

THE EFFECTS OF PARENTAL ACCEPTANCE –  
REJECTION/CONTROL ON PERSONALITY AND  
PSYCHOPATHOLOGY:  
MEDIATOR ROLE OF PRONENESS TO SHAME AND GUILT

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## **ABSTRACT**

### THE EFFECTS OF PARENTAL ACCEPTANCE – REJECTION/CONTROL ON PERSONALITY AND PSYCHOPATHOLOGY: MEDIATOR ROLE OF PRONENESS TO SHAME AND GUILT

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Although shame and guilt are considered to be functional in interpersonal relationships, both emotions can be painful and debilitating. It was suggested that parental attitudes are likely to induce the feelings of shame and guilt. The aims of the present study were, thus, to investigate the mediator roles of proneness to shame and guilt on the relationship between parental acceptance and psychopathology and personality. The five hundred eighty nine students filled the package of questionnaire including a demographic information form, Parental Acceptance–Rejection/Control Questionnaire, Test of Self-Conscious Emotion–3 (Short Form), Basic Personality Traits Inventory, and Brief Symptom Inventory. According to the results of various mediation tests revealed that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the relationship with maternal and paternal rejection for extraversion and neuroticism. For conscientiousness and agreeableness, guilt-proneness was found as a more influential mediator on the relationship with maternal and paternal rejection. Furthermore, the relationship between paternal rejection and openness to experience and the relationship between maternal rejection and negative valence were mediated equally by proneness to shame and guilt feelings. Shame-proneness was found to be a stronger mediator between maternal rejection and openness to experiences while guilt-proneness mediated the relationship between paternal rejection and negative valence more strongly. Lastly, on the maternal rejection – psychopathology relationship, shame-proneness was stronger, while shame- and guilt-proneness did not differ on the paternal rejection – psychopathology relationship. These findings

were discussed on the light of the related literature findings. Lastly, limitations, clinical implications and future suggestions were noted.

**Keywords:** Parental Rejection, Shame-Proneness, Guilt-Proneness, Personality, Psychopathology

## ÖZ

### EBEVEYN KABUL – RET/KONTROL ALGISININ KİŞİLİK VE PSİKOPATOLOJİ ÜZERİNDEKİ ETKİLERİ: SUÇLULUK VE UTANCA YATKINLIĞIN ARACI ROLÜ

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Her ne kadar suçluluk ve utanç duygularının kişilerarası ilişkilerde işlevsel bir rolü olduğu düşünülse de bu iki duygu aynı zamanda oldukça acı verici ve zayıflatıcı olabilmektedir. Önceki bulgular, ebeveyn tutumlarının utanç ve suçluluk duygularının gelişiminde rol oynayabileceğini ortaya koymaktadır. Bu bağlamda, bu çalışma, ebeveyn kabul – ret algısının kişilik gelişimi ve psikopatoloji ile ilişkisinde, utanç ve suçluluğa yatkınlığın aracı değişken rolünü araştırmaktadır. Çalışmada beş yüz seksen dokuz üniversite öğrencisi yer almıştır. Katılımcılar, içerisinde demografik bilgi formu, Ebeveyn Kabul – Reddi/Kontrolü Ölçeği, Moral Duygulanım Testi, Temel Kişilik Özellikleri Ölçeği ve Kısa Semptom Envanteri'nin bulunduğu bir ölçek bataryasını doldurmuştur. Analiz sonuçlarına göre ebeveyn reddinin dışadönüklük ve duygusal denge ile ilişkisinde utanç ve suçluluğa yatkınlık benzer etkiler göstermiştir. Sorumluluk ve uyumluluk ile ilişkide ise suçluluğa yatkınlık, utanca yatkınlığa göre daha güçlü bir aracı rol oynamıştır. Bunlara ek olarak, babadan algılanan ret ve açıklık ile anneden algılanan ret ve olumsuz değerlilik ilişkisinde utanç ve suçluluğa yatkınlık benzer etkiler göstermiştir. Buna karşılık, anneden algılanan ret ve açıklık ilişkisinde utanca yatkınlık, babadan algılanan ret ve olumsuz değerlilik ilişkisinde suçluluğa yatkınlık daha güçlü bir aracı rol oynamıştır. Son olarak, anneden algılanan ret – psikopatoloji ilişkisine utanca yatkınlık daha güçlü bir etki ederken, babadan algılanan ret ve psikopatoloji ilişkisinde her iki duygu benzer etkiler göstermiştir. Tüm bu bulgular ilgili ardalarda tartışılmıştır. Çalışmanın kısıtlılıkları, klinik alana yansımaları ve gelecek çalışmalar için öneriler belirtilmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Ebeveyn Reddi, Utanç, Suçluluk, Kişilik, Psikopatoloji

*To Life*

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

#### **1.1 Parental Attitudes**

##### **1.1.1 Parental Acceptance-Rejection Theory**

Parental Acceptance-Rejection Theory (PARTheory) is developed by Rohner (1986/2000) as a theory of socialization of individuals in quest of major antecedents and consequences of parental acceptance and rejection. There are four classes of issues within three subtheory that the theory focuses on (Rohner, 1986/2000; Rohner, Khaleque, & Cournoyer, 2007):

The first one pertains to the consequences of parental acceptance and rejection in the development of children and the personality styles of adults. For this, the theory searches for whether children, all around the world, regardless of any cultural components, respond to parental rejection in the same way, to what extent the potential effects of parental rejection prolong into the adulthood, and which personality traits can be modified during the process of maturation. Rohner names this portion of the theory as “personality theory”.

Secondly, PARTheory concerns the reasons of tendency of some children for coping better with the aversive effects of parental rejection and withdrawal of love, as compared to those who cannot. This portion focuses on the resilience factors that those children have. Rohner calls this portion of the theory as “coping theory”.

Thirdly, the PARTheory attempts to predict the main antecedents of parental love or love withdrawal. For this, the theory asks why some parents are warmer than others. Lastly, the theory asks how parental acceptance or rejection is related to standing of the parent in the society. For instance, are religious or artistic beliefs and behaviors of individuals associated with the childhood experiences of parental acceptance and rejection? Rohner asks these questions under “the sociocultural systems theory”.

PARTheory deals with how the child perceives his/her parents’ behaviors, attitudes, and feelings instead of actual instances. That’s why PARTheory adopt phenomenological emphasis rather than purely behaviorist approach.

#### **1.1.1.1 Warmth Dimension of Parental Acceptance – Rejection**

In PARTheory, a parent is anyone who gives the primary care to the child. This person may be a grandparent, a relative, or a non-kinsperson as well as the biological parents (Rohner, 2005). According to Rohner (1986/2000), everyone gets warmth and affection from their parents in some degree. That is, everyone experience this on a continuum from a great deal or nearly none. Rohner calls this continuum “warmth dimension” of parenting and places the parental acceptance and rejection at each end of the dimension.

Parental acceptance consists of warmth, affection, care, comfort, nurturance, support, and love. These are expressed physically and/or verbally by parents. Physical expressions involve kissing, hugging, approving glances etc. expression of verbal acceptance include praising, complimenting, saying nice things to or about a child (Rohner, 1986/2000).

At the other end of the continuum takes place parental rejection which simply means absence or withdrawal of parental love or presence of hurtful behaviors and affects. Parental rejection manifests itself in the forms of emotional coldness, hostility and aggression, indifference and neglect, or undifferentiated rejection (Rohner 1986/2000; Rohner, 2005). While hostility and indifference are internal feelings, aggression and neglect are behavioral forms of these internal states. Aggression can manifest itself in symbolic ways, such as angry and rude hand gestures or facial expressions, as well as in physical or verbal forms. As for the neglect, it is expressed when parents do not have enough attention for their children’s needs, concerns, wishes, and interests. It involves physical and psychological non-availability of the parent(s). Lastly, undifferentiated rejection is characterized by the feeling of being unwanted and unloved of the child without any observable behaviors.

#### **1.1.1.2 Personality Subtheory of Parental Acceptance – Rejection**

As stated earlier, personality subtheory of Parental Acceptance – Rejection (PAR) searches the universality of reactions to parental rejection in children, prolonged effects of parental rejection into adulthood, and possible personality traits that can be modified during the process of maturation. Rohner (2005) defines personality as “more-or-less stable set of internally motivated predispositions to respond (i.e., affective, cognitive, perceptual, and motivational dispositions) and actual modes of responding (i.e., observable behaviors) in various life situations or

contexts”. The seven dispositions on which the PARTheory particularly focuses are (a) dependence and defensive independence, (b) emotional unresponsiveness, (c) hostility, aggression, and problems with the management of hostility and aggression, (d) negative self-evaluation (self-esteem and self-adequacy), (e) negative worldview, and (f) emotional instability.

*Dependence and Defensive Independence.* Dependence is described as the emotional reliance of one person on another in order to get warmth, acceptance, approval, comfort and so on. As for the independence, it is the freedom from the need for affirmative response from significant others. As shown Figure 1, the dependence in relation to parental acceptance and rejection depicts a non-linear association. Accordingly, the accepted child develops a “normal dependence” up to a certain point. However, continuous and increasing rejection makes the child withdraw from any further positive bids from his/her parents and this brings about the ostensible independence in order for protection from being hurt and parental aggression and neglect.

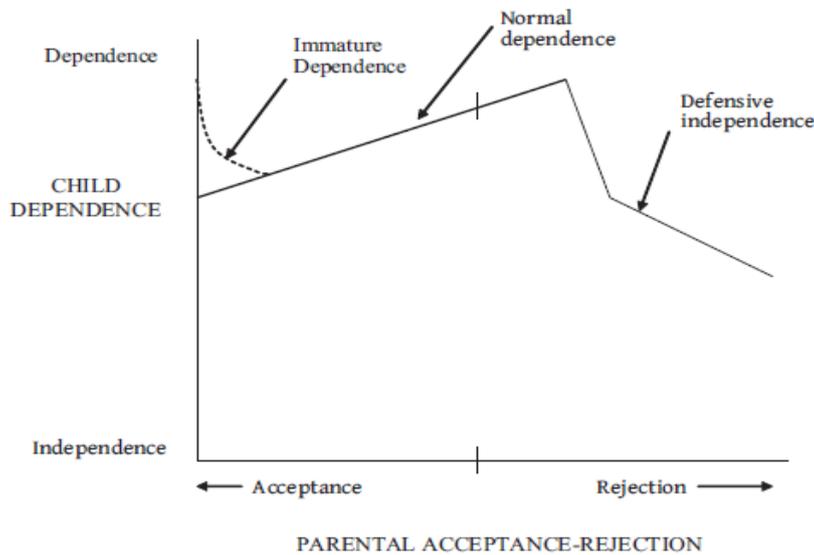
Rohner (1986/2000) draws attention to the negative connotation of the word “dependence” in the western societies. According to him, being dependent is not an undesired state of being, as widely-accepted. On the contrary, having the need for positive response, i.e. dependence, is an indicator of a healthy psychosocial development of children. Nevertheless, he also emphasizes the unfavorableness of parents’ warm and accepting responses laden with moment-by-moment control and manipulation of the child. When this happens, as depicted in Figure 1, an immature dependence is developed by the child, which is an undesired formation in the psychosocial development, in which the development of sense of competence and mastery and realistic self-perceptions gets precluded.

*Emotional Unresponsiveness.* Individuals with rejecting parents generally do not have a chance to express their emotions appropriately since their rejecting parent(s) is/are not the right one(s) to emulate as a role model. Protecting himself/herself from further rejection, the child learns to withdraw his/her emotional needs, denies these needs, or even does not realize them. Consequently, this leads to being emotionally insulated.

*Hostility and Aggression.* If parental rejection includes hostile and aggressive components, it is highly likely that children of these parents tend to develop hostile, aggressive, or passive aggressive attitudes.

*Negative Self-Evaluation.* This personality disposition of PARTheory involves two dimensions: Self-esteem and self-adequacy. Experiencing not being

appreciated, applauded and loved, children of rejecting parent(s) begin to develop a sense of self who is unworthy, incompetent, and undeserving a good treat.



**Figure 1. Dependence/Independence in Relation to Parental Acceptance-Rejection (Rohner & Khaleque, 2005)**

*Negative Worldview.* Worldview refers to a person’s perception and evaluation of the world and life as being potentially secure and unthreatening or as being insecure and threatening.

*Emotional Instability.* Emotionally stable people remain calm and sustain their attention at time under stress. In contrast, those who are unstable emotionally find difficult to focus, overreact to daily stresses, and are subjected to unpredictable and frequent mood shifts.

Rohner (1986/2000) emphasizes that these dispositions fall on a continuum. One is not either dependent or independent, for example. He/she takes place somewhere between the two endings. The point at which one is placed on the continuum makes the difference between accepted and rejected people. Moreover, the theory acknowledges that positive counteracting developmental experiences such as a good friendship with someone or a secure relationship with a teacher may contribute to the feelings of acceptance of the individual.

Empirical evidence exhibits that the relationship between parental acceptance-rejection and psychological adjustment is consistently found across various countries (Khaleque, 2013; Khaleque & Rohner, 2012a; Rohner & Britner, 2002). Furthermore, in their meta-analytic study, Khaleque and Rohner (2012a) reported that paternal acceptance can sometimes be stronger in the universal relationship with psychological adjustment than the maternal acceptance. This is in line with suggestions of Rohner (1998) in that father love is as important as maternal love in child development and adult life.

Another meta-analysis (Khaleque & Rohner, 2001) provides evidence for PARTheory which postulates that a number of personality characteristics that shape one's psychological adjustment are associated with perceived parental acceptance and rejections. Khaleque and Rohner (2012b) concluded that both children's perceptions and adults' memories of parental acceptance-rejection are associated with seven personality dispositions, namely, dependence and defensive independence, emotional unresponsiveness, hostility and aggression, negative self-evaluation (self-esteem and self-adequacy), negative worldview, and emotional instability.

### **1.1.2 Psychological Symptoms and Parental Acceptance-Rejection**

Early relationships with parents have an important place in one's later life in terms of psychopathological symptoms. For instance, very recently, it has been shown that parental rejection can pave the way for self-criticism and self-critical individuals, in turn, are unprotected towards depression and suicide risk (Campos, Besser, & Blatt, 2010; Campos, Besser, & Blatt, 2013). From various studies, similar findings related to the preceding role of parental rejection in association with depression can also be derived for adolescents, as well (Akse, Hale, Engels, Raaijmakers, & Meeus, 2004; Hale, Van Der Valk, Engels, Meeus, 2005; Nolan, Flynn, & Garber, 2003). Parental acceptance contributes positively to the psychological well-being of adolescents (Dwairy, 2010). Erkman and Rohner (2006) suggest that the perceptions of parental acceptance-rejection in young people may have an influence on the path from harshness and justness of the punishment to psychological adjustment. This finding highlights the importance of perceived parental acceptance-rejection even in unpleasant life situations. As a matter of fact, parental rejection can be so debilitating that peer rejection barely adds to the parental rejection experienced by the child (Sentse, Lindenberg, Omvlee, Ormel, & Veenstra, 2010).

The parental acceptance-rejection theory makes emphases on mainly three mental health issues, namely, depression, behavior problems (conduct disorder, externalizing, and delinquency), and substance abuse (Rohner & Britner, 2002). In their review, Rohner and Britner concluded that the causal relationship comprise the flow beginning from parental rejection towards psychopathology. They explain the underlying mechanism of this process with “distorted cognitive information-processing, selective attention/perception, and faulty styles of causal attribution”. Accordingly, rejected children may turn into adults who perceive the self and the world in a way that is consistent with their distorted internal representations. Khaleque and Rohner (2001) assert in their meta-analytic study that the association between parental acceptance-rejection and psychological adjustment is likely to be stronger for young people, who are still open to messages of their parents for love or withdrawal of love, as compared to adults.

As discussed later in this part, memories of being shamed by the parents were also found to be significantly related to the absence or insufficiency of parental warmth, and this, in turn, may bring about proneness to psychopathology (Gilbert, Allan, & Goss, 1996; Gilbert & Gerlsma, 1999). Another psychopathological situation counted as one of the possible consequences of parental rejection is somatoform disorders. Research proposes that the severity of symptoms of somatoform disorder increases when adolescents report their parent(s) as more rejecting (Naz & Kausar, 2012). Similar to somatoform disorders, retrospective investigations of women diagnosed with and hospitalized due to borderline personality disorder reveal that these women reported more paternal rejection and more psychological maladjustment (Rohner & Brothers, 1999; Zweig-Frank & Paris, 1991).

To sum up, rejecting parent(s) may function as a mirror in which the child sees himself/herself as defective, worthless, and unlovable as a result of parents’ rejection. Developing a self-concept from the view of the parents, the child may turn into an adult with a number of symptoms of psychological maladjustment, even psychopathology.

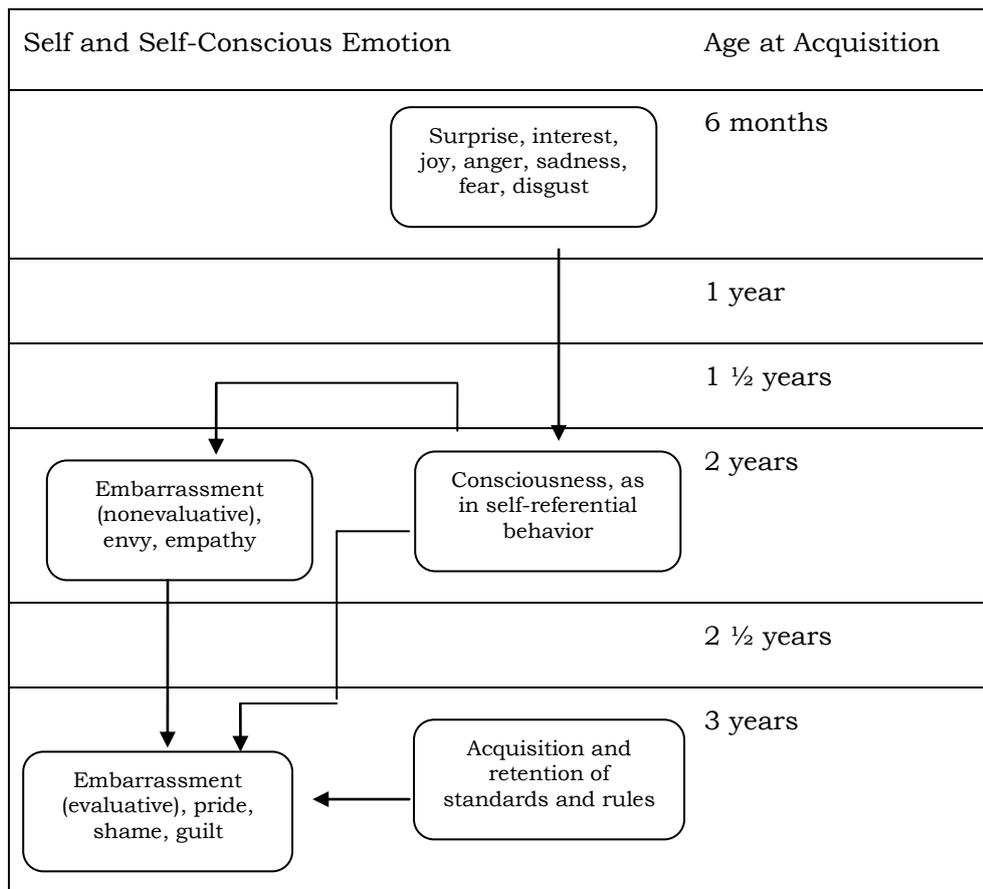
## **1.2 Self-Conscious Emotions**

### **1.2.1 Self-Conscious Emotions in General**

History of humanity shows us that human being has always had a desire to express himself/herself and has found, and is going to find, a way to do this by

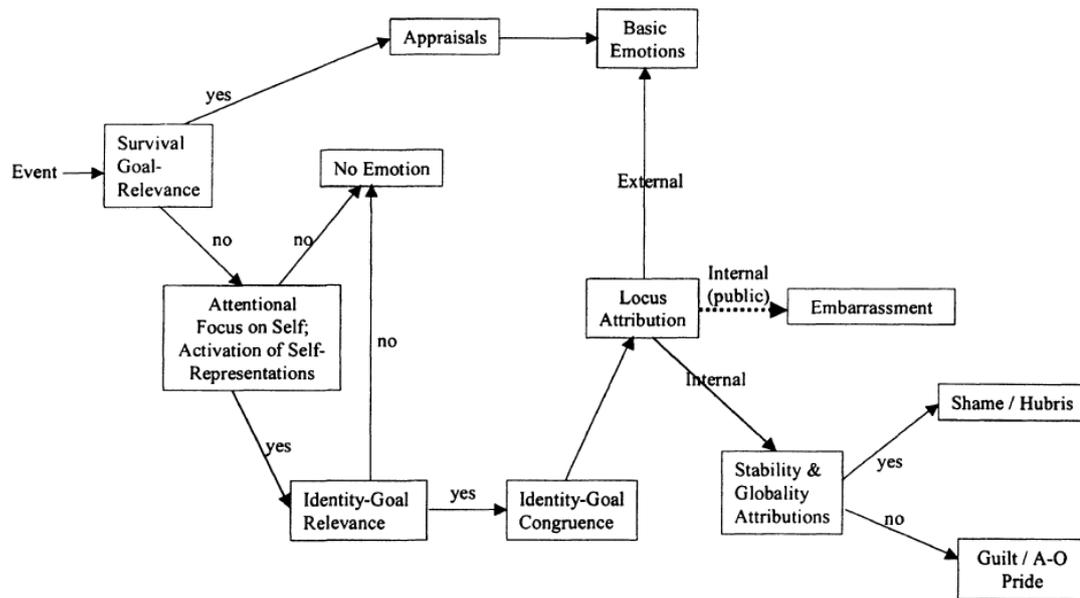
hook or by crook. We see him/her sometimes in a wall painting inside a cave from ages ago; sometimes in lines of a poem; or sometimes in a frame of a motion picture. A refined taste of life remains after all, either sophisticated or ordinary. Of course, we cannot leave the genocides, wars, battles out of the big picture. The big picture tells us about something special with the human being unlike other animals, such as, leaving an indelible imprint behind him/her. Emotional aspect of the human being contributes to this imprint. The research on emotions began with taking the lid off the basic emotions, namely, sadness, joy, surprise, fear, anger, and disgust. However, in time, so-called “self-conscious emotions” drew attention. Campos (1995) proposed three reasons for this shift in emotion research: The limitations of and dissatisfaction with facial expression measurement in basic emotions research, the study of patterns of appraisal, and the stress in importance of functional consequences of emotions. In line with these proposed reasons, Tracy and Robins (2004) specified distinctive features of self-conscious emotions. Accordingly, these emotions 1) require self-awareness and self-representations, 2) emerge later in childhood than basic emotions, 3) facilitate attainment of complex social goals, 4) do not have discrete, universally recognized facial expression, and 5) are cognitively complex.

As clearly indicated in the name of these emotions, *self-conscious* emotions require a sense of self in order to be elicited. A primary sense of self-awareness, recognition of an external standard, and adoption of this standard should be founded in the developmental chronology for the emergence of self-conscious emotions (Lagattuta & Thompson, 2007). In one of the previous studies, Lewis, Sullivan, Stanger, & Weiss (1989) compared the reactions of a number of infants by tracing their gestures of wariness and embarrassment. These authors showed that the experience of embarrassment, as a self-conscious emotion, required self-recognition abilities unlike wariness/fear, which is a primary emotion. As can be seen in Figure 2 (Lewis, 2007), which depicts the developmental timeline of emotions, self-awareness begins at the age of two and in turn, the child experiences a set of self-conscious emotions that do not have self-evaluative basis. Around the age of three, self-conscious evaluative emotions begin to show up together with a set of cognitions including standard, rules, goals; taking a naive position according to these rules and goals; and evaluating oneself on the basis of the discrepancy between this position and the set-up rules and goals (Higgins, 1987).



**Figure 2. A model of emotional development (Lewis, 2007)**

Tracy and Robins (2004) proposes a model of self-conscious emotions based on a cognitive appraisal approach. Figure 3 displays step-by-step formation of self-conscious emotions (i.e., shame, guilt, pride, and embarrassment). Accordingly, in order to elicit a self-conscious emotion, first of all, one should experience an event that draws attention on one's self and that activates self-representations. Next, this event should have an importance on one's identity (relevance) and should be regarded as consonant with the actual self as a result of a comparison of the current state with actual, ideal, and ought self-states (congruent). Lastly, once the causal locus of the event is determined as internal, the elicitation of self-conscious emotions occurs. According to the model, one experiences shame or hubris if the internal causal attribution is stable and global, guilt or achievement-oriented guilt if the internal causal attribution is unstable, controllable, and specific to the event. Unlike shame, guilt, and pride, embarrassment is experienced when one's public self is activated such as being publicly exposed as incompetent (Tracy & Robins, 2007).



**Figure 3. Process of model of self-conscious emotions (A-O Pride signifies achievement-oriented pride; Tracy & Robins, 2004)**

Embarrassment is defined as “an aversive state of mortification, abashment, and chagrin that follows public social predicaments” by Miller (1995). This emotion has long been recognized as a form of shame (Lewis, 1971; Izard, 1977; and Kaufman, 1989). However, embarrassment appears to be separate emotions and has distinguishable features. For instance, Tangney, Miller, Flicker, and Barlow (1996) found that unlike shame, embarrassment is elicited when trivial and humorous events occur suddenly and surprisingly in front of a crowd, especially in the presence of somewhat familiar people and strangers, due to the loss of self-esteem, concern for others’ evaluations, and behaving out of socially-defined norms (Keltner & Buswell, 1997). When experienced, embarrassment is thought to be get over more quickly and the embarrassed person sees himself/herself more excusable and less deserving punishment together with a sense of humor and joy. This, in turn, makes the emotion of embarrassment more adaptive and functional in social encounters. Clearly saying, embarrassment has a function of gaining sympathy from others (Semin & Manstead, 1982) and repairing the discredited social image (Leary, Landel, & Patton, 1996) for the transgressor.

According to Mascolo and Fisher (1995), pride is “generated by appraisals that one is responsible for a socially valued outcome or for being a socially valued person” (p. 66). A person swollen with pride perceives a subjective experience of self as bigger, stronger, and taller. Of the self-conscious emotions elicited at the end of

abovementioned model proposed by Tracy and Robins (2004), pride stands as a double-faced emotion. This emotion is referred as hubris by Lewis (2008) and as alpha pride (pride in self) by Tangney (1999) when it is subsequent to global and stable internal attributions. Hubristic pride is postulated to be positively correlated with shame-proneness and to be parallel with narcissism, which underpins the fact that hubristic pride functions as a protector of the self from devastating impact of shame (Kernberg, 1975; Tracy & Robins, 2003).

Until now, a brief introduction was made for the self-conscious emotions in general and embarrassment and pride was addressed. Hereinafter, emotions of shame and guilt will be discussed in detail for the purposes of the study.

### **1.2.2 Shame and Guilt**

Of the self-conscious emotions, shame and guilt are two of the most researched emotions due to their multifold nature. Although they are accepted to have an evolutionary root (Gilbert, 2003) and to be functional in interpersonal relationships, both emotions can be painful and debilitating. That's why psychologists, anthropologists, philosophers, and theorists from various disciplines have been attracted by these emotions to unveil the enigma behind the multifold nature of shame and guilt. Even though these two emotions are used interchangeably by many people, they are substantially different. These emotions are called *self-conscious* and *moral* emotions due to the fact that both have the individual evaluate oneself and the fact that both are related to the moral and ethical behaviors and attributions (Tangney & Dearing, 2002).

Hereinafter, emotions of shame and guilt will be discussed separately. Next, differentiation of these emotions will be presented.

#### **1.2.2.1 Shame**

Shame is characterized with concern for making a bad impression on others and being ridiculed and criticized, social norm deviations, social comparisons, self-criticism, lack of ability, a sense of personal unattractiveness, and submissive behaviors (Ferguson, Stegge, & Damhuis, 1991; Gilbert, 1998; Gilbert, 2000; Gilbert, 2003; Weiner, 1985). It is considered as an intense, sudden and dysphoric emotion together with the feelings of being small and inferior to others. Such feelings are associated with a sense of isolation and not being realized, which brings along the desire to be invisible and to hide in the ashamed person (Lansky,

2005; Tangney, Miller, Flicker, & Barrow, 1996). Therefore, shame is counted as an emotion relative to inherent nature of the self (Dost & Yagmurlu, 2008) with stable and global attributions (Van Vliet, 2009).

Gilbert (2003) categorizes shame as external and internal shame based on the focal point of whom the audience is. External shame can be observed if the person is preoccupied with what other people think and how he/she makes an impression in the minds of others. It mainly arises from the perceived deficits in oneself as compared to others. As for the internal shame, as is evident from its name, is about inner feelings of the self regarding how the self judges and feels about the self. An undesired self is the main focus of the internal shame characterized with a sense of personal unattractiveness. Gilbert (2003) exemplifies how shame is internalized by giving two types of reaction of a mother to her child who proudly shows his/her drawing. In the first, the mother reacts with “wow-that’s wonderful. What a clever girl.” In the second, the mother says “not now dear, I’m busy” or “Oh no, not another of those drawings. They’re all over the house making a mess” (p. 1220). Gilbert emphasizes the frequent incidents of the second-type reactions could implant the “memories of feelings in herself about herself” in the mind of the child.

Shame has had a special place in psychoanalytical perspective. However, the theory of Freud lacks a conceptualization that is specific to shame. In earlier writings of psychoanalysis, Freud postulated shame “as a reaction formation against sexually exhibitionist impulses” (as cited in Tangney & Dearing, 2002). In his comprehensive work, Thrane (1979) draws attention to the different views of Freud in relation to etiology of shame. While Freud sees that shame emerges a result of danger of others in his landmark book, *Civilization and Its Discontents*, he proposes the sense of inadequacy that is in the etiology of shame in another context.

Eric Erikson (1950), another theorist from developmental psychology and psychoanalysis, denotes shame in his theory on psychosocial development of human beings. Shame is mentioned at the second stage, namely, *Autonomy versus Shame and Doubt* which lasts between the ages of one and three. It is at this stage that parental figures begin to have importance and serve as first significant social relationships. The basic task of this stage is toilet training during which the child acquires muscular control. Having importance for obtaining *willpower* by *holding on* and *letting go*, toilet training provides the child to establish an environment over which he/she has control. This, in turn, brings autonomy together with willpower. However, when parents communicate their negative feelings and attitudes (such as

lack of patience, anger, ridicule) to the child, they sow the seeds of shame, intentionally or unintentionally. Since the child is very sensitive to his/her parents' reactions at this stage, any non-affirmative reaction of the parent(s) may lead to lack of control and a sense of weakness, which are the characteristics of shame.

Another psychoanalyst, Karen Horney (1950) associates shame directly with pride. According to Horney's conceptualization, pride wipes out due to two reactions; shame and humiliation. To put it in Horney's own words: "We will feel ashamed if we do, think, or feel something that violates our pride. And we will feel humiliated if others do something that hurts our pride, or fail to do what our pride requires of them" (p. 95).

Shame is defined by Lewis (1971) as a "hidden emotion" and she sees shame as a "universal reaction to unrequited or thwarted love" (p. 16). Having a psychoanalytical root in her clinical background, Lewis is a theorist who made a notable contribution to the shame-and-guilt literature. According to her, what the object of shame is the self being evaluated as a whole with sense of being small, worthlessness, and powerlessness. Lewis mentions a splitting process to explain shame. Accordingly, an actual audience is not necessarily involved to be elicited shame. One can feel ashamed with the thought that somebody is watching and witnessing his/her drawbacks and weakness. This, in turn, creates a self who is both agent and object of the shame experience, which is related to the concept of field-dependent self suggested by Lewis. A field-dependent person is described as less differentiated, vulnerable to global evaluations and more prone to the emotion of shame.

Lewis also addresses the roles of parental figures on the formation of self-conscious emotions. Accordingly, "identification with the threatening parent stirs an 'internalized threat' which is experienced as guilt. Identification with the beloved or admired ego-ideal stirs pride and triumphant feeling; failure to live up to this internalized admired imago stirs shame" (p. 23). This view supports the idea of shame arising from the conflict between ego and ego-ideal (Piers and Singer, 1953). Piers and Singer also draw attention to the role humiliating parent inculcating the fear of contempt to child. They argue that it is the fear of abandonment of the parent who "walks away 'in disgust'" that stands behind the feeling of shame. Thus, shame can be said to be related to perceiving one's own self as inadequate and to fail at achieving a wished-for self-image, which is fed by the internalized and admired love object, together with the fear of separation, abandonment and social expulsion (Creighton, 1990; Lansky, 2005; Piers & Singer, 1953).

Developmentally, feelings of shame begin to rise after the formation of the ego-ideal and before the feelings of guilt (Lansky, 2005). Kaufman (1996) makes mention of developmental sources of shame. Parental attitudes are one of the triggers of the emotion of shame. Accordingly, parental anger is the one that has the impact of rupture in early childhood. Being unable to respond or remaining insensitive to the child's need and demands to be loved (which corresponds to the "parental rejection" in the current study) triggers shame in the infant, which is a process that is named as "preverbal shame activation" by Kaufman. Shame is also activated through verbal communication conveyed by the parent(s) with alerting sentences such as "shame on you", "you are embarrassing me", "I am disappointed in you". Moreover, parents' overemphasis on the performance of the child is also relative to the shame feelings (Kaufman, 1996). Overcorrection of the skills and pressure to succeed lead the child to perceive himself/herself as an inadequate and ineffective being and get immobilized as a result of scrutiny of the idealized parents.

Another aspect of parent-child dyad is the bond (i.e. attachment) between them. According to Bowlby's definition of attachment, individuals have a strong tendency for seeking proximity to significant others (Bowlby, 1977). They build up certain expectations through the internal working models with which they establish a kind of affectional bond (Bowlby, 1969). Through these working internal models, individuals develop a sense of attachment towards other people in their adulthood depending on the attachment type in the infancy period (Bowlby, 1977). Considering the importance of the attachment quality between the parent and the child and with reference to fact that shame is rooted in various childhood experiences, Schimmenti (2012) states that shame is planted in the attachment system and it provides an alerting system for the child to protect the attachment bond. In adulthood, the more insecure the individual is, the more prone to the emotion of shame he/she is (Gross & Hansen, 2000). At this point, what comes into prominence is whether the parents are effectively attuned to the child or not: If the child has experiences that will cause to lose his/her trust into the parents and to come to believe in being disapproved by parents, this may turn into a template for pathological shame (Hahn, 2000) owing to object loss, loss of love, and castration (Brenner, 1994; as cited in Rothstein, 1999).

Research suggests that shame memories have similar characteristics with traumatic memories (Gilbert, 2002, 2003; Matos & Pinto-Gouveia, 2010) and shame memories coming from the childhood and adolescence are connected with the current shame (Matos & Pinto-Gouveia, 2010). This finding is also in accordant with the fact that memories of harsh parenting, rejection, ignorance, abandonment

dysfunctional family environment, and reversal of parent and child roles are related to the shame in later phases of life (Claesson & Sohlberg, 2002; Gilbert, Allan, & Goss, 1996; Lutwak & Ferrari, 1996; Pulakos, 1996; Stuewig & McCloskey, 2005; Wells & Jones, 2000).

### **1.2.2.2 Guilt**

Guilt is another self-conscious emotion that will be discussed here. According to Lewis (1971),

In guilt, the self is not the central object of negative evaluation, but rather the *thing* done or undone is the focus. In guilt, the self is negatively evaluated in connection with something but is not itself the focus of the experience (p. 30).

In contrast to shame, Lewis considers guilt as a less painful and more compliable since the primary focus is the behavior itself instead of the entire being (i.e. a field-independent and differentiated self). Nevertheless, guilt can provoke some undesirable feelings, such as preoccupation with the transgression and overemphasis for the correction of misbehavior. Theoretical approaches and research on the emotion of guilt concentrates on various aspects of it. While early theories accept and emphasize intrapsychic side of it, more recently, research has evolved to the interpersonal consequences of guilt feelings. Similarly, a group of researchers propose that guilt has social adaptive and constructive characteristics, whereas others report maladaptive nature of guilt. Therefore, a number of definitions for guilt have been made on the basis of various theories and measurements (Tilghman-Osborne, Cole, & Felton, 2010).

To being with, guilt is described as an emotion emerged with the development of superego as a result of the Oedipus complex in traditional psychoanalytic approach. Freud (1923-1925/2001) asserts that guilt is the result of the conflict between ego and superego. With the emergence of superego, moral values come into play and the mechanism that maintains the compliance to the moral norms is shaped by the emotion of guilt. In his landmark book, *Totem and Taboo*, Freud (1913/2001) discusses the subject of guilt from cultural perspective, in which the behavior of savages and neurotics were explained by childhood behavior. In this work of Freud, guilt takes place as an emotion which is replaced with the feelings of hatred towards the paternal figure. Having ambivalent feelings due to killing the father and being dominated by the feelings of guilt, the brothers create a *totem animal* substituting the father. Freud refers this as deferred obedience to the father.

The discussion of guilt here symbolizes the undoing and reparation tendency of the guilt-prone person.

Guilt takes place in the psychosocial stages of Erikson like shame. Erikson (1950) places guilt in the third stage of human development (i.e. initiative vs. guilt) at the ages of three to five, at which superego begins to develop. At this stage, children incline to be more active at engaging in social interactions and plays as compared to previous stages. They make up plans, take the initiative role and lead others. Being an active agent of his/her life, the child gains the virtue of *purpose* to set goals and act upon these goals. If the child is inhibited and punished for being initiative, this is very likely to induce the feelings of guilt to the child.

According to Melanie Klein (1964), guilt arises from the tension between love and hate feelings. These feelings begin to develop at the very early stages of the baby. At the breast feeding stage, the baby is full of love for the first object, which is the mother; as long as he/she is satisfied with breastfeeding and appeased his/her hunger. However, if the baby is hungry, uncomfortable for some reason and not being gratified, whole situation become reversed suddenly and hate and aggressive feelings show up with the impulses of destroying the person with whom he/she experiences all kinds of feelings. Klein claims that the baby believes these strong impulses, which are said to be equal to the death-wishes, in that the hateful fantasies come true and his/her first object has been really destroyed. As a result, a sense of unconscious guilt arises, which is rooted in the fear of not being able to dominate one's own aggressive impulses towards others, especially the loved ones.

In contrast to theories that emphasize the intrapsychic nature of guilt (e.g.: Buss, 1980; Lewis, 1971; Piers & Singer, 1953; as cited in Baumeister, Stillwell, Heatherton, 1994), Baumeister, Stillwell, and Heatherton proposes that the main process of the emotion of guilt lies behind the social relationships rather than the inner operations. From this perspective, guilt is considered to be an adaptive emotion serving for the well-being of others through an empathic approach (Baumeister, Stillwell, Heatherton, 1994; Tangney, 1991; & Tangney & Dearing, 2002). In guilt, the focus is on the behavior and the person who feels guilty contemplates on consequences of his/her behavior on *others*, rather than on the self. This other-oriented focus contributes to the interpersonal relationships by promoting the empathic and altruistic behaviors (Tangney, 1995).

In guilt, the person makes less stable, specific, and controllable attributions (Lewis, 1971; Tangney, 1992; Tracy & Robins, 2006) related to the behavior after which reparative and apologizing behaviors are directed towards the other(s) in

order to appease the feelings of guilt. Furthermore, research indicates that being prone to guilt feelings is associated with a higher tendency to disclose emotions, which, in turn, decreases the feelings of loneliness (Bruno, Lutwak, & Agin, 2009) in addition to being more inclined to show forgiveness toward the offender (Konstam, Chernoff, & Deveney, 2001).

In contrast to the research focusing on the adaptive guilt, maladaptive guilt is also conceptualized in the literature. For instance, the theorization of O'Connor, Berry, Weiss, Bush, and Sampson (1997) includes four clinically-relevant guilt categories, namely, survivor guilt, separation/disloyalty guilt, omnipotent responsibility guilt, and self-hate guilt. These emotions are linked to an exaggerated responsibility perception. According to O'Connor et al., individuals who feel survivor and/or separation guilt feel also omnipotent responsibility guilt. They report that these emotions are extremely irrational and pathogenic. Zahn-Waxler, Kochanska, Krupnick, and McKnew (1990) differentiate adaptive and maladaptive guilt. Accordingly, adaptive guilt is action-oriented and encourages people to repair and/or undo the transgressive behavior. However, maladaptive guilt is associated with self-critical feelings and an excessive omnipotence.

### **1.2.2.3 Differences between Shame and Guilt**

Previous two sections on this part focus on the emotions of shame and guilt separately. On this part, these emotions will be discussed with reference to each other briefly. Ferguson (2005) draws attention to the importance of differentiation of these two emotions since they have different reactional processes subsequent to the event. As can be seen in Table 1 as a summarization of the similarities and differences between shame and guilt, which is based on the conceptualizations of Tangney and Dearing (2002), these two emotions are parallel with the inherent characteristics of self-conscious emotions. However, they differ in their focal points, activators, consequences etc. For instance, shame shows itself in more negative global evaluations related to self. In contrast, guilt is elicited as a result of negative evaluations of a specific behavior. In parallel with this, shame puts more stress on the individual as compared to guilt. The reactions of an ashamed person also differ from guilty person's. Concerning with others' evaluations, ashamed person wish to be invisible and react with hiding or escaping. However, a person who feels like guilty prefers to confess the transgression and tend to apologize and repair the misbehavior. Evidence related to the consequent behaviors of shame and guilt comes from the study of Stuewig, Tangney, Heigel, Harty, and McCloskey (2010).

They have found that shame-prone individuals are also inclined to report physical and verbal aggression flowed through high levels of blame externalization whereas guilt is negatively related to aggression since it makes people accept their responsibility for transgression and failures.

**Table 1. Key Similarities and Differences between Shame and Guilt (Tangney & Dearing, 2002)**

| <u>Features shared by shame and guilt</u>  |  |   |
|--|--|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Both fall into the class of “moral” emotions.</li> <li>• Both are “self-conscious”, self-referential emotions.</li> <li>• Both are negatively valenced emotions.</li> <li>• Both involve internal attributions of one sort or another.</li> <li>• Both are typically experienced in interpersonal contexts.</li> <li>• The negative events that give rise to shame and guilt are highly similar (frequently involving moral failures or transgressions).</li> </ul> |  |   |
| <u>Key dimensions on which shame and guilt differ</u>  |  |   |
|  | <u>Shame</u>   | <u>Guilt</u>  |
| Focus of evaluation  | Global self: “ <i>I did that horrible thing</i> ”      | Specific behavior: “ <i>I did that horrible thing</i> ” |
| Degree of distress   | Generally more painful than guilt                      | Generally less painful than shame                       |
| Phenomenological experience  | Shrinking, feeling small, feeling worthless, powerless | Tension, remorse, regret                                |
| Operation of “self”  | Self “split” into observing and observed “selves”      | Unified self intact                                     |
| Impact on “self”   | Self-impaired by global devaluation                    | Self unimpaired by global devaluation                   |
| Concern vis-à-vis the “other”  | Concern with others’ evaluation of self                | Concern with one’s effect on others                     |
| Counterfactual processes   | Mentally undoing some aspect of the self               | Mentally undoing some aspect of behavior                |
| Motivational features  | Desire to hide, escape, or strike back                 | Desire to confess, apologize, or repair                 |

Early distinctions between shame and guilt that were made by anthropologists Mead (1972) and Benedict (1946) were based on the presence of an audience (as cited in Thrane, 1979). Accordingly, shame is seen as an emotion which requires openly being ridiculed and criticized. In contrast, guilt does not require an audience. Thrane criticized Mead’s and Benedict’s ideas regarding presence of audience. Notwithstanding that being criticized or ridiculed publicly

can lead to feelings of shame, this is not sufficient for the evocation of shame. Thrane denotes that feelings of anger and contempt or nothing will be stirred unless the individual identifies himself/herself with a group and adheres to some ideals and standards. In other words, one feels ashamed if he/she is humiliated or criticized by a group to which he/she adheres. Evidence for this comes from the research by Tangney, Marschall, Rosenberg, Barlow, and Wagner (1994; as cited in Tangney, 2002) and Tangney, Miller, Flicker, and Barlow (1996). They found that a substantial number of participants reported “solitary” shame feelings.

These emotions also differ in terms of the preceding or accompanying emotions. For instance, shame is proposed to be linked with the emotions of contempt or disgust by *others* (Pulver, 1999). Guilt is mentioned with sorrow and sadness (Gilbert, 2003) and fear of castration (Lansky, 2005). Clearly, this distinction between shame and guilt coincides with the relation of shame with the discrepancy between ego and ego ideal and of guilt with the discrepancy between ego and superego. In that sense, what matters in shame is ideals and aspiration whereas in guilt is prohibitions and omissions (Lansky, 2005).

While shame generates a sense of powerlessness, guilt is relative to the misuse of power (Lansky, 2005). According to Lansky, guilt provides a protection from hurtful and painful impact of shame by warding off the feelings of passivity, helplessness, vulnerability, and weakness. Thus, if one admits his/her guilt, this is, in some way, a declaration one’s power. In contrast, acknowledgement of shame points at one’s powerlessness. This is compatible with the thesis of Gilbert (1997, 2003) regarding shame and social attractiveness, in which he proposes that if one feels shame, this implies the deficiency in one’s talents to be perceived as useful and desirable.

Yet, one should consider that the same event can elicit shame in one person while it produces guilt in another. Thus, it should be kept in mind that shame and guilt do not differ in terms of the situations but differ in the meanings and subjective experiences of individuals. (Tangney, Miller, Flicker, & Barlow, 1996)

### **1.2.3 Psychological Symptoms and Emotions of Shame and Guilt**

The cumulative literature reaches an agreement the on the effects of shame on psychopathology. However, this cannot be stated for guilt since guilt has been defined on the basis of various approaches and conceptualization. Unlike from those researchers who asserts the dark side of guilt, there are others who

emphasizes adaptive and constructive side of guilt (e.g.: Tangney & Dearing, 2002; Tangney, Wagner, & Gramzow, 1992; Tangney, Stuewig, & Mashek, 2007). Recent views have postulated that if guilt is associated with psychological symptoms, this is because this emotion is fused with shame. That is, what creates these symptoms is not guilt per se, but feelings of shame (Tangney, 1991; Tangney, Burggraf, & Wagner, 1995; Tangney, Stuewig, & Mashek, 2007). In this respect, subsequent studies acknowledge that guilt is adaptive and constructive and its relation to psychological symptoms is due to being fused with shame (e.g. Ferguson, Stegge, Miller, & Olsen, 1999; Fontaine, Luyten, De Boeck, & Corveleyn, 2001; Luyten, Fontaine, & Corveleyn, 2002; Orth, Berking, & Burkhardt, 2006; & Pineless, Street, Koenen, 2006). This view is criticized by Kubany and Watson (2003) in that it is very unlikely to experience both emotions simultaneously. Rather, they show themselves in close contiguity. Another view proposes that guilt-proneness can be a continuum and high levels of guilt can be related to shame and irrational guilt (Eisenberg, 2000). Moreover, having acknowledged an empathic guilt, Einstein and Lanning (1998) identified an anxious type of guilt. To summarize, the conceptualization of guilt in the context of psychopathology seem to vary. Thus, hereinafter, empirical evidence regarding the relations between emotions of shame and guilt and psychopathology will be presented on the basis of the idiosyncratic conceptualizations of each study.

To begin with, Harder, Cutler, and Rockart (1992) found that both shame and guilt were related to most of the domains of Symptom Checklist 90-Revised (SCL-90-R) and they proposed that the effects of guilt were very close to the effects of shame. They also investigated “pure” shame and “pure” guilt by partialing out the other emotion. Accordingly, shame-free guilt was found to be related to somatization, interpersonal sensitivity, hostility/anger, and psychoticism. As for the guilt-free shame, it had a relation with depression, obsessive-compulsive disorder, interpersonal sensitivity, and phobic anxiety. Similar conclusions were drawn in the study of O’Connor, Berry, and Weiss (1999) with a special emphasis on the maladaptive dimension of guilt, uncomplicated by shame.

Feelings of guilt are one of the prominent features of depression. There are numerous studies investigating the shame and guilt feelings and depression. For instance, shame and guilt feelings were found to be related to depression, together with childhood history of maltreatment (Webb, Heisler, Call, Chickering, & Colburn, 2007). These authors also tested whether these findings are still valid for shame-free guilt and guilt-free shame. Findings demonstrated that shame, but not shame-free guilt, showed the same effect regardless of being fused with guilt, which is in

line with the findings of Tangney, Wagner, and Gramzow (1992). In another study with a different operationalization of guilt, Ghatavi, Nicolson, MacDonald, Osher, and Levitt (2002) compared depressed individuals with people with a medical illness and healthy people. The results of their study show that depressed people experience guilt more intensely in more long-lasting and fluctuating fashion. They also deduce that their feelings of guilt appear in a different quality from non-depressed ones. This finding supports the results of the clinical studies with moderate to severe depressed individuals (Alexander, Brewin, Vearnals, Wolff, & Leff, 1999) and with individuals with unipolar and bipolar depression (Highfield, Markham, Skinner, & Neal, 2010).

Depression-related features such as self-deprecating and maladaptive self-blame, self-derogation are also related to proneness to shame. Shame-prone people are found to be criticizing themselves harshly, as well as others and this, in turn, impairs their interpersonal relationships and leads them to have difficulty in maintaining close relationship. However, they inevitably engage in a vicious cycle since they come to develop a fear of intimacy (Lutwak, Panish, & Ferrari, 2003), which may strengthen their depressive feelings. Given the fact that shame and guilt feelings show continuity across the lifespan, symptoms related to these feelings observed in childhood gain importance. Children, including those in preschool years, can also be overwhelmed with shame and guilt and this may bring about a maladaptive emotion development (Ferguson, Stegge, Miller, & Olsen, 1999; Luby, Belden, Sullivan, Hayen, McCadney, & Spitznagel, 2009).

Social rank is postulated as an associate of shame feelings and depression (Cheung, Gilbert, & Irons, 2004). Accordingly, shame is related to inferiority feelings and inferiority is related to depression. One possible explanation for the impact of shame on depression is having ruminative thoughts (Cheung, Gilbert, & Irons, 2004; Orth, Berking, & Burkhardt, 2006). It was found in these studies that rumination mediated the relationship between shame and depression. Shame can also show up as a moderator between previous unpleasant life experiences and their psychological outcomes. For instance, high levels of shame-proneness may result in more serious depressive symptoms when encountered with a high-stress situation in women (Harper & Arias, 2004).

For anxiety symptoms, the results of study conducted by Fergus, Valentiner, McGrath, and Jencius (2010) concluded that anxiety is more apt to relate to the shame feelings, rather than guilt. This study specified in detail that social anxiety disorder (SAD) and generalized anxiety disorder (GAD) had relation with shame-

proneness. Also improvements in shame-proneness were reflected as reductions in symptoms of obsessive-compulsive disorder (OCD), SAD, and GAD. Regarding obsessive-compulsive symptoms, obsessional people experience more guilt than normal controls (Shafran, Watkins, & Charman, 1996). Shafran et al. acknowledge the dominance of guilt emotion in depression. Nonetheless, these authors differentiate the emanation of guilt in depression and in OCD. Accordingly, guilt in OCD is characterized with a specific intrusion and a perception of responsibility. However, in depression, it appears more affective and accompanied by somatic complaints. Also guilty feelings have importance in OCD with respect to the feelings of responsibility and a desire to have things perfect and under control (Mancini & Gangemi, 2004; Mancini, Gangemi, Perdighe, & Marini, 2008). Shame-proneness was also articulated as a risk factor for OCD (Valentiner & Smith, 2008). People are more prone to have compulsions when their shame-proneness is at the highest level.

Regarding the relationship between shame and guilt feelings and post-traumatic stress disorder, Lee, Scragg, and Turner (2001) proposes a schema-based model. Accordingly, shame and/or guilt are developed via two ways. One of them is schema congruence which is when a recent event that has left traumatic effects on the individual is congruent with previous shame/guilt memories. These alerted schemas confirm the defective and powerless self. As a result, the self begins to attack himself/herself. The other model has a path through schema incongruence. In this case, the traumatic event is incongruent with the previous schemas. This time, the individual tends to blame others with the self being intact. In the formation of the shame-related schemas, shame memories from childhood and adolescence seem to be reference points to shame-proneness in adulthood (Pinto-Gouveia & Matos, 2011). Shame memories can act like traumatic events and they eventually influence the internal working models of self and others in later stages of one's life and may cause to emotional difficulties (Cunha, Matos, Faria, & Zagalo, 2012; Pinto-Gouveia & Matos, 2011). Broadly speaking, especially shame feelings are at the centre of post-traumatic symptoms and it plays a crucial role in rebalancing and regulating the psyche. For instance, a longitudinal study conducted with victims of sexual abuse studied the extent to which improvements in shame contributed to the psychological adjustment one year later. It was suggested that the resolution of shame feelings brought along improvements in depression and PTSD symptoms and increase in self-esteem (Feiring, Taska, & Lewis, 2002).

Symptoms reflecting eating disorders are also influenced by self-conscious emotions. Shame is a primary emotion to eating disorders (Hayaki, Friedman, & Brownell, 2002; Murray, Waller, & Legg, 2000) in that it increases the desire for food, which functions as an enhancer of self-worth (Chao, Yang, & Chiou, 2012). In a clinical study including females with bulimia nervosa, anorexia nervosa, depressive disorders, and anxiety disorders (Grabhorn, Stenner, Stangier, & Kaufhold, 2006), shame accounted for a high proportion of the variance with regard to social performance anxiety and social interaction anxiety in females with eating disorder as compared to other clinical groups. They surmised that shame plays a central role in social anxiety. In that sense, Gilbert (2000) also draws attention to the relation of shame with social anxiety. He suggested that shame may operate with social anxiety and submissive behaviors.

Likewise, drug-addicted individuals suffer more from feelings of shame, and interpersonal, maladaptive, and excessive guilt (survivor guilt, separation guilt, omnipotent responsibility guilt, and self-hate guilt). In addition, they are less inclined to have adaptive guilt that leads them to externalize their responsibility and behave irresponsibly (Meehan, O'Connor, Berry, Weiss, Morrison, & Acampora, 1996). Moreover, problematic drinking and substance use problems are also one of the associates of shame-proneness (Dearing, Stuewig, & Tangney, 2005; Treeby & Bruno, 2012). Shame-prone people were found to be more liable to alcohol use to enhance their mood and to regulate their depressive and anxious feelings. Conversely, guilt-proneness makes easier to cope with these negative feelings.

Lastly, self-conscious emotions of shame and guilt can be distinctive features of personality disorders, as well. According to Brown, Linehan, Comtois, Murray, and Chapman (2009), shame is presented as one of the predictors of self-inflicting injury in people with borderline personality disorder together with the fear, which is associated with the fear of rejection as a core feature of shame. They link the causality between shame and self-injury to the impaired problem solving strategies such as hiding, avoiding negative situations, even committing suicide. With a similar approach, Schoenleber & Berenbaum (2012a) asserts that pathological indicators in personality occur due to the inability to down-regulate or avoid shame in an adaptive way. As a matter of fact, a perception of shame being painful and unbearable can be arisen in time and this brings about the maintenance of impaired coping with shame feelings (Schoenleber & Berenbaum, 2010, 2012b). Shame can be an excruciating emotion in that it may also have an impact on one's self-esteem, quality of life, anger management (Rüsch et al. 2007). These authors lay stress on the implicit, that is unconscious, aspect of shame and point to the

finding that individuals with borderline personality associate themselves with an implicit shame feeling as strongly as with anxiety. In a similar vein, individuals with narcissistic personality disorder also associate themselves with both implicit and explicit shame more strongly as compared to non-clinical controls (Ritter et al., 2014).

### **1.3 Personality Traits**

Personality is defined as “a pattern of relatively permanent traits and unique characteristics that give both consistency and individuality to a person’s behavior” and trait is seen as a construct that “contributes to individual differences in behavior, consistency of behavior over time, and stability of behavior across situations” (p. 4; Feist & Feist, 2009). The study of traits within psychology of personality was initiated by Klages, Baumgarten, and Allport and Odbert in 1920s and 1930s; continued with the studies of Cattell in 1940s, and Tupes, Christal, Norman and Borgatta in 1960s (as cited in John & Srivastava, 1999). Chronologically, lexical hypothesis headed the later developments in personality and trait research. The lexical hypothesis postulates that the natural languages consists of the vocabulary related to the socially relevant and salient personality characteristics. In time, the lexical hypothesis evolved into taxonomic approach and names as “Big Five” by Goldberg (1981; as cited in John & Srivastava, 1999). These initial five factors were labeled as Extraversion or Surgency, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Emotional Stability vs Neuroticism, and Intellect or Openness, which are counted as the beginning of Five-Factor Theory (FFT). During 1980s, Costa and McCrae began their studies by initially using the dimension of neuroticism and extraversion. Later on, they discovered a new dimension which they called “Openness to Experience”. Their studies were extended with the inclusion of Agreeableness and Conscientiousness. To sum up briefly, the final version of the FFT is composed of Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness to Experience, Agreeableness, and Conscientiousness. The FFT can be seen as a Grand Theory due to its universal and developmental comprehensiveness and it enables researchers a theoretical account in terms of the development and operation of psychological organization (McCrae & John, 1992; McCrae & Costa, 1999).

Of the dimensions of FFT, Neuroticism is roughly relative to emotional stability. Individuals high on Neuroticism tend to be anxious, temperamental, self-pitying, self-conscious, and emotional. Those who are low in this dimension are

characterized with being calm, even-tempered, self-satisfied, and comfortable (Feist & Feist, 2009). Neuroticism is linked with stress symptoms (Magnus, Diener, Fujita, & Pavot, 1993), ineffective and maladaptive coping strategies (Bouchard, 2003; Panayiotou, Kokkinos, & Kapsou, 2014), and depressive and anxiety disorders (Weinstock & Whisman, 2006). Any reduction in the level of neuroticism is associated with greater depression symptom change (Quilty, Meusel, & Bagby, 2008).

Extraversion refers to a person's sociability in his/her interpersonal relationships. An individual high on extraversion is characterized with being affectionate, joiner, talkative, fun loving, active, and passionate and low scores on this dimension imply a reserved, loner, quiet, sober, and passive personality (Feist & Feist, 2009). Adaptive coping with problems (Gomez, Holmberg, Bounds, Fullarton, & Gomez, 1999; Panayiotou, Kokkinos, & Kapsou, 2014), reward pursuit, momentary happiness, and more social contact (Oerlemans, & Bakker, 2014; Swickert, Rosentreter, Hittner, & Mushrush, 2002) are also found to be related to Extraversion.

Openness to Experience reflects individual differences in the propensity to be curious and/or eager to meet novel ideas, experiences, and ideas etc. Being highly open to new experiences refer to being imaginative, creative, original, and liberal. However, low scores on this dimension are related to be uncreative, conventional, and conservative (Feist & Feist, 2009). Openness is found to be related to life satisfaction (Stephan, 2009), stress resilience (Williams, Rau, Cribbet, & Gunn, 2009), and adaptation to changes more quickly and effectively (Le Pine, Colquitt, & Erez, 2000).

Agreeableness is about one's cooperation and accommodation skills and motives for maintenance positive relationships. In general, people who score high on this dimension tend to be trusting, generous, lenient, and acceptant. However, low scores signal a personality being ruthless, suspicious, antagonistic, critical, and irritable (Feist & Feist, 2009). In addition, low levels of agreeableness are found to be linked with negative emotions (Allen, Greenlees, & Jones, 2014), somatic symptoms (Ode & Robinson, 2007), and lower levels of acceptance by others (Jensen-Campbell, Adams, Perry, Workman, Furdella, & Egan, 2002).

Lastly, conscientiousness refers to personality trait about the extent to which an individual is ordered, controlled, organized etc. Accordingly, people who score high on conscientiousness display a personality being hardworking, well-organized, punctual, ambitious, and persevering. On the contrary, those who scored low are

more inclined to be lazy, disorganized, late, aimless, and quitting (Feist & Feist, 2009). Low conscientiousness is found to be related to clinical disorders (Anderson, & McLean, 1997; Malouff, Thorsteinsson, & Schutte, 2005). This dimension has a special importance since it plays a role in an effective treatment program (Malouff, Thorsteinsson, & Schutte, 2005).

Recently, a validity study of the five-factor model of personality was carried out in Turkey (Gençöz & Öncül, 2012). For this, these authors developed a culture-sensitive instrument measuring basic personality dimensions, which they called Basic Personality Traits Inventory. Factor analysis of this instrument revealed an additional sixth factor along with traditional five dimensions. This factor, Negative Valence, is postulated to be related with self-worth. The authors underscored the differentiation of Negative Valence dimension from Neuroticism in that the latter is associated with anxiety related feelings. To test this differentiation, a number of partial correlations were conducted. As a result of these statistical procedures, they came to some conclusions supporting this differentiating. First of all, Negative Valence was found to be related to self-esteem (self-worth) even after controlled for Neuroticism scores and the relationship between Neuroticism and self-esteem was weakened after controlling for Negative Valence. Second, Neuroticism was found to be related anxiety related feelings even after controlling for Negative Valence scores and the relationship between Negative Valence and anxiety was weakened after controlling for Neuroticism. Lastly, the relationship between the Negative Valence and emotion focused coping style and the negative relationship between the Negative Valence and seeking social support remained significant even after controlling for the Neuroticism. Gençöz and Öncül suggested that presence of this additional dimension in a Turkish sample may pertain to the inherent characteristics of the Turkish culture, such as inappropriateness of expression of one's favorable qualities in Turkish culture.

#### **1.4 Aims**

As can be deduced from the literature review above, individuals may show a tendency to develop a self-identity on the basis of early maladaptive experiences with parents.

The present study starts out with the idea of emotions of shame and guilt, which is accompanied with the question of to what extent individuals develop a self that is independent from the shadow of the parents. In order to shed a light on

these questions within the frame of self-conscious emotions of shame and guilt, memories of parental attitudes were investigated using the well-validated theory of Rohner (1986/2000), namely Parental Acceptance-Rejection Theory. Although the relationship of parental attitudes and emotions of shame and guilt with psychopathology is given in the previous literature, this is done separately most of the time. Thus, the current study mainly aims to fill this gap by illuminating the links between these variables as well as the relationship of them with personality. Thus, the specific aims below were determined to be studied:

1. To examine related demographic variables on parental acceptance-rejection, proneness to shame and guilt, psychopathology, and personality
2. To examine the intercorrelations between related demographic variables and parental acceptance-rejection, proneness to shame and guilt, psychopathology, and personality
3. To determine the mediator roles of proneness to shame and guilt on the relationship between parental acceptance and psychopathology and personality.

Regarding the main analyses which consist of mediation procedure, it was hypothesized that

1. Parental rejection would bring about more psychopathological symptoms through increased proneness to shame as compared to the path through proneness to guilt.
2. Parental rejection would bring about more negative self-views through increased proneness to shame as compared to the path through proneness to guilt.

## CHAPTER II

### METHOD

#### **2.1 Participants**

The data reported in the current study consisted of 589 participants. 390 (66.2 %) of them were female and 198 (33.6 %) of them were male, who were between the ages of 17 and 50 ( $M = 21.58$ ,  $SD = 2.65$ ). Detailed information regarding the characteristics of the participants can be seen in Table 2.

#### **2.2 Materials**

In the present study, the materials included Demographic Information Form (see Appendix C), adult versions of Parental Acceptance-Rejection/Control Questionnaire (see Appendix D & E), Test of Self-Conscious Affects-3 (see Appendix F), Basic Personality Traits Inventory (see Appendix G), and Brief Symptom Inventory (see Appendix H).

##### **2.2.1 Demographic Information Form**

This form was structured by the researcher in order to get information about the basic characteristics of the participants. It included questions to specify the age, gender, college, department and degree, and socioeconomic status. Also, this form included some basic questions about participants' familial characteristics such as whether their parents live together or not, whether they live with their parents or not.

##### **2.2.2 Parental Acceptance-Rejection/Control Questionnaire: Adult Version**

The adult version of Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire (PARQ) was developed by Rohner, Saavedra, and Granum (1978; as cited in Rohner, 2005) to assess the perceived acceptance or rejection by a parent. The Parental questionnaire is a 60-item self-report with four dimensions, namely, Warmth/Affection, Hostility/Aggression, Indifference/Neglect, and Undifferentiated

**Table 2. Characteristics of the Participants**

| <b>Variables</b>                               |   | <b>N</b> | <b>%</b> |
|--|---|----------|----------|
| <b>Age</b>                                     | Younger (17 to 21)                          | 337      | 57.2     |
|  | Older (21 to 50)                            | 252      | 42.8     |
| <b>Gender<br/>(Total: 589)</b>                 | Female                                      | 390      | 66.2     |
|  | Male  | 198      | 33.6     |
|  | Missing                                     | 1        | .2       |
| <b>Faculty<br/>(Total: 589)</b>                | Arts & Sciences                             | 227      | 38.5     |
|  | Engineering                                 | 164      | 27.8     |
|  | Architecture                                | 11       | 1.9      |
|  | Economics & Administrative Sciences         | 84       | 14.3     |
|  | Education                                   | 66       | 11.2     |
|  | Graduate School of Social Sciences          | 16       | 2.7      |
|  | Graduate School of Natural Applied Sciences | 15       | 2.5      |
|  | Medicine                                    | 3        | .5       |
|  | Missing                                     | 3        | .5       |
| <b>Grade<br/>(Total: 589)</b>                  | Preparation                                 | 30       | 5.1      |
|  | Freshman                                    | 136      | 23.1     |
|  | Sophomore                                   | 126      | 21.4     |
|  | Junior                                      | 149      | 25.3     |
|  | Senior                                      | 100      | 17.0     |
|  | Master                                      | 25       | 4.2      |
|  | PhD   | 10       | 1.7      |
|  | Special Student                             | 1        | .2       |
|  | Missing                                     | 12       | 2        |
| <b>Degree<br/>(Total: 589)</b>                 | Undergraduate                               | 553      | 93.9     |
|  | Graduate                                    | 35       | 6.0      |
|  | Missing                                     | 1        | .2       |
| <b>SES<br/>(Total: 589)</b>                    | Low   | 23       | 3.9      |
|  | Lower than medium                           | 47       | 8.0      |
|  | Medium                                      | 370      | 62.8     |
|  | Higher than medium                          | 130      | 22.1     |
|  | High  | 10       | 1.7      |
|  | Missing                                     | 9        | 1.5      |
| <b>Number of Siblings<br/>(Total: 589)</b>     | No Sibling                                  | 80       | 13.6     |
|  | 1 Siblings                                  | 335      | 56.9     |
|  | 2 Siblings                                  | 113      | 19.2     |
|  | 3 Siblings                                  | 34       | 5.8      |
|  | 4 Siblings and More                         | 26       | 4.5      |
|  | Missing                                     | 1        | .2       |
| <b>Living with Parents<br/>(Total: 589)</b>    | Yes   | 230      | 39.0     |
|  | No  | 358      | 60.8     |
|  | Missing                                     | 1        | .2       |
| <b>Region Most Time Spent<br/>(Total: 589)</b> | Metropolis                                  | 337      | 57.2     |
|  | Province                                    | 138      | 23.4     |
|  | Town  | 99       | 16.8     |
|  | Village                                     | 14       | 2.4      |
|  | Missing                                     | 1        | .2       |

Rejection. Respondents rate the items on a four-point Likert type scale from 4, almost always true, to 1, almost never true. Overall score is calculated by summing up all scores after reversing the items of Warmth/Affection dimension. The score range is from 60 (maximum perceived acceptance) to 240 (maximum perceived rejection). That is, higher scores indicate greater parental rejection.

Parental Control Scale was developed by Rohner (1987; as cited in Varan, 2013) to assess retrospectively the adult's perception of his/her parent's behavioral control. Similarly, it is a self-report with 13 items which measure lax, moderate, firm, and strict control. The score range in control scale is from 13 to 52. Higher scores indicate increased level of perceived parental control.

Psychometric properties of PARQ/C were examined by Rohner and Khaleque (2002). Accordingly, the mean weighted Alpha Coefficient was found as .95 for the adult version of PARQ. In addition, test/retest reliability was found as .93 (Khaleque & Rohner, 2002). Likewise, the Parental Control Scale was also found to be reliable and valid (Rohner & Khaleque, 2003).

The adaptation of PARQ/C into Turkish was made by Varan (2013) with approximately 1700 participants from both normal and clinical samples between the ages of 17 and 78. The coefficient alpha scores for the mother and father forms of PARQ ranged between .86 and .96. Internal consistency was found to be as .97 for both forms. The internal consistency of the control subscale was found to be as .84 for the mother form and as .83 for the father form. The findings reveal that the Turkish adaption of PARQ/C was a reliable and valid measure to assess perceived parental acceptance, rejection, and control.

In the present sample, reliability coefficients for the entire forms of Mother and Father PARQ were .97. In addition, reliability coefficients of the subscales were ranging between .86 and .95 for the mother form and between .87 and .96 for the father form.

### **2.2.3 Test of Self-Conscious Affects-3**

The Test of Self-Conscious Affect 3 (TOSCA-3; Tangney & Dearing, 2002) was used in order to measure proneness to shame and guilt. This measure contains 11 negative and five positive scenarios in which some events from daily life and four common reactions to these events take place. These reactions are rated on a five-point Likert type scale, ranging from 1, not likely, to 5, very likely. TOSCA-3 has six subscales, which are determined according to the responses. These are shame-

proneness, guilt-proneness, externalization, detachment/unconcern, and alpha pride and beta pride. Overall scale scores are calculated by summing up responses to relevant items.

Tangney and Dearing conducted three studies for testing the internal consistency of TOSCA-3. Accordingly, the Alpha Coefficients of the subscales were reported as .88, .76, .77 for shame-proneness; .83, .70, .78 for guilt-proneness; .80, .66, .75 for externalization; .77, .60, .72 for detachment; .72, .41, .48 for alpha pride; and .72, .55, .51 for beta pride. The authors emphasized that the short version of TOSCA-3 can also be employed as an alternative shame- and guilt-proneness measure. This version includes only the negative scenarios, which eliminated the pride subscales. They reported that the shame- and guilt-proneness correlated .94 and .93 with the long version (Tangney & Dearing, 2002).

The adaptation of this scale into Turkish was made by Motan (2007). Original dimensions' Alpha Coefficients were found as .78, .68, .68, .59, .39, and .41 for shame-proneness, guilt-proneness, externalization, detachment, alpha pride, and beta pride respectively. The Alpha coefficients after test-retest analysis were reported as .86, .72, .49, .41, .31, and .43 for shame-proneness, guilt-proneness, externalization, detachment, alpha pride, and beta pride, respectively.

In the first set of analysis, five factors were obtained, namely, shame-proneness, externalization, dutifulness/feeling responsible, situational/contextual guilt, and detachment. The Alpha Coefficient scores and test-retest reliability results were found as .81 and .88 for shame-proneness, .75 and .62 for externalization, .73 and .78 for dutifulness/feeling responsible, .71 and .82 for situational/contextual guilt, and .67 and .61 for detachment.

A second set of factor analysis was conducted to force six factors in order to prevent conceptual confusion between dimensions and differences with the original dimensions. Shame-proneness, externalization, detachment, feeling responsible, dishonesty, and contentment were these six factors. The Alpha Coefficients were found as .82, .74, .64, .75, .71, and .65, respectively.

Motan (2007) examined also the short version of TOSCA-3. A Principal Component Analysis was conducted for this. The Alpha Coefficient was found as .82 for the first factor (mixture of shame and guilt items), .75 for the second factor (externalization items), .73 for the third factor (mixture of guilt and pride items), and .56 for the fourth factor (one specific scenario).

In the current study, short version of TOSCA-3, which included shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, was used. Reliability coefficients of these subscales were .81 and .72, respectively.

#### **2.2.4 Basic Personality Traits Inventory**

The Basic Personality Traits Inventory (BPTI; Gençöz & Öncül, 2012) was utilized in order to examine the personality characteristics of the sample. The BPTI is a measure developed particularly for Turkish culture, which is based upon the Five Factor Model of Personality (McCrae & John, 2003; Peabody & Goldberg, 1989). As an initial step, Gençöz and Öncül (2012) conducted a pilot study in which the participants asked to list most commonly used adjectives for describing people who arouse six basic emotions (i. e., happiness, sadness, anger, surprise, disgust, and fear) in them. At the end of this step, 226 adjective were determined as the “List of Personality Characteristics”. Next, this list was given another group of participants and they were asked to rate these adjectives on a five-point Likert-type scale, from 1 (does not represent me at all) to 5 (represents me very well). Varimax rotated factor analysis of the list supported a six-factor solution with 45 items, including Negative Valence as a new dimension in addition to the original personality traits (i. e., Extraversion, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, and Openness to Experience).

Psychometric properties of the BPTI were tested 454 undergraduate students. Accordingly, the internal consistency coefficients for each personality trait were reported as .89 for Extraversion, .85 for Conscientiousness, .85 for Agreeableness, .83 for Neuroticism, .80 for Openness to Experiences, and .71 for Negative Valence. Test-retest reliabilities were reported as .84 for Extraversion, .80 for Conscientiousness, .71 for Agreeableness, .81 for Neuroticism, .83 for Openness to Experiences, and .72 for Negative Valence. The inventory was found to be satisfactorily valid.

In the present study, reliability coefficients of the subscales were .89 for Extraversion, .83 for Conscientiousness, .86 for Agreeableness, .80 for Neuroticism, .79 for Openness to Experience, and .70 Negative Valence.

In this scale, the items of the Extraversion dimension are coded reversely. That’s why; results regarding this dimension will be presented with name of “Introversion” in order to avoid any confusion due to the naming.

### **2.2.5 Brief Symptom Inventory**

Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI; Derogatis, 1992) was utilized to evaluate the psychological symptoms. BSI is a 53-item measure, which is a short form of Symptom Checklist (SCL-90-R).

The original form of BSI includes nine subscales, namely, somatization, obsession-compulsion, interpersonal sensitivity, depression, anxiety, hostility, phobic anxiety, paranoid ideation, and psychoticism. Respondents are asked to rate each item on a five-point scale, from 0 (not at all) to 4 (extremely). The internal consistency reliabilities of the subscales ranged between .71 and .85 and the test-retest reliabilities ranged between .68 and .91.

The adaptation of the BSI into Turkish was made by Şahin and Durak (1994). Statistical analyses revealed five subscales, namely, anxiety, depression, negative self concept, somatization, and hostility. The internal consistency reliabilities ranged between .55 and .86 for these five subscales.

Reliability coefficient of BSI obtained on the present sample was .96. In addition, reliability coefficients of the subscales were ranging between .78 and .89.

### **2.3 Procedure**

Prior to the application of the study, ethical permission was taken from Applied Ethics Research Center of Middle East Technical University. Also, in order to eliminate ordering effect, order of instruments was counterbalanced and different forms were prepared on the basis of this.

Two modalities were utilized for the distribution of the questionnaire package. One of them is printed paper version. The administration of these was made by the researcher. The other modality is internet-based version. Counterbalanced forms that are identical to paper version were also prepared for the internet-based version. For this, different links were created and sent to the participants. An informed consent page was prepared for those who participated via internet, as well. Participants were able to continue after clicking the consent button. Those who did not were kindly thanked for their interest in the study and automatically aborted.

All participants were given informed consent form and confidentiality was assured. Some of the volunteers were given extra credit for their participation. It took approximately 30 – 40 minutes to complete the questionnaires.

## 2.4 Statistical Analysis

In current study, statistical analyses were carried out by Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), 20th version for Windows. First of all, data cleaning process was applied. As a result of this process, 45 cases were deleted. Among them, 17 cases had unfilled scales, 25 cases were identified as multivariate outliers through Mahalanobis distance (46.80,  $p < .001$ ), and three cases were identified as univariate outliers. Afterwards, the main analyses were conducted with the remaining 589 cases.

Second, two samples (printed forms and online forms) were tested via independent-samples t-tests in order to test the equivalence of the samples on the measures of the study. Analyses yielded that there were differences between these two samples on some of the variables (see Table 3). Thereupon, further analyses were also run for these samples, separately. However, due to similar results absence of any dramatic differences between separate samples and combined samples, results of the analyses with combined sample were reported.

**Table 3. Independent T-Tests for Testing the Equivalence of the Samples**

| Variables      | Samples      |          | <i>t</i> | <i>df</i> |
|----------------|--------------|----------|----------|-----------|
|                | Paper Pencil | Internet |          |           |
| Mother W/A     | 30.45        | 33.30    | 3.22*    | 558.529   |
| Mother H/A     | 21.78        | 23.14    | 2.25***  | 581.708   |
| Mother I/N     | 20.83        | 22.40    | 3.01**   | 556.266   |
| Mother URej    | 13.93        | 14.95    | 2.78**   | 568.928   |
| Mother TOTAL   | 87.00        | 93.78    | 3.23*    | 559.193   |
| Mother Control | 31.46        | 31.80    | .55      | 587       |
| Father W/A     | 36.01        | 40.30    | 3.76*    | 573.747   |
| Father H/A     | 21.11        | 23.50    | 3.80*    | 543.826   |
| Father I/N     | 24.93        | 27.59    | 3.83*    | 564.785   |
| Father URej    | 13.70        | 15.30    | 3.99*    | 526.419   |
| Father TOTAL   | 95.75        | 106.69   | 4.39*    | 551.236   |
| Father Control | 30.39        | 30.79    | .61      | 587       |

**Table 3 (Continued)**

| Variables               | Samples      |          | <i>t</i> | <i>df</i> |
|-------------------------|--------------|----------|----------|-----------|
|                         | Paper Pencil | Internet |          |           |
| Shame Proneness         | 30.92        | 32.78    | 2.72     | 587       |
| Guilt Proneness         | 43.21        | 43.50    | .74      | 587       |
| Anxiety                 | 12.50        | 11.83    | -.91     | 587       |
| Depression              | 17.34        | 16.00    | -1.62*** | 568.500   |
| Negative self           | 12.23        | 11.82    | -.561    | 587       |
| Somatization            | 6.58         | 6.03     | -1.12    | 587       |
| Hostility               | 8.89         | 8.02     | -1.93    | 587       |
| BSI TOTAL               | 57.54        | 53.70    | -1.33    | 587       |
| Extraversion            | 20.98        | 21.29    | .56      | 587       |
| Conscientiousness       | 28.32        | 28.03    | -.58     | 587       |
| Agreeableness           | 33.66        | 33.51    | -.44     | 587       |
| Neuroticism             | 23.85        | 24.86    | 1.93     | 587       |
| Openness to Experiences | 21.63        | 20.93    | -2.03    | 587       |
| Negative Valence        | 9.48         | 10.10    | 2.37**   | 582.086   |

Note 1. **Mother W/A:** Maternal Warmth/Affection, **Mother H/A:** Maternal Aggression/Hostility, **Mother I/N:** Maternal Neglect/Indifference, **Mother URej:** Maternal Undifferentiated Rejection, **Mother TOTAL:** Total maternal acceptance/rejection score, **Mother Control:** Maternal Control, **Father W/A:** Paternal Warmth/Affection, **Father H/A:** Paternal Aggression/Hostility, **Father I/N:** Paternal Neglect/Indifference, **Father URej:** Paternal Undifferentiated Rejection, **Father TOTAL:** Total paternal acceptance/rejection score, **Father Control:** Paternal Control, **BSI TOTAL:** Total Brief Symptom Inventory score  
 Note 2. \* $p < .001$ , \*\* $p < .05$ , \*\*\* $p < .01$

Third, a factor analysis was carried out for the TOSCA-3 in order to determine the factor structure for the present sample. Forth, descriptive statistics of the demographic variables and the measures of the study were conducted. Fifth, the correlations between the demographic and main variables of the study were calculated. Sixth, independent samples t-test analyses, univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA), and multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) were performed on the measures of the study with the demographics as the independent variables. Lastly, mediation analyses were employed in order to determine the mediator role of

proneness to shame and guilt between parental acceptance-rejection and psychopathology and personality.

## CHAPTER III

### RESULTS

#### **3.1 Factor Analysis of Test of Self-Conscious Affects-3**

A Principal Component Analysis with varimax rotation was performed in order to confirm the subscales of the short form of the TOSCA-3. First of all, the factorability of the 44 TOSCA-3 items was examined. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of factorability was .79, suggesting a good factorability, and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant,  $\chi^2(946) = 6647.11, p < .001$ . None of the correlation coefficients were above .90, which indicates there was not any multicollinearity between the items. Given these preliminary indicators, factor analysis was conducted with all 44 items.

Since the original and adapted forms of the TOSCA-3 had four subscales; namely, shame-proneness, guilt-proneness, externalization, and detachment, the number of factors to extract was limited to four factors in the present study. For an item to be considered loaded on a factor, it was required to have a loading of at least .30. Hence, the cutoff for the loading score was determined as .30 during the analyses. If an item had a loading higher than .30 on more than one factor, the strength of the loading, semantic content and theoretical correspondence were taken into consideration in order to decide under which factor the item would take place.

The results of the solution are shown in Table 4. Accordingly, four items (1b, 2b, 3c, 10b) were not loaded under any of the four factors. As for another group of four items (1a, 3d, 8a, 10d), although they were loaded under a factor, after reliability analyses, those items whose corrected item total correlation scores were found to be less than .30 were excluded from that factor under which it had been loaded. Ultimately, eight items did not take place in any of the factors. Five items (1c, 3a, 4c, 8b, 10a) were crossloaded across two factors. As stated above, these items were placed taking account of strength of the loading, semantic content and theoretical correspondence. For instance, the items 1c, 3a, and 10a were placed in the factor under which the loading was stronger. However, for 4c and 8b, semantic content and theoretical correspondence was taken into consideration and they took

place where they were semantically and theoretically meaningful, even though they had weaker loadings in that factor.

**Table 4. Varimax Rotated Factor Loading of the short form of Test of Self-Conscious Affects-3 items**

| Items | Factor I   | Factor II  | Factor III | Factor IV |
|-------|------------|------------|------------|-----------|
| 10a   | <b>.62</b> | .13        | .33        | -.14      |
| 5a    | <b>.61</b> | .08        | .03        | .12       |
| 7d    | <b>.59</b> | .21        | .19        | -.10      |
| 5c    | <b>.57</b> | -.29       | -.22       | .19       |
| 6c    | <b>.57</b> | -.24       | -.12       | .13       |
| 6b    | <b>.55</b> | .16        | .21        | .04       |
| 11c   | <b>.54</b> | .16        | .07        | .18       |
| 3a    | <b>.53</b> | .08        | .36        | -.05      |
| 9b    | <b>.53</b> | .27        | .22        | .06       |
| 2d    | <b>.52</b> | -.25       | -.23       | .11       |
| 7a    | <b>.51</b> | -.10       | -.04       | -.02      |
| 2b    | .30        | .19        | -.11       | .25       |
| 3c    | .28        | .04        | .24        | -.12      |
| 1b    | -.26       | .09        | .13        | .01       |
| 2c    | .01        | <b>.55</b> | -.07       | .07       |
| 3b    | .12        | <b>.50</b> | .12        | -.02      |
| 5b    | .01        | <b>.48</b> | -.14       | -.04      |
| 11a   | -.29       | <b>.48</b> | .09        | -.15      |
| 4a    | .07        | <b>.48</b> | -.03       | .02       |
| 11d   | .03        | <b>.46</b> | -.18       | .16       |
| 9a    | -.06       | <b>.45</b> | .15        | -.03      |
| 9d    | -.28       | <b>.45</b> | .13        | .06       |
| 4b    | .08        | <b>.45</b> | .14        | -.12      |
| 1d    | .11        | <b>.43</b> | .01        | -.15      |
| 6a    | -.06       | <b>.41</b> | -.17       | -.03      |
| 7b    | .21        | <b>.40</b> | -.29       | .08       |
| 3d    | .35        | -.39       | .07        | -.05      |
| 10d   | -.13       | .37        | -.20       | .20       |
| 4c    | -.27       | -.36       | <b>.35</b> | .25       |
| 10b   | .09        | .17        | -.12       | .04       |

**Table 4 (Continued)**

| <b>Factors</b> | <b>Factor I</b> | <b>Factor II</b> | <b>Factor III</b> | <b>Factor IV</b> |
|----------------|-----------------|------------------|-------------------|------------------|
| <b>Items</b>   |                 |                  |                   |                  |
| 5d             | -.139           | -.06             | <b>.62</b>        | .03              |
| 9c             | .07             | -.02             | <b>.59</b>        | -.02             |
| 4d             | -.13            | -.22             | <b>.58</b>        | .20              |
| 6d             | .20             | -.08             | <b>.55</b>        | .04              |
| 7c             | .07             | .05              | <b>.53</b>        | .08              |
| 10c            | -.07            | .04              | <b>.52</b>        | -.11             |
| 11b            | -.01            | -.06             | <b>.50</b>        | .17              |
| 2a             | .20             | .02              | <b>.46</b>        | .05              |
| 1c             | -.09            | -.37             | <b>.40</b>        | -.04             |
| 1a             | .21             | -.03             | .35               | .01              |
| 8d             | -.04            | .02              | .19               | <b>.78</b>       |
| 8a             | .09             | -.28             | -.07              | .71              |
| 8c             | .00             | .05              | .20               | <b>.70</b>       |
| 8b             | <b>.33</b>      | .11              | .05               | .62              |

Note. For the items of the scale see Appendix F.

Twelve items took place in the first factor, which was considered as the “Shame-Proneness” subscale. Its eigenvalue was 4.43 and it explained 10.07% of the total variance. Alpha coefficient of this factor was found as .81 and corrected item-total correlations ranged between .34 and .53.

Second factor included 12 items, which corresponded to “Externalization” dimension of the original form of TOSCA-3. Its eigenvalue was 3.78 and it explained 8.59% of the variance. Alpha coefficient of this factor was found as .71 and corrected item-total correlations ranged between .30 and .41.

Ten items took place in the third factor, which was considered as the “Guilt-Proneness” subscale. Its eigenvalue was 3.75 and it explained 8.53% of the total variance by itself. Alpha coefficient of this factor was found as .72 and corrected item-total correlations ranged between .33 and .51.

The last factor was loaded by four items initially. However, due to low Cronbach alpha coefficient value and semantic content, two items were left. Its eigenvalue was 2.52 and it explained 5.73% of the total variance by itself.

Taken together, all these four factors accounted for %32.92% of the total variance. In parallel with the purposes of the present study, only shame-proneness and guilt-proneness dimensions of the TOSCA-3 were utilized.

### **3.2 Descriptive Information for the Measures of the Study**

Means, standard deviations, minimum and maximum scores, and internal consistency were examined for the entire scale and subscales of Mother and Father forms of Parental Acceptance-Rejection/Control Questionnaire (PARQ/C; namely, Warmth/Affection, Hostility/Aggression, Indifference/Neglect, Undifferentiated Rejection, and Control), six subscales of the Basic Personality Traits Inventory (BPTI; namely, Extraversion, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, and Negative Valence), two subscales (namely, Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness) of the Test of Self-Conscious Affects-3 (TOSCA-3; namely, Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness), and the entire scales and five subscales of the Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI; namely, Anxiety, Depression, Negative Self, Somatization, and Hostility) (see Table 5).

**Table 5. Descriptive Information for the Variables of the Study**

| <b>Measures</b>            | <b>N</b> | <b>Mean</b> | <b>SD</b> | <b>Range (Min-Max)</b> | <b>Internal Consistency (<math>\alpha</math>)</b> |
|----------------------------|----------|-------------|-----------|------------------------|---|
| <b>PARQ/C: Mother Form</b> |          |             |           |                        |   |
| Total PAR                  | 589      | 90.51       | 25.98     | 60-193                 | .97   |
| Warmth/Affection           | 589      | 31.93       | 10.92     | 20-72                  | .95   |
| Hostility/Aggression       | 589      | 22.49       | 7.41      | 15-50                  | .92   |
| Indifference/Neglect       | 589      | 21.64       | 6.40      | 15-46                  | .89   |
| Undifferentiated Rejection | 589      | 14.46       | 4.52      | 10-36                  | .86   |
| Control                    | 589      | 31.64       | 7.49      | 13-52                  | .86   |
| <b>PARQ/C: Father Form</b> |          |             |           |                        |   |
| Total PAR                  | 589      | 101.41      | 31.07     | 60-219                 | .97   |
| Warmth/Affection           | 589      | 38.23       | 14.08     | 19-80                  | .96   |
| Hostility/Aggression       | 589      | 22.35       | 7.81      | 14-51                  | .92   |

**Table 5 (Continued)**

| <b>Measures</b>            | <b>N</b> | <b>Mean</b> | <b>SD</b> | <b>Range (Min-Max)</b> | <b>Internal Consistency (<math>\alpha</math>)</b> |
|----------------------------|----------|-------------|-----------|------------------------|---|
| Indifference/Neglect       | 589      | 26.31       | 8.61      | 15-59                  | .91   |
| Undifferentiated Rejection | 589      | 14.53       | 5.00      | 10-35                  | .88   |
| Control                    | 589      | 30.60       | 8.00      | 13-52                  | .87   |
| <b>BSRI</b>                |          |             |           |                        |   |
| Extraversion               | 589      | 21.14       | 6.74      | 8-40                   | .88   |
| Conscientiousness          | 589      | 28.17       | 5.99      | 8-40                   | .83   |
| Agreeableness              | 589      | 33.58       | 4.13      | 18-40                  | .86   |
| Neuroticism                | 589      | 24.37       | 6.38      | 9-42                   | .80   |
| Openness to Experience     | 589      | 21.27       | 4.21      | 6-30                   | .79   |
| Negative Valence           | 589      | 9.80        | 3.20      | 6-25                   | .70   |
| <b>TOSCA-3</b>             |          |             |           |                        |   |
| Shame-Proneness            | 589      | 31.88       | 8.34      | 12-60                  | .81   |
| Guilt-Proneness            | 589      | 43.36       | 4.81      | 25-50                  | .72   |
| <b>BSI</b>                 |          |             |           |                        |   |
| Total BSI                  | 589      | 55.55       | 34.87     | 0-175                  | .96   |
| Anxiety                    | 589      | 12.15       | 8.89      | 0-45                   | .87   |
| Depression                 | 589      | 16.65       | 9.98      | 0-46                   | .89   |
| Negative Self              | 589      | 12.02       | 8.76      | 0-42                   | .86   |
| Somatization               | 589      | 6.30        | 5.98      | 0-32                   | .82   |
| Hostility                  | 589      | 8.44        | 5.46      | 0-25                   | .78   |

Note. **PARQ/C:** Parental Acceptance/Rejection Questionnaire, **BPTI:** Basic Personality Traits Inventory, **TOSCA-3:** Test of Self-Conscious Affects-3, **BSI:** Brief Symptom Inventory

### ***3.3 Intercorrelations between Demographic Variables and Measures of the Study***

Pearson's correlation coefficients were calculated in order to examine the relationship between the demographic variables, parental acceptance-rejection, proneness to shame and guilt, personality, and psychopathology. Detailed information is presented in Table 6.

**Table 6. Intercorrelations between Demographic Variables and the Measures of the Study**

| Variables    | A | G   | I    | SBL          | LWP           | M-TOT        | F-TOT         | S-PR           | G-PR         | I              | C              | A             | N              | O             | NV             | BSI           |
|--------------|---|-----|------|--------------|---------------|--------------|---------------|----------------|--------------|----------------|----------------|---------------|----------------|---------------|----------------|---------------|
| <b>A</b>     | 1 | .08 | -.04 | <b>.12**</b> | <b>.13**</b>  | .04          | <b>.09***</b> | <b>-.08***</b> | .07          | -.06           | .02            | -.03          | -.02           | .07           | .02            | -.02          |
| <b>G</b>     |   | 1   | .01  | .04          | -.04          | .05          | <b>.14*</b>   | <b>-.22*</b>   | <b>-.26*</b> | .08            | <b>-.10***</b> | <b>-.20*</b>  | <b>-.10***</b> | <b>.15*</b>   | <b>.18*</b>    | -.05          |
| <b>I</b>     |   |     | 1    | -.19         | -.05          | <b>-.20*</b> | <b>-.17*</b>  | .02            | .03          | -.16*          | <b>-.10***</b> | <b>.08***</b> | <b>-.10***</b> | .07           | <b>-.10***</b> | <b>-.12**</b> |
| <b>SBL</b>   |   |     |      | 1            | <b>.10***</b> | <b>.19*</b>  | <b>.15*</b>   | -.03           | -.02         | -.03           | .00            | .00           | -.01           | .02           | .06            | .03           |
| <b>LWP</b>   |   |     |      |              | 1             | .02          | .02           | -.07           | -.00         | -.01           | .03            | .01           | -.02           | .04           | -.01           | -.02          |
| <b>M-TOT</b> |   |     |      |              |               | 1            | <b>.48*</b>   | <b>.16*</b>    | <b>-.16*</b> | <b>.15*</b>    | <b>-.15*</b>   | <b>-.22*</b>  | <b>.23*</b>    | <b>-.13*</b>  | <b>.36*</b>    | <b>.28*</b>   |
| <b>F-TOT</b> |   |     |      |              |               |              | 1             | <b>.17*</b>    | <b>-.19*</b> | <b>.16*</b>    | <b>-.16*</b>   | <b>-.28*</b>  | <b>.22*</b>    | <b>-.17*</b>  | .33            | <b>.27*</b>   |
| <b>S-PR</b>  |   |     |      |              |               |              |               | 1              | <b>.12**</b> | <b>.22*</b>    | -.01           | -.02          | <b>.25*</b>    | <b>-.34*</b>  | <b>.15*</b>    | <b>.33*</b>   |
| <b>G-PR</b>  |   |     |      |              |               |              |               |                | 1            | <b>-.10***</b> | <b>.22*</b>    | <b>.40*</b>   | <b>-.15*</b>   | <b>.09***</b> | <b>-.34*</b>   | <b>-.11**</b> |
| <b>I</b>     |   |     |      |              |               |              |               |                |              | 1              | <b>-.17*</b>   | <b>-.36*</b>  | <b>.16*</b>    | <b>-.54*</b>  | <b>.26*</b>    | <b>.25*</b>   |
| <b>C</b>     |   |     |      |              |               |              |               |                |              |                | 1              | <b>.30*</b>   | <b>-.14*</b>   | <b>.12**</b>  | <b>-.25*</b>   | <b>-.17*</b>  |
| <b>A</b>     |   |     |      |              |               |              |               |                |              |                |                | 1             | <b>-.18*</b>   | <b>.35*</b>   | <b>-.45*</b>   | <b>-.18*</b>  |
| <b>N</b>     |   |     |      |              |               |              |               |                |              |                |                |               | 1              | <b>-.21*</b>  | <b>.40*</b>    | <b>.52*</b>   |
| <b>O</b>     |   |     |      |              |               |              |               |                |              |                |                |               |                | 1             | <b>-.15*</b>   | <b>-.28*</b>  |
| <b>NV</b>    |   |     |      |              |               |              |               |                |              |                |                |               |                |               | 1              | <b>.32*</b>   |
| <b>BSI</b>   |   |     |      |              |               |              |               |                |              |                |                |               |                |               |                | 1             |

Note 1. **A:** Age, **G:** Gender, **I:** Income, **SBL:** Number of Sibling, **LWP:** Living with Parents, **R:** Region Most Time Spent, **M-TOT:** Mother PARQ, **F-TOT:** Father PARQ **S-PR:** Shame-Proneness, **G-PR:** Guilt-Proneness, **I:** Introversion, **C:** Conscientiousness, **A:** Agreeableness, **N:** Neuroticism, **O:** Openness to Experience, **NV:** Negative Valence, **BSI:** Brief Symptom Inventory

Note 2. \* $p \leq .001$ , \*\* $p \leq .05$ , \*\*\* $p \leq .01$

### 3.4 Differences of Demographic Variables on the Measures of the Study

Differences of the demographic variables on the studied variables were examined by using independent-samples t-test analyses, univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA), and multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). For this, demographic variables were categorized into two or three groups, which were treated as the independent variables. Results of these analyses were reported only if they were significant in the present study. Related information was given in Table 7.

**Table 7. Categorization of the Demographic Variables**

| <b>Variables</b>              |                            | <b>N</b> | <b>%</b> |
|-------------------------------|----------------------------|----------|----------|
| <b>Age</b>                    | Younger (17 to 21)         | 337      | 57.2     |
|                               | Older (21 to 50)           | 252      | 42.8     |
| <b>Gender</b>                 | Female                     | 390      | 66.2     |
|                               | Male                       | 198      | 33.6     |
|                               | Missing                    | 1        | .2       |
| <b>Number of Siblings</b>     | Having none or one sibling | 415      | 70.5     |
|                               | Having two or more sibling | 174      | 29.5     |
| <b>Living with Parents</b>    | Yes                        | 230      | 39       |
|                               | No                         | 358      | 60.8     |
|                               | Missing                    | 1        | .2       |
| <b>Region Most Time Spent</b> | Metropolis                 | 338      | 57.4     |
|                               | Other                      | 251      | 42.6     |
| <b>Income</b>                 | Low                        | 70       | 11.9     |
|                               | Middle                     | 370      | 62.8     |
|                               | High                       | 149      | 25.3     |

#### 3.4.1 Differences of Demographic Variables on Maternal Acceptance-Rejection/Control

Differences of age, gender, income, number of siblings, living or not living with parents, and region most time spent were analyzed for both the entire scale of maternal PAR and subscales of maternal PAR. Independent-samples t-test analyses, ANOVA, and MANOVA were employed for the further analyses. Gender, income level, and number of siblings were found to be significant on maternal acceptance-rejection/control.<sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup> These three variables were tested on MANOVA for the subscales of PARQ and three-way ANOVA for the total score of PARQ. None of interactions between the variables were found to be significant.

### 3.4.1.1 Differences of Gender on Maternal Acceptance-Rejection/Control

In order to examine the gender effects on maternal acceptance-rejection/control, MANOVA was performed on five dependent variables: Warmth/Affection, Hostility/Aggression, Indifference/Neglect, Undifferentiated Rejection, and Control. Due to the significance of Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices, Pillai's Trace score was used instead of Wilk's Lambda (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). According to this, there was a significant effect of gender on the domains of maternal acceptance-rejection/control [Multivariate  $F(5, 582) = 4.36, p = .001$ ; Pillai's Trace = .04; partial  $\eta^2 = .04$ ]. After the multivariate analyses, results of univariate tests were examined for gender main effects on each of the dependent variable. With the Bonferroni method, each comparison was considered to be significant at the alpha level of .01 (i.e., .05/5). Accordingly, maternal warmth and affection and maternal control was found to be significant. For maternal warmth and affection, males ( $M = 33.58$ ) perceived less maternal warmth and affection than females ( $M = 31.12$ ),  $F(1, 586) = 6.71, p = .01$  and for maternal control, females ( $M = 32.22$ ) reported more maternal control than males ( $M = 30.54$ ),  $F(1, 586) = 6.71, p = .01$  (see Table 8).

**Table 8. Gender Difference on Maternal PARQ/C Domains**

|                                   | Female | Male  | Multivariate F<br>(5, 582) | Univariate F<br>(1, 586) |
|-----------------------------------|--------|-------|----------------------------|--------------------------|
| <b>Maternal PARQ/C domains</b>    |        |       | 4.36*                      |                          |
| <b>Warmth/Affection</b>           | 31.12  | 33.58 |                            | 6.71**                   |
| <b>Hostility/Aggression</b>       | 22.68  | 22.14 |                            | .71                      |
| <b>Indifference/Neglect</b>       | 21.24  | 22.48 |                            | 4.99                     |
| <b>Undifferentiated Rejection</b> | 14.53  | 14.34 |                            | .23                      |
| <b>Control</b>                    | 32.22  | 30.54 |                            | 6.69**                   |

Note. \* $p = .001$ , \*\* $p = .01$

### 3.4.1.2 Differences of Income on Maternal Acceptance-Rejection/Control

In order to examine the effects of income level on maternal acceptance-rejection/control, one-way ANOVA was performed on the total score of maternal

acceptance-rejection. Since Levene's test for equality of variances was found to be violated for the present analysis [Levene Statistic (2, 586) = 6.01,  $p < .01$ ], an adjusted F statistic was used. Using the Welch statistic, a significant main effect of income level on the total score of parental acceptance-rejection was found [ $F(2, 170.246) = 9.51, p < .001$ ]. Post-hoc analyses using Games-Howell test revealed that those individuals who reported themselves on low income level ( $M = 99.61$ ) perceived more maternal rejection than those on high income level ( $M = 84.03$ ). Similarly, those individuals who reported themselves on medium income level ( $M = 91.40$ ) perceived more maternal rejection than those on high income level ( $M = 84.03$ ).

In order to examine the effect of income on five domains of maternal acceptance-rejection/control, MANOVA was performed on Warmth/Affection, Hostility/Aggression, Indifference/Neglect, Undifferentiated Rejection, and Control as dependent variables. Due to the significance of Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices, Pillai's Trace score was used instead of Wilk's Lambda (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). According to this, there was a significant effect of income on the domains of maternal acceptance-rejection/control [Multivariate  $F(10, 1166) = 2.98, p = .001$ ; Pillai's Trace = .05; partial  $\eta^2 = .03$ ] (see Table 9).

**Table 9. Income Differences on Maternal PARQ/C Domains**

|                                   | Low   | Middle | High  | Multivariate<br>F (10, 1166) | Univariate<br>F (2, 586) |
|-----------------------------------|-------|--------|-------|------------------------------|--------------------------|
| <b>Maternal PARQ/C domains</b>    |       |        |       | 2.98*                        |                          |
| <b>Warmth/Affection</b>           | 35.67 | 32.32  | 29.19 |                              | 9.27*                    |
| <b>Hostility/Aggression</b>       | 24.57 | 22.68  | 21.03 |                              | 5.89**                   |
| <b>Indifference/Neglect</b>       | 23.33 | 21.94  | 20.11 |                              | 7.27*                    |
| <b>Undifferentiated Rejection</b> | 16.04 | 14.46  | 13.70 |                              | 6.48**                   |
| <b>Control</b>                    | 34.01 | 31.63  | 30.55 |                              | 5.16**                   |

Note. \* $p \leq .001$ , \*\* $p < .01$

After the multivariate analyses, results of univariate tests were examined for main effects of income on each of the dependent variable. With the Bonferroni

method, each comparison was considered to be significant at the alpha level of .01 (i.e., .05/5). Accordingly, significant differences of income levels were found on each dependent variable. Yet, results of these tests should be interpreted very carefully since the Levene's test for equality of variances revealed that the analyses did not verify the assumption of homogeneity of variances for each dependent variable, except maternal control. According to the results of univariate analyses, a significant difference of income levels was found on maternal Warmth/Affection [ $F(2, 586) = 9.27, p < .001$ ]; a significant difference of income levels was found on maternal Hostility/Aggression [ $F(2, 586) = 5.89, p < .01$ ]; a significant difference of income levels was found on maternal Indifference/Neglect [ $F(2, 586) = 7.27, p = .001$ ]; a significant difference of income levels was found on maternal Undifferentiated Rejection [ $F(2, 586) = 6.48, p < .01$ ]; and a significant difference of income levels was found on maternal Control [ $F(2, 586) = 5.16, p < .01$ ] (see Table 9). Post-hoc analyses using Games-Howell test on the domains of Warmth/Affection, Hostility/Aggression, and Indifference/Neglect revealed that individuals who had a low income perceived less warmth and affection ( $M = 35.67$ ), more hostility and aggression ( $M = 24.57$ ), and more indifference and neglect ( $M = 23.33$ ) from their mothers as compared to those who had a high income ( $M = 29.19$ ,  $M = 21.03$ ,  $M = 20.11$ , respectively). Also, individuals who had a medium income perceived less warmth and affection ( $M = 32.32$ ), more hostility and aggression ( $M = 22.68$ ), and more indifference and neglect ( $M = 21.94$ ) as compared to those who had a high income ( $M = 29.19$  for warmth and affection,  $M = 21.03$  for hostility and aggression, and  $M = 20.11$  for indifference and neglect). Post-hoc analysis using Games-Howell test on the domain of Undifferentiated Rejection revealed that individuals who had a low income ( $M = 16.04$ ) perceived more undifferentiated rejection as compared to those who had a high income ( $M = 13.70$ ). Lastly, post-hoc analysis using Tukey's HSD on the domain of Control revealed that individuals who had a low income ( $M = 34.01$ ) perceived more maternal control as compared to those who had a medium income ( $M = 31.63$ ) and who had a high income ( $M = 30.55$ ).

#### **3.4.1.3 Differences of Number of Siblings on Maternal Acceptance-Rejection/Control**

In order to test the effects of number of siblings on the total score of maternal acceptance/rejection, an independent t-test analysis was conducted. This test was found to be statistically significant,  $t(587) = -4.13, p < .001$  on maternal

acceptance-rejection. These results indicate that the individuals who had two or more siblings ( $M = 97.25$ ) perceived their mothers more rejecting than those who had none or one sibling ( $M = 87.68$ ) (see Table 10).

**Table 10. Differences of Number of Siblings on Maternal Acceptance-Rejection**

|                             | Mean  | SD    | t (587) |
|-----------------------------|-------|-------|---------|
| <b>None or one sibling</b>  | 87.68 | 25.21 | -4.13*  |
| <b>Two or more siblings</b> | 97.25 | 26.63 |         |

Note. \* $p < .001$

In order to examine the effects of number of siblings on five domains of maternal acceptance-rejection/control, MANOVA was performed on Warmth/Affection, Hostility/Aggression, Indifference/Neglect, Undifferentiated Rejection, and Control as dependent variables. Due to the significance of Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices, Pillai's Trace score was used instead of Wilk's Lambda (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). According to this, there was a significant effect of number of siblings on the domains of maternal acceptance-rejection/control [Multivariate  $F(5, 583) = 6.06, p < .001$ ; Pillai's Trace = .05; partial  $\eta^2 = .05$ ] (see Table 11).

**Table 11. Differences of Number of Siblings on Maternal PARQ/C Domains**

|                                   | Having None or One | Having Two or More | Multivariate F (5, 583) | Univariate F (1, 587) |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| <b>Maternal PARQ/C domains</b>    |                    |                    | 6.06*                   |                       |
| <b>Warmth/Affection</b>           | 30.56              | 35.20              |                         | 22.93*                |
| <b>Hostility/Aggression</b>       | 22.13              | 23.34              |                         | 3.34                  |
| <b>Indifference/Neglect</b>       | 20.88              | 23.47              |                         | 20.81*                |
| <b>Undifferentiated Rejection</b> | 14.13              | 15.24              |                         | 7.55**                |
| <b>Control</b>                    | 31.33              | 32.39              |                         | 2.45                  |

Note. \* $p < .001$ , \*\* $p < .01$

After the multivariate analyses, results of univariate tests were examined for main effects of number of siblings on each of the dependent variable. With the Bonferroni method, each comparison was considered to be significant at the alpha level of .01 (i.e., .05/5). Accordingly, significant differences of number of siblings were found on each dependent variable. Yet, results of tests performed for Indifference/Neglect should be interpreted very carefully since the Levene's test for equality of variances revealed that the analysis did not verify the assumption of homogeneity of variances for this variable. According to the results of univariate analyses, a significant difference of number of siblings was found on maternal Warmth/Affection [ $F(1, 587) = 22.93, p < .001$ ]; a significant difference of number of siblings was found on maternal Indifference/Neglect [ $F(1, 587) = 20.81, p < .001$ ]; and a significant difference of number of siblings was found on maternal Undifferentiated Rejection [ $F(1, 587) = 7.55, p < .01$ ]. These results indicate that the individuals who had two or more siblings perceived less warmth and affection ( $M = 35.20$ ), more neglect and indifference ( $M = 23.47$ ), and more undifferentiated rejection ( $M = 15.24$ ) as compared to those who had none or one sibling ( $M = 30.56$  for warmth and affection,  $M = 20.88$  for indifference and neglect, and  $M = 14.13$  for undifferentiated rejection) (see Table 11).

### **3.4.2 Differences of Demographic Variables on Paternal Acceptance-Rejection/Control**

Differences of age, gender, income, number of siblings, living or not living with parents, and region most time spent were analyzed for both the entire scale of paternal PAR and subscales of paternal PAR. Independent-samples t-test analyses, ANOVA, and MANOVA were employed for the further analyses. Gender, income level, and number of siblings were found to be significant on paternal acceptance-rejection/control.<sup>b</sup>

#### **3.4.2.1 Differences of Gender on Paternal Acceptance-Rejection/Control**

In order to examine the gender effects on paternal acceptance-rejection/control, an independent t-test analysis was conducted. This test was found to be statistically significant,  $t(586) = -3.28, p = .001$  on paternal

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<sup>b</sup> These three variables were tested on MANOVA for the subscales of PARQ and three-way ANOVA for the total score of PARQ. None of interactions between the variables were found to be significant.

acceptance-rejection. These results indicate that females ( $M = 98.51$ ) perceived their fathers less rejecting than males ( $M = 107.32$ ) (see Table 12).

**Table 12. Gender Difference on Paternal Acceptance-Rejection**

|               | Mean   | SD    | t (586) |
|---------------|--------|-------|---------|
| <b>Female</b> | 98.51  | 31.24 | -3.28*  |
| <b>Male</b>   | 107.32 | 29.92 |         |

Note. \* $p = .001$

In order to examine the gender effects on five domains of paternal acceptance-rejection/control, MANOVA was performed on Warmth/Affection, Hostility/Aggression, Indifference/Neglect, Undifferentiated Rejection, and Control as dependent variables. According to the results, there was a significant gender effect on the domains of paternal acceptance-rejection/control [Multivariate  $F(5, 582) = 5.55, p < .001$ ; Wilk's' Lambda = .96; partial  $\eta^2 = .05$ ] (see Table 13).

**Table 13. Gender Differences on Paternal PARQ/C Domains**

|                                   | Female | Male  | Multivariate F (5, 582) | Univariate F (2, 586) |
|-----------------------------------|--------|-------|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| <b>Maternal PARQ/C domains</b>    |        |       | 5.55*                   |                       |
| <b>Warmth/Affection</b>           | 36.59  | 41.55 |                         | 16.72*                |
| <b>Hostility/Aggression</b>       | 22.05  | 22.98 |                         | 1.86                  |
| <b>Indifference/Neglect</b>       | 25.69  | 27.57 |                         | 6.28                  |
| <b>Undifferentiated Rejection</b> | 14.18  | 15.23 |                         | 5.81                  |
| <b>Control</b>                    | 30.45  | 30.93 |                         | .48                   |

Note. \* $p < .001$

After the multivariate analyses, results of univariate tests were examined for main gender effects on each dependent variable. With the Bonferroni method, each comparison was considered to be significant at the alpha level of .01 (i.e., .05/5). Accordingly, significant gender differences were found only on the Warmth/Affection domain [ $F(1, 586) = 16.72, p < .001$ ]. These results indicate that females ( $M = 36.59$ ) perceived more warmth and affection from their fathers than males did ( $M = 41.55$ ) (see Table 13).

### **3.4.2.2 Differences of Income on Paternal Acceptance-Rejection/Control**

In order to examine the effects of income level on paternal acceptance-rejection/control, one-way ANOVA was performed on the total score of paternal acceptance-rejection. Since Levene's test for equality of variances was found to be violated for the present analysis [Levene Statistic (2, 586) = 6.57,  $p < .01$ ], an adjusted F statistic was used. Using the Welch statistic, a significant main effect of income level on the total score of parental acceptance-rejection was found [ $F(2, 167.294) = 6.77, p = .001$ ]. Post-hoc analyses using Games-Howell test revealed that those individuals who reported themselves on low income level ( $M = 111.81$ ) perceived more paternal rejection than those on high income level ( $M = 94.92$ ). Similarly, those individuals who reported themselves on medium income level ( $M = 102.06$ ) perceived more paternal rejection than those on high income level ( $M = 94.92$ ). However, individuals who reported themselves on low ( $M = 111.81$ ) and medium income levels ( $M = 102.06$ ) did not differ from each other on the paternal acceptance-rejection.

In order to examine the effects of income level on five domains of paternal acceptance-rejection/control, MANOVA was performed on Warmth/Affection, Hostility/Aggression, Indifference/Neglect, Undifferentiated Rejection, and Control as dependent variables. According to the results, there was a significant gender effect on the domains of paternal acceptance-rejection/control [Multivariate  $F(10, 1164) = 2.22, p < .05$ ; Wilk's' Lambda = .96; partial  $\eta^2 = .02$ ] (see Table 14).

After the multivariate analyses, results of univariate tests were examined for main effects of income on each of the dependent variable. With the Bonferroni method, each comparison was considered to be significant at the alpha level of .01 (i.e., .05/5). Accordingly, significant income level differences were found on the domains of Warmth/Affection and Indifference/Neglect. Yet, results of these tests should be interpreted very carefully since the Levene's test for equality of variances

**Table 14. Income Differences on Paternal PARQ/C Domains**

|                                   | <b>Low</b> | <b>Middle</b> | <b>High</b> | <b>Multivariate<br/>F (10, 1164)</b> | <b>Univariate<br/>F (2, 586)</b> |
|-----------------------------------|------------|---------------|-------------|--------------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| <b>Paternal PARQ/C domains</b>    |            |               |             | 2.22**                               |                                  |
| <b>Warmth/Affection</b>           | 42.83      | 38.48         | 35.44       |                                      | 6.86*                            |
| <b>Hostility/Aggression</b>       | 23.66      | 22.59         | 21.15       |                                      | 2.94                             |
| <b>Indifference/Neglect</b>       | 29.53      | 26.42         | 24.52       |                                      | 8.35*                            |
| <b>Undifferentiated Rejection</b> | 15.80      | 14.57         | 13.82       |                                      | 3.81                             |
| <b>Control</b>                    | 31.80      | 30.63         | 29.95       |                                      | 1.28                             |

Note. \* $p \leq .001$ , \*\* $p < .05$

revealed that the analyses did not verify the assumption of homogeneity of variances for each dependent variable, except paternal control. According to the results of univariate analyses, a significant difference of number of siblings was found on paternal Warmth/Affection [ $F(2, 586) = 6.86, p = .001$ ], and a significant difference of income levels was found on paternal Indifference/Neglect [ $F(2, 586) = 8.35, p < .001$ ] (Table 14). Post-hoc analyses using Games-Howell test on the domain of Warmth/Affection revealed that individuals who had a low income ( $M = 42.83$ ) perceived less warmth and affection from their fathers as compared to those who had a high income ( $M = 35.44$ ). Similarly, those individuals who reported themselves on medium income level ( $M = 38.48$ ) perceived less warmth and affection from their fathers as compared to those who had a high income ( $M = 35.44$ ). Post-hoc analyses using Games-Howell test on the domains of Indifference/Neglect revealed that individuals who had a low income ( $M = 29.53$ ) perceived more indifference and neglect from their fathers as compared to those who had a medium income ( $M = 26.42$ ) and those who had a high income ( $M = 24.52$ ). Similarly, those individuals who reported themselves on medium income level ( $M = 26.42$ ) perceived more indifference and neglect from their fathers as compared to those who had a high income ( $M = 24.52$ ) (see Table 14).

### 3.4.2.3 Differences of Number of Siblings on Paternal Acceptance-Rejection/Control

In order to test the difference of number of siblings on the total score of paternal acceptance/rejection, an independent t-test analysis was conducted. This test was found to be statistically significant,  $t(587) = -3.83$ ,  $p < .001$  on paternal acceptance-rejection. These results indicate that the individuals who had two or more siblings ( $M = 108.89$ ) perceived their fathers more rejecting than those who had none or one sibling ( $M = 98.28$ ) (see Table 15).

**Table 15. Differences of Number of Siblings on Paternal Acceptance-Rejection**

|                             | Mean   | SD    | t (587) |
|-----------------------------|--------|-------|---------|
| <b>None or one sibling</b>  | 98.28  | 29.55 | -3.83*  |
| <b>Two or more siblings</b> | 108.89 | 33.33 |         |

Note. \* $p < .001$

In order to examine the effects of number of siblings on five domains of paternal acceptance-rejection/control, MANOVA was performed on Warmth/Affection, Hostility/Aggression, Indifference/Neglect, Undifferentiated Rejection, and Control as dependent variables. Due to the significance of Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices, Pillai's Trace score was used instead of Wilk's Lambda (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). According to this, there was a significant effect of number of siblings on the domains of paternal acceptance-rejection/control [Multivariate  $F(5, 583) = 4.38$ ,  $p = .001$ ; Pillai's Trace = .04; partial  $\eta^2 = .04$ ] (see Table 16).

After the multivariate analyses, results of univariate tests were examined for main effects of number of siblings on each of the dependent variable. With the Bonferroni method, each comparison was considered to be significant at the alpha level of .01 (i.e.,  $.05/5$ ). Accordingly, significant differences were found on each dependent variable, except Control. Yet, results of tests performed for Hostility/Aggression and Undifferentiated Rejection should be interpreted very carefully since the Levene's test for equality of variances revealed that the analysis did not verify the assumption of homogeneity of variances for these variables. According to the results of univariate analyses, a significant difference of number

**Table 16. Differences of Number of Siblings on Paternal PARQ/C Domains**

|                                   | Having<br>None or One | Having Two<br>or More | Multivariate<br>F (5, 583) | Univariate<br>F (1, 587) |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------|
| <b>Maternal PARQ/C domains</b>    |                       |                       | 4.38*                      |                          |
| <b>Warmth/Affection</b>           | 36.69                 | 41.91                 |                            | 17.33*                   |
| <b>Hostility/Aggression</b>       | 21.78                 | 23.71                 |                            | 7.52**                   |
| <b>Indifference/Neglect</b>       | 25.66                 | 27.84                 |                            | 7.92**                   |
| <b>Undifferentiated Rejection</b> | 14.14                 | 15.44                 |                            | 8.29**                   |
| <b>Control</b>                    | 30.20                 | 31.55                 |                            | 3.54                     |

Note. \* $p \leq .001$ , \*\* $p < .01$

of siblings was found on paternal Warmth/Affection [ $F(1, 587) = 17.33, p < .001$ ]; a significant difference of number of siblings was found on paternal Hostility/Aggression [ $F(1, 587) = 7.52, p < .01$ ]; a significant difference of number of siblings was found on paternal Indifference/Neglect [ $F(1, 587) = 7.92, p < .01$ ]; and a significant difference of number of siblings was found on maternal Undifferentiated Rejection [ $F(1, 587) = 8.29, p < .01$ ]. These results indicate that the individuals who had two or more siblings perceived less warmth and affection ( $M = 41.91$ ), more aggression and hostility ( $M = 23.71$ ), more neglect and indifference ( $M = 27.84$ ), and more undifferentiated rejection ( $M = 15.44$ ) as compared to those who had none or one sibling ( $M = 36.69$  for warmth and affection,  $M = 21.78$  for hostility/aggression,  $M = 25.66$  for indifference and neglect, and  $M = 14.14$  for undifferentiated rejection) (see Table 16).

### 3.4.3 Differences of Demographic Variables on Proneness to Shame and Guilt

Differences of age, gender, income, number of siblings, living or not living with parents, and region most time spent were analyzed for shame-proneness and guilt proneness. MANOVA were employed for the further analyses. Age and gender, were found to be significant on proneness to shame and guilt<sup>c</sup>.

<sup>c</sup> These two variables were tested on MANOVA for the subscales of TOSCA-3. None of interactions between the variables were found to be significant.

### 3.4.3.1 Differences of Age on Proneness to Shame and Guilt

In order to examine the age effects on shame-proneness and guilt proneness, MANOVA was performed. Due to the significance of Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices, Pillai's Trace score was used instead of Wilk's Lambda (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). According to this, there was a significant age effect on shame-proneness and guilt-proneness [Multivariate  $F(2, 586) = 7.85, p = .001$ ; Pillai's Trace = .03; partial  $\eta^2 = .03$ ] (see Table 17).

**Table 17. Age Differences on Shame- and Guilt-Proneness**

|                        | Younger | Older | Multivariate F<br>(2, 586) | Univariate F<br>(1, 587) |
|------------------------|---------|-------|----------------------------|--------------------------|
| <b>TOSCA-3 domains</b> |         |       | 7.85*                      |                          |
| <b>Shame-Proneness</b> | 32.87   | 30.56 |                            | 11.25*                   |
| <b>Guilt-Proneness</b> | 43.07   | 43.74 |                            | 2.79                     |

Note. \* $p \leq .001$

After the multivariate analyses, results of univariate tests were examined for main effects of age on each of the dependent variable. With the Bonferroni method, each comparison was considered to be significant at the alpha level of .025 (i.e., .05/2). Accordingly, significant differences were found on shame-proneness [ $F(1, 587) = 11.25, p = .001$ ]. These results indicate that the individuals who were 21 or younger ( $M = 32.87$ ) were more prone to the emotion of shame than those who were 22 or older ( $M = 30.56$ ) (see Table 17).

### 3.4.3.2 Differences of Gender on Proneness to Shame and Guilt

In order to examine the gender effects on shame-proneness and guilt proneness, MANOVA was performed. Due to the significance of Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices, Pillai's Trace score was used instead of Wilk's Lambda (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). According to this, there was a significant gender effect on shame-proneness and guilt-proneness [Multivariate  $F(2, 585) = 32.96, p < .001$ ; Pillai's Trace = .10; partial  $\eta^2 = .10$ ] (see Table 18).

**Table 18. Gender Differences on Shame- and Guilt-Proneness**

|                        | Female | Male  | Multivariate F<br>(2, 585) | Univariate F<br>(1, 586) |
|------------------------|--------|-------|----------------------------|--------------------------|
| <b>TOSCA-3 domains</b> |        |       | 32.96*                     |                          |
| <b>Shame-Proneness</b> | 33.18  | 29.37 |                            | 28.77*                   |
| <b>Guilt-Proneness</b> | 44.24  | 41.62 |                            | 41.50*                   |

Note. \* $p < .001$

After the multivariate analyses, results of univariate tests were examined for main effects of age on each of the dependent variable. With the Bonferroni method, each comparison was considered to be significant at the alpha level of .025 (i.e.,  $.05/2$ ). Accordingly, significant differences were found on each dependent variable. Yet, results of tests performed for Shame-Proneness should be interpreted very carefully since the Levene's test for equality of variances revealed that the analysis did not verify the assumption of homogeneity of variances for this variable. According to the results of univariate analyses, a significant gender difference was found on shame-proneness [ $F(1, 586) = 28.77, p < .001$ ] and guilt-proneness [ $F(1, 586) = 41.50, p < .001$ ]. These results indicate that the females were more prone to the emotions of shame ( $M = 33.18$ ) and guilt ( $M = 44.24$ ) than males ( $M = 29.37$  for shame-proneness and  $M = 41.62$  for guilt-proneness) (see Table 18).

### 3.4.4 Differences of Demographic Variables on Psychopathology

Differences of age, gender, income, number of siblings, living or not living with parents, and region most time spent were analyzed for psychopathology and measures of psychopathology. Independent-samples t-test analyses, ANOVA, and MANOVA were employed for the further analyses. Gender, income level, and living or not living with parents were found to be significant on psychopathology<sup>d</sup>.

#### 3.4.4.1 Differences of Gender on Psychopathology

In order to examine the gender effects on the measures of psychopathology, MANOVA was performed on five dependent variables: Anxiety, Depression, Negative

<sup>d</sup> These three variables were tested on MANOVA for the subscales of BSI and three-way ANOVA for the total score of BSI. None of interactions between the variables were found to be significant.

Self, Somatization, and Hostility. According to this, there was a significant effect of gender on the domains of psychopathology [Multivariate  $F(5, 582) = 6.45, p < .001$ ; Wilks' Lambda = .95; partial  $\eta^2 = .05$ ]. After the multivariate analyses, results of univariate tests were examined for gender main effects on each of the dependent variable. With the Bonferroni method, each comparison was considered to be significant at the alpha level of .01 (i.e.,  $.05/5$ ). However, following the Bonferroni correction, none of the univariate analyses revealed significant gender differences (see Table 19).

**Table 19. Gender Difference on the Measures of Psychopathology**

|                                | Female | Male  | Multivariate F<br>(5, 582) | Univariate F<br>(1, 586) |
|--------------------------------|--------|-------|----------------------------|--------------------------|
| <b>Psychopathology Domains</b> |        |       | 6.45*                      |                          |
| <b>Anxiety</b>                 | 12.38  | 11.76 |                            | .64                      |
| <b>Depression</b>              | 17.41  | 15.23 |                            | 6.30                     |
| <b>Negative Self</b>           | 12.21  | 11.69 |                            | .47                      |
| <b>Somatization</b>            | 6.67   | 5.58  |                            | 4.40                     |
| <b>Hostility</b>               | 8.26   | 8.83  |                            | 1.42                     |

Note. \* $p < .001$

#### **3.4.4.2 Differences of Income on Psychopathology**

In order to examine the effects of income level on psychopathology, one-way ANOVA was performed on the total score of BSI. Analysis revealed that a significant main effect of income level on the total score of BSI [ $F(2, 586) = 4.50, p < .05$ ] (see Table 20). Post-hoc analyses using Tukey's HSD revealed that those individuals who reported themselves on low income level ( $M = 66.06$ ) reported more psychopathology symptoms than those on medium ( $M = 55.39$ ) and high ( $M = 51.01$ ) income levels.

**Table 20. Analysis of Variance for Psychopathology**

| Source                 | df  | SS        | MS      | F     |
|------------------------|-----|-----------|---------|-------|
| <b>Psychopathology</b> | 2   | 10812.52  | 5406.26 | 4.50* |
| <b>Error</b>           | 586 | 704057.15 | 1201.46 |       |

Note. \* $p < .05$

### 3.4.4.3 Differences of Living with Parents on Psychopathology

In order to examine if there is any difference between individuals living with their parents and those who do not on the measures of psychopathology, MANOVA was performed on five dependent variables: Anxiety, Depression, Negative Self, Somatization, and Hostility. According to this, there was a significant effect on the domains of psychopathology [Multivariate  $F(5, 582) = 4.29, p = .001$ ; Wilks' Lambda = .96; partial  $\eta^2 = .04$ ]. After the multivariate analyses, results of univariate tests were examined for gender main effects on each of the dependent variable. With the Bonferroni method, each comparison was considered to be significant at the alpha level of .01 (i.e.,  $.05/5$ ). However, following the Bonferroni correction, none of the univariate analyses revealed significant differences (see Table 21).

**Table 21. Difference of Living or Not Living with Parents on the Measures of Psychopathology**

|                                | Live with Parents | Not Living with Parents | Multivariate F (5, 582) | Univariate F (1, 586) |
|--------------------------------|-------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| <b>Psychopathology Domains</b> |                   |                         | 5.582*                  |                       |
| <b>Anxiety</b>                 | 12.84             | 11.74                   |                         | 2.14                  |
| <b>Depression</b>              | 16.40             | 16.85                   |                         | .28                   |
| <b>Negative Self</b>           | 12.39             | 11.81                   |                         | .62                   |
| <b>Somatization</b>            | 6.03              | 6.48                    |                         | .82                   |
| <b>Hostility</b>               | 8.92              | 8.15                    |                         | 2.81                  |

Note. \* $p = .001$

### 3.4.5 Differences of Demographic Variables on Personality

Differences of age, gender, income, number of siblings, living or not living with parents, and region most time spent were analyzed for dimensions of personality. MANOVA was employed for the further analyses. Gender, income level, and region most time spent were found to be significant on maternal acceptance-rejection/control<sup>e</sup>.

#### 3.4.5.1 Differences of Gender on Personality

In order to examine the gender effects on dimensions of personality, MANOVA was performed on six dependent variables: Introversion, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, and Negative Valence. Due to the significance of Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices, Pillai's Trace score was used instead of Wilk's Lambda (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). According to this, there was a significant gender effect on personality [Multivariate  $F(6, 581) = 15.52$ ,  $p < .001$ ; Pillai's Trace = .14; partial  $\eta^2 = .14$ ] (Table 22).

**Table 22. Gender Differences on Dimensions of Personality**

|                                  | Female | Male  | Multivariate F<br>(6, 581) | Univariate F<br>(1, 586) |
|----------------------------------|--------|-------|----------------------------|--------------------------|
| <b>Dimensions of Personality</b> |        |       | 15.52*                     |                          |
| <b>Introversion</b>              | 20.79  | 21.86 |                            | 3.32                     |
| <b>Conscientiousness</b>         | 28.57  | 27.35 |                            | 5.51                     |
| <b>Agreeableness</b>             | 34.17  | 32.43 |                            | 24.05*                   |
| <b>Neuroticism</b>               | 24.82  | 23.53 |                            | 5.39                     |
| <b>Openness to Experience</b>    | 20.82  | 22.14 |                            | 13.27*                   |
| <b>Negative Valence</b>          | 9.39   | 10.61 |                            | 19.44*                   |

Note. \* $p < .001$

After the multivariate analyses, results of univariate tests were examined for main effects of gender on each of the dependent variable. With the Bonferroni

<sup>e</sup> These three variables were tested on MANOVA for the subscales of BPTI. None of interactions between the variables were found to be significant.

method, each comparison was considered to be significant at the alpha level of .008 (i.e., .05/6). According to the results of univariate analyses, a significant gender difference was found on Agreeableness [ $F(1, 586) = 24.05, p < .001$ ], on Openness to Experience [ $F(1, 586) = 13.27, p < .001$ ], and on Negative Valence [ $F(1, 586) = 19.44, p < .001$ ]. These results indicate that the females reported themselves as more affectionate, helpful, and trusting ( $M = 34.17$ ) as compared to males ( $M = 32.43$ ). Males reported themselves as being more open to new experiences (22.14) and as having more negative attributions about themselves ( $M = 10.61$ ) as compared to females ( $M = 20.82$  for Openness to Experience,  $M = 9.39$  for Negative Valence) (Table 22).

### 3.4.5.2 Differences of Income on Personality

In order to examine the effects of income level on dimensions of personality, MANOVA was performed on six dependent variables: Introversion, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, and Negative Valence. According to this, there was a significant effect of income on personality [Multivariate  $F(12, 1162) = 3.06, p < .001$ ; Wilks' Lambda = .94; partial  $\eta^2 = .03$ ] (see Table 23).

**Table 23. Income Differences on Dimensions of Personality**

|                                  | Low   | Medium | High  | Multivariate<br>F (11, 1164) | Univariate<br>F (2, 586) |
|----------------------------------|-------|--------|-------|------------------------------|--------------------------|
| <b>Dimensions of Personality</b> |       |        |       | 3.54*                        |                          |
| <b>Introversion</b>              | 22.69 | 21.63  | 19.19 |                              | 9.29*                    |
| <b>Conscientiousness</b>         | 29.81 | 27.96  | 27.91 |                              | 3.02                     |
| <b>Agreeableness</b>             | 33.39 | 33.32  | 34.32 |                              | 3.25                     |
| <b>Neuroticism</b>               | 25.50 | 24.48  | 23.56 |                              | 2.38                     |
| <b>Openness to Experience</b>    | 21.24 | 20.97  | 22.03 |                              | 3.39                     |
| <b>Negative Valence</b>          | 10.34 | 9.90   | 9.30  |                              | 3.07                     |

Note. \* $p < .001$

After the multivariate analyses, results of univariate tests were examined for main effects of income on each of the dependent variable. With the Bonferroni method, each comparison was considered to be significant at the alpha level of .008 (i.e., .05/6). According to the results of univariate analyses, a significant difference was found only on Introversion [ $F(2, 586) = 9.29, p < .001$ ]. These results indicate that individuals who reported themselves on high income group perceive themselves as more active, optimistic, and friendly ( $M = 19.19$ ) as compared to those on medium ( $M = 21.63$ ) and low ( $M = 22.69$ ) income levels (see Table 23).

### 3.4.5.3 Differences of Region Most Time Spent on Personality

In order to examine the effects of region where participants lived in most of their lives on dimensions of personality, MANOVA was performed on six dependent variables: Introversion, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, and Negative Valence. According to this, there was a significant effect of region on personality [Multivariate  $F(6, 582) = 2.11, p < .10$ ; Wilks' Lambda = .98; partial  $\eta^2 = .02$ ] (see Table 24). After the multivariate analyses, results of univariate tests were examined for main effects of age on each of the dependent variable. With the Bonferroni method, each comparison was considered

**Table 24. Differences of Region on Dimensions of Personality**

|                                  | <b>Metropolis</b> | <b>Others</b> | <b>Multivariate F (5, 583)</b> | <b>Univariate F (1, 587)</b> |
|----------------------------------|-------------------|---------------|--------------------------------|------------------------------|
| <b>Dimensions of Personality</b> |                   |               | 2.40*                          |                              |
| <b>Introversion</b>              | 20.67             | 21.78         |                                | 3.94                         |
| <b>Conscientiousness</b>         | 28.24             | 28.07         |                                | .12                          |
| <b>Agreeableness</b>             | 33.43             | 33.78         |                                | .99                          |
| <b>Neuroticism</b>               | 24.67             | 23.96         |                                | 1.77                         |
| <b>Openness to Experience</b>    | 21.54             | 20.90         |                                | 3.27                         |
| <b>Negative Valence</b>          | 9.96              | 9.59          |                                | 1.89                         |

Note. \* $p < .001$

to be significant at the alpha level of .008 (i.e., .05/6). However, following the Bonferroni correction, none of the univariate analyses revealed significant gender differences (see Table 24).

**Table 25. Summary of Differences of Demographic Variables on Measures of the Study**

|  |                | <b>Age</b> | <b>Gender</b> | <b>Income</b> | <b>SBL</b>        | <b>LWP</b> | <b>Region</b> |
|--|----------------|------------|---------------|---------------|-------------------|------------|---------------|
| <b>Maternal Acceptance –<br/>Rejection/Control</b> | <b>M-W/A</b>   | n. s.      | M<F           | L<H, M<H      | 1 or no>2 or more | n. s.      | n. s.         |
|  | <b>M-H/A</b>   | n. s.      | n. s.         | L>H, M>H      | n. s.             | n. s.      | n. s.         |
|  | <b>M-I/N</b>   | n. s.      | n. s.         | L>H, M>H      | 1 or no<2 or more | n. s.      | n. s.         |
|  | <b>M-UR</b>    | n. s.      | n. s.         | L>H           | 1 or no<2 or more | n. s.      | n. s.         |
|  | <b>M-C</b>     | n. s.      | M<F           | L>H, L>M      | n. s.             | n. s.      | n. s.         |
|  | <b>M-TOT</b>   | n. s.      | n. s.         | L>H, M>H      | 1 or no<2 or more | n. s.      | n. s.         |
| <b>Paternal Acceptance –<br/>Rejection/Control</b> | <b>P-W/A</b>   | n. s.      | n. s.         | L<H, M<H      | 1 or no>2 or more | n. s.      | n. s.         |
|  | <b>P-H/A</b>   | n. s.      | n. s.         | n. s.         | 1 or no<2 or more | n. s.      | n. s.         |
|  | <b>P-I/N</b>   | n. s.      | n. s.         | L>M>H         | n. s.             | n. s.      | n. s.         |
|  | <b>P-UR</b>    | n. s.      | n. s.         | n. s.         | n. s.             | n. s.      | n. s.         |
|  | <b>P-C</b>     | n. s.      | n. s.         | n. s.         | n. s.             | n. s.      | n. s.         |
|  | <b>P-TOT</b>   | n. s.      | n. s.         | L>H, M>H      | 1 or no<2 or more | n. s.      | n. s.         |
| <b>TOSCA<br/>-3</b>                                | <b>S-PR</b>    | Y>O        | F>M           | n. s.         | n. s.             | n. s.      | n. s.         |
|  | <b>G-PR</b>    | n. s.      | F>M           | n. s.         | n. s.             | n. s.      | n. s.         |
| <b>PSYCHOPATHOLOGY</b>                             | <b>A</b>       | n. s.      | n. s.         | n. s.         | n. s.             | n. s.      | n. s.         |
|  | <b>D</b>       | n. s.      | n. s.         | n. s.         | n. s.             | n. s.      | n. s.         |
|  | <b>NS</b>      | n. s.      | n. s.         | n. s.         | n. s.             | n. s.      | n. s.         |
|  | <b>S</b>       | n. s.      | n. s.         | n. s.         | n. s.             | n. s.      | n. s.         |
|  | <b>H</b>       | n. s.      | n. s.         | n. s.         | n. s.             | n. s.      | n. s.         |
|  | <b>BSI-TOT</b> | n. s.      | n. s.         | L>M, L>H      | n. s.             | n. s.      | n. s.         |

**Table 25 (Continued)**

|                    |           | <b>Age</b> | <b>Gender</b> | <b>Income</b> | <b>SBL</b> | <b>LWP</b> | <b>Region</b> |
|--------------------|-----------|------------|---------------|---------------|------------|------------|---------------|
| <b>PERSONALITY</b> | <b>E</b>  | n. s.      | n. s.         | L>M, L>H      | n. s.      | n. s.      | n. s.         |
|                    | <b>C</b>  | n. s.      | n. s.         | n. s.         | n. s.      | n. s.      | n. s.         |
|                    | <b>A</b>  | n. s.      | F>M           | n. s.         | n. s.      | n. s.      | n. s.         |
|                    | <b>N</b>  | n. s.      | n. s.         | n. s.         | n. s.      | n. s.      | n. s.         |
|                    | <b>O</b>  | n. s.      | F<M           | n. s.         | n. s.      | n. s.      | n. s.         |
|                    | <b>NV</b> | n. s.      | F<M           | n. s.         | n. s.      | n. s.      | n. s.         |

Note. **SBL**: Number of Sibling, **LWP**: Living with Parents, **M**: Males, **F**: Females, **L**: Low Income, **M**: Medium Income, **H**: High Income, **Y**: Younger, **O**: Older, **n. s.**: Non-significant, **M-W/A**: Maternal Warmth/Affection, **M-H/A**: Maternal Hostility/Aggression, **M-I/N**: Maternal Indifference/Neglect, **M-UR**: Maternal Undifferentiated Regression, **M-C**: Maternal Control, **M-TOT**: Maternal Rejection (Total), **P-W/A**: Paternal Warmth/Affection, **P-H/A**: Paternal Hostility/Aggression, **P-I/N**: Paternal Indifference/Neglect, **P-UR**: Paternal Undifferentiated Regression, **P-C**: Paternal Control, **P-TOT**: Paternal Rejection (Total), **A**: Anxiety, **D**: Depression, **NS**: Negative Self, **S**: Somatization, **H**: Hostility, **BSI-TOT**: Total Score of Brief Symptom Inventory **S-PR**: Shame-Proneness, **G-PR**: Guilt-Proneness, **E**: Extraversion, **C**: Conscientiousness, **A**: Agreeableness, **N**: Neuroticism, **O**: Openness to Experience, **NV**: Negative Valence

### 3.5 Mediation Analyses

In order to examine the mediating roles of shame-proneness and guilt-proneness between parental acceptance-rejection as independent variable and personality and psychopathology as dependent variables, a number of serial mediation models were tested using the PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2013) for SPSS, which is a computational tool executing mediation, moderation analyses or combinations of these two procedures. PROCESS procedure was preferred since it supports the bootstrapping application and it does not posit the assumption of normality of the sampling distribution as compared to Sobel test, which is a common method for measuring the significance of the indirect effect. Also, bootstrapping method provides more statistical power than Sobel test (Hayes, 2008).

Several mediation analyses were carried out for testing the mediator roles of shame-proneness and guilt-proneness for maternal and paternal acceptance-rejection separately. Each domain of maternal and paternal acceptance-rejection

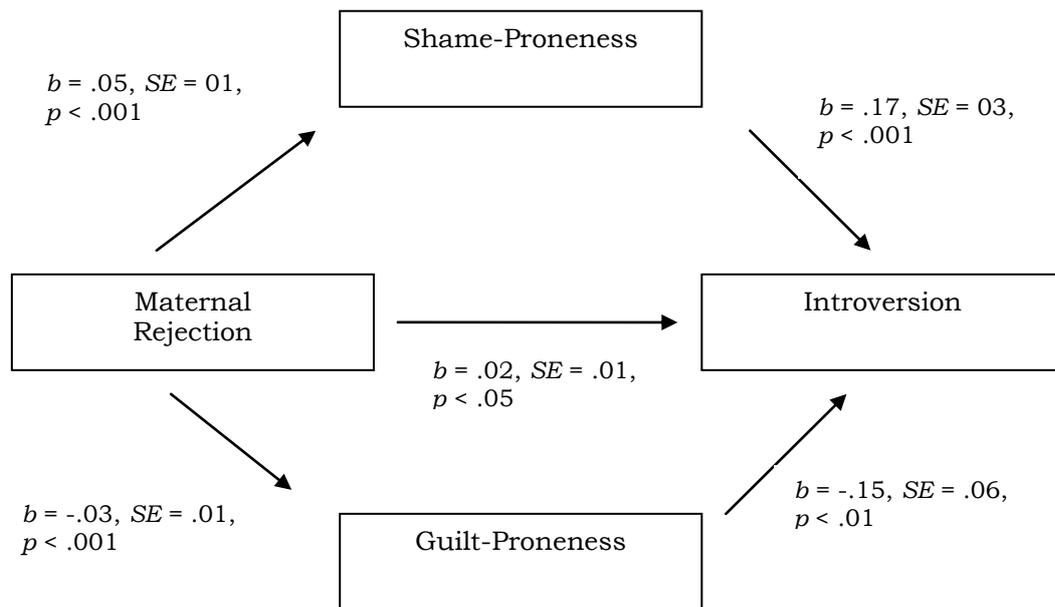
(i.e. Warmth/Affection, Hostility/Aggression, Indifference/Neglect, Undifferentiated Rejection, and Control) was evaluated as well as the total score of this variable. The outcome variables were Introversion, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, Negative Valence, and Psychopathology. In the analyses, mediation is significant if the confidence intervals did not include zero. Results were presented based on 5000 bootstrapped samples.

In this section, total scores of parental acceptance-rejection will be presented for the sake of simplicity. Interested readers are invited to see Appendix A in order to examine the findings in detail on the basis of the subscales of PARQ/C.

### **3.5.1 The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Acceptance-Rejection and Introversion**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal acceptance-rejection and introversion via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure 4). Results of the analysis revealed that maternal acceptance-rejection was significantly associated with introversion domain of personality ( $b = .04$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = 3.57$ ,  $p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for maternal acceptance-rejection. Further, maternal acceptance-rejection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .05$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = 3.80$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.03$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = -4.01$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal acceptance-rejection on introversion indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .009$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .004 to .014) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .005$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .001 to .010). Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from maternal acceptance-rejection to introversion.

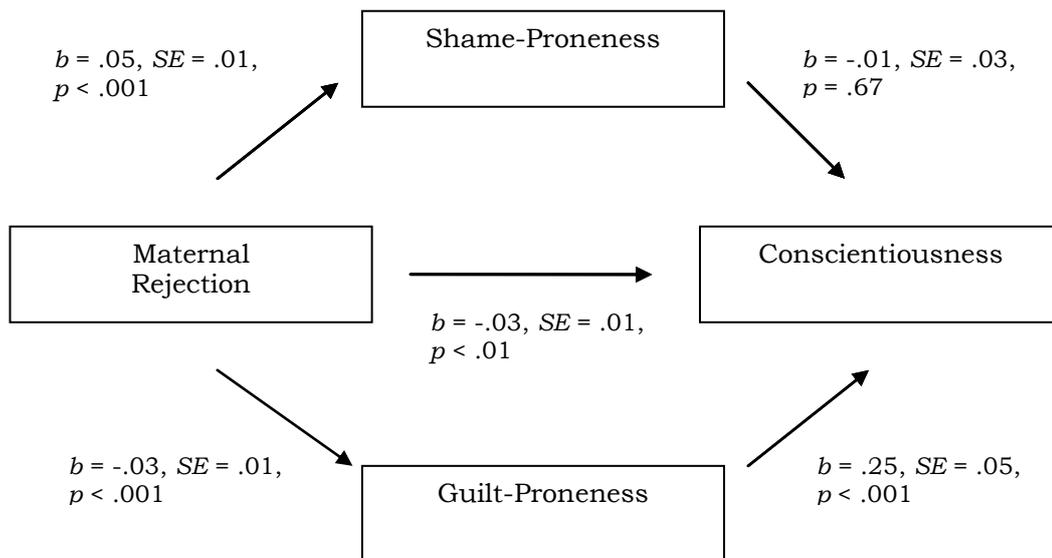


**Figure 4. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Acceptance-Rejection and Introversion**

### 3.5.2 The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Acceptance-Rejection and Conscientiousness

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal acceptance-rejection and conscientiousness via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure 5). Results of the analysis revealed that maternal acceptance-rejection was significantly associated with conscientiousness domain of personality ( $b = -.03$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = -3.59$ ,  $p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for maternal acceptance-rejection. Further, maternal acceptance-rejection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .05$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = 3.80$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.03$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = -4.01$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal acceptance-rejection on conscientiousness indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through guilt-proneness ( $b = -.008$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.014$  to  $-.003$ ). Shame was not found to be a significant mediator as evidenced by the 95% bootstrap confidence interval including zero. Results showed a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that guilt-proneness had a more powerful effect than shame-proneness on the path from maternal acceptance-rejection to conscientiousness ( $b = .007$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $.002$  to  $.013$ ).

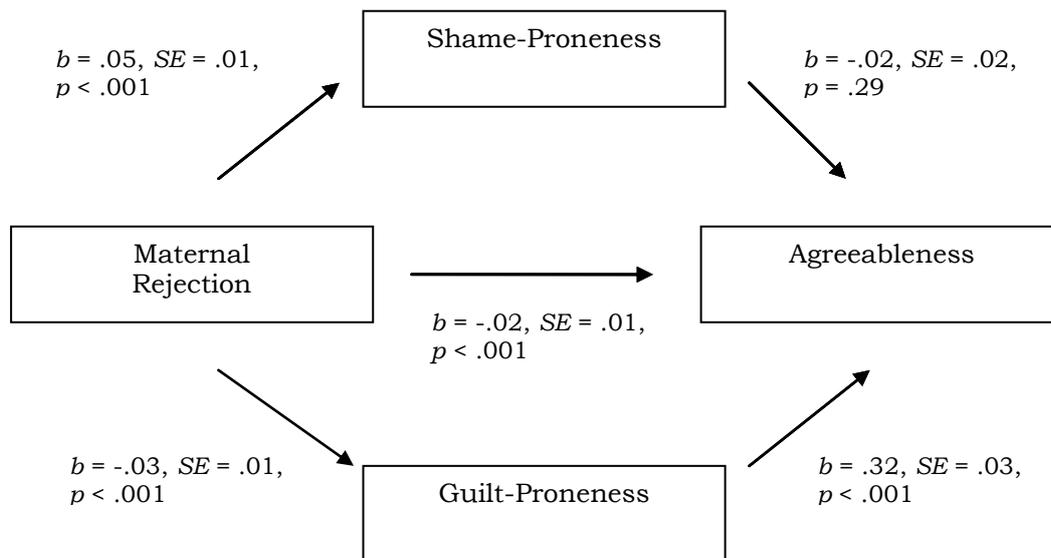


**Figure 5. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Acceptance-Rejection and Conscientiousness**

### 3.5.3 The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Acceptance-Rejection and Agreeableness

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal acceptance-rejection and agreeableness via shame- and guilt-proneness (Figure 6). Results of the analysis revealed that maternal acceptance-rejection was significantly associated with agreeableness domain of personality ( $b = -.04$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = -5.56$ ,  $p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for maternal acceptance-rejection. Further, maternal acceptance-rejection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .05$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = 3.80$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.03$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = -4.01$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal acceptance-rejection on agreeableness indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through guilt-proneness ( $b = -.010$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.016$  to  $-.005$ ). Shame was not found to be a significant mediator as evidenced by the 95% bootstrap confidence interval including zero. Results showed a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that guilt-proneness had a more powerful effect than shame-proneness on the path from maternal acceptance-rejection to conscientiousness ( $b = .009$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $.004$  to  $.016$ ).

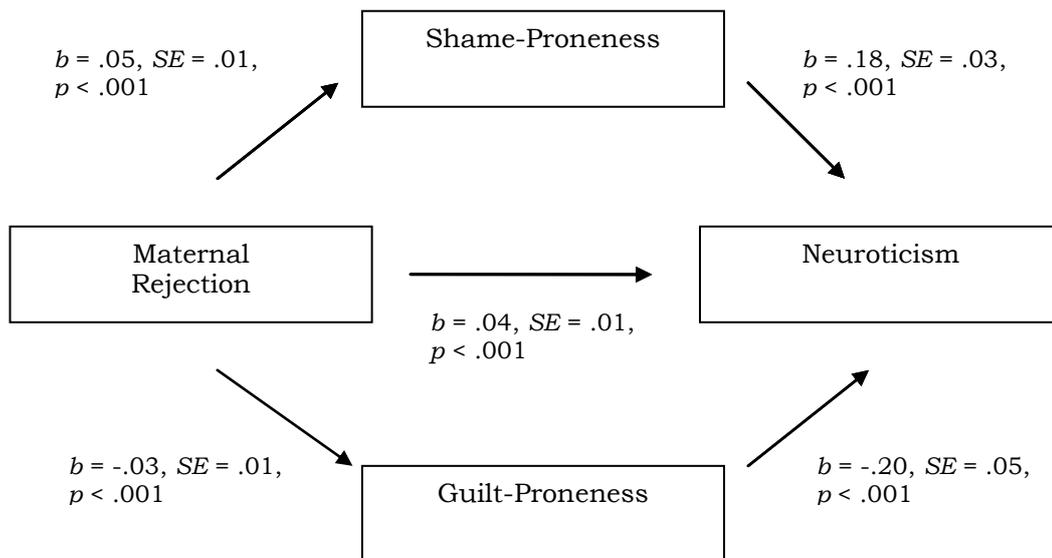


**Figure 6. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Acceptance-Rejection and Agreeableness**

### 3.5.4 The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Acceptance-Rejection and Neuroticism

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal acceptance-rejection and neuroticism via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure 7). Results of the analysis revealed that maternal acceptance-rejection was significantly associated with neuroticism domain of personality ( $b = .06$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = 5.60$ ,  $p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for maternal acceptance-rejection. Further, maternal acceptance-rejection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .05$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = 3.80$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.03$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = -4.01$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal acceptance-rejection on neuroticism indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .009$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .005 to .015) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .006$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .002 to .012). Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from maternal acceptance-rejection to neuroticism.

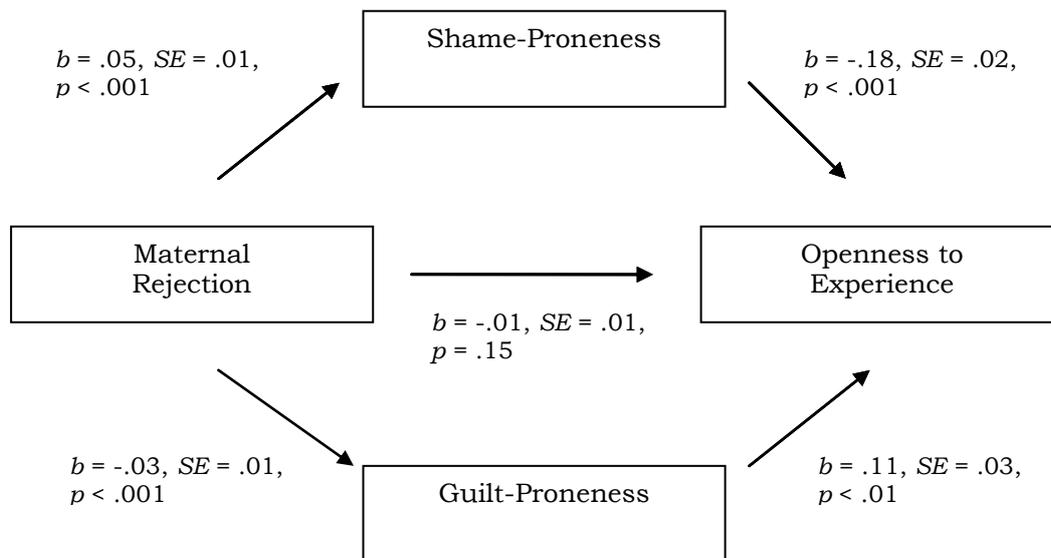


**Figure 7. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Acceptance-Rejection and Neuroticism**

### 3.5.5 The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Acceptance-Rejection and Openness to Experience

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal acceptance-rejection and openness to experience via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure 8). Results of the analysis revealed that maternal acceptance-rejection was significantly associated with openness to experience domain of personality ( $b = -.02$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = -3.20$ ,  $p < .01$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for maternal acceptance-rejection. Further, maternal acceptance-rejection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .05$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = 3.80$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.03$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = -4.01$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal acceptance-rejection on openness to experience indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = -.009$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.014$  to  $-.004$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.003$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.007$  to  $-.001$ ). Results showed a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness had a more powerful effect than guilt-proneness on the path from maternal acceptance-rejection to openness to experience ( $b = -.006$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.011$  to  $-.0002$ ).

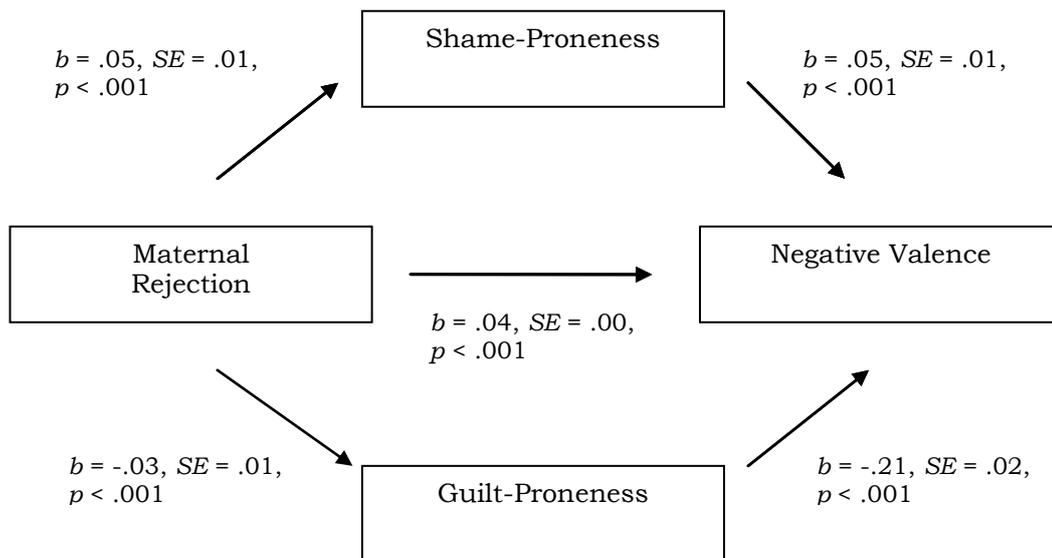


**Figure 8. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Acceptance-Rejection and Openness to Experiences**

### 3.5.6 The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Acceptance-Rejection and Negative Valence

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal acceptance-rejection and Negative Valence via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure 9). Results of the analysis revealed that maternal acceptance-rejection was significantly associated with negative valence domain of personality ( $b = .04, SE = .005, t = 9.42, p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for maternal acceptance-rejection. Further, maternal acceptance-rejection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .05, SE = .01, t = 3.80, p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.03, SE = .01, t = -4.01, p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal acceptance-rejection on negative valence indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .003, 95\% \text{ bootstrap confidence interval (CI) } .001 \text{ to } .005$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .006, 95\% \text{ bootstrap confidence interval (CI) } .003 \text{ to } .011$ ). Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from maternal acceptance-rejection to negative valence.

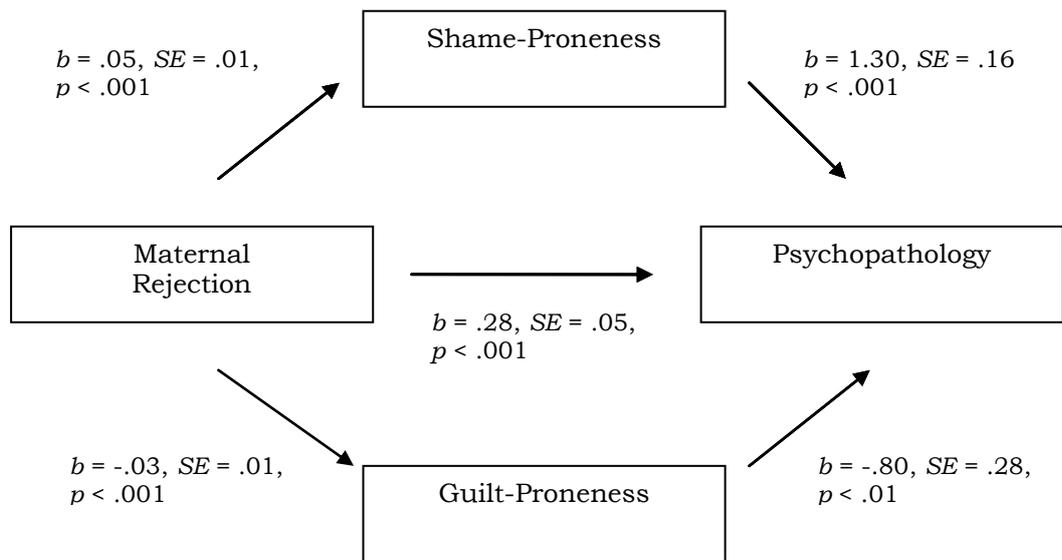


**Figure 9. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Acceptance-Rejection and Negative Valence**

### 3.5.7 The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Acceptance-Rejection and Psychopathology

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal acceptance-rejection and psychopathology via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure 10). Results of the analysis revealed that maternal acceptance-rejection was significantly associated with psychopathology domain of personality ( $b = .37, SE = .05, t = 7.02, p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for maternal acceptance-rejection. Further, maternal acceptance-rejection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .05, SE = .01, t = 3.80, p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.03, SE = .01, t = -4.01, p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal acceptance-rejection on psychopathology indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .065, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .034 to .102) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .024, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .007 to .053). Results showed a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness had a more powerful effect than guilt-proneness on the path from maternal acceptance-rejection to psychopathology ( $b = .040, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .0002 to .083).

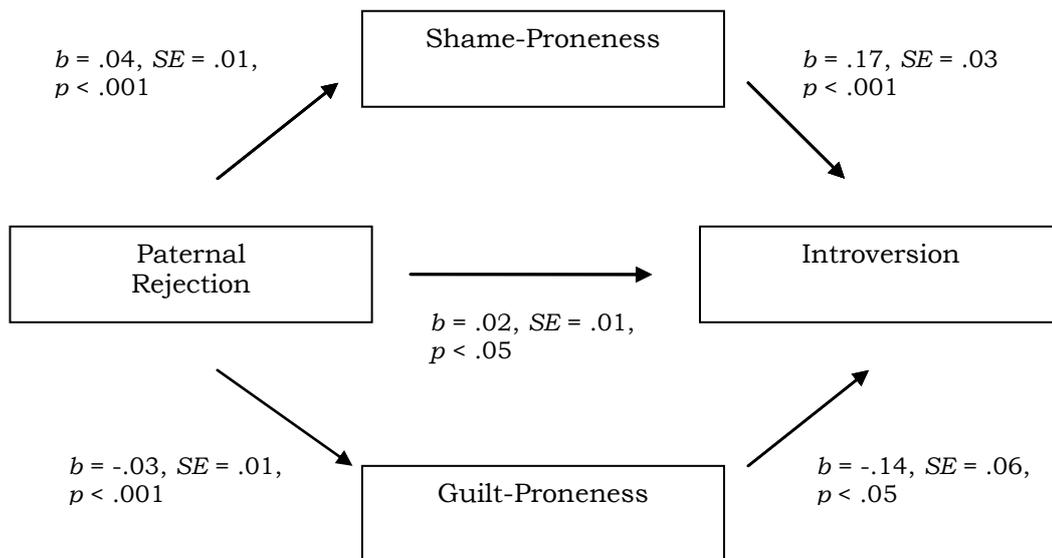


**Figure 10. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Acceptance-Rejection and Psychopathology**

### 3.5.8 The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Acceptance-Rejection and Introversion

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal acceptance-rejection and introversion via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure 11). Results of the analysis revealed that paternal acceptance-rejection was significantly associated with introversion domain of personality ( $b = .03$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = 3.83$ ,  $p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for paternal acceptance-rejection. Further, paternal acceptance-rejection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .04$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = 4.08$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.03$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = -4.80$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal acceptance-rejection on introversion indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .008$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .003 to .014) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .004$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .001 to .009). Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from paternal acceptance-rejection to introversion.

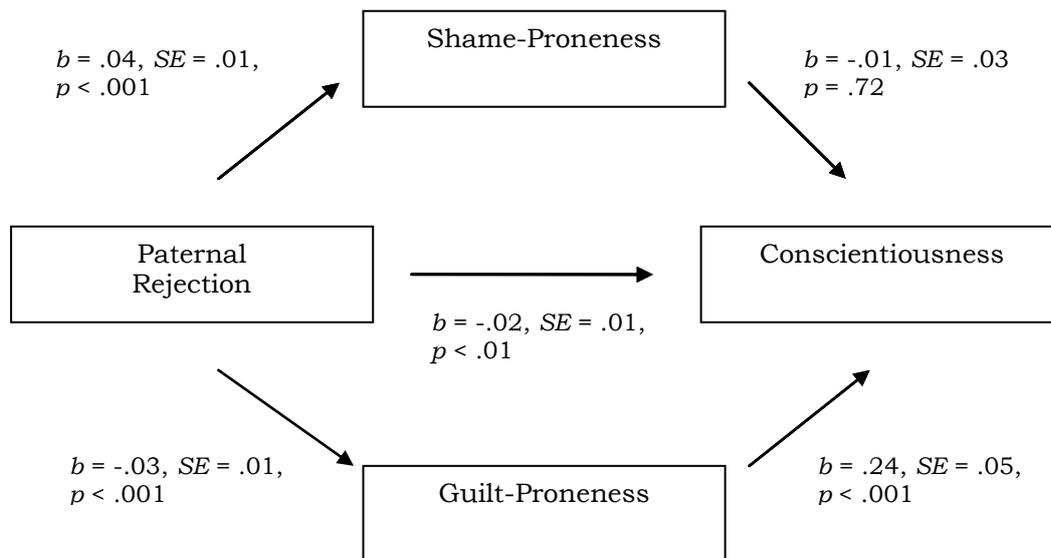


**Figure 11. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Acceptance-Rejection and Introversion**

### 3.5.9 The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Acceptance-Rejection and Conscientiousness

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal acceptance-rejection and conscientiousness via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure 12). Results of the analysis revealed that paternal acceptance-rejection was significantly associated with conscientiousness domain of personality ( $b = -.03$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = -3.89$ ,  $p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for paternal acceptance-rejection. Further, paternal acceptance-rejection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .04$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = 4.08$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.03$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = -4.80$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal acceptance-rejection on conscientiousness indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through guilt-proneness ( $b = -.007$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.013$  to  $-.004$ ). Shame was not found to be a significant mediator as evidenced by the 95% bootstrap confidence interval including zero. Results showed a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that guilt-proneness had a more powerful effect than shame-proneness on the path from maternal acceptance-rejection to conscientiousness ( $b = .007$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $.002$  to  $.012$ ).

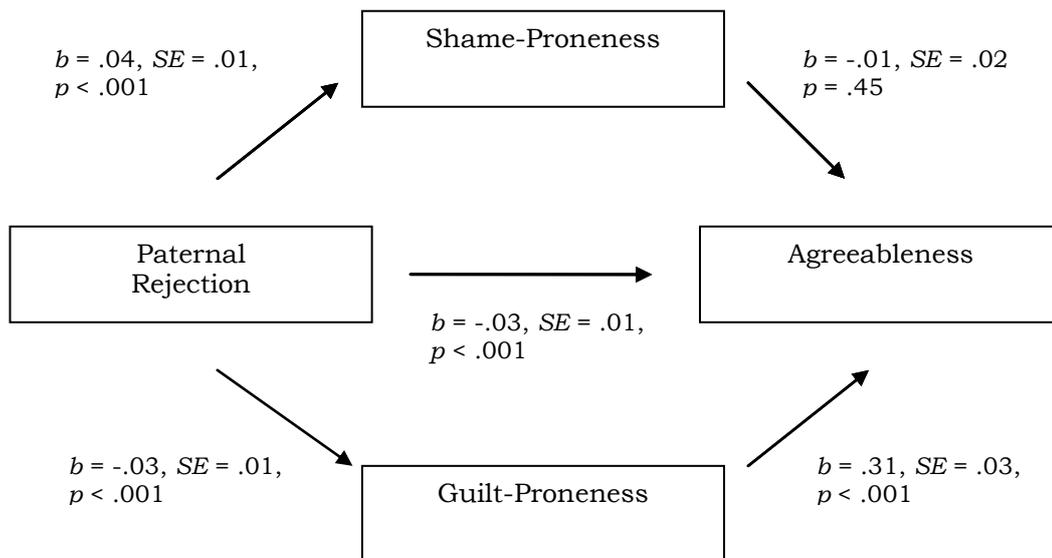


**Figure 12. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Acceptance-Rejection and Conscientiousness**

### 3.5.10 The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Acceptance-Rejection and Agreeableness

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal acceptance-rejection and agreeableness via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure 13). Results of the analysis revealed that paternal acceptance-rejection was significantly associated with agreeableness domain of personality ( $b = -.04$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = -7.08$ ,  $p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for paternal acceptance-rejection. Further, paternal acceptance-rejection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .04$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = 4.08$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.03$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = -4.80$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal acceptance-rejection on agreeableness indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through guilt-proneness ( $b = -.009$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.014$  to  $-.005$ ). Shame was not found to be a significant mediator as evidenced by the 95% bootstrap confidence interval including zero. Results showed a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that guilt-proneness had a more powerful effect than shame-proneness on the path from maternal acceptance-rejection to conscientiousness ( $b = .009$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $.004$  to  $.014$ ).

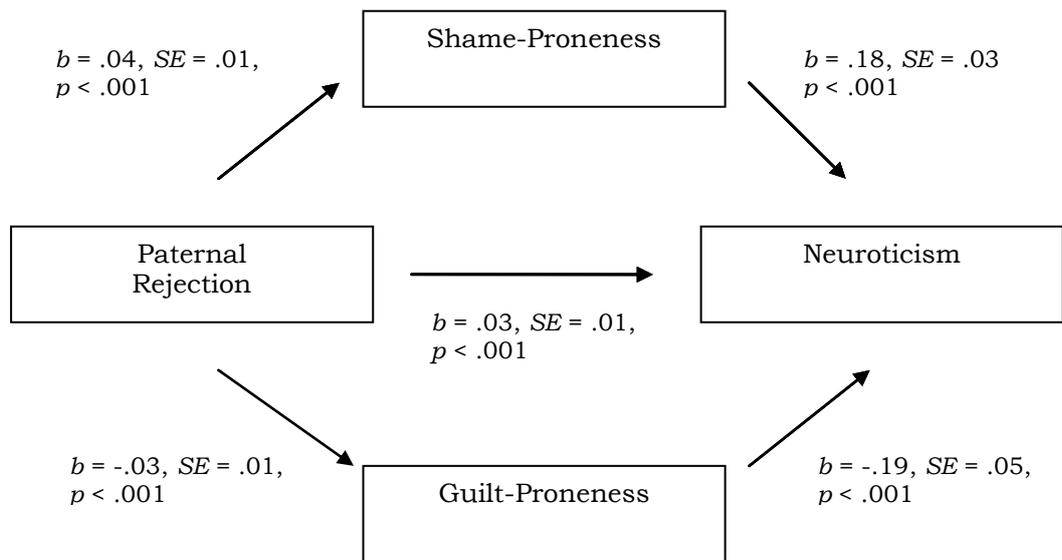


**Figure 13. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Acceptance-Rejection and Agreeableness**

### 3.5.11 The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Acceptance-Rejection and Neuroticism

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal acceptance-rejection and neuroticism via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure 14). Results of the analysis revealed that paternal acceptance-rejection was significantly associated with neuroticism domain of personality ( $b = .05, SE = .01, t = 5.47, p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for paternal acceptance-rejection. Further, paternal acceptance-rejection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .04, SE = .01, t = 4.08, p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.03, SE = .01, t = -4.80, p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal acceptance-rejection on neuroticism indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .008, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .004 to .014) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .006, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .002 to .011). Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from paternal acceptance-rejection to neuroticism.

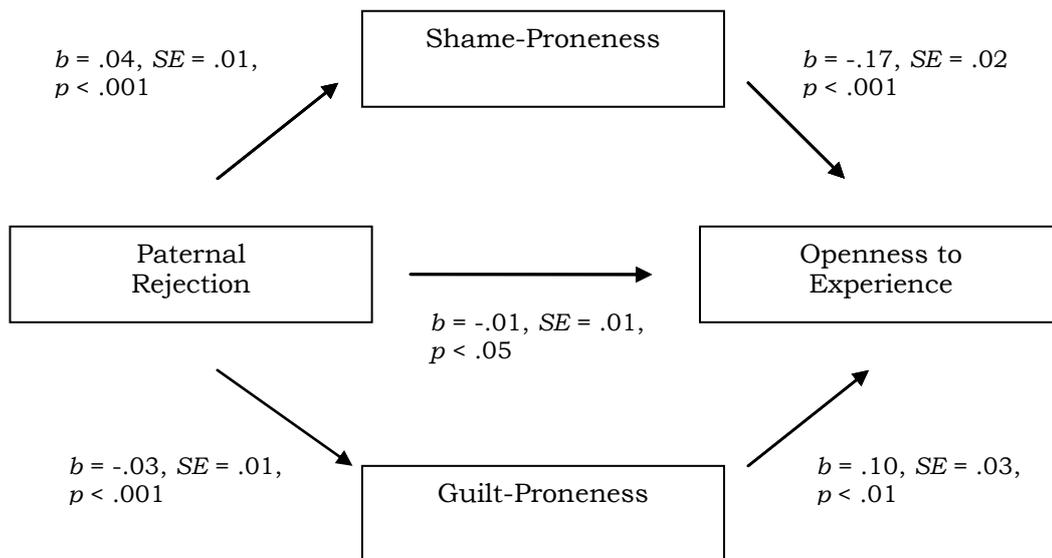


**Figure 14. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Acceptance-Rejection and Neuroticism**

### 3.5.12 The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Acceptance-Rejection and Openness to Experience

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal acceptance-rejection and openness to experience via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure 15). Results of the analysis revealed that paternal acceptance-rejection was significantly associated with openness to experience domain of personality ( $b = -.02$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = -4.27$ ,  $p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for paternal acceptance-rejection. Further, paternal acceptance-rejection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .04$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = 4.08$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.03$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = -4.80$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal acceptance-rejection on openness to experience indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = -.008$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.013$  to  $-.004$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.003$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.006$  to  $-.001$ ). Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from paternal acceptance-rejection to openness to experience.

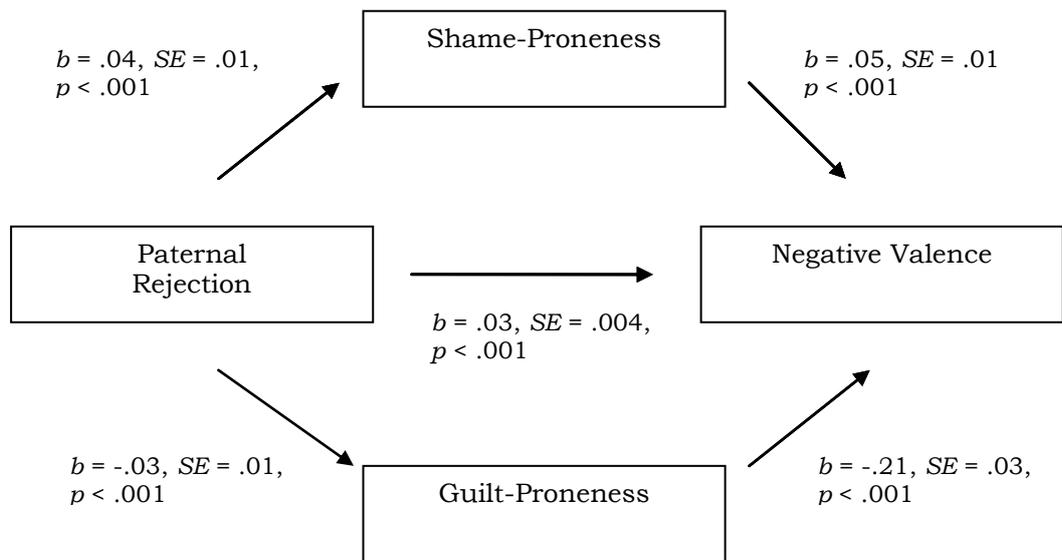


**Figure 15. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Acceptance-Rejection and Openness to Experience**

### 3.5.13 The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Acceptance-Rejection and Negative Valence

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal acceptance-rejection and negative valence via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure 16). Results of the analysis revealed that paternal acceptance-rejection was significantly associated with negative valence domain of personality ( $b = .03$ ,  $SE = .004$ ,  $t = 8.58$ ,  $p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for paternal acceptance-rejection. Further, paternal acceptance-rejection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .04$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = 4.08$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.03$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = -4.80$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal acceptance-rejection on negative valence indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .002$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .001 to .004) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .006$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .003 to .010). Results also showed a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that guilt-proneness had a more powerful effect than shame-proneness on the path from paternal acceptance-rejection to negative valence ( $b = -.004$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) -.008 to -.0004).

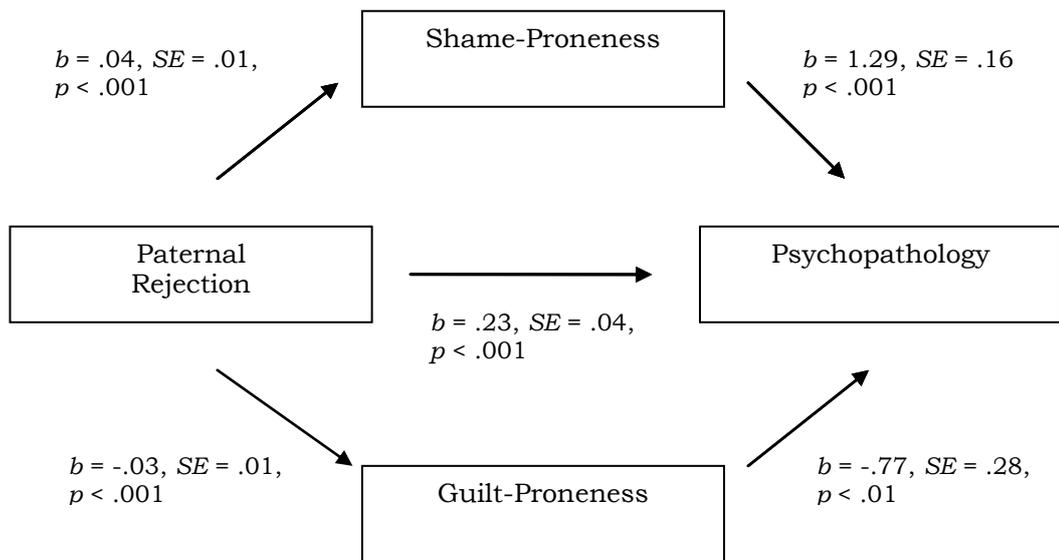


**Figure 16. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Acceptance-Rejection and Negative Valence**

### 3.5.14 The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Acceptance-Rejection and Psychopathology

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal acceptance-rejection and psychopathology via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure 17). Results of the analysis revealed that paternal acceptance-rejection was significantly associated with psychopathology domain of personality ( $b = .31, SE = .04, t = 6.88, p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for paternal acceptance-rejection. Further, paternal acceptance-rejection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .04, SE = .01, t = 4.08, p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.03, SE = .01, t = -4.80, p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal acceptance-rejection on psychopathology indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .058, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .028 to .093) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .023, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .006 to .049). Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from paternal acceptance-rejection to psychopathology.



**Figure 17. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Acceptance-Rejection and Psychopathology**

## CHAPTER 4

### DISCUSSION

The current study has started out with the question of how emotions of shame and guilt were transferred to the child from the parents or how the child's internalized parental figures played a role in the development of shame and guilt. As is known, in his social learning theory, Albert Bandura places modeling, or imitating, as strong ways for learning, developing personal standards and a sense of self-efficacy (Beck, 2006). The child lays the foundations of viewing the self and the external world on the basis of parental reactions, behaviors, and attitudes. In a sense, they use their parents as mirrors. In psychoanalytic literature, mirroring is defined as "all transactions characterizing the mother – child relationship, including not only the reflections of grandiosity, but also constancy, nurturance, a general empathy and respect" (Kohut, 1977, pp. 146 – 147; as cited in Romano, 2004). Mirroring is linked with the validation of sense of self of the child according to this view. The child places his/her being on the basis of such feedbacks from the parents. Carrilio and Walter (1984) point out to the delicate balance between intimacy through mirroring and autonomy. They put an emphasis on the child's ability to replace maternal mirroring by his own reaction in order to develop an autonomous self-identity. Considering the fact that emotions of shame and guilt are related to the differentiation level of the self, the current study aimed at seeking answers to the questions of how parental attitudes are related to the proneness to shame and guilt and how these variables are associated with the development of psychopathological symptoms and the self-perception. In order for this, Rohner's Parental Acceptance-Rejection Theory was embraced as a theoretical framework and the variables (namely, parental acceptance-rejection/control, proneness to shame and guilt, psychopathology, and personality) were examined with retrospective investigations on young adults.

In this part, one can find the discussion of the results of the present study in the light of previous literature. After discussion, limitations, implications, and future suggestions will be noted, respectively.

#### ***4.1 Findings Regarding Intercorrelations between Demographic Variables and Measures of the Study***

In the present study, correlation analyses were carried out in order to investigate the relationship between the demographic variables (i.e. age, gender, income level, number of sibling, living with or away from parents, and region most time spent), parental behaviors (i.e. maternal rejection, maternal control, paternal rejection, and paternal control), shame-proneness, guilt-proneness, personality traits (i.e. extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness, neuroticism, openness to experience, and negative valence), and psychopathology symptoms. The findings came out as expected. One of findings that is worth to state here is the relationship of paternal rejection and control with other constructs such as personality traits and psychopathology. Findings regarding this indicate that the correlations of paternal rejection and control are as strong as and sometimes stronger than maternal rejection and control. This finding has value since paternal love appears to be influential in the symptom development and self-perceptions of human beings. The hypothesized relationships of paternal rejection and all other measures will be discussed in the following parts.

#### ***4.2 Findings Regarding Differences of Demographic Variables on the Measures of the Study***

##### **4.2.1 Differences of Demographic Variables on Maternal and Paternal Acceptance-Rejection/Control**

Age, gender, number of siblings, living with or away from parents, region most time spent, and level of income were examined on the maternal acceptance-rejection/control and on the domains of this construct.

Based on the results, the variables that made a difference on total maternal and paternal acceptance-rejection were level of income and the number of siblings with the addition of gender in paternal acceptance-rejection. Furthermore, some differences were found when the analyses were carried out with the domains of parental acceptance-rejection. Accordingly, while age, living with or away from parents, and the region most time spent did not have an influence; gender, number of siblings, and level of income made differences on both maternal and paternal acceptance-rejection/control.

First set of the results indicated that there were some gender differences on maternal and paternal warmth/affection and maternal control. Accordingly, males experienced less warmth and affection from their mothers and fathers and less control from their mothers than females did. In addition to these findings, some gender differences were also found on cumulative paternal acceptance-rejection, suggesting that males perceived more paternal rejection as compared to females. Actually, the literature does not include gender differences on different domains of parental acceptance-rejection. Instead, one can find results associated with the cumulative perceived parental acceptance-rejection. However, these findings present conflicting evidence. While some researchers underscore gender differences (e.g. Akse, Hale, Engels, Raaijmakers, & Meeus, 2004; Dwairy, 2010; Vulic-Protoric & Macuka, 2006), others report no difference on gender (e.g. McLachlan, Zimmer-Gembeck, & McGregor, 2010; Varan, 2005). Back to the current findings, these can be related to the child-rearing practices in Turkey, which emphasize the autonomy and manhood of the boys. As Eskin, Ertekin, Harlak, and Dereboy (2008) underscore, girls are allowed less autonomy, which may be closely related to be higher levels of perceived control in female participants.

Second set of the results indicated that income level is influential on both cumulative parental acceptance-rejection and also all of the domains. Accordingly, as the level of income increased; individuals perceived their mothers less rejecting, warmer and more accepting, less hostile and aggressive, less neglectful, showing less undifferentiated rejection, and less controlling. A very similar pattern can be observed in the perception fathers, which is restricted only to the domains of warmth/affection and indifference/neglect. These results may be in parallel with the general socio-economic status and education level of parents, which bring about a qualitative and insightful approach to child-rearing practices. This finding is consistent with the findings of Erkan and Toran (2010). However, it should be noted that there are other studies revealing a reverse relationship between parental acceptance and income level (e.g. Chen & Rubin, 1994; Khurshid, Butt, & Hafeez, 2012). In one of these studies (Chen & Rubin, 1994), the association of low income level with higher levels of parental acceptance is explained by being more engaged in child-rearing and by parents' expectations of a successful future from their children, thus investing on parenting in low-income families.

The last demographic variable that made a difference on the parental acceptance-rejection is found as number of siblings. Accordingly, those individuals with more than one sibling tended to perceive their mothers and fathers as more rejecting, less warm and affectionate, more neglectful and showing more

undifferentiated rejection. Unlike from mothers, fathers were seen as more hostile and aggressive in addition to the abovementioned domains. These results can be explained by the decreases in the allocated time for each child by the parents. When Turkey's changing societal structure is taken into consideration, these findings, especially the ones regarding maternal attitudes, make sense in terms of the challenges of working mothers in creating sufficient and qualitative time for their children. Yet, the current study has a shortcoming on making a comprehensive comment on the findings regarding number of siblings, since it lacks the information about the birth order of the individuals. Considering the fact that older siblings' acceptance also makes a contribution to the psychological adjustment of younger sibling (Rohner, Varan, & Koberstein, 2013), knowing the birth order would enable us to make in-depth comments on this issue.

#### **4.2.2 Differences of Demographic Variables on Proneness to Shame and Guilt**

Age, gender, number of siblings, living with or away from parents, region most time spent, and level of income were examined on participants' proneness to shame and guilt. Based on the results, the variables that made a difference on proneness to shame and guilt were found as age and gender. Results regarding this relationship proposed that younger individuals were more prone to shame feelings, but not guilt. In the current study younger group included the individuals between the ages of 17 and 21 and older individuals were 21 to 50. Actually, the individuals who are defined as *younger* can be evaluated as in their late adolescence period. That's why it would not be wrong to say they still have the characteristics of adolescence period blended with those of emerging adulthood. Also, these participants are at the beginning of their university life, during which they live through a process to redefine their sense of self as adults. Although they can be said to have firmer identity, they are still in exploration for their identity. This may make them sensitive to how others see them. Thus, a viable explanation for increased feelings of shame in younger individuals can be the transition period they are in and the remains of the stage of adolescence. These results confirm the findings of Crystal, Parrott, Okazaki, and Watanabe (2001), which showed that American and Japanese university students had decreased shame ratings. Findings of the current study also agree with a previous cross-sectional study suggesting the largest age differences were found in adolescence, young adulthood, and old age (Orth, Robins, & Soto, 2010). Unlike from this study, the current study did not include different age groups. That's why the findings reported here should not be

interpreted as shame-proneness decreases with age. Rather, it can be deduced based on the previous literature that shame feelings alleviate up to a certain age.

As for the relationship with gender, results showed that females had a more tendency in both shame-proneness and guilt-proneness. Returning to the early views of shame and guilt, Freud (1923-1925/2001) suggested an underdeveloped morality as a result of less castration anxiety and, in turn, a less structured ego in females. In a similar vein, Lewis (1971) proposed an organization of self towards shame-proneness for females and towards guilt-proneness for males. In the formulation of females, she grounded on two sources, which are females' field-dependent cognitive style and their traditional feminine and passive view of self. According to her, in females, shame is derived from an internalized hostility and anxiety. On the contrary to females, males more incline to guilt feelings due to their field-independent orientation, strong ego boundaries, and autonomous and competitive ego structuring. Although the study Wright, O'Leary, and Balkin (1989) did not corroborate the view of Lewis in terms of the differences of proneness to shame and guilt in men and women, the findings of Ferguson and Crowley (1997) supported the general view of Lewis, in that males predominantly reported guilt-proneness and females inclined to shame-proneness. The results reported in the present study stand in contrast to the view males' greater tendency to guilt and they are consistent with those studies indicating females' higher tendency to the feelings of both shame and guilt (e.g. Benetti-McQuoid & Bursik, 2005; Lutwak, Panish, Ferrari, & Razzino, 2001; Tangney & Dearing, 2002, as cited in Tangney & Dearing, 2002).

Yet, these inconclusive results bring about the query of what really lies behind the difference between men and women in propensity for shame and guilt. One possible explanation of these results may be the social gender roles of the individuals. It was shown that a feminine characteristic may be related to shame-proneness (Benetti-McQuoid & Bursik, 2005). To be more specific, greater masculinity had an alleviative effect on shame-proneness in women and a greater femininity was associated with increased shame-proneness in men. Ferguson and Crowley (1997) discusses the effects of gender roles in relation to the defense mechanisms that men and women tend to use. Accordingly, the view of Lewis regarding females' propensity to internalizing defense mechanisms and males' propensity to externalizing defense mechanisms may actually be related to the femininity and masculinity levels of the individuals (Levit, 1991). Regarding the gender differences, Levit emphasizes the focus on being in relationship and in contact with others, which is expressed as the communal focus of femininity. When

the fact that shame is characterized with a concern of self in the eyes of others is considered, it would make sense why individuals with high femininity incline to the feelings of shame. Thus, females' greater tendency to the feelings of shame can be explained by their greater investment in relatedness (Gross & Hansen, 2000).

#### **4.2.3 Differences of Demographic Variables on Psychopathology**

Age, gender, number of siblings, living with or away from parents, region most time spent, and level of income were examined on participants' psychopathological symptoms. Based on the results, the variables that made a difference on psychopathology were found as gender, level of income, and living with or away from parents.

For gender and the status of living with or away from parents, the multivariate test statistics led us to conclude that gender made a difference on psychopathology in the current study. However, univariate results indicated that females and males did not differ significantly from each other. This may be related to the increased power as a result of the correlation between the dependent variables (Field, 2009). When individually tested, the dependent variables had not enough power to make a difference on psychopathology. Back to the evaluation of the results of the current study, findings concerning gender contradict with the previous literature (e.g. Kessler, 2003; Leach, Christensen, Mackinnon, Windsor, & Butterworth, 2008). One explanation for the indifference between males and females may be that the participants of this study may be in normal ranges for psychopathological symptoms. Also, in the literature possible gender differences in affective and anxiety complaints are explained by women's lower levels of assertiveness and self-support and men's lower levels of tendency for dependency and helplessness (Bekker & Mens-Verhulst, 2007). However, when the sample of the present study is taken into consideration, such characteristics may not be salient in university students as much as in other populations. In that sense, gender may not make a difference in psychopathology. Regarding the status of living with or away from parents, results that are similar to the effects of gender were obtained for this variable. Such a finding may be related to the fact that majority of the participants who were living away from home had already spent at least a year in the university. In addition, these results may suggest a healthy adjustment to the university life.

Another demographic variable was the level of income. According to the results, participants from low income level reported more psychopathology

symptoms as compared to those from medium and high levels. As an indicator of general socioeconomic status, the relationship of level of income with psychopathological symptoms can be associated with the availability of social support resources, attainability and quality of the mental health services. It is well-known that financial difficulties predicts poorer mental health and greater stress (Evans & English, 2002; Kahn, Wise, Kennedy, & Kawachi, 2000). Actually, the consequences of financial difficulties can be pervasive. Lucas-Thompson and Hostinar (2013) lend support to the fact that the offspring from a low family income may tend to perceive conflicts more negatively, which may be mediated by the disrupted relationships with the family members. Thus, it would not be wrong to state that the findings regarding income level may be traced back to the earlier years of the individual.

#### **4.2.4 Differences of Demographic Variables on Personality**

Age, gender, number of siblings, living with or away from parents, region most time spent, and level of income were examined on participants' domains of personality. Based on the results, the variables that made a difference on personality were found as gender, level of income, and region most time spent.

To being with, the first demographic variable that had an influence on personality is gender. According to the results, gender had significant effects on agreeableness, openness to experience, and negative valence. Female participants reported more level of agreeableness. On the contrary, male participants rated themselves as more open to experiences and more loaded with negative valence. Females' being higher on agreeableness is congruent with previous studies (Chapman, Duberstein, Sørensen, & Lyness, 2007; Vianello, Schnabel, Sriram, & Nosek, 2013; Weisberg, DeYoung, & Hirsh, 2011). Social gender role is one explanation in the literature in order to elucidate these differences. There are examples of studies from both individualistic and collectivist cultures that postulated association of femininity with agreeableness and of masculinity with openness to experiences (McCrae & Costa, 2003; Zheng & Zheng, 2011). Notwithstanding, Vianello, Schnabel, Sriram, and Nosek (2013) take attraction to the internalization level of the social gender roles. They found that the gap between males and females in personality domains decreased three times when implicit measures for personality were employed. Based on such a finding, they suggested self-related experiences, independently of social norms and expectations, may reflect slight gender difference in personality.

Unlike from other studies, the current findings suggest gender differences in agreeableness, openness to experience, and negative valence. It is known that women also reported higher levels of neuroticism, extraversion, and conscientiousness (Schmitt, Realo, Voracek, & Allik, 2008). A viable interpretation of this may be related to the characteristics of changing profile of women in Turkey. Although women in the present sample were at the very beginning of their adulthood, they drew a different life path by pursuing a university education, which may bring about a different socialization process for women (Newton & Stewart, 2013).

Regarding men, the results suggested being more open to experience, which corroborate previous evidence. They also reported to make more negative attributions about themselves. Actually, the domain of negative valence is relative a new one. Thus, there is not much evidence related to this domain. Yet, existing studies having similar samples with the current study (Işık, 2010; Yakın, 2011) produces the same tendency for this domain for men.

Second, level of income had influence on the domain of extraversion indicating that those who had higher levels of income perceived themselves as more active, optimistic, and friendly as compared to the individuals on lower level of income. This finding makes sense when the availability of the resources and the level of improvement of life quality are considered. However, this interpretation remains open to question since satisfaction with income, rather than the actual income, predicts subjective well-being better (Myers & Diener, 1995). The current study is unable to present results regarding the satisfaction of the participants with their income.

### **4.3 Findings Regarding Mediation Analyses**

A number of mediation analyses were run by use of the PROCESS macro of Hayes (2013) in order to test the mediator roles of shame- and guilt-proneness on the relationship between maternal and paternal acceptance-rejection/control and personality traits and psychopathology. Below are discussed the results on personality traits and psychopathology, separately.

#### **4.3.1 The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal and Paternal Acceptance-Rejection and Personality**

Results regarding the mediator role of shame- and guilt-proneness between parental acceptance-rejection and personality traits suggest a very similar trend on maternal and paternal rejection. According to the results, both shame-proneness and guilt-proneness were found to mediate the relationship between the maternal and paternal rejection and personality traits. Yet, the findings regarding the mediator roles of shame- and guilt-proneness on the relationship between parental rejection and personality traits should be interpreted carefully due to the marginal effects on the hypothesized relationships. The results indicated significant predictions; however, the readers should take into consideration that a one-unit increase in the independent variables created small changes on the dependent variables in these prediction equations.

All in all, the findings give us clues about possible directions. Hereinafter, the organization of this part will include the finding itself and then the interpretation of the finding.

To begin with, proneness to shame and proneness to guilt had similar influence on extraversion and neuroticism for both maternal and paternal rejection. As the level of maternal and paternal rejection increased, participants were found to be more introverted and emotionally unstable through enhanced proneness to shame and also a weakened proneness to guilt. This finding stands in parallel with the results reported by Abe (2004). As stated earlier, extraversion is a dimension emphasizing sociability of a person. Likewise, the emotion of guilt is also about the socialized side of a person. In contrast to shame, in guilt, the main motivation is to confess, apologize, and/or repair, all of which are related to the active participation of the individual, instead of hiding. This actually requires being in contact with other people. That's why; it is not surprising that shame-prone individuals are more introverted and guilt-prone individuals are more affectionate, joiner, and active. As for the dimension of neuroticism, its relation with shame and guilt is supported by previous evidence (Einstein & Lanning, 1998; Johnson, Danko, Huang, Park, Johnson, & Nagoshi, 1987). Neuroticism is characterized with emotional instability and impulsivity (Goldberg, 1990) together with negative affectivity (Weinstock & Whisman, 2006), being temperamental (Feist & Feist, 2009) and embracing maladaptive coping strategies (Bouchard, 2003; Panayiotou, Kokkinos, & Kapsou, 2014). Empirical evidence also indicates that criminality is very closely related to the neuroticism dimension (Gudjonsson & Sigurdsson, 2007; Samuels, Bienvenu,

Cullen, Costa Jr, Eaton, & Nestadt, 2004). With respect to this relationship, neuroticism can be linked to proneness to shame and guilt. For instance, recent studies associate criminal reoffence with the emotions of shame and guilt (Hosser, Windzio, & Greve, 2008; Tangney, Stuewig, & Martinez, 2014). According to these findings, while shame was associated with higher levels of recidivism, guilt was associated with lower levels. Tangney, Stuewig, & Martinez (2014) emphasized the role of externalization of blame for shame and recidivism relationship, in which those who were defensive and blamed others were inclined to go back to prison as compared to those who did not blame others. Hence, in the light of these studies, the current study opens the door slightly to the possible relationship of parental rejection with extraversion and neuroticism through heightened shame and lessened adaptive guilt.

For the dimensions of conscientiousness and agreeableness, the results reveal similar findings with extraversion and neuroticism for both maternal and paternal rejection. However, the relative influence of these emotions differed on these dimensions. Accordingly, shame was not found as a significant mediator on these traits and participants were found to be more conscientious and agreeable as the level of guilt-proneness increased. Thus, it can be concluded that guilt-proneness predicted better these two traits following the heightened parental rejection. In one of the studies (Fee & Tangney, 2000), which investigated the relation of procrastination, one of the components of conscientiousness, with shame and guilt, found that propensity to procrastination was correlated with shame-proneness but not with guilt-proneness, which delineates results in contrast to the present findings. However, a recent study examining affective components of conscientiousness revealed that conscientiousness was related positively with proneness to guilt (Fayard, Roberts, Robins, & Watson, 2012). This relationship is also congruent with model of self-conscious emotions of Tracy and Robins (2004). According to this model, identity-goal relevance and congruence is effective in the elicitation of self-conscious emotions. This can be linked to conscientiousness in that people high on this dimension can be claimed to have more insight to their personal aspirations and to weigh the relevance/congruence of an event to their identity. As for the dimension of agreeableness, the positive relation between this dimension and guilt-proneness agrees with the findings of Abe (2004). This positive relation may arise from their inherent characteristics with respect to the motivation for maintenance of the relationships. People high on agreeableness tend to be trusting, generous, and acceptant. In a similar vein, those who have a propensity to have guilt feelings show a tendency to make amends for their previous and

potentially-damaging behaviors. As Jensen-Campbell, Gleason, Adams, and Malcolm (2003) emphasized in their study which was carried out with children, agreeableness is associated with conflict resolution and anger management and this may have pervasive influences in later phases of development through accumulating relationship experiences. Thus, the present study asserts on the influence of parental attitudes and perceptions as specific type of these relationship experiences. Hence, in the light of these studies, the current study suggests a possible relationship of parental rejection with conscientiousness and agreeableness through heightened adaptive guilt.

For openness to experience, as the perceived rejection by mother increased, shame-proneness heightened and guilt-proneness decreased. This, in turn, impeded the development of certain characteristics such as being curious, creative, and eager to meet new ideas/experiences. Regarding the relative influences of proneness to shame and guilt, it was found that guilt-proneness was more influential on openness to experience than the maladaptive effects of shame-proneness. A very similar trend was noted for the perception of rejection by fathers. However, for the paternal rejection, shame-proneness and guilt-proneness did not differ in terms of their influence on the path from paternal rejection to openness to experience. According to the personality subtheory of Parental Acceptance-Rejection Theory, getting positive responses from attachment figures is a very important component of a healthy personality development for both children and adults (Rohner, Khaleque, & Cournoyer, 2007). When such a need is not met by significant others, individuals who feel rejected tend to develop a dependent type of personality, which can impede the development of curiosity, creativity, imagination etc. Likewise, Lewis (1971) also mentions a concept regarding dependence. Accordingly, a field-dependent person has a less differentiated personality and get more prone to the emotion of shame. These two views merge in the present study, suggesting that parental rejection may lead to inhibition of certain characteristics related to the openness dimension of personality by exacerbating the feelings of shame.

Lastly, for negative valence, as parents were perceived more rejecting, children of them were more inclined to develop the emotion of shame, which, in turn, led to decreases in self-worth and to a negative view of self. Conversely, acceptance strengthened the adaptive effects of guilt and this made the children of accepting parents more positive and accepting towards themselves. The differential effects of shame- and guilt-proneness differed for maternal and paternal rejection. Accordingly, whereas the effects of these emotions did not differ on the path from

maternal rejection to negative valence, guilt-proneness was found to be more powerful than shame-proneness on the path from paternal rejection. In other words, adaptive and curative effects of guilt-proneness were more influential on this relationship than the destructive effects of shame-proneness. As stated earlier negative valence is about negative attributions of a person for his/her own self. While neuroticism is associated with anxiety, negative valence is about self-worth, which is a dimension characterized by adjectives such as ill-mannered, pretentious, rude, backstabbing, greedy, and hidebound. Previous research indicated that parental rejection may result in harsh self-criticisms (Campos, Besser, & Blatt, 2010; Campos, Besser, & Blatt, 2013). Self-criticism is a concept that is very close to the emotion of shame. Lewis (1971) differentiates shame and guilt by the person with whom the identification happens: If the identified person is the threatening parent, the eliciting emotion is guilt. On the contrary, if this person is the parent who is internalized as an admired figure, the emotion is shame. Considering this, parents perceived by the participants of this study can be interpreted as threatening and/or admired figures without knowing who is which. As a result of feeling rejected, high levels of shame, and low levels of guilt, the person develops a negative, unfavorable, and detrimental self-perception. Yet, there is one result that stands in contrast to the expectations, which is guilt-proneness being relatively more influential than shame-proneness on negative valence for paternal rejection. This actually is a finding confirming the studies suggesting father love is as important and influential as maternal love (Rohner, 1998; Rohner & Veneziano, 2001; Veneziano, 2003).

All in all, the present findings generally stand in parallel with the previous knowledge based on the conceptual models and limited empirical evidence.

#### **4.3.2 The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal and Paternal Acceptance-Rejection and Psychopathology**

Results regarding the mediator role of shame- and guilt-proneness between parental acceptance-rejection and personality traits suggest that individuals with rejecting parents inclined to feel greater shame and less adaptive guilt and thus, they were more likely to be vulnerable to psychopathological symptoms.

Shame and guilt feelings have a considerable amount of contribution to the various kinds of psychopathologies such as depression (Lutwak, Panish, & Ferrari, 2003), inferiority feelings (Cheung, Gilbert, & Irons, 2004), OCD (Shafran, Watkins, & Charman, 1996), PTSD (Lee, Scragg, & Turner, 2001), eating disorders (Hayaki,

Friedman, & Brownell, 2002), drinking and substance abuse (Dearing, Stuewig, & Tangney, 2005; Treeby & Bruno, 2012), and personality disorders (Brown, Linehan, Comtois, Murray, & Chapman, 2009). Additionally, longitudinal studies show that parental rejection in childhood had an important part in the rise of depressive symptoms in adolescence and adulthood (Ge, Lorenz, Conger, Elder, & Simons, 1994; Lefkowitz & Tesiny, 1984). Supporting the previous literature, this study puts forward a relationship between emotions of shame and guilt and psychopathology symptoms together with possible antecedents of this relationship, namely, maternal and paternal rejection. Put it in a different way, shame- and guilt-proneness was suggested as possible underlying variables in the relationship between the parental rejection and psychopathology. This relationship corroborates previous evidence in which memories of being shamed by parents were related to the absence or insufficiency of parental warmth and also to increased susceptibility to psychopathology (Gilbert, Allan, & Goss, 1996; Gilbert & Gerlsma, 1999).

Another point that needs to be discussed in this part is about the relative importance of shame- and guilt-proneness in the path from parental rejection to psychopathology. In this relationship, the present study shows proneness to shame being more powerful than proneness to guilt only for maternal rejection as in the hypotheses of the study. The study is unable to show the same pattern for paternal rejection. Such a finding may stem from distinct features of these emotions. Empirical evidence shows that guilt seems to be a more adaptive emotion than shame (Tangney, 1991), which serves as a safeguard of the relationships by directing individuals to make amends, to be more empathic, and to react to anger in a more constructive way. Thus, the current study indicated that, as in personality traits, constructiveness of guilt-proneness may be as salient as the destructive effects of shame-proneness in the outcome of psychopathological symptoms.

#### ***4.4 Limitations of the Study and Suggestions for Future Studies***

Some study limitations merit comment in this part. Firstly, this study had a cross-sectional nature with retrospective investigations, which precluded seeing causal relationships and the associations of them in time span. That's why future research may benefit from a longitudinal design to observe the changes hypothesized relationships in time.

Second, in this study, it is generally proposed that parental rejection lead to increased shame- and decreased guilt-proneness, which bring about a certain

personality characteristics and psychopathology symptoms. However, it would be wrong to claim that the directions of the relationships as suggested in the current study. This is important especially for personality since this component remains permanent and stable as compared to psychopathology symptoms. That's why it is possible to hypothesize a model from personality traits towards shame- and guilt-proneness.

Third, this study included a university sample. This brings about questions about the generalizability of results to both general population and clinical population. It would be better to compare these samples in order to see the differences.

Forth, the measures utilized in this study were based on self-report measures. A bias in self-report process may be caused by reporting self-perceptions. For instance, it is known that self-rating and peer-ratings can show differences, especially for personality, in that in some personality traits peer-ratings can be more reliable (Abe, 2004). Considering this fact, care should be taken while interpreting the results. Prospective researcher may consider including other sources of information (e.g. friends, family members etc).

Fifth, in the current study, shame and guilt feelings were approached in a certain framework. According to this, while shame feelings are associated with psychological symptoms, guilt counts as a more adaptive and constructive emotion. The measure employed for this variable, Test of Self-Conscious Affect (TOSCA), has its advantages as a scenario-based measure, which consist of well-suited and situation-specific scenarios (Tangney, 1996). However, some limitations of such scenario-based measures were also reported. Tangney states that this measure fails to include a large range of shame- and guilt-inducing situations. In addition, TOSCA may be unable to tap the maladaptive forms of guilt. On this issue, Tangney claims that it is the part of guilt fused with shame that leads to psychological symptoms instead of pure guilt itself. In short, the present study does not tap into the maladaptive aspects of guilt.

Last, in the models including personality traits, the unstandardized coefficient vales, despite being significant, were low. Hence it is important to interpret them with caution.

In the present findings, maternal and paternal attitudes showed similar patterns in their associations with other variables. For future studies, it is suggested to research into whether such a trend is consistent or not. Also,

prospective researchers are invited to speculate on the similarities and/or possible differences between maternal and paternal attitudes.

#### **4.5 Implications of the Study**

This study provides a glimpse into the relationship between parental rejection and proneness to shame and guilt as possible antecedents of self-rated personality traits and psychopathology. With respect to the personality traits, the current study is one of the few studies investigating personality traits and emotions of shame and guilt together.

In parallel with the literature, this study provides support for the pervasive effects of parental rejection. As a result of the perception of being rejected by the parent(s), the individual loses the contact with the true self encompassed with feelings of being devalued, unwanted, and worthless which may reflect the emotions of shame and guilt underneath. Therapeutically, it is important for the therapist to be aware of such a process in order to persevere in case of resistance as a result of shame and guilt feelings and take the necessary steps to find out the true needs and desires of the client.

Additionally, this study touch on the favorable sides of guilt by showing that guilt-proneness is as strong as shame-proneness, even stronger in some cases. In therapeutical encounters, such a finding being to the therapist's knowledge can be useful in sessions of clients struggling with interpersonal problems to take action for repairing the damaged relations. Yet, the reader should keep in mind that this is valid for those individuals who are thought to be *prone* to guilt feelings, not for those *experiencing* the guilt feelings.

Finally, this study gives support for the equal importance of paternal rejection to the maternal rejection. Fathers' roles are also notable in personality traits and psychological health even in adulthood. That's why; parental training programs should emphasize the ways to communicate warmth and affection to their children together with the involvement of fathers.

According to Thrane (1979), what erases the aversive effects of shame is the reformation of the self. He states that "what is sought is not forgiveness but *acceptance*. The acceptance of others is confirmation of one's victory over shameful feelings". Therapy is kind of an art during which both client and therapist can reshape their own beliefs, desires, and views of self and others. Thus, it may be the acceptance and validation of physical and psychic being during this reshaping process that makes the idiosyncratic effect of therapies. In that sense, the present

study re-emphasizes the importance of accepting therapeutic relationships which can have reparative effects on earlier unfavorable experiences.

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## APPENDICES

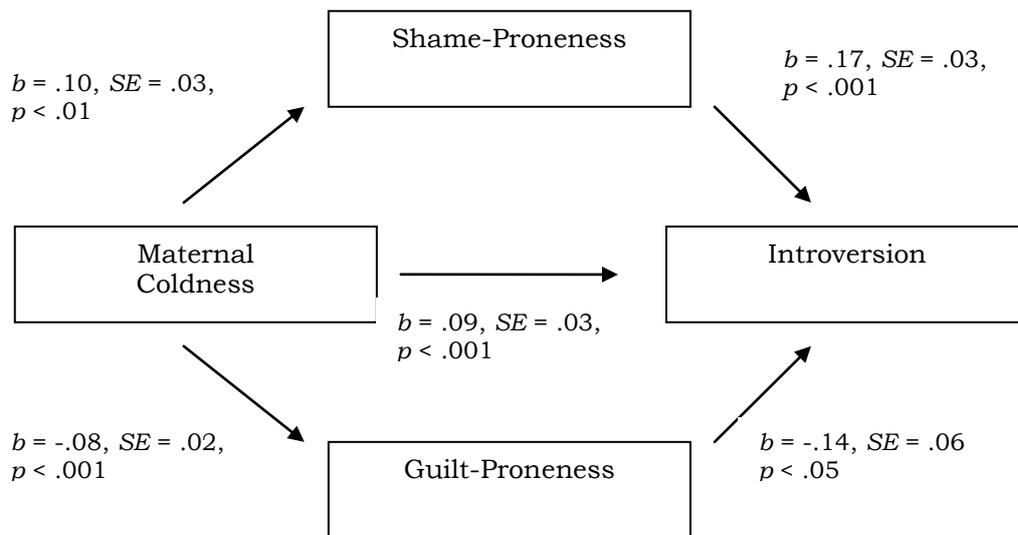
### **Appendix A: Results for the Subscales of Parental Acceptance – Rejection/Control**

#### **A.1. *The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Subscales of Maternal Acceptance – Rejection/Control and Personality Domains and Psychopathology***

##### **A.1.1. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Warmth/Affection and Introversion**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal warmth/affection and introversion via shame- and guilt-proneness (Figure A.1. 1). Results of the analysis revealed that maternal warmth/affection was significantly associated with extraversion domain of personality ( $b = .12$ ,  $SE = .03$ ,  $t = 4.70$ ,  $p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for maternal warmth/affection. Further, maternal warmth/affection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .10$ ,  $SE = .03$ ,  $t = 3.15$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.08$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $t = -4.19$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal warmth/affection on introversion indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .017$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .006 to .031) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .010$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .002 to .023). Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from maternal warmth/affection to introversion.

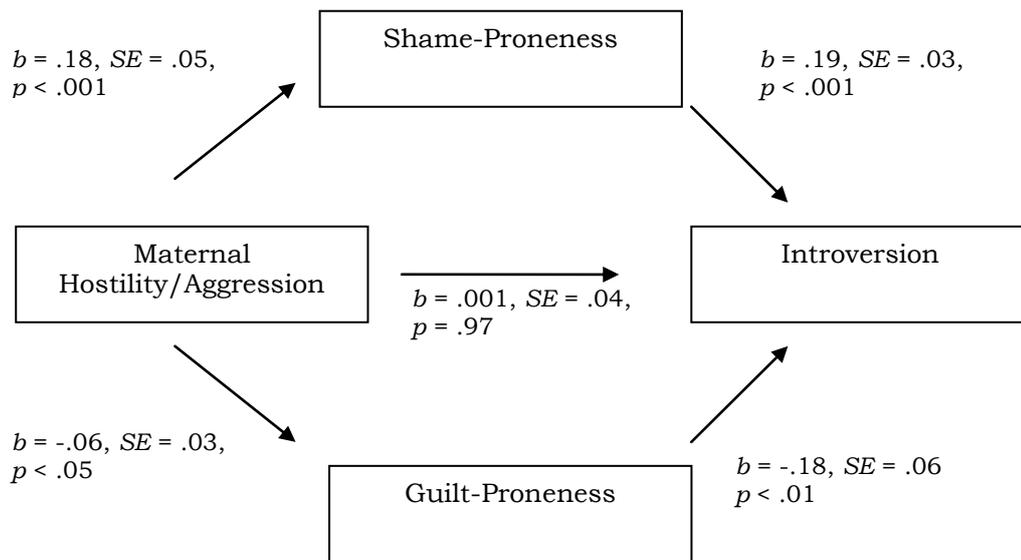


**Figure A.1. 1. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Warmth/Affection (Coldness) and Introversion**

#### **A.1.2. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Hostility/Aggression and Introversion**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal hostility/aggression and introversion via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.1. 2). Results of the analysis revealed that an insignificant association between maternal hostility/aggression and introversion domain of personality ( $b = .04$ ,  $SE = .04$ ,  $t = 1.18$ ,  $p = .24$ ). Further, maternal hostility/aggression was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .18$ ,  $SE = .05$ ,  $t = 3.87$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.06$ ,  $SE = .03$ ,  $t = -2.12$ ,  $p < .05$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal hostility/aggression on introversion indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .033$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .018 to .055) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .010$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .001 to .026). Results showed a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness had a more powerful effect than guilt-proneness on the path from maternal hostility/aggression to introversion ( $b = .023$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .002 to .047).

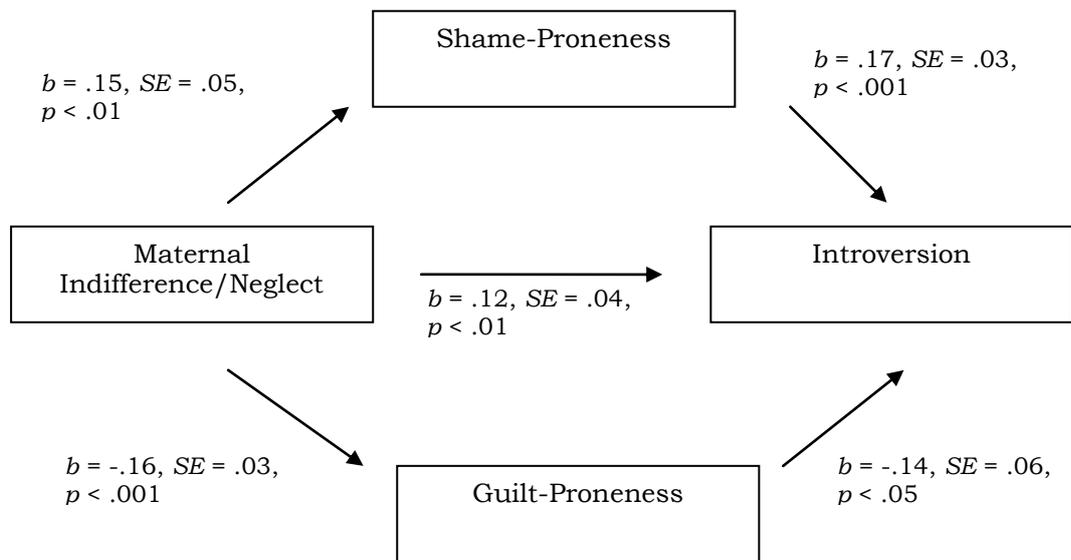


**Figure A.1. 2. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Hostility/Aggression and Introversion**

**A.1.3. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Indifference/Neglect and Introversion**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal indifference/neglect and introversion via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.1. 3). Results of the analysis revealed that maternal indifference/neglect was significantly associated with introversion domain of personality ( $b = .17, SE = .04, t = 3.85, p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for maternal undifferentiated rejection. Further, maternal indifference/neglect was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .15, SE = .05, t = 2.76, p < .01$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.16, SE = .03, t = -5.14, p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal indifference/neglect on introversion indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .026, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .010 to .049) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .022, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .005 to .047). Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from maternal indifference/neglect to introversion.

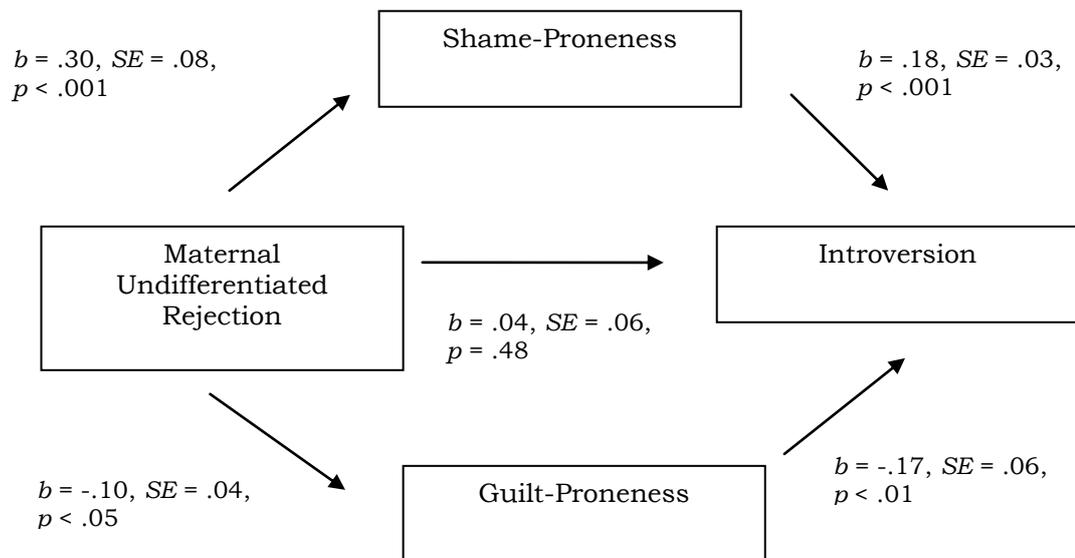


**Figure A.1. 3 The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Indifference/Neglect and Introversion**

**A.1.4. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Undifferentiated Rejection and Introversion**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal undifferentiated rejection and introversion via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.1. 4). Results of the analysis revealed that an insignificant association between maternal indifference/neglect and introversion domain of personality ( $b = .11$   $SE = .06$ ,  $t = 1.84$ ,  $p = .07$ ). Further, maternal undifferentiated rejection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .30$   $SE = .08$ ,  $t = 3.94$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.10$ ,  $SE = .04$ ,  $t = -2.19$ ,  $p < .05$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal undifferentiated rejection on introversion indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .054$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .027 to .096) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .016$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .002 to .045). Results showed a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness had a more powerful effect than guilt-proneness on the path from maternal undifferentiated rejection to introversion ( $b = .038$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .003 to .083).

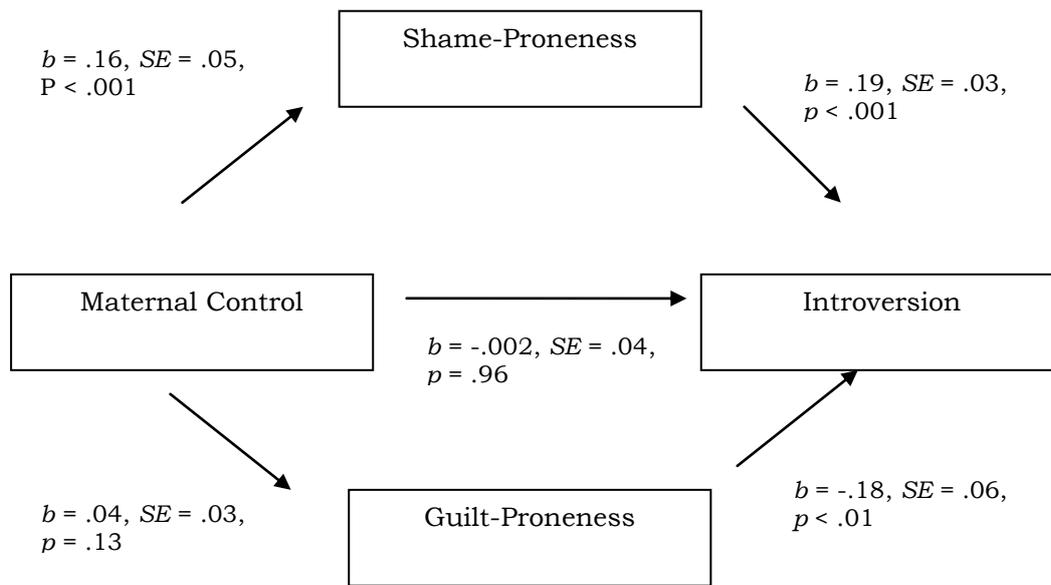


**Figure A.1. 4. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Undifferentiated Rejection and Introversion**

#### **A.1.5 The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Control and Introversion**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal control and introversion via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.1. 5). Results of the analysis revealed that an insignificant association between maternal control and introversion domain of personality ( $b = .02, SE = .04, t = .54, p = .59$ ). Further, maternal control was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .16, SE = .05, t = 3.42, p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal control on introversion indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .029, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .012 to .055). Guilt was not found to be a significant mediator as evidenced by the 95% bootstrap confidence interval including zero. Results showed a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness had a more powerful effect than guilt-proneness on the path from maternal hostility/aggression to introversion ( $b = .036, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .015 to .066).

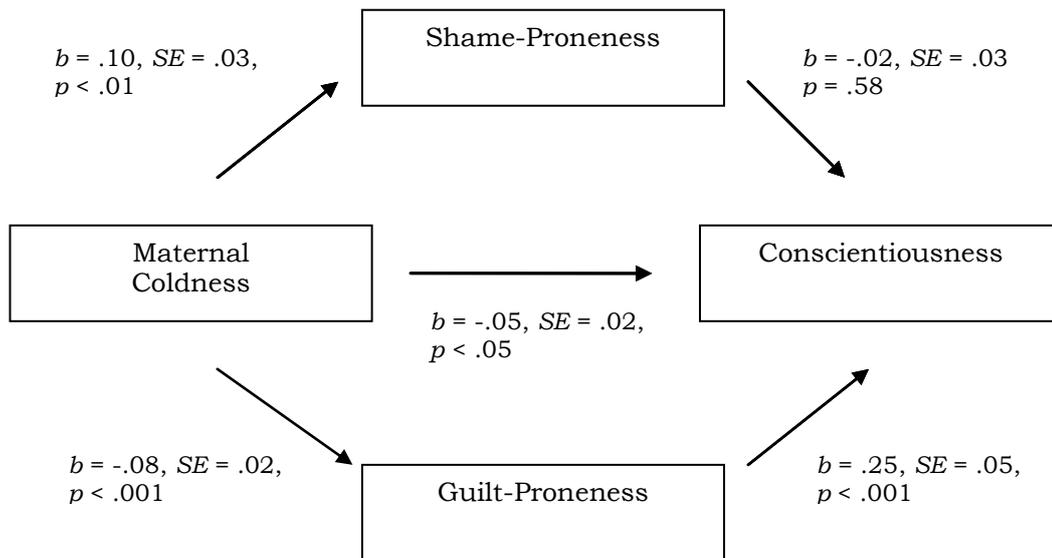


**Figure A.1. 5. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Control and Introversion**

#### **A.1.6. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Warmth/Affection and Conscientiousness**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal warmth/affection and conscientiousness via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.1. 6). Results of the analysis revealed that maternal warmth/affection was significantly associated with conscientiousness domain of personality ( $b = -.07$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $t = -3.30$ ,  $p = .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for maternal warmth/affection. Further, maternal warmth/affection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .10$ ,  $SE = .03$ ,  $t = 3.15$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.08$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $t = -4.19$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal warmth/affection on conscientiousness indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through guilt-proneness ( $b = -.019$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.033$  to  $-.009$ ). Shame was not found to be a significant mediator as evidenced by the 95% bootstrap confidence interval including zero. Results showed a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that guilt-proneness had a more powerful effect than shame-proneness on the path from maternal acceptance-rejection to conscientiousness ( $b = .017$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $.005$  to  $.032$ ).

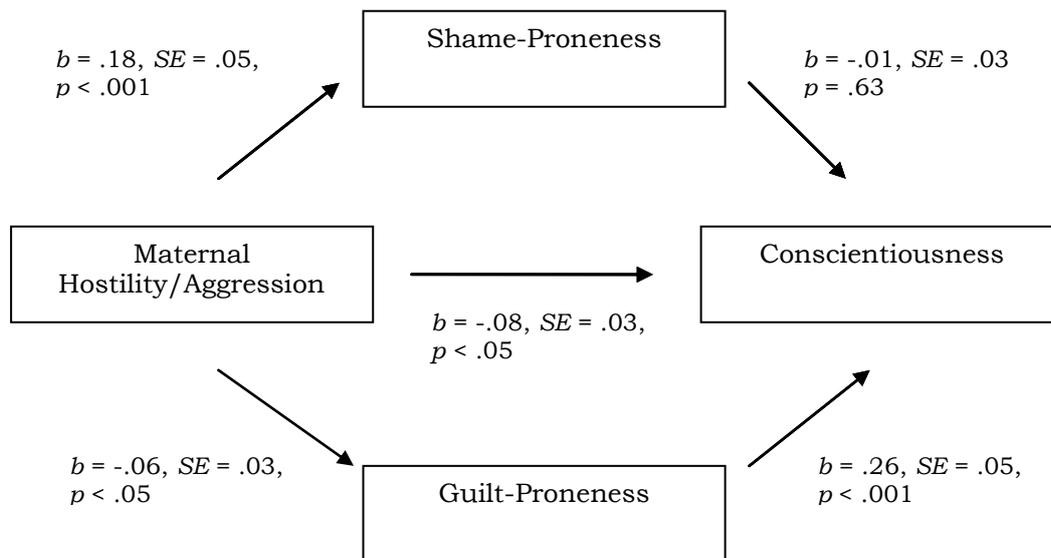


**Figure A.1. 6. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Warmth/Affection (Coldness) and Conscientiousness**

#### **A.1.7. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Hostility/Aggression and Conscientiousness**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal hostility/aggression and conscientiousness via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.1. 7). Results of the analysis revealed that maternal hostility/aggression was significantly associated with conscientiousness domain of personality ( $b = -.10$ ,  $SE = .03$ ,  $t = -3.06$ ,  $p < .01$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for maternal hostility/aggression. Further, maternal hostility/aggression was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .18$ ,  $SE = .05$ ,  $t = 3.87$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.06$ ,  $SE = .03$ ,  $t = -2.12$ ,  $p < .05$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal hostility/aggression on conscientiousness indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through guilt-proneness ( $b = -.015$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.033$  to  $-.002$ ). Shame was not found to be a significant mediator as evidenced by the 95% bootstrap confidence interval including zero. Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from maternal hostility/aggression to conscientiousness.

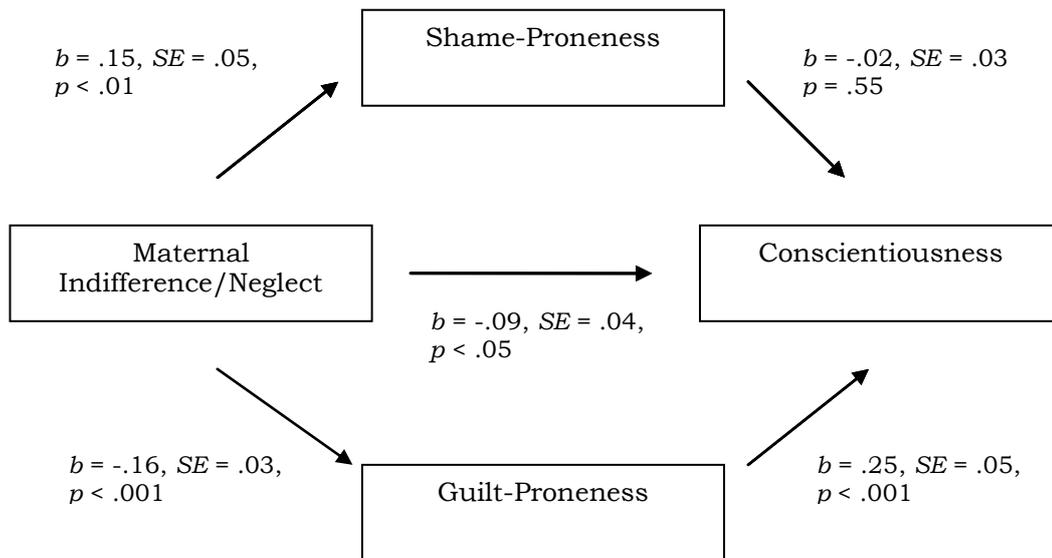


**Figure A.1. 7. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Hostility/Aggression and Conscientiousness**

**A.1.8. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Indifference/Neglect and Conscientiousness**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal indifference/neglect and conscientiousness via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.1. 8). Results of the analysis revealed that maternal indifference/neglect was significantly associated with conscientiousness domain of personality ( $b = -.13, SE = .04, t = -3.38, p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for maternal indifference/neglect. Further, maternal indifference/neglect was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .15, SE = .05, t = 2.76, p < .01$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.16, SE = .03, t = -5.14, p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal indifference/neglect on conscientiousness indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through guilt-proneness ( $b = -.038, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.065$  to  $-.020$ ). Shame was not found to be a significant mediator as evidenced by the 95% bootstrap confidence interval including zero. Results showed a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that guilt-proneness had a more powerful effect than shame-proneness on the path from maternal indifference/neglect to conscientiousness ( $b = .036, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $.014$  to  $.063$ ).

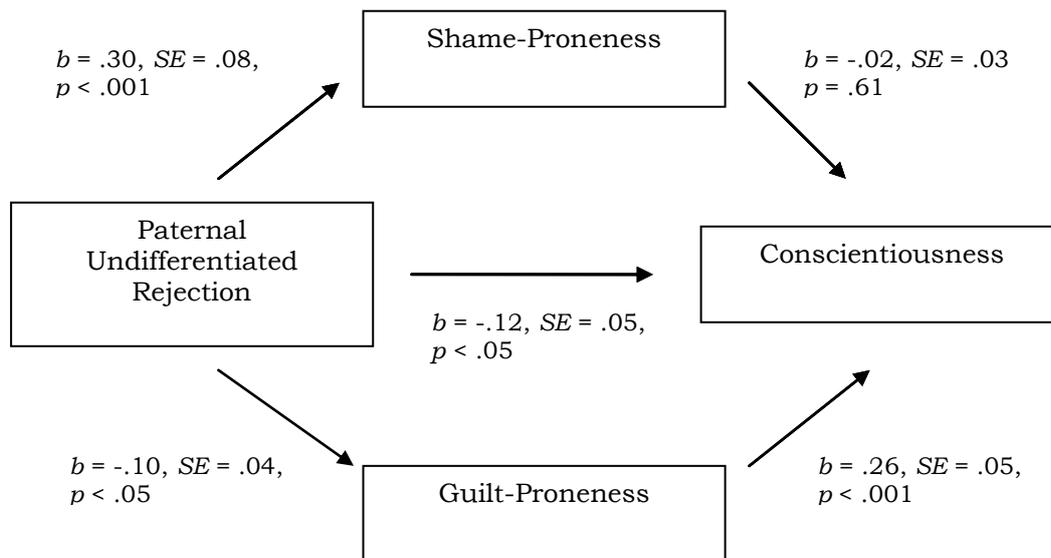


**Figure A.1. 8. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Indifference/Neglect and Conscientiousness**

**A.1.9. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Undifferentiated Rejection and Conscientiousness**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal undifferentiated rejection and conscientiousness via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.1. 9). Results of the analysis revealed that maternal undifferentiated rejection was significantly associated with conscientiousness domain of personality ( $b = -.15, SE = .05, t = -2.82, p < .01$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for maternal undifferentiated rejection. Further, maternal undifferentiated rejection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .30, SE = .08, t = 3.94, p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.10, SE = .04, t = -2.19, p < .05$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal undifferentiated rejection on conscientiousness indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through guilt-proneness ( $b = -.025, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.057$  to  $-.003$ ). Shame was not found to be a significant mediator as evidenced by the 95% bootstrap confidence interval including zero. Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from maternal undifferentiated rejection to conscientiousness.

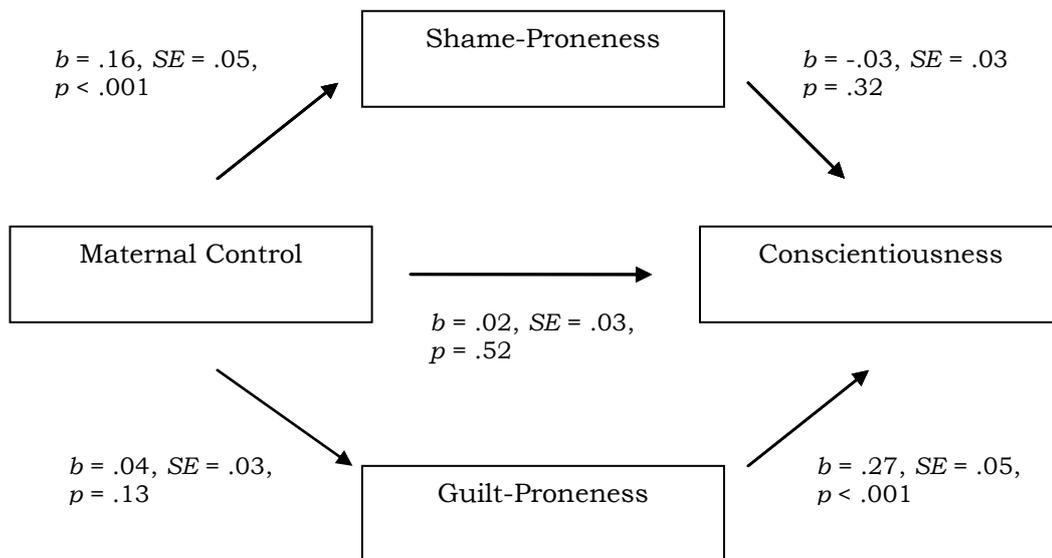


**Figure A.1. 9. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Undifferentiated Rejection and Conscientiousness**

**A.1.10. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Control and Conscientiousness**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal control and conscientiousness via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.1. 10). Results of the analysis revealed that an insignificant association between maternal control and conscientiousness domain of personality ( $b = .03, SE = .03, t = .83, p = .40$ ). Further, maternal control was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .16, SE = .05, t = 3.42, p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal control on conscientiousness indicated that neither shame nor guilt was not found to be a significant mediator as evidenced by the 95% bootstrap confidence interval including zero. However, results showed a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that guilt-proneness had a more powerful effect than shame-proneness on the path from maternal control to conscientiousness ( $b = -.015, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.035$  to  $-.001$ ).

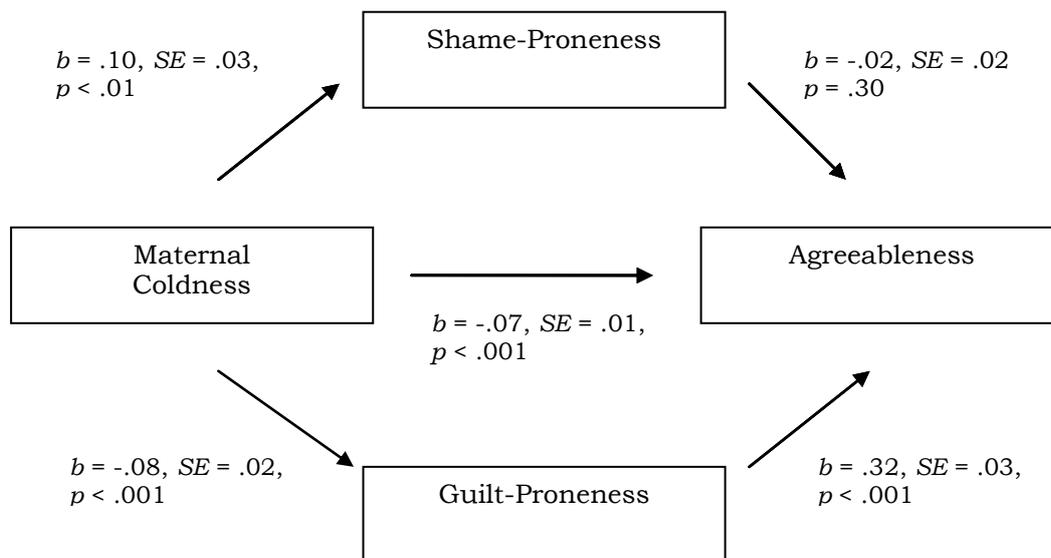


**Figure A.1. 10. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Control and Conscientiousness**

**A.1.11. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Warmth/Affection and Agreeableness**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal warmth/affection and agreeableness via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.1. 11). Results of the analysis revealed that maternal warmth/affection was significantly associated with agreeableness domain of personality ( $b = -.10, SE = .02, t = -6.60, p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for maternal warmth/affection. Further, maternal warmth/affection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .10, SE = .03, t = 3.15, p < .01$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.08, SE = .02, t = -4.19, p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal warmth/affection on agreeableness indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through guilt-proneness ( $b = -.024, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.038$  to  $-.012$ ). Shame was not found to be a significant mediator as evidenced by the 95% bootstrap confidence interval including zero. Results showed a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that guilt-proneness had a more powerful effect than shame-proneness on the path from maternal warmth/affection to agreeableness ( $b = .022, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $.009$  to  $.036$ ).

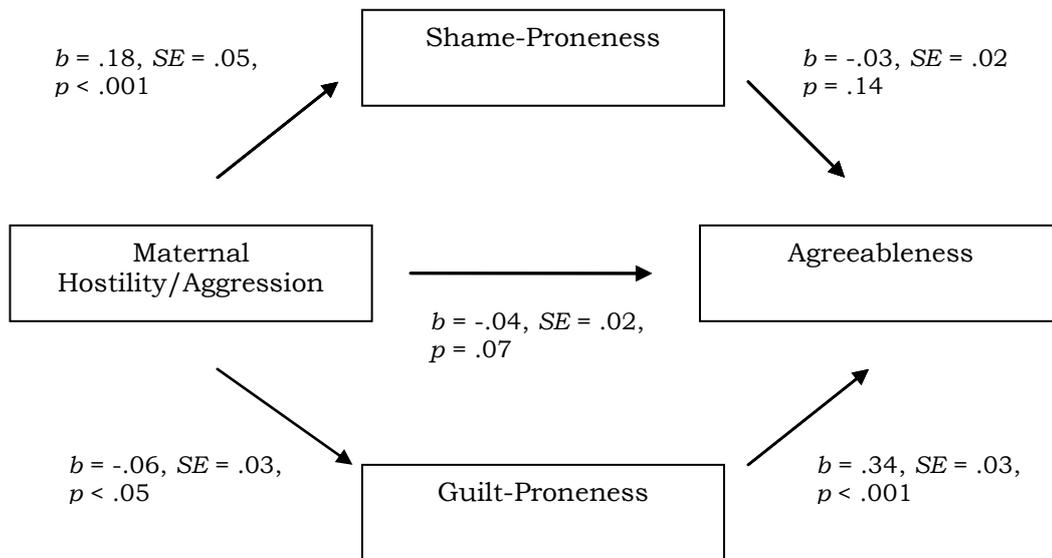


**Figure A.1. 11. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Warmth/Affection (Coldness) and Agreeableness**

**A.1.12. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Hostility/Aggression and Agreeableness**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal hostility/aggression and agreeableness via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.1. 12). Results of the analysis revealed that maternal hostility/aggression was significantly associated with agreeableness domain of personality ( $b = -.06$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $t = -2.76$ ,  $p < .01$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for maternal hostility/aggression. Further, maternal hostility/aggression was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .18$ ,  $SE = .05$ ,  $t = 3.87$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.06$ ,  $SE = .03$ ,  $t = -2.12$ ,  $p < .05$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal hostility/aggression on agreeableness indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through guilt-proneness ( $b = -.019$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.041$  to  $-.001$ ). Shame was not found to be a significant mediator as evidenced by the 95% bootstrap confidence interval including zero. Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from maternal hostility/aggression to agreeableness.

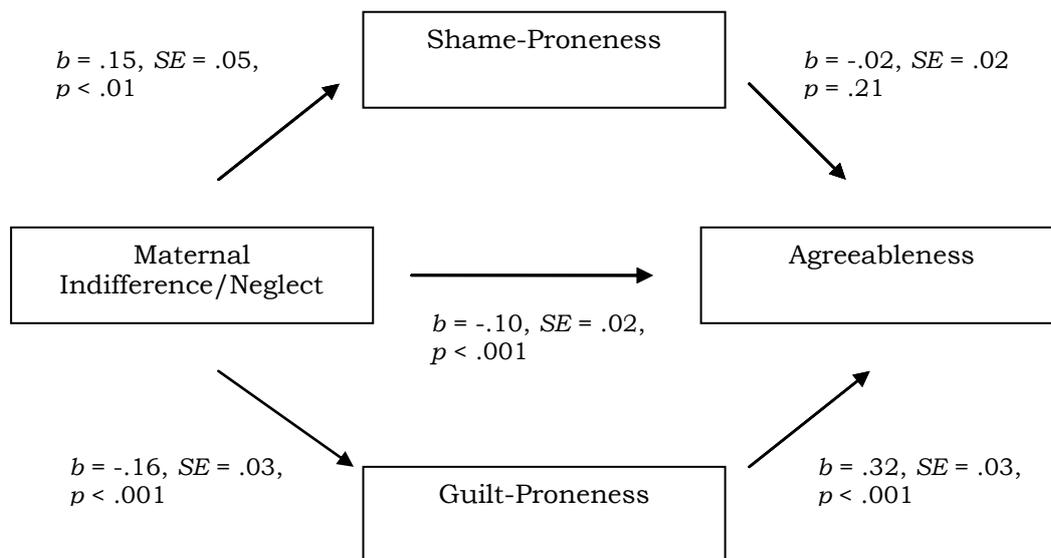


**Figure A.1. 12. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Hostility/Aggression and Agreeableness**

**A.1.13. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Indifference/Neglect and Agreeableness**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal indifference/neglect and agreeableness via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.1. 13). Results of the analysis revealed that maternal indifference/neglect was significantly associated with agreeableness domain of personality ( $b = -.15, SE = .03, t = -5.80, p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for maternal indifference/neglect. Further, maternal indifference/neglect was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .15, SE = .05, t = 2.76, p < .01$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.16, SE = .03, t = -5.14, p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal indifference/neglect on agreeableness indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through guilt-proneness ( $b = -.050, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.076$  to  $-.030$ ). Shame was not found to be a significant mediator as evidenced by the 95% bootstrap confidence interval including zero. Results showed a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that guilt-proneness had a more powerful effect than shame-proneness on the path from maternal indifference/neglect to agreeableness ( $b = .046, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $.026$  to  $.073$ ).

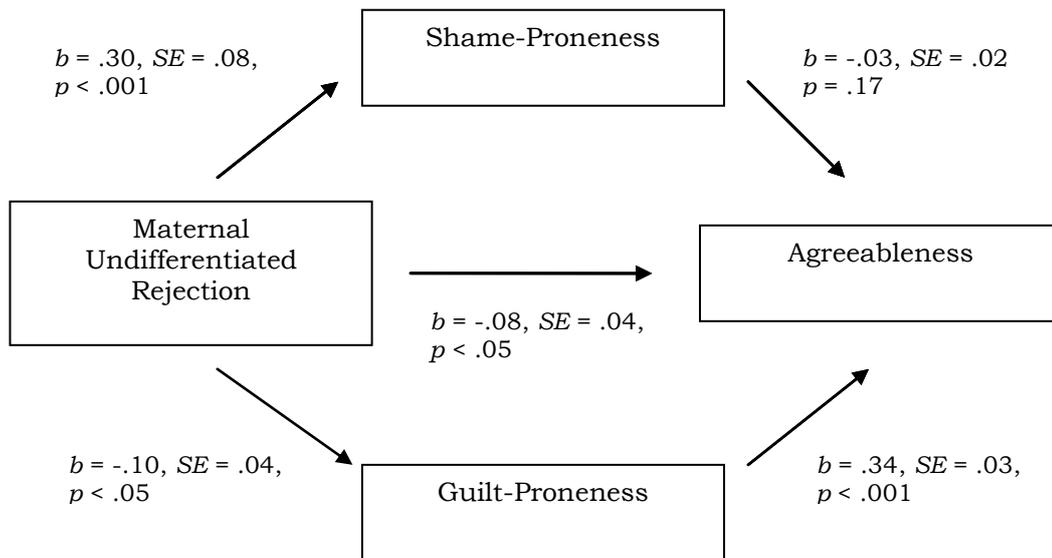


**Figure A.1. 13. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Indifference/Neglect and Agreeableness**

**A.1.14. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Undifferentiated Rejection and Agreeableness**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal undifferentiated rejection and agreeableness via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.1. 14). Results of the analysis revealed that maternal undifferentiated rejection was significantly associated with agreeableness domain of personality ( $b = -.12$ ,  $SE = .04$ ,  $t = -3.30$ ,  $p = .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for maternal undifferentiated rejection. Further, maternal undifferentiated rejection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .30$ ,  $SE = .08$ ,  $t = 3.94$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.10$ ,  $SE = .04$ ,  $t = -2.19$ ,  $p < .05$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal undifferentiated rejection on agreeableness indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through guilt-proneness ( $b = -.032$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.067$  to  $-.003$ ). Shame was not found to be a significant mediator as evidenced by the 95% bootstrap confidence interval including zero. Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from maternal undifferentiated rejection to agreeableness.

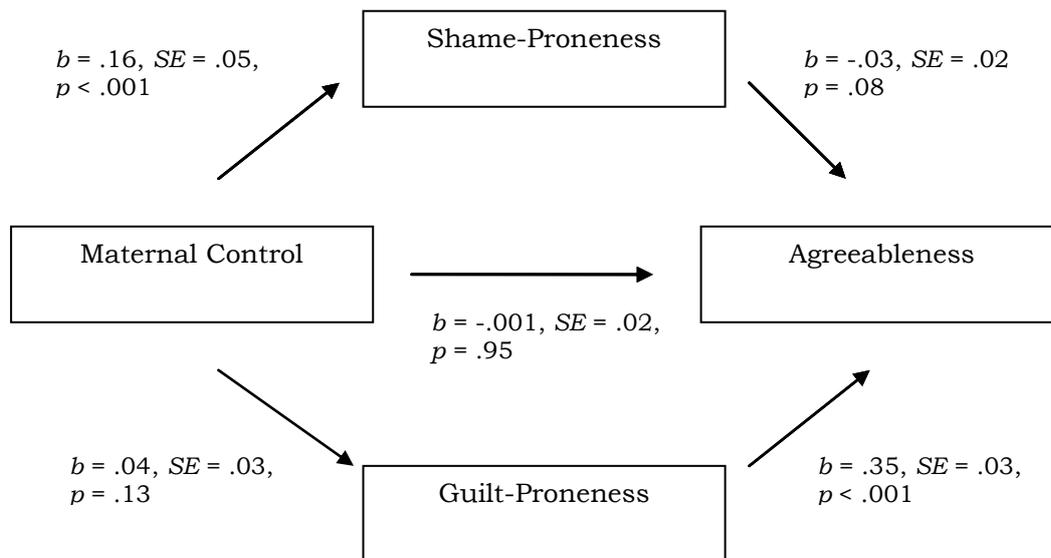


**Figure A.1. 14. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Undifferentiated Rejection and Agreeableness**

**A.1.15. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Control and Agreeableness**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal control and agreeableness via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.1. 15). Results of the analysis revealed that an insignificant association between maternal control and agreeableness domain of personality ( $b = .01, SE = .02, t = .33, p = .75$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for maternal control. Further, maternal control was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .16, SE = .05, t = 3.42, p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal control on agreeableness indicated that neither shame nor guilt was not found to be a significant mediator as evidenced by the 95% bootstrap confidence interval including zero. Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness.

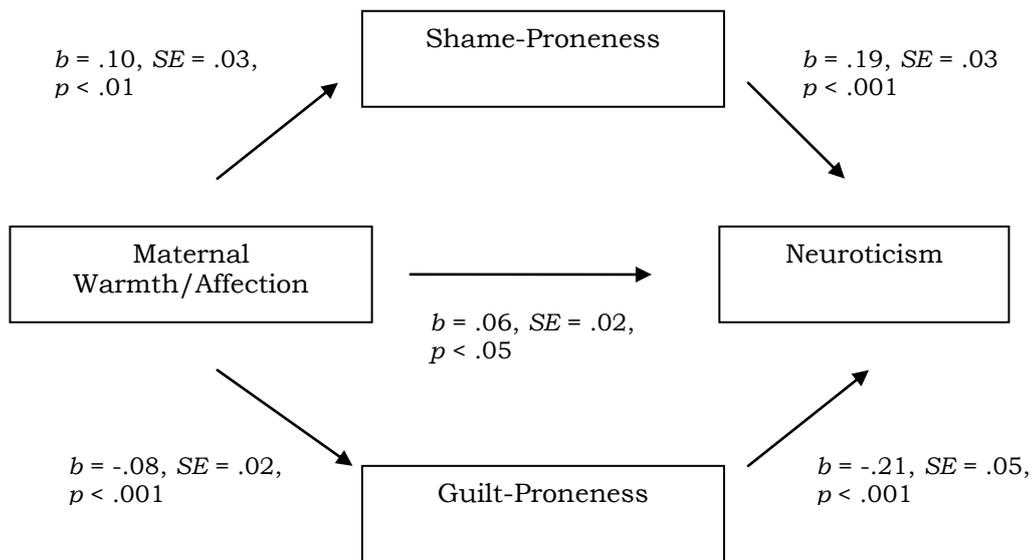


**Figure A.1. 15. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Control and Agreeableness**

**A.1.16. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Warmth/Affection and Neuroticism**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal warmth/affection and neuroticism via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.1. 16). Results of the analysis revealed that maternal warmth/affection was significantly associated with neuroticism domain of personality ( $b = .09$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $t = 3.89$ ,  $p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for maternal warmth/affection. Further, maternal warmth/affection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .10$ ,  $SE = .03$ ,  $t = 3.15$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.08$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $t = -4.19$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal warmth/affection on neuroticism indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .019$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .008 to .033) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .016$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .007 to .030). Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from maternal warmth/affection to neuroticism.

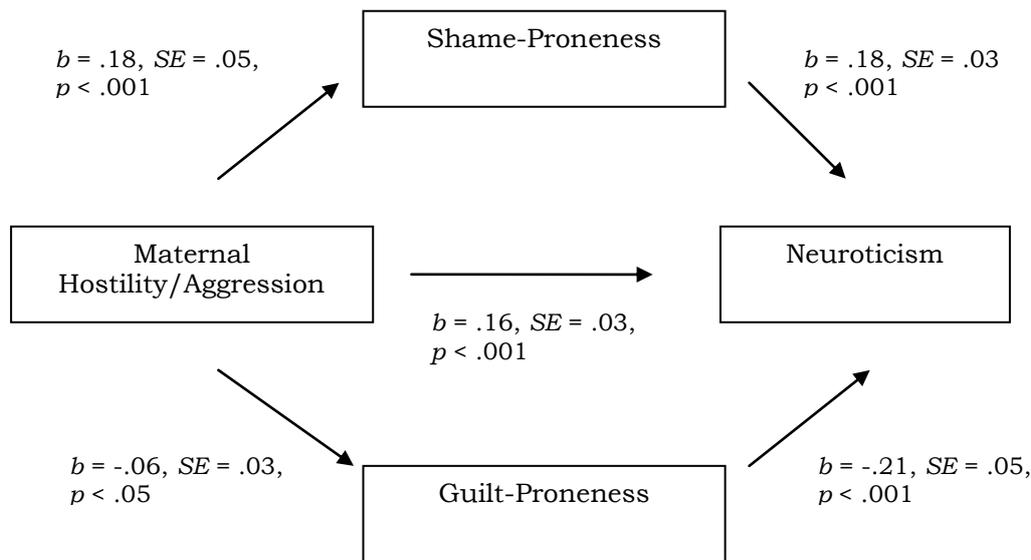


**Figure A.1. 16. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Warmth/Affection (Coldness) and Neuroticism**

**A.1.17. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Hostility/Aggression and Neuroticism**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal hostility/aggression and neuroticism via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.1. 17). Results of the analysis revealed that maternal hostility/aggression was significantly associated with neuroticism domain of personality ( $b = .21, SE = .03, t = 5.97, p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for maternal hostility/aggression. Further, maternal hostility/aggression was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .18, SE = .05, t = 3.87, p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.06, SE = .03, t = -2.12, p < .05$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal hostility/aggression on neuroticism indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .032, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .016 to .054) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .012, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .001 to .029). Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from maternal hostility/aggression to neuroticism.

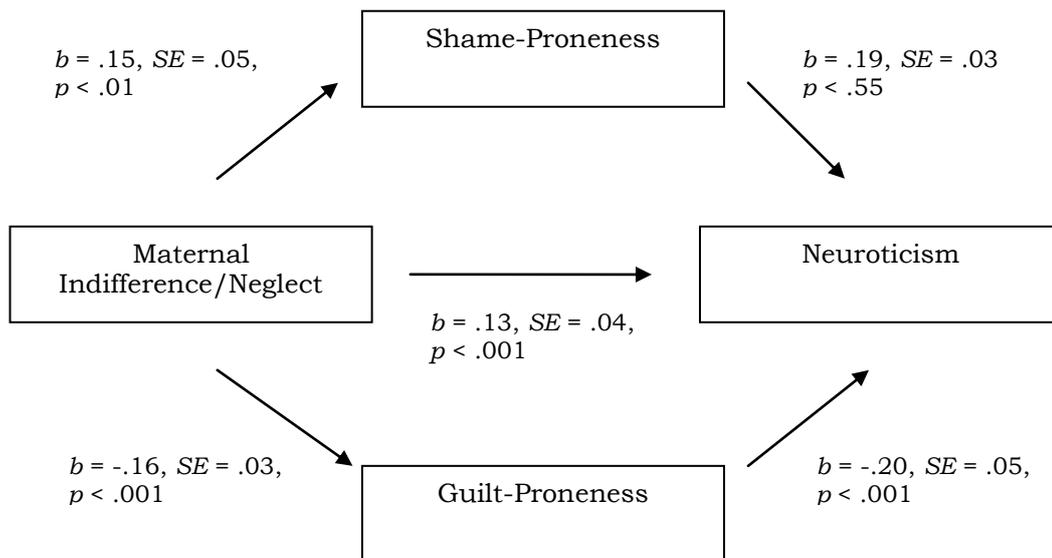


**Figure A.1. 17. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Hostility/Aggression and Neuroticism**

**A.1.18. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Indifference/Neglect and Neuroticism**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal indifference/neglect and neuroticism via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.1. 18). Results of the analysis revealed that maternal indifference/neglect was significantly associated with neuroticism domain of personality ( $b = .19, SE = .04, t = 4.77, p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for maternal indifference/neglect. Further, maternal indifference/neglect was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .15, SE = .05, t = 2.76, p < .01$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.16, SE = .03, t = -5.14, p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal indifference/neglect on neuroticism indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .028, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .011 to .051) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .031, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .013 to .057). Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from maternal indifference/neglect to neuroticism.

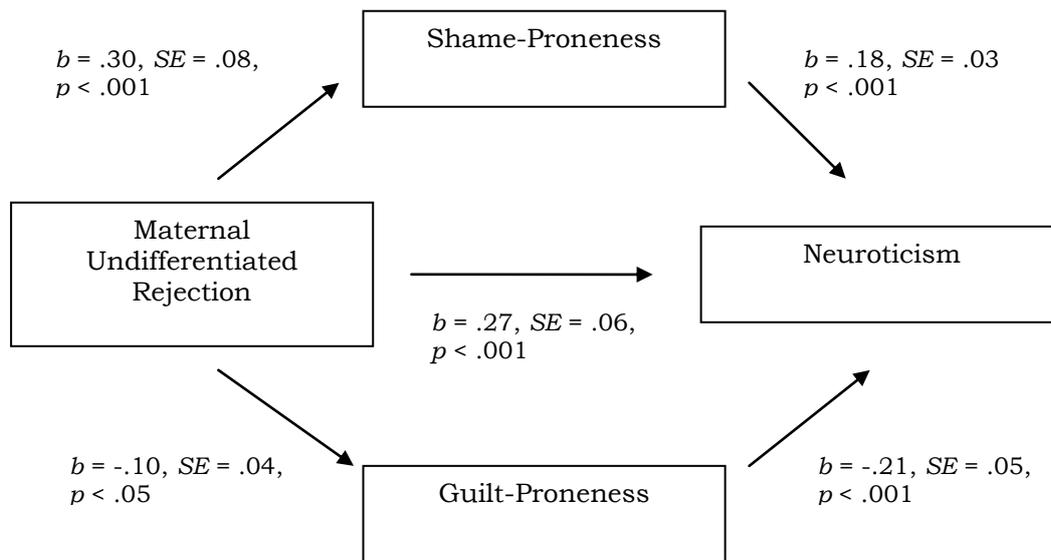


**Figure A.1. 18. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Indifference/Neglect and Neuroticism**

**A.1.19. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Undifferentiated Rejection and Neuroticism**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal undifferentiated rejection and neuroticism via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.1. 19). Results of the analysis revealed that maternal undifferentiated rejection was significantly associated with neuroticism domain of personality ( $b = .35, SE = .06, t = 6.16, p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for maternal undifferentiated rejection. Further, maternal undifferentiated rejection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .30, SE = .08, t = 3.94, p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.10, SE = .04, t = -2.19, p < .05$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal undifferentiated rejection on neuroticism indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .053, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .028 to .091) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .020, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .001 to .049). Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from maternal undifferentiated rejection to neuroticism.

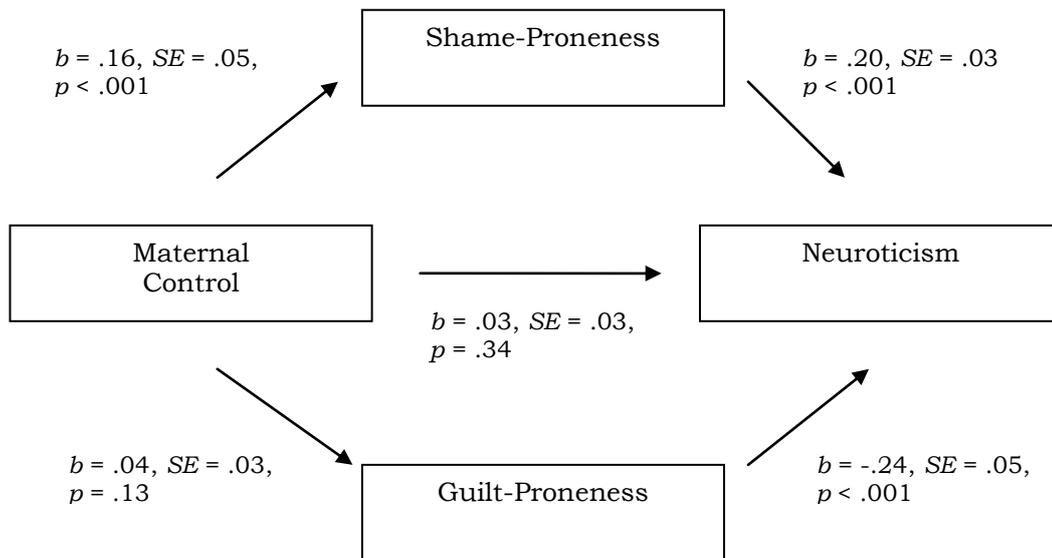


**Figure A.1. 19. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Undifferentiated Rejection and Neuroticism**

**A.1.20. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Control and Neuroticism**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal control and neuroticism via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.1. 20). Results of the analysis revealed an insignificant association between maternal control and neuroticism domain of personality ( $b = .05, SE = .04, t = 1.55, p = .12$ ). Further, maternal control was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .16, SE = .05, t = 3.42, p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal control on neuroticism indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .031, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .013 to .056). Guilt was not found to be a significant mediator as evidenced by the 95% bootstrap confidence interval including zero. Results showed a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness had a more powerful effect than guilt-proneness on the path from maternal acceptance-rejection to conscientiousness ( $b = .041, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .017 to .070).

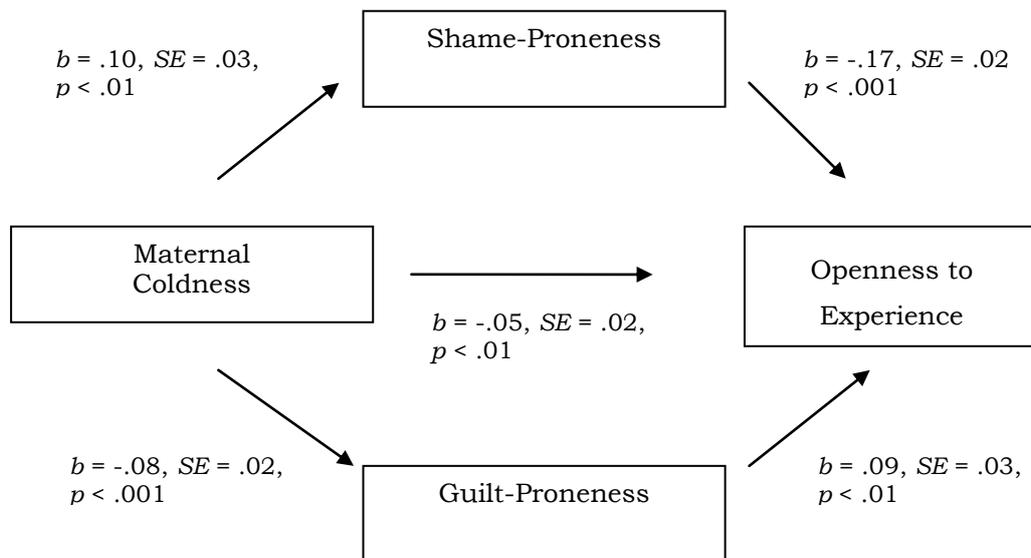


**Figure A.1. 20. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Control and Neuroticism**

#### **A.1.21. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Warmth/Affection and Openness to Experience**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal warmth/affection and openness to experience via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.1. 21). Results of the analysis revealed that maternal warmth/affection was significantly associated with openness to experience domain of personality ( $b = -.07$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $t = -4.59$ ,  $p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for maternal warmth/affection. Further, maternal warmth/affection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .10$ ,  $SE = .03$ ,  $t = 3.15$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.08$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $t = -4.19$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal warmth/affection on openness to experience indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = -.017$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.030$  to  $-.007$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.007$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.015$  to  $-.002$ ). Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from maternal warmth/affection to openness to experience.

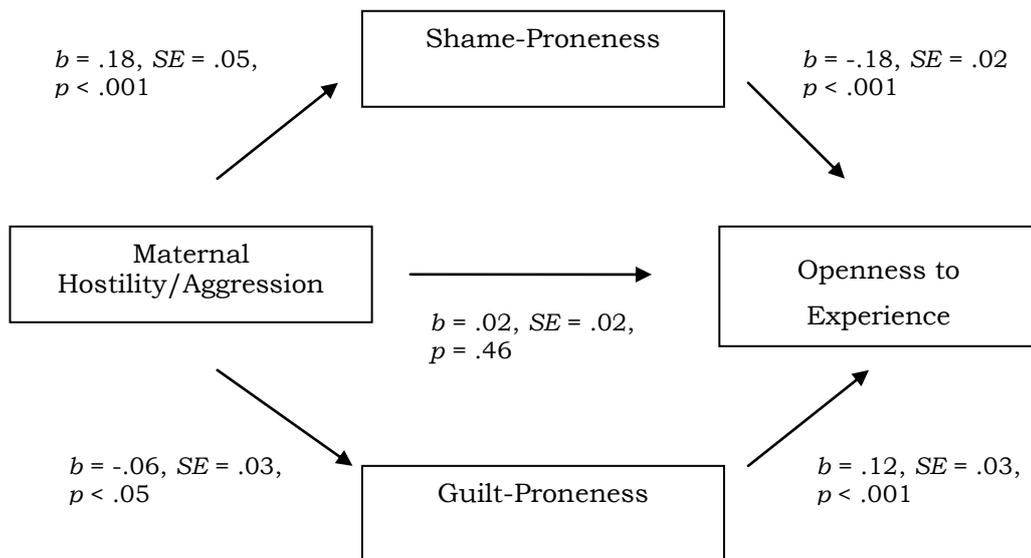


**Figure A.1. 21. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Warmth/Affection (Coldness) and Openness to Experience**

**A.1.22. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Hostility/Aggression and Openness to Experience**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal hostility/aggression and openness to experience via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.1. 22). Results of the analysis revealed that an insignificant association between maternal hostility/aggression and openness to experience domain of personality ( $b = -.02$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $t = -.97$ ,  $p = .33$ ). Further, maternal hostility/aggression was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .18$ ,  $SE = .05$ ,  $t = 3.87$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.06$ ,  $SE = .03$ ,  $t = -2.12$ ,  $p < .05$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal hostility/aggression on openness to experience indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = -.033$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.051$  to  $-.019$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.007$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.017$  to  $-.001$ ). Results showed a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness had a more powerful effect than guilt-proneness on the path from maternal hostility/aggression to openness to experience ( $b = -.026$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.046$  to  $-.009$ ).

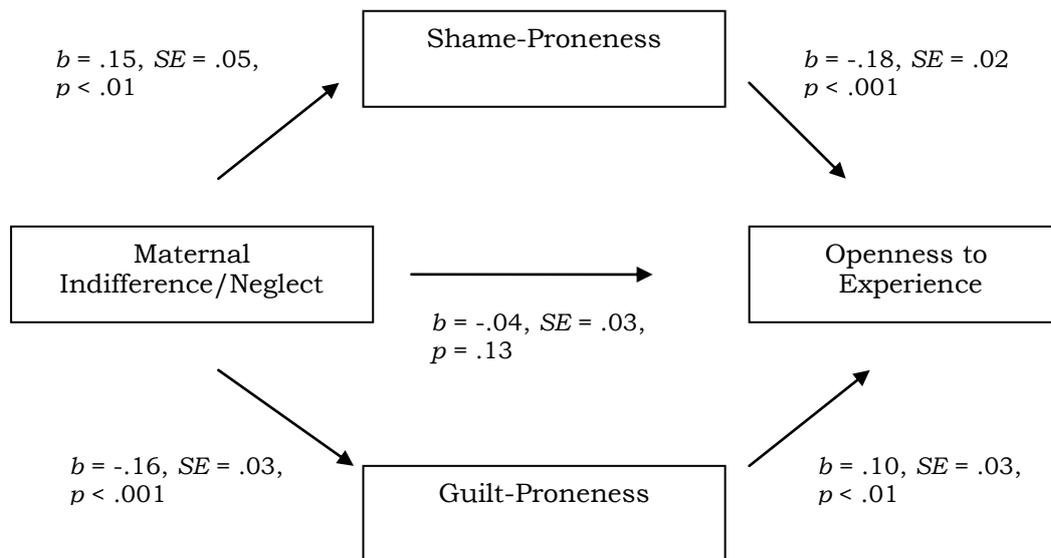


**Figure A.1. 22. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Hostility/Aggression and Openness to Experience**

**A.1.23. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Indifference/Neglect and Openness to Experience**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal indifference/neglect and openness to experience via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.1. 23). Results of the analysis revealed that maternal indifference/neglect was significantly associated with openness to experience domain of personality ( $b = -.08, SE = .03, t = -3.05, p < .01$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for maternal indifference/neglect. Further, maternal indifference/neglect was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .15, SE = .05, t = 2.76, p < .01$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.16, SE = .03, t = -5.14, p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal indifference/neglect on openness to experience indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = -.026, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.047$  to  $-.010$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.016, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.035$  to  $-.005$ ). Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from maternal indifference/neglect to openness to experience.

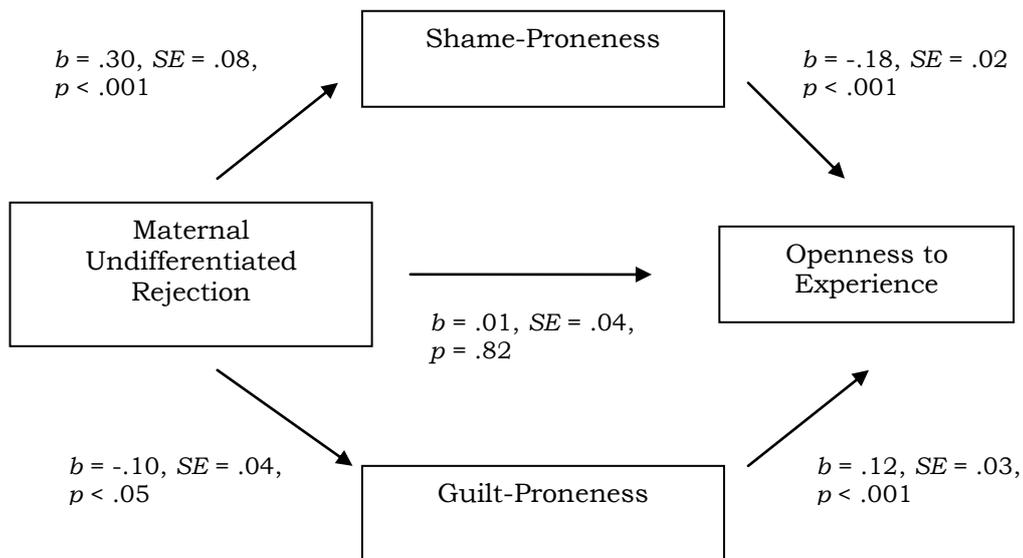


**Figure A.1. 23. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Indifference/Neglect and Openness to Experience**

**A.1.24. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Undifferentiated Rejection and Openness to Experience**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal undifferentiated rejection and openness to experience via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.1. 24). Results of the analysis revealed that an insignificant association between maternal undifferentiated rejection and openness to experience domain of personality ( $b = -.06, SE = .04, t = -1.47, p = .14$ ). Further, maternal undifferentiated rejection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .30, SE = .08, t = 3.94, p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.10, SE = .04, t = -2.19, p < .05$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal undifferentiated rejection on openness to experience indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = -.054, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.087$  to  $-.029$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.011, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.030$  to  $-.001$ ). Results showed a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness had a more powerful effect than guilt-proneness on the path from maternal undifferentiated rejection to openness to experience ( $b = -.043, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.081$  to  $-.013$ ).

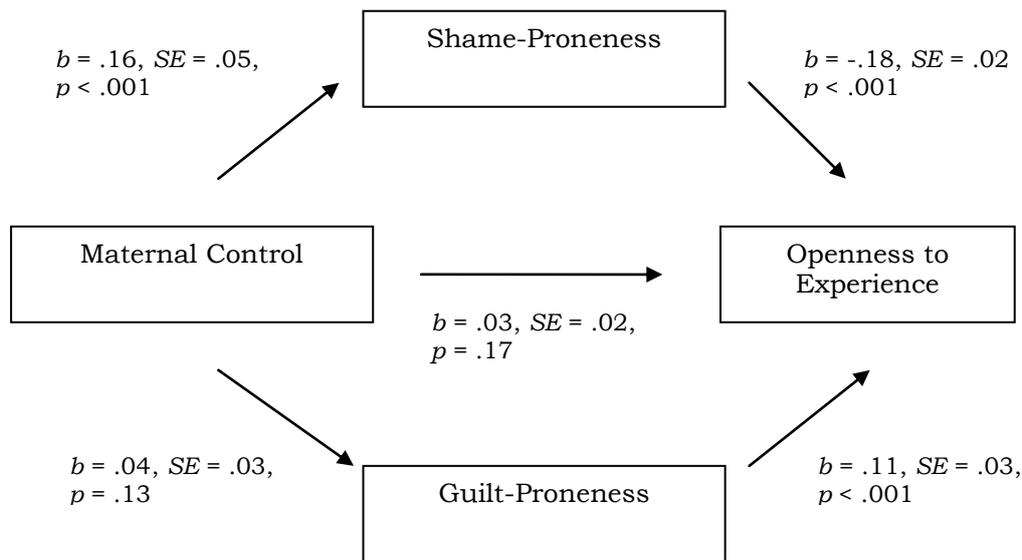


**Figure A.1. 24. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Undifferentiated Rejection and Openness to Experience**

**A.1.25. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Control and Openness to Experience**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal control and openness to experience via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.1. 25). Results of the analysis revealed that an insignificant association between maternal control and openness to experience domain of personality ( $b = .01, SE = .02, t = .25, p = .80$ ). Further, maternal control was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .16, SE = .05, t = 3.42, p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal control on openness to experience indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = -.029, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.049$  to  $-.012$ ). Guilt was not found to be a significant mediator as evidenced by the 95% bootstrap confidence interval including zero. Results showed a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness had a more powerful effect than guilt-proneness on the path from maternal control to openness to experience ( $b = -.033, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.056$  to  $-.014$ ).

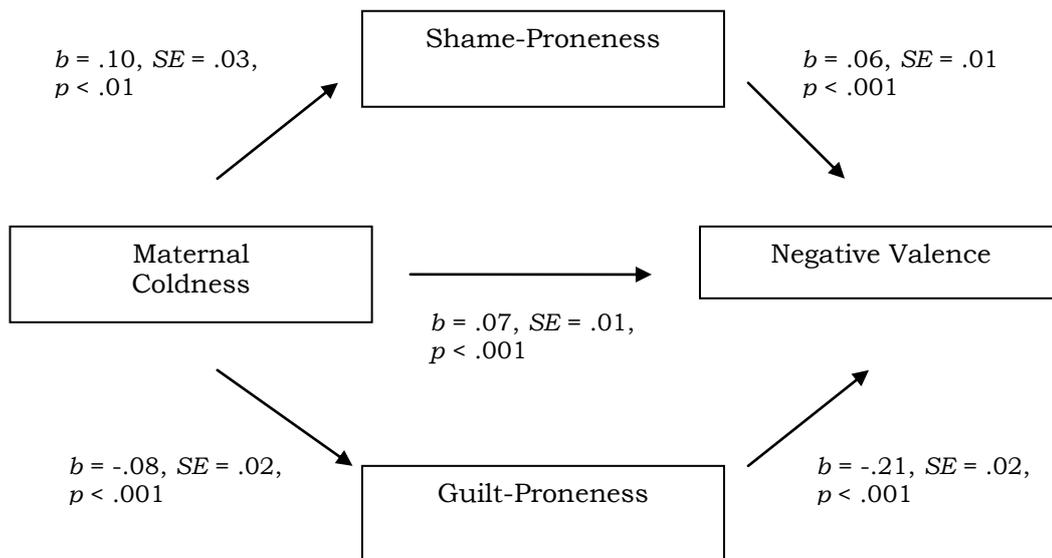


**Figure A.1. 25. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Control and Openness to Experience**

**A.1.26. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Warmth/Affection and Negative Valence**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal warmth/affection and negative valence via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.1. 26). Results of the analysis revealed that maternal warmth/affection was significantly associated with negative valence domain of personality ( $b = .10$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = 8.44$ ,  $p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for maternal warmth/affection. Further, maternal warmth/affection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .10$ ,  $SE = .03$ ,  $t = 3.15$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.08$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $t = -4.19$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal warmth/affection on negative valence indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .006$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .003 to .011) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .016$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .008 to .027). Results showed a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that guilt-proneness had a more powerful effect than shame-proneness on the path from maternal acceptance warmth/affection on negative valence ( $b = -.010$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) -.022 to -.001).

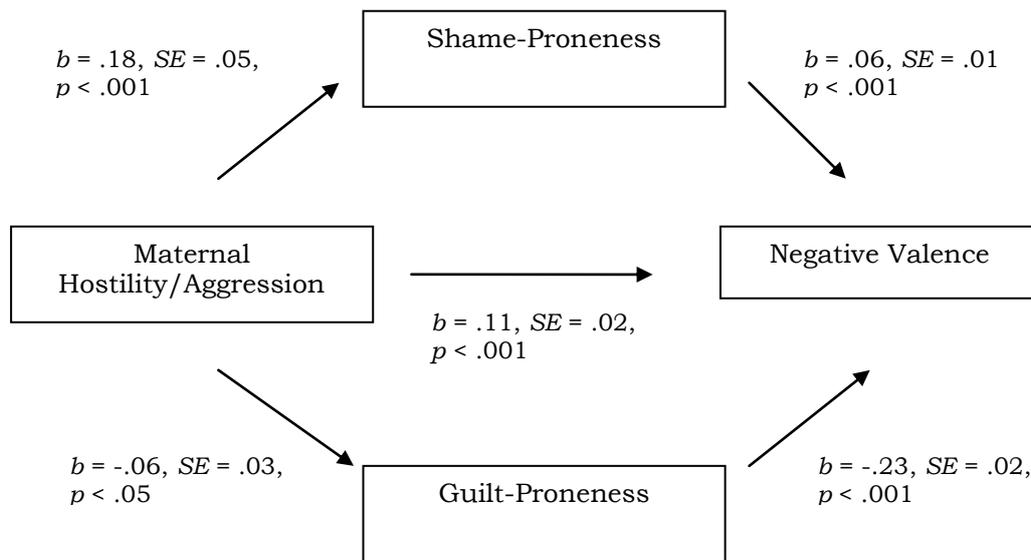


**Figure A.1. 26. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Warmth/Affection (Coldness) and Negative Valence**

**A.1.27. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Hostility/Aggression and Negative Valence**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal hostility/aggression and negative valence via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.1. 27). Results of the analysis revealed that maternal hostility/aggression was significantly associated with negative valence domain of personality ( $b = .13$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $t = 7.57$ ,  $p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for maternal hostility/aggression. Further, maternal hostility/aggression was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .18$ ,  $SE = .05$ ,  $t = 3.87$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.06$ ,  $SE = .03$ ,  $t = -2.12$ ,  $p < .05$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal hostility/aggression on negative valence indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .010$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .005 to .018) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .013$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .001 to .028). Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from maternal hostility/aggression to negative valence.

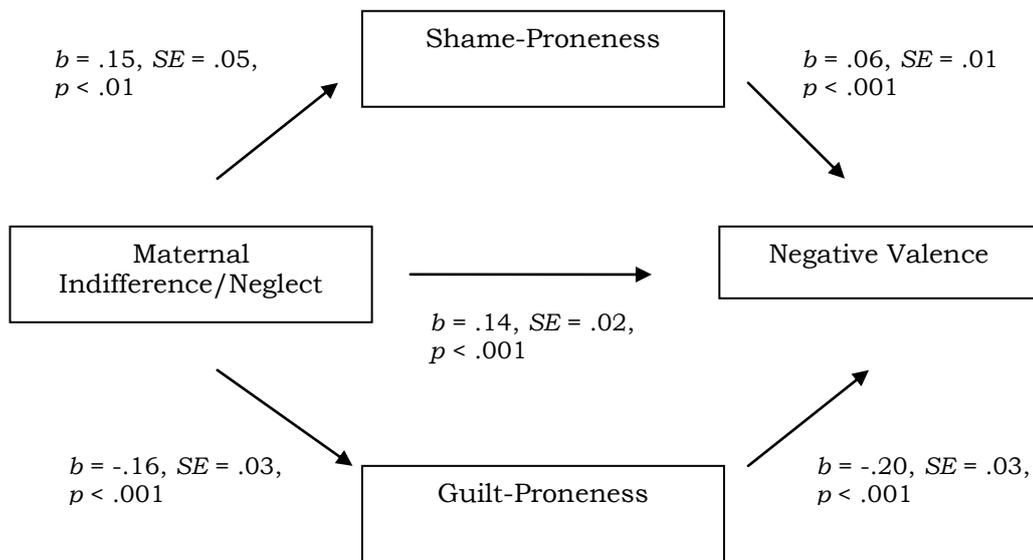


**Figure A.1. 27. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Hostility/Aggression and Negative Valence**

**A.1.28. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Indifference/Neglect and Negative Valence**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal indifference/neglect and negative valence via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.1. 28). Results of the analysis revealed that maternal indifference/neglect was significantly associated with negative valence domain of personality ( $b = .18$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $t = 9.16$ ,  $p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for maternal indifference/neglect. Further, maternal indifference/neglect was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .15$ ,  $SE = .05$ ,  $t = 2.76$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.16$ ,  $SE = .03$ ,  $t = -5.14$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal indifference/neglect on negative valence indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .009$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .003 to .017) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .032$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .017 to .050). Results showed a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that guilt-proneness had a more powerful effect than shame-proneness on the path from maternal indifference/neglect to negative valence ( $b = -.023$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) -.043 to -.007).

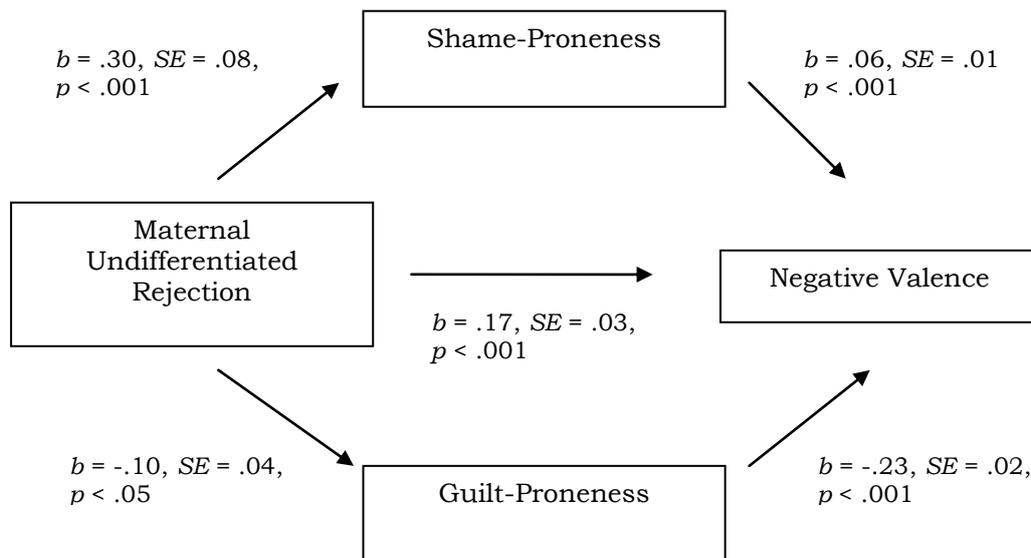


**Figure A.1. 28. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Indifference/Neglect and Negative Valence**

**A.1.29. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Undifferentiated Rejection and Negative Valence**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal undifferentiated rejection and negative valence via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.1. 29). Results of the analysis revealed that maternal undifferentiated rejection was significantly associated with negative valence domain of personality ( $b = .21, SE = .03, t = 7.56, p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for maternal undifferentiated rejection. Further, maternal undifferentiated rejection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .30, SE = .08, t = 3.94, p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.10, SE = .04, t = -2.19, p < .05$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal undifferentiated rejection on negative valence indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .017, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .008 to .030) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .022, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .002 to .047). Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from maternal undifferentiated rejection to negative valence.

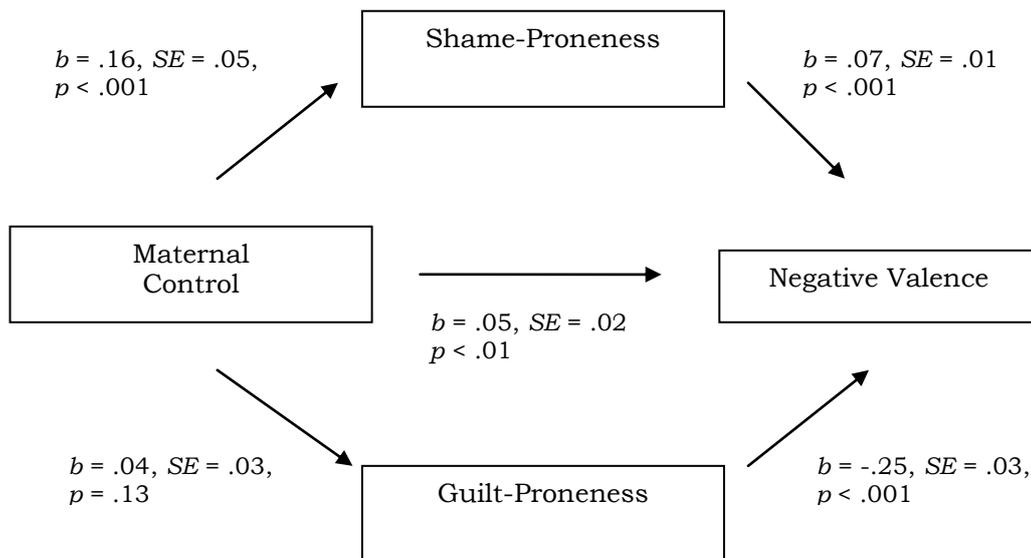


**Figure A.1. 29. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Undifferentiated Rejection and Negative Valence**

**A.1.30. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Control and Negative Valence**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal control and negative valence via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.1. 30). Results of the analysis revealed that maternal control was significantly associated with negative valence domain of personality ( $b = .05, SE = .02, t = 3.08, p < .01$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for maternal control. Further, maternal control was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .16, SE = .05, t = 3.42, p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal control on negative valence indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .010, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .004 to .020). Guilt was not found to be a significant mediator as evidenced by the 95% bootstrap confidence interval including zero. Results showed a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness had a more powerful effect than guilt-proneness on the path from maternal control to negative valence ( $b = .020, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .006 to .037).

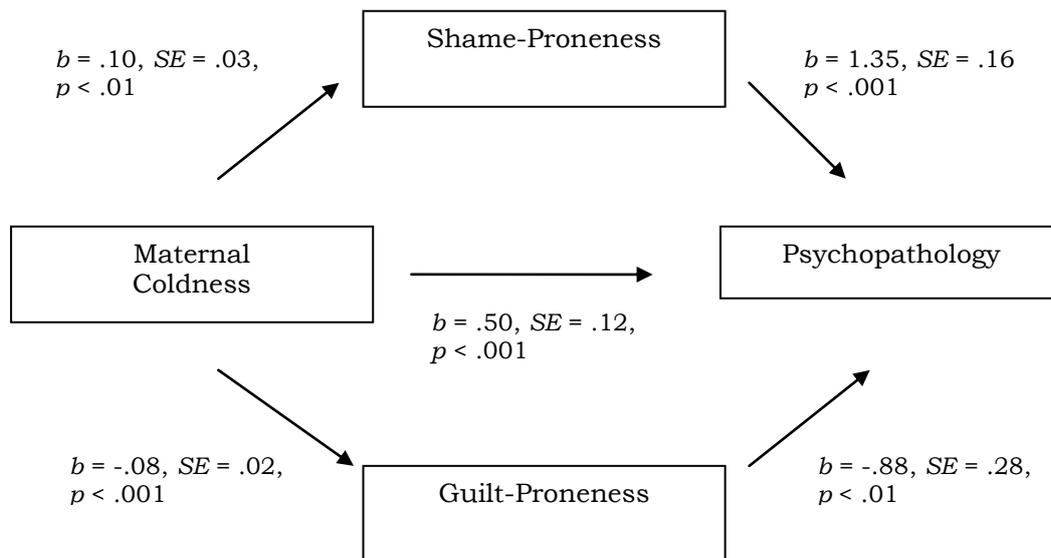


**Figure A.1. 30. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Control and Negative Valence**

#### **A.1.31. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Warmth/Affection and Psychopathology**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal warmth/affection and psychopathology via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.1. 31). Results of the analysis revealed that maternal warmth/affection was significantly associated with psychopathology ( $b = .69$ ,  $SE = .13$ ,  $t = 5.40$ ,  $p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for maternal warmth/affection. Further, maternal warmth/affection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .10$ ,  $SE = .03$ ,  $t = 3.15$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.08$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $t = -4.19$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal warmth/affection on psychopathology indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .133$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .057 to .224) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .066$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .022 to .134). Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from maternal warmth/affection to psychopathology.

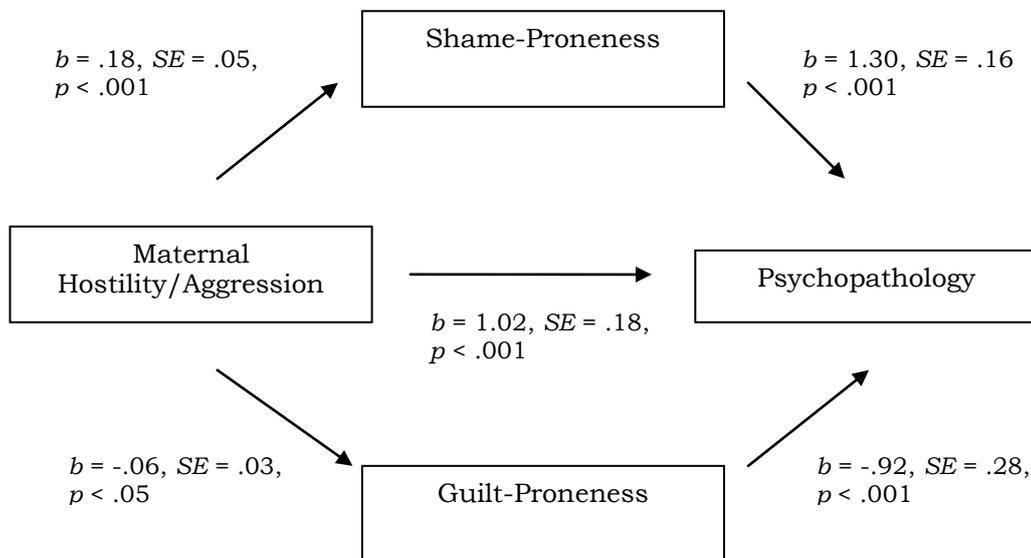


**Figure A.1. 31. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Warmth/Affection (Coldness) and Psychopathology**

**A.1.32. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Hostility/Aggression and Psychopathology**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal hostility/aggression and psychopathology via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.1. 32). Results of the analysis revealed that maternal hostility/aggression was significantly associated with psychopathology ( $b = 1.31, SE = .19, t = 7.00, p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for maternal hostility/aggression. Further, maternal hostility/aggression was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .18, SE = .05, t = 3.87, p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.06, SE = .03, t = -2.12, p < .05$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal hostility/aggression on psychopathology indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .230, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .123 to .362) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .052, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .007 to .138). Results showed a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness had a more powerful effect than guilt-proneness on the path from maternal hostility/aggression to psychopathology ( $b = .178, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .043 to .320).

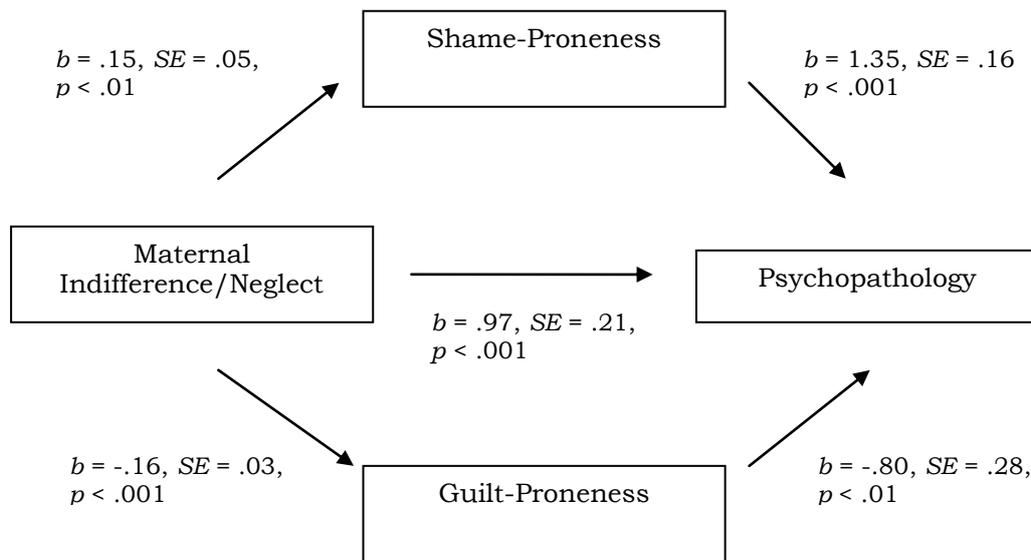


**Figure A.1. 32. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Hostility/Aggression and Psychopathology**

#### **A.1.33. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Indifference/Neglect and Psychopathology**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal indifference/neglect and psychopathology via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.1. 33). Results of the analysis revealed that maternal indifference/neglect was significantly associated with psychopathology ( $b = 1.29$ ,  $SE = .22$ ,  $t = 5.91$ ,  $p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for maternal indifference/neglect. Further, maternal indifference/neglect was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .15$ ,  $SE = .05$ ,  $t = 2.76$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.16$ ,  $SE = .03$ ,  $t = -5.14$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal indifference/neglect on psychopathology indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .199$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .075 to .344) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .125$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .035 to .254). Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from maternal indifference/neglect to psychopathology.

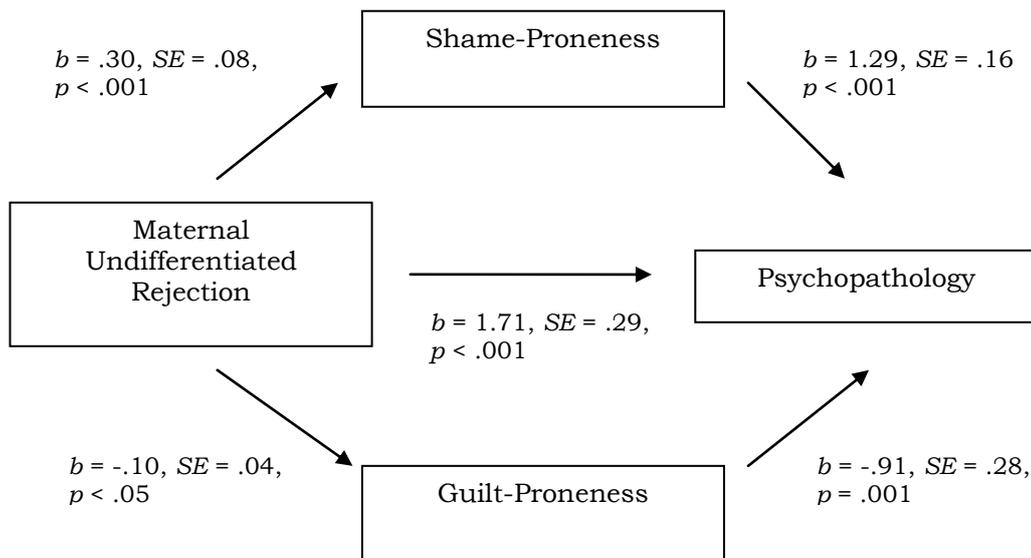


**Figure A.1. 33. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Indifference/Neglect and Psychopathology**

**A.1.34. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Undifferentiated Rejection and Psychopathology**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal undifferentiated rejection and psychopathology via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.1. 34). Results of the analysis revealed that maternal undifferentiated rejection was significantly associated with psychopathology ( $b = 2.18, SE = .31, t = 7.14, p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for maternal undifferentiated rejection. Further, maternal undifferentiated rejection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .30, SE = .08, t = 3.94, p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.10, SE = .04, t = -2.19, p < .05$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal undifferentiated rejection on psychopathology indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .382, 95\% \text{ bootstrap confidence interval (CI) } .200 \text{ to } .617$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .087, 95\% \text{ bootstrap confidence interval (CI) } .009 \text{ to } .236$ ). Results showed a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness had a more powerful effect than guilt-proneness on the path from maternal undifferentiated rejection to psychopathology ( $b = .295, 95\% \text{ bootstrap confidence interval (CI) } .074 \text{ to } .553$ ).

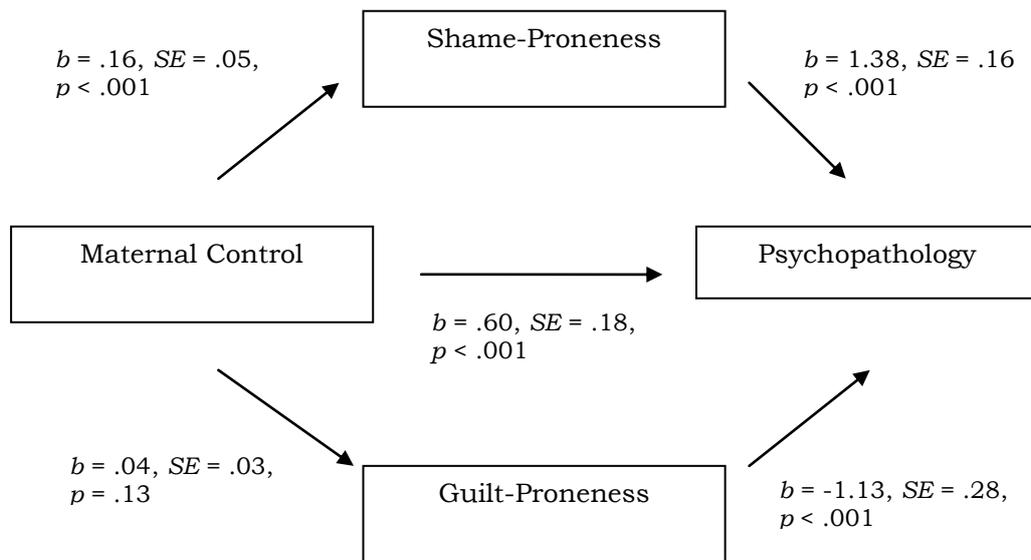


**Figure A.1. 34. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Undifferentiated Rejection and Psychopathology**

**A.1.35. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Control and Psychopathology**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal control and psychopathology via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.1. 35). Results of the analysis revealed that maternal control was significantly associated with psychopathology ( $b = .77, SE = .19, t = 4.08, p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for maternal control. Further, maternal control was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .16, SE = .05, t = 3.42, p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of maternal control on psychopathology indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .214, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .089 to .367) Guilt was not found to be a significant mediator as evidenced by the 95% bootstrap confidence interval including zero. Results showed a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness had a more powerful effect than guilt-proneness on the path from maternal control to psychopathology ( $b = .260, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .116 to .435).



**Figure A.1. 35. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Maternal Control and Psychopathology**

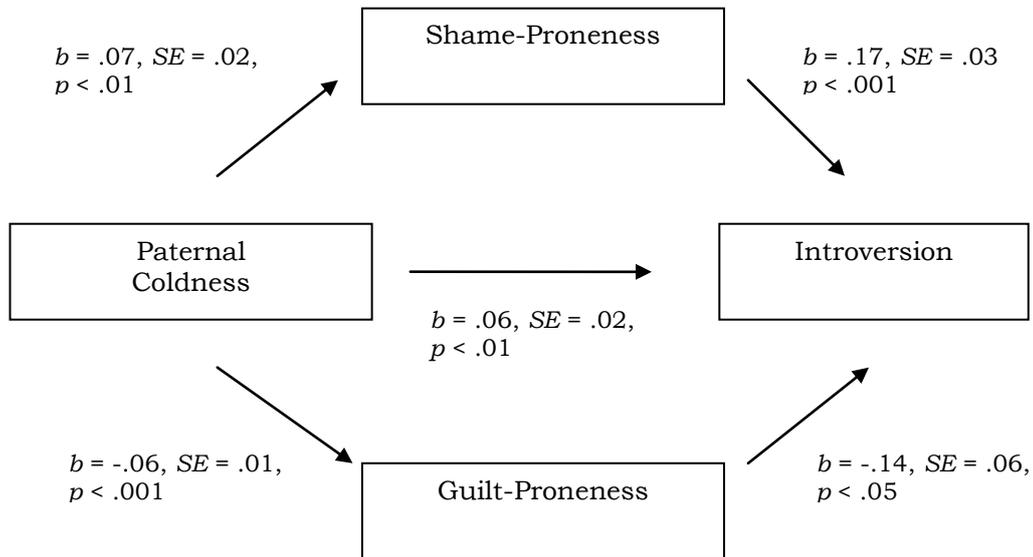
**A.2. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Subscales of Paternal Acceptance – Rejection/Control and Personality Domains and Psychopathology**

**A.2.1. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Warmth/Affection and Introversion**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal warmth/affection and introversion via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.2. 1). Results of the analysis revealed that paternal warmth/affection was significantly associated with introversion domain of personality ( $b = .08$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $t = 4.29$ ,  $p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for paternal warmth/affection. Further, paternal warmth/affection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .07$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $t = 3.04$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.06$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = -4.08$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal warmth/affection on introversion indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .013$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .004 to .024) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .008$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .002 to .019). Results did not reveal a significant

differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from paternal warmth/affection to introversion.



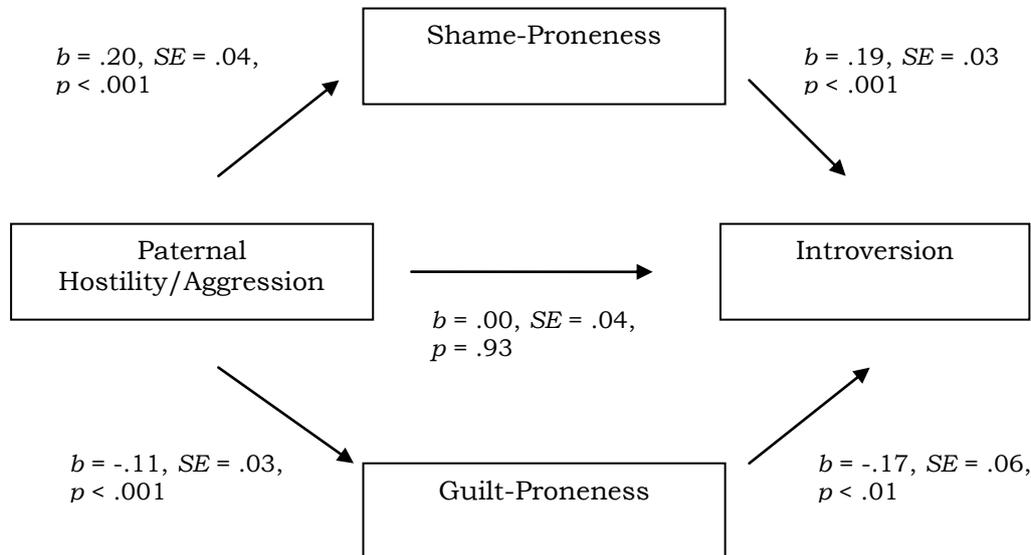
**Figure A.2. 1. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Warmth/Affection (Coldness) and Introversion**

**A.2.2. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Hostility/Aggression and Introversion**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal hostility/aggression and introversion via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.2. 2). Results of the analysis revealed that an insignificant association between paternal hostility/aggression and introversion domain of personality ( $b = .06, SE = .04, t = 1.67, p = .10$ ). Further, paternal hostility/aggression was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .20, SE = .04, t = 4.55, p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.11, SE = .03, t = -4.47, p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal hostility/aggression on introversion indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .037, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .018 to .062) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .020, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .007 to .041). Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that

shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from paternal hostility/aggression to introversion.

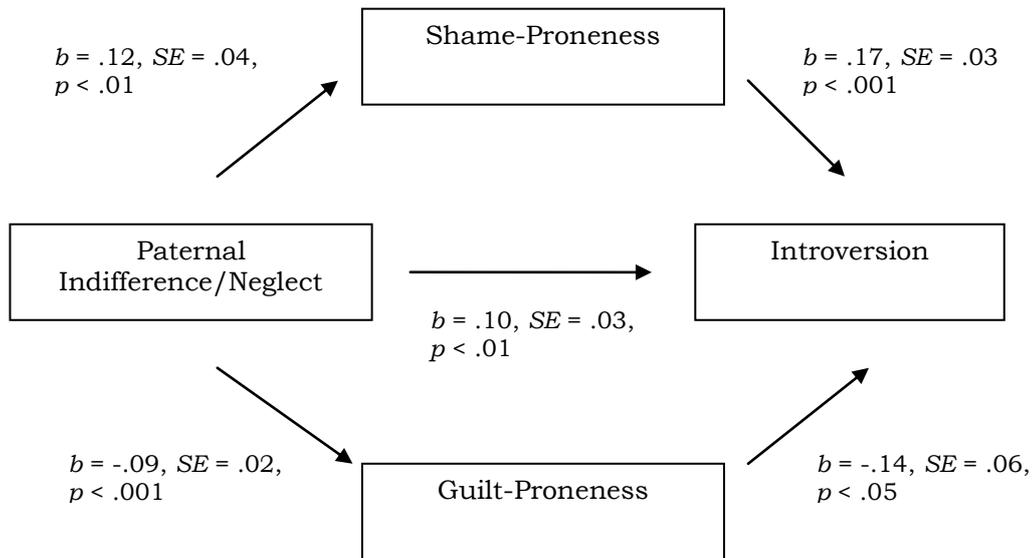


**Figure A.2. 2. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Hostility/Aggression and Introversion**

**A.2.3. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Indifference/Neglect and Introversion**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal indifference/neglect and introversion via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.2. 3). Results of the analysis revealed that paternal indifference/neglect was significantly associated with introversion domain of personality ( $b = .13, SE = .03, t = 4.13, p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for paternal indifference/neglect. Further, paternal indifference/neglect was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .12, SE = .04, t = 3.03, p < .01$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.09, SE = .02, t = -4.08, p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal indifference/neglect on introversion indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .021, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .007 to .041) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .013, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .003 to .029). Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from paternal indifference/neglect to introversion.

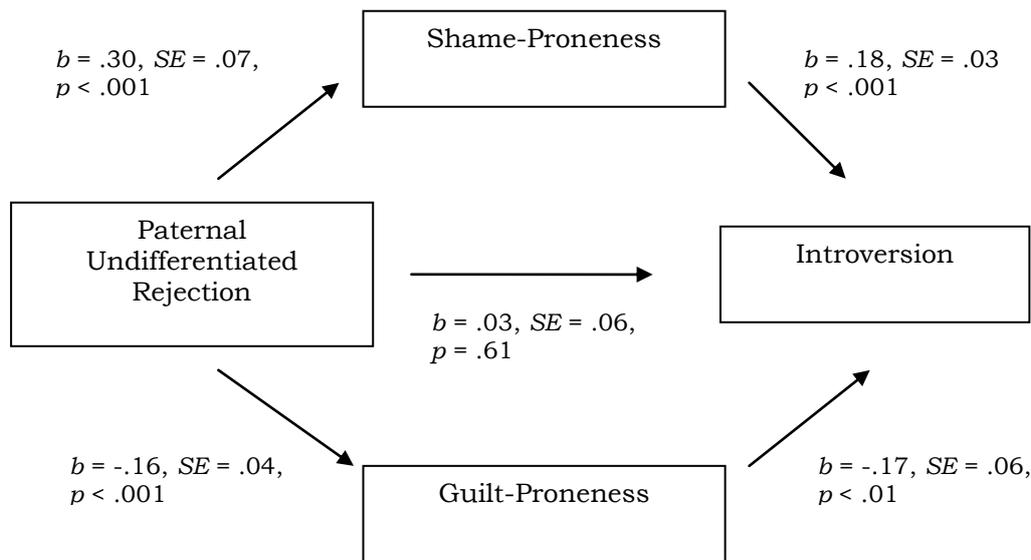


**Figure A.2. 3. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Indifference/Neglect and Introversion**

**A.2.4. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Undifferentiated Rejection and Introversion**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal undifferentiated rejection and introversion via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.2. 4). Results of the analysis revealed that paternal undifferentiated rejection was significantly associated with introversion domain of personality ( $b = .11, SE = .06, t = 2.00, p < .05$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for paternal undifferentiated rejection. Further, paternal undifferentiated rejection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .30, SE = .07, t = 4.38, p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.16, SE = .04, t = -4.18, p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal undifferentiated rejection on introversion indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .054, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .026 to .094) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .028, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .009 to .060). Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from paternal undifferentiated rejection to introversion.

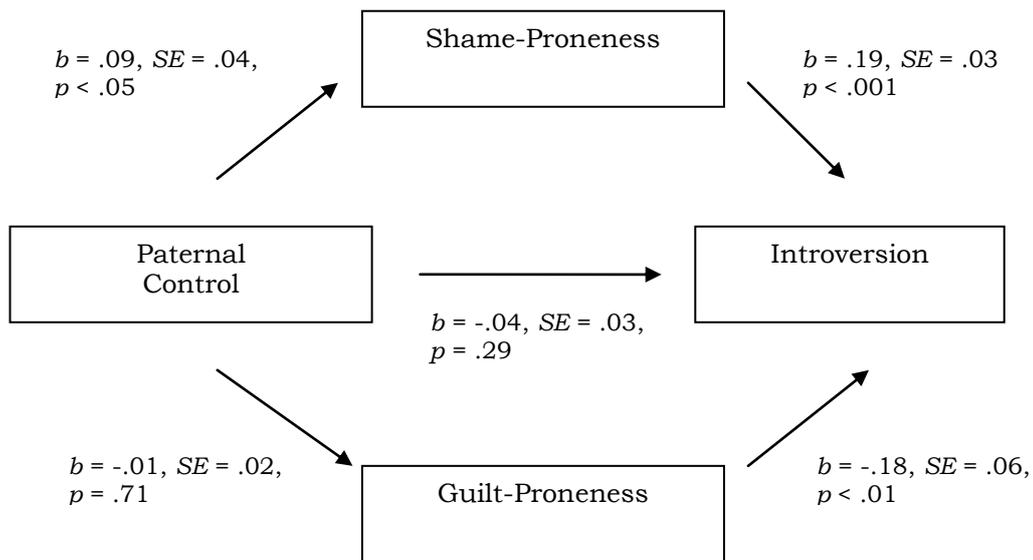


**Figure A.2. 4. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Undifferentiated Rejection and Introversion**

#### **A.2.5. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Control and Introversion**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal control and introversion via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.2. 5). Results of the analysis revealed that an insignificant association between paternal control and introversion domain of personality ( $b = -.02$ ,  $SE = .03$ ,  $t = -.51$   $p = .61$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for paternal control. Further, paternal control was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .09$ ,  $SE = .04$ ,  $t = 2.05$ ,  $p < .05$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal control on extraversion indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .017$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .002 to .038). Guilt was not found to be a significant mediator as evidenced by the 95% bootstrap confidence interval including zero. Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from paternal control to introversion.

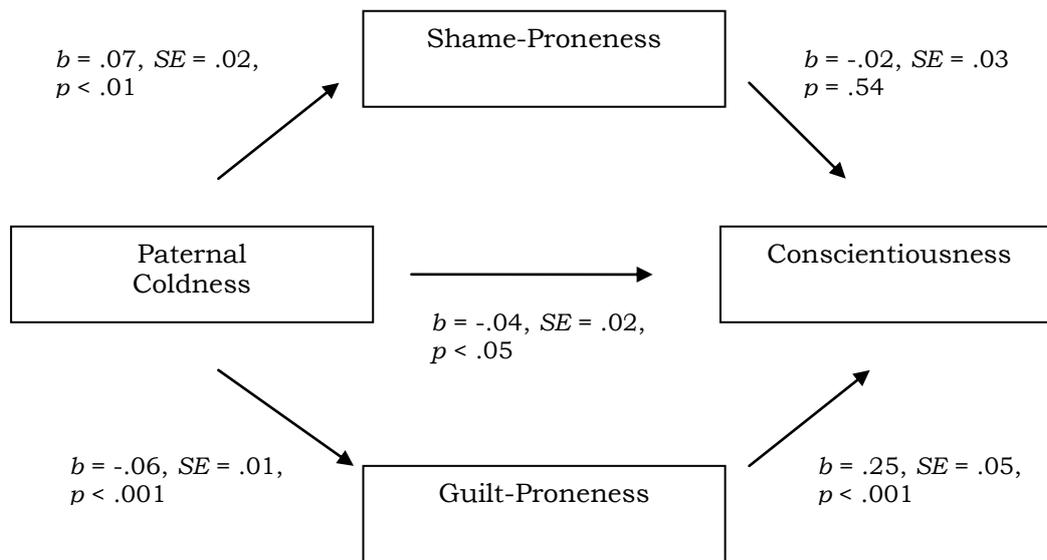


**Figure A.2. 5. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Control and Introversion**

#### **A.2.6. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Warmth/Affection and Conscientiousness**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal warmth/affection and conscientiousness via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.2. 6). Results of the analysis revealed that paternal warmth/affection was significantly associated with conscientiousness domain of personality ( $b = -.05$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $t = -2.99$ ,  $p < .01$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for paternal warmth/affection. Further, paternal warmth/affection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .07$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $t = 3.04$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.06$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = -4.08$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal warmth/affection on conscientiousness indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through guilt-proneness ( $b = -.014$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.026$  to  $-.007$ ). Shame was not found to be a significant mediator as evidenced by the 95% bootstrap confidence interval including zero. Results showed a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that guilt-proneness had a more powerful effect than shame-proneness on the path from paternal warmth/affection on conscientiousness ( $b = .013$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $.040$  to  $.025$ ).

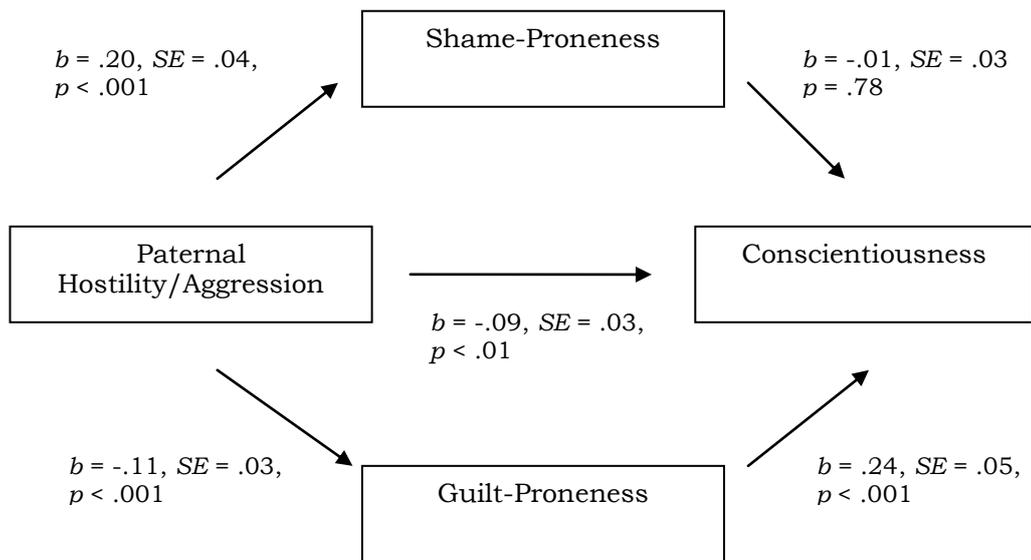


**Figure A.2. 6. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Warmth/Affection (Coldness) and Conscientiousness**

**A.2.7. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Hostility/Aggression and Conscientiousness**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal hostility/aggression and conscientiousness via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.2. 7). Results of the analysis revealed that paternal hostility/aggression was significantly associated with conscientiousness domain of personality ( $b = -.12$ ,  $SE = .03$ ,  $t = -3.94$ ,  $p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for paternal hostility/aggression. Further, paternal hostility/aggression was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .20$ ,  $SE = .04$ ,  $t = 4.55$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.11$ ,  $SE = .03$ ,  $t = -4.47$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal hostility/aggression on conscientiousness indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through guilt-proneness ( $b = -.027$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.050$  to  $-.013$ ). Shame was not found to be a significant mediator as evidenced by the 95% bootstrap confidence interval including zero. Results showed a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that guilt-proneness had a more powerful effect than shame-proneness on the path from paternal hostility/aggression on conscientiousness ( $b = .025$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $.006$  to  $.048$ ).

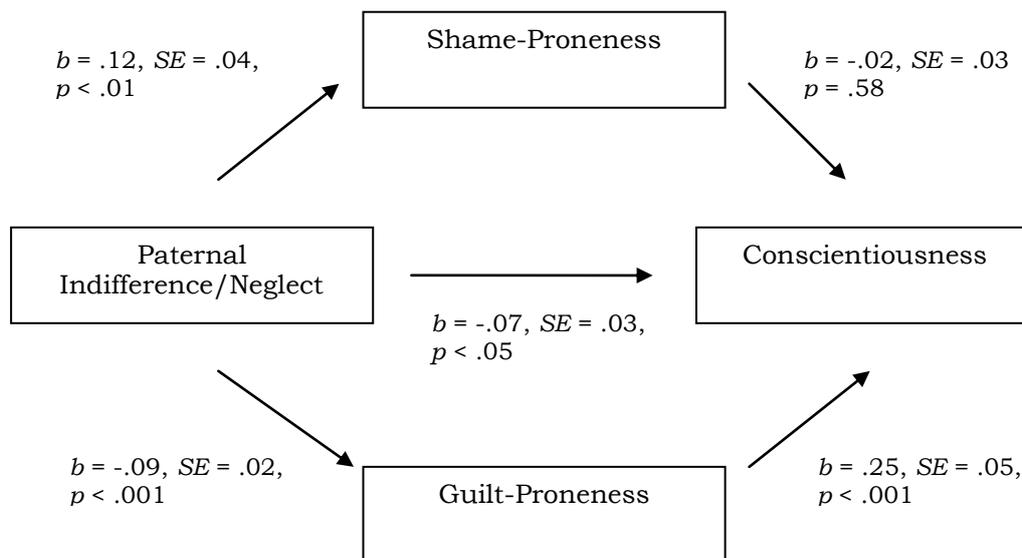


**Figure A.2. 7. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Hostility/Aggression and Conscientiousness**

#### **A.2.8. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Indifference/Neglect and Conscientiousness**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between maternal paternal indifference/neglect and conscientiousness via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.2. 8). Results of the analysis revealed that paternal indifference/neglect was significantly associated with conscientiousness domain of personality ( $b = -.10$ ,  $SE = .03$ ,  $t = -3.37$ ,  $p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for paternal indifference/neglect. Further, paternal indifference/neglect was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .12$ ,  $SE = .04$ ,  $t = 3.03$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.09$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $t = -4.08$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal indifference/neglect on conscientiousness indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through guilt-proneness ( $b = -.023$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.043$  to  $-.011$ ). Shame was not found to be a significant mediator as evidenced by the 95% bootstrap confidence interval including zero. Results showed a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that guilt-proneness had a more powerful effect than shame-proneness on the path from paternal indifference/neglect to conscientiousness ( $b = .021$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $.007$  to  $.040$ ).

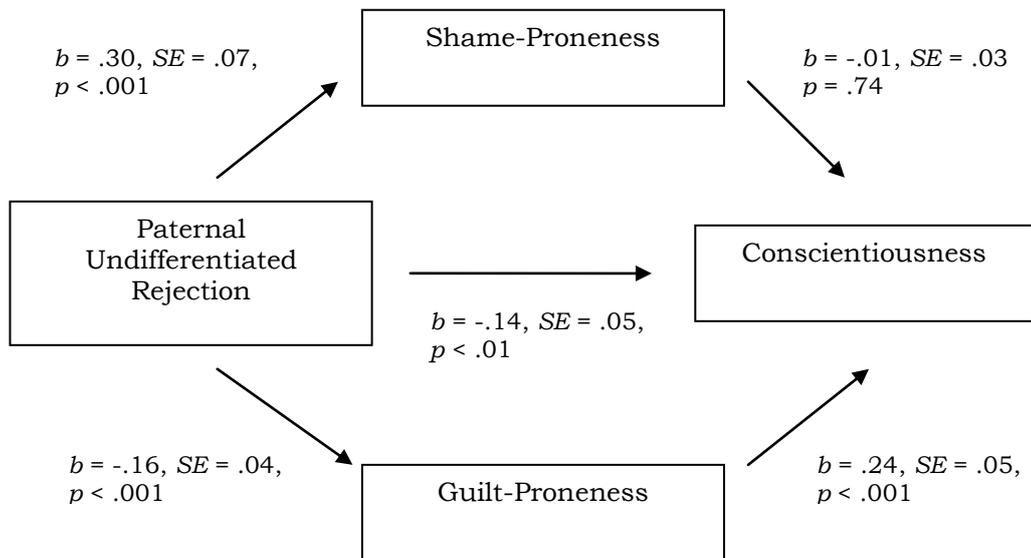


**Figure A.2. 8. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Indifference/Neglect and Conscientiousness**

#### **A.2.9. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Undifferentiated Rejection and Conscientiousness**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal undifferentiated rejection and conscientiousness via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.2. 9). Results of the analysis revealed that paternal undifferentiated rejection was significantly associated with conscientiousness domain of personality ( $b = -.18, SE = .05, t = -3.76, p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for paternal undifferentiated rejection. Further, paternal undifferentiated rejection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .30, SE = .07, t = 4.38, p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.16, SE = .04, t = -4.18, p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal undifferentiated rejection on conscientiousness indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through guilt-proneness ( $b = -.040, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.076$  to  $-.018$ ). Shame was not found to be a significant mediator as evidenced by the 95% bootstrap confidence interval including zero. Results showed a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that guilt-proneness had a more powerful effect than shame-proneness on the path from paternal undifferentiated rejection to conscientiousness ( $b = .037, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $.008$  to  $.073$ ).

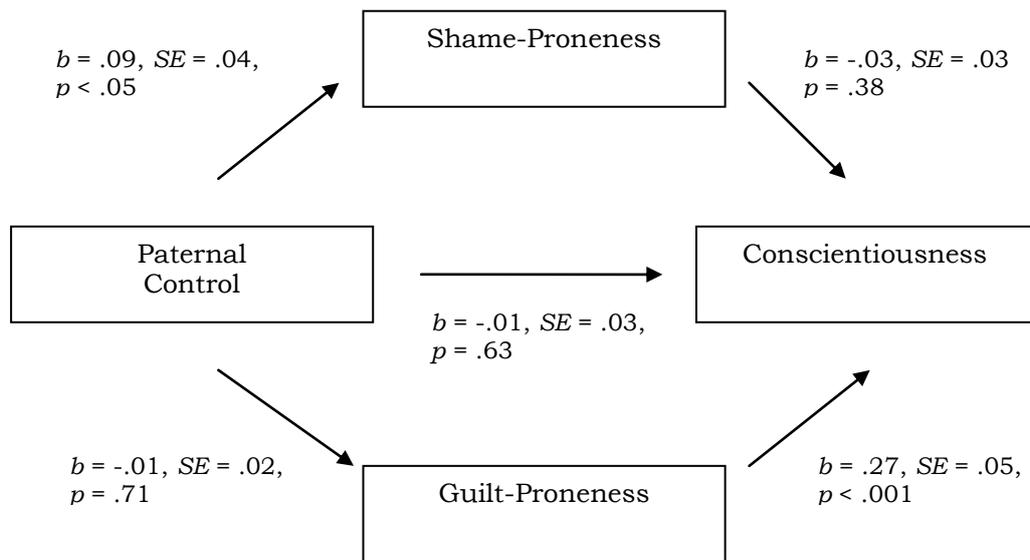


**Figure A.2. 9. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Undifferentiated Rejection and Conscientiousness**

#### **A.2.10. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Control and Conscientiousness**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal control and conscientiousness via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.2. 10). Results of the analysis revealed that paternal control was significantly associated with conscientiousness domain of personality ( $b = -.02$ ,  $SE = .03$ ,  $t = -.63$ ,  $p < .53$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for paternal control. Further, paternal control was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .09$ ,  $SE = .04$ ,  $t = 2.05$ ,  $p < .05$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal control on conscientiousness indicated that neither shame nor guilt was not found to be a significant mediator as evidenced by the 95% bootstrap confidence intervals including zero.

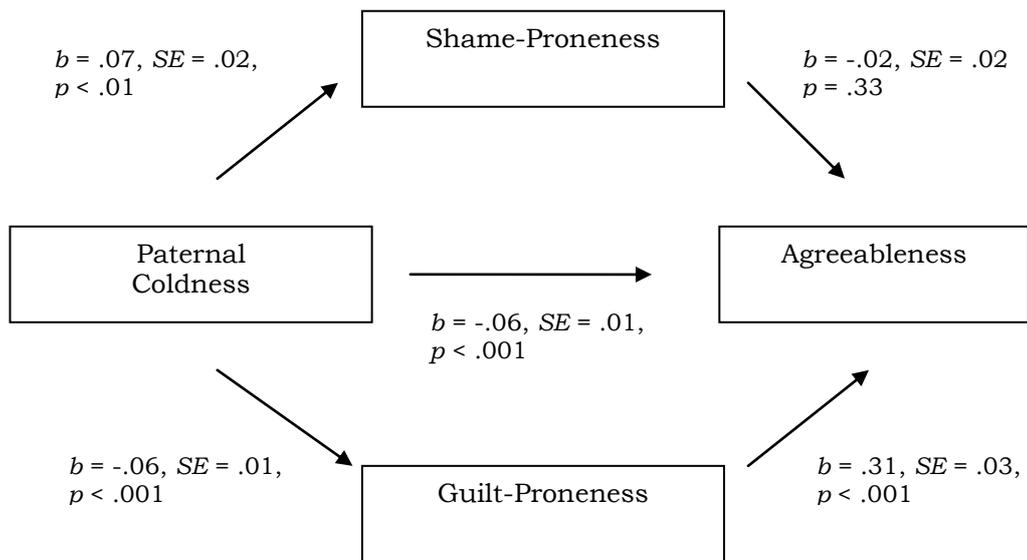


**Figure A.2. 10. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Control and Conscientiousness**

#### **A.2.11. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Warmth/Affection and Agreeableness**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal warmth/affection and agreeableness via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.2. 11). Results of the analysis revealed that paternal warmth/affection was significantly associated with agreeableness domain of personality ( $b = -.08$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = -7.18$ ,  $p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for paternal warmth/affection. Further, paternal warmth/affection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .07$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $t = 3.04$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.06$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = -4.08$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal warmth/affection on agreeableness indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through guilt-proneness ( $b = -.018$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.028$  to  $-.009$ ). Shame was not found to be a significant mediator as evidenced by the 95% bootstrap confidence interval including zero. Results showed a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that guilt-proneness had a more powerful effect than shame-proneness on the path paternal warmth/affection to agreeableness ( $b = .017$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $.007$  to  $.027$ ).

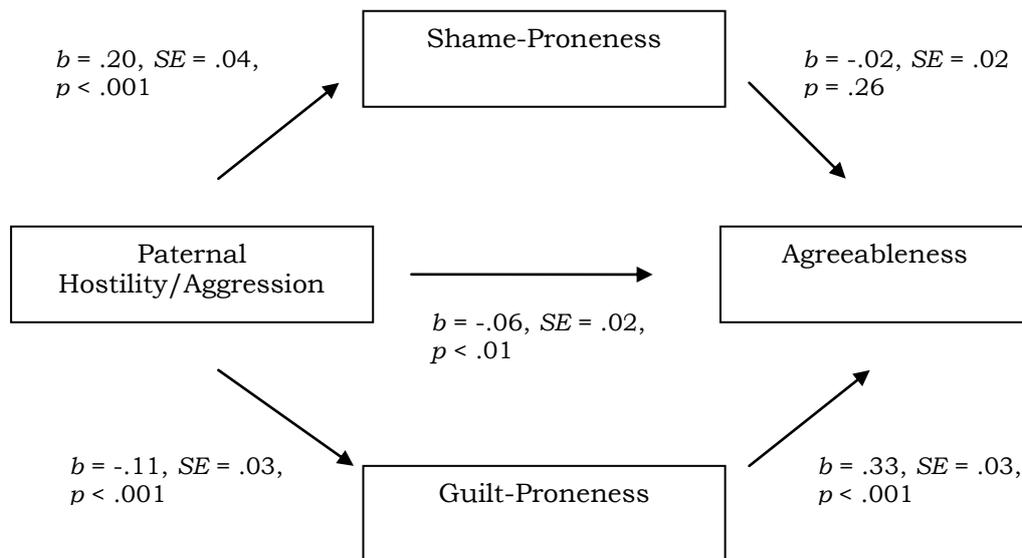


**Figure A.2. 11. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Warmth/Affection (Coldness) and Agreeableness**

#### **A.2.12. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Hostility/Aggression and Agreeableness**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal hostility/aggression and agreeableness via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.2. 12). Results of the analysis revealed that paternal hostility/aggression was significantly associated with agreeableness domain of personality ( $b = -.10$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $t = -4.78$ ,  $p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for paternal hostility/aggression. Further, paternal hostility/aggression was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .20$ ,  $SE = .04$ ,  $t = 4.55$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.11$ ,  $SE = .03$ ,  $t = -4.47$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal hostility/aggression on agreeableness indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through guilt-proneness ( $b = -.037$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.059$  to  $-.019$ ). Shame was not found to be a significant mediator as evidenced by the 95% bootstrap confidence interval including zero. Results showed a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that guilt-proneness had a more powerful effect than shame-proneness on the path from paternal hostility/aggression to agreeableness ( $b = .032$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $.012$  to  $.055$ ).

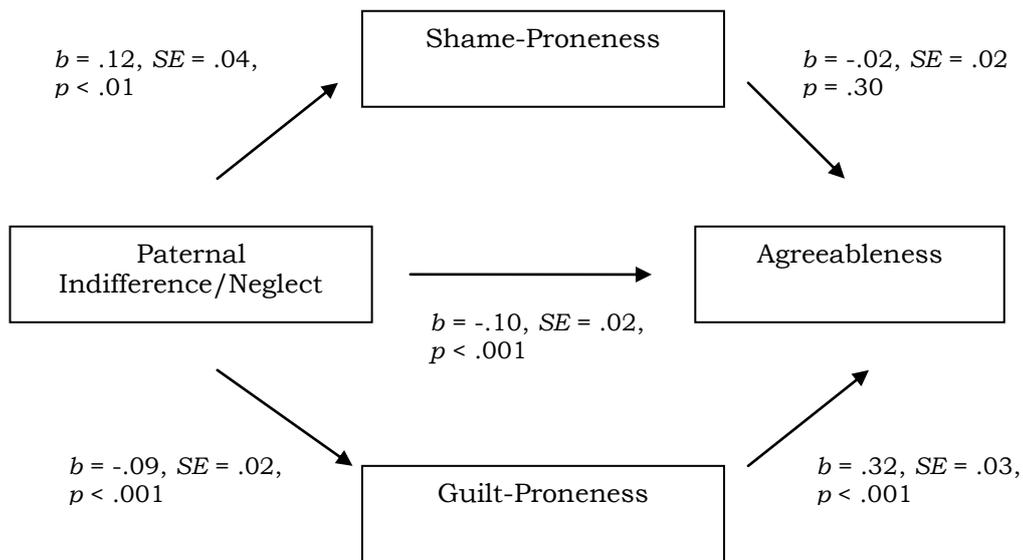


**Figure A.2. 12. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Hostility/Aggression and Agreeableness**

**A.2.13. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Indifference/Neglect and Agreeableness**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal indifference/neglect and agreeableness via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.2. 13). Results of the analysis revealed that paternal indifference/neglect was significantly associated with agreeableness domain of personality ( $b = -.13, SE = .02, t = -6.69, p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for paternal indifference/neglect. Further, paternal indifference/neglect was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .12, SE = .04, t = 3.03, p < .01$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.09, SE = .02, t = -4.08, p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal indifference/neglect on agreeableness indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through guilt-proneness ( $b = -.029, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.047$  to  $-.015$ ). Shame was not found to be a significant mediator as evidenced by the 95% bootstrap confidence interval including zero. Results showed a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that guilt-proneness had a more powerful effect than shame-proneness on the path from paternal indifference/neglect to agreeableness ( $b = .027, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $.012$  to  $.045$ ).

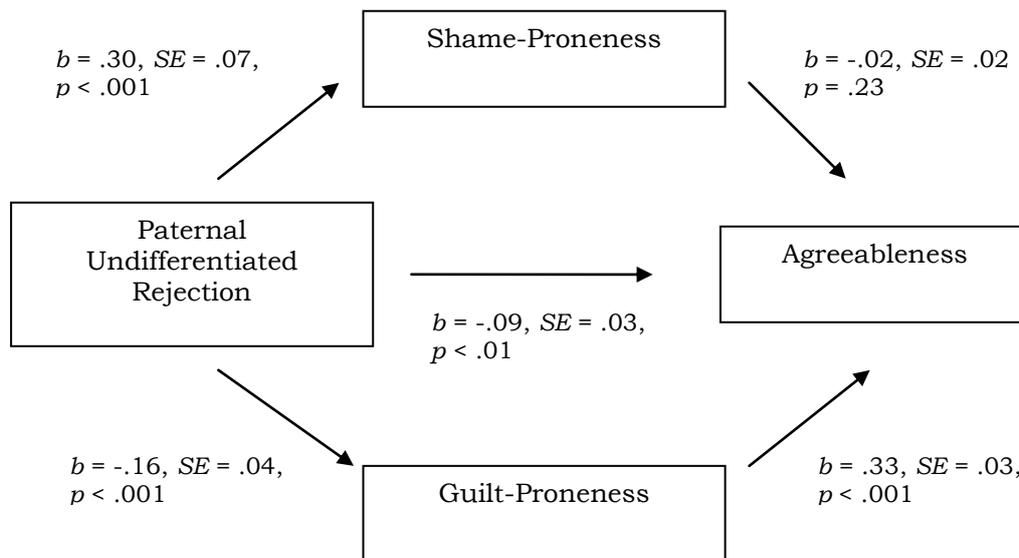


**Figure A.2. 13. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Indifference/Neglect and Agreeableness**

**A.2.14. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Undifferentiated Rejection and Agreeableness**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal undifferentiated rejection and agreeableness via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.2. 14). Results of the analysis revealed that paternal undifferentiated rejection was significantly associated with agreeableness domain of personality ( $b = -.15$ ,  $SE = .03$ ,  $t = -4.50$ ,  $p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for paternal undifferentiated rejection. Further, paternal undifferentiated rejection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .30$ ,  $SE = .07$ ,  $t = 4.38$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.16$ ,  $SE = .04$ ,  $t = -4.18$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal undifferentiated rejection on agreeableness indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through guilt-proneness ( $b = -.054$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.087$  to  $-.026$ ). Shame was not found to be a significant mediator as evidenced by the 95% bootstrap confidence interval including zero. Results showed a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that guilt-proneness had a more powerful effect than shame-proneness on the path from paternal undifferentiated rejection on agreeableness ( $b = .047$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $.017$  to  $.081$ ).

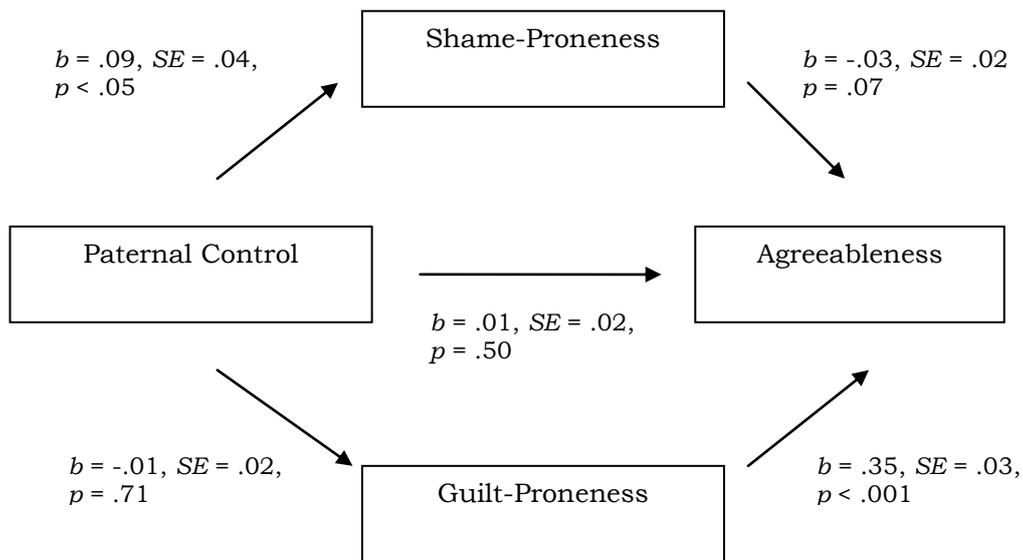


**Figure A.2. 14. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Undifferentiated Rejection and Agreeableness**

**A.2.15. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Control and Agreeableness**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal control and agreeableness via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.2. 15). Results of the analysis revealed that an insignificant association between paternal control and agreeableness domain of personality ( $b = .01, SE = .02, t = .33, p < .74$ ). Further, paternal control was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .09, SE = .04, t = 2.05, p < .05$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal control on agreeableness indicated that neither shame nor guilt was not found to be a significant mediator as evidenced by the 95% bootstrap confidence interval including zero.

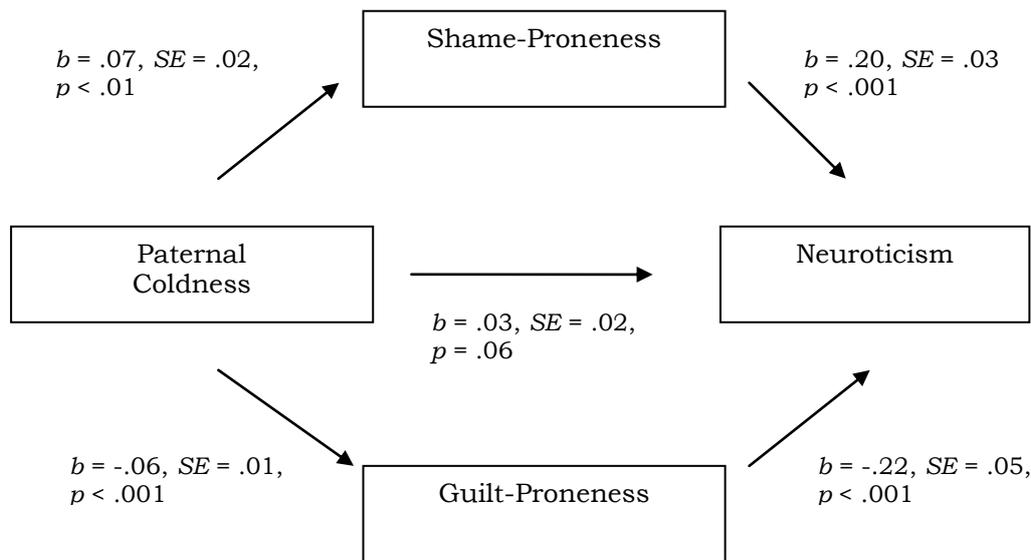


**Figure A.2. 15. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Control and Agreeableness**

**A.2.16. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Warmth/Affection and Neuroticism**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal warmth/affection and neuroticism via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.2. 16). Results of the analysis revealed that paternal warmth/affection was significantly associated with neuroticism domain of personality ( $b = .06, SE = .02, t = 3.29, p < .01$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for paternal warmth/affection. Further, paternal warmth/affection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .07, SE = .02, t = 3.04, p < .01$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.06, SE = .01, t = -4.08, p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal warmth/affection on neuroticism indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .015, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .005 to .027) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .012, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .005 to .023). Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from paternal warmth/affection to neuroticism.

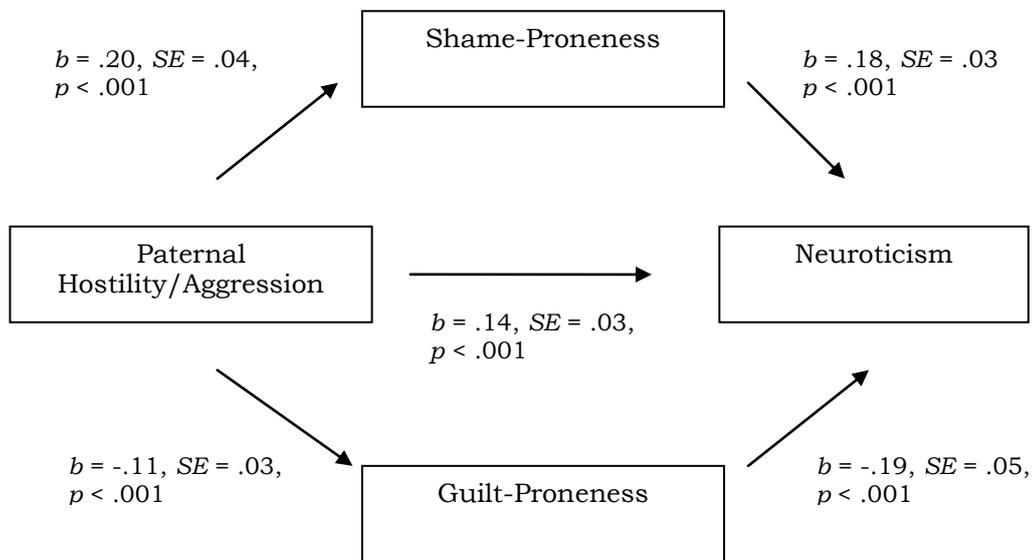


**Figure A.2. 16. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Warmth/Affection (Coldness) and Neuroticism**

**A.2.17. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Hostility/Aggression and Neuroticism**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal hostility/aggression and neuroticism via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.2. 17). Results of the analysis revealed that paternal hostility/aggression was significantly associated with neuroticism domain of personality ( $b = .20, SE = .03, t = 6.08, p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for paternal hostility/aggression. Further, paternal hostility/aggression was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .20, SE = .04, t = 4.55, p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.11, SE = .03, t = -4.47, p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal hostility/aggression on neuroticism indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .035, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .017 to .059) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .021, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .009 to .041). Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from paternal hostility/aggression to neuroticism.

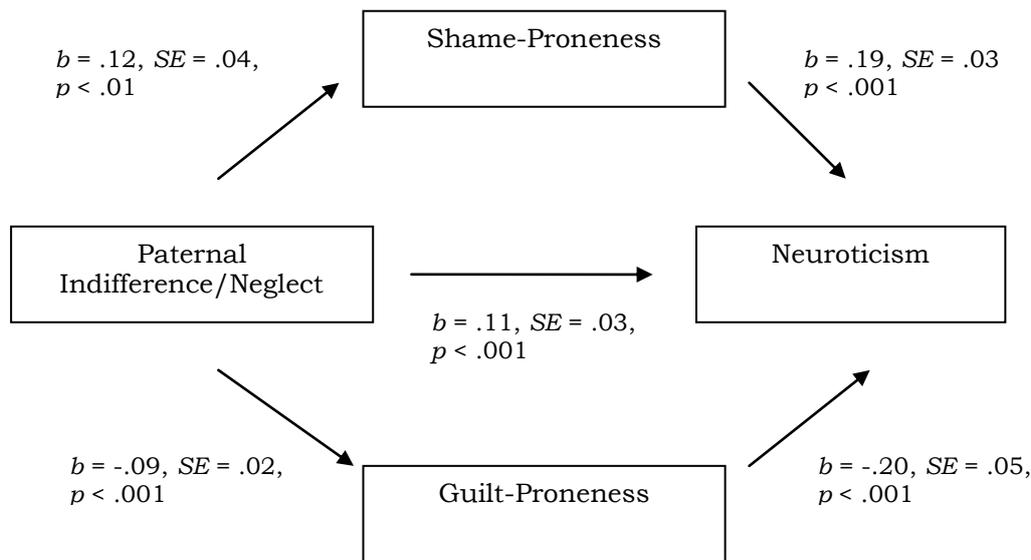


**Figure A.2. 17. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Hostility/Aggression and Neuroticism**

**A.2.18. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Indifference/Neglect and Neuroticism**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal indifference/neglect and neuroticism via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.2. 18). Results of the analysis revealed that paternal indifference/neglect was significantly associated with neuroticism domain of personality ( $b = .15, SE = .03, t = 5.17, p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for paternal indifference/neglect. Further, paternal indifference/neglect was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .12, SE = .04, t = 3.03, p < .01$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.09, SE = .02, t = -4.08, p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal indifference/neglect on neuroticism indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .023, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .008 to .043) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .019, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .007 to .036). Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from paternal indifference/neglect to neuroticism.

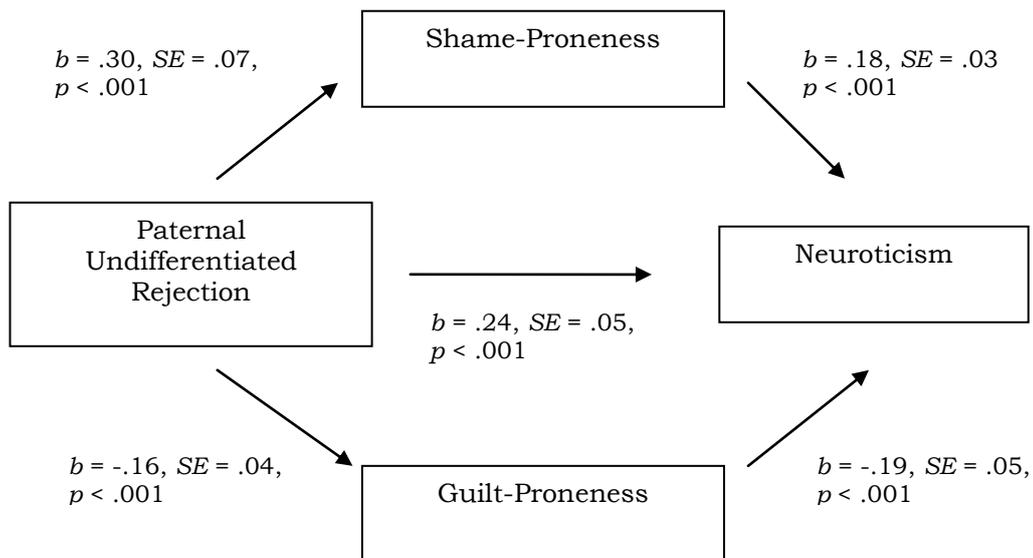


**Figure A.2. 18. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Indifference/Neglect and Neuroticism**

**A.2.19. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Undifferentiated Rejection and Neuroticism**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal undifferentiated rejection and neuroticism via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.2. 19). Results of the analysis revealed that paternal undifferentiated rejection was significantly associated with neuroticism domain of personality ( $b = .32, SE = .05, t = 6.25, p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for paternal undifferentiated rejection. Further, paternal undifferentiated rejection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .30, SE = .07, t = 4.38, p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.16, SE = .04, t = -4.18, p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal undifferentiated rejection on neuroticism indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .052, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .026 to .089) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .031, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .012 to .062). Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from paternal undifferentiated rejection to neuroticism.

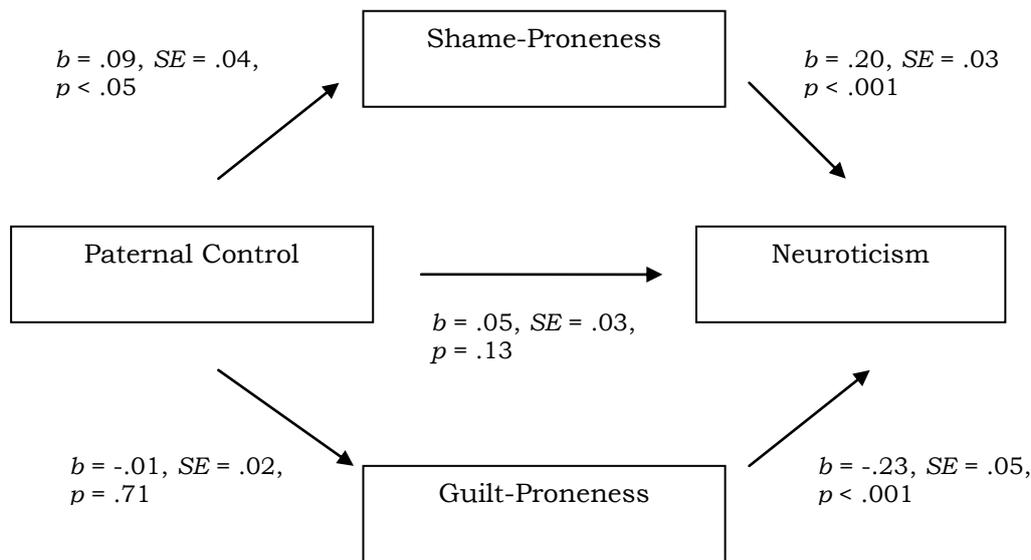


**Figure A.2. 19. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Undifferentiated Rejection and Neuroticism**

#### **A.2.20. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Control and Neuroticism**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal control and neuroticism via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.2. 20). Results of the analysis revealed that paternal control was significantly associated with neuroticism domain of personality ( $b = .07$ ,  $SE = .03$ ,  $t = 2.07$ ,  $p < .05$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for paternal control. Further, paternal control was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .09$ ,  $SE = .04$ ,  $t = 2.05$ ,  $p < .05$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal control on neuroticism indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .018$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .001 to .039). Guilt was not found to be a significant mediator as evidenced by the 95% bootstrap confidence interval including zero. Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from paternal control to neuroticism.

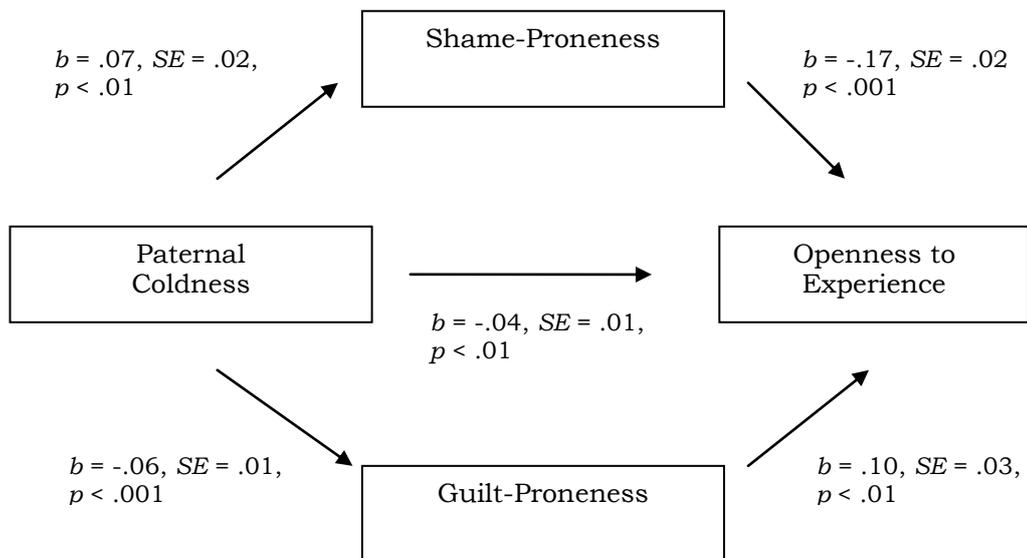


**Figure A.2. 20. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Control and Neuroticism**

**A.2.21. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Warmth/Affection and Openness to Experience**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal warmth/affection and openness to experience via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.2. 21). Results of the analysis revealed that paternal warmth/affection was significantly associated with openness to experience domain of personality ( $b = -.06$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = -4.53$   $p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for paternal warmth/affection. Further, paternal warmth/affection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .07$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $t = 3.04$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.06$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = -4.08$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal warmth/affection on openness to experience indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = -.013$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.023$  to  $-.005$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.005$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.012$  to  $-.002$ ). Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from paternal warmth/affection to openness to experience.

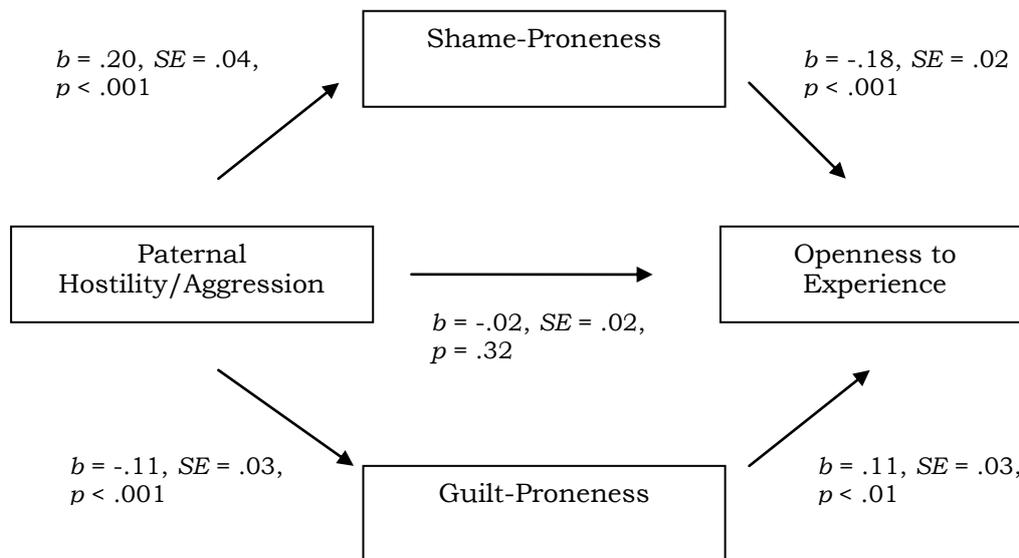


**Figure A.2. 21. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Warmth/Affection (Coldness) and Openness to Experience**

**A.2.22. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Hostility/Aggression and Openness to Experience**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal hostility/aggression and openness to experience via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.2. 22). Results of the analysis revealed that paternal hostility/aggression was significantly associated with openness to experience domain of personality ( $b = -.07$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $t = -3.10$ ,  $p < .01$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for paternal hostility/aggression. Further, paternal hostility/aggression was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .20$ ,  $SE = .04$ ,  $t = 4.55$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.11$ ,  $SE = .03$ ,  $t = -4.47$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal hostility/aggression on openness to experience indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = -.035$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.056$  to  $-.019$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.012$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.025$  to  $-.004$ ). Results showed a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness had a more powerful effect than guilt-proneness on the path from paternal hostility/aggression to openness to experience ( $b = -.023$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.046$  to  $-.002$ ).

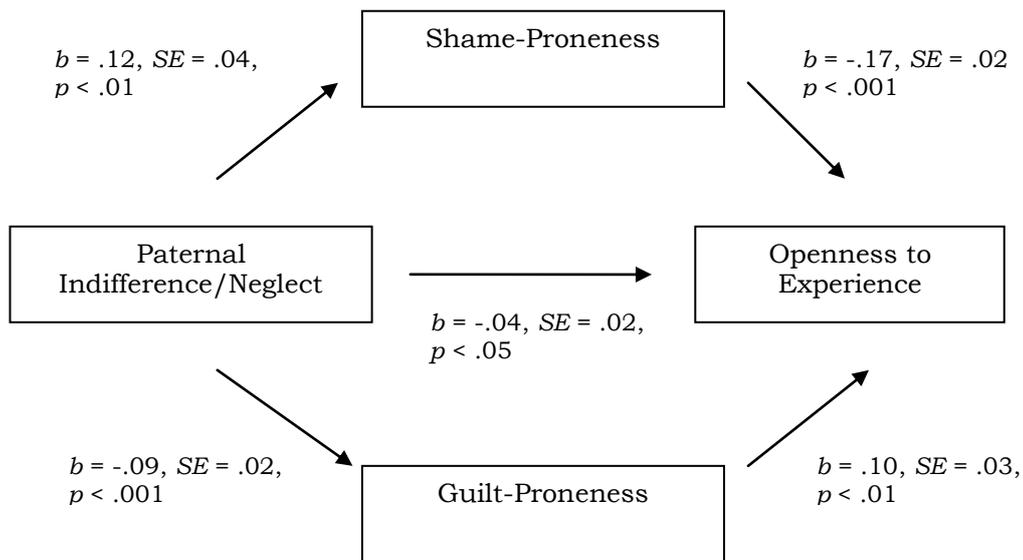


**Figure A.2. 22. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Hostility/Aggression and Openness to Experience**

**A.2.23. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Indifference/Neglect and Openness to Experience**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal indifference/neglect and openness to experience via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.2. 23). Results of the analysis revealed that paternal indifference/neglect was significantly associated with openness to experience domain of personality ( $b = -.07$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $t = -3.60$ ,  $p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for paternal indifference/neglect. Further, paternal indifference/neglect was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .12$ ,  $SE = .04$ ,  $t = 3.03$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.09$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $t = -4.08$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal indifference/neglect on openness to experience indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = -.021$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.039$  to  $-.007$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.009$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.020$  to  $-.003$ ). Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from paternal indifference/neglect to openness to experience.

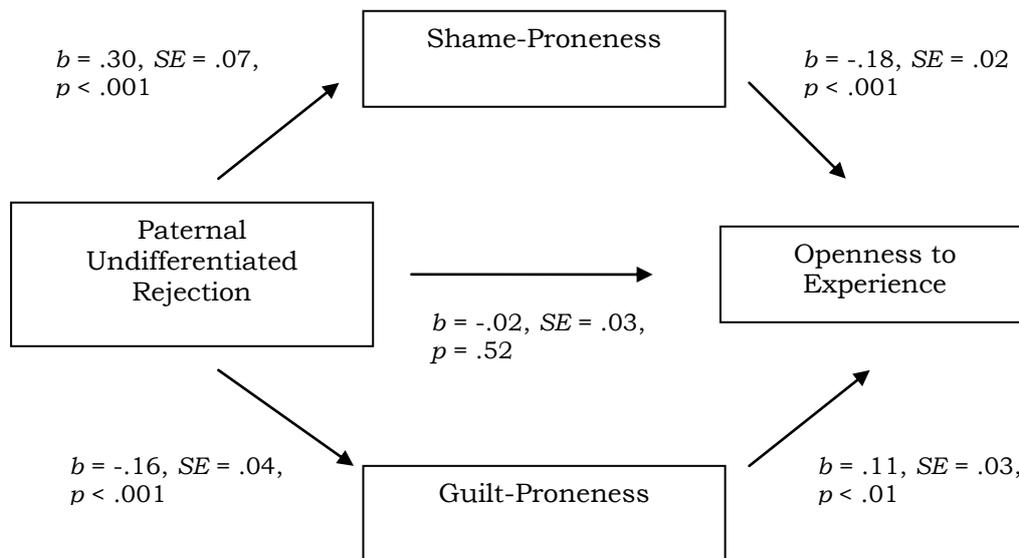


**Figure A.2. 23. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Indifference/Neglect and Openness to Experience**

**A.2.24. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Undifferentiated Rejection and Openness to Experience**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal undifferentiated rejection and openness to experience via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.2. 24). Results of the analysis revealed that paternal undifferentiated rejection was significantly associated with openness to experience domain of personality ( $b = -.09, SE = .03, t = -2.68, p < .01$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for paternal undifferentiated rejection. Further, paternal undifferentiated rejection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .30, SE = .07, t = 4.38, p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.16, SE = .04, t = -4.18, p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal undifferentiated rejection on openness to experience indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = -.053, 95\% \text{ bootstrap confidence interval (CI) } -.086 \text{ to } -.028$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.018, 95\% \text{ bootstrap confidence interval (CI) } -.039 \text{ to } -.006$ ). Results showed a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness had a more powerful effect than guilt-proneness on the path from paternal undifferentiated rejection to openness to experience ( $b = -.035, 95\% \text{ bootstrap confidence interval (CI) } -.071 \text{ to } -.004$ ).

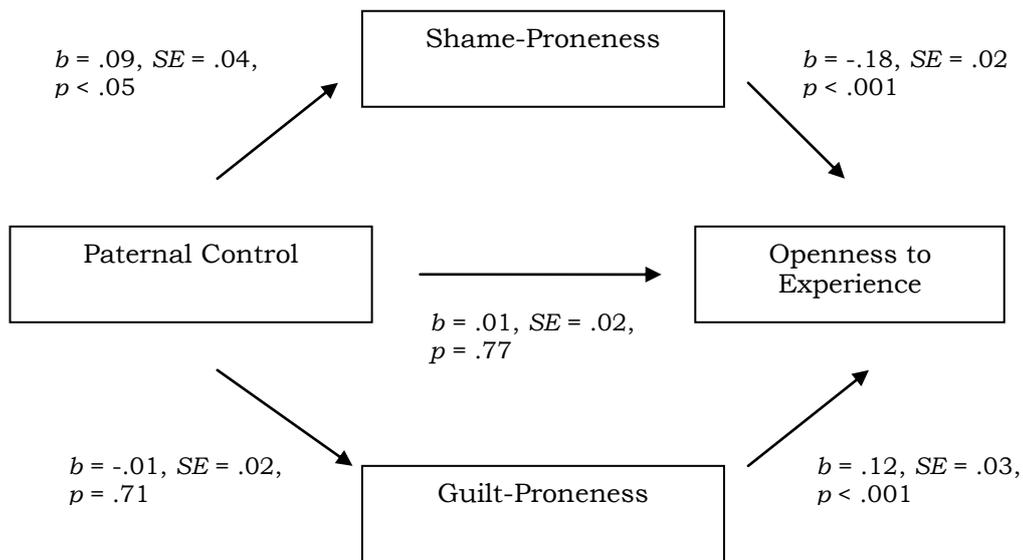


**Figure A.2. 24. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Undifferentiated Rejection and Openness to Experience**

**A.2.25. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Control and Openness to Experience**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal control and openness to experience via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.2. 25). Results of the analysis revealed that an insignificant association between paternal control and openness to experience domain of personality ( $b = -.01$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $t = -.51$ ,  $p = .61$ ). Further, paternal control was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .09$ ,  $SE = .04$ ,  $t = 2.05$ ,  $p < .05$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal control on openness to experience indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = -.016$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI)  $-.033$  to  $-.001$ ). Guilt was not found to be a significant mediator as evidenced by the 95% bootstrap confidence interval including zero. Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from paternal control to openness to experience.

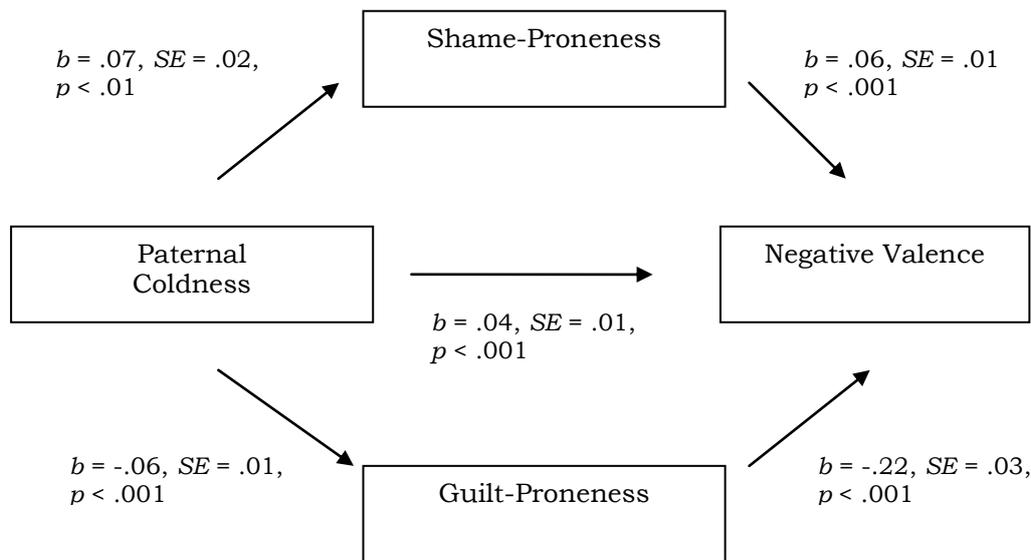


**Figure A.2. 25. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Control and Openness to Experience**

**A.2.26. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Warmth/Affection and Negative Valence**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal warmth/affection and negative valence via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.2. 26). Results of the analysis revealed that paternal warmth/affection was significantly associated with negative valence domain of personality ( $b = .06, SE = .01, t = 6.77, p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for paternal warmth/affection. Further, paternal warmth/affection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .07, SE = .02, t = 3.04, p < .01$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.06, SE = .01, t = -4.08, p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal warmth/affection on negative valence indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .005, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .002 to .009) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .013, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .007 to .021). Results showed a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that guilt-proneness had a more powerful effect than shame-proneness on the path from paternal warmth/affection to negative valence ( $b = -.008, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) -.017 to -.001).

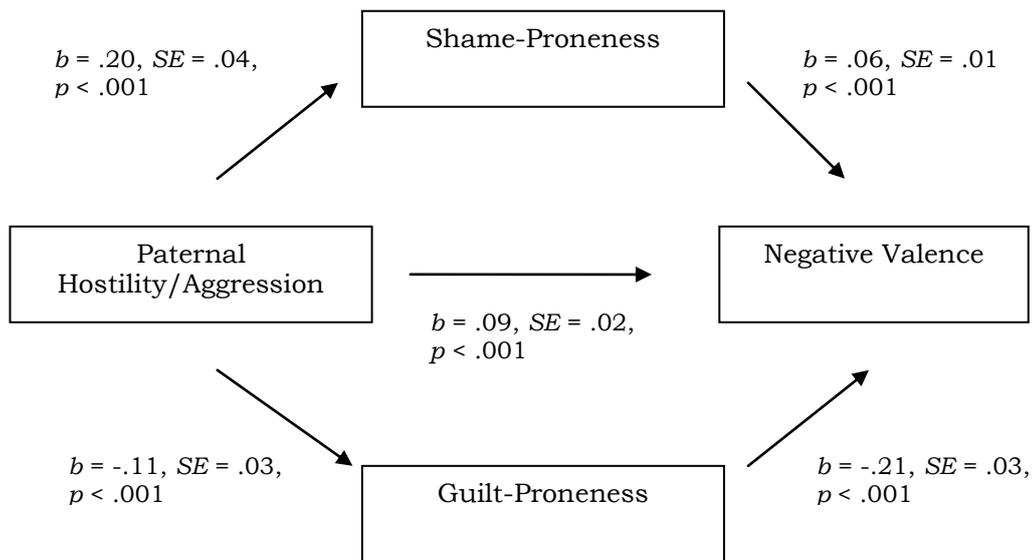


**Figure A.2. 26. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Warmth/Affection (Coldness) and Negative Valence**

**A.2.27. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Hostility/Aggression and Negative Valence**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal hostility/aggression and negative valence via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.2. 27). Results of the analysis revealed that paternal hostility/aggression was significantly associated with negative valence domain of personality ( $b = .12$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $t = 7.76$ ,  $p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for paternal hostility/aggression. Further, paternal hostility/aggression was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .20$ ,  $SE = .04$ ,  $t = 4.55$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.11$ ,  $SE = .03$ ,  $t = -4.47$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal hostility/aggression on negative valence indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .011$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .005 to .019) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .024$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .012 to .040). Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from paternal hostility/aggression to negative valence.

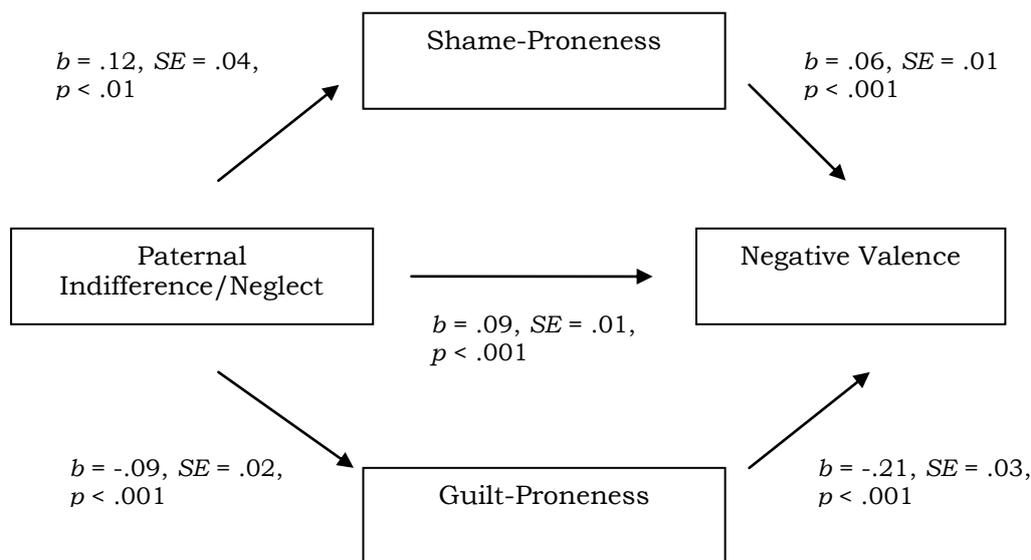


**Figure A.2. 27. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Hostility/Aggression and Negative Valence**

**A.2.28. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Indifference/Neglect and Negative Valence**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal indifference/neglect and negative valence via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.2. 28). Results of the analysis revealed that paternal indifference/neglect was significantly associated with negative valence domain of personality ( $b = .11, SE = .01, t = 7.77, p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for paternal indifference/neglect. Further, paternal indifference/neglect was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .12, SE = .04, t = 3.03, p < .01$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.09, SE = .02, t = -4.08, p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal indifference/neglect on negative valence indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .007, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .003 to .014) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .020, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .010 to .033). Results showed a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that guilt-proneness had a more powerful effect than shame-proneness on the path from paternal indifference/neglect to negative valence ( $b = -.013, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) -.026 to -.001).

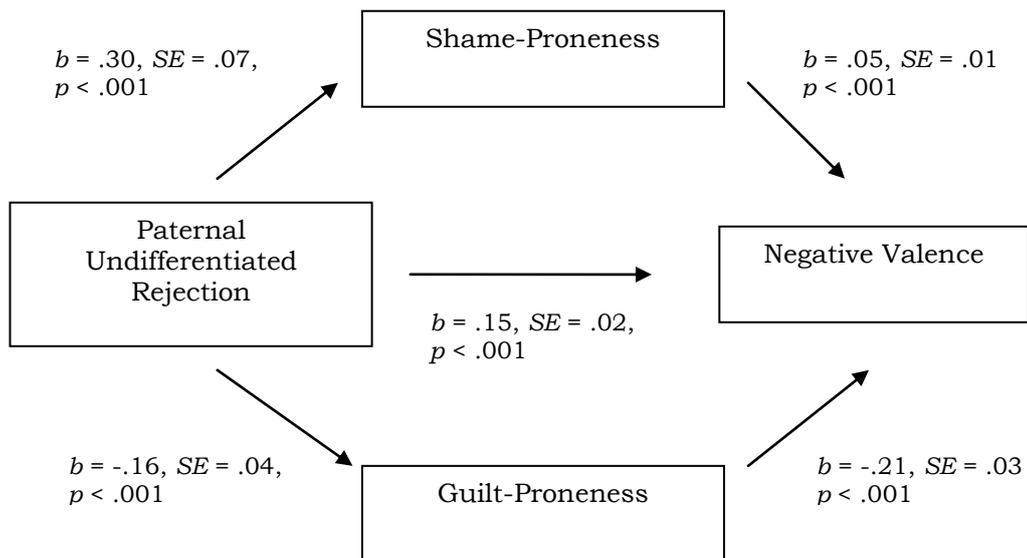


**Figure A.2. 28. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Indifference/Neglect and Negative Valence**

**A.2.29. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Undifferentiated Rejection and Negative Valence**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal undifferentiated rejection and negative valence via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.2. 29). Results of the analysis revealed that paternal undifferentiated rejection was significantly associated with negative valence domain of personality ( $b = .20, SE = .03, t = 8.02, p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for paternal undifferentiated rejection. Further, paternal undifferentiated rejection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .30, SE = .07, t = 4.38, p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.16, SE = .04, t = -4.18, p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal undifferentiated rejection on negative valence indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .016, 95\% \text{ bootstrap confidence interval (CI) } .008 \text{ to } .029$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .035, 95\% \text{ bootstrap confidence interval (CI) } .016 \text{ to } .059$ ). Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from paternal undifferentiated rejection to negative valence.

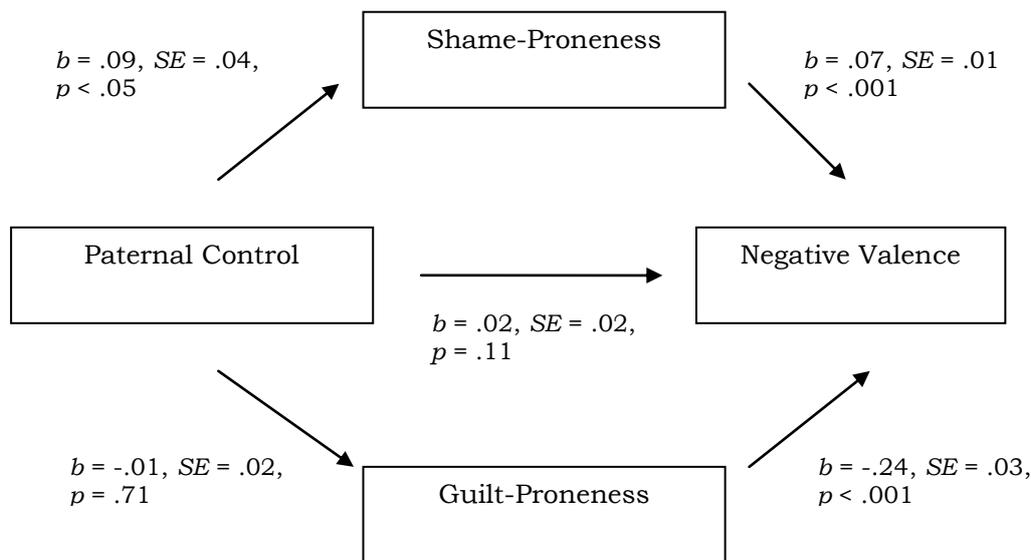


**Figure A.2. 29. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Undifferentiated Rejection and Negative Valence**

**A.2.30. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Control and Negative Valence**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal control and negative valence via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.2. 30). Results of the analysis revealed that paternal control was significantly associated with negative valence domain of personality ( $b = .03$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $t = 2.00$ ,  $p < .05$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for paternal control. Further, paternal control was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .09$ ,  $SE = .04$ ,  $t = 2.05$ ,  $p < .05$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal control on negative valence indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .006$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .001 to .014). Guilt was not found to be a significant mediator as evidenced by the 95% bootstrap confidence interval including zero. Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from paternal control to negative valence.

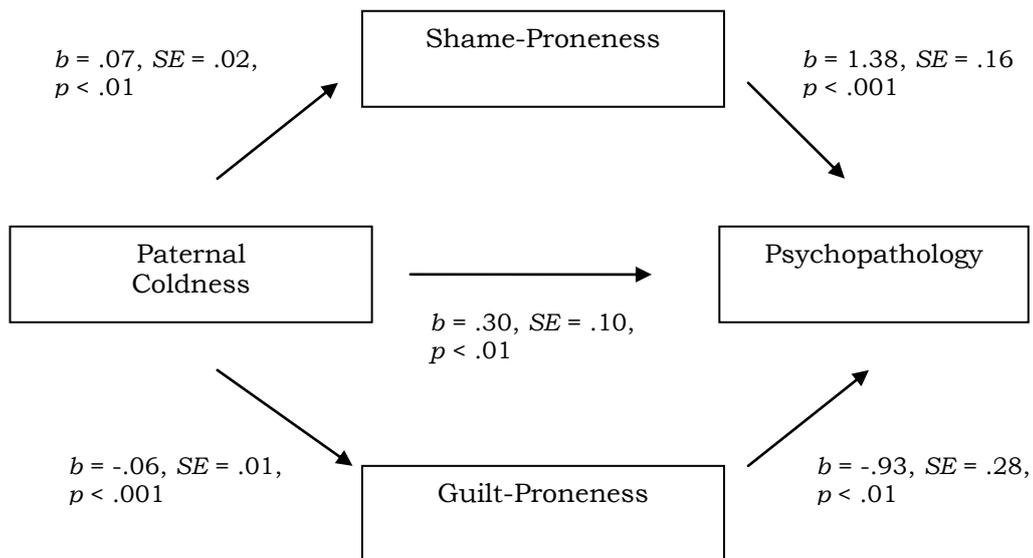


**Figure A.2. 30. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Control and Negative Valence**

### **A.2.31. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Warmth/Affection and Psychopathology**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal warmth/affection and psychopathology via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.2. 31). Results of the analysis revealed that paternal warmth/affection was significantly associated with psychopathology ( $b = .45$ ,  $SE = .10$ ,  $t = 4.48$ ,  $p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for paternal warmth/affection. Further, paternal warmth/affection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .07$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $t = 3.04$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.06$ ,  $SE = .01$ ,  $t = -4.08$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal warmth/affection on psychopathology indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .102$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .036 to .182) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .053$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .018 to .111). Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from paternal warmth/affection to psychopathology.

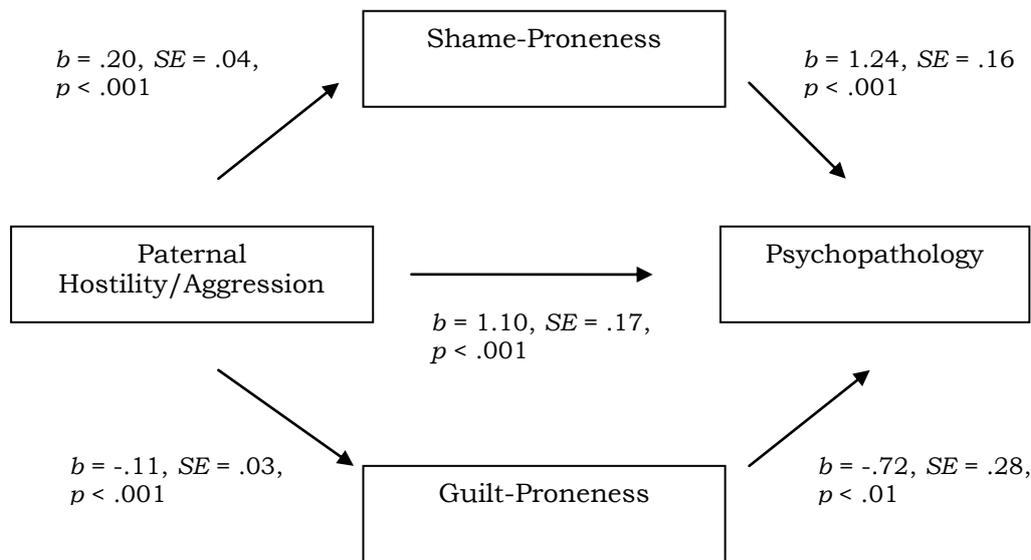


**Figure A.2. 31. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Warmth/Affection (Coldness) and Psychopathology**

**A.2.32. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Hostility/Aggression and Psychopathology**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal hostility/aggression and psychopathology via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.2. 32). Results of the analysis revealed that paternal hostility/aggression was significantly associated with psychopathology ( $b = 1.42$ ,  $SE = .17$ ,  $t = 8.16$ ,  $p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for paternal hostility/aggression. Further, paternal hostility/aggression was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .20$ ,  $SE = .04$ ,  $t = 4.55$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.11$ ,  $SE = .03$ ,  $t = -4.47$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal hostility/aggression on psychopathology indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .244$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .134 to .383) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .080$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .017 to .181). Results showed a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness had a more powerful effect than guilt-proneness on the path from paternal hostility/aggression to psychopathology ( $b = .163$ , 95% bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .014 to .315).

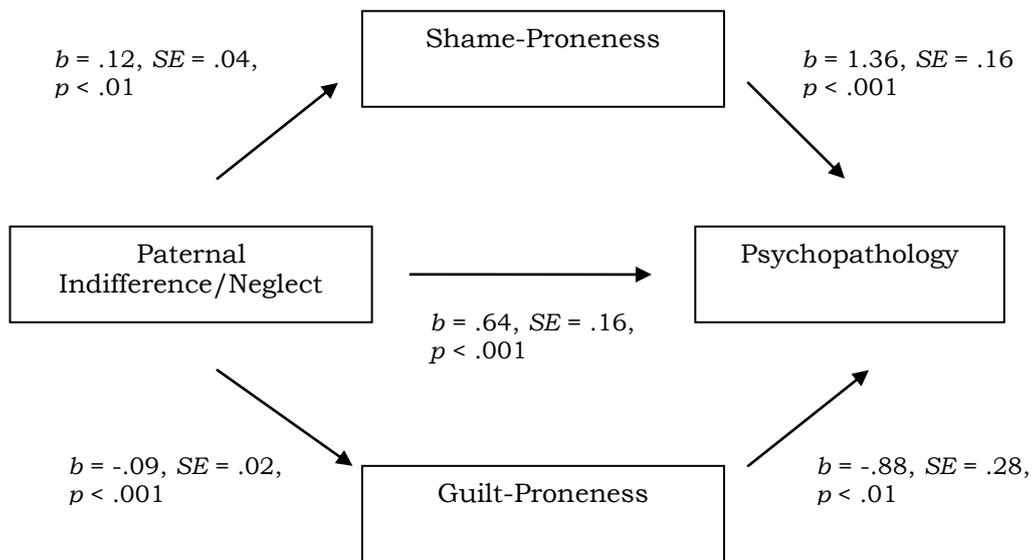


**Figure A.2. 32. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Hostility/Aggression and Psychopathology**

**A.2.33. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Indifference/Neglect and Psychopathology**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal indifference/neglect and psychopathology via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.2. 33). Results of the analysis revealed that paternal indifference/neglect was significantly associated with psychopathology domain of personality ( $b = .89, SE = .16, t = 5.43, p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for paternal indifference/neglect. Further, paternal indifference/neglect was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .12, SE = .04, t = 3.03, p < .01$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.09, SE = .02, t = -4.08, p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal indifference/neglect on psychopathology indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .163, 95\% \text{ bootstrap confidence interval (CI) } .055 \text{ to } .289$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .081, 95\% \text{ bootstrap confidence interval (CI) } .025 \text{ to } .171$ ). Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from paternal indifference/neglect to psychopathology.

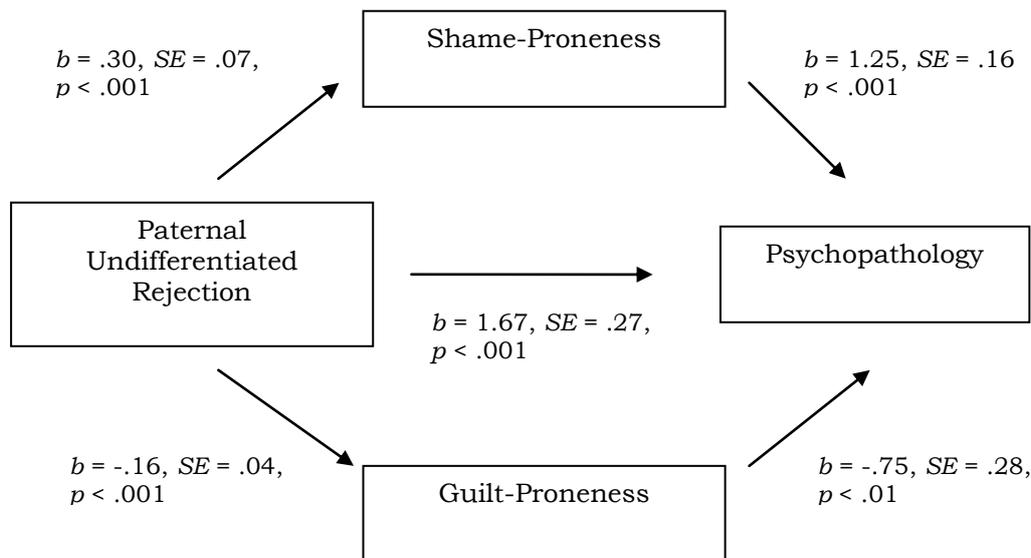


**Figure A.2. 33. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Indifference/Neglect and Psychopathology**

**A.2.34. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Undifferentiated Rejection and Psychopathology**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal undifferentiated rejection and psychopathology via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.2. 34). Results of the analysis revealed that paternal undifferentiated rejection was significantly associated with psychopathology ( $b = 2.16, SE = .27, t = 7.91, p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for paternal undifferentiated rejection. Further, paternal undifferentiated rejection was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .30, SE = .07, t = 4.38, p < .001$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = -.16, SE = .04, t = -4.18, p < .001$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal undifferentiated rejection on psychopathology indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .371, 95\% \text{ bootstrap confidence interval (CI) } .199 \text{ to } .589$ ) and guilt-proneness ( $b = .123, 95\% \text{ bootstrap confidence interval (CI) } .029 \text{ to } .282$ ). Results showed a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness had a more powerful effect than guilt-proneness on the path from paternal undifferentiated rejection on psychopathology ( $b = .248, 95\% \text{ bootstrap confidence interval (CI) } .024 \text{ to } .484$ ).

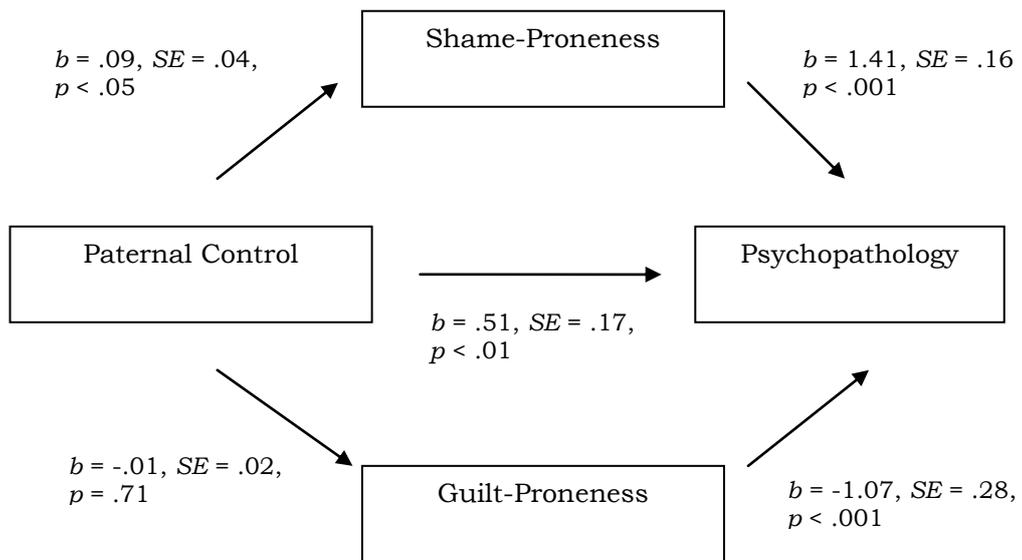


**Figure A.2. 34. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Undifferentiated Rejection and Psychopathology**

**A.2.35. The Mediator Role of Shame-Proneness and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Control and Psychopathology**

A mediation analysis using PROCESS was conducted to test the relationship between paternal control and psychopathology via shame- and guilt-proneness (see Figure A.2. 35). Results of the analysis revealed that paternal control was significantly associated with psychopathology ( $b = .65, SE = .18, t = 3.65, p < .001$ ), suggesting a significant total effect for paternal control. Further, paternal control was significantly associated with shame-proneness ( $b = .09, SE = .04, t = 2.05, p < .05$ ).

Analysis of effect of paternal control on psychopathology indicated that there was a significant indirect effect through shame-proneness ( $b = .124, 95\%$  bootstrap confidence interval (CI) .006 to .252). Guilt was not found to be a significant mediator as evidenced by the 95% bootstrap confidence interval including zero. Results did not reveal a significant differential effect between shame-proneness and guilt-proneness, suggesting that shame-proneness and guilt-proneness showed similar effects on the path from paternal control to psychopathology.



**Figure A.2. 35. The Mediator Roles of Shame- and Guilt-Proneness between Paternal Control and Psychopathology**

## Appendix B: Informed Consent Form

### Gönüllü Katılım Formu

Bu çalışma, Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Psikoloji Bölümü yüksek lisans öğrencisi Pelin Deniz'in Prof. Dr. Faruk Gençöz danışmanlığındaki tezi kapsamında yürütülen bir çalışmadır. Çalışmanın amacı, katılımcıların çocukluk dönemi yaşantılarının ruh sağlığı ile ilişkisi üzerine bilgi toplamaktır. Bu çalışmada anne-babanız, şu anki sağlık durumunuz, kişiliğiniz ve olayları değerlendirmeye ilgili sorular sorulacaktır. Çalışmaya katılım tamamıyla gönüllülük temelinde olmalıdır. Ankette, sizden kimlik belirleyici hiçbir bilgi istenmemektedir. Cevaplarınız tamamıyla gizli tutulacak ve sadece araştırmacılar tarafından değerlendirilecektir; elde edilecek bilgiler bilimsel yayımlarda kullanılacaktır.

Anket, genel olarak kişisel rahatsızlık verecek soruları içermemektedir. Ancak, katılım sırasında sorulardan ya da herhangi başka bir nedenden ötürü kendinizi rahatsız hissederseniz cevaplama işini yarıda bırakmakta serbestsiniz. Böyle bir durumda anketi uygulayan kişiye, anketi tamamlamadığınızı söylemek yeterli olacaktır. Anket sonunda, bu çalışmayla ilgili sorularınız cevaplanacaktır. Bu çalışmaya katıldığınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz. Çalışma hakkında daha fazla bilgi almak için Psikoloji Bölümü öğretim üyelerinden Prof. Dr. Faruk Gençöz (Oda: B240; Tel: 210 31 25; E-posta: [fgenco@metu.edu.tr](mailto:fgenco@metu.edu.tr)) ya da Psk. Pelin Deniz (E-posta: [pelin.deniz@metu.edu.tr](mailto:pelin.deniz@metu.edu.tr)) ile iletişim kurabilirsiniz.

**Bu çalışmaya katıldığınız için çok teşekkür ederiz.**

***Bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum ve istediğim zaman yarıda kesip çıkabileceğimi biliyorum. Verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı yayımlarda kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum.*** (Formu doldurup imzaladıktan sonra uygulayıcıya geri veriniz).

Tarih  
----/----/-----

İmza

## Appendix C: Demographic Information Form

### Demografik Bilgi Formu

**Yaş** : \_\_\_\_\_

**Cinsiyet** : \_\_\_\_\_

**Bölüm/Sınıf** : \_\_\_\_\_ / \_\_\_\_\_

**Aşama** : Lisans  Yüksek Lisans  Doktora

**Medeni durum** : \_\_\_\_\_

**Algılanan Gelir Düzeyi:** Alt  Ortanın Altı  Orta   
Ortanın Üstü  Yüksek

**Kardeşiniz Var mı?** : Var  Yok

**Varsa Kaç Tane?:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Anneniz** : Hayatta  Hayatta Değil   
Öz  Üvey

**Babanız** : Hayatta  Hayatta Değil   
Öz  Üvey

**Anne ve Babanız Hayatta ise;**

**Anne ve Babanız** : Birlikte  Ayrı

**Ayrı ise Ne Kadar Süredir?** \_\_\_\_\_

**Çalışıyor musunuz?** : \_\_\_Evet \_\_\_Hayır

**Anne ve/veya Babanızla Birlikte mi Yaşıyorsunuz?** : Evet  Hayır

**Cevabınız Hayır ise ne kadar süredir ailenizden ayrı yaşıyorsunuz?**  
\_\_\_\_\_

## Appendix D: Parental Acceptance – Rejection/Control Scale (Mother Form)

Aşağıda annelerin çocuklarına karşı sergiledikleri davranışlarla ilgili bazı cümleler var. Her cümleyi dikkatle okuyun ve okuduğunuz cümlenin siz çocukken annenizin size karşı göstermiş olduğu davranışları ne kadar iyi anlattığını düşünün. **Cevaplarınızı çocukken annenizden beklediğiniz davranışlara göre değil, annenizin size gerçekte gösterdiği davranışlara göre verin.**

| <b>ANNEM</b>   | Hemen<br>Her<br>Zaman<br>Doğru | Bazen<br>Doğru           | Nadiren<br>Doğru         | Hiçbir<br>Zaman<br>Doğru<br>Değil |
|--|--------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. Benim hakkımda güzel şeyler söylerdi.   | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 2. Kötü davrandığımda bana söylenir veya beni azarlardı.   | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 3. Sanki ben hiç yokmuşum gibi davranırdı.   | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 4. Beni gerçekten sevmezdi.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 5. Neleri yapıp, neleri yapamayacağımı kesin olarak anladığımdan emin olmak isterdi.                                     | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 6. Planlarımız hakkında benimle konuşur ve benim söyleyeceklerimi de dinlerdi.   | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 7. Onun sözünü dinlemediğim zaman beni başkalarına şikâyet ederdi.   | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 8. Benimle yakından ilgilenirdi.   | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 9. Dışarıya çıkacağım zaman, eve kesin olarak saat kaçta dönmem gerektiğini bana söylerdi.                               | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 10. Arkadaşlarımı eve çağırmanın için beni cesaretlendirir ve onların güzel vakit geçirmesi için elinden geleni yapardı. | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 11. Benimle alay eder ve dalga geçerdi.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 12. Onu rahatsız etmediğim sürece benimle ilgilenmezdi.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |

| <b>ANNEM</b>   | Hemen<br>Her<br>Zaman<br>Dođru | Bazen<br>Dođru           | Nadiren<br>Dođru         | Hiçbir<br>Zaman<br>Dođru<br>Deđil |
|--|--------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 13. Kızdıđı zaman bana bađırırđı.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 14. Bana s¼rekli olarak nasıl davranmam gerektiđini s¼ylerdi.                  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 15. Benim iin ¼nemli olan Őeyleri ona anlatabilmemi kolaylaŐtırırđı.          | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 16. Bana karŐı sert davranırđı.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 17. Onun etrafında olmamdan hoŐlanırđı.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 18. Birok kuralın olması ve kurallara uyulması gerektiđine inanırđı.          | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 19. Bir Őeyi iyi yaptıđımda, kendimle gurur duymamı sađlardı.                  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 20. Hak etmediđim zaman bile bana vururdu.                                     | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 21. Benim iin yapması gereken Őeyleri unutturdu.                              | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 22. Beni b¼y¼k bir baŐ belası olarak g¼r¼rd¼.                                  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 23. Bana dilediđim kadar ¼zg¼rl¼k tanırđı.                                     | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 24. Beni baŐkalarına ¼verdi.   | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 25. Kızdıđı zaman beni ok k¼t¼ cezalandırırđı.                                | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 26. Sađlıklı ve dođru Őeyleri yememe ok dikkat ederdi.                        | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 27. Bir Őeyi nasıl yapmam gerektiđini bana en ince ayrıntısına kadar s¼ylerdi. | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 28. Benimle sıcak ve sevgi dolu bir Őekilde konuŐurdu.                         | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 29. Bana hemen kızardı.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 30. Sorularımı cevaplayamayacak kadar meŐguld¼.                                | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 31. Benden hoŐlanmıyor gibiydi.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |

| <b>ANNEM</b>   | Hemen<br>Her<br>Zaman<br>Dođru | Bazen<br>Dođru           | Nadiren<br>Dođru         | Hiçbir<br>Zaman<br>Dođru<br>Deđil |
|--|--------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 32. İstedığım her yere, ona sormadan gitmeme izin verirdi.           | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 33. Hak ettiğim zaman bana güzel şeyler söylerdi.                    | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 34. Çabuk parlar ve öfkesini benden çıkarırdı.                       | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 35. Arkadaşlarımın kim olduğuyula yakından ilgilenirdi.              | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 36. Bana ne söylendiyse, aynen öyle davranmamda ısrar ederdi.        | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 37. Yaptığım şeylerle gerçekten ilgilenirdi.                         | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 38. Bana bir sürü kırııcı şey söylerdi.                              | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 39. Ondan yardım istediğimde benimle ilgilenmezdi.                   | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 40. Başım derde girdiğinde, hatanın bende olduğunu düşünürdü.        | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 41. Dilediğim her akşam dışarı çıkmama izin verirdi.                 | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 42. Bana istenilen ve ihtiyaç duyulan biri olduğumu hissettirirdi.   | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 43. Onun sinirine dokunduğumu söylerdi.                              | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 44. Bana çok ilgi gösterirdi.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 45. Yaptığım her şeye karışmak isterdi.                              | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 46. İyi davrandığım zaman benimle ne kadar gurur duyduğunu söylerdi. | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 47. Beni kırmak için elinden geleni yapardı.                         | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 48. Hatırlaması gerekir diye düşündüğüm önemli şeyleri unutturdu.    | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 49. Şayet kötü davranırsam, beni artık sevmediğini hissettirirdi.    | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |

| <b>ANNEM</b>  | Hemen<br>Her<br>Zaman<br>Dođru | Bazen<br>Dođru           | Nadiren<br>Dođru         | Hiçbir<br>Zaman<br>Dođru<br>Deđil |
|---|--------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 50. Bana yapmam için bazı işler verir ve o işler bitene kadar başka hiçbir şey yapmama izin vermezdi. | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 51. Bana yaptığım şeylerin önemli olduğunu hissettirirdi.   | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 52. Yanlış bir şey yaptığımda beni korkutur veya tehdit ederdi.                                       | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 53. Benimle zaman geçirmekten hoşlanırdı.   | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 54. Canım ne isterse yapmama izin verirdi.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 55. Korktuğumda ya da bir şeye canım sıkıldığında, bana yardım etmeye çalışırdı.                      | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 56. Kötü davrandığım zaman beni arkadaşlarımdan önünde utandırırdu.                                   | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 57. Benden uzak durmaya çalışırdı.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 58. Benden şikâyet ederdi.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 59. Yaptığım her şeyi kontrol etmek isterdi.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 60. Benim ne düşündüğüme önem verir ve düşündüklerim hakkında konuşmamdan hoşlanırdı.                 | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 61. Ne yaparsam yapayım, diğer çocukların benden daha iyi olduğunu düşünürdü.                         | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 62. Bir plan yaparken benim de ne istediğıme önem verirdi.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 63. Benim için önemli olan şeyleri, kendisine zorluk çıkarsa da, yapmama izin verirdi.                | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 64. Diğer çocukların benden daha akıllı ve uslu olduğunu düşünürdü.                                   | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 65. Bakmaları için beni hep başkalarına bırakırdı.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 66. Bana istenmediğimi belli ederdi.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |

| <b>ANNEM</b>  | Hemen<br>Her<br>Zaman<br>Dođru | Bazen<br>Dođru           | Nadiren<br>Dođru         | Hiçbir<br>Zaman<br>Dođru<br>Deđil |
|---|--------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 67. Yaptıđım şeylerle ilgilenirdi.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 68. Canım yandıđında veya hasta olduđumda kendimi daha iyi hissetmem için elinden geleni yapardı. | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 69. Kötü davrandıđım zaman benden ne kadar utandıđını söylerdi.                                   | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 70. Beni sevdiđini belli ederdi.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 71. Bana karşı yumuşak ve iyi kalpliydi.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 72. Kötü davrandıđım zaman beni utandırır veya suçlu hissettirirdi.                               | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 73. Beni mutlu etmeye çalışırdı.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |

## Appendix E: Parental Acceptance – Rejection/Control Scale (Father Form)

Aşağıda babaların çocuklarına karşı sergiledikleri davranışlarla ilgili bazı cümleler var. Her cümleyi dikkatle okuyun ve okuduğunuz cümlenin siz çocukken babanızın size karşı göstermiş olduğu davranışları ne kadar iyi anlattığını düşünün. **Cevaplarınızı çocukken babanızdan beklediğiniz davranışlara göre değil, babanızın size gerçekte gösterdiği davranışlara göre verin.**

| <b>BABAM</b>   | Hemen<br>Her<br>Zaman<br>Doğru | Bazen<br>Doğru           | Nadiren<br>Doğru         | Hiçbir<br>Zaman<br>Doğru<br>Değil |
|--|--------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. Benim hakkımda güzel şeyler söylerdi.   | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 2. Kötü davrandığımda bana söylenir veya beni azarlardı.   | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 3. Sanki ben hiç yokmuşum gibi davranırdı.   | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 4. Beni gerçekten sevmezdi.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 5. Neleri yapıp, neleri yapamayacağımı kesin olarak anladığımdan emin olmak isterdi.                                     | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 6. Planlarımız hakkında benimle konuşur ve benim söyleyeceklerimi de dinlerdi.   | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 7. Onun sözünü dinlemediğim zaman beni başkalarına şikâyet ederdi.   | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 8. Benimle yakından ilgilenirdi.   | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 9. Dışarıya çıkacağım zaman, eve kesin olarak saat kaçta dönmem gerektiğini bana söylerdi.                               | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 10. Arkadaşlarımı eve çağırmanın için beni cesaretlendirir ve onların güzel vakit geçirmesi için elinden geleni yapardı. | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 11. Benimle alay eder ve dalga geçerdi.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 12. Onu rahatsız etmediğim sürece benimle ilgilenmezdi.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |

| <b>BABAM</b>   | Hemen<br>Her<br>Zaman<br>Dođru | Bazen<br>Dođru           | Nadiren<br>Dođru         | Hiçbir<br>Zaman<br>Dođru<br>Deđil |
|--|--------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 13. Kızdıđı zaman bana bađırırđı.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 14. Bana s¼rekli olarak nasıl davranmam gerektiđini s¼ylerdi.                  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 15. Benim iin ¼nemli olan Őeyleri ona anlatabilmemi kolaylaŐtırırđı.          | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 16. Bana karŐı sert davranırđı.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 17. Onun etrafında olmamdan hoŐlanırđı.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 18. Birok kuralın olması ve kurallara uyulması gerektiđine inanırđı.          | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 19. Bir Őeyi iyi yaptıđımda, kendimle gurur duymamı sađlardı.                  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 20. Hak etmediđim zaman bile bana vururdu.                                     | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 21. Benim iin yapması gereken Őeyleri unutturdu.                              | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 22. Beni b¼y¼k bir baŐ belası olarak g¼r¼rd¼.                                  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 23. Bana dilediđim kadar ¼zg¼rl¼k tanırđı.                                     | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 24. Beni baŐkalarına ¼verdi.   | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 25. Kızdıđı zaman beni ok k¼t¼ cezalandırırđı.                                | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 26. Sađlıklı ve dođru Őeyleri yememe ok dikkat ederdi.                        | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 27. Bir Őeyi nasıl yapmam gerektiđini bana en ince ayrıntısına kadar s¼ylerdi. | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 28. Benimle sıcak ve sevgi dolu bir Őekilde konuŐurdu.                         | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 29. Bana hemen kızardı.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 30. Sorularımı cevaplayamayacak kadar meŐguld¼.                                | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 31. Benden hoŐlanmıyor gibiydi.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |

| <b>BABAM</b>   | Hemen<br>Her<br>Zaman<br>Dođru | Bazen<br>Dođru           | Nadiren<br>Dođru         | Hiçbir<br>Zaman<br>Dođru<br>Deđil |
|--|--------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 32. İstedığım her yere, ona sormadan gitmeme izin verirdi.           | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 33. Hak ettiğim zaman bana güzel şeyler söylerdi.                    | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 34. Çabuk parlar ve öfkesini benden çıkarırdı.                       | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 35. Arkadaşlarımın kim olduğuyula yakından ilgilenirdi.              | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 36. Bana ne söylendiyse, aynen öyle davranmamda ısrar ederdi.        | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 37. Yaptığım şeylerle gerçekten ilgilenirdi.                         | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 38. Bana bir sürü kırıcı şey söylerdi.                               | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 39. Ondan yardım istediğimde benimle ilgilenmezdi.                   | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 40. Başım derde girdiğinde, hatanın bende olduğunu düşünürdü.        | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 41. Dilediğim her akşam dışarı çıkmama izin verirdi.                 | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 42. Bana istenilen ve ihtiyaç duyulan biri olduğumu hissettirirdi.   | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 43. Onun sinirine dokunduğumu söylerdi.                              | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 44. Bana çok ilgi gösterirdi.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 45. Yaptığım her şeye karışmak isterdi.                              | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 46. İyi davrandığım zaman benimle ne kadar gurur duyduğunu söylerdi. | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 47. Beni kırmak için elinden geleni yapardı.                         | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 48. Hatırlaması gerekir diye düşündüğüm önemli şeyleri unuturdu.     | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 49. Şayet kötü davranırsam, beni artık sevmediğini hissettirirdi.    | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |

| <b>BABAM</b>  | Hemen<br>Her<br>Zaman<br>Dođru | Bazen<br>Dođru           | Nadiren<br>Dođru         | Hiçbir<br>Zaman<br>Dođru<br>Deđil |
|---|--------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 50. Bana yapmam için bazı işler verir ve o işler bitene kadar başka hiçbir şey yapmama izin vermezdi. | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 51. Bana yaptığım şeylerin önemli olduğunu hissettirirdi.   | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 52. Yanlış bir şey yaptığımda beni korkutur veya tehdit ederdi.                                       | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 53. Benimle zaman geçirmekten hoşlanırdı.   | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 54. Canım ne isterse yapmama izin verirdi.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 55. Korktuğumda ya da bir şeye canım sıkıldığında, bana yardım etmeye çalışırdı.                      | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 56. Kötü davrandığım zaman beni arkadaşlarımdan önünde utandırırdu.                                   | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 57. Benden uzak durmaya çalışırdı.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 58. Benden şikâyet ederdi.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 59. Yaptığım her şeyi kontrol etmek isterdi.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 60. Benim ne düşündüğüme önem verir ve düşündüklerim hakkında konuşmamdan hoşlanırdı.                 | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 61. Ne yaparsam yapayım, diğer çocukların benden daha iyi olduğunu düşünürdü.                         | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 62. Bir plan yaparken benim de ne istediğıme önem verirdi.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 63. Benim için önemli olan şeyleri, kendisine zorluk çıkarsa da, yapmama izin verirdi.                | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 64. Diğer çocukların benden daha akıllı ve uslu olduğunu düşünürdü.                                   | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 65. Bakmaları için beni hep başkalarına bırakırdı.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 66. Bana istenmediğimi belli ederdi.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |

| <b>BABAM</b>  | Hemen<br>Her<br>Zaman<br>Dođru | Bazen<br>Dođru           | Nadiren<br>Dođru         | Hiçbir<br>Zaman<br>Dođru<br>Deđil |
|---|--------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 67. Yaptıđım şeylerle ilgilenirdi.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 68. Canım yandıđında veya hasta olduđumda kendimi daha iyi hissetmem için elinden geleni yapardı. | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 69. Kötü davrandıđım zaman benden ne kadar utandıđını söylerdi.                                   | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 70. Beni sevdiđini belli ederdi.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 71. Bana karşı yumuşak ve iyi kalpliydi.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 72. Kötü davrandıđım zaman beni utandırır veya suçlu hissettirirdi.                               | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |
| 73. Beni mutlu etmeye çalışırdı.  | <input type="checkbox"/>       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>          |

## Appendix F: Test of Self-Conscious Emotions (Short Form)

Aşağıda insanların günlük yaşamlarında karşılaşmaları mümkün olaylar ve bu olaylara verilen yaygın bazı tepkiler vardır. Her senaryoyu okurken, kendinizi o durumda hayal etmeye çalışın. Sonra, tanımlanan her durumda tepki verme olasılığınızı belirtin. Sizden bütün cevapları değerlendirmenizi istiyoruz, çünkü insanlar aynı duruma karşı birden fazla şey hissedebilir veya birden fazla tepki gösterebilir, ya da farklı zamanlarda farklı şekillerde tepki gösterebilirler.

| <b>Örnek: Bir cumartesi sabahı erkenden uyandınız. Dışarıda hava soğuk ve yağmurlu.</b> |                   |          |          |          |          |
|---|-------------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| <b>Mümkün Değil</b>   | <b>Çok Mümkün</b> |          |          |          |          |
| a) Havadisleri almak için bir arkadaşınıza telefon ederdiniz.                           | <b>1</b>          | <b>2</b> | <b>3</b> | <b>4</b> | <b>5</b> |
| b) Gazete okumak için fazladan zaman harcardınız.                                       | <b>1</b>          | <b>2</b> | <b>3</b> | <b>4</b> | <b>5</b> |
| c) Hava yağmurlu olduğu için hayal kırıklığı hissederdiniz.                             | <b>1</b>          | <b>2</b> | <b>3</b> | <b>4</b> | <b>5</b> |
| d) Neden bu kadar erken kalktığınızı merak ederdiniz.                                   | <b>1</b>          | <b>2</b> | <b>3</b> | <b>4</b> | <b>5</b> |

Yukarıdaki örnekte, bütün cevapları, bir sayıyı yuvarlak içine alarak değerlendirdim. (a) cevabı için "1" i yuvarlak içine aldım çünkü bir cumartesi sabahı arkadaşımı çok erken uyandırmak istemezdim. Bu yüzden, bunu yapma olasılığım pek mümkün değil. (b) cevabı için "5" i yuvarlak içine aldım, çünkü eğer sabah zaman varsa nerdeyse her zaman gazete okurum (çok mümkün). (c) cevabı için "3" ü yuvarlak içine aldım, çünkü benim için bu cevap yarı yarıya bir olasılık. Bazen yağmurla ilgili hayal kırıklığı hissederim, bazen hissetmezdim; bu, planladığım şeye bağlı olurdu. Ve (d) cevabı için "4" ü yuvarlak içine aldım, çünkü büyük olasılıkla neden bu kadar erken kalktığımı merak ederdim.

Lütfen hiçbir maddeyi atlamayın, bütün cevapları değerlendirin.

| <b>1) Bir arkadaşınızla öğle yemeğinde buluşmak için plan yapıyorsunuz. Saat 5'te onu beklediğinizi fark ediyorsunuz.</b> |                   |   |   |   |   |
|---|-------------------|---|---|---|---|
| <b>Mümkün Değil</b>   | <b>Çok Mümkün</b> |   |   |   |   |
| a) "Düşüncesizim" diye düşünürdünüz.  | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| b) "Beni anlayacaktır" diye düşünürdünüz.   | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| c) Bu durumu olabildiğince onun üzerine yıkmanız gerektiğini düşünürdünüz.  | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| d) "Patronum öğle yemeğinden az önce beni meşgul etti" diye düşünürdünüz.   | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| <b>2) İşyerinde bir şey kırılıyorsunuz ve sonra onu saklıyorsunuz.</b>   |                   |   |   |   |   |
|--|-------------------|---|---|---|---|
| <b>Mümkün Değil</b>  | <b>Çok Mümkün</b> |   |   |   |   |
| a) "Bu beni tedirgin ediyor. Onu ya kendim tamir etmeliyim ya da birine tamir ettirmeliyim" diye düşünürdünüz. | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| b) İş bırakmayı düşünürdünüz.  | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| c) "Bu günlerde birçok şey iyi yapılmıyor" diye düşünürdünüz.  | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| d) "Bu sadece bir kazaydı" diye düşünürdünüz.  | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| <b>3) (İşyerinde) Bir projeyi planlamak için son dakikaya kadar bekliyorsunuz ve kötü sonuçlanıyor.</b> |                   |   |   |   |   |
|---|-------------------|---|---|---|---|
| <b>Mümkün Değil</b>   | <b>Çok Mümkün</b> |   |   |   |   |
| a) Kendinizi yetersiz hissederdiniz.  | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| b) "Gün içinde asla yeterli zaman yok" diye düşünürdünüz.   | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| c) "Projeyi kötü yönettiğim için kınanmayı hak ediyorum" diye hissederdiniz.                            | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| d) "Yapılmış yapılmıştır" diye düşünürdünüz.  | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| <b>4) (İşyerinde) Bir hata yapıyorsunuz ve bu hatadan dolayı bir (iş)arkadaşınızın suçlandığını öğreniyorsunuz.</b> |                   |   |   |   |   |
|---|-------------------|---|---|---|---|
| <b>Mümkün Değil</b>   | <b>Çok Mümkün</b> |   |   |   |   |
| a) Firmanın (iş) arkadaşınızdan hoşlanmadığını düşünürdünüz.  | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| b) "Hayat adil değil" diye düşünürdünüz.  | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| c) Sessiz kalırdınız ve o (iş) arkadaşınızdan kaçınırdınız.   | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| d) Mutsuz hisseder ve durumu düzeltmeye gayret ederdiniz.   | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| <b>5) Oyun oynarken, bir top atıyorsunuz ve arkadaşınızın suratına çarpıyor.</b>                    |                   |   |   |   |   |
|---|-------------------|---|---|---|---|
| <b>Mümkün Değil</b>   | <b>Çok Mümkün</b> |   |   |   |   |
| a) Bir topu bile atamadığınız için kendinizi yetersiz hissederdiniz.                                | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| b) Arkadaşınızın belki de top yakalama konusunda daha fazla pratiğe ihtiyacı olduğunu düşünürdünüz. | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| c) “Bu sadece bir kazaydı” diye düşünürdünüz.   | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| d) Özür dilerdiniz ve arkadaşınızın daha iyi hissettiğinden emin olurdunuz.                         | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| <b>6) Yolda araba sürüyorsunuz ve küçük bir hayvana çarpıyorsunuz.</b> |                   |   |   |   |   |
|--|-------------------|---|---|---|---|
| <b>Mümkün Değil</b>  | <b>Çok Mümkün</b> |   |   |   |   |
| a) Hayvanın yolda olmaması gerektiğini düşünürdünüz.                   | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| b) “Rezil biriyim” diye düşünürdünüz.                                  | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| c) “Bu bir kazaydı” diye hissederdiniz.                                | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| d) Arabayı daha dikkatli sürmediğiniz için kötü hissederdiniz.         | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| <b>7) Bir sınavdan son derece iyi yaptığınızı düşünerek çıkıyorsunuz. Sonra, daha kötü yaptığınızı anlıyorsunuz.</b> |                   |   |   |   |   |
|--|-------------------|---|---|---|---|
| <b>Mümkün Değil</b>  | <b>Çok Mümkün</b> |   |   |   |   |
| a) “Sadece bir sınav” diye düşünürdünüz.   | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| b) “Hoca benden hoşlanmıyor” diye düşünürdünüz.  | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| c) “Daha fazla çalışmalıydım” diye düşünürdünüz.   | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| d) Kendinizi aptal gibi hissederdiniz.   | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| <b>8) Bir grup arkadaşınızla dışarıdayken, orada olmayan bir arkadaşınızla dalga geçiyorsunuz.</b> |                   |   |   |   |   |
|--|-------------------|---|---|---|---|
| <b>Mümkün Değil</b>  | <b>Çok Mümkün</b> |   |   |   |   |
| a) “Sadece eğlence içindi, zararsız bir şey” diye düşünürdünüz.                                    | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| b) Tıpkı bir fare gibi küçük hissederdiniz.  | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| c) O arkadaşınızın belki de kendini savunmak için orada bulunması gerektiğini düşünürdünüz.        | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| d) Özür dilerdiniz ve o kişinin iyi yönleri hakkında konuşurdunuz.                                 | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| <b>9) İşyerinde, önemli bir projede büyük bir hata yapıyorsunuz. Projede çalışanlar size bağlıydı ve patronunuz sizi eleştiriyor.</b> |                   |   |   |   |   |
|---|-------------------|---|---|---|---|
| <b>Mümkün Değil</b>   | <b>Çok Mümkün</b> |   |   |   |   |
| a) Patronunuzun sizden ne beklenildiğiyle ilgili daha net olması gerektiğini düşünürdünüz.  | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| b) Saklanmak istediğinizi hissederdiniz.  | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| c) “Sorunu anlamalı ve daha iyi bir iş çıkarmalıydım” diye düşünürdünüz.  | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| d) “Hiç kimse mükemmel değildir ki” diye düşünürdünüz.  | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| <b>10) Onlar tatildeyken, arkadaşınızın köpeğine bakıyorsunuz ve köpek kaçıyor.</b>     |                   |   |   |   |   |
|---|-------------------|---|---|---|---|
| <b>Mümkün Değil</b>   | <b>Çok Mümkün</b> |   |   |   |   |
| a) “Ben sorumsuz ve yetersizim” diye düşünürdünüz.                                      | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| b) Arkadaşınızın köpeğine çok iyi bakmadığını yoksa köpeğin kaçmayacağını düşünürdünüz. | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| c) Gelecek sefer daha dikkatli olmaya söz verirdiniz.                                   | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| d) Arkadaşınızın yeni bir köpek alabileceğini düşünürdünüz.                             | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| <b>11) (İş) arkadaşınızın evindeki “Hoş geldin” partisine katılıyorsunuz ve yeni, krem rengi halılarına kırmızı şarap döküyorsunuz ama kimsenin fark etmediğini düşünüyorsunuz.</b> |                   |   |   |   |   |
|---|-------------------|---|---|---|---|
| <b>Mümkün Değil</b>   | <b>Çok Mümkün</b> |   |   |   |   |
| a) Arkadaşınızın böyle bir partide bazı kazaların olabileceğini beklemesi gerektiğini düşünürdünüz.   | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| b) Partiden sonra lekeyi temizlemeye yardım için geç vakte kadar kalırdınız.  | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| c) Bu parti dışında herhangi başka bir yerde olmayı dilerdiniz.   | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| d) Arkadaşınızın neden yeni, açık renkli bir halıyla kırmızı şarap ikram etmeyi uygun gördüğünü merak ederdiniz   | 1                 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

## Appendix G: Basic Personality Traits Inventory

YÖNERGE:

Aşağıda size uyan ya da uymayan pek çok kişilik özelliği bulunmaktadır. Bu özelliklerden her birinin sizin için ne kadar uygun olduğunu ilgili rakamı daire içine alarak belirtiniz.

**Örneğin;**

**Kendimi ..... biri olarak görüyorum.**

| <u>Hiç uygun değil</u> |                    | <u>Uygun değil</u> |             |            |       |           | <u>Kararsızım</u> | <u>Uygun</u>       |             |            |       |           | <u>Çok uygun</u> |                 |             |            |       |           |   |   |
|------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|-------------|------------|-------|-----------|-------------------|--------------------|-------------|------------|-------|-----------|------------------|-----------------|-------------|------------|-------|-----------|---|---|
| 1                      |                    | 2                  |             |            |       |           | 3                 | 4                  |             |            |       |           | 5                |                 |             |            |       |           |   |   |
|                        |                    | Hiç uygun değil    | Uygun değil | Kararsızım | Uygun | Çok uygun |                   | Hiç uygun değil    | Uygun değil | Kararsızım | Uygun | Çok uygun |                  | Hiç uygun değil | Uygun değil | Kararsızım | Uygun | Çok uygun |   |   |
| 1                      | Aceleci            | 1                  | 2           | 3          | 4     | 5         | 24                | Pasif              | 1           | 2          | 3     | 4         | 5                | 25              | Disiplinli  | 1          | 2     | 3         | 4 | 5 |
| 2                      | Yapmacık           | 1                  | 2           | 3          | 4     | 5         | 26                | Açgözlü            | 1           | 2          | 3     | 4         | 5                | 27              | Sinirli     | 1          | 2     | 3         | 4 | 5 |
| 3                      | Duyarlı            | 1                  | 2           | 3          | 4     | 5         | 28                | Canayakın          | 1           | 2          | 3     | 4         | 5                | 29              | Kızgın      | 1          | 2     | 3         | 4 | 5 |
| 4                      | Konuşkan           | 1                  | 2           | 3          | 4     | 5         | 30                | Sabit fikirli      | 1           | 2          | 3     | 4         | 5                | 31              | Görgüsüz    | 1          | 2     | 3         | 4 | 5 |
| 5                      | Kendine güvenen    | 1                  | 2           | 3          | 4     | 5         | 32                | Durgun             | 1           | 2          | 3     | 4         | 5                | 33              | Kaygılı     | 1          | 2     | 3         | 4 | 5 |
| 6                      | Soğuk              | 1                  | 2           | 3          | 4     | 5         | 34                | Terbiyesiz         | 1           | 2          | 3     | 4         | 5                | 35              | Sabırsız    | 1          | 2     | 3         | 4 | 5 |
| 7                      | Utangaç            | 1                  | 2           | 3          | 4     | 5         | 36                | Yaratıcı (Üretken) | 1           | 2          | 3     | 4         | 5                | 37              | Kaprisli    | 1          | 2     | 3         | 4 | 5 |
| 8                      | Paylaşımçı         | 1                  | 2           | 3          | 4     | 5         | 38                | İçine kapanık      | 1           | 2          | 3     | 4         | 5                | 39              | Çekingen    | 1          | 2     | 3         | 4 | 5 |
| 9                      | Geniş / rahat      | 1                  | 2           | 3          | 4     | 5         | 40                | Alıngan            | 1           | 2          | 3     | 4         | 5                | 41              | Hoşgörülü   | 1          | 2     | 3         | 4 | 5 |
| 10                     | Cesur              | 1                  | 2           | 3          | 4     | 5         | 42                | Düzenli            | 1           | 2          | 3     | 4         | 5                | 43              | Titiz       | 1          | 2     | 3         | 4 | 5 |
| 11                     | Agresif(Saldırgan) | 1                  | 2           | 3          | 4     | 5         | 44                | Tedbirli           | 1           | 2          | 3     | 4         | 5                | 45              | Azimli      | 1          | 2     | 3         | 4 | 5 |
| 12                     | Çalışkan           | 1                  | 2           | 3          | 4     | 5         |                   |                    |             |            |       |           |                  |                 |             |            |       |           |   |   |
| 13                     | İçten pazarlıklı   | 1                  | 2           | 3          | 4     | 5         |                   |                    |             |            |       |           |                  |                 |             |            |       |           |   |   |
| 14                     | Girişken           | 1                  | 2           | 3          | 4     | 5         |                   |                    |             |            |       |           |                  |                 |             |            |       |           |   |   |
| 15                     | İyi niyetli        | 1                  | 2           | 3          | 4     | 5         |                   |                    |             |            |       |           |                  |                 |             |            |       |           |   |   |
| 16                     | İçten              | 1                  | 2           | 3          | 4     | 5         |                   |                    |             |            |       |           |                  |                 |             |            |       |           |   |   |
| 17                     | Kendinden emin     | 1                  | 2           | 3          | 4     | 5         |                   |                    |             |            |       |           |                  |                 |             |            |       |           |   |   |
| 18                     | Huysuz             | 1                  | 2           | 3          | 4     | 5         |                   |                    |             |            |       |           |                  |                 |             |            |       |           |   |   |
| 19                     | Yardımsız          | 1                  | 2           | 3          | 4     | 5         |                   |                    |             |            |       |           |                  |                 |             |            |       |           |   |   |
| 20                     | Kabiliyetli        | 1                  | 2           | 3          | 4     | 5         |                   |                    |             |            |       |           |                  |                 |             |            |       |           |   |   |
| 21                     | Üşengeç            | 1                  | 2           | 3          | 4     | 5         |                   |                    |             |            |       |           |                  |                 |             |            |       |           |   |   |
| 22                     | Sorumsuz           | 1                  | 2           | 3          | 4     | 5         |                   |                    |             |            |       |           |                  |                 |             |            |       |           |   |   |
| 23                     | Sevecen            | 1                  | 2           | 3          | 4     | 5         |                   |                    |             |            |       |           |                  |                 |             |            |       |           |   |   |

## Appendix H: Brief Symptom Inventory

Aşağıda, insanların bazen yaşadıkları belirtilerin ve yakınmaların bir listesi verilmiştir. Listedeki her maddeyi lütfen dikkatle okuyun. Daha sonra o belirtinin SİZDE BUGÜN DÂHİL, SON BİR HAFTADIR NE KADAR VAROLDUĞUNU yandaki bölmede uygun olan yerde işaretleyin. Her belirti için sadece bir yeri işaretlemeye ve hiçbir maddeyi atlamamaya özen gösterin. Yanıtlarınızı kurşun kalemle işaretleyin. Eğer fikir değiştirirseniz ilk yanıtınızı silin.

Yanıtlarınızı aşağıdaki ölçeğe göre değerlendirin:

**Bu belirtiler son bir haftadır sizde ne kadar var?**

**0. Hiç Yok**

**1. Biraz var**

**2. Orta derecede var**

**3. Epey var**

**4. Çok fazla var**

|     |   | Bu belirtiler son bir haftadır sizde ne kadar var? |   |   |   |           |
|-----|---|--|---|---|---|-----------|
|     |   | Hiç  |   |   |   | Çok fazla |
| 1.  | İçinizdeki sinirlilik ve titreme hali                                 | 0  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 2.  | Baygınlık, baş dönmesi  | 0  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 3.  | Bir başka kişinin sizin düşüncelerinizi kontrol edeceği fikri         | 0  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 4.  | Başınıza gelen sıkıntılardan dolayı başkalarının suçlu olduğu duygusu | 0  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 5.  | Olayları hatırlamada güçlük   | 0  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 6.  | Çok kolayca kızıp öfkelenme   | 0  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 7.  | Göğüs (kalp) bölgesinde ağrılar                                       | 0  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 8.  | Meydanlık (açık) yerlerden korkma duygusu                             | 0  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 9.  | Yaşamınıza son verme düşünceleri                                      | 0  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 10. | İnsanların çoğuna güvenilemeyeceği hissi                              | 0  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 11. | İştahta bozukluklar   | 0  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 12. | Hiç bir nedeni olmayan ani korkular                                   | 0  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 13. | Kontrol edemediğiniz duygu patlamaları                                | 0  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 14. | Başka insanlarla beraberken bile yalnızlık hissetmek                  | 0  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 15. | İşleri bitirme konusunda kendini engellenmiş hissetmek                | 0  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 16. | Yalnızlık hissetmek   | 0  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 17. | Hüzünlü, kederli hissetmek  | 0  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 18. | Hiçbir şeye ilgi duymamak   | 0  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 19. | Ağlamaklı hissetmek   | 0  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 20. | Kolayca incinebilme, kırılmak   | 0  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 21. | İnsanların sizi sevmediğine, kötü davrandığına inanmak                | 0  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 22. | Kendini diğerlerinden daha aşağı görme                                | 0  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 23. | Mide bozukluğu, bulantı   | 0  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 24. | Diğerlerinin sizi gözlediği ya da hakkınızda konuştuğu duygusu        | 0  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |

|  | Hiç |   |   |   | Çok fazla |
|--|-----|---|---|---|-----------|
| 25. Uykuya dalmada güçlük  | 0   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 26. Yaptığınız şeyleri tekrar tekrar doğru mu diye kontrol etmek                   | 0   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 27. Karar vermede güçlükler  | 0   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 28. Otobüs, tren, metro gibi umumi vasıtalarla seyahatlerden korkmak               | 0   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 29. Nefes darlığı, nefessiz kalmak   | 0   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 30. Sıcak soğuk basmaları  | 0   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 31. Sizi korkuttuğu için bazı eşya, yer ya da etkinliklerden uzak kalmaya çalışmak | 0   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 32. Kafanızın "bomboş" kalması   | 0   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 33. Bedeninizin bazı bölgelerinde uyuşmalar, karıncalanmalar                       | 0   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 34. Günahlarınız için cezalandırılmanız gerektiği                                  | 0   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 35. Gelecekle ilgili umutsuzluk duyguları  | 0   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 36. Konsantrasyonda (dikkati bir şey üzerinde toplama) güçlük/ zorlanmak           | 0   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 37. Bedenin bazı bölgelerinde zayıflık, güçsüzlük hissi                            | 0   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 38. Kendini tedirgin ve gergin hissetmek   | 0   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 39. Ölme ve ölüm üzerine düşünceler  | 0   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 40. Birini dövme, ona zara verme, yaralama isteği                                  | 0   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 41. Bir şeyleri kırma, dökme isteği  | 0   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 42. Diğerlerinin yanındayken yanlış bir şeyler yapmamaya çalışmak                  | 0   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 43. Kalabalıklarda rahatsızlık duymak  | 0   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 44. Bir başka insana hiç yakınlık duymamak   | 0   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 45. Dehşet ve panik nöbetleri  | 0   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 46. Sık sık tartışmaya girmek  | 0   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 47. Yalnız bırakıldığında/ kalındığında sinirlilik hissetmek                       | 0   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 48. Başarılarınız için diğerlerinden yeterince takdir görmemek                     | 0   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 49. Yerinde duramayacak kadar tedirgin hissetmek                                   | 0   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 50. Kendini değersiz görmek/ değersizlik duyguları                                 | 0   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 51. Eğer izin verirsiniz insanların sizi sömüreceği duygusu                        | 0   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 52. Suçluluk duyguları   | 0   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |
| 53. Aklınızda bir bozukluk olduğu fikri  | 0   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4         |

## **Appendix I: Turkish Summary**

### **1. Literatür Özeti**

#### **1.1. Ebeveyn Kabul ve Reddi Kuramı**

Rohner (1986/2000) tarafından geliştirilmiş olan Ebeveyn Kabul ve Reddi (EKAR) Kuramı ebeveyninin kabul ve reddinin öncül ve sonuçlarını araştıran ve bunun bireyin çocukluk ve yetişkinlik dönemlerindeki yansımalarını inceleyen bir sosyalleşme kuramıdır. Kuram temel olarak üç farklı alan üzerine odaklanmaktadır:

İlk alt alan kişilik alanıdır. Bu alan çocuğun ve yetişkinin kişilik gelişimiyle ilgilidir ve ebeveyninden algılanan reddin kişilik gelişimi üzerindeki etkisini sorgular. Dünya üzerindeki tüm çocukların, kültürel bileşenlerden bağımsız olarak ebeveyn reddine karşı nasıl tepki verdikleri, çocukluk dönemindeki reddin etkilerinin yetişkinliğe ne ölçüde yansıdığı ve yetişkinlikte hangi kişilik özelliklerinin değişime uğrayacağı bu alt alanın sorguladığı konulardandır.

İkinci alt alan baş etme alanıdır. Bu alan, temel olarak, ebeveyn reddiyle baş edebilen ve edemeyen bireyler arasındaki farklara odaklanır. Ebeveyn reddiyle baş etmede etkili olan psikolojik dayanıklılık faktörleri bu alt alanın araştırma konusunu oluşturur.

Son olarak, sosyokültürel alt alan, ebeveyn kabul ve reddinin ebeveynin toplumsal duruşuyla nasıl odaklandığını araştırır. Örneğin, neden bazı ebeveynlerin daha kabul edici ve bazılarının daha reddedici oldukları, dini inançlar ya da sanatsal davranışların ebeveynlerin kabul edici ya da reddedici tutumlarını nasıl etkilediği bu alt alanın başlıca araştırma sorularıdır.

#### **1.1.1. Sıcaklık Boyutu**

Rohner'e (1986/2000) göre her birey anne ve babasından belli bir ölçüye göre sıcaklık ve şefkat almaktadır. EKAR Kuramı'nın sıcaklık boyutunu oluşturan bu görüşe göre boyutun bir ucunda sıcaklık, şefkat, bakım, destek ve sevgi bileşenlerinin oluşturduğu kabul yer alır. Diğer ucunda ise ebeveyn kabulünü oluşturan bileşenlerin olmadığı ya da çocuğu, fiziksel ve psikolojik olarak inciten davranış ve duygulanımların bulunduğu ret yer alır. Ebeveyn reddi dört şekilde

kendini gösterebilir: Duygusal soğukluk, düşmanlık ve saldırganlık, ilgisizlik ve ihmal, ayrışmamış ret. Bunlardan düşmanlık ile ilgisizlik ebeveynin içsel süreçlerini yansıtırken, saldırganlık ve ihmal bu içsel süreçlerin davranışsal boyutunu oluşturur. Ayrışmamış ret ise görünürde herhangi bir ret davranışı olmaksızın çocuğun istenmediğine ve sevilmediğine inanmasıyla ilişkilidir.

### **1.1.2. Kişilik Altkuramı**

Daha önce de belirtildiği gibi bu alt alan ebeveyn reddine verilen evrensel tepkileri araştırmaktadır. Bu alt alana göre ebeveynlerinden ret algılayan bireylerin kişilik yapılarında aşağıdaki yatkınlıklar gözlemlenmektedir:

- Tutarlı bir şekilde süregelen ret sonucu birey, bağımlı bir kişilik yapısı geliştirebilir ya da tam tersi bir şekilde savunucu ve göstermelik bir bağımsızlık sergileyebilir.
- Kendisini ret duygusundan korumak amacıyla birey, duygusal ihtiyaçlarının farkında olmayabilir ya da bu ihtiyaçlarını görmezden gelip inkâr edebilir.
- Düşmanlı, saldırgan ya da pasif saldırgan bir görüntü çizebilir.
- Öz saygıları düşük olup değersizlik hissini yoğun olarak yaşayabilir.
- Öz yeterlilikleri zarar görmüş olabilir ve yetersizlik hissini yaşayabilir.
- Dünyaya ve yaşama bakışları zedelenmiş olabilir, dünyayı ve yaşamı güvensiz ve tehdit edici olarak algılayabilir.
- Duygusal dalgalanmalar yaşayabilir; gündelik streslere aşırı tepkiler verebilir, bunlarla baş etmede zorluklar çekebilir ve tutarsız bir ruh durumu içinde olabilir.

### **1.1.3. Ebeveyn Kabul ve Reddi ve Psikopatolojik Belirtiler**

Ebeveynlerle olan erken dönem ilişkileri, bireyin yaşantısında sonraki dönemler için, özellikle de psikopatolojik belirtiler açısından önem arz etmektedir. Örneğin, EKAR Kuramı üç ruh sağlığı alanına özel bir vurgu yapmaktadır. Rohner ve Britner'in (2002) sunduğu verilere göre, depresyon, davranış problemleri ve madde kötüye kullanımı ebeveyn reddi sonucu gelişen psikopatolojik belirti grubunu oluşturmaktadır.

Son yıllarda yapılan çalışmalar ebeveynden algılanan reddin bireyleri yoğun bir öz eleştiriye yöneltebildiklerini göstermektedir (Campos, Besser, & Blatt, 2010; Campos, Besser, & Blatt, 2013). Benzer şekilde, bu bireylerde depresyon ve intihar riskinin artış gösterdiği bulunmuştur.

Bireylerin ebeveynleri tarafından utanç duygusuna maruz bırakıldıklarına yönelik anılarının ebeveynden algılanan sıcaklık boyutuyla ilgili olduğu düşünüldüğünde geçmişe yönelik bu anıların da psikopatolojik yakınlıkla ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur (Gilbert, Allan, & Goss, 1996; Gilbert & Gerlsma, 1999). Ebeveyn reddiyle ilgili bir diğer psikopatoloji belirtisi somatoform bozukluklar (Naz & Kausar, 2012) ve sınır kişilik bozuklukları (Rohner & Brothers, 1999; Zweig-Frank & Paris, 1991) oluşturmaktadır.

Sonuç olarak, anne-babalarından ret algılayan bireyler kendilerini kusurlu, değersiz ve sevilmeyen kişiler olarak algılamaktadırlar. Bu da beraberinde birtakım psikopatolojik rahatsızlıkları beraberinde getirebilmektedir.

## **1.2. Suçluluk ve Utanç**

Suçluluk ve utanç duyguları, temel duygulardan farklı olarak moral duygular arasında yer alır. Moral duyguların temel duygulardan farkı, bu duyguların iki yaşından itibaren oluşmaya başlaması, suçluluk ve utanç gibi daha karmaşık olanların ise insan yaşamının üçüncü yılında görülmesidir. Bunun sebebi ise bu duyguların çocuğun belli bir düzeyde öz-farkındalık seviyesine erişmesini ve benlik değerlendirme süreçlerinin etkin kullanımını gerektirmesidir.

### **1.2.1. Utanç**

Utanç duygusu kişinin diğer insanlarla olan ilişkisinde kendini daha aşağı, değersiz ve yetersiz bir noktada konumlandırmasıyla karakterize olmuş, benliğin tamamına ilişkin olumsuz atıflı bir duygudur. Bu nedenle bu duygu, bireyin kendisini sosyal ilişkilerden soyutlamasına ve yalnızlaştırmasına iten bir duygudur.

Psikanalitik kuram çerçevesinde, Freud (Thrane, 1979), utanç duygusunu yetersizlik hissi ise açıklarken, Erik Erikson (1950) bu duyguya, psikososyal gelişim basamaklarının ikinci evresi olan ve 18. ve 36. aylar arasındaki dönemi kapsayan “Utanç ve Kuşkuya karşı Özerklik” döneminde yer verir. Kendi kararlarını verme ile kontrol edebilme yetisinin kazanıldığı bu dönemde özellikle ebeveynlerden gelen olumsuz tepkiler çocukta utanç duygusunun tohumlarını atabilmektedir. Utanç ve

suçluluk literatürüne önemli katkısı olan ve psikanalitik çalışmaları bulunan bir başka araştırmacı Lewis (1971) ise utanç, karşılıksız sevgiye verilen evrensel bir tepki olarak değerlendirir. Lewis'e göre, çocuğun yaşamında önemli bir yere sahip olan, içselleştirilmiş, hayranlık duyulan ve idealize edilen imajın beklentilerine uymamak utanç duygusunu doğurur. Bu görüş, Piers ve Singer'in (1953) sözünü ettiği benlik ve benlik ideali arasındaki çalışmanın beraberine utanç getirdiği görüşüyle paralellik taşımaktadır. Bu bağlamda, ebeveyn davranışlarının utanç duygusunun oluşumunda etkili olduğu söylenebilir. Ebeveynin öfkesi, çocuğun ihtiyaçlarına yerinde ve zamanında yanıt verememesi ya da duyarsız kalması, çocuğun sözel ve/veya sözel olmayan yollarla bir şekilde reddedilmesi gibi durumlar utanç duygusunun oluşumunda rol oynamaktadır (Hahn, 2000; Kaufman, 1996).

### **1.2.2. Suçluluk**

Utanç duygusunun aksine suçluluk, benliğin tamamına değil, davranışın kendisine odaklıdır (Lewis, 1971). Yani, olumsuz bir değerlendirme her iki duyguda da mevcutken, bu değerlendirme suçlulukta davranışla sınırlıdır. Freud'a göre suçluluk duygusu benlik ve süperegö arasında çatışmadan kaynaklanmaktadır. Erik Erikson'un (1950) psikososyal gelişim kuramına göre suçluluk üçüncü evre olan üç ve altı yaş arasındaki dönemi kapsayan "Suçluluğa karşı Girişimcilik" döneminde yer verir. Bu dönemde çocuk, kendine amaçlar koyarak kendi hayatının aktif yönlendiricisi olma yolunda ilk adımları atar. Bu girişimci davranışlara tutarsız ve ölçüsüz engellemeler ve cezalandırmalar çocukta suçluluk duygusunu doğurabilir.

Suçluluğu içsel bir süreç olarak ele alan dinamik kökenli yaklaşımların yanında bu duygunun kişilerarası etkileşimle ilgili yanına vurgu yapan yaklaşımlar da son yıllarda ön plana çıkmaktadır. Bu yaklaşımlara göre suçluluk, içsel süreçlerden çok sosyal etkileşimlerin bir sonucudur ve empatik bir yaklaşımla diğer insanlarla iyi ilişkilerin sürmesine yardımcı, uyumlu bir duygudur (Baumeister, Stillwell, & Heatherton, 1994; Tangney, 1991; Tangney & Dearing, 2002).

Yukarıda da belirtildiği gibi suçluluk davranışın kendisine odaklıdır ve daha kontrol edilebilir bir duygudur. Bu anlamda, bu duygunun bireyi onarıcı ve iyileştirici davranışlara yönelttiği söylenebilir (Lewis 1971; Tangney, 1992).

### **1.2.3. Suçluluk, Utanç ve Psikopatolojik Belirtiler**

Literatürde suçluluk ve utanç duygularının psikopatolojiyle ilişkisini gösteren pek çok çalışma mevcuttur. Bu çalışmalar, utancın psikopatolojik belirtilere sebep olduğu konusunda tutarlı sonuçlar ortaya koymaktadır. Ancak suçluluk duygusu için aynı durumdan söz edilememektedir. Bu, suçluluk duygusunu, olumlu ya da olumsuz bir duygu olarak değerlendiren farklı yaklaşımların bulunmasıyla ilgilidir. Örneğin, utanç duygusu depresyonla bağlantılı bulunurken, depresyonun utanç duygusuyla karışmamış suçluluk duygusuyla ilişkisinde bu bağlantı görülmemiştir (Webb, Heisler, Call, Chickering, & Colburn, 2007; Tangney, Wagner, & Gramzow, 1992). Ancak suçluluğun uyumsuz bir duygu olduğuna yönelik sonuçlar koyan çalışmalar da bulunmaktadır (O'Connor, Berry, & Weiss, 1999).

Utanç duygusunun ise depresyon, obsesif-kompulsif bozukluk ve öfke (Harder, Cutler, & Rockart, 1992), yakınlık kurma korkusu (Lutwak, Panish, & Ferrari, 2003), aşağılık hissi (Cheung, Gilbert, & Irons, 2004), kaygı belirtileri (Fergus, Valentiner, McGrath, & Jenius, 2010), travma sonrası stres bozukluğu (Lee, Scragg, & Turner, 2001), yeme bozuklukları (Hayaki, Friedman, & Brownell, 2002), alkol ve madde kötüye kullanımı (Dearing, Stuewig, & Tangney, 2005) ve sınır kişilik bozukluğu ile pozitif ilişkili olduğu rapor edilmektedir.

### **1.3. Kişilik**

Bu çalışmada kişilik değişkeni için Beş Faktör Kişilik Kuramı esas alınmıştır. Bu kurama göre kişilik yapısı Dışadönüklük, Sorumluluk, Uyumluluk, Duygusal Denge ve Deneyime Açıklık alt boyutlarından oluşmaktadır.

Dışadönüklük kişinin sosyalleşmesine ve kişilerarası etkileşimdeki konumuna vurgu yapmaktadır. Bu boyutta yüksek olan kişiler konuşkan, coşkulu, hareket odaklı, ortaklığa dayalı işler yapmaya daha çok yatkın insanlardır (Feist & Feist, 2009). Adaptif başa çıkma yöntemlerini etkin kullanma (Panayiotou, Kokkinos, & Kapsou, 2014) ve anlık mutluluğun (Oerlemans & Bakker, 2014) bu boyutla ilişkili olduğu rapor edilmiştir.

Kişiliğin Sorumluluk boyutu, bireyin ne ölçüde düzenli ve organize olabildiği ve görev bilinciyle hareket ettiğiyle ilgili bilgi verir. Yapılan çalışmalar, bu boyutta yüksek skor olan bireylerin çalışkan, düzenli, dakik ve azimli olduklarını göstermektedir (Feist & Feist, 2009).

Uyumluluk boyutu, bireyin sosyal ilişkilerini sürdürülebilirlik ve dayanıklılıkla ilgili bilgi verir. Bu boyutta yüksek skor olan kişilerin güvenilir, cömert, hoşgörülü ve

kabul edici bir tutumda olduklarına yönelik sonuçlar ortaya koyan çalışmalar mevcuttur (Feist & Feist, 2009).

Duygusal Denge boyutu, bireyin duygusal olarak istikrar sağlayıp sağlamadığıyla ilgilidir. Yüksek skorlar, kişinin kaygılı, strese yatkın ve kendine odaklı bir yapı ortaya koyduğunu göstermektedir (Feist & Feist, 2009).

Deneyime Açıklık, bireyin yeni fikir ve düşüncelere, deneyimlere eğilim gösterme ve bunlara duyduğu merakı ifade eder. Yüksek skorlar, kişinin hayal gücünün ve yaratıcılığının yüksek olduğunu (Feist & Feist, 2009), değişimlere kolayca ayak uydurabildiğini (Le Pine, Colquitt, & Erez, 2000) ve strese karşı dayanıklı (Williams, Rau, Cribbet, & Gunn, 2009) olduğunu göstermektedir.

Beş Faktör Kişilik Kuramını test eden ve ülkemizde yürütülmüş bir çalışma altıncı bir boyutun varlığından söz etmektedir (Gençöz & Öncül, 2012). Olumsuz Değerlilik adı verilen bu boyut, kişinin kendilik değeriyle ilgilidir. Gençöz ve Öncül bu boyutu Duygusal Denge boyutundan ayırmaktadır. Duygusal Denge'de kaygı bileşeni yer alırken, Olumsuz Değerlilik kişinin kendi benliğine verdiği değerle ilgilidir.

#### **1.4. Araştırmacının Amacı**

Literatürdeki bu bilgiler ışığında bu çalışmanın başlıca hedefleri şunlardır:

- Ebeveyn kabul – reddi, suçluluk ve utanca yatkınlık, psikopatoloji ve kişilik boyutlarına etki eden demografik değişkenleri belirlemek,
- İlgili demografik değişkenler ile ebeveyn kabul – reddi, suçluluk ve utanca yatkınlık, psikopatoloji ve kişilik boyutları arasındaki korelasyonel ilişkiyi incelemek,
- Ebeveyn kabul – reddinin psikopatoloji ve kişilik boyutlarıyla olan ilişkisinde suçluluk ve utanca yatkınlığın aracı rolünü incelemek.

Bu çalışmanın, suçluluk ve utanç duygularına yatkınlığın dolaylı etkisine ilişkin hipotezleri şu şekildedir:

- Algılanan ebeveyn reddinin utanç duygusuna yatkınlığı artırmasıyla daha çok psikopatolojik belirtiyeye yol açması beklenmektedir.
- Algılanan ebeveyn reddinin utanç duygusuna yatkınlığı artırmasıyla bireyin daha olumsuz bir benlik algısı geliştirmesine yol açması beklenmektedir.

## **2. Yöntem**

### **2.1. Katılımcılar**

Bu çalışmada üniversite öğrencisi olan 589 katılımcı yer almıştır. Katılımcıların %66.20'sini (390 kişi) kadınlar oluştururken, %33.60'ı (198 kişi) erkektir. Bir katılımcı cinsiyet belirtmemiştir. Yaş aralığı 17 ile 50 arasında değişmektedir. Katılımcıların yaş ortalaması 21.58 (Standart Sapma = 2.65) olarak hesaplanmıştır.

### **2.2. Ölçüm Araçları**

Bu çalışmada katılımcılar demografik bilgi formu, Ebeveyn Kabul – Reddi/Kontrolü Ölçeği, Moral Duygulanım Testi, Temel Kişilik Özellikleri Ölçeği ve Kısa Semptom Envanteri'nin bulunduğu bir ölçek bataryası doldurmuştur.

#### **2.2.1. Demografik Bilgi Formu**

Bu form araştırmacı tarafından oluşturulmuş olup katılımcılarla ilgili temel demografik bilgilerin alınması için hazırlanmıştır. Bu form, katılımcıların yaş, cinsiyet, okudukları fakülte ve derece ile sosyo-ekonomik durum bilgilerine ilişkin sorular içermektedir. Ayrıca, katılımcıların kardeş sayıları ile aileleriyle birlikte yaşayıp yaşamadıklarına ilişkin sorular da bu formda yer almıştır.

#### **2.2.2. Ebeveyn Kabul – Reddi/Kontrolü Ölçeği: Yetişkin Formu**

Bu çalışmada ebeveyn kabul ve reddinin belirlenmesi amacıyla Ebeveyn Kabul – Reddi/Kontrolü Ölçeği'nin (EKRÖ/K) yetişkin formu kullanılmıştır. EKRÖ, 1978 yılında Rohner, Saavedra ve Granum tarafından geliştirilmiştir (Rohner, 2005). EKRÖ dördümlü Likert tipi ölçek üzerinde puanlanan 60 maddeden oluşmakta olup dört alt ölçeğe sahiptir: Sıcaklık/Şefkat, Düşmanlık/Saldırganlık, Kayıtsızlık/İhmal ve Ayrışmamış Ret.

Ebeveyn Kontrol Ölçeği ise 1987'de Rohner tarafından geliştirilerek EKRÖ'ne eklenmiştir. 13 maddeden oluşan bu ölçek yetişkin bireyin ebeveyninin kontrolüne yönelik algısını değerlendirmektedir.

### **2.2.3. Moral Duygulanım Testi**

Bu çalışmada, suçluluk ve utanç duygularını değerlendirmek amacıyla Tangney ve Dearing (2000) tarafından geliştirilen Moral Duygulanım Testi kullanılmıştır. Ölçek 11 adet olumsuz ve beş adet olumlu senaryodan ve bu senaryolara yaygın olarak verilen dört tepkiden oluşmaktadır. Katılımcıdan istenen, senaryoya verilen olası tepkileri beşli Likert tipi ölçek üzerinde puanlamasıdır. Altı alt ölçekten oluşan Moral Duygulanım Testi'nin sadece olumsuz senaryoları içeren kısa formu da bulunmaktadır. Bu çalışmada, çalışma hedefleri doğrultusunda, katılımcılara kısa form verilmiş ve utanca yatkınlık ile suçluluğa yatkınlık alt ölçekleri kullanılmıştır. Bu ölçek suçluluğa yatkınlığın adaptif ve yapıcı yönlerini ortaya koymaktadır. Bu nedenle, sonuçlar bu bilgi gözetilerek yorumlanmalıdır.

### **2.2.4. Temel Kişilik Özellikleri Ölçeği**

Katılımcıların kişilik yapılarını değerlendirmek üzere Temel Kişilik Özellikleri Ölçeği kullanılmıştır (Gençöz & Öncül, 2012). Beş Faktör Kişilik Kuramı'na dayanılarak geliştirilen bu ölçek beşli Likert tipi ölçek üzerine puanlanan 45 maddeden oluşmaktadır. Orijinal ölçekte yer alan Dışadönüklük, Sorumluluk, Uyumluluk, Duygusal Denge ve Açıklık alt ölçeklerine ek olarak Temel Kişilik Özellikleri Ölçeği'nde Olumsuz Değerlilik altıncı alt ölçek olarak yer almaktadır. Dışadönüklük, analizler sırasında ters madde olarak işleme alınmıştır. Bu nedenle bu boyuta ilişkin sonuçlar, "İçdönüklük" ifadesiyle aktarılacaktır.

### **2.2.5. Kısa Semptom Envanteri**

Derogatis (1992) tarafından geliştirilen Kısa Semptom Envanteri'nden (KSE) katılımcıların psikopatolojik belirtileri değerlendirmek üzere yararlanılmıştır. 53 maddeden oluşan bu envanterin adaptasyon çalışmaları sonucunda beş alt ölçek bulunmuştur: Kaygı, Depresyon, Olumsuz Benlik, Somatizasyon ve Hostilite.

## **2.3. İşlem**

Çalışmanın uygulama aşamasından önce Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi'nin Uygulamalı Etik Araştırma Merkezi'nden etik izinler alınmıştır. Sıralama etkisinin en aza indirilmesi amacıyla çalışmada yer alan ölçeklerin öncelik ve sonralık sırası dengelenmiştir. Ölçeklerin katılımcıya ulaşması için basılı ve internet üzerinden olmak üzere iki ayrı form hazırlanmıştır. Basılı form katılımcılara araştırmacı

tarafından ulaştırılırken, internet üzerinden ulaşması amacıyla ölçek bataryasının bağlantı adresleri katılımcılara e-posta aracılığıyla yönlendirilmiştir. Her iki formda da gönüllü katılım formu yer almıştır. Ölçek bataryasının tamamlanması 30 – 40 dakika sürmüştür.

### **3. Bulgular ve Tartışma**

Bu çalışmada elde edilen demografik değişkenlere göre temel değişkenlerdeki farklılıklar şu şekilde sıralanabilir:

#### *Ebeveyn Kabul – Ret/Kontrolünde Görülen Anlamli Farklılıklar:*

- Erkek katılımcılar kadınlara göre hem anne hem de babalarından daha az sıcaklık ve şefkat, annelerinden ise daha az kontrol algıladıklarını belirtmektedir.
- Gelir düzeyi artıka katılımcılar annelerinden daha az ret, daha çok sıcaklık ve kabul, daha az ihmal, daha az düşmanlık ve saldırganlık, daha az ayrışmamış ret ve kontrol algılamışlardır. Babalarından ise, daha çok sıcaklık ve kabul ve daha az ihmal algılamışlardır.
- Birden fazla kardeşi olan katılımcılar, anne ve babalarından daha çok ret, daha az sıcaklık ve şefkat ve daha çok ayrışmamış ret algılamışlardır. Buna ek olarak, birden fazla kardeşi olan katılımcılar babalarını daha düşmancıl ve saldırgan olarak rapor etmişlerdir.

#### *Suçluluk ve Utanca Yatkinlıkta Görülen Anlamli Farklılıklar:*

- Daha genç (17 – 21 yaşları arası) olan katılımcıların utanca yatkinlığı daha fazla bulunmuştur.
- Kadın katılımcıların hem suçluluk hem de utanç duygularına yatkinlığı erkek katılımcılardan daha yüksektir.

#### *Psikopatolojik Belirtilerde Görülen Anlamli Farklılıklar:*

- Gelir düzeyinin düşük olduğunu düşünen katılımcılar, orta ve yüksek seviyeden katılımcılara göre psikopatolojik belirti ölçümünde daha yüksek değerler almışlardır.

*Kişilik Ölçümünde Görülen Anlamlı Farklılıklar:*

- Kadın katılımcılar Uyumluluk ölçümünde daha yüksek değerler gösterirken, erkek katılımcıların yüksek olduğu kişilik boyutları Deneyime Açıklık ve Olumsuz Değerlilik olarak bulunmuştur.
- Kendisini yüksek bir gelir grubuna ait gören katılımcılar, Dışadönüklük ölçümünden daha yüksek değerler almışlardır.

Suçluluk ve utanca yatkinlığın aracı değişken olarak rollerine ilişkin analizlerin sonuçları şu şekildedir:

*Ebeveyn Kabul - Reddi ve Kişilik Arasındaki İlişkide Suçluluk ve Utanca Yatkinlığın Aracı Rolü:*

Anneden ve babadan ret algılayan katılımcıların, utanca yatkinliklerinin arttığı ve suçluluğa yatkinliklerinin azaldığı gözlemlenmiş ve bu da bu katılımcıların İçedönüklük ve Duygusal Denge ölçümlerinde daha düşük değerler göstermesine neden olmuştur. İçedönüklük boyutuyla ilgili sonuç Abe'in (2004) çalışmasıyla tutarlılık göstermektedir. Dışadönüklüğün bireyin sosyalliğiyle ilgili olduğu ve bu boyuttan yüksek skor alan bir kişinin sosyal ilişkilerinde aktif bir rol aldığı düşünüldüğünde bu çalışmanın sonuçları, suçluluk ve utançla ilişkisi bakımından beklenen sonuçları vermektedir. Duygusal Denge boyutuyla ilgili olarak ise bireyin bu boyutta kendini daha tutarsız olarak algılamasında, ebeveyninden algıladığı reddin ve bunun yol açtığı utancın zayıflatıcı etkisi ve suçluluğun yapıcı özelliklerinin baskılanmasının etkisi olduğu söylenebilir.

Sorumluluk ve Uyumluluk boyutlarına bakıldığında, anneden ve babadan algılanan ret azaldıkça katılımcıların suçluluğa yatkinliklerinin arttığı gözlemlenmiş ve bu da bu katılımcıların Sorumluluk ve Uyumluluk ölçümlerinde daha yüksek değerler elde etmesini sağlamıştır. Sorumluluk boyutuyla ilgili sonuçlar Tracy ve Robins'in (2004) önerdiği moral duygular modeliyle tutarlılık göstermektedir. Bu modele göre moral duyguların oluşmasında bireyin hedeflerinin kimliğiyle uyumluluk ve bağlantılık derecesi önem kazanır. Kişiliğin Sorumluluk boyutu ise bu anlamda suçluluk duygusu ile ilişki içinde olabilir. Uyumlulukla ilgili olarak, bu boyutta yüksek skor alan kişilerin çatışmaların çözümlenmesi ve öfke yönetiminde etkin oldukları bilgisi mevcuttur (Jensen-Campbell, Gleason, Adams, & Malcolm, 2003). Bu bakımdan, sonuçlar çalışmanın beklentileriyle uyumludur.

Bu çalışmanın bir diğer sonucu, ebeveynden algılanan reddin, utanca yatkinlığın artması ve suçluluğa yatkinlığın azalmasıyla birlikte Deneyime Açıklık boyutunun bileşenlerinde ketlenmelere yol açtığını ortaya koymaktadır. Babadan reddin test edildiği modelde utanç ve suçluluk aracı değişken olarak birbirlerinden farklı değilken, anneden reddin test edildiği modelde utanca yatkinlığın artması, suçluluğa yatkinlığın azalmasından daha güçlü bir etki ortaya koymaktadır. EKAR Kuramı'na göre çocuklukta bağlanma figürleri tarafından ihtiyaçları karşılanmış ve bu kişilerden olumlu geri bildirimler almış olmak, kişilik gelişimini olumlu yönde etkilemektedir. Bunun tersi bir tutum ise ret duygusunun ve merak, yaratıcılık, hayal gücü gibi bileşenlerin ketlendiği bağımlı bir kişilik yapısının gelişmesine neden olabilmektedir.

Son olarak, ebeveyn reddi arttıkça katılımcılar utanca yatkinlik ölçümünde daha yüksek değerler göstermiş, bu da öz-değerlilikte azalmayı ve olumsuz bir benlik anlayışı beraberinde getirmiştir. Diğer taraftan, ebeveyn kabulü arttıkça suçluluğa yatkinlığın adaptif etkisi kendisini göstererek daha olumlu bir benlik algısı oluşmuştur. Anneden reddin test edildiği modelde utanç ve suçluluk, aracı değişken olarak birbirlerinden farklı değilken, babadan reddin test edildiği modelde suçluluğa yatkinlığın artmasının, utanca yatkinlığın azalmasından daha güçlü bir etkisinin olduğunu göstermektedir. Bu sonuçlar suçluluk duygusuna yatkinlığın iyileştirici etkisinin utanca yatkinlığın zayıflatıcı etkisi kadar etkili olduğunu göstermesi bakımından önem taşımaktadır. Bunun yanı sıra suçluluk ve utancın babadan reddin test edildiği modelde farklılık göstermesi, baba figürünün bireyin kendine bakışında ve öz-değerliliğinde belirleyici rol oynadığını göstermektedir.

*Ebeveyn Kabul - Reddi ve Psikopatoloji Arasındaki İlişkide Suçluluk ve Utanca Yatkinlığın Aracı Rolü:*

Bu çalışmanın sonuçlarına göre ebeveynlerinden ret algılayan katılımcılar daha çok utanç ve daha az adaptif suçluluk hissetme eğiliminde olup daha çok psikopatolojik belirti göstermektedirler. Bu çalışma kişilik boyutlarında olduğu gibi psikopatolojik belirtiler ölçümünde de suçluluk duygusuna yatkinlığın iyileştirici etkisini vurgulamaktadır. Çalışmanın ebeveyn kabul - reddi ve psikopatoloji arasındaki ilişkiye dair sonuçları, bu ilişkinin altında yatan olası değişkenler olarak suçluluk ve utanca yatkinliği vurgulamaktadır.

### **3.1. Çalışmanın Sınırlılıkları ve Gelecek Çalışmalar için Öneriler**

Çalışmanın ilk kısıtlılığı çalışmanın deseniyle ilgilidir. Kesitsel çalışma yöntemiyle veri toplandığından bu çalışma için nedensel bir ilişkiden söz edilememektedir. Bu nedenle gelecekteki çalışmaların boylamsal desenle yürütülmesi önerilmektedir.

Bu çalışmada önerilen modele göre ebeveyn reddi, suçluluk ve utanca yatkınlık üzerinden kişilik boyutları ve psikopatolojik tabloyu etkilemektedir. Ancak bireyin suçluluk ve utanca yatkınlık derecesinin öncülleri, mevcut kişilik yapısı ve/veya psikopatolojik durum da olabilir. Bu çalışma değişkenler arasındaki bu yönde bir ilişkiyi incelememektedir. Dolayısıyla mevcut kişilik yapısı ve psikopatolojik durumun aracı rol oynadığı bir modelden söz edilebilir.

Bir diğer kısıtlılık çalışmanın örneklemeyle ilgilidir. Çalışma, üniversite öğrencileriyle yürütülmüştür. Bu da çalışmanın genel popülasyona ve klinik gruba genellenmesiyle ilgili soru işaretleri doğurmaktadır.

Dördüncü kısıtlılık çalışmanın ölçüm yöntemleriyle ilgilidir. Çalışmanın değişkenleri öz bildirim dayalı ölçeklerle değerlendirilmiştir. Bu da katılımcı yanlılığı sorununu beraberinde getirmektedir.

Bu çalışmada suçluluk ve utanç duyguları belli bir teorik yaklaşıma göre ele alınmıştır. Bu yaklaşıma göre utanç psikolojik sorunlarla ilişkiliyken, suçluluk daha uyumlu ve daha işlevsel bir duygudur. Ancak literatürde suçluluğun da olumsuz bir duygu olabileceğine yönelik yaklaşımlar da bulunmaktadır. Bu çalışmanın sonuçları suçluluk duygusunun olumlu olduğu varsayımıyla değerlendirilmelidir. Gelecekte ise bu kavramlara ilişkin farklı yaklaşımlar dikkate alınarak çalışmalar yürütülebilir.

Son olarak, bu çalışmanın sonuçlarına göre kişilik boyutlarını içeren modellerin analizi anlamlı bir farklılık ortaya koymasına rağmen standardize edilmemiş katsayıların düşük olduğu görülmüştür. Bu nedenle sonuçlar bu durum dikkate alınarak yorumlanmalıdır.

Ayrıca gelecekteki çalışmalarda anne ve babadan algılanan reddin karşılaştırmalı olarak analiz edilmesinin de ebeveynler arasındaki benzerlik ya da farklılıkları irdelemek bakımından faydalı olacağı düşünülmektedir.

### 3.2. Çalışmanın Katkıları

Bu çalışma, kişilik boyutları ve psikopatolojinin olası öncülleri olarak ebeveyn kabul – reddi ile suçluluk ve utanca yatkınlığı birlikte incelemektedir. Literatürle paralel bir şekilde ebeveyn reddinin sonuçlarının yaygın etkilerine yönelik sonuçlar ortaya koymaktadır. Bu çalışma, ebeveyn reddiyle birlikte artan değersizlik ve yetersizlik duygularının altında suçluluk ve utanç duygularının olabileceğine ilişkin ipuçları sunmaktadır. Bu sonuçlar, terapistin seans sırasında karşılaşılabileceği olası bir direnç durumunda bunun sözü edilen duygular sonucu ortaya çıkabileceğini öngörmesi ve seans içinde ve terapi sürecinde gerekli adımları atabilmesi açısından önem taşımaktadır.

Buna ek olarak, bu çalışma suçluluk duygusunun iyileştirici yanına vurgu yapmaktadır. Buna ilişkin sonuçlar, terapötik açıdan, kişilerarası ilişkilerde birtakım sorunlar yaşayan danışanların harekete geçmesini sağlamak üzere suçluluk duygusundan yararlanılması açısından önemlidir.

Bu çalışmada elde edilen sonuçlar babadan algılanan reddin de en az anneden algılanan ret kadar etkili olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır. Bu sonuçlar, aile içinde baba figürünün de bireyin kişilik ve psikopatolojiye yatkınlığını etkilediğini göstermektedir.

Son olarak, Thrane (1979) utanç duygusunun yarattığı olumsuz etkilerin benliğin yeniden şekillenmesiyle silineceğine vurgu yapar ve bunun *affedicilikle* değil *kabul görme* ile mümkün olacağını dile getirir. Bu anlamda terapinin bir kabul etme/görme süreci olduğu göz önünde bulundurulduğunda bu çalışmayla ortaya konan sonuçlarla, kabul edici terapötik ilişkilerin erken dönemin olumsuz yaşantıları üzerinde iyileştirici etki yapacağı yorumu yapılabilmektedir.

**Appendix J: Tez Fotokopisi İzin Formu**

**TEZ FOTOKOPİSİ İZİN FORMU**

**ENSTİTÜ**

Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü

Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü

Uygulamalı Matematik Enstitüsü

Enformatik Enstitüsü

Deniz Bilimleri Enstitüsü

**YAZARIN**

Soyadı : Deniz

Adı : Pelin

Bölümü : Psikoloji

**TEZİN ADI** (İngilizce): The Effects of Parental Acceptance –  
Rejection/Control on Personality and Psychopathology: Mediator Role of  
Proneness to Shame and Guilt

**TEZİN TÜRÜ**: Yüksek Lisans

Doktora

1. Tezimin tamamından kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir.

2. Tezimin içindekiler sayfası, özet, indeks sayfalarından ve/veya bir  
bölümünden kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir.

3. Tezimden bir (1) yıl süreyle fotokopi alınamaz.

**TEZİN KÜTÜPHANEYE TESLİM TARİHİ:**