

THE IMPACT OF PARENTAL CONTROL AND MARITAL CONFLICT ON
ADOLESCENTS' SELF-REGULATION AND ADJUSTMENT

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I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work.

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ABSTRACT

THE IMPACT OF PARENTAL CONTROL AND MARITAL CONFLICT ON ADOLESCENTS' SELF-REGULATION AND ADJUSTMENT

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The current study aims to increase understanding of influences on and consequences of self-regulation in adolescence. Previous work has shown that higher levels of self-regulation are associated with greater social competence and lower levels problem behaviors. Past studies have posited that parenting and interparental conflict are linked to self-regulation and adjustment in childhood and adolescence. However, the mechanism underlying the potential effects of specific parental behaviors and interparental conflict on self-regulation and their unique effects on adjustment have been largely unexamined. It was hypothesized that parental psychological and behavioral control and interparental conflict would be indirectly associated with adolescent outcomes via self-regulation abilities. Besides, differential impacts of parental controlling behaviors on self-regulation were also explored. The study involved a sample of 300 students in the 6th and 7th grades and their mothers. Students completed self-report questionnaires on parental control behaviors, self-regulation abilities, and academic self-concept. Furthermore, mothers completed questionnaires including parental control, interparental conflict, self-regulation abilities of adolescents, and adolescent adjustment (i.e., hyperactivation/inattention, emotional, and prosocial behaviors). The mediational hypothesis was largely supported. Results suggested that perceived parental psychological control and interparental conflict predicted low levels of self-

regulation and in turn, this predicted adolescent adjustment. Parental behavioral control predicted self-regulation abilities in adolescent-reported model only. As predicted, different parental psychological control dimensions had divergent impact on adolescent outcomes. Specifically, love withdrawal/irrespective parenting was associated with the highest adolescent adjustment. Results also showed that the interplay between paternal guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors and monitoring was significant in predicting prosocial behaviors and perseverance of adolescents. Similarly, the significant interaction between maternal love withdrawal/irrespective and knowledge suggested that high maternal withdrawal combined with high parental knowledge may result in hyperactivation/inattention problems among early adolescents. Finally, two U-shaped curvilinear relationships were found between psychological control and adjustment variables. Accordingly, the relationship between paternal guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors and low perseverance/monitoring; and maternal love withdrawal/irrespective and Turkish academic self-concept had curvilinear relationship. Theoretical, methodological, cultural, and practical implications of the findings were discussed considering previous literature.

Key Words: psychological control, behavioral control, self-regulation, adolescence.

ÖZ

ANA-BABA KONTROL DAVRANIŞLARININ VE AİLE İÇİ ÇATIŞMANIN ERGENLERİN ÖZ-DENETİM BECERİLERİ VE UYUMLARI ÜZERİNDEKİ ETKİLERİ

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Bu çalışma ergenlerin özdenetim becerilerinin gelişmesinde etkili olan değişkenleri ve bu özdenetim becerilerinin ilişkili olduğu değişkenleri incelemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Önceki çalışmalar yüksek düzeydeki özdenetim becerilerini ergenlerin sosyal başarı ve uyumu ile ilişkilendirirken, düşük düzeydeki özdenetim becerileri daha çok sorunlu davranışlarla ilişkili bulunmuştur. Pek çok çalışma ana-babalığın ve aile içi çatışmanın çocukların ve ergenlerin özdenetim becerileri üzerinde etkili olabileceğine vurgu yapmıştır. Ancak özdenetim üzerindeki bu etkileri ele alan az sayıda görgül çalışma bulunmaktadır. Bu çalışmada psikolojik ve davranışsal kontrol ile aile içi çatışmanın özdenetim becerilerinin aracı etkisiyle ergen değişkenlerini etkilemesi beklenmektedir. Ayrıca, farklı psikolojik kontrol boyutlarının farklı ergen değişkenleri ile ilişkili olması beklenmektedir. Çalışmaya üç yüz altıncı ve yedinci sınıf öğrencisi ve onların anneleri katılmıştır. Öğrencilerden özbildirim yoluyla algıladıkları ana-baba kontrol davranışları, özdenetim becerileri ve akademik benlik kavramı ölçümleri alınmıştır. Anneler ise, kontrol davranışları, aile içi çatışma, ergenlerin özdenetim becerileri ve problem davranışları ile ilgili ölçekleri doldurmuşlardır. Aracı değişkenli model büyük oranda doğrulanmıştır. Buna göre, algılanan ana-baba psikolojik kontrol ve aile içi çatışma ergenlerin özdenetim becerilerini, bu özdenetim becerileri de ergen değişkenlerini yordamaktadır. Ana-baba davranışsal kontrol değişkeni ise sadece

ergen verilerinden elde edilen modelde anlamlı bir şekilde özdenetim becerilerini yordamaktadır. Ayrıca, farklı psikolojik kontrol boyutlarının ergenler üzerinde farklı etkilere sahip olduğu bulunmuştur. Anne ve baba tarafından sevginin esirgenmesi/ilgisiz ebeveyn davranışları değişkeni suçluluk yaratma/tutarsız duygusal davranışlar gösterme ile karşılaştırıldığında daha olumsuz ergen değişkenleri ile ilişkili bulunmuştur. Ek olarak, farklı kontrol boyutları ile ergen değişkenlerinin etkileşimleri incelenmiştir. Olumlu sosyal davranış ve sebat/izleme değişkenlerini yordamada babanın suçluluk yaratması/tutarsız duygusal davranışlar göstermesi ile izlemesi arasındaki etkileşimin anlamlı olduğu bulunmuştur. Benzer şekilde, hiperaktivite/dikkatsizlik değişkenini yordamada annenin sevgisini esirgemesi/ilgisiz ebeveyn davranışları ve çocuğa dair bilgi sahibi olma etkileşimi anlamlı bulunmuştur. Son olarak, iki U-şekilli doğrusal olmayan ilişki bulunmuştur. Babanın suçluluk yaratması ve düşük sebat/izleme arasındaki ilişki ile annenin sevgisini esirgemesi ve Türkçe akademik benlik kavramı arasındaki ilişkiler doğrusal bulunmamıştır. Çalışmanın teorik, kültürel ve yöntemsel çıktıları ilgili yazın bulguları ışığında tartışılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Psikolojik kontrol, davranışsal kontrol, öz-denetim, ergenlik.

To My Parents Şule & Adnan

&

To Hilâl

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

- A-R** = Adolescent-Reported
M-R = Mother-Reported
GI = Guilt Induction/Erratic Emotional Behaviors
LW = Love Withdrawal/Irrespective
PK = Parental Knowledge
M = Monitoring
MC = Marital Conflict
SSR = Success in Self-Regulation
FSR = Failure in Self-Regulation
LP/M = Low Perseverance/Monitoring
I/A/A = Inhibition/Adapting/Activation
MSC = Math Self-Concept
TSC = Turkish Self-Concept
HYP = Hyperactivation/Inattention
EMO = Emotional Problems
PRO = Prosocial Behaviors

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Primary concern of parents is to promote their children's well-being and to prevent negative outcomes in their developmental trajectory. However, past studies have documented that the ability to regulate, alter or control one's own behavior or emotion is the main protective factor that prevents children from risky behaviors or maladaptive outcomes (Sethi, Mischel, Aber, Shoda, and Rodriguez, 2000; Tangney, Baumeister, & Boone, 2004). High levels of self-regulation ability has also been linked to social and cognitive competence (Barkley, 2004), while low levels of self-regulation have been found to be associated with problem behaviors in childhood and adolescence (Tangney, Baumeister, & Boone, 2004). However, the majority of previous work regarding the association between self-regulation and psychological adjustment has focused primarily on adolescents (Tangney, Baumeister, & Boone, 2004; Moilanen, 2007). In contrast, research regarding the effects of contextual and familial effects (e.g., parenting) on self-regulation has mainly conducted on children (Finkenauer, Engels, & Baumeister, 2005; Grolnick, & Ryan, 1989). For instance, there is not adequate research on how parenting during adolescence is associated with self-regulation. Besides parenting behaviors, the impact of the family context variables on the self-regulation ability of adolescents has also not been examined systematically in previous studies. Therefore, this study aims to examine the interplay among specific parenting behaviors, marital conflict as an indicator of family context and adjustment among adolescents using a conceptual model. Detailed rationale of the study and related literature review will be presented in the following sections.

1.1 The Purpose of the Study

The current study aims to examine a proposed mediational model in which self-regulation abilities of adolescents mediate the relationship between family context variables and adolescent outcomes (See Figure 1). This study also aims to investigate individual pathways of the antecedents and consequences of self-regulation abilities among early adolescents. Specifically, the purposes of this study are two-fold. First is to identify the associations between parental control behaviors, family context and adolescents' adjustment including self-regulatory abilities, problem behaviors, and academic self-description and second is to examine different dimensions of parental control and its relevance with adolescent self-regulation.

Adolescent self-regulation is an area in which different theoretical perspectives have been used to explain numerous factors, including parenting having effects on self-regulation skills. The theoretical background behind this study is a synthesis of two models: contextual family variables including parental control and interparental conflict which have been shown to be critical elements in adolescents' self-regulation (Brody & Ge, 2001; Finkenauer, Engels, & Baumeister, 2005), and its related behavioral outcomes (Mischel, Shoda, & Rodriguez, 1989). As shown in Figure 1, it is anticipated that contextual family variables will have an impact on adolescent outcomes through their effects on the self-regulatory skills of adolescents. Direct effects of parenting and marital conflict on adolescent outcomes will decrease when self-regulation abilities added to the model.

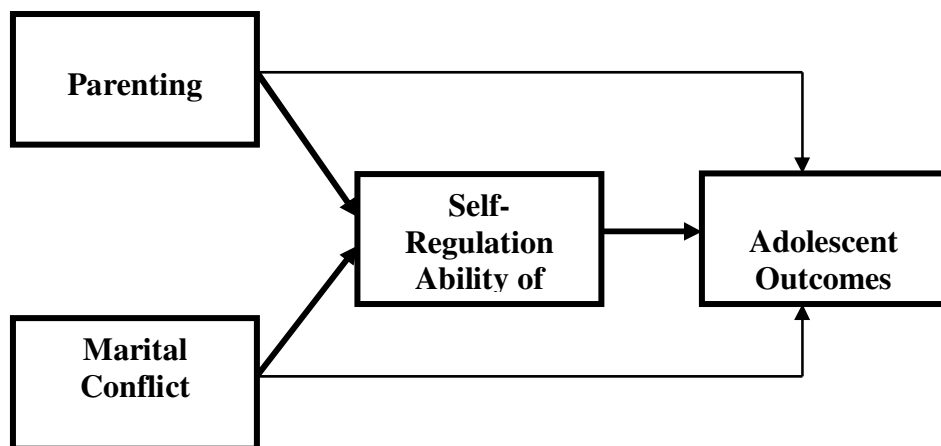


Figure 1. *The Hypothetical Model of the Predictive Relationship between Parental Control, Marital Conflict, Self-Regulation Abilities, and Adolescent Adjustment*

In this study, parenting is conceptualized as the specific parenting behaviors, including parental control behaviors. It is also aimed to examine the effects of different dimensions of parental control on adolescent self-regulation. Previous research indicated that both parenting and self-regulation have a unique (independent) impact on adjustment. These studies, however, have not investigated the unique contribution of specific dimensions of parental control on self-regulation and adjustment behaviors. Specifically, it is expected that parental psychological control would have a negative effect on adolescent adjustment especially by increasing emotional and conduct problems, hyperactivity, peer problems and by decreasing prosocial behaviors and academic self-concept. Based on the past literature and culture-specific expectations, it is also assumed that parental control and adjustment may have a curvilinear association. Whereas low and high levels of parental control would be associate with worst adjustment, moderate level of control might be related with the optimum level of adolescent functioning as well as positive academic self-concept. In the current study, multiple sources of informants, including mothers and adolescents will be used to test these assumed links. Relevant literature on self-regulation and parenting variables will be summarized below.

1.2 Reviews of the Literature on Self-Regulation

In the following section, the various definitions of self-regulation as well as main theoretical perspectives will be presented. The possible outcomes of self-regulation and the risk factors associated with the lack (or low levels) of self-regulation abilities will also be reviewed. This section will be concluded with a brief discussion on the associations among self-regulation, parenting, and interparental conflict.

Because the term self-regulation refers a complex psychological process related to socialization, there is no one standard definition describing self-regulation. Conventional definitions of self-regulation focus on the behaviors such as the ability to comply with requests (for children especially adults') or the ability to adapt one's behavior to particular situations. Other definitions of self regulation focus more on the control of cognitive systems, such as the ability to control

attention, to demonstrate effective thinking and problem solving behavior or to be able to engage in independent activities. In the literature, the concept of self-regulation across theoretical perspectives encompasses the control of emotions and behaviors as well as cognitive processing and ability to engage in prosocial behavior appropriate to a given age (Bronson, 2000).

According to Baumeister and Vohs (2003), the self has an executive function that takes action, chooses an option among many alternatives, filters irrelevant information, and determines appropriate responses. The self exerts control over itself by using both automatic and conscious processes to control and understand external world. How people resist temptations, effortfully persist, and carefully weigh options to select the most optimal course of action in order to reach their goals are main questions of the recent self-regulation theories. Different from Baumeister and Vohs's (2003) conceptualization, Kopp (1982) defines the concept self regulation with respect to external behaviors. According to Kopp;

Self regulation is defined as an ability to comply with a request, to start and cease acts according to situational demands, to adjust the strength, incidence, and duration of acts in social settings, to delay desired object or goal, and to perform socially accepted behaviors in the absence of external monitors (pp.190).

However, self-regulation is not only an internalization of external expectations, but it also includes the self-initiated behaviors and goals (Fitzsimons & Bargh, 2004). Although some researchers draw distinction among the concepts of self-regulation, self-control, and self-discipline, these terms are often used interchangeably. Self-regulation is generally referred the broadest meaning, as it is comprised of both conscious and nonconscious forms of altering the self.

The term self-control has also been used close to the term of self-regulation, although it implies more deliberate and conscious process of altering the self. Self-control refers to the processes by which the self inhibits unwanted responses. It is also related to self-discipline, even though self-discipline is a much narrow concept referring to individual's intentional plans in order to improve themselves in different domains (Baumeister, & Vohs, 2003).

The reviewed definitions of self-regulation have focused on the specific aspects of self-regulation construct with respect to their theoretical background. A

complete review of existing conceptualizations is beyond the scope of the current study, but two basic perspectives will be reviewed briefly; the processes and the products (outcomes) of self-regulation.

1.3 Self-Regulation Process: Conscious or Automatic Responses?

1.3.1 Delay of Gratification

The questions of what self-regulation is and what it involves depend on the theoretical perspective adopted. From the social and motivational psychology perspectives, an answer could be the ability to control and determine one's own behaviors consciously and intentionally. The concept "delay of gratification" is one of the forms of self-regulation. According to Mischel and Ayduk (2004), the delay of gratification represents motivational process and the early form of self-regulation. The process of delaying gratification involves resistance to immediate temptation and regulation of impulsive behaviors typically in the context of more rewarding long-term goals. According to Funder, Block, and Block (1983), delay of gratification can be considered as a sub-form of the more general concept which is named as ego-control. Those with high ego-control can restrain or inhibit their impulses and postpone immediate gratifications. Without the ability to postpone the immediate gratification for the sake of eventual goals, people can not make plans for future, or work for long-term goals (Funder, Block, & Block, 1983). Fundamentally, this ability has an impact on self-regulation skills at the later period of life.

The delay of gratification ability has been used as the indicative of control and different experimental paradigms were developed to assess this ability. The delay of gratification paradigm has been conventionally measured by using the two-choice delay tasks. In these tasks, children are asked to make a choice between an immediately available treat and a more attractive treat at a later time. For example, a child may have to choose between a small toy and a larger, more attractive one, depending on her/his willingness to wait before reaching them. The longer the child is able to wait, the larger her/his reward will be. Another form of two-choice task is called "waiting game" in which while sitting in front of the two rewards (exposed or covered), the child is told to wait until the experimenter returns to the room. If

the child successfully waits for the experimenter to return, s/he will get the larger and more preferred reward. If the child cannot wait the experimenter, he/she may ring the bell to call experimenter, but he/she will only receive the small and less desirable reward. Although these experimental paradigms could be effectively used for younger children (from 1 to 7-years of age), these paradigms are usually ineffective or even problematic for the older children.

There are several reasons regarding why the delay of gratification abilities of older children hasn't been tested successfully. First, it is relatively difficult to have realistic and non-trivial incentives for older children and early adolescents. Second, the meaningful delay intervals for the older group can span for days or weeks rather than a few minutes used for delay tasks in young children. Therefore, the delay of gratification abilities of adolescents and adults, as the indicative of self-regulation, is rarely studied in the previous studies. The delay of gratification abilities were measured only in a few studies during late childhood. Wulfert, Block, Ana, Rodriguez, and Colzman (2002) measured delay of gratification abilities of early adolescents from 14 to 17 years old using monetary incentives. Employing the experimental procedure used by Funder and Block (1989), researchers offered adolescents repeated choices between immediate payments of \$4 after each session or a whole payment (\$28), including interest payment at the end of the study. They found that, compared to adolescents who could delay gratification, those who choose the immediate payment showed more self-regulatory deficits. According to authors, however, in money incentive procedure, because participants might not trust the experimenter and wanted to save money owed them; they might have chosen the immediate offering (less money) rather than long-term reward (more money) (Wulfert, Block, Anna, Rodriguez, and Colzman, 2002).

To better explain the delay of gratification process, Carver and Scheider (1998) posited feedback loops in which individuals must become consciously aware of the discrepancy between the current and desired self-states, then intentionally choose to engage in action to ease this discrepancy. In a similar vein, in their "hot-cool system" model, Metcalfe and Mischel (1999) stated that individuals must consciously and intentionally attempt to control their responses to overcome the influences of the current environment. According to Metcalfe and Mischel (1999), these two types of cognitive processing, namely hot and cool systems, involve

distinct but yet interacting systems. The cool cognitive system is composed of a complex spatiotemporal and episodic representation and thoughts. It is also called as “know system”. The hot emotional system called “go system” involves quick emotional processing and responding on the basis of unconditional and conditional stimuli. Authors assert that self-regulation and goal-directed volition can be seen as the interaction between these two systems. The hot memory systems are activated and the cool systems are deactivated by a threatening stimulus. As a result, for example, when the hot system is activated by the delicious food cues for dieters, it is more difficult to postpone gratification.

1.3.2 Self-Regulatory Strength Model

A well-developed form of self-regulation involves a deliberate and conscious alteration of the self responses, such as making choices, inhibiting a tempting response, or making and carrying out plans. These actions and intentions require a source. According to the self-regulatory strength model proposed by Baumeister and colleagues (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Muraven, & Tice, 1998; Baumeister, Heatherton, & Tice, 1994), these acts of the self requires some form of energy or strength which is limited in capacity. Each act of self-control consumes some of this limited resource and leaves less amount of available energy for the subsequent acts. When this limited resource is depleted (referred to as the “ego depletion” state), self-regulation failure becomes more likely. The core premise of the self-regulatory strength model is that people depend on a limited resource to engage in the acts of self-control. When this resource is reduced, the individual gets in a state of ego- depletion which makes him or her susceptible to self-regulation failure if the resource is not somehow replenished (Baumeister & Vohs, 2003).

The following two-task paradigm is used to manipulate self-regulatory strength in several “ego depletion” studies. Individuals in the ego depletion condition are asked to engage in two subsequent tasks both of which require the exertion of self-control, such as resisting the temptation of eating delicious chocolate candies and eating radishes instead (the first task) and then trying to solve a difficult puzzle (the second task). In contrast, for the participants in the control condition, only the second task that requires self-control exertion is used (e.g., eating chocolates instead of radishes in the first task and working on a difficult

puzzle in the second task). Participants in the control condition are expected to perform better than the ego depletion condition group in the second task. Experiments using this paradigm have demonstrated that ego-depletion impairs physical endurance, persistence, and emotion regulation; hampers reasoning on complex cognitive tasks; increases alcohol consumption; leads to fewer constructive responses to romantic partner's destructive behaviors, and increases self-serving biases and attraction to an alternative partner in romantic relationships (see; Baumeister & Vohs, 2003; Rawn & Vohs, 2006, for extensive reviews).

In addition to the state depletion of regulatory resources, individuals may differ in terms of their chronic tendencies to exert self-control. In the trait perspective, the ability to alter one's behaviors by controlling thoughts, emotions, impulses, and performance is termed as the trait self-control (Tangney, Baumeister, & Boone, 2004). Tangney et al. reported that trait self-control was positively associated with psychological adjustment, self-esteem, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, family cohesion, secure attachment, forgiveness, empathic concern, and perspective taking. Although the individual correlates of the trait self-control have been studied extensively, a few studies have examined the antecedents of self-control abilities (Finkenauer, Engels, & Baumeister, 2005).

1.3.3 Self-Regulation as an Automatic Process

The second theoretical view on self-regulation, which is called as automatic self-regulation, was advanced by Fitzsimons and Bargh (2004). These authors have proposed that self-regulation is the capacity of individuals to guide themselves toward important goal states. Thus, regulation of self involves a wide range of cognitive and motivational actions, such as acting quickly to reach goals, ignoring distractions, taking appropriate positions in response to different situations, and overcoming obstacles. Because of the wide range of the actions, it is concluded that self-regulation is more than willpower or a goal pursuit alone.

Bargh (1990) suggested an auto-motive model of self-regulation as an alternative (or complementary) model to the classic self-regulation theories focusing on conscious choices. According to this model, goal pursuit process which is an important part of the self-regulation process can proceed without any

conscious awareness and guidance. A critical question here is that how can goals operate our behaviors without our knowledge or awareness. First, Fitzsimons and Bargh (2004) proposed that the goals are assumed to be represented in the cognitive system as well as other cognitive constructs (see also Gollwitzer & Bargh, 2005). Second, since goal representations are capable of being activated automatically by the features of one's environment, mere presence of situational cues that strongly associated with the pursuit of these goals. The auto-motive model assumes that similar to other cognitive structures (e.g., attitudes, stereotypes etc.), goals can be automatically activated in the mere presence of relevant environmental cues (Fitzsimons & Bargh, 2004; Greenwald, Banaji, 1995). Auto-motive model states that the automatic self-regulation can occur in the realms of cognition, emotion, and behavior.

Attention allocation and the capacity of working memory are assumed to be an important component of self-regulation success (Fitzsimons & Bargh, 2004). Past studies have demonstrated that even basic cognitive processes, such as attention and working memory can be regulated automatically. In their study, Chartrand and Bargh (1996) showed that participants primed with impression formation goal did recall more behaviors performed by the target than those primed with a memorization goal. Consequently, results supported the expectation that the effect of activated goals is the same whether the activation is nonconscious or through an act of will. In addition to the automaticity of attention and memory, selective remembering and forgetting have also been subjected to regulation by nonconscious processes (Mitchell, Macrae, Schooler, Rowe, & Milne, 2002). Evidence from these studies indicates the key role of automatic processes on regulating and guiding cognition.

Although relatively a few studies have examined nonconscious emotion regulation processes, past studies have also demonstrated that individuals are able to regulate their emotions automatically (Gross, 1998, 1999). Using a process model of emotion regulation, Gross (1998; 1999) argues that emotion regulation activity may occur without conscious awareness, such as well-practiced routines that become automatic by time. Habits, for example, that reduce anxiety such as nail biting (Fitzsimons & Bargh, 2004) or smoking cigarette (Gross, 1999) are examples of automatic emotion regulation. Because of its repetition in lifespan,

these emotion-laden processes can be automatized by using minimal attentional capacity. However, it is unclear that whether activation of emotion regulation goals is possible and if so, whether they consume cognitive sources that are limited. Even though there are limited numbers of studies, there has been extensive research on nonconscious behavioral regulation.

As shown in previous studies, goals influencing social behavior can also be directed by nonconscious processes. In their study, Brandstätter, Lengfelder, and Gollwitzer (2001) showed that behavioral goals were activated by subliminal priming of goal cues. After being exposed to the achievement related words subliminally, participants performed better at a word-search puzzle. Similarly, after subliminal presentation of cooperation-relevant words, participants behaved more cooperative in a dilemma game than did non-primed ones (cited in Bargh & Chartrand, 1999). Automatic processes of regulation cognition, emotion, and behavior have been shown consistency with the auto-motive model of Bargh (1990). However, the question of where these nonconscious regulation sources come from is still unanswered. According to auto-motive model, goals become associated with properties of specific circumstances as a result of their *frequent* and *consistent* occurrence. Consequently, mere the presence of environmental cues can activate goals people pursuit (Bargh, 1990; Fitzsimons & Bargh, 2004). Nevertheless, these are not the only necessary conditions for automatic regulation.

Implementation intentions (e.g., "If I encounter Situation X, then I'll perform Behavior Y") are also assumed to initiate automatic actions (Gollwitzer, 1993, 1999). Individuals construct a mental schema relating environmental cues and goal directed behavioral responses. When a situation occurs, the pre-set behavior is performed automatically without any conscious choice. By implementation intentions, people develop a mental set providing them automatic self-regulatory behaviors without any need for frequent and consistent experiences (Fitzsimons & Bargh, 2004).

Nonconscious self-regulation can function similar to conscious self-regulation, but more efficiently and consistently, and may also complement conscious kinds of self-control with an additional mechanism. Bargh and colleagues (2001) found that nonconscious goal pursuit possesses as similar to the key characteristics of conscious goal pursuit. People persist toward the goal

progress even when obstacles arise; they increase their goal strength when their goals are unfulfilled; and they tend to resume the goal pursuit after disruption. Alternative goals are automatically inhibited in order to maintain focus on the goal being pursued, and temptations seem automatic to activate higher order goals with which they interfere, reminding individuals of their important goal pursuits. Whether it is conscious or automatic process, exhibiting self-regulation always lead to certain consequences, which can be positive or negative in its nature for individuals.

1.4 Consequences of Self-Regulation Success and Failure

Past studies have examined the potential benefits and the costs of self-regulation processes. In an extensive study by Tangney, Baumeister, and Boone (2004), participants who scored low in self-control reported a wide range of negative outcomes including addiction, alcohol abuse, drug abuse, eating disorders and binge eating, unwanted pregnancy, AIDS and other sexually transmitted diseases, debt and bankruptcy, lack of savings, violent and criminal behavior, underachievement in school and work, procrastination, smoking, and lack of exercise. Authors concluded that all of these negative outcomes could be reduced or eliminated if people controlled their behavior better. Specifically, people with high self-control (self-regulation ability) had better grades, as compared with people low in self-control. People with high self-control have also been found to show fewer impulse control problems, such as binge eating and alcohol use (Tangney, Baumeister, & Boone, 2004). It is also found that people with high self-control reported better psychological adjustment with respect to psychopathological symptoms including somatization, obsessive-compulsive patterns, depression, anxiety, hostile anger, phobic anxiety, paranoid ideation, and psychoticism. They also reported higher self-acceptance and self-esteem. In addition to the individual difference variables, self-control has been found to be related with interpersonal functioning. For example, Eisenberg et al. (1997) found that high social functioning quality was predicted by high self-regulation. Moreover, research on early form of self-regulation; delay of gratification suggest a similar pattern in which effective capacity to delay gratification at early age predicted better interpersonal

relationships in early adulthood (Sethi, Mischel, Aber, Shoda, and Rodriguez, 2000).

Other studies have extended these findings for different outcomes, such as the costs of self-regulation. For example, Tice and Baumeister (1997) found that procrastinators (who regulate their time-limited performances ineffectively) suffered greater stress and health problems than other students and also ended up with poorer grades. Similarly, Engels, Finkenauer, den Exter Blokland, and Baumeister (2000) found that adolescents with low self-control were more likely to engage in delinquent behaviors, such as fighting, vandalism, and petty theft, and they also had reported worse relationships with their parents.

Up to now, literature on self-regulation was reviewed and it has been showed that when studying self-regulation, researchers usually tend to focus on either the processes of regulation, such as the motivation to self-regulate or using specific techniques for regulation or the outcomes of self-regulatory actions implying the degrees of success or failure associated with self-regulation. The current study will mainly focus on the outcomes of self-regulation.

1.5 Development of Self-Regulation and Implications for Parenting

Self-regulation ability is assumed be highly sensitive to developmental changes. In her review, Kopp (1982) summarized developmental path of self-regulation process. According to Kopp, the growth of self-regulation begins in infancy approximately from second month on and five stages were proposed for the development of self-regulation.

The first stage, called neurophysiological modulation, refers to the organization of reflex movements and the arousal states as well as modulation of external stimulus. The infant's behaviors become more predictable starting from two to three months. In this stage, the caregiver's role is viewed as an assisting one, responding to the infant's varying states and providing external support and modulation.

The second stage of self-regulation development involves sensorimotor regulation. Kopp (1982) asserted that infant develops the ability to alter behavior in response to events occurring in the environment at approximately from three months to 12 months. Although this type of regulation is not intentional or driven

by any motivational processes, altering behaviors are discovered accidentally. Associations between these altering behaviors are strengthened through conditioning. According to Kopp (1982), caregiver's sensitivity and responsiveness are also critical during this period. The reactions of caregiver during this period are typically in response to the basic habits of the infant (e.g., thumb sucking). Throughout this period, infant becomes highly dependent on the caregiver's impressions.

Kopp's (1982) third phase involves the beginning of the awareness of social demands, as well as some control skills from age 12 to 18 months. By this stage, the child starts to perform the ability to initiate, and stop activity in response to external demands. The key achievements during this stage are compliance with the demands of caregivers, and ability to initiate behavior. In this stage, child gains language skills, the caregiver is more of an organizer in directing the child's behaviors (see also McCabe, Cunnington, and Brooks-Gunn, 2004).

In the fourth stage, self-control involves development of representational thinking and recollection of memory from the age of 18 to 24 months. According to Kopp (1982), these cognitive developments provide child to remember previous events and modulate behaviors as a result. The child can also remember socially acceptable behaviors even in the absence of caregivers or other significant external control images. But there is limited flexibility in applying these memories to new situations.

In the fifth stage, Kopp (1982) proposed that the child starts to display clear evidence of self-regulation around the age of 2 years as the child's awareness of self emerges. In her review, she distinguished between self-control and self-regulation and claims that self-control precedes self-regulation by emphasizing on the contingency rules. She stated that:

Self-regulation in contrast to self-control involves the ability to use numerous contingency rules to guide behavior, to maintain appropriate monitoring for appreciable lengths of time and any number of situations, and to learn to produce a series of approximations to standards of expectations. The shift from self-control to self-regulation, though probably quite subtle and gradual, parallels the growth of cognitive skills that is also gradual in the early preschool period (Kopp, 1982; pp 210).

However, Kopp (1982) suggests that true self-regulation cannot emerge until the preschool years when the child becomes capable of complying with others' requests and behave appropriately in the lack of external monitoring. During these years, children are increasingly capable of internal self-regulation using rules, goal-directed plans and are expected to be able to regulate their own emotions and behaviors in an appropriate way (Grolnick, Deci, and Ryan, 1997). Sethi, Mischel, Aber, Shoda, and Rodriguez (2000) claimed that children at preschool years are expected to "delay, defer, and accept substitutions without becoming aggressive or disorganized by frustration, challenge or fatigue". Although several studies have emphasized young child's self-regulation skills, few studies have focused on regulation abilities of early adolescences (Finkenauer, Engels, & Baumeister, 2005). Considering these fragile years, youth's failure and success of self-regulation carry an important role. Therefore, the current study aims to investigate the self-regulatory abilities during early adolescences.

The quality of caregiver-child relationship during the preschool years impacts the maturation process of regulatory abilities. There is a consensus in the literature that self-regulation follows a pathway from external to internal control during early childhood (Kopp, 1982). The child learns self-regulatory skills from their caregivers, especially from their mothers. Therefore, the influence of caregivers in the development of self-regulation is of utmost importance. Development of self-regulation during childhood is frequently attributed to parental socialization through which individuals adopt and internalize beliefs, worldviews, and behaviors consistent with their parents' values (Kopp, 1982).

According to socialization theories on parenting, children's socialization is facilitated by various parental behaviors, skills, and attitudes which are embedded within the broader context of interparental and parent-child relationships (Laible & Thompson, 2007). Parents' actions communicate the limits of acceptable behavior and model regulatory strategies, while the relational context may increase or decrease the likelihood that children will adopt behaviors prescribed by caregivers. For example, a mother's repeated attempts to model strategies for controlling negative emotions in public may be ignored if the mother-child relationship is highly hostile or distant. The role of the parental behaviors and interparental context in self-regulation will be briefly reviewed in the following section.

1.6 Parenting as a Socialization Instrument

Children's socialization is facilitated through discrete parenting behaviors (e.g., positive reinforcement for acceptable behaviors, or harsh punishment for unacceptable emotional displays), which are embedded within the broader context of parent-child relationships characterized by mutually-responsive interactions, or nonsynchronized, unfulfilling exchanges (Darling & Steinberg, 1993). Parental socialization studies have focused primarily on two problems: (1) understanding, describing, and organizing child raising behaviors of parents, and (2) determining whether and to what extent these child-rearing behaviors affect cognitive, behavioral, and emotional development of children.

The term parenting includes a vast number of conceptualizations such as parenting practices, parenting styles, and parenting attitudes. Parenting practices are behaviors defined by specific content and socialization goals. Parental attendance to school activities or spanking is both examples of parenting practices. Parenting styles are defined as a constellation of attitudes toward the child that are communicated to the child and create an emotional climate in which parenting behaviors are expressed (Darling, & Steinberg, 1993; Stevenson-Hinde, 1998).

As one of the pioneers of parenting studies, Baumrind (1991a) investigated the patterns of parental authority or the manners by which parents influence their offspring to become socially responsible and independent. Her studies resulted in three types of parenting styles: the authoritarian, the permissive, and the authoritative parenting styles. These parenting typologies are based on the concepts of responsiveness and demandingness and how a parent's uses these styles to develop social competence in their children. Baumrind (1996) describes responsiveness and demandingness as the following:

Responsiveness refers to the extent to which parents intentionally foster individuality and self-assertion by being attuned, supportive, and acquiescent to children's needs and demands...Demandingness refers to the claims that parents make on children to become integrated into the family and community by their maturity expectations, supervision, disciplinary efforts, and willingness to confront a disputative child (pp. 410-411).

An authoritarian parenting style is conceptualized by the parent's attempt to shape, control, and evaluate the behavior and attitudes of their children in

accordance with an absolute set of standards. Parents tend to emphasize obedience, respect to authority, tradition, and reservation of order (Baumrind, 1996). She showed that children from this type of parenting usually demonstrated low levels independence and social responsibility. In authoritarian parenting, parents are detached, controlling and less warm than other parents. These parents are highly demanding but they are low on responsiveness to their child (Baumrind, 1996; 1991a).

Parents with permissive style are tolerant and accepting toward their child's impulses. There are few demands placed on the child and parents used the least amount of punishment. Children of these parents were found to have less social responsibility, impulse control, independence, and self-reliance as compared to the children of parents with other parenting styles. In permissive parenting, children have parents who exercise a lack of control, are non-demanding and relatively responsiveness. Moreover, these children are less willing to persist when frustration is encountered, and demonstrate an unwillingness to comply or be responsible (Baumrind, 1991a).

In authoritative parenting style, there is a clear expectation of mature behavior from the child and obvious standard setting by parents. Children whose parents are authoritative in their parenting style are the most self-reliant, self-controlled, explorative, and content. These parents exhibit a combination of high control and positive encouragement of their child's autonomy and independent endeavors. These parents enforce rules and standards using directives and consequences when necessary. They encourage their children to be individuals and independent. An authoritative parent can be summarized in the following three words: "warmth, control, and democracy" (Steinberg, Lamborn, Dornbusch, & Darling, 1992). Authoritative parenting is related with the most positive outcomes as compared to other styles

In addition to this typology, Baumrind's early research focused on the role of the parental authority on child development. She began by articulating and extending the concept of parental control. In her conceptualization, the concept of control was defined as strictness, use of physical punishment, consistency of punishment. However, she also mentioned that parent's willingness to socialize their child is conceptually distinct from parental restrictiveness. From this

perspective, she used the concept parental control to refer to parent's attempts to integrate their offspring into the family and society by demanding behavioral compliance (cited in Darling & Steinberg, 1993).

As in Baumrind's (1991a) parenting typology, in several theoretical perspectives, parenting has been described on the basis of different developmental outcomes focusing on different socialization processes. Moreover, many researchers have defined the concept of parenting style on the dimensions of control exerted within the family and nurturance. For example, one of the earliest classifications on parental behaviors, Baldwin (1948) identified parental behaviors as the amount of control, democracy, and activity. After this identification, Becker (1964; cited in Baumrind, 1991a) proposed her parenting classification. She described three aspects of parental behavior that she labeled; love versus hostility, restrictiveness versus permissiveness, and anxious emotional involvement versus calm detachment. Subsequently, Schaefer (1965a; 1965b) proposed his conceptualization about parenting and developed the Children's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) which is one of the earliest indexes of parenting. Based on Schaefer's (1965a) factor analysis of ratings of parental behavior, parenting has been started to be described as three basic dimensions, acceptance versus rejection, psychological control versus psychological autonomy, and firm control versus lax control. The results of the factor analyses in previous studies revealed that acceptance versus rejection dimension consisted of parenting characterized at positive side by positive evaluation, sharing, expression of affection, emotional support, and at the negative side by irritability, negative evaluation, and rejection. Psychological control versus psychological autonomy dimension were intrusiveness, suppression of aggression, control through guilt, and parental direction. However, a few aspects such as possessiveness, protectiveness, strictness, punishment, and nagging were cross-loaded (Schaefer, 1965a). Finally, the firm versus lax control dimension consisted of lax discipline and extreme autonomy at the lax control pole and punishment and strictiveness at the firm control pole. Following these parenting studies, Barber (1994; 1996) reviewed parent-child studies extensively, and concluded the two basic dimensions that are parental control and support, which are widely used in the recent studies.

1.7 Parental Control

The term parental control has a number of dimensions and a rather complex structure that lead to ambiguities and controversies regarding whether it is actually beneficial or detrimental to children (Barber, 2002; Grolnick, 2003). Grolnick (2003) emphasized this ambiguity by pointing different conceptualizations of the term “control”. The concept of control may be attributed to the often equated notions of parents “being in control”, normally related to positive developmental effects on children, and “being controlling” usually associated with negative developmental effects on children.

A parent who is “in control” provides a rich environment that can be optimal to child development by making age-appropriate demands, setting limits, and monitoring behavior appropriately (Grolnick, 2003). This form of control is most often referred to as behavioral control in the literature (Barber, 1996). A parent who is “controlling” emphasizes on compliance, pressures children toward specified goals, and discourages interactive discussion (Grolnick, 2003). These parents do not respect their children’s viewpoints. This form of the control usually is referred the term psychological control. Various numbers of dimensions of this type of control have been labeled in a broad range (e.g., conditional regard, love withdrawal, corporal punishment, discipline, developmentally inappropriate maturity demands, intrusiveness, punishment, guilt induction, verbal restriction etc.). This distinction between psychological and behavioral control is also based on two main assumptions that is related to the requirements of child development. Firstly, it includes a sufficient level of psychological autonomy by which child learns social interactions to develop personal identity. Another fundamental presupposition is that adequate regulation of behavior enables child to learn that social interactions have rules and structures. These rules and structures have to be recognized in order to be a competent member of society (Barber, Olsen, & Shagle, 1994).

Researchers have also interested in the effects of control on child or adolescent development. The effects of control often vary from weak to strong, from positive to negative, and from linear to non-linear (Barber, 2001; 1996). The majority of studies on parental control have been focused on the two main areas

psychological and behavioral control. These two types of control will be reviewed in the following section

1.7.1 Psychological Control

Interest in studies on parental psychological control began in early 1990s as a result of the work by Steinberg and his colleagues (Steinberg, Lamborn, Dornbusch, & Darling, 1992). Although typological or aggregated approaches to parenting, such as Baumrind's parenting typology, have been useful in understanding the general approaches of parenting and their impacts on child development, Steinberg and his colleagues (1992) asserted that more detailed analysis of specific parenting behaviors would be helpful in providing new understanding regarding the etiologies of specific types of child adjustment. Steinberg and his colleagues (1992) separated authoritative parenting into three distinct components: acceptance, behavioral control, and psychological control/autonomy granting. They showed that these components have differential effects on adolescent outcomes, such as academic achievement, behavioral problems, and internalizing problems (Barber, 1996; Gray & Steinberg, 1999). The recent research findings also showed that each parenting dimension is related to the child functioning in unique and specific ways (Barber, 1996; Bean, Bush, McKenry, & Wilson, 2003).

There is a consensus in the literature that psychological control can be defined as an intrusive and manipulative form of control that intrude into the psychological and emotional development of child or adolescent (e.g. feelings, verbal expressions, identity, attachment bonds, etc.) (Barber, 2001; 1996).

A psychologically controlled context prevents child from the development a healthy awareness and perception of self for several reasons. First of all, psychologically controlling parent denigrates the child implicitly and do not provide adequate opportunities to develop sense of personal efficacy (Barber, 1996). Supporting this, research findings have shown that psychological control is positively related with internalized problem behaviors (Stone, Buehler, & Barber, 2002; Olsen et.al., 2002; Barber, Olsen & Shagle, 1994; Fauber, Forehand, Thomas, & Wierson, 1990), such as depression (Barber, 1996), low ego-strength (Hauser, et.al, 1984), and anxiety (Pettit & Laird, 2002). Past research also revealed

a link between psychological control and externalized problems (Barber, 1996; Gray & Steinberg, 1999).

Barber and Harmon (2002) classified the specific descriptions of parental psychological control into two main types; manipulative and constraining parental control. They defined manipulative parenting as an attempt to shape the children's behavior or adjust the emotional balance between parents and children by using three main strategies: guilt induction, love withdrawal, and instilling anxiety. Constraining parents repress their children's verbal behavior and inhibit the children's self-discovery and expression. In addition to these two basic dimensions, other characterizations of parental behaviors and/or attitudes including personal attack, high parental expectations, and erratic emotional behaviors are considered neither manipulative nor constraining but have been linked to psychological control (Barber, 1996; Barber & Harmon, 2002).

In this study, the manipulative type of parental psychological control is taken into account. Therefore, the main focus of the current study is to examine the different manipulative psychological control behaviors and their effects on self-regulation and child outcomes. It has been shown that the constraining type of parental psychological control is mainly associated with autonomy support involving a control over children's self-discovery and expression by limiting verbal behavior (Barber, 2005). Manipulative parental psychological control is exerted using a number of controlling behaviors. Some of them will be reviewed below.

1.7.1.1 Guilt Induction

There is debate regarding whether guilt induction is beneficial or detrimental to child development. According to Grolnick (2003), regardless of the valance of the effect on the child, guilt induction is used by parents with good intentions to provide the best for their children. Similarly, Tangney and Dearing (2002) defined inducing guilt as a motivation of the child in a more "moral direction" to precipitate corrective action. In fact, the presence of guilt induction has been linked to the development of prosocial behaviors, including altruism, empathy, and social perspective taking (Tangney, & Dearing, 2002). However, it is also claimed that guilt induction has the potential to do harm by fostering resentment that can negatively affect familial relationships and by producing

exaggerated feelings of responsibility that overwhelm the child and focus the child's attention on the needs of others (Barber, & Harmon, 2002). The different views on the impact of guilt induction may be partly attributable to the constructs of reasoning or induction (Smith, 1983). On the one hand, reasoning emphasizes the negative conclusions of child's misbehaviors on others and is thought to be effective because it develops the empathic abilities. On the other hand, induction reveals the parent's displeasure with the child's behaviors and it controls the child through communications or actions that lead the child to believe that s/he has caused the parent emotional pain. It is thought that the latter form is more emotionally intense and manipulative than reasoning.

1.7.1.2 Love Withdrawal

Another form of manipulating psychological control is withdrawal of love from child. Love withdrawal implies for the child that the parents are dissatisfied with the child's behavior and try to control the child through separation or threat of separation from the parent, so that the child loses parental attention or affection (Grolnick, 2003). Love withdrawal is manipulative in the sense that the parents' affection and involvement is *conditional* (Barber & Harmon, 2002). Children's need for love, attention, and approval from their parents are critical aspects that last across the lifespan. Practices based on the manipulation of these needs and threatening the child with the loss of support are expected to have detrimental effects on children and may lead to low self-esteem, and internalizing problems (Grolnick, 2003).

1.7.2 Behavioral Control

As mentioned in the previous sections, Grolnick's (2003) conceptualization of "being in control" versus "being controlling" mirrors distinct control constructs; behavioral versus psychological control. Behavioral control refers to attempting to control or manage child behavior. Contrary to psychological control, there is a plenty of findings indicating the positive impacts of parental behavioral control on child functioning. Specific dimensions of behavioral control consist of various parenting behaviors, such as supervision (Kurdek, & Fine, 1995), monitoring (Brown, Mounts, Lamborn, & Steinberg, 1993), and demandingness (Baumrind,

1991a; Maccoby, & Martin, 1983). Children experiencing inadequate behavioral control are at greater risk for the development of externalized problem behaviors (Barber & Olsen, 1994) and antisocial behavior (Barber, Stolz, & Olsen, 2005). The link between behavioral control and externalizing behaviors can be explained in two plausible ways: (1) parental behavioral control facilitates self-regulation abilities of children and their engagement in socially approved behaviors; (2) children experiencing inadequate behavioral control (in other words, unsupervised children) are more likely to be influenced by peers, some of whom may encourage risk-taking and deviant behaviors (e.g., delinquency) (Barber, Stolz, & Olsen, 2005). Barber (1996; 1994) pointed out that adolescents appear to be adversely affected by psychological control, but positively influenced by behavioral control. He also noted that insufficient behavioral control deprives the need for guidance and supervision of adolescent and therefore causes a risk for developmental difficulties.

1.8 Parental Control and Adolescent Adjustment

Whereas some studies on parental control have assumed linear relationship between parental behaviors and adolescent adjustment (Barber, et.al., 2005; Barber, 1996), a few studies have found a U-shape, curvilinear association between parental control and adolescent outcomes (Mason, Cauce, Gonzales, & Hiraga, 1996; Miller, McCoy, Olson, & Wallace, 1986). Although results of these studies are inconsistent, in general, parental psychological control is typically viewed as uniformly negative, whereas behavioral control is assessed as uniformly positive.

According to the coercive theory of Patterson and Loeber (1984), too much psychological and/or behavioral control interferes with a younger child's ability to form appropriate prosocial behaviors, whereas low behavioral control implicated in association with peer problem in adolescence. In other words, while too much control inhibits the development of autonomy, which is necessary for the development of self-control, too little control can lead to adolescent "wandering" (Mason, Cauce, Gonzales, & Hiraga, 1996; Steinberg, Lamborn, Dornbusch, & Darling, 1992). Similarly, Baumrind (1991b) proposed that moderate level rather than high or low levels of both acceptance and control positively influence the well-being of adolescents. Contrary to this "*moderate control is the best*" hypothesis,

some researchers have reported steep increases in adolescents' psychological competence at the upper levels of control (Kurdek, & Fine, 1994). Different patterns of the relationship between parenting and child outcome may be due to the cultural settings. As Darling and Steinberg (1993) proposed, parenting may vary across different ecologies because parents may have different goals, representing cultural norms through which children are socialized. For instance, according to Olsen et. al., (2002), some aspects of psychological control, especially, shaming, guilt induction, and love withdrawal seem to be a prevalent part of Chinese children's socialization. They asserted that it is believed that awareness of shame or guilt may push a child to improve his or her performance. Children who have behavioral or unacceptable problems may be blamed by parents. These children perceived these kinds of behaviors "normal" and/or corrective and acceptance behaviors. Similarly, it is found in Turkish cultural settings that some intrusive or overprotective parental behaviors were perceived as parental warmth and involvement (Sumer, et. al, 2008). Further research is needed to explore the specific nature of linear or curvilinear relationships.

A limited number of studies have documented the interplay between different kinds of parental control variables influencing adolescent adjustment (Aunola & Nurmi, 2004; Barber, Stolz, & Olsen, 2005; Barber, 1996; Barber, Olsen & Shagle, 1994; Galambos, et. al., 2003). Aunola and Nurmi (2004) found that a high level of psychological control exercised by mothers predicted their children's academic performance in mathematics negatively when behavioral control was low. Similarly, Barber, Stolz, and Olsen (2005) reported that parental psychological control had the strongest association with antisocial behavior when parental support was low.

1.9 Interparental Context

In addition to the effects of parental control dimensions, conflictual marital environment in which children are exposed to, have been assumed to have an impact on child adjustment independently or by interacting with parenting control variables (Davies, & Cummings, 1994). Marital conflict has been claimed to disrupt parents' ability to share positive affect and warmth with their children and increase the tendency to use more power-oriented control strategies that seem to undermine

children's conscience development and early self-regulation (Volling, Blandon, & Kolak, 2006). Thompson and Calkins (1996) asserted that children in conflictual marriages employ the regulatory processes that promote both risk and adaptation. The preschoolers, dysregulated by their parents' conflict, attempted to maintain a sense of control and well-being by expressly denying their distress and behavioral disruption (Martin, & Clements, 2002).

Indeed, conflict between spouses is an inevitable aspect of all marriages. However, interparental conflict may also be an important source of stress for their children, especially when it occurs frequently, involves intense expression of anger, hostility, or aggression (Cummings & Davies, 1994). A large body of research has documented the associations between such destructive marital conflict and a range of adjustment problems and peer relation problems in children (for reviews see Cummings & Davies, 1994; Grych & Fincham, 1990). Although the relationship between marital discord and child adjustment has been well documented, few studies have focused on link between marital conflict and the regulatory skills of adolescents. Based on the previous work in this arena, in this study, it is assumed that marital conflict would have an effect on children's self-regulatory skills as well as parental behaviors.

Several hypotheses attempting to explain the potential bond between marital discord and negative child outcome have been proposed in previous studies. The two main hypotheses in this literature are the *direct effects models*, including the sensitization hypothesis, modeling, stressor role of the parent conflict, and *indirect effects models*, including parent-child relationship and emotional security hypothesis.

According to the direct effects models, the negative effects of children's interparental conflict exposure can be accounted for by direct mechanisms. One of the direct effects models is *the sensitization hypothesis*. This hypothesis purports that as compared to children exposed to less interparental conflict, children who are exposed to more to conflict have greater aggressive reactions in response to experiencing interparental conflict (Davies & Cummings, 1994). Children from a high conflictual environment respond to their parents with increased level of anger, stress, aggression, and show more involvement in argument (Cummings, Pellegrini, Notarius, Cummings, 1989).

It is well-known that children imitate their parents' behaviors (Bandura, 1977; Piaget, 2002). This popular argument makes *modeling* a direct effects explanation for the linkage between interparental conflict and children's problems (Davies & Cummings, 1994). According to Belsky (2001), parents represent prevailing models for their child, in the relationship context. Thus, children learn much about interpersonal relationship from their parents. Parents may be inadvertently providing maladaptive models for behavior during interpersonal relationships. This hypothesis asserts that modeling also involves the transference of information about behavior as well as imitation of behavior (Grych & Fincham, 1990). For instance, to resolve conflict, child also learns that aggression is an appropriate manner, and then he/she may become more aggressive with the peers involving conflictual situations. According to Davies and Cummings (1994), experiencing parental discord is a fundamental *stressor* for children. Further, it has been underlined that chronic experience to this stressor and child adjustment disorders have a reciprocal relationship in which each construct deteriorates the impacts of the other (Grych & Fincham, 1990). Consequently, frequent parental conflict is a source of stress for the child and it increases the likelihood of adjustment problems, and in turn, these adjustment problems also increase parental conflict.

Indirect effects models, however, purports the mediation of a third variable which affects the relationship between marital discord and child adjustment. *Emotional security* and *emotional regulation* hypotheses are examples of the indirect effects models.

According to *emotional security hypothesis*, Davies and Cummings (1994) assumed that marital conflict adversely affect the child-parent relationship quality, parenting behaviors quality, and the quality of the children's attachment to their parents. Davies and Cummings (1994) also asserted that marital distress affects child-rearing abilities, and nurturance responsibilities of parents. Consistent with this argument, parental discord has been found to be related with decreased emotional support, and inconsistent parental behaviors (Fauber, Forehand, Thomas, & Wierson, 1990; Fincham, Grych, & Osborne, 1994). These family variables have also been found to be associated child adjustment, such as conduct and emotional problems (Fincham, Grych, & Osborne, 1994).

The *emotional regulation hypothesis* claims that children not only respond to exposure conflict, but also actively appraise and process the interparental implications and meaning of the discord for the family relationships. As a result of the parental arguments, familial climate become unpleasant, emotional availability of caretakers can reduce and the child feels insecure. Additionally, these discords result in deterioration of parent-child relationship and it has implications for values of the family (Cummings, & Davies, 1994). Emotionally regulated children have confidence in the stability and predictability of parental relationships; they have a belief that conflict will be resolved, and also have confidence in physical availability of their parents. Parental conflict doesn't pose a threat for emotionally well-regulated children's psychological well-being (Cummings, & Davies, 1994).

Despite these theoretical assertions that regulatory development is likely to be facilitated by positive relationships with significant others (Daniels, Dunn, Furstenberg, & Plomin, 1985; Grusec & Goodnow, 1994), interparental conflict has been studied less extensively than specific parenting practices in regard to self-regulation. Previous studies indicated that only two studies provided indirect evidence that interparental conflict was associated with the self-regulation failure in early and middle childhood. In Pott, et. al's study (2007) with the infants aged from 4 to 30 months, mothers who reported high interparental conflict with their husbands reported that their infant had worse behavior inhibition. In another study by Marcus, Lindahl, and Malik (2001) on children aged from 7 and 13, conflictual family environment was linked to the lower levels of social problem solving abilities. These studies, however, have not examined the direct and independent effects of the parenting together with marital conflict on children's self-regulation and adjustment. By the current study, the unique impact of interparental conflict on adolescent self-regulatory abilities will be tested.

1.10 Psychological and Behavioral Control, Marital Conflict and Self-Regulation in Adolescence

Parental control, especially psychological control, seems to hinder the healthy development of children's self-regulation. Grolnick, Ryan, and Deci (1997) asserted that over-controlling parents fail to provide children with valuable information to make estimation on their own by presenting too many potential

strategies which make difficult to select the best alternative for the child. Besides, controlling parents tend to present age-inappropriate strategies that are too simple or too complex to adopt and apply for children. Compared to psychologically controlling parents, children whose parents set clear standards and monitor school progress tend to regulate their self better and generally show higher levels of competence in social and cognitive areas.

A few studies have examined how parental (behavioral) control continues to support the development of self-regulation in adolescence. Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, Mounts, and Dornbusch (1994) showed that authoritative parenting were associated with adolescent's self-reliance which is conceptually close to self-regulation, whereas, adolescents with authoritarian parents had the worst self-reliance. Adolescents with neglectful parents didn't differ from adolescents with authoritarian parents with respect to their self-reliance. Similarly, Deci and Ryan (1985) asserted that induction, reasoning, explanation, and democratic parenting are positively associated with adolescents' performance in the absence of parents' supervision. Although past studies have revealed associations between parenting behaviors and self-regulation (e.g., Finkenauer et. al., 2005), how specific dimensions of parental control (e.g., psychological and behavioral control) promote or prevent self-regulatory abilities are still unexplored.

Psychologically controlling parents use psychological manipulations which undermine their children's attempts to develop independent regulation strategies. These manipulations also prevent children's experience of autonomous regulation and opportunity to gain understanding of when self-regulation is necessary. Moilanen (2005) exemplified this process with a case study of parent-child interaction in which there is a stressed parent and bored child driving home from school. In this case, parent who says "I will stop loving you if you don't sit still for this 10 minute ride" requires her child to be still in response to her/his own needs, despite the child's own need for action after a boring day in the school. Moilanen (2005) asserted that in this situation, child misses three important lessons; the first of which s/he loses the opportunity to perform voluntarily inhibiting his behavior. Secondly, s/he fails to obtain chance to learn how to identify behaviors that need to be inhibited. Finally, s/he cannot learn to identify social signals indicating that sitting still is appropriate behavior in this situation. Consistent with this instance,

Barber and Harmon (2002) found that the inconsistent and intrusive types of control are linked with poorer social and emotional competence. Similarly, Hauser et. al. (1984) showed a significant association between low level of constraining behavior and high level ego-development. The current study aims to extend previous findings by examining the relationship between specific dimensions of parental control and self-regulation of adolescents.

Behavioral control is also suggested to be associated with the development of self-regulation among children and adolescents. Although adolescents are under the increased influence of peers and they value their own sense of autonomy to a greater extent, parental behaviors were found to be critical for self-regulation abilities during adolescence (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Children learn how to control their own behavior by internalized parental directives or by imposition of external behavioral control. Children internalize these parental and social values for their behavioral control (Moilanen, 2005). Therefore, children's or adolescent's self-regulation is guided by parental expectations and boundaries.

1.11 Adolescent Adjustment

Adjustment during adolescence is usually examined considering the externalizing and internalizing behaviors, such as emotional, conduct, peer problems, and hyperactivation/inattention in previous studies. The same conceptualization will be used the current study. In addition to behavior problems, adolescent's own perception of academic self-efficacy will also be examined in relation to the various parental control dimensions, marital conflict and self-regulation abilities. Both adjustment problems and academic self-efficacy will be reviewed briefly in the following sections.

Considering that self-regulation and negative parenting have typically been associated with externalizing and internalizing problems among adolescents (Barber, 1996; Tangney, Baumeister, & Boone, 2004), a number of behavioral problems including externalizing (conduct), and internalizing (emotional) problem behaviors, prosocial behaviors, inattention/hyperactivity measured by Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (Goodman, 1997), and academic self-concept of adolescents were selected as the indicators of adjustment. Consistently, unlike negative parenting, positive parenting and good regulatory abilities have been

found to be associated with better academic performance, achievement, and prosocial behaviors (Barber, Stolz & Olsen, 2005).

1.11.1 Externalizing Problem Behaviors

Externalizing problems have been thought to be the undercontrolled behaviors, such as substance abuse or delinquent behavior (Moilanen, 2005). In adolescent years, these externalizing behaviors tend to increase gradually (Kim, Hetherington, & Reiss, 1999). Self-regulation abilities have typically been found to be related with the externalizing problems among adolescents. Specifically, low levels of self regulation have been associated with higher levels of externalizing problems and substance abuse (Galambos, Barker, & Almeida, 2003; Tangney, et al., 2004). Furthermore, Finkenauer, Engels, and Baumeister (2005) reported an association between hostility, anger, aggression, and low levels of self-control.

In addition, high levels of parental psychological control have been found to be linked with externalizing problem behaviors (Barber, Harmon, 2002; Barber, 1996). For instance, Barnes and Farrell (1992) found that psychological control by each parent was related to increased alcohol consumption among adolescents age 13 to 16. However, past research findings on this association are inconsistent. For example, Bean, Barber, and Crane (2006) did not find a significant relationship between maternal and paternal psychological control and child externalizing problems of delinquency, peer problems among African American youth. Indeed, the mixed findings on the link between parental psychological control and outcome variables may be associated with cultural differences on the implications of psychological control. Considering Barnes and Farrell's (1992) and Bean, Barber, and Crane's (2006) studies, different dimensions of psychological control may be perceived differently by children from various cultures.

Contrary to the mixed findings concerning the parental psychological control, the findings about the impacts of parental behavioral control are less varied and complex. Low levels of parental behavioral control have been linked to externalizing problem behaviors such as drug use, and swearing (Barber, Olsen, Shagle, 1994). In a study with African American youth, lower levels of parental behavioral control were tied with delinquency (Bean, Barber, & Crane, 2006). These results are consistent with the previous works in which adequate parental

behavioral control is associated with positive child adjustment (Barber, Maughan & Olsen, 2005; Barber, Stolz & Olsen, 2005)

Convergent results from previous studies suggest a potential association between the exposure to interparental conflict and externalizing problems (Emery, Fincham, & Cummings, 1992; Emery & O’Leary, 1982; 1984; Katz & Gottman, 1993). According to Emery, Fincham, and Cummings (1992), the frequent exposure to parental discord is one of the strongest predictor for externalizing behavior of children and adolescents. Children with high conflictual family environment have demonstrated low social competence (Jouriles, Bourg, & Farris, 1991). In their study, Jouriles, Murphy, and O’Leary (1989) showed the unique contribution of marital discord on the prediction of conduct disorders and peer problems while controlling alcoholism, divorce, abuse, and parental psychopathology.

1.11.2 Internalizing Problem Behaviors

Internalizing problem behaviors are generally conceptualized by “turning in” symptoms such as depression, anxiety, and withdrawal (Moilanen, 2005). Similar to externalizing behaviors, internalizing problems become more prevalent in the second decade of the life (Goodman, 1997).

Internalizing problems have also been found to be related with self-regulation abilities of children and adolescents (Tangney, Baumeister, & Boone, 2004; Finkenauer, Engels, & Baumeister, 2005). Compared to externalizing problems, internalizing problem behaviors have been studied less frequently. Generally, the term “underregulation” has been attributed to one of the popular internalizing problem, depression. In one study, depressed people tend to report lower levels of self-control than non-depressed individuals (Tangney, Baumeister, & Boone, 2004). Similarly, depressed children showed poorer performance on an attention regulation task than non-depressed children (Lengua, 2002). However, it is still unclear whether people with poor self-regulatory abilities are more likely to become depressed or whether depression deteriorates self-regulatory abilities. Although this study will not examine this unanswered question, it can be claimed that a vicious circle occurs, in which internalizing difficulties lead to self-regulation difficulties, and in turn poor self-regulation skills result in internalizing problems.

Generally, internalizing problems have also been associated with parental psychological control, specifically with emotional problems in adolescence years (Barber, 1994; 1996). Whereas psychological control is one of the stronger predictors of adolescents' internalizing problems, behavioral control is negatively associated with internalizing problem behaviors (Barber, 1994; Galambos, Barker, & Almedia, 2003).

In addition to self-regulation and parental control, the exposure to interparental conflict has been demonstrated to be linked with the internalizing problem behaviors (Fantuzzo, et al., 1991). Children from conflictual family environment tend to report high internalizing problems, such as anxiety, depression, and withdrawal (Fincham, Grych, & Osborne, 1994). However, it is not clear how psychological and behavioral control interact with interparental conflict in predicting internalizing problem behaviors.

1.11.3 Academic Self-Concept

In addition to externalizing and internalizing problems, lack of self-regulatory abilities, parental control behaviors and repeated exposure to interparental conflict have demonstrated negative impacts on children's and adolescent's self-concepts (Barber, 1996; Davies & Cummings, 1994; Tangney, Baumeister, & Boone, 2004). Harter (1993) describes self-concept as a stable set of self-attitudes including both a description and an evaluation of one's own behavior and attributes. The self-concept has been conceptualized as a multidimensional construct for students involving two main facets called academic versus non-academic self-concepts. While non-academic self-concept includes social, emotional, and physical sub-domains of self-concepts, academic self-concept is consisted of the students' evaluation of their academic ability in general and on specific courses (Marsh, 1987). The present study will focus on academic self-concept on mathematics and Turkish performance.

Academic self-concept refers to one's self-perception about how component one is in the academic domain (Marsh, 1990). There are many sources of information by which adolescents draw to form their self-perception of academic efficacy, such as prior learning history, self-regulatory abilities, evaluative feedback from significant others, family environment, and social comparison. It is imperative

to understand how students evaluate themselves as compared to their classmates. Since academic self-concept is more closely associated with academic performance or achievement than general the self-concept. In their study, Byrne and Shavelson (1986) reported substantial associations between academic self-concept and different domains of achievement at school among 11th and 12th grade students. Similarly, Marsh (1987a) showed that the correlation between GPA and academic self-concept was about .50. Consequently, past studies suggest that academic self-concept was a better predictor of the academic achievement than the global self-concept (Hoge, Smit, & Crist, 1995; Orr & Dinur, 1995; Skaalvik & Hagtvet, 1990).

Research has demonstrated that the failure in self-regulatory abilities is related to poor performance and low grades (Byrne, & Stevensonson, 1986; Marsh, 1987; Tice, & Baumeister, 1997). In addition to the role of the self-regulation abilities, several researchers have suggested that parenting has also critical effects on school grades and academic self-concepts of adolescents (Dornbusch, Ritter, Leiderman, Roberts, & Fraleigh, 1987; Steinberg, Lamborn, Dornbusch, & Darling, 1992). Accordingly, authoritarian and permissive parenting styles were linked to lower school grades and low levels of academic self-concepts, whereas authoritative parenting was related to high levels of grades and academic self-concepts. Eccle, Early, Fraser, Belansky, and McCarthy (1997) also found a significant relationship between autonomy support and adolescents' school motivation/achievement.

Witnessing frequent and intense parental conflict has also detrimental impacts on adolescents' academic performance as well as regulatory abilities and parental behaviors (Katz, & Gottman, 1997). In a study, children with conflictual environment demonstrated decreased achievement and low self-expectancies about their academic self-domains (Lewin, 1989).

1.12 The Current Study

The majority of the reviewed studies on self-regulation, parenting, family environment, and adjustment have generally been conducted in an isolated manner by focusing different aspects of the investigated problem. Moreover, these associations using integrative models have been studied in *childhood* only and the

link between self-regulation and adjustment has been examined in adolescence without explicitly looking at the effects of parenting and marital conflict. Hence, the primary aim of this study is to investigate the mediated associations among parenting (depicted as psychological and behavioral control), interparental conflict, self-regulation, and the problem behaviors, as outlined in the hypothesized model in Figure 2.

First, a contextual model in which adolescents' self-regulatory abilities mediate the relationship between family variables (parenting and interparental conflict) and adolescent adjustment will be explored using latent model analyses (See Figure 1). Second, specific hypotheses on the relationships between self-regulatory skills, specific parental control, and adolescent outcomes will be tested. Linearity (or curvilinearity) between parental control and adjustment will also be tested in Turkish cultural context. Finally, potential interactions between specific form of parenting variables (parental psychological and behavioral control) and self-regulatory abilities will be examined.

Specifically, a proposed model including relationships among parental behaviors, family context, self-regulation abilities of adolescents, their adjustment and academic self-concept will be examined (H#1). In this model it is hypothesized that the relationship between parental behaviors, family environment and adolescent's adjustment would be mediated by self-regulatory abilities of adolescents. Based on the reviewed studies, it is expected that the exposure to parental psychological control and marital discord leads to a failure in self-regulatory abilities among adolescents, and in turn, this would influence adolescent's adjustment to the environment (H#1a). Contrary to parental psychological control, behavioral control would have a positive impact on the self-regulatory abilities (H#1b).

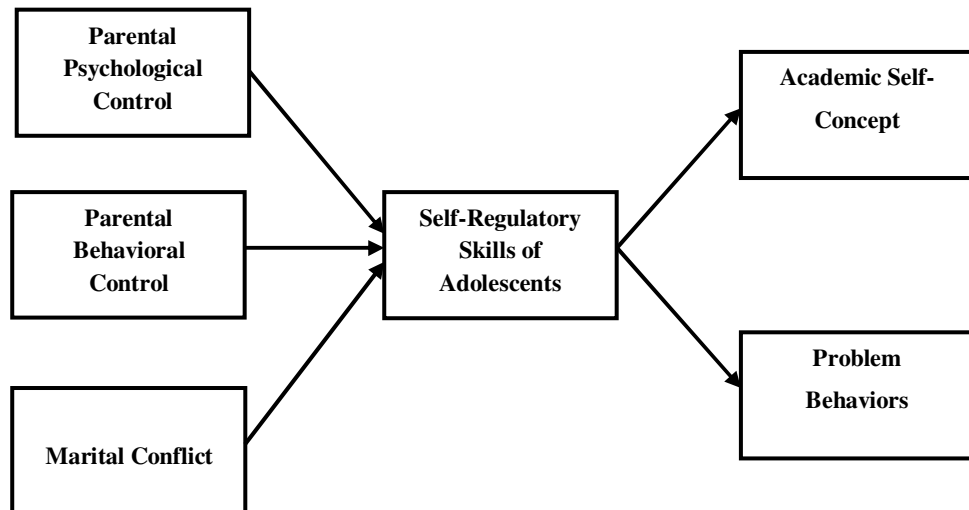


Figure 2. *Contextual Model for Parenting, Self-Regulatory Skills, and Youth Adjustment*

The second set of hypotheses is associated with the impacts of parental control on adolescent's outcomes (H#2). Consistent with the findings in the literature on psychological control, parental psychological control is expected to be positively related to adolescents' self-regulation failure, adjustment problems, including emotional and conduct problems, hyperactivity, peer problems and negatively related with prosocial behaviors and academic self-concept. Moreover, specific dimensions of psychological control will also be explored to shed a light on inconsistent findings in the related literature. In addition to the significant associations between psychological control and adjustment found generally in Western cultural contexts, the culture-relevant meanings of psychological control should be examined. Following Kagıtcıbaşı's (2007) theoretical framework on the autonomous-related self, it can be proposed that different dimensions of parental psychological control may be associated with adolescent adjustment differently. The meaning of specific dimensions of psychological control (e.g., love withdrawal, intrusion etc.) may vary in terms of the culture. Consequently, it is hypothesized that different types of psychological control would vary in their effects on adolescent outcomes. Specifically, it was expected that the predictive power of parental love withdrawal would be higher than parental guilt induction in the current sample considering the "emotionally interdependent" (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2007) nature of parent-child interaction in Turkish culture. Parental love withdrawal would negatively predict adolescent self-regulation and academic self-concept (H#2b_i), whereas it would positively predict problem behaviors of

adolescents (H#2b_{ii}). Following the debates on whether guilt induction is beneficial or detrimental to child development (considering that guilt induction may be used by parents with good intentions to provide the best for their children), it was expected that guilt induction would not be perceived as threatening as much as perceived love withdrawal (H#2b_{iii}).

It was also expected that perceived parental behavioral control would be related to positive youth outcomes (H#2c). Specifically, maternal and paternal behavioral control behaviors would be associated with self-regulation success and academic self-concept positively. In a number of studies, it has been repeatedly shown that optimum level of behavioral control is linked to good adjustment. However, little research has been conducted to investigate the meaning of “optimum” or “sufficient” of parental behavioral control. Although the argument on the levels of behavioral control continues, a non-linear association between behavioral control and adjustment has also been proposed suggesting that as compared to moderate levels, both very high and low levels of behavioral control is associated with worse adjustment (Barber, Stolz, & Olsen, 2005; Barber & Olsen, 1994). Supporting this claim, the lack of behavioral control was assumed to deprive the need for guidance and supervision of adolescent and therefore causes risk for learning impulse control (Barber, 1996; 1994). Thus, the current study will examine whether the relationship between parental knowledge, monitoring and adolescent adjustment is linear or not. Specifically, it is assumed that compared to low and high level parental knowledge and monitoring, moderate level of knowledge and monitoring may be related with the best adolescent functioning and academic self-concept (H#2ci).

CHAPTER II

METHOD

2.1 Procedure

The instruments used in this study were first submitted for the approval of Middle East Technical University, Human Participants Ethic Committee. After receiving the approval from the ethic committee, high school students from different schools in Ankara and their mothers were contacted separately. Students were informed regarding the general focus of the study through in-class presentation, and were asked to obtain their mothers' permission by using a standard letter of study explanation and parental consent form. The letter included a brief explanation of the study and permission for the participation to the study (see Appendix A). After their mothers permit to attend to the study, adolescents were administered the scales described below in their classrooms. Adolescents completed questionnaire set in a counter-balanced order in a two-course session. Following Ostrom, Isaac, and McCann (1983), 'Pairwise Balanced' Latin Square technique was used. After completing all of the questionnaires, adolescents were asked to take a questionnaire packet to their mothers, and bring them back to their teacher within a one-week period. In mothers' packet, they were asked not to disclose or discuss their responses with their child.

2.2 Participants

Initially 300 students between the ages of 11 to 14 years old (6th and 7th grades) from three different primary schools located in Ankara and their mothers were contacted. Mean age of the total sample was 12.14 ($SD = .67$). Of the participants, 145 were girls (49.20 %) and 149 were boys (50.70 %). Six students were omitted from the data set since they had high missing responses. One hundred and ninety one mothers of the responding students (63.67 %) returned the completed questionnaires. Mean age of mothers was 37.74 ($SD = 5.44$). Data were collected from 177 sixth grade students (60 %) and 117 seventh grade students (40

%). Adolescent participants reported that their fathers' level of education is higher than that of their mothers. Only one mother reported herself as a stepmother, and rest of the mothers were biological mothers. The majority of the mothers had two kids including the participating one (40 %) and they were mostly married and parents are together (92.67 %). The mean duration of marriage was 17.09 years ($SD=5.23$). While 137 mothers (71.73 %) were housewife, 44 mothers (23.04 %) were working in a job. The rest of the mothers indicated their occupational status as either unemployed (2.09 %) or retired (3.14 %). Mothers rated their family income on a seven point scale and half of the participants (57.59 %) reported a moderate level of income (between 1500 - 2000 YTL), 15.18 % reported lower income (between 500 – 1000 YTL), and 27.23 % reported higher level of family income (3000 YTL and above). Table 1 illustrates the demographic information on both students and their mothers.

Table 1. Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

	Age 11 N=112	Age 12 N=134	Age 13 N=48	Total N= 294
<i>Gender</i>				
Girls	61 (%42.10)	65 (%44.80)	19 (%13.10)	145 (%49.30)
Boys	51 (%34.20)	69 (%46.30)	29 (%19.50)	149 (%50.70)
<i>Mother Education</i>				
Illiterate	2 (%16.70)	5 (%41.70)	5 (%41.70)	12 (%4.00)
Primary School	28 (%33.30)	37 (%44.00)	19 (%22.60)	84 (%28.60)
Secondary School	20 (%50.00)	17 (%42.50)	3 (%7.50)	40 (%13.60)
High School	41 (%45.10)	39 (%42.90)	11 (%12.10)	91 (%31.00)
University or More	21 (%31.30)	36 (%53.70)	10 (%14.90)	67 (%22.80)
<i>Father Education</i>				
Primary School	18 (%33.30)	24 (%44.40)	12 (%22.20)	54 (%18.40)
Secondary School	27 (%51.90)	21 (%40.40)	4 (%7.70)	52 (%17.70)
High School	45 (%43.70)	38 (%36.90)	20 (%19.40)	103 (%35.00)
University or More	22 (%25.90)	51 (%60.00)	12 (%14.10)	85 (%28.90)
<i>Monthly Family Income</i>				
>500 YTL	16 (%52.20)	8 (%27.60)	5 (%17.20)	29 (%15.60)
500-1000 YTL	24 (%38.10)	30 (%47.60)	9 (%14.30)	63 (%33.90)
1000-1500 YTL	16 (%34.80)	24 (%52.20)	6 (%13.00)	46 (%24.70)
1500-2000 YTL	6 (%33.30)	9 (%50.00)	3 (%16.70)	18 (%9.70)
2000-3000 YTL	3 (%16.70)	12 (%66.70)	3 (%16.70)	18 (%9.70)
3000-4000 YTL	5 (%62.50)	2 (%25.00)	1 (%12.50)	8 (%4.30)
<4000 YTL	1 (%1.40)	2 (%2.30)	1 (%3.60)	4 (%2.20)

2.4 Instruments

The following measures and questions were applied to the students and their mothers. Students completed demographic information, perceived parental psychological and behavioral control questionnaire, self-regulation and self-control scales about their own abilities, and academic self-description questionnaire. In addition to the detailed demographic information, mothers also filled out the questionnaire set including the Parental Psychological and the Behavioral Control Scales, the Interparental Conflict Questionnaire, and the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire.

2.4.1 Demographic Information

The first part of the questionnaire sets for students and mothers were comprised of demographic questions. In adolescent questionnaire set, gender, school, class, birthday, number of sibling, mother and father educational status were asked. Similarly, at the first part of the questionnaire set, mothers completed demographic questions about their educational status, family background, and level of income (see Appendix B).

2.4.2 Parental Psychological Control:

The Parental Psychological Control Scale (PPCS) was used to measure parental psychological control. The PPCS consists of 32 items, and assesses the degree to which adolescents perceive psychologically controlling behaviors from their parents (see Appendix C). Mothers also completed the same scale in a reworded form so that the items are appropriate for parents (see Appendix D). Sixteen items in the PPCS were taken from Barber's (1996) Psychological Control Scale-Youth Self-Report (PCS-YSR). Remaining 16 items were taken from Olsen et al. (2002) measure on different components of psychological control, such as love withdrawal, guilt induction, and erratic emotional behaviors. These items were designed to tap cultural nuances in the perceived meaning of the behaviors which is consistent with the aim of the current study. Participants rated these parental control items using four-point likert scales from (1) never to (4) always and responded the same items twice for their mother and father separately.

Olsen et al. (2002) tested factor structure of the parental psychological control scale by using structural equation modeling (SEM) comparing three different samples from the USA, China and Russia. They found four psychological control dimensions, namely personal attack, erratic emotional behavior, guilt induction, and love withdrawal. The proposed four-factor model was found to be fitted to the model among different sub-samples. They also examined invariances of factor loadings among six groups (Chinese, Russian, and USA; boys and girls) using the four dimensions. The chi-square difference was found insignificant ($\chi^2_{dif}(15) = 18.21, p < .25$), showing that factor loadings were comparable (invariant) across the three cultures and across gender.

In adaptation to Turkish, the scale was translated to Turkish and back-translated by researchers who were fluent in both English and their native language, Turkish. Back-translated items were found to be comparable with the English version.

Explanatory factor analyses were conducted to examine the factor structure of the scale in the Turkish sample. A principle component analysis with varimax rotation was run on the items of the Perceived Maternal/Paternal Psychological Control Scale. The number of factors to rotate was based on criterion eigenvalue of 1 or greater, the scree plot, consistency among parallel forms, (adolescent and parent forms) and interpretability of the factor solution for all of the factor analyses in the current study. Items were selected in an iterative fashion whether they met any of three criteria: if factor loadings were higher than .35, had high inter-item correlations or substantial contributions in internal consistency. Items that were omitted based on analyses with Perceived Mother Psychological Control were also removed from other form of the scale (perceived father psychological control and mother reported psychological control), in order to maintain consistency across the same scales completed by the students and their mothers.

Explanatory factor analysis revealed two interpretable factors representing the two dimensions of psychological control, namely guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors and love withdrawal/irrespective/irrespective explaining 40.16% of total variance (36.86% for father form; 33.94% for mother reported parental control). Guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors dimension represented the parents' displeasure with the child's behavior and controlling the

child through communications or actions that lead the child to believe that he/she has caused the parent distress. Moreover, this component also included the underestimation of child's emotion thought or decisions and inconsistent emotional behaviors (e.g., "Makes me feel guilty when I misbehave"). The first factor included 11 items and explained 33.54% of variance [for father form: 30.67%; for mother reported 24.39%]. Internal consistency score of the scales were acceptable ($\alpha_{mother}=.87$; $\alpha_{father}=.85$; $\alpha_{mother-reported}=.78$). The second factor representing love withdrawal/irrespective was comprised of conditional regards and irrespective behaviors to child's needs and emotions. (e.g., "my mother/father is less friendly with me, if I don't see anything her/his way"). The second factor included 14 items and explained 6.63% of variance [for father form: 6.19%; for mother reported parental control 9.55%]. Internal consistency of the scales were satisfactory ($\alpha_{mother}=.86$; $\alpha_{father}=.85$; $\alpha_{mother-reported}=.78$). In these analyses, to be consistent with child and mother reported version of the scales, certain items with low loadings (less than the cutoff of .33) were excluded, and so, each version of perceived psychological control (mother, father, and mother reported form) was reduced to 25 items. Table 2 (see Appendix E) illustrates factor loadings of each item, explained variances, eigenvalues, and cronbach alpha scores of each factor. Confirmatory factor analyses were confirmed the two-factorial model (see Appendix F).

2.4.3 Parental Behavioral Control:

Behavioral control was assessed using a 20-items measure taping the degree to which a parent monitors the adolescent's behavior or actions. Sixteen items were taken from Kerr and Stattin's (2000) parental knowledge and monitoring scales (sample items; "Do your parents know what you do during your free time?"; "Do you usually tell how school was when you get home (how you did on different exams, your relationships with teachers, etc?"; respectively). Eight items were omitted from the 24-item original scale because they were not appropriate for this sample age. For example, the item, "if you are out at night, when you get home, do you tell what you have done that evening?", was excluded from the questionnaire set because quitting at night is not usual experience for the current sample who live apart from their parents. Four new items were also added to the perceived behavioral control scale to tap culturally relevant behavioral control (e.g., "does

your mother/father talk to your teacher about your academic performances?”). Adolescents rated the parental control items using four point scales ranged from (1) never to (4) always and filled same items for their mother and father separately (see Appendix C and Appendix D).

Kerr and Stattin (2000) conducted factor analyses on the items of Behavioral Control Scale (BCS) and found the two behavioral control dimensions namely, monitoring and parental knowledge. They found the monitoring and parental knowledge components internally reliably (*parent-report monitoring* $\alpha=.82$; *child-report monitoring* $\alpha=.82$; *parent-report parental knowledge* $\alpha=.80$; *child-report parental knowledge* $\alpha=.78$). They also found satisfactory test-retest reliability for reported monitoring ($r(36)=.83$) and parental knowledge subscales ($r(36)=.70$).

In the current study, a series of explanatory factor analysis with varimax rotation were run and similar to Kerr and Stattin' (2000) findings, results revealed two interpretable dimensions, representing parental knowledge and monitoring subscales and explaining 50.85% of total variance (51.86% for father form; 54.38% for mother reported behavioral control). Parental knowledge component representing information about adolescent's daily activities (*e.g.*, “*Does your mother/father know where do you go after school?*”) consisted of 9 items and explained 42.77% of variance [*for father form: 7.46%*; *for mother report 45.05%*]. Internal consistency scores were satisfactory ($\alpha_{mother}=.88$; $\alpha_{father}=.87$; $\alpha_{mother-report}=.91$). The second factor, monitoring, was comprised of 8 items tapping parents' knowledge of the child's whereabouts, activities, and associations (*e.g.*, “*Do you talk about things that happened during your free time with your mother/father?*”) explains 8.08 % of variance [*for father form: 44.40%*; *for mother report 9.31%*]. This subscale had also adequate internal consistency ($\alpha_{mother}=.87$; $\alpha_{father}=.88$; $\alpha_{mother-report}=.87$). Following the pre-defined item selection criteria, (*eigenvalue over 1, .35 cutoff points for loadings, consistency among parallel forms*) 3 items were excluded from the scale. Table 3 (see Appendix G) demonstrates factor structures, explained variances, eigenvalues, and cronbach alpha scores of each factor. Confirmatory factor analyses were conducted in order

to evaluate each version of the perceived parental behavioral control and results were satisfactory (see Appendix F).

2.4.4 Self-Regulation

The Adolescent Self-Regulatory Inventory (ASRI) was developed by Moilanen (2005) aiming to measure the self-regulatory abilities of teens. This questionnaire consists of 32 items, and assesses the degree to which adolescents are able to activate, monitor, maintain, inhibit and adapt their emotions, thoughts, attention and behaviors. Both adolescents and their mothers rate for the adolescents' self-regulatory skills using four points scales ranging from (1) never to (4) always (see Appendix C and Appendix D).

Moilanen (2005) proposed two-factor model consisting of a short-term and long-term self-regulation. Both adolescent and parent version of the ASRI were found internally consistent (*short-term: $\alpha_{adolescent}=.84$; $\alpha_{parent}=.85$; long-term: $\alpha_{adolescent}=.89$; $\alpha_{parent}=.87$*).

In the current study, a principle components factor analysis with varimax rotation on the items of the ASRI was carried out. The scree plot analyses and eigenvalue scores revealed two orthogonal dimensions, self-regulation success explaining 19.15% of variance (*for mother reported 26.07%*) and self-regulation failure explaining 10.07% of variance (*for mother reported 7.12%*). The self-regulation success dimension was composed of achievement at monitoring, inhibiting and adapting of behaviors and emotions (*e.g., "I can find a way to stick with my plans and goals, even when it's tough."*) Internal consistency score of the subscale was statistically satisfactory ($\alpha_{adolescent}=.85$; $\alpha_{mother-report}=.89$). The self-regulation failure component included ineffectiveness at regulation of self (*e.g., "During a dull class, I have trouble forcing myself to start paying attention."*). The cronbach alpha coefficient of the subscale was statistically acceptable ($\alpha_{adolescent}=.80$; $\alpha_{mother-report}=.79$). Table 4 (see Appendix H) represents factor loading, eigenvalues and explained variances of each dimension of the ASRI. Results of the confirmatory factor analyses were consistent with the findings of the explanatory factor analyses (see Appendix F).

The Self-Control Rating Scale (SCRS) was developed by Kendall and Wilcox (1979) to assess the self-control ability of adolescents and used as an

indicator of adolescents' self-regulatory abilities. The scale contains 33 items to be rated by both adolescents and their mothers on a 4-point likert type scale. Following Kendall and Wilcox's (1979) suggestion, one-word descriptive anchors are provided at the extremes of each continuum (see Appendix C and Appendix D). They found one interpretable factor representing cognitive-behavioral aspect of self-control. The internal reliability of the SCRS was .98 and test-retest reliability over 3-4 weeks for a sample (n=24) was .84.

The results of the factor analyses in this sample yielded a two-factor solution that were labeled as low persevering/monitoring and high inhibiting/adapting explaining 27.89 % of total variance (30.53% for mother form). Failures of persevering/monitoring items (11 items) include low goal-directed persistence and insensitivity to response feedback explaining 21.11 % of total variance [24.09% for mother form] (e.g., "When the child has to wait in line, does he or she do so patiently?"). Internal consistency score was satisfactory ($\alpha_{adolescent}=.79$; $\alpha_{mother}=.84$). The second dimension, inhibiting/activation/adapting, is comprised of inhibition of task-irrelevant responses, control of behavior by internally-represented information, behavioral flexibility, and task re-engagement following disruption explaining 6.78 % of total variance. [6.44% for mother form] (e.g., "Does the child butt into games or activities even when he or she hasn't been invited?"). This subscale with 11-item had statistically acceptable internal consistency for both version of the scale ($\alpha_{adolescent}=.77$; $\alpha_{mother}=.77$). Following the pre-defined criteria for exclusion of items, each version of the SCRS (adolescent and mother) was reduced to 22 items. Table 5 (see Appendix I) presents factor loadings of each item, explained variances, eigenvalues, and cronbach alpha scores of each factor. Confirmatory factor analyses were carried out to examine whether the two-factor model including failure of persevering/monitoring and inhibiting/adapting. The model fitted to the data (see Appendix F).

2.4.5 Academic Self-Concept

Academic Self-Description Questionnaire (ASDQ) was developed by Marsh (1990) to measure academic self-concepts on the specific domains, such as literature or mathematics courses. In the original scale, there were 6 items in each subscale measuring different areas. For the current study, only Turkish and

mathematics subscale were given to the adolescent to fill items (12 items). The items were rated on four point scale ranging from “false” to “true” (1 = false. 2 = mostly false. 3 = mostly true. 4 = true) (Appendix C).

Six items were averaged for each course representing the academic self-concept for the given course. The mean of the two subscales represented the general academic self-concept. Similar to Marsh’s (1990) study, the factor analysis conducted on the course specific academic self-concepts revealed two orthogonal factors: science (originally called “math”) and verbal academic self-concept. Byrne (1996) reported internal consistency coefficients ranging from .89 to .95 for the original subscales of the ASDQ.

Ozdemir (2002) translated the ASDQ into Turkish language. Cronbach alpha coefficients of the scale were found satisfactory varied from .92 to .89 for the eight subscales. Explanatory factor analyses results showed two orthogonal components explaining 65.78 % of the total variance. First component was the science academic self-concept which was composed of chemistry, physics, mathematics, and biology with loadings ranged from .90 to .77. Science component explained 35.72 % of the total variance. The verbal academic self-concept component included history, philosophy, geography, and Turkish with loadings between .81 and .73. Verbal academic self-concept component explained 30 % of the total variance.

In the current study, factor analyses were also carried on the ASDQ items with varimax rotation. Results indicated the two interpretable constructs, mathematics and Turkish academic self-concept. The first dimension, math self-concept explained 40.06% and the second component, Turkish self-concept explained 23.02% of total variance. Internal consistency of each subscale was found satisfactory ($\alpha_{math}=.89$; $\alpha_{turkish}=.87$). Confirmatory factor analysis also confirmed the explanatory factor analysis findings (see Appendix F).

2.4.6 Interparental Conflict Questionnaire

The O’Leary Porter Scale (OPS; Porter & O’Leary, 1980) consisting of ten items that assess children’s exposure to interparental arguments was utilized. The OPS has some advantageous since the scale items refer to referent child and specifies conflicts actually seen or heard by the child. Items are rated from 1

(never) to 4 (very often) and are summed to obtain a total score representing the child's exposure to interparental conflict. The OPS has demonstrated good internal consistency ($r=.86$) and reliability ($r=.96$) over a two week time period (Porter & O'Leary, 1980). In addition to 10 items, five more items were added to tap parental conflict on child-related issues by researchers (see Appendix D).

In a Turkish sample, Sümer, et. al., (2008) adapted the OPS into the Turkish language. An explanatory factor analysis yielded one main factor, interparental conflict and it explained 28.98% of the variance. Two items ("*Children often go to one parent for money or permission to do something after having been refused by the other parent. How often would you say this child approaches you or your spouse in this manner with rewarding results?*" and "*How often did you and your spouse display affection for each other in front of this child?*") were excluded from the scale due to the low communalities (.02 and .02, respectively) and factor loadings (-.14 and -.13, respectively). The 13-item conflict scale had statistically acceptable internal consistency ($\alpha =.77$).

2.4.7 The Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ)

Both adolescents and their mothers completed the 25-item Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (Goodman, 1997). The SDQ was originally created from modifying the Rutter Parent Questionnaire (Goodman, 1997) by including extra items on children's strengths. Twelve of the items cover strengths and twelve of the items tap children's problem behaviors. The item, "Gets along better with adults than with other children", is considered neutral. Each of the 25 items rated from 1 (not true) to 3 (certainly true) (see Appendix D).

The original questionnaire consists of five subscales, each scale consisting of five items: hyperactivity, emotional symptoms, conduct problems, peer problems, and prosocial behaviors. The scores for hyperactivity, emotional symptoms, conduct problems, peer problems are summed to generate a Total Difficulties score. However, the score for the prosocial subscale was not incorporated into the difficulties score because absence of prosocial behaviors is seen as conceptually different from the presence of psychological difficulties.

The SDQ has been found to be a valid measure of adjustment in different samples and informants (e.g., mother, teacher, and child) with good psychometric

quality (Goodman, Meltzer, & Bailey, 2003) The SDQ subscales were also found to be highly correlated with the Achenbach Child Behavior Checklist (Goodman, & Scott, 1999).

In a Turkish sample, Eremsoy (2005) adapted the SDQ into the Turkish language. Principal components factor analysis of the items resulted in four subscales that were named as Conduct Problems and Hyperactivity, Prosocial Behavior, Emotional Symptoms, and Inattention Problems, explaining 49.38 % of the total variance.

In a larger Turkish sample, Sumer et. al., (2008) factor analyzed the SDQ and they found three subscales that were named Hyperactivity/ Inattention, Prosocial Behavior, and Emotional Symptoms, explaining 47.83% of total variance. Factor structure of the current study's sample was consistent with the Sumer et. al.,'s (2008) findings. Internal consistency of each subscale was found satisfactory ($\alpha_{hyper}=.77$; $\alpha_{emotional}=.70$; $\alpha_{prosocial}=.70$).

2.4.8 Data Analyses

Following the explanatory and confirmatory factor analyses on the items parental control and self-regulation measures to see their construct validity for the current sample, a number of descriptive and inferential statistics including correlations and ANOVAs by gender, age, and socioeconomic status were conducted.

To address the first research question, structural equation modeling (SEM) was conducted for the model that met criteria for mediation (Baron, & Kenny, 1986). In this model, paths were specified from the parental psychological and behavioral control, marital conflict to adolescent self-regulation variables and indicators of adjustment. This model was run twice for the mother and adolescent sub-samples separately.

Several multiple hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to examine research question 2a. In order to determine how specific parental psychological and behavioral control behaviors are associated with self-regulation and adjustment of adolescents both self-regulation variables and adolescent adjustment were individually regressed on the specific parental control behaviors. Moreover, following Aiken and West's (1991) suggestions, tests of linear

relationships between parental control variables and youth outcomes were conducted with hierarchical regression analysis. The first block of entry contained dummy-coded control variables (i. e., age, gender, mother education); the second block contained different dimensions of both psychological and behavioral control; the third block included the squared term for all parenting dimensions. Separate analyses were conducted for both perceived and mother reported parental control behaviors.

Finally, to examine the research question 2b, a series of moderated regression analyses were conducted. Two-way interactions among pairs of parental control dimensions were assessed via hierarchical regression analyses, and again tested on both youth reports and mother reports separately. The first block consisted independent contributions of parental control behaviors and marital conflict on adolescent outcomes. Followed by centered scores of parenting variables and marital conflict variables, the second block included possible two-way interactions among the centered scores of parenting and marital discord variables (Aiken, & West, 1991).

All analyses except SEM analyses were conducted with SPSS (v.15). LISREL 8.51 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993) was used for the SEM analyses.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

3.1 Preliminary Analyses

Initially bivariate associations were calculated and descriptive analyses were conducted as seen in Table 6, the perceived guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors and love withdrawal/irrespective parenting from mother and father were significantly correlated with self-reported self-regulation and self-control variables. All correlations were in expected direction and their magnitudes were moderate. Correlations between psychological control dimensions and behavioral control dimensions provided initial support for predictions with some variation due to the distinction between psychological and behavioral control. Correlations between guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors, parental knowledge and monitoring were insignificant, except for the correlation between perceived guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors from mother and perceived monitoring of mother ($r(286) = -.16, p < .001$).

The dimensions of perceived parental psychological control were also found to be significantly associated with self-regulatory abilities of young adolescents in expected directions. Perceived guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors was positively correlated with failure of self-regulation ($r_{mother}(287) = .37, p < .001$; $r_{father}(288) = .36, p < .001$), and low persevering/monitoring of adolescents ($r_{mother}(287) = .26, p < .001$; $r_{father}(288) = .21, p < .001$). Adolescents who perceived high guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors from their parents reported less success of self-regulation ($r_{mother}(287) = -.15, p < .001$; $r_{father}(288) = -.12, p < .001$) and less inhibition, activation and adapting behaviors ($r_{mother}(287) = -.29, p < .001$; $r_{father}(288) = -.28, p < .001$). No significant associations were detected between academic self-descriptions of adolescents and perceived guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors from the parents, except for the weak but significant correlation between perceived guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors from father and Turkish course self-concept of youth ($r(285) = -.12, p < .05$).

Different dimensions of perceived parental behavioral control (parental knowledge and monitoring) were related with both self-regulation and academic self-concept of adolescent. As seen in Table 6, adolescent report of maternal monitoring, paternal knowledge and monitoring were negatively associated with failure of self-regulation (*-15, -13, and -17, respectively*). Similar pattern was found for the associations between parental knowledge and monitoring and low persevering/monitoring. Moreover, adolescents who reported high parental knowledge and monitoring were also reported high levels of self-regulation success and inhibition, activation and adapting behaviors. Specific domains of academic self-description of youth (Math and Turkish) were found to be significantly correlated with parental knowledge and monitoring as well (see Table 6).

Table 6. Means, Standard Deviations, and Bivariate Correlations between Main Study Variables for Adolescents

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1.GI Mother														
2.LW Mother	.67**													
3.GI Father	.65**	.48**												
4.LW Father	.45**	.62**	.68**											
5.PK Mother	-.10	-.28**	-.15*	-.25**										
6.M Mother	-.16**	-.32**	-.07	-.18**	.67**									
7.PK Father	-.17**	-.29**	-.12	-.26**	.69**	.62**								
8.M Father	-.12*	-.25**	-.04	-.21**	.46**	.69**	.69**							
9.F-SR	.37**	.34**	.36**	.31**	-.05	-.15*	-.13*	-.17**						
10.S-SR	-.15**	-.26**	-.12*	-.17**	.38**	.45**	.40**	.40**	-.30**					
11. LP/M	.26**	.35**	.21**	.32**	-.25**	-.33**	-.37**	-.33**	.37**	-.50**				
12. I/A/A	-.29**	-.36**	-.28**	-.29**	.19**	.22**	.30**	.28**	-.47**	.51**	-.49**			
13. MSC	-.09	-.15*	-.06	-.12	.26**	.28**	.28**	.31**	-.26**	.35**	-.36**	.29**		
14. TSC	-.04	-.08	-.12*	-.18**	.26**	.20**	.23**	.22**	-.22**	.39**	-.29**	.28**	.28**	
Mean	2.06	1.47	1.97	1.44	3.43	3.09	3.20	2.68	2.63	3.00	1.69	3.05	3.07	3.24
SD	.67	.47	.62	.45	.62	.72	.69	.80	.55	.53	.51	.55	.65	.57

** $p < .001$; * $p < .05$

Table 7 depicted the descriptive statistics regarding maternal report of main variables. Mother reported guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors and love withdrawal/irrespective parenting were moderately correlated in expected direction. Mothers of adolescents who reported more guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors and love withdrawal/irrespective parenting also reported less parental knowledge and monitoring behaviors than mothers reporting less guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors. Moreover, specific domains of psychological control were associated with mother reports of adolescents' self-regulation. Thus, mother reported guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors and love withdrawal/irrespective parenting were negatively correlated with youth's successful self-regulation and inhibition, activation and adapting behaviors, whereas these two components of psychological control were positively associated with self-regulation failure and low persevering/monitoring of adolescents. In addition, psychological control domains were also positively related to marital conflict. Mothers who reported high psychological control also reported more adolescent problems such as hyperactivation/inattention and emotionality. Finally, the correlation between maternal love withdrawal/irrespective behaviors and prosocial behaviors of adolescents was negatively significant although the correlation between mother-reported guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors and prosocial behaviors was insignificant.

According to mothers' reports, as expected, maternal knowledge and monitoring were positively associated with successful self-regulation, and inhibition, activation and adapting behaviors. Adversely, these parental behavioral control constructs were negatively correlated with the failure of self-regulation, and low persevering/monitoring of adolescents. Mothers who reported high parental knowledge and monitoring were reported less marital conflict and more prosocial behaviors for their child. While mother reported parental monitoring was correlated with the hyperactivation, no significant correlation was found between parental knowledge and adolescent's emotionality.

Table 7. Bivariate Correlations between Main Study Variables for Mothers

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1.M-R GI												
2. M-R LW	.43**											
3. M-R PK	-.16*	-.39**										
4. M-R M	-.23**	-.30**	.65**									
5. M-R S-SR	-.30**	-.16*	.21**	.33**								
6. M-R F-SR	.44**	.36**	-.09	-.18*	-.53**							
7.LP/M	.31**	.25**	-.22**	-.29**	-.73**	.50**						
8.I/A/A	-.46**	-.40**	.18*	.15*	.53**	-.67**	-.59**					
9.MC	.41**	.46**	-.20**	-.26**	-.19**	.30**	-.24**	.34**				
10.Hyp	.48**	.33**	-.12	-.20**	-.56**	.59**	-.64**	.62**	.30**			
11.Emo	.29**	.31**	-.05	-.01	-.21**	.44**	-.28**	.49**	.29**	.45**		
12.Pros	-.13	-.19*	.27**	.18*	.32**	-.10	.48**	-.33**	-.24**	-.33**	-.27**	
Mean	2.27	1.50	3.68	3.14	2.60	2.35	3.05	1.96	1.72	1.65	1.69	2.65
SD	.54	.39	.52	.64	.59	.51	.56	.46	.40	.41	.40	.36

** $p < .001$; * $p < .05$

Finally, the bivariate correlations between adolescent reported and mother reported variables were presented Table 8. As seen on the diagonal of Table 11, the same variables assessed via mother and adolescent reports were moderately and significantly correlated in expected directions.

In sum, both teen and parent reports on the major variables were associated in the expected directions. Adolescent self-reported self-regulation was associated with parental psychological and behavioral control, and the self-regulatory abilities of adolescents were related to the adjustment variables measured with the SDQ and academic self-concept. Finally, parents' and teens' reports were found to be positively associated.

Table 8. Bivariate Correlations between Adolescent Reported and Mother Reported Major Variables

	M-R GI	M-R LW	M-R PK	M-R M	M-R Success SR	M-R Failure SR	M-R LP/M	M-R I/A/A
A-R GI	.27**	.07	.01	.08	.06	.20**	.13	.11
A-R LW	.26**	.14*	.10	.18*	.17*	.20**	.14	.21**
A-R PK	.17*	.21**	.37**	.29**	.30**	.17*	.24**	.17*
A-R M	.12	.17*	.25**	.33**	.20**	.08	.18*	.08
A-R Success SR	.03	.02	.07	.05	.22**	.16*	.13	.14
A-R Failure SR	.15*	.03	.08	.13	.19**	.22**	.10	.05
A-R LP/M	.08	.05	.03	.15*	.17*	.15*	.21**	.15*
A-R I/A/A	.15*	.03	.15*	.03	.16*	.18*	.16*	.20**

** $p < .001$; * $p < .05$

A series of analyses of variances (ANOVAs) were conducted to compare the means of different sub-groups based on the demographic variables on the major variables (see Table 9). The ANOVAs with gender indicated that boys reported higher perceived guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors ($M_{\text{boys}}=2.10$; $M_{\text{girls}}=1.85$) and love withdrawal/irrespective ($M_{\text{boys}}=1.51$; $M_{\text{girls}}=1.36$) from father; mother reported love withdrawal/irrespective ($M_{\text{boys}}=1.57$; $M_{\text{girls}}=1.43$); mother reported self-regulation failure ($M_{\text{boys}}=2.48$; $M_{\text{girls}}=2.24$); mother reported low persevering/monitoring ($M_{\text{boys}}=3.08$; $M_{\text{girls}}=2.83$); and hyperactivation/inattention ($M_{\text{boys}}=1.78$; $M_{\text{girls}}=1.52$) than girls. Furthermore, girls reported higher levels of parental knowledge ($M_{\text{boys}}=3.32$; $M_{\text{girls}}=3.55$) and mother reported parental knowledge ($M_{\text{boys}}=3.78$; $M_{\text{girls}}=3.58$); mother reported monitoring ($M_{\text{boys}}=3.03$; $M_{\text{girls}}=3.25$); mother reported self-regulation success ($M_{\text{boys}}=2.44$; $M_{\text{girls}}=2.76$); mother reported inhibition, activation and adapting behaviors ($M_{\text{boys}}=3.97$; $M_{\text{girls}}=4.11$); and Turkish academic self-concept ($M_{\text{boys}}=3.12$; $M_{\text{girls}}=3.36$) than boys.

Table 9. Gender Differences on Main Study Variables

	Girls (N=145)		Boys (N=149)		F	Eta ²
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
1.GI Mother	2.00	.67	2.13	.67	2.90	.01
2.LW Mother	1.43	.44	1.51	.50	2.10	.01
3.GI Father**	1.85	.57	2.10	.65	11.81	.04
4.LW Father**	1.36	.38	1.51	.50	8.81	.03
5.M-R GI	2.20	.54	2..35	.53	3.55	.02
6. M-R LW*	1.43	.30	1.57	.46	5.73	.03
7.PK Mother**	3.55	.54	3.32	.67	9.87	.03
8.M Mother	3.11	.74	3.06	.69	0.29	.00
9.PK Father	3.22	.72	3.19	.67	0.11	.00
10.M Father	2.61	.82	2.76	.77	2.58	.01
11. M-R PK**	3.78	.43	3.58	.57	7.42	.04
12. M-R M*	3.25	.59	3.03	.67	6.31	.03
13.F-SR	2.62	.56	2.64	.55	0.12	.00
14.S-SR	2.96	.53	3.04	.52	1.72	.01
15. M-R F-SR**	2.24	.53	2.48	.46	10.75	.06
16. M-R S-SR**	2.76	.58	2.44	.56	14.12	.07
15. LP/M	1.63	.45	1.73	.55	2.82	.01
16. I/A/A	3.06	.57	3.04	.53	0.15	.00
17. M-R LP/M**	2.83	.55	3.08	.55	9.20	.05
18. M-R I/A/A*	4.11	.44	3.97	.47	4.24	.02
19. MSC	3.03	.67	3.11	.64	1.21	.00
20. TSC**	3.36	.54	3.12	.58	12.92	.04
21. Hyp**	1.52	.39	1.78	.38	22.14	.11
22. Emo	1.70	.39	1.68	.41	0.13	.00
23. Pros	2.66	.33	2.64	.38	0.15	.00

** $p<.001$; * $p<.05$

In terms of comparing the three age categories, there were significant differences between different age groups. As can be seen Table 10, the ANOVA results revealed that there was significant age differences on main study variables. Post-hoc analyses on significant differences, Tukey's tests revealed that compared to 12 and 13 years olds, 11 years old children reported less perceived guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors from their father ($M_{11}=1.85$; $M_{12}=2.04$; $M_{13}=2.09$); and less self-report self-regulation failure ($M_{11}=2.51$; $M_{12}=2.70$; $M_{13}=2.71$). Moreover their mothers also stated less love withdrawal/irrespective behaviors ($M_{11}=1.38$; $M_{12}=1.56$; $M_{13}=1.60$); self-regulation failure ($M_{11}=2.24$; $M_{12}=2.42$; $M_{13}=2.47$); and less emotionality ($M_{11}=1.65$; $M_{12}=1.65$; $M_{13}=1.90$). Likewise, 11-year old adolescents stated more perceived monitoring from their fathers ($M=2.81$) than 13-year old participants ($M=2.43$), and reported higher academic self-concept in math courses ($M=3.22$) than 12 ($M=3.01$) and 13 years old ($M=2.88$) adolescents. Mothers of 11-year old participants also reported more parental knowledge ($M_{11}=3.77$; $M_{12}=3.68$; $M_{13}=3.48$) and inhibition, adapting and activation behaviors ($M_{11}=4.15$; $M_{12}=4.00$; $M_{13}=3.86$) than adolescents at age 12 and 13 years old (see Table 10).

Table 10. Age Differences on Main Study Variables

	Age 11 (N=112)		Age 12 (N=134)		Age 13 (N=48)		F	Eta ²
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
1.GI Mother	2.00	.68	2.06	.64	2.21	.73	1.56	.01
2.LW Mother	1.46	.47	1.46	.45	1.52	.53	0.34	.00
3.GI Father*	1.85	.58	2.04	.66	2.09	.59	3.89	.03
4.LW Father	1.38	.41	1.45	.49	1.52	.41	1.65	.01
5.M-R GI	2.18	.50	2.31	.55	2.41	.56	2.04	.02
6. M-R LW**	1.38	.25	1.56	.45	1.60	.44	5.71	.06
7.PK Mother	3.46	.67	3.44	.56	3.36	.64	0.37	.00
8.M Mother	3.16	.71	3.06	.72	2.99	.73	1.11	.01
9.PK Father	3.24	.74	3.25	.65	3.02	.67	2.09	.01
10.M Father*	2.81	.85	2.66	.73	2.43	.78	4.04	.03
11. M-R PK*	3.77	.43	3.68	.52	3.48	.64	3.25	.03
12. M-R M	3.25	.55	3.08	.68	3.03	.71	1.89	.02
13.F-SR**	2.51	.61	2.70	.51	2.71	.49	4.33	.03
14.S-SR	3.03	.54	2.98	.51	3.00	.53	0.43	.00
15. M-R F-SR*	2.24	.52	2.42	.50	2.47	.45	3.48	.04
16. M-R S-SR	2.64	.56	2.57	.59	2.58	.67	0.27	.00
15. LP/M	1.61	.47	1.71	.51	1.80	.58	2.34	.02
16. I/A/A	3.08	.58	3.06	.54	2.93	.48	1.33	.01
17. LP/M – M-R	2.89	.54	2.98	.58	3.05	.55	0.89	.01
18. I/A/A – M-R**	4.15	.41	4.00	.46	3.86	.50	4.99	.05
19. MSC**	3.22	.63	3.01	.65	2.88	.65	5.40	.04
20. TSC	3.24	.60	3.27	.55	3.18	.57	0.43	.00
21. Hyp	1.61	.41	1.67	.40	1.71	.43	0.70	.01
22. Emo**	1.65	.36	1.65	.42	1.90	.39	4.88	.05
23. Pros	2.66	.30	2.67	.36	2.65	.36	1.86	.02

** $p < .001$; * $p < .05$

Finally, ANOVA results indicated that mothers levels of education had significant effects on the majority of the study variables (see Table 11). In these analyses mothers were grouped into two categories; those with low education level were comprised of mothers who are illiterate or graduated from primary or secondary school, whereas mothers grouped into high educated category were graduated from high school or university. Results indicated that adolescents whose mother were highly educated were reported more parental knowledge ($M_{low-education}=3.32$; $M_{high-education}=3.53$) and monitoring as well as higher levels of math self-concept than teens with low educated mothers. In a similar vein, highly educated mothers reported more parental knowledge ($M_{low-education}=3.58$; $M_{high-education}=3.78$) and monitoring ($M_{low-education}=3.00$; $M_{high-education}=3.28$) than low educated mothers. Moreover, students with low educated mothers reported more love withdrawal/irrespective from their mothers ($M_{low-education}=1.53$; $M_{high-education}=1.41$) and their mothers stated more guilt inductive behaviors ($M_{low-education}=2.41$; $M_{high-education}=2.14$). They also reported more emotionality about their children ($M_{low-education}=1.79$; $M_{high-education}=1.58$).

Table 11. Education Level Differences of Mothers' on Main Study Variables

	Low Education Level (N=136)		High Education Level (N=158)		F	Eta ²
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
1.GI Mother	2.11	.63	2.02	.70	1.28	.00
2.LW Mother *	1.53	.52	1.41	.42	4.16	.01
3.M-R GI**	2.41	.59	2.14	.45	13.11	.07
4. M-R LW	1.55	.46	1.45	.29	3.71	.02
5.PK Mother**	3.32	.62	3.53	.52	8.67	.03
6.M Mother *	2.99	.73	3.17	.69	4.64	.02
7. M-R PK**	3.58	.59	3.78	.40	7.06	.04
8. M-R M**	3.00	.66	3.28	.58	9.72	.05
9.F-SR	2.62	.54	2.64	.56	0.18	.00
10.S-SR	2.98	.48	3.02	.56	0.42	.00
11. M-R F-SR	2.42	.53	2.29	.48	2.98	.02
12. M-R S-SR	2.59	.60	2.62	.58	0.12	.00
13. LP/M	1.75	.52	1.63	.49	3.52	.01
14. I/A/A	3.01	.51	3.09	.58	1.51	.01
15. M-R LP/M	2.96	.57	2.95	.56	.01	.00
16. M-R I/A/A	3.98	.48	4.10	.44	3.11	.02
17. MSC**	2.96	.59	3.16	.70	6.92	.02
18. TSC	3.20	.52	3.28	.61	1.26	.00
19.MC	1.78	.42	1.69	.37	2.67	.01
20. Hyp	1.70	.41	1.61	.40	2.07	.01
21. Emo**	1.79	.39	1.58	.39	13.99	.07
22. Pros	2.62	.37	2.68	.34	1.44	.01

** $p < .001$; * $p < .05$

3.2 Research Question #1: Are the Impacts of Parental Control and Interparental Conflict Mediated by Adolescent Self-Regulatory Abilities?

As seen in Figure 1, it was expected that the exposure to parental psychological control and marital discord would lead to a failure in self-regulatory abilities among adolescents, and in turn, this would influence adolescent's adjustment to the environment (H#1a). Contrary to parental psychological control, behavioral control would have a positive impact on the self-regulatory abilities (H#1b). Finally, the impact of interparental conflict would influence adolescent adjustment via self-regulatory abilities of adolescents. In order to address these hypotheses, several structural equation modeling (SEM) analyses were conducted by using LISREL 8.51 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993). Firstly, the proposed mediation model was tested by using both adolescent and mother reports. Secondly, the proposed model was examined separately for both adolescent and mother sample. In testing models, a number of strategies were employed following Kenny, Kashy, and Bolger's (1998) suggestions. In specifying all models in the current study, the first step was to test the measurement model, providing evidence for how well the latent variables were measured by predefined indicators. Thus, testing the measurement model included confirmatory factor analysis for the latent variables all at a time. The second step, the structural model, involved testing a number of alternative models together with the proposal model and comparison of the goodness-of-fit statistics across models. The covariance matrix was used as input and maximum likelihood estimation was employed in all of the analyses¹. Maximum likelihood estimation was employed because it estimates parameters that maximize the likelihood that the data were drawn from the population in question (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). In the following SEM analyses, a number of criteria were used to describe the model fit. For example, Bollen (1989) noted that values of the df: χ^2 ratios 2, 3, or even 5 indicate reasonable fit. Hu and Bentler (1999) reported that values of $\leq .05$ for RMSEA with 90% confidence intervals within 0 -

¹ Partial correlation matrix controlling for age, gender, and education levels of mother were used in SEM analyses.

.10 indicate close approximate fit. They also indicated that values greater than .90 for the CFI, GFI, and AGFI represent good fit of the model.

3.2.1 The Proposed Mediation Model:

To examine the relationship between perceived parental psychological control and behavioral control, mother-reported interparental conflict, mother-reported adolescents' self-regulation, academic self-concept, and mother-reported problem behaviors was tested. In all SEM analyses, perceived parental psychological control had four indicators (i.e., maternal and paternal guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors and love withdrawal/irrespective). Similarly, perceived parental behavioral control was consisted of four indicators; parental knowledge and monitoring for each parent. Total score of the OPS was indicator of interparental conflict latent variable. Following Kenny, Kashy, and Bolger's (1998) suggestion, the error variance of interparental conflict latent variable was fixed to .04 by using the formula: $(1-\alpha) \times \text{variance of total score of the OPS}$. Adolescents' self-regulatory skill was consisted of four indicators, including mother reported different dimensions of self-regulation abilities (i.e., success in self-regulation, failure in self-regulation (reversed coded), low perseverance/monitoring (reversed coded), and inhibition/activation/adapting). Academic self-concept had two indicators that are adolescents' self-report about academic self-concept on Turkish and Math domains. Finally, adolescents' problem behaviors were comprised of mother-reported hyperactivation/inattention, emotional problems, and prosocial behaviors (reversed coded) of adolescents by using the SDQ subscales.

3.2.1.1 Measurement Model for the Proposed Mediation Model

Figure 3 (see Appendix J) depicts the measurement model with six latent variables. The initial estimation of the measurement model provided a poor fit to the data ($\chi^2(121, N=174)=348.44, p<.001, GFI=.82, AGFI=.74, NNFI=.76, CFI=.81, RMSEA=.10$). Post-hoc model modifications were performed in an attempt to develop better fitting model. On the basis of the Modification Indices, and theoretical relevance, four paths were added between the error terms associated with adolescents' reports of perceived maternal and paternal control dimensions. Conceptually, perceived maternal and paternal controlling behaviors can partially

be perceived consistent across all the sources as within family variables, and thus, they are expected to be highly dependent to each other. Specifically, the error terms between perceived paternal guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors and maternal love withdrawal/irrespective (1); paternal love withdrawal/irrespective and maternal guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors (2); paternal knowledge and maternal monitoring (3); and maternal knowledge and paternal monitoring (4) were added to the model.

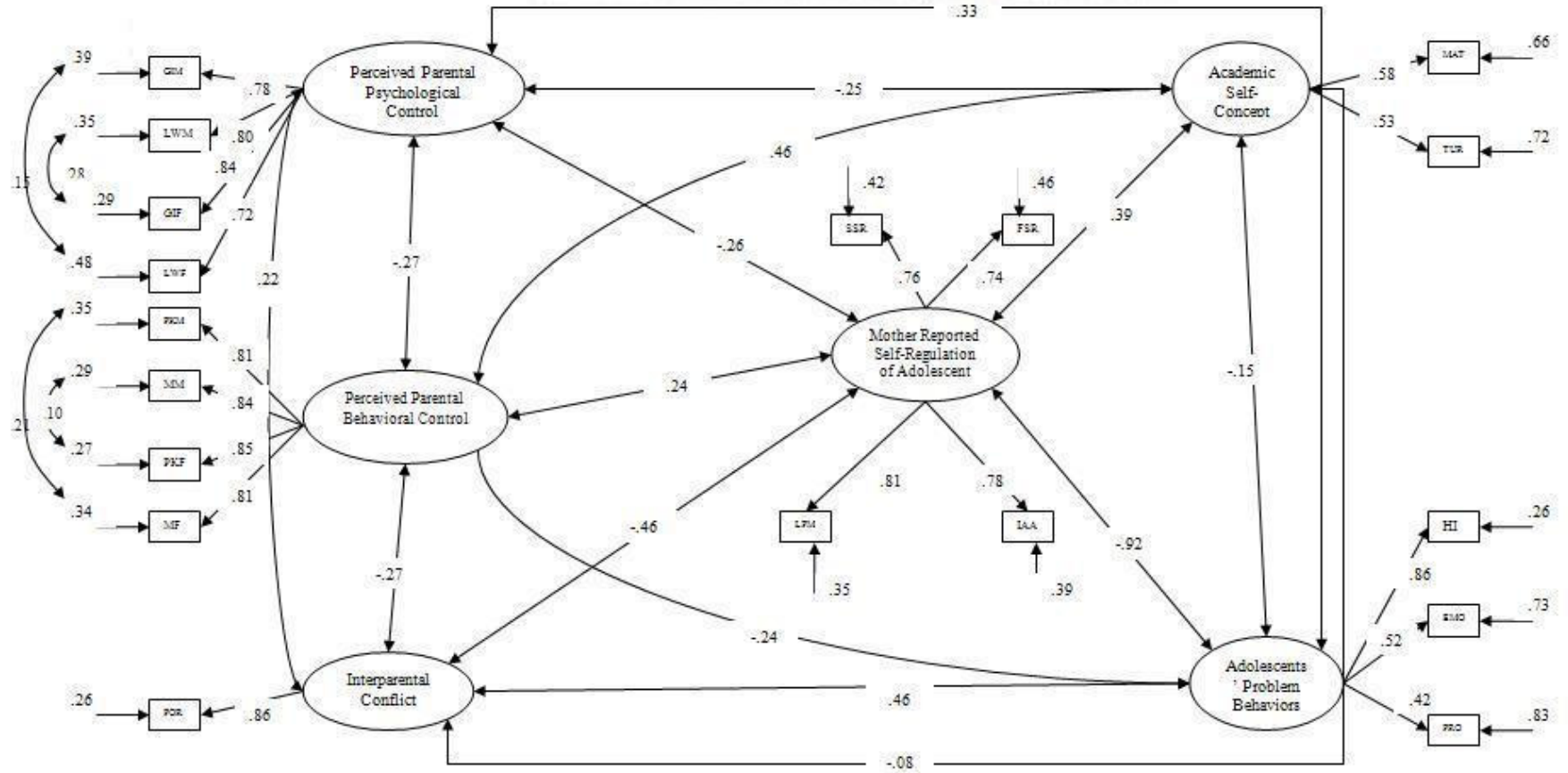


Figure 3. Measurement Model for the Proposed Mediation Model

The final model with added correlated error terms provided better fit to the data than the initial model ($\chi^2(117, N=174)=259.33, p<.001, GFI=.86, AGFI=.80, NNFI=.87, CFI=.90, RMSEA=.08$). As illustrated in Figure 3, all of the indicators loaded significantly on their latent variables. Loadings changed between .72 (paternal love withdrawal/irrespective) and .84 (paternal guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors) for psychological control, between .81 (maternal knowledge) and .85 (paternal knowledge) for behavioral control, between .74 (failure in self regulation (reverse coded)) and .81 (low perseverance/monitoring (reversed coded)) for self-regulation skills, between .53 (Turkish self-concept) and .58 (Math self-concept) for academic self-concept, between .42 (prosocial behaviors (reversed coded)) and .86 (hyperactivation/inattention) for problem behaviors, and .86 for interparental conflict.

An examination of the structural correlations between latent variables indicated that psychological control were negatively correlated with behavioral control, self-regulation skills, and academic self-concept of adolescents ($r = -0.27$; $r = -0.27$; $r = -0.25$, respectively), whereas positively correlated with mother-reported interparental conflict and problem behaviors ($r = 0.22$; $r = 0.33$, respectively). Parental behavioral control were positively correlated with self-regulation skills and academic self-concept ($r = 0.24$; $r = 0.46$, respectively) and negatively correlated with interparental conflict and problem behaviors ($r = -0.27$; $r = -0.24$, respectively). Moreover, successful self-regulation of adolescents were positively associated with academic self-concept ($r = 0.32$), and negatively correlated with interparental conflict and problem behaviors ($r = -0.46$; $r = -0.92$, respectively), suggesting that adolescents with high self-regulation also reported higher academic self-concept and conversely, their mothers reported about their child less problem behaviors and less interparental conflict. Finally, mother-reported interparental conflict associated with problem behaviors of adolescent reported by mothers in expected direction ($r = 0.46$).

3.2.1.2 Testing the Proposed Structural Model

The mediational model proposed that parental control behaviors and interparental conflict would affect adolescent outcomes through self-regulatory abilities of adolescents. To test this model, the structural model depicted in Figure 4

was estimated. In the proposed model, the specified paths were from: 1) perceived parental psychological control to self-regulation of adolescents; 2) perceived parental behavioral control to self-regulation of adolescents; 3) interparental conflict to self-regulation of adolescents; 4) self-regulation of adolescents to academic self-concept; and 5) self-regulation of adolescents to adolescents' problem behaviors.

For testing the proposed mediation model, as specified above, three alternative models were compared. In addition to the proposed mediation model, the second model was the full-mediational model including all possible paths from psychological control to self-regulation, academic self-concept, and problem behaviors, paths from behavioral control to self-regulation, academic self-concept, and problem behaviors, and path from interparental conflict to self-regulation, academic self-concept, and problem behaviors. The third model, named the only direct effect model, specified paths from all parental control variables, interparental conflict variables, and self-regulatory abilities of adolescent to academic self-concept, and problem behaviors. Following Steiger, Shapiro and Browne's (1985), suggestions, both the proposed mediational model and the all-predictors model were compared with the full-mediational model respectively by chi square difference test, to obtain the best model fitting to the data.

The test of the proposed mediational model provided acceptable fit to the data ($\chi^2(124, N=174)=276.23, p<.001, GFI=.85, AGFI=.80, NNFI=.87, CFI=.90, RMSEA=.08$). The results indicated that perceived parental psychological control, and interparental conflict, but not perceived behavioral control, predicted mother-reported self-regulatory abilities of adolescents (*standardized structural coefficient*(β)= *-.18, -.41, and .08, respectively*), signifying adolescent who perceived more psychological control from their parents were reported less success in self-regulation on the basis of mother report. Similarly, mothers of adolescents who reported more interparental conflict also reported less self-regulation success for their teens. Adolescent self-regulation also significantly predicted problem behaviors, but not academic self-concept ($\beta = -.92$). Mothers who reported high self-regulation skills about their child reported less problem behaviors adolescent performed. The indirect effects of perceived psychological control and interparental conflict on mother-reported problem behaviors were significant. Thus, the

relationship between psychological control, interparental conflict and problem behaviors of adolescent was mediated through self-regulatory abilities of adolescents. Overall, perceived psychological control and marital conflict explained 18% and 41% of variance in adolescents' self-regulation, respectively. Finally, perceived psychological control explained 16% and 38% of variance in adolescents' problem behaviors via self-regulation.

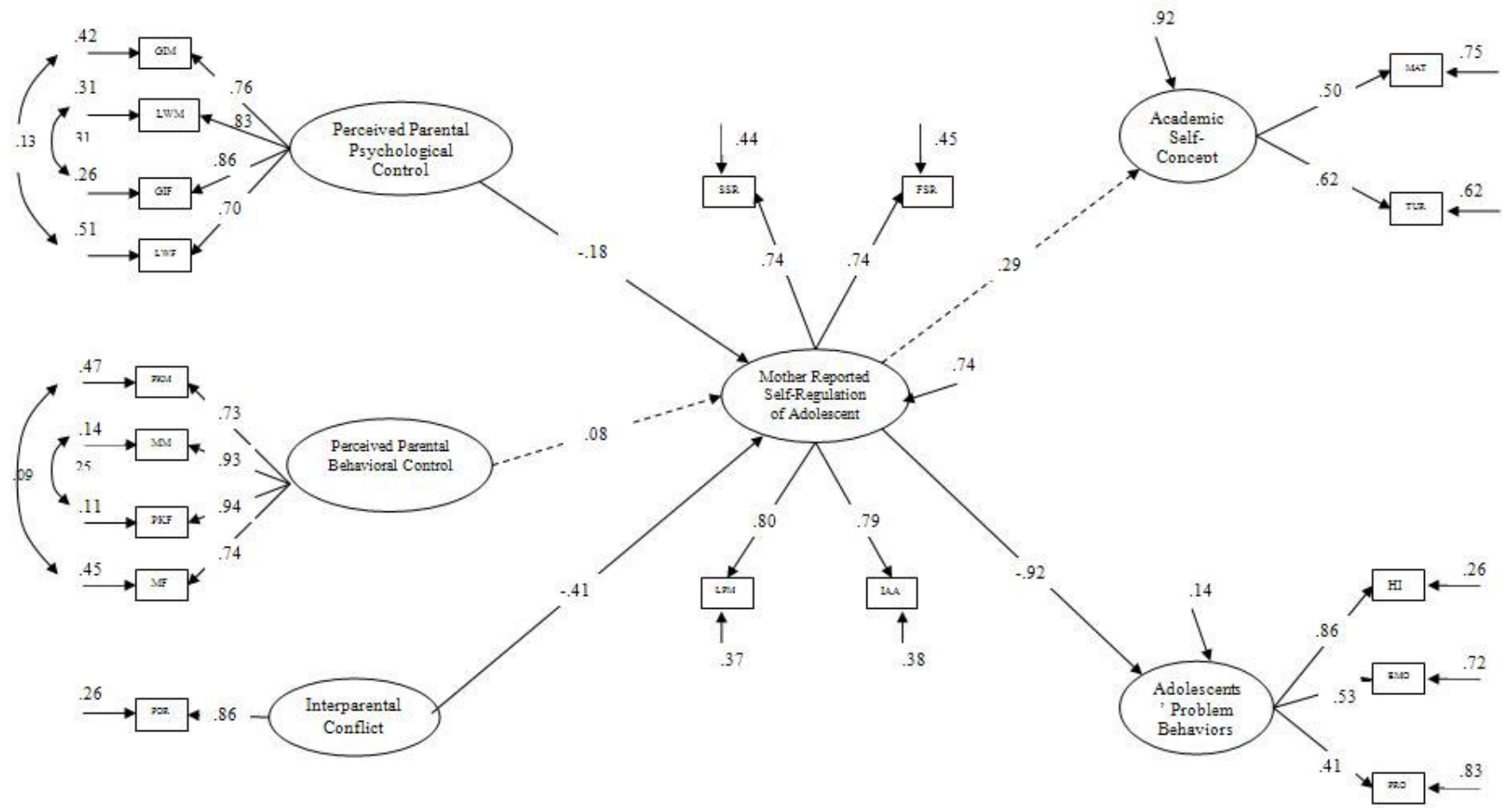


Figure 4. Structural Model for the Proposed Mediation Model

As seen in Figure 5, the second alternative model was full-mediational model, including all possible paths from parenting and family variables to adolescent outcomes. The model provided acceptable fit to the data ($\chi^2(120, N=174)=264.95, p<.001, GFI=.86, AGFI=.79, NNFI=.87, CFI=.90, RMSEA=.08$). Of 11 links, only three relationships were found statistically significant. The results indicated that perceived behavioral control predicted academic self-concept directly ($\beta = .43$), suggesting adolescents perceived more behavioral control from their parents reported higher academic self-concept. Moreover, there was a significant direct path from mother-reported interparental conflict to adolescent self regulation ($\beta = -.40$) as well as indirect path from mother-reported interparental conflict to adolescent problem behaviors through self-regulatory abilities of adolescents.

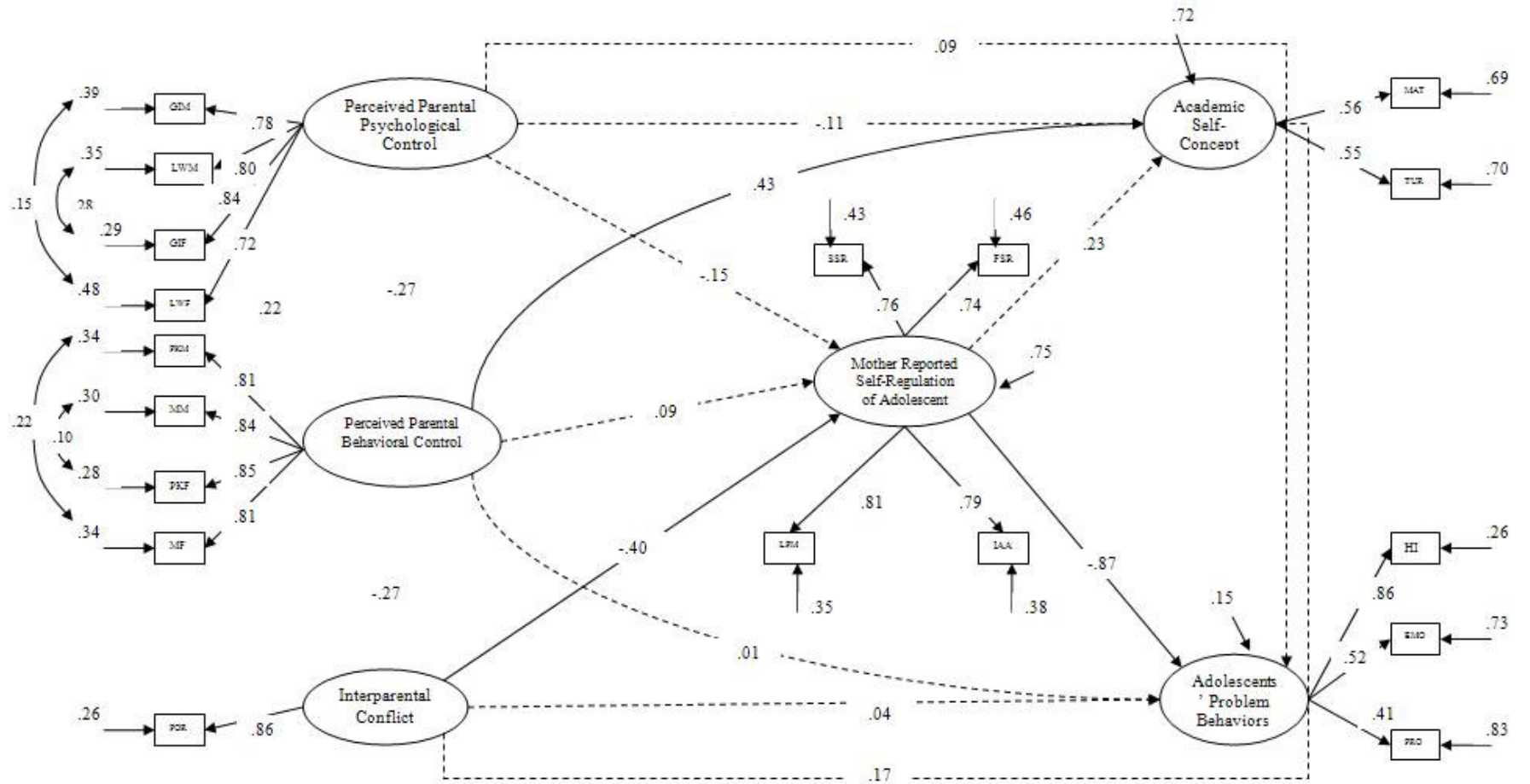


Figure 5. The Structural Model for Full-Mediation Model

Finally, the all-predictors model (Figure 6) in which there were direct paths from all family variables and self-regulation of adolescents to adolescent outcomes had a good fit to the data ($\chi^2(118, N=174)=263.28, p<.001, GFI=.86, AGFI=.79, NNFI=.87, CFI=.90, RMSEA=.08$). The results indicated that perceived parental behavioral control predicted academic self-concept of adolescents ($\beta = .43$) whereas, self-regulation of adolescents predicted problem behaviors ($\beta = -.87$).

Comparing the proposed model to the full mediation revealed no difference between the models ($\Delta\chi^2(4, N=174) = 11.28, ns$). Likewise, there was no difference between the full mediation model and all-predictors model ($\Delta\chi^2(6, N=174) = 12.95, ns$). Considering its parsimony and theoretical relevance, the proposed mediational model was selected as the final model.

Overall, the structural model analyses revealed that parental psychological control and interparental conflict predicted self-regulation of adolescents, which in turn predicted adolescent problem behaviors. Thus, hypothesis 1 had partial empirical support in this sample. Unexpectedly, behavioral control did not predict self-regulation skills of adolescents and these skills did not predict academic self-concept of adolescents. However, bivariate associations revealed significant associations between parental behavioral control dimensions and adolescent self-regulation within the same informant sample (child-reported and mother reported). Similarly, self-regulation did not predict academic self-concept, although bivariate correlation revealed significant associations between them. These two unexpected results may be due to the common method variance. As a further step, two separate models were run in order to deal with this problem using the child and mother reported data separately. Interparental conflict was excluded in these models since this variable was assessed by mother report only.

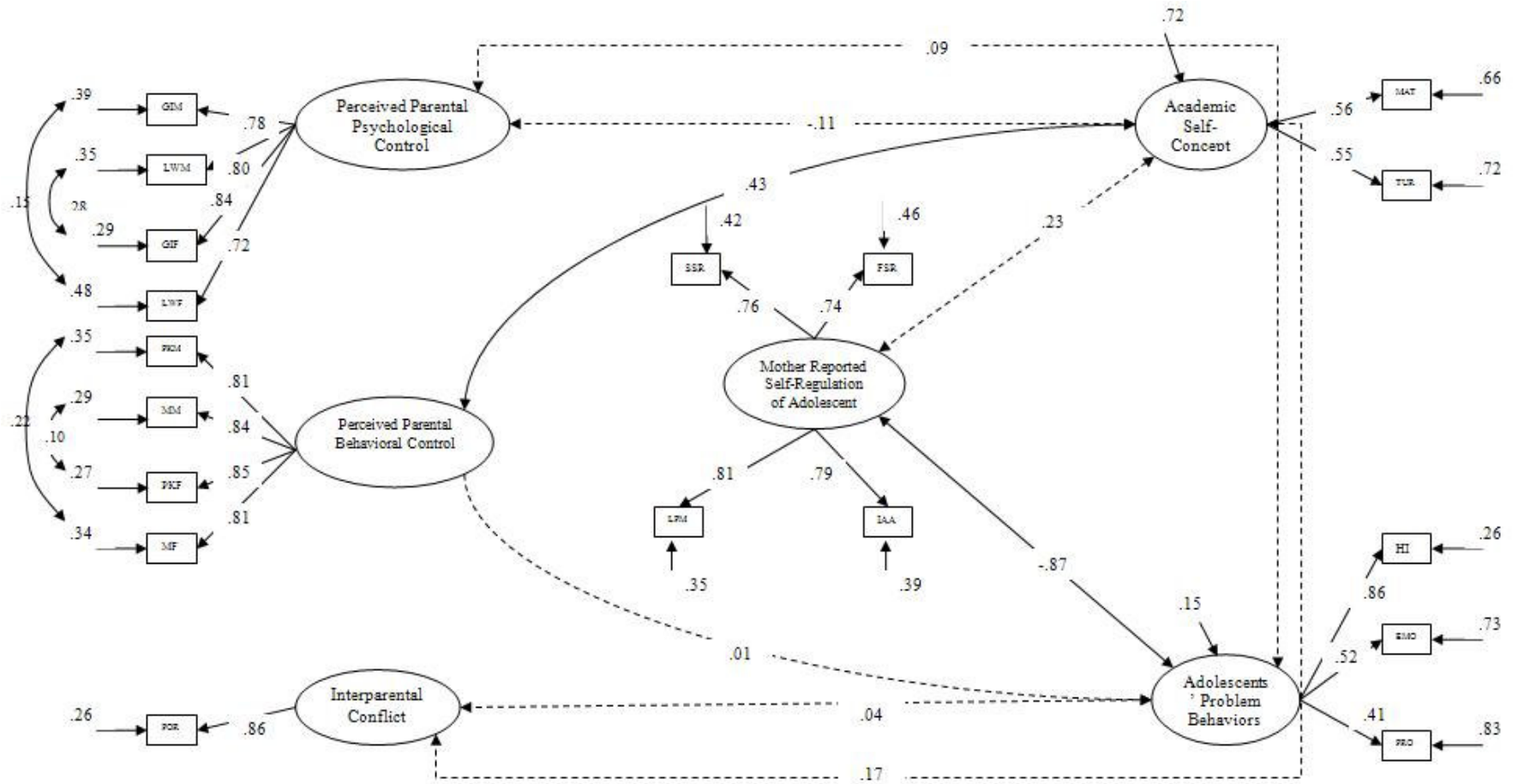


Figure 6. The Structural Model for the Only Direct Effect Model

3.2.2 Adolescent-Reported Model

Figure 7 depicts the proposed model with four latent variables for adolescent reported measures only. The measurement model provided adequate fit to the data ($\chi^2(71, N=272)=291.62, p<.001, GFI=.87, AGFI=.80, NNFI=.80, CFI=.84, RMSEA=.11$). On the basis of the Modification Indices and theoretical relevance, two error terms were added between adolescents' reports of perceived maternal and paternal psychological control dimensions. Conceptually, perceived maternal and paternal psychological controlling behaviors can be perceived consistent for adolescents, and thus, they are expected to be highly correlated. Thus, the error terms between perceived paternal guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors and maternal love withdrawal/irrespective (1); and paternal love withdrawal/irrespective behaviors and maternal guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors (2); were added to the model. The final model provided good fit to the data ($\chi^2(69, N=272)=199.65, p<.001, GFI=.91, AGFI=.86, NNFI=.89, CFI=.92, RMSEA=.08$). All of the indicators loaded significantly on their latent variables. As seen in Figure 8, loadings changed between .78 (paternal love withdrawal/irrespective) and .84 (paternal guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors) for psychological control, between .75 (maternal knowledge) and .84 (paternal knowledge) for behavioral control, between .57 (failure in self regulation (reverse coded)) and .72 (inhibition/activation/adapting) for self-regulation skills, and between .47 (Turkish self-concept) and .53 (Math self-concept) for academic self-concept. All correlations between latent variables were significant and indicated that psychological control were negatively correlated with behavioral control, self-regulation skills, and academic self-concept of adolescents ($r = -0.33$; $r = -0.50$; $r = -0.25$, respectively). Conversely, perceived behavioral control were positively correlated with self-regulation skills and academic self-concept ($r = 0.54$; $r = 0.64$, respectively). Finally, successful self-regulation of adolescents were positively associated with academic self-concept ($r = 0.90$).

In the structural model, the specified paths from: 1) perceived parental psychological control to self-regulation of adolescents; 2) perceived parental behavioral control to self-regulation of adolescents; and 3) self-regulation of adolescents to academic self-concept. The adolescent-reported structural model

provided good fit to the data ($\chi^2(71, N=272)=210.92, p<.001, GFI=.90, AGFI=.85, NNFI=.88, CFI=.91, RMSEA=.09$). The results revealed that perceived behavioral control predicted adolescent self-regulation ($\beta=.46$) as well as perceived psychological control in adolescent sample ($\beta= -.32$). Likewise, self-regulation of adolescents predicted their academic self-concept ($\beta = .90$). Overall, adolescents with high behavioral control reported more successful self-regulation and in turn, reported higher academic self-concept. Conversely, adolescent with high psychological control reported less successful self-regulation and in turn, reported lower level of academic self-concept. The model accounted for 32% variance in self-regulation of adolescents for perceived psychological control and 46% variance in self-regulation of adolescents for perceived behavioral control. The indirect effects of perceived parental control behaviors on academic self-concept were significant and they explained 29% and 42% of variance respectively.

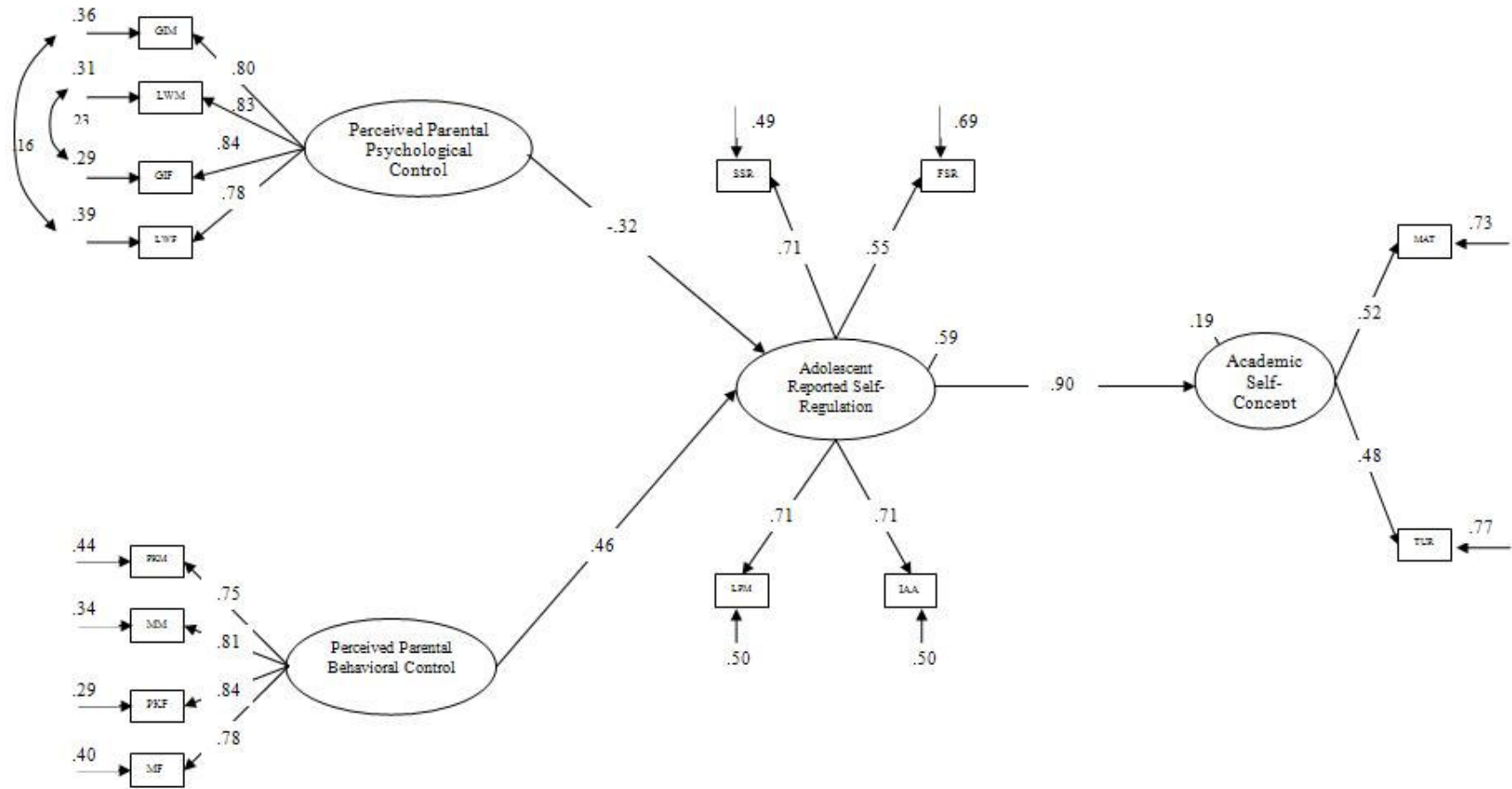


Figure 7. Structural Model for the Adolescent-Reported Model

3.2.3 Mother-Reported Model

The same analyses that were given above for adolescents were repeated for the mother-reported variables using the mother data. Figure 8 depicts the proposed model with four latent variables. Initially, the measurement model provided poor fit to the data ($\chi^2(38, N=188)=200.65, p<.001, GFI=.84, AGFI=.72, NNFI=.78, CFI=.85, RMSEA=.15$). Modification Indices had one reasonable suggestion. In terms of the theoretical relevance, one path was added between the error terms of different dimensions of self-regulation which are low perseverance/monitoring and success in self-regulation. Thus, the error terms between low perseverance/monitoring and success in self-regulation were correlated. The final model provided better fit to the data ($\chi^2(37, N=188)=141.45, p<.001, GFI=.88, AGFI=.78, NNFI=.84, CFI=.89, RMSEA=.11$). All of the indicators loaded significantly on their latent variables. As seen in Figure 8, loadings changed between .65 (guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors) and .66 (love withdrawal/irrespective parenting) for psychological control, between .77 (monitoring) and .83 (knowledge) for behavioral control, between .65 (success in self-regulation) and .84 (inhibition/activation/adapting) for self-regulation skills, and between .39 (prosocial behaviors (reverse coded)) and .82 (hyperactivation/inattention) for problem behaviors. All correlations between latent variables were significant. Psychological control was negatively correlated with behavioral control, and self-regulation skills ($r = -0.53; r = -0.73, respectively$) and positively correlated with problem behaviors of adolescents ($r = -0.75$), suggesting that mothers who reported high psychological control also asserted lower level of behavioral control they performed and less self-regulatory skills about their child. Besides, these mothers reported more adolescent problem behaviors. Moreover, mother-reported behavioral control was positively correlated with self-regulation skills and negatively associated with adolescents' problem behaviors ($r = 0.28; r = -0.24, respectively$). Finally, successful self-regulation of adolescents was negatively associated with problem behaviors ($r = -0.95$).

In the structural model, the specified paths from: 1) mother-reported psychological control to self-regulation of adolescents; 2) mother-reported behavioral control to self-regulation of adolescents; and 3) self-regulation of

adolescents to mother-reported problem behaviors. The mother-reported structural model provided good fit to the data as well ($\chi^2(39, N=188)=140.44, p<.001, GFI=.88, AGFI=.80, NNFI=.85, CFI=.89, RMSEA=.11$). Although mother-reported psychological control predicted adolescents' self-regulation ($\beta = .84$), behavioral control did not predicted adolescent self-regulation. Self-regulation of adolescents negatively predicted mother-reported adolescents' problem behaviors ($\beta = -.95$). Overall, mothers with high psychological control reported more problems in self regulation about their own child and in turn, they reported higher levels of adolescent's problems. Mother reported psychological control explained 84% of variance in adolescents' self-regulation. Mother reported psychological control also explained 80% of variance in adolescents' problem behaviors via self-regulation.

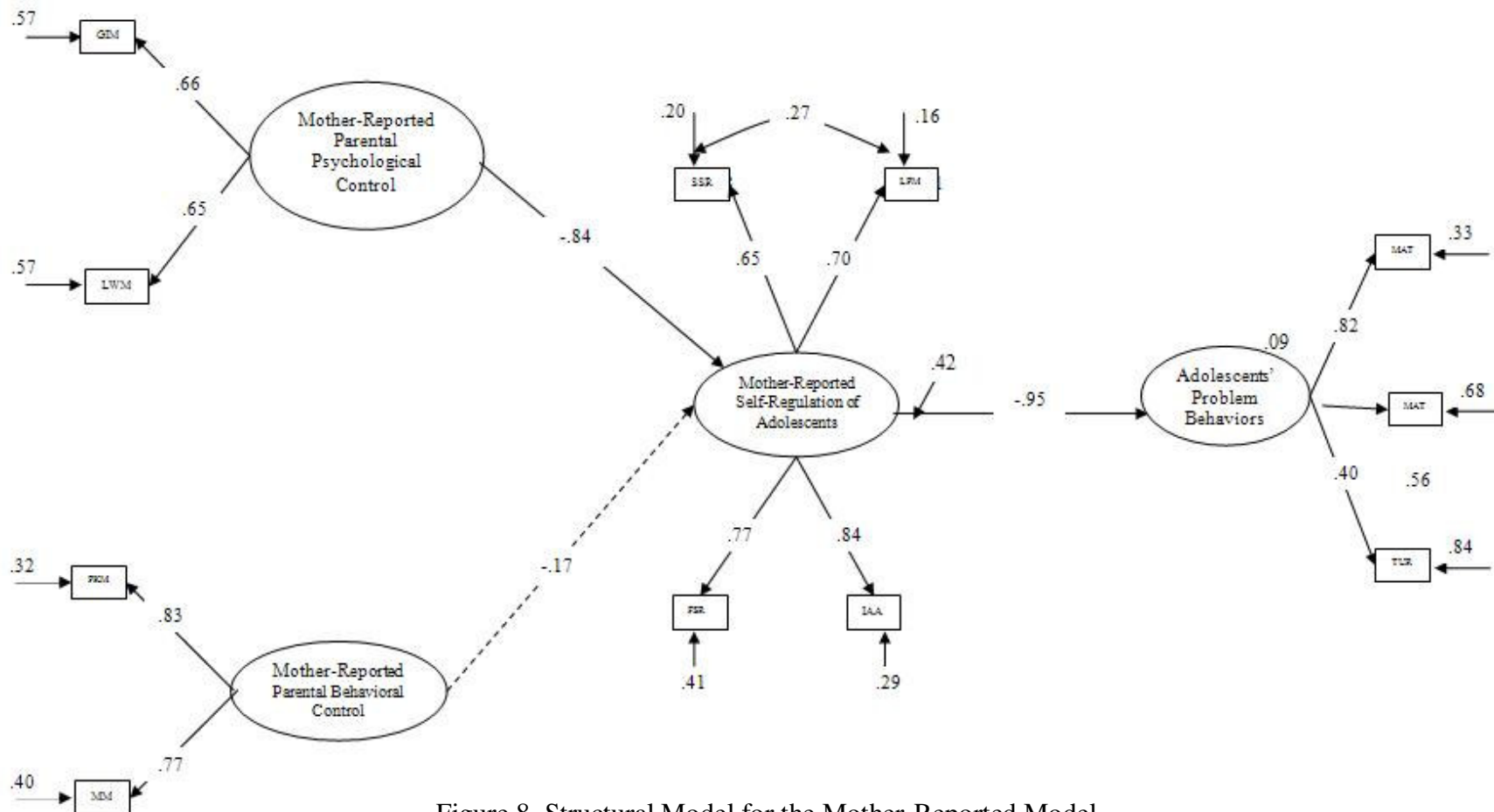


Figure 8. Structural Model for the Mother-Reported Model

3.3 Research Question #2: Are Parental Control Dimensions Linked to Self-Regulation and Adjustment?

3.3.1 Testing Differential Impact of Specific Dimensions of Parental Control

Several hierarchical regression analyses were conducted in order to examine if parental psychological and behavioral control dimensions were associated with adolescent and mother reported self-regulatory abilities, academic self-concept, and adjustment problems (see Table 12 and 13). Gender, age, and mother education of adolescents were controlled in all analyses by entering them in the first step in the regression equations. In the same regression equations, it was also investigated potential impacts of two way interactions between parental behavioral control and psychological control on adolescent outcomes (i.e., H#2) by adding the interaction terms in the final step.

Firstly, it was anticipated that specific dimensions of parental psychological control (love withdrawal/irrespective, and guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors) would have differential impact on adolescent outcomes variables (self-regulation ability, math and Turkish self-concept, hyperactivation/ inattention, emotionality, and prosocial behaviors). To examine this hypothesis, twelve hierarchical regression analyses were performed (see Table. 12). As expected, two different forms of the psychological control had different predictive power on self-regulation abilities and adjustment of adolescents. Specific results for each outcome variable investigated were as follows.

Across analyses, perceived love withdrawal/irrespective from each parent consistently demonstrated a strong relationship with self-regulatory skills and adjustment of adolescents. Contrary to love withdrawal/irrespective dimension, guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors did not have significant association with these adolescent outcomes. As the hierarchical regression results showed (see Table 12), in predicting success in self-regulation, only perceived love withdrawal/irrespective behaviors from mother was significant ($\beta = -.30, p < .001$), suggesting that as perceived love withdrawal/irrespective from mother increases, adolescents report less successful self-regulation abilities about themselves.

Similarly, in predicting failure in adolescents' self-regulation, and inhibition/activation/adapting, only perceived love withdrawal/irrespective

behaviors from mother was significant ($\beta = .18, p < .05$; $\beta = -.26, p < .001$, respectively), indicating that as more love withdrawal/irrespective perceived from mother, adolescents report more self-regulation failure and less inhibition, activation, and adapting behaviors

In predicting mother-reported prosocial behaviors of adolescents, perceived father (instead of mother) love withdrawal/irrespective was found significant ($\beta = -.33, p < .001$). Mothers of adolescents who reported more paternal love withdrawal/irrespective behaviors also reported less prosocial behaviors about their own teens. Moreover, both perceived maternal and paternal love withdrawal/irrespective significantly predicted low perseverance/ monitoring of adolescents ($\beta = .23, p < .001$; $\beta = .20, p < .05$, respectively), suggesting that increases in perceived love withdrawal/irrespective was linked to decreases in perseverance and monitoring abilities of adolescents.

In sum, a series of hierarchical regression analyses indicated that different dimensions of psychological control had differential impact on adolescents' self-regulatory abilities and outcomes. As expected, in the current sample, parental love withdrawal/irrespective had detrimental impacts on adolescent outcomes, whereas induction of guilt didn't related to adolescent related outcomes.

Table 12. Model Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analyses Examining the Impact of the Parental Psychological Control

Analysis	A-R Success in Self-Regulation	A-R Failure in Self-Regulation	A-R Low perseverance Monitoring	A-R Inhibition/Activation/Adapting	A-R Turkish Self-Concept	M-R Prosocial Behaviors
	β	β	β	β	β	β
Step 1: Demographics						
Gender(1=Girls;2=Boys)	.08	.01	.08	-.02	-.20**	-.02
Age in years	-.07	.15*	.09	-.08	.02	-.05
Mother's Education	-.03	.06	-.12*	.05	.07	.19*
ΔR^2	.01	.02	.03*	.01	.04**	.04
Step 2: Psychological Control Dimensions						
GI Mother	.07	.14	.04	-.01	.10	-.04
LW Mother	-.30**	.18*	.23**	-.26**	.01	-.03
GI Father	-.02	.15	-.08	-.12	-.06	.23
LW Father	-.02	.03	.20*	-.05	-.17*	-.33**
ΔR^2	.08**	.17**	.13**	.14**	.03	.07**
Step 3: Squared Terms of Dimensions						
GI Mother X GI Mother	.09	-.10	.07	.03	.12	.02
LW Mother X LW Mother	.11	-.15	-.06	.17*	.27**	.14
GI Father X GI Father	-.01	-.05	-.26**	-.01	-.08	-.01
LW Father X LW Father	.05	-.09	-.11	.00	.00	-.12
ΔR^2	.02	.04*	.05*	.02	.05**	.01
	$\Sigma R^2=.11$	$\Sigma R^2=.23$	$\Sigma R^2=.21$	$\Sigma R^2=.17$	$\Sigma R^2=.12$	$\Sigma R^2=.12$

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .001$ Note. β values were obtained from the last step.

Secondly, it was also hypothesized that parental behavioral control would be associated with positive adolescent outcomes (H#2c). Adolescents' outcome variables regressed on maternal and paternal behavioral control dimensions by using hierarchical regression analyses. Gender, age, and mothers' level of education were entered as control variables on the first step, followed by maternal and paternal parental knowledge and monitoring on the second step.

As seen in Table 13, low perseverance/monitoring, and mother reported hyperactivation/inattention significantly predicted by paternal knowledge in a negative direction ($\beta = -.23, p < .001$; $\beta = -.27, p < .001$, respectively). Meanwhile, paternal knowledge positively predicted inhibition/activation/adapting behaviors ($\beta = .19, p < .05$). Students who perceived more maternal monitoring reported more successful self-regulation ($\beta = .22, p < .05$). Similarly, participants perceived more paternal monitoring also reported higher Turkish self-concept ($\beta = .19, p < .05$).

Table 13 . Model Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analyses Examining the Impact of Parental Behavioral Control

Analysis	A-R Success in Self- Regulation	A-R Low Perseverance/ Monitoring	A-R Inattention/ Adapting	Turkish Self- Concept	M-R Hyperactivation/ Inattention
	β	β	β	β	β
Step 1: Demographics					
Gender(1=Girls;2=Boys)	.09	.08	-.01	-.19**	.32**
Age in years	-.07	.09	-.09	.02	.07
Mother's Education	.02	-.12*	.04	.07	-.08
ΔR^2	.01	.03*	.01	.04*	.12**
Step 2: Behavioral Control Dimensions					
PK Mother	.14	.09	-.02	.15	.04
M Mother	.22*	-.17	.02	-.08	-.09
PK Father	.11	-.23*	.19*	.05	-.27**
M Father	.11	-.11	.15	.19*	.17
ΔR^2	.23**	.14**	.09**	.07**	.06*
Step 3: Squared Terms of Dimensions					
PK Mother X PK Mother	-.05	-.10	.16	.05	.05
M Mother X M Mother	.02	.05	.03	.03	-.08
PK Father X PK Father	-.04	.04	-.11	-.04	.04
M Father X M Father	.05	-.10	.07	-.03	.06
ΔR^2	.00	.01	.02	.00	.01
	$\Sigma R^2=.24$	$\Sigma R^2=.18$	$\Sigma R^2=.12$	$\Sigma R^2=.11$	$\Sigma R^2=.19$

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .001$ Note. β values were obtained from the last step.

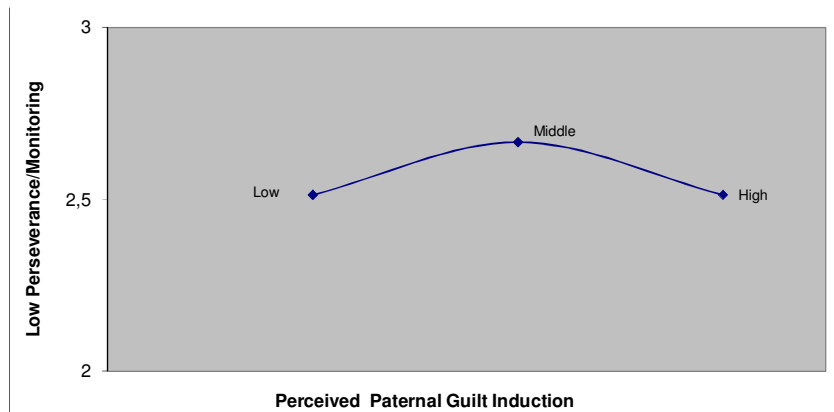
3.3.2 Testing Curvilinearity of the Relationships between Parental Control and Adolescent Outcomes

Two sets of hierarchical multiple regressions were conducted to test linearity of relationships between parental control and adolescent outcomes. The first analysis included impacts of different levels of perceived psychological control in predicting adolescent adjustment. In the second set, behavioral control was replaced with psychological control. In each case, the predicted curvilinear relation of control was entered as a quadratic term (control^2). Following Aiken & West's (1991) suggestions, in all multiple regression analyses, all predictors were centered to reduce multicollinearity between the main effects and interaction terms.

In the first hierarchical regression analysis, the first block of entry contained the control variables (age, gender, and mothers' level of education); the second block included centered maternal and paternal psychological control dimensions (guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors and love withdrawal/irrespective). Finally, the third block contained the squared term of two psychological control dimensions for each parent (see Table 12 and 13).

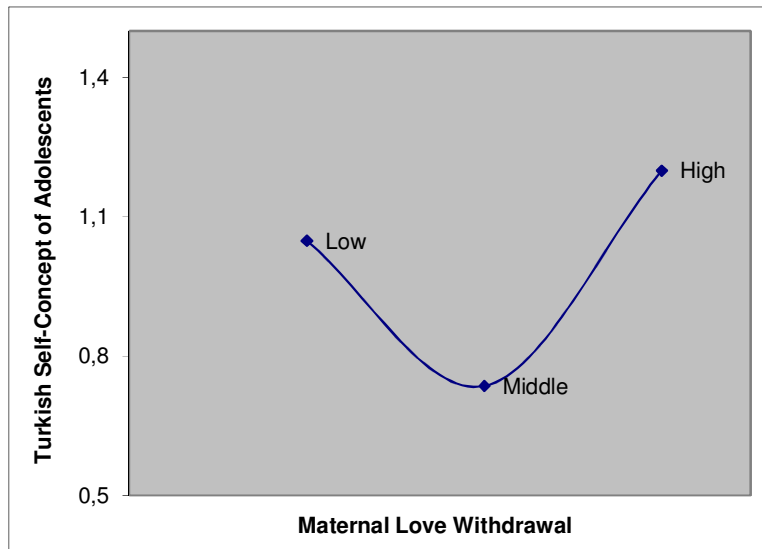
Neither were there theoretical nor consistent empirical evidences to expect curvilinear relationship between parental psychological control and adolescent outcomes. However, unexpectedly, for perceived guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors from father, there was significant non-linear effect on low perseverance/monitoring ($\beta = -.26, p < .001$) of adolescents. Following the Aiken and West (1991), the squared term was probed by examining the regression of low perseverance/monitoring (Y) on perceived paternal guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors (X^2) at three different levels of it (low, moderate, and high levels). In order to probe the quadratic relationship, conditional values was calculated and plotted simple slope as illustrated in Figure 9. This nonmonotonic relationship indicated that high levels of perceived paternal guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors was linked to high levels perseverance/monitoring as well as low level perceived paternal guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors. Moderate levels of paternal guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors associated with the lowest level of perseverance/monitoring abilities of adolescents.

Figure 9. The U-Shaped Relationship between Perceived Paternal Guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors and Low Perseverance/Monitoring



Another nonlinear relationship was found between perceived maternal love withdrawal/irrespective behaviors and Turkish academic self-concept of adolescents. The result of the curvilinear regression analysis was shown in Table 12. Among the parental psychological control and their squared terms, the quadratic term of maternal love withdrawal/irrespective was significant ($\beta = .27, p < .001$) in predicting Turkish self-concept of adolescents. As illustrated in Figure 10, adolescents who reported moderate level maternal love withdrawal/irrespective also reported the lowest level of Turkish academic self-concept, compared to those reported high and low level maternal love withdrawal/irrespective.

Figure 10. The U-Shaped Relationship between Perceived Maternal Love Withdrawal/Irrespective Behaviors and Turkish Self-Concept of Adolescents



3.3.3 Testing Interactions among Parental Control Dimensions

To examine interplay between parental psychological and behavioral control dimensions on adolescent outcomes, several moderated regression analyses were also conducted by following Aiken and West's (1991) procedure (see Table 14 and 15). Three significant interaction effect in predicting mother reported hyperactivation/inattention, low perseverance/monitoring, and prosocial behaviors of adolescents were found.

Table 14 . Model Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analyses Examining the Interaction between Maternal Psychological and Behavioral

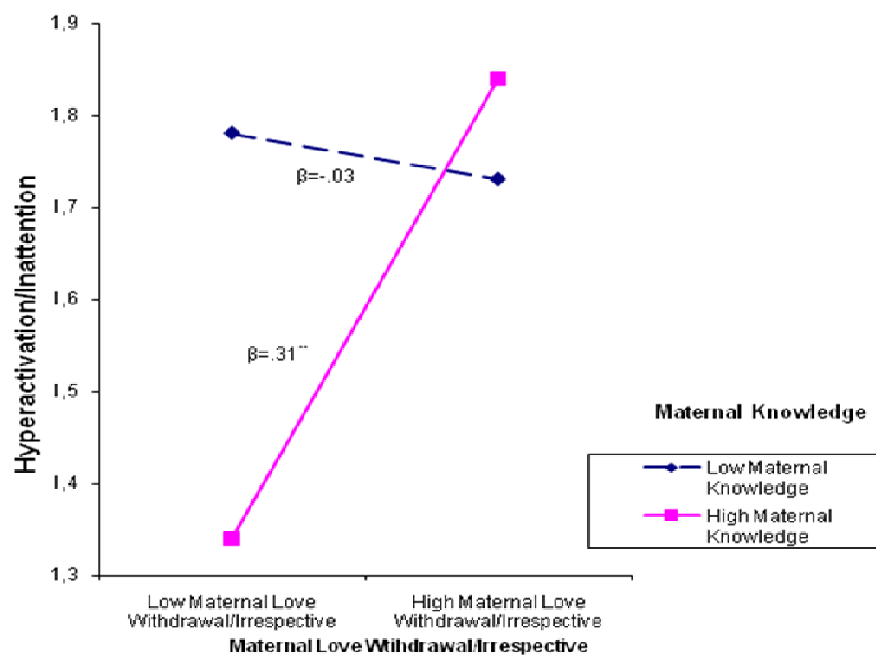
Analysis	Mother Reported Hyperactivation/ Inattention β
Step 1: Demographics	
Gender(1=Girls;2=Boys)	.32**
Age in years	.06
Mother's Education	-.08
ΔR^2	.12**
Step 2: Parental Control Dimensions	
GI Mother	.10
LW Mother	.06
PK Mother	-.12
M Mother	.01
ΔR^2	.03
Step 3: Interaction Terms of Dimensions	
GI Mother X PK Mother	-.18
GI Mother X M Mother	.04
LW Mother X PK Mother	.26**
LW Mother X M Mother	-.19
ΔR^2	.07*
	$\Sigma R^2 = .22$

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .001$

Note. β values were obtained from the last step.

First, the interaction between perceived maternal love withdrawal/irrespective behaviors and maternal knowledge significantly predicted mother-reported hyperactivation/inattention ($\beta = .26, p < .001$) in the third step. This interaction was plotted following the procedures proposed by Aiken and West (1991). As seen in Figure 11, when maternal knowledge was used as a moderating variable, regression coefficient for low maternal knowledge was not significant. However, the coefficient for high maternal knowledge was significant ($\beta = .13, p < .01$), indicating that those adolescents with high maternal knowledge and maternal love withdrawal/irrespective showed the highest mother reported hyperactivation/inattention.

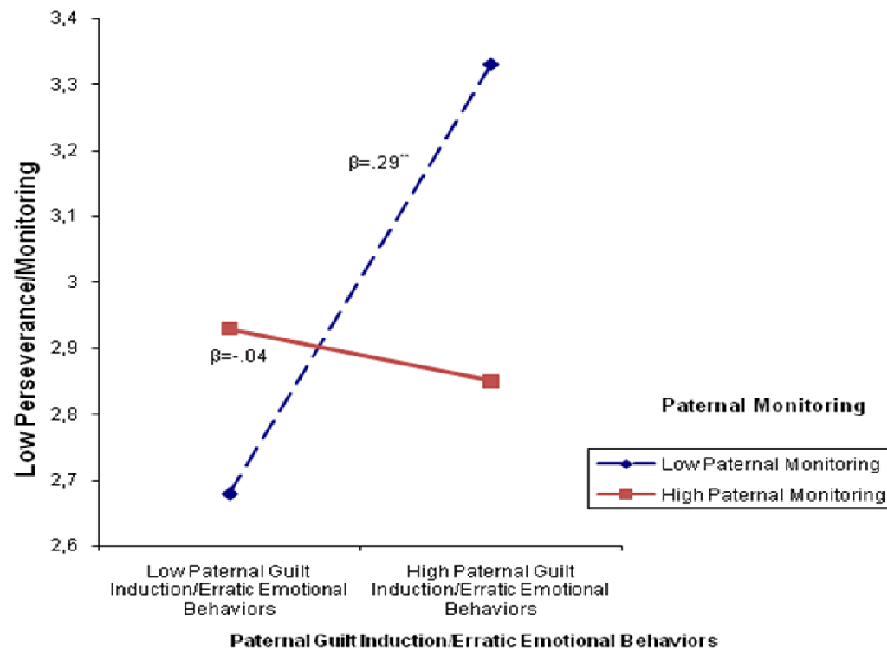
Figure 11. The Interaction between Perceived Maternal Love Withdrawal/Irrespective Behaviors and Maternal Knowledge in Predicting Hyperactivation/Inattention



Second, the interaction between paternal guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors and monitoring significantly predicted mother reported low perseverance/monitoring ($\beta = .38, p < .001$). As seen in Figure 12, when paternal monitoring was used as a moderating variable, regression coefficient for high paternal monitoring was not significant whereas, the coefficient for low paternal monitoring was significant ($\beta = .18, p < .01$), signifying that adolescent with high

paternal guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors and low paternal monitoring performed the lowest perseverance/monitoring in mother their mother reports.

Figure 12. The Interaction between Perceived Paternal Guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors and Monitoring in Predicting Mother Reported Low



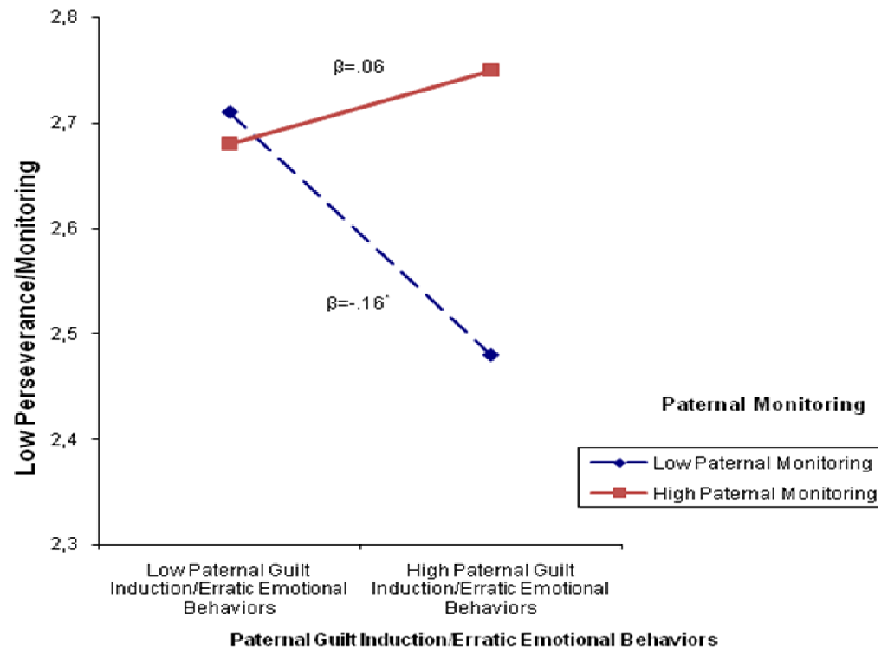
Finally, the interaction between paternal guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors and monitoring significantly predicted mother reported prosocial behaviors of adolescents as well ($\beta = .29, p < .01$). As seen in Figure 13, when paternal monitoring was used as a moderating variable, regression coefficient for high paternal monitoring was not significant. However, the coefficient for low paternal monitoring was significant ($\beta = -.09, p < .05$), indicating that when fathers were perceived high guilt inductive and low monitoring, mothers reported that their child showed the lowest prosocial behaviors.

Table 15. Model Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analyses Examining the Interaction between Paternal Psychological and Behavioral Control

Analysis	Mother- Reported Low Perseverance/ Monitoring	Mother- Reported Prosocial Behaviors
	β	β
Step 1: Demographics		
Gender(1=Girls;2=Boys)	.21**	-.01
Age in years	.09	-.06
Mother's Education	.05	.18*
ΔR^2	.06*	.04
Step 2: Parental Control Dimensions		
GI Father	-.03	.19
LW Father	.12	-.31**
PK Father	-.21*	.06
M Father	.04	.04
ΔR^2	.05	.07*
Step 3: Interaction Terms of Dimensions		
GI Father X PK Father	.13	-.09
GI Father X M Father	.38**	.29*
LW Father X PK Father	-.02	-.21
LW Father X M Father	.17	.07
ΔR^2	.06*	.06*
	$\Sigma R^2=.17$	$\Sigma R^2=.17$

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .001$ Note. β values were obtained from the last step.

Figure 13. The Interaction between Paternal Guilt induction/Erratic Emotional Behaviors and Monitoring in Predicting Mother Reported Prosocial Behaviors of Adolescents



Consequently, all significant interaction effects showed that the impact of maternal knowledge on hyperactivation was deteriorated when maternal love withdrawal/irrespective was high. Moreover, in predicting low perseverance/monitoring and prosocial behaviors of adolescent, interaction between paternal guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors and monitoring was significant indicating that low levels of paternal monitoring in interaction with paternal guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors had deteriorated influence on perseverance/monitoring and prosocial behaviors of adolescents.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

The primary goal of the current study was to better understand the antecedents and consequences of self-regulation in adolescence. Based on the previous theoretical and empirical work on parenting effects (Baumrind, 1991a; Barber, 1996), the adolescents' self-regulation and adjustment, two main research questions about parental control, interparental conflict, self-regulation, and adjustment were addressed. First, it was tested that whether self-regulation abilities of adolescents mediate the relationship between parental control, interparental control, and adolescent adjustment. Second, the nature of the impact of the parental control on adolescents' self-regulation and adjustment was examined. The findings will be discussed considering each research questions will be addressed separately. After discussing main findings, limitations of the study and suggestions for future research will be presented. Finally, major contributions of the study will be discussed.

4.1 Bivariate Associations among the Study Variables

According to mean scores of each variable, both adolescent and mother reported guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors were higher than love withdrawal/irrespective practices suggesting that inducing guilt may be prevalent practice in the Turkish cultural context. Although its prevalence in the current sample, impacts of the love withdrawal/irrespective were found to be more harmful on the adolescent adjustment, as mentioned below (see Table 6). Moreover, items tapping concern over guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors might be seen more acceptable rather than undesirable by mothers and their child. For example, saying *my mother/father makes me feel guilty when I misbehave* less threatening than the item *my mother/father is less friendly with me, if I don't see anything her/his way*.

Similarly, the mean scores of adolescent and mother reported parental knowledge were higher than adolescent and mother reported parental monitoring. These results signify and verify the knowledge that having knowledge about child does not guarantee that a mother (or father) will monitor her/his child (Kerr, & Stattin, 2000). Consequently, as a less complex task, adolescents and mothers reported more parental knowledge, compared to parental monitoring.

Overall, the correlations were in expected direction. Preliminary results revealed that the specific dimensions of perceived parental psychological and behavioral control were significantly associated with each other. Particularly, perceived maternal and paternal love withdrawal/irrespective was negatively correlated with perceived maternal and paternal knowledge and monitoring, but not guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors (see Table 9). These results provide initial support for hypothesis 2 in which different dimensions of psychological control would have different predictive power on adolescent adjustment. These results also provided partial support to Barber, Olsen and Shagle's (1994) findings in which psychological control is conceptually and empirically distinguished from behavioral control. Although these researchers didn't compare sub-dimensions of psychological control and behavioral control, they found that the proposed latent variables of the psychological control (comprised of authoritarian intrusive, enmeshed parenting and love withdrawal/irrespective) and the behavioral control (comprised of unrestricted autonomy, laissez faire, and monitoring) were significantly correlated ($r(422)=-.23, p<.001$).

The association between psychological and behavioral control may vary substantially between families. There may be families that impose high levels of both psychological and behavioral control, but there may also be families whose intrusion into the psychological autonomy of the child may not extend to strict rules and regulations on behavior, and who are, in fact, disengaged or quite permissive. Future studies should also explore the association between the two types of parenting control in different family types.

Concerning the associations between parenting variables and the adolescent outcomes; the bivariate associations between both perceived and mother reported psychological/behavioral control and self-regulation skills of adolescents' were also statistically significant (see Table 6 and 7). These results were consistent with

parenting theories suggesting that behaviors associated with authoritative parenting (e.g., high levels of behavioral control and low levels of psychological control) are precursors of self-regulation, while non-authoritative parenting may undermine its development (Barber, & Harmon, 2002; Baumrind, 1991a). Thus, it was expected that adolescents' self-regulation abilities would be high among youth who reported high levels of behavioral control and low levels of psychological control. The bivariate associations were entirely in expected direction, albeit in an unanticipated pattern showing that the correlations between perceived/mother-reported knowledge and failure of self-regulation of adolescent were insignificant. It may be due to the desirable items placed into the parental knowledge sub-dimension of the parental behavioral control.

The associations between parental control variables and adolescent outcomes were also consistent with previous studies (e.g., Barber, 1996; Kindap, & Sayil, 2008; Kindap, Sayil, & Kumru, 2008; Olsen et.al., 2002). Thus, the bivariate correlations indicated that perceived and mother reported parental psychological and behavioral control dimensions were associated with both adolescent reported academic self-concept and mother reported problem behaviors (see Table 9, and 10). Moreover, mother-reported dimensions of psychological control; namely guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors and love withdrawal/irrespective were positively correlated with mothers' perception of adolescents' hyperactivation and emotionality and also negatively correlated with prosocial behaviors. Similarly, mothers of adolescents who reported high parental knowledge and monitoring reported less hyperactivation and emotionality, and reported higher level of prosocial behaviors about their offspring. These preliminary results provided evidence to Patterson and Loeber's (1984) proposition that positive parental management practices are critical in fostering socially competent behavior during adolescence.

As expected, adolescent self-regulation correlated with both positive and negative adjustment outcomes. The indicators of adjustment in the current study included hyperactivation and emotionality for the negative adjustment, and math and Turkish self-concept, and prosocial behaviors for the positive adjustment. Adolescents' self-regulation was found to be associated with all five indicators of adjustment in expected directions. These results were also consistent with prior

findings about the relationship between adolescents' self-regulation and externalizing (Tangrey et al., 2004), internalizing behaviors (Brody & Ge, 2001) and academic competency (Mischel et al., 1989; Wulfert et al., 2002).

4.2 Gender Differences in Adolescents' Perceived Parental Control, Self-Regulation and Adjustment

The results of Analysis of Variances (ANOVA) yielded significant gender differences on a number of the major study variables. First, boys perceived more psychological control than female adolescents but, this finding is only valid for perceived control from father, not from mother. Second, mothers of female adolescents reported higher levels of parental knowledge and monitoring than mothers of boys. Moreover, they also reported less love withdrawal/irrespective. Third, as compared to mothers of boys, girls' mothers reported more successful self-regulation and inhibition/adapting/activation behaviors for their children. Conversely, mother of boys reported more failure of self-regulation and low perseverance/monitoring for their children than female adolescents. Finally, girls reported higher levels of Turkish efficacy and their mothers reported less hyperactivation/inattention than boys.

These gender differences signify that psychological control are exerted to boys and girls differently by mothers and fathers and both gender perceive parental control differently. Fathers seem to be mainly perceived as a disciplinary figure among Turkish culture. However male adolescents seemed to perceive these kinds of disciplinary behaviors as more intrusive and less autonomy granting behaviors than their female counterparts. This finding is also consistent with Barber's (1996) finding that male adolescents perceive being more psychologically controlled than female adolescents, but this is valid for only for fathers not mothers. Similarly, Finkenauer and her colleagues (2005) found that gender differences were common in both strict control and psychological control. Particularly, boys reported lower levels of strict control but higher levels of psychological control than girls. Empirically, researchers concluded that similar parenting behaviors have different effects on boys and girls. For example, Baumrind (1991b) repeatedly found the effects of authoritarian parenting in early childhood were more harmful for boys than girls. Likewise, Conger, Conger, and Scaramella (1997) indicated that

adolescent boys were more sensitive to parenting behaviors that were intrusive or controlling than were adolescent girls. In his study Barber (1996) found the relationship between parental psychological control and depression was particularly clear for boys. Similarly, the finding in this study suggests that parents' intrusive and directive parenting strategy such as psychological control might have a stronger impact on adolescent boys than girls.

Moreover, mothers of female adolescents reported more behavioral control than mothers of male adolescents. This pattern was also seen in maternal knowledge reported by adolescents. No significant difference for paternal behavioral control dimensions was detected. Results were consistent with Kindap et al.'s (2008) findings. They found that girl participants reported more behavioral control from their mothers. These findings might suggest that mothers' knowledge of their growing female adolescents' activities (and the behavior control strategies that are, presumably, associated with that knowledge) are "particularly protective" in times of transitional stress of adolescence, compared to mothers of male adolescents.

There were also significant gender differences in the components of self-regulation abilities. All of these differences were in the expected directions. The difference in success of self-regulation and, inhibition/adapting/ activation behaviors favored girls, which is consistent with prior studies (Raffaelli, et al., 2005). Girls also reported higher levels of academic self-concept and their mothers reported lower levels of hyperactivation/inattention, which has already been reported in the previous studies (e.g., Galambos, et al., 2004)

4.2.1 Age Differences in Adolescents' Perceived Parental Control, Self-Regulation and Adjustment

Although there was relatively small variance in age of the participants, there were significant age differences in adolescents' perceived parental control, self-regulation and adjustment. With age, adolescents develop a stronger sense of self that is separate from their parents and greater sensitivity to violations of their psychological autonomy. This finding is consistent with Barber's (1996) finding on a sample of 5th, 8th, and 10th graders which found that the effects of mothers'

psychological control on adolescents' outcomes were stronger for older than for younger adolescents.

It was found that only perceived paternal guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors and mother reported love withdrawal/irrespective behaviors were higher for older adolescents. These findings may also be explained with different parental roles played by mothers and fathers. Past research indicated that mothers are more likely to be involved in caregiving, and fathers are more likely to engage in leisure activities with their children (Collins, 1992). Conceivably, younger adolescents need and rely on mothers' care more than older adolescents. Older adolescents, probably do not need as much care from mothers as younger adolescents, and might have more time to spend with fathers, and thus, the influence of fathers' psychological control (perceived guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors from father for this study) is more salient for them. Additionally, because the transition from early to mid-adolescence creates new developmental needs for a sense of autonomy and self-identity, it is plausible to expect that adolescent perceive higher parental psychological control as they grow even though parent do not change the level of their controlling behaviors. There was also significant age difference in behavioral control dimensions. Specifically, younger adolescents perceived more monitoring from their fathers and their mothers reported more maternal knowledge. These results were also consistent with the idea that younger adolescents need and rely on parents' care and monitoring more than older adolescents.

Older adolescents reported more self-regulation failure and similarly, their mothers reported more self-regulation failure and less inhibition/adapting/activation behaviors on their children. These findings are inconsistent with the previous works on self-regulation development. Self-regulation ability is assumed to be highly sensitive to developmental changes and as children get older they are expected to be more competent in self-regulatory abilities (Kopp, 1982; Tangney, et. al., 2004). This inconsistency may be due to the developmental stage characteristics of the current study's sample. Although all participants were adolescent, older adolescents (at 13 years old) are in a more challenging period for overriding and/or altering stimulus that is attractive in nature (i.e., romantic interactions, or peer group activities), compared to younger adolescents. The reason why the difference

in failure of self-regulation and, inhibition/adapting/ activation behaviors favored older adolescent may be explained by the characteristics of this critical stage.

4.3 Mediating Role of Self-Regulation

Primary goal of the present study was to test a hypothesized model of parenting and interparental conflict on adolescent self-regulation and adjustment. The general model was tested in three different configuration of the variables dependent the source of the data. First, the model tested with adolescents' reports of parenting, mother-reported interparental conflict and self-regulation of adolescents and adolescent/mother reported adjustment variables. Second, adolescent reported model in which the mediational link between parental control and academic self-concept through self-regulation abilities was tested. Third, the model tested again with mothers' reports of parenting, self-regulation and problem behaviors to avoid problems related to common method variance.

It was hypothesized that self-regulation would mediate the associations between parental control, interparental conflict and adjustment. There was partial support for the proposed mediational model, in which the effects of perceived psychological control and interparental conflict on adjustment were mediated by mother-reported self-regulation for only problem behaviors (see Figure 4). Although mediation was also tested for the possible relationship between parental psychological control, interparental control and problem behaviors (hyperactivation/inattention, emotionality, and prosocial behaviors), the model was not supported, in that parental behavioral control did not predict self-regulation abilities of adolescents. For problem behaviors, results indicated that psychological control and interparental conflict have an indirect effect via self-regulation abilities of adolescents. For academic self-concept, these family context variables did not have any significant effect through self-regulation abilities, but it was directly predicted by parental behavioral control.

Taken together, these findings support the notion that parenting and self-regulation have additive effects on the particular indicators of adjustment examined in the current study, as is suggested by Eisenberg and Valentine (2004). The findings seem somewhat inconsistent with findings in previous research, specifically the work of Finkenauer and colleagues (2005). Finkenauer and

colleagues (2005) found evidence for both direct and indirect effects of parental control on adjustment via self-control (an important indicator of self-regulation abilities). In the current study, however, direct links from parental control to adolescent adjustment were insignificant. In most models tested in the current study, the addition of self-regulation to the model was sufficient to significantly reduce the effects of parenting on outcome variable. Thus, the findings of the current study are consistent with the prior work in terms of the mediational relationship.

The insignificant mediational link between perceived behavioral control and academic self-concept via self-regulation might be due to the common method variance. To overcome this statistical problem, two different models;-adolescent-reported and mother-reported models were run. For adolescent reported model, perceived behavioral control predicted academic self-concept via self-regulation of adolescent as well as perceived psychological control. For mother reported model, however, behavioral control did not predict self-regulation abilities of adolescent. In the mother-reported model, behavioral control was a suppressor variable: its effect was visible only when psychological control was excluded from the model simultaneously. This is an interesting finding, and this result is the support for Baumrind's (1991a) theoretical assertions that different types of parental behaviors may impact different aspects of development. It seems that the impact of parental behavioral control on adolescent outcome is independent from parental psychological control

Overall, results of mediated models suggest that (1) parental control variables predicted adolescent adjustment via self-regulation abilities of adolescents (2) interparental conflict variables significantly predicted adjustment through self-regulation abilities of adolescents, (3) self-regulation abilities of adolescents predicted adolescent problem behaviors. The direct links from parenting and interparental conflict to adolescent adjustment were insignificant, except for the relationship between behavioral control and academic self-concept. Consequently, these findings suggest that conditional regards and conflictual family environment negatively effect adolescent self-regulation and in turn their adjustment.

4.4 Parental Control and Self-Regulation

Parenting theories suggest that behaviors associated with authoritative parenting (e.g., high levels of behavioral control and low levels of psychological control) are precursors of self-regulation, while non-authoritative parenting may undermine its development (Barber, & Harmon, 2002; Baumrind, 1991a). Similarly, it was found that self-regulation abilities were high in youth who reported low levels of psychological control (and high levels of behavioral control for adolescent-reported model).

These results are consistent with previous findings. Grolnick, Ryan, and Deci (1997) proposed that psychologically controlling parents fail to provide children with valuable information to make estimation on their own by presenting too many potential strategies which make difficult to select the best alternative for the child. As in the adolescent reported model, compared to psychologically controlling parents, children whose parents set clear standards and monitor school progress (behavioral control) tend to regulate their self better. Consistent with this finding, Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, Mounts, and Dornbusch (1994) showed that authoritative parenting (characterized with low psychological control and high behavioral control) were associated with adolescent's self-reliance which is conceptually close to self-regulation, whereas adolescents with authoritarian parents (characterized with high psychological control and low behavioral control) had the worst self-reliance. Adolescents with neglectful parents didn't differ from adolescents with authoritarian parents with respect to their self-reliance. Moreover, Deci and Ryan (1985) asserted that induction, reasoning, explanation, and democratic parenting are positively associated with adolescents' performance in the absence of parents' supervision.

4.5 Interparental Conflict and Self-Regulation

It was hypothesized that interparental conflict would have a negative impact on adolescent self-regulatory abilities and this hypothesis was generally confirmed. Consistent with the Volling, Blandon and Kolak's (2006) findings, it was found that interparental conflict negatively predicted adolescent self-regulation skills. These conflictual situations might disrupt parents' "parenting ability", thus, they might use more power-oriented control strategies leading unsuccessful self-regulation

development. Similarly, Thompson and Calkins (1996) asserted that children in conflictual marriages employ the regulatory processes that promote both risk and adaptation. Likewise, the preschoolers, dysregulated by their parents' conflict, attempted to maintain a sense of control and well-being by expressly denying their distress and behavioral disruption (Martin, & Clements, 2002).

4.6 Self-Regulation and Adolescent Adjustment

Self-regulation is considered to be a precursor of overall adjustment across the lifespan (Moilanen, 2005; Tangney, et. al., 2004). Thus, it was hypothesized that self-regulation would be linked to both positive and negative adjustment. Hypotheses about associations between self-regulation and adolescent adjustment were widely supported. The proposed indicators of negative adjustment for the current study included hyperactivation/inattention, emotionality and reversed prosocial behaviors, and the indicators of positive adjustment were math and Turkish self-concept. In the SEM models, two different self-regulatory skills were used as indicators of self regulation. Latent variable for self-regulation predicted adolescents' both negative and positive adjustment (for only adolescent-reported model). Consistent with prior studies (e.g., externalizing: Tangney et al., 2004; internalizing: Brody & Ge, 2001; academic competence: Mischel et al., 1989; Wulfert et al., 2002), these results indicate that being able to control and regulate oneself seems to be indicative of better academic success and fewer signs of problem behaviors. Moreover, being able to inhibit impulses and persevere on a specific task are indicative of better behavioral, social and academic adjustment. The results obtained from this study support existing works and suggest opening the field to a new realm of possibilities.

The implications of the results can be summarized as follows. In the light of this result, an important task for parents is to instill self-regulation, especially by teaching their children to regulate their thoughts, emotions, and behaviors. Positive and adaptive parenting (i.e., high parental knowledge and monitoring, and little use of manipulative psychological control dimensions) may create an environment in which teaching and learning self-regulation is encouraged. Specifically, results showed that parents' tendencies to monitor children's whereabouts, to implement firm rules, and to provide secure environment without conflict may represent

conditions under which children efficiently learn to regulate their self. These types of parenting not only provide the children basic needs, it also supplies a protective context for them to practice and refine their capacity for self-self-regulation (Finkenauer, Engels, & Baumeister, 2005). As a result, if parents achieve creating these kinds of environment, the youngsters will be less likely to develop maladjustment behaviors.

4.7 Specific Dimensions of Parental Control and its Effects on Adjustment

4.7.1 The Impacts of Parental Psychological Control

Although many researchers have indicated the importance of specific dimensions of psychological control (e.g., Barber & Harmon, 2002; Grolnick, 2003), none of the previous studies have examined the unique effects of these specific dimensions of psychological control on adolescent outcomes. As a contribution to the field, unique impacts of manipulative types of parental psychological control (guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors and love withdrawal/irrespective) on adolescent self-regulation and adjustment were tested and it was expected that guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors would not be perceived as threatening as much as perceived love withdrawal/irrespective in the current study's sample. The results of a series of hierarchical regression analyses supported this expectation. As expected, perceived love withdrawal/irrespective significantly predicted aspects of self-regulatory skills and adjustment, whereas guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors did not predict any adolescent outcome variable. This result is partially contradictory with Barber and Harmon's (2002) *lower order characterization* of psychological control. They classified guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors and love withdrawal/irrespective in manipulative type of control and they implicitly assumed the effects of these kinds of parenting behaviors are similar. However, they did not take into account the meaning and the valance of these specific manipulative styles of control for adolescents (or children). The current study suggests that guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors and love withdrawal/irrespective have differential impact. These diverse impacts of manipulative style parental psychological control (deteriorated impacts of love withdrawal/irrespective and neutral impacts of guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors) may be explained by several ways.

First of all, differential impacts of guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors and love withdrawal/irrespective may be due to the meaning of them for adolescents. Love withdrawal/irrespective may be perceived as parents' displeasure with the child's behaviors and controls the child through separation from parent so that the child loses parental attention or affection (Grolnick, 2003), whereas this is not the case for guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors. According to Grolnick (2003), regardless of the valance of the effect on the child, guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors is used by parents with good intentions to provide the best for their children. Similarly, Tangney and Dearing (2002) defined inducing guilt as a motivation of the child in a more "moral direction" to precipitate corrective action. Adolescents may perceive these guilt inductive behaviors (e.g., the correlation between guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors and love withdrawal/irrespective was positive) as controlling but they might recognize that their parents use these kinds of behaviors with good intentions. Both correlation and hierarchical regression analyses results were consistent with this argument. Another support for the current study's findings may come from the self-determination theory. This theory focuses on the "social psychology of self-regulation" by studying the social conditions that support or undermine integrative processes in humans (Deci, & Ryan, 1987). The theory asserts that there are three primary psychological needs: autonomy (i.e., feeling free to choose one's own behavior), competence (i.e., interacting effectively with one's environment), and relatedness (i.e., feeling meaningfully connected to others) that stimulate exploration and adaptation. Theoretically, according to Ryan, Deci, and Grolnick (1995), parenting behaviors facilitate (or impede) children's basic psychological need for autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Previous works have revealed that parenting behaviors are essential components in healthy psychological development. Ryan et. al. (1995) proposed that an individual regulates his/her behaviors based on caretakers being autonomy supportive, facilitating competence, and providing structure. However, as Barber and Harmon (2002) showed that psychological control, especially manipulative form of control, intrudes into the psychological and emotional development of child or adolescent and in turn, impedes children's basic psychological need for autonomy. Specifically, using love withdrawal/irrespective may lead adolescents to comply with the implicit demands

and to avoid the socializing agents. Thus, it implies ambivalent feelings with inhibited autonomy in the child. Because guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors include more “moral direction” to precipitate corrective action, it might not be perceived as threatening as love withdrawal/irrespective for the development of the autonomous self.

Third, the differential impacts of guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors and love withdrawal/irrespective can also be explained by attachment theory. Attachment theorists, building on the work of Bowlby (1969) and Ainsworth (1989), have long been providing insights into how interactions with caregivers come to shape children’s self-representations (see Bretherton, 1992). Positive interactions with attachment figures lead secure individuals to develop the belief that they have control over the course and outcome of events. This confidence in their self-regulation skills allows them to develop better strategies to deal with environmental demands. Moreover, a sense of attachment security may help individuals to enrich their self-regulatory skills by allowing them to direct resources to exploration (Mikulincer, Shaver, & Pereg, 2003). Thus, chronic attachment security may act as a source which slows down the depletion of regulatory resources and enable the self to exert greater self-regulation. In the light of this perspective, adolescents who consistently perceive that their parents are always trying to change them, or who experienced parental manipulative behaviors that threaten a disruption or discontinuance of the emotional bond between their parent and adolescent (e.g., love withdrawal/irrespective), may likely have difficulty recognizing their own uniqueness or adequacy or may be unwilling to trust their own ideas or individuality. Thus, it may result in self-regulation failure and maladjustment. However, inducing guilt has a corrective aspect rather than a threat for a disruption of the emotional bond between caregiver and child. Consequently, love withdrawal/irrespective might have more detrimental impacts than guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors on adolescent self-regulation and adjustment.

Finally, as compared to guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors, the strong link between love withdrawal/irrespective and adolescent adjustment can be explained by cultural implications and meanings. It should be considered that, while guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors may be perceived more as a behavior regulatory or inductive parenting practice by the adolescent, love

withdrawal/irrespective/irrespective may be seen more rejecting, and manipulative in Turkish cultural context. Considering Kagitcibasi's (2007) theoretical framework on the autonomous-related self, it can be proposed that inducing guilt by parents may not be perceived as controlling, or intrusive in the emotional or material interdependent family context. From the eyes of the adolescent, mother (or father) can criticize, induce guilt, or shame in order to develop good and strong characters or morals. In other words, these practices are exerted with good intentions. However, threat of love withdrawal/irrespective may cause disengagement of interdependency relationship with parents for adolescent. Although these cultural explanations make sense about why the inconsistent impacts of manipulative style of controlling behaviors were observed in Turkish culture, these hypotheses still need to be tested in different cultural settings via cross-cultural comparisons.

4.7.2 The Impacts of Parental Behavioral Control

As expected, perceived behavioral control was found to be associated with the adolescent outcomes positively. Consistent with the previous studies on parental behavioral control, factor analyses yielded two main dimensions – parental knowledge and monitoring. Hierarchical regression analyses showed that paternal knowledge and monitoring positively predicted inhibition/activation/adapting behaviors and Turkish self-concept of adolescents, respectively. They also negatively predicted low perseverance/monitoring, and hyperactivation/inattention. Moreover, perceived maternal monitoring predicted successful self-regulation. These findings were consistent with the previous studies showing that insufficient behavioral control is a greater risk for the development of externalized problem behaviors (Barber & Olsen, 1994) and antisocial behavior (Barber, Stolz, & Olsen, 2005) amongst adolescents. As mentioned in the previous sections, the link between behavioral control and externalizing behaviors can be explained in two plausible ways: (1) parental behavioral control facilitates self-regulation abilities of children and their engagement in socially approved behaviors; (2) children experiencing inadequate behavioral control (in other words, unsupervised children) are more likely to be influenced by peers, some of whom may encourage risk-taking and deviant behaviors (e.g., delinquency) (Barber, Stolz, & Olsen, 2005).

Examining the nature of the associations between parental control dimensions and adolescent outcomes was one of the aims of the current study. Although many studies found linear relationship between parental control and adolescent adjustment (Barber, 1996; Olsen, et. al., 2002), little research found a U-shaped relation between these dimensions (Mason, Cauce, Gonzales, & Hiraga, 1996; Galambos, Barker, & Almeida, 2003). Taking these two sets of findings into account, it was tested that whether the relationship between parental control and adolescent adjustment is linear or not. Specifically, only behavioral control was assumed to have a U-shaped relationship with adolescent outcomes. Non-linear regression analyses results revealed only two significant curvilinear relationships. A non-linear relationship was found between perceived paternal guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors and low perseverance/monitoring of adolescents. Besides, nonlinear relationship was also found between perceived maternal love withdrawal/irrespective behaviors and Turkish academic self-concept of adolescents (see Figures 9 and 10). Unexpectedly, no curvilinear relationship was found between parental behavioral control and adolescent outcomes. High levels of perceived paternal guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors was linked to high levels perseverance/monitoring as well as low levels of perceived paternal guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors. Moderate levels of paternal guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors associated with the lowest level of perseverance/monitoring abilities of adolescents. Inducing guilt from fathers may provide adolescents to learn perseverance and monitor their activities. Consistent with the Tangney and Dearing (2002), inducing guilt may be a motivation of the child in a more “moral direction” to precipitate corrective action. They proposed that presence of guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors has been linked to the development of prosocial behaviors, including altruism, empathy, and social perspective taking. However, this is true only for perseverance dimension which is an important factor of self-regulation. Consequently, it is possible that effects of guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors can be domain-specific. In other words, guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors may have divergent impacts on specific dimensions of adolescents’ self-regulation and adjustment. Moreover, adolescents who reported moderate level maternal love withdrawal/irrespective also reported the lowest level of Turkish academic self-concept, compared to those reported high

and low level maternal love withdrawal/irrespective. Further systematic research with specific measurement instruments are needed to explore the specific nature of these emerging linear and curvilinear relationships.

Although consistent speculations throughout the historical treatments of parental socialization of interactions between the key elements of parenting, there have been no consistent empirical evidence focusing on the interactions between specific parental control dimensions. In the current study, three significant interactions were detected. First, the significant interaction was found between maternal withdrawal and maternal knowledge when predicting hyperactivation/inattention of adolescents. Maternal love withdrawal/irrespective behaviors had the strongest association with hyperactivation/ inattention only in the presence of the high parental knowledge. These adolescent may react “just knowing” of their mothers by hyperactiviton behaviors. If their mothers give them warmth, or love conditionally, they may try to obtain their mothers’ interest by exaggerated ways such as hyperactivation. Because mothers have knowledge about their children, adolescents may try to show their mother they are valuable.

Secondly, the interaction between paternal guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors and paternal monitoring in predicting low perseverance/ monitoring was significant. Finally, the significant interaction was found between paternal guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors and paternal monitoring as they predicted prosocial behaviors of adolescents. In essence, for this sample of adolescents, the risk to adolescent functioning (e.g., low perseverance/monitoring, and prosocial behaviors) of heightened paternal guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors was detected only when it was paired with low levels of paternal monitoring. Considering the unique effect of paternal guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors, interaction with low levels of paternal monitoring may be perceived by adolescent intrusive rather than corrective or good intention. Furthermore, the risk to adolescent hyperactivation/inattention of maternal guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors was also heightened only when it was paired with high levels of maternal knowledge. Taken together, these results were consistent with Pettit and Laird’s (2002) findings in which psychological control and monitoring taken as factors shaping the course and consequences of child adjustment.

4.8 Limitations and Directions for Future Research

Although the current study has contributed to the current literature it is not without its limitations that should be considered when interpreting the presented findings and in planning for future research. First, the sample characteristics of the current study may have affected the results in unknown ways: participants were volunteers and were not randomly selected, and thus were not representative of all adolescents in this age group. This is attributable to several issues. First, adolescents were relied upon to return the parental consent form in order to participate to the study. Adolescents with low levels of self-regulation may have found this task to be more difficult than youth with moderate or high levels of self-regulation. Second, adolescents or their mothers with particularly poor behavioral control may have intentionally or unintentionally reject to participate to the study. Third, adolescents experiencing difficulties such as high levels of problem behaviors or poor school achievement may have been prevented from participating in the study by their parents with the aim of limiting their children's non-academic distractions. Future studies should use more representative samples by using different procedure.

Second, data were collected at only one time point, thus the cross-sectional nature of this study prevents any firm directional or causal interpretations. Although the current results were interpreted from the perspective that parental control and interparental conflict influence both adolescent self-regulation and adjustment, further studies is needed to demonstrate whether the effect of family context variables is unidirectional. It is widely acknowledged that the associations between parenting and adolescent behavior are bidirectional, however examining bidirectional influences was outside the scope of the current study. The direction of these effects can not be established without additional longitudinal studies. Moreover, further research should be careful at problems related to common method variance. In the current study, the correlation coefficients (and structural correlation) between variables collected from same informant were high. This was an important threat for understanding relationships between study variables.

Third, it is likely that, given the complex nature of parent-child relationships that there are many factors that play a mediating or moderating role in the relationship between parental control, interparental conflict and numerous

adolescent outcomes. For example, the interparental conflict can moderate the relationships between parental control and adolescent outcomes. Future studies should focus on these alternative relationships, explaining adolescent related outcomes.

Fourth, future research in this area should lead to more comprehensive models of development of self-regulation skills by expanding the study of more family process variables to include such factors as one-parent vs. two-parent families, working vs. at home mothers, the impact of cultural belief systems, the presence of family support networks and levels or degrees of parental availability and/or involvement and interplaying those process variables with more static adolescent variables such as personality.

Fifth, although factor analyses of parental psychological control scales revealed two main factors clearly, conceptualization and categorization of psychological control behaviors was difficult and complex. Measurement of these unconscious and automatic parental behaviors was complicated. Both love w and guilt induction categories, are tentatively categorized in the current study. More research should be conduct by using indirect measurement for each specific types of parental psychological control.

Finally, future studies could also collect behavioral measurement to explore adolescent self-regulatory abilities. There are several methods to obtain information about self-regulatory skills and strength mentioned previous sections. Using different measurement technique and instruments, researchers will attain more reliable information and they can make more predictions about the nature of the self-regulation.

4.8.1 Implications of the Study for Parents

The findings of this study are consistent with the beliefs that parental behaviors characterized by the dimensions of control, structure and limit setting results in adolescents who tend to be more competent in their ability to regulate their behavior, attention, and emotions. This implies that adolescents benefit from an environment that reflects reasonable control, including monitoring, knowledge about whereabouts. Parents should understand that their children choices within a limited and “safe context” is not equal to permissive parenting. In fact, the findings

of the current study suggest that undercontrolling parents, characterized by a lack of structure and control and conditional regards (i.e., love withdrawal/irrespective), is associated with weaknesses in a child's ability to regulate their behaviors, attention, and emotions. Overall, it appears that extremes of control and structure (psychological control or lack of behavioral control) are not necessarily desirable and that the most effective parenting includes a compromise between control and permissiveness with a warm and unconflictual family environment.

4.9 Conclusion

This study extends previous works and theories in several important ways. Initially, independent contributions of parental and marital variables on capacity of adolescents' self-regulation were examined. Secondly, the question of how theoretically and culturally important aspects of parental control are linked to adolescent self-regulation were explored. Moreover, the systematical analysis exploring interactions between the maternal/paternal psychological and behavioral control may provide insight into the processes associated with both parental control and self-regulation. Thirdly, the role of the marital discord on predicting adolescents' self-regulation abilities by parental control (which is neglected in prior research on parenting and self-regulation literature) was also investigated. Fourthly, testing linearity of associations between parental control and adolescent outcomes provided insight into the nature of parental control behaviors. Finally, the hypothesized model suggesting that self-regulation will mediate the relationships between parental control behaviors, marital discord, and adolescent functioning was examined to improve prior research findings on self-regulation and parental control. This study also has several methodological advantages over previous studies, including multiple informants on parenting, self-regulation, and adolescent functioning as well as the inclusion of adolescent participants (6th and 7th grade students). Thus, this study has the potential to inform new research areas within self-regulatory perspective.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A. Permission Letter



1956

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

Psikoloji Bölümü
Department of Psychology

Tel: 90 (312) 210 31 82
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Sayın Veliler, Sevgili Anneler,

Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Psikoloji Bölümü'nde yüksek lisans tezi kapsamında yürütülmekte olan ve Bilimsel Araştırmalar Proje Koordinatörlüğü (BAP) tarafından desteklenmekte olan 07.07.03.00.14 No'lu "Psikolojik ve Davranışsal Kontrolün Çocukların Kendini Düzenleme Becerileri Üzerindeki Etkisi ve Bu Becerilerin Sorunlu Davranışlarla İlişkisi" başlıklı araştırma projesini yürütmekteyiz. Araştırmamızın amacı anne-baba tutum ve davranışlarının çocukların psikolojik gelişimi ve okul başarısı üzerindeki etkilerini incelemektir. Bu amacı gerçekleştirebilmek için çocuklarınızın ve sizin bazı anketleri doldurmanıza ihtiyacımız duymaktayız.

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

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

Saygılarımızla,

Psikolog Mehmet HARMA

Psikoloji Bölümü

Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi, Ankara
Tel: (0312) 210 5966
e-posta: mehmetharma@gmail.com
web-adresi: <http://www.psy.metu.edu.tr/rrl/people/mharma.html>

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

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

Anne Adı-Soyadı.....

İmza

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

Anne Adı-Soyadı.....

İmza

Appendix B. Demographic Questions for Mothers



1956

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Sayın Anne,

Daha önce katılmayı kabul etmiş olduğunuz “Çocuğun Kendini Düzenleme Beceriler Üzerinde Ailenin Rolü” adlı çalışma kapsamındaki anketleri çocuğunuz okulda doldurmuştur, teşekkür ederiz.

Sizin cevaplandıracağınız sorulardan oluşan anket ektedir. Lütfen her soru grubunun başındaki açıklamaları dikkatlice okuyun ve değerlendirmelerinizi buna göre yapın. Soruları cevaplarken acele etmeyin. Rahatsız edilmeyeceğiniz bir zaman seçin. Hiçbir sorunun doğru ya da yanlış cevabı yoktur. Bu nedenle lütfen değerlendirmelerinizi gerçek duygu ve düşüncelerinizi yansıtacak şekilde yapın. Soruları gerçek durumunuzu ve duygularınızı yansıtacak şekilde cevaplamanız bu araştırma için çok büyük önem taşımaktadır. Cevaplarınız kesinlikle gizli tutulacak ve bu ankette elde edilen bilgiler yalnızca araştırma amacına yönelik olarak kullanılacaktır.

Araştırma sonuçlarının sağlıklı olması ve çocukların duygusal gelişimini etkileyen faktörlerin saptanması için önemli olan sizin cevaplarınızdır. Bu yüzden, lütfen anketi doldururken sorular hakkında eşinizle ya da başka birileriyle görüş alışverişinde bulunmayın ve soruları eşinizden ya da başkalarından etkilenmeden yalnız başınıza cevaplandırın. Soruların tamamını cevapladıktan sonra, anketi size verilen zarfa koyarak zarfı kapatın. Daha sonra, bu zarfı okula teslim etmesi için çocuğunuza verin.

Araştırmayla ilgili sorularınızı aşağıdaki e-posta adresini veya telefon numarasını kullanarak bize yöneltebilirsiniz. Katılımınız için teşekkür ederiz.

Saygılarımızla,

Psikolog Mehmet Harma

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AİLEYE İLİŞKİN SORULAR

Bu bölüm çocuğunuzun bulunduğu aile ortamı ile ilgili genel sorular içermektedir.

1a. Çocuğunuzun nesi oluyorsunuz?

- Öz anne
 Koruyucu anne
 Evlat edinen anne
 Üvey anne
 Diğer (lütfen belirtiniz)

2. Kaç yaşındasınız?

3a. Anketi eve getiren çocuğunuzun kaç kardeşi var?3b. Çocuğunuz doğum sırasına

göre kaçınıcı?

- Hiç
 Bir
 İki
 Üç veya daha fazla
- İlk (en büyüğü)
 İkinci
 Üçüncü
 Dördüncü veya daha fazla

4. Eğitim düzeyinizi işaretleyiniz.

<input type="radio"/>	Okuma yazma bilmiyorum
<input type="radio"/>	İlkokul
<input type="radio"/>	Ortaokul
<input type="radio"/>	Lise
<input type="radio"/>	Yüksek okul (2 yıllık)
<input type="radio"/>	Üniversite (4 yıllık)
<input type="radio"/>	Master (Yüksek lisans) veya Doktora

5a. Aile durumunuzu sizin, eşinizin ve çocuğunuzun durumunu en iyi yansıtacak şekilde işaretleyiniz.

<input type="radio"/> Evli ve anne-baba birlikte
<input type="radio"/> Evli ve anne baba ayrı yaşıyor
<input type="radio"/> Boşanmış ve çocuk anne ile yaşıyor
<input type="radio"/> Boşanmış ve çocuk babayla yaşıyor
<input type="radio"/> Boşanmış ve çocuk akraba ile yaşıyor
<input type="radio"/> Diğer (Lütfen belirtiniz).....

b. Evliyseniz:

Ne kadar süredir evlisiniz? yıl ay

Bu kaçınıcı evliliğiniz?

6. Size en uygun seçeneği işaretleyiniz.

- Ev hanımıyım Çalışıyorum İşsiz Emekli

Varsa, mesleğiniz

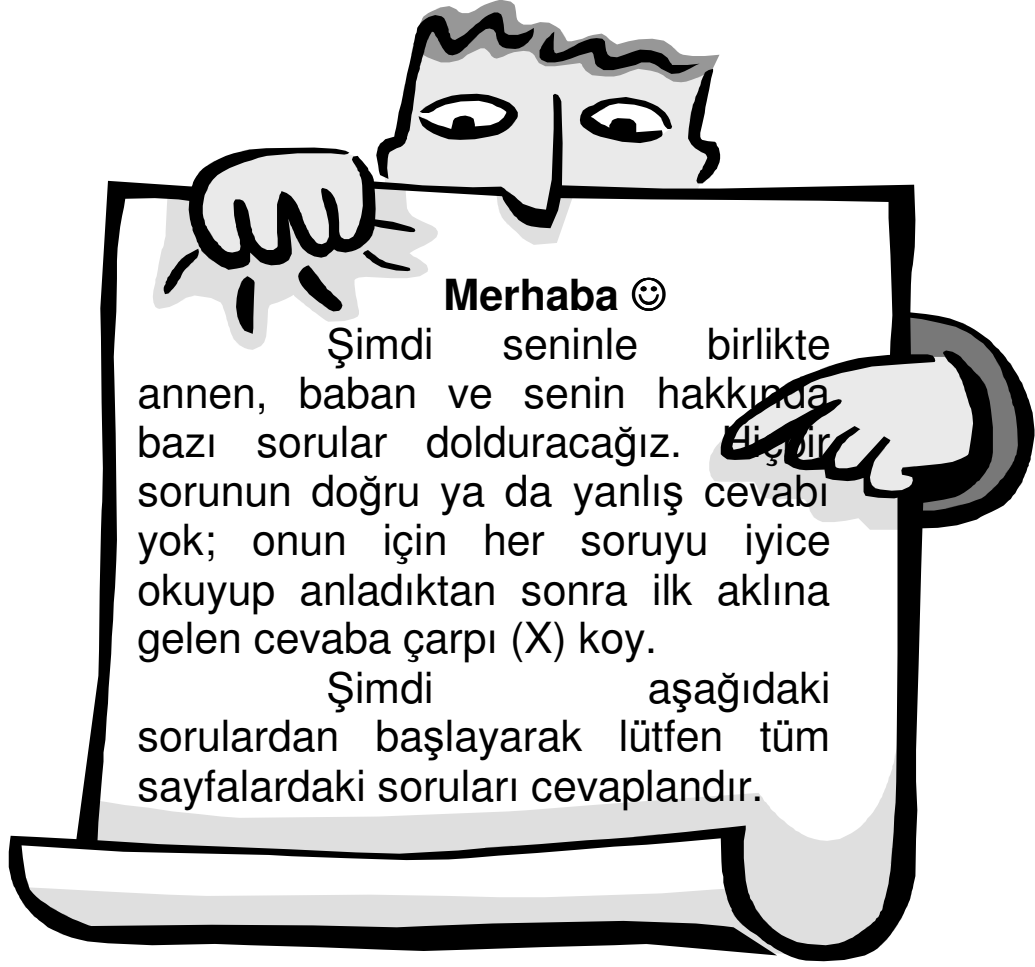
7. Eve giren aylık gelir miktarını işaretleyiniz.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
500 YTL ve altı	500 – 1000 YTL	1000 – 1500 YTL	1500 – 2000 YTL	2000 – 3000 YTL	3000 – 4000 YTL	4000 YTL ve üzeri

8. Genel olarak yaşamınızdan ne kadar memnunsunuz?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6
Hiç memnun Memnun Biraz memnun Biraz Memnunum Çok
değilim değilim değilim memnunum memnunum

APPENDIX C. Adolescent Questionnaire Set



Cinsiyetin: Kız Erkek
Okulun:.....
Sınıfın:.....
Doğum Tarihi:.....

Senden küçük ya da büyük kardeşin var mı? Evet Kaç tane? _____ Hayır

Annenin eğitim durumu nedir?

Okuma-yazma bilmiyor İlkokul mezunu Ortaokul mezunu
 Lise mezunu Üniversite mezunu

Babanın eğitim durumu nedir?

Okuma-yazma bilmiyor İlkokul mezunu Ortaokul mezunu
 Lise mezunu Üniversite mezunu

ANNEM VE BEN – 1 (Parental Psychological Control Scale)

Aşağıda annenle ilgili bazı cümleler var. Her bir cümle için **sadece bir tane kutucuğu işaretleyeceksin.** (Eğer hem annen hem de üvey annen varsa, birlikte yaşadığın hangisiyse ona göre cevap ver; eğer annen hayatta değilse annen yerine koyduğun kişiyi düşünerek soruları cevaplandır.)

1. Annem, ben birşey söylerken konuyu değiştirir.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

2. Annem ben konuşurken sözümü keser.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

3. Annem ben konuşurken bitirmemi beklemeden cümlemi tamamlar.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

4. Annem bazı konulardaki hislerimi ve düşüncelerimi değiştirmeye çalışır.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

5. Annem ne hissettiğimi ya da düşündüğümü biliyormuş gibi davranır.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

6. Annem çoğu konuda ne düşüneceğimi, nasıl hissetmem gerektiğini söylemekten hoşlanır.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

7. Annem beni eleştirirken geçmişte yaptığım hataları hatırlatıp durur.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

8. Annem yaptığım bazı davranışların "aptalca, ahmakça" olduğunu söyler.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

9. Annem ailedeki diğer kişilerin sorunları için beni suçlar.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

10. Annem bana karşı sabırsız davranır.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

11. Ben etraftayken, annem birden parlar, duygusal davranışlar gösterir.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

12. Annem bana karşı bazen sıcak davranırken bazen de şikayet edip durur.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

13. Annem sorular sorup, onu rahatsız etmemden hoşlanmaz.

Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

14. Annem benimle birlikteyken huysuzlaşır, ruh hali değişir.

Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

15. Annem benimleyken kolaylıkla sabrı taşar.

Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

16. Annemi hayal kırıklığına uğrattığımda, beni görmezden gelmeye çalışır.

Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

17. Annemin dikkatini çekmeye çalışırken beni görmezden gelir.

Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

18. Annemi üzdüğümde onu memnun edine kadar benimle konuşmaz.

Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

19. Annem aynı fikirde olmadığımda bana karşı soğuk ve daha az samimi davranır.

Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

20. Annemin ben konuşurken bana pek dikkatini vermediğini düşünürüm.

Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

21. Annemi hayal kırıklığına uğrattığımda bunu bana hissettirir.

Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

22. Annem benim onun çocukluğunda olduğu kadar iyi olmadığını söyleyip durur.

Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

23. Annem bana kızdığı zaman bunu bana hissettirir.

Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

24. Annem, benim için ne kadar çok çalışıp yorulduğunu söyler durur.

Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

25. Annem“benim ne hissettiğime önem verseydin beni üzecek bu şeyleri yapmazdın”vb. der.

Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

26. Annem yaptığı herşeyi benim için yaptığını hatırlatıp durur.

Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

- 27.** Annem ben yanlış davrandığımda hayal kırıklığını gösterir.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman
- 28.** Annem, kötü davranışlarımdan, yaramazlıklarımdan utanmam gerektiğini söyler durur.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman
- 29.** Beklentilerini yerine getirmediğimde annem kendisini utandırdığını söyler.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman
- 30.** Annem yanlış davrandığım her zaman cezalandırılacağımı söyler.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman
- 31.** Ben yanlış davrandığım zaman annem hayal kırıklığına uğradığını söyler.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman
- 32.** Annem diğer çocuklar kadar iyi olmadığını söyler durur.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

ANNEM VE BEN – 2 (Parental Behavioral Control Scale)

Aşağıda anne ve babaların çocukları hakkında ne kadar bilgi sahibi olduğuna ilişkin sorular bulunmaktadır. Sizden **annenizi** düşünerek bu ifadelerin sizin için ne derece geçerli olduğunu cevaplandırmanız istenmektedir. Lütfen hiçbir soruyu boş bırakmayınız. Cevaplarınızı size en çok uyan dört seçenekten birini karalayarak belirtiniz.

1. Annen kiminle zaman geçirdiğini bilir mi?
 Hiç bilmez Evet, bazen bilir Evet, çoğu zaman bilir Evet, her zaman bilir
2. Annen boş zamanlarını nasıl geçirdiğini bilir mi?
 Hiç bilmez Evet, bazen bilir Evet, çoğu zaman bilir Evet, her zaman bilir
3. Annen parayı nelere, nasıl harcadığını bilir mi?
 Hiç bilmez Evet, bazen bilir Evet, çoğu zaman bilir Evet, her zaman bilir
4. Annen okuldan sonra nereye gittiğini bilir mi?
 Hiç bilmez Evet, bazen bilir Evet, çoğu zaman bilir Evet, her zaman bilir
5. Annen haftasonu ve tatillerde ne yaptığını bilir mi?
 Hiç bilmez Evet, bazen bilir Evet, çoğu zaman bilir Evet, her zaman bilir
6. Annen okulda yaşadığın sorunları bilir mi?
 Hiç bilmez Evet, bazen bilir Evet, çoğu zaman bilir Evet, her zaman bilir
7. Bir yere gitmek için ayrıldığında annene ya da başka bir büyüğüne nereye gittiğini söyler misin?
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman
8. Arkadaşlarıyla dışarıya çıktığında annene kaçta evde olacağını söyler misin?
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman
9. Annen evde olmadığı ve senin evden çıkmak gerekiyorsa nereye gittiğini söylemek için ona not bırakır ya da telefon eder misin?
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman
10. Annen evde olmadığına ona nasıl ulaşacağını bilir misin?
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman
11. Annen hangi derslerden ödevin olduğunu bilir mi?
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman
12. Annen derslerin hakkında öğretmenlerin ile görüşür mü?
 Hayır Evet, baze Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

13. Annen sınav sonuçlarını, önemli ödevlerini bilir mi?

- Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

14. Annen senin farklı derslerdeki durumunu ve başarını bilir mi?

- Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

15. Annene okulda derslerinin nasıl gittiğini söyler misin?

- Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

16. Annene okulda gününün nasıl geçtiğini anlatır mısın? (örneğin, sınavlarının nasıl geçtiğini, öğretmenlerle aranın nasıl olduğunu vb.)

- Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

17. Annenle boş zamanlarında yaptıkların hakkında konuşur musun?

- Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

18. Arkadaşlarınla oynayıp eve geldiğinde neler yaptığını annene anlatır mısın?

- Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

19. Annenle arkadaşların hakkında konuşur musun?

- Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

20. Arkadaşların size geldiğinde annen onlarla konuşur mu?

- Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

BABAM VE BEN – 1 (Parental Psychological Control Scale)

Aşağıda annenle ilgili bazı cümleler var. Her bir cümle için **sadece bir tane kutucuğu işaretleyeceksin.** (Eğer hem annen hem de üvey annen varsa, birlikte yaşadığın hangisiyse ona göre cevap ver; eğer annen hayatta değilse annen yerine koyduğun kişiyi düşünerek soruları cevaplandır.)

1. Babam, ben birşey söylerken konuyu değiştirir.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

2. Babam ben konuşurken sözümü keser.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

3. Babam ben konuşurken bitirmemi beklemeden cümlemi tamamlar.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

4. Babam bazı konulardaki hislerimi ve düşüncelerimi değiştirmeye çalışır.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

5. Babam ne hissettiğimi ya da düşündüğümü biliyormuş gibi davranır.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

6. Babam çoğu konuda ne düşüneceğimi, nasıl hissetmem gerektiğini söylemekten hoşlanır.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

7. Babam beni eleştirirken geçmişte yaptığım hataları hatırlatıp durur.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

8. Babam yaptığım bazı davranışların "aptalca, ahmakça" olduğunu söyler.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

9. Babam ailedeki diğer kişilerin sorunları için beni suçlar.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

10. Babam bana karşı sabırsız davranır.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

11. Ben etraftayken, babam birden parlar, duygusal davranışlar gösterir.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

12. Babam bana karşı bazen sıcak davranırken bazen de şikayet edip durur.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

13. Babam sorular sorup, onu rahatsız etmemden hoşlanmaz.

Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman
14. Babam benimle birlikteyken huysuzlaşır, ruh hali değişir.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

15. Babam benimleyken kolaylıkla sabrı taşar.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

16. Babamı hayal kırıklığına uğrattığımda, beni görmezden gelmeye çalışır.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

17. Babamın dikkatini çekmeye çalışırken beni görmezden gelir.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

18. Babamı üzdüğümde onu memnun edine kadar benimle konuşmaz.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

19. Babam aynı fikirde olmadığımda bana karşı soğuk ve daha az samimi davranır.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

20. Babamın ben konuşurken bana pek dikkatini vermediğini düşünürüm.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

21. Babamı hayal kırıklığına uğrattığımda bunu bana hissettirir.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

22. Babam benim onun çocukluğunda olduğu kadar iyi olmadığını söyleyip durur.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

23. Babam bana kızdığı zaman bunu bana hissettirir.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

24. Babam, benim için ne kadar çok çalışıp yorulduğunu söyler durur.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

25. Babam "benim ne hissettiğime önem verseydin beni üzecek bu şeyleri yapmazdın"vb. der.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

26. Babam yaptığı herşeyi benim için yaptığını hatırlatıp durur.
 Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

27. Babam ben yanlış davrandığımda hayal kırıklığını gösterir.

- Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

28. Babam, kötü davranışlarımdan, yaramazlıklarımdan utanmam gerektiğini söyler durur.

- Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

29. Beklentilerini yerine getirmediğimde babam kendisini utandırdığını söyler.

- Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

30. Babam yanlış davrandığım her zaman cezalandırılacağımı söyler.

- Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

31. Ben yanlış davrandığım zaman babam hayal kırıklığına uğradığını söyler.

- Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

32. Babam diğer çocuklar kadar iyi olmadığını söyler durur.

- Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

(Parental Behavioral Control Scale)

Aşağıda anne ve babaların çocukları hakkında ne kadar bilgi sahibi olduğuna ilişkin sorular bulunmaktadır. Sizden **babanızı** düşünerek bu ifadelerin sizin için ne derece geçerli olduğunu cevaplandırmanız istenmektedir. Lütfen hiçbir soruyu boş bırakmayınız. Cevaplarınızı size en çok uyan dört seçenektan birini karalayarak belirtiniz.

1. Baban kiminle zaman geçirdiğini bilir mi?

- Hiç bilmez Evet, bazen bilir Evet, çoğu zaman bilir Evet, her zaman bilir

2. Baban boş zamanlarını nasıl geçirdiğini bilir mi?

- Hiç bilmez Evet, bazen bilir Evet, çoğu zaman bilir Evet, her zaman bilir

3. Baban parayı nelere, nasıl harcadığını bilir mi?

- Hiç bilmez Evet, bazen bilir Evet, çoğu zaman bilir Evet, her zaman bilir

4. Baban okuldan sonra nereye gittiğini bilir mi?

- Hiç bilmez Evet, bazen bilir Evet, çoğu zaman bilir Evet, her zaman bilir

5. Baban haftasonu ve tatillerde ne yaptığını bilir mi?

- Hiç bilmez Evet, bazen bilir Evet, çoğu zaman bilir Evet, her zaman bilir

6. Baban okulda yaşadığın sorunları bilir mi?

- Hiç bilmez Evet, bazen bilir Evet, çoğu zaman bilir Evet, her zaman bilir

7. Bir yere gitmek için ayrıldığında babana ya da başka bir büyüğüne nereye gittiğini söyler misin?

- Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

8. Arkadaşlarıyla dışarıya çıktığında babana kaçta evde olacağını söyler misin?

- Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

9. Baban evde olmadığı ve senin evden çıkmak gerekiyorsa nereye gittiğini söylemek için ona not bırakır ya da telefon eder misin?

- Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

10. Baban evde olmadığı ona nasıl ulaşacağını bilir misin?

- Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

11. Baban hangi derslerden ödevin olduğunu bilir mi?

- Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

12. Baban derslerin hakkında öğretmenlerin ile görüşür mü?

- Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

13. Baban sınav sonuçlarını, önemli ödevlerini bilir mi?

- Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

14. Baban senin farklı derslerdeki durumunu ve başarını bilir mi?

- Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

15. Babana okulda derslerinin nasıl gittiğini söyler misin?

- Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

16. Babana okulda gününün nasıl geçtiğini anlatır mısın? (örneğin, sınavlarının nasıl geçtiğini, öğretmenleriyle aranın nasıl olduğunu vb.)

- Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

17. Babanla boş zamanlarında yaptıkların hakkında konuşur musun?

- Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

18. Arkadaşlarıyla oynayıp eve geldiğinde neler yaptığını babana anlatır mısın?

- Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

19. Babanla arkadaşların hakkında konuşur musun?

- Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

20. Arkadaşların size geldiğinde baban onlarla konuşur mu?

- Hayır Evet, bazen Evet, çoğu zaman Evet, her zaman

NASIL BİRİYİM-1 (Adolescents' Self-Regulation Inventory)

Şimdi aşağıdaki özelliklerin seni ne kadar tanımladığına karar vermek gerekecek. Her bir cümle için **sadece bir tane kutucuğu işaretleyeceksin**. Eğer o cümlenin seni tamamen tanımladığını düşünüyorsan “*bana çok benziyor*”u işaretlemelisin. O cümle seni biraz tanımlıyorsa “*bana biraz benziyor*”u, seni tanımlamıyorsa “*bana benzemiyor*”u ve seni hiç tanımlamıyorsa “*bana hiç benzemiyor*”u işaretlemelisin.

1. Üzgün olduğumda kendimi iyi hissettirecek birşeyler yapabilirim.
 Bana hiç benzemiyor Bana benzemiyor Bana biraz benziyor Bana çok benziyor
2. Sıkıldığımda yerimde duramam/oturamam.
 Bana hiç benzemiyor Bana benzemiyor Bana biraz benziyor Bana çok benziyor
3. Birine kızgın olduğumda bile, etraftaki diğer insanlara normal davranabilirim.
 Bana hiç benzemiyor Bana benzemiyor Bana biraz benziyor Bana çok benziyor
4. Stres altındayken yapmam gereken işleri yapmakta iyiyimdir.
 Bana hiç benzemiyor Bana benzemiyor Bana biraz benziyor Bana çok benziyor
5. Yorgun olsam bile, yeni bir işe başlayabilirim.
 Bana hiç benzemiyor Bana benzemiyor Bana biraz benziyor Bana çok benziyor
6. Küçük sorunlar beni uzun-vadeli planlarımdan alıkoyabilir.
 Bana hiç benzemiyor Bana benzemiyor Bana biraz benziyor Bana çok benziyor
7. Eğlenceli birşeyler yaparken, yapmam gereken diğer işleri unuturum.
 Bana hiç benzemiyor Bana benzemiyor Bana biraz benziyor Bana çok benziyor
8. Sıkıcı bir derste, dikkatimi toplamakta zorlanırım.
 Bana hiç benzemiyor Bana benzemiyor Bana biraz benziyor Bana çok benziyor
9. Meşgul edilerek ve dikkatim dağıtılarak kesilsem bile, yaptığım işe kolayca geri dönebilirim.
 Bana hiç benzemiyor Bana benzemiyor Bana biraz benziyor Bana çok benziyor
10. Etrafta başka işler olurken dikkatimi yaptığım işe yoğunlaştırmakta zorlanırım.
 Bana hiç benzemiyor Bana benzemiyor Bana biraz benziyor Bana çok benziyor
11. Ne kadar daha çalışmam gerektiğini/gerekeceğini hiçbir zaman bilemem.
 Bana hiç benzemiyor Bana benzemiyor Bana biraz benziyor Bana çok benziyor
12. Stres altındayken planlar yapmak ve büyük işler yapmaya başlamakta zorlanırım.
 Bana hiç benzemiyor Bana benzemiyor Bana biraz benziyor Bana çok benziyor

13. Heyecanlandığımda ya da kızdığımda kolayca sakinleşebilirim.

Bana hiç benzemiyor Bana benzemiyor Bana biraz benziyor Bana çok benziyor

14. Birşey istediğim gibi gitmediğinde amacıma ulaşmak için davranışlarımı değiştirebilirim.

Bana hiç benzemiyor Bana benzemiyor Bana biraz benziyor Bana çok benziyor

15. Arkadaşlarım dışarı gitmek istediğinde, kendimi çalışmak için tutabilirim.

Bana hiç benzemiyor Bana benzemiyor Bana biraz benziyor Bana çok benziyor

16. İşler istediğim gibi gitmiyorsa, kontrolümü kaybederim.

Bana hiç benzemiyor Bana benzemiyor Bana biraz benziyor Bana çok benziyor

17. Birşeyi çok istiyorsam, ona hemen sahip olmak isterim.

Bana hiç benzemiyor Bana benzemiyor Bana biraz benziyor Bana çok benziyor

18. Biriyle ciddi bir anlaşmazlığa düştüğümde kontrolümü kaybetmeden sakince konuşabilirim.

Bana hiç benzemiyor Bana benzemiyor Bana biraz benziyor Bana çok benziyor

19. Yapmam gereken çok sıkıcı olsa bile o işe yoğunlaşabilirim.

Bana hiç benzemiyor Bana benzemiyor Bana biraz benziyor Bana çok benziyor

20. Tepem atıp, birşeyler fırlatmak istediğimde kendimi durdurabilirim.

Bana hiç benzemiyor Bana benzemiyor Bana biraz benziyor Bana çok benziyor

21. Sonu nereye varacağı belli olmasa da dikkatli çalışabilirim.

Bana hiç benzemiyor Bana benzemiyor Bana biraz benziyor Bana çok benziyor

22. Dışarıya belirtmeden de duygularımın ne olduğunun farkındayım.

Bana hiç benzemiyor Bana benzemiyor Bana biraz benziyor Bana çok benziyor

23. Arkadaşlarım konuşurken bile işime konsantre olabilir.

Bana hiç benzemiyor Bana benzemiyor Bana biraz benziyor Bana çok benziyor

24. Bir hedefe ulaşmak için heyecanlandığımda (örn., yeni bir okula gitmek vb.), kolayca o hedef için çalışmaya başlayabilir.

Bana hiç benzemiyor Bana benzemiyor Bana biraz benziyor Bana çok benziyor

25. Plan ve hedeflerim zor olsa da onlara bağlı kalacak bir yol bulurum.

Bana hiç benzemiyor Bana benzemiyor Bana biraz benziyor Bana çok benziyor

26. Uzun vadeli bir projem olduğunda, üzerinde sabırla çalışabilirim.

Bana hiç benzemiyor Bana benzemiyor Bana biraz benziyor Bana çok benziyor

27. Birşeyi yapmamam gerektiğini biliyorsam, kendimi tutabilirim.

Bana hiç benzemiyor Bana benzemiyor Bana biraz benziyor Bana çok benziyor

28. Yemek istediğim miktarı kontrol etmekte zorlanırım.

Bana hiç benzemiyor Bana benzemiyor Bana biraz benziyor Bana çok benziyor

29. Eğlenceli birşey yaparken zamanın farkında olmam.

Bana hiç benzemiyor Bana benzemiyor Bana biraz benziyor Bana çok benziyor

30. Önceden planlama yapılması gereken büyük işlere başlamakta zorlanırım.

Bana hiç benzemiyor Bana benzemiyor Bana biraz benziyor Bana çok benziyor

31. Neye ağlayacağımı önceden hissederim.

Bana hiç benzemiyor Bana benzemiyor Bana biraz benziyor Bana çok benziyor

32. Yorgunken beni heyecanlandırabilecek şeylere ilgi duymakta zorlanırım.

Bana hiç benzemiyor Bana benzemiyor Bana biraz benziyor Bana çok benziyor

NASIL BİRİYİM-2 (Self-Control Rating Scale)

Şimdi sana seninle ilgili bazı sorular soracağız. Her bir cümle için **sadece bir tane kutucuğu işaretleyeceksin. Ancak bu anketin biraz farklı bir yolla doldurulması gerekiyor. Aşağıdaki sorularda, “AMA” yazan kutunun hemen sağında ve solunda iki çocuk tanımlanmaktadır. Önce bunları oku ve hangisine daha çok benzediğine karar ver. Sonra da seçtiğin tarafa git. Bu çocuğa çok benziyorsan “Bana çok benziyor” kutucuğunu”, biraz benziyorsan “Bana biraz benziyor” kutucuğunu işaretle.**

Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı çocuklar için sözlerini tutmak kolaydır.	AMA	Bazı çocuklar için sözlerini tutmak zordur.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı çocuklar diğer çocuklar tarafından çağrılmasa bile onların oyunlarına zorla girer.	AMA	Bazı çocuklar diğer çocuklar tarafından çağrılmazsa onların oyunlarına katılmazlar.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı çocuklar çok heyecanlandığında ya da morali bozulduğunda kolayca sakinleşebilirler.	AMA	Bazı çocuklar çok heyecanlandığında ya da morali bozulduğunda kolayca sakinleşemezler.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı çocukların yaptığı bütün işlerin kalitesi aynıdır.	AMA	Bazı çocukların yaptığı işlerin kalitesi farklıdır.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı çocuklar uzun vadeli amaçlar için çalışabilirler.	AMA	Bazı çocuklar uzun vadeli amaçlar için çalışamazlar.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı çocuklar bir soru sorduğunda sabırla cevabını bekler.	AMA	Bazı çocuklar bir soru sorduğunda cevabı beklemeden başka bir soruya geçerler.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>

Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı çocuklar arkadaşları ile konuşurken sabırla onları dinler.	AMA	Bazı çocuklar arkadaşları ile konuşurken sabırla onları dinlemezler.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
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Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı çocuklar bir işi tamamlayınca ya kadar üzerinde ısrarla durur.	AMA	Bazı çocuklar bir işi tamamlayınca ya kadar o iş üzerinde ısrarla durmaz.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
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Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı çocuklar ilgili yetişkinlerin (ebeveyn, öğretmen, doktor vb.) talimat ve yönlendirmelerini yerine getirir.	AMA	Bazı çocuklar ilgili yetişkinlerin (ebeveyn, öğretmen, doktor vb.) talimat ve yönlendirmelerini yerine getirmez.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
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Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı çocuklar gördüğü herşeyi hemen ister.	AMA	Bazı çocuklar gördüğü herşeyi hemen istemezler.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
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Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı çocuklar gerektiğinde sabırla sırasını bekler.	AMA	Bazı çocuklar gerektiğinde sıralarını sabırla bekleyemezler.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
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Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı çocuklar için yerinde sessizce oturmak kolaydır.	AMA	Bazı çocuklar için yerinde sessizce oturmak zordur.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
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Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı çocuklar grup faaliyetlerinde diğer herkesle uyumlu çalışabilirler.	AMA	Bazı çocuklar grup faaliyetlerinde diğerleri ile uyumlu çalışamazlar.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
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Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı çocuklara yapması gerektiği işleri birkaç kez hatırlatılması gerekir.	AMA	Bazı çocuklara yapması gereken işlerin bir kere söylenmesi yeterlidir.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
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Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı çocuklar bir büyük tarafından azarlandığında ona uygunsuz cevap verir.	AMA	Bazı çocuklar bir büyük tarafından azarlandığında onlara uygunsuz cevap vermez.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı çocukların kaza yapma ya da kendini incitme yatkınlığı vardır.	AMA	Bazı çocukların böyle bir yatkınlığı yoktur.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı çocuklar günlük iş ya da görevlerini unuttur veya ihmal ederler.	AMA	Bazı çocuklar günlük iş ya da görevlerini unutmaz veya ihmal etmezler.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı çocukların bir işin başına oturup yapamadığı günler olur.	AMA	Bazı çocuklar bir işin başına oturursa o işi kesinlikle bitirir.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı çocuklar seçme şansı verilse bugün küçük oyuncacı yarın alacağı büyük oyuncacı tercih eder.	AMA	Bazı çocuklar seçme şansı verilse yarın elde edeceği büyük oyuncacı tercih eder.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı çocuklar başkalarının oyuncaklarını ellerinden kapar.	AMA	Bazı çocuklar başkalarının oyuncaklarını almak için izin ister ve bekler.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı çocuklar başkaları birşeylerle uğraşırken onları rahatsız eder.	AMA	Bazı çocuklar başkaları birşeylerle uğraşırken onları rahatsız etmez.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>

Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı çocuklar kuralları çiğnerler.	AMA	Bazı çocuklar kurallara uyarlar.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı çocuklar bir yere giderken etrafa, yola dikkat etmezler.	AMA	Bazı çocuklar bir yere giderken etrafa, yola dikkat ederler.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı çocuklar tek bir soruya aynı anda birden çok cevap vermeye çalışırlar	AMA	Bazı çocuklar bir soru sorulduğunda sadece bir tek cevap verirler.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı çocuklar bir iş yaparken dikkati kolayca dağılır.	AMA	Bazı çocuklar bir iş yaparken dikkati kolayca dağılmaz.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı çocuklar dikkatsizdir.	AMA	Bazı çocuklar dikkatlidir.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı çocuklar arkadaşları ile uyumlu oynar (kurallara uymak, işbirliği yapmak, sırasını beklemek gibi...)	AMA	Bazı çocuklar arkadaşları ile oynarken uyumlu değildirler.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı çocuklar sadece bir faaliyet üzerine yoğunlaşmayı tercih ederler.	AMA	Bazı çocuklar bir faaliyetten diğerine geçerler.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>

Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı çocuklar verilen bir iş önce çok zor geldiğinde hemen hayal kırıklığına uğrayıp vazgeçerler.	AMA	Bazı çocuklar verilen bir iş önce çok zor geldiğinde hayal kırıklığına uğramadan o iş üzerinde çalışmaya devam ederler.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
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Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı çocuklar diğer çocukların oyunlarını bozarlar.	AMA	Bazı çocuklar diğer çocukların oyunlarını bozmazlar.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
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Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı çocuklar bir davranışta bulunmadan önce düşünürler.	AMA	Bazı çocuklar hiç düşünmeden davranışta bulunurlar.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
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Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı çocuklar bir işe dikkatlerini verirlerse o işte daha iyi olabilirler.	AMA	Bazı çocuklar dikkatlerini bir işe daha fazla verseler de onlar için birşey değişmez.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
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Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı çocuklar aynı anda birden fazla işi yapmaya çalışır.	AMA	Bazı çocuklar sadece bir işe odaklanmayı tercih eder.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
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DERSLERİM NASIL? (Academic Self-Description Questionnaire)

Aşağıda, bazı derslerin hakkında verilen ifadelerin senin için ne kadar doğru olduğunu değerlendirmen gerekiyor. Lütfen aşağıdaki tüm maddeleri belirtilen ders için cevapla. Seni en iyi anlatan **tek bir seçenek işaretlemen gerekiyor**.

1. Kendimi yaşitlarımla karşılaştırdığımda Matematikte iyiyim.
<input type="radio"/> Çok yanlış <input type="radio"/> Yanlış <input type="radio"/> Doğru <input type="radio"/> Çok doğru

2. Matematik dersinde hep yüksek notlar alırım.
<input type="radio"/> Çok yanlış <input type="radio"/> Yanlış <input type="radio"/> Doğru <input type="radio"/> Çok doğru

3. Matematik dersinde başarılı olma umudum yoktur.
<input type="radio"/> Çok yanlış <input type="radio"/> Yanlış <input type="radio"/> Doğru <input type="radio"/> Çok doğru

4. Matematik konularını çabucak öğrenirim.
<input type="radio"/> Çok yanlış <input type="radio"/> Yanlış <input type="radio"/> Doğru <input type="radio"/> Çok doğru

5. Matematikte şimdiye kadar hep iyi yaptım.
<input type="radio"/> Çok yanlış <input type="radio"/> Yanlış <input type="radio"/> Doğru <input type="radio"/> Çok doğru

6. Matematik dersine çalışmak benim için çok kolaydır
<input type="radio"/> Çok yanlış <input type="radio"/> Yanlış <input type="radio"/> Doğru <input type="radio"/> Çok doğru

7. Kendimi yaşitlarımla karşılaştırdığımda Türkçede iyiyim.
<input type="radio"/> Çok yanlış <input type="radio"/> Yanlış <input type="radio"/> Doğru <input type="radio"/> Çok doğru

8. Türkçe dersinde hep yüksek notlar alırım.
<input type="radio"/> Çok yanlış <input type="radio"/> Yanlış <input type="radio"/> Doğru <input type="radio"/> Çok doğru

9. Türkçe dersinde başarılı olma umudum yoktur.
<input type="radio"/> Çok yanlış <input type="radio"/> Yanlış <input type="radio"/> Doğru <input type="radio"/> Çok doğru

10. Türkçe konularını çabucak öğrenirim.
<input type="radio"/> Çok yanlış <input type="radio"/> Yanlış <input type="radio"/> Doğru <input type="radio"/> Çok doğru

11. Türkçede şimdiye kadar hep iyi yaptım.
<input type="radio"/> Çok yanlış <input type="radio"/> Yanlış <input type="radio"/> Doğru <input type="radio"/> Çok doğru

12. Türkçe dersine çalışmak benim için çok kolaydır
<input type="radio"/> Çok yanlış <input type="radio"/> Yanlış <input type="radio"/> Doğru <input type="radio"/> Çok doğru

Appendix D. Mother Questionnaire Set



1956

MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

06531 ANKARA -TURKEY

Psikoloji Bölümü
Department of Psychology

Tel: 90 (312) 210 31 82
Faks:90 (312) 210 79 75

Sayın Anne,

Daha önce katılmayı kabul etmiş olduğunuz “Çocuğun Kendini Düzenleme Beceriler Üzerinde Ailenin Rolü” adlı çalışma kapsamındaki anketleri çocuğunuz okulda doldurmuştur, teşekkür ederiz.

Sizin cevaplandıracağınız sorulardan oluşan anket ektedir. Lütfen her soru grubunun başındaki açıklamaları dikkatlice okuyun ve değerlendirmelerinizi buna göre yapın. Soruları cevaplarken acele etmeyin. Rahatsız edilmeyeceğiniz bir zaman seçin. Hiçbir sorunun doğru ya da yanlış cevabı yoktur. Bu nedenle lütfen değerlendirmelerinizi gerçek duygu ve düşüncelerinizi yansıtacak şekilde yapın. Soruları gerçek durumunuzu ve duygularınızı yansıtacak şekilde cevaplamanız bu araştırma için çok büyük önem taşımaktadır. Cevaplarınız kesinlikle gizli tutulacak ve bu anketten elde edilen bilgiler yalnızca araştırma amacına yönelik olarak kullanılacaktır.

Araştırma sonuçlarının sağlıklı olması ve çocukların duygusal gelişimini etkileyen faktörlerin saptanması için önemli olan sizin cevaplarınızdır. Bu yüzden, lütfen anketi doldururken sorular hakkında eşinizle ya da başka birileriyle görüş alışverişinde bulunmayın ve soruları eşinizden ya da başkalarından etkilenmeden yalnız başınıza cevaplandırın. Soruların tamamını cevapladıktan sonra, anketi size verilen zarfa koyarak zarfı kapatın. Daha sonra, bu zarfı okula teslim etmesi için çocuğunuza verin.

Araştırmayla ilgili sorularınızı aşağıdaki e-posta adresini veya telefon numarasını kullanarak bize yöneltebilirsiniz. Katılımınız için teşekkür ederiz.

Saygılarımızla,

Psikolog Mehmet Harma

Psikoloji Bölümü
Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi, Ankara
Tel: (0312) 210 5966
e-posta: e145304@metu.edu.tr
web-adresi: <http://www.psy.metu.edu.tr/rrl>

AİLEYE İLİŞKİN SORULAR

Bu bölüm çocuğunuzun bulunduğu aile ortamı ile ilgili genel sorular içermektedir.

1a. Çocuğunuzun nesi oluyorsunuz?

- Öz anne
 Koruyucu anne
 Evlat edinen anne
 Üvey anne
 Diğer (lütfen belirtiniz)

2. Kaç yaşındasınız?

3a. Anketi eve getiren çocuğunuzun kaç kardeşi var? 3b. Çocuğunuz doğum sırasına göre kaçınıcı? (büyük ya da küçük)

- Hiç
 Bir
 İki
 Üç veya daha fazla
- İlk (en büyüğü)
 İkinci
 Üçüncü
 Dördüncü veya daha fazla

4. Eğitim düzeyinizi işaretleyiniz.

<input type="radio"/>	Okuma yazma bilmiyorum
<input type="radio"/>	İlkokul
<input type="radio"/>	Ortaokul
<input type="radio"/>	Lise
<input type="radio"/>	Yüksek okul (2 yıllık)
<input type="radio"/>	Üniversite (4 yıllık)
<input type="radio"/>	Master (Yüksek lisans) veya Doktora

5a. Aile durumunuzu sizin, eşinizin ve çocuğunuzun durumunu en iyi yansıtacak şekilde işaretleyiniz.

<input type="radio"/> Evli ve anne-baba birlikte
<input type="radio"/> Evli ve anne baba ayrı yaşıyor
<input type="radio"/> Boşanmış ve çocuk anne ile yaşıyor
<input type="radio"/> Boşanmış ve çocuk babayla yaşıyor
<input type="radio"/> Boşanmış ve çocuk akraba ile yaşıyor
<input type="radio"/> Diğer (Lütfen belirtiniz).....

b. Evliyseniz:

Ne kadar süredir evlisiniz? yıl ay

Bu kaçınıcı evliliğiniz?

6. Size en uygun seçeneği işaretleyiniz.

- Ev hanımıyım Çalışıyorum İşsiz Emekli
Varsa, mesleğiniz

7. Eve giren aylık gelir miktarını işaretleyiniz.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
500 YTL ve altı	500 – 1000 YTL	1000 – 1500 YTL	1500 – 2000 YTL	2000 – 3000 YTL	3000 – 4000 YTL	4000 YTL ve üzeri

8. Genel olarak yaşamınızdan ne kadar memnunsunuz?

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

Hiç memnun değilim Memnun değilim Biraz memnun değilim Biraz memnunum Memnunum Çok memnunum

Psychological Control Scale (PCS)

Aşağıda anne ve babaların çocuklarıyla yaşayabilecekleri durumlara ve duygulara ilişkin ifadeler verilmiştir. Sizden ANKETİ GETİREN ÇOCUĞUNUZLA olan ilişkinizi düşünerek bu ifadelerin sizin için ne derece geçerli olduğunu cevaplandırmanız istenmektedir. Lütfen hiçbir soruyu boş bırakmayınız. Cevaplarınızı size en çok uyan dört seçenekten birini yuvarlak içine alarak belirtiniz. 1-----2-----3----- Hiçbir zaman Bazen Sık sık Her zaman	Hiç yapmam	Bazen yaparım	Sıklıkla yaparım	Her zaman yaparım
1. Çocuğum konuşurken bitirmesini beklemeden cümlesini tamamlarım.				
2. Çocuğumun ne hissettiğini, ne düşündüğünü sormam, zaten bilirim.				
3. Çocuğumu eleştirirken geçmişte yaptığı hataları hatırlatırım.				
4. Diğer aile üyelerinin sorunları için çocuğumu suçlarım.				
5. Çocuğuma o etraftayken birden parlar, duygusal davranışlar gösteririm.				
6. Çocuğumun soru sorup, sürekli rahatsız etmesinden hoşlanmam.				
7. Çocuğumla birlikteyken kolaylıkla sabrım taşar.				
8. Çocuğum dikkatimi çekmek istediğinde görmezden gelirim.				
9. Çocuğum benimle aynı fikirde olmadığında ona karşı soğuk ve daha az samimi davranırım.				
10. Çocuğum beni hayal kırıklığına uğrattığında bunu ona hissettiririm.				
11. Çocuğuma kızdığım zaman bunu ona hissettiririm.				
12. "Benim ne hissettiğime önem verseydin beni üzecek bu şeyleri yapmazdın"vb. derim.				
13. Çocuğum yanlış davrandığında hayal kırıklığına ona gösteririm.				
14. Beklentilerimi yerine getirmediğinde beni utandırdığını söylerim.				
15. Yanlış davrandığı zaman beni hayal kırıklığına uğrattığını söylerim.				
16. Çocuğum bir şey söylerken konuyu değiştiririm.				
17. Çocuğum konuşurken sözünü keserim.				
18. Çocuğumun bazı konulardaki hislerini ve düşüncelerini değiştirmeye çalışırım.				

	Hiç yapmam	Bazen yaparım	Sıklıkla yaparım	Her zaman yaparım
19. Çocuğumun çoğu konuda ne düşüneneceğini, nasıl hissetmesi gerektiğini söylemek isterim.				
20. Çocuğuma yaptığı bazı davranışların “aptalca, ahmakça” olduğunu söylerim.				
21. Çocuğuma karşı sabırsız davranırım.				
22. Bir taraftan çocuğumu eleştirirken bir taraftan sıcak davranmak arasında gider gelirim.				
23. Çocuğumla birlikteyken huysuzlaşırım, ruh halim değişir.				
24. Beni hayal kırıklığına uğrattığında, çocuğumla göz teması kurmaktan kaçınırım.				
25. Çocuğum üzdüğünde beni memnun edene kadar onunla konuşmam.				
26. Çocuğum benimle konuştuğunda ona pek dikkatimi vermem.				
27. Çocuğuma benim çocukluğumda olduğum kadar onun iyi olmadığını söylerim.				
28. Çocuğuma onun için ne kadar çok çalışıp yorulduğumu söylediğim zamanlar olur.				
29. Çocuğuma yaptığımız her şeyi onun için yaptığımı söylerim.				
30. Çocuğuma, kötü davranışlarından, yaramazlıklarından utanması gerektiğini söylerim.				
31. Çocuğum yanlış davrandığı her zaman cezalandırılacağını söylerim.				
32. Çocuğuma diğer çocuklar kadar iyi olmadığını söylerim.				

Behavioral Control Scale (BHC)

Aşağıda anne ve babaların çocukları hakkında ne kadar bilgi sahibi olduğuna ilişkin sorular bulunmaktadır. Sizden ANKETİ GETİREN ÇOCUĞUNUZU düşünerek bu ifadelerin sizin için ne derece geçerli olduğunu cevaplandırmanız istenmektedir. Lütfen hiçbir soruyu boş bırakmayınız. Cevaplarınızı size en çok uyan dört seçenekten birini yuvarlak içine alarak belirtiniz. 1-----2-----3-----4 Hiçbir zaman Bazen Sık sık Her zaman	Hiçbir zaman	Bazen	Sık sık	Her zaman
	1. Çocuğunuzun kiminle zaman geçirdiğini bilir misiniz?			
2. Çocuğunuzun boş zamanlarını nasıl geçirdiğini bilir misiniz?				
3. Çocuğunuzun parasını nelere, nasıl harcadığını bilir misiniz?				
4. Çocuğunuzun okuldan sonra nereye gittiğini bilir misiniz?				
5. Çocuğunuzun haftasonu ve tatillerde ne yaptığını bilir misiniz?				
6. Çocuğunuzun okulda yaşadığı sorunları bilir misiniz?				
7. Çocuğunuz bir yere gitmek için ayrıldığında size ya da başka bir büyüğüne nereye gittiğini söyler mi?				
8. Arkadaşlarıyla dışarıya çıktığında çocuğunuz kaçta evde olacağını söyler mi?				
9. Çocuğunuz siz evde olmadığınızda ve evden çıkması gerekiyorsa nereye gittiğini söylemek için size not bırakır ya da telefon eder mi?				
10. Evde olmadığınızda çocuğunuz size nasıl ulaşabileceğini bilir mi?				
11. Çocuğunuzun hangi derslerden ödevi olduğunu bilir misiniz?				
12. Çocuğunuz ve dersleri hakkında öğretmenleri ile görüşür müsünüz?				
13. Çocuğunuzun sınav sonuçlarını, önemli ödevlerini bilir misiniz?				
14. Çocuğunuzun farklı derslerdeki durumunu ve başarısını bilir misiniz?				
15. Çocuğunuz size okulda derslerinin nasıl gittiğini söyler mi?				
16. Çocuğunuz okulda gününün nasıl geçtiğini anlatır mı? (örneğin, sınavlarının nasıl geçtiğini, öğretmeniyle arasının nasıl olduğunu vb.)				

17.Çocuđunuz boş zamanlarında yaptıkları hakkında sizinle konuşur mu?				
18.Çocuđunuz arkadaşlarıyla oynayıp eve geldiğinde neler yaptığını size anlatır mı?				
19.Çocuđunuz arkadaşları hakkında sizinle konuşur mu?				
20.Çocuđunuzun arkadaşları geldiğinde onlarla konuşur musunuz?				

Adolescent Self-Regulatory Inventory (ASRI)

Aşağıda çocukların bazı özellikleri ile ilgili ifadeler verilmiştir. Sizden ANKETİ GETİREN ÇOCUĞUNUZU düşünerek bu ifadelerin çocuğunuz için ne derece geçerli olduğunu cevaplandırmanız istenmektedir. Lütfen hiçbir soruyu boş bırakmayınız. Cevaplarınızı çocuğunuza en çok uyan dört seçenekten birini yuvarlak içine alarak belirtiniz.				Hiçbir zaman	Bazen	Sık sık	Her zaman
1-----2-----3-----4	Hiçbir zaman	Bazen	Sık sık				
ÇOCUĞUM...							
1. Üzgün olduğunda kendini iyi hissettirecek birşeyler yapar.							
2. Sıkıldığında yerinde duramaz/oturamaz.							
3. Birine kızgın olsa bile, etrafındaki diğer insanlara normal davranabilir.							
4. Stres altındayken yapması gereken işleri yapmakta iyidir.							
5. Yorgun olsa bile, yeni bir işe başlayabilir.							
6. Küçük sorunlar onu uzun-vadeli planlarından alıkoyabilir.							
7. Eğlenceli birşeyler yaparken, yapması gereken diğer işleri unuttur.							
8. Sıkıcı bir derste, dikkatini toplamakta zorlanır.							
9. Meşgul edilerek ve dikkati dağıtılarak kesilse bile, yaptığı işe kolayca geri dönebilir.							
10. Etrafta başka işler olurken dikkatini yaptığı işe yoğunlaştırmakta zorlanır.							
11. Ne kadar daha çalışması gerektiğini/gerekeceğini hiçbir zaman bilemez.							
12. Stres altındayken planlar yapmak ya da büyük işler yapmaya başlamakta zorlanır.							
13. Heyecanlandığında ya da kızdığında kolayca sakinleşebilir.							
14. Birşey istediği gibi gitmediğinde amacına ulaşmak için davranışlarını değiştirebilir.							
15. Arkadaşları dışarı gitmek istediğinde bile, kendini çalışmak için tutabilir.							
16. İşler istediği gibi gitmiyorsa, kontrolünü kaybeder.							
17. Birşeyi çok istiyorsa, ona hemen sahip olmak ister.							
18. Biriyle ciddi bir anlaşmazlığa düştüğünde kontrolünü kaybetmeden sakince konuşabilir.							

	Hiçbir zaman	Bazen	Sık sık	Her zaman
19. Yapması gereken çok sıkıcı olsa bile o işe yoğunlaşabilir.				
20. Tepesi atıp, birşeyler fırlatmak istediğinde kendini durdurabilir.				
21. Sonu nereye varacağı belli olmasa da dikkatli çalışabilir.				
22. Dışarıya belirtmeden de duygularının ne olduğunun farkındadır.				
23. Arkadaşları konuşurken bile işine konsantre olabilir.				
24. Bir amaca ulaşmak için heyecanlandığında (örn., yeni bir okula gitmek vb.), kolayca o hedef için çalışmaya başlayabilir.				
25. Plan ve hedefleri zor olsa da onlara bağlı kalacak bir yol bulur.				
26. Uzun vadeli bir projesi olduğunda, üzerinde sabırla çalışabilir.				
27. Birşeyi yapmaması gerektiğini biliyorsa, kendini tutabilir.				
28. Yemek istediği miktarı kontrol etmekte zorlanır.				
29. Eğlenceli birşey yaparken zamanın farkında olmaz.				
30. Önceden planlama yapılması gereken büyük işlere başlamakta zorlanır.				
31. Neye ağlayacağını önceden hisseder.				
32. Yorgunken onu heyecandırabilecek şeylere ilgi duymakta zorlanır.				

Self- Control Rating Scale (SCRS)

<p>Aşağıda çocukların bazı özellikleri ile ilgili sorular sorulmuştur. Sizden ANKETİ GETİREN ÇOCUĞUNUZU düşünerek bu ifadelerin çocuğunuz için ne derece geçerli olduğunu cevaplandırmanız istenmektedir. Lütfen hiçbir soruyu boş bırakmayınız. Cevaplarınızı çocuğunuza en çok uyan dört seçeneğe birini yuvarlak içine alarak belirtiniz.</p> <p>1-----2-----3-----4</p> <p>Her zaman Hiçbir zaman Bazen Sık sık</p> <p>ÇOCUĞUNUZ...</p>	Hiçbir zaman	Bazen	Sık sık	Her zaman
1. Bir konuda söz verdiğinde sözünü tutacağına güvenirmisiniz?				
2. Diğer çocuklar tarafından çağrılmadığında bile onların oyununa zorla katılmak ister mi?				
3. Çok heyecanlandığında ya da morali bozulduğunda kolayca sakinleşebilir mi?				
4. Yaptığı bütün işlerin kalitesi aynı mıdır?				
5. Uzun vadeli amaçlar için çalışır mı?				
6. Bir soru sorduğunda sabırla cevabını bekler mi?				
7. Arkadaşları ile konuşken onların sözünü sabırla dinler mi?				
8. Bir işi tamamlayıncaya kadar üzerinde ısrarla durur mu?				
9. İlgili yetişkinlerin (ebeveyn, öğretmen, doktor vb.) talimat ve yönlendirmelerini yerine getirir mi?				
10. Gördüğü herşeyi hemen ister mi?				
11. Gerektiğinde sabırla sırasını bekler mi?				
12. Yerinde oturur mu?				
13. Grup faaliyetlerinde diğer herkesle uyumlu çalışabilir mi?				
14. Yapması gerektiği işleri birkaç kez hatırlatmak gerekir mi?				
15. Bir büyük tarafından azarlandığında ona uygunsuz cevap verir mi?				
16. Kaza yapma ya da kendini incitme yatkınlığı var mı?				
17. Günlük iş ya da görevlerini unuttur veya ihmal eder mi?				

	Hiçbir zaman	Bazen	Sık sık	Her zaman
18. Bir işin başına oturup yapamadığı günler olur mu?				
19. Seçme şansı verilse bugün alacağı küçük oyuncacı daha sonra alacağı büyük ve çekici oyuncaca tercih eder mi?				
20. Başkalarının oyuncaklarını ellerinden kapar mı?				
21. Başkaları birşeyle uğraşırken onları rahatsız eder mi?				
22. Kuralları çiğner mi?				
23. Giderken etrafa, yola dikkat eder mi?				
24. Tek bir soruya aynı anda birden çok cevap vermeye çalışır mı?				
25. Bir iş yaparken dikkati kolayca dağılır mı?				
26. Dikkatli midir?				
27. Arkadaşlarıyla uyumlu oynar mı? (kurallara uymak, işbirliği yapmak, sırasını beklemek gibi...)				
28. Bir faaliyet üzerine yoğunlaşmak yerine sürekli olarak birinden diğerine geçer mi?				
29. Verilen bir iş önce çok zor geldiğinde hemen hayal kırıklığına uğrayıp vazgeçer mi?				
30. Diğer çocukların oyunlarını bozar mı?				
31. Bir davranışta bulunmadan önce düşünür mü?				
32. Bir işe dikkatini verirse, daha iyi yapabilir mi?				
33. Aynı anda birden fazla işi yapmaya çalışır mı?				

Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ)

<p style="text-align: center;">ANKETİ GETİREN ÇOCUĞUNUZUN son 6 ay içindeki davranışlarını göz önüne alarak lütfen aşağıdaki maddeleri doldurunuz. Her bir maddenin çocuğunuz için ne derece doğru olduğunu aşağıdaki 3 seçenekten en uygun olanını yuvarlak içine alarak gösteriniz.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">1-----2-----3 Doğru değil Kısmen doğru Kesinlikle Doğru</p> <p style="text-align: center;">ÇOCUĞUM...</p>	Doğru Değil	Kısmen Doğru	Kesinlikle Doğru
1. Diğer insanların duygularını önemser.			
2. Huzursuz, aşırı hareketli, uzun süre kıpırdamadan duramaz.			
3. Sıkça baş ağrısı, karın ağrısı ve bulantıdan yakınır.			
4. Diğer çocuklarla kolayca paylaşır.			
5. Sıkça öfke nöbetleri olur ya da aşırı sinirlidir.			
6. Daha çok tek başınadır, yalnız oynama eğilimindedir.			
7. Genellikle söz dinler, erişkinlerin isteklerini yapar.			
8. Birçok kaygısı vardır. Sıkça endişeli görünür.			
9. Eğer birisi incinmiş, morali bozulmuş ya da kendini kötü hissediyor ise ona yardımcı olur.			
10. Sürekli elleri ayakları kıpır kıpırdır ya da oturduğu yerde kıpırdanıp durur.			
11. En az bir yakın arkadaşı vardır.			
12. Sıkça diğer çocuklarla kavga eder ya da onlarla alay eder.			
13. Sıkça mutsuz görünür, kederli ya da ağlamaklıdır.			
14. Genellikle diğer çocuklar tarafından sevilir.			
15. Dikkati kolayca dağılır. Yoğunlaşmakta güçlük çeker.			
16. Yeni ortamlarda gergin ya da huysuzdur. Kendine güvenini kolayca kaybeder.			
17. Kendinden küçüklere iyi davranır.			
18. Sıkça yalan söyler ya da hile yapar.			
19. Diğer çocuklar ona takarlar ya da onunla alay ederler.			
20. Sıkça başkalarına (anne, baba, öğretmen, diğer çocuklar) yardım etmeye istekli olur.			
21. Bir şeyi yapmadan önce düşünür.			
22. Ev, okul ya da başka yerlerden çalar.			

	Dođru Deđil	Kısmen Dođru	Kesinlikle Dođru
23. Eriřkinlerle ocuklardan daha iyi geinir.			
24. Pek ok korkusu var. Kolayca őrker.			
25. Bařladıđı iři bitirir, dikkat sőreri iyidir.			

Appendix E. Factor Analysis Result of Parental Psychological Control Scale

ITEMS	Perceived Mother N=289		Perceived Father N=290		Mother-Reported N=191	
	Guilt induction	Love withdrawal	Guilt Induction	Love Withdrawal	Guilt Induction	Love Withdrawal
15.Ben yanlış davrandığım zaman annem hayal kırıklığına uğradığımı söyler.	0.73		0.57		0.73	
13.Annem ben yanlış davrandığımda hayal kırıklığını gösterir.	0.68		0.61		0.59	
14.Beklentilerini yerine getirmediğimde annem kendisini utandırdığını söyler.	0.67		0.50		0.73	
12.Annem"benim ne hissettiğime önem verseydin beni üzecek bu şeyleri yapmazdın"vb. der.	0.64	0.36	0.56		0.68	
25.Annemi üzdüğümde onu memnun edene kadar benimle konuşmaz.	0.60		0.36		0.39	
10.Annemi hayal kırıklığına uğrattığımda bunu bana hissettirir.	0.60		0.52		0.59	
30.Annem, kötü davranışlarımdan, yaramazlıklarımdan utanmam gerektiğini söyler durur.	0.59		0.60		0.65	
28.Annem, benim için ne kadar çok çalışıp yorulduğunu söyler durur.	0.59		0.72		0.64	
29.Annem yaptığı herşeyi benim için yaptığını hatırlatıp durur.	0.59		0.71		0.61	
11.Annem bana kızdığı zaman bunu bana hissettirir.	0.54	0.33	0.46		0.50	
5.Ben etraftayken, annem birden parlar, duygusal davranışlar gösterir.	0.52		0.43			
19.Annem çoğu konuda ne düşüneceğimi, nasıl hissetmem gerektiğini söylemekten hoşlanır.	0.50		0.47		0.34	
2.Annem ne hissettiğimi ya da düşündüğümü biliyormuş gibi davranır.	0.50		0.41		0.24	
22.Annem bana karşı bazen sıcak davranırken bazen de şikayet edip durur.	0.49	0.45	0.45		0.44	
3.Annem beni eleştirirken geçmişte yaptığım hataları hatırlatıp durur.	0.48	0.48	0.64		0.42	0.47
24.Annemi hayal kırıklığına uğrattığımda, beni görmezden	0.45	0.39		0.51		0.32

	gelmeye çalışır.						
	16. Annem, ben birşey söylerken konuyu değiştirir.		0.73		0.63		0.68
	7. Annem benimleyken kolaylıkla sabrı taşar.		0.65		0.64		0.74
	23. Annem benimle birlikteyken huysuzlaşır, ruh hali değişir.		0.65		0.55		0.65
	32. Annem diğer çocuklar kadar iyi olmadığını söyler durur.		0.62		0.37		0.47
	4. Annem ailedeki diğer kişilerin sorunları için beni suçlar.	0.30	0.60		0.56		0.58
	20. Annem yaptığım bazı davranışların "aptalca, ahmakça" olduğunu söyler.	0.31	0.60		0.57		0.27
	26. Annemin ben konuşurken bana pek dikkatini vermediğini düşünürüm.		0.60		0.52		0.60
	17. Annem ben konuşurken sözümü keser.		0.58		0.62		0.68
	21. Annem bana karşı sabırsız davranır.		0.56		0.48		0.60
	1. Annem ben konuşurken bitirmemi beklemeden cümlemi tamamlar.		0.51		0.51		0.44
162	6. Annem sorular sorup, onu rahatsız etmemden hoşlanmaz.		0.50		0.66		0.64
	27. Annem benim onun çocukluğunda olduğu kadar iyi olmadığını söyleyip durur.	0.38	0.50				0.28
	8. Annemin dikkatini çekmeye çalışırken beni görmezden gelir.	0.32	0.48		0.64		0.53
	31. Annem yanlış davrandığım her zaman cezalandırılacağımı söyler.	0.44	0.45		0.52		
	18. Annem bazı konulardaki hislerimi ve düşüncelerimi değiştirmeye çalışır.	0.41	0.42		0.33		0.48
	9. Annem aynı fikirde olmadığımda bana karşı soğuk ve daha az samimi davranır.	0.34	0.36		0.49		0.38
	Eigenvalues:	10.73	2.12	9.81	1.98	7.81	3.05
	Explained Variance %:	33.54	6.63	30.67	6.19	24.3	9.55
	Cronbach Alpha	.87	.86	.85	.85	.78	.78

Appendix F. Confirmatory Factor Analyses Results

Confirmatory Factor Analyses Results for Psychological Control Scale

Confirmatory factor analyses were conducted in order to evaluate each version of the perceived parental control using LISREL 8.51 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993). The covariance matrix was used as input and maximum likelihood estimation was employed in the analyses. A two-factor model consisting of guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors and love withdrawal/irrespective was hypothesized. The proposed two-factor model provided good fit to the data for perceived maternal psychological control ($\chi^2(274, N=289)=620.55, p<.001, GFI=.85, AGFI=.83, NNFI=.85, CFI=.86, RMSEA=.07$), perceived paternal psychological control ($\chi^2(274, N=290)=661.59, p<.001, GFI=.85, AGFI=.82, NNFI=.81, CFI=.83, RMSEA=.07$), and mother reported psychological control ($\chi^2(274, N=190)=542.89, p<.001, GFI=.81, AGFI=.78, NNFI=.80, CFI=.81, RMSEA=.07$). For the perceived maternal psychological control, standardized path coefficients for indicators (items) ranged between .36 and .71 for guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors, between .46 and .67 for love withdrawal/irrespective. For the perceived paternal psychological control, standardized path coefficients for indicators ranged from .35 to .70 guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors, and ranged from .42 to .67 for love withdrawal/irrespective. Finally, for the mother reported psychological control, standardized path coefficients varied between .25 and .72 for guilt induction/erratic emotional behaviors and changed between .36 and .77 for love withdrawal/irrespective. These results consistently showed that the scale has an acceptable construct validity and internal consistency for the different dimensions of parental psychological control for each parent.

Confirmatory Factor Analyses Results for Behavioral Control Scale

Confirmatory factor analyses were conducted in order to evaluate each version of the perceived parental behavioral control using LISREL 8.51 (Jöreskog & Sörbom). As input the covariance matrix was used and maximum likelihood estimation was employed in the analyses. A two-factor model consisting of parental knowledge and monitoring was hypothesized. The adolescent report about perceived

behavioral control model showed acceptable fit with all items loading positively for both mother version ($\chi^2(117, N=287)=343.83, p<.001, GFI=.88, AGFI=.84, NNFI=.89, CFI=.90, RMSEA=.08$) and father version ($\chi^2(117, N=288)=302.51, p<.001, GFI=.89, AGFI=.86, NNFI=.91, CFI=.92, RMSEA=.07$) as well as mother reported version of behavioral control ($\chi^2(117, N=189)=285.33, p<.001, GFI=.85, AGFI=.80, NNFI=.88, CFI=.90, RMSEA=.07$). For mother version, the standardized path coefficients of two-factor behavioral control scale changed between .59 and .78 for parental knowledge, changed between .52 and .79 for monitoring. For father version, the path coefficients of indicators ranged from .58 to .71 for parental knowledge, and ranged from .55 to .78 for monitoring component. Finally, for mother reported forms, structural coefficients for indicators of parental knowledge were changed between .64 and .84 and for indicators of monitoring were ranged from .50 to .77.

Confirmatory Factor Analyses Results for Adolescent Self-Regulation Inventory

A two-factor model consisting of success and failure of self-regulation was tested. Both adolescent and mother report on adolescent's self-regulation showed acceptable fit with all items loading positively (*adolescent report*; $\chi^2(404, N=292)=664.63, p<.001, GFI=.87, AGFI=.85, NNFI=.85, CFI=.86, RMSEA=.05$; *mother report*; $\chi^2(404, N=189)=698.88, p<.001, GFI=.80, AGFI=.77, NNFI=.80, CFI=.82, RMSEA=.06$). The standardized path coefficients of adolescent own report of the two-factor ASRI changed between .34 and .62 for self-regulation success, changed between .25 and .65 for self-regulation failure. For mother report about adolescent self-regulation skills, the standardized path coefficients were changed between .29 and .74 for self-regulation success, changed between .19 and .71 for self-regulation failure.

Confirmatory Factor Analyses Results for Self-Control Rating Scale

The proposed model provided good fit to the data for both adolescent reports ($\chi^2(208, N=288)=375.06, p<.001, GFI=.89, AGFI=.87, NNFI=.85, CFI=.86, RMSEA=.05$) and mother reports ($\chi^2(205, N=189)=380.09, p<.001, GFI=.85, AGFI=.81, NNFI=.86, CFI=.87, RMSEA=.07$). For adolescent version, the standardized path coefficients of two-factor self-control scale varied between .33 and .64 for low persevering/monitoring, and changed between .33 and .66 for high

inhibiting/activation/adapting. For mother version, the path coefficients of indicators ranged from .40 to .68 for low persevering/monitoring, and ranged from .17 to .68 for high inhibiting/adapting component.

Confirmatory Factor Analyses Results for Academic Self-Description Questionnaire

The proposed model (math and Turkish academic self-concept) provided good fit to the data ($\chi^2(53, N=289)=176.54, p<.001, GFI=.91, AGFI=.86, NNFI=.91, CFI=.93, RMSEA=.09$). The standardized path coefficients of academic self-concept changed between .56 and .81 for math self-concept, and changed between .46 and .81 for Turkish self-concept.

Appendix G. Factor Analysis Result of Parental Behavioral Control Scale

	Perceived Mother N=287		Perceived Father N=288		Mother-Reported N=190	
	Parental Knowledge	Monitoring	Parental Knowledge	Monitoring	Parental Knowledge	Monitoring
10. Annen evde olmadığına ona nasıl ulaşacağını bilir misin?	0.82		0.72		0.83	
7. Bir yere gitmek için ayrıldığında annene ya da başka bir büyüğüne nereye gittiğini söyler misin?	0.81		0.69		0.88	
5. Anne haftasonu ve tatillerde ne yaptığını bilir mi?	0.77		0.76		0.86	
4. Annen okuldan sonra nereye gittiğini bilir mi?	0.77		0.90		0.91	
9. Annen evde olmadığına ve senin evden çıkmaman gerekiyorsa nereye gittiğini söylemek için ona not bırakır ya da telefon eder misin?	0.75		0.64		0.70	
1. Annen kiminle zaman geçirdiğini bilir mi?	0.71		0.67		0.78	
13. Annen sınav sonuçlarını, önemli ödevlerini bilir mi?	0.55					
14. Annen senin farklı derslerdeki durumunu ve başarını bilir mi?	0.54		0.42			
3. Annen paranı nelere, nasıl harcadığını bilir mi?	0.49		0.56		0.60	
8. Arkadaşlarıyla dışarıya çıktığında annene kaçta evde olacağını söyler misin?	0.46		0.61		0.33	
2. Annen boş zamanlarını nasıl geçirdiğini bilir mi?	0.44		0.67		0.65	
20. Arkadaşların size geldiğinde annen onlarla konuşur mu?	0.43				0.30	
17. Annenle boş zamanlarında yaptıkların hakkında konuşur musun?		0.96		0.92		0.84
18. Arkadaşlarıyla oynayıp eve geldiğinde neler yaptığını annene anlatır mısın?		0.81		0.79		0.69
11. Annen hangi derslerden ödevin olduğunu bilir mi?		0.72		0.46		0.79
19. Annenle arkadaşların hakkında konuşur musun?		0.70		0.71		0.67
16. Annene okulda gününün nasıl geçtiğini anlatır mısın? (örneğin, sınavlarının nasıl geçtiğini, öğretmenlerinle aranın nasıl olduğunu vb.)		0.70		0.82		0.77
15. Annene okulda derslerinin nasıl gittiğini söyler misin?		0.65		0.78		0.73
6. Annen okulda yaşadığın sorunları bilir mi?		0.62		0.55		0.71
12. Annen derslerin hakkında öğretmenlerin ile görüşür mü?		0.58		0.71		0.63
Eigenvalues:	8.56	1.62	1.49	8.88	9.02	1.86
Explained Variance %:	42.7	8.08	7.46	44.40	45.05	9.31
Cronbach Alpha	.88	.87	.87	.88	.91	.87

Appendix H. Factor Analysis Result of Adolescents Self-Regulatory Inventory

	Adolescent Reported=292		Mother Reported=189	
	Success	Failure	Success	Failure
4. Stres altındayken yapmam gereken işleri yapmakta iyiyimdir.	.63		.54	
25. Plan ve hedeflerim zor olsa da onlara bağlı kalacak bir yol bulurum.	.61		.71	
26. Uzun vadeli bir projem olduğunda, üzerinde sabırla çalışabilirim.	.60		.68	
19. Yapmam gereken çok sıkıcı olsa bile o işe yoğunlaşabilirim.	.59		.64	
24. Bir hedefe ulaşmak için heyecanlandığımda (örn, yeni bir okula gitmek vb.), kolayca o hedef için çalışmaya başlayabilirim.	.54		.57	
13. Heyecanlandığımda ya da kızdığımda kolayca sakinleşebilirim.	.54		.50	
23. Arkadaşlarım konuşurken bile işime konsantre olabilir.	.53		.64	
9. Meşgul edilerek ve dikkatim dağıtılarak kesilsem bile, yaptığım işe kolayca geri dönebilirim.	.53		.62	
1. Üzgün olduğumda kendimi iyi hissetirecek birşeyler yapabilirim.	.52		.47	
18. Biriyle ciddi bir anlaşmazlığa düştüğümde kontrolümü kaybetmeden sakince konuşabilirim.	.51		.63	
5. Yorgun olsam bile, yeni bir işe başlayabilirim.	.51		.46	
27. Birşeyi yapmamam gerektiğini biliyorsam, kendimi tutabilirim.	.50		.59	
20. Tepem atıp, birşeyler fırlatmak istediğimde kendimi durdurabilirim.	.50		.40	
3. Birine kızgın olduğumda bile, etraftaki diğer insanlara normal davranabilirim.	.49		.47	
15. Arkadaşlarım dışarı gitmek istediğinde, kendimi çalışmak için tutabilirim.	.45		.59	
21. Sonu nereye varacağı belli olmasa da dikkatli çalışabilirim.	.44		.72	
22. Dışarıya belirtmeden de duygularımın ne olduğunun farkındayım.	.42		.56	
8. Sıkıcı bir derste, dikkatimi toplamakta zorlanırım.		.64	-.36	.65
16. İşler istediğim gibi gitmiyorsa, kontrolümü kaybederim.		.62	-.32	.34
12. Stres altındayken planlar yapmak ve büyük işler yapmaya başlamakta zorlanırım.		.60		.57
29. Eğlenceli birşey yaparken zamanın farkında olmam.		.59		.53
7. Eğlenceli birşeyler yaparken, yapmam gereken diğer işleri unuturum.		.58		.67
10. Etrafta başka işler olurken dikkatimi yaptığım işe yoğunlaştırmakta zorlanırım.		.55		.65

17. Birşeyi çok istiyorsam, ona hemen sahip olmak isterim.		.54		.41
30. Önceden planlama yapılması gereken büyük işlere başlamakta zorlanırım.		.53		.49
14. Birşey istediğim gibi gitmediğinde amacıma ulaşmak için davranışlarımı değiştirebilirim.	.30			.30
2. Sıkıldığımda yerimde duramam/oturamam.		.46		.44
11. Ne kadar daha çalışmam gerektiğini/gerekeceğini hiçbir zaman bilemem.		.45		.64
32. Yorgunken beni heyecanlandırabilecek şeylere ilgi duymakta zorlanırım.		.44		.34
28. Yemek istediğim miktarı kontrol etmekte zorlanırım.		.41		.33
6. Küçük sorunlar beni uzun-vadeli planlarımdan alıkoyabilir.		.39	-.31	.32
31. Neye ağlayacağımı önceden hissederim.		.31		.25
Eigenvalues:	6.13	3.22	8.34	2.28
Explained Variance %:	19.15	10.07	26.07	7.12
Cronbach Alpha	.85	.80	.89	.79

Appendix I. Factor Analysis Result of Self-Control Rating Scale

	Adolescent Reported=288		Mother Reported=189	
	Low Perseverance	Inhibition/Activation/Adaptation	Low Perseverance	Inhibition/Activation/Adaptation
11.Gerektiğinde sabırla sırasını bekler mi?	0.74		0.57	
9.İlgili yetişkinlerin (ebeveyn, öğretmen, doktor vb.) talimat ve yönlendirmelerini yerine getirir mi?	0.62		0.70	
8.Bir işi tamamlayınca kadar üzerinde ısrarla durur mu?	0.60		0.60	
7.Arkadaşları ile konuşuken onların sözünü sabırla dinler mi?	0.58		0.63	
6.Bir soru sorduğunda sabırla cevabını bekler mi?	0.58		0.56	
31.Bir davranışta bulunmadan önce düşünür mü?	0.53		0.55	
27.Arkadaşlarıyla uyumlu oynar mı? (kurallara uymak, işbirliği yapmak, sırasını beklemek gibi...)	0.53		0.71	
1.Bir konuda söz verdiğinde sözünü tutacağına güvenir misiniz?	0.53		0.41	
12.Yerinde oturur mu?	0.51			
13.Grup faaliyetlerinde diğer herkesle uyumlu çalışabilir mi?	0.48		0.66	
30.Diğer çocukların oyunlarını bozar mı?	-0.43	0.31	-0.44	
32.Bir işe dikkatini verirse, daha iyi yapabilir mi?	0.37			
5.Uzun vadeli amaçlar için çalışır mı?	0.35		0.58	
3.Çok heyecanlandığında ya da morali bozulduğunda kolayca sakinleşebilir mi?	0.35		0.45	
28.Bir faaliyet üzerine yoğunlaşmak yerine sürekli olarak birinden diğerine geçer mi?	0.32			
17.Günlük iş ya da görevlerini unutur veya ihmal eder mi?		0.65		0.68
29.Verilen bir iş önce çok zor geldiğinde hemen hayal kırıklığına uğrayıp vazgeçer mi?		0.63		0.35
23.Giderken etrafa, yola dikkat eder mi?		0.58		
14.Yapması gerektiği işleri birkaç kez hatırlatmak gerekir mi?		0.57		0.61
10.Gördüğü herşeyi hemen ister mi?		0.53		0.54
18.Bir işin başına oturup yapamadığı günler olur mu?		0.53		0.58
20.Başkalarının oyuncaklarını ellerinden kapar mı?		0.52		
21.Başkaları birşeyle uğraşırken onları rahatsız eder mi?		0.51		0.38
26.Dikkatli midir?		0.50		
15.Bir büyük tarafından azarlandığında ona uygunsuz cevap verir mi?		0.49		0.49

25.Bir iş yaparken dikkati kolayca dağılır mı?		0.48		0.61
22.Kuralları çiğner mi?	-0.40	0.43		0.38
24.Tek bir soruya aynı anda birden çok cevap vermeye çalışır mı?		0.39		0.46
16.Kaza yapma ya da kendini incitme yatkınlığı var mı?		0.35		0.33
33.Aynı anda birden fazla işi yapmaya çalışır mı?		0.35		
4.Yaptığı bütün işlerin kalitesi aynı mıdır?		0.31		
19.Seçme şansı verilse bugün alacağı küçük oyuncağı daha sonra alacağı büyük ve çekici oyuncağı tercih eder mi?				
2.Diğer çocuklar tarafından çağrılmadığında bile onların oyununa zorla katılmak ister mi?				
Eigenvalues:	6.97	2.24	7.95	2.13
Explained Variance %:	21.11	6.78	24.09	6.44
Cronbach Alpha	.79	.77	.84	.77