

BIDIRECTIONAL EFFECTS BETWEEN PARENTING AND
TEMPERAMENT IN RELATION TO CHILDREN'S SELF-CONCEPT

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ABSTRACT

BIDIRECTIONAL EFFECTS BETWEEN PARENTING AND TEMPERAMENT IN RELATION TO CHILDREN'S SELF-CONCEPT

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Although parenting and temperament have been investigated for many years, bidirectionality between them is a point of interest recently (Kiff, Lengua, & Zalewski, 2011). The current study aimed to investigate the cross-lagged effects between, temperament (i.e. behavioral inhibition) and parenting (i.e. maternal overprotectiveness and autonomy support) in relation to preschool children's self-concepts. In total, 180 children (93 females [51.7%], and 87 males [48.3%]; $M_{age} = 61.15$, $SD_{age} = 8.56$) and their mothers participated in the study, and they were assessed in two time points with eight months interval. Children's perceived self-concepts were assessed with a puppet interview method via Child Self-View Questionnaire (Eder, 1990) and Berkeley Puppet Interview (Ablow & Measelle, 1993). Mothers responded to Parental Overprotection Measure (Edwards, Rapee, & Kennedy, 2008) to assess maternal overprotectiveness, Parenting Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire (Robinson, Mandleco, Olsen, & Hart, 2001) to assess maternal autonomy support, and Early Childhood Behavior Questionnaire (Putnam, Gartstein, & Rothbart, 2006) to measure the behavioral inhibition of children in both two waves of data collection. Data were collected through home/kindergarten visits. The data were analyzed using two sets (for two different parenting styles each) of

cross-lagged panel analyses. Results revealed that Time 1 (T1) assessments of children's self-concept, behavioral inhibition, maternal overprotectiveness and autonomy support predicted their Time 2 (T2) assessments. Additionally, T1 maternal overprotectiveness positively predicted T2 behavioral inhibition; also, both T1 behavioral inhibition and T1 self-concept negatively predicted T2 maternal autonomy support. Results were discussed in the light of literature regarding the nature of temperament-parenting bidirectionality and the effects of Turkish culture.

Keywords: Maternal overprotectiveness, Maternal autonomy support, Behavioral inhibition, Self-concept, Preschool

ÖZ

EBEVEYNLİK VE MİZACIN ÇİFTYÖNLÜ ETKİLERİ İLE ÇOCUKLARIN BENLİK KAVRAMLARI ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİLER

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Ebeveynlik ve mizaç üzerine uzun yıllardır araştırma yapılmasına rağmen aralarındaki çift yönlü etkilere yönelik araştırmalar son zamanlarda yaygınlaşmıştır (Kiff vd., 2011). Bu araştırmanın amacı, annelerin ebeveynlik (aşırı korumacılık ve özerklik desteği) ve çocukların mizacı (davranışsal ketlenme) arasındaki çiftyönlü etkilerin, okul öncesi yaştaki çocukların benlik kavramları üzerine olan etkilerini incelemektir. Bu bağlamda araştırmanın örneklemini, 180 çocuk (93 kız [%51.7], 87 oğlan [%48.3]; $Ort_{yaş} = 61.15$, $SS_{yaş} = 8.56$) ve anneleri oluşturmuştur. Araştırma kapsamında 8 ay arayla iki ölçüm alınarak boylamsal değişimler ve çaprazlama etkiler test edilmiştir. Araştırma verileri ev veya kreş/anaokulu ziyaretleri ile toplanmıştır. Araştırmada her iki ölçüm sürecinde de veri toplama aracı olarak; çocukların algılanan benlik kavramlarının belirlenmesi amacıyla kukla görüşmesi yönteminin kullanıldığı Çocuk Kendilik Algısı Ölçeği (Eder, 1990) ve Berkeley Kukla Görüşmesi (Ablow ve Measelle, 1993) ölçekleri; annelerin aşırı korumacılığının ölçülmesi amacıyla Ebeveyn Aşırı Korumacılık Ölçeği (Edwards vd., 2008), özerklik desteğinin ölçülmesi amacıyla Ebeveynlik Stilleri ve Boyutları Ölçeği (Robinson vd., 2001) ve çocukların davranışsal ketlenmesinin ölçülmesi amacıyla Erken Çocukluk Davranış Anketi (Putnam vd., 2006) ölçekleri

kullanılmıştır. Araştırma kapsamında elde edilen veriler, iki set (iki farklı ebeveynlik stili için) halinde Çapraz Bağlanmış Panel Analizleri kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Araştırma sonucunda, birinci zamanda ölçüm alınan çocukların benlik kavramları ve davranışsal ketlenmesi ile annelerin aşırı korumacılığı ve özerklik desteği, ikinci zaman ölçümlerini yordamıştır. Birinci zamandaki annenin aşırı korumacılığı, ikinci zamandaki çocuğun davranışsal ketlenmesini olumlu yönde yordarken çocukların birinci zamandaki hem davranışsal ketlenmesi hem de benlik kavramları, annelerin ikinci zamandaki özerklik desteğini olumsuz yönde yordamıştır. Elde edilen bulgular, ebeveynlik-mizaç çift yönlülüğü ve kültür etkileri bağlamında ilgili literatür ışığında tartışılmıştır.

Anahtar kelimeler: Aşırı korumacılık, Özerklik desteği, Davranışsal ketlenme, Benlik kavramı, Okul öncesi.

To love in my family, and love in the world..

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview

It has been widely accepted that the self-concept development is a multifaceted process extending throughout the lifespan and can be considered as “the cornerstone of both social and emotional development” (Kagen, Moore, & Bredekamp, 1995, p. 18). Self-concepts of children have been theoretically associated with various intra- and inter- personal factors (Brown, Mangelsdorf, Agathen, & Ho, 2008; Harter, 2006), including parenting (e.g. Harter, 2012) and temperament (e.g. Hintsanen, Alatupa, Pullmann, Hirstiö-Snellman, & Keltikangas-Jarvinen, 2010). Existing literature on children’s self-concepts has been mainly focused on middle childhood and adolescence years, whereas self-concepts in early childhood, particularly preschool years, has been relatively overlooked (Marsh, Ellis, & Craven, 2002). In addition, although the unique effects and direct links between parenting and temperament have been investigated for many years, bidirectionality between them is a point of interest mostly in recent years (e.g. Cook & Kenny, 2005; Klein et al., 2018). A number of studies indicate that parenting has an essential influence on child outcomes in all developmental domains including temperament and simply stated that “parenting drives temperament” (Arnott & Brown, 2013; Bullock et al., 2018). On the other hand, there is also a growing literature pointing how child’s temperament shapes parenting. Among many factors, child him/herself seems to be one of the most important “determinant” of parenting (e.g. Laukkanen, Ojansuu, Tolvanen, Alatupa, & Aunola, 2014; Rubin, Nelson, Hastings, & Asendorpf, 1999). That is to say, researchers suggest that parenting behaviors may change according to the characteristics (namely temperament) of their children (Rothbart & Ahadi, 1994); which asserts the statement that “temperament drives parenting”. In this context, today it is well-known that, in addition to both children’s and parents’ characteristics

directly contributing to child outcomes, they also influence one another in a bidirectional manner, and development occurs through those reciprocal transactions between child characteristics and parenting (e.g. Kiff et al., 2011; Ryan & Ollendick, 2018; Sameroff & Mackenzie, 2003; Zadeh, Jenkins, & Pepler, 2010). Yet, to the best of our knowledge, the directions of particularly children's behavioral inhibition and mothers' overprotectiveness and autonomy support have not been examined in relation to self-concept. So, the current study was designed to investigate the bidirectionality between temperament and parenting in relation to preschool-age children's self-concepts by utilizing cross-lagged panel models.

Therefore, in the following sections, first, self-concept will be explained including its definitions, developmental processes, perceptions particularly around preschool-age, and antecedents and consequences of it. Second, temperament -particularly behavioral inhibition- and its link with self-concept will be stated. Third, parenting will be clarified with its dimensions of maternal overprotectiveness and autonomy support, and their links with children's self-concept. Fourth, bidirectionality between temperament and parenting will be handled in detail. Finally, the current study will be explained including its aims and hypotheses.

1.2 Self-concept

Self-concept is basically defined as “a schema of oneself” in which it impacts how one feels about oneself, and how he/she perceives and interprets his/her environment (e.g. Harter, 1998). It is characterized as the set of attributes, attitudes, and values that an individual believes or defines who he or she is (see Brummelman & Thomaes, 2017 for a review). In the literature, self-concept acts as an umbrella term consisting of self-related notions such as self-representation, self-perception, self-appraisal, self-evaluation, self-identity, self-worth, self-esteem, and in general sense of self are among the most forefront ones (e.g. Harter, 2012; Leary & Tangney, 2003). From a broader perspective, the common ground of all can be stated as they all are “evaluative” in nature either positive or negative way. In this context, as suggested by James (1892) who is one of the pioneers of this field of research, and

his followers (e.g. Harter, 2006), “I-self” (one’s awareness of him/herself as a unique individual) is considered as a subject and thus *evaluator*; whereas “Me-self” is considered as an object and thus *evaluated*. Me self is seen as the knowledge about the self or the ways of defining the self, and obviously the clearest reflection of the construction of one’s self-concept (Harter, 2012; Spencer, Swanson, & Harpalani, 2015; Thompson, Winer, & Goodvin, 2011).

Although most of those terms related to self might be used interchangeably up to some extent, there are differences regarding their meanings and referents (Leary & Tangney, 2003). Specifically, self-esteem, as one of the widely investigated self-phenomena in the literature, refers to an evaluation of one’s own worth or value as an individual (Butler & Gasson, 2005; Harter, 2012). Self-esteem in the literature is conceptualized by two sub-dimensions which are “global self-esteem/worth” and “domain-specific self-concept”. Particularly, global self-esteem/worth is defined as “how much one likes oneself as a person” and widely used interchangeably with the term self-concept (e.g. Brummelman & Thomaes, 2017; Harter, 2012; James, 1892). In addition, domain-specific self-concept refers to the distinct domains for evaluations of one’s attributes such as social, scholastic, or athletic competences and physical appearance (Harter, 2012). It is evidenced by many researchers that if perceived accomplishments are in line with their ideals, high self-esteem will be experienced; whereas in case that there is a discrepancy between their actual selves (real-self) and their aspirations (ideal-self), their self-concept will be affected negatively (Harter, 2012; James, 1892; Oosterwegel & Oppenheimer, 1993; Üstün & Akman, 2002). Additionally, the relevance of the topic for a person is also important for his/her self-esteem; that is, whether being good or bad in a certain topic could affect self-esteem if only the topic matters to the person her/himself or for the significant others (Harter, 1998; Cimpian, Hammond, Mazza, & Corry, 2017). A number of researchers suggested that children’s self-esteem have stability over time, even though fluctuations are possible (e.g. Trzesniewski, Brent, & Robins, 2003). Accordingly, self-appraisal (which is defined as the individual’s own judgment about his/her own strengths and weaknesses) is also considered as a key to self-esteem and sense of competence in childhood (Spencer et al., 2015).

In addition, other self-related terms which are widely used as interchangeably with the term self-concept are self-evaluation and self-representation. Specifically, self-evaluations seem to stem from both judgments towards one's own self and internalizations of significant other's evaluations which together develop self-understanding capacity (Stipek, 1995), shape self-representations and become integrated into the self-concept (Cole et al., 2001; Harter, 2006). So, some researchers use the term self-evaluation to refer self-development (Stipek, Gralinski, & Kopp, 1990). Moreover, self-representation which is basically defined as "who you think you are" refers both physical (e.g. gender, age) and psychological (e.g. shy, friendly) definitions of one's own self, and integrated into the child's self-concept (Thompson et al., 2011). In the current study, self-concept was taken from children themselves as a perceived indicator of their self-development, which represents their self-evaluations, representations, and global self-worth.

Specifically, from infancy to the end of adolescence is critical for the understanding of self-concept development. So, the following section will focus on self-concept from a developmental perspective.

1.2.1 Self-concept from a developmental perspective

The sense of self begins from the very early phases of children's lives. That is, as early as 2-3 months of age, infants start paying attention to their own body movements, which shows infants' perceptual ability to specify themselves (Rochat, 1998). In addition, the age range of 15 and 18 months is essential in terms of the emergence of "Me-self" as planting the seeds of self-recognition, which is seen as an early marker of the self-development (Brownell, Zerwas, & Ramani, 2007; Harter, 2001; Lewis & Ramsay, 2004). Then, by the age of 18 to 30 months, with the developing language skills, verbal expressions of self-representations enable a more enduring portrait of the self (Fivush, 2011; Harter, 2001). Also, physical self-recognition (also called as bodily self-awareness) begins to be observable at this age period by their identification of themselves in the mirror (Brownell et al., 2007; Lewis & Ramsay, 2004; Rochat, 2009). So, within the first two years, children

develop basic self-knowledge of being a unique, separate and permanent entity (Rochat & Striano, 2000). Especially from the second year of life, toddlers become able to understand parental evaluations (e.g. “You are a smart girl”), and over time begin to use them in their own self-definitions (Harter, 2001). Also, another indication of developing self-representations at this age is increasing insistence on their perceived competencies like “do it myself” (Stipek et al., 1990). After that, around the age of three, along a rapid expansion seen in their self-representations, they predominantly use concrete characteristics, rather than abstract ones, which are observable such as appearances (e.g. “I have a blonde hair”), possessions (e.g. “I have a big dinosaur”), abilities (e.g. “I can run fast”) in their self-definitions (e.g. Harter, 2006). Also, they increasingly use their emotions and psychological traits (e.g. “I am happy”) in those self-definitions (Thompson et al., 2011). Finally, Eder and Mangelsdorf (1997, p. 226) stated regarding the self-development of three-year-old children that “they possess common underlying dispositional constructs for organizing information about themselves.”

Preschool years from the beginning of four years of age, on the other hand, are the times children begin to form more abstract views of themselves (Brummelman & Thomaes, 2017; Cimpian et al., 2017). Young children’s self-representations in this age period become more meaningful, begin to gain a gradual consistency, complexity and multidimensionality (as compared to their past unidimensional thinking), based on their perceptions of physical, temperamental, and psychological characteristics (Brown et al., 2008; Marsh, Ellis, & Craven, 2002, Measelle, John, Ablow, Cowan, & Cowan, 2005). Also, from the four years of age, preschoolers’ capacity to conceptualize their sense of self as persistent over time starts to develop (Povinelli & Simon, 1998). Likewise, Brown and colleagues (2008) reported that they can understand their own *unique* psychological characteristics from preschool years. In addition, one of the most considerable developments related to their self in this age period is their perspective-taking skills that help them to understand others’ viewpoints. Thus, in line with those perspective-taking skills, their understanding and definition of their own self-concepts advance (Dweck, 1998). At the same time, preschool-age children begin to use social comparisons along with the social

interactions with others, especially comparing the self with their peers in kindergarten (Rhodes & Brickman, 2008). Finally, although some researchers claim that the concept of global self-worth does not develop until middle childhood years, and therefore not reliable to study it before that age period (Harter, 1998); recent studies suggest that behavioral representations of self-concept starts to be observed from early childhood (Cimpian et al., 2017); thus, preschool-age children (particularly from four years of age) can reliably evaluate their sense of self (Marsh, Debus, & Bornholt, 2004). More detailed discussions on this debate will be handled in the following section.

1.2.2 Perceived self-concept in preschool years

There are debates in the literature regarding the accuracy of self-representations (i.e. perceived self-concept) of young children, especially before the middle childhood. On the one hand, there are researchers claiming that self-evaluations tend to be unrealistically positive -“positivity bias”- up to the end of early childhood (Boseovski, 2010; Eccles, Midgley, & Adler, 1984; Harter, 1998; Marsh, 1990; Trzesniewski, Kinal, & Donnellan, 2011). That is, 4-year-old children are likely to overestimate their personal abilities or performance since they are unaware of their incapacities (Schneider, 1998). More specifically, Harter and Pike (1984) stated that early childhood (particularly until the age of eight) is too early for children to differentiate between their abilities, due to their lack of coherence and organization skills. The most prominent reason for that unawareness and incapacities seems to be children’s normative cognitive limitations at that age period (Harter, 1998, 2006, 2012). These cognitive limitations are, firstly, inability to make social comparisons in order to evaluate their competencies (through comparing their own performance with someone else’s). Rather than social comparison, they rely on temporal comparison in which they compare their current capabilities with their own past capabilities (i.e. “how I am performing now, compared to when I was younger”), but not compared to someone else’s performance. Secondly, having a difficulty to distinguish between actual and desired abilities is another factor which stems from those cognitive limitations of this age group. Thirdly, rudimentary perspective-taking

skills impede children from making realistic self-evaluations, since their developmental egocentrism blocks their tendency to consider viewpoints of others (Selman, 2003). Further, it is very common that preschoolers expose overwhelmingly positive feedback for their any exertions rather than only real successes (Mantzicopoulos, 2006), which might have an effect on their optimistic self-evaluations. At the same time, there are researchers who put forward the idea that the positivity bias of children has an adaptive function (and so beneficial) at early years, by protecting them against negative conclusions of their self-perceptions (Nelson et al., 2009).

On the other hand, recent studies stating that, despite the abovementioned cognitive limitations, children in preschool-age are capable of reporting their own emotions regarding their selves coherently, meaningfully, and thus reliably (Brown et al., 2008; Cimpian et al., 2017). That is to say, perceived self-concept reporting of children focuses on “perceptions” of their own capabilities (which reflects their self-esteem), rather than on their actual social, emotional, or psychological qualities. Therefore, children can be asked to identify which statements describe what they are like, so that consistent responses to items indicating children’s self-knowledge can be obtained beginning from preschool years (Goodvin, Meyer, Thompson, & Hayes, 2008). Also, there are recent studies indicating that 5-year-old children can even make reasoning about their self-esteem (e.g. Harris, Donnellan, & Trzesniewski, 2017). Similarly, Marsh and colleagues (2002) stated that preschool children from four years of age can report their self-concepts reliably in many dimensions; yet, they suggested that assessment method should be appropriate to children’s developmental levels. That is, simplified item contents, as well as individually administered response formats (e.g. puppet interview, pictorial assessment method, etc.), are highly recommended to get reliable data from preschool-age children. In line with that, Cimpian and colleagues (2017) recently stated that the reason why past research claimed unreliability of preschool-age children’s immature self-evaluations was because of improper task context (e.g. complicated or age-inappropriate measurement tools that heavily rely on linguistic capacity), but not the inadequacy of children (Brown et al., 2008). So, it was reported that children between the ages of

four and seven can flexibly and even context-sensitively evaluate their sense of self (Marsh et al., 2004). All in all, although recent studies present evidence about the four-year-old children's ability for self-evaluations, it is still a debated topic (Cimpian, 2017; Hermes et al., 2015). Thus, there is a need for further studies with preschool-age children, since beginning from preschool years, children's optimistic self-evaluations get more realistic than before, and thus their perceived self-concept reports become much more reliable.

Throughout the developmental periods, there are many factors that influence self-perceptions and self-concept development of children, as well as the factors that are affected by self-concepts. Thus, both antecedents and consequences of children's self-concepts will be examined in the following sections.

1.2.3 Antecedents of children's self-concept

There are many factors that have an effect on children's self-development (e.g. Harter, 2012). Although recent behavioral genetic studies suggest that individual differences in self-esteem might partially stem from genetic factors (Neiss, Stevenson, Legrand, Iacono, & Sedikides, 2009; Pfeifer & Peake, 2012), the majority of the existing evidence pointed out the role of environmental influences. Among those, socialization of the children, particularly by their parents, comes into prominence (Harter, 2006). Especially in preschool years, parents are considered by their children as the most credible sources of information regarding their emerging sense of self (Cahill, Deater-Deckard, Pike, & Hughes, 2007; Oosterwegel & Oppenheimer, 1993). So, the quality of parent-child interactions (including positive parenting attitudes and behaviors) play a critical role for children's self-concept (Coplan, Findlay, & Nelson, 2004; Nelson, Rubin, & Fox, 2005). Specifically, parental sensitivity (which is basically characterized as warmth, reciprocity, support, and responsiveness towards child's signals) is found as promoting sense of self by fostering self-esteem and positive self-concept (Hornbuckle, 2010; Kochanska, 2002), through helping the child to develop positive core beliefs about themselves (Clark & Symons, 2000). In addition, a secure parent-child attachment is seen as one

of the important precursors of high self-esteem, since those children construct internal working models that they are worthy, lovable, and capable (Bowlby, 1982; Goodvin et al., 2008; Peter & Gazelle, 2017; Pinto, Verissimo, Gatinho, Santos, & Vaughn, 2015; Verschueren, Doumen, & Buyse, 2012). Therefore, these positive parenting practices including love and respect towards the child would foster his/her positive self-representations both within the family context (e.g. “I am loved, valued, accepted”) and in the more global self-evaluations (e.g. “I am worthwhile, secure, and autonomous”) (Feiring & Taska, 1996). On the contrary, Baumrind (1983) stated that people whose parents were less affectionate/nurturing or had a lack of guidance and structure might have lower levels of both implicit (i.e. unconscious, automatic or spontaneously emerging) and explicit (i.e. consciously and overt) self-esteem. Accordingly, when focusing on the negative parenting domains, emotionally cold and unresponsive parenting was found to be associated with low self-worth in children depending on their parents’ verbal or nonverbal messages (Cahill et al., 2007).

While the role of parents starts from the beginning of life, the influence of peers become increasingly important from preschool years. The social network of preschool-age children expands with the beginning of kindergarten, and it increases the importance attributed to socialization practices. It is widely evidenced that social acceptance is quite influential for a positive self-concept (e.g. Verschueren et al., 2012). For instance, Nelson and colleagues (2005) found that peer acceptance at the age of four positively predicted perceived physical competence and self-esteem at the age of seven; which implies the importance of social approval as early as beginning of preschool ages (Leary & Baumeister, 2000; MacDonald, Saltzman, & Leary, 2003). Accordingly, Zimmer-Gembeck, Hunter, and Pronk (2007) concluded that, being liked as a playmate by peers seems to lead to a more positive self-concept of preschool-age children in the domain of perceived social competence.

Furthermore, a child’s own characteristic, or temperament, is another factor affecting their self-concepts (Brown, Mangelsdorf, Neff, Schoppe-Sullivan, & Frosch, 2009; Thompson et al., 2011). Specifically, it was reported that effortful control domain of

self-regulation, as one of the core components of temperament (Rothbart & Bates, 2006; Rothbart, Ellis, Rosario-Rueda, & Posner, 2003), enables school-age children to develop better adjustment skills in negative or challenging situations, enhance their academic self-efficacy, increase their positive self-beliefs, and positively affects the child's sense of self (Liew, McTigue, Barrois, & Hughes, 2008; see Nigg, 2017 for a review). In addition, among various temperamental characteristics, behavioral inhibition was reported as negatively predicting children's social competence especially for girls (Hintsanen et al., 2010). Similarly, Rubin, Chen, McDougall, Bowker, and McKinnon (1995) reported that early social withdrawal predict later loneliness, depression, and negative self-evaluations of social competence.

Gender is another factor that plays a role in self-appraisals of children, especially if parents act according to gender roles and children receive gender-specific feedbacks regarding their behaviors (Spencer et al., 2015). For instance, it was reported that both parents and teachers provide more negative feedbacks to girls than boys, although there was no gender-based differences in actual performances (Lewis, Allessandri, & Sullivan, 1992), which leads to negative self-evaluations of girls (Spencer et al., 2015). Similarly, Pinto, Gatinho, Fernandes, and Verissimo (2015) reported that there is a gender difference in preschool-age children's self-concepts for the benefit of boys. Yet, Mantzicopoulos (2004) reported that, around five years of age, girls evaluate their social competence more positive compared to boys. On the other hand, there are also studies reported no gender differences among preschool-age children in terms of their self-concepts (e.g. Goodvin et al., 2008; Jambunathan & Hurlbut, 2000). Thus, further investigations are required to clarify the relationship between gender and self-concept development during the preschool years.

Finally, another factor affecting self-esteem and self-concept development of children is physical appearance or body perception (especially weight status in these ages), which is found to be related to gender (e.g. Buhlmann, Teachman, Naumann, Fehlinger, & Rief, 2009; Davison & Birch, 2001; Lau, Cheung, & Ransdell, 2008). That is, although both girls and boys are equally satisfied with their appearance in

the early childhood (Harter, 2001), girls increasingly learn that they are evaluated based on their physical appearances, more than that of their character, feelings, or potential (McKinley, 1999); and hereby how they look becomes more important for girls and influences their self-concept strongly either a positive or a negative way (Asthana, 2012).

1.2.4 Consequences of children's self-concept

Early self-perceptions serve many functions that lead to either positive or negative outcomes depending on its content and valence (e.g. Harter, 2012; Verschueren, Buyck, & Marcoen, 2001). Harter (2006) indicated that, social and emotional development is among the most critical ones. That is, self-concepts affect how children interpret and give meaning to their everyday experiences, how they create and sustain social bonds, enhance their social acceptance and likability, and be able to identify and achieve their goals. Therefore, self-concepts are crucial to develop and maintain a healthy socioemotional development, and a coherent sense of self throughout life. In addition, motivation to engage in new activities, the way of reacting towards challenges or failures, and emotions after their various experiences are affected by children's overall sense of self (Brummelman & Thomaes, 2017; Harter, 2012; Leary & Baumeister, 2000).

More specifically, a positive sense of self is associated with higher academic achievement and sense of competence (see Valentine, DuBois, & Cooper, 2004 for a review), lower levels of risk of developing depression (Orth, Robins, Meier, & Conger, 2016), better life satisfaction in both childhood (Terry & Huebner, 1995) and adolescence (Leung & Zhang, 2000), in addition to overall psychological well-being in the long-run (Ciarrochi, Heaven & Davies, 2007). On the other hand, as expected, negative self-concept yields negative outcomes, as well. Those negative outcomes range from difficulties in functioning of the child (such as dysfunctional attitudes about achievement, dependency and self-control) to the psychopathological severity such as mood and behavioral problems, and personality disorders such as narcissism (Brummelman, Thomaes, & Sedikides, 2016; Nelson et al., 2009; Otani,

Suzuki, Matsumoto, & Shirata, 2017). More specifically, there are a number of studies that considered low self-esteem (or negative self-concept) as a vulnerability factor to mental illnesses (Bardone, Vohs, Abramson, Heatherton, & Joiner, 2000), relationship dissatisfactions (DeHart, Murray, Pelham, & Rose, 2003), eating disorders (Heatherton & Baumeister, 1991), aggression (Robins, Donnellan, Widaman, & Conger, 2010), physical illnesses (Li, Chan, Chung, & Chui, 2010) and even suicidal tendencies (Harter, Marold, & Whitesell, 1992). It is noteworthy that, early self-perceptions, especially the negative ones, are prone to show long-time stability in their consequences (Kernis, Greenier, Herlocker, Whisenhunt, & Abend, 1997).

Children's temperamental characteristic (particularly behavioral inhibition), and its associations with children's self-concept will be explained in the following sections.

1.3 Temperament

Temperament is defined as “constitutionally based individual differences in behavioral characteristics, especially those reflecting reactivity and self-regulation, that are relatively consistent across situations and over time” (Goldsmith et al., 1987; Rothbart & Bates, 2006). Temperamental characteristics are widely accepted to provide a foundation for socioemotional and personality development with its stability (though fluctuations are possible) across the lifespan (Carranza, González-Salinas, & Ato, 2013; Casalin, Luyten, Vliegen, & Meurs, 2012; Dyson et al., 2015; Gartstein & Rothbart, 2003; Putnam, Rothbart, & Gartstein, 2008; Rothbart & Bates, 2006). In the context of this foundation, it is reported by many researchers that temperament both affects and is affected by the environmental factors (especially the quality of parental child-rearing), and has essential influences on later development, particularly socioemotional aspects as social competence (Corapci, 2008), and self-concept development of children (e.g. Hintsanen et al., 2010; Thompson et al., 2011).

Among various temperamental characteristics, behavioral inhibition is one of the domains that stands out in terms of developmental outcomes, which will be explained in detail in the following section.

1.3.1 Behavioral inhibition

Behavioral inhibition is one of the temperamental characteristics which is basically defined by Kagan (1989) as “consistently shy and affectively restrained” (p. 668), and is characterized by biologically based shyness, fearfulness, social reticence, anxious feelings and negative affection towards novelty, and resistant behaviors in the presence of unfamiliar people, objects, places, and settings (Bishop, Spence, & McDonald, 2003; Coplan & Rubin, 2010; Fox, Henderson, Marshall, Nichols, & Ghera, 2005; Kagan & Fox, 2006; Rubin, Burgess, & Hastings, 2002). It is a quite common temperamental characteristic that around 15-20% of typically developing children have reported to be behaviorally inhibited (Chronis- Tusciano et al., 2015; Degnan, Almas, & Fox, 2010). Those children with behavioral inhibition predominantly tend to have both physiological and behavioral signs of severe arousability and negativity in novel situations (Rothbart, 2004), they react by fretting, crying, and/or clinging to the mother (see Hirshfeld-Becker et al., 2008 for a review).

Behavioral inhibition has various early predictors including biological (e.g. Moehler et al., 2006; Schmidt, Fox, Schulkin, & Gold, 1999) and environmental (see Fox et al., 2005 for a review) as from infancy and on. For instance, Moehler and colleagues (2008) found that, 4-month-old infants’ crying to unfamiliar stimuli significantly predicted behavioral inhibition in the second year of life. Similarly, negative affect and reactivity towards unfamiliar sounds, sights and smells in infancy, have been found as associated with later behavioral inhibition (Fox, Henderson, Rubin, Calkins, & Schmidt, 2001; Kagan & Snidman, 1991). In addition, parental factors (e.g. psychopathology and child-rearing styles) are among the most influential predictors of behavioral inhibition. Specifically, maternal anxiety (see Fox et al., 2005 for a review), and overprotective parenting (e.g. Coplan, Reichel, & Rowan, 2009;

Hudson & Rapee, 2005) are among the strongest parent-related predictors of behavioral inhibition especially under low-risk conditions in which the child does not need any help or protection from the mother (Rubin et al., 2002). In line with that, shy/inhibited children with overprotective mothers might lack of opportunities to effectively overcome their fears on their own (Bayer et al., 2019).

Moreover, behavioral inhibition was also found to be associated with maternal autonomy support. Rubin and colleagues (1999) stated that if mothers perceive their children as shy/inhibited at the age of two, their encouragement of children's independence decreases at the age of four. The results of this longitudinal study imply that mothers who perceive their children as behaviorally inhibited tend not to support their children's autonomy. The authors have also reported that those mothers who perceive their children as behaviorally inhibited were less likely to use expressions "I let my child make decisions for himself/herself" and "If my child gets into trouble, I expect him or her to handle the problem mostly by himself/herself". On the other hand, based on their cross-cultural study Chen and colleagues (1998) stated that behavioral inhibition was linked with maternal positive parenting including encouragement of achievement (as one of the components of autonomy support) among Chinese participants, whereas it was linked with overprotectiveness among Canadian participants. This suggests that culture plays a critical role on how behavioral inhibition is regarded and how it shapes parenting behaviors. So, it is obvious that further studies are needed to understand the associations of behavioral inhibition with different parenting behaviors.

Furthermore, behavioral inhibition has also been found to be associated with internalizing problems, especially anxiety problems (Biederman et al., 2001; Clauss & Blackford, 2012; Rapee & Coplan, 2010) in childhood (e.g. Bohlin, Hagekull, & Andersson, 2005; Fox et al., 2001; Rubin et al., 2002), and adolescence (see Fox et al., 2005 for a review). In addition, there are studies which associated behavioral inhibition with affective disorders, psychopathology, lower academic performance, lack of social competence, higher perceived loneliness, peer rejection, and lower levels of self-esteem (Bohlin et al., 2005; Hart et al., 2000; Hintsanen et al., 2010;

Hirshfeld-Becker et al., 2008). In the following section, the link between children's behavioral inhibition and self-concepts will be explained in detail.

1.3.1.1 Link between behavioral inhibition and self-concepts of children

Children's behavioral inhibition is one of the temperamental characteristics that found to be linked to various aspects of self-development in childhood (e.g. Hintsanen et al., 2010). Considering the underlying factors of this link, Eisenberg, Shepard, Fabes, Murphy, and Guthrie (1998) stated that behavioral inhibition implies a fear of being negatively evaluated by significant others, which is strongly linked to children's sense of self development. More specifically, Hornbuckle (2010) emphasized a strong association between behavioral inhibition and low levels of self-esteem; especially for boys due to the fact that shyness in boys is less socially acceptable than it is in girls (Coplan, Gavinski-Molina, Lagace-Seguin, & Wichmann, 2001; Doey, Coplan, & Kingsbury, 2014). Additionally, temperamental shyness was associated with high levels of self-conscious emotions (e.g. embarrassment), which affects those children's self-concepts negatively (Lagattuta & Thompson, 2007).

Particularly in preschool years, children's self-perceptions become increasingly detailed, and self-images get more complex by an emerging sense of self, and temperamental characteristics are closely involved in this process by influencing how children perceive and evaluate themselves (Caspi & Shiner, 2008; Robins et al., 2010). For instance, young children who perceive themselves as shy tend to choose to be friends with shy children like themselves and engage certain activities like dyadic play in which they feel more comfortable (rather than other children who are disinhibited or other activities requiring assertiveness), and this situation supports and even strengthens their self-perceptions further (Thompson et al., 2011). In line with that, Bohlin and colleagues (2005) reported that shyness and behavioral inhibition in preschool years are negatively related to competence with peers at school age. In this context, it has been reported that temperamentally shy children tend to have both immediate and long-term socio-emotional difficulties including

low self-worth and negative self-concept (Eisenberg et al., 1998; Findlay, Coplan, & Bowker, 2009; Hymel, Woody, & Bowker, 1993). Specifically, shy, socially withdrawn, reticent or fearful children (which are conceptualized as behavioral inhibition) were found to have more negative self-perceptions in preschool years (Coplan et al., 2004), middle-childhood (Boivin & Hymel, 1997), and later on (Rubin et al., 1995). In particular, Nelson and colleagues (2005) reported that, behaviorally inhibited children who show social reticence and withdrawal at four years of age displayed negative self-perceptions regarding their physical and cognitive competence when they became seven years of age with the mediating role of peer acceptance. Furthermore, Thompson and colleagues (2011) considered the association between temperament and self-concept from the perspective of culture. That is, for instance, if a temperamentally shy child lives in a culture which dignifies assertiveness (i.e. individualistic cultures), then shyness would be seen as a weakness; whereas in the cultures where it is considered as a favorable feature (i.e. collectivistic cultures), shyness would be regarded as a strength (Coplan, Zheng, Weeks, & Chen, 2012). So, these culture-based evaluations of temperamental characteristics lead to whether self-concepts of children would be shaped as negative or positive.

In the following section, the effects of parenting behaviors (particularly maternal overprotectiveness and autonomy support) will be explained in relation to children's self-concepts.

1.4 Parenting

It is well-known that parenting is crucial for all aspects of development, especially in early childhood years including physical, cognitive, and socioemotional development, both concurrently and prospectively (e.g. Baumrind, 1967; Landry, Smith, & Swank, 2003; Maccoby, 2000; Stack, Serbin, Enns, Ruttle, & Barrieau, 2010; Thompson & Goodvin, 2005). This critical role of parenting on young children's lives reveals itself either as positive or negative child outcomes depending on the parenting practices which may include messages that influence the

construction of children's own evaluations and inferences about themselves (Lagattuta & Thompson, 2007; Stipek, 1995). That is, one of the most important components that constructs sense of self is socialization processes. The interpersonal relationships (primarily with parents) strongly influence both the *content* and *valence* (positivity vs. negativity) of the self-representations of children through the internalization of those reflected appraisals called as "looking-glass self" (Brown et al., 2009; Harter, 2012; Miller & Mangelsdorf, 2005; Rochat, 2009; Tice & Wallace, 2003). In addition, children's self-representations (i.e. how children regard themselves) are found to be similar with how their mothers regard or evaluate their children (Brown et al., 2008; Eder & Mangelsdorf, 1997). For instance, positive parenting including warmth, approval, nurturance, and support are reflected in children's self-evaluations positively (see Brummelman & Thomaes, 2017 for a review). That is to say, approval by the parents is internalized by children as an acceptance of their perceived self, which ultimately leads to more positive self-concept development (e.g. Kelley, Brownell, & Campbell, 2000).

On the contrary, negative parenting characteristics such as lack of responsiveness, encouragement and support, rejection and overcontrolling predicted children's negative self-perceptions both concurrently (Coplan et al., 2004), and longitudinally (Goodvin et al., 2008). Therefore, it has been evidenced that children of parents who are emotionally available, loving and supportive of their children's autonomy needs and mastery efforts construct internal working model of the self as worthy and competent; whereas emotionally unavailable parents and parents with lack of support and overcontrolling attitudes (such as overprotectiveness) lead their children to have negative internal working models of their self (e.g. Bretherton & Munholland, 2008).

Thus, in the following section, maternal overprotectiveness (as one of the negative parenting practices) and autonomy support (as one of the positive parenting practices) will be explained including their associations with self-concepts.

1.4.1 Maternal overprotectiveness

One of the parenting behaviors having an effect on child outcomes is maternal overprotectiveness including characteristics of excessive comforting, discouraging interaction with novelty, solicitousness, prevention of independent behavior, giving the child too much instruction, and physical restriction from contact with potential threats in the environment (see Thomasgard & Metz, 1993 for a review). More specifically, being excessively worried about the child's safety or health, being overly cautious towards the child's actions and about his/her physically approaching to novel people, situations or objects, and warning him/her for minor potential dangers are commonly observed behaviors of overprotective parents (e.g. Otani et al., 2013; Ungar, 2009). In line with that, Ginsburg and Schlossberg (2002) stated that overprotective parents display excessive amounts of cautions and intrusive behaviors even if there is not a considerable threat or reason to worry about. Therefore, overprotective parenting may convey to the child a sense that the world is too dangerous to cope with it without a parent, feelings of out of control of his/her own life especially in low-risk environments, and feelings of incompetence and anxiety (Bayer, Sanson, & Hemphill, 2006; Thomasgard & Metz, 1993; Ungar, 2009). Thus, children of overprotective mothers are retained from everyday life challenges and chances to develop the necessary skills to cope with challenges.

As a result, children ultimately appear to develop dependence on their mothers (Bayer et al., 2006; Chorpita & Barlow, 1998; Soenens, Vansteenkiste, & Sierens, 2009), anxiety and internalizing problems (Bayer, Sanson, & Hemphill, 2009; Mount, Crockenberg, Jó, & Wagar, 2010), social withdrawal, reticence and fearfulness (Kiel & Buss, 2011; Rubin, Cheah, & Fox, 2001), behavioral inhibition (Kiel & Buss, 2013; Rubin et al., 2002), lack of competence (Rubin et al., 2001), and negative or unhealthy self-regards (Otani, Suzuki, Matsumoto, & Shirata, 2018).

1.4.1.1 Link between maternal overprotectiveness and self-concepts of children

Overprotectiveness is evidenced as having adverse effects on children's self-concept. For instance, Otani and colleagues (2018) reported that maternal overprotection, as one of the dysfunctional parenting practices, leads to negative core beliefs about the self as helpless and unlovable (Burhans & Dweck, 1995). More specifically, Winnicott (1958) has suggested that intrusive or overinvolved mothers (which are going together with the overprotectiveness) may cause their children to become distant from their "true self", because of the fact that those children constantly try to comply with their mothers' demandingness and expectations. Also, such parents might reject their children's "felt self", and those children might internalize that falsely presented "should self" (Crittenden, 1994). Similarly, Thomasgard and Metz (1993) stated that high overprotectiveness in addition to low levels of care leads to lower levels of self-esteem in the child by interfering with the development of the child's sense of competence. Similarly, overprotection was represented as an interference with the child's ability to develop a sense of competence by means of excessive control on children (Gilbert & Silvera, 1996). That is to say, overhelping when a child does not ask for it or overprotecting when a child does not actually need it seem to undermine children's chance of taking full credit for their accomplishments, which results in lower levels of self-esteem (Ungar, 2009). In line with that, for preschool-age children, help from others -when the child does not really need it- could be interpreted as a negative feedback (e.g. "You are actually not capable of this"), which leads to negative self-evaluations (Otani et al., 2018; Shell & Eisenberg, 1992). Also, as a result of their retrospective study, DeHart, Pelham, and Tennen (2006) reported that young adults who rated their parents as overprotective in their early childhood years showed lower levels of implicit self-esteem compared to their peers who did not rate their parents as overprotective. So, in general, it is obvious that overprotective parenting might lead to an adverse sense of self in children through the underlying messages of children's incompetence.

1.4.2 Maternal autonomy support

Autonomy support (also called as autonomy granting) is basically defined as giving child autonomy by encouraging individuality and independence (e.g. Silk, Morris, Kanaya, & Steinberg, 2003). As a more elaborated definition of autonomy support, McLeod, Wood, and Weisz (2007, p. 162) stated that: “parental encouragement of children's opinions and choices, acknowledgment of children's independent perspectives on issues, and solicitation of children's input on decisions and solutions of problems”. Conceptually, autonomy support is one of the important components of authoritative parenting, based on the parenting model of Baumrind (1966), in which respecting the child's autonomy, encouraging and tolerating children for expression of their opinions, allowing them to make age- appropriate choices and to join family-related decisions, providing reasoning behind the parenting behaviors, using democratic methods for positive discipline, and not forcing the child to obey regulations are the forefront characteristics (Chai, Kwok, & Gu, 2018; Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2005). Overall, autonomy-supportive parents allow children's experience of freedom or self-control and let them to behave autonomously, rather than enforcing external control and pressure on issues related to themselves or the family (Grolnick & Ryan, 1989; Joussemet, Landry, & Koestner, 2008; Kunz & Grych, 2013).

As from early years of childhood -particularly two years of age- sense of autonomy becomes prominent (Robinson & Biringen, 1995); and it is known that strong resistance to parents is not simply stubbornness but can reflect children's healthy attempts to assert their need for control (Dix, Stewart, Gershoff, & Day, 2007). Therefore, satisfaction of a need for autonomy support (as the experience of psychological freedom in both initiation and regulation of behaviors) is seen as vital for children's healthy functioning (Deci & Ryan, 2002; Soenens et al., 2009). So, a child can experience a feeling of free-choice and opportunities for self-direction (Ryan & Deci, 2006). On the contrary, a lack of parental autonomy support may have negative effects on child development by not satisfying their psychological needs for self-assertion and independence (Chai et al., 2018). In this regard, it is

suggested by many researchers that a healthy sense of autonomy emerges when children are raised in environments in which parents take into account children's points of view and preferences, encourage their initiations, let them to control events -especially related to themselves- assertively, face obstacles on their own, provide guidance as far as children need, and give children independence that they can freely express themselves (Grolnick, 2009; Grolnick, Gurland, DeCoursey, & Jacob, 2002; Ryan & Deci, 2006; Soenens et al., 2009; Zhang & Whitebread, 2019). Otherwise, not supporting the children's autonomy makes them feel like they have to think, feel, or be in certain (as how parents want so) ways (Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2010). In addition, there seems to be a gender difference in autonomy supporting behaviors of parents, as well. That is, boys are more encouraged to be independent whereas girls are commonly assisted in their actions rather than to be encouraged, which expectedly leads girls to have more negative self-evaluations (Spencer et al., 2015).

Parental autonomy support is an essential predictor of both immediate and long-term developmental outcomes of children throughout lifespan (Matte-Gagné, Harvey, Stack, & Serbin, 2015), starting from infancy (Bernier, Matte-Gagné, Bélanger, & Whipple, 2014), to adolescence (Liew, Kwok, Chang, Chang, & Yeh, 2014), and adulthood (Lynch, Guardia, & Ryan, 2009). Particularly, it has considerable effects on cognitive development (Bernier, Carlson, Deschênes, & Matte-Gagné, 2012; Bernier, Carlson, & Whipple, 2010; Matte-Gagné & Bernier, 2011), security of parent-child attachment (Bernier et al., 2014), better behavioral and emotional adjustment (McLeod et al., 2007), lower levels of anxiety by means of perceived control over events (Chorpita & Barlow, 1998; McLeod, et al. 2007), sense of competence and academic achievement (Grolnick, Ryan, & Deci, 1991), and various aspects of socio-emotional development (Matte-Gagné et al., 2015). In addition, it was stated by recent studies that parental autonomy support strongly promotes self-regulatory capacities in toddlerhood (Basilio & Rodríguez, 2017), as being the strongest parenting dimension among others (including maternal sensitivity) in terms of predicting self-regulatory capacities (Bernier et al., 2010).

1.4.2.1 Link between maternal autonomy support and self-concepts of children

When focusing on the preschool years, the crucial role of parental autonomy support becomes more prominent for the children's social-emotional development (Matte-Gagné et al., 2015; Ryan, Deci, Grolnick, & La Guardia, 2006). Autonomy-supportive parents who encourage their children to express their own opinions, interests, and actions are more likely to have well-adjusted children with a stable sense of self (Carlson, Uppal, & Prosser, 2000; Grolnick et al., 1991; Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Specifically, those children whom autonomy needs are supported by their parents are found to have higher levels of self-esteem and self-efficacy, and a more positive self-concept (Carlson et al., 2000; Kunz & Grych, 2013). Accordingly, children whose mothers are autonomy-supportive were found as less likely to avoid challenging activities, tend to be more persistent and competent than children whose mothers were more controlling (Kelley et al., 2000). Similarly, Bayer and colleagues (2006) indicated that autonomy support refers one of the most essential practices of positive parenting in which parents help children cope with the tasks on their own in achievable steps and make their own choices by exploring and reasoning different alternatives; which ultimately encourage children's internal self-perception that they are valued, consequently they construct a positive and competent sense of self. In summary, many studies in the literature consistently indicated that authoritative parents who support their children's autonomy lead those children to have a more positive sense of self (e.g. Carlson et al., 2000).

In addition to both temperament (i.e. behavioral inhibition) and parenting behaviors' (i.e. maternal overprotectiveness and autonomy support) unique relations to children's self-concepts, the transactions between them will be explained in the following section.

1.5 Bidirectionality between temperament and parenting

Although direct associations are important, and widely studied, in terms of understanding both antecedents and consequences of certain variables, bidirectionality gives us much more information about the whole picture. A vast majority of literature in this field emphasizes “how much parenting is affective on child outcomes”, whereas relatively less emphasis was given to the reverse direction: “how children’s characteristics affect parenting”. Yet, researchers have increasingly appreciated the transactional models with the assertion that “children influence parents just as parents influence children” (Pettit & Arsiwalla, 2008). So, investigations of how child characteristics may elicit different parental responses have started to grab more attention (e.g. Liu, Xiao, Coplan, Chen, & Lee, 2018). For instance, temperamentally “difficult” children tend to evoke less optimal parenting behaviors such as adverse reactions towards undesirable behaviors, harsh or inconsistent discipline (Coplan, Hastings, Lagace-Seguin, & Moulton, 2002; Lengua & Kovacs, 2005; see Sanson & Rothbart, 1995 for a review). So, it is quite important that negative parenting practices and child characteristics should be considered as bidirectional, because a distressed child, for instance, might be affected by those stressors and also might be the reason of stress (Liu et al., 2018).

Among the children’s temperamental characteristics, behavioral inhibition is one of those strongly linked to parenting behaviors. Guyer and colleagues (2015) stated that developmental outcomes which are associated with behavioral inhibition might strongly be influenced by a child’s caregiving context. That is, behavioral inhibition in the early years of life leads to a greater sensitivity towards adversities in rearing environment (so that they are affected by their mother’s insensitive behaviors more negatively), which in turn increase those children’s behavioral inhibition (Belsky & Pluess, 2009; Fox et al., 2005; Hornbuckle, 2010). Accordingly, Bullock and colleagues (2018) stated that the mother who thinks that her child is shy may tend to perceive him/her as vulnerable and hence attempt to control her child’s behaviors; which implies that mothers adjust their behavior in response to their children’s characteristics (Belsky, Rha, & Park, 2000; Collins, Maccoby, Steinberg,

Hetherington, & Bornstein, 2000; Lengua, 2006; Wood, McLeod, Sigman, Hwang, & Chu, 2003). Moreover, Hornbuckle (2010) stated that mothers of behaviorally inhibited children typically exhibit more anxious and overprotective child-rearing with an urge to help their children, and this effort exacerbates the child's sense of powerlessness over his/her own environment. So, children's behavioral inhibition is influenced by maternal parenting behaviors and in turn, mothers' behaviors are influenced by their children's behavioral inhibition (e.g. Buss, & Kiel, 2011).

Specifically, maternal overprotectiveness was found to be positively associated with behavioral inhibition (e.g. Rubin et al., 2002; Rubin et al., 2001), and bidirectional effects between behavioral inhibition and overprotectiveness were also reported (e.g. Kiel, Premo, & Buss, 2016). In this context, Hudson and Rapee (2005) stated that in case of parents have more than one child, they tend to behave overprotectively only toward their temperamentally fearful child, but not the other child(ren), implying the role of temperament evoking maternal overprotectiveness. Yet, overprotective behaviors serve to deteriorate children's behavioral inhibition by giving them messages that they are out of control over his/her own environment, reinforcing avoidance, and preventing them from coping with the situation (e.g. experiencing that a feared stimulus is actually safe), which ultimately leads the child to get even more fearful and inhibited (Chorpita & Barlow, 1998; Hudson & Rapee, 2004). In other words, there seems to be a vicious cycle between behavioral inhibition and maternal overprotectiveness. To illustrate, overprotective mothers are likely to overmanage circumstances on behalf of their children, and limit their behaviors and independence; thus children do not have a chance to develop required skills to manage their own problems, which maintains or strengthens their reticence and social wariness; and this situation eventually evokes the mother to intensify her initial overprotective behaviors (Burgess, Rubin, Cheah, & Nelson, 2001; Hudson, Doyle, & Gar, 2009; Kiel & Buss, 2011; Lieb et al., 2000; Murray, Creswell, & Cooper, 2009).

On the other hand, although negative parenting behaviors (e.g. overprotectiveness), affect the maintenance (or even getting strengthen) of children's behavioral

inhibition, the findings related to positive parenting behaviors (e.g. autonomy support) and behavioral inhibition are inconsistent (Ryan & Ollendick, 2018). For instance, authoritative parenting, in general, is negatively related to adverse child outcomes which were originated from difficult temperamental characteristics (Propper & Moore, 2006; Wood et al., 2003). However, there are contradictory findings due to the fact that mothers of behaviorally inhibited children tend to be anxious, which negatively affects their chance to behave authoritatively (Bullock et al., 2018). In line with this, Rubin and colleagues (1999) reported that temperamental shyness at the age of two predicted parents' lack of encouraging behaviors (which is one of the core components of autonomy support) at the age of four. In other words, parents' perceptions of their children's behavioral inhibition lead to the restriction of autonomy. In addition, mothers of behaviorally inhibited children who show less encouragement of autonomy and independence towards their shy/fearful children are also more likely to direct the child with her instructions and to make decisions for her child (Belsky et al. 2000; Martini, Root, & Jenkins, 2004). Although existing studies suggest that there might be bidirectionality between behavioral inhibition and maternal autonomy support (though far less compared to its bidirectionality with overprotectiveness), still further longitudinal studies are needed to understand these transactions, and a broader picture of parent-child bidirectionality.

1.6 The present study

In the literature, majority of studies related to the self-phenomena overwhelmingly relied on adolescence and middle childhood period, whereas there is limited evidence for preschool years. In addition, the existing studies investigating self-concept were mainly focused on the Western cultural contexts, whereas non-Western societies are underrepresented although the role of culture is worthy of consideration in terms of the effects on how parent-child relationships are conceptualized. Also, despite the fact that there are a number of studies investigating the unidimensional effects of parenting and child temperament, bidirectionality between them is relatively understudied. Thus, further studies testing the bidirectionality are required. In the light of literature, the purpose of the current study is to investigate the longitudinal

relations (over a time period of eight months) between parenting (i.e. maternal overprotectiveness and autonomy support) and temperament (i.e. behavioral inhibition), and self-concepts of preschool-age children in Turkish sample by utilizing cross-lagged panel models.

In this context, there are three main hypotheses of the current study. Firstly, there will be a positive association for all four variables (i.e. children's self-concept and behavioral inhibition, maternal overprotectiveness and autonomy support) between their two time-points of assessments (i.e. autoregressive paths over time). Secondly, there will be bidirectional transactions between children's temperament and mothers' parenting behaviors (i.e. cross-lagged paths over time). Specifically, it was hypothesized that children's behavioral inhibition and mother's overprotectiveness will mutually influence each other over time. Yet, the transactional relations of mother's autonomy support will be investigated exploratorily since there is relatively less and inconsistent evidence examining autonomy support. Thirdly, Time 1 children's behavioral inhibition and maternal overprotectiveness will be negatively, and Time 1 maternal autonomy support will be positively related to Time 2 self-concept. However, the links from Time 1 self-concept to Time 2 maternal overprotectiveness and autonomy support will be tested exploratorily due to the fact that this is the first study, to the best of our knowledge, investigating these links.

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

2.1 Participants

In total, 196 children between the ages of 47 and 81 months ($M_{age} = 61.16$, $SD_{age} = 8.47$) and their mothers participated at Time 1 data collection phase of this study. At Time 2, 180 of the participants could be reached (93 of them were females [51.7%], and 87 of them were males [48.3%]; $M_{age} = 61.15$, $SD_{age} = 8.56$). So, there were 16 dropouts in total which were not significantly different from the final participants in terms of their descriptive characteristics. Main reasons of dropping out gather around three themes: some of them could not be reached via any contact information at hand, some of them were out of the city for a vacation or moved permanently, and a small portion of them dropped-out just because they did not want to participate for the second time.

Participants were recruited from the several cities of Turkey: Izmir ($N = 126$), Bursa ($N = 34$), and Ankara ($N = 20$). Mothers' age ranged between 23 and 54 ($M_{age} = 35.43$, $SD_{age} = 5.06$). Demographic information related to mother, father, and family characteristics including education levels, mothers' working status, monthly family income, and relationship status were presented in Table 1.

2.2 Measures

2.2.1 Self-concept

In order to measure preschool children's self-concepts, Child Self-View Questionnaire (CSVQ; Eder, 1990) and a part of the Berkeley Puppet Interview (BPI; Ablow & Measelle, 1993) were used. CSVQ is 23-item forced choice measure

Table 1

Demographic Information of Parents

	<i>N</i>	Percentage
Mother related demographic info		
Education		
Elementary	10	5.6%
Secondary	11	6.1%
High School	48	26.8%
College (2 years)	25	14.0%
University (4 years)	72	40.2%
Masters	10	5.6%
PhD	3	1.7%
Current Working Status		
Worker	131	73.2%
Non-worker	49	26.8%
Father related demographic info		
Education		
Elementary	8	4.5%
Secondary	15	8.4%
High School	67	37.4%
College (2 years)	19	10.6%
University (4 years)	62	34.6%
Masters	4	2.2%
PhD	4	2.2%
Family related demographic info		
Monthly Income		
Up to 1000 TL	2	1.2%
From 1000 TL to 2999 TL	32	18.5%
From 3000 TL to 4999 TL	62	35.8%
From 5000 TL to 6999 TL	35	20.2%
From 7000 TL to 9999 TL	29	16.8%
More than 10000 TL	13	7.5%
Relationship status		
Married and cohabiting	171	95.5%
Married but living separated	2	1.1%
Divorced	6	3.4%

designed for children between 3.5 and 8.5 years old (e.g., Brown et al., 2008; Buckner & Fivush, 1998; Welch-Ross, Fasig, & Farrar, 1999). It was translated into Turkish through translation-back translation method (Ertekin & Berument, 2019) and yielded .82 of Cronbach alpha's score among a norm group of Turkish sample. In the implementation procedure, two puppets (named as "Ponpon" and "Tonton") are used to vocalize pair of opposite, bipolar statements to the child. For example, Ponpon says "I really like myself", and right after, Tonton says "I don't like myself". Following each item, children are asked by the experimenter "What about you?" and are encouraged to restate the entire statement in making their selection. No feedback was given to the children after the practice items were completed. Items were presented in a fixed order, but the order of speaking puppet was alternated to eliminate the potential primacy/recency effect. Higher scores represent better self-concepts and a positive sense of self. On the other hand, in order to cover all aspects of self-concept, Social Competence and Peer Acceptance subscales of BPI (among 6 subscales in total) were added to puppet interview. BPI was designed to assess self-perceptions of 4.5 to 7.5 years old children. The implementation procedure and instructions of the BPI is the same with CSVQ. Sample items include "Kids pick me for their games / Kids don't pick me for their games" and "I have lots of friends / I don't have lots of friends". Turkish translation of these subscales was made by the scope of the current study by using translation-back translation method (see Appendix A). Internal consistency of this puppet interview package through Cronbach's alpha score was found as .80 in the current study.

2.2.2 Maternal overprotectiveness

Maternal overprotectiveness was assessed through the mother's self-reports by means of Parental Overprotection Measure (POM; Edwards, Rapee, & Kennedy, 2008). It consists of 19 items designed to assess parenting behaviors that restrict a child's exposure to perceived threat or harm, with items mainly having a behavioral or situation specific focus, rather than more general attitudes and beliefs. Sample items include "When playing in the park I keep my child within a close distance of me" and "I do not allow my child to climb trees". Parents were asked to rate the

extent to which the item represents their typical response of a 5-point Likert type scale ranging from 0 (not at all) to 4 (very much). The POM has previously been found to have high internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha score as .87), strong test–re-test reliability, and good construct and predictive validity when used with a community sample of parents of 3-5-year old children (Edwards, Rapee, & Kennedy, 2010). Turkish translation of this scale was carried out by the researcher of the current study via translation-back translation method (see Appendix B). Cronbach's alpha score was found as .87 in the current study.

2.2.3 Maternal autonomy support

In order to assess maternal autonomy support, Autonomy Granting part of the Authoritative subscale of Parenting Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire (PSDQ; Robinson, Mandleco, Olsen, & Hart, 2001) was used. In general, the PSDQ measures the dimensions of parenting styles using authoritative (15 items grouped into three subscales: reasoning/induction, warmth and support, and autonomy granting), authoritarian (12 items grouped into three subscales: non-reasoning, physical coercion, and verbal hostility), and permissive (5 items) scales. As needed in the scope of the current study, only 5 items representing autonomy granting were used. Mothers rated responses to each item using a 5-point Likert type scale from “never” to “always” (coded 1 to 5). Robinson and his colleagues (2001) reported the Cronbach's alpha score of the authoritative subscale as .86; whereas Olivari, Tagliabue, and Confalonieri (2013) suggested that Cronbach's alpha levels for the authoritative subscale are between the range of .71 and .97. Sample items include “I take my child's desires into account before asking the child to do something.” and “I encourage my child to freely express him/herself even when disagreeing with parents.”. Turkish translation of this scale was carried out by the researcher of the current study by using translation-back translation method (see Appendix C). Cronbach's alpha score was found as .76 in the current study.

2.2.4 Behavioral inhibition

In order to measure the behavioral inhibition among preschoolers, Fear and Shyness subscales of Early Childhood Behavior Questionnaire (ECBQ; Putnam, Gartstein & Rothbart, 2006) were used. The reliability and validity of the ECBQ have been supported by many studies, and mean alpha coefficients of three higher-order factors -Surgency, Negative Affectivity, and Effortful Control- were found as .79, .77, and .81, respectively. Specifically in the scope of this study, Fear subscale including 11 items (e.g. “During everyday activities, how often did your child startle at loud noises (such as a fire engine siren)?” and “While watching TV or hearing a story, how often did your child seem frightened by ‘monster’ characters?”) and Shyness subscale including 11 items (e.g. “When approached by an unfamiliar person in a public place (for example, the grocery store), how often did your child pull back and avoid the person?” and “When approaching unfamiliar children playing, how often did your child watch rather than join in?”) were used. Turkish adaptation of ECBQ had been conducted by Berument and Sümer (2017), and Cronbach’s alpha score were found as .81. In addition to ECBQ, 3 more items were added from Behavioral Inhibition Questionnaire (BIQ; Bishop, et al., 2003) in order to cover all aspects of behavioral inhibition. BIQ has also a good internal consistency with the Cronbach’s alpha score of .87. Sample items include “Hesitant in approaching new activities” and “Hesitant to explore new play equipment”. All items in the behavioral inhibition questionnaire package were filled in by mothers on 5-point Likert type scale (1 – never, 3 – sometimes, 5 – always), (see Appendix D). Cronbach’s alpha score of whole behavioral inhibition questionnaire package was found as .84 in the current study.

2.2.5 Demographic information form

Demographic information form includes questions about age and gender of a child, mother’s age, working status, education level and family income, the number of children that parents have, and the birth order of them, current city they live in, and marital status (see Appendix E).

2.3 Procedure

First of all, ethical approval was taken from the Ethical Committee at Middle East Technical University. Participants were recruited by means of personal contacts with the families, and local childcare centers and kindergartens in Ankara, İzmir, and Bursa, in Turkey. Data were collected through either home or preschool/kindergarten visits. Before the data collection procedure, mothers were informed about the longitudinal design of the study (i.e. the same procedure will be repeated 8 months later) and asked to sign the informed consent form based on their voluntariness. In addition, oral consent was taken from children, too, by asking “Would you like to play with me and my puppets?”.

Firstly, puppet interview was implemented. Specifically, children were taken to an allocated room where two puppets –“Ponpon” and “Tonton” – were introduced by the researcher. Then, children were given instruction as “These puppets are writing a story about children at your age, and they want to find out all about you. They will tell you about themselves, and then you can tell them about yourself.” After presenting two practice items to ensure that a child understood the procedure, the puppets were vocalized by the researcher for presenting the items. In addition, the mothers completed a questionnaire package pertaining to their own overprotectiveness and autonomy support toward their children, and behavioral inhibition of their children in addition to demographic information form.

Time 1 (T1) data collection with 196 mother-child dyads was accomplished between the dates of 14th July and 19th October, 2018. Time 2 (T2) data collection with 180 mother-child dyads (with 16 completely random dropouts) was accomplished between the dates of 15th March and 17th June 2019, which was 8-months after Time 1 as planned. So, there was an attrition rate of approximately 8% from T1 to T2. The same procedure including the same assessment tools were followed in both T1 and T2 data collections.

2.4 Statistical analysis

Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 24.0 was used for handling the missing data, descriptive statistics and Pearson's bivariate correlations of all the study variables. A cross-lagged panel analysis via Analyses of MOment Structures (AMOS) was utilized in order to test the hypotheses of the present study. Specifically, the transactions between the parenting (i.e. maternal overprotectiveness and autonomy support), and preschool children's temperament characteristic (i.e. behavioral inhibition) in relation to children's self-concept over two time points with 8 months interval were tested by using two cross-lagged panel models via AMOS. Prior to the main analyses, missing data were completed by means of Expectation-Maximization method, and descriptive statistics and bivariate correlations were examined.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

In this section, first preliminary analyses, including missing data handling, normality assumptions testing, descriptive statistics and bivariate correlations of all variables will be presented. Then, the findings of model testing via cross-lagged panel analyses will be reported.

3.1 Preliminary analyses

Before proceeding to the main analyses, accuracy of data entry was double checked. Then, participants who were dropped out at Time 2 assessment ($n = 16$; attrition rate as about 8%) were compared with participants who fully participated in both Time 1 and Time 2 assessments ($N = 180$) in order to assess the potential bias related to dropping out. Yet, dropouts were not significantly differed from the final participants in terms of their descriptive characteristics, so subsequent analyses were run with the final 180 participants.

Furthermore, Expectation-Maximization method was used to deal with the missing data. The reason of choosing this method among others was because only a very small portion of data (i.e. less than 5% overall) was missing and because missing data was completely at random according to a non-significant Little's MCAR test, $\chi^2(1590) = 1672.69$, $p > .05$ (Little, 1988). In this context, Expectation-Maximization algorithm enables unbiased parameter estimates and increases statistical power of the analyses (Enders, 2001; Scheffer, 2002).

Then, normality tests were assessed by means of AMOS for both univariate outliers (based on skewness and kurtosis values), and multivariate outliers (based on Mahalanobis distances). Results indicated regarding univariate outliers that skewness

values ranged between -1.34 and .46, in which it is known that the range of -1.96 and 1.96 indicates no substantial skewness in the data (Kline, 2011). Similarly, kurtosis values ranged between -2.00 and 2.32 which are lower than the 7.00 of kurtosis value showing an extreme departure from normality (Byrne, 2010). Thus, according to these findings, there were no univariate outliers in the data. In addition, results regarding multivariate outliers via Mahalanobis d-squared values (indicating cases which fall apart from the centroid) referred that there were no extreme multivariate outliers, either. Although there was one case differed from the centroid marginally significantly ($MD = 26.90, p = .001$), it was kept in the data set based on the suggestion of by Kline (2011). All other Mahalanobis distance values ranged between 6.43 - 23.48 with p values greater than .003. So, it can be concluded that there is no potential threat for either univariate or multivariate outliers for the current study. After the data check and cleaning, composite scores of each variable were calculated.

3.2 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics (i.e. minimum and maximum scores, means and standard deviations) of all study variables for Time 1 and Time 2 are presented in Table 2.

3.3 Correlations

Pearson bivariate correlation coefficients of all the study variables (i.e. children's self-concept, temperamental characteristic as behavioral inhibition, and parenting dimensions as maternal overprotectiveness and autonomy support) including demographic variables (i.e. children's gender and age, mothers' education level) for Time 1 (T1) and Time 2 (T2) assessments are presented in Table 3.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics for All Study Variables (N = 180)

	<i>Min</i>		<i>Max</i>		<i>M</i>		<i>SD</i>	
	T1	T2	T1	T2	T1	T2	T1	T2
Self-concept	1.39	1.70	3.00	3.00	2.65	2.72	0.29	0.26
Behavioral inhibition	1.16	1.08	3.92	3.56	2.18	2.12	0.49	0.48
Maternal overprotectiveness	0.37	0.84	3.79	3.79	2.52	2.36	0.66	0.62
Maternal autonomy support	2.60	2.80	5.00	5.00	4.37	4.38	.53	.51

Note: SD: Standard deviation. T1: Time 1. T2: Time 2.

3.3.1 Correlations of children's self-concept with temperament and parenting

Bivariate correlation analysis revealed that children's T1 self-concept was positively correlated with children's T2 self-concept ($r = .50$, $p < .001$), as expected. In addition, children's T2 self-concept was negatively correlated with children's gender ($r = -.19$, $p < .01$), which refers that females are associated with more positive self-concept compared to their male peers. Finally, children's T2 self-concept was negatively correlated with mothers' education level ($r = -.22$, $p = .004$).

3.3.2 Correlations regarding temperament and parenting dimensions

According to bivariate correlation analysis, children's T1 behavioral inhibition was positively correlated with children's T2 behavioral inhibition ($r = .64$, $p < .001$), and T1 maternal overprotectiveness ($r = .19$, $p < .01$); whereas negatively correlated with T1 and T2 maternal autonomy support ($r = -.16$, $p < .05$; $r = -.23$, $p < .01$, respectively). In addition, T2 behavioral inhibition was positively correlated with both T1 and T2 maternal overprotectiveness ($r = .28$, $p < .001$; $r = .32$, $p < .001$,

respectively); whereas negatively correlated with both T1 and T2 maternal autonomy support ($r = -.16, p < .05$; $r = -.22, p < .05$, respectively). Both T1 and T2 behavioral inhibition were negatively correlated with mother's education ($r = -.18, p < .05$; $r = -.16, p < .05$, respectively). Moreover, T1 maternal overprotectiveness was positively correlated with T2 maternal overprotectiveness ($r = .68, p < .001$), and negatively correlated with T2 maternal autonomy support ($r = -.18, p < .05$). Also, both T1 and T2 maternal overprotectiveness are negatively correlated with children's gender ($r = -.18, p < .05$; $r = -.19, p < .01$, respectively), and mother's education ($r = -.42, p < .001$; $r = -.31, p < .001$, respectively). Finally, T1 maternal autonomy support was positively correlated with T2 maternal autonomy support ($r = .50, p < .001$), as expected.

3.3.3 Results of cross-lagged panel models

Cross-lagged panel path models via AMOS were used to examine the bidirectional associations between temperament (i.e. behavioral inhibition) and parenting (i.e. maternal overprotectiveness and autonomy support) over time and their links with preschool children's self-concept. First, children's gender and mothers' education level were examined as potential covariates. Findings revealed strong correlations with children's self-concept; in which girls were associated with more positive self-concepts compared to boys, and higher maternal education level was associated with lower levels of self-concept. Therefore, both children's gender and mothers' education level were controlled for in subsequent analyses. There are two different path models for two parenting dimensions; namely Model 1 as for transactions between behavioral inhibition, maternal overprotectiveness, and child self-concept (see Figure 1), and Model 2 as for transactions between behavioral inhibition, maternal autonomy support, and child self-concept (see Figure 2).

Table 3
Bivariate Correlations between all Study Variables (N = 180)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. T1 Self-concept	-	.50***	-.02	-.01	.03	.02	.01	-.14	-.01	-.02	-.07
2. T2 Self-concept		-	.06	.01	.11	.02	.03	-.08	-.19**	-.08	-.22**
3. T1 Behavioral inhibition			-	.64***	.19**	.07	-.16*	-.23**	-.07	.03	-.18*
4. T2 Behavioral inhibition				-	.28***	.32***	-.16*	-.22*	-.04	-.04	-.16*
5. T1 Maternal overprotectiveness					-	.68***	-.04	-.18*	-.18*	.01	-.42***
6. T2 Maternal overprotectiveness						-	-.02	-.02	-.19**	.05	-.31***
7. T1 Maternal autonomy support							-	.50***	.06	-.10	.09
8. T2 Maternal autonomy support								-	.01	-.10	.11
9. Gender									-	-.04	.07
10. Age										-	-.16*
11. Mother education											-

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. T1: Time 1. T2: Time 2.

3.3.3.1 Findings on bidirectionality between behavioral inhibition and maternal overprotectiveness in relation to children's self-concept

The Model 1 examining transactions between behavioral inhibition, maternal overprotectiveness, and children's self-concept demonstrated a good fit: $\chi^2(11, N = 180) = 16.688, p = .12$, RMSEA = 0.054, SRMR = 0.064, CFI = 0.983. As can be seen in Table 3 (showing both autoregressive and cross-lagged paths), firstly, results regarding autoregressive models indicated significant stability effects for all three variables, suggesting all three constructs are stable over 8 months. Specifically, T1 assessments of behavioral inhibition ($\beta = .61, p < .001$), maternal overprotectiveness ($\beta = .71, p < .001$), and children's self-concept ($\beta = .42, p < .001$) significantly predicted their T2 assessments. Secondly, when cross-lagged pathways of the model were considered, results showed that maternal overprotectiveness at T1 significantly predicted behavioral inhibition at T2 ($\beta = .13, p < .01$) (see Figure 1).

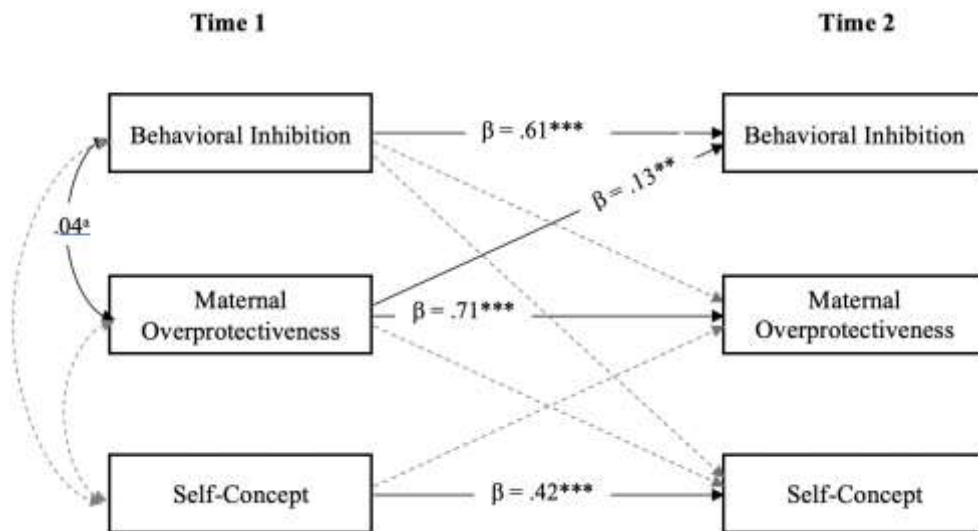


Figure 1. Two-wave cross-lagged model for time-lagged effects between behavioral inhibition, maternal overprotectiveness and self-concept (Model 1).

Note 1: Standardized coefficients (β) of all significant paths are represented as continuous lines, whereas non-significant paths were represented as gray dashed lines.

Note 2: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$, ^a $p = .07$.

3.3.3.2 Findings on bidirectionality between behavioral inhibition and maternal autonomy support in relation to children's self-concept

The second cross-lagged panel model examining the transactions between behavioral inhibition, maternal autonomy support, and children's self-concept demonstrated a good fit: $\chi^2(12, N = 180) = 10.028, p = .61$, RMSEA = 0.000, SRMR = 0.053, CFI = 1. As can be seen in Table 4, results regarding autoregressive models indicated significant stability effects for all three variables, suggesting all three constructs are stable over time in Model 2, as well. Specifically, T1 assessments of behavioral inhibition ($\beta = .63, p < .001$), maternal autonomy support ($\beta = .48, p < .001$), and children's self-concept ($\beta = .42, p < .001$) significantly predicted their T2 assessments. Further, as considering cross-lagged pathways of this model, results showed that behavioral inhibition at T1 negatively predicted maternal autonomy support at T2 ($\beta = -.16, p < .05$), and also self-concept at T1 negatively predicted maternal autonomy support at T2 ($\beta = -.24, p < .05$) (see Figure 2).

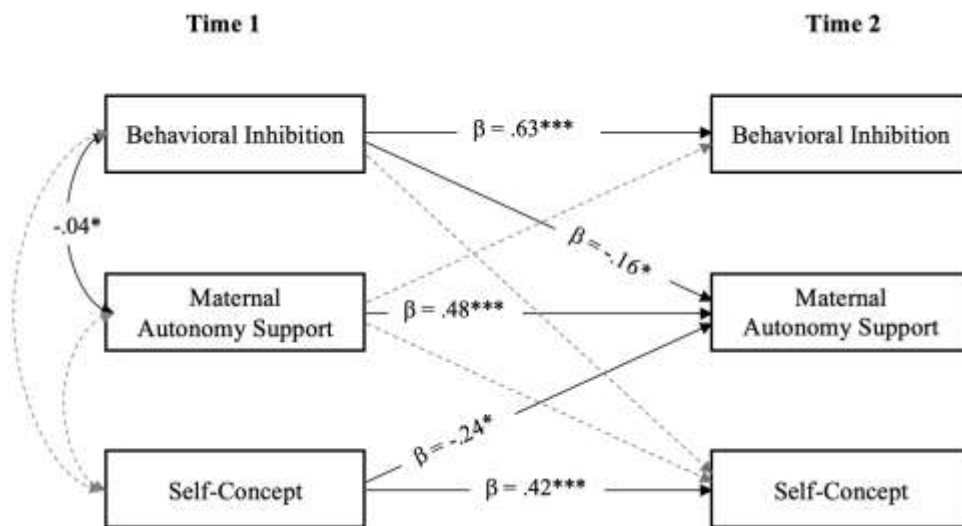


Figure 2. Two-wave cross-lagged model for time-lagged effects between behavioral inhibition, maternal autonomy support and self-concept (Model 2).

Note 1: Standardized coefficients (β) of all significant paths are represented as continuous lines, whereas non-significant paths were represented as gray dashed lines.

Note 2: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Table 4

Overview of the Autoregressive and Cross-lagged Path Coefficients

Model	Autoregressive path	β	Cross-lagged path	β
1	BI _{T1} → BI _{T2}	.61***	BI _{T1} → OP _{T2}	-.08
	OP _{T1} → OP _{T2}	.71***	OP _{T1} → BI _{T2}	.13**
	SC _{T1} → SC _{T2}	.42***	OP _{T1} → SC _{T2}	-.01
			SC _{T1} → OP _{T2}	.01
			BI _{T1} → SC _{T2}	.01
	BI _{T1} → BI _{T2}	.63***	BI _{T1} → AS _{T2}	-.16*
2	AS _{T1} → AS _{T2}	.48***	AS _{T1} → BI _{T2}	-.05
	SC _{T1} → SC _{T2}	.42***	AS _{T1} → SC _{T2}	.03
			SC _{T1} → AS _{T2}	-.24*
			BI _{T1} → SC _{T2}	.02

Note: BI: Behavioral Inhibition, OP: Overprotectiveness, SC: Self-Concept, AS: Autonomy Support, T1: Time 1, T2: Time 2; β represents standardized coefficients; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

In the literature, children's temperamental characteristics and parenting dimensions as well as their interaction have been extensively investigated as predictors of various child outcomes (e.g. Ryan & Ollendick, 2018). However, transactions between temperament and parenting would provide information about the bidirectionality within the parent-child interaction system. In this context, current study aimed to investigate the longitudinal relations (over a time period of eight months) between parenting (i.e. maternal overprotectiveness and autonomy support) and temperament (i.e. behavioral inhibition) in relation to self-concepts of preschool-age children.

In this chapter, firstly, the hypotheses of the current study will be reviewed. Then, the findings of this study based on cross-lagged panel analyses will be evaluated and discussed in the light of literature. After that, strengths and contributions to the literature of the current study will be discussed; and finally, limitations and suggestions for future research will be suggested.

4.1 Review of the hypotheses

There were three main hypotheses of the present study. Firstly, it was expected that there will be a positive association of all four variables (i.e. children's self-concept and behavioral inhibition, maternal overprotectiveness and autonomy support) between their two time-points of assessments (i.e. autoregressive paths over time). Secondly, there will be bidirectional transactions between children's temperament and mothers' parenting behaviors (i.e. cross-lagged paths over time). Specifically, it was hypothesized that children's behavioral inhibition and mother's overprotectiveness will mutually influence each other over time. Yet, the

transactional relations of maternal autonomy support with children's behavioral inhibition will be investigated exploratorily since there is relatively less and inconsistent evidence examining this link. Thirdly, it was expected that Time 1 children's behavioral inhibition and maternal overprotectiveness will be negatively, and Time 1 maternal autonomy support will be positively related to Time 2 self-concepts of children. However, the links from Time 1 children's self-concept to Time 2 maternal overprotectiveness and autonomy support will be tested exploratorily due to the fact that this is the first study, to the best of our knowledge, investigating these links.

4.1.1 Evaluation of cross-lagged panel analyses

For the first main hypothesis of the current study, the results of the cross-lagged panel analysis revealed that Time 1 assessments of children's self-concept and behavioral inhibition, maternal overprotectiveness and autonomy support positively predicted Time 2 assessments (i.e. autoregressive paths over time). In other words, characteristics of children and their mothers showed stability over time (i.e. 8 months). The significance of those autoregressive paths is in tune with what is expected through the literature. That is, Trzesniewski and colleagues (2003) reported that children's self-concept shows stability over time. Likewise, behavioral inhibition indicates moderate levels of stability in longitudinal studies over periods of several months or sometimes years (Gartstein & Rothbart, 2003; Guerin, Gottfried, Oliver, & Thomas, 2003; Thompson et al., 2011), and that stability increases especially after two years of age (Pfeifer, Goldsmith, Davidson, & Rickman, 2002). In addition to those, it is also supported by the longitudinal studies that both maternal overprotectiveness (Kennedy, Rubin, Hastings, & Maisel, 2004; Kiel & Buss, 2011) and autonomy support (Bayer et al., 2006; Matte-Gagné, Bernier, & Gagné, 2013) tend to show stability over time.

As the second hypothesis of the current study, it was expected that there will be bidirectional transactions between children's temperament and mothers' parenting behaviors (i.e. cross-lagged paths over time). Specifically, it was hypothesized that

children's behavioral inhibition and mother's overprotectiveness will reciprocally influence each other over time. The findings of the current study partially supported this hypothesis. That is, T1 maternal overprotectiveness predicted T2 behavioral inhibition, as expected. This finding is in tune with many studies in the literature (Coplan et al., 2009; Edwards, Rapee, & Kennedy, 2010; Hudson & Rapee, 2005; Kiel & Buss, 2013; Rubin et al., 2002). However, although it was expected that T1 behavioral inhibition would predict T2 maternal overprotectiveness, this link was not significant. This nonsignificant finding is unexpected because there are studies in the literature indicating that maternal overprotectiveness is predicted by children's behavioral inhibition over time (Hudson & Rapee, 2005; Kiel & Buss, 2011; Möller, Nikolic, Majdandzic, & Bögels, 2016). One of the possible underlying factors of this unexpected finding could be the cultural differences. That is to say, majority of studies in the literature are conducted in Western (thereby predominantly individualistic) cultures; and when compared their overprotectiveness scores with the mothers from non-Western (thereby predominantly collectivistic) cultures like Turkey, non-Western mothers have higher levels of overprotectiveness (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2007; Sümer, Gündoğdu-Aktürk, & Helvacı, 2010). Thus, it can be evaluated that mothers from non-Western societies prone to be overprotective towards their children no matter how their children are behaviorally inhibited. In line with that, in their cross-cultural study Chen and colleagues (1998) reported that behavioral inhibition was linked with negative parenting behaviors (among which one of them is overprotectiveness) only for Canadian mothers but not for Chinese mothers. So, these findings seem to suggest that culture plays a role on how behavioral inhibition is evaluated by parents, and accordingly how parenting behaviors are affected by children's behavioral inhibition (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2007; Thompson et al., 2011).

Moreover, the lack of association from children's behavioral inhibition to mothers' overprotectiveness could also be explained by other maternal characteristics. For instance, maternal education level was negatively correlated with both T1 and T2 behavioral inhibition and maternal overprotectiveness. In other words, findings indicated that educated mothers tend to be less overprotective towards their children, and tend to have less behaviorally inhibited children compared to less educated

mothers. Thus, maternal education level was controlled in the analyses since it seems to have a potential effect on the association between behavioral inhibition and maternal overprotectiveness. However, the results were the same before and after controlling for maternal education level.

Furthermore, another possible explanation for the absence of an association from behavioral inhibition to overprotectiveness over time can be due to the methodological differences across studies. That is, both behavioral inhibition and overprotectiveness might be assessed via observation-based, child-report, and mother-report measurement tools; yet, particularly behavioral inhibition was found to be affected by the assessment method. For instance, Spooner, Evans, and Santos (2005) used self-reports, parent-reports and teacher-reports to assess school-age children's shyness and found that there is a discrepancy between children's self-report and parent- or teacher-reported shyness that children tend to identify themselves as having higher levels of shyness compared to parent/teacher ratings of their shyness. It should also be noted that the sample of Spooner and colleagues' (2005) study comprises children in middle childhood years, whereas the sample of the current study comprises preschool-age children. So, there might be the effect of age differences, as well; and that is why future studies should use multi-method/informant measurement tools for children's behavioral inhibition assessment from different age groups.

The transactional relations between mother's autonomy support and children's behavioral inhibition were investigated exploratorily, since there is relatively less and inconsistent evidence in the literature examining the effects of maternal autonomy support. Results of the second cross-lagged panel model testing for autonomy support revealed that children's T1 behavioral inhibition negatively predicted mother's T2 autonomy support. This finding that children's behavioral inhibition leads to a decrease in mother's autonomy support is in line with the findings of Rubin and colleagues' (1999) study, in which they found that shyness (as one of the core components of behavioral inhibition) at two years of age predict decrease in parental encouragement of independence (which is conceptualized as

autonomy support) at four years of age. In line with this finding, there are several studies in the literature indicating that positive parenting practices are predicted by various child characteristics. For instance, it was reported that lower levels of emotional dysregulation in children predicted authoritative parenting (Coplan et al., 2009). Similarly, from the earlier phases of life, infant crying and soothability at 3 months of age were found as predictors of maternal nurturance at 9 months of age (Fish & Crockenberg, 1986). Also, it was reported that children's higher activity level -especially for girls- predicted higher levels of maternal involvement (McBride, Schoppe, & Rane, 2002). All these studies suggest that it might be the child who determines positive parenting practices.

Moreover, T1 maternal autonomy support did not predict T2 behavioral inhibition. This set of finding related to the bidirectionality between behavioral inhibition and maternal autonomy support suggests that children's behavioral inhibition seem to be the determining factor for autonomy support. In other words, maternal autonomy support is in a position that it is affected by child-related characteristics (both behavioral inhibition and self-concept which will be discussed in detail below), whereas not affects them. Accordingly, in a meta-analysis of Möller and colleagues (2016), mother's autonomy support was not significantly related to children's anxiety including fearful temperament, behavioral inhibition, and shyness. Yet, there are several recent studies in the literature indicating various parenting practices that predict children's behavioral inhibition. For instance, parental gentle encouragement and warm responsiveness predicted decreased levels of toddlers' behavioral inhibition (Grady, 2019), maternal negative emotionality was linked with higher levels of behavioral inhibition through more critical and less positive parenting (Mills et al., 2012), and maternal sensitivity was associated with lower levels of shyness especially in case of earlier slow-to-warm-up temperament (Grady, Karraker, & Metzger, 2012). Additionally, intervention studies which aim to reduce children's behavioral inhibition were effective especially by means of increasing parenting skills and strategies on how to deal with their children's behavioral inhibition (e.g. Lau, Rapee, & Coplan, 2017; Luke, Chan, Au, & Lai, 2017). So, it is obvious that further studies are needed to understand the role of specifically maternal

autonomy support, along with other parenting practices, on children's behavioral inhibition.

As the third main hypothesis of the current study regarding children's self-concepts, it was expected that T1 children's behavioral inhibition and maternal overprotectiveness would be negatively, and T1 maternal autonomy support would be positively related to T2 self-concept. Yet, the links from T1 self-concept to T2 maternal overprotectiveness and autonomy support were tested exploratorily, since those links have not been investigated, to the best of our knowledge, in the literature, yet. Firstly, the current finding regarding behavioral inhibition and self-concept link showed that T1 children's behavioral inhibition did not predict their T2 self-concepts. This finding was unexpected because there are studies in the literature indicating that behavioral inhibition predicts self-concepts of children (e.g. Findlay et al., 2009; Hintsanen et al., 2010). The possible explanation for this lack of association could be, age range of the participants in the present study. Majority of studies reporting such an association were conducted in middle childhood (e.g. Findlay et al., 2009). Thus, there might be a "sleeping effect" in which the effect of early behavioral inhibition on children's later negative self-concepts might require more time to develop and become observable. Due to the fact that preschool-age years are the times when children's self-concepts are still in the process of being constructed, the potential effects of various factors might be seen in subsequent years rather than as early as preschool ages. Accordingly, along with the age differences, assessment method varies based on the developmental levels. For instance, Hintsanen and colleagues (2010) used a self-report questionnaire to assess children's both temperamental characteristics and self-concepts, and as a result they found a negative association between behavioral inhibition and self-concept. Yet, it should be noted that their participants were composed of children in middle childhood ages, so it is possible that different assessment methods along with the age differences might explain the differences in the findings. Thus, future studies are suggested to conduct longer-term longitudinal studies to test a potential sleeping effect between children's behavioral inhibition and self-concept.

In addition, T1 maternal overprotectiveness or autonomy support did not predict T2 children's self-concepts. These findings were unexpected because there are studies in the literature indicating maternal overprotectiveness negatively (Otani et al., 2018), and maternal autonomy support positively (Carlson et al., 2000) predict children's self-concepts. This lack of associations from parenting dimensions to children's self-concept could partly be explained by the maternal characteristics of the current sample. It is known that non-Western mothers are prone to have higher levels of overprotectiveness compared Western mothers (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2007; Sümer et al., 2010). Thus, in Turkey as a non-Western society, variance in terms of maternal overprotectiveness might be low in order to see its effect on children's self-concept. Accordingly, due to the fact that mothers have commonly overprotective behaviors towards their children, these behaviors might be regarded as a norm by children, and thus may not be effective on their self-concepts either negative or positive ways. In a similar manner, for instance, corporal punishment is perceived as more negative in Western societies whereas it is regarded as less negative in non-Western societies including Turkey, and so it affects Western children more compared to their non-Western counterparts (see Ripoll-Núñez & Rohner, 2006 for a review; Sunar & Fişek, 2005).

Also, there might be the effect of characteristics of sample based on data collection from different cities of Turkey. The majority of data was collected from İzmir (i.e. 126 out of 180); and to examine the possible effect of this lack of generalizability, several analyses testing the comparison between different cities were conducted. Findings showed that demographic information of data collected from İzmir was distributed as quite close to normal distribution including different income and parental education levels and there was a balanced distribution among different cities in those terms, as well.

In addition to maternal demographic characteristics, child-related demographic information (specifically number of siblings and birth order) was also tested (via correlation and regression analyses) if there is an association of those factors with the findings; yet, results were not significant, so those potential associations were

eliminated. Also, lack of association might be due to wide age range of the sample. However, age was not correlated with the self-concept, further comparisons were made between categorized age ranges (i.e. 4 to 5, 5 to 6, 6 to 7, etc.), but groups were not different in terms of self-concept scores. Additionally, the absence of association from parenting to children's self-concept could possibly be explained by the characteristics of the Turkish cultural context. For instance, in the context of cultural pattern based on collectivistic values, maternal control over children's individuality and behaviors (including overprotecting them when the child is not actually in need) and supporting the child's autonomy may have less relevance with the child's self-development in a Turkish sample compared to its effect on children in Western societies in which individuality, autonomy, and independence are valued much more (Supple, Ghazarian, Peterson, & Bush, 2009).

Furthermore, the existing studies in the literature which found significant associations between overprotectiveness/autonomy support and self-concept mostly conducted with children older than the sample of the current study (i.e. mostly middle childhood and adolescence). So, the effects of different parenting practices (either positive or negative) might be seen after some time that the child exposes such parenting behaviors. Additionally, it should also be considered that preschool-age children might actually need their mothers' overprotectiveness in this developmental period. So, especially in case of a mother cannot adjust her parenting behaviors according to the needs and developmental level of her child, the effects of maternal overprotectiveness on children's self-concept might require more time to be detected. Therefore, further studies with third time point assessments and broader intervals are needed to see those effects clearer. Moreover, another possible explanation for the lack of association could be methodological issues. That is, although children's self-concepts were measured via puppet interview method in which children's own views regarding their self-perceptions were obtained, mother's overprotectiveness and autonomy support were obtained via questionnaires filled by mothers. Due to the fact that mother's self-reports especially regarding their own parenting behaviors might prone to be biased, observation-based assessments are suggested to be added to assessment tools for future studies.

In addition, T1 children's self-concept led to a decrease in T2 mother's autonomy support, while not predicting T2 maternal overprotectiveness. These links were tested exploratorily; since, to the best of our knowledge, the current study is the first examining the effects of children's self-concept on both maternal overprotectiveness and autonomy support. The finding that self-concept leads to a decrease in maternal autonomy support seems unexpected conceptually. Yet, when considering the items of autonomy support assessment (e.g. "I encourage my child to freely express him/herself even when disagreeing with parents."), it can be speculated that maternal parenting behaviors might be shaped according to the actual needs of a child (i.e. focusing on the child's lack of skills rather than existing abilities). For instance, a mother would not need to encourage her child to express him/herself if her child is already doing that. So, it might be evaluated as sort of an "economy of mind" that mothers would follow.

Moreover, Kiff, Lengua, and Bush (2011) stated that low autonomy support may not be universally problematic, but rather its effect depends on how children perceive and evaluate their parents' behaviors in a given cultural context based on what is "normal" in that culture (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2007). In China, for instance, group harmony in social relationships, interdependence among the family members, respecting for and expressing obey to parents, and conforming to the parents' expectations are found to be seen commonly and thus perceived as "normal" (Chao & Sue, 1996). Likewise, Japanese adolescents were reported as feeling rejected by their parents when they are given autonomy and shown little control over their behaviors, whereas they regarded parental control as a positive manner of their parents such as expressing love towards their children (Trommsdoff, 1985). When focusing particularly on Turkey, Kağıtçıbaşı's (2007) project of "value of children" indicated that the situation is similar with other non-Western societies. Specifically, parents were asked to report the most-desired characteristic of children; results revealed that "obeying their parents" was chosen by 60% whereas "being independent and self-reliant" was chosen by only 18% of Turkish parents (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1982a, 1982b, 2007). Similarly, for the description of a "good child", 35% of Turkish mothers indicated "obedient" while only 3.6% of them mentioned being "autonomous and

self-sufficient” (Kağıtçıbaşı, Sunar, & Bekman, 2001). Thus, the finding of the current study that children’s self-concept leads to a decrease in mother’s autonomy support could partly be explained by such cultural factors in which autonomy is not regarded as a positive characteristic, and so not fostered by the parents. It can be concluded that the same parenting behavior might carry different meanings depending on the cultural context that the child lives in, and this may affect the displaying of related behaviors along with the consequences of them. Additionally, in the context of examining the possible reasons regarding the lack of associations of different variables with children’s self-concept, the measurement tool for assessing self-concept was reconsidered. A puppet interview method is widely recognized and suggested to be used especially for preschool-age children, and specifically Child Self-View Questionnaire (CSVQ; Eder, 1990) was evidenced to be valid (Jia, Lang, & Schoppe-Sullivan, 2016). It was ensured that existing studies in the literature using CSVQ indicated that self-concept was predicted by various variables in the literature (e.g. mother-child reminiscing, theory of mind, secure attachment, maternal negative affect, etc.) either positive or negative ways (Cahill, 2007; Goodvin et al., 2008; Goodvin & Romdall, 2013).

In sum, when examining the findings of the current study from a broader perspective, it can be stated that a positive parenting characteristic (which is autonomy support in this case) seems to be driven by the child characteristics (i.e. both temperamentally behavioral inhibition and self-concept); whereas overprotectiveness as a negative parenting characteristic seems not to be driven by any of those child characteristics, rather it is the only factor that drives child temperament. Thus, it can be deduced from this picture that there is partial bidirectionality between parenting and temperament in relation to children’s self-concept according to the findings of the present study. Although a third wave of assessment is strongly suggested to see the full picture of bidirectionality, it is believed that the current study provides an inspiration to investigate further both parenting-temperament bidirectionality and preschool-age children’s self-concepts by means of its strengths and contributions to the related literature, which are detailed in the following section.

4.2 Strengths and contributions

There are a number of strengths of the current study. The first and foremost strength is that the longitudinal study design of the current study enables us to make cause and effect inferences about the topics of parenting, children's temperament, and self-concepts. Additionally, not only studying these concepts unidirectionally, but also studying the effects of their bidirectional transactions on preschool-age children's self-concepts is also another strength. That is to say, although there are many studies investigating unique effects of parenting and temperament (and even their interactions), relatively fewer studies were conducted related to their bidirectional relations. This is quite important because it is widely accepted in the literature that not only "parents influence their children" but also "children influence their parents"; so that, bidirectionality studies gives us an opportunity to understand the parent-child interaction system from a broader perspective which ultimately enables understanding children's developmental outcomes better.

In addition, the majority of studies in the literature related to the self-phenomena overwhelmingly focused on adolescence and middle childhood period, whereas there is a limited number of research on preschool-age children. Preschool years are known as critical for the development of self-concept and self-representations of children. Because, on the one hand, it is a transitional period for children's optimistic to more realistic self-evaluations; and, on the other hand, it is the time period when both self-concept and temperamental characteristics become increasingly clearer to observe. Therefore, studying these topics with preschool-age children could be considered as one of the strengths of the current study. Moreover, existing studies in the literature on self-concepts of preschool-age children are heavily based on "mother-reported children's self-concept" rather than children's own perceptions of their own self-concepts especially as early as four years of age. However, unlike previous studies which relied on parent-reported questionnaires for their children's self-concepts, the present study relied on children's own reports for their self-concepts by utilizing the puppet interview method. Thus, perceived self-concept data from such an early age group (i.e. beginning from 4 years of age) is one of the most

important strengths of the current study. It is also worthwhile to note that preschool-age children's self-reported self-concept assessment indicated high levels of reliability (i.e. as .80 of Cronbach's alpha score), despite the debates on this topic in the literature regarding whether children in early childhood can reliably report their own self-concepts or not (as broadly explained in the Introduction part). In other words, the current study contributed to solve one of the debates in the literature regarding self-concept assessments of young children by evidencing that reliable self-report data of self-concept (which is far better than asking children's self-concept to his/her parent instead) can be obtained from children as young as four years of age.

Furthermore, the majority of studies in the literature focused on Western cultural and familial contexts, whereas a few studies conducted in a non-Western culture. Since there might be the influence of culture (particularly individualist versus collectivist points of view) on parenting styles, attitudes and behaviors as well as how children's temperamental characteristics are regarded in that cultural context, contributing to the literature with the findings of non-Western societies' children and their parents can be considered as another strength of the current study.

4.3 Limitations and future suggestions

As for all studies in the literature, the current study also has some limitations. Firstly, the most important limitation of the current study was limited number of assessments; that is, it was restricted to two time points of assessment due to a shortage of time. So that, probably the most important suggestion of this study for future research is conducting the same study design with at least three time points for the sake of a full picture of bidirectionality. It is also suggested that broader intervals between waves of assessment (as opposed to 8-month-interval in the current study) could help discerning change over time better and understanding longer-term implications including possible sleeping effects as mentioned above. Moreover, although descriptive statistics showed that there is a balanced distribution for both education and income levels of participants, the majority of data were collected from

İzmir (i.e. 126 out of 180). So, the current study has a limitation of generalizability. Furthermore, measuring parenting behaviors by means of self-report questionnaires might be interpreted as a limitation, as well, due to the potential effect of any possible biased perception about their own parenting styles, attitudes or behaviors. Rather, future research is suggested to use observation-based assessment tools, as well, in addition to self-report parenting questionnaires. Finally, cultural factors might have an influence on both parenting, temperament and also self-representations of children, as detailed above, so studying this topic cross-culturally as well as by assessing within culture differences by using measures like self-construals is suggested for future research in order to be able to observe the effect of culture and cultural differences more clearly.

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APPENDICES

A. CHILDREN'S SELF-CONCEPT

Katılımcı No: _____

Çocuğun Adı: _____

Uygulama Tarihi: _____

Trial 1) A: Ben pizza severim.
B: Ben pizza sevmem.

Trial 2) B: Kendi başıma oynamayı severim.
A: Arkadaşlarımla birlikte oynamayı severim.

1) B: Zor işleri sevmem.
A: Zor işleri severim.
C: Cevabı değiştirirse, hiçbir, ikisi de ya da bilmiyorum derse.
X: Cevap vermeyi reddederse, ya da anlaşılmayan bir cevap verirse.

2) A: Genellikle mutluyum.
B: Genellikle çok mutlu değilim.
C: Cevabı değiştirirse, hiçbir, ikisi de ya da bilmiyorum derse.
X: Cevap vermeyi reddederse, ya da anlaşılmayan bir cevap verirse.

3) A: Benim çok yakın bir arkadaşım var.
B: Benim çok yakın bir arkadaşım yok.
C: Cevabı değiştirirse, hiçbir, ikisi de ya da bilmiyorum derse.
X: Cevap vermeyi reddederse, ya da anlaşılmayan bir cevap verirse.

4) A: Annemin ya da öğretmenimin söylediklerini yaparım.
B: Bazen annemin ya da öğretmenimin söylediklerini yapmam.
C: Cevabı değiştirirse, hiçbir, ikisi de ya da bilmiyorum derse.
X: Cevap vermeyi reddederse, ya da anlaşılmayan bir cevap verirse.

5) A: Kendimi gerçekten severim.
B: Kendimi pek sevmem.
C: Cevabı değiştirirse, hiçbir, ikisi de ya da bilmiyorum derse.
X: Cevap vermeyi reddederse, ya da anlaşılmayan bir cevap verirse.

6) B: Bazen yaramazlık yaparım.
A: Asla yaramazlık yapmam.
C: Cevabı değiştirirse, hiçbir, ikisi de ya da bilmiyorum derse.

X: Cevap vermeyi reddederse, ya da anlaşılmayan bir cevap verirse.

- 7) A: Ben iyi bir çocuğum.
B: Ben pek iyi bir çocuk değilim.
C: Cevabı değiştirirse, hiçbiri, ikisi de ya da bilmiyorum derse.
X: Cevap vermeyi reddederse, ya da anlaşılmayan bir cevap verirse.
- 8) A: Genelde çok gülerim.
B: Genelde çok gülmem.
C: Cevabı değiştirirse, hiçbiri, ikisi de ya da bilmiyorum derse.
X: Cevap vermeyi reddederse, ya da anlaşılmayan bir cevap verirse.
- 9) A: Genelde üzgün olmam.
B: Genelde üzgün olurum.
C: Cevabı değiştirirse, hiçbiri, ikisi de ya da bilmiyorum derse.
X: Cevap vermeyi reddederse, ya da anlaşılmayan bir cevap verirse.
- 10) B: İnsanlar bana kötü bir şey olsun ister.
A: İnsanlar asla bana kötü bir şey olsun istemez.
C: Cevabı değiştirirse, hiçbiri, ikisi de ya da bilmiyorum derse.
X: Cevap vermeyi reddederse, ya da anlaşılmayan bir cevap verirse.
- 11) B: İnsanlar beni sevmez.
A: İnsanlar beni sever.
C: Cevabı değiştirirse, hiçbiri, ikisi de ya da bilmiyorum derse.
X: Cevap vermeyi reddederse, ya da anlaşılmayan bir cevap verirse.
- 12) B: Bazen huysuzum.
A: Huysuz değilim.
C: Cevabı değiştirirse, hiçbiri, ikisi de ya da bilmiyorum derse.
X: Cevap vermeyi reddederse, ya da anlaşılmayan bir cevap verirse.
- 13) B: İnsanlar bana kötü şeyler söyler.
A: İnsanlar bana kötü şeyler söylemez.
C: Cevabı değiştirirse, hiçbiri, ikisi de ya da bilmiyorum derse.
X: Cevap vermeyi reddederse, ya da anlaşılmayan bir cevap verirse.
- 14) A: Çoğu arkadaşımдан daha güzelim/yakışıklıyım.
B: Çoğu arkadaşımдан daha güzel/yakışıklı değilim.
C: Cevabı değiştirirse, hiçbiri, ikisi de ya da bilmiyorum derse.
X: Cevap vermeyi reddederse, ya da anlaşılmayan bir cevap verirse.
- 15) B: Ben çok kelime bilmiyorum.
A: Ben çok kelime biliyorum.
C: Cevabı değiştirirse, hiçbiri, ikisi de ya da bilmiyorum derse.
X: Cevap vermeyi reddederse, ya da anlaşılmayan bir cevap verirse.
- 16) B: Sayı saymada iyi değilimdir.
A: Sayı saymada iyiyimdir.
C: Cevabı değiştirirse, hiçbiri, ikisi de ya da bilmiyorum derse.
X: Cevap vermeyi reddederse, ya da anlaşılmayan bir cevap verirse.

17) A: Ben hızlı koşabilirim.

B: Ben hızlı koşamam.

C: Cevabı değiştirirse, hiçbirisi, ikisi de ya da bilmiyorum derse.

X: Cevap vermeyi reddederse, ya da anlaşılmayan bir cevap verirse.

BPI

18) B: Yeni insanlarla tanışırken utanırım.

A: Yeni insanlarla tanışırken utanmam.

C: Cevabı değiştirirse, hiçbirisi, ikisi de ya da bilmiyorum derse.

X: Cevap vermeyi reddederse, ya da anlaşılmayan bir cevap verirse.

19) A: Diğer çocuklara benimle oynar mısınız diye sorarım.

B: Diğer çocuklara benimle oynar mısınız diye sormam.

C: Cevabı değiştirirse, hiçbirisi, ikisi de ya da bilmiyorum derse.

X: Cevap vermeyi reddederse, ya da anlaşılmayan bir cevap verirse.

20) B: Yeni arkadaşlar edinmek benim için zordur.

A: Yeni arkadaşlar edinmek benim için kolaydır.

C: Cevabı değiştirirse, hiçbirisi, ikisi de ya da bilmiyorum derse.

X: Cevap vermeyi reddederse, ya da anlaşılmayan bir cevap verirse.

21) B: Başka çocuklar oynarlarken, ben onları seyrederim.

A: Başka çocuklar oynarlarken, ben de sizinle oynayabilir miyim diye sorarım.

C: Cevabı değiştirirse, hiçbirisi, ikisi de ya da bilmiyorum derse.

X: Cevap vermeyi reddederse, ya da anlaşılmayan bir cevap verirse.

22) A: Kreşte bir sürü arkadaşım var.

B: Kreşte fazla arkadaşım yok.

C: Cevabı değiştirirse, hiçbirisi, ikisi de ya da bilmiyorum derse.

X: Cevap vermeyi reddederse, ya da anlaşılmayan bir cevap verirse.

23) B: Çocuklar beni sevmez.

A: Çocuklar beni sever.

C: Cevabı değiştirirse, hiçbirisi, ikisi de ya da bilmiyorum derse.

X: Cevap vermeyi reddederse, ya da anlaşılmayan bir cevap verirse.

24) A: Çocuklar onlarla oyun oynamama izin verir.

B: Çocuklar onlarla oyun oynamama izin vermez.

C: Cevabı değiştirirse, hiçbirisi, ikisi de ya da bilmiyorum derse.

X: Cevap vermeyi reddederse, ya da anlaşılmayan bir cevap verirse.

25) B: Kreşte çocuklar benimle dalga geçer.

A: Kreşte çocuklar benimle dalga geçmez.

C: Cevabı değiştirirse, hiçbirisi, ikisi de ya da bilmiyorum derse.

X: Cevap vermeyi reddederse, ya da anlaşılmayan bir cevap verirse.

26) A: Başka çocuklar bana iyi davranır.

B: Başka çocuklar bana iyi davranmaz.

C: Cevabı değiştirirse, hiçbirisi, ikisi de ya da bilmiyorum derse.

X: Cevap vermeyi reddederse, ya da anlaşılmayan bir cevap verirse.

27) B: Kreşteki çocuklar bana birlikte oynayalım mı diye sormaz.

A: Kreşteki çocuklar bana birlikte oynayalım mı diye sorar.

C: Cevabı değiştirirse, hiçbiri, ikisi de ya da bilmiyorum derse.

X: Cevap vermeyi reddederse, ya da anlaşılmayan bir cevap verirse.

28) B: Çocuklar beni üzecek şeyler söyler.

A: Çocuklar beni üzecek şeyler söylemez.

C: Cevabı değiştirirse, hiçbiri, ikisi de ya da bilmiyorum derse.

X: Cevap vermeyi reddederse, ya da anlaşılmayan bir cevap verirse.

B. PARENTAL OVERPROTECTION MEASURE

Lütfen her bir ifadeyi dikkatlice okuyup, her bir ifadeye kendinizle ilgili ne derece katıldığınızı/ hemfikir olduğunuzu verilen ölçekteki sayılardan uygun olanı işaretleyerek belirtiniz.

		Hiç Katılmıyorum	Pek Katılmıyorum	Ne Katılmıyorum Ne Katılmıyorum	Çoğunlukla Katılmıyorum	Tamamen Katılmıyorum
1	Çocuğum ağladığında, onu sakinleştirmek için hemen bir şeyler yaparım.	0	1	2	3	4
2	Parktayken çocuğumu kendime yakın olacak şekilde, onu görebileceğim mesafede tutarım.	0	1	2	3	4
3	Çocuğumu başkalarının eleştirilerinden korurum.	0	1	2	3	4
4	Çocuğum bana yapıştığında, ona daha fazla ilgi gösteririm.	0	1	2	3	4
5	Çocuğumun aile dostlarımızla herhangi bir yere bensiz gitmesine izin vermem.	0	1	2	3	4
6	Çocuğum kendini biraz kırgın/hasta bile hissetse, onu doktora götürürüm.	0	1	2	3	4
7	Her zaman gözüm çocuğumun üzerindedir.	0	1	2	3	4
8	Çocuğuma karşı aşırı korumacı olma eğilimindeyimdir.	0	1	2	3	4
9	Çocuğumun riskli bir şeyler yapabileceği durumları önceden sezip engellemeye çalışırım.	0	1	2	3	4
10	Çocuğumu hata yapmaktan korumaya çalışırım.	0	1	2	3	4

11	Çocuğumun ağaçlara/ yüksek yerlere tırmanmasına izin vermem.	0	1	2	3	4
12	Çocuğumu hayatın zorluklarına karşı korumaya çalışırım.	0	1	2	3	4
13	Dışarıdayken çocuğumu bir anlık bile göremesem panik olurum.	0	1	2	3	4
14	Çocuğumun incinebileceği korkusuyla, bazı sporları yapmasını istemiyorum.	0	1	2	3	4
15	Dışarı çıkmak zorunda kalırsam, çocuğumu yalnızca çok yakın arkadaş/akrabalarım bırakırım.	0	1	2	3	4
16	Ev dışındaki tüm aktivitelerinde çocuğuma eşlik ederim.	0	1	2	3	4
17	Çocuğumu çatışma/tartışmalardan korurum.	0	1	2	3	4
18	Çocuğumu olası bir zarardan korumak için mümkün olan her şeyi yaparım.	0	1	2	3	4
19	Çocuğumu korkularından korurum.	0	1	2	3	4

C. PARENTAL AUTONOMY SUPPORT MEASURE

Lütfen her bir ifadeyi dikkatlice okuyup, belirtilen ifadelerin sizin için ne sıklıkla geçerli olduğunu işaretleyin.

	Hiçbir Zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Çoğu Zaman	Her Zaman
1. Çocuğumun fikirlerine, onları ifade etmesi için çocuğumu teşvik ederek saygı gösteririm.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Çocuğumu, benimle aynı şekilde düşünmüyor olsa bile, kendisini rahatça ifade edebilmesi için teşvik ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Çocuğumun aile kurallarının oluşumuna katkıda bulunmasına izin veririm.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Çocuğumdan bir şey yapmasını istemeden önce, onun isteklerini göz önüne alırım.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Aile için plan yaparken, çocuğumun önceliklerini de dikkate alırım.	1	2	3	4	5

D. CHILDREN’S BEHAVIORAL INHIBITION MEASURE

Aşağıda çocukların belli durumlarda sergilediği bazı davranışların bir listesi verilmiştir. Lütfen bu ifadelerin her birini dikkatlice okuyup, çocuğunuzun “son iki hafta”sını düşünerek, her bir ifadenin çocuğunuz için ne sıklıkla geçerli olduğunu, verilen ölçekteki sayılardan uygun olanı işaretleyerek belirtiniz, her bir ifade için bu seçeneklerden birini işaretlediğinizden emin olunuz.

		Hiçbir Zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Çoğu Zaman	Her Zaman
	Oyun oynayan tanımadığı çocuklarla karşılaştığında, çocuğunuz ne sıklıkta;					
1	Onlara katılmak yerine karşıdan izler?	1	2	3	4	5
2	Rahatsız görünür?	1	2	3	4	5

	Evinizde iken, çocuğunuz ne sıklıkta;					
3	Yüksek bir sestən korkar (ör. mikser, elektrik süpürgesi vb.)?	1	2	3	4	5
4	Karanlıktan korkmuş görünür?	1	2	3	4	5

	Günlük aktiviteler sırasında, çocuğunuz ne sıklıkta;					
5	Aniden gelen yüksek bir sesle irkilir (ör. itfaiye sireni)?	1	2	3	4	5
6	Hiçbir sebep yokken korkmuş gibidir?	1	2	3	4	5

		Hiçbir Zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Çoğu Zaman	Her Zaman
	Yeni insanlarla tanıştığı/biraraya geldiği durumlarda, çocuğunuz ne sıklıkta;					
7	Yüzünü/sırtını döner?	1	2	3	4	5
8	Sessiz kalır?	1	2	3	4	5
9	Rahat görünür?	1	2	3	4	5

	Dışarı çıktığında, çocuğunuz ne sıklıkta;					
10	Alışık olmadığı bir hayvan ona yaklaştığında ağlar/endişelenir?	1	2	3	4	5
11	Büyük ve gürültülü araçlardan korkmuş görünür?	1	2	3	4	5
12	Asansör veya yürüyen merdivene yaklaşırken tedirgin/rahatsız olur?	1	2	3	4	5
13	Annesi görüş alanından bir an bile çıksa, korkmuş görünür?	1	2	3	4	5

	Çocuğunuzla birlikte dışarıdayken (ör. bakkal, market gibi) tanımadığı bir insan ona yaklaştığında, çocuğunuz ne sıklıkta;					
14	Sakin kalır?	1	2	3	4	5
15	Geri çekilir ve o insandan kaçır?	1	2	3	4	5
16	Anne/babasına yapışır?	1	2	3	4	5

		Hiçbir Zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Çoğu Zaman	Her Zaman
	Nadiren gördüğü akraba veya aile dostlarını ziyarete gittiğinizde, çocuğunuz ne sıklıkta;					
17	Geride durur ve onlarla göz kontağı kurmaktan kaçınır?	1	2	3	4	5
18	Yüzünü saklar?	1	2	3	4	5
19	Birkaç dakika içinde onlara ısınır?	1	2	3	4	5

	Yeni bir yere gittiğinizde, çocuğunuz ne sıklıkta;					
20	İçeri girmek istemez?	1	2	3	4	5
21	Doğrudan içeriye girer?	1	2	3	4	5

	Televizyon izlerken veya hikâye dinlerken, çocuğunuz ne sıklıkta;					
22	‘Canavar’ karakterlerinden korkmuş görünür?	1	2	3	4	5

	Çocuğunuz ne sıklıkta;					
23	Yeni aktivitelere yaklaşma konusunda tereddüt eder?	1	2	3	4	5
24	Yeni oyun aleti (örn; parka yeni gelen oyuncaklar) gördüğünde, onları keşfetmekte tereddüt eder?	1	2	3	4	5
25	Ona yeni bir oyuncak hediye edildiğinde, bunu sevinçle karşılar?	1	2	3	4	5

E. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FORM

Yaşınız	
Yaşadığınız şehir	
Toplam kaç çocuğunuz var?	
Çocuğunuz doğum sırasına göre kaçınıcı?	<input type="checkbox"/> İlk (en büyüğü) <input type="checkbox"/> İkinci <input type="checkbox"/> Üçüncü <input type="checkbox"/> Dördüncü veya daha fazla
Eğitim durumunuz	<input type="checkbox"/> Okuma-yazma bilmiyor <input type="checkbox"/> İlkokul <input type="checkbox"/> Ortaokul <input type="checkbox"/> Lise <input type="checkbox"/> Yüksek okul (2 yıllık) <input type="checkbox"/> Üniversite (4 yıllık) <input type="checkbox"/> Yüksek Lisans <input type="checkbox"/> Doktora
Çocuğunuzun babasının eğitim durumu	<input type="checkbox"/> Okuma-yazma bilmiyor <input type="checkbox"/> İlkokul <input type="checkbox"/> Ortaokul <input type="checkbox"/> Lise <input type="checkbox"/> Yüksek okul (2 yıllık) <input type="checkbox"/> Üniversite (4 yıllık) <input type="checkbox"/> Yüksek Lisans <input type="checkbox"/> Doktora
Mesleğiniz	
Şu an çalışıyor musunuz?	<input type="checkbox"/> Evet <input type="checkbox"/> Hayır
Çocuğunuzun babasının mesleği	
Evinize giren aylık toplam kazanç	<input type="checkbox"/> 0-1000 TL <input type="checkbox"/> 1000-2999 TL <input type="checkbox"/> 3000-4999 TL <input type="checkbox"/> 5000-6999 TL <input type="checkbox"/> 7000-9999 TL <input type="checkbox"/> 10000 TL ve üzeri

Medeni haliniz	<input type="checkbox"/> Evli ve birlikte yaşıyor <input type="checkbox"/> Evli ama eşinden ayrı yaşıyor <input type="checkbox"/> Eşinden ayrılmış <input type="checkbox"/> Eşini kaybetmiş
----------------	--

F. HUMAN SUBJECTS ETHICS COMMITTEE APPROVAL FORM

UYGULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ
APPLIED ETHICS RESEARCH CENTER



ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
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25 Haziran 2018

Konu: Değerlendirme Sonucu

Gönderen: ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu (İAEK)

İlgi: İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu Başvurusu

Sayın Prof.Dr. Sibel Kazak BERUMENT

Danışmanlığını yaptığınız doktora öğrencisi Bahar BAHTIYAR SAYGAN'ın "**Çocukların Kendilik Algıları Bağlamında Ebeveynlik ve Mizaç Arasındaki İki Yönlü Etkileri**" başlıklı araştırması İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu tarafından uygun görülerek gerekli onay **2018-SOS-128** protokol numarası ile **26.06.2018 - 30.08.2019** tarihleri arasında geçerli olmak üzere verilmiştir.

Bilgilerinize saygılarımla sunarım.

Prof. Dr. Ş. Halil TURAN

Başkan V

Prof. Dr. Ayhan SOL

Üye

Prof. Dr. Ayhan Gürbüz DEMİR

Üye

Doç. Dr. Yaşar KONDAKCI

Üye

Doç. Dr. Zana ÇITAK

Üye

Doç. Dr. Emre SELÇUK

Üye

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Pınar KAYGAN

Üye

G. CURRICULUM VITAE

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Education:

Degree	Program	University	Year
Bachelor	Psychology	Middle East Technical University	2013
Masters	Developmental Psychology	Middle East Technical University	2015
Ph.D.	Developmental Psychology	Middle East Technical University	2019

Work Experience

September 2018 – present: Part-time Instructor, TOBB Economics and Technology University, Psychology Department

February 2019 – June 2019: Part-time Instructor, TED University, Psychology Department

September 2015 – May 2018: Research Assistant, Başkent University, Psychology Department

Scholarships

2015 - 2019: The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey (TÜBİTAK), Scientist Support Scholarship, PhD

2013 - 2015: The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey (TÜBİTAK), Scientist Support Scholarship, MSc

2008 - 2013: The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey (TÜBİTAK), Scientist Support Scholarship, BSc

Competencies

- Language skills: Fluent in English
- Computer skills: Advanced in Microsoft Office Programs, SPSS, AMOS, and HLM

Academic Research Projects

Published articles

Şahin-Acar, B., **Bahtiyar-Saygan, B.**, Alsancak-Akbulut, C. & Sağel-Çetiner, E. (2019). Reunion after a long day: Memory Characteristics in Mother-Child Conversations and the Effect of Attachment Style on these Conversations. *Cognitive Development*, 52, 1-12. doi: 10.1016/j.cogdev.2019.100822

Bahtiyar-Saygan, B. & Sakallı-Uğurlu, N. (2019). Development of attitudes toward voluntary childlessness scale and its associations with ambivalent sexism in Turkey. *Journal of Family Issues*, 40(17), 2499-2527. doi: 10.1177/0192513X19860168

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Published book chapter

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H. TURKISH SUMMARY / TRKE ZET

GİRİŞ

Benlik kavramı gelişiminin yaşam boyu süren çok yönlü bir süreç olduğu ve “hem sosyal hem de duygusal gelişimin temel taşı” olarak kabul edildiği bilinmektedir (Kagen vd., 1995, s.18). Çocukların benlik kavramları teorik olarak ebeveynlik (Harter, 2012) ve mizaç (Hintsanen vd., 2010) dahil olmak üzere çeşitli kişisel ve kişilerarası faktörlerle (Brown vd., 2008; Harter, 2006) ilişkilendirilmiştir. Çocukların benlik kavramları hakkındaki mevcut literatür esas olarak orta çocukluk ve ergenlik yıllarına odaklanmışken, erken çocuklukta, özellikle okul öncesi yıllardaki benlik kavramları nispeten göz ardı edilmiştir (Marsh vd., 2002). Ayrıca, ebeveynlik ve mizaç arasındaki tek yönlü ve doğrudan etkiler uzun yıllardır araştırılsa da, aralarındaki çift yönlülük çoğunlukla son yıllarda ilgi çekici hale gelen bir araştırma konusu olmuştur (Cook ve Kenny, 2005; Klein vd., 2018). Ebeveynliğin mizaç da dahil olmak üzere çocukların tüm gelişimsel sonuçları üzerinde önemli bir etkiye sahip olduğu bilinmekte ve basitçe “ebeveynlik mizacı yönlendirir” şeklinde yorumlanmaktadır (Arnott ve Brown, 2013; Bullock vd., 2018). Öte yandan, çocuğun mizacının ebeveynliği nasıl şekillendirdiğini gösteren literatür de gittikçe zenginleşmektedir. Pek çok faktörün yanı sıra, çocuğun kendisi ebeveynliğin en önemli “belirleyici”lerinden biri olarak görülmektedir (Laukkanen vd., 2014; Rubin vd., 1999). Yani araştırmacılar, ebeveynlik davranışlarının çocukların mizaç özelliklerine göre değişebileceğini ileri sürmekte (Rothbart ve Ahadi, 1994); ve “mizaç ebeveynliği yönlendirir” şeklinde yorumlamaktadır. Bu bağlamda, günümüzde hem çocuk hem de ebeveyn özelliklerinin gelişimsel sonuçlar üzerinde doğrudan katkılarının bulunmasının yanı sıra, birbirlerini çift yönlü bir şekilde etkilediği ve bu çift yönlü etkilerin de çocukların gelişimsel sonuçları açısından önemli olduğu bilinmektedir (Kiff vd., 2011; Ryan ve Ollendick, 2018). Ancak, bilğimiz dahilinde, özellikle çocukların davranışsal ketlenmelerinin ve annelerin aşırı korunmacılık ve özerklik desteğinin çift yönlü etkileri, benlik kavramı ile ilgili olarak incelenmemiştir. Bu nedenle, bu çalışma mizaç ve ebeveynlik

arasındaki çift yönlü etkiler ile okul öncesi yaştaki çocukların benlik kavramlarının ilişkilerini çapraz bağlanmış panel modelleri kullanarak araştırmak için tasarlanmıştır.

Benlik kavramı

Benlik kavramı temel olarak kişinin kendisini nasıl hissettiğini, çevresini nasıl algıladığı ve yorumladığını etkileyen “kendilik şeması” olarak tanımlanır (Harter, 1998), ve bireyin kendisine yönelik inançları, kendisini tanımladığı nitelikler, tutumlar ve değerler kümesi olarak nitelendirilir (Brummelman ve Thomaes, 2017). Alan yazında benlik kavramı; benlik temsili, benlik algısı, öz-değerlendirme, benlik kimliği, benlik değeri, öz saygı ve genel benlik duygusu gibi pek kavramı kapsamaktadır (Harter, 2012; Leary ve Tangney, 2003). Daha geniş bir perspektiften bakıldığında, tüm bu kavramların ortak zemini, hepsinin olumlu ya da olumsuz yönde “değerlendirici” olmasıdır. Benlikle ilgili bu terimlerin çoğu, bir dereceye kadar birbirinin yerine kullanılabilir olsa da anlamları ve referansları ile ilgili farklılıklar vardır (Leary ve Tangney, 2003). Literatürde yaygın olarak araştırılan benlik kavramlarından biri olan öz saygı, kişinin benlik değerlendirmesi veya bir birey olarak algılanan değerini ifade eder (Butler ve Gasson, 2005; Harter, 2012). Alan yazında öz saygı, “genel benlik değeri” ve “alana özgü benlik kavramı” olmak üzere iki alt boyutta kavramsallaştırılmıştır. Özellikle genel benlik değeri “kişinin kendini ne kadar sevdiğini” tanımlamakta ve benlik kavramı terimi ile dönüşümlü olarak kullanılmaktadır (Brummelman ve Thomaes, 2017; Harter, 2012). Bununla birlikte alana özgü benlik kavramı; kişinin sosyal, skolastik veya atletik yeterlilikler ve fiziksel görünüm gibi niteliklerinin değerlendirilmesine dayanmaktadır (Harter, 2012). Bazı araştırmacılar, dalgalanmalar mümkün olsa da, çocukların benlik saygısının zaman içinde istikrara sahip olduğunu ileri sürmüşlerdir (Trzesniewski vd., 2003). Buna göre öz-değerlendirme (bireyin kendi güçlü ve zayıf yönleri hakkındaki kendi yargısı), çocuklukta özsaygı ve yetkinlik duygusunun anahtarı olarak kabul edilir (Spencer vd., 2015). Bunlara ek olarak, benlik kavramı ile yaygın olarak dönüşümlü kullanılan diğer terimler öz-değerlendirme ve benlik temsidir. Spesifik olarak, öz-değerlendirmenin hem kendine yönelik yargıları hem de kendini

anlama kapasitesini geliřtiren (Stipek, 1995), benlik temsillerini řekillendiren ve benlik kavramına entegre olmuř önemli bařka deęerlendirmelerin içselleřtirilmesinden kaynaklandıęı kabul edilmektedir (Cole vd., 2001; Harter, 2006). Temelde “kim olduęuna yönelik dūřünceler” olarak tanımlanan kendilik temsili, kiřinin kendi benlięinin hem fiziksel (örn. cinsiyet, yař) hem de psikolojik (örn. utangaç, arkadař canlısı) tanımlarını ifade eder ve çocuęun benlik kavramına entegre olur (Thompson vd., 2011).

Geliřimsel açıdan benlik kavramı

Benlik kavramı geliřimi hayatın çok erken yıllarında bařlamaktadır. Çocuklar, henüz 2-3 aylıkken kendi vücut hareketlerine daha fazla odaklanırlar ki bu da bebeklerin kendilerini tanıma konusunda algısal yeteneklerini gösterir (Rochat, 1998). 18-30 aylık süreçte ise geliřen dil becerileri ile benlik temsillerinin sözel ifadeleri, benlięin daha kalıcı bir portresini sunar (Fivush, 2011; Harter, 2001). Ayrıca fiziksel/bedensel farkındalık da bu yař döneminde kendilerini aynada tanımlamaları ile gözlemlenmeye bařlar (Brownell vd. 2007; Lewis ve Ramsay, 2004; Rochat, 2009). Özellikle ikinci yařlarından itibaren çocuklar, ebeveyn deęerlendirmelerini anlar (“Akıllı bir kızsın”) ve zamanla bunları kendi benlik tanımlarında kullanmaya bařlarlar (Harter, 2001). Üç yař civarında ise, benlik temsillerinde görülen geliřmelerle birlikte kendilerini tanımlarlarken özellikle somut ve gözlemlenebilir özelliklerine (görünüş, “Sarı saçlarım var”; varlıklar, “Büyük bir dinozorum var”; yetenekler “Hızlı kořabilirim”) odaklanırlar (Harter, 2006). Ayrıca duygularını ve psikolojik özelliklerini (“Mutluyum”) bu tanımlarda giderek daha fazla kullanırlar (Thompson vd., 2011).

Öte yandan, dört yařın bařından itibaren okul öncesi yıllar, çocukların kendileri hakkında daha soyut görüşler oluřturmaya bařladıęı zamanlardır (Brummelman ve Thomaes, 2017; Cimpian vd., 2017). Benlik temsilleri daha anlamlı hale gelir; fiziksel, mizaç ve psikolojik özellikleri kademeli bir tutarlılık, karmařıklık ve çok boyutluluk (geçmiř tek boyutlu dūřüncelerine kıyasla) kazanmaya bařlar (Brown vd., 2008). Ayrıca bu yařlarda benlik kavramlarıyla ilgili en önemli geliřmelerden biri,

başkalarının bakış açılarını anlamalarına yardımcı olan perspektif alma becerilerinin gelişmesidir. Bu perspektif alma becerileri doğrultusunda, kendi benlik kavramlarını anlamlandırma ve tanımlamaları gelişir (Dweck, 1998). Aynı zamanda okul öncesi yaştaki çocuklar, akranlarıyla olan sosyal etkileşimlerle birlikte sosyal karşılaştırmaları anlamaya ve kullanmaya başlarlar (Rhodes ve Brickman, 2008).

Bazı araştırmacılar, genel benlik kavramının bazı bilişsel sınırlılıklar sebebiyle orta çocukluk yıllarına kadar gelişmediğini ve bu nedenle bu yaş döneminden önce çalışmanın güvenilir olmadığını iddia ederler (Harter, 1998). Ancak son yıllarda yapılan çalışmalar benlik kavramının davranışsal temsillerinin erken çocukluktan itibaren gözlemlenmeye başladığını göstermektedir (Cimpian vd., 2017). Başka bir deyişle, okul öncesi çağıdaki çocukların (özellikle dört yaşından itibaren) kendi benliklerine ilişkin kendi duygularını tutarlı, anlamlı ve dolayısıyla güvenilir bir şekilde bildirebildikleri belirlenmiştir (Cimpian vd., 2017; Marsh vd., 2004). Çocukların algılanan benlik kavramını bildirmeleri, gerçek sosyal, duygusal veya psikolojik niteliklerinden ziyade kendi yeteneklerinin (benlik saygısını yansıtan) “algılarına” odaklanmaktadır. Bu nedenle, çocuklardan hangi ifadelerin kendilerine daha çok benzediğini belirlemeleri istenebilir, böylece okul öncesi çağıdaki çocukların benlik kavramlarına yönelik bilgiler tutarlı şekilde elde edilebilir (Goodvin, Meyer, Thompson ve Hayes, 2008). Marsh ve meslektaşları (2002) da, dört yaşından itibaren okul öncesi çocukların benlik kavramlarını birçok boyutta güvenilir bir şekilde rapor edebildiklerini (dolayısıyla çocukların bu anlamda yetersizliğinin söz konusu olmadığını); önemli olan noktanın, değerlendirme yönteminin çocukların gelişim düzeylerine uygun olması gerektiğini belirtmiştir. Yani okul öncesi çağıdaki çocuklardan güvenilir veriler elde etmek için basitleştirilmiş (dil gelişimine dayanmayan) madde içerikleri ve bireysel olarak uygulanan yanıt formatlarının (kukla görüşmesi, resimsel değerlendirme yöntemi vb.) önemi vurgulanmıştır (Brown vd., 2008; Cimpian vd., 2017). Sonuç olarak, son yıllarda yapılan çalışmalar dört yaşındaki çocukların benlik kavramlarını değerlendirme yetenekleri hakkında kanıtlar sunsa da bu hala tartışılan bir konudur (Hermes vd., 2015). Bu nedenle, okul öncesi çağıdaki çocuklarla bu konuda yapılacak daha fazla çalışmaya ihtiyaç vardır.

Çocukların benlik kavramının öncülleri

Çocukların benlik gelişimlerini etkileyen birçok faktör vardır. Bu faktörlerin arasında sosyalleşme ön plana çıkmaktadır (Harter, 2012). Ebeveyn-çocuk etkileşimlerinin kalitesi çocukların benlik kavramı için kritik bir rol oynamaktadır (Coplan vd., 2004; Nelson vd., 2005). Özellikle ebeveyn duyarlılığı (sıcaklık, karşılıklılık, destek ve çocuğun sinyallerine karşı duyarlılık), benlik saygısını ve olumlu benlik kavramını geliştirir (Hornbuckle, 2010; Kochanska, 2002), çocuğun benliği hakkında olumlu temel inançlar geliştirmesine yardımcı olur (Clark ve Symons, 2000). Bununla birlikte güvenli ebeveyn-çocuk bağlanma örüntüleri de yüksek benlik saygısının önemli öncüllerinden biri olarak görülmekte, çünkü bu çocuklar güvenli bağlanma örüntüleri sayesinde değerli, sevmeye layık ve yetkin olduklarına dair içsel çalışma modelleri inşa etmektedir (Bowlby, 1982; Goodvin vd., 2008). Öte yandan, olumsuz ebeveynlik özellikleri (örneğin duygusal soğukluk ve tepkisizlik), sözlü veya sözsüz mesajlar aracılığıyla çocuklarda düşük benlik değeri ile ilişkili bulunmuştur (Cahill vd., 2007).

Ebeveynlerin rolü hayatın başından itibaren başlarken, akranlarının etkisi okul öncesi yıllardan itibaren giderek daha önemli hale gelmektedir. Sosyal kabulün olumlu bir benlik kavramı için oldukça etkili olduğu açıkça görülmektedir (Verschueren vd., 2012). Örneğin, Nelson ve meslektaşları (2005) dört yaşındaki akran kabulünün yedi yaşında algılanan fiziksel yeterliliği ve benlik saygısını olumlu yönde yordadığını bulmuşlardır. Zimmer-Gembeck, ve meslektaşları (2007) ise benzer şekilde, akranlar tarafından bir oyun arkadaşı olarak sevilmenin, okul öncesi yaştaki çocukların algılanan sosyal yeterlilik alanında daha olumlu benlik kavramına yol açtığı sonucuna varmıştır.

Çocuğun mizacı da benlik kavramlarını etkileyen bir başka faktördür (Thompson vd., 2011). Özellikle, mizacın temel bileşenlerinden biri olarak öz-denetimin, olumsuz ya da zorlu durumlarda daha iyi uyum becerilerini, akademik öz-yeterliliklerini ve olumlu benlik inançlarını artırma ve çocuğun benlik duygusunu olumlu yönde etkileme açısından büyük önem taşıdığı vurgulanmıştır (Nigg, 2017). Ayrıca çeşitli

mizaç özellikleri arasında, davranışsal ketlenmenin özellikle kız çocukları için sosyal yeterliliği olumsuz yönde yordadığı belirtilmiştir (Hintsanen vd., 2010). Benzer şekilde Rubin ve meslektaşları (1995), erken dönemdeki sosyal içe kapanıklığın daha sonraki yalnızlık, depresyon ve düşük sosyal yeterlilik ile olumsuz benlik değerlendirmelerini yordadığını belirtmişlerdir.

Cinsiyet, özellikle ebeveynlerin toplumsal cinsiyet rollerine göre hareket etmeleri durumunda, çocukların benlik değerlendirmelerinde rol oynayan bir başka faktördür (Spencer vd., 2015). Örneğin hem ebeveynlerin hem de öğretmenlerin, gerçek performanslarda cinsiyete dayalı farklılıklar olmamasına rağmen, kız çocuklarına oğlan çocuklarından daha olumsuz geri bildirimler verdiği bildirilmiştir (Spencer vd., 2015). Son olarak, çocukların benlik saygısı ve benlik kavramı gelişimini etkileyen bir diğer faktör, cinsiyetle de ilişkili olarak, fiziksel görünüm veya beden algısıdır (Buhlmann vd., 2009). Kız ve oğlan çocukları erken çocukluktaki görünümlerinden eşit derecede memnun olsalar da (Harter, 2001), kız çocukların fiziksel özelliklerine (karakterlerine, duygularına veya potansiyellerine kıyasla) göre daha çok değerlendirildiklerine yönelik algıları yaşla birlikte giderek artmaktadır (McKinley 1999). Böylelikle kız çocukları için nasıl göründükleri daha önemli hale gelir ve benlik kavramlarını olumlu ya da olumsuz yönde güçlü bir şekilde etkiler (Asthana, 2012).

Çocukların benlik kavramının sonuçları

Benlik kavramı, içeriğine bağlı olarak birçok olumlu veya olumsuz sonuca yol açar (Harter, 2012). Özellikle sağlıklı bir sosyal-duygusal gelişim ve yaşam boyunca tutarlı bir benlik duygusu geliştirmek ve sürdürmek açısından çok önemli olduğu bilinen olumlu benlik kavramı, daha yüksek akademik başarı ve yeterlilik duygusu (Valentine vd., 2004), daha düşük depresyon riski (Orth vd., 2016), daha yüksek yaşam memnuniyeti ve uzun vadede genel psikolojik iyilik halini yordamaktadır (Ciarrochi vd., 2007). Öte yandan, beklendiği üzere olumsuz benlik kavramı da olumsuz sonuçlar doğurur. Bu olumsuz sonuçlar arasında, çocuğun işlevselliğindeki güçlükler (başarı, bağımlılık ve öz kontrol alanlarında işlevsiz tutumlar gibi),

davranış ve kişilik problemleri sayılabilir (Nelson vd., 2009). Bunların yanı sıra, düşük benlik saygısını (veya olumsuz benlik kavramı); ruhsal rahatsızlıklara karşı hassasiyet (Bardone vd., 2000), ilişki memnuniyetsizlikleri (DeHart vd., 2003), yeme bozuklukları (Heatherton ve Baumeister, 1991), saldırganlık (Robins vd., 2010), fiziksel hastalıklar (Li vd., 2010) ve hatta intihar eğilimleri (Harter vd., 1992) ile ilişkilendiren pek çok çalışma bulunmaktadır.

Davranışsal ketlenme ve benlik kavramı ilişkisi

Davranışsal ketlenme, Kagan (1989) tarafından temel olarak “sürekli utangaçlık ve davranışsal olarak kısıtlanmışlık” (s. 668) olarak tanımlanmıştır. Biyolojik temelli utangaçlık, korkulu hal, sosyal aktivitede düşüklük, endişeli duygular ve yeniliklere karşı, tanıdık olmayan kişilerin, nesnelerin, yerlerin ve ortamların varlığında dirençli davranışlar olarak nitelendirilen ve yaygın görülen bir mizaç özelliğidir (Bishop vd., 2003). Davranışsal ketlenmesi olan çocuklar, yeni durumlarda hem fizyolojik hem de davranışsal olarak şiddetli uyarılma ve olumsuz tepkilere sahip olma eğilimindedir (Rothbart, 2004); korku, ağlama, anneye yapışma gibi davranışlar sergilerler (Hirshfeld- Becker vd., 2008).

Davranışsal ketlenmenin, bebeklik döneminden itibaren biyolojik (Moehler vd., 2006) ve çevresel (Fox vd., 2005) çeşitli yordayıcıları bulunmaktadır. Örneğin, Moehler ve meslektaşları (2008), 4 aylık bebeklerin tanıdık olmayan uyaranlar karşısında ağlamasının, ikinci yaşlarındaki davranışsal ketlenmeyi önemli ölçüde yordadığını bulmuşlardır. Bununla birlikte ebeveynlik özellikleri (psikopatoloji ve çocuk yetiştirme stilleri gibi), davranışsal ketlenmenin en etkili yordayıcıları arasındadır. Özellikle anne kaygısı (Fox vd., 2005) ve aşırı korumacı ebeveynliğin (Coplan vd., 2009), çocuğun anneden herhangi bir yardıma veya korunmaya ihtiyaç duymadığı düşük riskli koşullar altında, davranışsal ketlenmeyi güçlü şekilde yordadığı görülmüştür (Rubin vd., 2002). Davranışsal ketlenmesi yüksek olan çocukların, aşırı korumacı anneleri olması halinde, korkularını kendi başlarına etkili bir şekilde aşma fırsatlarından yoksun olabildikleri bilinmektedir (Bayer vd., 2019). Ayrıca, davranışsal ketlenmenin annenin özerklik desteği ile ilişkili olduğu

bulunmuştur. Rubin ve meslektaşları (1999), annelerin çocuklarını iki yaşında utangaç algılamaları halinde, çocukları dört yaşına geldiğinde onların bağımsızlıklarını teşvik etme davranışlarının azaldığını belirtmiştir. Öte yandan, Chen ve meslektaşları (1998), davranışsal ketlenmenin Çinli katılımcılar arasında başarının teşvik edilmesi (özerklik desteğinin bileşenlerinden biri olarak), Kanadalı katılımcılar arasında ise aşırı korumacılıkla bağlantılı olduğunu belirtmişlerdir. Bu sonuç, kültürün davranışsal ketlenmenin nasıl değerlendirildiği ve ebeveynlik davranışlarını nasıl şekillendirdiği üzerinde önemli bir rol oynadığını düşündürmektedir.

Alan yazında, davranışsal ketlenmenin düşük benlik saygısını yordadığı sonucuna ulaşan çalışmalar bulunmaktadır (Hintsanen vd., 2010; Hirshfeld-Becker vd., 2008). Eisenberg ve meslektaşları (1998), davranışsal ketlenmenin, çocukların, önemseddiği kişiler (çoğunlukla ebeveynler) tarafından olumsuz değerlendirilme korkusundan beslendiğini belirtmiştir. Özellikle okul öncesi yıllarda, çocukların mizaç özellikleri, kendilerini nasıl algılayıp değerlendirdiklerini etkileyerek benlik kavramı gelişimi sürecine yakından dahil olur (Caspi ve Shiner, 2008; Robins vd., 2010). Örneğin, kendilerini utangaç olarak algılayan küçük çocuklar, kendileri gibi utangaç çocuklarla arkadaş olmayı tercih ederler ve kendilerini daha rahat hissettikleri ikili oyun gibi belirli faaliyetlerde bulunurlar (utangaç olmayan diğer çocuklar veya atılganlık gerektiren diğer faaliyetlerden ziyade) ve bu durum var olan benlik algılarını daha da destekler ve güçlendirir (Thompson vd., 2011). Buna uygun olarak, Bohlin ve meslektaşları (2005) okul öncesi yıllarda utangaçlık ve davranışsal ketlenmenin okul çağındaki sosyal yetkinlikle olumsuz yönde ilişkili olduğunu bildirmişlerdir. Bu bağlamda, davranışsal ketlenmesi yüksek çocukların düşük benlik değeri ve olumsuz benlik kavramı dahil olmak üzere hem kısa hem de uzun vadeli sosyal-duygusal zorluklara sahip oldukları bildirilmiştir (Findlay vd., 2009). Dahası, Thompson ve meslektaşları (2011) mizaç ve benlik kavramı arasındaki ilişkiyi kültür açısından ele almışlardır. Yani çocuk, utangaç mizaca sahip olmaktan ziyade atılganlığı onurlandıran bir kültürde (bireyselci kültürler) yaşıyorsa, utangaçlık bir zayıflık olarak görülecektir; oysa utangaçlığın olumlu bir özellik olarak kabul edildiği kültürlerde (toplulukçu kültürler), utangaçlık, güçlü ve olumlu bir özellik

olarak kabul edilecektir (Coplan vd., 2012). Bu nedenle, mizaç özelliklerinin kültüre dayalı değerlendirmeleri, çocukların benlik kavramlarının olumlu veya olumsuz olarak şekillenmesine yol açar.

Aşırı korumacılık ve benlik kavramı ilişkisi

Aşırı korumacılık, çocuğa aşırı düzeyde konfor alanı sağlama, çocuğu yeniliklerle etkileşimden caydırma, çocuğun bağımsız davranışlarını engelleme ve çevredeki düşük potansiyele sahip tehditlerle temasını fiziksel olarak kısıtlama gibi davranışlar çerçevesinde tanımlanır (Thomasgard ve Metz, 1993). Endişe edilecek önemli bir tehdit veya sebep olmasa bile, çocuğun güvenliği veya sağlığı hakkında aşırı endişe duymak, çocuğun eylemlerine aşırı derecede ihtiyatlı davranmak ve yeni insanlara, durumlara veya nesnelere fiziksel olarak yaklaşma konusunda çocuğu fazlaca uyarmak, aşırı korumacı ebeveynlerin tipik davranışları arasındadır (Otani vd., 2013; Ungar, 2009). Bu nedenle, aşırı korumacı ebeveynlik, çocuğa (özellikle düşük riskli ortamlarda) dünyanın ebeveyn olmadan başa çıkmak için çok tehlikeli bir yer olduğu mesajını vererek onlarda kendi yaşamının kontrolünü kaybetme duygusu, yetersizlik ve kaygı semptomlarına sebebiyet verebilmektedir. Böylece, aşırı koruyucu ebeveynlerin çocukları, günlük yaşam zorluklarıyla başa çıkmak için gerekli becerileri geliştirme şansından mahrum kalabilmektedirler (Bayer vd., 2006; Thomasgard ve Metz, 1993; Ungar, 2009).

Sonuç olarak bu çocuklarda, sosyal ortamlarda suskunluk ve korkulu olma hali (Kiel ve Buss, 2011), davranışsal ketlenme (Kiel ve Buss, 2013; Rubin vd., 2002), düşük yeterlilik hissi (Rubin vd., 2001) ve düşük öz-saygı (Otani vd., 2018) görülebilmektedir. Çocuk, ihtiyaç duymadığı veya istemediği halde ona yönelik aşırı yardım veya aşırı koruma, çocukta çaresizlik hissi gibi olumsuz temel inançlara yol açabilmekte (Burhans ve Dweck, 1995), kendi başarılarının olumlu sonuçlarını yaşama şansını da zayıflatarak, düşük benlik saygısı ile sonuçlanabilmektedir (Ungar, 2009). Buna paralel olarak, gerçekten ihtiyaç duymadığı durumlarda başkalarının yardım etmesi, okul öncesi yaştaki çocuklar tarafından olumsuz bir geri bildirim olarak yorumlanabilmektedir (örn. “Aslında bunu başarabilecek güçte

değilsin”) (Otani vd., 2018). Bu nedenle, genel olarak aşırı korumacı ebeveynliğin, çocuklarda olumsuz bir benlik algısına yol açabileceği bilinmektedir.

Özerklik desteği ve benlik kavramı ilişkisi

Özerklik desteği, temel olarak, bireysellik ve bağımsızlığı teşvik ederek çocuğa otonomi sağlama olarak tanımlanır (Silk vd., 2003). Özerklik desteğinin daha ayrıntılı bir tanımı ise “Çocukların görüş ve seçimlerinin ebeveynleri tarafından teşvik edilmesi, problemlerle ilgili bağımsız bakış açılarının demokratik şekilde değerlendirilmesi, kendileriyle ilgili karar alma süreçlerinde özgürlük tanınması ve kendi sorunlarını çözme konusunda teşvik edilmesi” şeklinde yapılmıştır (McLeod vd., 2007, s. 162). Kavramsal olarak özerklik desteği, çocuğun otonomi ihtiyacına saygı duyma, görüşlerini ifade etmesi için onu cesaretlendirme ve gerektiğinde tolere etme olarak bilinen, Baumrind’in (1966) ebeveynlik modeline dayanan yetkili ebeveynliğin önemli bileşenlerinden biridir. Tüm aileyi ilgilendiren kararlara çocuğun da katılmasını sağlamak, ebeveynlik davranışlarını gerekçeleri ile açıklamak ve pozitif disiplin için demokratik yöntemler kullanmak (çocuğu baskı aracılığıyla birtakım düzenlemelere uymaya zorlamamak) ön plana çıkan özerklik desteği yüksek ebeveyn davranışları arasındadır (Chai vd., 2018; Soenens ve Vansteenkiste, 2005). Benzer şekilde, Bayer ve meslektaşları (2006) özerklik desteğinin, ebeveynlerin çocukların ulaşılabilir adımlarda kendi başlarına görevlerle başa çıkmalarına ve farklı alternatifleri keşfederek ve düşünerek kendi seçimlerini yapmalarına yardımcı olan olumlu ebeveynlik uygulamalarının en önemlilerinden biri olduğunu belirtmiştir. Bu da çocukların içsel olarak kendilerine değer verildiği algısını teşvik eder ve sonuç olarak olumlu ve yetkin bir benlik duygusu oluşturur.

Çocukların özerklik desteğine duyduğu ihtiyacın karşılanması, sağlıklı psikolojik gelişimleri açısından büyük öneme sahiptir (Deci ve Ryan, 2002; Soenens vd., 2009). Özellikle okul öncesi yıllara odaklanıldığında, ebeveyn özerklik desteğinin önemli rolü çocukların sosyal-duygusal gelişimi için daha belirgin hale gelmektedir (Matte-Gagné vd., 2015). Bu bağlamda, özerklik ihtiyacı karşılanan çocukların, kendi görüşlerini, ilgi alanlarını ve eylemlerini ifade etme konusunda daha rahat oldukları,

kararlı bir benlik duygusuna, yüksek benlik saygısı ve öz-yeterlik düzeyine ve bunların neticesinde daha olumlu benlik kavramına sahip oldukları görülmüştür (Carlson vd., 2000; Kunz ve Grych, 2013). Öte yandan, özerklik desteğinin eksikliği, çocuğun kendini kanıtlama ve bağımsızlık gibi psikolojik ihtiyaçlarını tatmin etmeyerek gelişimi üzerinde olumsuz etkilere neden olabilmekte (Chai vd., 2018), onları “ebeveynlerin istediği gibi” olmak, düşünmek, ya da hissetmek zorunda bırakarak benlik kavramları üzerinde olumsuz sonuçlar doğurabilmektedir (Soenens ve Vansteenkiste, 2010). Özetle, literatürdeki birçok çalışma, çocuklarının özerkliğini destekleyen yetkili ebeveynlerin bu çocukları daha olumlu bir benlik duygusuna yönlendirdiğini tutarlı bir şekilde göstermiştir (Carlson vd., 2000).

Mizaç ve ebeveynlik arasındaki çift yönlülük

Mizaç ve ebeveynlik arasındaki doğrudan ilişkiler alan yazında geniş çaplı olarak incelenirse de, bazı değişkenlerin öncüllerini ve sonuçlarını anlamak açısından, çift yönlülük bize anne-çocuk etkileşimi konusundaki büyük resim hakkında daha fazla bilgi verir. İlgili alan yazının büyük çoğunluğu “ebeveynliğin çocuk davranışları üzerinde ne kadar etkili olduğunu” vurgularken, “çocuklar da ebeveynlik davranışlarını etkiler” vurgusu nispeten az yapılmıştır. Tıpkı ebeveynlerin çocuk davranışlarını etkilediği gibi, çocukların da ebeveyn davranışlarını etkilediği, yapılan mizaç-ebeveynlik çift yönlülüğü araştırmalarıyla gittikçe daha fazla kabul görmektedir (Pettit ve Arsiwalla, 2008).

Çocuklarda en yaygın görülen mizaç özelliklerinden biri olan davranışsal ketlenmenin, ebeveynlik davranışlarıyla güçlü bir şekilde bağlantılı olduğu bilinmektedir. Guyer ve meslektaşları (2015), yaşamın ilk yıllarındaki davranışsal ketlenmenin, yetiştirme ortamındaki olumsuzluklara karşı daha büyük bir duyarlılığa yol açtığını (dolayısıyla annelerinin duyarsız davranışlarından daha olumsuz etkilendiklerini) ve bunun da çocukların davranışsal ketlenme düzeylerini arttırdığını belirtmiştir (Hornbuckle, 2010). Buna göre, Bullock ve meslektaşları (2018), çocuğunun utangaç olduğunu düşünen annenin, onu savunmasız olarak algılayabileceğini ve dolayısıyla çocuğunun davranışlarını kontrol etmeye

çalışabileceğini belirtmiştir; ki bu, annelerin davranışlarını çocuklarının özelliklerine göre düzenlediği anlamına gelir (Lengua, 2006). Dahası, Hornbuckle (2010) davranışsal ketlenmesi yüksek çocukların annelerinin tipik olarak çocuklarına yardım etme dürtüsü ile daha endişeli ve aşırı korumacı davranışlar sergilediğini ve bu çabanın çocuğun kendi çevresi üzerindeki yetersizlik ve güçsüzlük duygusunu artırdığını belirtmiştir. Başka bir deyişle, aşırı korumacı davranışlar, çocukların kendi hayatları üzerinde kendilerinin kontrolü olmadığına dair örtük mesajlar vererek kaçınma davranışını güçlendirir ve çocukların durumla başa çıkmalarına engel teşkil edebilir. Bu durum da nihayetinde davranışsal ketlenmeyi beslemeye hizmet eder, çocuğu daha da korkmaya ve engellenmeye yönlendirir (Hudson ve Rapee, 2004). Bu bağlamda, davranışsal ketlenme ve annenin aşırı korumacılığı arasında kısır bir döngünün olduğu söylenebilir. Aşırı korumacı annelerin zor durumlarla çocukları adına başa çıkmaları, çocuklarının davranışlarını ve bağımsızlıklarını sınırlandırmalarına; bu durum çocukların kendi sorunlarını yönetmek için gerekli becerilerini geliştirme şansı bulamamalarına; bu da çocukların sosyal ortamlardaki suskunluk ve yetersizlik hislerini sürdüren ve hatta güçlendiren bir duruma dönüşmekte; en sonunda karşılaşılan bu durum ise annenin ilk etaptaki aşırı korumacı davranışlarının yoğunlaşarak geri gelmesine sebep olmaktadır (Hudson vd., 2009; Kiel ve Buss, 2011; Murray vd., 2009).

Öte yandan, alan yazında, özerklik desteği ve davranışsal ketlenme arasındaki ilişkiye dair tutarsız bulgular bulunmaktadır (Ryan ve Ollendick, 2018). Örneğin, yetkili ebeveynlik, genel olarak, zor mizaç özelliklerinden kaynaklanan olumsuz gelişimsel sonuçlarla olumsuz yönde ilişkilidir (Propper ve Moore, 2006). Bununla birlikte, davranışsal ketlenmesi yüksek olan çocukların annelerinin endişeli olma eğiliminde olmaları, yetkili ebeveynlik davranışları sergileme şanslarını olumsuz yönde etkilemektedir (Bullock vd., 2018). Buna uygun olarak, Rubin ve meslektaşları (1999), çocuğun iki yaşındayken sahip olduğu utangaç mizacın, ebeveynlerin dört yaşındayken sunduğu cesaret verici ve teşvik edici davranışları düşürdüğünü yordamıştır. Başka bir deyişle, ebeveynlerin çocuklarının davranışsal ketlenmelerine ilişkin algıları, özerkliğin kısıtlanmasına yol açabilmektedir. Mevcut çalışmalar, davranışsal ketlenme ile özerklik desteği arasında çift yönlülük

olabileceğini düşündürse de, bu etkileri anlamak için daha fazla boylamsal çalışmaya ihtiyaç olduğu açıktır.

Amaç ve hipotezler

Literatürde, benlik kavramı ile ilgili çalışmaların büyük çoğunluğu ergenlik ve orta çocukluk dönemine odaklanırken okul öncesi yıllar için çok daha sınırlı sayıda çalışma bulunmaktadır. Buna ek olarak, benlik kavramını araştıran mevcut çalışmalar temel olarak Batı kültürü bağlamlarına odaklanmış, Batılı olmayan toplumlar ilgili alan yazında yeterince temsil edilmemiştir. Ayrıca, ebeveynlik ve çocuk mizacının tek boyutlu etkilerini araştıran bir dizi çalışma olmasına rağmen, aralarındaki çift yönlülük nispeten az çalışılmıştır. İlgili alan yazın ışığında, bu çalışmanın amacı, ebeveynlik (annenin aşırı korumacılığı ve özerklik desteği) ve mizaç (davranışsal ketlenme) ile benlik kavramları arasındaki boylamsal ilişkileri (sekiz ay arayla iki ölçüm alınarak) incelemektir.

Bu bağlamda, bu çalışmanın üç ana hipotezi bulunmaktadır. İlk olarak, dört değişkenin hepsi için (çocukların benlik kavramı ve davranışsal ketlenmesi, annelerin aşırı korumacılık ve özerklik desteği) iki değerlendirme noktası arasında pozitif bir ilişki olacaktır. İkincisi, çocukların mizaçları ile annelerin ebeveynlik davranışları arasında çift yönlü etkiler olacaktır. Özellikle, çocukların davranışsal ketlenmesinin ve annenin aşırı korumacılığının zaman içinde karşılıklı olarak birbirini etkileyeceği varsayılmıştır. Ancak, özerklik desteğini inceleyen göreceli olarak daha az ve tutarsız bulgular olması sebebiyle, annenin özerklik desteğinin çift yönlü ilişkileri keşif türünden araştırılacaktır. Üçüncüsü, çocukların ikinci zamandaki benlik kavramlarını; çocukların birinci zamandaki davranışsal ketlenmesi ve annelerin aşırı korumacılığı olumsuz yönde, annelerin birinci zamandaki özerklik desteği ise olumlu yönde yordayacaktır. Bununla birlikte, çocukların birinci zamandaki benlik kavramlarından annelerin ikinci zamandaki aşırı korumacılığı ve özerklik desteğine olan bağlantılar keşif türünden test edilecektir.

YÖNTEM

Katılımcılar

Bu araştırmanın birinci veri toplama aşamasına, yaşları 47-81 ay arasında değişen toplam 196 çocuk ve onların anneleri katılmıştır. İkinci veri toplama aşamasında ise 93'ü kız, 87'si oğlan olmak üzere toplam 180 katılımcıya ulaşılabilmektedir. Dolayısıyla, betimleyici özellikleri bakımından son katılımcılardan anlamlı düzeyde farklılaşmayan toplam 16 katılımcı kaybı (yaklaşık olarak % 8) olmuştur. Annelerin yaşlarının 23 ile 54 arasında değişkenlik gösterdiği katılımcılara, İzmir (N = 126), Bursa (N = 34) ve Ankara (N = 20) olmak üzere Türkiye'nin çeşitli illerinden ulaşılmıştır.

Veri Toplama Araçları

Benlik kavramı: Araştırmada, çocukların algılanan benlik kavramlarının belirlenmesi amacıyla kukla görüşmesi yönteminin kullanıldığı Çocuk Kendilik Algısı Ölçeği (Child Self-View Questionnaire (CSVQ); Eder, 1990) ve Berkeley Kukla Görüşmesi (Berkeley Puppet Interview (BPI); Ablow ve Measelle, 1993) kullanılmıştır. Çocuk Kendilik Algısı Ölçeği, 3.5 ile 8.5 yaş arası çocuklar için tasarlanmış (Brown vd., 2008) ve Türkçeye uyarlaması Ertekin ve Berument (2019) tarafından yapılmıştır. Cronbach alpha değeri .82 olarak rapor edilmiştir. Berkeley Kukla Görüşmesi ise 4.5 ile 7.5 yaş aralığındaki çocukların kendilik algılarını değerlendirmek için tasarlanmıştır. Bu araştırmada benlik kavramını tüm yönleriyle ele alabilmek için Sosyal Yetkinlik ve Akran Kabul alt ölçekleri kukla görüşmesine eklenmiştir. Bu alt ölçeklerin Türkçe çevirisi, bu araştırma kapsamında, çeviri - geri çeviri yöntemi (translation - back translation) kullanılarak yapılmıştır (bkz. Ek A). Ölçekten alınan yüksek puanlar daha olumlu benlik kavramlarını temsil eder. Bu benlik kavramı ölçüm paketinin Cronbach alfa puanı üzerinden iç tutarlılığı .80 olarak bulunmuştur.

Aşırı korumacılık: Annelerin aşırı korumacılığının ölçülmesi amacıyla Ebeveyn Aşırı Korumacılık Ölçeği (Parental Overprotection Measure; Edwards vd., 2008) kullanılmıştır. Toplam 19 maddeden oluşan bu ölçek, anneler tarafından doldurulmaktadır. Annelerden, 0 (hiç katılmıyorum) ile 4 (tamamen katılıyorum) arasında değişen 5’li Likert tipi ölçeğin, kendi tipik ebeveynlik davranışlarını ne ölçüde temsil ettiğini değerlendirmeleri istenmiştir. Aşırı Korumacılık Ölçeği’nin daha önce yüksek iç tutarlılığa (Cronbach’ın alfa değeri .87), güçlü test-tekrar test güvenilirliğine ve iyi yapı ve yordayıcı geçerliliğe sahip olduğu bulunmuştur (Edwards vd., 2010). Ölçeğin Türkçe çevirisi, bu çalışmanın araştırmacısı tarafından çeviri - geri çeviri yöntemi ile gerçekleştirilmiştir (bkz. Ek B). Bu araştırmada, Cronbach alfa değeri .87 olarak bulunmuştur.

Annenin özerklik desteği: Annelerin özerklik desteğinin ölçülmesi amacıyla Ebeveynlik Stilleri ve Boyutları Ölçeği’nde (Parenting Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire; Robinson vd., 2001) yer alan Yetkili (Authoritative) alt ölçeğinin Özerklik Desteği bölümü (5 madde) kullanılmıştır. 5’li likert tipinde hazırlanan ölçeğe, annelerin her maddeye “hiçbir zaman” ile “her zaman” aralığında 1’den 5’e kadar bir puan vermeleri istenmiştir. Olivari ve meslektaşları (2013), yetkili alt ölçeği için Cronbach’ın alfa değerlerinin .71 ile .97 arasında olduğunu belirtmiştir. Ölçeğin Türkçe çevirisi, bu çalışmanın araştırmacısı tarafından, çeviri - geri çeviri yöntemi kullanılarak gerçekleştirilmiş (bkz. Ek C) ve Cronbach alfa değeri .76 olarak bulunmuştur.

Davranışsal Ketlenme: Okul öncesi çocukların davranışsal ketlenmesini ölçmek amacıyla annelere, Erken Çocukluk Davranışı Anketi’nin (Early Childhood Behavior Questionnaire; Putnam vd., 2006) Korku (11 madde) ve Utangaçlık (11 madde) alt ölçekleri uygulanmıştır. Türkçe uyarlaması Berument ve Sümer (2017) tarafından yapılan Erken Çocukluk Davranışı Anketi’nin Cronbach alfa katsayısı .81 olarak rapor edilmiştir. Bununla birlikte, davranışsal ketlenmeyi tüm yönleriyle ele alabilmek için Erken Çocukluk Davranışı Anketi’ne, Davranışsal Ketlenme Anketi’nden (Behavioral Inhibition Questionnaire; Bishop vd., 2003) 3 madde daha eklenmiştir. Bu anketin Cronbach alfa katsayısı ise .87 olarak rapor edilmiştir.

Davranışsal ketlenme ölçüm paketindeki tüm maddeler, 5'li Likert tipi ölçek (1 - hiçbir zaman, 3 - bazen, 5 - her zaman) aracılığıyla anneler tarafından doldurulmuş (bkz. Ek D) ve Cronbach alfa değeri .84 olarak bulunmuştur.

Kişisel bilgi formu: Araştırma kapsamında kişisel bilgi formu; çocuğun yaşı ve cinsiyeti, annenin yaşı, çalışma durumu, eğitim düzeyi ve aile geliri, ebeveynlerin sahip olduğu çocuk sayısı ve doğum sırası, yaşadığı şehir ve medeni durum gibi bilgileri elde etmek amacıyla kullanılmıştır (bkz. Ek E).

Veri Toplama Süreci

Araştırma kapsamında ilk olarak, Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu'ndan etik onay alınmıştır. Katılımcılara, Ankara, İzmir ve Bursa illerindeki aileler, yerel çocuk bakım merkezleri ve anaokulu/kreşler ile kişisel temaslar yoluyla ulaşılmıştır. Veriler ev ya da anaokulu/kreş ziyaretleri ile toplanmıştır. Veri toplama sürecinden önce, anneler çalışmanın boyamsal bir çalışma olduğu, aynı sürecin 8 ay sonra tekrarlanacağı konusunda bilgilendirilmiş ve gönüllü olmaları halinde onam formunu imzalamaları istenmiştir. Ayrıca, çocuklardan da “Benimle ve kuklalarım ile oynamak ister misin?” sorusu aracılığıyla sözlü onam alınmıştır.

Araştırmanın veri toplama sürecinde öncelikle kukla görüşmesi yapılmıştır. Bu görüşmeler için iki el kuklası kullanılarak çocuğa, “Bu kuklalar senin yaşındaki çocuklar hakkında bir hikâye yazıyorlar ve senin hakkındaki her şeyi öğrenmek istiyorlar. Önce onlar sana kendilerinden bahsedecekler, sonra sen de eğer istersen seninle ilgili şeyleri onlara anlatabilirsin” yönergesi sunulur. Çocuğun süreci anlamasını sağlamak için iki deneme maddesi seslendirildikten sonra, anladığından emin olunması halinde esas maddelere geçilir (Çocuğun anlamadığı fark edilirse yönerge tekrarlanır). Bu sırada anneler de dışarıda, kişisel bilgi formuna ek olarak, çocuklarının davranışsal ketlenmesi ile kendi aşırı korumacılık ve özerklik desteğine yönelik anketleri doldururlar.

Araştırmanın birinci veri toplama aşaması 14 Temmuz ve 19 Ekim 2018 tarihleri arasında 196 anne-çocukla, ikinci veri toplama aşaması ise, planlandığı gibi 8 ay sonra, 15 Mart ve 17 Haziran 2019 tarihleri arasında 180 anne-çocukla gerçekleştirilmiştir. Her iki aşamada da aynı veri toplama araçları kullanılmış ve aynı süreç işletilmiştir.

BULGULAR

Ön Analizlere İlişkin Bulgular

Araştırmada ana analizlere geçmeden önce veri girişinin doğruluğu iki kez kontrol edilmiştir. Daha sonra, ikinci veri toplama aşamasına katılmayan katılımcılar ($n = 16$; yaklaşık %8), araştırmadan ayrılmaları ile ilgili potansiyel yanlılığın değerlendirilmesi için hem birinci hem de ikinci aşama ölçümlerine tam olarak katılan katılımcılar ($N = 180$) ile karşılaştırılmış. Son ölçümlere katılmayan katılımcıların, betimleyici özellikleri bakımından her iki ölçüme de katılan katılımcılardan anlamlı ölçüde farklılaşmadığı tespit edilmiş ve bu yüzden sonraki analizler son 180 katılımcı ile gerçekleştirilmiştir.

Araştırmada, eksik veriler için Beklenti-Maksimizasyon yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Diğerler yöntemler arasından bu yöntemin seçilme nedeni, verilerin çok küçük bir kısmının (toplamda %5'ten az) eksik olması ve eksik verilerin Little'ın MCAR testine göre anlamlı olmayıp tamamen rastgele (Little, 1988) olmasıdır ($\chi^2 (1590) = 1672.69, p > .05$). Bunun yanı sıra, araştırma kapsamında elde edilen verilerin normal dağılım gösterip göstermediğini belirlemek için AMOS programı aracılığıyla hem tek değişkenli aykırı değerler (çarpıklık ve basıklık değerlerine dayalı olarak) hem de çok değişkenli aykırı değerler (Mahalanobis mesafelerine göre) değerlendirilmiştir. Elde edilen sonuçlara göre, veride anlamlı düzeyde bir çarpıklık veya basıklığa rastlanmamıştır.

Betimsel Analizlere İlişkin Bulgular

Araştırma kapsamında elde edilen verilerin betimsel analizi sonucunda; çocukların, benlik kavramları ortalamalarının ilk ölçümlerde 2.65, ikinci ölçümlerde 2.72; davranış ketlenmelerinin ise ilk ölçümlerde 2.18, ikinci ölçümlerde 2.12 olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Bununla birlikte annelerin, aşırı korumacılık ortalamalarının ilk ölçümlerde 2.52 iken ikinci ölçümlerde 2.36; özerklik desteklerinin ise ilk ölçümlerde 4.37 iken ikinci ölçümlerde 4.38 olduğu sonucuna ulaşılmıştır.

Değişkenlerin Korelasyonlarına İlişkin Bulgular

Araştırma kapsamında, demografik değişkenler (çocukların cinsiyeti ve yaşı, annelerin eğitim düzeyi) dahil olmak üzere birinci ve ikinci ölçümlerde elde edilen bütün veriler (çocukların benlik kavramı ve davranışsal ketlenmesi, annenin aşırı korumacılığı ve özerklik desteği) arasında anlamlı bir ilişki olup olmadığını belirlemek amacıyla Pearson Korelasyon analizinden yararlanılmıştır. Yapılan analizler sonucunda elde edilen bulgular aşağıda açıklanmıştır.

Çocukların benlik kavramları ile diğer değişkenler arasındaki ilişkilere ait bulgular: Çocukların ilk ölçümdeki benlik kavramları ile ikinci ölçümdeki benlik kavramları arasında anlamlı ve pozitif yönde bir ilişki olduğu (beklendiği gibi) görülmüştür ($r = .50, p < .001$). Bununla birlikte analiz sonuçları, çocukların ikinci ölçümdeki benlik kavramları ile hem cinsiyetleri ($r = -.19, p < .01$) hem de annelerinin eğitim düzeyleri ($r = -.22, p < .01$) arasında negatif yönde bir ilişki olduğunu göstermiştir.

Davranış ketlenmesi ile diğer değişkenler arasındaki ilişkilere ait bulgular: Çocukların hem birinci ve ikinci ölçümdeki davranışsal ketlenmesi arasında ($r = .64, p < .001$) hem de birinci ölçümdeki davranış ketlenmesi ile annenin aşırı korumacılığı arasında pozitif yönde bir ilişki bulunurken ($r = .19, p < .01$); annenin her iki ölçümdeki özerklik desteği ile negatif yönde bir ilişki olduğu görülmüştür (sırasıyla $r = -.16, p < .05$; $r = -.23, p < .01$). Araştırma kapsamında ikinci

ölçümlerden elde edilen davranış ketlenmelerine ait verilerin analiz sonuçlarına göre; çocukların davranış ketlenmeleri ile annelerin hem birinci ($r = .28, p < .001$) hem de ikinci ölçümlerdeki ($r = .32, p < .001$) aşırı korumacılığı arasında pozitif yönde bir ilişki bulunurken; annelerin özerklik desteğinin her iki ölçümü arasında negatif yönde bir ilişki olduğu görülmüştür (sırasıyla $r = -.16, p < .05$; $r = -.22, p < .05$). Bununla birlikte çocukların her iki ölçümdeki davranış ketlenmesi ile annelerin eğitimi arasında negatif yönde bir ilişki olduğu sonucuna da ulaşılmıştır (sırasıyla $r = -.18, p < .05$; $r = -.16, p < .05$).

Aşırı korumacılık ve diğer değişkenler arasındaki ilişkilere ait bulgular:

Araştırma sonucunda, annelerin birinci ve ikinci ölçümlerdeki aşırı korumacılığı arasında pozitif yönde bir ilişki olduğu tespit edilmiştir ($r = .68, p < .001$). Annelerin birinci ölçümlerdeki aşırı korumacılığı ile ikinci ölçümlerdeki özerklik desteği arasında ise negatif yönde bir ilişki olduğu belirlenmiştir ($r = -.18, p < .05$). Bununla birlikte annelerin aşırı korumacılığı demografik değişkenler açısından incelendiğinde; her iki ölçümdeki aşırı korumacılık ile hem çocukların cinsiyetleri (sırasıyla $r = -.18, p < .05$; $r = -.19, p < .01$) hem de annenin eğitimi (sırasıyla $r = -.42, p < .001$; $r = -.31, p < .001$) arasında negatif yönde bir ilişki olduğu tespit edilmiştir.

Özerklik desteği ve diğer değişkenler arasındaki ilişkilere ait bulgular:

Son olarak annelerin özerklik desteğine ilişkin verilerin analiz sonuçları incelendiğinde, sadece birinci ve ikinci ölçümler arasında anlamlı ve pozitif yönde bir ilişki olduğu (beklendiği gibi) tespit edilmiştir ($r = .50, p < .001$). Diğer değişkenlerle pozitif veya negatif yönde anlamlı bir ilişkiye rastlanılmamıştır.

Çapraz Bağlanmış Panel Analizlerine İlişkin Bulgular

Araştırma kapsamında, zaman içerisindeki mizaç (davranışsal ketlenme) ve ebeveynlik (annenin aşırı korumacılığı ve özerklik desteği) arasındaki çift yönlü ilişkileri ve bunların okul öncesi çocukların benlik kavramlarıyla bağlantılarını incelemek için AMOS aracılığıyla yapılan çapraz bağlanmış panel analiz modelleri

kullanılmıştır. Çocukların benlik kavramı ile çocukların cinsiyeti ve annelerin eğitim düzeyleri arasında güçlü ilişkilerin olduğunun tespit edilmesi sebebiyle, bu iki demografik değişkenin etkisi çapraz bağlanmış panel analizlerinde kontrol edilmiştir. İki ebeveynlik boyutu için iki farklı model olarak davranışsal ketlenme, aşırı koruyuculuk ve çocuğun benlik kavramı arasındaki işlemler için Model 1, davranışsal ketlenme, annenin özerklik desteği ve çocuğun benlik kavramı arasındaki işlemler için Model 2 oluşturulmuştur.

Davranışsal ketlenme ve annenin aşırı korumacılığı arasındaki çift yönlülüğün çocukların benlik kavramına ilişkin bulguları: Analiz sonuçlarına göre, davranışsal ketlenme, annenin aşırı korunmacılığı ve çocukların benlik kavramı arasındaki ilişkileri inceleyen Model 1 iyi bir uyum göstermiştir. Buna göre, özbağımlı (autoregressive) modellerle ilgili sonuçlar, üç değişkenin de 8 ay boyunca stabil olduğunu göstermiştir. Bununla birlikte, birinci ölçümlerdeki annenin aşırı korumacılığının ikinci ölçümlerdeki çocuğun davranışsal ketlenmesini pozitif yönde ve anlamlı bir şekilde yordadığı tespit edilmiştir.

Davranışsal ketlenme ve annenin özerklik desteği arasındaki çift yönlülüğün çocukların benlik kavramına ilişkin bulguları: Analiz sonuçlarına göre, davranışsal ketlenme, annenin özerklik desteği ve çocukların benlik kavramı arasındaki ilişkileri inceleyen Model 2 de iyi bir uyum göstermiştir. Buna göre, özbağımlı modellerle ilgili sonuçlar, üç değişkenin de 8 ay boyunca stabil olduğunu göstermiştir. Bunun yanı sıra, birinci ölçümlerdeki çocuğun davranışsal ketlenmesi ve benlik kavramının ikinci ölçümlerdeki annenin özerklik desteğini negatif yönde ve anlamlı bir şekilde yordadığı sonucuna ulaşılmıştır.

TARTIŞMA

Bu çalışmanın üç ana hipotezi bulunmaktadır. İlk olarak; dört değişkenin (yani çocukların benlik kavramı ve davranışsal ketlenmesi, annelerin aşırı korumacılığı ve özerklik desteği) iki ölçümü arasında pozitif bir ilişkinin olması beklenmiştir. İkinci olarak; çocukların davranışsal ketlenmeleri ile annelerin ebeveynlik davranışları

arasında çift yönlü ilişkilerin olması beklenmiştir. Özellikle, çocukların davranışsal ketlenmesi ve annelerin aşırı korumacılığının zaman içinde karşılıklı olarak birbirlerini etkileyeceği varsayılmıştır. Üçüncü olarak ise çocuklarının birinci ölçümlerdeki davranışsal ketlenmesi ile annenin aşırı korumacılığının olumsuz yönde, birinci ölçümlerdeki annenin özerklik desteğinin ise olumlu yönde çocukların ikinci ölçümlerdeki benlik kavramlarını yordaması beklenmiştir.

Araştırma sonuçları genel olarak incelendiğinde, birinci zamanda ölçülen çocukların benlik kavramları ve davranışsal ketlenmesi ile annelerin aşırı korumacılığı ve özerklik desteği, ikinci zaman ölçümlerini yordamıştır. Bununla birlikte, birinci zamandaki annenin aşırı korumacılığı, ikinci zamandaki çocuğun davranışsal ketlenmesini olumlu yönde yordarken çocukların birinci zamandaki hem davranışsal ketlenmesi hem de benlik kavramları, annelerin ikinci zamandaki özerklik desteğini olumsuz yönde yordamıştır.

Araştırmanın hipotezleri ayrı ayrı incelendiğinde, birinci hipotezi test etmek için yapılan analiz sonuçları; birinci ölçümlerdeki çocukların benlik kavramı ve davranışsal ketlenmesi, annelerin aşırı korumacılığı ve özerklik desteğinin, ikinci ölçümlerdeki değerlendirmeleri olumlu olarak yordadığını ortaya koymuştur. Başka bir deyişle, hem çocukların hem de annelerinin tüm özellikleri sekiz aylık süre içinde istikrar göstermiştir. Bu sonuçlar, alan yazındaki diğer araştırma sonuçlarıyla da benzerlik göstermektedir. Örneğin, Trzesniewski ve meslektaşları (2003), çocukların benlik kavramının zaman içinde istikrar gösterdiğini belirtmişlerdir. Benzer şekilde, davranışsal ketlenmenin boylamsal olarak incelendiği çalışmalarda orta düzeyde stabilite olduğu sonuçlarına ulaşılmıştır (Gartstein ve Rothbart, 2003; Guerin vd., 2003; Thompson vd., 2011). Bunlara ek olarak, annenin hem aşırı korumacılığı (Kennedy vd., 2004; Kiel ve Buss, 2011) hem de özerklik desteği (Bayer vd., 2006; Matte- Gagné vd., 2013) ile ilgili benzer sonuçlara ulaşılan çalışmalar bulunmaktadır.

İkinci hipotezi test etmek için yapılan analiz sonuçlarına göre; çocukların davranış ketlenmesi ve annelerin ebeveynlik davranışları arasında çift yönlü etkileşimin

olduğu ve özellikle çocukların davranışsal ketlenmesi ile annenin aşırı korumacılığının zaman içinde birbirlerini karşılıklı olarak etkileyeceği yönündeki hipotez, kısmen desteklenmiştir. Yani, birinci ölçümlerdeki annenin aşırı korumacılığı, beklendiği gibi çocukların ikinci ölçümlerindeki davranışsal ketlenmeyi öngörmüştür. Bu bulgu literatürdeki birçok çalışma ile uyumludur (Coplan vd., 2009; Edwards vd., 2010; Hudson ve Rapee, 2005; Kiel ve Buss, 2013; Rubin vd., 2002). Bununla birlikte, birinci ölçümlerdeki davranışsal ketlenmenin ikinci ölçümlerdeki annenin aşırı korumacılığını da öngörmesi beklenmesine rağmen, bu bağlantı anlamlı bulunamamıştır. Bu anlamsız bulgu beklenmedik bir durumdur, çünkü literatürde annenin aşırı korumacılığının zaman içinde çocukların davranışsal ketlenmesi tarafından yordandığını gösteren çalışmalar vardır (Hudson ve Rapee, 2005; Kiel ve Buss, 2011; Möller vd., 2016). Bu beklenmedik bulgunun altında yatan olası faktörlerden biri kültürel farklılıklar olabilir. Yani, literatürdeki çalışmaların çoğunluğu Batı (dolayısıyla ağırlıklı olarak bireyselci) kültürlerde yürütülmüştür. Batılı annelerin aşırı korumacılık puanları, Türkiye gibi Batılı olmayan (dolayısıyla ağırlıklı olarak toplulukçu) kültürlerden gelen annelerle karşılaştırıldığında, Batılı olmayan annelerin daha yüksek düzeyde aşırı korumacı davranışlar sergilediği görülmüştür (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2007; Sümer vd., 2010). Bu durum, Batılı olmayan toplumlardan gelen annelerin, çocuklarının davranışları nasıl olursa olsun, onlara karşı aşırı korumacı olma eğiliminde oldukları şeklinde değerlendirilmektedir.

Üçüncü hipotezi test etmek için yapılan analiz sonuçlarına göre; ilk olarak, birinci ölçümlerdeki çocukların davranışsal ketlenmelerinin, ikinci ölçümlerdeki benlik kavramlarını yordamadığı görülmüştür. Alan yazında davranışsal ketlenmenin çocukların benlik kavramlarını yordadığını gösteren çalışmalar (Findlay vd., 2009; Hintsanen vd., 2010) bulunması sebebiyle bu beklenmedik bir bulgudur. Bu sonuçların çalışmalar arasındaki yaş aralığı farklılığından kaynaklandığı düşünülmektedir. Yani, böyle bir ilişkiyi ortaya koyan çalışmaların çoğu orta çocuklukta yapılmıştır (Findlay vd., 2009). Bu nedenle, erken davranışsal ketlenmenin çocukların daha sonraki olumsuz benlik kavramları üzerindeki etkisinin gelişmesi ve gözlemlenebilir hale gelmesi için daha fazla zaman gerekebileceği

söylenbilir. Okul öncesi çağıdaki yılların, çocukların benlik kavramlarının hala inşa edilme dönemleri olması nedeniyle, çeşitli faktörlerin potansiyel etkileri okul öncesi çağlarda henüz etkisini göstermemiş olup, sonraki yıllarda görülebilir.

Sonuç olarak, mevcut araştırmanın bulguları daha geniş bir perspektiften incelendiğinde; olumlu ebeveynlik özelliği (özerklik desteği), çocuk özelliklerinden (hem davranışsal engelleme hem de benlik kavramı) kaynaklanırken; olumsuz ebeveynlik özelliğinin (aşırı korumacılık), çocukların davranış ketlenmesi veya benlik kavramlarından herhangi biri tarafından yordanmadığı, aksine çocuk mizacını yordayan tek faktör olduğu görülmüştür. Bu nedenle, bu çalışmanın bulgularına göre, ebeveynlik ve mizaç arasında çocukların benlik kavramı ile ilişkili olarak kısmi düzeyde çift yönlü bir ilişki olduğu sonucuna varılabilir. Her ne kadar üçüncü bir değerlendirme yapılarak çift yönlülüğün tam olarak görülmesi şiddetle önerilse de mevcut araştırmanın hem ebeveynlik-mizaç çift yönlülüğü hem de okul öncesi yaştaki çocukların benlik kavramlarının araştırılması açısından bir ilham kaynağı olabileceğine inanılmaktadır.

Güçlü Yönler ve Katkıları

Bu araştırmanın ilk ve en önemli güçlü yönü, çalışmanın boylamsal olarak yürütülmesi; ve bu sayede, ebeveynlik, mizaç ve benlik kavramları hakkında neden-sonuç çıkarımlarının yapılmasını sağlamasıdır. Ayrıca, bu kavramları tek yönlü olarak incelemekle kalmayıp, aynı zamanda çift yönlü ilişkilerinin okul öncesi çağıdaki çocukların benlik kavramları üzerindeki etkilerini incelemek de diğer bir güçlü yönüdür. Bunun önemli olmasının bir nedeni, sadece “ebeveynlerin çocuklarını etkilediği” değil, “çocukların da ebeveynlerini etkilediği” iddiasını desteklemesi olarak düşünülebilir. Böylelikle, çift yönlü çalışmalar bize ebeveyn-çocuk etkileşim sistemini daha geniş bir perspektiften anlama fırsatı verir ve bu da çocukların gelişimsel sonuçlarının daha iyi anlaşılmasını sağlar.

Buna ek olarak, literatürdeki ilgili çalışmaların büyük bir çoğunluğu ergenlik ve orta çocukluk dönemine odaklanırken, okul öncesi yaştaki çocuklar üzerinde sınırlı

sayıda araştırma bulunmaktadır. Okul öncesi yılların, çocukların benlik kavramı gelişimleri açısından kritik olduğu bilinmektedir. Çünkü okul öncesi yıllar bir yandan çocukların “iyimser”den daha “gerçekçi” öz-değerlendirmelere bir geçiş dönemi; diğer yandan, hem benlik kavramının hem de mizaç özelliklerinin gözlemlenmesinin gittikçe daha netleştiği bir dönemdir. Bu nedenle, bu konuları okul öncesi çağıdaki çocuklarla incelemek mevcut çalışmanın güçlü yönlerinden biri olarak düşünülebilir. Dahası, alan yazında okul öncesi çağıdaki çocukların benlik kavramları hakkındaki mevcut çalışmalar, özellikle dört yaş kadar erken bir dönemde, çocukların kendi benlik kavramlarına ilişkin algılarından ziyade “annelerin bildirdiği çocukların benlik kavramı”na dayanmaktadır. Ancak bu çalışmanın sonuçları, çocuklarının benlik kavramları için ebeveynlerin bildirdiği anketlere dayanan çalışmaların aksine, kukla görüşme yöntemi kullanılarak çocukların kendi benlik kavramı raporlarına dayanmaktadır. Bu nedenle, bu denli erken yaş grubundan (yani 4 yaşından itibaren) alınan algılanan benlik kavramı verileri, bu çalışmanın en önemli güçlü yönlerinden biridir. Ayrıca, okul öncesi yaştaki çocukların kendi bildirdiği benlik kavramı değerlendirmesinin, alan yazında bu konuda var olan tartışmalara rağmen, yüksek düzeyde güvenilirlik (.80 Cronbach alfa katsayısı) gösterdiğini belirtmek gerekir. Başka bir deyişle, bu çalışma, literatürde yer alan küçük çocukların kendi kendine benlik değerlendirmesi yapmaları konusundaki tartışmaların aksine, dört yaşından itibaren çocukların benlik kavramlarını ailelerine sormak yerine kendi benlik kavramlarını kendilerinin değerlendirmelerinin sağlanabileceğini kanıtlamıştır.

Ayrıca, literatürdeki çalışmaların çoğunluğu Batı kültürüne ve ailesel bağlamlarına odaklanırken, Batılı olmayan bir kültürde yapılan sınırlı sayıda araştırma bulunmaktadır. Kültürün (özellikle bireyselci ve toplulukçu bakış açıları) ebeveynlik tarzları, tutumları ve davranışları üzerindeki etkisi olabileceği düşünüldüğünde, Batılı olmayan toplumların çocuklarının ve ebeveynlerinin bulgularının yer aldığı bu çalışmanın literatüre katkıda bulunması, diğer bir güçlü yön olarak düşünülebilir.

Sınırlılıklar ve öneriler

Literatürdeki tüm araştırmalarda olduğu gibi bu araştırmanın da bazı sınırlılıkları vardır. Birincisi, bu araştırmanın en önemli sınırlılığı, kısıtlı sayıda değerlendirmenin yapılmış olmasıdır. Yani, zaman yetersizliği nedeniyle araştırma iki farklı zamanda yapılan ölçümlerin değerlendirmesiyle sınırlandırılmıştır. Bu araştırmanın gelecekteki araştırmalar için en önemli önerilerinden biri, aynı çalışma deseninin en az üç farklı zamanda ölçüm alınarak yapılmasıdır. Ayrıca, ölçümler arasında daha geniş aralıkların (mevcut araştırmadaki 8 aylık aralığın aksine) bırakılmasının, zaman içindeki değişimin daha iyi ayırt edilmesine ve daha uzun vadeli etkilerin anlaşılmasına yardımcı olabileceği düşünülmektedir.

Ayrıca, betimleyici istatistikler katılımcıların hem eğitim hem de gelir düzeyleri için dengeli bir dağılım olduğunu gösterse de verilerin çoğu (180 üzerinden 126) İzmir'den toplanmıştır. Dolayısıyla, bu araştırmanın genellenebilirlik ile ilgili bir sınırlılığı bulunmaktadır. Bununla birlikte, ebeveynlerin kendi ebeveynlik davranışlarını anketler aracılığıyla belirtmeleri, kendi ebeveynlik stilleri, tutumları veya davranışları hakkında olası önyargıları potansiyeli nedeniyle de bir sınırlılık olarak yorumlanabilir. Bu nedenle gelecekteki araştırmalarda, kendi kendini raporlayan ebeveynlik anketlerine ek olarak gözlem tabanlı değerlendirme araçlarının da kullanılması önerilmektedir. Son olarak, kültürel faktörlerin çocukların mizacı, ebeveynlik ve aynı zamanda benlik kavramları üzerinde bir etkisi olabileceği düşünülmektedir. Bu nedenle gelecek araştırmalarda kültürel farklılıkların etkisini gözlemleyebilmek amacıyla, bu konunun kültürlerarası olarak çalışılması ve değerlendirilmesi önerilmektedir.

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