THE ASSOCIATION BETWEEN PARENTING PRACTICES AND PEER REJECTION, MODERATED BY SENSORY PROCESSING SENSITIVITY OF THE CHILD

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES OF MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

BY

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IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR
THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF SCIENCE
IN
THE DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

JANUARY 2023

Approval of the thesis:

THE ASSOCIATION BETWEEN PARENTING PRACTICES AND PEER REJECTION, MODERATED BY SENSORY PROCESSING SENSITIVITY OF THE CHILD

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ABSTRACT

THE ASSOCIATION BETWEEN PARENTING PRACTICES AND PEER REJECTION, MODERATED BY SENSORY PROCESSING SENSITIVITY OF THE CHILD

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January 2023, 89 pages

The current study aims to investigate the relationships between parenting dimensions (acceptance, behavioral and psychological control) and peer rejection of children and adolescents from 5th to 11th grade ($N_{female} = 1741$, $N_{male} = 1435$), moderated by child's sensory processing sensitivity (depth of processing and overreaction to stimuli). In order to explore gender interactions, separate path models for mother-daughter, mother-son, father-daughter, and father-son dyads are tested. Gender differences between girls and boys in terms of parenting dimensions and peer rejection are examined using one-way ANOVAs. Results indicate that girls report more peer rejection, less maternal acceptance, and more maternal behavioral control compared to boys. Moreover, peer rejection is predicted negatively by both maternal and paternal acceptance, while it is predicted positively by both maternal and paternal psychological control regardless of child's gender. The association between behavioral control and peer rejection is significant in a negative way only in motherson dyads. Overreaction to stimuli is found to have a positive relationship with peer rejection for each dyad, whereas depth of processing has a negative relationship with

peer rejection for only father-daughter dyads. Significant interactions are detected between overreaction to stimuli and maternal behavioral control perceived by girls and depth of processing and maternal psychological control perceived by boys while predicting peer rejection. The findings are discussed along with the contributions and limitations of the study, and the implications.

Keywords: parenting, peer rejection, sensory processing sensitivity, gender

ALGILANAN EBEVEYNLİK UYGULAMALARI İLE AKRAN REDDİ ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİ: ÇOCUĞUN DUYUSAL HASSASİYETİNİN DÜZENLEYİCİ ROLÜ

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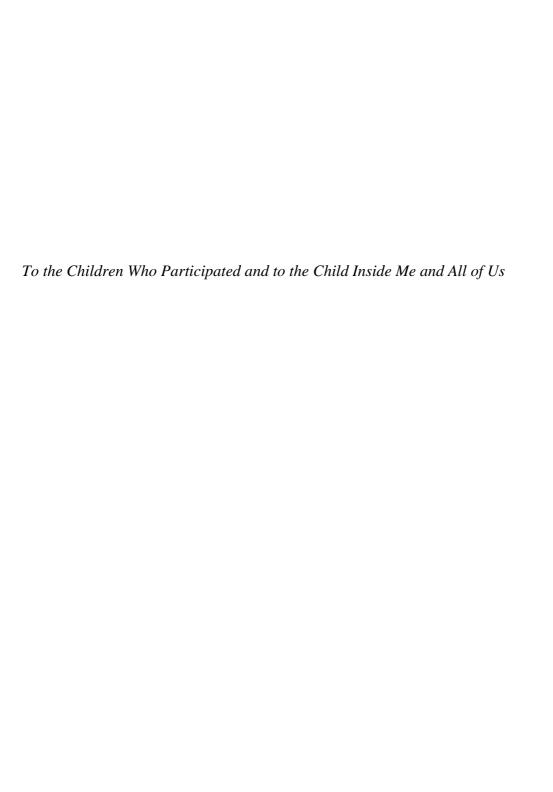
Tez Yöneticisi: Prof. Dr. Sibel KAZAK BERUMENT

Ocak 2023, 89 sayfa

Bu çalışma ebeveynlik uygulamaları (kabul, davranışsal ve psikolojik kontrol) ile 5 ile 11. sınıf arasındaki çocuk ve ergenlerin ($N_{ktz} = 1741$, $N_{oğlan} = 1435$) akran reddi arasındaki ilişki üzerinde çocuğun duyusal hassasiyetinin (işleme derinliği ve uyaranlara karşı aşırı tepkisellik) düzenleyici rolünü araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır. Cinsiyetin bu ilişkilerdeki rolünü incelemek amacıyla anne-kız, anne-oğul, baba-kız ve baba-oğul ikilileri için ayrı ayrı yol analizleri test edilmiştir. Algılanan ebeveynlik uygulamaları ve akran reddi açısından cinsiyet farklılıkları tek yönlü ANOVA kullanılarak araştırılmıştır. Sonuçlara göre, kız çocukları oğlan çocuklarına göre daha fazla akran reddi deneyimlemekte ve annelerinden daha az kabul ve daha çok davranışsal kontrol algılamaktadır. Ayrıca, akran reddinin çocuğun cinsiyeti fark etmeksizin her iki ebeveynden algılanan kabul tarafından olumsuz yönde, her iki ebeveynden algılanan psikolojik kontrol tarafındansa olumlu yönde yordandığı bulunmuştur. Öte yandan algılanan davranışsal kontrol ve akran reddi arasında yalnızca anne-oğul ikililerinde olumsuz yönde anlamlı bir ilişki çıkmıştır. Uyaranlara karşı aşırı tepkiselliğin her ebeveyn-çocuk ikilisinde akran reddi ile olumlu bir

ilişkiye sahip olduğu bulunurken, işleme derinliği yalnızca baba-kız ikililerinde akran reddi ile olumsuz yönde ilişkili çıkmıştır. Uyaranlara karşı aşırı tepkisellik ile kızların annelerinden algıladıkları davranışsal kontrol arasında ve işleme derinliği ile oğlanların annelerinden algıladıkları psikolojik kontrol arasında anlamlı etkileşimler tespit edilmiştir. Bulgular çalışmanın katkıları, sınırlılıkları ve öneriler ile birlikte tartışılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: ebeveynlik, akran reddi, duyusal hassasiyet, cinsiyet



ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

First of all, I would like to thank my supervisor Prof. Dr. Sibel Kazak Berument for always being there and being the best mentor I could ever have. Since my first day of psychology education, I have admired her passion and discipline for research and how she approaches her students with deep care, which I got to experience firsthand during my master program. I am more than happy to have had the privilege to be her student.

I would also like to express my gratitude to my committee members Assoc. Prof. Başak Şahin Acar and Assoc. Prof. Dilek Sarıtaş Atalar for their insightful comments and recommendations that improved my work. I would like to thank Assoc. Prof. Başak Şahin Acar additionally for being one of the best teachers I have ever had. It was and will always be a pleasure to learn from her.

I would like to present my gratefulness to TÜBİTAK for the scholarship I have received during my master education as a BİDEB scholar and also for funding the project (118K033), which made this study happen. It was a great opportunity and such a valuable experience to conduct my thesis under this project. Additionally, I would like to convey my appreciation to Prof. Dr. Sibel Kazak Berument, Assoc. Prof. Başak Şahin Acar, Assoc. Prof. Aysun Doğan, Assist. Prof. Deniz Tahiroğlu for their efforts, knowledge and guiding us, and to the dear members of Child Development Lab at METU and researchers from Boğaziçi and Ege University for their great efforts during every phase of the project, and finally to the families who participated for their precious time and kindness.

I would like to express my deep gratitude to Res. Asst. Ezgi Aydoğdu Sözen, İlayda Çalışkan, and Yağmur İlgün for their tremendous help, kind support, and patience for my endless questions and to Batur Zafer for being the cutest library buddy.

I would like to thank my family for their warm hearts and endless supports of any kind that brought me here today as the person I am.

Last but not least, I would like to thank my friends for the laughs and tears we have shared, especially to Deniz Toker for being my black cat, to Ayşe Dilara Türkmen for being my partner in crime, to Gülşah Kurtar for being with me since the beginning of time, to Hilal Sırakaya Taşkıran for doing it all for all of us, to Seda D. Taş for being the most original persons I have ever met, and to Başak Altan for being my soulmate.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Overview

Varying through different developmental stages, family and peers interdependently constitute a huge place in a child's life. As children grow and begin to engage with the other members of the society outside the family, peer relationships gain a remarkable importance for their social development. One of the most important topics regarding a child's social development is peer rejection, which is defined as the evident dislike of a member in a peer group by the majority of others (Asher & Coie, 1990). Depending on how well a child fits in the peer group, they are faced with several positive or negative outcomes. While socially accepted children are more likely to display positive outcomes such as prosocial behaviors, social competency, leadership, perspective-taking, and problem-solving skills; rejected children are faced with increased risk for negative outcomes, such as academic (low grades, school drop-out, and truancy), internalizing (loneliness, and depression), and externalizing (delinquency and criminality) problems (Hymel et al., 2002).

Peer rejection studies go hand in hand with studies about other cursors of social maladjustment such as externalizing (e.g., Janssens et al., 2017; Sentse et al., 2010), internalizing (e.g., Metin Aslan, 2018; Sentse et al., 2010), peer victimization, physical and relational aggression (e.g., Godleski et al., 2015), social competence (e.g., McDowell & Parke, 2005), delinquency (e.g., Low et al., 2018), and friendship quality (e.g., Dickson et al., 2018) due to strong links and bidirectional relationships with peer rejection. Independent of being a cause or a result of these negative outcomes, peer rejection is associated with further social problems such as peer victimization, since it reduces the opportunities to equip necessary social skills to

form positive relationships (Hymel, et al., 2002). Thus, understanding peer rejection's antecedents is crucial to breaking the vicious cycle between these variables that lead to further social maladjustment. As an attempt to do so, the predictiveness of parenting dimensions (parental acceptance, behavioral, and psychological control) on peer rejection moderated by the temperament of the child was investigated in this study. After a brief overview, all variables are discussed in detail under separate sections.

Parenting and temperament of the child are among the most studied topics regarding peer rejection (Asher &Coie,1990). Primarily, family is the first social environment to learn the necessary social skills to build good relationships with others through modeling and parental guidance. Moreover, the bond with the caregiver presents an example of what other relationships should look like and it gives a perspective of other people's intentions during social interactions (Coie, 1990). In fact, securely attached infants are more likely to be accepted by their peers in early childhood (e.g., Greenberg et al., 1983), in return to have good quality friendships in adolescence and to experience more positive emotions in their romantic relationships in adulthood (Simpson et al., 2007) in accordance with Bowlby's (1969) attachment theory, which conveys that the bond formed with the main caregivers is projected onto the quality of future relationships. These findings not only show the linkage between parenting and a child's peer status but also emphasize the importance of peer relations for later relationships.

Second, the temperament of the child, which is the biological predisposition that determines the differential reactivity to the environment (e.g., parenting) and self-regulation of individuals (Rothbart & Bates, 2006; Slagt, et al., 2018), has a direct and an indirect influence on peer rejection. It plays a direct role in peer relationships by determining the emotional reactivity and regulation of the child in social interactions and an indirect role through shaping parenting (Bates et al., 1991; Parke et al., 2002; Pike, 2002). Therefore, temperament was included in the current study as a moderator on the relationship between parenting and peer rejection.

Sensory processing sensitivity is an inherited genetic marker of temperament that makes individuals more sensitive to both positive and negative properties of the environment (Aron & Aron, 1997). Highly sensitive people tend to react intensively to physical and emotional stimuli, and they realize even the slightest changes in the environment whether it is positive or negative (Aron & Aron, 1997; Aron, Aron & Jagiellowicz, 2012; Şengül-İnal & Sümer, 2018). Therefore, they benefit more from positive parenting and suffer more from negative parenting (Belsky, 1997; Slagt et al., 2018). Following the Differential Susceptibility Hypothesis, which suggests that individuals are affected by both positive and negative aspects of the environment (Belsky, 1997; Slagt et al., 2018), sensory processing sensitivity was used as an indicator of temperament and high levels of sensory processing factors were expected to strengthen the impact of parenting on peer rejection in this study.

When assessed in dimensions, certain parenting practices are found to be positively associated with peer rejection, while others are negatively associated with it. Positive parenting dimensions such as parental acceptance and behavioral control are reported to have a negative link with peer rejection (Dickson et al., 2018; Low et al., 2018, Lux & Walper, 2019; McDowell & Parke, 2005; Véronneau & Dishion, 2010). On the other hand, negative parenting practices such as parental rejection and psychological control, are found to have a positive relationship with it (Bullock et al., 2018; Dickson et al., 2018; Ladd & Pettit, 2002; Lux & Walper, 2019; McDowell & Parke, 2005). Consequently, the current study adopted an approach to study parenting in three dimensions: parental acceptance, behavioral, and psychological control, which are the main indicators of positive and negative parenting.

Parenting practices, peer rejection and the association between them seem to differ depending on gender-based parent-child dyads. For instance, girls report more perceived parental warmth compared to boys (Muris et al., 2003; Sentse et al., 2010). They are also less rejected than boys by their peers according to self-reports (Lux & Walper, 2019), teacher-reports (Metin Aslan, 2018), and peer nominations (Bullock et al., 2018). Moreover, it was found that maternal, but not paternal, excessive control was negatively associated with a child's social competence (Laible & Carlo, 2004). McDowell and Parke (2005) report parallel results using observer ratings of controlling behaviors of parents during probed family conversations.

To sum up, the current study examined the relationship between perceived maternal and paternal parenting practices (acceptance, behavioral, and psychological control) and peer rejection moderated by the sensory processing sensitivity of children and adolescents for each combination of gender-based parent-child dyads. The literature regarding the importance of studying peer rejection, the role of parenting (acceptance, behavioral and psychological control), and temperamental characteristics of the child are presented in detail in the following sections.

1.2. Peer Rejection

Peer rejection refers to overt dislike of a member in a peer group by the majority of others and it puts an individual at risk of many adverse outcomes in terms of both physical and mental health (Asher & Coie, 1990). Evolution theory suggests that, despite its high cost for the organism, maintaining functional social relationships must have been so beneficial for the survival of primates that the brain evolved accordingly. Learning to fulfill individual needs while maintaining group cohesion consumes a lot of energy, however, it must have minimized the predation risk and provided access to greater food resources that are only possible through cooperation with others for primates in the past (Dunbar & Shultz, 2007; Tomasello, 2014). Therefore, it is plausible to assume that feelings following peer rejection stem from the deep-down fear of life because we are evolved to believe that being rejected by our species is a threat of death. Although being excluded by peers does not lead to death today, it is still associated with many negative outcomes.

The detrimental influence of social exclusion on people's physical health is presented by various examples. To begin with, lack of consistent social support and not being integrated into the social network, along with smoking, are the biggest risk factors of death due to cardiovascular diseases (Holt-Lunstad et al., 2010). On the contrary, being socially integrated is linked to a better immune system, lower blood pressure, lower body mass index, and lower risk of inflammation (Yang, et al., 2016). Likewise, Cundiff and Matthews (2018) found that how well a child is socially attuned is predictive of blood pressure and body mass index even in their young adulthood. Furthermore, the studies with monkeys provide support for the

relation between substance abuse and loneliness in humans (Åkerlind & Hörnquist, 1992; Morgan et al., 2002) (as cited in Bzdok & Dunbar, 2020).

Social exclusion is not only associated with physiological changes in our bodies. Studies show that peer rejection associates with many psychological outcomes such as having a role in the ontogenesis of schizophrenia by being the onset of social isolation, developing delinquent behaviors, difficulty in adjusting to school, early school dropouts (especially for males), externalizing and internalizing problems (Kupersmidt et al., 1990). Some studies show that peer rejection is also related to other undefined mental health problems. For instance, 69% of servicemen in military (34 out of 49) who have a history of childhood peer rejection were found to face adjustment problems in their career due to psychoneurotic indices (Roff, 1960). Findings of another study by Roff and Wirt (1984) indicate that for the patients who suffer from mental health issues (hospitalized or outpatients), the prevalence rate of disorder was significantly higher for the least liked children compared to mediumliked and the most liked children, after three years from the first assessment (as cited in Asher and Coie, 1990).

The detriments of peer rejection are not limited to serious physical and mental health issues. It is also harmful for social development of children. Rejected children are found to be under increased risk for relational and physical peer victimization and internalizing problems (Metin Aslan, 2018; Crick & Grotpeter, 1996), which poses risk for further peer rejection in return (e.g., Hannish & Guerra, 2002). The possible explanation is that these children are easier targets for bullies not only because they are already disliked, but also there are fewer children to defend them (Perry et al., 2001; Godleski et al., 2015). Furthermore, Godleski and others (2015) demonstrated the impact of peer rejection on relational victimization over time with a longitudinal study. They found that peer rejection positively predicted relational victimization three months later after the initial assessment.

Considering the negative impact of peer rejection on social development of children and adolescents, and their physical and mental health, it is important to investigate its antecedents to have insights on what kinds of prevention and intervention actions can be taken. Being the first social environment to learn about relationships and practice

social skills, family is an important source of information about the predictors of peer rejection. Besides, it is shown that the quality of the relationship with the caregivers is projected onto peer relations (e.g., Greenberg et al., 1983; Simpson et al., 2007). Thereupon, this study focused on the associations between parenting dimensions and peer rejection, and how this relationship was moderated by child's temperamental traits.

1.3. Parenting and Peer Rejection

As mentioned above, there is a significant association between attachment styles and peer acceptance-rejection. Nevertheless, there is a growing trend toward studying the association of parenting with child outcomes by examining it as dimensions, instead of broad concepts such as parenting styles or attachment types (Ladd, & Pettit, 2002) since using dimensions might provide information about the unique relationships between parenting dimensions and social development of children and adolescents that could not be revealed when broad constructs such as attachment type and parenting styles are used (Wood, Cowan & Baker, 2002). For that reason, parenting was tackled as dimensions in the current study. Following sections focus on peer rejection's association with parental acceptance and control, since they are the main components that determine the quality of parenting. While some researchers include both dimensions in their studies on peer relationships, others study them separately. Therefore, first the descriptions of parental acceptance and control and their link with peer rejection is given independently. Then, work that comprises both acceptance and control dimensions is presented.

1.3.1. Parental Acceptance

Parental acceptance is identified with warmth, affection, love, care, comfort, support, or nurturance of parents. On the contrary, parental rejection refers to the absence or withdrawal of these positive parenting characteristics, and consists of hostility, aggression, indifference, and neglect. If this rejection is generalized by the offspring, they can feel their parents do not love, care about or value them (Khaleque, 2015).

As mentioned before, parental acceptance is universally acknowledged as an indicator of positive parenting and associated with many positive child outcomes

(Sümer & Kağıtçıbaşı, 2010), subsequently it favors child's social development. Studies show positive links between parental acceptance and several aspects of social adjustment like prosocial behavior (Davidov & Grusec, 2006; Putnick et al., 2018; Zarra-Nezhad et al., 2018), social competence (Rohner, 2021), social skills (Peixoto et al., 2022), emotion regulation (Davidov & Grusec, 2006) and social problemsolving skills (Tepeli & Yilmaz, 2013), and peer acceptance (Davidov & Grusec, 2006; Greenberg et al., 1983, Sentse et al., 2010). In opposition, rejection by parents is shown to correlate with behavior problems (Rohner, 2021), aggression, victimization, exclusion (Gülay & Önder, 2011), and internalizing-externalizing problems (Khaleque, 2015). Despite the fact that the scope of this study was limited to the association of parenting and peer rejection, it is inferred that parental acceptance has an important impact on a child's social development evidenced by the wide range of child outcomes mentioned above.

There appears to be different outcomes regarding peer rejection in terms of which parent's acceptance we are talking about. For instance, Gülay and Önder (2011) found meaningful relationships of maternal acceptance-rejection with child's exclusion by peers, but not of paternal acceptance-rejection. They speculated that it is due to the stereotypical gender roles of parents in Turkish cultural context, where mothers spend more time with children and take up more caregiving responsibilities compared to fathers. Moreover, the role of gender is not limited to the source of acceptance. Gender differences are shown between boys and girls, as well. Sentse et al. (2010), note that girls report more perceived parental acceptance than boys, whereas boys report more parental rejection as well as more peer rejection. Furthermore, rejection by parents and peers is found to affect girls more, while another study demonstrated that maternal warmth predicts peer acceptance of boys, but not girls (Davidov & Grusec, 2006).

In the light of these information, the role of gender in the link between parental acceptance and peer rejection was investigated separately in different parent-child gender combinations. The next section focuses on parental control.

1.3.2. Parental Control

Parents try to regulate and supervise their child's behaviors for reasons such as protecting them from harm or teaching rules. Some parents may exert less monitoring and controlling practices, while others overuse those. In fact, parents' intrusive controlling behaviors were found to have a negative association with social acceptance and emotion display of children and adolescents (Isley, O'Neil & Parke, 1996; Isley et al., 1999, as cited in McDowell & Parke, 2005).

Parents' controlling behaviors are shown to differentiate as behavioral and psychological control. Behavioral control refers to the attempts of parents to regulate a child's behavior through steady and sensible rules and monitoring their activities by applying negative punishment when necessary (Shaffer & Kipp, 2007). In the literature, it is mostly assessed as a composite of parental knowledge and child disclosure, which refers to the attempts of parents to learn their child's whereabouts and friends (Li et al., 2015; Ladd & Pettit, 2002; Testa et al., 2010). It is the kind of control applied by authoritative parents (characterized with high acceptance, reasonable amount of control, and sensible rules) which makes it more favorable for child development. On the other hand, psychological control is exercised through the withdrawal of love from the child, making them feel shameful and guilty, and by invalidating child's emotions, resulting in inhibiting child's autonomy and discouraging healthy communication with others (Barber, 1996). It is more harmful, especially for a child's autonomy, due to strict expectations of parents to obey their rules which are rarely explained to the child and parents' punishments through shame, guilt, and withdrawal of affection when child behaves outside those rules, leaving no room for freedom of expression for the child's part and harming their sense of self.

While behavioral control is associated with positive child outcomes such as social and academic competence, psychological control is linked with negative outcomes such as internalizing and conduct problems and getting involved with deviant friends (Shaffer & Kipp, 2007). In individualistic societies, psychological control is accepted as detrimental for a child's development without questions (Sümer & Kağıtçıbaşı, 2010), where excessive compliance with the demands of parents damages the social

adjustment of children (Bjorklund & Pellegrini, 2002). However, the impact of psychological control practices is more controversial in interdependent cultures such as ours. For instance, guilt induction, as a practice of psychological control, is even revealed as a display of warmth (Sümer & Kağıtçıbaşı, 2010). Thus, it is necessary to examine its impact across various cultural contexts to be able to generalize the negative influence of psychological control on child outcomes.

Behavioral and psychological control operates in opposite ways in terms of peer rejection, as well. Regarding behavioral control, monitoring was found to positively associate with peer acceptance (Stattin & Kerr, 2000). Furthermore, it is found to have a protective effect on peer relationships demonstrated by a positive link with peer acceptance and a negative link with peer rejection in a longitudinal study conducted by Véronneau and Dishion (2010). On the other hand, concerning psychological control, a positive relationship between intrusive, controlling, overprotective, harsh, and restrictive parenting practices and peer rejection, along with other undesired child outcomes such as peer victimization and lower levels of social skills is shown (Ladd & Pettit, 2002). Likewise, Bullock et al. (2018) found that higher levels of psychological control predict peer rejection directly and also moderates the relationship between shy temperament and peer rejection.

Parental psychological control and excessive behavioral control were found to be negatively associated with social competence. In a study that investigated the relationship between parental support and control, and adolescents' social competence, it was found that maternal, but not paternal, excessive control was negatively associated with a child's social competence (Laible & Carlo, 2004), once more pointing out to the importance of exploring the role of parent's gender.

Studies looking at direct relations between parents' behavioral and psychological control and peer rejection are limited but there are several studies demonstrating significant associations between them and social maladjustment indicators that are shown to have strong positive links with peer rejection, such as externalizing (e.g., Janssens et al., 2017; Selçuk, 2019; Sentse et al., 2010; Symeou & Georgiou, 2017),), internalizing (e.g., Ladd & Pettit, 2002; Metin Aslan, 2018; Selçuk, 2019; Sentse et al., 2010; Symeou & Georgiou, 2017), peer victimization (e.g., Godleski et

al., 2015), aggression (e.g. Godleski et al., 2015; Tepe & Sayıl, 2012), social competence (e.g., McDowell & Parke, 2005), and juvenile delinquency (e.g., Ladd & Pettit, 2002; Low et al., 2018; Shek & Zhu, 2019). The small number of studies with peer rejection and the examples from aforementioned studies investigating the role of parental behavioral and/or psychological control in other indicators of social maladjustment are taken into account, it seems plausible to expect that behavioral control negatively and psychological control positively predicts peer rejection. Next part concentrates on research that includes both acceptance and control dimensions when studying antecedents of peer rejection.

1.3.3. Parental Acceptance, Behavioral, and Psychological Control and Peer Rejection

Studies show that while parental acceptance and behavioral control are associated with better social adjustment, psychological control and low levels of acceptance of parents is linked with social maladjustment. For instance, maternal psychological control was found to predict higher levels of relational aggression of both boys and girls, whereas maternal behavioral control was negatively associated with only girls' relational aggression. In terms of parenting of fathers, paternal psychological control positively predicted relational aggression of boys only, while paternal behavioral control had a negative relationship with both gender's relational aggression (Selçuk, 2019). The findings not only show the relationship between parenting and social development of children, but also emphasize once again the importance of studying the role of gender in these relationships.

It is also found that there is a positive relationship between authoritative parenting (characterized by parental acceptance and behavioral control) and peer acceptance of children (Chan, 2010). Furthermore, McDowell and Parke (2005) examined the association between parental positive affect and control (observed during an interaction between parents and their child), and social competence of 4-years-old children (composed of child's likability, prosocial behaviors, friendliness, looking upset, shyness, aggression, destructiveness, and excluding and avoiding peers). A direct link between parents' behavior and child's social competence was found. Specifically, both maternal and paternal positive affect were accompanying increased

positive evaluation of the child in terms of social competence, whereas maternal control, but not paternal control, was associated with negative evaluation of the child by peers.

1.4. Sensory Processing Sensitivity as A Temperamental Trait

In the beginning, it is stated that temperament is the second most widely studied topic in terms of social development of children and adolescents in addition to parenting, but what is temperament and how is it integrated in studies of parenting and child outcomes?

Temperament is the hereditary disposition of individuals that shapes how a person reacts to the world around them depending on their emotional, motor, and attentional activation (Rothbart & Bates, 1998). Although its influence on personality and interaction with the environment is agreed upon, it is not always conceptualized in the same way by researchers. One of the earliest approaches is to study temperament under nine dimensions which were later reduced to three by clustering them as negative emotionality, self-regulation, and inhibition. Depending on the combinations of these dimensions, children were categorized as having easy, slow to warm up, or difficult temperament (Thomas et al., 1970). However, this approach ignores the fact that temperament interacts with the demands of the environment. That is, so-called difficult temperament may be an advantage in specific situations and be more favorable in terms of child outcomes (Sanson et al., 2002). For example, in a crowded family with many siblings, a more reactive child might benefit from the additional attention of parents. Thus, it appears that "goodness of fit" is more important than labeling some temperamental traits as difficult or easy.

A relatively new approach to examine temperament is sensory processing sensitivity trait (SPS) by Aron & Aron (1997) and it is distinguished from the aforementioned approaches to temperament by four traits: deep sensory processing, behavioral inhibition, overstimulation, and emotional/physiological reactivity (Şengül-İnal & Sümer, 2018; Aron, Aron & Jagiellowicz, 2012). The concept is first propounded after thorough interviews with people who identify themselves as introverted, shy, and sensitive to strong stimuli. It was found to correlate with conceptually similar temperamental traits of social withdrawal and negative affectivity and with Big-Five

personality traits. However, except negative affectivity, correlations were moderate which supported that SPS is a different temperamental trait and should be assessed independently (Aron & Aron, 1997; Smolewka et al., 2006; Şengül-İnal & Sümer, 2018).

SPS is an inherited genetic marker of temperament that determines someone's cognitive sensitivity to both internal (e.g., pain, hunger) and external (e.g., sound, light, heat) positive and negative stimuli around them (Aron, Aron, & Jagiellowicz, 2012), which is observed in around 100 species other than humans by evolutionary biologists (Wolf, van Doorn, & Weissing, 2008). People who have higher sensory processing sensitivity tend to react intensively to physical and emotional stimuli in their environment due to their relatively low perceptual threshold. It may be overwhelming for them when these stimuli are strong. They are able to notice even the slightest changes in their surroundings whether it is positive or negative. As a result, they may benefit more from positive parenting and suffer more from negative parenting in line with the Differential Susceptibility Hypothesis, which suggests that individuals are affected by both positive and negative aspects of the environment in different ways (Slagt et al., 2018; Belsky, 1997).

Differential Susceptibility Hypothesis is different than taking for granted the vulnerability of individuals who are sensitive to environmental stimuli as diathesis-stress model does, or assuming tendency of some people to be more susceptible to positive qualities of the environment as vantage sensitivity hypothesis does. It rather combines two ideas, considering it is a highly sensitive nervous system that makes an individual more sensitive to every stimulus without discriminating them as positive or negative. Subsequently, people who have an oversensitive nervous system, in other words who have high sensory processing sensitivity, might be advantaged, or disadvantaged depending on the qualities of the environment. In the scope of the current study, an environment composed of high psychological control, low acceptance and low behavioral control of parents would represent a negative parental atmosphere, while opposite features constitute a positive parental atmosphere. Accordingly, children and adolescents who were high on sensory processing sensitivity were expected to benefit or suffer more from these different parenting

atmospheres compared to their peers who had low levels of sensory processing sensitivity.

Originally, SPS is studied as a dichotomous unidimensional construct with a cutoff, assuming around %20 percent of the population is highly sensitive (Aron et al., 2012). However, later, different factor structures were proposed. While Liss et al. (2008) and Smolewska (2006) found three factors with high intercorrelations that points to a higher order construct, Evans and Rothbart (2007) came up with a twofactors structure. Consequently, creators of the construct offered the following four features of SPS that load on a single higher-order unidimensional construct: depth of processing, overstimulation, emotional intensity, and sensory sensitivity. More recently, a two-factor structure that composes of depth of processing and overreaction to stimuli is supported by Boterberg and Warreyn (2016) through performing exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses. Confirmatory factor analyses conducted under the scope of Türkiye Aile, Çocuk ve Ergen Projesi (TAÇEP), in English, the Effects of Parenting Attitudes and Parent-Child Interaction on Child and Adolescent Developmental Outcomes (TÜBİTAK Projeleri, n.d.), revealed the same structure as in Boterberg and Warreyn's work, thus, the moderating role of SPS was investigated separately by its subfactors that are depth of processing and overreaction to stimuli in this study.

Depth of processing refers to the cognitive sensitivity of an organism to the changes in the environment which makes an individual more aware and careful about the properties of the new situations and take more precise actions accordingly. This quality may be advantageous in social relationships due to heightened awareness of emotional changes of others and empathy skills. The later one, overreaction to stimuli, refers to sensitivity to internal or external stimuli due to low perceptual threshold which results in increased reactions in density and duration. The susceptibility to stimuli is also valid for intense emotions such as sadness, anxiety, and joy leading to heightened experience of these emotions, which may create disadvantage in social relationships in case of conflicts. In fact, it was found there is a positive association between overreaction to stimuli and fear of communication (Gearhart & Bodie, 2012) (as cited in Şengül-İnal & Sümer, 2018). The possible differences between the roles of depth of processing and overreaction to stimuli in

social relationships points to the plausibility of studying their moderator effects separately in terms of child outcomes regarding peer rejection.

As it is the case with parenting dimensions, studies looking at the moderator effect of sensory processing sensitivity on the relationship between parenting and social adjustment of children are scarce. Indeed, there is no study regarding peer rejection up to my knowledge. However, as mentioned before, there are strong correlations between peer rejection and other social adjustment indicators, whose relationship with parenting is found to be moderated by sensory processing sensitivity. For instance, Slagt and her colleagues (2018) conducted a longitudinal study with 3.67-7.20 years old children, investigating the relationship between positive and negative parenting environment (positive control and warmth vs. negative control and hostility) and child outcomes (externalizing and prosocial behavior) moderated by sensory processing sensitivity longitudinally. They found that SPS moderated the association between the changes in self-reports of parenting quality and externalizing problems of children in a way that supports the differential susceptibility hypothesis. In other words, children who were average or high on SPS showed more externalizing problems as practices of negative parenting increased, whereas they showed fewer externalizing problems if they experienced positive parenting.

In sum, drawing a conclusion from the literature regarding moderator effect of SPS on the association between parenting and externalizing as an indicator of social maladjustment as peer rejection, it seems reasonable to expect that sensory processing sensitivity would moderate the relationship between parental acceptance, behavioral and psychological control and peer rejection. Considering Boterberg and Warreyn (2016) work and parallel findings of confirmatory factor analysis of Highly Sensitive Person Scale conducted by nation-representative sample in TAÇEP, a continuous two-factor structure of SPS was used in the current study. Higher scores on both depth of processing and overreaction to stimuli were expected to strengthen the positive or negative relationships between parenting dimensions and peer rejection.

1.5. Current Study

The current study first aimed to investigate the associations between parenting dimensions (acceptance, behavioral, and psychological control) and peer rejection experiences of children and adolescents. Second, it aimed to examine the moderating role of sensory processing sensitivity of school-age children in the relationship between perceived parenting and peer rejection of children and adolescents from 5th grade to 11th grade in Turkish cultural context. The moderator role of sensory processing sensitivity was investigated through depth of processing and overreaction to stimuli (see Figure 1 and Figure 2). Moreover, gender interactions of parents and children were examined by conducting separate path analyses for each gender-based parent-child dyad.

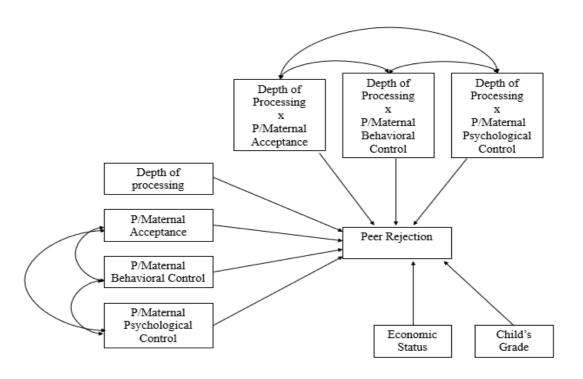


Figure 1 Hypothesized Model for Moderator Role of Depth of Processing

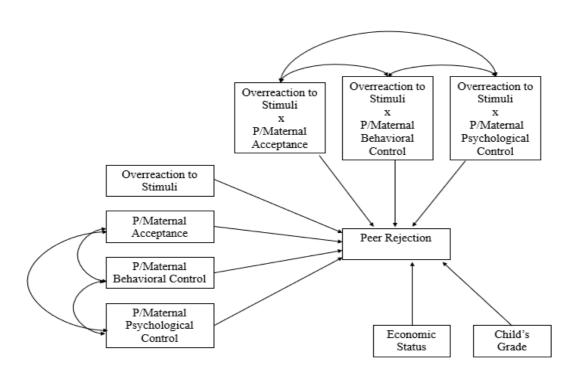


Figure 2 Hypothesized Model for Moderator Role of Overreaction to Stimuli

1.6. Hypotheses

- 1. The first aim of the study was to investigate associations between parenting dimensions (acceptance, behavioral and psychological control) and peer rejection experiences of children and adolescents. Hypotheses were, 1a) Perceived parental acceptance by both parents would have a negative relationship with peer rejection, 1b) Perceived parental behavioral control would have a negative relationship with peer rejection, and 1c) Perceived parental psychological control would have a positive association with peer rejection.
- 2. The second aim of the study was to examine the moderating role of sensory processing sensitivity. The moderating effects of depth of processing and overreaction to stimuli were investigated separately instead of using a composite score of sensory processing sensitivity. Hypotheses were, 2a) Depth of processing would moderate the relationships between parenting dimensions and peer rejection by strengthening them. That is, the magnitude of both positive and negative links would increase, while the direction remained the same. 2b) Likewise, overreaction to stimuli would moderate the relationships between parenting dimensions and peer rejection by strengthening them.
- **3.** The third aim was to investigate if gender of the parent and the child played a role in the relationship between parenting and peer rejection experiences moderated by child's temperament, which was sought exploratorily.
- **4.** Last but not least, it was aimed to examine the differences between girls and boys in terms of how they perceived maternal and paternal parenting behaviors and peer rejection. It was expected that, **4a**) Girls would perceive higher levels of acceptance from both parents, and **4b**) Girls would report less peer rejection compared to boys. There were no specific hypotheses regarding behavioral and psychological control perceptions, thus, were examined exploratorily.

In order to assess the moderator roles of depth of processing and overreaction to stimuli on parenting and peer rejection association in four combinations of parent-child gender, 8 path analyses were conducted (aims 1st-3rd). The fourth aim was investigated by one-way ANOVAs.

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

2.1. Participants

This study was conducted under the scope of a nationwide project, named Türkiye Aile Çocuk ve Ergen Projesi (TAÇEP, in English the Effects of Parenting Attitudes and Parent-Child Interaction on Child and Adolescent Developmental Outcomes) funded by The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Türkiye. The project aims to investigate the cognitive, social, self-identity, emotional, and academic development of children and adolescents (1st to 11th grades) and the relevance of family and environmental factors in Turkish culture with a representative sample composed by Turkish Statistical Institute.

3176 students in 5th-11th grades from 126 schools in 54 cities of Türkiye and their mothers from twelve statistical regions of the country (see Table 1) consisted of the sample of the current study. 54.8% percent of the children and adolescents who participated in the study were female ($N_{female} = 1741$, $N_{male} = 1435$). There were 1854 (58.4%) middle school and 1322 (41.6%) high school students scattered through 499 fifth grade (15.7%), 483 sixth grade (15.2), 437 seventh grade (13.8), 435 eighth grade (13.7), 482 ninth grade (15.2), 451 tenth grade (14.2%), and 389 eleventh grade (12.2%).

A total of 3176 mothers participated in the study (Myas = 39.98, SD = 5.47, %2 of the age information is missing). 84 mothers are illiterate (2.6%), 112 are literate (3.5%), 949 completed primary school (29.9%), 536 completed middle school (16.9%), 927 completed high school (29.2%), 528 has a bachelor's degree (16.6%), 34 has a MS or MA degree (1.1%), and 6 of them has a Ph.D. degree (.2%). Regarding their marital status, 2932 mothers are married with the father of the child

who participated in the study (92.3%), 149 are divorced and single (4.7%), 50 lost their partner and are single (1.6%). Lastly, 45 mothers (1.4%) married again after divorce or loss of their husbands. In terms of their working status, the majority of the mothers are homemakers (n = 2309, 72.7%), while 867 mothers are employed (%27.3) (see Table 2). The perceived economic status of mothers in comparison to the population is 4.20 on a scale from 1 (low end) to 10 (high end) (Median = 4.50, SD = 1.92).

Table 1 Comparisons of Statistical Regions for Peer Rejection

Statistical Regions	P	eer Reject	ion
	N	M	SD
TR1 (İstanbul)	310	1.53	.53
TR2 (Balıkesir, Çanakkale, Edirne, Kırklareli, Tekirdağ)	245	1.54	.56
TR3 (Afyonkarahisar, Aydın, Denizli, İzmir, Kütahya, Manisa, Muğla)	277	1.56	.58
TR4 (Bursa, Düzce, Eskişehir, Kocaeli Sakarya)	293	1.55	.54
TR5 (Ankara, Konya)	261	1.57	.54
TR6 (Adana, Antalya, Burdur, Hatay, Isparta, Kahramanmaraş, Mersin)	267	1.59	.54
TR7 (Kayseri, Kırıkkale, Nevşehir, Niğde, Sivas, Yozgat)	268	1.60	.55
TR8 (Amasya, Kastamonu, Samsun, Tokat, Zonguldak, Sinop)	283	1.58	.54
TR9 (Artvin, Giresun, Ordu, Rize, Trabzon)	265	1.62	.56
TRA (Ağrı, Bayburt, Erzincan, Erzurum, Kars)	255	1.64	.65
TRB (Bingöl, Bitlis, Elâzığ, Hakkâri, Malatya, Muş, Van)	247	1.63	.56
TRC (Batman, Diyarbakır, Gaziantep, Mardin, Siirt, Şanlıurfa)	205	1.69	.64

Although some fathers filled out the questionnaires as well, information regarding their parenting was acquired through child surveys as it was the case for maternal parenting information. Also, their demographics were provided by the mothers. Therefore, following information was based on mother reports. The total sample size of fathers was 2982, based on the students who answered father questions (M_{age} =

44.14, SD = 5.86). 15 fathers were illiterate (.5%), 39 were literate (1.3%), 727 completed primary school (24.4%), 529 completed middle school (17.7%), 994 completed high school (33.3%), 562 had a bachelor's degree (18.8%), 98 had a MS or MA degree (3.3%), and 18 of them had a Ph.D. degree (.6%). Regarding their marital status, 2896 fathers were married to the mother who participated in the study (96.2%)

Table 2 Demographic Information of Parents

Variables	Frequency	Percentage
Mothers		
Education Level		
Illiterate	84	2.6
Literate	112	3.5
Primary school	949	29.9
Middle school	536	16.9
High School	927	29.2
Bachelor's degree	528	16.6
MS/MA degree	34	1,1
Ph.D. degree	6	.2
Employment		
Working	867	27.3
Not working	2309	72.7
Fathers		
Education Level		
Illiterate	15	.5
Literate	39	1.3
Primary school	727	24.4
Middle school	529	17.7
High School	994	33.
Bachelor's degree	562	18.8
MS/MA degree	98	3.3
Ph.D. degree	18	.6
Employment		
Working	2495	96.2
Not working	385	12.9

and 86 were divorced (n = 2.9%). Majority of the fathers were working (n = 2495, 83.7%), while 385 father were unemployed (12.9%), and 102 of them lack the relevant information (3.4%) (see Table 2). For perceived economic status information, mother's perception of economic status was used for father analyses.

Students who did not live with their biological mother, who could not communicate in Turkish effectively, who were immigrants, who had special educational needs, and whose mothers had a serious condition that prevented them to participate and could not communicate in Turkish effectively were not included in the project. Also, only reports of biological fathers were included.

2.2. Measures

Since child reports of parenting are more predictive of child outcomes and more accurate than parent reports, the measures assessing perceived parenting practices were administered to children and adolescents (Schaefer, 1965). For each parenting scale, forms were given to the children and adolescents for mothers and fathers separately. Highly Sensitive Person Scale assessing temperament of the child was given to mothers only. Information about peer rejection was received from children. Finally, demographic information of fathers was collected through participating mothers and information regarding father's parenting was acquired through reports of children and adolescents.

2.2.1. Demographic Form

A demographic form was given to mothers which consisted of questions regarding the family structure of the mothers, ages of family members, educational background, working status, socioeconomic level, living conditions, general health issues of the mother and other family members, economic difficulties and Covid experiences. Educational background and working status of fathers were learned through this form.

A short form was given to children, as well. They answered questions regarding their date of birth, age, grade, number of siblings, perceived economic status, and the degree of their relationship with their fathers.

2.2.2. Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire

This scale developed by Rohner et al. (1978, as cited in Rohner & Khaleque, 2005) was adapted to Turkish by Anjel (1993) and Varan (2003). It consists of 24 items and four subscales: warmth/affection ("My mother says nice things about me."), aggression/hostility ("My mother punishes me when she is angry."), neglect/indifference ("My mother never cares for me."), and undifferentiated rejection ("My mother is as if she does not love me."). It is evaluated using a 4-point Likert scale (1=Never, 2= Sometimes, 3=Most of the Time, 4= Always). The questionnaire was filled in by children and adolescents for assessing the parental acceptance of both mothers and fathers.

Cronbach's alpha value of the scale is reported between .72 and .90 in the original studies. In the current study, the following item in neglect/indifference subfactor showed low correlation with other items for both parent forms, "My mother/dad shows a lot of interest in me.), thus it was excluded from the scale after deciding it is not clear for children. After deletion of the item Cronbach's alpha values of the subscale increased from .70'ten .71 for mothers, and from .73 to .74 for fathers.

After the adjustments, Cronbach's alpha values were calculated as .90 for mothers and .91 for fathers). Current reliability analyses of mother data revealed Cronbach's alpha values of .87, .77, .71, and .75 respectively for warmth/affection, aggression/hostility, neglect/indifference, and undifferentiated rejection. Relatively, they were found as .90, .80, .74 and .79 for fathers.

In order to form a total acceptance score, the scores of aggression/hostility, neglect/indifference, and undifferentiated rejection subscales were reversed and added to the warmth/affection score to create a composite indicator of parent acceptance (Rohner & Ali, 2020).

2.2.3. Psychological Control Scale- Youth Self Report

The scale developed by Barber (1996) was adapted to Turkish by Sayıl and colleagues (2012). It consists of 10 items. This scale can be administered beginning from the third grade using a 4-point Likert scale (1=Never, 4=Always). The questionnaire was filled in by children and adolescents for assessing both mothers'

and fathers' psychological control. The wording of one item was changed to make it more understandable to youngsters ("If I don't think like her about some things, my mother acts cold" was changed to ("If I don't think like my mom about some things, my mother acts cold" due to ambiguity caused by genderless pronouns in Turkish). An example item is "If I do something to embarrass my mother, she ignores me. Reliability analyses conducted in the current study showed Cronbach's alpha values of .81 for mothers and .80 for fathers.

2.2.4. Parental Monitoring & Parental Knowledge Scale

This scale was developed by Kerr and Stattin (2000) and adapted to Turkish using translation-back translation under the scope of TAÇEP. Two subfactors of the scale were used in the study, monitoring consisting of 9 items ("My mother knows where I go when I am not at home.") and disclosure consisting of 7 items ("I hide what I do when I am not at home from my mother"). There are 4 reverse items in the disclosure subscale. The scale can be administered using a 4-point Likert scale (1=Never, 4=Always). The questionnaire was filled in by children and adolescents for assessing the behavioral control of both mothers and fathers.

One item about going out at night was eliminated from the monitoring subscale due to cultural inadequacy. Cronbach's alpha values were calculated as .86 for monitoring and .73 for child disclosure in mother form, and as .88 and .74 in father form respectively. Total values of Cronbach's alpha were .87 for mother and .88 for fathers.

2.2.5. Peer Acceptance-Rejection Scale

This scale was developed by Harter (1985) and adapted by Erel-Gözağaç and Berument (2016) and it consists of 12 items. The scale has two subfactors: peer acceptance (α =.77) and peer rejection (α =.72) (Erel-Gözağaç & Berument, 2016). The items are answered using a 4-point Likert (1= Not True at All, 4= Very True). In the current study, only peer rejection subscale was used and applied to children and adolescents. An example from the scale is "The other kids do not want to play with me." The Cronbach alpha values in the current study were .85 (middle school) and

.86 (high school) for peer acceptance and .84 (middle school) and .87 (high school) for peer rejection.

2.2.6. Highly Sensitive Person Scale

This scale was developed by Aron (2002) and adapted to Turkish by translation-back translation method in the scope of the TAÇEP. The child version of the questionnaire was filled in by mothers, using a 5-point Likert scale (1= Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Somewhat Agree, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly Agree). No reverse items exist in the scale.

The scale was tested in a pilot study using confirmatory factor analysis. Two subscales were formed as depth of processing consisting of 12 items ($\alpha = .82$), and overreaction to stimuli consisting of 7 items ($\alpha = .61$) ($\alpha_{\text{composite}} = .81$).

Exploratory (N = 2827) and confirmatory factor analyses (N = 2806) were conducted again by randomly splitting the data collected under the scope of TAÇEP (TÜBİTAK Projeleri, n.d.). According to the results of exploratory factor analysis, the item "My child considers the risks before climbing up the high spots." was loaded under depth of processing factor instead of overreaction stimuli, contrary to the pilot study's result. Furthermore, the following items were not loaded under any factor in previous analysis, whereas in the current study, they were loaded under overreaction to stimuli factor: "My child does not like unexpected situations.", "My child doesn't do well with big changes.", "My child is hard to get to sleep after an exciting day.", and "My child complains about scratchy clothing, seams in socks, or labels against his/her skin." Finally, the item "My child wants to change clothes if wet or sandy." was ruled out due to lack of factor loading. The results of the confirmatory analysis affirmed the two-factor factor structure of Highly Sensitive Person Scale. Updated Cronbach's alpha values were found as .83 for depth of processing (13 items), .67 for overreaction to stimuli (9 items), and .84 for the composite.

Item examples for depth of processing are as follows, "My child is as if he/she reads my mind.", "My child asks a lot of questions.", and "My child notices the distress of others." Examples for overreaction to stimuli are, "My child is bothered by noisy

environments.", "My child performs best when strangers aren't present.", and "My child prefers quiet play."

2.3. Procedure

Ethical approval was obtained from the Human Subjects Ethics Committee of Middle East Technical University. Additionally, legal permission was taken from Ministry of Education in Türkiye to collect data in schools. Informed consent was received from mothers in written form and orally from students. The data were collected by the researchers from Ege University, Boğaziçi University, and Middle East Technical University.

In each school, a random class of each grade was selected, and the parents were reached out through school administers to inform about the project. They participated in the study based on their willingness. Ten students and their mothers were planned to be reached out to for each grade at each selected school. Thus, whenever the target sample size fell below ten, additional random classes were selected, and the same procedures were applied. Mothers completed the surveys mostly at home, on their phones via Qualtrics links, which is the medium used to collect the data in the study. Mothers, who were illiterate or who did not have access to the internet and/or smartphone or computer, were invited to the schools and the questionnaires were administered by a researcher or filled in by themselves on a tablet we provided. Students completed the questions via tablets during lecture hours, in their school, although few home visits were done due to the convenience of data collection in villages of Diyarbakır and Şanlıurfa. Students and their mothers received gifts for their participation.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

3.1. Data Screening

Before the main analyses, the dataset was screened for missing values, univariate and multivariate outliers, multicollinearity, singularity and assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity following the recommendations of Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). Four datasets were formed to perform separate path analyses for mother-daughter, mother-son, father-daughter, and father-son dyads so that the deletion of scores in case of missing scales regarding one parent did not affect the other. Therefore, each dataset was screened separately. No missing values were found in datasets.

Assumption of normality was examined through distribution histograms, normal and detrended probability plots in addition to the results of tests of normality. Significant Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk results indicated nonnormality for each scale in each dataset. However, histograms and normality plots demonstrated normality for highly sensitive child scale and behavioral control with minor deviations from normality. On the other hand, psychological control and peer rejection scales were found to be positively skewed, which is expected considering the nature of the constructs since majority of the population scores low on these scales. Also, parental acceptance was found to be negatively skewed, which is again expected due to high scores by the majority of the population. Last but not least, matrix scatter plots and bivariate scatter plots showed nonlinearity and heteroscedasticity for each scale in each dataset. Considering the failure to establish assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity and the existence of outliers, square root and logarithmic data transformations were performed. However,

they did not yield any difference or worsened the shape of distributions supported by worse skewness and kurtosis values of the scales compared to the original datasets. Therefore, original data was kept for the sake of easy interpretation of the results of main analyses.

An examination of multivariate outliers by calculating Mahalanobis distances revealed 27 multivariate outliers in mother-daughter dyads, 26 in mother-son dyads, 29 in father-daughter dyads, and 20 in father-son dyads, all of which were deleted. Afterwards, univariate outliers were examined again for each scale in each dataset based on a Z-score ≥ 3.29 and ≤ -3.29 (p < .001). Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) state that if outliers are from the targeted population, they can be kept. Therefore, existing outliers in each dataset were kept on the grounds that the sample was formed by the Turkish Statistical Institute based on 12 statistical regions of Turkey to represent Turkish population, thus they were most likely from the targeted population.

Finally, there was no multicollinearity in the datasets according to the Tolerance (a minimum value of .407) and VIF (a maximum value of 2.460) statistics and a correlation of -.698 with the greatest magnitude between perceived maternal psychological control and maternal acceptance of girls. After the screening procedures, final sample sizes were 1741 for mother-daughter dyads, 1435 for mother-son dyads, 1615 for father-daughter dyads, and 1367 for father-son dyads.

3.2. Descriptive Statistics and Correlations Between Study Variables

Means, standard deviations and minimum-maximum scores of peer rejection, perceived acceptance, behavioral and psychological control, depth of processing, and overreaction to stimuli for each dyad are provided in Table 3.

Bivariate correlation analyses were conducted to see how the variables of interest are related. Pearson correlations for mother-daughter dyad showed that peer rejection is positively correlated with overreaction to stimuli (r = .08, p < .01) and maternal psychological control (r = .28, p < .01), and negatively correlated with mother perceived economic status (r = -.10, p < .01), child's grade (r = -.14, p < .01), depth of processing (r = -.07, p < .01), maternal acceptance (r = -.26, p < .01), and behavioral control (r = -.16, p < .01). Also, there were positive correlations between

 Table 3 Descriptive Statistics of Study Variables for Each Parent-Child Dyad

	Variables	М	SD	Min.	Мах.
Mothers	Age (years, $n = 3112, 98\%$)	39,97	5,47	26	62
(N = 3176)					
Daughters	Acceptance	3.50	.47	1.46	4
(N=1741)	Behavioral Control	3.33	.46	1.73	4
	Psychological Control	1.69	.53	1	3.70
	Sensory Processing Sensitivity	3.40	.50	1.70	5
	depth of processing	3.57	.59	1.31	5
	overreaction to stimuli	3.06	.62	1.22	5
	Peer Rejection	1.61	.58	1	4
Sons	Acceptance	3.55	.35	2.17	4
(N=1435)	Behavioral Control	3.12	.50	1.20	4
	Psychological Control	1.66	.46	1	3.40
	Sensory Processing Sensitivity	3.29	.53	1	5
	depth of processing	3.48	.63	1	5
	overreaction to stimuli	2.90	.62	1	5
	Peer Rejection	1.56	.55	1	4
	Variables	M	SD	Min.	Max.
Fathers	Age	44.14	5.86	28	74
(N = 2982)					
Daughters	Acceptance	3.42	.50	1.25	4
(N=1615)	Behavioral Control	2.87	.58	1	4
	Psychological Control	1.56	.47	1	3.60
	Sensory Processing Sensitivity	3.40	.50	1.70	5
	depth of processing	3.56	.59	1.31	5
	overreaction to stimuli	3.06	.63	1.22	5
			.63 .58	1.22	5 4
Sons	overreaction to stimuli	3.06			
	overreaction to stimuli Peer Rejection	3.06 1.61	.58	1	4
	overreaction to stimuli Peer Rejection Acceptance	3.06 1.61 3.45	.58	1.75	4
Sons (N=1367)	overreaction to stimuli Peer Rejection Acceptance Behavioral Control	3.06 1.61 3.45 2.85	.58 .41 .55	1 1.75 1.07	4 4 4
	overreaction to stimuli Peer Rejection Acceptance Behavioral Control Psychological Control	3.06 1.61 3.45 2.85 1.59	.58 .41 .55 .43	1 1.75 1.07 1	4 4 4 3.20
	overreaction to stimuli Peer Rejection Acceptance Behavioral Control Psychological Control Sensory Processing Sensitivity	3.06 1.61 3.45 2.85 1.59 3.28	.58 .41 .55 .43 .53	1 1.75 1.07 1	4 4 4 3.20 4.91

maternal acceptance and mother perceived economic status (r = .08, p < .01), total sensory processing sensitivity (r = .08, p < .01), depth of processing (r = .15, p < .01) and behavioral control (r = .50, p < .01).; while it was negatively correlated with child's grade (r = -.16, p < .01), overreaction to stimuli (r = -.05, p < .05), and psychological control (r = -.70, p < .01). Additionally, maternal behavioral control was found to positively correlate with sensory processing sensitivity (r = .10, p <01) and depth of processing (r = .16, p < .01); and to negatively correlate with psychological control (r = -.28, p < .01). Moreover, positive correlations were found between maternal psychological control and child's grade (r = .17, p < .01) along with overreaction to stimuli (r = .08, p < .01), whereas negative correlations were found for mother perceived economic status (r = -.08, p < .01) and depth of processing (r = -.08, p < .01). In terms of sensory processing sensitivity, depth of processing and overreaction to stimuli were found to have positive correlations with it (respectively, r = .88, p < .01 and r = .76, p < .01). A positive correlation was found between depth of processing and overreaction to stimuli, as well (r = .38, p <.01). Finally, overreaction to stimuli had a negative correlation with mother perceived economic status (r = -.08, p < .01) (see Table 4).

Table 4 Pearson Correlations among the Study Variables for Mother-Daughter

Dyads

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Economic status (perceived by mother)	1								
2. Grade	.05	1							
3. Sensory Processing Sensitivity	04	00	1						
4. Depth of processing	.00	.00	.88**	1					
5. Overreaction to stimuli	08**	00	.76**	.38**	1				
6. Acceptance	.08**	16**	.08**	.15**	05*	1			
7. Behavioral control	.02	.02	.10**	.16**	02	.50**	1		
8. Psychological control	08**	.17**	02	08**	.08**	70**	28**	1	
9. Peer rejection	10**	14**	02	07**	.08**	26**	16**	.28**	1

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

Pearson correlations for mother-son dyad revealed positive relationships between peer rejection and sensory processing sensitivity (r = .10, p < .01), overreaction to stimuli (r = .09, p < .01) and maternal psychological control (r = .31, p < .01), and negative correlations with child's grade (r = -.19, p < .01), acceptance (r = -.22, p < .01) .01) and behavioral control (r = -.10, p < .01). Positive correlations were found between maternal acceptance and sensory processing sensitivity (r = .11, p < .01), depth of processing (r = .15, p < .01), and behavioral control (r = .47, p < .01); and it was found to have negative correlations with child's grade (r = -.07, p < .01) and psychological control (r = -.57, p < .01). Also, maternal behavioral control was positively correlated with depth of processing (r = .14, p < .01) and negatively correlated with child's grade (r = -.15, p < .01) and psychological control (r = -.20, p< .01). Maternal psychological control negatively correlated with depth of processing (r = -.07, p < .01). Moreover, depth of processing and overreaction to stimuli positively correlated with sensory processing sensitivity (respectively, r = .91, p <.01 and r = .78, p < .01). They also positively correlated with each other (r = .45, p < .01). .01). Overreaction to stimuli was found to have a negative correlation with mother perceived economic status (r = -.06, p < .01). Last but not least, there was a positive correlation between mother perceived economic status and child's grade (r = .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p.05) (see Table 5).

Table 5 Pearson Correlations among the Study Variables for Mother-Son Dyads

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Economic status (perceived by mother)	1								
2. Grade	.07*	1							
3. Sensory Processing Sensitivity	03	03	1						
4. Depth of processing	.01	02	.91**	1					
5. Overreaction to stimuli	06*	04	.78**	.45**	1				
6. Acceptance	.01	07**	.11**	.15**	.00	1			
7. Behavioral control	01	15**	04	.14**	.01	.47**	1		
8. Psychological control	02	.03	.05	07**	.01	57**	20**	1	
9. Peer rejection	01	19**	.10**	.01	.09**	22**	10**	.31**	1

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

Bivariate correlation analyses for father-daughter dyad showed that there were positive relationships between peer rejection and overreaction to stimuli (r = .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07, p < .07.01) and paternal psychological control (r = .25, p < .01), while it had negative correlations with mother perceived economic status (r = -.11, p < .01), child's grade (r = -.13, p < .01), depth processing (r = -.09, p < .01), paternal acceptance (r = -.26, p < .01)p < .01), and behavioral control (r = -.17, p < .01). Also, paternal acceptance had positive correlations with mother perceived economic status (r = .07, p < .01), sensory processing sensitivity (r = .07, p < .01), depth of processing (r = .12, p < .01) .01), and behavioral control (r = .60, p < .01); and negative correlations with child's grade (r = -.20, p < .01) and psychological control (r = -.65, p < .01). Additionally, paternal behavioral control was found to positively correlate with sensory processing sensitivity (r = .09, p < .01) and depth of processing (r = .13, p < .01); and to negatively correlate with child's grade (r = -.08, p < .01) and psychological control (r = -.08, p < .01) = -.33, p < .01). Paternal psychological control was also found to have a positive correlation with child's grade (r = .15, p < .01) and a negative correlation with depth of processing (r = -.06, p < .05). Regarding sensory processing sensitivity, it had positive correlations with depth of processing (r = .88, p < .01) and overreaction to stimuli (r = .77, p < .01). There was a positive correlation between overreaction to stimuli and depth of processing (r = .39, p < .01), and a negative correlation with economic status (r = -.08, p < .01). Lastly, mother perceived economic status and child's grade had a positive correlation (r = .07, p < .01) (see Table 6).

Regarding father-son dyads, bivariate correlation analyses revealed positive correlations between peer rejection and sensory processing sensitivity (r=.07, p<.01), overreaction to stimuli (r=.12, p<.01) and psychological control (r=.30, p<.01); and negative correlations with child's grade (r=-.18, p<.01), paternal acceptance (r=-.26, p<.01) and behavioral control (r=-.10, p<.01). Paternal acceptance was found to have positive correlations with sensory processing sensitivity (r=.07, p<.01), depth of processing (r=.10, p<.01), and behavioral control (r=.52, p<.01); and negative correlations with child's grade (r=-.14, p<.01) and psychological control (r=-.54, p<.01). In terms of paternal behavioral control positive correlations were found for sensory processing sensitivity (r=.08, p<.01) and depth of processing (r=.11, p<.01); whereas a negative correlation was found for child's grade (r=-.14, p<.01) and psychological control (r=-.23, p<.01) and psychological control (r=-.23, p<.01) and psychological control (r=-.23, p<.01) and psychological control (r=-.23, p<.01) and psychological control (r=-.23, p<.01) and psychological control (r=-.23, p<.01) and psychological control (r=-.23, p<.01) and psychological control (r=-.23, p<.01) and psychological control (r=-.23, p<.01) and psychological control (r=-.23, p<.01) and psychological control (r=-.23, p<.01) and psychological control (r=-.23, p<.01) and psychological control (r=-.23, r=-.23) and psychological control (r=-.23) and psychological control (r=-.23).

.01). Depth of processing and overreaction to stimuli were found to positively correlate with sensory processing sensitivity (respectively, r = .90, p < .01 and r = .78, p < .01), and with each other (r = .45, p < .01). Additionally, a negative correlation was found between mother perceived economic status and overreaction to stimuli (r = -.06, p < .05), and a positive correlation between mother perceived

Table 6 Pearson Correlations among the Study Variables for Father-Daughter Dyads

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
									_
Economic status (perceived by mother)	1								
2. Grade	.07**	1							
3. Sensory Processing Sensitivity	04	00	1						
4. Depth of processing	.00	01	.88**	1					
5. Overreaction to stimuli	08**	.01	.77**	.39**	1				
6. Acceptance	.07**	20**	.07**	.12**	03	1			
7. Behavioral control	.04	08**	.09**	.13**	01	.60**	1		
8. Psychological control	03	.15**	03	06*	.03	65**	33**	1	
9. Peer rejection	11**	13**	03	09**	.07**	26**	17**	.25**	1

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

Table 7 Pearson Correlations among the Study Variables for Father-Son Dyads

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Economic status (perceived by mother)	1								
2. Grade	**80.	1							
3. Sensory Processing Sensitivity	03	05	1						
4. Depth of processing	.01	03	.90**	1					
5. Overreaction to stimuli	06*	06*	.78**	.45**	1				
6. Acceptance	02	14*	.07**	.10**	01	1			
7. Behavioral control	.01	14**	.08**	.11**	00	.52**	1		
8. Psychological control	01	.03	.01	01	.04	54**	23**	1	
9. Peer rejection	01	18**	.07**	.02	.12**	26**	10**	.30**	1

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

economic status and child's grade (r = .08, p < .01) as can be seen in Table 7.

3.3. Preliminary Analyses: One-way ANOVAs

One-way ANOVAs were performed on a complete dataset that composes of both boys and girls who participated in the study. A total of 28 cases were excluded because they lacked maternal parenting dimensions scores. Final sample of this dataset composed of 3176 participants ($N_{boys} = 1741$, $N_{girls} = 1435$) who were examined to see if they differ on peer rejection in terms of education level, grade, 12 statistical regions of Turkey, and gender. Brown-Forsythe and Tamhane's T2 results are reported when there is heterogeneity of variance between groups. Otherwise, Bonferroni post-hoc analysis is preferred due to unequal sample sizes, when homogeneity of variance is assured.

First, it was investigated whether students differed based on their education levels on peer rejection. One-way ANOVA results demonstrated that middle school students reported more peer rejection ($M_{diff} = .15$, F(1, 2972.585) = 55.830, p < .001). Means, standard deviations and range of responses are presented in Table 8.

Table 8 Comparisons of Peer Rejection Scores Based on Education Levels of Students

		Middle	School			High	h School		
	N	M	SD	Range	N	M	SD	Range	
Peer Rejection	1854	1.65 _a	.58	1-4	1322	1.50 _b	.53	1-4	

Note. If there is a significant difference among the columns, the values have different subscript letters, p < .05

Consequent one-way ANOVAs were conducted with the same variables to examine the differences between children and adolescents according to their grades. Results showed they differed significantly in terms of peer rejection (F(6, 3141.097)) =

15.393, p < .001). Tamhane's T2 post-hoc analysis results indicated that 11^{th} grade students reported less peer rejection compared to any other grade (5^{th} grade: $M_{diff} = -.31$, p = .000; 6^{th} grade: $M_{diff} = -.28$, p < .001; 7^{th} grade: $M_{diff} = -.18$, p < .001; 8^{th} grade: $M_{diff} = -.18$, p < .001; 9^{th} grade: $M_{diff} = -.15$, p < .001; 10^{th} grade: $M_{diff} = -.11$, p = .036), while 5^{th} grade students reported more peer rejection compared to 7^{th} ($M_{diff} = .13$, p = .021), 8^{th} ($M_{diff} = .13$, p = .013), 9^{th} ($M_{diff} = .16$, p < .001), and 10^{th} grades ($M_{diff} = .20$, p < .001) in addition to 11^{th} grades . Also, 6^{th} grade students experienced more rejection from their peers than 9^{th} ($M_{diff} = .13$, p = .006), 10^{th} ($M_{diff} = .17$, p < .001) and 11^{th} grades (see Table 9).

One-way ANOVAs regarding statistical regions revealed that participants differed marginally on peer rejection (F(11, 3164) = 1.731, p = .061). However, Bonferroni post-hoc analysis revealed no significant differences between groups. Means, standard deviations and range of responses are presented in Table 1.

Table 9 Comparisons of Grade of Students for Study Variables

		Peer Rejection	
	M	SD	Range
Grade 5 (<i>N</i> =499)	1.72 _{a, c, e}	.59	1-4
Grade 6 (<i>N</i> =483)	1.69 _{a, c, e}	.57	1-4
Grade 7 (<i>N</i> =437)	1.59 _{b, c, e}	.57	1-4
Grade 8 (<i>N</i> =435)	1.59 _{b, c, e}	.58	1-4
Grade 9 (<i>N</i> =482)	$1.56_{b,d,e}$.55	1-4
Grade 10 (<i>N</i> =451)	$1.52_{b, d, e}$.57	1-4
Grade 11 (<i>N</i> =389)	$1.41_{b,d,f}$.46	1-3.67

Note. The significant differences across grades are shown by different subscript letters respectively, p < .05.

The letters a and b show the significant differences between 5th grade and other grades.

The letters c and d show the significant differences between 6th grade and other grades.

The letters e and f show the significant differences between 11th grade and other grades.

Regarding the fourth aim of the study, one-way ANOVAs were performed to look for gender differences in terms of parenting dimensions and peer rejection. Results indicated that girls experienced more peer rejection than boys (F(1, 3117.185) = 7.211, $M_{diff} = .05$, p = .007). They also reported less maternal acceptance (F(1, 3146.973) = 14.166, $M_{diff} = -.05$, p < .001) and more behavioral control (F(1, 2957.318) = 142.104, $M_{diff} = .21$, p < .001) compared to their male peers. There were no gender differences regarding maternal psychological control. In terms of fathers' parenting no gender differences were found between girls and boys. Finally, girls had higher sensory processing sensitivity (F(1, 3174) = 15.539, $M_{diff} = .11$, p < .001), depth of processing (F(1, 2979.977) = .09, $M_{diff} = .21$, p < .001), and overreaction to stimuli (F(1, 3174) = 50.944, $M_{diff} = .06$, p < .001). To sum, gender comparisons revealed that compared to girls, boys perceived more acceptance from their mothers, and they reported less peer rejection. They also perceived less maternal behavioral control. There were no gender differences for other parenting practices. Means, standard deviations and range of responses are presented in Table 10.

Table 10 Gender Comparisons for Peer Rejection and Parenting Dimensions

		Gir	ls]	Boys	
	N	M	SD	Range	N	M	SD	Range
Peer Rejection	1741	1.61 _a	.58	1-4	1435	1.56 _b	.55	1-4
Maternal Acceptance	1741	3.50_a	.47	1.46-4	1435	3.55 _b	.49	2.17-4
Maternal Behavioral	1741	3.33_a	.46	1.73-4	1435	3.12_{b}	.50	1.20-4
Control								
Maternal	1741	1.69	.53	1-3.70	1435	1.66	.46	1-3.40
Psychological								
Control								
Paternal Acceptance	1603	3.43	.50	1-4	1351	3.45	.40	1-4
Paternal Behavioral	1603	2.87	.58	1-4	1351	2.86	.55	1.07-4
Control								
Paternal	1603	1.56	.47	1-3.70	1351	1.58	.43	1-3.20
Psychological								
Control								

Note. If there is a significant difference among the columns, it is shown by different subscript letters, p < .05.

3.4. Main Analyses

IBM SPSS v29 and AMOS v26 was used to test hypothesized associations in the current study. A total of eight path analyses were performed to examine the unique moderating roles of depth of processing and overstimulation in the relationship between parenting dimensions and peer rejection in each gender-based parent-child dyads separately. Model fits were assessed using Comparative Fit Index (CFI) ($x \ge 90$), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) ($x \le .06$, within 90% CI with an upper value of $x \le .10$), Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) ($x \le .08$), and Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) ($x \ge .95$) values (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Furthermore, Adjusted Goodness of Fit (AGFI) values of $x \ge .90$ and Goodness of Fit (GFI) values of $x \ge .95$ are sought (Byrne, 2001; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

To test the hypotheses regarding the relationships between parenting dimensions and peer rejection moderated by depth of processing or overstimulation of children and adolescents, the models shown in Figure 1 and Figure 2 were tested for each dyad. As can be seen in the figures covariances between acceptance, behavioral and psychological control were added, since parenting dimension are highly correlated constructs. Additionally, covariances were included between the interactions of parenting dimensions with depth of processing and overreaction to stimuli. Although modification indices recommended extra additions of covariances to improve the models, the model fits were good as they are, so no further changes were made. The results are presented under separate section in the following order: mother-daughter dyads, mother-son dyads, father daughter dyads, and father-son dyads.

3.4.1. Model 1a: Mother-daughter dyads, depth of processing as a moderator

The model had a good fit, χ^2 (30) = 217.934, p = .000; CFI = .95, GFI = .98, AGFI = .96, TLI = .92, RMSEA = .06 (90 % CI = .05-.07), SRMR = .06. Although the chi square/degrees of freedom outcome was above the rule of thumb maximum value of 5 (Hu & Bentler, 1999), other fit indices indicated a good fit. Maternal acceptance and psychological control, mother perceived economic status and child's grade significantly predicted peer rejection (respectively β = -.11, p = .001; β = .22, p < .001; β = -.07, p = .003; β = -.19, p < .001), while maternal behavioral control, depth

of processing, and its interactions with parenting dimensions did not have a significant relationship with peer rejection. That is if girls perceived lower acceptance or higher psychological control from their mothers, they reported more peer rejection. Also, as mother-perceived economic status and child's age declined, girls reported more peer rejection. Moreover, depth of processing neither had an association with peer rejection, nor it moderated the relationships between parenting dimensions and peer rejection (see Figure 3 and Table 11).

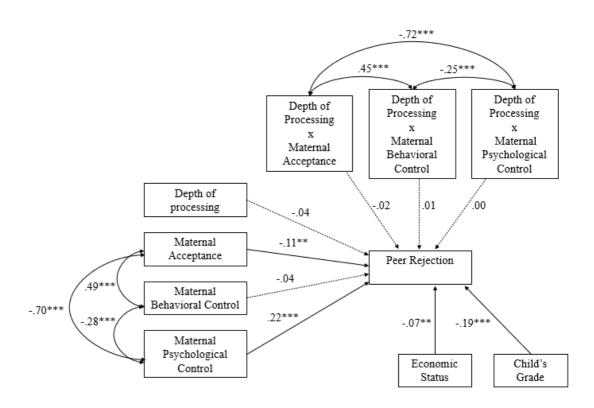


Figure 3 Path Model for Moderator Role of Depth of Processing in Mother-Daughter Dyads

Table 11 Path Coefficients for Mother-Daughter Dyad Model Using Depth of Processing as Moderator

Paths	B(SE)	β
Depth of processing → Peer rejection	02(.01)	04
Maternal acceptance → Peer rejection	06(.02)	11**
Maternal psychological control → Peer rejection	.13(.02)	.22***
Maternal behavioral control → Peer rejection	02(.02)	04
Depth of processing x Maternal acceptance→ Peer rejection	01(.02)	02
Depth of processing x Maternal psychological control→ Peer rejection	.00(.02)	.00
Depth of processing x Maternal behavioral control→ Peer rejection	.01(.02)	.01
Mother-perceived SES → Peer rejection	02(.01)	07**
Grade → Peer rejection	06(.01)	19***

Notes. ***p < .001, **p < .01, *p < .05, †p < .10

 $\chi^{2}(30) = 217.934$, p = .000; CFI = .95, GFI = .98, AGFI = .96, TLI = .92, RMSEA = .06 (90 % CI = .05-.07), SRMR = .06.

3.4.2. Model 1b: Mother-daughter dyads, overstimulation as a moderator

The model had a good fit χ^2 (30) = 157.404, p = .000; CFI = .97, GFI = .98, AGFI = .97, TLI = .95, RMSEA = .05 (90 % CI = .04-.06), SRMR = .05. Although the chi square/degrees of freedom outcome was above the rule of thumb maximum value of 5, other fit indices indicated a good fit. Maternal acceptance, mother perceived economic status, and child's grade significantly predicted peer rejection in a negative way (respectively, β = -.11, p = .001; β = -.06, p = .005; β = -.19, p < .001), while psychological control had a positive predicting role on peer rejection (β = .21, p < .001). Behavioral control did not have a predictive power (see Figure 4 and Table 12).

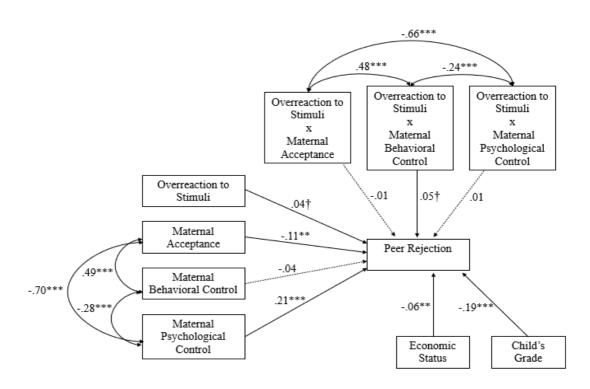


Figure 4 Path Model for Moderator Role of Overreaction to Stimuli in Mother-Daughter Dyads

Table 12 Path Coefficients for Mother-Daughter Dyad Model Using Overreaction to Stimuli as Moderator

Paths	B(SE)	β
Overreaction to stimuli → Peer rejection	.03(.01)	.04†
Maternal acceptance → Peer rejection	06(.02)	11**
Maternal psychological control → Peer rejection	.12(.02)	.21***
Maternal behavioral control → Peer rejection	02(.02)	04
Overreaction to stimuli x Maternal acceptance > Peer rejection	01(.02)	01
Overreaction to stimuli x Maternal psychological control→ Peer rejection	.01(.02)	.01
Overreaction to stimuli x Maternal behavioral control→ Peer rejection	.03(.02)	.05†
Mother-perceived SES → Peer rejection	-02(.01)	06**
Grade → Peer rejection	06(.01)	19***

Notes. ***p < .001, **p < .01, *p < .05, †p < .10

 $\chi^{2}(30) = 157.404, p = .000; CFI = .97, GFI = .98, AGFI = .97, TLI = .95, RMSEA = .05 (90 % CI = .04-.06), SRMR = .05.$

There were also marginally significant paths from overreaction to stimuli and its interaction with behavioral control (respectively, β = .04, p = .052; β = .05, p = .062). The interaction is examined further using Process Macro models in SPSS (Hayes, 2017). At -1 SD on the centered overreaction to stimuli (at -.612) the relationship between maternal behavioral control and peer rejection is negative and significant (t = -2.422, p = .016). However, at the mean (at -.056) and 1 SD (at .610) on the centered overreaction to stimuli, the relationships were non-significant (respectively, t = -1.761 p = .078; t = .191, p = .849). In other words, when overreaction to stimuli was low, behavioral control negatively predicted peer rejection. On the other hand, when it was medium and high, behavioral control did not predict peer rejection (see Figure 5).

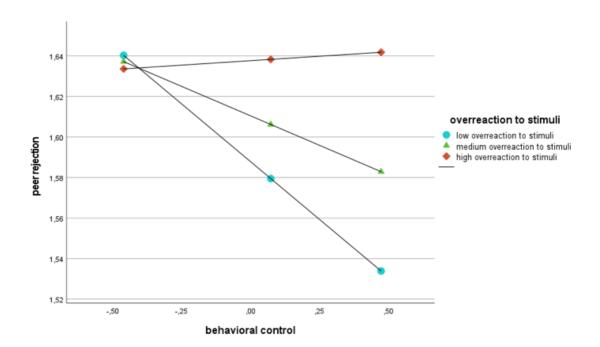


Figure 5 Interaction Between Overreaction to Stimuli and Perceived Behavioral

Control on Peer Rejection in Mother-Daughter Dyads

3.4.3. Model 2a: Mother-son dyads, depth of processing as a moderator

The model showed a good fit, χ^2 (30) = 130.981, p = .000; CFI = .96, GFI = .98, AGFI = .97, TLI = .93, RMSEA = .05 (90 % CI = .04-.06), SRMR = .05. There was a

positive relationship between maternal psychological control and peer rejection (β = .27, p < .001) and a negative relationship between child's grade and peer rejection (β = -.21, p < .001). There were also marginally significant negative links between peer rejection and maternal acceptance (β = -.06, p = .065) and behavioral control (β = -.05, p = .058). Economic status, depth of processing and its interactions with maternal acceptance and psychological control were not significant predictors of peer rejection (see Figure 6 and Table 13).

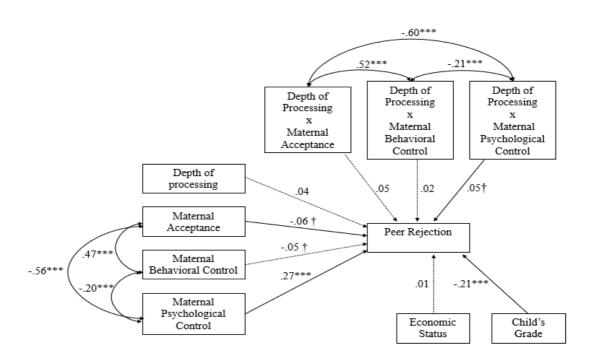


Figure 6 Path Model for Moderator Role of Depth of Processing in Mother-Son Dyads

Moreover, depth of processing moderated the relationship between maternal psychological control and peer rejection (β = .05, p = .079). The interaction was examined further using Process Macro models in SPSS (Hayes, 2018). At -1 SD (at -.630), the mean (at -.003), and 1 SD (at .625) on the centered depth of processing, the relationships between maternal psychological control and peer rejection are positive and significant (respectively, t = 4.753, p < .001; t = 8.555, p < .001; t = 7.125, p < .001)(see Figure 7). In other words, as the dept of processing increased, the

Table 13 Path Coefficients for Mother-Son Dyad Model Using Depth of Processing as Moderator

Paths	B(SE)	β
Depth of processing → Peer rejection	.02(.01)	.04
Maternal acceptance → Peer rejection	03(.02)	06†
Maternal psychological control \rightarrow Peer rejection	.15(.02)	.27***
Maternal behavioral control → Peer rejection	03(.02)	05†
Depth of processing x Maternal acceptance \rightarrow Peer rejection	.03(.02)	.05
Depth of processing x Maternal psychological control \rightarrow Peer rejection	.03(.02)	.05†
Depth of processing x Maternal behavioral control \rightarrow Peer rejection	.01(.02)	.02
Mother-perceived SES \rightarrow Peer rejection	.00(.01)	.01
Grade → Peer rejection	06(.01)	21***

Notes. ***p < .001, **p < .01, *p < .05, †p < .10

 $\chi^{2}(30) = 130.981, p = .000; CFI = .96, GFI = .98, AGFI = .97, TLI = .93, RMSEA = .05 (90 % CI = .04-.06), SRMR = .05.$

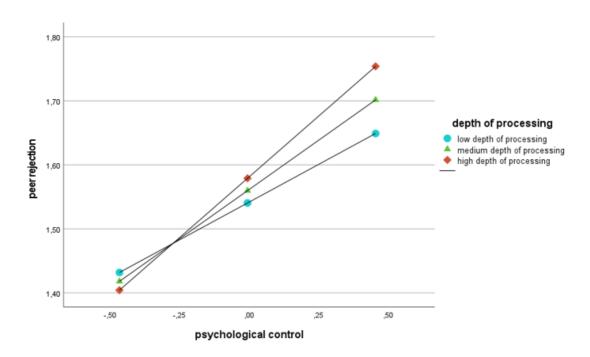


Figure 7 Interaction Between Depth of Processing and Perceived Psychological Control on Peer Rejection in Mother-Son Dyads

relationship between maternal psychological control and peer rejection was strengthened.

3.4.4. Model 2b: Mother-son dyads, overstimulation as a moderator

The fit indices showed a good model fit, χ^2 (30) = 68.700, p = .000; CFI = .98, GFI = .99, AGFI = .98, TLI = .97, RMSEA = .03 (90 % CI = .02-.04), SRMR = .03. Significant associations were found between peer rejection reported by boys and the predictors of overreaction to stimuli, maternal psychological control, and grade (respectively, β = .08, p < .001; β = .27, p < .001; β = -.21, p < .001). Maternal acceptance and behavioral control were also found to marginally predict peer rejection (respectively, β = -.06, p = .060; β = -.05, p =.080). That is, maternal acceptance and behavioral control negatively predicted peer rejection, while psychological control had a positive link with it for mother-son dyads. However, interactions of overreaction to stimuli with parenting dimensions were not significant, meaning that overreaction to stimuli did not moderate the relationships between parenting and peer rejection. In addition, mother perceived economic status did not have a significant role on peer rejection as well (see Figure 8 and Table 14).

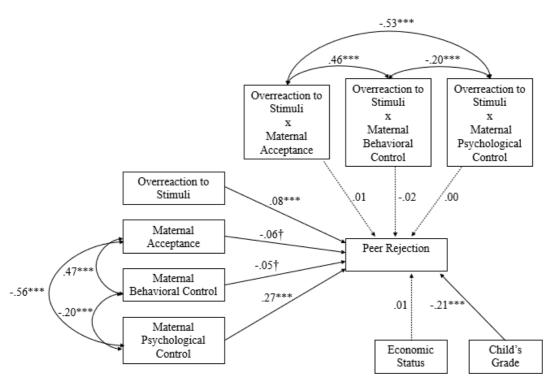


Figure 8 Path Model for Moderator Role of Overreaction to Stimuli in Mother-Son Dyads

Table 14 Path Coefficients for Mother-Son Dyad Model Using Overreaction to Stimuli as Moderator

Paths	B(SE)	β
Overreaction to stimuli → Peer rejection	.05(.01)	.08***
Maternal acceptance → Peer rejection	03(.02)	06†
Maternal psychological control → Peer rejection	.15(.02)	.27***
Maternal behavioral control → Peer rejection	03(.02)	05†
Overreaction to stimuli x Maternal acceptance→ Peer rejection	.01(.02)	.01
Overreaction to stimuli x Maternal psychological control→ Peer rejection	.00(.02)	.00
Overreaction to stimuli x Maternal behavioral control→ Peer rejection	01(.02)	02
Mother-perceived SES → Peer rejection	.00(.01)	.01
Grade → Peer rejection	06(.01)	21***

Notes. ***p < .001, **p < .01, *p < .05, †p < .10

 $\chi^{2}(30) = 68.700, p = .000; CFI = .98, GFI = .99, AGFI = .98, TLI = .97, RMSEA = .03 (90 % CI = .02-.04), SRMR = .03.$

3.4.5. Model 3a: Father-daughter dyads, depth of processing as a moderator

The model showed a good fit, χ^2 (30) = 158.459, p = .000; CFI = .96, GFI = .98, AGFI = .97, TLI = .94, RMSEA = .05 (90 % CI = .04-.06), SRMR = .05. It was found that paternal psychological control predicted peer rejection reported by daughters in a positive way (β = .16, p < .001), while paternal acceptance, depth of processing, mother perceived economic status and child's grade had a negative relationship with it (respectively, β = -.15, p < .001; β = -.06, p = .009; β = -.08, p < .001; β = -.19, p < .001) (see Figure 9 and Table 15).

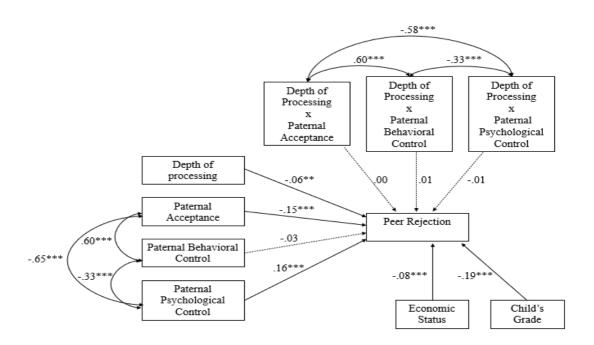


Figure 9 Path Model for Moderator Role of Depth of Processing in Father-Daughter

Dyads

3.4.6. Model 3b: Father-daughter dyads, overstimulation as a moderator

The model showed a good fit, χ^2 (30) = 143.513, p = .000; CFI = .97, GFI = .98, AGFI = .97, TLI = .95, RMSEA = .05 (90 % CI = .04-.06), SRMR = .05. The results demonstrated that paternal acceptance and psychological control, overreaction to stimuli, mother perceived economic status and child's grade significantly predicted peer rejection reported by girls (respectively, β = -.16, p < .001; β = .16, p < .001; β =

.05, p = .030; $\beta = -.08$, p < .001; $\beta = -.18$, p < .001). To be more specific, there were positive links between peer rejection and paternal psychological control along with

Table 15 Path Coefficients for Father-Daughter Dyad Model Using Depth of Processing as Moderator

Paths	B(SE)	β
Depth of processing → Peer rejection	04(.01)	06**
Paternal acceptance → Peer rejection	09(.02)	15***
Paternal psychological control → Peer rejection	.09(.02)	.16***
Paternal behavioral control → Peer rejection	02(.02)	03
Depth of processing x Paternal acceptance -> Peer rejection	.00(.02)	.00
Depth of processing x Paternal psychological control→ Peer rejection	-01(.02)	01
Depth of processing x Paternal behavioral control→ Peer rejection	.01(.02)	.01
Mother-perceived SES \rightarrow Peer rejection	03(.01)	08***
Grade → Peer rejection	05(.01)	19***

Notes. ***p < .001, **p < .01, *p < .05, †p < .10

 $\chi^2(30) = 158.459, p = .000; CFI = .96, GFI = .98, AGFI = .97, TLI = .94, RMSEA = .05 (90 % CI = .04-.06), SRMR = .05.$

child's overreaction to stimuli, whereas there were negative links between peer rejection and paternal acceptance, mother perceived economic status, and grade. However, behavioral control perceived from fathers and the moderator role of overreaction to stimuli for parenting dimensions were not significant (see Figure 10 and Table 16).

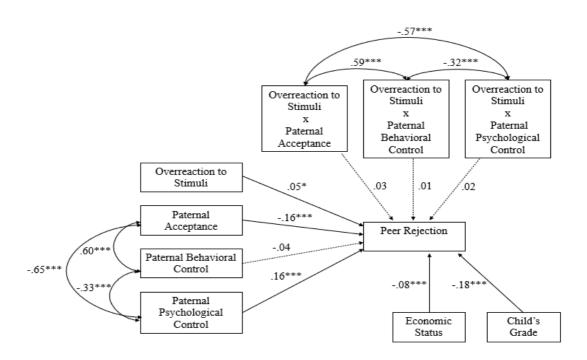


Figure 10 Path Model for Moderator Role of Overreaction to Stimuli in Father-Daughter Dyads

Table 16 Path Coefficients for Father-Daughter Dyad Model Using Overreaction to Stimuli as Moderator

Paths	B(SE)	β
Overreaction to stimuli → Peer rejection	.03(.01)	.05*
Paternal acceptance → Peer rejection	09(.02)	16***
Paternal psychological control → Peer rejection	.09(.02)	.16***
Paternal behavioral control → Peer rejection	02(.02)	04
Overreaction to stimuli x Paternal acceptance→ Peer rejection	.02(.02)	.03
Overreaction to stimuli x Paternal psychological control→ Peer rejection	.01(.02)	.02
Overreaction to stimuli x Paternal behavioral control→ Peer rejection	.01(.02)	.01
Mother-perceived SES \rightarrow Peer rejection	03(.01)	08***
Grade → Peer rejection	05(.01)	18***

Notes. ***p < .001, **p < .01, *p < .05, †p < .10

 $\chi^{2}(30) = 143.513$, p = .000; CFI = .97, GFI = .98, AGFI = .97, TLI = .95, RMSEA = .05 (90 % CI = .04-.06), SRMR = .05.

3.4.7. Model 4a: Father-son dyads, depth of processing as a moderator

The model showed a good fit, χ^2 (30) = 110.637, p = .000; CFI = .96, GFI = .98, AGFI = .97, TLI = .94, RMSEA = .04 (90 % CI = .04-.05), SRMR = .04. The only significant paths going to peer rejection were from perceived paternal acceptance (negative link), psychological control (positive link), and child's grade (negative link) (respectively, β = -.19, p < .001; β = .20, p < .001; β = -.21, p < .001) (see Figure 11 and Table 17).

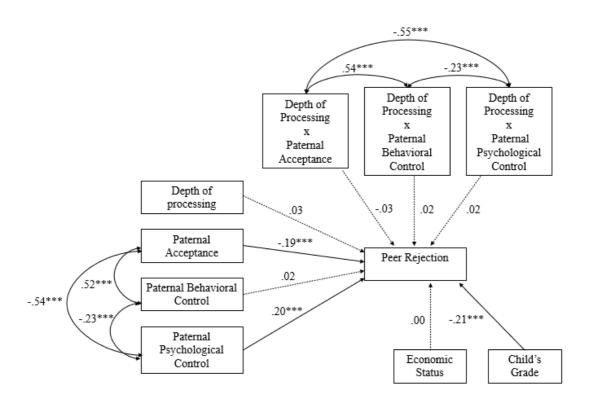


Figure 11 Path Model for Moderator Role of Depth of Processing in Father-Son Dyads

3.4.8. Model 4b: Father-son dyads, overreaction to stimuli as a moderator

The fit indices showed a good model fit, $\chi^2(30) = 95.376$, p = .000; CFI = .97, GFI = .98, AGFI = .98, TLI = .95, RMSEA = .04 (90 % CI = .03-.05), SRMR = .04. The results of the path analysis indicated that paternal psychological control perceived by their sons and overreaction to stimuli positively predicted peer rejection

(respectively, $\beta = .20$, p < .001; $\beta = .10$, p < .001), whereas there were opposite links between peer rejection and paternal acceptance ($\beta = -.19$, p < .001) along with child's

Table 17 Path Coefficients for Father-Son Dyad Model Using Depth of Processing as Moderator

Paternal psychological control → Peer rejection .11(.02) .20** Paternal behavioral control → Peer rejection .01(.02) .02 Depth of processing x Paternal acceptance → Peer rejection .01(.02) .03 Depth of processing x Paternal psychological control → Peer rejection .01(.02) .02 Depth of processing x Paternal behavioral control → Peer rejection .01(.02) .02 Mother-perceived SES → Peer rejection .00(.01) .00	Paths	B(SE)	β
Paternal psychological control → Peer rejection .11(.02) .20** Paternal behavioral control → Peer rejection .01(.02) .02 Depth of processing x Paternal acceptance → Peer rejection .01(.02) .03 Depth of processing x Paternal psychological control → Peer rejection .01(.02) .02 Depth of processing x Paternal behavioral control → Peer rejection .01(.02) .02 Mother-perceived SES → Peer rejection .00(.01) .00	Depth of processing → Peer rejection	.02(.01)	.03
Paternal behavioral control → Peer rejection .01(.02) .02 Depth of processing x Paternal acceptance → Peer rejection .01(.02) .03 Depth of processing x Paternal psychological control → Peer rejection .01(.02) .02 Depth of processing x Paternal behavioral control → Peer rejection .01(.02) .02 Mother-perceived SES → Peer rejection .00(.01) .00	Paternal acceptance → Peer rejection	10(.02)	19***
Depth of processing x Paternal acceptance → Peer rejection 01(.02) 03 Depth of processing x Paternal psychological control → Peer rejection .01(.02) .02 Depth of processing x Paternal behavioral control → Peer rejection .01(.02) .02 Mother-perceived SES → Peer rejection .00(.01) .00	Paternal psychological control → Peer rejection	.11(.02)	.20***
Depth of processing x Paternal psychological control→ Peer rejection .01(.02) .02 Depth of processing x Paternal behavioral control→ Peer rejection .01(.02) .02 Mother-perceived SES → Peer rejection .00(.01) .00	Paternal behavioral control → Peer rejection	.01(.02)	.02
Depth of processing x Paternal behavioral control→ Peer rejection .01(.02) .02 Mother-perceived SES → Peer rejection .00(.01) .00	Depth of processing x Paternal acceptance→ Peer rejection	01(.02)	03
Mother-perceived SES → Peer rejection .00(.01) .00	Depth of processing x Paternal psychological control→ Peer rejection	.01(.02)	.02
	Depth of processing x Paternal behavioral control→ Peer rejection	.01(.02)	.02
Grade → Peer rejection06(.01)21**	Mother-perceived SES → Peer rejection	.00(.01)	.00
	Grade → Peer rejection	06(.01)	21***

Notes. ***p < .001, **p < .01, *p < .05, †p < .10

 $\chi^{2}(30) = 110.637, p = .000; CFI = .96, GFI = .98, AGFI = .97, TLI = .94, RMSEA = .04 (90 % CI = .04-.05), SRMR = .04.$

grade (β = -.21, p < .001). Other associations were not found to be significant (see Figure 12 and Table 18).

The findings of the path analyses are summarized in Table 19.

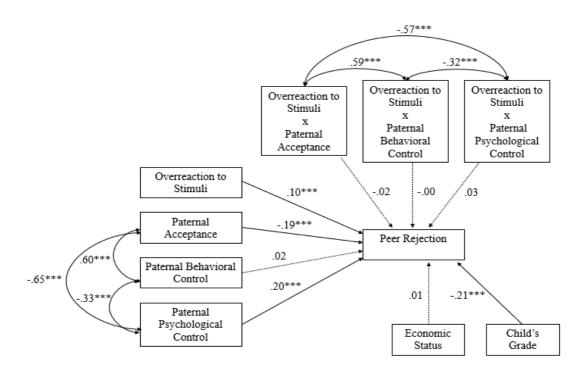


Figure 12 Path Model for Moderator Role of Overreaction to Stimuli in Father-Son Dyads

Table 18 Path Coefficients for Father-Son Dyad Model Using Overreaction to Stimuli as Moderator

Paths	B(SE)	β
Overreaction to stimuli → Peer rejection	.05(.01)	.10***
Paternal acceptance -> Peer rejection	10(.02)	19***
Paternal psychological control → Peer rejection	.10(.02)	.20***
Paternal behavioral control → Peer rejection	.01(.02)	.02
Overreaction to stimuli x Paternal acceptance-> Peer rejection	01(.02)	02
Overreaction to stimuli x Paternal psychological control→ Peer rejection	.02(.02)	.03
Overreaction to stimuli x Paternal behavioral control -> Peer rejection	00(.02)	00
Mother-perceived SES → Peer rejection	.00(.01)	.01
Grade → Peer rejection	06(.01)	21***

Notes. ***p < .001, **p < .01, *p < .05, †p < .10

 $\chi^{2}(30) = 95.376$, p = .000; CFI = .97, GFI = .98, AGFI = .98, TLI = .95, RMSEA = .04 (90 % CI = .03-.05), SRMR = .04.

 Table 19 Summary of the Findings of the Main Analyses

Dyads	Moderator	Significant predictors of peer rejection and the direction of the link	Hypotheses
Mother-daughter	Depth of processing	Acceptance (-) Psychological control (+)	1a, 1c → supported 1b, 2a, 2b → not supported
	Overreaction to Stimuli	Acceptance (-) Psychological control (+) Overreaction to stimuli (+) OtS x behavioral control (+)	1a, 1c, 2b → supported 1b,2a → not supported
r-son	Depth of processing	Acceptance (-) Behavioral control (-) Psychological control (+) DoP x psychological control (+)	1a, 1b, 1c, 2a → supported 2b → not supported
Mother-son	Overreaction to Stimuli	Acceptance (-) Behavioral control (-) Psychological control (+) Overreaction to stimuli (+)	1a, 1b, 1c → supported 2a, 2b → not supported
ughter	Depth of processing	Acceptance (-) Psychological control (+) Depth of processing (-)	1a, 1c → supported 1b, 2a, 2b → not supported
Father-daughter	Overreaction to Stimuli	Acceptance (-) Psychological control (+) Overreaction to stimuli (+)	1a, 1c → supported 1b, 2a, 2b → not supported
Father-son	Depth of processing	Acceptance (-) Psychological control (+)	1a, 1c → supported 1b, 2a, 2b → not supported
	Overreaction to Stimuli	Acceptance (-) Psychological control (+) Overreaction to stimuli (+)	1a, 1c → supported 1b, 2a, 2b → not supported

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

4.1. Overview

The current study aimed to investigate the relationships between parents' perceived acceptance, behavioral and psychological control and peer rejection of children and adolescents, moderated by child's temperamental traits (depth of processing and overreaction to stimuli) by considering the unique associations between mother-daughter, mother-son, father-daughter, and father-son dyads. Gender differences among children and adolescents in terms of peer rejection, perceived parental acceptance, behavioral and psychological control were also assessed. The findings are evaluated under separate sections after a quick summary of all findings, followed by the strengths and the limitations of the study, recommendations for future research, contributions, and implications.

The first aim of the study was to investigate the associations between both maternal and paternal parenting dimensions (acceptance, behavioral and psychological control) and peer rejection experiences of children and adolescents. It was found that perceived acceptance and psychological control of both parents were significant predictors of peer rejection regardless of the gender of the child. On the other hand, perceived parental behavioral control was a significant predictor of peer rejection only in mother-son dyads. Specifically, as the acceptance of parents increased, peer rejection decreased, whereas as the psychological control of parents increased, peer rejection increased too for both boys and girls. However, as maternal, but not paternal, behavioral control increased, only boys' peer rejection was reduced. Therefore, hypotheses 1a and 1c were fully, and hypothesis 1b was partially supported.

The second aim of the study was to examine the moderator role of child's temperamental traits in the relationship between parenting dimensions and peer rejection. The analyses testing the moderator role of depth of processing revealed that it moderated the relationship between maternal psychological control and peer rejection reported by boys, strengthening the positive link between the two. However, it did not moderate the relationships between any parenting dimension and peer rejection in other gender-based parent-child dyads. Thus, hypothesis 2a had merely partial support. Additionally, depth of processing had a direct negative association with peer rejection in father-daughter dyads.

The analyses testing the moderator role of overreaction to stimuli showed that it played a moderator role in the relationship between maternal behavioral control and peer rejection of girls. That is, when the overreaction to stimuli was low, peer rejection decreased as maternal behavioral control increased. However, behavioral control was no longer predicting peer rejection when overreaction to stimuli was medium or high. Therefore, hypothesis 2b was partially supported due to the lack of interaction between overreaction to stimuli and other parenting dimensions for the rest of the parent-child dyads. Furthermore, the direction of the moderation was not in line with the expectation that as the overreaction to stimuli increased the negative association between behavioral control and peer rejection would have been strengthened. Last but not least, overreaction to stimuli was found to have a positive link with peer rejection in every parent-child dyad. When the unique moderator roles of depth of processing and overreaction to stimuli are considered, it is seen that gender of parents and children play an important role.

Regarding the fourth aim of the study, results showed that girls reported more peer rejection, less maternal acceptance, and more maternal behavioral control compared to boys. No gender differences were found for paternal parenting dimensions and maternal psychological control. Thus, the hypotheses that girls would report less peer rejection (4b) and more acceptance from both parents (4a) compared to boys, were not supported.

Although no hypotheses were made, negative associations between child's grade and peer rejection in each dyad indicated that as children grew, they experienced less

peer rejection. Lastly, economic status perceived by mothers significantly predicted peer rejection of girls, but not of boys. It was found that the lower economic status mothers perceived, the higher peer rejection was reported by girls. All findings are discussed in the following sections.

4.2. Interpretations of the Main Results

4.2.1. Parenting Dimensions and Peer Rejection

Findings of the current study showed that peer rejection of children and adolescents was predicted by low levels of acceptance (Davidov & Grusec, 2006) and high levels of psychological control (Ladd & Pettit, 2002) of both parents, as foreseen in the light of existing literature. Children learn how to interact with others through their relationships with parents. If the relationship is a loving, affectionate, and supportive one, the child is likely to model a similar positive approach to others in social relationships. On the other hand, if child faces withdrawal of love, guilt, shame, and invalidation of their emotions by parents when they behave outside the rules and expectations, they are likely to apply for similar detrimental communication styles during conflicts with peers which increases the possibility of being rejected (Coie, 1990).

Following the same logic, it was expected that behavioral control of parents as a healthy way to monitor child's behaviors, would have a negative relationship with peer rejection regardless of child's gender. However, except the marginal negative relationship between maternal behavioral control and peer rejection of boys, and the interaction between overreaction to stimuli of girls and maternal behavioral control in predicting peer rejection, behavioral control does not seem to be a significant factor in predicting peer rejection. This may be due to the difference between parent-child and peer relationships. While the former is characterized by the unequal status between the parent and the child, the second is characterized by equal status of peers. Therefore, the attempts of peers to control each other's behaviors is expected to be less compared to parents. Especially, when the items of the scale that are used to assess behavioral control in the current study, it is seen that items are focused on monitoring children's whereabouts and friendships which is relevant to parents but not to peers. On the other hand, psychological control is punitive of wrongdoings,

therefore may play a role in conflict with peers by harming social problem solving. Still, despite being marginal there was a significant negative relationship between mother's behavioral control and peer rejection of boys. This may be related to the role of controlling strategies of parents in moral development of children.

Morality is the set of values and rules that aids a person in making the distinction between right and wrong and in taking appropriate action (Quinn, Houts, & Graesser, 1994; Shaffer, 1994; as cited in Shaffer & Kipp, 2007). It consists of affective (guilt, concern for others' feelings, etc.), cognitive (concepts of right and wrong), and behavioral (actual behaviors in case of temptation to violate moral rules) components. When the role of disciplinary styles of parents in moral development is examined, it is seen that there are three main parental approaches that aim to teach the child moral behaviors, which are love withdrawal (withholding attention, affection, or approval in case of misconduct), power assertion (attempts to control child's behavior through fear), and induction (explaining the reasons behind why the behavior is wrong and how it can affect other people). While the former two are indicators of coercive parenting and linked to aggression (Asher & Coie, 1990), induction is a nonpunitive discipline style similar to behavioral control, and it is linked with positive parenting. It is shown that this kind of discipline is likely to enhance sympathy and caring for others and benefit the internalization of moral rules (Shaffer & Kipp, 2007). Indeed, Michael Siegal and Jan Cowen (1984) found that children and adolescents have a more positive approach for induction over physical punishment, love withdrawal, and permissive nonintervention, to be used to discipline the child in cases of simple disobedience, physically or psychologically hurting others and oneself, and vandalizing surroundings.

When we focus on the peer context, harming others physically, verbally, or psychologically is an immoral behavior due to neglecting others' emotions and failing to resist the temptation to use aggression to solve problems. Traditional forms of aggression displayed physically or verbally, are known to be more prevalent among boys who are found to be more likely to engage in antisocial behaviors, while girls apply for relational aggression (Shaffer & Kipp, 2007) which is harder to notice and intervene from outside by adults. Thus, boys whose parents use nonpunitive disciplinary styles such as behavioral control and inductive reasoning (parents'

attempts to teach the kid the consequences of their behaviors by explaining possible harm to self, others, or environment) (Burleson, 1983; Hart, Ladd, G, & Burleson, 1990; Ladd & Pettit, 2002) may demonstrate better social competence (Hart et al., 1990). Although behavioral control and inductive reasoning are distinct constructs, they are both indicators of positive parenting aiming to teach the child right and wrong (Hart, Newell, & Olsen, 2003). Moreover, knowing child's whereabouts and the quality of their social relationships, parents have higher chance to intervene immoral behavior and educate the child using inductive reasoning. Future studies might explore the mediator role of inductive reasoning in the relationship between behavioral control and peer rejection.

4.2.2. Moderator Roles of Depth of Processing and Overreaction to Stimuli

Although it was hypothesized that depth of processing and overreaction to stimuli would moderate the relationships between parenting dimensions and peer rejection in every gender-based parent-child dyad, only two moderations were found in the current study, one of depth of processing in mother-son relationships, and another of overreaction to stimuli in mother-daughter relationships, pointing to the existence of gender differences in the process. The findings indicated that paternal parenting dimensions did not interact with the temperamental traits of the child marked with depth of processing and overreaction to stimuli. The current study also points to the importance of studying sensory processing sensitivity using its subfactors rather than using a composite score, since they operated in unique ways demonstrated by the results.

While depth of processing interacted with maternal psychological control in predicting peer rejection of boys, strengthening the positive relationship between psychological control and peer rejection; overreaction to stimuli interacted with maternal behavioral control and peer rejection of girls, in a way that as overreaction to stimuli increased, behavioral control was no longer predicting peer rejection, pointing to the possibility of overreaction being a risk factor for girls in terms of peer rejection. This claim was supported by the positive direct links between overreaction and peer rejection in every dyad. On the other hand, depth of processing had a negative direct relationship with peer rejection, even though it existed only in father-

daughter dyads. Considering this finding in combination with depth of processing's moderator role by strengthening the association between psychological control and peer rejection, depth of processing seems to operate in line with differential susceptibility hypothesis, while overreaction to stimuli is more in line with diathesis-stress model (Slagt et al., 208). However, sensory processing sensitivity is a new concept. Therefore, studies confirming the two-factor structure of sensory processing sensitivity and the differential operations of depth of processing and overreaction to stimuli in predicting peer rejection from parenting, are necessary to generalize the findings of the current study.

The gender differences in terms of the moderator role of depth of processing and overreaction to stimuli might be because of stereotypical gender roles expected from girls and boys. While women are expected to be warm, kind, sensitive, patient, polite, cheerful etc., but not rebellious, stubborn, controlling etc.; men are expected to be self-confident, self-reliant, risk-taker, assertive, decisive, but not emotional, approval seeking, shy (Thompson & Bennett, 2015; Sakallı-Uğurlu, Türkoğlu, & Kuzlak, 2018). Children begin to conform to gender stereotypes at the age of 3, and until the ages of 8 to 9, they are intolerant of gender-role transgressions in their environment. Although they become more flexible about gender roles during early adolescence, they get rigid once again in a short time trying to conform to increased pressure of parents to follow these gender roles (Shaffer & Kipp, 2007). Therefore, high levels of overreaction to physical and emotional stimuli might be detrimental for girls' peer relationships, since it may be interpreted as cross-sex mannerism. Similarly, boys who have higher depth of processing are likely to be more sensitive and cautious in case of risky behaviors causing them to be seen as feminine-like, "weak", "mama's boy" and be discriminated. Furthermore, being more sensitive to others' emotions and thoughts, they may be hurt even more by the psychological control of their mothers. On the other hand, considering the direct negative association between depth of processing and peer rejection in father-daughter dyads, depth of processing may be a protective factor for girls' peer relationships due to sensitivity toward other's emotions and enhanced empathy skills which are desired for a girl. These speculations can be investigated by adopting a mixed method approach which composes of a qualitative study that focuses on the perceived characteristics of girls who score high on overreaction to stimuli and of boys who

score high on depth of processing using teacher reports, and a quantitative study that assesses if these characteristics mediate the relationship between the sensory processing sensitivity traits of the child and their peer rejection experiences.

Lastly, the current study used mother reports to assess sensory processing sensitivity of children and adolescents. Although mothers are reliable sources of information in terms of their child's characteristics, the findings need to be replicated using child report of temperament.

4.2.3. Gender Differences in Term of Parenting and Peer Rejection

Contrary to the hypothesis, girls reported lower maternal acceptance compared to boys. This may be due to ongoing material value of children in Turkish culture. Modernization theory suggests that in industrialized countries material value given to children, characterized in previously agrarian cultures, decreases thanks to socioeconomical advances and a shift occurs from an interdependent model of family to independent model of family. These changes also affect parents' preferences for their child's gender. In interdependent family models, where child has a material value, boys are preferred over girls since they are expected to work outside the house and contribute to family finances, decreasing the value of girls who are expected to marry and serve the family of her husband. Therefore, an imbalance between status between women and men occurs. In such environments, women who have a son gain status through their son. Some studies claim that this is the reason of conflict between the mother in laws and women due to the desire of preserving the power gained through men. On the other hand, in independent industrialized countries, there is an increasing preference for girls who are seen more affectionate over boys due to increased social/psychological value of children (Kağıtçıbaşı & Ataca, 2005).

Although Türkiye is not exempt from this shift in family models and value given to children, it is a rich country with diverse family structures across regions and socioeconomic status differences. In fact, there is a gap between the east and west of Türkiye regarding value given to children. While children still have more of an economical value in the east part where agriculture is more prevalent, they have more of a psychological and emotional value in the west part where industrialization is more common (Beşpinar, 2014). For instance, during the data collection in a

village of Şanlıurfa, a mother asked if she should count her daughters when she was answering the question about the number of children she has.

Despite the fact that Kağıtçıbaşı & Ataca (2005) found that the value given to child is changing from economical to psychological all over the country regardless of regions and socioeconomic status, the results of this study may be an indicator of ongoing preference for boys over girls, or a back-shift due to increasing economic challenges in Türkiye, as in the rest of the world for the past few years.

Gender comparisons also revealed that girls reported more peer rejection than boys. This finding is unexpected when it considered the majority of the existing studies show the opposite relationship (Sentse et al., 2010). Considering the negative relationship between parental acceptance and peer rejection and the lower maternal acceptance perception of girls compared to boys in the current study, it is plausible for them to experience more peer rejection than boys. Moreover, it was also found that mothers' perceived economic status had a positive relationship with peer rejection of girls. The average economic status perceptions of mothers in the study can be considered relatively low (M = 4.20), which might have played a role in peer rejection experiences of girls. Future studies may expand on this finding to find out if this relationship is consistent.

4.2.4. Grade and Economic Status

The results showed that child's grade was a significant predictor of peer rejection in each dyad. It was found that as children grew up, they reported less peer rejection. Although, no hypothesis was generated, it is a plausible finding. From 5th grade to 11th grade, children are more likely than not to improve their overall social skills thanks to accumulated experiences with peers (Ross, Kim, Tolan, & Jennings, 2019), which pay off in forming positive relationships with peers.

Another factor that was found to predict peer rejection only for girls was mother perceived economic status. Results indicated that as the economic status perceived by mothers increased, peer rejection decreased among girls, and vice versa, whereas it was not a significant factor in peer rejection reports of boys. Studies show that low-income households are associated with higher probability of being rejected by

peers, where parents suffer from stress to make a living and have less time, patience, and energy to dedicate to healthy parenting practices (Patterson, Vaden, & Kupersmidt, 1991; Pettit, Clawson, Dodge, and Bates, 1996). Girls might be more sensitive to the differences in parenting under lower socioeconomic status, compared to boys, which may be investigated with a moderated mediation which tests the moderator role of gender on the relationship between socioeconomic status and peer rejection mediated by parenting dimensions.

Another reason behind the gender difference might be related to different factors that determine popularity among boys and girls. Peer groups are characterized by norms about how to dress, think, and behave (Shaffer & Kipp, 2007). It is shown that, while the popularity among boys is determined by their physical abilities, hardness, coolness, social skills, and successful cross-gender relationships; popularity among girls is determined by the economic backgrounds of their families, physical appearance (which also requires financial investment), social skills, and academic achievement (Adler, Kless, & Adler, 1992).

4.3. Strengths, Limitations and Future Studies

The current study had many strengths such as the large sample size that is representative of Turkish population and inclusion of children and adolescents from 5th grade to 11th grade, which makes it easier to generalize the associations between parenting dimensions and peer rejection. Assessment of paternal parenting as well as maternal parenting, and investigation of gender's role in the process are also among the strengths of the study. However, it was not free of limitations like many studies. First of all, this study focused on the distal antecedents of peer rejection such as parenting and temperament but did not take into account proximal causes of peer rejection which are related to internal factors such as child's social competency, thoughts and feelings in social situations. Having them included along with distal causes, one might draw a better picture for the story behind peer rejection. Thus, further studies might investigate the mediator role of intrapersonal factors such as child's social skills and emotion regulation in the relationship between parenting and peer rejection moderated by child's temperamental characteristics. Such studies can enlighten further the different mechanisms of how depth of processing and

overreaction to stimuli moderate the relationships between parenting and peer rejection. Here, it is speculated that while depth of processing may be beneficial for developing social skills like empathy in the absence of negative parenting, overreaction to stimuli seems like a risk factor having a direct positive association with peer rejection. Thus, examining the role of emotion regulation abilities as a protective factor might be useful for developing intervention programs.

Another limitation is that the participants were nested in different regions, cities, schools, and classes. The last two are especially relevant to peer rejection research because of being the main social context where rejection occurs. As mentioned before peer rejection and peer victimization are highly correlated constructs, therefore peer rejection might be more prevalent in schools or classes where a culture of bullying is not discouraged (Olweus & Limber, 2010). The role of school culture should be investigated using multilevel approaches that can handle nested data. Moreover, this study focused on only three main parenting dimensions. Integrating other parenting practices such as inductive reasoning and overprotection which received less attention but shown to be associated with social competence, might provide more insights into determinants of peer rejection (e.g., Hart et al., 1990; Ladd & Pettit, 2002).

Finally, despite the significant relationships between variables of interest and peer rejection, the findings do not provide causality creating need for longitudinal studies. Also, as mentioned before, peer rejection is highly correlated with other social maladjustment indicators such as externalizing (e.g., Janssens et al., 2017; Sentse et al., 2010), and internalizing problems (e.g., Metin Aslan, 2018; Sentse et al., 2010), peer victimization and aggression (e.g., Godleski et al., 2015). Yet, it is not clear whether peer rejection precedes them, or they precede peer rejection (Hymel, Vaillancourt, McDougall, & Renshaw, 2002). Bidirectional relationships and causality might be explored with longitudinal study designs using cross-lag models.

4.4. Contributions and Implications

There are important contributions of the current study. First of all, the negative relationship between maladaptive child outcomes and parental acceptance was displayed once more, in addition to its positive relationship with parents'

psychological control. Second, differential moderator roles of the subfactors of sensory processing sensitivity in the relationship between parenting and peer rejection experiences of girls and boys were found, which provides valuable information for intervention programs. Third, it was shown that girls and boys differed in terms of contextual factors that predicted peer rejection evident by the significant relationship between mother perceived economic status and girls' peer rejection, but not boys' peer rejection. Fourth, the significant role of paternal parenting, as well as maternal parenting, and peer rejection was demonstrated, drawing attention to the fact that fathers are not neutral actors. Fifth, the results of gender comparisons in terms of perceived parenting and peer rejection indicated that there might be opposite relationships in terms of maternal acceptance and peer rejection based on gender in Turkish cultural context compared to Western societies, where parental acceptance is higher for girls, while peer rejection is higher for boys (e.g., Sentse et al., 2010).

The findings provide considerable outcomes for prevention and intervention studies aiming to reduce peer rejection of children and adolescents. For instance, the programs need to include educating parents about the role of acceptance and psychological control and how they interact with temperamental traits of school age children in peer rejection. Also, improving emotion regulation skills of children and adolescents might diminish the detriments of negative parenting practices which are strengthened by child's temperamental trait. A better emotion regulation by the child might be especially beneficial for children who have higher overreaction to stimuli.

4.5. Conclusion

The current study aimed to examine the association between both maternal and paternal parenting dimensions and peer rejection moderated by depth of processing and overreaction to stimuli in school-age children from 5th grade to 11th grade. Findings indicated that both maternal and paternal acceptance negatively predicted peer rejection, while both maternal and paternal psychological control positively predicted peer rejection regardless of child's gender. Also, maternal behavioral control had a negative relationship with peer rejection of boys only. Furthermore, it was found that depth of processing moderated the relationship between maternal

psychological control and peer rejection of boys, whereas overreaction to stimuli moderated the relationship between maternal behavioral control and peer rejection of girls. The limitations and contributions of the study, and implications of the findings are discussed. The current study gives way to many future studies.

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APPENDICES

A. APPROVAL OF THE METU HUMAN SUBJECTS ETHICS COMMITTEE

UYGULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ APPLIED ETHICS RESEAREH CEHTER



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09 ARALIK 2021

Konu : Değerlendirme Sonucu

Gönderen: ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu (İAEK)

İlgi : İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu Başvurusu

Sayın Prof.Dr. Sibel KAZAK BERUMENT ve Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Başak Şahin ACAR

"Ebeveynlik Tutumlarının ve Ebeveyn-Çocuk İletişim Özelliklerinin Çocuk ve Ergen Gelişimine Etkisi" başlıklı araştırmanız İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu tarafından uygun görülmüş ve 498-ODTU-2021 protokol numarası ile onaylanmıştır.

Saygılanmızla bilgilerinize sunanz.

Prof.Dr. Mine MISIRLISOY IAEK Baskan

B. TURKISH SUMMARY / TÜRKÇE ÖZET

1. GİRİŞ

Akran reddi, bir çocuğun sosyal gelişimi ile ilgili en önemli konulardan biridir ve akran grubundaki bir üyeden diğer çocukların çoğu tarafından açıkça hoşlanılmaması olarak tanımlanmaktadır (Asher ve Coie, 1990). Bir çocuk, akran grubuyla ne kadar uyumlu olduğuna bağlı olarak, birçok olumlu veya olumsuz sonuçla karşı karşıya kalır (Hymel ve diğerleri, 2002). Akran reddi çalışmaları, aralarındaki güçlü bağlantılar ve iki yönlü ilişkiler sebebiyle dışa vurum (örn., Janssens ve diğerleri, 2017; Sentse ve diğerleri, 2010), içe yönelim (örn., Metin Aslan, 2018; Sentse ve diğerleri. 2010), zorbalık, fiziksel ve ilişkisel saldırganlık (örn., Godleski ve diğerleri, 2015), sosyal yetersizlik (örn., McDowell & Parke, 2005), suç işleme (örn., Low et al., 2018) ve arkadaşlık kalitesi (örn., Dickson ve diğerleri, 2018) gibi sosyal uyum göstergeleri çalışmaları ile paralel gitmektedir. Bu olumsuz sonuçların bir nedeni veya sonucu olmasından bağımsız olarak, akran reddi akran mağduriyeti gibi daha ileri sosyal sorunlarla ilişkilidir (Hymel, vd., 2002). Bu nedenle, akran reddinin öncüllerini anlamak bu değişkenler arasındaki kısır döngüyü kırmak açısından çok önemlidir. Bu amaçla, bu çalışmada çocuğun mizacının, ebeveynlik uygulamalarının (ebeveyn kabulü, davranışsal ve psikolojik kontrol) akran reddi üzerindeki yordayıcılığı üzerindeki düzenleyici rolü araştırılmıştır.

Ebeveynlik ve çocuğun mizacı, akran reddi ile ilgili en çok çalışılan konulardandır (Asher & Coie,1990). Öncelikle aile, başkalarıyla iyi ilişkiler kurmak için gerekli sosyal becerilerin öğrenildiği ilk sosyal ortamdır. Ayrıca, bakım veren ile kurulan bağ ilerideki ilişkiler için bir örnek teşkil etmektedir (Coie, 1990). Bowlby'nin (1969) bağlanma teorisi ile uyumlu bir şekilde, güvenli bağlanan bebeklerin erken çocukluk döneminde akranlarınca daha çok kabul gördükleri (örn. Greenberg vd., 1983), buna bağlı olarak ergenlikte daha fazla güzel arkadaşlıklar kurdukları gösterilmiştir (Simpson vd., 2007).

İkinci olarak, kişinin çevreye (örn., ebeveynlik) karşı duyarlılığını ve öz düzenleme becerilerini belirleyen biyolojik yatkınlık olan mizacın (Rothbart & Bates, 2006; Slagt, vd., 2018), akran ilişkileri üzerinde hem doğrudan hem de dolaylı bir etkisi bulunmaktadır. Mizaç, çocuğun sosyal etkileşimlerdeki duygusal tepkiselliğini ve duygu düzenlemesini belirleyerek ve ebeveynliği şekillendirerek akran reddinde önemli bir rol oynar (Bates vd., 1991; Parke vd, 2002; Pike 2002).

Boyutlar olarak değerlendirildiğinde, bazı ebeveynlik uygulamalarının akran reddi ile pozitif ilişkili olduğu, bazılarının ise negatif ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur. Ebeveyn kabulü ve davranış kontrolü gibi olumlu ebeveynlik boyutları akran reddi ile olumsuz bir ilişkiye sahipken (Dickson ve diğerleri, 2018; Low ve diğerleri, 2018, Lux ve Walper, 2019; McDowell ve Parke, 2005; Véronneau ve Dishion , 2010), ebeveyn reddi ve psikolojik kontrol gibi olumsuz ebeveynlik uygulamaları akran reddi ile olumlu bir ilişkiye sahiptir (Bullock ve ark., 2018; Dickson ve ark., 2018; Ladd ve Pettit, 2002; Lux ve Walper, 2019; McDowell ve Parke, 2005). Sonuç olarak, mevcut çalışmada ebeveynlik pozitif ve negatif ebeveynliğin ana göstergeleri olan ebeveyn kabulü, davranışsal ve psikolojik kontrol olmak üzere üç boyutta incelenmiştir. Ayrıca ebeveynlik uygulamaları (Muris vd., 2003; Sentse vd., 2010, akran reddi (Bullock vd., 2018; Lux & Walper, 2019; Metin Aslan, 2018) ve ikisi arasındaki ilişkinin (Laible ve Carlo, 2004; McDowell ve Parke, 2005) ebeveynin ve çocuğun cinsiyetine göre farklılaştığı görülmektedir.

1.1. Akran Reddi

Akran reddi bireyi hem fiziksel hem de zihinsel sağlık açısından birçok olumsuz sonuçla karşılaşma riskine sokar (Asher ve Coie, 1990). Örneğin, istikrarlı sosyal desteğin eksikliği ve sosyal uyumsuzluk, kalp ve damar hastalıklarına bağlı ölüm riskini sigara içmek kadar arttırmaktadır (Holt-Lunstad ve ark., 2010). Ayrıca araştırmalar, akran reddinin, sosyal izolasyona öncü olarak şizofreninin gelişimde rol oynama, suça yönelik davranışlar geliştirme, okula uyum sağlamada güçlük, erken yaşta okulu bırakma, dışa vurum ve içe yönelim gibi birçok psikolojik sonuçla ilişkilendirildiğini göstermektedir (Kupersmidt, Coie & Dodge, 1990). Son olarak, çocukların sosyal gelişimi için de zararlıdır. Reddedilen çocukların ilişkisel ve fiziksel akran mağduriyeti ve içe yönelim sorunları açısından yüksek risk altında

oldukları (Metin Aslan, 2018; Crick ve Grotpeter, 1996) ve bunun ileride daha fazla akran reddi riski oluşturduğu (örn., Hannish ve Guerra, 2002) tespit edilmiştir.

Bu bilgiler ışığında akran reddinin öncüllerinin araştırılması önleme ve müdahale çalışmaları açısından önemlidir. İlk sosyal çevre olan aile, akran reddinin yordayıcıları hakkında önemli bir bilgi kaynağıdır. Bu temelde, mevcut çalışma, ebeveynlik boyutları ile akran reddi arasındaki ilişkileri ve bu ilişkilerin çocuğun mizaç özellikleri tarafından nasıl düzenlendiğini incelemektedir.

1.2. Ebeveynlik ve Akran Reddi

1.1.1. Ebeveyn Kabulü

Ebeveyn kabulü, ebeveynlerin sıcaklığı, şefkati, sevgisi, ilgisi, rahatlığı, desteği veya bakımı ile tanımlanır (Khaleque, 2015) ve birçok olumlu sonuçla ilişkilendirilerek çocuğun sosyal gelişimini destekler. Çalışmalar, ebeveyn kabulü ile olumlu sosyal davranışlar (Davidov & Grusec, 2006; Putnick vd., 2018; Zarra-Nezhad vd., 2018), sosyal yeterlilik (Rohner, 2021), sosyal beceriler (Peixoto vd., 2022), duygu düzenleme (Davidov ve Grusec, 2006), sosyal problem çözme becerileri (Tepeli ve Yılmaz, 2013) ve akran kabulü (Davidov ve Grusec, 2006; Greenberg vd., 1983, Sentse vd., 2010) gibi sosyal uyum göstergeleri arasında olumlu ilişkiler olduğunu göstermektedir. Bu çalışma ebeveynlik ve akran reddi arasındaki ilişki ile sınırlı olsa da bu bulgular ebeveyn kabulünün çocuğun sosyal gelişimi için önemli olduğunu göstermektedir. Ek olarak, ebeveyn kabulü ve akran reddi arasındaki ilişkide cinsiyetin önemli bir rolü vardır (örn., Gülay & Önder, 2011; Sentse vd., 2010). Bu nedenle, ebeveyn kabulü ve akran reddi arasındaki ilişkide cinsiyetin rolünü tespit etmek amacıyla bu ilişkiler her ebeveyn-cocuk ikilisinde ayrı ayrı incelenmistir.

1.2.2. Ebeveyn Kontrolü

Ebeveynler, koruma veya kuralları öğretme gibi nedenlerle çocuklarını denetlemeye çalışırlar. Bazı ebeveynler kontrol etme yöntemlerine diğerlerinden daha fazla başvurmaktadır ve çocukların sosyal gelişimi de bundan farklı şekillerde etkilenmektedir (Isley, O'Neil & Parke, 1996; Isley vd., 1999, aktaran McDowell & Parke, 2005).

Davranışsal kontrol, ebeveynlerin çocuğun davranışını tutarlı ve mantıklı kurallarla düzenleme girişimlerini ifade ederken (Shaffer ve Kipp, 2007), psikolojik kontrol sevgiyi geri çekme, utandırma, suçlama, çocuğun duygularını geçersiz kılma yolları ile çocuğun davranışlarını kontrol etme girişimlerini ifade eder (Barber, 1996). Davranışsal kontrol, sosyal ve akademik yeterlilik gibi istenen sonuçlarla ilişkilendirilirken psikolojik kontrol, içe yönelim, davranış sorunları ve sakıncalı arkadaşlıklar kurma gibi olumsuz sonuçlarla ilişkilidir (Shaffer ve Kipp, 2007). Davranışsal ve psikolojik kontrol, akran reddi açısından birbirine ters şekillerde işlemektedir. Örneğin, davranışsal kontrol yöntemi olan izlemenin akran kabulü ile olumlu bir ilişkisi olduğu bulunmuştur (Stattin & Kerr, 2000; Véronneau ve Dishion, 2010). Öte yandan, psikolojik kontrol uygulamaları ile akran reddi arasında pozitif bir ilişki bulunmaktadır (Bullock vd., 2018; Ladd ve Küçük, 2002). Bu bilgiler doğrultusunda, davranışsal kontrolün akran reddini olumsuz, psikolojik kontrolün ise olumlu yönde yordaması beklenmektedir.

1.3. Duyusal Hassasiyet Mizaç Özelliği

Mizaç, bireyin çevresine olan tepkilerini şekillendiren biyolojik eğilim olarak tanımlanır (Rothbart & Bates, 1998). Duyusal hassasiyet, mizaç çalışmaları açısından görece yeni bir yaklaşım olarak ortaya çıkmıştır (Aron & Aron, 1997) ve kişinin içsel (ağrı, açlık) ve dışsal (ses, ışık, ısı), olumlu veya olumsuz uyaranlara karşı bilişsel duyarlılığını belirleyen kalıtsal bir mizaç belirtecidir (Aron, Aron ve Jagiellowicz, 2012). Duyusal hassasiyeti yüksek kişiler, düşük algı eşikleri nedeniyle fiziksel ve duygusal uyaranlara yoğun tepki verme eğilimindedir. Sonuç olarak, bireylerin çevrenin hem olumlu hem de olumsuz yönlerinden farklı şekilde etkilendiğini öne süren Ayırıcı Duyarlılık Kuramı doğrultusunda, olumlu ebeveynlikten daha fazla yararlanabilirken olumsuz ebeveynlikten de daha fazla zarar görebilmektedirler (Slagt, Dubas, van Aken, Ellis & Deković, 2018; Belsky, 1997).

Duyusal hassasiyet ilk başta ikili, tek boyutlu bir yapı olarak incelense de (Aron ve diğerleri, 2012) daha sonra farklı faktör yapıları önerilmiştir. Yakın bir zamanda, Boterberg ve Warreyn (2016) işleme derinliği ve uyaranlara karşı aşırı tepkisellikten oluşan iki faktörlü bir yapı önermiş ve bu yapıyı açımlayıcı ve doğrulayıcı faktör analizleri ile desteklemişlerdir. Bu çalışmayı da bünyesinde bulunduran Türkiye

Aile, Çocuk ve Ergen Projesi (TAÇEP, TÜBİTAK Projeleri, t.y.) kapsamında yapılan doğrulayıcı faktör analizleri de aynı yapıyı doğrulamaktadır. Bu nedenle, mevcut çalışmada duyusal hassasiyetin düzenleyici rolü, işleme derinliği ve uyaranlara karşı aşırı tepkisellik alt faktörleri olarak ayrı ayrı incelenmiştir.

İşleme derinliği, bir organizmanın çevredeki değişikliklere karşı bilişsel duyarlılığıdır ve kişiyi yeni durumlar karşısında daha dikkatli yapar, dolayısıyla daha yerinde eylemlerde bulunma olanağı sağlar. Başkalarının duygularına karşı farkındalık ve empati kurma becerileri sağlaması sebebiyle sosyal ilişkilerde avantajlı olabilir. Uyaranlara karşı aşırı tepkisellik ise, düşük algı eşiği nedeniyle iç ve dış uyaranlara duyarlılığı ifade eder, bu da kişinin yoğunluk ve süre bakımından daha büyük tepkiler göstermesi anlamına gelir. Uyaranlara karşı aşırı tepkisellik, üzüntü, öfke gibi duyguların daha yoğun deneyimlenmesine yol açabileceği için anlaşmazlık durumlarında dezavantaj yaratabilir. Sosyal ilişkiler açısından, işleme derinliği ve uyaranlara karşı aşırı tepkisellik arasındaki olası farklılıklar, düzenleyici rollerinin ayrı ayrı incelenmesinin makul olduğunu göstermektedir.

Ebeveynlik ve çocukların sosyal uyumu arasındaki ilişkide duyusal hassasiyetin düzenleyici rolünü inceleyen çalışmalar az olsa da daha önce de belirtildiği gibi, akran reddi ile diğer sosyal uyum göstergeleri arasında güçlü ilişkiler vardır ve bu göstergeler ile ebeveynlik uygulamaları arasındaki ilişkilerin duyusal hassasiyet tarafından düzenlendiğini gösteren çalışmalar bulunmaktadır. Örneğin, Slagt ve meslektaşları (2018), duyusal hassasiyeti orta veya yüksek olan çocukların olumsuz ebeveynlik uygulamaları arttıkça daha fazla dışa vurum sorunları gösterdiğini, olumlu ebeveynlik deneyimlediklerinde ise daha az dışa vurum sorunları yaşadıklarını bulmuştur.

1.4. Mevcut Çalışma ve Hipotezler

Bu çalışma her ebeveyn-çocuk ikilisi için, anne ve babadan algılanan kabul, davranışsal ve psikolojik kontrol ile çocuk ve ergenlerin akran reddi arasındaki ilişkide duyusal hassasiyetin düzenleyici rolünü araştırmaktadır.

1. Çalışmanın ilk amacı, çocuk ve ergenlerin algıladıkları ebeveynlik uygulamaları (kabul, davranışsal ve psikolojik kontrol) ile akran reddi arasındaki ilişkileri

incelemektir. Her iki ebeveynden algılanan **1a**) ebeveyn kabulünün akran reddi ile negatif, **1b**) davranışsal kontrolün akran reddi ile negatif ve **1c**) psikolojik kontrolün akran reddi ile pozitif ilişkili olacağı beklenmektedir.

- 2. İkinci amaç, çocuğun duyusal hassasiyetinin ebeveynlik uygulamaları ve akran reddi arasındaki ilişkide düzenleyici rolünü incelemektir. İşleme derinliğinin ve uyaranlara karşı aşırı tepkiselliğin düzenleyici rolleri ayrı ayrı araştırılmıştır. 2a) İşleme derinliğinin ve 2b) uyaranlara karşı aşırı tepkiselliğin ebeveynlik uygulamaları ile akran reddi arasındaki olumlu veya olumsuz ilişkileri güçlendirmesi hipotez edilmiştir.
- **3.** Üçüncü amaç, cinsiyetin ebeveynlik uygulamaları ve akran reddi deneyimleri arasındaki çocuğun duyusal hassasiyeti tarafından düzenlenen ilişkide bir rol oynayıp oynamadığını keşif amaçlı incelemektir.
- **4.** Son olarak, ebeveynlik davranışları ve akran reddi algıları bakımından kız ve oğlan çocukları arasındaki farklılıkların incelenmesi amaçlanmıştır. Kızların oğlanlara kıyasla **4a**) her iki ebeveynden daha yüksek düzeyde kabul algılaması ve **4b**) daha az akran reddi bildirmesi beklenmiştir. Davranışsal ve psikolojik kontrol algıları keşifsel olarak incelenmiştir.

Cinsiyete göre her ebeveyn-çocuk ikilisinde, ebeveynlik uygulamaları ve akran reddi arasındaki ilişkide işleme derinliği ve uyaranlara karşı aşırı tepkiselliğin düzenleyici rollerini araştırmak amacıyla 8 yol analizi yapılmıştır (1.-3. amaçlar). Dördüncü amaç ise tek yönlü ANOVA'lar ile incelenmiştir.

2. YÖNTEM

2.1. Katılımcılar

Bu çalışma TÜBİTAK tarafından desteklenen ve ülke çapında yürütülen TAÇEP kapsamında yapılmıştır. Çalışmaya Türkiye'nin 54 şehrinden 5-11 arasındaki sınıflara giden 3176 öğrenci (*Nkız* = 1741, *Noğlan* = 1435) ve anneleri (*Ortyaş*= 39.98, *SS*= 5.47) katılmıştır. Anne ebeveynliğinde olduğu gibi babaların ebeveynlikleriyle ilgili bilgiler çocuk anketleri aracılığıyla elde edilmiştir. Demografik bilgileri ise anneler tarafından verilmiştir. Baba sorularını cevaplayan

öğrenciler temel alındığında, babaların toplam örneklem büyüklüğü 2982'dir (Ortyaş = 44.14, SS = 5.86).

2.2. Ölçekler

Algılanan ebeveynlik uygulamalarını değerlendiren ölçekler çocuklar ve ergenler tarafından doldurulmuştur. Her ebeveynlik ölçeği için anne ve babalar için ayrı formlar verilmiştir. Çocuğun mizacını değerlendiren Yüksek Duyarlı Kişi Ölçeği sadece anneler tarafından doldurulmuş olup akran reddine ilişkin bilgi çocuklardan alınmıştır.

2.3.1. Demografik Bilgiler

Annelere, aile yapısı, aile bireylerinin yaşları, eğitim durumu, çalışma durumu, sosyoekonomik düzeyi, yaşam koşulları, annenin ve diğer aile üyelerinin genel sağlık durumları, ekonomik güçlükleri ve aile içi durumları ile ilgili sorulardan oluşan demografik bir form verilmiştir. Çocuklar da doğum tarihleri, yaşları, sınıfları, kardeş sayıları, algılanan ekonomik durumları ve babalarıyla ilişkilerinin derecesi ile ilgili sorulardan oluşan bir form doldurmuştur.

2.3.2. Ebeveyn Kabul-Reddi

Rohner ve ark. (1978, aktaran Rohner & Khaleque, 2005) tarafından geliştirilen ve Anjel (1993) ile Varan (2003) tarafından Türkçeye uyarlanan Ebeveyn Kabul ve Ret Ölçeği 4'lü Likert tipinde 24 maddeden ve 4 alt boyuttan (sıcaklık, saldırganlık/düşmanlık, ihmalkarlık/duyarsızlık ve ayrışmamış reddetme) oluşmaktadır. Hem anne hem baba için çocuk ve ergenlere sorulmuştur.

Bu çalışmada saldırganlık/düşmanlık, ihmalkarlık/duyarsızlık ve ayrışmamış reddetme alt boyutlarının değerleri ters çevrilip sıcaklık alt boyutlara eklenerek toplam ebeveyn kabul skoru oluşturulmuştur (Rohner & Ali, 2020). Ebeveyn kabulü için iç tutarlılık kat sayıları orijinal çalışmalarda .72 ile .90 arasında değişmektedir. Mevcut çalışmada ise anneler için .90, babalar için .91 olarak bulunmuştur.

2.3.3. Psikolojik Kontrol

Barber (1996) tarafıdan geliştirilen ve Sayıl ve ark.(2012) tarafında Türkçeye uyarlanan Psikolojik Kontrol Ölçeği-Çocuk Formu 4'lü Likert tipinde 10 maddeden oluşmaktadır. Hem anne hem baba için çocuk ve ergenlere sorulmuştur. Mevcut çalışmada iç tutarlılık kat sayıları ise anneler için .81, babalar için .80 olarak bulunmuştur.

2.3.4. Davranışsal Kontrol

Algılanan ebeveyn davranışsal kontrolü Kerr ve Stattin (2000) tarafından geliştirilen ve TAÇEP kapsamında çeviri-geri çeviri yöntemi ile Türkçeye çevrilen Ebeveyn İzleme ve Bilgi Ölçeği'nin izleme (9 madde) ve çocuğun kendini açması (7 madde) alt boyutları kullanılarak ölçülmüştür ve mevcut çalışmada toplam skor kullanılmıştır. Ölçek 4'lü Likert tipinde anne ve babalar için ayrı ayrı olmak üzere çocuk ve ergenlere sorulmuştur. Bu çalışmada iç tutarlılık kat sayıları anneler için .87, babalar için .88 olarak bulunmuştur.

2.3.5. Akran Reddi

Harter (1985) tarafından geliştirilen ve Erel-Gözağaç ve Berument (2016) tarafından Türkçeye uyarlanan Akran Kabul-Reddi Ölçeği'nin akran reddi alt boyutu kullanılmıştır. Bu alt boyut 4'lü Likert tipinde 6 maddeden oluşmaktadır. Orijinal çalışmada akran reddinin iç tutarlılık kat sayısı .72 iken, mevcut çalışmada orta okul öğrencileri için .84, lise öğrencileri için .87 olarak bulunmuştur.

2.3.6. Duyusal Hassasiyet

Aron (2002) tarafından geliştirilen ve TAÇEP kapsamında çeviri-geri çeviri yöntemi ile Türkçeye çevrilen Highly Sensitive Person Scale çocuk formu 5'li Likert tipinde 22 madde ve iki alt boyuttan (işleme derinliği ve uyaranlara karşı aşırı tepkisellik) oluşmaktadır. Ölçekte ters madde bulunmamaktadır. Anneler tarafından çocukların duyusal hassasiyetini ölçmek için doldurulmuştur.

Ana projede kullanılmadan önce ölçeğin güvenirliği pilot çalışma yapılarak test edilmiştir. Doğrulayıcı faktör analizleri işleme derinliği (12 madde, α = .82) ve

uyaranlara karşı aşırı tepkisellik (7 madde, α = .61) olmak üzere iki faktörlü bir yapı ortaya koymuştur ($\alpha toplam$ = .81). Daha sonra TAÇEP kapsamında toplanan veri ile yapılan açımlayıcı ve doğrulayıcı analizler sonucunda ölçeğin iki faktörlü yapısı doğrulanmıştır (işleme derinliği, 13 madde; uyaranlara karşı aşırı tepkisellik, 9 madde). Bu analizlerde iç tutarlılık kat sayıları alt boyutlar için sırasıyla .83 ve .67 ve toplam skor için .84 olarak bulunmuştur.

2.3. İşlem

Etik izin ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu'ndan, resmi izin Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı'ndan alınmıştır. Veriler Ege, Boğaziçi ve Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitelerinden araştırmacılar tarafından, Qualtrics aracılığıyla toplanmıştır.

3. BULGULAR

3.1. Korelasyon Analizleri

Anne-kız ve baba-kız ikililerinde akran reddinin uyaranlara karşı aşırı tepkisellik ve psikolojik kontrol ile olumlu; annenin algıladığı ekonomik durum, çocuk yaşı, işleme derinliği, ebeveyn kabulü ve davranışsal kontrol ile olumsuz ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur. Yine aynı ikililerde ebeveyn kabulü ile ekonomik durum, toplam duyusal hassasiyet, işleme derinliği ve davranışsal kontrol arasında olumlu; çocuk yaşı ve psikolojik kontrol ile olumsuz bir ilişki çıkmıştır. Ek olarak, anne-kız ikililerinde ebeveyn kabulü ve uyaranlara karşı aşırı tepkisellik arasında olumsuz bir ilişki bulunmuştur. Bu ikililerde davranışsal kontrol ve diğer değişkenler arasındaki ilişkiler incelendiğinde, davranışsal kontrol ile toplam duyusal hassasiyet ve işleme derinliği arasında olumlu; psikolojik kontrol ile olumsuz ilişkiler bulunmuştur. Ayrıca, davranıssal kontrol baba-kız ikilerinde çocuğun yaşı ile olumsuz ilişkili çıkmıştır. Aynı ebeveyn-çocuk ikililerinde psikolojik kontrol ve çocuk yaşı arasında olumlu, psikolojik kontrol ve işleme derinliği arasında olumsuz bir ilişki olduğu görülmüştür. Farklı olarak, anne-kız ikililerinde psikolojik kontrolün uyaranlara karşı aşırı tepkisellik ile olumlu, ekonomik durum ile olumsuz ilişkili olduğu çıkmıştır. Duyusal hassasiyetin anne-kız ve baba-kız ikililerinde diğer değişkenlerle korelasyonlarına bakıldığında, birbirileriyle de olumlu ilişkiye sahip işleme derinliği ve uyaranlara karşı aşırı hassasiyet ile olumlu ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur. Bu ikililerde uyaranlara karşı aşırı tepkisellik ayrıca ekonomik durum ile olumsuz yönde

ilişkili çıkmıştır. Baba-kız ikililerinde farklı olarak çocuk yaşı ve ekonomik durum arasında da olumlu bir ilişki tespit edilmiştir.

Anne-oğul ve baba-oğul ikililerinde akran reddinin diğer değişkenlerle ilişkisi incelendiğinde, diğerlerinden farklı olarak akran reddi ve işleme derinliği arasında olumlu bir ilişki olduğu, akran reddi ve ekonomik durum arasında ise anlamlı bir ilişki olmadığı bulunmuştur. Diğer ilişkiler aynıdır. Yine aynı ikililerde anne-kız ve baba-kız ikililerine paralel olarak ebeveyn kabulü ile ekonomik durum, toplam duyusal hassasiyet, işleme derinliği ve davranışsal kontrol arasında olumlu bir ilişki çıkarken; ebeveyn kabulü, çocuk yaşı ve psikolojik kontrol ile olumsuz ilişkili çıkmıştır. Bu ikililerde davranışsal kontrol ve diğer değişkenler arasındaki ilişkiler incelendiğinde, davranışsal kontrol ile işleme derinliği arasında olumlu; çocuk yaşı ve psikolojik kontrol ile olumsuz ilişkiler bulunmuştur. Ek olarak, baba-oğul ikililerinde toplam duyusal hassasiyet ile davranışsal kontrol olumlu ilişkili çıkmıştır. Psikolojik kontrolün diğer değişkenlerle ilişkisi incelendiğinde, yalnızca anne-oğul ikililerinde işleme derinliği ile psikolojik kontrol arasında olumsuz bir ilişki olduğu görülmüştür. Duyusal hassasiyetin aynı ikililerde diğer değişkenlerle korelasyonlarına bakıldığında, anne-kız ve baba-kız ikilileri ile paralel sonuçlar bulunmuştur. Son olarak, oğlan çocuklarının her iki ebeveynle olan ilişkisinde çocuk yaşı ve ekonomik durum arasında olumlu bir ilişki tespit edilmiştir.

3.2. Tek Yönlü ANOVA Bulguları

Sonuçlara göre, orta okul öğrencileri lise öğrencilerinden daha fazla akran reddi bildirmektedir. Ayrıca, 11. sınıflar diğer tüm sınıflara kıyasla daha az, 5. Sınıflar 7., 8., 9., 10. ve 11. sınıflara kıyasla daha çok, 6. sınıflar da 9., 10., ve 11. sınıflara kıyasla daha çok akran reddi deneyimlemektedir. Katılımcılar arasında, yaşadıkları istatiksel bölge bakımından bir farklılık bulunmamaktadır. Çalışmanın 4. amacı doğrultusunda yürütülen analiz sonuçlarına göre, kız çocukları oğlan çocuklarına kıyasla daha fazla akran reddi ve anne davranışsal kontrolü ile daha az anne kabulü bildirmiştir. Baba ebeveynliği açısından bir fark bulunmamıştır.

3.3. Yol Analizleri

3.3.1. Model 1a: Anne-kız ikilileri, işleme derinliğinin düzenleyici rolü

Akran reddinin anne kabulü tarafından olumsuz yönde, psikolojik kontrol tarafından ise olumlu yönde yordandığı görülmüştür. Ek olarak annenin algıladığı ekonomik durum ve çocuğun yaşı akran reddini olumsuz yönde yordamıştır.

3.1.2. Model 1b: Anne-kız ikilileri, *uyaranlara karşı aşırı tepkiselliğin* düzenlevici rolü

Akran reddi anne kabulü, ekonomik durum ve çocuk yaşı tarafından olumsuz yönde, psikolojik kontrol ve uyaranlara karşı aşırı tepkisellik tarafından ise olumlu yönde yordanmıştır. Ayrıca çocuğun uyaranlara karşı aşırı tepkiselliği düşükken annenin davranışsal kontrolü akran reddini olumsuz yönde yordarken, uyaranlara karşı tepkisellik orta düzeyde veya yüksekken davranışsal kontrol ile akran reddi arasında anlamlı bir ilişki olmadığı görülmüştür.

3.1.3. Model 2a: Anne-oğul ikilileri, işleme derinliğinin düzenleyici rolü

Akran reddi anne kabulü, davranışsal kontrol ve çocuk yaşı tarafından olumsuz yönde, psikolojik kontrol tarafından ise olumlu yönde yordanmıştır. Ayrıca, işleme derinliği arttıkça annenin psikolojik kontrolü ve oğlan çocuklarının akran reddi deneyimleri arasındaki olumlu ilişki güçlenmiştir.

3.1.4. Model 2b: Anne-oğul ikilileri, *uyaranlara karşı aşırı tepkiselliğin* düzenlevici rolü

Akran reddinin anne kabulü, davranışsal kontrol ve çocuk yaşı tarafından olumsuz yönde, psikolojik kontrol ve uyaranlara karşı aşırı tepkisellik tarafından ise olumlu yönde yordandığı bulunmuştur.

3.1.5. Model 3a: Baba-kız ikilileri, işleme derinliğinin düzenleyici rolü

Akran reddinin baba kabulü, çocuğun işleme derinliği, ekonomik durum ve çocuk yaşı tarafından olumsuz yönde, babanın psikolojik kontrolü tarafından ise olumlu yönde yordandığı bulunmuştur.

3.1.6. Model 3b: Baba-kız ikilileri, *uyaranlara karşı aşırı tepkiselliğin* düzenleyici rolü

Akran reddi baba kabulü, çocuğun uyaranlara karşı aşırı tepkiselliği, ekonomik durum ve çocuk yaşı tarafından olumsuz yönde, babanın psikolojik kontrolü tarafından ise olumlu yönde yordanmıştır.

3.1.7. Model 4a: Baba-oğul ikilileri, işleme derinliğinin düzenleyici rolü

Akran reddini yalnızca babadan algılanan kabul (olumsuz yönde), psikolojik kontrol (olumlu yönde) ve çocuğun yaşının (olumsuz yönde) yordadığı bulunmuştur.

3.1.8. Model 4b: Baba-oğul ikilileri, *uyaranlara karşı aşırı tepkiselliğin* düzenleyici rolü

Akran reddi baba kabulü ve çocuğun yaşı tarafından olumsuz, babanın psikolojik kontrolü ve uyaranlara karşı aşırı tepkisellik tarafından olumlu yönde yordanmıştır.

4. TARTIŞMA

4.1. Bulguların Yorumlanması

4.1.1. Ebeveynlik Uygulamaları ve Akran Reddi

Bulgular, alanyazınla uyumlu bir şekilde, çocuk ve ergenlerin akran reddinin, her iki ebeveynin düşük kabul düzeyleri (Davidov ve Grusec, 2006) ve yüksek psikolojik kontrol düzeyleri (Ladd ve Pettit, 2002) tarafından yordandığını göstermiştir. Öte yandan, anne-oğul ikilileri hariç davranışsal kontrol ve akran reddi arasında anlamlı bir ilişki çıkmamıştır. Bunun nedeni ebeveyn-çocuk ilişkileri eşit olmayan statü ile karakterizeyken, akran ilişkilerinin eşit statü ile karakterize olması olabilir. Akranların birbirlerinin davranışlarını kontrol etme girişimlerinin ebeveynlere göre daha az olması beklenir. Yine de annenin davranışsal kontrolü oğlan çocuklarının akran reddini olumsuz yönde yordamaktadır. Bu durum, ebeveynlerin kontrol yöntemlerinin çocukların ahlaki gelişimindeki rolü ile ilgili olabilir.

Anne babalar çocuklarının ahlaki gelişimini üç ana disiplin biçimi kullanarak etkilemektedir: sevgiyi geri çekme, güç kullanma ve akıl yürütme (davranışın neden yanlış olduğunu ve diğerlerini nasıl etkileyebileceğini açıklama). İlk ikisi zorlayıcı

ebeveynliğin göstergeleriyken (Asher & Coie, 1990), akıl yürütme, davranışsal kontrol gibi olumlu ebeveynlik uygulamasıdır. Bu disiplinin, sempatiyi ve başkalarını önemsemeyi artıracağı ve ahlaki kuralların içselleştirilmesini sağlayacağı gösterilmiştir (Shaffer & Kipp, 2007). Akran bağlamında başkalarına zarar vermek, kötü ahlak olarak değerlendirilmektedir. Fiziksel veya sözlü saldırganlık biçimleri oğlanlar arasında daha yaygındır (Shaffer ve Kipp, 2007). Bu nedenle, ebeveynleri davranışsal kontrol ve açıklayıcı akıl yürütme gibi yöntemler kullanan oğlanlar (Burleson, 1983; Hart, Ladd, G, & Burleson, 1990; Ladd & Pettit, 2002) sosyal açıdan daha çok yeterlilik gösterebilir (Hart vd., 1990). Ayrıca çocuğunun nerede olduğunu ve sosyal ilişkilerini bilen ebeveynlerin, çocuğun sosyal ilişkilerine zarar verebilecek davranışlarına müdahale etme şansı daha yüksektir. Gelecek çalışmalar, davranışsal kontrol ve akran reddi arasındaki ilişkide açıklayıcı akıl yürütmenin aracı rolünü araştırabilir.

4.1.2. Duyusal Hassasiyetin Düzenleyici Rolü

Anne-oğul ikililerinde işleme derinliği arttıkça annenin psikolojik kontrolü ile akran reddi arasındaki olumlu ilişkinin güçlendiği ve anne-kız ikililerinde uyaranlara karşı aşırı tepkisellik artıkça annenin davranışsal kontrolü ile akran reddi arasındaki anlamlı olumsuz ilişkinin ortadan kalktığı bulunmuştur. Çocuğun duyusal hassasiyet göstergeleri ile akran reddi arasındaki doğrudan ilişkilere bakıldığındaysa uyaranlara karşı aşırı tepkisellik ile akran reddi arasında her ikilide olumlu bir ilişki çıkarken, işleme derinliği yalnızca baba-kız ilişkilerinde olumsuz ilişkili çıkmıştır. Buna göre, işleme derinliği Ayırıcı Duyarlılık Kuramı ile uyumlu şekilde sonuç verirken uyaranlara karşı aşırı tepkiselliğin çocuğun akran reddi için risk teşkil etmesi olasıdır.

Ortaya çıkan cinsiyet farklılıkları kadın ve erkeklerden beklenen toplumsal cinsiyet rollerinden kaynaklı olabilir (Thompson & Bennett, 2015; Sakallı-Uğurlu, Türkoğlu, & Kuzlak, 2018). Çocuklar erken yaşta toplumsal cinsiyet rollerini anlama ve onlara uyma eğilimindedirler. Bu rollere aykırı biçimde hareket edildiğinde hoşgörüsüz davranabilmektedirler (Shaffer & Kipp, 2007). Buna göre, uyaranlara karşı aşırı tepkiselliği yüksek kızlar ve işleme derinliği yüksek oğlanlar toplumsal cinsiyet rollerine aykırı görülüp dışlanıyor olabilir. Bunu test etmek için nitel yöntemler

kullanılarak uyaranlara karşı aşırı tepkiselliği yüksek kızlar ve işleme derinliği yüksek oğlanların kişilik özellikleri araştırılabilir.

4.1.3. Ebeveynlik Uygulamaları ve Akran Reddi Bakımından Cinsiyet Farklılıkları

Kızların oğlanlara kıyasla annelerinden daha az kabul algıladıkları bulunmuştur. Bu durum, Türkiye'de çocukların maddi değerinin devam etmesinden kaynaklanmış olabilir. Modernleşme teorisi, sanayileşme ile yaşanan sosyoekonomik gelişmeler sayesinde çocuğa verilen maddi değerin azalıp psikososyal değerinin arttığını öne sürmektedir. Bu, ebeveynlerin çocuklarının cinsiyetiyle ilgili tercihlerini de etkilemektedir. Çocuğun maddi bir değere sahip olduğu toplumlarda, oğlanlar çalışıp ailenin geçimine katkıda bulunduğu için kızlardan daha çok tercih edilmekteyken kocasının ailesine hizmet etmesi beklenen kızlar daha az tercih edilmektedir (Kağıtçıbaşı ve Ataca, 2005).

Türkiye bu değişimlerden muaf olmasa da (Kağıtçıbaşı & Ataca, 2005) farklı aile yapıları ve sosyoekonomik çeşitlilik açısından zengin bir ülkedir. Hatta, tarımın yoğun olduğu doğuda çocuğun maddi değeri daha fazlayken, endüstrileşmenin daha fazla görüldüğü batıda psikososyal değeri daha fazladır (Beşpınar, 2014). Bu çalışmanın bulguları çocuğun maddi değerinin devam ediyor olabileceğine veya geriye dönüş olabileceğine işaret etmektedir.

Akran reddi bakımından bulunan cinsiyet farklılıkları kız çocuklarının oğlan çocuklarına göre daha fazla akran reddi deneyimlediğini göstermektedir. Ebeveyn kabulü ile akran reddi arasındaki olumsuz ilişki göz önünde bulundurulduğunda, bunun sebebi kız çocuklarının annelerinden daha az kabul algılaması olabilir.

4.1.4. Çocuk Yaşı ve Ekonomik Durum

Çocuklar büyüdükçe sosyal becerileri artmakta ve olumlu sosyal ilişkiler kurmaları kolaylaşmaktadır (Ross, Kim, Tolan, & Jennings, 2019). Alanyazınla uyumlu olarak her ebeveyn-çocuk ikilisinde çocuğun yaşı arttıkça akran reddinin azaldığı bulunmuştur.

Annelerin algıladığı ekonomik durum ise yalnızca kızların akran reddi ile negatif ilişkili çıkmıştır. Bu durum, kız (ailelerinin ekonomik durumu, maddi yatırım gerektiren fiziksel görünüşleri, sosyal beceri ve akademik başarı) ve oğlanların (fiziksel beceri, sert ve havalı duruş, sosyal beceri ve karşı cinsle ilişkilenme) farklı kriterlere göre popüler olmasından kaynaklanıyor olabilir (Adler, Kless, & Adler, 1992).

4.2. Çalışmanın Katkıları, Sınırlılıkları ve Gelecek Çalışmalar

Mevcut çalışmanın alanyazına önemli katkıları bulunmaktadır. Öncelikle akran reddinin ebeveyn kabulü ile negatif, psikolojik kontrol ile pozitif ilişkisi bir kez daha ortaya konmuştur. İkinci olarak, ebeveynlik ve akran reddi arasındaki ilişkide çocuğun duyusal hassasiyetinin alt boyutlarının cinsiyete göre farklı düzenleyici rolleri bulunmuştur. Üçüncüsü, ekonomik durum ile kızların akran reddi arasındaki anlamlı ilişki, akran reddini yordayan bağlamsal faktörler açısından cinsiyet farklılıkları olduğunu göstermiştir. Dördüncüsü, babaların ebeveynliğinin de çocuğun akran reddi açısından önemli bir etken olduğu bulunmuştur. Beşincisi, kızların algıladığı ebeveyn kabulünün oğlanlara göre daha yüksek olduğu Batı'ya kıyasla, Türkiye bağlamında tam tersi bir ilişki olabileceği gösterilmiştir.

Mevcut çalışmanın çeşitli sınırlılıkları da bulunmaktadır. Öncelikle, bu çalışmada çocuğun sosyal yeterliliği, sosyal etkileşimler sırasındaki duygu ve düşünceleri, duygu düzenleme becerileri gibi içe yönelik özellikleri hesaba katılmamıştır. Gelecek çalışmalar bunları da dahil ederek daha bütüncül bir tablo ortaya koyabilirler. Özellikle uyaranlara karşı aşırı tepkiselliğin çocuğun akran ilişkileri açısından risk oluşturması olası göründüğünden duygu düzenleme becerileri koruyucu bir etkiye sahip olabileceği için müdahale çalışmaları açısından araştırmaya değerdir. Bir başka sınırlılık ise verinin bölgeler, okullar ve sınıflar ile içi içe geçmiş olmasıdır. Akran reddinin okul ortamında gerçekleştiği düşünülürse, verinin toplandığı ortamın etkisi çok düzeyli model analizi kullanılarak araştırılmalıdır (Olweus & Limber, 2010). Son olarak bu çalışmanın bulguları nedensellik sunmamaktadır. Bu sebeple boylamsal çalışmalar yapılmasına ihtiyaç vardır.

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