends correlated negatively with repair of mood, and SR success. Although these results suggested that attachment strength to best friends might not be related with SR to a great extent, its weak but negative correlation with SR success might suggest a deviant peer pressure on the perseverance of the adolescents or that low levels of SR abilities might render adolescents susceptible to peer pressure.

The positive and negative SR measures were correlated with each other in the expected directions. However, the positive correlations between reappraisal, suppression and positive reframing were interesting, and might indicate to a cultural phenomenon. Specifically, in line with the findings of Matsumoto et al. (2008), the findings of the current study supported the common practice of employing reappraisal along with suppression within less hierarchical collectivistic cultures.

Most of the correlations between SR measures and peer attachment dimensions were in the expected directions although some unexpected correlations were also evident. Specifically, peer attachment anxiety correlated positively with suppression, whereas the correlation between suppression and peer attachment

avoidance was insignificant. In fact, Mikulincer and Shaver (2008) articulate that the individuals with high anxiety would follow a hyperactivating strategy and Salters-Pedneault et al. (2010) suggest that suppression is generally followed by a rebound of negative affectivity. The positive associations between peer attachment anxiety and suppression and obsession with emotions might support their conclusions. Although Shaver and Mikulincer (2007) articulated that individuals with high avoidance would suppress more, did not attend to their emotions and had low clarity about their emotions, the present correlations suggested that these adolescents did not suppress their emotions, and supported the association between attachment avoidance and low attention to emotions and clarity of emotions. The findings of Fraley et al. (2000a) showed that the individuals with high attachment avoidance did not encode their emotions from the beginning, and in fact, they might not get involved in response-focused ER (i.e., suppression) at all. The present correlations might suggest that the preemptive processes might be more active within individuals with high avoidance. In fact, the negative correlations between high peer attachment and all the positive strategies for AR might support the association between attachment avoidance and dysregulation of ER rather than intense negative affectivity upon experiencing negative affectivity as found by Gilliath et al. (2005).

The correlations between adolescent outcomes reported by teachers and parents and dependent variables as reported by adolescents were in the expected directions, albeit most of them were insignificant. The repair of mood and clarity of emotions were more consistently associated with internalization problems across reporters, and SR success was consistently associated with both internalization and externalization problems to support the conceptualization of Grolnick et al. (1997), who articulated that better regulation of self, fostered the adaptation of the child to the environment. Additionally, aggression and peer attachment anxiety correlated consistently with all child outcome measures across reporters, whereas peer attachment avoidance did not. Consistently, Cooper et al. (1998) showed that anxious and fearful attachment predicted high hostile attitudes as well as delinquent behavior for anxiously attached adolescents. However, the present findings suggested that hostility was more related with the attachment dimension of anxiety rather than the dimension of avoidance.

4.1.3 The Bivariate Analysis of Main Variables among Phases of the Study

The analysis of correlations between first and second phase variables supported most of the conclusions in the first phase. The repeated measures of emotional family context as reported by adolescents had moderate to high correlations, and they were all in the expected directions. Similarly, the emotional family context reports of parents in the first phase of the analysis correlated in the expected directions with these reports of adolescents in the second phase. These findings suggested that family context was highly stable through this phase of development. Cox and Paley (1997) proposed that continuity within family context as a system was more prevalent unless any significant event intervened to disturb the family system to cause discontinuity.

The correlation analysis also suggested some bi-directional effects between adolescent outcomes and parenting. Specifically, the first phase adolescent outcomes reports by adolescents, teachers and parents correlated with second phase adolescent-perceived parental psychological and behavioral control. This might indicate that adolescent problems might urge parents to get involved in negative behavior more in order to prevent their children's problematic behaviors. Patterson and Fisher (2002) reviewed the available literature to conclude that child adjustment and parenting had bi-directional effects among each other, and the deviant child behavior fostered negative parenting. Additionally, Laird, Pettit, Dodge, and Bates (2003) found that antisocial behavior was related with less enjoyable parent-child relationship, thus less involvement with the child that in turn led to less monitoring knowledge. Similarly, adolescent problems as reported by parents were correlated positively with second phase adolescent-perceived interparental conflict. Cox and Paley (1997) proposed that the disturbances in one sub-system (i.e., individual; adolescent) might disturb the other systems (i.e., emotional family context) within the theory of family as systems. However, these depended on the perceived adolescent problems by the parents, rather than more objective measures (i.e., teachers) in this study.

The correlations were also analyzed between dependent variables in first and second phases. The analysis of the correlations between repeated SR measures revealed that attention to emotions, repair of mood, and SR success had the highest

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test-retest correlations. Furthermore, these measures along with the clarity of emotions also correlated consistently and in the expected directions with most of the first phase SR measures. Among the adolescent outcomes, the first phase aggression and peer attachment anxiety level of the adolescents had the most negative effects on second phase SR measures and the externalization problems as reported by teachers. However, the fact that peer attachment avoidance but not anxiety correlated with suppression in the second phase, might indicate that during adolescence, the internalization of suppression was volatile to become more of a characteristic of avoidant adults supporting Shaver and Mikulincer (2007).

The first phase reports of teachers on adolescent outcomes correlated significantly with their second phase reports, and the correlations were higher within repeated measures of internalization and externalization problems of adolescents rather than their prosocial behavior. This might indicate that the adolescent problems were more stable than the positive engagement strategies used by adolescents. Similarly, first phase adolescent problems correlated more consistently with second phase SR measures rather than their prosocial behavior.

4.1.4 Gender Differences in Parenting, Self-Regulation, and Adolescent Adjustment

The results of the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) revealed differences of gender on most of the main study variables. Specifically, girls reported more attachment strength to mothers, mother parental knowledge, attachment dependency to mothers, attachment availability of fathers, perceived interparental conflict, and parental warmth and monitoring by both parents as compared to boys. On the other hand, boys reported more attachment strength to father, father rejection and love withdrawal, and parental comparison by both parents. Among the dependent measures, girls reported more attention to emotions, SR failure than boys, and they were rated as more prosocial than boys by teachers. On the other hand, boys reported more clarity of emotions, suppression, aggression, peer attachment anxiety and avoidance than girls, and they were rated to have higher levels of externalization problems by teachers.

These findings suggested that boys and girls perceptions were different on parenting behaviors of mothers and fathers. Although perceived psychological control behaviors of mothers did not differ between boys and girls, except for the

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parental comparison, these findings suggested that boys perceived more negative parenting and less warmth from their parents. The reports of the parents confirmed that they practiced more parental comparison, and fathers rejected their sons more. These were consistent with the findings of the study by Bosmans, Braet, Beyers, Van Leeuwen, and Van Vlierberghe (2011), which reported higher coercive discipline by both parents on the boys. Furthermore, these authors found that such parenting was associated with lower attachment security. In fact, the boys and girls also differed in their attachment dependency to mothers and attachment availability of fathers in the present findings. Additionally, Lieberman et al. (1999) found that as the children reached early adolescence, their dependency on parents declined albeit the girls had higher dependency on their mothers and the early adolescent girls perceived less father attachment availability than boys. These authors attributed these differences to the special relationship the daughters and mothers had. Similarly, the current findings suggested that the girls were more dependent on their mothers than their fathers. An interesting finding was that although girls perceived their fathers more available as compared to boys, the boys had higher attachment strength to father. These antithetical findings need further investigation.

The gender differences were also apparent on monitoring and parental knowledge. These supported the available studies, which reported that parents practiced more parental monitoring on girls than on boys (e.g. Harma, 2008; Kerr & Stattin, 2000; Grundy, Gondoli, & Blodget Salafia, 2009). Additionally, the parental knowledge of mothers was lower as the boys got older, although the level of knowledge did not change for girls. Conger, Conger, and Scaramella (cited in Pettit, Laird, Dodge, Bates, & Criss, 2001) suggested that delinquent behaviors were more normative for boys than girls, hence mothers monitored girls more to preclude any problems with the belief that it would be more effective as compared to boys. Grundy et al. (2009) also showed that higher parental warmth predicted higher parental knowledge in their longitudinal study, and concluded that parental warmth improved the monitoring efforts of parents by contributing positively to disclose willingly and openly. In that sense, the mothers' higher behavior control on their daughters control might stem from the special mother-daughter relationship (e.g., Lieberman et al., 1999) as well as from the belief that behavioral control would be more effective on their daughters.

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There were also significant gender differences in positive and negative parenting, SR measures, aggression, externalization problems and prosocial behavior. Finkenauer et al. (2005) reported that boys perceived higher levels of psychological control and lower levels of strict control than girls and the boys also had higher externalization and lower internalization problems. The fact that these authors did not report any gender differences on self-control might be attributed to the inadequacy of using a single variable used for self-control. Raffaelli, Crockett, and Shen (2005) reported that girls were higher in SR measures through their development from early childhood to early adolescence. They also suggested that use of multiple SR measures in research might be more appropriate than a single measure in order to capture gender differences. Taken together, these findings might indicate a complex interplay between socialization and sex of the child. In fact, Finkenauer et al. (2005) found that parental psychological control was important in determining externalization problems when the effects of gender was controlled, and Laird et al. (2003) showed that parental behavioral control was important for determining antisocial problems similarly for girls and boys. In sum, the differences in SR and adolescents outcome measures between boys and girls might reflect either a real influence of the gender or the associations between different parenting and the adolescent development due to being exposed to different socialization processes determined by the gender of the adolescent.

The findings showed that boys had higher peer attachment anxiety and avoidance levels than girls. Güngör and Bornstein (2010) found that girls had higher peer attachment anxiety and lower levels of avoidance as compared to boys. They proposed that the girls' orientation towards relationships due to socialization processes rendered them more anxious in their close relationships. Although the higher attachment strength of girls to their best friends supported their conclusion, the higher anxiety levels of boys were antithetical with this conclusion. Güngör and Bornstein also suggested that contextual stressors about relationships might cause higher anxiety in adolescents. In fact, half of the participating students had just started to attend a new school with the potential of new intimate relationships. Such a context might cause situational stress on attachment anxiety level. A different mechanism might also take place in the case of boys who had higher anxiety and avoidance levels. As Mikulincer and Florian (2004) conceptualized, under extreme

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stress the general deactivating strategy of avoidant individuals broke down to lead to feelings of high anxiety. Consequently, the higher anxiety level of boys might be more situational than stable unlike for girls. This is a point that needed further investigation.

4.2 The Role of Emotional Family Context on Adolescent Adjustment

The primary purpose of the present study was to determine the relative role of each emotional family context variable on adolescent adjustment and SR. In line with the hypothesized model, the latent variables of adolescent attachment security to parents, parental warmth, psychological control, and behavior control, and marital conflict were contextualized by either using the adolescent reports of each parents, or using both the reports of parents and of adolescents for both parents. In that sense, the latent variables captured the emotional family environment, in which the adolescent was a part of. However, the high associations between the family context variables precluded the testing of this parsimonious model. Consequently, most of the family context variables were tested in different analysis.

In order to test the hypothesis, several analyses were run for the same model across variables and samples. In the first analysis, the role of negative parenting, parental behavior control, and adolescent perceived interparental conflict on adolescent problems directly and indirectly via positive and negative SR were tested for the adolescent and teacher sample. In order to confirm the results of the first analysis, the same model was tested by contextualizing the family variables by using reports of each parent and adolescents' reports for each parent. Since the latent variables were highly correlated among each other, the sub-models were tested for different family context variables. Thus, the second analysis tested the effects of negative parenting and parental behavior control on SR, adolescent prosocial behavior, internalization and externalization problems. The third analysis tested the effects of marital conflict on adolescent SR and adjustment. In the forth analysis of the model, the effects of parental attachment on adolescent SR, prosocial behavior, and problems were tested.

4.2.1 The Direct Effects of Emotional Family Context on Adolescent Development

There was primarily support for the direct effects of the family context variables on the adolescent SR development and adjustment. The first analysis using the adolescent and teacher sample showed that parental behavior control predicted positive SR, and adolescent adjustment. Furthermore, adolescent perceived-interparental conflict predicted disturbed positive SR, and negative parenting predicted disturbed adolescent adjustment as reported by teachers. The second set of analysis used only adolescent and parent samples. The first analysis in this sequence showed that negative parenting predicted negative SR, disturbed adolescent prosocial behavior and high externalization and internalization problems, whereas parental behavioral control predicted positive SR, and adolescent prosocial behavior, and low adolescent internalization problems. The second analysis of this sequence showed that marital conflict predicted disturbed positive SR and prosocial behavior, and high adolescent externalization problems. There was a small but significant mediating effect of positive SR on the association between marital conflict and adolescent internalization problems. The third analysis of the sequence showed that attachment security to parents predicted high positive SR and low negative SR directly. The association between parental attachment security and adolescent internalization problems was mediated via positive and negative SR.

Taken together, these findings supported only the direct effects of most emotional family context variables on SR and adolescent outcomes except for the attachment security to parents (will be discussed below). Although Finkenauer et al. (2005) reported both direct and indirect effects of parental control on adolescent externalizing and internalizing problems via self-control, Harma (2008) showed that SR fully mediated the relationship between parental psychological control and adolescent adjustment and this mediation was not significant for parental behavioral control. The present findings supported only the direct effects of parenting on adolescent SR development and adjustment. The findings also supported the theoretical framework of Grolnick et al. (1997), who proposed that the parent-child relational was very important for the development of SR. Also, Grolnick and Farkas (2002) proposed that both parental warmth and attachment security to parents might

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satisfy relatedness needs to foster the development of SR. The high structural correlations between parental warmth and attachment security in the current study might provide evidence for this conceptualization.

The model was tested using different sample combinations in order to eliminate the problem of common method variance. The fact that negative parenting and parental behavior control predicted adolescent adjustment as reported by teachers even after ruling out this effect confirmed the role of these variables in determining adolescent adjustment. Furthermore, when the latent family variables were fully contextualized by using the reports of parents and adolescents, the findings were similar to the analysis using adolescent and teacher samples. Since SR measures only reflected the perceptions of adolescents, including more objective reporters (e.g., peers or mothers) might have supported the mediating role of SR variables between parenting and adolescent adjustment. Additionally, the analysis revealed that the family context variables were highly associated with each other. These associations were evident even after the reports of parents were included in the latent variables. This suggested that the parents, who had more secure and positive relationships with their children, were less likely to exhibit negative parenting behaviors. It might also mean that the parents who were close to their children, also had children with less problems, and these parents were less inclined to get involved in negative parenting behavior (Patterson & Fisher, 2002).

Cummings and Keller (2006) propose that marital conflict disturbs the emotional and cognitive processes of the children as well as their behaviors. Similarly, Davies and Cummings (1994) elaborate on the emotional security hypothesis and propose that marital conflict urge children to acquire negative perceptions of the self, parents as well as the relationships in general. They further suggest that high marital conflict sensitizes the children to negative events. In line with these, the current findings showed that marital conflict caused adolescents to acquire a negative attitude also towards life, and precluded them to employ reappraisal and positive reframing. Additionally, these adolescents had lower clarity of emotions and lower success in SR. As a conclusion, marital conflict not only influences the perceptions of family relationships but also the adolescents' perceptions of positive and negative events as well as their attitudes towards life.

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Furthermore, it might be suggested that marital conflict caused higher negative affectivity to blur clarity of own emotions.

In sum, the results showed that (1) negative parenting, parental behavior control and marital conflict were directly related to adolescent prosocial behavior, and externalization and internalization problems and (2) all of the emotional family context variables were directly related with adolescent SR development.

4.2.2 The Mediating Role of Self-Regulation

One of the main hypotheses of the current study was that the emotional family context would influence adolescent SR, which in turn would predict adolescent adjustment. This conceptualization was supported only for attachment security to parents. The analysis revealed that parental attachment security predicted internalization problems indirectly via positive and negative SR.

These findings were overall consistent with the premises of attachment theory (Bowlby, 1969; 1973) suggesting that attachment to parents had ramifications within the development of the individual all through life. The conceptualization of Valiente and Eisenberg (2006) as well as others proposed that the history of positive emotion-related interactions within family had an important role in the healthy development of ER, which was directly related with social competence of children. Sümer and Anafarta-Şendağ (2009) also showed the close association between parental attachment security and self-perceptions, which emanated negative affectivity upon distorted self-image due to insecurity attachment to parents. The current findings showed that that negative affectivity, which was caused by dysregulation of affect, might present itself in internalization problems even for older children.

4.3 The Role of Attachment Security to Parents on Adolescent Peer Relations

One of the goals of the current study was to reveal the interrelations between domains of attachment, and the mediating role of SR between these domains, hence to reveal the possible transfer mechanisms between attachment representations across domains. The analysis tested the effects of attachment security to each parent on the peer attachment anxiety and avoidance, and the role of positive and negative SR as mediators using only the adolescent sample. Mother attachment security predicted high positive SR and low negative SR and peer attachment anxiety directly. Furthermore, father attachment security predicted only high positive SR directly.

Only the mediating role of positive SR was evident for the association between father attachment security and peer attachment avoidance.

Attachment theory proposes that attachment to parents influenced the attachment representations in other close relationships through life. The current findings showed attachment to mother predicted low levels of peer attachment anxiety directly and attachment security to fathers predicted peer attachment avoidance indirectly through positive SR. In that sense, attachment to parents might play different roles within the development attachment representations during adolescence. Sümer and Anafarta-Şendağ (2010) showed that attachment to both parents were important for child's perception of the self-worth during middle childhood and Verschueren and Marcoen (2005) showed that secure attachment to fathers predicted the degree of acceptance by the peers. The present findings suggested that the attachment security to mother was the basic determinant of the self dimension of attachment representations (i.e., anxiety) and attachment to father was more influential in determining the other dimension of attachment (i.e., avoidance).

Cassidy (1994) reviewed the literature to conclude that the children learned how to regulate their emotions within attachment relations with their parents. The findings showed that attachment security to mothers were important for learning both negative and positive strategies for regulating self and attachment security to fathers were important in learning positive strategies for SR. In the current analysis, although negative SR did not mediate the negative association between attachment security to mothers and peer attachment anxiety, negative SR predicted higher levels of peer anxiety and lower levels of peer avoidance. Cassidy also concluded that in the maximizing strategy, the children kept their negative affectivity level high in order to get the attention of close others. Consistently, latent variable of negative SR included variables, such as obsession with emotions, SR failure, and suppression, all of which might emanate negative affectivity (e.g., Salters-Pedneault et al., 2010). Shaver and Mikulincer (2007) also stated that anxious individuals were the ones, who would be least interested in solving problems. These types of strategies led the adolescents to have higher levels of anxiety and lower levels of avoidance in peer relationships.

Positive SR, however, mediated the relationship between secure attachment to fathers and peer attachment avoidance. Cassidy (1994) proposed that the children,

who had avoidant attachment to their caregivers, applied minimizing strategies by distancing self from emotions to regulate their emotions. Shaver and Mikulincer (2007) proposed a similar strategy for adults who had avoidant attachment style of attachment. The present results might extend these conceptualizations. Specifically, these might indicate that adolescents who had high avoidance in their relationships, might avoid any emotions in order to distance self from affectivity because they might not have learned have to deal with their emotions either positive or negative in their early experiences with their parents. Taken together, these findings might imply the dominant role of mothers as caregivers, but the important role fathers played in internalization of positive SR especially during adolescence.

4.4 The Effects of Attachment Transfer Differences in Adolescent Development

In addition to the more inclusive models, more specific hypotheses have also been tested in the current study. The first one tested the effects of transferring secure base attachment needs to peers on adolescent development. To test the hypothesis, the adolescents were grouped into four according to their orientation to parents and peers in order to satisfy their secure base attachment needs. The four groups of adolescents represented those who had secure base need satisfaction figures as parents, those who had both parents and their best friends, those who had only best friends, and finally those who had reported both parents and best friends lower than the median level as secure base need satisfiers (i.e., low secure base group). The analysis also controlled for gender in order to rule out any potential role of gender.

The analysis revealed that the parent secure group statistically was the best adjusted group although the mean scores of the all secure group suggested that they were not really different from this group. The peer-oriented and low secure base groups had the worst SR in terms of clarity of emotions, repair of mood, obsession with emotions except for the success in SR. In the latter dimension, peer-oriented group had the worst mean scores. This group also had the highest level of aggression, internalization problems and lowest levels attachment avoidance in their peer relationships. Furthermore, the peer-oriented and low secure base groups had the highest level of peer attachment anxiety. The peer-oriented group also had higher levels of externalization problems as compared to parent oriented group.

Zeifman and Hazan (2008) propose that the attachment needs are normatively transferred from parents to best friends and later on to romantic partners through development. However, this normative transference of needs follows a pattern that matches the development level. First, proximity needs are transferred to peers during early adolescents, and as the child gets older, they transfer their safe haven needs to their best friends during adolescence. Diamond and Faguendes (2008) found that the transfer of secure base needs unto best friends might reflect in fact an insecure attachment relationship with the parents during this phase of development and that complete transfer of attachment needs was associated with disturbed ER and adjustment problems. They also showed that the best adjusted adolescents were the ones who broadened their attachment network by satisfying their secure base needs by both parents and best friends.

The findings of the present study were consistent with previous research. Specifically, although the adolescents oriented into parents to satisfy their secure base needs portrayed a better picture in their adjustment, they did not differ significantly from the group who satisfied these needs by both parents and best friends. However, the group that had the worst adjustment was the peer-oriented group. Thus, the satisfaction of secure needs by best friends may not only disturb SR, but also render these adolescents more susceptible to deviant peer pressure, be more anxious in their peer relations, and may even increase the feelings that they should control their peers through aggressive strategies (i.e., relational and overt aggression). Future studies should investigate the possible relations between peer orientation and needs to dominate others in order to satisfy their own needs for attention and recognition.

4.5 The Effects of Peer Attachment Representation Differences in Adolescent Development

The other specific hypothesis tested the peer attachment representations differences in adolescent development. In order to reveal the specific relations between peer attachment styles and adolescent outcomes, a series of analysis were conducted on the adolescent groups of peer attachment styles, which were secure, anxious, avoidant, and fearful. Similar to the previous procedure, the current analysis controlled the effects of gender in order to rule out any association between gender and outcome measures.

Overall, the results suggested that those who were securely attached to their peers had the most functional adjustment in terms of SR and problems. Specifically, the secure group had better attention to emotions, repair of mood and success in SR as compared to the other groups. However, anxious and avoidant groups had better success in SR than the fearful group. Although secure group had higher obsession with emotions than the avoidant group, secure and fearful groups were less obsessed with their emotions than the anxious group. The secure and anxious group had higher levels of reappraisal, positive reframing, and clarity of emotions than the other groups. Furthermore, the anxious and fearful groups suppressed their emotions more, and had higher internalization problems than the avoidant and secure groups. The anxious group had the highest level of failure in SR.

Shaver and Mikulincer (2007) suggest that anxious individuals resort to hyperactivating strategies, which exasperate their negative affectivity even more. These authors also suggest that the anxious individuals are not interested in problem solving, which potentially create negativity in their lives to attract the attention of close others. The detailed analysis between the interplay between peer attachment styles and adolescent outcomes portrayed an interesting picture, which confirmed the available literature but also added to it. The group with high peer attachment anxiety involved more in obsession with emotions, suppression, and failure in SR, all of which might increase the negative affectivity further. In fact, obsession with emotions, which included not only beliefs that emotions had the guiding role through life, but also being lost in emotions and confusion over emotions in response to events, was found to be qualitatively different from attending to emotions. The application of this strategy might cause the individual to be overwhelmed with emotions especially in a culture, in which the pervasive belief was that the emotions especially the negative ones should not have that much power over the individual (e.g., Matsumoto et al., 2008).

Additionally, this group of adolescents reported that they endorsed positive types of regulatory processes, which included clarity of emotions, repair of mood, reappraisal, and positive reframing. In fact, Shaver and Mikulincer (2007) suggested that if the anxious individuals used reappraisal, they used it in a manner to increase their negative affectivity more. The configuration of these positive and negative forms of regulatory processes, however, might also create a deadly combination that

might exasperate their negativity further. The fact that they had a distorted perception of emotions (i.e., obsession with emotions) might contaminate the whole process of positive regulatory processes that resulted in higher levels of negative affectivity that overwhelm them. This is consistent with the findings of Gilliath et al. (2005), which showed that unlike avoidant individuals, the brain activities of anxious ones reflected the activation of wider region of negative affectivity upon experiencing negative emotions.

Shaver and Mikulincer (2007) claimed that the individuals with high avoidance tend to deactivate their attachment system in close relationships and Fraley et al. (2000a) showed that avoidant individuals did not encode their positively or negatively valenced emotional experiences. In fact, the present findings showed that the avoidant style in peer attachment was related with low attention to emotions, clarity of emotions, repair of mood, obsession with emotions, reappraisal, suppression, positive reframing, and failure in SR. Although they had lower levels of SR success than the secure ones, they had low aggression, and internalization problems. This pattern supported the previous findings and showed that they disassociated from emotions and deviant activities to keep affectivity low. However, these findings also suggested that within this process of disassociation they lost their chances to learn positive strategies to regulate self. In fact, Mikulincer and Florian (2004) articulated that they acted like anxiously attached individuals under extreme stress when they could not distance self from emotional experiences. In line with their conceptualization, the current findings might suggest that they broke down under pressure because they had neither positive nor negative strategies to deal with affectivity.

Finally, the fearful groups were more like avoidant group in terms of SR, except they had higher levels of obsession with emotions and suppression as comparable to anxious ones. Furthermore they had the lowest levels of SR success but their SR failure level was better than anxious adolescents. In that sense, they practiced only the negative forms of SR as compared to other groups. They were also aggressive and had high internalization problems as compared to the anxious group. Cooper et al. (1998) found that the fearfully attached individuals had high hostility levels albeit less than their anxious counterparts, and suggested that if the fearful individuals did not get involved into deviant behavior, this could be attributed to the

fact that they were socially incompetent. In the current study, they had actually comparable levels of hostility to anxious adolescents. However, they seemed to relinquish all kinds of positive SR, and stick to negative SR such as suppression and obsession with emotions. They were also involved in SR strategies that would not solve any problems. In that sense, although they did not focus on exasperating their negative affectivity, their lack of knowledge on how to regulate their affect renders them vulnerable to negative affective experiences. Furthermore, they seemed to lack the knowledge how to achieve success, and this might increase their negative affectivity even more.

In sum, the present findings were generally consistent with the previous research in attachment literature and extended the knowledge further on the specific paths that were associated with different peer attachment styles.

4.6 The Effect of Parenting on Adolescent Peer Attachment and Self-Regulation

It was expected that parenting would influence peer attachment dimensions of the adolescents. In order to test the specific relationships between parenting and adolescent peer attachment dimensions, first a series of regression analyses tested the relative effects of parenting dimensions, which were selected in line with the findings of the previous studies, and cultural and statistical criteria. However, parental rejection acted as a suppressor in all of the analysis, hence was dismissed.

4.6.1 The Relative Effects of Parenting on Adolescent Peer Attachment Dimensions

The hierarchical regression analyses were run separately for mother and father parenting. These analyses revealed that the younger adolescents and boys were more anxious in their peer relationships. Furthermore, only mother guilt induction and father love withdrawal were related with peer attachment anxiety, and mother warmth was related with low levels of anxious attachment to peers at the marginal level. The similar hierarchical regression analysis for peer attachment avoidance showed that gender and parental warmth were related with avoidance in peer relationships. Specifically, boys and the adolescents whose parents were less affectionate towards them had higher levels of peer attachment avoidance.

Most of the current findings were in line with the expectations except for the finding that boys and younger adolescents had higher peer attachment anxiety. The

fact that the data was collected from adolescents in their first and second years of the high school might account for the higher anxiety levels of younger adolescents. Specifically, the novel situation of starting a new school might have activated the attachment systems of the adolescents to render them more anxious whereas the older adolescents would be more stabilized and they perceived future worries more distal. Considering that since boys had higher peer avoidance levels than the girls, they would break down under stress of uncertainty (e.g., Mikulincer & Florian, 2004), and they would have higher levels of both avoidance and anxiety in their peer relationships.

The current analysis also revealed that parental psychological control was related to peer attachment anxiety. As previously found by Güngör and Bornstein (2010), parental psychological control and warmth were related with peer attachment anxiety, whereas the psychological control of mothers was related with peer attachment avoidance. The dimensional nature of the present study, however, enabled more scrutiny, and revealed that mother guilt induction and father love withdrawal influenced peer anxiety feelings in adolescents. On the more superficial perceptions, these may be antithetical with the findings of Sümer and Kağıtçıbaşı (2010), who found that parental guilt induction, was less harmful than love withdrawal on the development of the child. On the other hand, Sümer (2008) also found that in Turkish culture anxious attachment was overrepresented as an insecure attachment dimension. In fact, Mikulincer and Horesh (1999) showed that the individuals with anxious attachment strategy tried to minimize interpersonal distance by perceiving self attributes of others as close to own self attributes. In that sense, high anxiety instigates relationship orientation, which is the characteristic of cultures of relatedness (e.g., Kağıtçıbaşı, 2007). Yet, the effect of mother warmth on low anxious attachment in peer representations suggested that secure attachment was more normative as compared to anxious attachment.

The results of the current analysis showed that low parental warmth instilled peer attachment avoidance in the adolescence. Kağıtçıbaşı (2007) articulated that affection and warmth from parents was a global parenting dimension although it might be specifically important in a culture of relatedness. The current study revealed that parental warmth was the most important determinant of peer attachment

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avoidance, which was considered to be antithetical with a relational self (e.g., Sümer, 2008).

Taken together, the current findings suggested that during this development period, the parenting of fathers became very important. As found by Sümer and Anafarta-Şendağ (2010) during middle childhood, the attachment security to fathers became very important as compared to previous phases of development. The present study extended these findings and showed that parenting of the father was as important as secure attachment to father during adolescence, and it might have important implications in peer relationships. Although Sümer and Ergin (2004) showed that parental comparison was related with anxious peer attachment representations, the findings of the present study did not confirm this. The pervasive nature of this dimension as a cultural phenomenon (e.g., Sümer & Ergin, 2004) might have precluded any harmful effect of parental comparison during this developmental period.

4.6.2 The Mediating Role of Self Regulation

The separate models were tested in order to determine the effects of parental psychological control and parental warmth on peer attachment dimensions of anxiety and avoidance as well as the mediating role of regulatory processes between these associations. The results suggested that the latent variable of parental psychological control predicted positive and negative SR as well as anxiety in peer attachment relationships directly. Furthermore, negative forms of SR partially mediated the association between parental psychological control and peer attachment anxiety. Moreover, although parental warmth predicted positive and negative forms of SR, positive SR partially mediated the association between parental warmth and peer attachment avoidance.

From a cultural perspective, the interplay between parental warmth and psychological control and peer attachment dimensions could be observed readily. In a relatedness culture, which parental warmth is very important, parental psychological control plays a very specific role. The previous study by Matsumoto et al. (2008) showed that suppression was pervasive in collectivistic cultures and Roth et al. (2009) provided results for the psychological control being a vehicle to instill it within the offspring. These articulations supported the conclusion of Kağıtçıbaşı

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(2007), who conceptualized culture as a socialization agent and in cultures of relatedness, parental warmth and psychological control were the means to an end. In this case, it might be speculated that although parental psychological control might instigated anxiety in close relationships, parental warmth also provided vehicles to keep positivity within close relationships. As articulated by Grolnick and Farkas (2002), psychological control disturbs the natural course of emotional experiences and makes them emotionally dependent on parents. In the current study, the emotional perplexity via obsession with emotions and suppression that was instigated by parental psychological control might ensure this emotional dependency and pointed a cultural phenomenon. However, these conclusions should be investigated further in the future studies.

4.7 The Longitudinal Effects of Marital Conflict on Parenting

One of the main goals of the current study was to reveal the longitudinal interplay between family context variables. The first specific hypothesis proposed that marital conflict spilled over onto parenting, hence disturbed parenting longitudinally. Considering the bi-directional effect between parent and child subsystems (e.g., Cox & Paley, 1997), the present analysis also included first phase adolescent problems as possible mediators. Due to the high attrition rate of the parents in the second phase, the analysis included only adolescent-perceived parenting variables. Additionally, marital conflict latent variable included perceptions of parents and adolescents, adolescent externalization problems included the reports of adolescents and both parents, and the internalization problems included perceptions of both parents.

The analysis revealed that first phase parental psychological and behavioral control predicted the related repeated measures in the second phase. As proposed by Cox and Paley (1997), the systems were relatively stable through time. Additionally, marital conflict predicted higher externalization and internalization problems directly. Furthermore, there was a significant role of externalization problems as a mediator between the first phase marital problems and second phase parental psychological control. This mediating role of externalization problems might suggest that parents might have involved in negative parenting in response to the externalization problems of their children rather than the marital conflict

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undermining their capacity to provide adequate parenting to their children as suggested by the spillover hypothesis. These results were in line with the conceptualization of Patterson and Fisher (2002), who pointed out the bi-directional role between child problems and consequent negative parenting.

The mediating effects of adolescent problems were only evident for externalization problems but not for internalization problems. This finding could propose that the adolescents might imitate the behavior of their parents. Grych and Fincham (1990) elaborated on the effects of marital conflict on children and proposed that children modeled the behaviors of parents in other social contexts. Similarly, the behavior of the parents within marital conflict also taught children how to behave during conflictual situations. Furthermore, Kinsfogel and Grych (2004) also showed that children exposed to high levels of marital conflict, internalized positive attitudes towards aggression and had hard time regulating their anger. The current findings extended the previous conceptualization to show that adolescents exposed to marital conflict generalized such behaviors across contexts and close relationships. Specifically, the adolescents displayed similar behavior with their peers and within the school context. The negative side of this effect was that the higher adolescent externalization problems caused by modeling in turn disturbed parent-child relationships and compelled parents to practice higher psychological control in order to be able to control their children.

4.8 The Longitudinal Effects of Attachment Security to Parents on Self-Regulation

The last aim of the current study was to reveal the pathways through which attachment security to parents would determine adolescent SR longitudinally. Thompson (2008) proposed that the longitudinal effects of secure attachment to parents could be observed in positive parent-child interactions more readily. Accordingly, it was tested the possible mediating role of second phase negative parenting and parental behavioral control on the association between the first phase secure attachment to parents and second phase SR abilities of the adolescents by controlling the effects of first phase SR measures on the related repeated measures in the second phase.

The results of the analysis supported that second phase parental psychological and behavioral control fully mediated the effects of attachment security to parents on

SR abilities of the adolescents in the second phase. Specifically, high secure attachment to parents in the first phase predicted high parental behavioral control and low negative parenting in the second phase. Furthermore, the lower negative parenting in the second phase predicted higher positive SR and lower negative SR. Moreover, the high parental behavior predicted higher positive SR abilities in the second phase. Although the first phase positive and negative SR predicted the second phase SR measures, this association was only moderate.

Thompson (2008) proposed that in order for the effects of early secure attachment to the caregiver to be stable, the positive child-parent relationship should continue. Otherwise, the effects of early parental secure attachment would not endure. He also claimed that the attachment security to parents fostered prosocial behavior within the child. The findings of the current study suggested that secure attachment to parents predicted positive parenting in the second phase. In that sense, the parents of the securely attached adolescents exhibited positive parenting either due to their own positive feelings, or due to positive affectivity engendered by their own children's' positive engagement with them (e.g., Crugnola et al., 2011). Either way, these associations need further investigation.

In the current study, the associations between first and second phase SR measures were only moderate. Grolnick and colleagues (Grolnick & Farkas, 2002; Grolnick et al. 1997) proposed that within the SDT framework, the highest level of regulation an adolescent could reach was introjected regulation, and the positive family environment should be maintained for the SR to be internalized properly. The findings of the current study supported their conceptualization by showing only moderate levels of stability between longitudinal SR measures. Furthermore, the positive parenting predicted better SR even in the second phase above the effects of first time measures. The current findings suggested that the interplay between the emotional family context variables were very important longitudinally for the healthy development of adolescents and the stable environment created for the adolescents via high behavioral control helped the adolescents internalize the health SR more effectively.

4.9 The Effects of Emotional Family Context on Adolescent Adjustment

4.9.1 The Effects of Parenting on Adolescent Adjustment

Past research has documented that parenting dimensions of psychological and behavioral control resulted in critical developmental outcomes. Barber (1996) conceptualized parental psychological and behavior control as distinct, and showed that psychological control was related with externalization and internalization problems. Similarly, Muris et al. (2003), and Barber et al. (2005) showed that parental psychological control and rejection explained a unique proportion of both internalization and externalization problems. Kuppens, Grietens, Onghena, and Michiels (2009) also showed that parental rejection and psychological control were related with higher aggression in children in middle childhood. Additionally, parental psychological control and rejection were not only related with high developmental problems but also antisocial behavior in children. Roth et al. (2009) reported that parent's conditional regard of the child as a form of psychological control was associated with lower internalization of prosocial behavior in the college students. The present findings took their findings one step ahead to show these findings hold true for contextualized parenting measures and adolescent outcomes by using different reporters.

Regardless of the fact that Finkenauer et al. (2005) reported the partially mediating role of self-control between parental psychological and adolescent adjustment, the regulatory processes did not mediate this association in the current analysis. Grolnick et al. (1997) articulated that psychological control combined with negative parenting disturbed SR, whereas parental behavior control fostered it. Similarly, the results suggested that parental psychological control predicted negative SR to a higher degree than it did positive SR in both phases of the study and these might indicate a culturally specific effect. Specifically, negative SR included failure in SR, obsession with emotions, and suppression. Previous studies by Roth et al. (2009) and Körpe (2010) have documented that psychological control was closely related with suppression. Körpe (2010) also found that suppression did not mediate the effects of parental psychological control on self-control capacity but the mediation was evident for only positive emotions. From a cultural perspective, the

negative affectivity might be suppressed more than the positive affectivity in a relational culture (e.g., Matsumoto et al., 2008) and the constant practice of this strategy might not undermine the regulation of self consistent with the framework of SR strength model (e.g., Muraven & Baumeister, 2000). In that sense, the present findings might reflect a cultural phenomenon, in which higher negative emotionality caused by negative SR might not be reflected in adolescent adjustment problems (see Harma, 2008, for contradictory findings).

Parental control has been conceptualized in two basic dimensions, namely parental psychological and behavior control. The related literature also articulates that parental behavior control engenders positive child outcomes unlike parental psychological control. The results supported this conceptualization but also showed that parental behavioral control was related with prosocial behavior, internalization problems rather than externalization problems, and positive strategies for regulating the self rather than the negative ones. The study of Laird et al. (2003) found that monitoring and parental knowledge determined low levels of antisocial behavior in adolescents and Barber (1996; Barber et al., 2005) reported that parental behavioral control was related with low externalization problems and antisocial behavior. Taken together, the literature support that parental behavior control imposes a scaffold on children. This scaffold might protect them from developing problems, which are characterized with outward manifestations. However, the present findings suggested that parental behavioral control primarily instigated positive behavior within the adolescents in this sample. Additionally, it was highly correlated with parental warmth and attachment security to parents. Similarly, Grundy et al. (2009) found that warmth and parental knowledge fostered each other. In that sense, parental behavioral control may show the child that the parents care for her/him and may be a marker to show high parental involvement with child. Actually, Baumrind (1968; 1991) conceptualized authoritative parenting as high in parental involvement and parental behavior control. Thus, parental monitoring and parental knowledge may in fact be also effective to show concern for the child and to construct a positive emotional family context.

SR did not mediate the association between parental behavioral control and adolescent adjustment. This might suggest that the effects of the parental behavioral control on proper internalization of SR could be perceived in the long-term. The

present findings in both phases showed that parental behavioral control predicted positive SR, which included clarity of emotions, repair of mood, reappraisal, positive reframing and SR success. Nezlek and Kuppens (2008) found that the more individuals regulated their emotions through reappraisal, the more positive affectivity and well-being they felt during daily experiences. They also found that the frequent use of reappraisal was associated with high self-esteem, an association, which was mediated via positive affect. Taken together, these might suggest that parental behavior control and the associated supervision by the parents fostered the internalization of positive SR practices through the development of other self measures. In turn, these SR strategies might become more internalized and mediate the association between parental behavior control and adjustment in other development periods.

Additionally, the present study used a number of variables to assess SR. It might have been more appropriate to perform the analysis separately with ER and SR measures. Grolnick and Farkas (2002) suggested that parental behavioral control satisfies the need for competence, which may be associated with regulation of the self more rather than the regulation of the affect. In fact, the number of AR measures in the current study overtook the number of SR variables. Although AR is a vital part of SR (e.g., Tice & Bratslavsky, 2000), the adolescents might still be co-regulating their affect with their parents or close others that might have precluded the mediating role of SR as the general category.

Finally, the effects of parenting were also observable in determining the quality of peer relations. In that sense, the parenting of each parent was important in determining the internalization of AR as proposed by Grolnick and Farkas (2002). However, the specific pathways for these relations were important in the sense that positive parenting fostered the application of positive SR strategies, whereas psychological control fostered the application of negative SR strategies. In sum, parenting by both mothers and fathers are important for the psychosocial development of adolescents as well as the quality of their peer relations.

4.9.2 The Role of Marital Conflict on Adolescent Adjustment and Parenting

Previous studies on marital conflict suggest that frequent and intense marital conflict is closely related with internalization and externalization problems in

children (Davies & Cummings, 1994; Grych & Fincham, 1990). In explaining the association between marital conflict and child problems, Davies and Cummings (1994) propose that marital conflict is a stressor effect on the children, and it lowers the threshold for children in response to negative events and Cummings and Keller (2006) showed that marital conflict lowers the social competence of the exposed children due to their higher externalization problems. Additionally, as Grych and Fincham (1990) propose, modeling the behavior of parents adds to the disturbances of the child development. In support of this conceptualization, Dadds et al (1999) showed that children adopted the parents' behaviors during conflict, and copied same interaction patterns in other social interactions (see also, Van Doorn et al., 2007; Kinsfogel & Grych, 2004). In sum, the literature documented the negative role of marital conflict on children's social adjustment especially for older children (e.g., Cummings et al., 2006).

Marital conflict also undermines to capacity to regulate affect. Cummings and Keller (2006) proposed that marital conflict also influences the ER capacity of the child by creating an overwhelming negative affectivity, which mediates the association between marital conflict and adjustment problems. Furthermore, Davies and Cummings (1994) as well as Morris et al. (2007) suggested that modeling is relevant in teaching children how to regulate affect. Although the present study did not support the mediating role of SR, it supported the direct effect of conflict on low levels of positive strategies for regulating the self. In that sense, it could be claimed that marital conflict deterred the adolescents' learning of positive strategies for regulating the self. Furthermore, it could also mean that the parents with conflictual intermarital relations did not employ these strategies, which might preclude the occurrence of conflict at the first place. Actually, Nezlek and Kuppens (2008) showed that reappraisal was related with higher positive affectivity and Salovey et al. (1995) reported that the individuals, who had high clarity of emotions and repair of mood recovered easier from negative moods, and these individuals were distressed the least after watching a disturbing video. Taken together, these findings might suggest that the adolescents did not have any role models to learn the positive strategies to regulate the self effectively. However, future studies should investigate these potential associations to reach more concrete results.

The results suggested different explanations for the findings in two phases of the study regardless of the fact that marital conflict was found to be an important determinant of all adolescent outcome measures. In the first phase, there was a significant effect of marital conflict spilling over unto parenting, especially for fathers, but the effects of modeling was more evident in analysis for the interplay between emotional family context variables and child outcomes among phases of the study. Specifically, the adolescents' externalization problems caused by marital conflict predicted second phase negative parenting. In sum, as Cox and Paley (1997) proposed , there was a significant bi-directional effect between sub-systems of the family context.

4.9.3 The Role of Attachment Security to Parents on Adolescent Adjustment and Parenting

Grolnick and colleagues (Grolnick & Farkas, 2002; Grolnick et al., 1997) proposed that the positive parent-child relationships increased the latitude of accepting parental values, and fostered the internalization of SR. Within their framework, both secure attachment to parents and parental warmth might satisfy the needs for relatedness and the positivity within relations with both parents might satisfy these needs. In the present study, the results supported their conceptualization and showed that secure attachment to both parents predicted the internalization of SR abilities, which in turn predicted adolescent internalization problems.

Thompson (2008) claimed that parental attachment was also important for the development of the other close relationships through life. The findings showed that attachment security to mother predicted anxiety in peer relationships and attachment security to fathers predicted low levels of peer attachment avoidance via positive strategies of SR. In that sense, these results supported partially the articulation of Collins and Read (1994), who proposed that the hierarchical nature of attachment representations determined a generalized form of attachment representations, which Mikulincer and Shaver (2008) conceptualized as a generalized AR style for close relationships. The fact that the adults were the focus of these conceptualizations might suggest that the adolescent period reflected a qualitatively different organization of close relationships and regulation of emotions. In that sense, these associations should be investigated further through different periods of development in order to reach a clearer picture. Finally, these findings emphasized the dominant

role of mothers as the basic caregivers, regardless the fact that attachment security to fathers was also important in this phase of development for the construction of attachment representations in other relationships such as peers.

As proposed by Thomson (2008), the domain that parental attachment influences the most was the parent-child relationships, and the current relationships between the parent and the child influence the development of the child through life. This combined with the conceptualization of Grolnick et al. (1997) suggested that the interplay between parenting and attachment security was important for the internalization of the SR. The current findings supported these frameworks, and suggested that for the healthy adolescent adjustment, the positive relationships between parent and child should be stable.

4.10 Limitations and Directions for Future Research

The current study has contributed to the available literature by portraying a more parsimonious picture of the interplay between proximal parental variables, SR and adjustment in adolescence. However, several limitations of the study should be considered in interpreting the findings. First, although this study was based on the longitudinal data from variety of reporters, the high attrition rate of parent data limited the implementation of the analysis in detail longitudinally. Second, as suggested by Kline (2005), the longitudinal data should be collected in at least three phases in order to test the stability and change between measures and the repeated measures should have longer durations between measurement phases (i.e., one year). These caveats might have limited the possibility of revealing the true nature of the interplay between emotional family context and adolescent adjustment. The future studies should focus on conducting research for longer durations, with longer intervals by using multiple reporters.

Third, there may be possible moderating and mediating relations between emotional family context variables. The main purpose of the present study was to observe parsimoniously the effects of different contributors of emotional family context on adolescent development, thus, the variables were contextualized by using reports of different participants as much as possible. However, there was in fact high correlation between the family context variables, which indicated mediating or moderating relationships between variable, thus these relationships restricted to

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conduct proper analyses. Although some probable mediating effects between first phase and second phase family context variables were investigated, the future research should focus on these mediating effects and also reveal such effects between family context variables.

Fourth, the teacher reports and school choices had some limitations. The first grade teachers in the first phase might not have known the students to rate them adequately, since it had been the first years of the adolescents. This might have reduced the correlations between the rating of the teachers and parents. Furthermore, the choice of schools represented two poles of a continuum. Namely, one was among the best high schools in Turkey, whereas the other one was a standard high school. These differences might have influenced the ratings of the teachers and the characteristics of the students. Specifically, the teachers in the standard high school might have been biased in order to save the face, and their students might have been more aggressive due to the fact that they might have lower chances in the competitive environment of the school system in Turkey. In that sense, the future research should replicate the present findings in order for them to be generalized more appropriately and correctly.

Fifth, the voluntary nature of participation and the fact that the students had to provide their school numbers might have restricted to get access to probably more risky samples. Specifically, the parents with problematic adolescents or high marital conflict might have refrained from participation, and might not have wanted their children to participate also. In fact, the findings of the current study suggested that the mothers who were low in parental monitoring as perceived by adolescents, and whose children were more aggressive, had lower participation rate in the study. Similarly, the adolescents with lower SR had participated to a lower degree in the second phase of the study. These adolescents also reported higher levels of negative parenting from their fathers. Additionally, providing information about their school numbers might have created doubts about the anonymity of the study, regardless of the fact that the participants were persuaded that their ratings would be kept confidential. In the future, it would be more appropriate to conduct rating sessions for the adolescents in two consecutive sessions rather than one. Additionally, the students should have given codes or nick names that they would feel more

comfortable with. In sum, the future studies should take precautions in order to avoid these limitations in similar research.

Finally, the culturally relevant parenting behavior and related SR abilities, and their interrelations among each other should be studied in dept and separately in the future studies. The present study was exploratory in nature to determine the interplay among parenting and specific SR abilities. Furthermore, the regulatory strategies were conceptualized within a hierarchical nature and the analyses were conducted by grouping these strategies as positive and negative. Although the available literature supported this hierarchical conceptualization of regulatory strategies, it could have been more appropriate to conduct analysis by constructing the latent variables using the sub-dimensions of each scale. Additionally, the loadings of the indicators on the latent variable of negative SR were low through analysis. In that sense, future studies should include other possible SR measures as well as ratings of diverse reporters in conducting research on culturally relevant parenting in order to determine more specific pathways that determine adolescent adjustment for a more comprehensive conceptualization.

4.10.1 Implications of the Current Research

The results of the current study are in line with the conceptualization of parenting and secure attachment to parents as the basic determinant of SR abilities. Furthermore, the findings underscored the role fathers played in influencing the development of the adolescents. In that sense, both fathers and mothers should be involved in parenting to their children, whereas the dominant role in monitoring their children lays more in the hands of mothers. Parents should also acknowledge the bi-directional influence between the adolescent problems and their involvement in more negative behaviors, thus should refrain from practicing them due to the fact that these practices may create a "snowball effect" and make the problems worse.

The nature of the adolescence as a transition period from childhood to adulthood only allows for the introjected regulation of self. Thus, families should maintain a family context, which includes the parenting behaviors as a scaffold weaved through affection, monitoring and encouragement for disclosure excluding any negativity. The schools should also enable the access of the parents to the information about their children by increasing contact with parents. In that sense, the

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schools should reinforce the parents to monitor their children without hindering their autonomy. Likewise, parents should contact with the schools and teachers of the students and inform them about the development of their children in order to realize the inadequate measures they may have exhibiting unintentionally. Such a scaffold would enable their children to pass smoothly into adulthood and to become competent and psychologically healthy adults who would be effective both in their contributions to their families and country as well as in their relationships.

Finally, the parents should acknowledge the bi-directional influence between sub-systems, such as marital relationships and the adolescent. Parents should realize that they may harm their children more than each other when they get involved in destructive behaviors towards their partners. In that sense, not only their adolescents but also themselves would benefit more if the parents try to be better role models for their children for solving disputes that are common in daily life. Otherwise, they have the possibility of disturbing their relationships with their own children in the long-term as well as disturbing the socialization of their children and render them vulnerable in the prospective close relationships that their adolescents would develop.

4.11 Conclusion

The current study extends the previous work and contributes to it by providing a detailed analysis of the emotional family context and adolescent development. First, the effects of emotional family context on adolescent psychosocial development, and the role of SR in this association were investigated. Second, the effects of parenting and attachment security on the peer relations with adolescents and adolescent socialization were examined. Third, the role of regulatory capacities on these associations was investigated. Fourth, the effects of orientation to specific attachment figures to satisfy secure base attachment needs on adolescent development were revealed. Taken together, the current study supported the important role of parent-child relationships and marital conflict as the basic determinants of self regulatory abilities and adolescent adjustment. Furthermore, the interplay between parent-child relationships, adolescents' peer relationship quality, and regulation of self were examined and the findings filled in the caveats on the nature of close relationships for this phase of development. The availability of

multiple reporters to test these associations provided more inclusive evidence and critical implications for the developmental outcomes of adolescents within proximal emotional family context.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Permission Letter

ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY
1956   06531 ANKARA-TURKEY

| **Psikoloji Bölümü** | **Tel: 90 (312) 210 31 82** |
| **Department of Psychology** | **Faks:90 (312) 210 79 75** |

Gönüllü Katılım Formu ve Veli Onay Mektubu

Sayın Veli,

Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Psikoloji Bölümü'nde Sosyal Psikoloji Doktora programı kapsamında, programın mecburi parçası olan tez çalışmalarımı yürütmekteyim. Programı başarıyla tamamlayabilmek ve "Aile İçi Ortam ve Ebeveyne Bağlanma Stillerinin Ergen Gelişimine ve Bağlanma Stillerine Etkisi" adlı tez çalışmalarımı gerçekleştirebilmek için sizin ve çocuklarınızın bazı anketleri doldurmanıza ihtiyaç duymaktayım. Tezin içeriğini, aile içi ortamın ve anne-baba tutum ve davranışlarının ergen üzerindeki etkileri ve bu etkilerin uzun dönemde aile ortamına tekrar nasıl yansıdığı oluşturmaktadır. Hedef alınan ergen gurubu Lise 1. ve 2. sınıf öğrencileridir. Tez için yapılacak olan bu araştırma iki aşamalı olup, birinci aşamada verilen anketlerin bir kısmının 9 ay sonra tekrar doldurulması gerekmektedir.

Katılmasına izin verdiğiniz takdirde çocuğunuz anketi okulda ders saatinde dolduracaktır. Anne anketleri ise size çocuğunuz aracılığıyla ulaştırılacaktır. Çocuğunuzun cevaplayacağı soruların onun psikolojik gelişimine olumsuz etkisi olmayacağından emin olabilirsiniz. Sizin ve çocuğunuzun dolduracağı anketlerde cevaplarınız kesinlikle gizli tutulacak ve bu cevaplar sadece bilimsel araştırma amacıyla kullanılacaktır. Bu formu imzaladıktan sonra hem siz hem de çocuğunuz katılımcılıktan ayrılma hakkına sahipsiniz. Araştırma sonuçlarının özeti tarafımızdan okula ulaştırılacaktır.

Anketleri doldurarak bize sağlayacağınız bilgiler ergenlerin duygusal gelişimini etkileyen faktörlerin saptanmasına önemli bir katkıda bulunacaktır. Araştırmayla ilgili sorularınızı aşağıdaki e-posta adresini veya telefon numarasını kullanarak bana yöneltebilirsiniz.

Saygılarımla,

Emine Tuna Özgüle
Psikoloji Bölümü
Sosyal Psikoloji Doktora öğrencisi
Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi, Ankara

Tel: (532) 575 29 38
e-posta: eozgule@gmail.com

Lütfen bu araştırmaya katılmak konusundaki tercihinizi aşağıdaki seçeneklerden size <u>en uygun gelenin</u> altına imzanızı atarak belirtiniz ve bu formu <u>çocuğunuzla okula geri gönderiniz</u>.

A) Bu araştırmaya tamamen **gönüllü olarak katılıyorum** ve çocuğum ....'nın da katılımcı olmasına izin veriyorum. Çalışmayı istediğim zaman yarıda kesip bırakabileceğimi biliyorum ve verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı olarak kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum.

Anne Adı-Soyadı.....................................

İmza ....

B) Bu çalışmaya katılmayı **kabul etmiyorum** ve çocuğumun ....'nın da katılımcı olmasına izin vermiyorum.

Anne Adı-Soyadı.....................................

İmza ....

APPENDIX B: Demographic Questions for Adolescents

Sevgili Gençler,

Bu araştırmanın amacı lise öğrencilerinin aile içi ilşkileri ve olası sorunlarını incelemektir. Aşağıda anneniz, babanız ve sizin hakkınızda bazı sorular sıralanmıştır. Hiçbir sorunun doğru veya yanlış cevabı yoktur. Bu nedenle size en doğru gelen cevabı, her soru kümesinin başına o küme için geçerli olan cevaplama anahtarı arasından şeçiniz ve her soru için uygun yerlere çarpı (X) ile işaretleyerek belirtiniz.

Lütfen hiçbir soruyu atlamayınız.

Katılımcının;

Cinsiyet: O Kız   O Erkek

Okulu:...............................

Sınıf:...............................

Okul Numarası:...................

Doğum Tarihi: gün/ay/yıl..................................

Sizden küçük ya da büyük kardeşiniz var mı?   O Evet Kaç tane? _____   O Hayır

Annenizin eğitim durumu nedir?

O Okuma-yazma bilmiyor   O İlkokul mezunu   O Ortaokul mezunu

O Lise mezunu   O Üniversite mezunu

Babanızın eğitim durumu nedir?

O Okuma-yazma bilmiyor   O İlkokul mezunu   O Ortaok ul mezunu

O Lise mezunu   O Üniversite mezunu

Okulda hangi alanı seçtiniz?

O   Matematik-Fen

O   Türkçe-Matematik

O   Sosyal

Okuldaki başarı durumunuz nedir? (En son karnede yazan not ortalamanızı yazınız)

Dönem notu ortalaması:_____

Matematik:_____

Türkçe   :_____

KİME YAKINIM (WHO-TO)

Aşağıda bazı durumlar tanımlanmıştır. Lütfen bu durumlarla karşılaştığınızda ilk kimin adının aklınıza geldiğini, sorunun yanındaki ilk boşluğa yakınlık derecesini de belirterek yazınız. Lütfen aklınıza gelen ikinci kişinin adını yakınlık derecesiyle beraber ikinci boşluğa yazınız.

Örneğin; **1**. Ahmet – arkadaşım

2. Hakan - babam

1. Birlikte vakit geçirmeyi en çok sevdiğin kişi kimdir?	1._____
	2._____
	3._____

2. Uzak kalmayı hiç istemeyeceğin kişi kimdir?	1._____
	2._____
	3._____

3. Kendini üzgün ya da keyifsiz hissettiğinde birlikte olmak istediğin kişi kimdir?	
	1._____
	2._____
	3._____

4. Tavsiye ve akıl danışmak için güveneceğin kişi kimdir?	1._____
	2._____
	3._____

5. İyi birşey başardığında bunu ilk söylemek isteyeceğin kişi kimdir?	
	1._____
	2._____
	3._____

6. Her zaman güvenebileceğin kişi kimdir?	1._____
	2._____
	3._____

ANNEM VE BEN-1 (EMBU, Parental Psychologcial Control and Comparison Scales)

Aşağıda, anneniz olan ilişkileriniz hakkında cümleler verilmiştir. Her bir cümlede anlatılan durumu ne sıklıkla yaşadığınızı 7 aralıklı ölçek üzerinde, ilgili yuvarlak üzerine çarpı (X) koyarak gösteriniz.. Hiçbir maddenin doğru ya da yanlış cevabı yoktur. Önemli olan her cümle ile ilgili olarak kendi durumunuzu doğru bir şekilde yansıtmanızdır. Annenizi kaybetmişseniz yetişmenizde en çok katkısı olan kişiyi göz önüne alınız.

Aşağıdaki maddeleri <u>annenizle ilişkinizi</u> göz önünde bulundurarak doldurunuz.

1----------------2---------------3---------------4---------------5--------------6
Hiçbir zaman   Nadiren   Bazen   Ara sıra   Sık sık   Her zaman

1. Annem sıkıntılı olduğumu söylemeden anlar.   ○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

2. Annem aldığım sonuçtan çok diğerlerine göre nerede olduğumu merak eder.   ○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

3. Başladığım bir işi başardığımda annemin benimle gurur duyduğunu hissederim.   ○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

4. Annem küçük şeyler için bile beni sert bir şekilde cezalandırır.   ○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

5. Annem bana kızdığında kendisinin de üzüldüğünü hissederim.   ○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

6. Annem kötü bir şey yaptığımda hemen kızmaz, nedenini anlamaya çalışır.   ○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

7. Annem kötü bir şey yaptığımda bunu surat asarak veya başka bir yolla öyle belli ederdi ki kendimi gerçekten suçlu hissederim.   ○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

8. Annem yaptıklarıyla bana kendimden utanmam gerektiğini hissettirir.   ○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

9. Annem arkadaşlarımın içinde en iyisi olmam için beni zorlar.   ○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

10. Annemin bana hak ettiğimden daha fazla vurduğu ya da ceza verdiği olur.   ○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

1--------------2---------------3--------------4--------------5--------------6					
Hiçbir zaman	**Nadiren**	**Bazen**	**Ara sıra**	**Sık sık**	**Her zaman**

11. İşlerim kötü gittiğinde, annem beni rahatlatmaya ve yüreklendirmeye çalışır.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

12. Annem bana ailenin günah keçisi (her konuda suçlanacak insan) muamelesi yapar.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

13. Annem çocukluk yıllarımın keyif verici ve öğretici geçmesine çalışır (tatile, akrabalara, kursa göndermek, bana güzel kitaplar almak vs. gibi davranışlarla).
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

14. Annem beni derslerim konusunda arkadaşlarımla karşılaştırır.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

15. Annem beni takdir eder ya da ödüllendirir.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

16. Annem beni herkesin içinde eleştirir, tembel ve işe yaramaz olduğumu söyler.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

17. Annemin kardeş(ler)imi (benden küçük ya da büyük) benden daha çok sevdiğini hissederim.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

18. Annemle aramda sıcaklık ve sevecenlik var.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

19. Annem sözleri ve hareketleriyle beni sevdiğini gösterir.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

20. Annem başka çocukları bana örnek gösterir.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

21. Annemin nedenini söylemeden bana kızgın ya da ters davrandığı olur.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

22. Annem beni derslerim konusunda kardeş(ler)imle veya akraba çocuklarıyla karşılaştırır.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

23. Annem, ben birşey söylerken konuyu değiştirir.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

24. Annem ben konuşurken sözümü keser.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

| Hiçbir zaman | Nadiren | Bazen | Ara sıra | Sık sık | Her zaman |

25. Annem ben konuşurken bitirmemi beklemeden cümlemi tamamlar.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

26. Annem bazı konulardaki hislerimi ve düşüncelerimi değiştirmeye çalışır.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

27. Annem ne hissettiğimi ya da düşündüğümü biliyormuş gibi davranır.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

28. Annem çoğu konuda ne düşüneceğimi, nasıl hissetmem gerektiğini söylemekten hoşlanır.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

29. Annem beni eleştirirken geçmişte yaptığım hataları hatırlatıp durur.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

30. Annem yaptığım bazı davranışların "aptalca, ahmakça" olduğunu söyler.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

31. Annem ailedeki diğer kişilerin sorunları için beni suçlar.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

32. Annem bana karşı sabırsız davranır.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

33. Ben etraftayken, annem birden parlar, duygusal davranışlar gösterir.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

34. Annem bana karşı bazen sıcak davranırken bazen de şikayet edip durur.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

35. Annem sorular sorup, onu rahatsız etmemden hoşlanmaz.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

36. Annem benimle birlikteyken huysuzlaşır, ruh hali değişir.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

37. Annem benimleyken kolaylıkla sabrı taşar.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

38. Annemi hayal kırıklığına uğrattığımda, beni görmezden gelmeye çalışır.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

39. Annemin dikkatini çekmeye çalışırken beni görmezden gelir.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

Hiçbir zaman   Nadiren   Bazen   Ara sıra   Sık sık   Her zaman

40. Annemi üzdüğümde onu memnun edene kadar benimle konuşmaz.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

41. Annem aynı fikirde olmadığımda bana karşı soğuk ve daha az samimi davranır.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

42. Annemin ben konuşurken bana pek dikkatini vermediğini düşünürüm.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

43. Annemi hayal kırıklığına uğrattığımda bunu bana hissettirir.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

44. Annem benim onun çocukluğunda olduğu kadar iyi olmadığımı söyleyip durur.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

45. Annem bana kızdığı zaman bunu bana hissettirir.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

46. Annem, benim için ne kadar çok çalışıp yorulduğunu söyler durur.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

47. Annem"benim ne hissettiğime önem verseydin beni üzecek bu şeyleri yapmazdın"vb. der.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

48. Annem yaptığı herşeyi benim için yaptığını hatırlatıp durur.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

49. Annem ben yanlış davrandığımda hayal kırıklığını gösterir.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

50. Annem, kötü davranışlarımdan, yaramazlıklarımdan utanmam gerektiğini söyler durur.   ○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık
○ Her zaman

51. Beklentilerini yerine getirmediğimde annem kendisini utandırdığını söyler.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

52. Annem yanlış davrandığım her zaman cezalandırılacağımı söyler.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

53. Ben yanlış davrandığım zaman annem hayal kırıklığına uğradığını söyler.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

54. Annem diğer çocuklar kadar iyi olmadığımı söyler durur.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

ANNEM VE BEN-2 (Parental Behavioral Control Scale)

Aşağıda annelerin çocukları hakkında ne kadar bilgi sahibi olduğuna ilişkin sorular bulunmaktadır. Sizden **annenizi** düşünerek bu ifadelerin sizin için ne derece geçerli olduğunu cevaplandırmanız istenmektedir. Lütfen hiçbir soruyu boş bırakmayınız. Cevaplarınızı size en çok uyan altı seçenekten biri önündeki yuvarlağa çarpı (X) koyarak belirtiniz.

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

| Hiçbir zaman | Nadiren | Bazen | Ara sıra | Sık sık | Her zaman |

1. Annen kiminle zaman geçirdiğini bilir mi?
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

2. Annen boş zamanlarını nasıl geçirdiğini bilir mi?
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

3. Annen paranı nelere, nasıl harcadığını bilir mi?
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

4. Annen okuldan sonra nereye gittiğini bilir mi?
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

5. Annen haftasonu ve tatillerde ne yaptığını bilir mi?
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

6. Annen okulda yaşadığın sorunları bilir mi?
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

7. Bir yere gitmek için ayrıldığında annene ya da başka bir büyüğüne nereye gittiğini söyler misin?
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

8. Arkadaşlarınla dışarıya çıktığında annene kaçta evde olacağını söyler misin?
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

9. Annen evde olmadığında ve senin evden çıkman gerekiyorsa nereye gittiğini söylemek için ona not bırakır ya da telefon eder misin?
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

10. Annen evde olmadığında ona nasıl ulaşacağını bilir misin?
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

11. Annen hangi derslerden ödevin olduğunu bilir mi?
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

1----------------2----------------3----------------4---------------5---------------6					
Hiçbir zaman	**Nadiren**	**Bazen**	**Ara sıra**	**Sık sık**	**Her zaman**

12. Annen derslerin hakkında öğretmenlerin ile görüşür mü?
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

13. Annen sınav sonuçlarını, önemli ödevlerini bilir mi?
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

14. Annen senin farklı derslerdeki durumunu ve başarını bilir mi?
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

15. Annene okulda derslerinin nasıl gittiğini söyler misin?
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

16. Annene okulda gününün nasıl geçtiğini anlatır mısın? (örneğin, sınavlarının nasıl geçtiğini, öğretmenlerinle aranın nasıl olduğunu vb.)
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

17. Annenle boş zamanlarında yaptıkların hakkında konuşur musun?
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

18. Arkadaşlarınla zaman geçirip eve geldiğinde neler yaptığını annene anlatır mısın?
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

19. Annenle arkadaşların hakkında konuşur musun?
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

20. Arkadaşların size geldiğinde annen onlarla konuşur mu?
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

ANNEM VE BEN-3 (Kern's Security Scale)

Aşağıda gençlerin annelerine karşı bazı düşünceler tanımlanmıştır. Her bir cümle için **sadece bir tane kutucuğu işaretleyeceksiniz. Ancak bu anketin biraz farklı bir yolla doldurulması gerekiyor. Aşağıdaki sorularda, "AMA" yazan kutunun hemen sağında ve solunda iki genç tanımlanmaktadır. Önce bunları okuyun ve hangisine daha çok benzediğinize karar verin. Sonra da seçtiğiniz tarafa gidin. Bu gence çok benziyorsanız "Bana çok benziyor" kutucuğunu", biraz benziyorsanız "Bana biraz benziyor" kutucuğunu işaretleyiniz.**

1.

Bana çok benziyor ☐	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bazı gençler annelerine **kolayca güvenirler**.	**AMA**	Bazı gençler annelerine **güvenip güvenemeyecekleri konusunda emin değildirler**.	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bana çok benziyor ☐

2.

Bana çok benziyor ☐	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bazı gençler **yaptıkları her şeye annelerinin çok karıştığını** düşünürler.	**AMA**	Bazı gençler **kendi başlarına bir şeyler yapmalarına annelerinin izin verdiğini** düşünürler.	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bana çok benziyor ☐

3.

Bana çok benziyor ☐	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bazı gençler için annelerinin yardım edeceğine inanmak **kolaydır**.	**AMA**	Bazı gençler için annelerinin yardım edeceğine inanmak **zordur**.	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bana çok benziyor ☐

4.

Bana çok benziyor ☐	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bazı gençler annelerinin onlarla yeterince zaman **geçirdiğini** düşünürler.	**AMA**	Bazı gençler annelerinin onlarla yeterince zaman **geçirmediğini** düşünürler.	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bana çok benziyor ☐

5.

Bana çok benziyor ☐	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bazı gençler annelerine ne düşündüklerini veya hissettiklerini söylemekten **pek hoşlanmazlar**.	**AMA**	Bazı gençler annelerine ne düşündüklerini veya hissettiklerini söylemekten **hoşlanırlar**.	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bana çok benziyor ☐

6.

Bana çok benziyor ☐	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bazı gençler her şeyde annelerine **ihtiyaç duymaz**.	**AMA**	Bazı gençler annelerine hemen hemen her şey için **ihtiyaç duyar.**	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bana çok benziyor ☐

7.

Bana çok benziyor ☐	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bazı gençler **"Keşke anneme daha yakın olabilseydim"** derler.	**AMA**	Bazı gençler **annelerine olan yakınlıklarıyla mutludurlar.**	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bana çok benziyor ☐

8.

Bana çok benziyor ☐	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bazı gençler **annelerinin onları gerçekten sevmediğinden** endişe duyarlar.	**AMA**	Bazı gençler **annelerinin onları sevdiğinden emindirler.**	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bana çok benziyor ☐

9.

Bana çok benziyor ☐	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bazı gençler annelerinin onları **anladığını** hissederler.	**AMA**	Bazı gençler annelerinin onları **anlamadığını** hissederler.	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bana çok benziyor ☐

10.

Bana çok benziyor ☐	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bazı gençler annelerinin onları terk etmeyeceğinden **gerçekten emindirler.**	**AMA**	Bazı gençler annelerinin onları terk edebileceğinden **bazen endişelenirler.**	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bana çok benziyor ☐

11.

Bana çok benziyor ☐	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bazı gençler ihtiyaç duyduklarında annelerinin **yanlarında olamayacağını düşünerek endişelenirler.**	**AMA**	Bazı gençler ihtiyaç duyduklarında annelerinin **yanlarında olacağından emindirler.**	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bana çok benziyor ☐

12.

Bana çok benziyor ☐	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bazı gençler annelerinin kendilerini **dinlemediğini** düşünürler.	**AMA**	Bazı gençler annelerinin onları **gerçekten dinlediğini** düşünürler.	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bana çok benziyor ☐

13.

Bana çok benziyor ☐	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bazı gençler üzgün olduklarında annelerinin **yanına giderler.**	**AMA**	Bazı gençler üzgün olduklarında annelerinin **yanına pek gitmezler.**	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bana çok benziyor ☐

14.

Bana çok benziyor ☐	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bazı gençler **"Keşke annem sorunlarımla daha çok ilgilense"** derler.	**AMA**	Bazı gençler **annelerinin onlara yeterince yardım ettiğini** düşünürler.	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bana çok benziyor ☐

15.

Bana çok benziyor ☐	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bazı gençler anneleri etrafta olduğunda **kendilerini daha iyi hissederler.**	**AMA**	Bazı gençler anneleri etrafta olduğunda **kendilerini daha iyi hissetmezler.**	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bana çok benziyor ☐

BABAM VE BEN-1 (EMBU, Parental Psychological Control and Comparison Scales)

Aşağıda, babanızla olan ilişkileriniz hakkında cümleler verilmiştir. Her bir cümlede anlatılan durumu ne sıklıkla yaşadığınızı 7 aralıklı ölçek üzerinde, ilgili yuvarlak üzerine çarpı (X) koyarak gösteriniz.. Hiçbir maddenin doğru ya da yanlış cevabı yoktur. Önemli olan her cümle ile ilgili olarak kendi durumunuzu doğru bir şekilde yansıtmanızdır. Babanızı kaybetmişseniz yetişmenizde en çok katkısı olan kişiyi göz önüne alınız.

Aşağıdaki maddeleri <u>babanızla ilişkinizi</u> göz önünde bulundurarak doldurunuz.

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

| Hiçbir zaman | Nadiren | Bazen | Ara sıra | Sık sık | Her zaman |

1. Babam sıkıntılı olduğumu söylemeden anlar.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

2. Babam aldığım sonuçtan çok diğerlerine göre nerede olduğumu merak eder.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

3. Başladığım bir işi başardığımda babamın benimle gurur duyduğunu hissederim.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

4. Babam küçük şeyler için bile beni sert bir şekilde cezalandırırdı.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

5. Babam bana kızdığında kendisinin de üzüldüğünü hissederim.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

6. Babam kötü bir şey yaptığımda hemen kızmaz, nedenini anlamaya çalışır.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

7. Babam kötü bir şey yaptığımda bunu surat asarak veya başka bir yolla öyle belli eder ki kendimi gerçekten suçlu hissederim.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

8. Babam yaptıklarıyla bana kendimden utanmam gerektiğini hissettirir.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

9. Babam arkadaşlarımın içinde en iyisi olmam için beni zorlar.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

10. Babamın bana hak ettiğimden daha fazla vurduğu ya da ceza verdiği olur.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

11. İşlerim kötü gittiğinde, babam beni rahatlatmaya ve yüreklendirmeye çalışır.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

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

Hiçbir zaman   Nadiren   Bazen   Ara sıra   Sık sık   Her zaman

12. Babam bana ailenin günah keçisi (her konuda suçlanacak insan) muamelesi yapar.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

13. Babam çocukluk yıllarımın keyif verici ve öğretici geçmesine çalışır (tatile, akrabalara, kursa göndermek, bana güzel kitaplar almak vs. gibi davranışlarla).
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

14. Babam beni derslerim konusunda arkadaşlarımla karşılaştırır.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

15. Babam beni takdir eder ya da ödüllendirir.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

16. Babam beni herkesin içinde eleştirir, tembel ve işe yaramaz olduğumu söyler.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

17. Babamin kardeş(ler)imi (benden küçük ya da büyük) benden daha çok sevdiğini hissederim.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

18. Babamla aramda sıcaklık ve sevecenlik var.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

19. Babam sözleri ve hareketleriyle beni sevdiğini gösterir.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

20. Babam başka çocukları bana örnek gösterir.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

21. Babamin nedenini söylemeden bana kızgın ya da ters davrandığı olur.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

22. Babam beni derslerim konusunda kardeş(ler)imle veya akraba çocuklarıyla karşılaştırır.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

23. Babam, ben birşey söylerken konuyu değiştirir.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

24. Babam ben konuşurken sözümü keser.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

25. Babam ben konuşurken bitirmemi beklemeden cümlemi tamamlar.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

1---------------2-------------3-------------4-------------5-------------6
Hiçbir zaman   Nadiren   Bazen   Ara sıra   Sık sık   Her zaman

26. Babam bazı konulardaki hislerimi ve düşüncelerimi değiştirmeye çalışır.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

27. Babam ne hissettiğimi ya da düşündüğümü biliyormuş gibi davranır.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

28. Babam çoğu konuda ne düşüneceğimi, nasıl hissetmem gerektiğini söylemekten hoşlanır.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

29. Babam beni eleştirirken geçmişte yaptığım hataları hatırlatıp durur.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

30. Babam yaptığım bazı davranışların "aptalca, ahmakça" olduğunu söyler.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

31. Babam ailedeki diğer kişilerin sorunları için beni suçlar.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

32. Babam bana karşı sabırsız davranır.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

33. Ben etraftayken, babam birden parlar, duygusal davranışlar gösterir.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

34. Babam bana karşı bazen sıcak davranırken bazen de şikayet edip durur.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

35. Babam sorular sorup, onu rahatsız etmemden hoşlanmaz.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

36. Babam benimle birlikteyken huysuzlaşır, ruh hali değişir.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

37. Babam benimleyken kolaylıkla sabrı taşar.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

38. Babamı hayal kırıklığına uğrattığımda, beni görmezden gelmeye çalışır.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

39. Babamın dikkatini çekmeye çalışırken beni görmezden gelir.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

40. Babamı üzdüğümde onu memnun edene kadar benimle konuşmaz.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

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

Hiçbir zaman   Nadiren   Bazen   Ara sıra   Sık sık   Her zaman

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41. Babam aynı fikirde olmadığımda bana karşı soğuk ve daha az samimi davranır.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

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42. Babamın ben konuşurken bana pek dikkatini vermediğini düşünürüm.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

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43. Babamı hayal kırıklığına uğrattığımda bunu bana hissettirir.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

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44. Babam benim onun çocukluğunda olduğu kadar iyi olmadığımı söyleyip durur.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

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45. Babam bana kızdığı zaman bunu bana hissettirir.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

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46. Babam, benim için ne kadar çok çalışıp yorulduğunu söyler durur.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

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47. Babam "benim ne hissettiğime önem verseydin beni üzecek bu şeyleri yapmazdın"vb. der.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

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48. Babam yaptığı herşeyi benim için yaptığını hatırlatıp durur.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

---

49. Babam ben yanlış davrandığımda hayal kırıklığını gösterir.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

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50. Babam, kötü davranışlarımdan, yaramazlıklarımdan utanmam gerektiğini söyler durur.   ○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık
○ Her zaman

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51. Beklentilerini yerine getirmediğimde babam kendisini utandırdığını söyler.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

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52. Babam yanlış davrandığım her zaman cezalandırılacağımı söyler.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

---

53. Ben yanlış davrandığım zaman babam hayal kırıklığına uğradığını söyler.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

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54. Babam diğer çocuklar kadar iyi olmadığımı söyler durur.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

BABAM VE BEN-2 (Parental Behavioral Control Scale)

Aşağıda babaların çocukları hakkında ne kadar bilgi sahibi olduğuna ilişkin sorular bulunmaktadır. Sizden **babanızı** düşünerek bu ifadelerin sizin için ne derece geçerli olduğunu cevaplandırmanız istenmektedir. Lütfen hiçbir soruyu boş bırakmayınız. Cevaplarınızı size en çok uyan altı seçenekten biri önündeki yuvarlağa çarpı (X) koyarak belirtiniz.

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

| Hiçbir zaman | Nadiren | Bazen | Ara sıra | Sık sık | Her zaman |

---

1. Baban kiminle zaman geçirdiğini bilir mi?
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○ Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

---

2. Baban boş zamanlarını nasıl geçirdiğini bilir mi?
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○ Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

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3. Baban paranı nelere, nasıl harcadığını bilir mi?
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○ Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

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4. Baban okuldan sonra nereye gittiğini bilir mi?
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○ Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

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5. Baban haftasonu ve tatillerde ne yaptığını bilir mi?
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○ Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

---

6. Baban okulda yaşadığın sorunları bilir mi?
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○ Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

---

7. Bir yere gitmek için ayrıldığında babana ya da başka bir büyüğüne nereye gittiğini söyler misin?
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○ Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

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8. Arkadaşlarınla dışarıya çıktığında babana kaçta evde olacağını söyler misin?
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○ Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

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9. Baban evde olmadığında ve senin evden çıkman gerekiyorsa nereye gittiğini söylemek için ona not bırakır ya da telefon eder misin?
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○ Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

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10. Baban evde olmadığında ona nasıl ulaşacağını bilir misin?
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○ Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

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11. Baban hangi derslerden ödevin olduğunu bilir mi?
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○ Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

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

Hiçbir zaman   Nadiren   Bazen   Ara sıra   Sık sık   Her zaman

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12. Baban derslerin hakkında öğretmenlerin ile görüşür mü?
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

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13. Baban sınav sonuçlarını, önemli ödevlerini bilir mi?
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

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14. Baban senin farklı derslerdeki durumunu ve başarını bilir mi?
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

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15. Babana okulda derslerinin nasıl gittiğini söyler misin?
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

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16. Babana okulda gününün nasıl geçtiğini anlatır mısın? (örneğin, sınavlarının nasıl geçtiğini, öğretmenlerinle aranın nasıl olduğunu vb.)
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

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17. Babanla boş zamanlarında yaptıkların hakkında konuşur musun?
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

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18. Arkadaşlarınla zaman geçirip eve geldiğinde neler yaptığını babana anlatır mısın?
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

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19. Babanla arkadaşların hakkında konuşur musun?
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

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20. Arkadaşların size geldiğinde baban onlarla konuşur mu?
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

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BABAM VE BEN-3 (Kern's Security Scale)

Aşağıda gençlerin babalarına karşı bazı düşünceler tanımlanmıştır. Her bir cümle için **sadece bir tane kutucuğu işaretleyeceksiniz. Ancak bu anketin biraz farklı bir yolla doldurulması gerekiyor. Aşağıdaki sorularda, "AMA" yazan kutunun hemen sağında ve solunda iki genç tanımlanmaktadır. Önce bunları okuyun ve hangisine daha çok benzediğinize karar verin. Sonra da seçtiğiniz tarafa gidin. Bu gençe çok benziyorsanız "Bana çok benziyor" kutucuğunu", biraz benziyorsanız "Bana biraz benziyor" kutucuğunu işaretleyiniz.**

1.

Bana çok benziyor ☐	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bazı gençler babalarına **kolayca güvenirler**.	AMA	Bazı gençler babalarına **güvenip güvenemeyecekleri konusunda emin değildirler**.	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bana çok benziyor ☐

2.

Bana çok benziyor ☐	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bazı gençler **yaptıkları her şeye babalarının çok karıştığını düşünürler**.	AMA	Bazı gençler **kendi başlarına bir şeyler yapmalarına babalarının izin verdiğini düşünürler**.	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bana çok benziyor ☐

3.

Bana çok benziyor ☐	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bazı gençler için babalarının yardım edeceğine inanmak **kolaydır**.	AMA	Bazı gençler için babalarının yardım edeceğine inanmak **zordur**.	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bana çok benziyor ☐

4.

Bana çok benziyor ☐	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bazı gençler babalarının onlarla yeterince zaman **geçirdiğini** düşünürler.	AMA	Bazı gençler babalarının onlarla yeterince zaman **geçirmediğini** düşünürler.	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bana çok benziyor ☐

5.

Bana çok benziyor ☐	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bazı gençler babalarına ne düşündüklerini veya hissettiklerini söylemekten **pek hoşlanmazlar**.	AMA	Bazı gençler babalarına ne düşündüklerini veya hissettiklerini söylemekten **hoşlanırlar**.	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bana çok benziyor ☐

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6.

Bana çok benziyor ☐	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bazı gençler her şeyde babalarına **ihtiyaç duymaz**.	**AMA**	Bazı gençler babalarına hemen hemen her şey için **ihtiyaç duyar.**	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bana çok benziyor ☐

7.

Bana çok benziyor ☐	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bazı gençler **"Keşke babama daha yakın olabilseydim"** derler.	**AMA**	Bazı gençler **babalarına olan yakınlıklarıyla mutludurlar.**	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bana çok benziyor ☐

8.

Bana çok benziyor ☐	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bazı gençler **babalarının onları gerçekten sevmediğinden** endişe duyarlar.	**AMA**	Bazı gençler **babalarının onları sevdiğinden emindirler.**	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bana çok benziyor ☐

9.

Bana çok benziyor ☐	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bazı gençler babalarının onları **anladığını** hissederler.	**AMA**	Bazı gençler babalarının onları **anlamadığını** hissederler.	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bana çok benziyor ☐

10.

Bana çok benziyor ☐	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bazı gençler babalarının onları terk etmeyece-ğinden **gerçekten emindirler.**	**AMA**	Bazı gençler babalarının onları terk edebileceğinden **bazen endişelenirler.**	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bana çok benziyor ☐

11.

Bana çok benziyor ☐	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bazı gençler ihtiyaç duyduklarında babalarının **yanlarında olamayacağını düşünerek endişelenirler.**	**AMA**	Bazı gençler ihtiyaç duyduklarında babalarının **yanlarında olacağından emindirler.**	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bana çok benziyor ☐

12.

Bana çok benziyor ☐	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bazı gençler babalarının kendilerini **dinlemediğini** düşünürler.	**AMA**	Bazı gençler babalarının onları **gerçekten dinlediğini** düşünürler.	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bana çok benziyor ☐

13.

Bana çok benziyor ☐	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bazı gençler üzgün olduklarında babalarının **yanına giderler.**	**AMA**	Bazı gençler üzgün olduklarında babalarının **yanına pek gitmezler.**	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bana çok benziyor ☐

14.

Bana çok benziyor ☐	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bazı gençler **"Keşke babam sorunlarımla daha çok ilgilense"** derler.	**AMA**	Bazı gençler **babalarının onlara yeterince yardım ettiğini** düşünürler.	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bana çok benziyor ☐

15.

Bana çok benziyor ☐	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bazı gençler anneleri etrafta olduğunda **kendilerini daha iyi hissederler.**	**AMA**	Bazı gençler anneleri etrafta olduğunda **kendilerini daha iyi hissetmezler.**	Bana biraz benziyor ☐	Bana çok benziyor ☐

AİLE İÇİ İLİŞKİLER-3 (Children's Perception of Interparental Conflict)

Her ailede anne-babaların anlaşamadığı zamanlar olur. Aşağıdaki cümleler, anne-babaları tartıştığında çocukların düşündüğü veya hissettiği şeylerle ilgilidir. Lütfen aşağıdaki her cümle için sizin için en doğru olan tek bir seçeneği işaretleyiniz. Seçenekler **DOĞRU**'dan **YANLIŞ**'a doğru devam etmektedir.

1--------------------------2--------------------------3----------------------------4

Tamamen doğru   Oldukça doğru   Biraz doğru   Tamamen yanlış

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1. Annemle babamın tartıştıklarını hiç görmedim.
○ Tamamen doğru   ○ Oldukça doğru   ○ Biraz doğru   ○ Tamamen yanlış

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2. Annemle babam tartıştıklarında genellikle sorunu çözerler.
○ Tamamen doğru   ○ Oldukça doğru   ○ Biraz doğru   ○ Tamamen yanlış

---

3. Annemle babam tartışırken çıldırmış gibi olurlar.
○ Tamamen doğru   ○ Oldukça doğru   ○ Biraz doğru   .○ Tamamen yanlış

---

4. Annemle babam tartıştıklarında moralimi düzeltecek bir şeyler yapabilirim.
○ Tamamen doğru   ○ Oldukça doğru   ○ Biraz doğru   ○ Tamamen yanlış

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5. Annemle babamın tartışmaları bittikten sonra bile birbirlerine olan kızgınlıkları devam eder.
○ Tamamen doğru   ○ Oldukça doğru   ○ Biraz doğru   ○ Tamamen yanlış

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6. Annemle babam bir anlaşmazlıkları olduğunda sakince konuşurlar.
○ Tamamen doğru   ○ Oldukça doğru   ○ Biraz doğru   ○ Tamamen yanlış

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7. Annemle babam yanlarında ben olsam bile birbirlerine sık sık kötü davranırlar.
○ Tamamen doğru   ○ Oldukça doğru   ○ Biraz doğru   ○ Tamamen yanlış

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8. Annemle babamı sık sık tartışırken görürüm.
○ Tamamen doğru   ○ Oldukça doğru   ○ Biraz doğru   ○ Tamamen yanlış

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9. Annemle babam bir konu hakkında anlaşamadıklarında genellikle bir çözüm bulurlar.
○ Tamamen doğru   ○ Oldukça doğru   ○ Biraz doğru   ○ Tamamen yanlış

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10. Annemle babam tartıştıklarında birbirlerine kötü sözler söylerler.
○ Tamamen doğru   ○ Oldukça doğru   ○ Biraz doğru   ○ Tamamen yanlış

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11. Annemle babam tartıştıklarında genellikle durumu düzeltmelerine yardım edebilirim.
○ Tamamen doğru   ○ Oldukça doğru   ○ Biraz doğru   ○ Tamamen yanlış

---

12. Annemle babam çok az tartışırlar.
○ Tamamen doğru   ○ Oldukça doğru   ○ Biraz doğru   ○ Tamamen yanlış

1---------------------------2---------------------------3---------------------------4
Tamamen doğru   **Oldukça doğru**   **Biraz doğru**   **Tamamen yanlış**

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13. Annemle babam tartıştıklarında genellikle hemen barışırlar.
○ Tamamen doğru   ○ Oldukça doğru   ○ Biraz doğru   ○ Tamamen yanlış

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14. Annemle babam tartışırken birbirlerine bağırırlar.
○ Tamamen doğru   ○ Oldukça doğru   ○ Biraz doğru   ○ Tamamen yanlış

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15. Annemle babam tartışırken hemen hemen hiç bağırmazlar.
○ Tamamen doğru   ○ Oldukça doğru   ○ Biraz doğru   ○ Tamamen yanlış

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16. Annemle babamın tartışmaları bittikten sonra birbirlerine arkadaşça davranırlar.
○ Tamamen doğru   ○ Oldukça doğru   ○ Biraz doğru   ○ Tamamen yanlış

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17. Annemle babam tartışmaları bittikten sonra birbirlerine kötü davranmaya devam ederler.
○ Tamamen doğru   ○ Oldukça doğru   ○ Biraz doğru   ○ Tamamen yanlış

NASIL HİSSEDİYORUM-1 (Trait Meta-Mood Scale)

Aşağıda insanların duygular hakkındaki inanç ve tutumları verilmiştir. Lütfen her durumu dikkatlice okuyunuz ve her birinin sizin için ne kadar doğru olduğunu içtenlikle yanıtlayınız. Yanıtınızı uygun cevap önündeki yuvarlak üzerine çarpı (X) koyarak işaretleyiniz.

```
1----------------2----------------3----------------4----------------5----------------6
  Hiç          Çok az         Bazen         Kısmen        Oldukça       Tamamen
doğru değil     doğru         doğru         doğru         doğru         doğru
```

1. Ne kadar kötü hissedersem edeyim, iyi şeyler düşünmeye çalışırım.	
○ Hiç doğru değil ○ Çok az doğru ○Bazen doğru ○ Kısmen doğru ○ Oldukça doğru ○ Tamamen doğru	

2. Şayet insanlar daha az hissedip daha çok düşünselerdi daha iyi durumda olurlardı.
○ Hiç doğru değil ○ Çok az doğru ○Bazen doğru ○ Kısmen doğru ○ Oldukça doğru ○ Tamamen doğru

3. Duygulara veya ruh haline dikkat etmenin değerli (önemli) olduğunu düşünmüyorum.
○ Hiç doğru değil ○ Çok az doğru ○Bazen doğru ○ Kısmen doğru ○ Oldukça doğru ○ Tamamen doğru

4. Genellikle ne hissettiğimi önemsemem.
○ Hiç doğru değil ○ Çok az doğru ○Bazen doğru ○ Kısmen doğru ○ Oldukça doğru ○ Tamamen doğru

5. Bazen duygularımın ne olduğunu anlayamam.
○ Hiç doğru değil ○ Çok az doğru ○Bazen doğru ○ Kısmen doğru ○ Oldukça doğru ○ Tamamen doğru

6. Nasıl ya da ne hissettiğim konusunda kafam pek karışmaz.
○ Hiç doğru değil ○ Çok az doğru ○Bazen doğru ○ Kısmen doğru ○ Oldukça doğru ○ Tamamen doğru

7. Duygular hayata yön verir.
○ Hiç doğru değil ○ Çok az doğru ○Bazen doğru ○ Kısmen doğru ○ Oldukça doğru ○ Tamamen doğru

8. Bazen üzgün olsam da çoğu kez iyimser bir bakış açım vardır.
○ Hiç doğru değil ○ Çok az doğru ○Bazen doğru ○ Kısmen doğru ○ Oldukça doğru ○ Tamamen doğru

9. Üzgün olduğum zamanlarda hayattaki iyi şeylerin aldatıcı (yanılsama) olduğunun farkına varırım.
○ Hiç doğru değil ○ Çok az doğru ○Bazen doğru ○ Kısmen doğru ○ Oldukça doğru ○ Tamamen doğru

1----------------2---------------3---------------4---------------5---------------6					
Hiç **doğru değil**	**Çok az** **doğru**	**Bazen** **doğru**	**Kısmen** **doğru**	**Oldukça** **doğru**	**Tamamen** **doğru**

10. İçten davranmaya inanırım.

○ Hiç doğru değil   ○ Çok az doğru   ○ Bazen doğru   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Oldukça doğru   ○ Tamamen doğru

11. Nasıl hissettiğimi hiç bir zaman anlayamam.

○ Hiç doğru değil   ○ Çok az doğru   ○ Bazen doğru   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Oldukça doğru   ○ Tamamen doğru

12. Benim için duygularımla başetmenin en iyi yolu onları bütünüyle yaşamaktır.

○ Hiç değil doğru   ○ Çok az doğru   ○ Bazen doğru   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Oldukça doğru   ○ Tamamen doğru

13. Üzgün olduğumda ya da keyfim kaçtığında kendime hayatın zevklerini ya da başıma gelen iyi şeyleri hatırlatırım.

○ Hiç doğru değil   ○ Çok az doğru   ○ Bazen doğru   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Oldukça doğru   ○ Tamamen doğru

14. İnançlarım ve görüşlerim sanki her zaman nasıl hissettiğime göre değişiyor.

○ Hiç doğru değil   ○ Çok az doğru   ○ Bazen doğru   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Oldukça doğru   ○ Tamamen doğru

15. Bir konu hakkındaki duygularımın çoğunlukla farkındayımdır.

○ Hiç doğru değil   ○ Çok az doğru   ○ Bazen doğru   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Oldukça doğru   ○ Tamamen doğru

16. Nasıl ve ne hissettiğim konusunda genellikle kafam karışıktır.

○ Hiç doğru değil   ○ Çok az doğru   ○ Bazen doğru   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Oldukça doğru   ○ Tamamen doğru

17. Kişi hiçbir zaman duyguları tarafından yönlendirilmemelidir.

○ Hiç değil doğru   ○ Çok az doğru   ○ Bazen doğru   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Oldukça doğru   ○ Tamamen doğru

18. Hiçbir zaman duygularıma teslim olmam.

○ Hiç doğru değil   ○ Çok az doğru   ○ Bazen doğru   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Oldukça doğru   ○ Tamamen doğru

19. Bazen mutlu olsam da çoğunlukla kötümser bir bakış açım vardır.

○ Hiç doğru değil   ○ Çok az doğru   ○ Bazen doğru   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Oldukça doğru   ○ Tamamen doğru

20. Duygularım hakkında kendimi rahat hissederim (duygularımla barışığım).

○ Hiç doğru değil   ○ Çok az doğru   ○ Bazen doğru   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Oldukça doğru   ○ Tamamen doğru

21. Nasıl ve ne hissettiğime çok dikkat ederim.

○ Hiç doğru değil   ○ Çok az doğru   ○ Bazen doğru   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Oldukça doğru   ○ Tamamen doğru

1----------------2----------------3----------------4----------------5----------------6					
Hiç	**Çok az**	**Bazen**	**Kısmen**	**Oldukça**	**Tamamen**
doğru değil	**doğru**	**doğru**	**doğru**	**doğru**	**doğru**

22. Duygularıma pek bir anlam veremem.

○ Hiç	○ Çok az	○ Bazen	○ Kısmen	○ Oldukça	○ Tamamen
doğru değil	doğru	doğru	doğru	doğru	doğru

23. Duygularıma pek dikkat etmem.

○ Hiç	○ Çok az	○ Bazen	○ Kısmen	○ Oldukça	○ Tamamen
değil doğru	doğru	doğru	doğru	doğru	doğru

24. Duygularım hakkında sıkça düşünürüm.

○ Hiç	○ Çok az	○ Bazen	○ Kısmen	○ Oldukça	○ Tamamen
doğru değil	doğru	doğru	doğru	doğru	doğru

25. Duygularım hakkında genellikle kafam çok nettir.

○ Hiç	○ Çok az	○ Bazen	○ Kısmen	○ Oldukça	○ Tamamen
doğru değil	doğru	doğru	doğru	doğru	doğru

26. Ne kadar kötü hissedersem edeyim, keyifli şeyler hakkında düşünmeye çalışırım.

○ Hiç	○ Çok az	○ Bazen	○ Kısmen	○ Oldukça	○ Tamamen
değil doğru	doğru	doğru	doğru	doğru	doğru

27. Duygular insanlarda bir zayıflıktır.

○ Hiç	○ Çok az	○ Bazen	○ Kısmen	○ Oldukça	○ Tamamen
doğru değil	doğru	doğru	doğru	doğru	doğru

28. Bir konu hakkındaki duygularımı genellikle bilirim.

○ Hiç	○ Çok az	○ Bazen	○ Kısmen	○ Oldukça	○ Tamamen
doğru değil	doğru	doğru	doğru	doğru	doğru

29. Duygular hakkında düşünmek genellikle bir zaman kaybıdır.

○ Hiç	○ Çok az	○ Bazen	○ Kısmen	○ Oldukça	○ Tamamen
doğru değil	doğru	doğru	doğru	doğru	doğru

NASIL HİSSEDİYORUM-2 (Emotion RegulationScale)

Aşağıda insanların duygularını kontrol etmekte kullandıkları bazı yöntemler verilmiştir. Lütfen her durumu dikkatlice okuyunuz ve her birinin sizin için ne kadar doğru olduğunu içtenlikle yanıtlayınız. Yanıtınızı uygun cevap önündeki yuvarlak üzerine çarpı (X) koyarak işaretleyiniz.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Hiç doğru değil	**Çok az doğru**	**Bazen doğru**	**Kısmen doğru**	**Oldukça doğru**	**Tamamen doğru**

---

1. Duygularımı içinde bulunduğum durum hakkındaki düşüncelerimi değiştirerek kontrol ederim.

○ Hiç doğru değil ○ Çok az doğru ○ Bazen doğru ○ Kısmen doğru ○ Oldukça doğru ○ Tamamen doğru

---

2. Hissettiğim olumsuz duyguları azaltmak istediğimde, içinde bulunduğum durum hakkındaki düşüncelerimi değiştiririm.

○ Hiç doğru değil ○ Çok az doğru ○ Bazen doğru ○ Kısmen doğru ○ Oldukça doğru ○ Tamamen doğru

---

3. Hissettiğim olumlu duyguları arttırmak istediğimde, içinde bulunduğum durum hakkındaki düşüncelerimi değiştiririm.

○ Hiç doğru değil ○ Çok az doğru ○ Bazen doğru ○ Kısmen doğru ○ Oldukça doğru ○ Tamamen doğru

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4. Hissettiğim olumlu duyguları (sevinç veya eğlence/coşku gibi) arttırmak istediğimde, düşündüğüm şeyleri değiştiririm.

○ Hiç doğru değil ○ Çok az doğru ○ Bazen doğru ○ Kısmen doğru ○ Oldukça doğru ○ Tamamen doğru

---

5. Hissettiğim olumsuz duyguları (üzüntü veya kızgınlık gibi) azaltmak istediğimde, düşündüğüm şeyleri değiştiririm.

○ Hiç doğru değil ○ Çok az doğru ○ Bazen doğru ○ Kısmen doğru ○ Oldukça doğru ○ Tamamen doğru

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6. Stres yaratan bir durumla karşılaştığımda, sakin kalmama yardımcı olacak şekilde düşünmeye çalışırım.

○ Hiç değil doğru ○ Çok az doğru ○ Bazen doğru ○ Kısmen doğru ○ Oldukça doğru ○ Tamamen doğru

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7. Duygularımı onları belli etmeyerek kontrol ederim.

○ Hiç değil doğru ○ Çok az doğru ○ Bazen doğru ○ Kısmen doğru ○ Oldukça doğru ○ Tamamen doğru

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8. Olumsuz duygular hissettiğimde, onları belli etmemek için elimden geleni yaparım.

○ Hiç doğru değil ○ Çok az doğru ○ Bazen doğru ○ Kısmen doğru ○ Oldukça doğru ○ Tamamen doğru

1---------------2---------------3---------------4---------------5---------------6					
Hiç doğru değil	**Çok az doğru**	**Bazen doğru**	**Kısmen doğru**	**Oldukça doğru**	**Tamamen doğru**

9. Duygularımı kendime (içimde) saklarım.

○ Hiç doğru değil	○ Çok az doğru	○ Bazen doğru	○ Kısmen doğru	○ Oldukça doğru	○ Tamamen doğru

10. Olumlu duygular hissettiğimde, onları belli etmemeye özen gösteririm.

○ Hiç doğru değil	○ Çok az doğru	○ Bazen doğru	○ Kısmen doğru	○ Oldukça doğru	○ Tamamen doğru

NASIL HİSSEDİYORUM-3 (Coping Responses Inventory)

Bir sorununuz olduğunda, ne sıklıkla aşağıdaki davranışları yaparsınız?

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1----------------2---------------3---------------4---------------5---------------6
Hiçbir zaman    Nadiren      Bazen      Ara sıra    Sık sık    Her zaman
```

1. Kendi kendinize daha iyi hissetmenizi sağlayacak şeyler (beterin beteri var) söylemek.	
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○ Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman	

2. Kendinize olayların daha kötü olabileceğini söylemek.	
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○ Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman	

3. İçinde bulunduğunuz durumun iyi tarafını görmeye çalışmak.	
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○ Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman	

4. Sürekli olarak benzer sorunu yaşayan insanlara göre daha iyi durumda olduğunuzu düşünmek.	
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○ Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman	

5. Kendinize olayların iyiye gideceğini söylemeye çalışmak.	
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○ Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman	

6. Bu durumun hayatınızı nasıl daha iyiye doğru değiştirmiş olabileceğini düşünürmek.	
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○ Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman	

NASIL BİRİYİM-1 (Adolescent Self-Regulatory Inventory)

Aşağıda bazı özellikler tanımlanmıştır. Lütfen bu özelliklerin sizi ne kadar tanımladığını ilgili cevap önündeki yuvarlak üzerine çarpı (X) işareti koyarak cevaplandırınız.

1----------------------------2----------------------------3----------------------------4

| **Bana hiç benzemiyor** | **Bana benziyor** | **Bana biraz benziyor** | **Bana çok benziyor** |

1. Üzgün olduğumda kendimi iyi hissetirecek birşeyler yapabilirim.
○ Bana hiç benzemiyor   ○ Bana benzemiyor   ○ Bana biraz benziyor   ○ Bana çok benziyor

2. Sıkıldığımda yerimde duramam/oturamam.
○ Bana hiç benzemiyor   ○ Bana benzemiyor   ○ Bana biraz benziyor   ○ Bana çok benziyor

3. Birine kızgın olduğumda bile, etraftaki diğer insanlara normal davranabilirim.
○ Bana hiç benzemiyor   ○ Bana benzemiyor   ○ Bana biraz benziyor   ○ Bana çok benziyor

4. Stres altındayken yapmam gereken işleri yapmakta iyiyimdir.
○ Bana hiç benzemiyor   ○ Bana benzemiyor   ○ Bana biraz benziyor   ○ Bana çok benziyor

5. Yorgun olsam bile, yeni bir işe başlayabilirim.
○ Bana hiç benzemiyor   ○ Bana benzemiyor   ○ Bana biraz benziyor   ○ Bana çok benziyor

6. Küçük sorunlar beni uzun-vadeli planlarımdan alıkoyabilir.
○ Bana hiç benzemiyor   ○ Bana benzemiyor   ○ Bana biraz benziyor   ○ Bana çok benziyor

7. Eğlenceli birşeyler yaparken, yapmam gereken diğer işleri unuturum.
○ Bana hiç benzemiyor   ○ Bana benzemiyor   ○ Bana biraz benziyor   ○ Bana çok benziyor

8. Sıkıcı bir derste, dikkatimi toplamakta zorlanırım.
○ Bana hiç benzemiyor   ○ Bana benzemiyor   ○ Bana biraz benziyor   ○ Bana çok benziyor

9. Meşgul edilerek ve dikkatim dağıtılarak kesilsem bile, yaptığım işe kolayca geri dönebilirim.
○ Bana hiç benzemiyor   ○ Bana benzemiyor   ○ Bana biraz benziyor   ○ Bana çok benziyor

10. Etrafta başka işler olurken dikkatimi yaptığım işe yoğunlaştırmakta zorlanırım.
○ Bana hiç benzemiyor   ○ Bana benzemiyor   ○ Bana biraz benziyor   ○ Bana çok benziyor

11. Ne kadar daha çalışmam gerektiğini/gerekeceğini hiçbir zaman bilemem.
○ Bana hiç benzemiyor   ○ Bana benzemiyor   ○ Bana biraz benziyor   ○ Bana çok benziyor

12. Stres altındayken planlar yapmak ve büyük işler yapmaya başlamakta zorlanırım.
○ Bana hiç benzemiyor   ○ Bana benzemiyor   ○ Bana biraz benziyor   ○ Bana çok benziyor

13. Heyecanlandığımda ya da kızdığımda kolayca sakinleşebilirim.
○ Bana hiç benzemiyor   ○ Bana benzemiyor   ○ Bana biraz benziyor   ○ Bana çok benziyor

| **Bana hiç benzemiyor** | **Bana benziyor** | **Bana biraz benziyor** | **Bana çok benziyor** |

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14. Birşey istediğim gibi gitmediğinde amacıma ulaşmak için davranışlarımı değiştirebilirim.
○ Bana hiç benzemiyor　　○ Bana benziyor　　○ Bana biraz benziyor　　○ Bana çok benziyor

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15. Arkadaşlarım dışarı gitmek istediğinde, kendimi çalışmak için tutabilirim.
○ Bana hiç benzemiyor　　○ Bana benziyor　　○ Bana biraz benziyor　　○ Bana çok benziyor

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16. İşler istediğim gibi gitmiyorsa, kontrolümü kaybederim.
○ Bana hiç benzemiyor　　○ Bana benziyor　　○ Bana biraz benziyor　　○ Bana çok benziyor

---

17. Birşeyi çok istiyorsam, ona hemen sahip olmak isterim.
○ Bana hiç benzemiyor　　○ Bana benziyor　　○ Bana biraz benziyor　　○ Bana çok benziyor

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18. Biriyle ciddi bir anlaşmazlığa düştüğümde kontrolümü kaybetmeden sakince konuşabilirim.
○ Bana hiç benzemiyor　　○ Bana benziyor　　○ Bana biraz benziyor　　○ Bana çok benziyor

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19. Yapmam gereken çok sıkıcı olsa bile o işe yoğunlaşabilirim.
○ Bana hiç benzemiyor　　○ Bana benziyor　　○ Bana biraz benziyor　　○ Bana çok benziyor

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20. Tepem atıp, birşeyler fırlatmak istediğimde kendimi durdurabilirim.
○ Bana hiç benzemiyor　　○ Bana benziyor　　○ Bana biraz benziyor　　○ Bana çok benziyor

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21. Sonu nereye varacağı belli olmasa da dikkatli çalışabilirim.
○ Bana hiç benzemiyor　　○ Bana benziyor　　○ Bana biraz benziyor　　○ Bana çok benziyor

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22. Dışarıya belirtmeden de duygularımın ne olduğunun farkındayımdır.
○ Bana hiç benzemiyor　　○ Bana benziyor　　○ Bana biraz benziyor　　○ Bana çok benziyor

---

23. Arkadaşlarım konuşurken bile işime konsantre olabilir.
○ Bana hiç benzemiyor　　○ Bana benziyor　　○ Bana biraz benziyor　　○ Bana çok benziyor

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24. Bir hedefe ulaşmak için heyecanlandığımda (örn., yeni bir okula gitmek vb.), kolayca o hedef için çalışmaya başlayabilir.
○ Bana hiç benzemiyor　　○ Bana benziyor　　○ Bana biraz benziyor　　○ Bana çok benziyor

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25. Plan ve hedeflerim zor olsa da onlara bağlı kalacak bir yol bulurum.
○ Bana hiç benzemiyor　　○ Bana benziyor　　○ Bana biraz benziyor　　○ Bana çok benziyor

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26. Uzun vadeli bir projem olduğunda, üzerinde sabırla çalışabilirim.
○ Bana hiç benzemiyor　　○ Bana benziyor　　○ Bana biraz benziyor　　○ Bana çok benziyor

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27. Birşeyi yapmamam gerektiğini biliyorsam, kendimi tutabilirim.
○ Bana hiç benzemiyor　　○ Bana benziyor　　○ Bana biraz benziyor　　○ Bana çok benziyor

NASIL BİRİYİM-2 (Children's Social Behavior Scale)

Kendinizi düşünerek aşağıda yer alan davranışları ne kadar sıklıkla yaptığınıza karar veriniz ve size uyan cevap önündeki yuvarlağa çarpı (X) koyarak belirtiniz. Lütfen her bir soruyu içtenlikle yanıtlayınız.

```
1----------------2--------------3--------------4--------------5--------------6
Hiçbir zaman    Nadiren      Bazen      Ara sıra     Sık sık     Her zaman
```

1. Bir arkadaşıma çok kızarsam, onu grup dışında bırakarak bunun acısını çıkartabilirim.	
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman	

2. Bazen, bazı akranlarım hakkında söylenti veya dedikodu çıkarabilirim.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

3. Bir arkadaşıma/akranıma sinirlendiğimde diğer çocukların onunla görüşmesini engelleyebilirim.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

4. Bazen, bazı çocuklardan kimse hoşlanmasın diye onlarla ilgili yalan söyleyebilirim.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

5. Bir arkadaşıma çok sinirlendiğimde onu görmezden gelir veya onunla konuşmam.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

6. Bazen arkadaşımı incitmek veya ondan istediğini elde etmek için arkadaşlığımı kesmekle tehdit edebilirim.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

7. Bazen, bazı çocukları grup etkinliklerinin dışında tutmaya çalışabilirim.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

8. Akranlarıma vurur ya da onları itebilirim.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

9. Akranlarımla kavga başlatır ya da bu kavgalara katılabilirim.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

10. Diğer çocukları dövmekle tehdit eder ya da dövebilirim.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

11. Akranlarımın üzerinde baskı kurmaya çalışabilirim.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

ARKADAŞLARIMLA İLİŞKİLERİM-1 (Experiences in Cloese Relationships-Revised)

Aşağıda arkadaşlık ilişkileriyle ilgili bazı ifadeler yer almaktadır. Her ifadeyi dikkatle okuyunuz. En yakın arkadaşlarınızla ilişkinizi düşünerek her bir ifadenin arkadaşlarınız ve sizin için ne kadar doğru olduğunu uygun cevap önündeki yuvaklak üzerine çarpı (X) işareti koyarak belirtiniz.

```
        1---------------2---------------3--------------4--------------5--------------6
```

| Hiçbir zaman | Nadiren | Bazen | Ara sıra | Sık sık | Her zaman |

---

1. Arkadaşlarımın sevgisini kaybetmekten korkarım.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

---

2. Gerçekte ne hissettiğimi arkadaşlarıma göstermemeyi tercih ederim.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

---

3. Sıklıkla arkadaşlarımın artık benimle olmak istemeyeceği korkusuna kapılırım.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

---

4. Özel duygu ve düşüncelerimi arkadaşlarımla paylaşmak konusunda kendimi rahat hissederim.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

---

5. Sıklıkla, arkadaşlarımın beni gerçekten sevmediği kaygısına kapılırım.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

---

6. Arkadaşlık ilişkilerinde güvenip inanmak konusunda kendimi rahat bırakmakta zorlanırım.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

---

7. Arkadaşlık ilişkisinde olduğum kişilerin beni, benim onları önemsediğim kadar önemsemeyeceklerinden endişe duyarım.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

---

8. Arkadaş olduğum kişilere yakın olma konusunda çok rahatımdır.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

---

9. Sıklıkla, arkadaş olduğum kişinin bana duyduğu hislerin benim ona duyduğum hisler kadar güçlü olmasını isterim.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

---

10. Arkadaş olduğum kişilere açılma konusunda kendimi rahat hissetmem.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

11. İlişkilerimi kafama çok takarım.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

12. Arkadaş olduğum kişilere fazla yakın olmamayı tercih ederim.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

13. Benden uzakta olduğunda, arkadaşımın başka birine ilgi duyabileceği korkusuna kapılırım.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

14. Arkadaş olduğum kişi benimle çok yakın olmak istediğinde rahatsızlık duyarım.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

15. Arkadaş olduğum kişilere duygularımı gösterdiğimde, onların benim için aynı şeyleri hissetmeyeceğinden korkarım.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

16. Arkadaş olduğum kişiyle kolayca yakınlaşabilirim.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

17. Arkadaşlarımın beni terkedeceğinden pek endişe duymam.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

18. Arkadaş olduğum kişiyle yakınlaşmak bana zor gelmez.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

19. Arkadaş olduğum kişi kendimden şüphe etmeme neden olur.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

20. Genellikle, arkadaş olduğum kişiyle sorunlarımı ve kaygılarımı tartışırım.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

21. Terk edilmekten pek korkmam.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

22. Zor zamanlarımda, arkadaş olduğum kişiden yardım istemek bana iyi gelir.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

23. Arkadaşlarımın bana benim istediğim kadar yakınlaşmak istemediğini düşünürüm.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

24. Arkadaşıma hemen hemen her şeyi anlatırım.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

25. Arkadaş olduğum kişiler bazen bana olan duygularını sebepsiz yere değiştirirler.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

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

Hiçbir zaman	**Nadiren**	**Bazen**	**Ara sıra**	**Sık sık**	**Her zaman**

26. Başımdan geçenleri arkadaşımla konuşurum.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○ Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

27. Çok yakın olma arzum bazen insanları korkutup uzaklaştırır.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○ Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

28. Arkadaş olduğum kişiler benimle çok yakınlaştığında gergin hissederim.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○ Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

29. Arkadaş olduğum bir kişi beni yakından tanıdıkça, "gerçek ben"den hoşlanmayacağından korkarım.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○ Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

30. Arkadaş olduğum kişilere güvenip inanma konusunda rahatımdır.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○ Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

31. Arkadaş olduğum kişiden ihtiyaç duyduğum şefkat ve desteği görememek beni öfkelendirir.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○ Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

32. Arkadaş olduğum kişiye güvenip inanmak benim için kolaydır.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○ Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

33. Başka insanlara denk olamamaktan endişe duyarım.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○ Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

34. Arkadaş olduğum kişiye şefkat göstermek benim için kolaydır.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○ Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

35. Arkadaş olduğum kişi beni sadece kızgın olduğumda önemser.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○ Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

36. Arkadaş olduğum kişi beni ve ihtiyaçlarımı gerçekten anlar.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○ Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

APPENDIX D: The Cover Letters for Parents

ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY
1956   06531 ANKARA -TURKEY

Psikoloji Bölümü   **Tel: 90 (312) 210 31 82**
Department of Psychology   **Faks:90 (312) 210 79 75**

Sayın Anne,

Daha önce katılmayı kabul etmiş olduğunuz "Aile içi ilişkiler ve ergen gelişimi" arasındaki ilişkiyi inceleyen doktora tezi çalışması kapsamındaki anketleri çocuğunuz okulda doldurmuştur, teşekkür ederiz.

Sizin cevaplandıracağınız sorulardan oluşan anket ektedir. Lütfen her soru grubunun başındaki açıklamaları dikkatlice okuyun ve değerlendirmelerinizi buna göre yapın. Soruları cevaplarken acele etmeyin. Rahatsız edilmeyeceğiniz bir zaman seçin. Hiçbir sorunun doğru ya da yanlış cevabı yoktur. Bu nedenle lütfen değerlendirmelerinizi gerçek duygu ve düşüncelerinizi yansıtacak şekilde yapın. Soruları gerçek durumunuzu ve duygularınızı yansıtacak şekilde cevaplamanız <u>bu araştırma için çok büyük önem taşımaktadır</u>. Cevaplarınız kesinlikle <u>gizli tutulacak</u> ve bu anketten elde edilen bilgiler yalnızca araştırma amacına yönelik olarak kullanılacaktır. Çocuğunuz ve sizin anketleriniz eşleştirebilmemiz için <u>çocuğunuzun sınıfı ve numarasını ilgili boşluklara doldurmanız gerekmektedir.</u>

Araştırma sonuçlarının sağlıklı olması ve çocukların duygusal gelişimini etkileyen faktörlerin saptanması için önemli olan sizin cevaplarınızdır. Bu yüzden, lütfen anketi doldururken sorular hakkında eşinizle ya da başka birileriyle görüş alışverişinde bulunmayın ve soruları eşinizden ya da başkalarından etkilenmeden <u>yalnız başınıza cevaplandırın</u>. Soruların tamamını cevapladıktan sonra, anketi size verilen zarfa koyarak zarfı kapatın. Daha sonra, bu zarfı okula teslim etmesi için çocuğunuza verin.

Araştırmayla ilgili sorularınızı aşağıdaki e-posta adresini veya telefon numarasını kullanarak bize yöneltebilirsiniz. Katılımınız için teşekkür ederiz.

Saygılarımızla,

Uzman Psikolog Emine Tuna Özgüle

Prof. Dr. Nebi Sümer

Psikoloji Bölümü

Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi, Ankara

Tel: (0312) 210 31 38

e-posta: eozgule@gmail.com

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ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

1956   06531 ANKARA -TURKEY

Psikoloji Bölümü   **Tel: 90 (312) 210 31 82**
Department of Psychology   **Faks:90 (312) 210 79 75**

Sayın Baba,

Daha önce katılmayı kabul etmiş olduğunuz "Aile içi ilişkiler ve ergen gelişimi" arasındaki ilişkiyi inceleyen doktora tezi çalışması kapsamındaki anketleri çocuğunuz okulda doldurmuştur, teşekkür ederiz.

Sizin cevaplandıracağınız sorulardan oluşan anket ektedir. Lütfen her soru grubunun başındaki açıklamaları dikkatlice okuyun ve değerlendirmelerinizi buna göre yapın. Soruları cevaplarken acele etmeyin. Rahatsız edilmeyeceğiniz bir zaman seçin. Hiçbir sorunun doğru ya da yanlış cevabı yoktur. Bu nedenle lütfen değerlendirmelerinizi gerçek duygu ve düşüncelerinizi yansıtacak şekilde yapın. Soruları gerçek durumunuzu ve duygularınızı yansıtacak şekilde cevaplamanız <u>bu araştırma için çok büyük önem taşımaktadır</u>. Cevaplarınız kesinlikle <u>gizli tutulacak</u> ve bu anketten elde edilen bilgiler yalnızca araştırma amacına yönelik olarak kullanılacaktır. Çocuğunuz ve sizin anketleriniz eşleştirebilmemiz için <u>çocuğunuzun sınıfı ve numarasını ilgili boşluklara doldurmanız gerekmektedir.</u>

Araştırma sonuçlarının sağlıklı olması ve çocukların duygusal gelişimini etkileyen faktörlerin saptanması için önemli olan sizin cevaplarınızdır. Bu yüzden, lütfen anketi doldururken sorular hakkında eşinizle ya da başka birileriyle görüş alışverişinde bulunmayın ve soruları eşinizden ya da başkalarından etkilenmeden <u>yalnız başınıza cevaplandırın</u>. Soruların tamamını cevapladıktan sonra, anketi size verilen zarfa koyarak zarfı kapatın. Daha sonra, bu zarfı okula teslim etmesi için çocuğunuza verin.

Araştırmayla ilgili sorularınızı aşağıdaki e-posta adresini veya telefon numarasını kullanarak bize yöneltebilirsiniz. Katılımınız için teşekkür ederiz.

Saygılarımızla,

Uzman Psikolog Emine Tuna Özgüle

Prof. Dr. Nebi Sümer

Psikoloji Bölümü

Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi, Ankara

Tel: (0312) 210 31 38

e-posta: eozgule@gmail.com

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Çocuğunuzun Okul
Numarası;_____

AİLEYE İLİŞKİN SORULAR (Motl

Bu bölüm çocuğunuzun bulunduğu aile ortamı ile ilgili genel sorular içermektedir.

1a. Çocuğunuzun nesi oluyorsunuz?

O   Öz anne

O   Koruyucu anne

O   Evlat edinen anne

O   Üvey anne

O   Diğer (lütfen belirtiniz) ....

2. Kaç yaşındasınız?

3a. Anketi eve getiren çocuğunuzun kaç kardeşi var?   **3b. Çocuğunuz doğum sırasına göre kaçıncı?**

(büyük ya da küçük)

O Hiç	O Ilk (en büyüğü)
O Bir	O Ikinci
O Iki	O Üçüncü
O Üç veya daha fazla	O Dördüncü veya daha fazla

4. Eğitim düzeyinizi işaretleyiniz.

O	Okuma yazma bilmiyorum
O	İlkokul
O	Ortaokul
O	Lise
O	Yüksek okul (2 yıllık)
O	Üniversite (4 yıllık)
O	Master (Yüksek lisans) veya Doktora

5a. Aile durumunuzu sizin, eşinizin ve çocuğunuzun durumunu en iyi yansıtacak şekilde işaretleyiniz.

O Evli ve anne-baba birlikte
O Evli ve anne baba ayrı yaşıyor
O Boşanmış ve çocuk anne ile yaşıyor
O Boşanmış ve çocuk babayla yaşıyor
O Boşanmış ve çocuk akraba ile yaşıyor
O Diğer (Lütfen belirtiniz)..

b. Evliyseniz:

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Ne kadar süredir evlisiniz? .... yıl .... ay

Bu kaçıncı evliliğiniz? ....

6. Size en uygun seçeneği işaretleyiniz.

O Ev hanımıyım   O Çalışıyorum   O İşsiz   O Emekli

Varsa, mesleğiniz ....

7. Eve giren aylık gelir miktarını işaretleyiniz.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
500 YTL ve altı	500 – 1000 YTL	1000 – 1500 YTL	1500 – 2000 YTL	2000 – 3000 YTL	3000 – 4000 YTL	4000 YTL ve üzeri

8. Genel olarak yaşamınızdan ne kadar memnunsunuz?

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

Hiç memnun değilim   Memnun değilim   Biraz memnun değilim   Biraz memnunum   Memnunum   Çok memnunum

AİLEYE İLİŞKİN SORULAR (Father)

> Çocuğunuzun Okul
> Numarası;_____

Bu bölüm çocuğunuzun bulunduğu aile ortamı ile ilgili genel sorular içermektedir.

1a. Çocuğunuzun nesi oluyorsunuz?

- O Öz baba
- O Koruyucu baba
- O Evlat edinen baba
- O Üvey baba
- O   Diğer (lütfen belirtiniz) ....

2. Kaç yaşındasınız?

3. Eğitim düzeyinizi işaretleyiniz.

O	Okuma yazma bilmiyorum
O	İlkokul
O	Ortaokul
O	Lise
O	Yüksek okul (2 yıllık)
O	Üniversite (4 yıllık)
O	Master (Yüksek lisans) veya Doktora

4a. Aile durumunuzu sizin, eşinizin ve çocuğunuzun durumunu en iyi yansıtacak şekilde işaretleyiniz.

O	Evli ve anne-baba birlikte
O	Evli ve anne baba ayrı yaşıyor
O	Boşanmış ve çocuk anne ile yaşıyor
O	Boşanmış ve çocuk babayla yaşıyor
O	Boşanmış ve çocuk akraba ile yaşıyor
O	Diğer (Lütfen belirtiniz)..

b. Evliyseniz:

Ne kadar süredir evlisiniz? .... yıl .... ay

Bu kaçıncı evliliğiniz? ....

5. Size en uygun seçeneği işaretleyiniz.

O Çalışıyorum   O İşsiz   O Emekli

Varsa, mesleğiniz ....

6. Eve giren aylık gelir miktarını işaretleyiniz.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
500 YTL ve altı	500 – 1000 YTL	1000 – 1500 YTL	1500 – 2000 YTL	2000 – 3000 YTL	3000 – 4000 YTL	4000 YTL ve üzeri

7. Genel olarak yaşamınızdan ne kadar memnunsunuz?

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

| Hiç memnun değilim | Memnun değilim | Biraz memnun değilim | Biraz memnunum | Memnunum | Çok memnunum |

ÇOCUĞUM VE BEN-1 (EMBU, Parental Psychological Control, and Comparison Scales)

Aşağıda ebeveynlerin çocuklarıyla yaşayabilecekleri durumlara ve duygulara ilişkin ifadeler verilmiştir. Sizden ANKETİ GETİREN ÇOCUĞUNUZLA olan ilişkinizi düşünerek bu ifadelerin sizin için ne derecede geçerli olduğunu cevaplandırmanız istenmektedir. Lütfen hiçbir soruyu boş bırakmayınız. Cevaplarınızı seçtiğiniz cevabın önüne çarpı (X) koyarak belirtiniz.

```
1----------------2---------------3--------------4--------------5--------------6
Hiçbir zaman    Nadiren      Bazen     Ara sıra     Sık sık      Her zaman
```

1. Çocuğumun sıkıntılı olduğunu o söylemeden anlarım.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

2. Çocuğumun aldığı sonuçtan çok arkadaşlarına göre nerede olduğunu merak ederim.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

3. Başladığı bir işi başardığında çocuğumla gurur duyarım.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

4. Küçük şeyler için bile çocuğumu sert bir şekilde cezalandırırım.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

5. Çocuğuma kızdığımda kendim de üzülürüm.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

6. Kötü bir şey yaptığında hemen kızmaz, nedenini anlamaya çalışırım.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

7. Kötü bir şey yaptığında bunu surat asarak veya başka bir yolla öyle belli ederim ki çocuğum kendisini gerçekten suçlu hisseder.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

8. Yaptıklarımla çocuğuma kendisinden utanması gerektiğini hissettiririm.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

9. Arkadaşlarının içinde en iyisi olması için çocuğumu zorlarım.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

10. Çocuğuma hak ettiğinden daha fazla dayak attığım ya da ceza verdiğim olur.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

11. İşleri kötü gittiğinde, onu rahatlatmaya ve yüreklendirmeye çalışırım.
○ Hiçbir zaman ○ Nadiren ○Bazen ○ Ara sıra ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

12. Çocuğuma ailenin günah keçisi (her konuda suçlanacak insan) muamelesi yaparım.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

13. Çocukluk yıllarının keyif verici ve öğretici geçmesine çalışırım (tatile, akrabalara, kursa göndermek, ona güzel kitaplar almak vs. gibi davranışlarla).
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

14. Çocuğumu dersleri konusunda arkadaşlarıyla karşılaştırırım.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

15. Çocuğumu takdir eder ya da ödüllendiririm.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

16. Çocuğumu herkesin içinde eleştirir, tembel ve işe yaramaz olduğunu söylerim.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

17. Kardeş(ler)ini (ondan küçük ya da büyük) ondan daha çok severim.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

18. Çocuğumla aramda sıcaklık ve sevecenlik var.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

19. Sözlerim ve hareketlerimle çocuğumu sevdiğini gösteririm.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

20. Başka çocukları çocuğuma örnek gösteririm.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

21. Nedenini söylemeden çocuğuma kızgın ya da ters davrandığım olur.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

22. Dersleri konusunda kardeş(ler)i veya akraba çocuklarıyla karşılaştırırım.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

23. Çocuğum bir şey söylerken konuyu değiştiririm.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

24. Çocuğum konuşurken sözünü keserim.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

25. Çocuğum konuşurken bitirmesini beklemeden cümlesini tamamlarım.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

26. Çocuğumun bazı konulardaki hislerini ve düşüncelerini değiştirmeye çalışırım.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

| 1 | --------------- | 2 | --------------- | 3 | --------------- | 4 | --------------- | 5 | --------------- | 6 |

| Hiçbir zaman | Nadiren | Bazen | Ara sıra | Sık sık | Her zaman |

27. Çocuğumun ne hissettiğini, ne düşündüğünü sormam, zaten bilirim.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

28. Çocuğumun çoğu konuda ne düşüneceğini, nasıl hissetmesi gerektiğini söylemek isterim.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

29. Çocuğumu eleştirirken geçmişte yaptığı hataları hatırlatırım.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

30. Çocuğuma yaptığı bazı davranışların "aptalca, ahmakça" olduğunu söylerim.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

31. Diğer aile üyelerinin sorunları için çocuğumu suçlarım.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

32. Çocuğuma karşı sabırsız davranırım.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

33. Çocuğuma o etraftayken birden parlar, duygusal davranışlar gösteririm.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

34. Bir taraftan çocuğumu eleştirirken bir taraftan sıcak davranmak arasında gider gelirim.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

35. Çocuğumun soru sorup, sürekli rahatsız etmesinden hoşlanmam.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

36. Çocuğumla birlikteyken huysuzlaşırım, ruh halim değişir.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

37. Çocuğumla birlikteyken kolaylıkla sabrım taşar.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

38. Beni hayal kırıklığına uğrattığında, çocuğumla göz teması kurmaktan kaçınırım.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

39. Çocuğum dikkatimi çekmek istediğinde görmezden gelirim.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

40. Çocuğum üzdüğünde beni memnun edene kadar onunla konuşmam.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

41. Çocuğum benimle aynı fikirde olmadığında ona karşı soğuk ve daha az samimi davranırım.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

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1---------------2---------------3---------------4---------------5---------------6
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Hiçbir zaman   **Nadiren**   **Bazen**   **Ara sıra**   **Sık sık**   **Her zaman**

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42. Çocuğum benimle konuştuğunda ona pek dikkatimi vermem.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

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43. Çocuğum beni hayal kırıklığına uğrattığında bunu ona hissettiririm.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

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44. Çocuğuma benim çocukluğumda olduğum kadar onun iyi olmadığını söylerim.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

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45. Çocuğuma kızdığım zaman bunu ona hissettiririm.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

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46. Çocuğuma onun için ne kadar çok çalışıp yorulduğumu söylediğim zamanlar olur.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

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47. "Benim ne hissettiğime önem verseydin beni üzecek bu şeyleri yapmazdın"vb. derim.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

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48. Çocuğuma yaptığımız her şeyi onun için yaptığımı söylerim.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

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49. Çocuğum yanlış davrandığında hayal kırıklığımı ona gösteririm.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

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50. Çocuğuma, kötü davranışlarından, yaramazlıklarından utanması gerektiğini söylerim.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

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51. Beklentilerimi yerine getirmediğinde beni utandırdığını söylerim.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

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52. Çocuğum yanlış davrandığı her zaman cezalandırılacağını söylerim.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

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53. Yanlış davrandığı zaman beni hayal kırıklığına uğrattığını söylerim.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

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54. Çocuğuma diğer çocuklar kadar iyi olmadığını söylerim.
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

ÇOCUĞUM VE BEN-2 (Parental Behavioral Control Scale)

Aşağıda anne ve babaların çocukları hakkında ne kadar bilgi sahibi olduğuna ilişkin sorular bulunmaktadır. Sizden ANKETİ GETİREN ÇOCUĞUNUZU düşünerek bu ifadelerin sizin için ne derece geçerli olduğunu cevaplandırmanız istenmektedir. Lütfen hiçbir soruyu boş bırakmayınız. Cevaplarınızı size en çok uyan altı seçenekten biri önündeki yuvarlağa çarpı (X) koyarak belirtiniz.

```
1---------------2--------------3--------------4--------------5--------------6
Hiçbir zaman    Nadiren      Bazen       Ara sıra      Sık sık      Her zaman
```

1. Çocuğunuzun kiminle zaman geçirdiğini bilir misiniz?
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

2. Çocuğunuzun boş zamanlarını nasıl geçirdiğini bilir misiniz?
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

3. Çocuğunuzun parasını nelere, nasıl harcadığını bilir misiniz?
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

4. Çocuğunuzun okuldan sonra nereye gittiğini bilir misiniz?
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

5. Çocuğunuzun haftasonu ve tatillerde ne yaptığını bilir misiniz?
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

6. Çocuğunuzun okulda yaşadığı sorunları bilir misiniz?
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

7. Çocuğunuz bir yere gitmek için ayrıldığında size ya da başka bir büyüğüne nereye gittiğini söyler mi?
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

8. Arkadaşlarıyla dışarıya çıktığında çocuğunuz kaçta evde olacağını söyler mi?
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

9. Çocuğunuz siz evde olmadığınızda ve evden çıkması gerekiyorsa nereye gittiğini söylemek için size not bırakır ya da telefon eder mi?
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

10. Evde olmadığınızda çocuğunuz size nasıl ulaşabileceğini bilir mi?
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

11. Çocuğunuzun hangi derslerden ödevi olduğunu bilir misiniz?
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

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1----------------2----------------3---------------4---------------5---------------6
Hiçbir zaman    Nadiren      Bazen      Ara sıra      Sık sık      Her zaman
```

12. Çocuğunuz ve dersleri hakkında öğretmenleri ile görüşür müsünüz?
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

13. Çocuğunuzun sınav sonuçlarını, önemli ödevlerini bilir misiniz?
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

14. Çocuğunuzun farklı derslerdeki durumunu ve başarısını bilir misiniz?
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

15. Çocuğunuz size okulda derslerinin nasıl gittiğini söyler mi?
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

16. Çocuğunuz okulda gününün nasıl geçtiğini anlatır mı? (örneğin, sınavlarının nasıl geçtiğini, öğretmeniyle arasının nasıl olduğunu vb.)
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

17. Çocuğunuz boş zamanlarında yaptıkları hakkında sizinle konuşur mu?
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

18. Çocuğunuz arkadaşlarıyla zaman geçirip eve geldiğinde neler yaptığını size anlatır mı?
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

19. Çocuğunuz arkadaşları hakkında sizinle konuşur mu?
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

20. Çocuğunuzun arkadaşları geldiğinde onlarla konuşur musunuz?
○ Hiçbir zaman   ○ Nadiren   ○ Bazen   ○ Ara sıra   ○ Sık sık   ○ Her zaman

ÇOCUĞUM (Strenghts and Difficulties Questionnaire)

ANKETİ GETİREN ÇOCUĞUNUZUN son 6 ay içindeki davranışlarını göz önüne alarak lütfen aşağıdaki maddeleri doldurunuz. Her bir maddenin çocuğunuz için ne derece doğru olduğunu aşağıdaki 3 seçenekten en uygun olanını yuvarlak içine alarak gösteriniz.

1-------------------------------------2-------------------------------------3

Doğru değil   Kısmen doğru   Kesinlikle Doğru

ÇOCUĞUM…

1. Diğer insanların duygularını önemser.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

2. Huzursuz, aşırı hareketli, uzun süre kıpırdamadan duramaz.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

3. Sıkça baş ağrısı, karın ağrısı ve bulantıdan yakınır.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

4. Diğer çocuklarla kolayca paylaşır.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

5. Sıkça öfke nöbetleri olur ya da aşırı sinirlidir.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

6. Daha çok tek başınadır, yalnız oynama eğilimindedir.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

7. Genellikle söz dinler, erişkinlerin isteklerini yapar.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

8. Birçok kaygısı vardır. Sıkça endişeli görünür.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

9. Eğer birisi incinmiş, morali bozulmuş ya da kendini kötü hissediyor ise ona yardımcı olur.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

10.Sürekli elleri ayakları kıpır kıpırdır ya da oturduğu yerde kıpırdanıp durur.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

11. En az bir yakın arkadaşı vardır.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

Doğru değil   Kısmen doğru   Kesinlikle Doğru

12.Sıkça diğer çocuklarla kavga eder ya da onlarla alay eder.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

13.Sıkça mutsuz görünür, kederli ya da ağlamaklıdır.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

14. Genellikle diğer çocuklar tarafından sevilir.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

15. Dikkati kolayca dağılır. Yoğunlaşmakta güçlük çeker.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

16. Yeni ortamlarda gergin ya da huysuzdur. Kendine güvenini kolayca kaybeder.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

17. Kendinden küçüklere iyi davranır.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

18.Sıkça yalan söyler ya da hile yapar.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

19. Diğer çocuklar ona takarlar ya da onunla alay ederler.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

20.Sıkça başkalarına (anne, baba, öğretmen, diğer çocuklar) yardım etmeye istekli olur.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

21. Bir şeyi yapmadan önce düşünür.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

22. Ev, okul ya da başka yerlerden çalar.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

23. Erişkinlerle çocuklardan daha iyi geçinir.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

24. Pek çok korkusu var. Kolayca ürker.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

25. Başladığı işi bitirir, dikkat süresi iyidir.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

AİLE İÇİ İLİŞKİLER (O'Leary and Porter Scale)

Aşağıda ailelerin karşılaştığı bazı sorunlar verilmekte ve size bunlara ilişkin sorular sorulmaktadır. Her maddeyi okuduktan sonra o maddede belirtilen sorunun kendiniz ve eşiniz için uygunluğunu düşününüz ve 1'den (= Hiçbir zaman) 5'e (= Her zaman) kadar sıralanan seçenekler üzerinde size en uygun görünen rakamı yuvarlak içine alarak işaretleyiniz. Lütfen soruları ANKETİ EVE GETİREN ÇOCUĞUNUZU dikkate alarak cevaplayınız.

1------------------------2----------------------3-----------------------4

| Hiçbir zaman | Bazen | Sık sık | Her zaman |

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1. Ekonomik sıkıntıların arttığı günlerde geçimle ilgili tartışmaları belirli zamanlara ve ortamlara sınırlamak zorlaşır. Siz ve eşiniz parasal konuları çocuğunuzun önünde ne sıklıkla tartışırsınız?

○ Hiçbir zaman ○Bazen ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

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2. Çocuklar genellikle anne ya da babasının birinden para veya izin isteyip alamadıklarında hemen diğerine giderler. Sizin çocuğunuz bunu yaptığında ne sıklıkla istediğini elde eder?

○ Hiçbir zaman ○Bazen ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

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3. Eşler genellikle çocuklarının disiplini konusunda anlaşmazlığa düşerler. Siz ve eşiniz çocuğunuzun disiplini ile ilgili problemleri onun önünde ne sıklıkla tartışırsınız?

○ Hiçbir zaman ○Bazen ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

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4. Çocuğunuz ne sıklıkla sizi veya eşinizi, ailede kadının üstlenmesi gereken roller (örneğin; ev kadını olmak, çalışan kadın olmak, vb.) ile ilgili tartışırken duyar?

○ Hiçbir zaman ○Bazen ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

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5. Eşiniz ne sıklıkla sizi kişisel bir alışkanlığınız nedeniyle (örneğin; içki-sigara içmek, söylenmek, özensiz olmak ve benzeri konularda) çocuğunuzun önünde eleştirir?

○ Hiçbir zaman ○Bazen ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

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6. Siz eşinizi ne sıklıkla kişisel bir alışkanlığı nedeniyle çocuğunuzun önünde eleştirirsiniz?

○ Hiçbir zaman ○Bazen ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

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7. Her evlilikte tartışmaların olması normaldir. Eşinizle tartışmalarınız ne sıklıkla çocuğunuzun önünde cereyan eder?

○ Hiçbir zaman ○Bazen ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

1------------------------2------------------------3------------------------4			
Hiçbir zaman	**Bazen**	**Sık sık**	**Her zaman**

8. Hepimiz aşırı stres altındayken elimizde olmadan kontrolümüzü biraz da olsa kaybederiz. Evliliğinizde öfke ne sıklıkla çocuğunuzun önünde fiziksel davranışlarla ifade edilir?

○ Hiçbir zaman ○Bazen ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

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9. Siz veya eşiniz ne sıklıkla çocuğunuzun önünde birbirinize öfkeli sözler söylersiniz?

○ Hiçbir zaman ○Bazen ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

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10. Eşinizle birbirinize olan sevginizi ne sıklıkla çocuğunuzun önünde gösterirsiniz?

○ Hiçbir zaman ○Bazen ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

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11. Çocuğunuzun neler ve ne kadar yediği konusunda onun önünde eşinizle ne sıklıkla tartışırsınız?

○ Hiçbir zaman ○Bazen ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

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12. Eşinizi çocuğunuzu çok şımarttığı için çocuğunuzun önünde ne sıklıkla eleştirirsiniz?

○ Hiçbir zaman ○Bazen ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

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13. Çocuğunuzla yeterince ilgilenmediği konusunda eşinizle çocuğunuzun önünde ne sıklıkla tartışırsınız?

○ Hiçbir zaman ○Bazen ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

---

14. Eşler bazen çocuklarının üzerine gereğinden fazla düşüp onları aşırı korurlar. Siz eşinizle bu konuda çocuğunuzun önünde ne sıklıkla anlaşmazlığa düşersiniz?

○ Hiçbir zaman ○Bazen ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

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15. Okul başarısı ve ders çalışma konusunda çocuğunuzun önünde eşinizle ne sıklıkla tartışırsınız?

○ Hiçbir zaman ○Bazen ○ Sık sık ○ Her zaman

ÖĞRENCİM (Strenghts and Difficulties Questionnaire)

Öğrencinin Okul Numarası;_____

Sınıfı;_____

Aşağıda öğrencinin nitelik ve davranışlarına dair bazı tanımlamalar yapılmıştır. Lütfen İLGİLİ ÖĞRENCİNİZİN son 6 ay içindeki davranışlarını göz önüne alarak lütfen aşağıdaki maddeleri doldurunuz. Her bir maddenin öğrenciniz için ne derece doğru olduğunu aşağıdaki 3 seçenekten en uygun olanını yuvarlak içine alarak gösteriniz.

1-----------------------------------2-----------------------------------3

Doğru değil   Kısmen doğru   Kesinlikle Doğru

ÖĞRENCİM…

1. Diğer insanların duygularını önemser.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

2. Huzursuz, aşırı hareketli, uzun süre kıpırdamadan duramaz.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

3. Sıkça baş ağrısı, karın ağrısı ve bulantıdan yakınır.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

4. Diğer çocuklarla kolayca paylaşır.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

5. Sıkça öfke nöbetleri olur ya da aşırı sinirlidir.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

6. Daha çok tek başınadır, yalnız oynama eğilimindedir.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

7. Genellikle söz dinler, erişkinlerin isteklerini yapar.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

8. Birçok kaygısı vardır. Sıkça endişeli görünür.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

9. Eğer birisi incinmiş, morali bozulmuş ya da kendini kötü hissediyor ise ona yardımcı olur.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

10. Sürekli elleri ayakları kıpır kıpırdır ya da oturduğu yerde kıpırdanıp durur.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

1-----------------------------------2-----------------------------------3

11. En az bir yakın arkadaşı vardır.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

12. Sıkça diğer çocuklarla kavga eder ya da onlarla alay eder.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

13. Sıkça mutsuz görünür, kederli ya da ağlamaklıdır.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

14. Genellikle diğer çocuklar tarafından sevilir.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

15. Dikkati kolayca dağılır. Yoğunlaşmakta güçlük çeker.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

16. Yeni ortamlarda gergin ya da huysuzdur. Kendine güvenini kolayca kaybeder.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

17. Kendinden küçüklere iyi davranır.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

18. Sıkça yalan söyler ya da hile yapar.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

19. Diğer çocuklar ona takarlar ya da onunla alay ederler.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

20. Sıkça başkalarına (anne, baba, öğretmen, diğer çocuklar) yardım etmeye istekli olur.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

21. Bir şeyi yapmadan önce düşünür.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

22. Ev, okul ya da başka yerlerden çalar.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

23. Erişkinlerle çocuklardan daha iyi geçinir.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

24. Pek çok korkusu var. Kolayca ürker.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

25. Başladığı işi bitirir, dikkat süresi iyidir.
○ Doğru değil   ○ Kısmen doğru   ○ Kesinlikle doğru

APPENDIX H: The Results for the Factor Analysis of the Trait Meta-Mood Scale

	Attention	Clarity	Repair	Obsession with Emotions
29. Duygular hakkında düşünnmek genellikle bir zaman kaybıdır.	**.80**			
23. Duygularıma pek dikkat etmem.	**.72**			
4. Genellikle ne hissettiğimi önemsemem.	**.65**			
27. Duygular insanlarda bir zayıflıktır.	**.65**			
17. Kişi hiçbir zaman duyguları tarafından yönlendirilmemelidir.	**.61**			
18. Hiçbir zaman duygularıma teslim olmam.	**.61**			
22. Duygularıma pek bir anlam veremem.	**.52**	-.41		
28. Bir konu hakkindaki duygularımı genellikle bilirim.		**.75**		
25. Duygularım hakkında genellikle kafam çok nettir.		**.73**		
15. Bir konu hakkındaki duygularımın çogunlukla farkındayımdır.		**.73**		
21. Nasıl ve ne hissettiğime çok dikkat ederim.		**.53**		.40
20. Duygularım hakkında kendimi rahat hissederim (duygularımla barışığım).		**.51**	.38	
6. Nasil ya da ne hissettigim konusunda kafam pek karismaz.		**.46**		
26. Ne kadar kötü hissedersem edeyim, keyifli şeyler hakkında düşünmeye çalışırım.			**.81**	
8. Bazen üzgün olsam da çoğu kez iyimser bir bakış açım vardır.			**.76**	
1. Ne kadar kötü hissedersem edeyim, iyi şeyler düşünmeye çalışırım.			**.74**	
13. Üzgün olduğumda ya da keyfim kaçtığında kendime hayatın zevklerini ya da başıma gelen iyi şeyleri hatırlatırım.			**.71**	
24. Duygularım hakkinda sıkça düşünürüm.				**.62**
14. İnançlarım ve görüşlerim sanki her zaman nasıl hissettiğime göre değişiyor.)				**.57**
7. Duygular hayata yön verir.	-.39			**.56**
9. Üzgün olduğum zamanlarda hayattaki iyi şeylerin aldatıcı (yanılsama) olduğunun farkına varırım.				**.56**
5. Bazen duygularımın ne olduğunu anlayamam.				**.52**
12. Benim için duygularımla baş etmenin en iyi yolu onları bütünüyle yaşamaktır.			.38	**.45**
Eigenvalues:	**5.10**	**3.37**	**2.30**	**1.58**
Explained Variance %:	**21.26**	**14.03**	**9.60**	**6.33**
Cronbach Alpha:	**.79**	**.78**	**.79**	**.57**

APPENDIX I:

<div align="center">

Tezin Türkçe Özeti

</div>

Aileyi bir sistem olarak gören yaklaşımlar (Cox ve Paley, 1997), aile içindeki duygusal ortamın (psikolojik iklimin) başta çocuklar olmak üzere bütün aile üyelerinin psikolojik gelişimi ve uyumu üzerinde etkisi olduğunu öne sürmektedir. Morris, Silk, Steinberg, Myers, ve Robinson (2007) evlilik içi çatışma, ana-babanın çocuk yetiştirme davranışları ve çocuğun ebeveynlere bağlanma düzeylerinin duygusal aile içi ortamı oluşturduğunu ve bu ortamın çocuğun duygu özdenetim becerilerinin gelişimi ve psikososyal uyumu üzerinde etkisi olduğunu belirtmişlerdir. Bu ortak etkilerine karşın Cummings ve Cummings (2002) ebeveynlik ve ebeveyne bağlanma yazınlarının birbirlerinden kopuk olduğunu bildirmektedirler. Benzer şekilde, Park, McDowell, Clads, ve Leidy (2006) evlilik içi çatışma ve ebeveynlik davranışlarının erken ve orta çocukluk dönemlerindeki çocuklar üzerindekilerle kıyaslandığında ergenlik dönemini ve diğer kültürleri içeren araştırmaların yetersiz olduğunu belirtmektedir.

Bu araştırmanın temel amacı geçmiş çalışmalardaki söz konusu eksikleri gidermek için duygu denetimini de kapsayan özdenetim (self-regulation) becerilerinin duygusal aile içi ortam ve ergen gelişimi arasındaki ilişkiyi nasıl etkilediğini incelemek ve kavramlar arasındaki etkileşimi hem kesitsel hem de boylamsal olarak sınamaktır. Ayrıca, çalışmadaki temel değişkenlerin ebeveyn, ergen ve öğretmenlerden toplanacak çoklu veri sayesinde hem farklı kaynaklardan ölçülmesi hem de ortak yöntem varyans etkisinin azaltılması amaçlanmıştır.

Araştırmada ele alınan temel konuların kuramsal alt yapıları, kısa yazın özeti ve ana kavramlara ilişkin tanımlar aşağıdaki bölümlerde özetlenmiştir. Devam eden bölümlerde ise araştırmanın amacı ve soruları sunulmuştur.

Özdenetim Becerileri Gelişimi ve Etkileri

Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Muraven ve Tice (1998) benliğin yönetici işlevleri olan sosyal ve günlük aktivitelerde karar verme, bunları planlama, uygulama, zamanlamasını düzenleme, karşılaşılan sorunları çözme ve harekete geçme veya hareketi durdurma gibi faaliyetleri yerine getirmesi için özdenetimin gerekli

olduğunu bildirmişlerdir. Yazındaki farklı yaklaşımlara karşın, Vohs ve Baumeister (2004) özdenetimi içsel süreçlerin ve kişisel tepkilerin amaca uygun olarak yönlendirilmesi olarak tanımlamışlardır. Bu süreçte davranışlar birey tarafından geri bildirim sürecinden geçirilerek amaca uygun olarak yeniden uyarlanır (Tive ve Bratslavsky, 2000).

Vohs ve Baumeister (2004) özdenetimin genel bir kategori oluğunu ve özdenetimin duygulanım denetimi (affect regulation) dahil olmak üzere tüm diğer özdüzenleme alt kategorilerini içerdiğini savunmaktadır. Gross ve Thompson (2007) ise duygulanımı duygu, duygudurum (mood), stres ve dürtüsel tepkileri kapsayan geniş bir kategori olarak ele almışlardır. Diğer taraftan, Larsen ve Prizmic (2004) duygulanımı bir nedene bağlı olarak ortaya çıkan his olarak tanımlarlar. Bu hisler farkındalığın merkezine oturduğunda 'duygu', sadece arka planda kalarak kişinin genel ruh halini etkilediğinde ise 'duygu durum' olarak adlandırılır.

Thompson'a (1994) göre, duygu denetimi bir amaca ulaşmak için duygusal tepkilerin yoğunluğunu ve zamanlamasını denetleyen, değerlendiren ve uygun duruma getiren içsel ve dışsal süreçleri kapsar. Bu tanım, duygu denetiminin duyguları da içerdiğini öne sürer. Werner ve Gross (2010) duygu denetiminin etkili olabilmesi için duyguların kabul edilmesinin ve iyi anlaşılmasının en önemli etkenlerden biri olduğunu belirtmektedir. Bu tanıma göre duygu denetimi bir amaca hizmet ettiği için işlevseldir ve hem içsel hem de dışsal süreçlerle birlikte gerçekleşir. Birey, bir taraftan gelişim süresi içerisinde bazı duygu denetim stratejilerini içselleştirirken diğer taraftan dışsal süreçlerde yakın ilişkide olduğu kişileri duygu denetiminde kaynak olarak kullanır.

Kopp'a (1982) göre özdenetim gelişiminde öncelik duygu denetim becerilerinin gelişmesine dayanır. Duygu denetimi ise çocuk ve birincil bakım veren kişi arasındaki etkileşim sürecinde belirlenir. Baumeister, Zell ve Tice (2007) duygulanım denetimi ile özdenetim arasında özel bir ilişki olduğunu ve olumlu duyguların özdenetim için gerekli kaynakları beslemesine karşın olumsuz duyguların bu kaynakları eriterek özdenetime zarar verdiğini savunmuşlardır. Eisenberg, Spindad ve Eggum'un (2010) araştırma sonuçları duygu denetimini de içeren özdenetim becerilerinin küçük yaşlardan ergenliğe kadar olan dönemde dışsallaştırma ve içselleştirme sorunları ile tutarlı olarak ilişkili olduğunu ve özdenetim gelişiminde tutarlı bireysel strateji uygulamalarının erken çocuklukta

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başladığını göstermektedir. Ancak buna ek olarak, bu yazarlar özdenetim uygulamalarının tutarlı sosyal ve bireysel sonuçlarının çocuğun okula başlaması ile birlikte görülebildiğini belirlemişlerdir.

Yazında çocuğun bu dönemde özdenetimi içselleştirmesini açıklamakta kullanılan en önemli kuramlardan biri Kendini Belirleme Kuramıdır (KBK; Deci ve Ryan, 1985). KBK aslında bir motivasyon kuramı olmasına karşın, Grolnick, Deci ve Ryan (1997) tarafından çocukta özdenetimin gelişimini ve içselleştirilmesini açıklamak için gelişim psikolojisi yazınına uyarlanmıştır. Bu uyarlamaya göre, ebeveyn davranışındaki sıcaklık/ilgi ve ebeveyne güvenli bağlanma çocuğun ilişkisel ihtiyaçlarını karşılayarak çocuğun ebeveynin değerlerini içselleştirmesini kolaylaştırır. Ebeveynin çocuğun psikolojik bağımsızlığını teşvik edici ya da kısıtlamayan davranışları ise çocuğun özerk bir birey olarak kendi kararlarının ve davranışlarının sorumluluğunu almasını sağlar. Son olarak, ebeveynin çocuğun davranışlarına uygun sınırlar koyarak onun davranışlarını kontrol etmesi, çocuğun yeteneklerini geliştirerek kendini yetkin bir birey olarak hissetmesini kolaylaştırır. Bu ebeveynlik davranışlarının toplamı ise çocukta sağlıklı bir özdenetim gelişimi için gereklidir. Grolnick ve Farkas (2002) özdenetimin sağlıklı olarak içselleştirilebilmesi için olumlu ebeveyn-çocuk ilişkilerinin ergenlik dönemi boyunca tutarlı olarak sürdürülmesi gerektiğini bildirmişlerdir.

Yazın taraması sonucunda, geçmiş araştırmalar ebeveyn davranışlarının özdenetimi yordayacağını, özdenetimin ise ebeveyn davranışları ile ergen uyumu arasında aracılık edeceğini öngörmektedir. Sözü edilen kuramların ve bulguların ışığı altında bu araştırmada özdenetim duygu denetimini kapsayacak şekilde ele alınmaktadır. Ancak, çocukta duygu denetimi gelişimini etkileyen bir diğer faktör de bağlanma kuramı tarafından açıklanan çocuk ve bakım veren birincil kişi arasında kurulan bağın niteliğidir.

Bağlanma Kuramı ve Bağlanmanın Özdenetim Üzerindeki Etkileri

Bowlby (1969; 1973) ve Ainsworth'in (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters ve Wall, 1978) çalışmalarının ortak ürünü olan bağlanma kuramına göre, çocuğun doğumu ile başlayan gelişimin ilk basamağını bağlanma figürü ile olan bağlanmanın niteliği belirler (Cassidy, 2008). Bu basamakta bağlanma figürü ile kurulan güvenli ilişki, çocuğun gelişiminde olumlu rol oynarken, güvensiz bağlanma ilişkisi gelişimde

aksamalara yol açabilmektedir (Thompson, 2008). Güvenli bağlanma kişinin gelişim aşamalarında karşılaşabileceği sorunlarla baş etmesini kolaylaştırmakta, psikolojik olarak sağlıklı olmasını yordamakta ve yakın ilişkilerdeki doyumu arttırmaktadır. Güvensiz bağlanma ise çeşitli psikolojik sorunlara yol açmaktadır (Bowlby, 1973; Mikulincer ve Shaver, 2008).

Ainsworth ve arkadaşlarının (1978) bulgularına göre birincil bakım veren kişinin, diğer bir deyişle bağlanma figürünün (çoğunlukla ebeveyn) ihtiyaç duyulan stres anlarında duyarlı ve olumlu tepki göstereceğine dair (responsiveness) bir inanç (beklenti) ve değerlilik duygusu geliştiren çocuklar ebeveynlerine güvenli bağlanırlar. Bu çocuklar olumsuz duygu hissettikleri zamanlarda ebeveyni sığınmak (güvenli sığınak) için veya stresin düşük olduğu zamanlarda ortamı araştırmak için keşif üssü olarak etkin şekilde kullanabilir ve ebeveynleri ile yakınlıklarından mutluluk duyarlar (yakınlık arayışı). Diğer taraftan, ebeveynin geçmiş davranışlarının hassasiyet ve olumlu tepki içeren davranışlarının tutarsız olduğu veya hiç olmadığı durumlarda çocuk bu güven inancı ve değerlilik duygusunu oluşturamaz ve belirgin davranışlar gösterir. Tutarsız ebeveyn davranışları çocukta kaygılı bağlanmaya yol açarken, tutarlı şekilde duyarsızlık ve olumlu tepki eksikliği kaçınmacı bağlanmaya yol açar. Kaygılı bağlanan çocuklar, olumsuz duyguların yoğun olduğu zamanlarda sığındıkları ebeveynleri tarafından yatıştırılmada veya bu kişiyi etkin olarak keşif üssü olarak kullanarak çevreyi araştırmakta zorluk yaşarlar. Kaçınmacı bağlanan çocuklar ise olumsuz duygu hissettiklerinde ebeveynlerine sığınmaya veya etrafı araştırmak için bu kişiyi keşif üssü olarak kullanmaya ihtiyacı yokmuş gibi davranır. Bu kişiler ilişkilerinde ağırlıklı olarak savunmacı bir yaklaşım sergilerler.

Cassidy (1994) ebeveyne bağlanma niteliğinin asıl olarak çocuğun duygu denetim stili olduğunu belirtmektedir. Buna göre güvenli bağlanan çocuk sağlıklı duygu denetimi stratejilerini uygulamayı öğrenirken diğer durumlarda farklı teknikler kullanılır. Kaygılı bağlanan çocuk ebeveynin davranışlarına güvenemediği için bu kişinin ilgisini sürekli kılacak hiperaktivasyon stratejilerine ihtiyaç duyar. Bu durumda olumsuz duygulanım durumlarını arttırarak ilgiyi üzerinde tutmaya çalışır. Kaçınmacı bağlanan çocuk ise buna zıt şekilde hiç ilgi göstermeyen ebeveyni ile ilişkisini sürdürebilmek için olumsuz duygulanım durumlarını en aza indirgeyerek ya da bastırarak kendi güvenliğini ebeveyni ile arasında duygu paylaşımına tercih eder.

Thompson (2008) güvenli bağlanmanın sağlıklı duygu denetimi ile yakın ilişkisi olduğunu ve duygu denetiminin sosyal yetkinlik gelişiminin en yakın yordayıcısı olduğunu belirtmiştir. Bağlanma yazını bunu destekleyecek bulguları içermektedir. Kerns, Klepav ve Cole (1996) anneye güvenli bağlanan çocukların arkadaş etkileşimlerinde eleştirinin daha düşük, olumlu yanıt vermenin ise güvensiz bağlanan çocukların etkileşimlerine göre daha yüksek olduğunu bulmuşlardır. Liebermann, Doyle ve Markiewicz (1999) ise babaya güvenli bağlanan çocukların güvensiz bağlanan çocuklara göre arkadaşlık ilişkilerinde daha düşük çatışma yaşadığını göstermişlerdir. Ek olarak, Sümer ve Anafarta-Şendağ (2009) güvenli bağlanan çocukların kendilerine yönelik algılarının daha olumlu olduğunu ve kendilerine güvenlerinin daha yüksek olduğunu göstermişlerdir. Aynı şekilde Fraley ve Davis (1997) ebeveyne güvenli bağlanmış ergenlerin akranları tarafından arkadaş olarak güvensiz bağlanan ergenlere göre daha çok tercih edildiklerini göstermişlerdir.

Bağlanma yazını, çocuğun erken dönem bağlanma niteliğinin ve bilişsel temsillerinin ileride kuracağı ilişkilerinde kuracağı bağın niteliğini ve bilişsel ilişki temsillerini yordadığını göstermektedir (Berlin, Cassidy ve Appleyard, 2008). Fraley ve Davis (1997) ergenlik döneminde arkadaşlık ilişkilerinin önem kazandığını ve arkadaşların da duygu denetiminde ek kaynak olarak kullanıldıklarını bildirmiştir. Bu kuram ve bulgulara karşın, çocuğun erken dönem bağlanma kalitesi ve sonraki dönemdeki bağlanma stilleri arasında birebir ilişki bulunamamıştır (Fraley, 2002). Schneider, Atkinson ve Tardif (2001) yaptıkları bir meta-analizde ebeveyne güvenli bağlanma ve arkadaşlık kalitesi arasındaki ilişkiyi .25 olarak bulmuşlardır.

Bağlanma kuramı yakın ilişkileri bir ağ modeli içinde hiyerarşik olarak ele almaktadır. Collins ve Read'in (1994) ağ şeklinde yapılanma modeline göre hiyerarşinin en tepesinde kişinin gelişim dönemi yaşantılarının toplamı olan benlik modeli ve başkaları modelleri (ya da içsel çalışan benlik ve başkaları modelleri) yer almaktadır. Bu modeller yakın ilişkilerde beklentileri, duyguları ve davranışları yönlendirmektedir. Ebeveynler, akranlar ve diğer önemli kişiler bu hiyerarşi içinde yer almaktadırlar. Hiyerarşi içerisinde yukarıdan aşağı olduğu gibi aşağıdan yukarı da bir etki bulunmaktadır (Pierce ve Lydon, 2001).

Ebeveyn ve arkadaşlık ilişkilerinde oluşmuş olan bağlanma temsillerinin birebir çakışmasını önleyen diğer bir faktör de orta çocuklukta başlayıp ergenlikte devam eden bağlanmanın temel değişkenleri olan sığınma, yakınlık ve keşif üs

ihtiyaçlarının giderilmesinin yakın arkadaşlara aktarılma süreci olabilir. Trinke ve Bartholomew (1997; Zeifman ve Hazan, 2008) bağlanma ihtiyaçlarının giderilmesinin gelişim süreci boyunca diğer yakın ilişkilere aktarıldığını bildirmişlerdir. Araştırmalar, orta çocukluk dönemi itibariyle yakınlık ihtiyacının arkadaşlarla giderildiğini, ergenlikle birlikte sığınma ihtiyacının giderilmesinde de yakın arkadaşlık ilişkilerinin kullanıldığını göstermişlerdir (Hazan ve Zeifman, 1994; Fraley ve Davis, 1997). Diamond ve Faguendes (2008) ergenlerin bu dönem boyunca halen ebeveynlerini keşif üssü olarak kullandıklarını ve normatif olduğu savunulan bu gelişim çizgisi dışında olan aktarımların ergenin sağlıksız gelişimini ve özellikle duygu denetim bozukluklarını yordadığını göstermişlerdir.

Yazındaki bulgular duygu denetimini de içeren duygulanım denetiminin veya duyguların ya bağlanma stilleri ile yüksek düzeyde ilişkili olduğunu ya da sonuç değişkenlerine aracılık ettiğini göstermiştir. Mikulincer ve Florian (2004) güvenli bağlanma stiline sahip bireylerin duyguları tanıma, kabul etme ve gerçeklikle irtibat halinde olma gibi duygulanım denetiminde etkin olan süreçlerde başarılı olduğunu, stresle etkin olarak baş edebildiklerini, sorun çözme odaklı olduklarını ve hayata karşı iyimser bir bakış açısına sahip olduklarını göstermişlerdir.

Aynı araştırmacılar kaygılı bağlanma stiline sahip olan kişilerin özellikle ilişkiler söz konusu olduğunda sürekli tehdit algıladıklarını (örn., reddedilme, terk edilme, baş edememe), bu nedenle yüksek düzeyde olumsuz duygulanım yaşadıklarını ve hayata karşı kötümser bir bakış açısına sahip olduklarını bulmuşlardır. Kaygılı bağlanma stiline sahip kişiler aynı zamanda sorun çözme üzerine odaklanmayarak, zaten yüksek olan olumsuz duygulanım durumlarını daha da yükselterek yakın ilişkide oldukları kişilerin ilgisini üzerlerinde tutmaya çabalarlar. Kaçınmacı bağlanma stiline sahip olan bireyler ise duygulanımlarını en alt düzeyde tutmaya çalıştıkları için duygu farkındalığında ve onları kabul etmede zorluk yaşamakta, duygularından kaçınma amacı ile ilişkide oldukları kişilere güvenmek yerine kendilerine yeterli olmaya çalışmaktadırlar. Olumsuz duygulardan kaçınmak için sorun çözme odaklı olup çoğu zaman duygulanımları benliklerinden uzak tutmaya çalışmakta, ancak bunu başaramadıkları durumlarda kaygılı bağlanma stillerine sahip kişiler gibi yüksek olumsuz duygulanım etkisine maruz kalabilmektedirler (bkz., Mikulincer ve Shaver, 2008; Shaver ve Mikulincer, 2007).

Bulgular, duygulanım denetiminin bağlanma niteliği ve sonuç değişkenleri arasındaki ilişkide aracı değişken olduğunu göstermektedir. Contreras, Kerns, Weimer, Gentzer, ve Tomich (2000) gerilimle baş etme yetisinin orta çocuklukta ebeveyne güvenli bağlanma ile arkadaşlık yetisi arasındaki ilişkide aracı değişken olduğunu bildirmişlerdir. Cooper, Shaver ve Collins (1998) güvenli bağlanma stiline sahip olan ergenlerin düşük depresyon, kaygı ve düşmanlık duygularına ve yüksek düzeyde sosyal yetiye sahip olduklarını göstermişlerdir. Düşük düzeydeki olumsuz duygulanımlar ve sosyal yetkinlik ise bu ergenlerin güvenli bağlanma stilleri ile yüksek sosyal uyum ve akademik beklentileri arasındaki ilişkiye aracılık etmiştir. Kaçınmacı bağlanan ergenler ise yüksek düzeyde duygulanım ve orta düzeyde sosyal yetkinlik bildirmişlerdir. Yüksek düzeydeki duygulanım ve orta düzeydeki sosyal yetkinlik algıları ise bu ergenlerin yüksek risk içeren davranışlara girmelerini ve düşük akademik beklentilerini yordamıştır. Kaçınmacı bağlanma stiline sahip ergenler ise yüksek düzeyde olumsuz duygulanım ve sosyal yetkinlik bildirmişler, bu değişkenler ise ergenlerin düşük düzeydeki riskli davranış ve akademik beklentilerini yordamıştır.

Bağlanma kuramının ve ilgili bulguların değerlendirmesi sonucunda duygulanım denetiminin, ebeveyne bağlanma niteliği ile arkadaş bağlanma temsilleri ve sosyal uyum arasındaki doğrudan etkiye sınırlı olarak aracılık ettiği öne sürülebilir. Aynı şekilde bağlanma ihtiyaçlarının aktarılma düzeyinin ve arkadaşlıktaki bağlanma temsillerinin de bu dönemde duygulanım denetimini etkilemesi beklenir. Ancak ilgili yazın, sosyal uyum ve arkadaşlık ilişkilerinin niteliğinin başka etkenler tarafından da yordandığını göstermektedir. Bu amaçla devam eden bölümde ebeveynlik davranışlarının ergen gelişimi üzerindeki doğrudan etkileri incelenecektir. Buna ek olarak, evlilik içi çatışmanın ergen gelişimi ve öz-denetim üzerindeki etkileri daha sonraki bölümde kısaca ele alınacaktır.

Ebeveyn Davranışları ve Ergen Gelişimi

Baumrind'in (1968; 1991) öncü çalışması, yüksek düzeyde sıcaklık/ilgi, destek, olumlu tepki ve davranışsal beklenti içeren ebeveyn davranışlarının çocuğun sosyal uyumu ile olumlu yönde ilgili olduğunu göstermiştir. Buna karşın, ebeveyn davranışlarının yüksek düzeyde sıcaklık/ilgi ve destek, düşük düzeyde davranışsal beklenti içerdiği durumlar dışsallaştırma sorunları ile yüksek ilişki göstermiş, yüksek

düzeyde kontrol ve düşük düzeyde sıcaklık/ilgi ve destek içeren ebeveyn davranışlarının ise dışsallaştırma ve içselleştirme sorunları ile ilgili olduğu bulunmuştur.

Bu kapsayıcı yaklaşım çocuğun sosyalleşmesinde ebeveyn davranışlarının etkin olduğunu göstermesine karşın, çocuğun nasıl kontrol edilmesi gerektiği konusunda ilgili yazında bir kavram kargaşası yaşanmıştır. Çalışmalar ve ilgili yaklaşımlar, ebeveynin çocuğa uyguladığı davranış kontrolünün psikolojik kontrolden farklı olduğunu göstermektedir (Schaefer, 1965; Steinberg, 1990; Barber, 1996). Barber ve Harmon (2002) psikolojik kontrolü ebeveyn ve çocuk arasındaki ilişkiyi manipüle ederek çocuğu kontrol etmeye yönelik davranışlar bütünü olarak tanımlamışlardır. Psikolojik kontrol, çocuk ebeveynin isteklerini karşılamadığında veya ebeveyn çocuk üzerindeki üstün pozisyonunu korumak istediğinde ebeveynin çocuğu suçluluğa sevk etmesi, kaygılandırması, çocuktan sevgiyi geri çekmesi veya çocuğun kendini ifade etmesini engelleme ve ifade edilen duygu ve olayların değerini düşürme gibi durumlarını kapsar. Çocuğa sözlü olarak saldırma ve tutarsız davranışlar gösterme de psikolojik kontrol davranışları arasında yer almaktadır. Barber, Stolz ve Olsen (2005; Barber, 1996) psikolojik kontrolün ergen gelişimde dışsallaştırma ve içselleştirme problemleri ile ilişkili olduğunu göstermişlerdir.

Gurland ve Frakas'a (2002) göre davranış kontrolü çocuğa kurallar dizgesinden oluşmuş ve yapılandırılmış bir ortam sunarak çocuğun sosyal yeteneklerinin oluşmasına yardımcı olmaktadır. Kerr ve Stattin (2000) davranış kontrolünün hem çocuğun davranışlarının denetlenmesi olan hareketlerinin ve ilişkilerinin takip edilmesini hem de ebeveyn bilgisi olarak adlandırılan çocuk hakkında ebeveynin sahip olduğu bilgi seviyesini gerek çocukla bilgi paylaşımında bulunarak gerek diğer yollarla arttırılmasını kapsadığını belirtirler. Bu tanımlara uygun olarak ebeveyn davranış kontrolü sadece ebeveynin yaptığı davranışları değil çocuk-ebeveyn işbirliğini temsil eden ve bu ilişkinin çocuğun ebeveynle bilgi ve duygu paylaşımını arttırıcı şekilde olumlu bir geçmişi olduğunu dışa vuran davranışları temsil eder. Barber ve arkadaşları (2005; Barber, 1996) ebeveynin uyguladığı davranış kontrolünün ergenin düşük düzeydeki dışsallaştırma ve içselleştirme sorunları ve yüksek düzeyde sosyal davranışlarıyla ile ilgili olduğunu göstermişlerdir.

Arrindell, Sanavio, Aguilar, Sica, Hatzichristou, Eiseman ve arkadaşları (1999) sıcaklık/ilgi içeren ebeveynliği sıcaklık, samimiyet, ilgi, teşvik, övgü ve takdiri içeren çocuğa bakım ve ihtimam gösteren davranışlar bütünü olarak tanımlamaktadır. Bu ebeveynlik davranışlarının zıt kutbu olarak reddeci ebeveynliği göstermişler ve bunu çocuğu cezalandırıcı, utandırıcı, eleştirerek reddedici, düşmanlık içeren ve hırpalayıcıyı davranışlar bütünü olarak tanımlamışlardır. İlgili yazın, sıcaklık/ilgi içeren ebeveynliğin tutarlı olarak düşük dışsallaştırma ve içselleştirme sorunları ve yüksek sosyal yetkinlik ile ilgili olduğunu göstermiştir (Barber ve arkadaşları, 2005; Muris, Meesterses, ve van der Berg, 2003). Buna karşın, Farrington, Ullrich, ve Salekin (2010) tarafından yapılan yazın taraması sonuçları reddeci ebeveynliğin çocuklarda yüksek düzeyde davranış sorunları, suç işleme oranı, anti sosyal ve tepkisel davranışlarla ilgili olduğunu göstermektedir.

Yazında var olan araştırmalar ebeveynlik davranışlarının arkadaş bağlama temsilleri ile üzerinde de etkisi olduğunu göstermektedir. Nishikawa, Sundbom ve Hägglöf (2010) sıcak/ilgi içeren ebeveynliğin akranla bağlanmada düşük düzeyde kaçınma boyutu ile ilişkili olduğunu göstermişlerdir. Güngör ve Bornstein'ın (2010) ergenlerin arkadaş ilişkilerindeki bağlanma temsillerini incelemek amacı ile yaptıkları çalışma ise sıcaklık/ilgi içeren ebeveynliğin düşük kaygı boyutuyla, yüksek psikolojik kontrolün ise yüksek kaygılı bağlanma ile ilişkili olduğunu göstermiştir.

Yazın incelemesi, ebeveynlik davranışlarının boyutsal (dimensional) olarak incelenmesi gerektiğini göstermektedir. Buna uygun olarak kültürel etkiler de boyutsal farklılık gösterebilir. Kağıtçıbaşı (2007) özellikle kollektivistik kültürlerde ebeveynin sıcaklık/samimiyet boyutunun çocuğa ait sonuç değişkenleri üzerindeki etkisinin fazla olduğunu ve ilişkiselliğin hakim olduğu bu kültürlerde psikolojik kontrolün olumsuz etkisinin düşük olabileceğini savunmuştur. Aynı zamanda Sümer ve Ergin (2004) kıyas yapan ebeveyn davranışlarının kültüre özgü olduğunu ve arkadaş temsillerindeki kaygı boyutu ile olumlu ilişkisi olduğunu göstermişlerdir. Bütün bunlara uygun olarak araştırma, ebeveynlik boyutlarının ergenlerin psikososyal uyumları üzerindeki özdenetim üzerinden dolaylı etkilerine ek olarak dolaysız etkilerinin de olacağını öngörmektedir.

Evlilik İçi Çatışma

Gelişim yazını, evlilik içi çatışmanın çocukta psikolojik ve davranışsal sorunlarına neden olduğunu bildirmektedir (Davies ve Cummings, 1994; Grych ve Fincham, 1990). Bu etki doğrudan olabildiği gibi dolaylı olarak çocuğun duygu özdenetimi ve model alma davranışları üzerinden de olabilir (Zimet ve Jacobs, 2001). Yine aynı yazında, aile içi çatışmanın çocuğun duygusal güvenliğini azalttığı tespit edilmiştir. Buna göre çocuk, aile içi çatışmanın yarattığı olumsuz duygularla baş etmeye çalışmakta ancak olumsuz olaylara karşı aşırı hassasiyet geliştirmektedir. Bu hassasiyet kendini benlik, aile ve sosyal dünyanın olumsuz temsilleri ve olumsuz duygulanmaya ve davranışlara meyil olarak belirmektedir (Cummings ve Davies, 2002; Davies ve Cummings, 1994). Birçok çalışma, aile içi çatışma ve çocukta içselleştirme ve dışsallaştırma sorunları arasındaki ilişkinin bu olumsuz temsiller, duygulanımlar ve davranış meyilleri tarafından belirlendiğini göstermektedir (Cummings, Schermerhorn, Davies, Goeke-Morey, ve Cummings, 2006; Gotzman ve Katz, 1989; Parke ve arkadaşları, 2006).

Buna ek olarak, Emery (1982) evlilik içi çatışmanın ebeveyn-çocuk ilişkisine taşabileceğini ve bu yolla çocuğun gelişimini olumsuz yönde etkileyebileceğini savunmuştur. Etkilenen en önemli ebeveyn davranışlarından biri ise duygusal içerikli olarak ele alınabilecek olan çocuğun psikolojik bağımsızlığını destekleme davranışlarıdır (Cummings ve Davies, 2002).

Sonuç olarak araştırma kapsamında yüksek düzeyde evlilik içi çatışmanın çocuğun psikososyal uyumunu doğrudan ve özdenetim yeteneklerini bozması yolu ile dolaylı olarak etkilemesi beklenmektedir.

Çalışmanın Amacı ve Araştırma Soruları

Ergenlik döneminde sağlıklı denetim becerilerinin kazanılmış ve içselleştirilmiş olması kadar duygusal aile içi ortam tarafından desteklenmesi ergenin yaşadığı yoğun duygulanım ve değişimlerle baş edebilmesi için gereklidir. Var olan çalışmalar denetim yeteneklerinin gelişim sürecinde aileye dair etkenlerle çocuğun gelişimi arasındaki ilişki üzerinde önemli bir aracı işlevi olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Ancak aile içi duygusal ortamın ergen gelişimini nasıl etkilediğine dair çalışmalar birbirinden kopuktur. Bunlara ek olarak Sümer, Gündoğdu-Aktürk, ve Helvacı

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(2010) Türkiye'de gelişim alanında yapılan çalışmalarda genellikle Baumrind'in (1968; 1991) "bütüncül ebeveynlik davranışlarının" gelişim üzerindeki etkisinin incelendiğini, tek kaynaktan toplanan veri kullanıldığını, ve araştırmaların çoğunlukla kesitsel olduğunu belirtmişlerdir. Son zamanlarda boyutsal, boylamsal, ve çoklu veri kullanan yaklaşımların artmasına karşın (örn., Kındap, 2010; Kındap, Sayıl, ve Kumru, 2008), bu açığı kapatmak için yapılan araştırmaların sayısı yeterli değildir.

Bunlar göz önüne alınarak bu araştırmanın amacı duygusal aile içi ortamın ergenin psikososyal uyumu üzerindeki dolaysız ve özdenetim yoluyla dolaylı etkisini kesitsel ve iki safhalı olmak üzere boylamsal olarak bütüncül bir yaklaşımla incelemek olarak belirlenmiştir. Ortak yöntem varyansını önlemek amacı ile değişik kaynaklardan veri toplanmış ve tasarlanmış aracı değişkenli model bu veriler kullanılarak sınanmıştır. Çalışma kapsamında sınanacak önermeler şunlardır;

1. Çalışmada özdenetim becerilerinin duygusal aile ortamı ve ergenin uyum değişkenleri arasında aracılık etmesi öngörülmüştür. Buna göre, olumlu duygusal aile içi ortamı oluşturan boyutlar olan ebeveynin sıcaklık/ilgi ve davranış kontrolü ve ebeveynlere güvenli bağlanmanın özdenetim becerilerini olumlu yordaması, yüksek özdenetim becerileri ise ergenin dışsallaştırma ve içselleştirme sorunlarını olumsuz ve sosyal davranışlarını olumlu yordaması beklenmektedir. Olumsuz duygusal aile içi ortamı tanımlayan reddedici, kıyaslayıcı ve psikolojik kontrol içeren ebeveyn davranışlarının ve evlilik içi çatışmanın özdenetim becerilerini olumsuz olarak, düşük özdenetim becerilerinin ise ergen sorunlarını olumlu sosyal davranışlarını olumsuz olarak yordaması beklenmektedir.

2. Duygusal aile içi ortamın ergen gelişim sonuçları üzerinde dolaysız etkisinin olması da öngörülmüştür. Buna göre olumlu duygusal aile içi ortam ergen sorunlarını olumsuz, sosyal davranışları olumlu olarak yordayacaktır. Buna karşın olumsuz duygusal aile içi boyutlarının ergen sorunlarını olumlu, sosyal davranışları olumsuz olarak yordaması beklenmektedir.

3. Ergenin ebeveynlere güvenli bağlanmasının ergenin arkadaş ilişkisi bağlanma temsillerinde düşük düzeyde kaygı ve kaçınma boyutunu yordaması, bu etki üzerinde özdenetim becerilerinin sınırlı bir aracı rolü oynaması beklenmektedir.

4. Keşif üs ihtiyaçlarının giderilmesinde ebeveynlerin ya da hem ebeveynlerin hem de arkadaşların kullanılmasının yüksek özdenetim becerileri ve

olumlu ergen sonuç değişkenleri ile ilişkili olması beklenmektedir. Ancak, keşif üs ihtiyacını arkadaşa aktaran ergenlerin özdenetim ve uyum boyutlarında sorun yaşaması beklenmektedir.

5. Ergenlerin arkadaşa bağlanma temsillerinin gelişim üzerinde etkisi olması beklenmektedir. Düşük kaygı ve kaçınma boyutlarına sahip olarak arkadaşlarına güvenli bağlanan ergenlerin yüksek özdenetim becerileri ve sosyal uyum göstermeleri, arkadaşlarına kaygılı bağlanan ergenlerin olumsuz duygulanımlarını arttırıcı, kaçınmacı bağlanan ergenlerin ise duygulanımları en alt düzeyde tutacak stratejiler kullanmaları beklenmektedir.

6. Ebeveynlik boyutlarının ergenin arkadaşlık bağlanma temsillerini belirlemesi beklenmektedir. Ebeveynliğin sıcaklık/ilgi boyutu arkadaşlık ilişkilerinde düşük kaygı ve kaçınma seviyesini, psikolojik kontrol ve kıyaslama boyutu ise bu ilişkideki yüksek düzeyde kaygı ve kaçınma seviyesini yordayacaktır. Özdenetimin aracı rolü araştırma kapsamında incelenecektir.

7. Evlilik içi çatışmanın uzun dönemde ebeveyn-çocuk ilişkisine taşması beklenmektedir. Buna göre, ilk dönem yüksek düzeyde evlilik içi çatışma, ikinci dönemde olumsuz ebeveynlik davranışları olan psikolojik kontrol ve kıyası pozitif, olumlu ebeveynlik içinde yer alan davranış kontrolünü negatif yordayacaktır. Ancak, aynı zamanda yüksek evlilik içi çatışmanın yüksek ergen sorunları ile ilişkili olması beklenmektedir. Parker ve Fisher'ın (2002) çocuk sorunlarının ebeveynleri olumsuz davranışlara ittiği çıkarımları temel alınarak evlilik içi çatışmanın ikinci dönem olumsuz ebeveyn davranışları üzerindeki etkisinin ergen sorunları üzerinden dolaylı olması da beklenmektedir.

8. Thompson (2008) ebeveyne güvenli bağlanmanın yakın etkisinin olumlu ebeveyn davranışları üzerinde görülebileceğini belirtmiştir. Buna dayanarak ebeveyne güvenli bağlanmanın ikinci dönemde davranış kontrolünü olumlu, psikolojik kontrol ve kıyas davranışlarını ise olumsuz yordaması ve bu olumlu ebeveyn davranışlarının uzun dönemde özdenetim becerilerini olumlu yordaması beklenmektedir.

Yöntem

Katılımcılar

Araştırma kapsamında iki lisede öğrenim gören 470 1inci ve 2nci sınıf öğrencisinden altı ay ara ile iki farklı zaman diliminde veri toplamıştır. Bu liselerden biri düz lise, diğeri ise akademik başarısı yüksek bir Anadolu Lisesidir. Çeşitli nedenlerle 44 ergen elenmiştir. Böylece, analizler 426 ergen üzerinden yürütülmüştür. Katılımcıların 231'i erkek (% 54.4) ve 194'ü (% 45.5) kız öğrencidir. Katılımcıların ortalama yaşı 14.55'dir (SD = .59). Katılımcı öğrencilerin annelerinin 187 tanesi (% 43.6) ve babalarının 175 tanesi (% 41.1) araştırmaya yanıt vererek katılmayı kabul etmiştir. Öğretmelerin 353 (% 82.9) tanesinden veri toplanabilmiştir.

Yaklaşık altı ay sonraki ikinci veri toplama aşamasında, ilk aşamaya katılan öğrencilerin 376'sı (ilk grubun % 88.3'ü) ölçekleri yanıtlamıştır. ANOVA analizi, ilk aşamaya katılan öğrenciler arasında erkek, yaşı büyük ve düz liseye giden öğrencilerin ikinci aşamaya katılımlarının düşük olduğunu göstermiştir. Buna ek olarak daha yüksek olumsuz baba davranışı rapor eden ergenler ikinci dönemde düşük katılım göstermişlerdir. İlk dönem çalışmaya katılan annelerin % 49.2'si (N=92) ve babaların % 50.3'ü (N=88) ikinci aşama çalışmasına katılmıştır. Öğretmenler 375 (% 88) öğrenci için bildirimde bulunmuşlardır.

Kullanılan Ölçüm Araçları

Ergenler ilk aşamada bağlanma ihtiyaçlarını kiminle giderdiklerini (Fraley ve Davis, 1997) sıralamışlardır. Ergenlerin anne ve babaya güvenli bağlanma seviyesi (Kerns ve arkadaşları, 1996) Harter tipi, arkadaş bağlanma temsilleri içindeki kaygı ve kaçınma boyutları (Fraley, Waller, ve Brennan, 2000) ise 6'lı Likert-tipi ölçekler kullanılarak ölçülmüştür. Buna ek olarak ergenler ve ebeveynleri, ebeveyn davranışlarının sıcaklık/samimiyet ve reddetme boyutlarını (Arridell ve arkadaşları, 1999) 6'lı Likert-tipi ölçek üzerinden değerlendirmişlerdir.

İlk ve ikinci dönemde hem ergenler hem de ebeveynleri ebeveynin uyguladığı psikolojik kontrolü (Barber, 1996; Olsen, Yang, Hart, Robinson, Wu, Nelson, Nelson, Jin, ve Wo, 2002), davranış kontrolünü (Stattin ve Kerr, 2000; Harma, 2008), ve kıyaslamayı (Sümer ve Ergin, 2004) 6'lı Likert-tipi ölçekleri kullanarak

değerlendirmişlerdir. Ergenler her iki aşamada ebeveynler arası çatışma algılarını (Grych, Seid ve Fincham, 1992) ve özdenetim becerilerini (Moilanen, 2007) 4'lü, kendi saldırgan davranışlarını (Crick ve Grotpeter, 1995), duygu (Gross ve John, 2003; Moss, 1988) ve duygu durum denetim becerilerini (Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey, ve Palphai, 1995) ise 6'lı Likert-tipi ölçek kullanarak bildirmişlerdir. İki aşamada da ebeveynler evlilik içi çatışmayı (O'Leary ve Potter, 1980; Sümer, Sayıl, Kazak-Berument, Doğruyol, Günaydın, Harma, Öztürk, Salman, ve Selçuk, 2009) 4'lü, ebeveynler ve öğretmenler ise ergenin sosyal davranışlarını, dışsallaştırma ve içselleştirme sorunlarını (Goodman, 1997) 3'lü Likert-tipi ölçek kullanarak değerlendirmişlerdir.

Kullanılan Analiz Teknikleri

Önerilen modellerin kesitsel ve boylamsal sınanması Yapısal Eşitlik Modeli tekniği ve LISREL 8.80 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993) programı kullanılarak yürütülmüştür. Örneklem büyüklüğü yetersiz ve gizil değişkenler arası korelasyonların yüksek olması göz önüne alınarak, çoğu analiz duygusal aile içi ortam gizil değişkenlerinden farklı öbekler oluşturarak gerçekleştirilmiştir. Ayrıca ebeveyn bildirimlerindeki veri kaybının yüksek olması boylamsal analizlerde ebeveyn verilerinin kullanılmasını engellemiştir. İlk dönem verilerindeki ve ikinci dönem ergen ve öğretmen örneklemlerindeki kayıp değerler, SPSS 13.0 programı kullanılarak yapılan regresyon isnat yöntemi (örn., Hawthorne ve Elliot, 2005) ile elde edilen değerlerle değiştirilmiştir. Aynı program kullanılarak yapılan ANCOVA analizleri ile hem keşif üssü ihtiyaçlarının odaklandığı kişilere göre oluşturulan hem de arkadaşa bağlanma stillerine göre ayrışmış gruplar arası farklar ayrı ayrı incelenmiştir.

Bulgular

Betimleyici İstatistikler

Çalışmada korelasyon verileri beklendiği gibidir. Ergen ve ebeveyn değerlendirmelerine göre olumlu aile içi ortam boyutları birbirleri ile pozitif, olumsuz aile içi ortam değişkenleri ile negatif korelasyon göstermiştir. Ergenin olumlu duygusal aile içi ortam bildirimleri olumlu özdenetim boyutları ile pozitif, olumsuz özdenetim, saldırganlık ve arkadaş ilişkilerindeki kaygı ve kaçınma boyutları ile negatif korelasyon göstermiştir. Ergen tarafından değerlendirilen

olumsuz bağımsız değişkenler ise tam tersi korelasyonlar göstermiştir ancak olumsuz ebeveyn davranışları ile arkadaşlık ilişkilerinde kaçınma boyutları arasında istatistiksel açıdan anlamlı düzeyde korelasyon bulunamamıştır.

Ebeveynlerin bildirimleri ve ergenin özdenetimi, saldırganlık ve kaçınma boyutları arasındaki korelasyon değerleri ya düşük ya da anlamsızdır. Buna karşın, ebeveyn bildirimleri ile ergenin arkadaş ilişkilerindeki kaygı seviyesi tutarlı olarak olumlu boyutlarla negatif, olumsuzlarla ise pozitif ilişki göstermiştir. Ek olarak, olumlu ebeveynlik boyutları sorunlarla negatif, sosyallikle pozitif, olumsuz ebeveynlik ve evlilik içi çatışma bildirimleri ise sorunlarla pozitif, sosyallikle negatif ilişki göstermiştir. Ebeveynlerin ve öğretmenlerin ergen bildirimleri arasındaki ilişkiler çoğunlukla anlamsızdır. Boylamsal veriler arasında da daha düşük olmasına karşın benzer ilişki eğilimleri mevcuttur.

Yapısal Eşitlik Modeli Bulguları

Yapısal eşitlik modeli analizleri ergenler, ebeveynler ve öğretmenler tarafından değerlendirilen boyutların gizil değişkenlere dönüştürülmesi ile sınanmıştır. Ebeveyn örneklem sayısının düşük olduğu göz önüne alınarak, ilk analizde yalnızca ergen ve öğretmen örneklemi, diğer analizlerde ise öğretmenlerin ve ebeveynlerin ergen bildirimleri arasındaki düşük korelasyonlar göz önüne alınarak yalnızca ergen ve ebeveyn örneklemleri kullanılmıştır. Ergenlerin ve ebeveynlerin duygusal aile içi ortam değerlendirmeleri benzer boyutlar üzerinden olumlu ve olumsuz ebeveynlik, psikolojik ve davranışsal kontrol, evlilik içi çatışma ve ebeveyne güvenli bağlanma olarak kümelenmiş ve aralarındaki yüksek yapısal korelasyonlar dikkate alınarak bir veya birkaçı gruplandırılarak ayrı analizlerle sınanmışlardır. Aracı değişken olan özdenetim becerileri olumlu ve olumsuz olmak üzere ikiye ayrılarak gizil değişkenlere dönüştürülmüştür. Ergen uyumu gizil değişkenleri ise ergen ve öğretmen örnekleminin kullanıldığı durumda öğretmen bildirimlerinin dönüştürülmesi, ergen ve ebeveyn örnekleminin kullanıldığı analizlerde ise ebeveyn tarafından değerlendirilmiş olan ergenin sosyal davranışları, içselleştirme ve dışsallaştırma sorunlarının kümelenmesi ile oluşturulmuştur. Sonuç değişkeni olarak arkadaş bağlanma boyutlarının kullanıldığı analizlerde, kaygı ve kaçınmanın hata varyansları Kenny, Kashy, ve Bolger (1998) tarafından önerilen $[(1-\alpha) \times \text{varyans}]$ formülü kullanılarak sabitlenmiş ve gizil değişkenlere

dönüştürülmüştür. Analiz uygulamalarında gizil değişkenler arası korelasyonların yüksek olduğu durumlarda, gereksiz olduğu tespit edilen değişkenler analiz dışı bırakılmıştır.

Boylamsal analizlerin ilkinde bağımsız gizil değişken olan evlilik içi çatışma ergen ve ebeveyn bildirimleri kullanılarak oluşturulmuştur. Aracı değişken olarak içselleştirilmiş sorunlar ve dışsallaştırılmış sorun gizil değişkenleri kullanılmıştır. İçselleştirilmiş gizil değişkeninden farklı olarak, dışsallaştırma gizil değişkeninin içerisinde ergenin saldırganlık bildirimleri de belirteç olarak kullanılmıştır. İlk dönem ergen tarafından algılanan ebeveynin uyguladığı psikolojik kontrol ve kıyas davranışı boyutları psikolojik kontrol gizil değişkenine dönüştürülerek benzer şekilde oluşturulan ikinci dönem psikolojik kontrol değişkenini kontrol etmek için kullanılmıştır. Benzer şekilde, ilk dönem ergen tarafından algılanan anne ve baba davranış kontrolü boyutları davranış kontrolü gizil değişkenine dönüştürülmüş ve ikinci dönem davranış kontrolü değişkenini kontrol etmek için kullanılmıştır. Bu analizlerde ilk dönem ve ikinci dönemdeki benzer gizil değişkenlerin belirteçlerinin hataları birbirine eşitlenmiştir. İkinci analizde, bağımsız gizil değişken ebeveyne güvenli bağlanma iken sonuç gizil değişkenleri olarak ikinci dönem olumlu ve olumsuz özdenetim becerileri kullanılmış ve ilk dönem olumlu ve olumsuz özdenetim gizil değişkenleri ile kontrol edilmiştir. Ebeveynlik gizil değişkenleri ikinci dönem ölçümleri kullanılarak bir önceki boylamsal analizdekine benzer şekilde oluşturulmuş ve aracı etkileri sınanmıştır.

Tüm yapısal model analizlerinde, önce ölçüm modelinin uyum istatistikleri hesaplanmış, daha sonra yapısal model için ilgili istatistikler elde edilmiştir. Tüm model sınamalarında modifikasyon endeksi önerileri ilgili kurama uygun olarak değerlendirilmiş ve gerekli görüldüğü durumlarda gizil değişken belirteçlerinin hata varyansları birbirlerine eşitlemiştir. Bu uygulamalar sonrası ölçüm modellerinin veri ile uyumlu olduğu bulunmuştur. Ölçüm modellerinden elde edilen tüm serbestlik derecesi/ki-kare oranları 5'in altında olup (Bollen, 1989) RMSEA değerleri .10'dan düşüktür (Hu ve Bentler, 1999). Ölçüm modellerine değişkenler arasında öngörülen ilişkiler eklenerek yapısal eşitlik modelleri test edilmiş ve modellerin uyum istatistikleri de kabul edilebilir seviyede bulunmuştur. Modellerdeki regresyon ağırlıklarının çoğunun öngörülen doğrultuda ve istatistiksel açıdan anlamlı olduğu tespit edilmiştir.

Ergen ve öğretmen örneklemlerinin kullanıldığı model sonuçları ebeveyne güvenli bağlanmanın olumsuz özdenetim becerilerini (r = -.21), evlilik içi çatışmanın olumlu özdenetim becerilerini (r = -.29), olumsuz ebeveynliğin ise ergenin sorunlu davranışlarını (r = .18) yordadığını göstermiştir. Ebeveynin davranış kontrolü ise hem olumlu özdenetimi hem de ergenin sorunlu davranışlarını (sırasıyla, r = .38 ve r = -.13) yordamıştır.

Ergen ve ebeveyn örneklemleri kullanılarak yapılan analizler toplu şekilde değerlendirilmiştir. İlk analizde olumlu ebeveynlik sosyal davranışları (r = -.50), olumsuz özdenetim becerilerini (r = .34), içselleştirme (r = .61) ve dışsallaştırma (r = .75) sorunlarını yordamıştır. Buna karşın, ebeveynin davranışsal kontrolü olumlu özdenetim becerilerini (r = .61) ve sosyal davranışları (r = .21) yordamıştır. Modelde özdenetim becerilerinin aracı etkisi bulunamamıştır. İkinci analizde, bağımsız gizil değişken olan evlilik içi çatışma olumlu özdenetimi (r = -.40), sosyal davranışları (r = -.73), içselleştirme (r = .91) ve dışsallaştırma (r = .67) sorunlarını yordamıştır. Analizde özdenetimin aracı etkisi bulunamamıştır. Son analizde, ebeveyne güvenli bağlanma olumlu özdenetimi (r = .52) ve olumsuz özdenetimi (r = -.44) yordamıştır. Olumlu ve olumsuz özdenetim içselleştirme sorunlarını (sırasıyla r = -.29 ve r = .35) yordamıştır. Analiz hem olumlu hem de olumsuz özdenetim değişkenlerinin aracı etkisi olduğunu göstermiştir. Ebeveyne güvenli bağlanmanın içselleştirme sorunları üzerindeki dolaylı etkisi -.30 olarak belirlenmiştir.

Arkadaşlık ilişki temsillerimdeki kaygı ve kaçınma boyutlarının sonuç değişkeni olarak kullanıldıkları yapısal modellerin sınanmasında ergen örneklemi kullanılmıştır. İlk modelin sınandığı analiz sonuçları, anneye güvenli bağlanmanın olumlu özdenetimi (r = .28), olumsuz özdenetimi (r = -.15) ve arkadaş ilişkilerindeki kaygıyı (r = -.34), babaya güvenli bağlanmanın ise olumlu özdenetimi (r = .20) yordadığını göstermiş. Olumsuz özdenetim hem arkadaş ilişkilerindeki kaygıyı (r = -.30) hem de kaçınmayı (r = -.30) yordarken, olumlu özdenetim yalnızca kaçınmayı (r = -.40) yordamıştır. Olumlu özdenetimin babaya güvenli bağlanma ve kaçınma arasındaki ilişki üzerinden küçük ancak anlamlı bir dolaylı etkisi olduğu bulunmuştur. Sınanan ikinci modelin sonucuna göre ebeveyn sıcaklık/ilgi olumlu özdenetimi (r = .35) ve arkadaş ilişkilerindeki kaygı (r = -.38) ve kaçınmayı (r = -.19) yordamıştır. Olumlu özdenetim arkadaş ilişkilerindeki kaçınmayı (r = -.25), olumsuz özdenetim ise hem kaygı (r = .43) hem de kaçınmayı (r = -.27) yordamıştır. Analiz

olumlu özdenetimin aracı etkisi olduğunu göstermiştir. Ebeveynin sıcaklık/ilgisinin arkadaş ilişkilerinde kaçınma üzerindeki dolaylı etkisi -.21 olarak bulunmuştur. Sınanan üçüncü modelin sonuçları ise ebeveynin uyguladığı psikolojik kontrol davranışlarının olumlu özdenetim (r = -.33), olumsuz özdenetim (r = .20), ve arkadaş ilişkilerinde kaygıyı (r = .37) yordayıcı etkisi olduğunu, olumsuz özdenetimin ise arkadaşlık ilişkilerindeki kaygıyı (r = .34) yordadığını göstermektedir. Sonuçlar, psikolojik kontrolün kaygı üzerinde olumsuz özdenetim üzerinden küçük dolaylı etkisi olduğunu göstermiştir (r = .08).

Boylamsal modellerin sınandığı analizlerin ilkinde ilk dönem evlilik içi çatışma ilk dönem içselleştirme (r = .79) ve dışsallaştırma (r = .71) sorunlarını yordamıştır. İlk dönem psikolojik kontrol ikinci dönem psikolojik kontrolü .59 oranında, ilk dönem ebeveyn davranış kontrolü ise ikinci dönem davranış kontrolünü .50 oranında yordamıştır. İlk dönemdeki dışsallaştırma sorunları ise yalnızca ikinci dönemdeki ebeveynlerin uyguladığı psikolojik kontrolü (r = .16) yordamıştır. Sonuçlar dışsallaştırma sorunlarının aracı etkisi olduğunu göstermiştir. İlk dönem evlilik içi çatışmanın ikinci dönem psikolojik kontrol üzerindeki dışsallaştırma sorunları yoluyla dolaylı etkisi .11 olarak bulunmuştur. İkinci boylam analizinin sonuçları, ebeveyne güvenli bağlanmanın ikinci dönem ebeveynin psikolojik kontrolünü (r = -.42) ve davranış kontrolünü (r = .42) yordadığını göstermiştir. İlk dönem olumlu özdenetim ikinci dönem özdenetimi .38, ilk dönem olumsuz özdenetim ikinci dönem olumsuz özdenetimi .40 oranında yordamıştır. İkinci dönem psikolojik kontrol hem olumlu özdenetimi (r = -.17) hem de olumsuz özdenetimi (r = .29), ikinci dönem davranış kontrolü ise yalnızca ikinci dönem olumlu özdenetimi yordamıştır. Ebeveyne güvenli bağlanmanın olumlu özdenetim üzerindeki dolaylı etkisi .19, olumsuz özdenetim üzerindeki etkisi ise -.11 olarak tespit edilmiştir.

ANCOVA Analizi Bulguları

Ergenlerin gelişim boyutlarının bağlanmanın keşif üs ihtiyacı aktarımından ve arkadaşlık ilişkileri temsillerinden nasıl etkilendiğini sınamak amacı ile iki ANCOVA analizi yapılmıştır. Analizlerin her biri ikişer boyut üzerinden dörder grup oluşturularak yapılmıştır. Gruplar arasındaki farklar Tukey LSD tekniği kullanılarak tespit edilmiştir.

Birinci analizde gruplar keşif üs ihtiyaçlarını karşıladığı en sık belirtilen kişiler olan anne, baba ve arkadaşlar üzerinden oluşturulmuştur. Buna göre ergenler keşif üs ihtiyaçlarının kimler tarafından karşılandığını önemlerine göre sıralamış ve sıralamadaki yerlerine göre anne, baba ve arkadaşlar puanlanmıştır. Anne ve baba puanları ve arkadaş puanları ayrı olarak toplanmış, ergenler medyan standart alınarak keşif üs ihtiyaçlarını ebeveynlerinden karşılayanlar, hem ebeveynlerinden hem de arkadaşlarından karşılayanlar, arkadaşlarından karşılayanlar ve düşük keşif üs figürü olarak dört gruba ayrılmışlardır.

Analiz sonuçları ebeveyn ve hem ebeveyn hem arkadaş odaklı olan grupların diğer gruplara göre daha yüksek duygu berraklığı olduğunu göstermiştir. Aynı zamanda ebeveyn odaklı gruptaki ergenlerin arkadaş odaklı ve düşük keşif üs figürü gruplarındakilere göre daha yüksek düzeyde duygu durum onarımına sahip ve düşük düzeyde duygu saplantılı oldukları tespit edilmiştir. Arkadaş odaklı gruptaki ergenlerin diğer gruplardakilere göre daha saldırgan oldukları ve ebeveyn ve hem ebeveyn hem arkadaş odaklı gruplara göre arkadaş ilişkilerinde daha yüksek kaygıya sahip oldukları belirlenmiştir. Ayrıca bu grup ebeveyn odaklı gruba göre arkadaş ilişkilerinde daha düşük kaçınma düzeyine sahiptir. Öğretmen bildirilerine göre ebeveyn odaklı grup arkadaş odaklı gruba göre daha düşük dışsallaştırma sorunu yaşamakta, arkadaş odaklı ve düşük keşif üs figürü gruplarına göre daha yüksek sosyal davranış sergilemektedir. Buna ek olarak öğretmenler ebeveyn ve hem ebeveyn hem de arkadaş odaklı grupların arkadaş odaklı gruptan daha düşük içselleştirme sorunlarına sahip olduklarını bildirmişlerdir.

İkinci analizde ergenler arkadaşlık ilişkisindeki kaygı ve kaçınma düzeyleri üzerinden medyan standart alınarak dört gruba ayrılmıştır. Düşük kaygı ve kaçınma seviyesine sahip ergenler güvenli bağlanan, yüksek kaygı ve düşük kaçınma seviyesine sahip ergenler kaygılı bağlanan, düşük kaygı ve yüksek kaçınma seviyesine sahip ergenler kaçınmacı ve yüksek kaygı ve kaçınma seviyesine sahip ergenler korkulu bağlanan gruplar olarak adlandırılmışlardır.

Sonuçlara göre arkadaşlarına güvenli bağlanan gruptaki ergenler diğer gruptakilere göre daha yüksek duygu dikkati ve duygu durum tamiri bildirmişlerdir. Güvenli ve kaygılı bağlanan gruplardaki ergenlerin duygu berraklığı, duyguları yeniden değerlendirme ve yeniden yapılandırma düzeyleri diğer gruplardakilere kıyasla daha yüksektir. Kaçınmacı bağlanan grup en alt düzeyde, kaygılı grup ise en

yüksek düzeyde duygu saplantısı bildirmişlerdir. Diğer iki grup bu ikisinin arasında yer almıştır. Güvenli ve kaçınmacı gruplar diğer gruplara nazaran en alt düzeyde duygularını bastırdıklarını ve saldırgan olduklarını bildirmişlerdir. Güvenli grup en yüksek özdenetim başarısı göstermiş, onu kaygılı ve kaçınmacı gruplar izlemiş, korkulu bağlanan grup ise en düşük özdenetim başarısı bildirmiştir. Kaygılı grup gruplar arasında en başarısız özdenetim bildirmiştir. Öğretmen bildirimleri güvenli bağlanan grubun korkulu bağlanan gruba göre daha düşük içselleştirme sorunlarına, kaçınmacı grubun ise kaygılı ve korkulu gruptan daha düşük içselleştirme sorunlarına sahip olduğunu göstermiştir.

Tartışma

Bu çalışmanın amacı kuramsal yaklaşımlar doğrultusunda (örn., Morris ve arkadaşları, 2007) duygusal aile içi ortamın ergen gelişimi üzerindeki etkisini, özdenetimin bu ilişkideki aracı rolünü, ve ebeveyn-ergen etkileşimini kesitsel ve boylamsal olarak incelemektir. Ortak yöntem varyans etkisinin azaltılması amacı ile çoklu kaynak kullanılarak aile iklimi ve ergen gelişimi farklı bakış açılarından ele alınmıştır. Aynı zamanda ebeveynlik boyutları, bağlanma, özdenetim, ve ergen gelişimi arasındaki spesifik ilişkiler öngörülen önermeler doğrultusunda sınanmıştır.

Bu amaçla gerçekleştirilmiş olan bir dizi yapısal eşitlik modeli analizi istatistiksel kriterlerle uyumlu sonuç vermiştir. Değişik örneklemlerle yapılan ve duygusal aile içi ortamın ergen gelişimi üzerindeki özdenetim yolu ile dolaylı ve doğrudan etkisini sınayan analizlerin toplu sonuçları aileye ait boyutlar olan ebeveynlik davranışları ve evlilik içi çatışmanın özdenetim ve ergen gelişimini doğrudan etkilediğini göstermiştir. Ancak özdenetim gelişiminin bu ilişkiler üzerinde aracı etkisi olmadığı tespit edilmiştir.

Araştırmadaki bulgular önceki araştırmalarla tutarlı olarak ebeveynlik davranışlarının ergen gelişimini ve uyumunu doğrudan yordadığını göstermiştir. Barber (1996; Barber ve arkadaşları, 2005) ebeveynin psikolojik ve davranışsal kontrolünün kavramsal olarak farklı olduğunu belirtmiş ve psikolojik kontrolün ergenin içselleştirme ve dışsallaştırma sorunları ile, davranış kontrolünün ise düşük dışsallaştırma sorunları ve anti sosyal davranışlarla ile ilişkili olduğunu göstermişlerdir. Bunlara karşın, Finkenauer, Engels, ve Baumeister (2005) benlik kontrolünün ebeveynin psikolojik ve davranışsal kontrolleri arasında sınırlı aracı

etkisi olduğunu, Harma (2008) ise özdenetimin yalnızca psikolojik kontrol ve ergen uyumu arasındaki ilişkiye aracılık ettiğini göstermişlerdir. Bu araştırmadaki bulgular ise özdenetimin aracı rolünü tespit edememiştir. Ancak, Grolnick ve arkadaşları (1997) Kendini Belirleme Kuramı (Deci ve Ryan, 1985) kapsamında, olumlu ebeveyn-çocuk ilişkisinin çocuğun özdenetim becerilerini içselleştirmesinde önemli olduğunu belirtmişlerdir. Bu araştırmacıların yaklaşımları araştırma bulguları ile tutarlıdır.

Araştırma bulguları ebeveynlere güvenli bağlanma ile ergenin içselleştirme sorunları arasındaki ilişkide olumlu özdenetimin aracı rolü oynadığını göstermiştir. Bağlanma kuramı (Bowlby, 1969; 1873) ebeveyne bağlanma niteliğinin insan üzerinde gelişim dönemleri boyunca etkileri olacağını savunmuştur. Valiente ve Eisenberg (2006) ebeveyn-çocuk etkileşiminin çocuğun duygu denetimi gelişimini etkileyeceğini ve duygu gelişiminin de çocuğun sosyal yetkinliğini yordayacağını belirtmişlerdir. Sümer ve Anafata-Şendağ (2009) ebeveyne güvensiz bağlanmanın çocuğun kendine bakışını olumsuz etkileyeceğini, bunun da çocukta olumsuz duygulanımı arttırdığını bulmuşlardır. Sonuçlar güvensiz bağlanmanın özdenetimde bozulmalara neden olarak kendini içselleştirme sorunları olarak gösterdiğini daha büyük çocuklar için de göstermiştir.

Ebeveynlere güvenli bağlanma ve ebeveyn davranışları olan ebeveynden algılanan sıcaklık/ilgi ve davranış kontrolü arasındaki yüksek yapısal korelasyon analizlerde bu bağımsız değişkenlerin topluca kullanılmasını engellemiştir. Grolnick ve Farkas (2002) hem ebeveynden algılanan sıcaklık/ilginin hem de ebeveyne güvenli bağlanmanın çocukta aidiyet ihtiyacını karşıladığını savunmuşlardır. Kerr ve Stattin (2000) ise davranışsal kontrolün ebeveyn ve çocuğun ortak çalışması olduğunu ve çocuğun bilgi paylaşımının ebeveyn-çocuk ilişkisinin olumlu geçmişini yansıttığını savunmuşlardır. Araştırma bulguları bütün bunları destekler niteliktedir.

Evlilik içi çatışmanın da çocuğun gelişimini bozduğu yazında geniş yer almaktadır. Davies ve Cummings (1994) evlilik içi çatışmanın çocukta içselleştirme ve dışsallaştırma sorunları ile doğrudan ilgili olduğunu, Ha, Overbeck, Vermults, ve Engels (2009) bu doğrudan etkinin uzun dönemde de var olduğunu göstermişlerdir. Bu araştırma bulguları ise önceki araştırmaları desteklemekle kalmamış, aynı etkilerin farklı bakış açıları kullanıldığında da var olabileceğini göstermiştir. Bunlara ek olarak, Parke ve arkadaşları (2006) duygu denetiminin evlilik içi çatışma ve

çocuğun sosyal yetkinliği arasında aracı rolü oynadığını, Cummings, Schermerhorn, Davies, Goeke-Morey, ve Cummings (2006) çocuğun duygu güvenliğinin evlilik içi çatışma ve çocuğun içselleştirme ve dışsallaştırma sorunları arasında aracı rolü oynadığını göstermişlerdir. Ancak, bu çalışmadaki bulgular özdenetimin aracı rolünü desteklememiş, özdenetimin evlilik içi çatışmanın olumlu özdenetim becerileri üzerinde doğrudan etkisi olduğunu göstermiştir. Cummings ve Keller (2006) evlilik içi çatışmanın çocuğun duygu denetimi süreçlerini bozduğunu, Davies ve Cummings (1994) çocuğun duygulanımlarını nasıl denetleyeceklerini modelleme yoluyla öğrendiklerini belirtmişlerdir. Bu araştırmalar ışığında, evlilik içi çatışmanın ergende özdenetimi bozduğunu ve bunu ergenin olumlu özdenetim becerilerini öğrenmesini engelleyerek yaptığı savunulabilir.

Yapılan model sınamaları ebeveyn-ergen ilişkisinin arkadaş ilişkileri temsillerine de taştığını göstermiştir. Bulgular, anneye güvenli bağlanmanın olumlu ve olumsuz özdenetimi ve arkadaşlık ilişkilerindeki düşük kaygıyı yordadığını göstermiştir. Babaya güvenli bağlanma ise olumlu özdenetimi doğrudan, arkadaşlık ilişkilerindeki kaçınmayı ise özdenetim üzerinden dolaylı olarak yordamıştır. Ebeveynlerden görülen sıcaklık/ilgi hem özdenetim becerilerini hem de arkadaşlık ilişkilerindeki kaçınma ve kaygıyı doğrudan yordamıştır. Buna ek olarak sonuçlar, olumlu özdenetimin ebeveyn sıcaklık/ilgi ile kaçınma boyutları arasındaki ilişkide aracı rolü oynadığını göstermiştir. Analiz bulguları ebeveynlerden algılanan psikolojik kontrolün hem arkadaşlık ilişkilerindeki kaygıyı hem de olumlu ve olumsuz özdenetimi doğrudan etkilediğini göstermiştir. Olumsuz özdenetim analizlerde aracı olmamasına karşın tüm sonuçlarda arkadaşlık ilişkilerindeki kaygıyı yordamıştır.

Bowlby (1969; 1973) ebeveyne bağlanma niteliğinin diğer ilişki kalıplarının niteliğini etkileyeceğini öne sürmektedir. Collins ve Read (1994) daha net bir yaklaşımla bilişsel ilişki temsillerinin hiyerarşik olarak yapılandığını öne sürmüşlerdir. Mikulincer ve Shaver (2008) ise bu genel temsillerin aslında duygulanım denetimi stili olduğunu savunmuşlardır. Bu araştırma bulguları ergenlik döneminde bu hiyerarşik yapılanmanın tam oluşmadığını, güvenli bağlanmanın özdenetim becerilerini ve anneye güvenli bağlanmanın diğer ilişki kalıplarındaki kaygı boyutunu doğrudan yordadığını göstermiştir.

Bulgular ergenlik döneminde ebeveyn davranışlarının diğer ilişkilerdeki temsiller üzerinde halen doğrudan olduğu kadar özdenetim yoluyla dolaylı etkilerinin olduğunu da göstermiştir. Kağıtçıbaşı (2007) ilişkisel kültürlerde ebeveynden algılanan sıcaklık/ilgi boyutunun ilişkisel benliği oluşturmak için önemli olduğunu ve psikolojik kontrolün ise ilişkiselliği arttırabileceğini öne sürmüştür. Sümer (2008) ise bu kültürlerde güvenli bağlanmanın bir norm olmasına karşın kaygılı bağlanmanın daha yüksek oranda görülebileceğini bildirmiştir. Sonuçlar, ebeveynden algılanan sıcaklık/ilginin normatif olan arkadaşa güvenli bağlanmayı yordadığını göstermiştir. Ebeveynden algılanan psikolojik kontrolün kaygıyı yordaması ise bu boyutun kişiler arası mesafeyi azaltmak için ebeveynler tarafından bir araç olarak kullanıldığını gösterebilir. Mikulincer ve Horesh (1999) kaygılı bağlanmanın kişiler arası mesafeyi azalttığını ve kişiyi ilişki odaklı kıldığını belirtmişlerdir. Ebeveynin sıcaklık/ilgisinin olumlu özdenetim üzerinden düşük kaygı seviyesini belirlemesi ise bu kültürlerde ilişkilere olumlu bakış açısının korunmasının bu araçlar kullanılarak sağlandığını gösterebilir.

Aile içi alt sistemlerin birbirleri ile olan karşılıklı ilişkilerini inceleyen yapısal eşitlik modelinin boylamsal analizleri, ilk dönem evlilik içi çatışmanın ikinci dönem ebeveynin uyguladığı psikolojik kontrolü ergenin dışsallaştırma sorunları üzerinden yordadığını göstermiştir. Bu bulgular Emery'nin (1982) evlilik içi çatışmanın ebeveynlik davranışlarına taşarak zarar verdiği yaklaşımı ile uyuşmamaktadır. Diğer taraftan Parker ve Fisher (2002) çocuğun sorunlarının ebeveynleri olumsuz davranışlara yönelttiğini göstermişlerdir. Cox ve Paley (1997) aileyi bir sistem olarak ele almışlar, aile içi alt sistemlerin birbirleri ile etkileşim içinde olduklarını belirterek aile içi etkileşimlerin uzun dönemde tutarlı olduğunu savunmuşlardır. Sonuçlar, hem aile içi alt sistemlerin birbirini etkilediğini hem de evlilik içi çatışmanın da ergenin dışsallaştırma sorunları yoluyla ebeveynlik davranışlarını olumsuz etkileyebileceğini ve aile içi etkileşiminin olumsuz etkilerinin uzun dönemde hem çocuk gelişimini hem de ebeveyn-çocuk ilişkilerini bozabileceğini göstermektedir. Aynı zamanda, ilk dönem ebeveynlik davranışlarının ikinci dönemdekileri yüksek oranda yordaması, aile içi sistemlerin uzun dönemde tutarlı olabildiklerini göstermiştir.

Boylamsal olarak incelenen diğer model bulguları, ebeveynlere güvenli bağlanmanın ikinci dönem ebeveynlerin uyguladığı psikolojik ve davranışsal kontrolü yordadığını, ve ebeveynlik davranışları yolu ile özdenetimi etkilediğini

göstermiştir. Thompson (2008) güvenli bağlanmanın gelişim üzerindeki olumlu etkisinin kalıcı olması için, olumlu ebeveyn-çocuk ilişkisinin sürmesi gerektiğini belirtmiştir. Buna göre, ebeveyne güvenli bağlanmanın en yakın etkileri olumlu ebeveynlik davranışları üzerinde görülebilir. Benzer şekilde, Grolnick ve Farkas (2002) ergenin bilişsel ve duygusal gelişimi göz önüne alındığında özdenetimin tam olarak içselleştirilmesi için olumlu duygusal aile içi ortamının sürekli olması gerektiğini belirtmişlerdir. Bulgular, ilk dönem özdenetim yeteneklerinin ikinci dönemdekileri yordama gücünün ortalama düzeyde olduğunu göstermektedir. Tüm bulgular ve yaklaşımlar göz önüne alındığında ergenlik döneminde de olumlu ebeveyn-çocuk ilişkisinin sürdürülmesinin ergenin sağlıklı gelişimi için gerekli olduğu söylenebilir.

Daha ayrıntılı önermeleri sınayan analiz sonuçları ise arkadaş ilişkilerinin bu gelişim dönemindeki önemini ortaya koymaktadır. Keşif üs ihtiyacının karşılandığı kişi öbeklerine göre ergenlerin gruplandırılması ile yapılan analiz sonuçları, keşif üs ihtiyaçlarını ebeveyn odaklı karşılayan grubun özdenetim gelişimi ve sosyal uyum açısından hem ebeveyn hem de arkadaş odaklı grup dışındaki diğer gruplardan daha başarılı olduğunu göstermiştir. Zeifman ve Hazan (2008) ergenlik döneminde keşif üs ihtiyacının halen ebeveynler tarafından karşılandığını, Diamond ve Faguendes (2009) ise bu normdan sapmaların ergenlerde özdenetim ve uyum sorunlarına neden olduğunu bildirmişlerdir. Bulgular bu yaklaşımları destekler niteliktedir.

Aynı şekilde, arkadaşa güvenli bağlanan ergenlerin diğer ergen gruplarına göre özdenetim becerileri ve sosyal uyumlarının daha iyi olduğu görülmüştür. Benzer olarak Mikulincer ve Florian (2004) güvenli bağlanma temsillerine sahip kişilerin çözüm odaklı olduklarını, negatif duygulanımlarla baş edebildiklerini ve hayata karşı olumlu baktıklarını belirtmişlerdir. Mikulincer ve Shaver (2008) ise kaygılı bağlanma stiline sahip olan kişilerin duygulanımlarını arttırıcı, kaçınmacı stile sahip olanların ise duygulanımlardan kaçınan ve bunları azaltıcı stratejiler uyguladıklarını bildirmişlerdir. Bu yaklaşıma uygun olarak bulgular, kaygılı stile sahip ergenlerin duygulanımlarını arttırıcı stratejiler olan duygu saplantısı ve başarısız özdenetim gibi teknikler kullandığını, buna karşın kaçınmacı bağlanan ergenlerin olumlu veya olumsuz özdenetim tekniklerini düşük seviyede kullandıklarını göstermiştir.

Tartışma ve bulgulara toplu bakıldığında duygusal aile içi ortamın ergen gelişiminde önemli olduğu öne sürülebilir. Ayrıca, Cox ve Paley'in (1997) aileyi

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sistem olarak gören yaklaşımına uygun olarak aile-içi sistemler arasında karşılıklı iletişim olduğu ve olumlu aile içi ortamın ergen gelişimi boyunca önemini koruduğu savunulabilir. Bunlara ek olarak, ergenlerin ebeveyn-çocuk ilişkisi yoluyla olduğu kadar ebeveynlerini rol modelleri alarak ilişkiler hakkında öğrendikleri ve bu dönem boyunca ebeveyn davranışlarının olduğu kadar ebeveynlerin birbirleri ile olan etkileşimlerinin de göz ardı edilmemesi gerektiği önerilebilir. Aynı şekilde, çalışmada arkadaşlık ilişkilerinin ergenlik boyunca önem kazandıkları ve akran ilişkilerinin ergenin gelişimi üzerinde etkileri olduğu da tespit edilmiştir. Ancak, yüksek nitelikli akran ilişkilerinin olumlu aile içi ilişkilerle desteklenmesi gerektiği de çıkarımlar arasındadır.

Araştırma bazı kısıtlılıklar içermektedir. İlk olarak, çalışma özdenetimi genel bir kategori olarak ele almasına karşın yazında farklı yaklaşımların bulunduğu unutulmamalıdır. Bu yaklaşımlara uygun olarak farklı değişkenlerin kullanılması farklı sonuçları yordayabilir. İkinci olarak değişimlerin gerçek yönlerini inceleyebilmek için en az üç aşamalı bir veri setine ihtiyaç vardır (Kline, 2005). Üçüncü olarak çalışmadaki veriler isteklilik temelinde toplanmış ve ergen bildirimlerinin kaynaklar arasında ve boylamsal olarak eşleyebilmek için ergenlerin okul numaraları kullanılmıştır. Tüm bunlar kullanılmış örneklemlerin gerçek popülasyonu temsil etmesini önlemiş olabilir.

Sonuç olarak, bu araştırma ayrıntılı bir bakış açısı kullanarak gelişim, bağlanma ve aile içi ilişkiler yazınlarında da var olan yaklaşımlara ve bulgulara katkı sağlamıştır. İlk olarak, duygusal aile içi ortam, ergen gelişimi ve özdenetim arasındaki ilişkiler kesitsel ve boylamsal olarak incelenmiştir. Aynı zamanda, ebeveyne güvenli bağlanmanın ve ebeveynlik davranışlarının akran ilişkileri üzerindeki etkileri ve özdenetimin bu ilişkideki rolü araştırılmıştır. Buna ek olarak, ergenin akran ilişkilerinin ergen gelişimi üzerindeki rolü ayrıntılı olarak incelenmiş ve bu konuda var olan eksikliklere ışık tutulmuştur. Farklı bildirim kaynaklarının kullanılması araştırma bulgularının daha kapsamlı olmasına ve duygusal aile içi ortamın ergen gelişimi üzerindeki etkileri hakkında önemli çıkarımlar yapılmasına olanak sağlamıştır.

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Özgüle, E. T., & Sumer, N. (2011). The role of parenting and attachment security to parents on adolescent self-regulation. Paper presented at the 12th European Congress of Psychology, Istanbul, Turkey.

Sümer, N., & **Özgüle, E. T.** (2008). The interplay between interparental conflict, parenting behavior, and adjustment during middle childhood in Turkey. Poster presented at the 2008 International Association for Relationship Research, Providence, Rhode Island, USA.

HOBBIES

History, Classical Literature, Documentary Films