

EMOTIONAL ASPECTS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL SYMPTOMS: THE ROLES OF
PARENTING ATTITUDES AND EMOTION DYSREGULATION

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ABSTRACT

EMOTIONAL ASPECTS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL SYMPTOMS: THE ROLES OF PARENTING ATTITUDES AND EMOTION DYSREGULATION

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The current study aimed to explore an integrative model of emotions in psychological symptoms. In order to achieve this model, the primary purpose of the study was to examine the influences of perceived parenting styles and emotional experiences on emotion dysregulation and psychological problems. The second aim was to investigate the moderator roles of emotion regulation strategies in the relationship between emotional experiences and these psychological problems. Based on these objectives, the present study was carried out with 544 participants (408 females and 136 males) whose ages ranged between 18 and 50 ($M = 26.52$, $SD = 7.30$). In addition to demographic information form, a group of self-report questionnaires was administered including Short - Egna Minnen Beträffande Uppfostran -Own Memories of Upbringing, Test of Self-Conscious Affect-3, Trait Anger – Anger Expression Inventory, Emotion Regulation Questionnaire,

Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale, State-Trait Anxiety Inventory-Trait Form, Beck Depression Inventory, and Penn State Worry Questionnaire. According to the results, paternal rejection and maternal overprotection had significant effects on the increase of most of the difficulties in emotion regulation and psychological symptoms including depression, trait anxiety and proneness worry. After controlling the effects of parental attitudes, among emotional experiences, particularly shame proneness, trait anger and internalizing anger, were significantly associated with different difficulties in emotion regulation and psychological problems. In addition to that, limited access to effective emotion regulation strategies was found to significant in the increase of all groups of psychological symptom. Finally, the effects of emotional experiences on psychological symptoms were moderated by two emotion regulation strategies, namely suppression and cognitive reappraisal. The findings were discussed in light of relevant literature, as well as implications of the study and future directions were provided.

Keywords: Parenting Styles, Emotions, Difficulties in Emotion Regulation, Psychological Problems

ÖZ

PSİKOLOJİK SEMPTOMLARIN DUYGUSAL BOYUTU: ALGILANAN EBEVEYN TUTUMLARI VE DUYGU DÜZENLEME PROBLEMLERİNİN ROLÜ

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Bu çalışmada, psikolojik semptomlarla ilişkili duyguların ele alındığı bütüncü bir model çalışılmıştır. Bu model için ilk olarak algılanan ebeveyn tutumlarının ve duygusal deneyimlerin, duygu düzenleme güçlüğü ve psikolojik problemler üzerindeki olası etkilerinin araştırılması amaçlanmıştır. Çalışmanın ikinci amacı, duygularla psikolojik semptomlar arasındaki ilişkide duygu düzenleme süreçlerinin düzenleyici etkisinin incelenmesidir. Bu amaçlar doğrultusunda çalışma, 18 ile 50 yaş aralığında toplam 544 katılımcı ile yürütülmüştür (Ortalama = 26.52, Standart Sapma = 7.30). Katılımcılara demografik bilgi formunun yanı sıra, Algılanan Ebeveyn Tutumları – Kısa Form, Moral Duygulanım Testi, Sürekli Öfke ve Öfke İfade Tarzı Ölçeği, Duygu Düzenlemede Güçlükler Ölçeği, Duygu Düzenleme Ölçeği, Sürekli Kaygı Envanteri, Beck Depresyon Envanteri ve Penn

Eyalet Endişe Ölçeği uygulanmıştır. Elde edilen bulgulara göre, ebeveyn tutumlarından, babadan algılanan reddedilme ve anneden algılanan aşırı koruyuculuk duygu düzenleme güçlükleri ile kaygı, endişe ve depresyonu içeren psikolojik problemlerle olumlu yönde ilişkilidir. Ebeveyn tutumları kontrol edildikten sonra duyguların etkisi incelendiğinde, özellikle utanç, sürekli öfke ve bastırılmış öfke ifadesinin birçok duygu düzenleme güçlüğü ve çeşitli semptomlarla bağlantılı olduğu bulunmuştur. Ayrıca duygu düzenleme güçlükleri arasından, etkili duygu düzenleme yöntemlerine erişim kısıtlılığı bütün psikolojik semptomların artmasında rol oynamaktadır. Son olarak, bu duyguların psikolojik problemlerle ilişkisinde, bastırma ve bilişsel yeniden değerlendirme gibi duygu düzenleme süreçlerinin düzenleyici rolü olduğu gözlenmiştir. Çalışmanın sonunda, elde edilen bulgular ilgili literatür temelinde değerlendirilmiş; ayrıca sonuçların klinik araştırma ve uygulamalara katkısı ile gelecekte yapılabilecek çalışmalar için önerilere yer verilmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Ebeveyn Tutumları, Duygular, Duygu Düzenleme Güçlükleri, Psikolojik Semptomlar

To my “Prime”
Hüseyin Bahtiyar

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The endeavor for understanding the development, maintenance, and treatment of psychological problems is a never ending process. Throughout history of clinical perspective, the focus of psychological problems has been shifted from behaviors to cognitions. Nonetheless, emotions have not been the center of attention in this enduring debate. Emotions are vital in survival of most of the species by stimulating adaptive responses (Tooby & Cosmides, 1990). On the other hand, they have also detrimental effects on psychological and physiological well-being. The role of emotions in development of psychological symptoms has been underemphasized for over decades. Rather than being covered extensively as a separate but interdependent field, it has been conceptualized as products of a psychic energy from psychoanalytic view, conditioned responses from behavioral perspective, and outcome of cognitions from cognitive paradigm.

However, the improvement in reliable and valid assessment techniques allows emotions take stage on scientific investigation for psychopathology (Gross, 2007). Currently, there is growing interest in definition, discrimination, development, and functioning of emotional systems in psychotherapy (Mennin & Farach, 2007). Although great body of research focus on basic emotions, contemporary studies highlight another group of emotions called self-conscious emotions, especially shame, guilt, and pride, which have been associated with various psychological disorders (Tangney & Dearing, 2002).

Unfortunately, understanding emotions is a challenging process, because emotions are not clearly distinguished from each other. In addition, adaptiveness of an emotion is not limited to its category or kind, rather its underlying process should be considered. The inquiry of how an emotion becomes adaptive or maladaptive has brought out a link between the emotion and its outcome, which is emotion regulation (Rottenberg & Gross, 2007). Emotion regulation influences not only which emotion is elicited, but also when it is experienced, in what intensity and also how it is expressed (Sloan & Kring, 2007). It is proposed that a difficulty in any pace leads to emotion dysregulation which in turn leads to psychological distress (Gross, 1998).

Comprehensive model of emotion may not be achieved without paying attention the origins of emotion and also emotion regulation. Most of the emotions and the abilities to manage them emerge from birth and continuously shaped by family environment. Although the socialization of emotions is a lifespan process, emotional system mostly takes root from parental responses or attitudes toward child's emotions and behaviors (Magai, 2008). This socialization is particularly significant for self-conscious emotions, since they are strongly based on internalized standards, rules and goals. Therefore, in the relationship between self-conscious emotions and psychological well-being, maladaptive parenting styles have an essential role. However, there is a lack of empirical research to test a broader model including all these associative factors.

On the basis of this knowledge, the aim of the present study was to examine a comprehensive model for the associates of psychological symptoms (i.e. depression, anxiety, and worry) with the focus of parenting styles (i.e. emotional warmth, rejection and overprotection), as developmental origins, self-conscious emotions (particularly, shame, guilt, and pride) as vulnerability, and emotion dysregulation as maintaining factors.

1.1 Emotions

Emotions flourish the soul and give to person's existence a meaning; yet, they also make the soul miserable and bring a person to a point where he/she wishes to be disappeared. In spite of its potency, they have barely recognized in the struggle for understanding human psyche. The psychology of emotions has been relied on history of disagreement and confusion about conceptualization, clarity, awareness, and functionality of emotions (Frijda, 2008). Different paradigms, such as psychodynamic and cognitive behavioral, have different outlooks for the role of emotions in psychological functioning, nevertheless, there is a recent agreement about its prominence that should not be underestimated.

The definition of emotion is one of the major challenges in the field of emotion, because it refers to a wide range of responses that are very difficult to specify in a construct. The first step in this challenge is to differentiate emotional experiences from non-emotional experiences (such as sensations). In this discrimination, cognitive perspective emphasizes the role of appraisals by referring to interpretations of the situations (Lazarus, 1991). Accordingly, an emotional experience (e.g., fear) is stemmed from the cognitive appraisals, whereas non-emotional experience (e.g., pain) is the result of bodily appraisals (Frijda, 1993). Further investigations from this point of view listed typical constructs required for an emotional experience, which are situation, attention, appraisal, physiological change, conscious awareness, and response (Gross & Thompson, 2007; Power & Dalgleish, 1997).

Second step includes the differentiation of emotions. In this respect, functionalist perspective stresses bilateral experience, in which emotion is conceptualized as complex feedback system about the discrepancy between the ideal and actual situation (Carver & Scheier, 1990). Accordingly, positive emotion is generated in the case of absence of or minimum discrepancy. On the contrary, negative emotion indicates the unacceptable discrepancy between the goal and reality. From this point of view, negative emotional experience activates the

physiological, cognitive, and behavioral systems in order to direct individual to decrease this incongruity (Carver & Scheier, 1990).

On the other hand, counterarguments propose that emotions are not restricted to bilateral aspects as positive and negative; rather they are categorized on the basis of kind, valence, and intensity (Sloan & Kring, 2007). From this categorization, some emotional experiences that seem to be more fundamental for survival are called as basic emotions (Ekman, 1992). Basic emotions stand out in both theoretical and practical perspectives, since they are biologically based and universally validated in expression (Ekman, 1992; Oatley & Jenkins, 1996). Although listing emotions in this group is a controversial issue, five emotions come into prominence, namely sadness, happiness, anger, fear, and disgust (Ekman, 1992; Power & Dalglish, 1997). The distinctive features of these emotions include that they are elicited by universal situations, common in most of the species, innate and having early maturation, associated with automatic appraisals, accompanied with quick onset and brief duration; and they have similar patterns in nervous system activity (Ekman, 1992; Lewis, 2008).

In the investigation of the association between basic emotions and psychological functioning, there is a current and integrative model of emotions called Schematic, Propositional, Analogical, and Associative Representation System (SPAARS). SPAARS has suggested that psychological disorders are derived from five basic emotions, namely happiness, disgust, fear, sadness, and anger, processing in the associative level (Power & Dalglish; 1997). According to this model, sadness and disgust are considered as the core of depression. Sadness is attributed to preoccupation with the loss of the overinvested and self-worth related goals; and it is assumed to be an associative-level experience that is combined with other basic emotions including fear and anger. On the other hand disgust is accounted as the basic emotion for more complex self-conscious emotions such as guilt, shame, and embarrassment that are related with the negative evaluation of self against some sort of standards or rules (Power & Dalglish; 1997).

Although there is a need of further empirical investigation for the mechanism of SPAARS; the relationship between these basic emotions and psychopathology has been repeatedly confirmed by different theoretical and practical studies. For instance, these self-conscious emotions driven by disgust are consistent with depressive symptoms including worthlessness and guilt (American Psychiatric Association, 2000; Beck, 1987). Anger is another basic emotion that is considered to be related with externalized problems such as conduct disorder, antisocial tendencies, and violence and internalized disorders such as depression and anxiety (Power & Dalgleish, 1997; Allan & Gilbert, 2002).

In spite of its universality and practicality in the assessment, the role of basic emotions in psychological symptoms cannot go beyond assumptions or indirect explanations; and also fails to provide underlying mechanisms. This dissatisfaction has inspired further investigations and to discover another group of emotions called self-conscious emotions that have been overshadowed for a long time.

1.1.1 Self-Conscious Emotions

Self-conscious emotions are also called as self-evaluative emotions primarily representing shame, guilt, pride, and embarrassment. Although most of the basic emotions are considered as common in most of the species, this group of emotions is assumed to be unique for human beings (Lewis, 1992). These emotions are quite powerful in regulating individuals' thoughts, emotional states, and also behaviors (Fischer & Tangney, 1995). The primary aim of this regulation seems to assist individual to be socialized with his/her surrounding and other people (Tracy & Robins, 2007). In this respect, self-conscious emotions are also accepted as "moral emotions", since they provide immediate feedback about social and ethical acceptability of self or a specific behavior (Tangney, Stuewig, & Mashek, 2007). At the same time, they are recognized as relatively private experience, since they are more associated with internal locus appraisals than external factors.

Unlike basic emotions, self-conscious emotions are not biologically automated; rather it is shaped by familial, social, and cultural contexts. Since birth, child is exposed to some rules, goals, and standards that he/she has to learn directly

or indirectly. These rules, goals, and standards eventually determine how the child should evaluate him/herself and actions (Lewis & Feiring, 1981). In that sense, the source of self-conscious emotions is the evaluation of self-relevant mental states based on these internalized rules and standards (Lewis, 2008; Lewis, Sullivan, Stranger, & Weiss, 1989). For instance, as a result of this evaluation, a person may appraise himself globally as successful (associated with hubris) or failure (associated with shame), or appraise specifically his behavior as wrong (associated with guilt) or right (associated with pride) (Lewis, 2008; Tracy & Robins, 2007).

Although it is not a simple process to distinguish different groups of emotion, there are major distinctive features of self-conscious emotions. The first feature is that self-conscious emotions require self-awareness and self-relevant mental representations in the personal, social, and relational contexts (Tracy & Robins, 2009). Secondly, while basic emotions emerge at birth; development of self-conscious emotions settles in later years of life. This is partly explained with third distinguishing feature referring that self-conscious emotions require more complex cognitive processes and evaluations (Lewis, 2008). According to Lewis (1991; 2003), two specific cognitive abilities are prerequisite for experiencing self-conscious emotions. These are the mental states about self (i.e. “*the idea of me*”) and the evaluation of self by comparing with some goals, rules, and standards relevant to self. As another distinctive feature, the primary function of basic emotions is directly focused on survival goals; whereas, adaptive role of self-conscious emotions is rather indirect (Tracy & Robins, 2009). They basically attend socialized needs particularly meeting social standards, behaving in a socially acceptable manner, conforming social status and roles, that all serve to prevent social rejection and promoting social belonging and harmony which in turn increase the probability to survive (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). The last distinctive aspect represents that unlike basic emotions, self-conscious emotions do not have universal recognizable facial expressions. They are more likely to be expressed by verbally rather than facial or bodily expression; and its verbal communication show great variety from one cultural context to another (Tracy & Robins, 2009).

Tracy and Robins (2009) proposed a process model of self-conscious emotions by emphasizing that since this group of emotions are not directly served to survival goals, its appraisal and response systems are also differed from other groups of emotions (see Figure 1). The first step in this model is the appraisal process. Accordingly, if a situation is evaluated as directly relevant to the survival goals, basic emotions are more likely to be prominent (Roseman, 2001). However, if the situation is appraised as more relevant to “self”, in the second step, attention is centered on self. This focused attention activates self-presentations that are essential for eliciting self-conscious emotions. Self-presentations refer to the attributions and cognitions relevant to self from different contexts, such as relational and personal, all of which constitute the sense of “identity”. If any situation is appraised as significant for identity goals, self-conscious emotions are generated (Tracy & Robin, 2009). The emergence of a specific self-conscious emotion is also associated with the appraisal of a situation regarding to identity goal congruence. In this step, if the evaluation of situation is congruent with one’s identity goals, positive emotions, specifically pride, is generated. On the contrary, if the appraisal of situation is inconsistent with one’s identity goals, negative emotions, including shame and guilt tend to be elicited. According to this model, another source of self-conscious emotions is causal attributions. Internal attributions are essential in producing self-conscious emotions. Specifically, internal attributions for behaviors congruent with one’s identity goals are associated with pride, whereas internal attributions for behaviors incongruent with one’s identity goals are related with shame and guilt (Lewis 2008; Tracy & Robin, 2009). Final discrimination of self-conscious emotions is progressed in terms of stability and globalization of these attributions. For instance, shame and hubristic pride are elicited from stable and global attributions, whereas, guilt is obtained from unstable and specific attributions (Tracy & Robins, 2009).

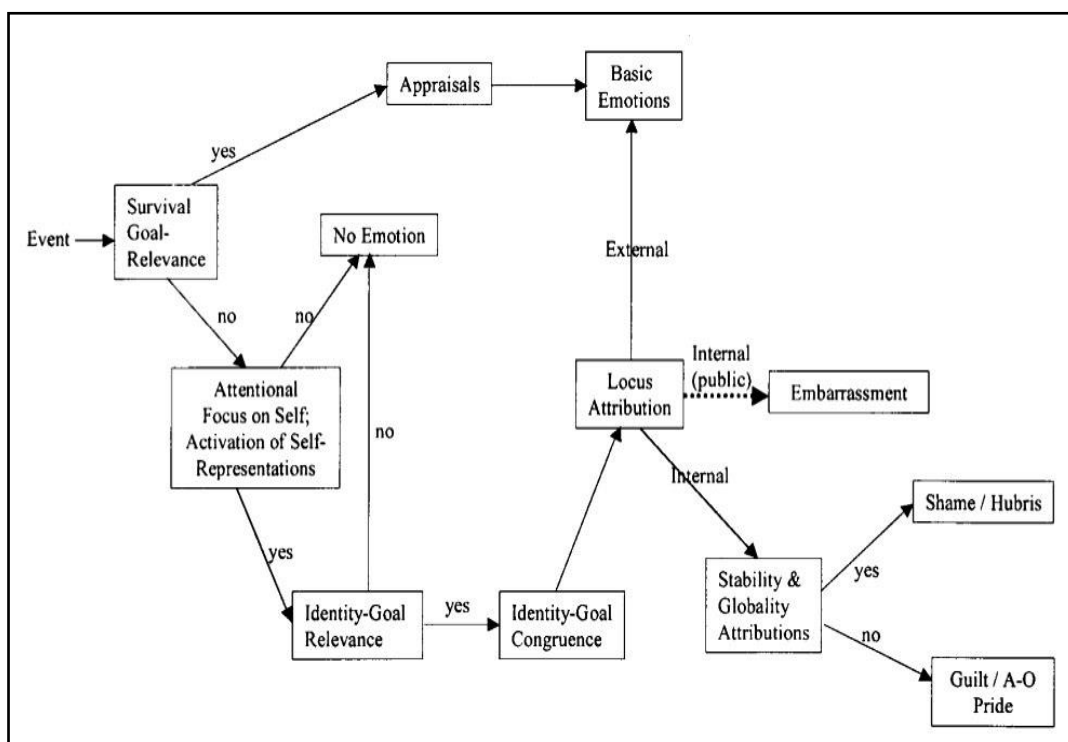


Figure 1. The Process Model of Self-Conscious Emotions. Adapted from “Putting the self into self-conscious emotions: A theoretical model” by J. L. Tracy and R. W. Robins, 2009, *Psychological Inquiry*, 15(2), p. 110.

To sum up, different self-conscious emotions are generated by three sets of process in the following order: the foundation of goals, rules and standards, the assessment of success and failure based on these established criteria. Additionally, the attribution of self is differed as internal and external in terms of responsibility, and as global versus specific in terms of generality (Lewis, 2008).

1.1.1.1 Differentiation of Self-Conscious Emotions

Recent empirical studies disconfirmed the earlier assumptions proposing that self-conscious emotions are differentiated from each other based on public or private experiences. In addition, it has been established that there is no clear

distinction in terms of situations that elicit specific emotion (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). Rather, self-conscious emotions are distinguished from each other based on cognitive attributions along two major domains: stability and globality (Tracy & Robins, 2007). Although these emotions have been also regarded as “moral emotions” since that they strongly motivate individuals to behave in accordance to socially desirable or acceptable manner; research findings revealed that their behavioral and motivational consequences are also quite dissimilar (Tangney, Stuewig, & Mashek, 2007).

One of the significant self-conscious emotions is pride. Pride is a pleasant experience resulted from positive evaluations of self-related actions. The focus of pride is specific and unstable attributions (e.g. “I am proud of what I did”) accompanied with feelings of pleasure, joy, and self-worth (Lewis, 2008). This kind of pride is also called “authentic” pride assumed to motivate individual to promote genuineness, self-efficacy, altruistic behaviors (Tracy & Robins, 2003a). On the other hand, opposite of this pride is also available, labeled as “hubris” (Lewis, 2008) or “alpha pride” (Tangney, Wagner, & Gramzow, 1992) that is associated with internal and stable attributions (e.g. “I am proud of myself”). It is also conceptualized as exaggerated pride where the focus is global self. However, unlike authentic pride, hubris is associated with fragile self-esteem, self-focused orientation, narcissistic patterns, hostility, self-destructive behaviors as well as interpersonal problems (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001; Tracy & Robins, 2003b).

Second major self-conscious emotion is shame resulted from global and stable attributions (Lewis, 1992). In shame proneness, because of these attributions, any failure of meeting a standard threatens the overall self (e. g. “I am wrong” or “I am a failure”) (Lewis, 1992; 2008). Therefore, it is such a painful emotion that individuals strongly attempts to avoid or to engage various actions to get rid of shame eliciting situations such as withdrawal, hiding, or repressing (Lewis, 1992; Tangney, Burggraf & Wagner, 1995). It is not uncommon for these individuals to have negative feelings including fear of intimacy, self-disgust, and blaming self and others (Lutwak, Panish, & Ferrari, 2002). Stable devaluation of self is also

associated with self-focused orientation that leads to incapability of empathy with others (Tangney & Dearing, 2002).

Since shame is conceptualized as global negative evaluation about entire self-system that is associated with intense emotional distress and also psychological problems (Tangney, & Ficher, 1995). To illustrate, shame is found to be significant in major depression (Cheung, Gilbert, & Irons, 2004), anxiety (Fergus, Valentiner, McGrath, & Jencius, 2010), paranoia (Matos, Pinto-Gouveia, & Gilbert, 2012), eating problems (Hayaki, Friedman, Brownell, 2002; Swan & Andrews, 2003), post-traumatic stress disorder (Robinaugh & McNally, 2010) and some personality features such as narcissism and borderline (Hawes, Helyer, Herlianto, & Willing, 2013; Hibbard, 1992). Furthermore, shame proneness is found to be positively correlated with externalizing problems, interpersonal problems, and also illegal issues (Tangney, Stuewig, Mashek, & Hastings, 2011; Tangney, Wagner, & Gramzow, 1992).

Lastly, guilt is associated with unstable and specific attributions (e.g. “I did something wrong” or “I failed to do something” (Lewis, 2008; Tangney & Dearing, 2002). Guilt is more complex than shame, because it requires ability to make distinction between self and behavior (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). Consistently, shame experience emerges at the first two years of life, whereas guilt experience is fully developed after the 8th year of life (Ferguson, Stegge, & Damhuis, 1991; Tangney & Dearing, 2002). Although guilt is also stemmed from negative evaluation for self’s actions, this distinction makes guilt to be less aversive emotion than shame (Lewis, 2008). In an attempt to avoid its unpleasant consequences, it is common for guilt prone individuals to make confessions, to accept responsibility, to apologize and to make efforts to repair (Lewis, 2008; Tangney, 2001).

The behavioral consequences of guilt are more likely to be positive and moral oriented by motivating individual to engage in reparative behaviors. Guilt as a disposition tends to increase the ability to understand other’s emotions and to have sense of responsibility (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). Consistently, it is positively associated with engaging in moral and prosocial behaviors, occupational functioning, and having better relationships. Unlike shame, it is less likely to be

associated with self-destructive motivation and psychopathology (Teroni & Deonna, 2008; Webb, Heisler, Call, Chickering, & Colburn, 2007).

On the other hand, some other theoreticians re-conceptualized guilt by emphasizing its multifaceted structure. Regarding this view, guilt may be maladaptive if it is exaggerated in terms of goal-comparison, sense of responsibility, and self-relation evaluations (O'Connor, Berry, Weiss, Bush & Sapsmon, 1997). It has been proposed that maladaptive guilt might be related to psychological distress, negative outcomes such as emotional instability, social isolation, and also sense of alienation (Bruno, Lutwak, & Agin, 2009; O'Connor, Berry, & Weiss, 1999).

Shame and guilt are two emotions that closely interact with anger experience but in different ways. In terms of anger related experiences, shame is positively associated with blaming, hostility, and resentment, whereas guilt is positively associated with taking responsibility and less anger sensitivity (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). In the case of anger arousal, shame-prone individuals tend to hide and hold their anger inside or to direct it to themselves. On the contrary, guilt-prone individuals tend to directly express them appropriately toward its target (Tangney, Wagner, Fletcher & Gramzow, 1992; Tangney, Wagner, Hill-Barlow, Marschall, & Gramzow, 1996).

1.1.2 Anger

Anger is the earliest emotion that human beings have ever experienced and certainly it is one of the strongest one. Its definition and its strength have been mentioned by philosophers, scientists, as well as spiritual doctrines throughout history; and there is still continuing debate about its conceptualization, and the determination of its essentials (Potegal & Novaco, 2010). Although anger is not specific to clinical area, research findings from clinical perspective have been mostly consistent in establishing the relationship between anger and psychological well-being. From this perspective, Spielberg (1999, p. 19) defined anger as “a psychobiological emotional state or condition that consists of feelings that vary in intensity from mild irritation of annoyance to intense fury or rage, accompanied by activation of neuro-endocrine processes and arousal of autonomic system”. Anger

experience is not limited to subjective feelings; rather it combines with physiological responses such as elevation in release of adrenaline hormone, blood pressure, increased heart rate and muscle tension (Stemmler, 2010).

Anger experience is especially triggered in the conditions of frustration, perceived injustice, and the perception of being attacked or treated unfairly (Spielberger, 1999). Unlike self-conscious emotions, anger is associated with external attributions in the case of identity goals incongruence (Tracy & Robins, 2009). On the other hand, there is a close relationship between anger experience and self-conscious emotions. For instance, shame is accompanied with anger in response to criticism (Hejdenberg & Andrews, 2011). It is a particularly strong emotion that its experience alerts various systems in the organism including neurological and physiological activation, physical sensations, other emotional feelings, cognitions, and behavioral action-tendencies (Potegal & Stemmler, 2010).

Although it is very discomforting emotion and it is quite difficult to control, it has adaptive and problem-solving role for survival under threat, so that anger related responses begin to appear at the first two month of life (Potegal & Stemmler, 2010). It is an approach-related emotion, that functions to mobilize internal sources, increase motivation and energize behavioral action, which all are associated with optimism, responsiveness, and also risk-taking (Anderson & Bushman, 2002). Anger experience is more likely to be followed by positive cognitions and attributions, such as self-confidence, power, increased attention, pride, and purposefulness (Litvak, Lerner, Tiedens, & Shonk, 2010). In spite of the functionality of anger, its dysregulation, characterized as excessiveness and inappropriateness in frequency, intensity, duration, and its expression; is found to be closely associated with wide range of clinical problems, such as psychotic disorders, mood disorders, anxiety disorders, substance use disorders, impulse control problems, and also personality problems (Novaco, 2010).

Anger is a multidimensional concept that has affective, behavioral, and cognitive components. Affective component represents angry related subjective experiences such as annoying, irritation or rage. Behavioral component refers to expression of anger. Its expression can be very harsh and overt such as aggression,

or it can be more adaptive or covert including communicating openly with others and holding in it without sharing (Cox & Harrison, 2008). Cognitive domain of anger is more related with information processing or appraisals which influence the perception and intensity of anger. One of the major cognitive components of anger is hostility that refers to negative attitudes accompanied with the intentions to harm (Spielberger, 1999).

Spielberger (1980, 1983, 1988) differentiated two forms of anger experience, namely state anger and trait anger. State anger refers to subjective feelings representing an emotional state that leads to arousal in psychobiological systems. Anger related feelings may vary depending on its intensity, such as annoyance or irritation to extreme rage or fury. Based on this intensity, anger related emotional state leads to activation of autonomic nervous system, which consequently stimulates physiological responses such as increase in heart rate, blood pressure, respiration, and muscle tension (Spielberger, 1996). State related feelings may be triggered at any situation depending on situational appraisal (Spielberger, 1999). On the other hand, trait anger indicates more stable pattern corresponding to predisposition to be angry (Spielberger, 1999). Accordingly, there are individual differences in terms of sensitivity, frequency, and intensity of anger experience. In that sense, trait anger refers to general tendency in which individuals with high trait anger are more likely to perceive situations as anger-provoking such as annoying or frustrating and to respond with heightened anger related feelings in these situations (Spielberger & Reheiser, 2010). Therefore, these two concepts are not distinct, since high trait anger is associated with more frequent and more intense state anger episodes (Spielberger, 1999).

In addition to these components, Spielberger (1996, 1999) conceptualized different anger expressions emphasizing that not only the level, but also the ways of expressing anger are closely associated with psychological well-being. According to that framework, anger control includes cognitive and behavioral efforts to prevent inappropriate anger expressions, as well as to manage anger related feelings and to diminish subjective arousal (Spielberger, 1999). Anger out is the expression of anger externally toward others; whereas anger in refers to internalizing anger by

directing it to self and suppressing or holding it in private (Spielberger, 1996). Suppressing anger is associated with negative self-evaluation and hopelessness (Allan & Gilbert, 2002).

Empirical studies revealed that the combinations of ways of expression anger with anger experience are linked to different physiological and psychological problems. For instance, high level of arousal in anger experience accompanied with inhibition of its expression is associated with increased blood pressure (Goldstein, Edelberg, Meier, & Davis, 1988), cardiovascular disease (Brosschot & Thayer, 1998), as well as chronic pain (Kerns, Rosenberg, Jacob, 1994) and pain sensitivity (Quartana & Burns, 2007). In terms of psychological problems, externalizing anger are related aggression, hostility and impulse control which in turn leads to impairment in relational and occupational problems (Kroner & Reddon, 1994) and behavioral problems (Hiew & Rayworth, 2005). On the other hand, inhibition of anger expression tend to be associated with internalizing problems such as depression and somatic problems (Koh, Kim, Kim & Park, 2005); anxiety (Biaggio, 2005); and eating disorders (Milligan & Waller, 2000).

1.2 Emotion Regulation

Emotions may be detrimental in the case of experiencing them in inappropriate context with too much intensity and duration (Levenson, 1994). Therefore, for healthy functioning, it is crucial to control both positive and negative emotions (Kring & Werner, 2004). Empirical studies revealed that inability to deal with emotions in daily life leads to more intense and persistent psychological distress so that this may be a risk factor for psychological disorders such as depression and anxiety (Mennin, Holoway, Fresco, Moore, & Heimberg, 2007). On the contrary, successful regulation of emotions is accepted as a protective factor that improves physical well-being, social relations, cognitive performance, and life-satisfaction (Gross & John, 2003).

The field of emotion regulation is not specific to clinical psychology; rather it is a multidisciplinary concept getting involved in developmental, cognitive, and biological as well as social psychology. On the other hand, over two decades; it has

gained great attention in psychopathology from psychoanalytic to cognitive perspectives. This is a broad concept which provides explanations not only about development and maintenance of psychological problems but also about the importance of emotion based psychotherapy in the treatment process (Mennin & Farach, 2007).

Emotion regulation is a complex process including experiencing, recognizing, expressing, and modulating emotions for everyday events. These processes may be operated automatic or consciously (Rottenberg & Gross, 2003); intrinsically (toward self-emotional experience) or extrinsically (toward other's emotional experience); and these are strongly interrelated with environmental, behavioral, physiological, and cognitive systems (Gross, 1998; 2001; Mauss, Cook, & Gross, 2007; Koole & Rothermund, 2011.). Each process is crucial for individual's social, psychological, and cognitive functioning by influencing the recognition and intensity of emotion like to what extent and under what conditions these emotions should be experienced, as well as its appropriateness of expression (Sloan & Kring, 2010).

1.2.1 The Process Model of Emotion Regulation

In an attempt to understand the dynamics of emotion regulation, Gross (1998a) emphasized an emotion-generative process model focusing on regulating both experience and expression of emotion. According to this model, regulation takes place from the creation of an emotion until the end of the activation of its response (see Figure 2).

In this model, emotional experience starts with the evaluation of internally or externally elicited emotional cues. Depending on this evaluation, simultaneous simulation of emotional response tendencies is activated in behavioral, physiological, and experiential systems. In the final step, these tendencies are also adjusted if necessary, and then emotional responses are fully experienced after this adjustment. This process is explained in two-level model in which emotions can be regulated by either manipulating the input or manipulating the emotional response

(Gross, 1998b). The first level called antecedent-focused regulation that refers to strategies engaged before the emotional experience is generated. After these response tendencies are fully elicited, second level called response-focused emotion regulation is triggered in which strategies focus on regulating these responses (Gross, 1998a).

This two-level model of regulation contains different forms of emotion regulation in which each form is composed of different regulatory strategies depending on the sequence of emotional progression (Gross, 1998a; b). Accordingly, antecedent-focused regulation includes firstly *situation selection* that refers to a decision making about avoiding or approaching a situation based on its potential emotional impact. Situation selection is operated based on the principle that individuals have a natural tendency to avoid the sources of negative emotions, and to approach those eliciting desirable emotions. Secondly, *situation modification* takes place with an aim to make direct changes in selected situation in order to elicit desirable emotional experiences (Werner & Gross, 2010). Thirdly, *attentional deployment* refers to cognitive process about focusing on different aspects of the situation. Most of the situations are complex which include many aspects and each aspect may have different emotional consequences. Selecting to focus on a specific aspect of a situation is the process of attentional deployment (Gross, 1998a; b). This process is adaptive if there is a balance between interpretational bias and objective view of a situation (Philippot, Baeyens, Douilliez, & Francart, 2004). After the selection of the cognitive aspect, then *cognitive change* can be operated for the possible meanings. This process is required to select a meaning of a situation that determines emotional responses (Gross, 1998a; b). The last step located in response-focused regulation is *response modulation*. It is the final step that is activated after the emotional response has been evoked. This final process aims to directly influence behavioral, experiential, and physiological tendencies of emotional experience (Gross, 1998a; b).

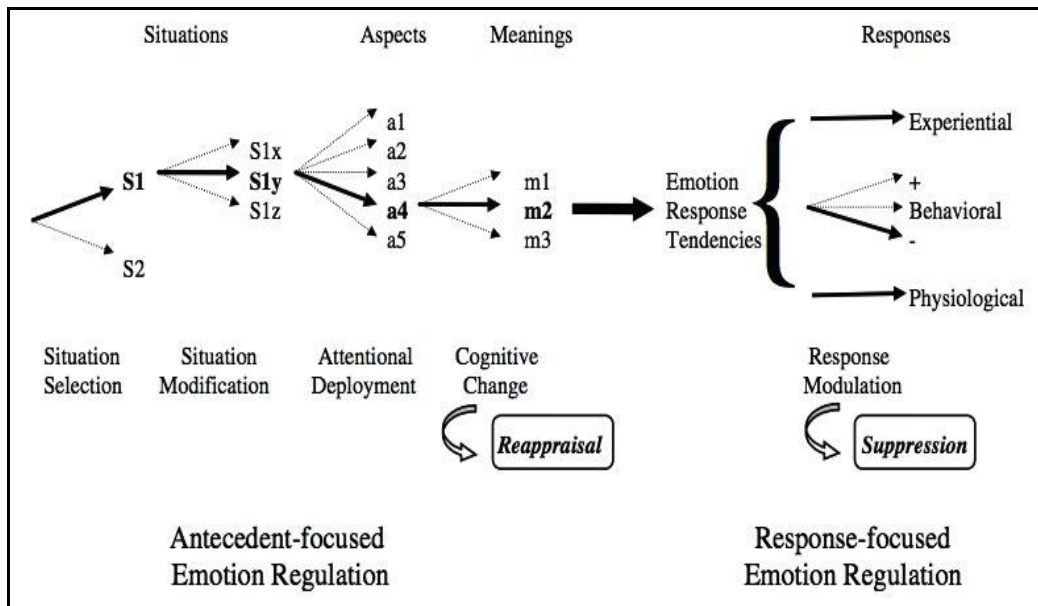


Figure 2. A Process Model of Emotion Regulation. Reprinted from “The emerging field of emotion regulation: An integrative review” by J. J. Gross, 1998, *Review of General Psychology*, 2(3), p. 282.

Each process in this model involves variety of regulatory strategies, but particularly two of them are very significant, namely cognitive reappraisal and suppression. Individuals use these two strategies very frequently in daily life, but they have very diverse consequences and their focus is quite distinct (John & Gross, 2004). Cognitive reappraisal is a form of antecedent-focused emotion regulation referring to cognitive reevaluation of situation in order to modify its eliciting emotional impact (Lazarus, 1991; Lazarus & Alfert, 1964). On the other hand, suppression is a form of response-focused emotion regulation processed in response modulation with an attempt to inhibit enduring emotion-expressive behavior (Gross & Levenson, 1993). Cognitive reappraisal influence emotional response tendencies to be generated or not, whereas, suppression is about the modification of emotional response tendencies that have been already activated (John & Gross, 2004).

1.2.2 Emotion Dysregulation

In terms of management of emotions, dysregulation refers lack of abilities to decrease negative influence of emotional responses participated in emotional over sensitivity and reactivity (Neacsiu, Bohus, & Linehan, 2013). Linehan, Bohus and Lynch (2007) also described persistent emotion dysregulation as excessive emotional arousal, impairment in physiological and cognitive processing, inability to distract attention from source of emotional distress, impulse control difficulty for emotional responses, and pursuing long term goals independently from emotional arousal. It is suggested that dysregulation may affect whole emotional functioning involving cognitive, experiential, physiological, and cognitive subsystems (see Figure 3).

The relationship between emotion regulation dysregulation and psychopathology has been empirically validated among both child and adult studies. Accordingly, impairment in emotion regulation is strongly found to be related with depression and anxiety disorders (Campbell-Sills & Barlow, 2007; Kring & Sloan, 2010; Mennin, Holaway, Fresco, Moore, & Heimberg, 2007), eating disorders (Harrison, Sullivan, Tchanturia, & Treasure, 2009), personality disorders (Linehan, 1993; Wagner & Linehan, 1999), and also drug use (Wong, Silva, Kecojevic, Schragar, Bloom, Iverson, & Lankenau, 2013). Emotion dysregulation may be resulted from either persistent and rigid patterns of maladaptive strategies across different situations or difficulty in adaptive regulation (Werner & Gross, 2010).

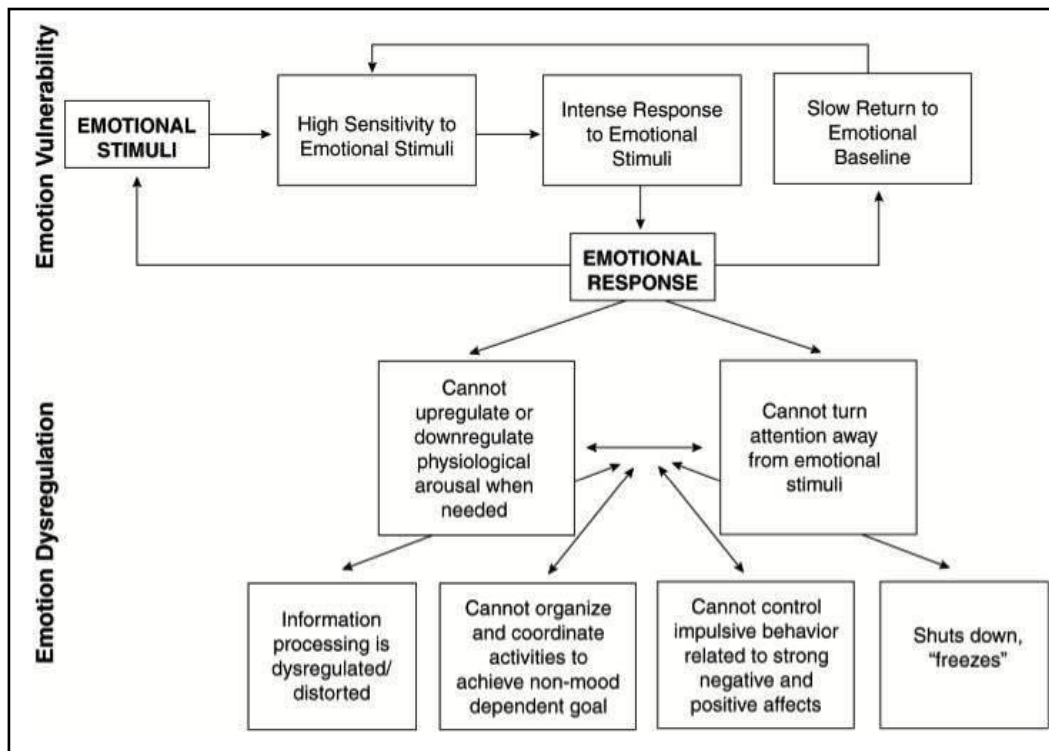


Figure 3. Pervasive Emotion Dysregulation Schematic. Reprinted from *Handbook of Emotion Regulation* (p. 584) by M.M. Linehan, M. Bohus, & T.R. Lynch, 2007, New York, NY: The Guilford Press.

1.2.2.1. Maladaptive Emotion Regulation Strategies

In daily routine, individuals engage in mixture of regulatory strategies for both positive and negative emotional reactions. These strategies may show diversity across different situations and emotional reactions (Gross, 1998a; b). Some strategies are considered as adaptive that may have direct influence on personal, relational, occupational as well as psychological functioning and satisfaction (Rottenberg & Johnson, 2007). Werner and Gross (2010) identified four major steps for adaptive regulation, these steps in an order are; to pause the emotional reactions, to notice clearly on one's emotional experience, to decide whether it is more appropriate to control a situation or internal state, and as the final step, to follow clearly defined long term goals. Adaptive strategies guide individuals to experience

and differentiate own and others' emotions as well as to attenuate and cope with negative emotional experiences. A strategy is recognized as adaptive if it is flexible and it includes contextually appropriate emotional modification in a way of serving long term goals (Barett, Gross, Christensen, & Benvenuto, 2001; Diamond & Aspinwall, 2003).

Some of the major adaptive strategies are specified as acceptance and problem solving in different situations and for variety of emotions. Acceptance is an effortless strategy referring to let the emotion to be experienced without any attempt to modify or to suppress (Valdivia-Salas, Sheppard, & Forsyth, 2010). Empirical studies revealed that high level of acceptance and tolerance for negative emotions contribute to mental health and better psychological outcome (Berking, Wupperman, Reichardt, Pejic, Dippel, & Znoj, 2008, Greenberg, 2002), whereas inability to accept negative emotional experience is significant in anxiety disorders (Mclaughlin, Mennin, Farach, 2007; Tull & Roemer, 2007), substance use (Tull, Schulzinger, Schmidt, Zvolensky, Lejuez, 2007) and personality disorders (Gratz, Rosenthal, Tull, & Lejuez, 2006). For treatment of emotional disorders, there is growing interest for mindfulness-based therapies focusing on to be fully aware and experience all kinds of emotions and internal states without judgment or trying to change them (Segal, Williams & Teasdale, 2002; Shapiro & Schwartz, 1999).

Problem solving is another adaptive strategy involving conscious attempts such as planning and searching for possible solutions in order to deal with the source of the distress rather than directly focusing on regulating emotion (Lazarus, 1991; 1993). Lack of problem solving skills is associated with eating disorders (VanBoven & Espelage, 2006), depression (Aldao, Nolen-Hoeksema, & Schweizer, 2010), and also substance use (Cooper, Russell, Skinner, Frone, & Mudar, 1992).

On the other hand, some strategies are considered as maladaptive, since they simply fail to manage negative emotions effectively or fail to change the emotional responses favorably (Werner & Gross, 2010). In addition, they result in lack of control or over-control of emotional experience and expression (Calkins & Dedmon, 2000). Maladaptive emotion regulation strategies may contribute many

psychological and behavioral symptoms. For instance, suppression, avoidance, and rumination are identified as maladaptive especially leading to internalizing disorders such as depression and anxiety (Aldao, Nolen-Hoeksema, & Schweizer, 2010). Suppression is conceptualized as inhibition of emotional experience and hiding of emotion expression as well as negative thoughts (Gross, 1998a; b; Wenzlaff & Wegner, 2000). Avoidance includes both behavioral coping for distressful situations and cognitive strategies for negative emotions and thoughts (Hayes, Strosahl, & Wilson et al., 2004). In terms of behavioral coping, avoidance takes place in the process of situation selection (Werner & Gross, 2010). Maladaptive situation selection is recognized in anxiety and mood disorders such that persistent avoidance lead to decrease in effective coping skills and opportunity for positive experiences, leading to more social isolation, impoverished life quality, and consequently, worry and negative mood become chronic (Borkovec, Alcaine, & Behar, 2004; Campbell- Sills & Barlow, 2007). From cognitive perspective, any attempt to avoid unpleasant internal state paradoxically may lead to increase in its intensity, emotional reactivity, and to become persistent if it is inflexible and contextually inappropriate (Sloan, 2004; Wegner, 1994). Dysfunctional role of avoidance is established in behavioral problems (Kingston, Clarke, & Remington, 2010), anxiety disorders (Kashdan, Barriosb, Forsyth, & Steger, 2006; Marx & Sloan, 2005), depression (Cribb, Moulds & Carter, 2006), and substance use (Forsyth, Parker, & Finlay, 2003).

In contrast to avoidance, rumination refers to repetitively focusing on the causes and consequences of an emotional experience or a stressful situation in a dysfunctional way (Watkins, 2008). Rumination is a metacognitive regulation in which an individual engages in order to understand the causes of unwanted situation, in order to prevent this event to happen again or to be prepared in the future by taking necessary causations (Wells, 2000). This is a dysfunctional strategy, because centering attention on negative experience or threat leads intensification of distress, impairment in effective problem-solving skills and experiencing corrective emotion (Fisher & Wells, 2009; Wells & Matthews, 1996). Rumination is found to be related with many psychological problems, including

depression (Wells, 2009) and anxiety (Wells & Carter, 2001), as well as eating problems and substance use (Nolen-Hoeksema, Stice, Wade, & Bohon, 2007).

Gross (1998a) proposed that timing of regulatory strategies is very important in effectiveness. Accordingly, antecedent-focused strategies that focus on regulating emotional tendencies before eliciting are much more adaptive than response-focused strategies which are used after the emotional tendencies are generated. Particularly, cognitive reappraisal as an effortful antecedent-focused strategy refers to cognitive reevaluation of the situation directed to increase the impact of positive emotion or to decrease the effect of negative emotion (Gross, 2001). Functional reappraisals of situations are very adaptive in increasing positive affect, quality of interpersonal relationship and psychological well-being and life-satisfaction (Gross & John, 2003). Consistently, effective reappraisal has been emphasized in the treatment procedures in cognitive therapy perspectives (Beck, 1976; Beck, Rush, Shaw, & Emery, 1979).

On the other hand, a specific response-focused strategy named as suppression referring to emotional inhibition or expressive suppression is considered as maladaptive, because it paradoxically leads to increased negative emotions (Hayes, 2004; Marcks & Woods, 2005). Suppression is a dysfunctional strategy associated with impairment in well-being and interpersonal relations (Gross & John, 2003). For instance, depression is more likely to be related with suppression and impairment in attenuation or modulation of emotions; while reappraisal is a protective factor for depressed mood (Brockmeyer, Bents, Holtforth, Pfeiffer, Herzog & Friederich, 2012; Dennis, 2007; Liverant, Brown, Barlow & Roemer, 2008).

1.2.2.2 Difficulty in Emotion Regulation

Besides the maladaptive strategies in dealing with emotion, there is another perspective of emotion regulation emphasizing that emotion regulation is a complex process that is not limited to simply controlling or changing an emotion (Thompson, 1994). This multidimensional model reframes emotion regulation entailing as

awareness and acceptance of emotions, controlling impulsive responses in order to pursue goals, and also employing flexible and appropriate regulatory strategies for emotion modulation. According to this model, adaptive regulation should contain all these dimensions, and subsequently, lack of any of these elements causes difficulty in emotion regulation (Gratz & Roemer, 2004).

Empirical studies revealed that difficulty in emotion control is associated with more post-traumatic stress symptoms and negative affect (Ehring & Quack, 2010; Tull, Barrett, McMillan, Roemer, 2007). In addition, some specific difficulties are more significant for some psychological disorders than others. Lack of emotional awareness is found to be a contributing factor for unpredictability and uncontrollability in fear acquisition (Bouton, Mineka, & Barlow, 2001). Coherently, from a perspective of vulnerability, it is pointed that anxiety sensitivity tends to be more significant in heightened worry and anxiety arousal in the case of less acceptance of emotional distress (Kashdan, Zvolensky, & McLeish, 2008). Similarly, the experience of uncued panic attack and generalized anxiety disorders are found to be positively related with both lack of emotional acceptance and clarity (Mennin, Heimberg, Turk, & Fresco, 2005; Tull & Roemer, 2007).

Limited studies pointed to an interrelated mechanism of negative emotions and emotion regulation across psychopathology. For instance, adolescence's life satisfaction is found to be negatively associated with anger and poor reappraisal (Mitrofan & Ciuluvica, 2012). Another study indicated that shame and projective guilt are positively related with emotional suppression and self-blame among children with more psychological and behavioral symptoms (Ferguson et al., 1999). Consistently, anger and embarrassment are linked to emotion regulation impairment that results in an increment in destructive risk-taking behaviors (Leith & Baumeister, 1996). However, there is a lack of an extensive model that explains the association between specific emotions and emotion dysregulation corresponding to development and maintenance of psychological symptoms.

1.3 Parenting Styles

In order to achieve a comprehensive framework for vulnerability factors of psychological symptoms, the role of parental responses and attitudes toward children where the root of both emotions and emotion regulation has been embedded and has evolved, should not be underestimated. Consistently, there is a body of empirical research having stated that parent-child interaction has crucial influence on the child's functioning and subsequent psychological health in adulthood. This interaction is formed along three distinct but interrelated dimensions. The first aspect involves parenting practices referring to specific parental behaviors and responses toward children. These practices may show variety depending on the external and internal motives such as context and goals of the interaction (Darling & Steinberg, 1993). Second aspect refers to parenting styles which are more extensive than child rearing behaviors. They involve parent's cognitions, attributions, emotions toward the child and also parenting values and attitudes (Berg-Nielsen, Vikan, & Dahl, 2002). The last domain is family environment referring general interactions within a family system that include communication patterns, boundaries, and interpersonal conflict (Morris, Silk, Myers, & Robinson, 2007).

In general pattern, healthy psychological development is strongly influenced by parental environment providing emotional warmth and affection, supporting autonomy, avoiding criticism and excessive control (Berg-Nielsen, Vikan, & Dahl, 2002; Rapee, 1997). Especially parental attitudes such as emotional warmth and support, psychological autonomy and affect expression are considered as adaptive, whereas some others including criticism, psychological control, overprotection and rejection are maladaptive in the relation to psychological problems (Rapee, 1997; Rommel, Nandrino, Ducro, Anrieux, Delecourt, & Antoine, 2012; Wood, McLeod, Sigman, Hwang, & Chu, 2003). Specifically, parental rejection and overprotection are found to be positively associated with worry (Brand, Hatzinger, Beck, & Holsboer-Trachsler, 2009; Brown & Whiteside, 2008), obsessive-compulsive disorder (Alonso, et al., 2004), depression and anxiety (Anlı & Karşlı, 2010; Baker

& Hoerger, 2012; Fentz, Arendt, O'Toole, Rosenberg, & Hougaard, 2011; Yoshizumi, Murase, Murakami, & Takai, 2007). In addition, perceived parental criticism and psychological control are associated with relational aggression, borderline personality traits as well as eating problems (Cheavens et al., 2005; Kawabata, Alink, Tseng, van Ijzendoorn, & Crick, 2011; Topham et al., 2011).

The effects of parenting responses and styles on adulthood psychopathology can be enlightened with emotion regulation system. There is a consistent literature pointing out that emotion regulation has a mediator role in the relation between parental reactions and adulthood psychopathology (Baker & Hoerger, 2012). From the developmental perspective, emotion-regulation skills are based on both intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Intrinsic factors are related with physiological system, temperament, and biological predisposition (Eisenberg & Morris, 2002). On the other hand, external factors consist of all kinds of social interactions between primary care giver and child, additionally, parental reactions to child's emotional responses (Fox & Calkins, 2003).

Infant's efforts for regulating emotions begins with birth; and during the first year these efforts are mostly controlled by autonomic physiological mechanisms, for instance crying as a response to discomfort or sucking as a response to pleasure (Kopp & Neufeld, 2003). After the first year, a transition from passive to active ways of emotional process takes place; and the child purposefully begins to use specific strategies to manage affective states in responding to external world (Calkins & Dedmon, 2000). During the both passive and active phases, child is extremely sensitive to primary-care giver's responses in dealing with internal state (Sroufe, 2000). Especially in the encounter of threat or distress, parent's emotional coaching, acceptance, and responsiveness are very crucial for the child to manage intense and detrimental emotional states (Thompson, 1994). Adulthood strategies for regulating emotions mostly depend on these repetitive interactions and continuously influence individual's later functioning (Sroufe, 2000).

There is a contemporary framework, named as, tripartite model formulating three dyadic paths of development of emotion regulation influenced by parental

dynamics (Morris, et al., 2007). According to this model, all paths are interacting with each other and also interdependent with child and parent personal characteristics in influencing adjustment related outcomes. In this model, the first path is to acquire ability to regulate emotions through observing and modeling others' emotional experiences and expressions.

In the second path, child's regulatory skills are directly shaped by parental behaviors and reactions to child's emotional responses (Morris, et al., 2007). Parental practices that are directed to socialization of emotion during childhood are very critical in later development of emotional experience and emotion regulation. In that sense, this socialization includes parent's reactions to child's positive and negative emotions, parental communication about emotions and parent's expression of emotions (Eisenberg, Cumberland & Spinrad, 1998; Morris, et al., 2007). Eisenberg et al. (1998) also proposed a heuristic model suggesting that parental practices toward child's emotional system influence child's understanding and differentiating own emotions, regulatory ways for emotion related responses, quality of relationship with others, as well as mental representations about internal and external world. From the developmental perspective, adopting healthy regulation is linked to parental support and flexibility in responding to child's emotional experiences and expressions (Sroufe, 2000). On the other hand, punitive and neglecting responses to children's emotions are associated with maladaptive regulatory strategies such as avoidance or seeking revenge (Jones, Eisenberg, & Fabes, 2002; Eisenberg, Fabes, & Murphy, 1996). However, considering the multifaceted structure of this relationship, it should be noted that both quality of parental socialization and its consequences to child's emotion regulatory strategies are affected by many other factors. Some of the major moderators are the type and the intensity of emotions of the child and parent; appropriateness of the child's or parent's emotional experiences and expressions; family environment; child's characteristics such as sex, temperament; quality of parental communication and also consistency of parental responses (Eisenberg, et al., 1998; Morris, et al., 2007).

In the third path, child’s emotional system is influenced by emotional context of the family representing attachment quality, parenting styles, and quality of relationship (see Figure 4) (Morris, et al., 2007). In terms of emotional climate of the family, particularly, parenting styles referring to primary care givers’ relatively stable attitudes and practices towards the child in various contexts have strong impact on child’s behavioral, physiological, and psychological functioning in later life (Darling & Steinberg, 1993). Positive parenting styles such as providing emotional warmth and supporting affective expressions have positive impact on emotion recognition and adaptive modulation from childhood to adulthood; whereas negative styles including over-control and rejection, are related to emotion inhibition, suppression, avoidance, and rumination (Coggins & Fox, 2009; Gottman, Katz & Hooven, 1997; Meesters & Muris, 2004).

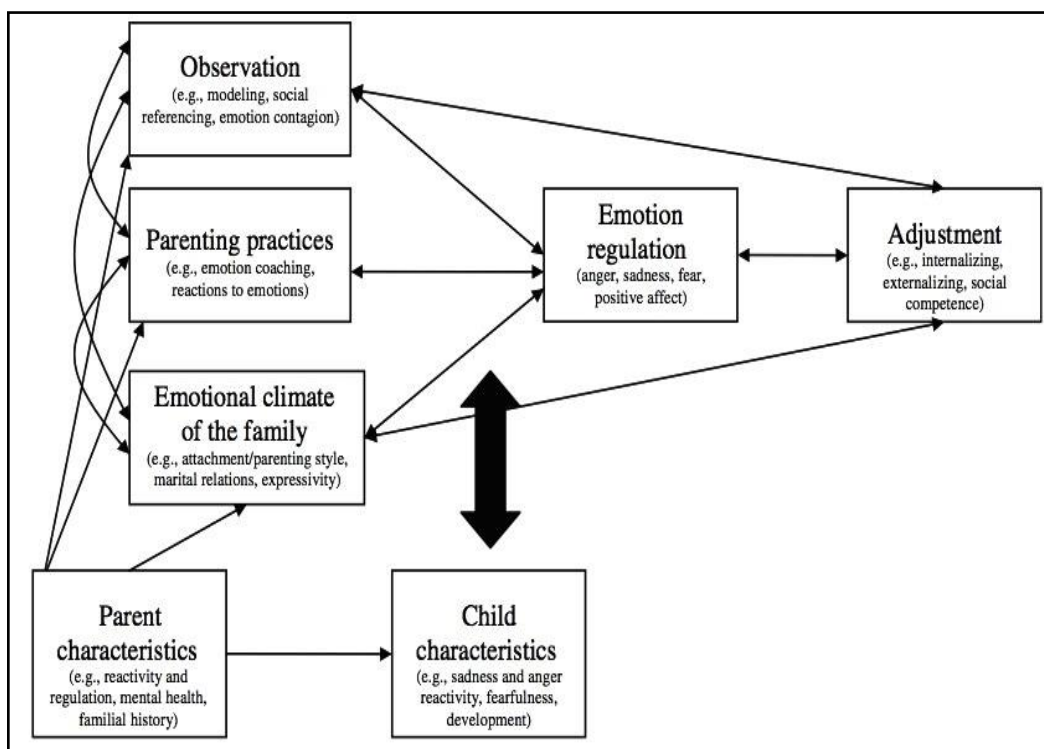


Figure 4. Tripartite Model of the Impact of the Family on Children’s Emotion Regulation and Adjustment. Reprinted from “The role of family context in the development of emotion regulation” by A. S. Morris, J. S. Silk, L. Steinberg, S. S. Myers, and L. R. Robinson, 2007, *Social Development*, 16(2), p. 362.

As an attempt to achieve an integrative framework in the relationship between negative parenting styles and psychological symptoms, the examination of the role of negative emotions and emotion regulation is essential. For instance, childhood maltreatment is significantly associated with emotion dysregulation which in turn leads to more severe borderline personality traits (Gratz et al., 2008). Another study indicated that parental neglect and punishment towards child's sadness tend to increase individual's deliberate self-harm tendency and depression by cultivating more negative emotions and evaluations such as sadness as a complaint, anger toward self because of feeling sad, fear of rejection because of sadness, and fear of uncontrollability (Boucher, Lecours, Philippe, & Arseneault, 2013; Buckholdt, Parra, & Jobe-Shields, 2009). In addition, parental emotional rejection is likely to impair individuals' capacity of intimacy and this impairment is mediated by emotional dysregulation referring to difficulties in both task and emotion focused strategies (Roth & Assor, 2012).

The role of emotions in these mediation models still need to be clarified, however, the effect of family on the development of individuals' emotional system is a firmly supported issue. Rather than specific parental practices, parental attitudes and stable practices have more direct influence on the socialization of child's emotional system (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). To illustrate, anger and hostility in adolescents tend to increase with insecure attachment referring to parental rejection, control and inconsistency as well as lack of emotional warmth (Muris, Meesters, Morren, & Moorman, 2004; Troisi & D'Argenio, 2004). Regarding the development of self-conscious emotions, childhood guilt is attributed to parental blame, inductive discipline, and angry responses to negative situations; whereas childhood shame is connected with parental hostility, humiliation, conditional love, and also lack of parental care and appreciation (Tangney & Dearing, 2002).

Retrospective studies also revealed adult's shame memories are strongly related with controlling, demanding, neglectful, and affectionless family interactions (Gross & Hansen, 2000; Lutwak & Ferrari, 1997; Pulakos, 1996). These early shame promoting experiences may have an impact on adulthood

depression and relational problems (Gilbert, Allan & Goss, 1996; Scarnier, Schmader, & Lickel, 2009). In terms of underlying processing, shame-based traumatic events lead to increase in maladaptive emotion regulation strategies such as intrusion, rumination, suppression, and dissociation which in turn lead to more depressive symptoms (Matos, Pinto-Gouveia, & Costa, 2013). However, there is a lack of comprehensive framework investigating the impact of different parenting styles on psychological symptoms related to specific emotions and emotion dysregulation.

1.4 Aims of the Study

Although the role of excessive, uncontrollable, and inappropriate emotions in the development of psychological symptoms has been empirically validated, there is a lack of comprehensive picture investigating the underlying mechanisms of this relationship and the source of dysfunctional emotional experience. In an endeavor to test all-inclusive model, the current study has focused on three major psychological symptoms, specifically, depression, trait anxiety, and worry.

Depression is one of the most common psychological problems and also a comorbid condition to various psychological and physiological disorders throughout the world (Andrade & Caraveo, 2003; Kessler, Berglund, & Demler, 2003). It is characterized as dysphoric mood accompanied with loss of pleasure, lack of energy, eating and sleep disturbance, suicidal thoughts, and sense of worthlessness (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). Trait anxiety is described as a relatively stable state like being agitated and distressed, the perception of possibility of future danger, and lack of sense of control. It refers to chronic condition that has biological or psychological components rather than stemming from temporal responses to external factors (Spielberger, Gorsuch, & Lushene, 1970). Therefore, trait anxiety is characterized as individual's proneness to anxiety and is associated with various anxiety disorders (Barlow, 2000). Worry is a cognitive process concerned with possible future threats or danger. Excessive worry refers to pathological worry that is characterized as preoccupation with negative thoughts. Pathological worry representing uncontrollable anticipation of negative thinking, results in interference

to individuals functioning (Mennin, Heimberg, Turk, & Fresco, 2002). It is also critical for most of the anxiety disorders, particularly for obsessive-compulsive disorders, generalized anxiety disorder, panic disorder and phobias (American Psychiatric Association, 2013).

In the light of present literature review, the present study has the following aims:

- (1) To examine the possible differences revealed by demographic variables, specifically, gender, employment status, living style, father's education, mother's education on the measures of emotional experience, particularly self-conscious emotions (i.e. shame proneness, externalization, detachment, dutifulness, and situational guilt), trait anger and anger expressions (i.e. anger in, anger out, anger control); on the measures of emotion regulation (i.e. cognitive reappraisal and suppression) and difficulties in emotion regulation (i.e. lack of emotional awareness, lack of emotional clarity, non-acceptance of emotional response, limited access to effective ER strategies, inability to engage in goal directed behavior, and impulse control difficulties); on the measures of perceived parenting styles (i.e. mother's emotional warmth, mother's rejection, mother's overprotection, father's emotional warmth, father's rejection, and father's overprotection); and on the measures of psychological symptoms (i.e. depression, trait anxiety, and worry).
- (2) To examine the factors including perceived parenting styles (i.e. mother's emotional warmth, mother's rejection, mother's overprotection, father's emotional warmth, father's rejection, and father's overprotection), and emotional experience (i.e. self-conscious emotions, trait anger, and anger expressions) associated with difficulties in emotion regulation (i.e. lack of emotional awareness, lack of emotional clarity, non-acceptance of emotional response, limited access to effective ER strategies, inability to engage in goal directed behavior, and impulse control difficulties).

- (3) To examine the factors including perceived parenting styles (i.e. mother's emotional warmth, mother's rejection, mother's overprotection, father's emotional warmth, father's rejection, and father's overprotection); emotional experience (i.e. self-conscious emotions, trait anger, and anger expressions); and difficulties in emotion regulation (i.e. lack of emotional awareness, lack of emotional clarity, non-acceptance of emotional response, limited access to effective ER strategies, inability to engage in goal directed behavior, and impulse control difficulties) associated with psychological symptoms (i.e., depression, trait anxiety and worry).
- (4) To examine the moderator role of emotion regulation (i.e., cognitive reappraisal and suppression) on the association between emotional experience (i.e., self-conscious emotions, trait anger and anger expressions) and psychological symptoms (i.e., depression, trait anxiety and worry).

Based on these aims, primary research questions and related hypotheses of the study are as follows (see Figure 5):

Question 1: What are the associates of difficulties in emotion regulation?

Hypothesis 1.1: Negative parenting styles (e.g., maternal and paternal rejection and overprotection) will be associated with more emotion regulation difficulties.

Hypothesis 1.2: Specific parenting styles will be significant as unique predictors of difficulties in emotion regulation.

Hypothesis 1.3: The higher levels of emotional experience (e.g., self-conscious emotions and anger) will be related with more emotion regulation difficulties.

Hypothesis 1.4: Specific emotions will be significant as unique predictors of difficulties in emotion regulation.

Question 2: What are the associates of psychological symptoms?

Hypothesis 2.1: Negative parenting styles (e.g., maternal and paternal rejection, and overprotection) will be related with more psychological problems.

Hypothesis 2.2: Specific parenting styles will be significant as unique predictor of psychological problems.

Hypothesis 2.3: The higher levels of negative emotional experiences (e.g., shame and trait anger) will be related with more psychological problems.

Hypothesis 2.4: Specific emotions will be significant as unique predictor of psychological problems.

Hypothesis 2.5: Emotion regulation difficulties will be associated with more psychological problems.

Hypothesis 2.6: Specific emotion regulation difficulties will be significant for decrease and increase in specific psychological problems.

Question 3: What are the influences of various emotion regulation strategies in the relation between emotions and psychological symptoms?

Hypothesis 3.1: The association between negative emotions and psychological problems will be moderated by different kinds of emotion regulation strategies. In other words, the associations between negative emotions and psychological problems will vary with different kinds and levels of adopted regulation strategies.

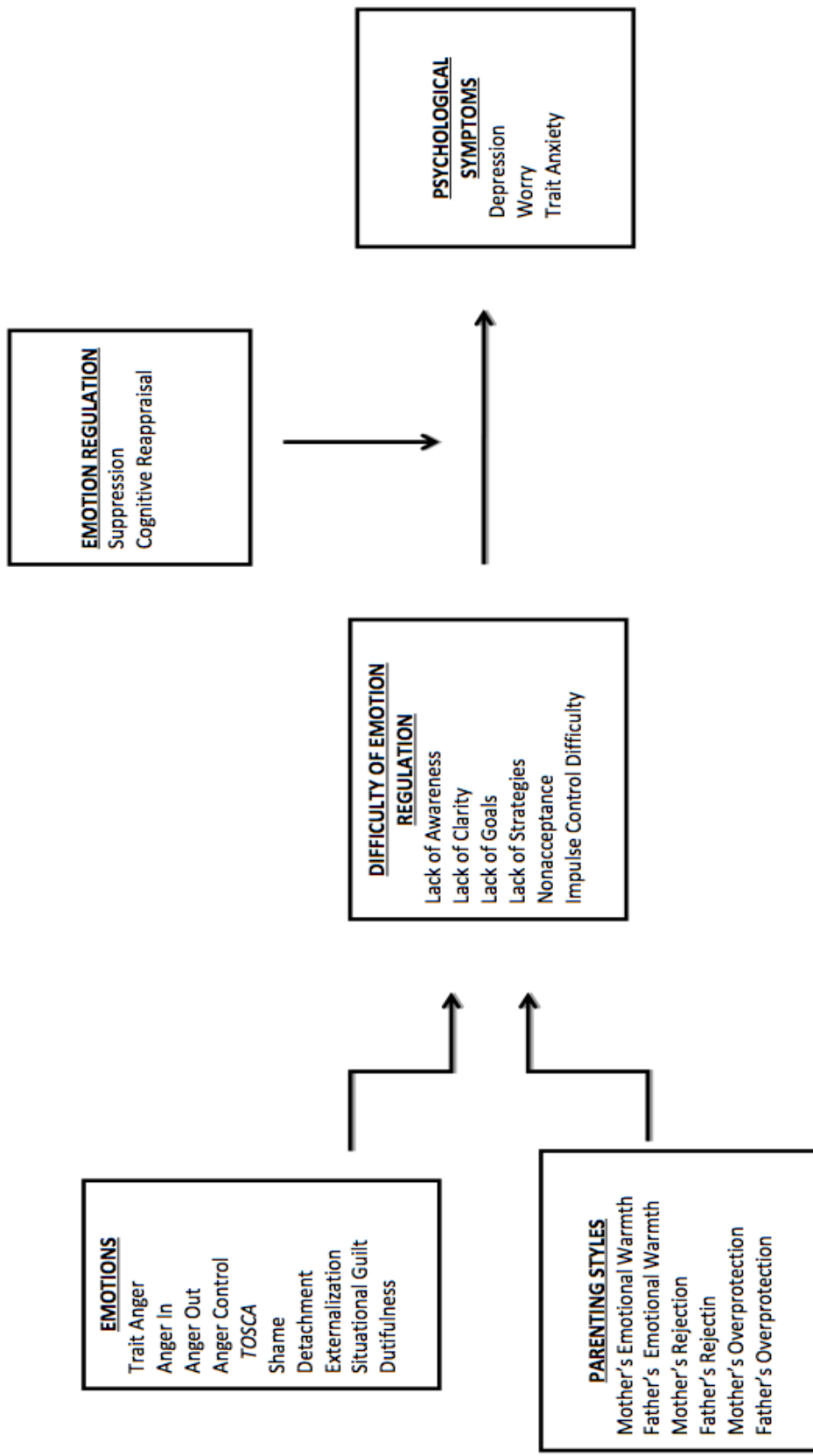


Figure 5. The model that will be tested in the current study: The factors associated with psychological problems including the roles of parenting styles, emotional experiences and emotion dysregulation

CHAPTER II

METHOD

2.1 Participants

Current study was carried out with 544 participants who voluntarily agreed to complete the set of questionnaires. The age range was between 18 and 50 ($M = 26.52$, $SD = 7.30$). 408 of the participants were female (75%) and 136 of them were male (25%). In addition, 81.6% of the participants ($N = 444$) took part in the study via using web site and 18.4% of them ($N = 100$) participated via paper-pencil application.

Participants were recruited from either Ankara or Istanbul by using snowball technique. In terms of employment status, 49.5% were students ($N = 268$) and 50.5% were employed ($N = 273$). Furthermore, 59.6% of the participants ($N = 324$) lived with their parents, 24.1% of them ($N = 131$) stayed with friends, 14.5% of them ($N = 79$) lived alone, and 1.8% of the participants ($N = 10$) stayed with relatives.

In terms of education level, 1.1% ($N = 6$) were graduates of elementary school, 7.2% ($N = 39$) were graduates of high school, 71.3% ($N = 388$) were university students or university graduates, and 20.4% ($N = 111$) were post-graduates. Regarding mother's education, 5% ($N = 25$) were illiterate, 4.4% ($N = 24$) were literate but not graduated from primary school, 28.7% ($N = 156$) were graduates of primary school, 11.6% ($N = 63$) were graduates from middle school, 23.9% ($N = 130$) were graduates of high school, 24.8% ($N = 135$) were graduates of university, and 1.7% ($N = 9$) were post-graduates. According to father's education,

0.6% ($N = 3$) were illiterate, 2.8% ($N = 15$) were literate but not graduated from primary school, 19.7% ($N = 107$) were graduates of primary school, 9.2% ($N = 50$) were graduates of middle school, 29% ($N = 158$) were graduates of high school, 34% ($N = 185$) were graduates of university, and 4.6% ($N = 25$) were post-graduates.

Finally as for the past and current psychological problems of the participants, 28.1% of them ($N = 153$) had taken psychological or psychiatric help at least once in lifetime, 71.9% ($N = 391$) had never taken any psychological or psychiatric help.

Among these demographic features, response style, employment status, living style, mother's education and father's education were examined as the effects demographic variables on measures used in the study because of their relatively acceptable distributions. The effect of gender was also taken into the consideration in spite of unequal distributions, since it was one of the major demographic features. Demographic characteristic of the participants were listed in detail in Table1.

Table 1. Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

Variables	<i>N</i>	%
Response Style		
Paper-Pencil	100	18.4
Online	444	81.6
Gender		
Female	408	75
Male	136	25
Education Level		
Elementary school	6	1.1
High school	39	7.2
University	388	71.3
Postgraduate	111	20.4
Employment Status		
Student	268	49.5
Employed	273	50.5
Living with		
Parents	324	59.6
Friends	131	24.1
Relatives	10	1.8
Alone	79	14.5
Mother's Education		
Illiterate	25	5
Literate	24	4.4
Primary school	156	28.7
Middle school	63	11.6
High school	130	23.9
University	135	24.8
Postgraduate	9	1.7
Father's Education		
Illiterate	3	0.6
Literate	15	2.8
Primary school	107	19.7
Middle school	50	9.2
High school	158	29
University	185	34
Postgraduate	25	4.6
Age	<i>M</i> = 26.52	<i>SD</i> = 7.39

2.2 Materials

Measurement instruments for the present study included Demographic Information Form (see Appendix B), State-Trait Anxiety Inventory-Trait Form (see Appendix C), Penn State Worry Questionnaire (see Appendix D), Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale (see Appendix E), Trait Anger – Anger Expression Inventory (see Appendix F), Test of Self-Conscious Affect-3 (see Appendix G), Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (see Appendix H), Short - Egna Minnen Beträffande Uppfostran -Own Memories of Upbringing (see Appendix I), Beck Depression Inventory (see Appendix J).

2.2.1 Demographic Information Form

Demographic information form was structured by the researcher in order to receive information about participants' age, gender, education level, employment status, living style, parental education level, and the presence of past or current psychological/psychiatric problems and its treatment.

2.2.2 Short - Egna Minnen Beträffande Uppfostran (Own Memories of Upbringing)

Short- Egna Minnen Beträffande Uppfostran (EMBU-Own Memories of Upbringing) was developed to assess adult's perceptions of parental rearing practices in childhood (Perris, Jacobsson, Lindström, von Knorring, & Perris, 1980). Short version of this scale includes 23 items covering perceptions of mothers' and fathers' responses and behaviors separately. Items are rated on a four-point Likert scale ranging from 1 "never" to 4 "most of the time", based on three domains, namely, emotional warmth, overprotection, and rejection. Emotional warmth refers to parental responses like providing care, love, and attention. On the other hand, rejection consists of parental hostile, punitive, and also abusive attitudes and behaviors. As the third dimension, overprotection refers to parental attitudes including intrusive regulation, high standards, and rigid expectancy for compliance of rules (Arrindell, et al. 1999). The scale had satisfactory reliability and validity across different cultural and national settings (Arrindell et al. 1999; 2005).

Turkish version of the scale was adapted by Karancı, et al. (2006). The scale had high internal consistencies for maternal emotional warmth (alpha coefficient is .75), overprotection (with alpha coefficient of .72) and rejection (with alpha coefficient of .64) subscales, as well high reliability for paternal emotional warmth (alpha coefficient is .79), overprotection (with alpha coefficient of .73) and rejection (with alpha coefficient of .71) subscales (Dirik, Yorulmaz, & Karancı, 2014).

2.2.3 Test of Self-Conscious Affect-3

Test of Self-Conscious Affect-3 (TOSCA-3) was developed to measure proneness to shame, externalization, detachment, guilt, and pride (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). This is an scenario-based measure containing 11 negative and 5 positive scenarios in which responses are rated on a five-point Likert scale from 1 “not likely” to 5 “very likely”. Items are clustered in six different dimensions at each scenario, specifically, shame proneness that refers to negative evaluation of the global self, guilt proneness referring to negative evaluation of the one’s own behavior, externalization that refers to the tendency of blaming others for the consequences of one’s own action, detachment referring to the lack of emotional involvement in situations, alpha pride referring to the positive evaluation of the global self and beta pride referring to the positive evaluation of the one’s own behavior (Tangney, Dearing, Wagner, & Gramzow, 2000). The scale had satisfactory validity and reliability coefficients ranging from .48 to .78 (Tangney & Dearing, 2002).

The Turkish version of this scale was adapted by Motan (2007) in which items loaded basically in five domains, namely, shame proneness (alpha coefficient was .81), externalization referring to avoid responsibility or blame others (alpha coefficient was .75), detachment referring to be unconcerned (alpha coefficient was .67), dutifulness referring to feel responsible (alpha coefficient was .73), and situational or contextual guilt (alpha coefficient was .71). Turkish version of this scale had also good test-retest reliability, revealing range of the coefficients between .61 and .88 (Motan, 2007).

2.2.4 Trait Anger – Anger Expression Inventory

Trait Anger – Anger Expression Inventory (TAXI) was developed to measure the experience and the expressions of anger (Spielberger, Jacobs, Russel, & Crane, 1983). The scale has 10 items assessing trait anger and 24 items assessing three styles of anger expression, namely anger in (i.e. internalizing anger) that refers to hold anger in without expressing it or to direct it toward self, anger out (i.e. externalizing anger) that refers to display anger toward its target; and anger control that refers to ability to manage anger and to control its expression. Items rated on a four-point Likert scale from 1 “almost never” to 4 “almost always”. The scale indicated good internal consistency with alpha coefficients ranging from .73 to .84. In addition, the measure had satisfying construct and criterion validity in which high level of anger was found to be correlated with increased hostility, as well as cardiovascular problems (Spielberger, Johnson, Russel, Crane, Jacobs, & Worden (1985).

Turkish version of the scale was adapted by Özer (1994) with high internal consistencies for trait anger (alpha coefficient was .79), anger in (alpha coefficient was .62), for anger out (alpha coefficient was .78), and anger control (alpha coefficient was .84). In terms of discriminant, criterion, and construct validity, studies revealed that anger experience was significantly associated with both anxiety and depressive symptoms. Furthermore, patients having problems related to blood pressure were significantly differentiated from healthy individuals in terms of anger experience and ways of expressing anger (Özer, Erer, Kocabaş, & Canberk, 1994).

2.2.5 Emotion Regulation Questionnaire

Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (ERQ) was designed to assess two major emotion regulation strategies, specifically, cognitive reappraisal referring to modifying the way of thinking about a situation in an attempt to decrease emotional impact and suppression referring to inhibition of emotional expression (Gross & John, 2003). The scale consists 10 items rated on a seven-point Likert scale ranged between 1 “strongly disagree” and 7 “strongly agree” pointing satisfactory internal

consistency (coefficient for cognitive reappraisal was .79; and coefficient for suppression was .73); and also test-retest reliability (with a coefficient of .69).

The Turkish version of this scale was adapted by Yurtsever (2008). This adaptation revealed that Cronbach's alpha coefficient for cognitive reappraisal was .85 and coefficient for suppression was .78, as well as satisfactory construct and criterion validity. In addition, test-retest reliability for these subscales was acceptable (coefficient for cognitive reappraisal was .88, coefficient for suppression was .82).

2.2.6 Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale

Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale (DERS) was developed to assess difficulties in different emotion regulation strategies, consisting of 36 items rated on a five-point Likert scale valued from 1 "almost never" to 5 "almost always" based on six domains, specifically, lack of emotional awareness referring to difficulty in consciously experiencing negative affect, lack of emotional clarity referring to difficulty in differentiation of emotional responses, non-acceptance of emotional responses referring, limited access to effective ER strategies, inability in engaging goal directed behavior referring to difficulty in pursuing long-term goals when negative affect is experienced, and impulse control difficulties referring to difficulty in managing emotional responses (Gratz & Roemer, 2004). The scale indicated good psychometric properties with Cronbach's alpha as .93 for total scale, alphas for internal consistencies of these subscales ranged from .80 to .89, as well as good test-retest reliability (coefficient as .88).

The Turkish version of this scale was adapted by Rugancı and Gençöz (2010) with satisfactory reliability and validity properties indicating that scores of DERS were different between individual experiencing high psychological distress and those experiencing low distress. Turkish translations of some of the items were revised by Kavcıoğlu and Gençöz (2011) and this final version revealed strong reliability and validity coefficients.

2.2.7 State-Trait Anxiety Inventory-Trait Form

State-Trait Anxiety Inventory-Trait form (STAI-T) is made up of 20 items assessing individual's proneness to anxiety (Spielberger, Gorsuch, Lushene, 1970). The items are rated on a four-point Likert scale ranging from 1 "not at all" to 4 "very much so" according to how respondent usually feels about the statements. Internal consistency (with alphas ranged from .86 to .95) and test-retest reliability (with alphas ranged from .65 to .75) coefficients were very satisfying (Spielberger, Gorsuch, Lushene, Vagg, & Jacobs, 1983). Turkish version of the scale was translated by Öner and Lecompte (1985). Turkish version revealed internal consistency coefficients ranging from .83 to .87 and test-retest reliability ranging from .71 and .86, in which scores of trait anxiety were found to be significantly different between clinical sample and nonclinical control group indicating strong criterion validity.

2.2.8 Beck Depression Inventory

Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) was designed to measure severity of depression related with the affective, cognitive, behavioral, and motivational symptoms as well as suicidal thoughts (Beck, Rush, Shaw, & Emery, 1979). The scale has 21 items rated on a four-point Likert scale. The reliability of the scale with alpha coefficient was stated as .86 in clinical populations and .81 in nonclinical population (Beck, Steer, & Garbin, 1988). The Turkish version of this scale was adapted by Hisli (1989) with similar and satisfactory psychometric properties.

2.2.9 Penn State Worry Questionnaire

Penn State Worry Questionnaire (PSWQ) was developed to assess proneness to worry referring to uncontrollability of worry, in terms of its frequency and intensity (Meyer, Miller, Metzger, & Borkovec, 1990). The scale includes 16 items rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 "not typical at all" to 5 "very typical". Psychometric properties of the scale were satisfactory in terms of reliability and validity coefficients establishing in which individuals with generalized anxiety disorder were significantly differentiated from other anxiety

groups including obsessive compulsive disorder via PSWQ (Brown, Antony, & Barlow, 1992).

The Turkish version of the scale was adapted by Yılmaz, Gençöz, and Wells (2008) and this adaptation yielded high internal consistency (with Cronbach's alpha .91), Guttman split-half reliability (.91), test-retest reliability (with alpha .88), as well as good convergent validity.

2.3 Procedure

Before administration of the instruments, the proposal was submitted to Middle East Technical University Human Subjects Ethic Committee (HSEC). Following the approval of HSEC data collection was started. A group of questionnaire was applied to volunteer participants via prepared online survey or paper pencil by using snowball technique. Participants were well informed about the aim and the procedure of the study through signing informed consent. It took participants approximately 40-50 minutes to complete the measurements.

2.4 Analyses

In the present study, in order to investigate differences among the levels of demographic variables on the measures, independent samples t-test, ANOVA and MANOVA were carried out. In addition, a zero order correlation was conducted among the measures of the study (i.e., psychological symptoms, emotion regulation, variety of emotional experience and perceived parenting styles). Following that, associates of difficulties in emotion regulation and associates of different psychological symptoms were examined via series of regression analyses. Finally, in order to test different moderation models, series of moderation analyses were performed by using macro written by Hayes and Matthes (2009).

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

3.1 Descriptive Information for the Measures of the Study

In order to examine the descriptive characteristics of the measures means, standard deviations, and minimum-maximum ranges were provided for Short - Eigna Minnen Beträffande Uppfostran (EMBU-Own Memories of Upbringing) with subscales of emotional warmth, overprotection and rejection for both mother and father, Test of Self-Conscious Affect-3 (TOSCA-3) with subscales of shame proneness, externalization, detachment, dutifulness and situational guilt; The State-Trait Anger Scale (STAS) with subscales of trait anger and three styles of anger expression namely anger in, anger out and anger control; Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (ERQ) with subscales of cognitive reappraisal and suppression; Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale (DERS) with six subscales including lack of emotional awareness, lack of emotional clarity, non-acceptance of emotional responses, limited access to effective ER strategies, inability in engaging goal directed behavior and impulse control difficulties, State-Trait Anxiety Inventory-Trait Form (STAI-T); Beck Depression Inventory (BDI); Penn State Worry Questionnaire (PSWQ) (see Table 2).

Table 2. Descriptive Information for the Measures

	Measures	<i>N</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Min – Max Values
EMBU					
Mother					
	Emotional Warmth	544	20.78	4.40	7 – 28
	Overprotection	544	20.95	5.35	9 – 36
	Rejection	544	9.95	3.33	7 – 26
Father					
	Emotional Warmth	544	19.27	4.92	7 – 28
	Overprotection	544	19.54	5.63	9 – 42
	Rejection	544	9.93	3.60	7 – 27
TOSCA 3					
	Shame Proneness	544	45.45	10.41	16 - 74
	Externalization	544	34.00	7.93	16 - 69
	Detachment	544	30.57	6.15	10 - 45
	Dutifulness	544	48.18	6.63	20 - 60
	Situational Guilt	544	24.44	5.80	9 - 40
TAXI					
	Trait Anger	544	20.82	5.70	11 – 40
Anger Expression					
	Anger In	544	16.79	4.55	8 – 32
	Anger Out	544	15.97	3.59	8 – 30
	Anger Control	544	23.04	5.04	8 – 44
ERQ					
	Cognitive Reappraisal	544	25.59	5.77	7 – 42
	Suppression	544	19.25	4.20	5 – 28

Note: EMBU = Short - Egna Minnen Beträffande Uppfostran (Own Memories of Upbringing), TOSCA-3 = Test of Self-Conscious Affect-3, TAXI = Trait Anger – Anger Expression Inventory, DERS = Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale, STAI-T = State-Trait Anxiety Inventory-Trait Form, PSWQ = Penn State Worry Questionnaire, BDI = Beck Depression Inventory.

Table 2. Descriptive Information for the Measures (continued)

Measures	<i>N</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Min – Max Values
DERS				
Lack of Emotional Awareness	544	21.67	4.02	6 – 30
Lack of Emotional Clarity	544	18.88	3.74	5 – 25
Non-acceptance of Emotion Response	544	12.05	5.21	6 – 30
Limited Access to Effective ER strategies	544	17.72	6.91	8 – 39
Inability to Engage in Goal Directed behavior	544	14.61	4.84	5 – 25
Impulse Control Difficulties	544	12.48	5.14	6 – 30
STAIT	544	43.21	8.71	22 – 71
PSQW	544	46.60	12.43	17 – 80
BDI	544	10.16	8.38	0 – 43

Note: DERS = Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale, STAI-T = State-Trait Anxiety Inventory-Trait Form, PSWQ = Penn State Worry Questionnaire, BDI = Beck Depression Inventory.

3.2 Psychometric Properties of the Scales

In terms of the psychometric characteristics of the measures, internal consistency (alpha) coefficients and range for item-total correlations were reported for all scales and their subscales (if available) (see Table 3).

3.2.1 Psychometric Properties of the Short - Eegna Minnen Beträffande Uppförelsen (EMBU-Own Memories of Upbringing)

EMBU - Own Memories of Upbringing scale was examined for subscales of rejection, overprotection and emotional warmth for maternal and paternal responses differently. Regarding to mother related subscales: for rejection Cronbach's alpha was .79; and item total correlations ranged between .33 and .60. Cronbach's alpha for the subscale of overprotection was .79; and the range of item total correlation was between .31 and .68. For the subscale of emotional warmth, Cronbach's alpha was .82; and item total correlations ranged from .37 to .71.

According to father related subscales: Cronbach's alpha for the subscale of rejection was .81; and the range of item total correlation was between .29 and .65. For the subscale of overprotection Cronbach's alpha was .77; and item total correlations ranged from .27 to .59. For the subscale of emotional warmth, Cronbach's alpha was .85; and item total correlations ranged between .44 and .74.

3.2.2 Psychometric Properties of the Test of Self-Conscious Affect-3 (TOSCA-3)

Test of Self-Conscious Affect-3 (TOSCA-3) had five subscales, namely, shame proneness, externalization, detachment, dutifulness, and situational guilt. For the subscale of shame proneness Cronbach's alpha was .82; and item total correlations ranged from .12 to .63. For the subscale of externalization Cronbach's alpha was .69; and item total correlations ranged between .17 and .44. The Cronbach's alpha of the detachment was .70; and the range of item total correlations was between .23 and .51. For the subscale of dutifulness, Cronbach's alpha was .76; and item total correlations ranged between .12 and .54. The Cronbach's alpha of the situational guilt was .67; and the range of item total correlations was between .27 and .41.

3.2.3 Psychometric Properties of the Trait Anger-Anger Expression Inventory Scale (TAXI)

Trait Anger-Anger Expression Inventory had a subscale for trait anger and three subscales measuring three styles of anger expression namely, anger in, anger out, and anger control. For the subscale of trait anger, Cronbach's alpha was .86; and item total correlations ranged between .35 and .66. Regarding the styles of anger expression, Cronbach's alpha of anger in was .77; and item total correlations ranged from .31 to .61. For the subscale of anger out, Cronbach's alpha was .72; and the range of item total correlation was between .31 and .61. Finally, Cronbach's alpha of anger control was .86; and item total correlation ranged from .45 to .72.

3.2.4 Psychometric Properties of the Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (ERQ)

Emotion Regulation Questionnaire was rated separately for cognitive reappraisal and suppression. For the subscale of cognitive reappraisal, Cronbach's alpha was .60 and item total correlations ranged between .17 and .37. For the subscale of suppression, Cronbach's alpha was .52; and item total correlations ranged from .02 to .46.

3.2.5 Psychometric Properties of the Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale (DERS)

Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale consisted of six subscales, specifically, lack of emotional awareness, lack of emotional clarity, non-acceptance of emotional responses, limited access to effective ER strategies, inability in engaging goal directed behavior, and impulse control difficulties. Cronbach alpha for the subscale of lack of emotional awareness was .76, and item-total correlation range was between .39 and .63. For the subscale of lack of emotional clarity, Cronbach's alpha was .86; and item total correlations ranged from .55 to .76. For the subscale of non-acceptance of emotional responses Cronbach's alpha was .89; and item total correlations ranged between .63 and .78. For the subscale of limited access to effective ER strategies, Cronbach's alpha was .90; and item total correlations ranged from .55 to .77. For the subscale of inability in engaging goal directed behavior Cronbach's alpha was .89; and item total correlations ranged between .57 and .81. Lastly, for the subscale of impulse control difficulties, Cronbach's alpha was .89; and item total correlations ranged from .52 to .82.

3.2.6 Psychometric Properties of the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory-Trait Form (STAI-T)

For State-Trait Anxiety Inventory-Trait Form, the alpha coefficient was found as .89; and item total correlations ranged between .33 and .64.

3.2.7 Psychometric Properties of the Beck Depression Inventory (BDI)

For Beck Depression Inventory, the alpha coefficient was revealed as .88; and the range on item total correlation was between .12 and .68.

3.2.8 Psychometric Properties of the Penn State Worry Questionnaire (PSWQ)

For, Penn State Worry Questionnaire (PSWQ), the alpha coefficient was found to be .93; and item correlations ranged from .33 to .80.

Table 3. Psychometric Properties of the Measures Used in the Study

	Internal Consistency (alpha) Coefficients	Item – Total Correlations Range
EMBU		
Mother		
Emotional Warmth	.82	.37 - .71
Overprotection	.79	.31 - .68
Rejection	.79	.33 - .60
Father		
Emotional Warmth	.85	.44 - .74
Overprotection	.77	.27 - .59
Rejection	.81	.29 - .65
TOSCA3		
Shame Proneness	.82	.12 - .63
Externalization	.69	.17 - .44
Detachment	.70	.23 - .51
Dutifulness	.76	.12 - .54
Situational Guilt	.67	.27 - .41
TAXI		
Anger Expression		
Anger Experience	.86	.35 - .66
Anger In	.77	.31 - .61
Anger Out	.72	.07 - .54
Anger Control	.86	.45 - .72

Note: EMBU = Short - Egna Minnen Beträffande Uppfostran (Own Memories of Upbringing), TOSCA-3 = Test of Self-Conscious Affect-3, TAXI = Trait Anger - Anger Expression Inventory, DERS = Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale, STAI-T = State-Trait Anxiety Inventory-Trait Form, PSWQ = Penn State Worry Questionnaire, BDI = Beck Depression Inventory

**Table 3. Psychometric Properties of the Measures Used in the Study
(continued)**

		Internal Consistency (alpha) Coefficients	Item – Total Correlations Range
ERQ			
	Cognitive Reappraisal	.60	.17 - .37
	Suppression	.52	.02 - .46
DERS			
	Lack of Emotional Awareness	.76	.39 - .63
	Lack of Emotional Clarity	.86	.55 - .76
	Non-acceptance of Emotional Response	.89	.63 - .78
	Limited Access to Effective ER strategies	.90	.55 - .77
	Inability to Engage in Goal Directed behavior	.89	.57 - .81
	Impulse Control Difficulties	.89	.52 - .82
STAIT		.89	.33 - .64
PSQW		.93	.33 - .80
BDI		.88	.12 - .68

Note: DERS = Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale, STAI-T = State-Trait Anxiety Inventory-Trait Form, PSWQ = Penn State Worry Questionnaire, BDI = Beck Depression Inventory.

3.3 Differences of Demographic Variables on the Measures of the Study

In order to examine how demographic variables differentiate on the measures (i.e., measure of perceived parental styles, measures related to emotion regulation, measures related to emotions, and well-being measures) in the present study, separate t-test and multivariate analysis of variances were conducted. In an attempt to analyze demographic variables as independent variables, initially they were categorized into two or three groups. This categorization and the number of cases in each group (with their percentages) were given in Table 4. As mentioned before, for a clear categorization rather than age, employment status was utilized as

an indication of social status of the participants. Consistently, results obtained from this analysis were interpreted based on the age differences as well. Subsequently, differences of these categorized demographic variables were examined on psychological symptoms, parenting styles, variety of emotions and emotion regulation.

Table 4. Categorization of the Demographic Variables

Variables	<i>n</i>	%
Gender		
Female	408	75
Male	136	25
Employment Status		
Student	268	49.5
Employed	273	50.5
Living Style		
with Parents	324	59.6
Other (with friends, with relatives or alone)	220	40.4
Mother's Education		
Low (graduate of elementary school or below)	270	49.6
Moderate (graduate of high school)	130	23.9
High (graduate of university or above)	144	26.5
Father's Education		
Low (graduate of elementary school or below)	175	32.2
Moderate (graduate of high school)	158	29.1
High (graduate of university or above)	210	38.7

3.3.1 Differences of Demographic Variables on Trait Anxiety

Differences of gender, employment status, living style, mother's education, and father's education on the level of trait anxiety were examined.

3.3.1.1 The Effect of Gender on Trait Anxiety

In order to examine the effect of gender (i.e., female and male) on trait anxiety, independent samples t-test was performed. The results revealed that gender

had significant effect on trait anxiety, $t(542) = 3.54, p < .001$. Accordingly, females ($M = 43.97$) reported higher level of trait anxiety than males ($M = 40.95$).

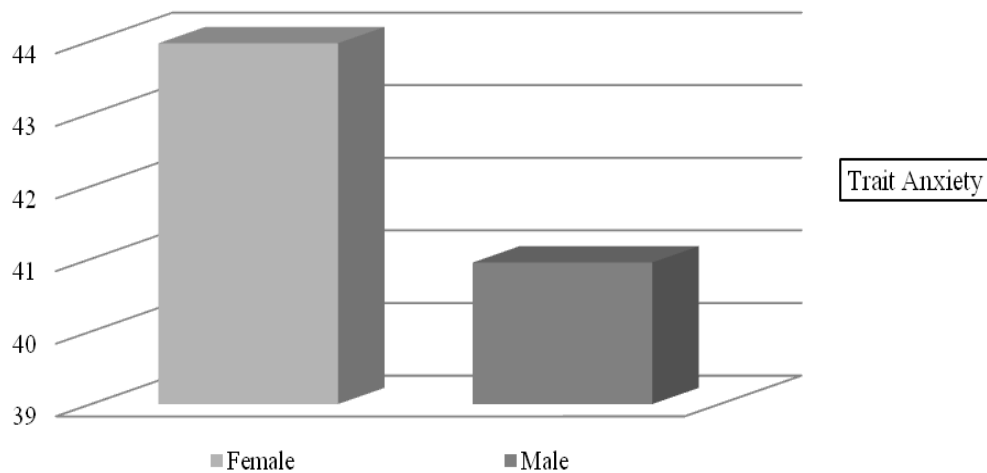


Figure 6. Mean Scores of Gender on Trait Anxiety

3.3.1.2 The Effect of Employment Status on Trait Anxiety

In order to examine the effect of employment status (i.e., student and employed) on trait anxiety, independent samples t-test was conducted. The results revealed that employment status had significant effect on trait anxiety, $t(539) = 2.00, p < .05$. Accordingly, students ($M = 43.97$) reported higher level of trait anxiety than employed participants ($M = 42.47$).

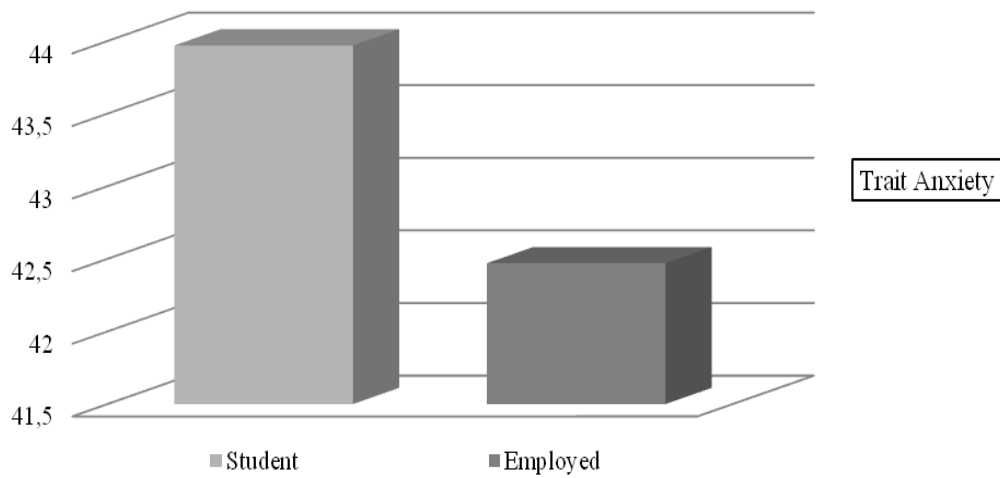


Figure 7. Mean Scores of Employment Status on Trait Anxiety

3.3.1.3 The Effect of Living Style on Trait Anxiety

In order to examine the effect of living style (living with parents, and living with friends, with relatives, alone) on trait anxiety, independent samples t-test was performed. The results revealed that living style had significant effect on trait anxiety, $t(542) = -1.93, p \leq .05$. Accordingly, individuals living with their parents ($M = 42.62$) reported lower level of trait anxiety than individuals living with friends, with relatives or alone ($M = 44.08$).

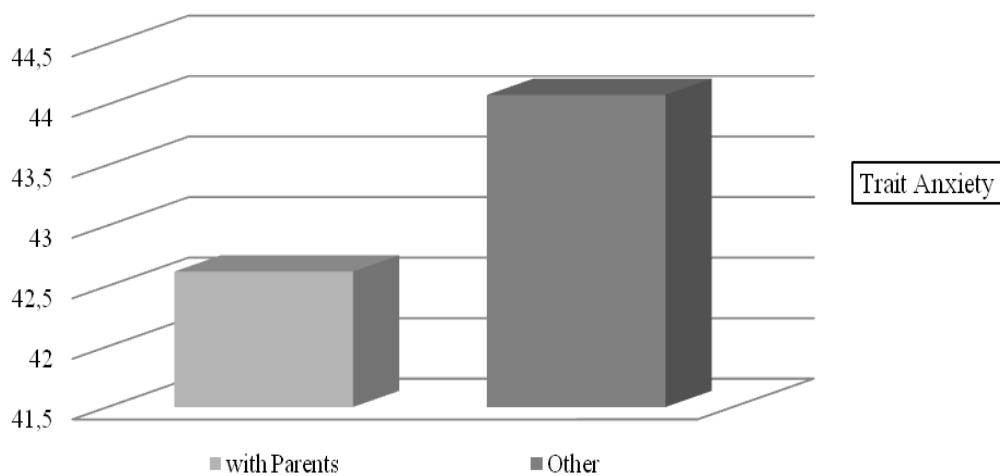


Figure 8. Mean Scores of Living Style on Trait Anxiety

3.3.1.4 The Effect of Mother's Education on Trait Anxiety

In order to examine the effect of mother's education (i.e., low, moderate, and high) on trait anxiety, one-way ANOVA was carried out. Results revealed that mother's education [Univariate $F(2, 541) = 1.44$, ns.] did not have a significant main effect on trait anxiety. Since Univariate F was not significant, post-hoc comparisons were not examined.

Table 5. ANOVA for Mother's Education and Trait Anxiety

Source	<i>df</i>	SS	MS	<i>F</i>
Between	2	218.29	109.44	1.44
Within	541	40989.79	75.77	
Total	543	41175.10		

3.3.1.5 The Effect of Father's Education on Trait Anxiety

In order to examine the effect of father's education (i.e., low, moderate, and high) on trait anxiety, one-way ANOVA was carried out. Results revealed that father's education [Univariate $F(2, 540) = 1.25$, ns.] did not have a significant main effect on trait anxiety. Since Univariate F was not significant, post-hoc comparisons were not examined.

Table 6. ANOVA for Father's Education and Trait Anxiety

Source	<i>df</i>	SS	MS	<i>F</i>
Between	2	189.08	94.54	1.25
Within	540	40986.02	75.90	
Total	542	41175.10		

3.3.2 Differences of Demographic Variables on Depression

Differences of gender, employment status, living style, mother's education, and father's education on the level of depression were investigated.

3.3.2.1 The Effect of Gender on Depression

In order to examine the effect of gender (i.e., female and male) on depression, independent samples t-test was carried out. The results revealed that there was no significant difference between females and males in terms of depressive symptoms, $t(542) = 1.68$, ns.

3.3.2.2 The Effect of Employment Status on Depression

In order to examine the effect of employment status (i.e., student and employed) on depression, Independent Samples t-test was carried out. The results revealed that there was no significant difference between students and employed individuals in terms of depressive symptoms, $t(539) = 1.37$, ns.

3.3.2.3 The Effect of Living Style on Depression

In order to examine the effect of living style (living with parents and living with friends, with relatives or alone) on depression, independent samples t-test was conducted. The results revealed that living style had no significant effect on depression, $t(542) = -1.45$, ns.

3.3.2.4 The Effect of Mother's Education on Depression

In order to examine the effect of mother's education (i.e., low, moderate, and high) on depression, one-way ANOVA was performed. Results revealed that mother's education [Univariate $F(2, 541) = 0.93$, ns.] did not have a significant main effect on depressive symptoms. Since Univariate F was not significant, post-hoc comparisons were not examined.

Table 7. ANOVA for Mother's Education and Depression

Source	<i>df</i>	SS	MS	<i>F</i>
Between	2	130.22	65.11	0.93
Within	541	38035.14	70.31	
Total	543	38165.14		

3.3.2.5 The Effect of Father's Education on Depression

In order to examine the effect of father's education (i.e., low, moderate, and high) on depression, one-way ANOVA was carried out. Results revealed that father's education [Univariate $F(2, 540) = 0.02$, ns.] did not have a significant main effect on depression. Since Univariate F was not significant, post-hoc comparisons were not examined.

Table 8. ANOVA for Father's Education and Depression

Source	<i>df</i>	SS	MS	<i>F</i>
Between	2	2.51	1.25	0.02
Within	540	38124.87	70.60	
Total	542	38127.38		

3.3.3 Differences of Demographic Variables on Worry

Differences of gender, employment status, living style, mother's education, and father's education on the level of worry were examined.

3.3.3.1 The Effect of Gender on Worry

In order to examine the effect of gender (i.e., female and male) on the proneness to worry independent samples t-test was performed. The results yielded

that there was a significant difference between females and males in terms of worry, $t(542) = 5.58, p < .001$. Accordingly, males ($M = 41.59$) indicated lower level of worry than females ($M = 48.27$).

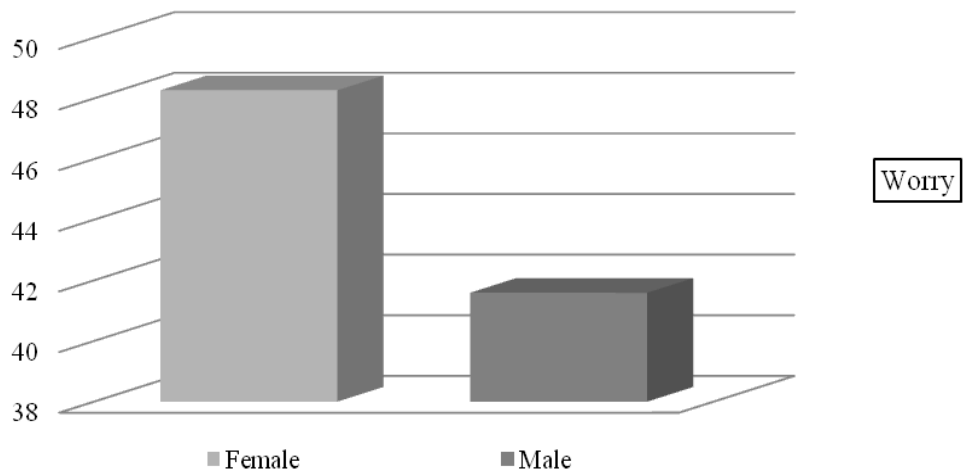


Figure 9. Mean Scores of Gender on Worry

3.3.3.2 The Effect of Employment Status on Worry

In order to investigate the effect of employment status (i.e., student and employed) on the proneness to worry independent samples t-test was conducted. The results revealed that there was no significant difference between students and employed participants in terms of level of worry, $t(539) = 1.39, ns$.

3.3.3.3 The Effect of Living Style on Worry

In order to examine the effect of living style (living with parents and living with friends, relatives or alone) on level the worry, Independent Samples t-test was conducted. The results revealed that living style had significant effect on worry, $t(542) = -3.05, p < .01$. Accordingly, individuals living with their parents ($M = 45.27$) reported lower level of worry than individuals living with friends, with relatives or alone ($M = 48.56$).

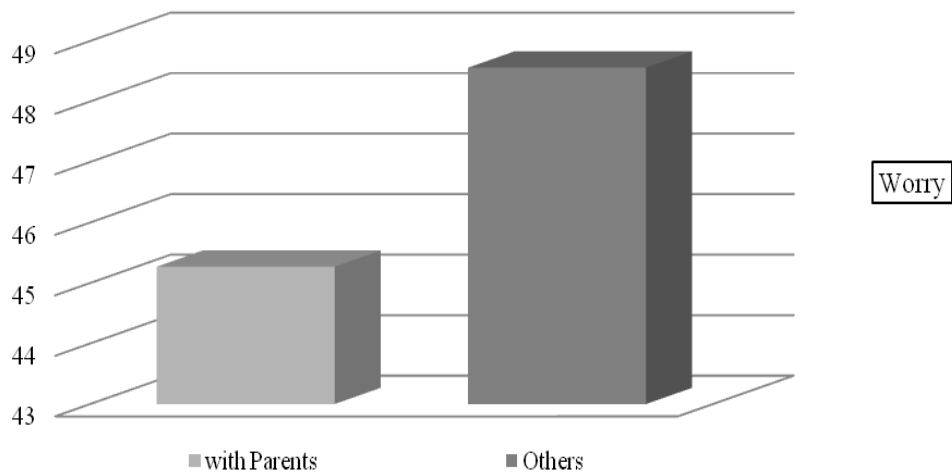


Figure 10. Mean Scores of Living Style on Worry

3.3.3.4 The Effect of Mother's Education on Worry

In order to examine the effect of mother's education (i.e., low, moderate, and high) on worry, one-way ANOVA was carried out. Results revealed that mother's education [Univariate $F(2, 541) = 0.06$, ns.] did not have a significant main effect on the level of worry. Since Univariate F was not significant, post-hoc comparisons were not examined.

Table 9. ANOVA for Mother's Education and Worry

Source	<i>df</i>	SS	MS	<i>F</i>
Between	2	16.97	8.49	0.06
Within	541	83899.86	155.08	
Total	543	83916.83		

3.3.3.5 The Effect of Father's Education on Worry

In order to examine the effect of father's education (i.e., low, moderate, and high) on worry, one-way ANOVA was performed. Results revealed that father's education [Univariate $F(2, 540) = 0.27, ns.$] did not have a significant main effect on worry. Since Univariate F was not significant, post-hoc comparisons were not examined.

Table 10. ANOVA for Father's Education and Worry

Source	<i>df</i>	SS	MS	<i>F</i>
Between	2	84.33	42.16	0.27
Within	540	83624.74	154.86	
Total	542	83709.07		

3.3.4 Differences of Demographic Variables on Perceived Parenting Styles

Differences of gender, employment status, living style, mother's education, and father's education on perceived maternal parenting styles and paternal parenting styles were examined differently.

3.3.4.1 The Effect of Gender on Perceived Maternal Parenting Styles

In order to examine the effect of gender (i.e., female and male) on perceived maternal parenting styles (i.e., rejection, overprotection, and emotional warmth) MANOVA was carried out. Results revealed significant main effect of gender for maternal parenting styles, [Multivariate $F(3, 540) = 3.56, p < .05$, Wilk's Lambda = .98, $\eta^2 = .02$].

Following Multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were performed for the main effects of gender with the Bonferroni correction. According to this correction, for the univariate analyses, the alpha values that were lower than .016 (found by dividing alpha level by the number of subscales, i.e., $.05/3 = .016$) were considered

to be significant. The results of univariate analyses based on this correction did not point out any significant main effect on maternal parenting styles.

Table 11. MANOVA for Gender and Perceived Maternal Parenting Styles

Source	Multivariate					Univariate		
	Lambda	Wilks'	F	df	η^2	F	df	η^2
GENDER	.98	3.56*	3,540		.02	-	-	-
Rejection	-	-	-	-	-	0.16	1, 542	.00
Overprotection	-	-	-	-	-	4.93	1, 542	.01
Emotional Warmth	-	-	-	-	-	4.28	1, 542	.01

* $p < .05$

3.3.4.2 The Effect of Employment Status on Perceived Maternal Parenting Styles

In order to examine the effect of employment status (i.e., student and employed) on perceived maternal parenting styles (i.e., rejection, overprotection, and emotional warmth) MANOVA was conducted. Results revealed significant main effect for employment status [Multivariate $F(3, 537) = 12.60, p < .001$, Wilk's Lambda = .93, $\eta^2 = .07$].

Following the Multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were performed for the main effect of employment status with the Bonferroni correction. According to this correction, for the univariate analyses, the alpha values that were lower than .016 (dividing alpha level by the number of subscales, i.e., $.05/3 = .016$) were considered to be significant. Based on this correction, there was a significant main effect of employment status for rejection, $F(1, 539) = 20.28, p < .001, \eta^2 = .04$. Accordingly, employed participants ($M = 10.56$) had higher scores on perceived

mother's rejection compared to students ($M = 9.30$). In addition, employment had significant main effect for emotional warmth, $F(1, 539) = 27.54, p < .001, \eta^2 = .05$. Accordingly, emotional warmth from mother was perceived higher among students ($M = 21.78$) compared to employed participants ($M = 19.85$).

Table 12. MANOVA for Employment Status and Perceived Maternal Parenting Styles

Source	Multivariate					Univariate		
	Lambda	Wilks's λ	F	df	η^2	F	df	η^2
EMPLOYMENT STATUS	.93	12.60*	3,537	.07	-	-	-	-
Rejection	-	-	-	-	20.28*	1, 539	.04	
Overprotection	-	-	-	-	0.40	1, 539	.00	
Emotional Warmth	-	-	-	-	27.54*	1, 539	.05	

* $p < .001$

Table 13. Mean Scores of Employment Status on Perceived Maternal Parenting Styles

	Student	Employed
Rejection	9.30	10.56
Emotional Warmth	21.78	19.85

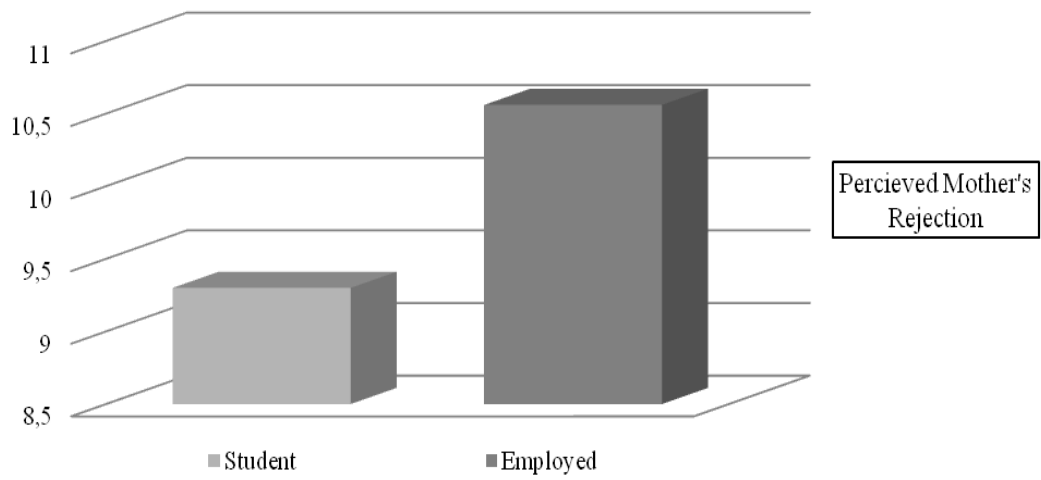


Figure 11. Mean Scores of Employment Status on Perceived Maternal Rejection

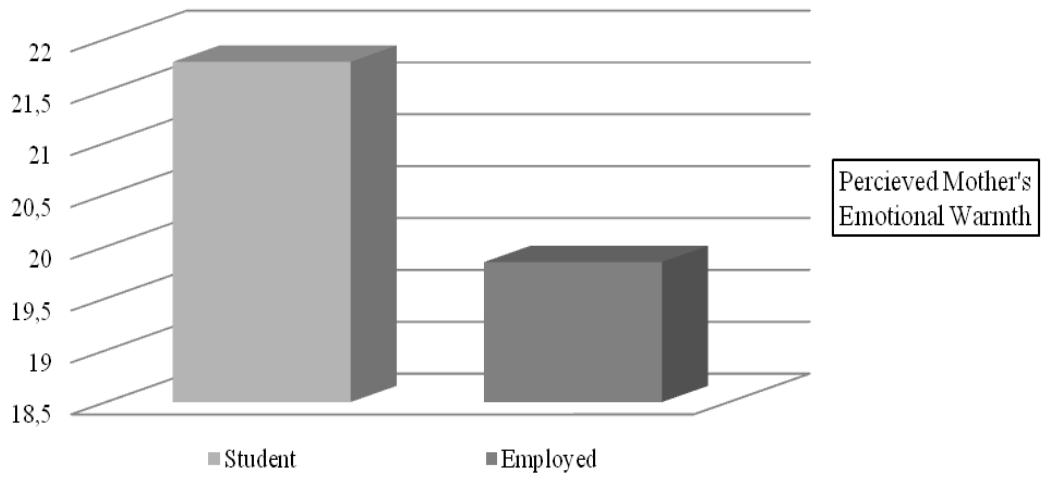


Figure 12. Mean Scores of Employment Status on Perceived Maternal Emotional Warmth

3.3.4.3 The Effect of Living Style on Perceived Maternal Parenting Styles

In order to examine the effect of living style (living with parents and living with friends, with relatives or alone) on perceived maternal parenting styles (i.e., rejection, overprotection, and emotional warmth) MANOVA was carried out. Results revealed a significant main effect for living style [Multivariate $F(3, 540) = 3.83, p \leq .01, \text{Wilk's Lambda} = .98, \eta^2 = .02$].

Following the Multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were performed for the main effect of living style with the Bonferroni correction. According to this correction, for the univariate analyses, the alpha values that were lower than .016 (division of alpha level by the number of subscales, i.e., $.05/3 = .016$) were considered to be significant. Based on this correction, there was a significant main effect of living style for perceived emotional warmth, $F(1, 542) = 7.49, p \leq .01, \eta^2 = .01$. Accordingly, individuals who were currently living with their parents ($M = 20.36$) reported less perceived emotional warmth from their mothers than individuals who were not currently living with their parents ($M = 21.40$).

Table 14. MANOVA for Living Style and Perceived Maternal Parenting Styles

Source	Multivariate					Univariate		
	Lambda	Wilks'	F	df	η^2	F	df	η^2
LIVING STYLE	.98		3.83*	3,540	.02	-	-	-
Rejection	-	-	-	-	-	0.00	1, 542	.00
Overprotection	-	-	-	-	-	2.12	1, 542	.00
Emotional Warmth	-	-	-	-	-	7.49*	1, 542	.01

* $p \leq .01$

Table 15. Mean Scores of Living Style on Perceived Maternal Parenting Styles

	with Parents	Other
Emotional Warmth	20.36	21.40

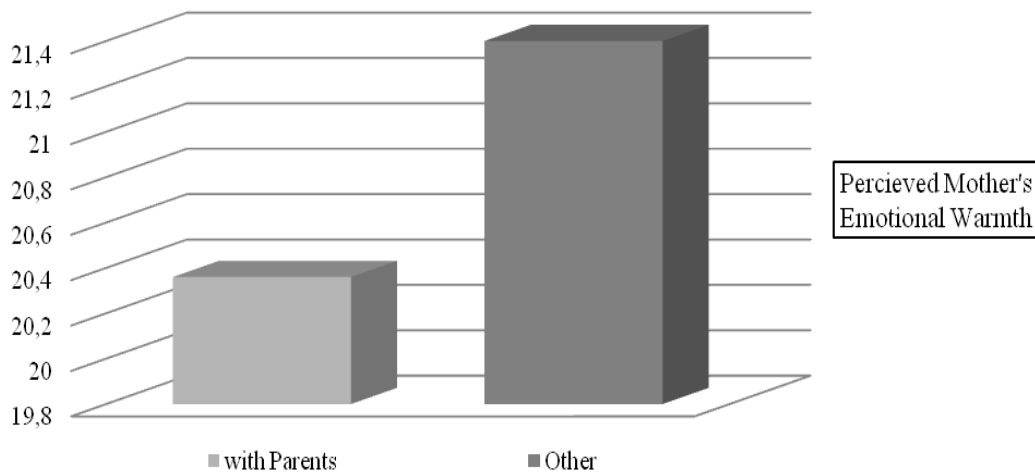


Figure 13. Mean Scores of Living Style on Perceived Maternal Emotional Warmth

3.3.4.4 The Effect of Mother's Education on Perceived Maternal Parenting Styles

In order to examine the effect of mother's education (i.e., low, moderate, and high) on perceived maternal parenting styles (i.e., rejection, overprotection, and emotional warmth) MANOVA was carried out. According to results yielded significant main effect of mother's education [Multivariate $F(6, 1078) = 2.83, p \leq .01$, Wilk's Lambda = .97, $\eta^2 = .02$].

Subsequent to Multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were performed for the main effect of mother's education with the Bonferroni correction. For the

univariate analyses, the alpha values that were lower than .016 (calculated by dividing alpha level by the number of subscales, i.e., $.05/3 = .016$) were considered to be significant based on this correction. The results revealed a significant main effect of mother's education on perceived emotional warmth, $F(2, 541) = 8.25, p < .001, \eta^2 = .03$. According to post-hoc comparisons, individuals having mothers with low education reported less emotional warmth ($M = 20.04$) than those having mothers with moderate education ($M = 21.79$) and those with high education ($M = 21.25$). On the other hand, there was no significant difference between participants having mother with moderate education and those with high education in terms of perceived emotional warmth.

Table 16. MANOVA for Mother's Education and Perceived Maternal Parenting Styles

Source	Multivariate					Univariate		
	Lambda	Wilks'	F	df	η^2	F	df	η^2
MOTHER'S EDUCATION	.97	2.83*		6,1078	.02	-	-	-
Rejection	-	-	-	-	-	2.34	2, 541	.01
Overprotection	-	-	-	-	-	0.54	2, 541	.00
Emotional Warmth	-	-	-	-	-	8.25**	2, 541	.03

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

Table 17. Mean Scores of Mother’s Education on Perceived Maternal Parenting Styles

	Low	Moderate	High
Emotional Warmth	20.04 ^a	21.79 ^b	21.25 ^b

Note: The mean scores that do not share the same subscript are significantly different from each other.

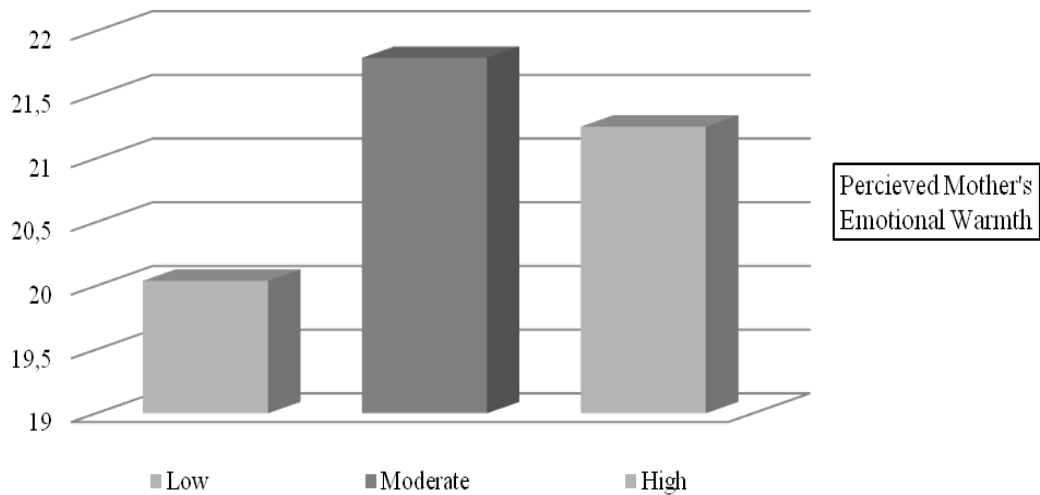


Figure 14. Mean Scores of Mother’s Education on Perceived Maternal Emotional Warmth

3.3.4.5 The Effect of Father’s Education on Perceived Maternal Parenting Styles

In order to examine the effect of father’s education (i.e., low, moderate, and high) on perceived maternal parenting styles (i.e., rejection, overprotection, and emotional warmth) MANOVA was conducted. The results revealed a significant main effect of father’s education for perceived maternal parenting styles, [Multivariate $F(6, 1076) = 2.71, p < .05$, Wilk’s Lambda = .97, $\eta^2 = .02$].

After Multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were performed for the main effect of father's education with the Bonferroni correction. For the univariate analyses, the alpha values that were lower than .016 (calculated by dividing alpha level by the number of subscales, i.e., $.05/3 = .016$) were considered to be significant according to this correction. The results yielded significant main effect of father's education for perceived maternal emotional warmth, $F(2, 540) = 5.94$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .02$. According to post-hoc comparisons, individuals having fathers with low education indicated less perceived maternal emotional warmth ($M = 19.85$) than individuals having fathers with moderate education ($M = 21.16$) and those with high education ($M = 21.27$). On the other hand, there was no significant difference between participants having fathers with moderate education and those with high education in terms of perceived maternal emotional warmth.

Table 18. MANOVA for Father's Education and Perceived Maternal Parenting Styles

Source	Multivariate					Univariate		
	Lambda	Wilks'	F	df	η^2	F	df	η^2
FATHER'S EDUCATION	.97	2.71*	6,1076		.02	-	-	-
Rejection	-	-	-	-	-	3.04	2, 540	.01
Overprotection	-	-	-	-	-	2.48	2, 540	.01
Emotional Warmth	-	-	-	-	-	5.94**	2, 540	.02

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 19. Mean Scores of Father's Education on Perceived Maternal Parenting Styles

	Low	Moderate	High
Emotional Warmth	19.85 ^a	21.16 ^b	21.27 ^b

Note: The mean scores that do not share the same subscript are significantly different from each other.

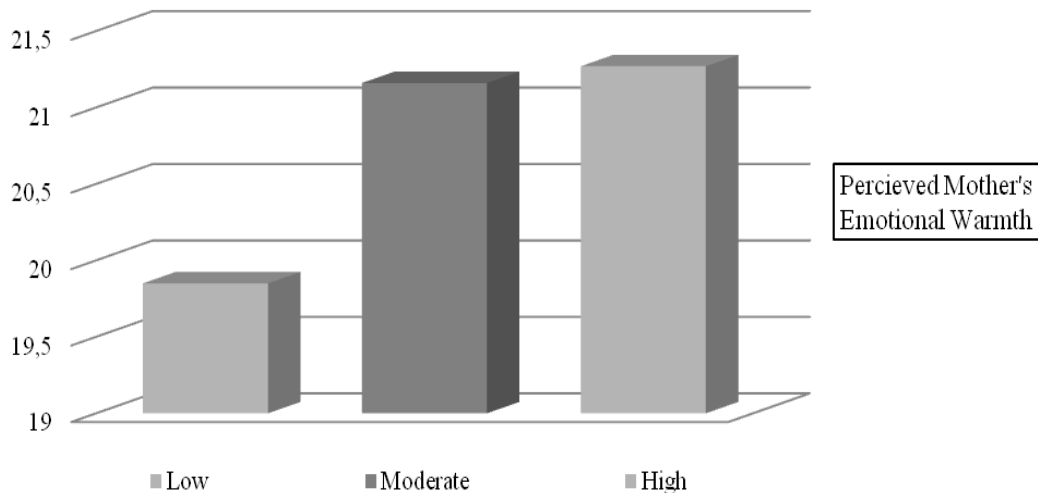


Figure 15. Mean Scores of Father's Education on Perceived Maternal Emotional Warmth

3.3.4.6 The Effect of Gender on Perceived Paternal Parenting Styles

In order to examine the effect of gender (i.e., female and male) on perceived paternal parenting responses (i.e., rejection, overprotection, and emotional warmth) MANOVA was carried out. Results yielded a significant main effect of gender [Multivariate $F(3, 540) = 3.31, p < .05$, Wilk's Lambda = .98, $\eta^2 = .02$] on paternal parenting styles.

Following Multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were performed for the main effects of gender with the Bonferroni correction. According to this correction, for the univariate analyses, the alpha values that were lower than .016 (calculated by dividing alpha level by the number of subscales, i.e., $.05/3 = .016$) were considered to be significant. Based on this correction, there was a significant main effect of gender for emotional warmth, $F(1, 542) = 5.96, p < .016, \eta^2 = .01$. Accordingly, females ($M = 19.57$) reported more perceived emotional warmth from their fathers compared to males ($M = 18.38$).

Table 20. MANOVA for Gender and Perceived Paternal Parenting Styles

Source	Multivariate					Univariate		
	Lambda	Wilks'	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	η^2	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	η^2
GENDER	.98	3.31*		3,540	.02	-	-	-
Rejection	-	-	-	-	-	0.18	1, 542	.00
Overprotection	-	-	-	-	-	3.62	1, 542	.01
Emotional Warmth	-	-	-	-	-	5.96**	1, 542	.01

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .016$

Table 21. Mean Scores of Gender on Perceived Paternal Parenting Styles

	Female	Male
Emotional Warmth	19.57	18.38

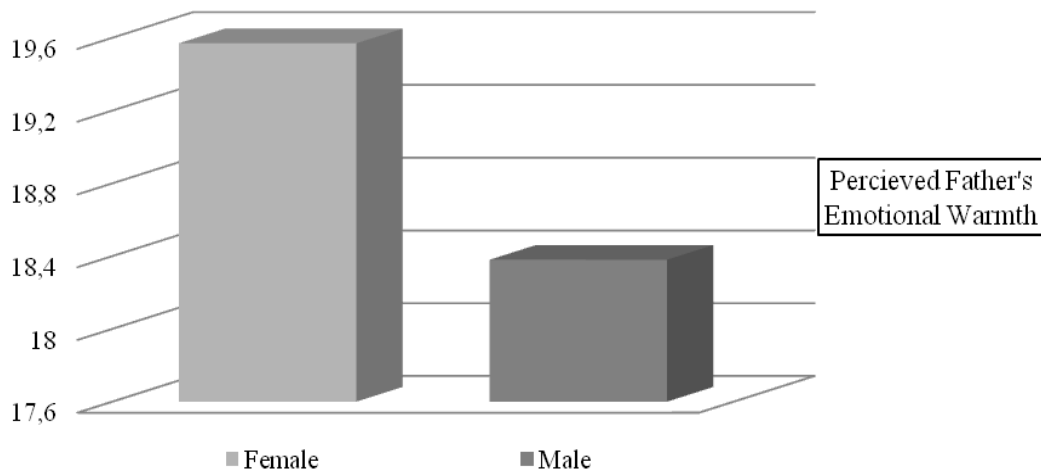


Figure 16. Mean Scores of Gender on Perceived Paternal Emotional Warmth

3.3.4.7 The Effect of Employment Status on Perceived Paternal Parenting Styles

In order to examine the effect of employment status (i.e., student and employed) on perceived paternal parenting styles (i.e., rejection, overprotection, and emotional warmth) MANOVA was carried out. Results revealed that there was a significant main effect of employment status [Multivariate $F(3, 537) = 7.24, p < .001$, Wilk's Lambda = .96, $\eta^2 = .04$].

After the Multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were performed for the main effect of employment status with the Bonferroni correction. According to this correction, for the univariate analyses, the alpha values that were lower than .016 (calculated by dividing alpha level by the number of subscales, i.e., $.05/3 = .016$) were accepted as significant. Based on this correction, there was a significant main effect of employment status for emotional warmth, $F(1, 539) = 19.84, p < .001, \eta^2 = .04$. Accordingly, students ($M = 20.23$) had higher scores on perceived emotional warmth from their fathers compared to employed individuals ($M = 18.38$).

Table 22. MANOVA for Employment Status and Perceived Paternal Parenting Styles

Source	Multivariate				Univariate			
	Lambda	Wilks'	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	η^2	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	η^2
EMPLOYMENT STATUS	.96	7.24*		3,537	.04	-	-	-
Rejection	-	-	-	-	-	3.20	1, 539	.01
Overprotection	-	-	-	-	-	1.54	1, 539	.00
Emotional Warmth	-	-	-	-	-	19.84*	1, 539	.04

* $p < .001$

Table 23. Mean Scores of Employment Status on Perceived Paternal Parenting Styles

	Student	Employed
Emotional Warmth	20.23	18.38



Figure 17. Mean Scores of Employment Status on Perceived Paternal Emotional Warmth

3.3.4.8 The Effect of Living Style on Perceived Paternal Parenting Styles

In order to examine the effect of living style (i.e., living with parents and living with friends, with relatives or alone) on perceived paternal parenting styles (i.e., rejection, overprotection, and emotional warmth), MANOVA was conducted. Results revealed a significant main effect for living styles [Multivariate $F(3, 540) = 2.87, p < .05$, Wilk's Lambda = .96, $\eta^2 = .02$] on paternal parenting styles.

After the Multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were carried out for the main effect of employment status with the Bonferroni correction. Accordingly, for the univariate analyses, the alpha values that were lower than .016 (calculated by dividing alpha level by the number of subscales, i.e., $.05/3 = .016$) were accepted as significant. The results of univariate analyses based on this correction did not indicate any significant main effect on parenting styles.

Table 24. MANOVA for Living Style and Perceived Paternal Parenting Styles

Source	Multivariate					Univariate		
	Lambda	Wilks'	F	df	η^2	F	df	η^2
LIVING STYLE	.98	2.87*	3,540		.02	-	-	-
Rejection	-	-	-	-	-	0.49	1, 542	.00
Overprotection	-	-	-	-	-	1.26	1, 542	.00
Emotional Warmth	-	-	-	-	-	4.16	1, 542	.01

* $p < .05$

3.3.4.9 The Effect of Mother’s Education on Perceived Paternal Parenting Styles

In order to examine the effect of mother’s education (i.e., low, moderate, and high) on perceived paternal parenting styles (i.e., rejection, overprotection, and emotional warmth) MANOVA was conducted. The results yielded that there was a significant main effect of mother’s education [Multivariate $F(6, 1078) = 2.96, p < .01$, Wilk’s Lambda = .97, $\eta^2 = .02$] on paternal parenting styles.

Following Multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were performed for the main effect of mother’s education with the Bonferroni correction. For the univariate analyses, the alpha values that were lower than .016 (division of alpha level by the number of subscales, i.e., $.05/3 = .016$) were considered to be significant based on this correction. The results revealed there was a significant main effect of mother’s education for perceived overprotection, $F(2, 541) = 5.41, p < .01, \eta^2 = .02$. According to post-hoc comparisons, individuals having mothers with low education reported more paternal overprotection ($M = 20.13$) than individuals having mothers with high education ($M = 18.26$). On the other hand, participants having mothers with moderate education ($M = 19.75$) were not significantly differed from

participants having mothers with low education and those with high education in terms of perceiving overprotection from their fathers.

Table 25. MANOVA for Mother’s Education and Perceived Paternal Parenting Styles

Source	Multivariate				Univariate			
	Lambda	Wilks’	F	df	η^2	F	df	η^2
MOTHER’S EDUCATION	.97	2.96*	6,1078	.02	-	-	-	-
Rejection	-	-	-	-	2.83	2, 541	.01	
Overprotection	-	-	-	-	5.41*	2, 541	.02	
Emotional Warmth	-	-	-	-	3.33	2, 541	.01	

* $p < .01$

Table 26. Mean Scores of Mother’s Education on Perceived Paternal Parenting Styles

	Low	Moderate	High
Overprotection	20.13 ^a	19.75 ^{ab}	18.26 ^b

Note: The mean scores that do not share the same subscript are significantly different from each other.

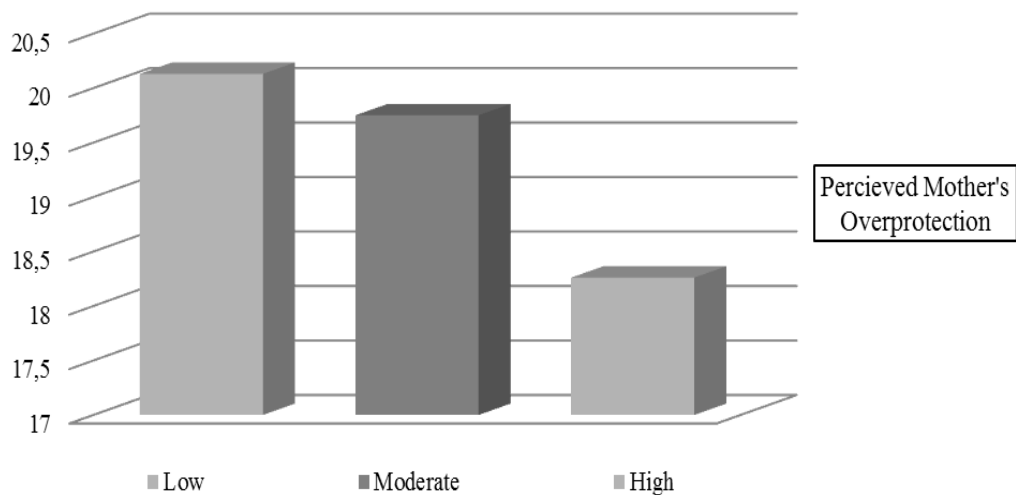


Figure 18. Mean Scores of Mother's Education on Paternal Overprotection

3.3.4.10 The Effect of Father's Education on Perceived Paternal Parenting Styles

In order to examine the effect of father's education (i.e., low, moderate, and high) on perceived paternal parenting styles (i.e., rejection, overprotection, and emotional warmth) MANOVA was conducted. The results indicated a significant main effect of father's education for perceived paternal parenting styles, [Multivariate $F(6, 1076) = 2.23, p < .05$, Wilk's Lambda = .98, $\eta^2 = .01$].

Following Multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were carried out for the main effect of father's education with the Bonferroni correction. For the univariate analyses, the alpha values that were lower than .016 (calculated by dividing alpha level by the number of subscales, i.e., $.05/3 = .016$) were determined as significant according to this correction. The results revealed a significant main effect of father's education for perceived emotional warmth, $F(2, 540) = 4.60, p < .01, \eta^2 = .02$. Considering the post-hoc comparisons, individuals having fathers with low education reported less perceived paternal emotional warmth ($M = 18.36$) than individuals having fathers with high education ($M = 19.81$). Nevertheless, participants having fathers with moderate education ($M = 19.56$) were not

significantly differed from participants having fathers with low education and those with high education in terms of perceiving emotional warmth from their fathers.

Table 27. MANOVA for Father’s Education and Perceived Paternal Parenting Styles

Source	Multivariate					Univariate		
	Lambda	Wilks’	F	df	η^2	F	df	η^2
FATHER’S EDUCATION	.98	2.23*		6,1076	.01	-	-	-
Rejection	-	-	-	-	-	2.54	2, 540	.01
Overprotection	-	-	-	-	-	2.22	2, 540	.01
Emotional Warmth	-	-	-	-	-	4.60**	2, 540	.02

* $p < .05$, ** $p \leq .01$

Table 28. Mean Scores of Father’s Education on Perceived Paternal Parenting Styles

	Low	Moderate	High
Emotional Warmth	19.36 ^a	19.56 ^{ab}	19.81 ^b

Note: The mean scores that do not share the same subscript are significantly different from each other.

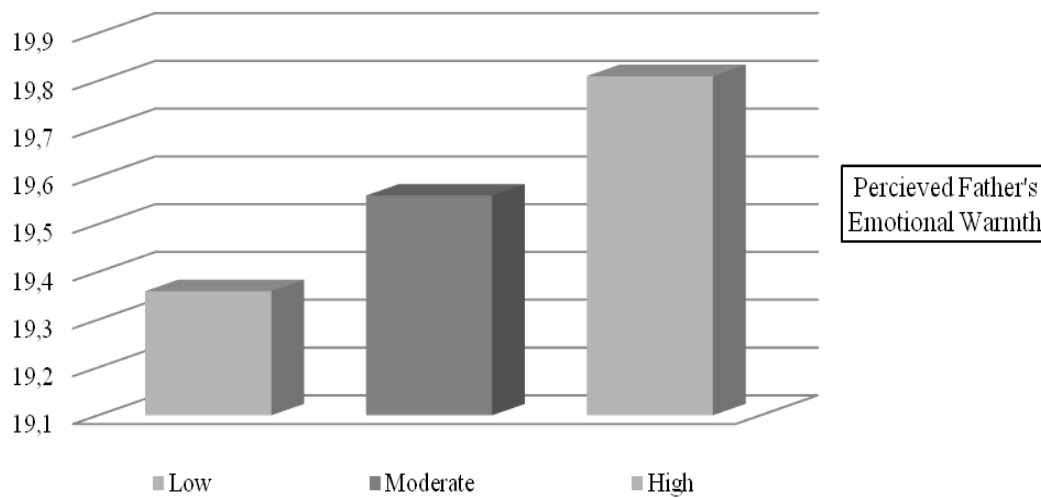


Figure 19. Mean Scores of Father's Education on Paternal Emotional Warmth

3.3.5 Differences of Demographic Variables on Self-Conscious Emotions

Differences of gender, employment status, living style, mother's education, and father's education on self-conscious emotions were examined.

3.3.5.1 The Effect of Gender on Self-Conscious Emotions

In order to examine the effect of gender (i.e., female and male) on subscales of self-conscious emotions (i.e., shame, externalization, detachment, dutifulness, and situational guilt) MANOVA was performed. The results revealed a significant main effect of gender for self-conscious emotions, [Multivariate $F(5, 536) = 10.55, p < .001, \text{Wilk's Lambda} = .91, \eta^2 = .09$].

Following Multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were performed for the main effect of gender with the Bonferroni correction. For the univariate analyses, the alpha values that were lower than .01 (calculated by dividing alpha level by the number of subscales, i.e., $.05/5 = .01$) were determined as significant according to this correction. The results revealed a significant main effect of gender for shame, $F(1, 540) = 17.64, p < .001, \eta^2 = .03$. Consequently, females ($M = 46.52$) had higher scores on proneness to shame compared to males ($M = 42.26$). In addition, gender

had a significant main effect for detachment, $F(1, 540) = 11.13, p < .001, \eta^2 = .02$. Accordingly, detachment was reported to be higher among males ($M = 32.09$) compared to females ($M = 30.08$). Finally, the results yielded a significant main effect of gender for dutifulness, $F(1, 540) = 21.65, p < .001, \eta^2 = .04$, indicating that females ($M = 48.96$) had higher scores on dutifulness than males ($M = 45.97$).

Table 29. MANOVA for Gender and Self-Conscious Emotions

Source	Multivariate					Univariate		
	Lambda	Wilks'	F	df	η^2	F	df	η^2
GENDER	.91		10.55*	5,536	.09	-	-	-
Shame	-	-	-	-	-	17.64*	1, 540	.03
Externalization	-	-	-	-	-	0.51	1, 540	.00
Detachment	-	-	-	-	-	11.13*	1, 540	.02
Dutifulness	-	-	-	-	-	21.65*	1,540	.04
Guilt	-	-	-	-	-	1.30	1,540	.00

* $p < .001$

Table 30. Mean Scores of Gender on Self-Conscious Emotions

	Female	Male
Shame	46.52	42.26
Detachment	30.08	32.09
Dutifulness	48.96	45.97

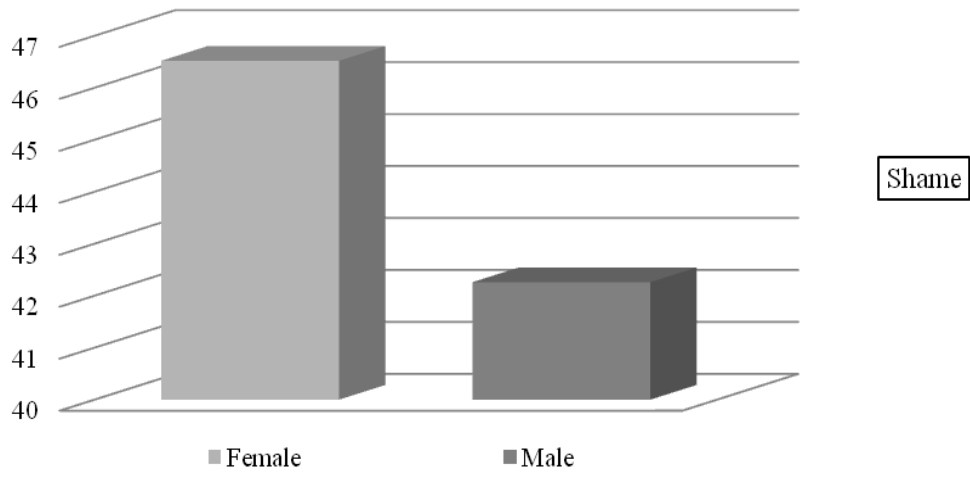


Figure 20. Mean Scores of Gender on Shame

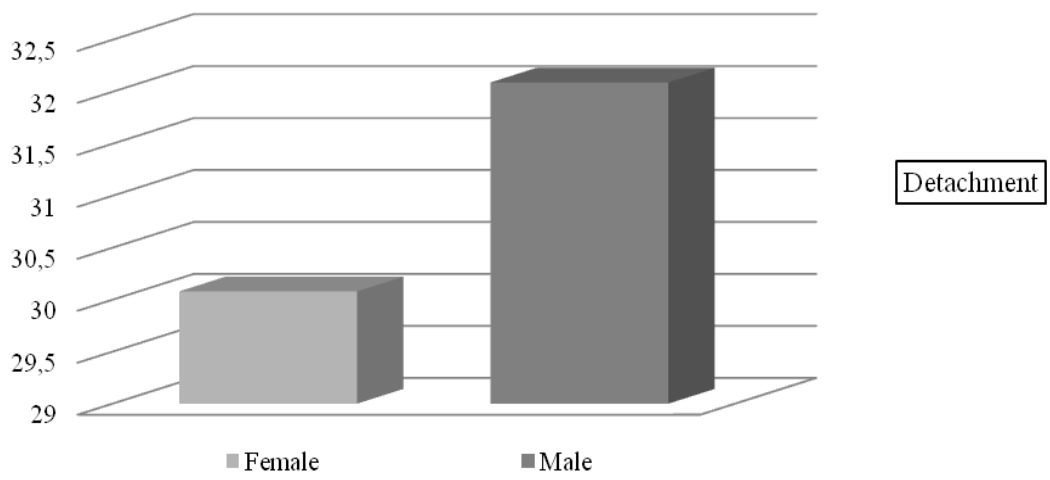


Figure 21. Mean Scores of Gender on Detachment

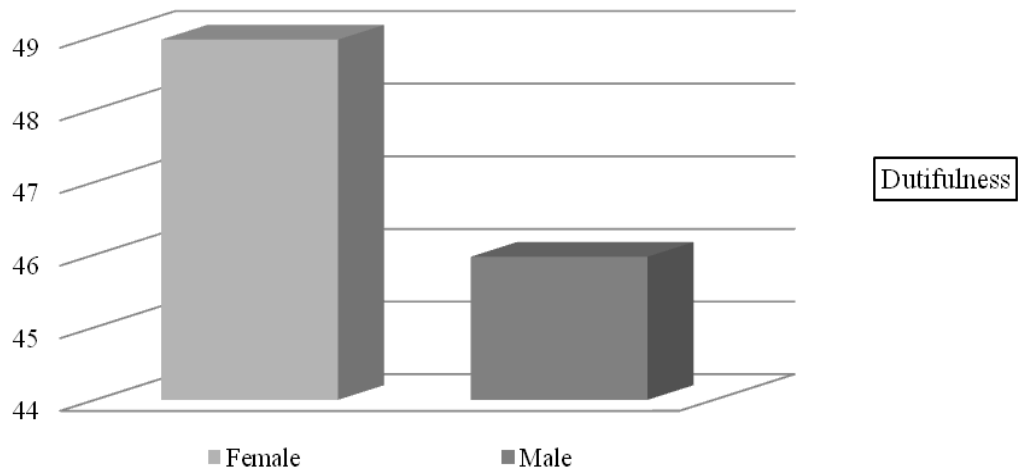


Figure 22. Mean Scores of Gender on Dutifulness

3.3.5.2 The Effect of Employment Status on Self-Conscious Emotions

In order to examine the effect of employment status (i.e., student and employed) on self-conscious emotions (i.e., shame, externalization, detachment, dutifulness, and situational guilt) MANOVA was conducted. The results revealed a significant main effect of employment status for self-conscious emotions, [Multivariate $F(5, 533) = 2.82, p < .05$, Wilk's Lambda = .97, $\eta^2 = .03$].

After the Multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were carried out for the main effect of employment status with the Bonferroni correction. Accordingly, for the univariate analyses, the alpha values that were lower than .01 (calculated by dividing alpha level by the number of subscales, i.e., $.05/5 = .01$) were accepted as significant. The results of univariate analyses based on this correction did not reveal any significant main effect on self-conscious emotions.

Table 31. MANOVA for Employment Status and Self-Conscious Emotions

Source	Multivariate					Univariate		
	Lambda	Wilks'	F	df	η^2	F	df	η^2
EMPLOYMENT STATUS	.97	2.82*		5,533	.03	-	-	-
Shame	-	-	-	-	-	0.05	1, 537	.00
Externalization	-	-	-	-	-	2.39	1, 537	.00
Detachment	-	-	-	-	-	0.39	1, 537	.00
Dutifulness						5.57	1, 537	.01
Guilt						3.74	1, 537	.01

* $p < .05$

3.3.5.3 The Effect of Living Style on Self-Conscious Emotions

In order to examine the effect of living style (i.e., living with parents or living with friends, with relatives or alone) on self-conscious emotions (i.e., shame, externalization, detachment, dutifulness, and situational guilt) MANOVA was carried out. The results yielded a significant main effect of living style for self-conscious emotions, [Multivariate $F(5, 536) = 3.42, p < .01$, Wilk's Lambda = .97, $\eta^2 = .03$].

Following Multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were conducted for the main effect of living style with the Bonferroni correction. For the univariate analyses, the alpha values that were lower than .01 (calculated by dividing alpha level by the number of subscales, i.e., $.05/5 = .01$) were determined as significant according to this correction. The results revealed a significant main effect of living style for proneness to shame, $F(1, 540) = 7.25, p < .01, \eta^2 = .01$. Accordingly, individuals who were currently living with their parents ($M = 44.47$) reported lower

level of proneness to shame compared to individuals who were not currently living with their parents ($M = 46.90$).

Table 32. MANOVA for Living Style and Self-Conscious Emotions

Source	Multivariate					Univariate		
	Lambda	Wilks'	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	η^2	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	η^2
LIVING STYLE	.97		3.42*	5,536	.03	-	-	-
Shame	-	-	-	-	-	7.25*	1, 540	.01
Externalization	-	-	-	-	-	2.30	1, 540	.00
Detachment	-	-	-	-	-	3.96	1, 540	.01
Dutifulness	-	-	-	-	-	1.67	1,540	.00
Guilt	-	-	-	-	-	3.02	1,540	.01

* $p < .01$

Table 33. Mean Scores of Living Style on Self-Conscious Emotions

	with Parents	Other
Shame	44.47	46.90

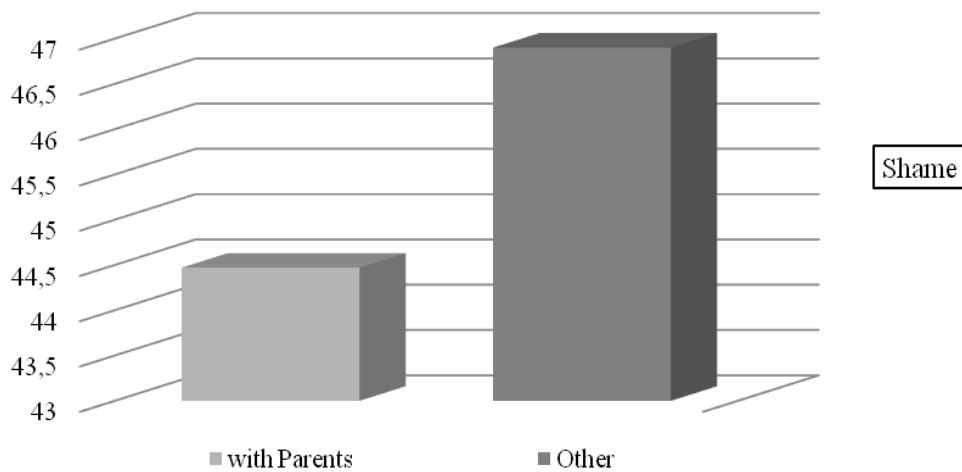


Figure 23. Mean Scores of Living Style on Shame

3.3.5.4 The Effect of Mother’s Education on Self-Conscious Emotions

In order to examine the effect of mother’s education (i.e., low, moderate, and high) on self-conscious emotions (i.e., shame, externalization, detachment, dutifulness, and situational guilt) MANOVA was conducted. The results revealed a significant main effect of mother’s education for self conscious emotions, [Multivariate $F(10, 1070) = 2.80, p < .01, \text{Wilk’s Lambda} = .95, \eta^2 = .02$].

Following Multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were performed for the main effect of mother’s education with the Bonferroni correction. For the univariate analyses, the alpha values that were lower than .01 (calculated by dividing alpha level by the number of subscales, i.e., $.05/5 = .01$) were considered to be significant according to this correction. The results revealed a significant main effect of mother’s education for situational guilt, $F(2, 539) = 5.37, p < .01, \eta^2 = .02$. According to post-hoc comparisons, individuals having mothers with low education ($M = 24.97$) reported higher situational guilt than individuals having mothers with high education ($M = 23.07$). On the other hand, participants having mothers with moderate education ($M = 24.71$) were not significantly differed from participants having mothers with low education and those with high education in terms of reporting situational guilt.

Table 34. MANOVA for Mother's Education and Self-Conscious Emotions

Source	Multivariate					Univariate		
	Lambda	Wilks'	F	df	η^2	F	df	η^2
MOTHER'S EDUCATION	.95	2.80*	10,1070		.02	-	-	-
Shame	-	-	-	-	-	3.28	2,539	.01
Externalization	-	-	-	-	-	0.21	2,539	.00
Detachment	-	-	-	-	-	0.78	2,539	.00
Dutifulness	-	-	-	-	-	1.56	2,539	.01
Guilt	-	-	-	-	-	5.37*	2,539	.02

* $p < .01$ **Table 35. Mean Scores of Mother's Education on Self-Conscious Emotions**

	Low	Moderate	High
Situational Guilt	24.97 ^a	24.71 ^{ab}	23.07 ^b

Note: The mean scores that do not share the same subscript are significantly different from each other.

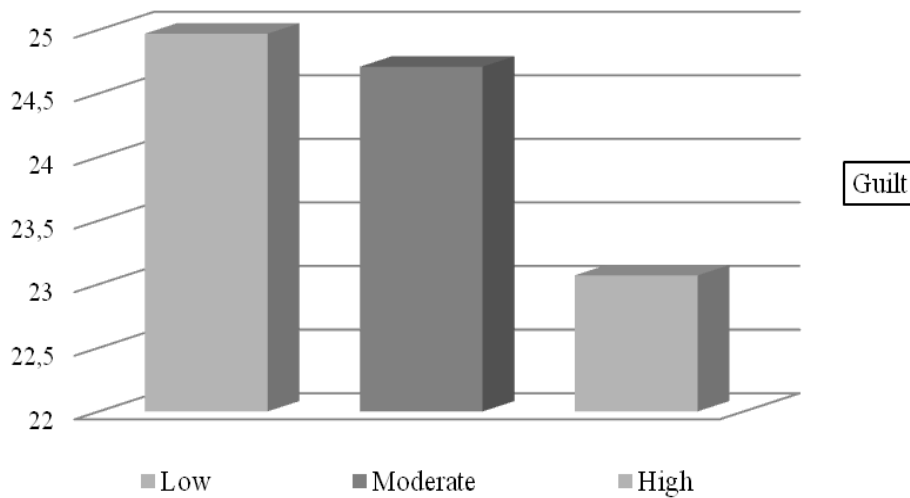


Figure 24. Mean Scores of Mother's Education on Guilt

3.3.5.5 The Effect of Father's Education on Self-Conscious Emotions

In order to examine the effect of father's education (i.e., low, moderate, and high) on self-conscious emotions (i.e., shame, externalization, detachment, dutifulness, and situational guilt) MANOVA was carried out. According to the results, there was no significant main effect of father's education [Multivariate $F(10, 1068) = 1.82$, ns, Wilk's Lambda = .97, $\eta^2 = .01$] on self-conscious emotions. Since, the Multivariate F was not significant, univariate analyses were not examined.

Table 36. MANOVA for Father's Education and Self-Conscious Emotions

Source	Multivariate				Univariate			
	Lambda	Wilk's	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	η^2	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	η^2
FATHER'S EDUCATION	.97	1.82	10,1068	.02	-	-	-	-
Shame	-	-	-	-	1.39	2,538	.01	
Externalization	-	-	-	-	0.93	2,538	.00	
Detachment	-	-	-	-	0.84	2,538	.00	
Dutifulness	-	-	-	-	0.38	2,538	.00	
Guilt	-	-	-	-	0.89	2,538	.00	

3.3.6 Differences of Demographic Variables on Anger

Differences of gender, employment status, living style, mother's education, and father's education on the experience of anger were examined.

3.3.6.1 The Effect of Gender on Anger

In order to examine the effect of gender (i.e., female and male) on subscales of anger (i.e., trait anger, internal anger, external anger, and ability to control anger) MANOVA was conducted. According to the results, there was no significant main effect of gender [Multivariate $F(4, 539) = 1.57$, ns, Wilk's Lambda = .99, $\eta^2 = .01$] on anger. Since the Multivariate F was not significant, univariate analyses were not examined.

Table 37. MANOVA for Gender and Anger

Source	Multivariate					Univariate		
	Lambda	Wilks'	F	df	η^2	F	df	η^2
GENDER	.99		1.57	4,539	.01	-	-	-
Trait Anger	-	-	-	-	-	0.09	1, 542	.00
Anger In	-	-	-	-	-	0.12	1, 542	.00
Anger Out	-	-	-	-	-	1.89	1, 542	.00
Anger Control	-	-	-	-	-	0.91	1,542	.00

3.3.6.2 The Effect of Employment Status on Anger

In order to examine the effect of employment status (i.e., student and employed) on subscales of anger (i.e., trait anger, internal anger, external anger, and ability to control anger) MANOVA was conducted. According to results, there was no significant main effect of employment status [Multivariate $F(4, 536) = 0.99$, ns, Wilk's Lambda = .99, $\eta^2 = .01$] on anger. Since the Multivariate F was not significant, univariate analyses were not examined.

Table 38. MANOVA for Employment Status and Anger

Source	Multivariate					Univariate		
	Lambda	Wilks'	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	η^2	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	η^2
EMPLOYMENT STATUS	.99		0.99	4,536	.01	-	-	-
Trait Anger	-	-	-	-	-	3.76	1, 539	.01
Anger In	-	-	-	-	-	0.17	1, 539	.00
Anger Out	-	-	-	-	-	2.49	1, 539	.01
Anger Control	-	-	-	-	-	1.72	1,539	.00

3.3.6.3 The Effect of Living Style on Anger

In order to examine the effect of living style (i.e., living with parents or living with friends, with relatives or alone) on subscales of anger (i.e., trait anger, internal anger, external anger, and ability to control anger) MANOVA was conducted. The results revealed that there was a significant main effect of living style [Multivariate $F(4, 539) = 3.83, p < .01$, Wilk's Lambda = .97, $\eta^2 = .03$] on anger.

After the Multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were performed for the main effect of living style with the Bonferroni correction. According to this correction, for the univariate analyses, the alpha values that were lower than .0125 (calculated by dividing alpha level by the number of subscales, i.e., $.05/4 = .0125$) were determined as significant. Based on this correction, there was a significant main effect of living style for anger in, $F(1, 542) = 13.13, p < .001, \eta^2 = .02$. Accordingly, individuals who were not currently living with their parents ($M = 17.64$) were more likely to experience internalized anger than individuals who were currently living with parents ($M = 16.22$).

Table 39. MANOVA for Living Style and Anger

Source	Multivariate				Univariate			
	Lambda	Wilks's η^2	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	η^2	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	η^2
LIVING STYLE	.97	3.83*	4,539	.03	-	-	-	-
Trait Anger	-	-	-	-	0.08	1, 542	.00	
Anger In	-	-	-	-	13.13**	1, 542	.02	
Anger Out	-	-	-	-	0.05	1, 542	.00	
Anger Control	-	-	-	-	0.05	1, 542	.00	

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

Table 40. Mean Scores of Living Style on Anger

	with Parents	Other
Anger In	16.22	17.64

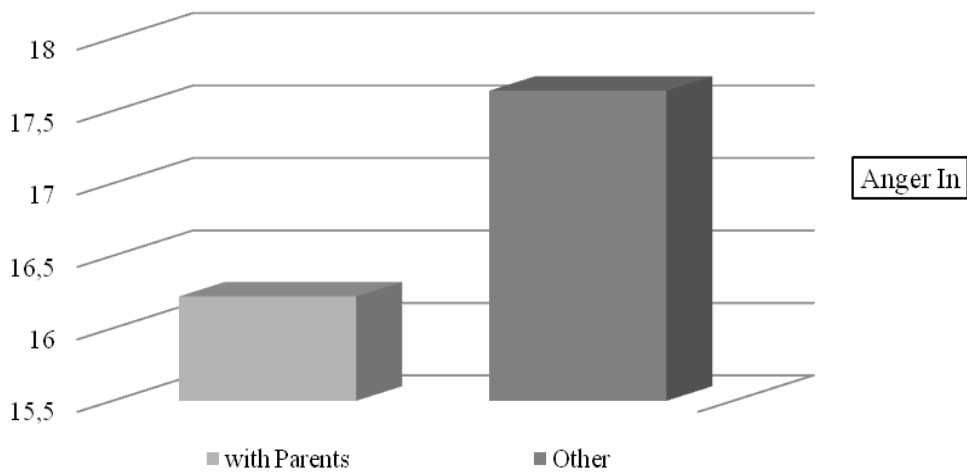


Figure 25. Mean Scores of Living Style on Anger In

3.3.6.4 The Effect of Mother's Education on Anger

In order to examine the effect of mother's education (i.e., low, moderate, and high) on subscales of anger (i.e., trait anger, internal anger, external anger, and ability to control anger) MANOVA was carried out. According to the results, there was a significant main effect of mother's education [Multivariate $F(8, 1076) = 2.04, p < .05$, Wilk's Lambda = .97, $\eta^2 = .02$] on anger.

Following Multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were performed for the main effect of mother's education with the Bonferroni correction. According to this correction, for the univariate analyses, the alpha values that were lower than .0125 (division of alpha level by the number of subscales, i.e., $.05/4 = .0125$) were considered to be significant. Following the results of univariate analyses did not point out any significant main effect on anger.

Table 41. MANOVA for Mother’s Education and Anger

Source	Multivariate					Univariate		
	Lambda	Wilks’	F	df	η^2	F	df	η^2
MOTHER’S EDUCATION	.97	2.04*		8,1076	.02	-	-	-
Trait Anger	-	-	-	-	-	1.78	2, 541	.01
Anger In	-	-	-	-	-	4.09	2, 541	.02
Anger Out	-	-	-	-	-	1.78	2, 541	.01
Anger Control	-	-	-	-	-	0.79	2, 541	.00

* $p < .05$

3.3.6.5 The Effect of Father’s Education on Anger

In order to examine the effect of father’s education (i.e., low, moderate, and high) on subscales of anger (i.e., trait anger, internal anger, external anger, and ability to control anger) MANOVA was conducted. According to the results, there was no significant main effect of father’s education [Multivariate $F(8, 1074) = 1.05$, ns, Wilk’s Lambda = .98, $\eta^2 = .01$] on anger. Since, the Multivariate F was not significant, univariate analyses were not examined.

Table 42. MANOVA for Father's Education and Anger

Source	Multivariate					Univariate		
	Lambda	Wilks'	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	η^2	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	η^2
FATHER'S EDUCATION	.98	1.05	8,1074	.01	-	-	-	-
Trait Anger	-	-	-	-	0.00	2, 540	.00	
Anger In	-	-	-	-	2.05	2, 540	.01	
Anger Out	-	-	-	-	0.08	2, 540	.00	
Anger Control	-	-	-	-	1.22	2, 540	.01	

3.3.7. Differences of Demographic Variables on Emotion Regulation

Differences of gender, employment status, living style, mother's education, and father's education on emotion regulation were investigated.

3.3.7.1 The Effect of Gender on Emotion Regulation

In order to investigate the effect of gender (i.e., female and male) on subscales of emotion regulation (i.e., cognitive reappraisal and suppression) MANOVA was performed. The results did not reveal significant main effect of gender [Multivariate $F(2, 541) = 0.82$, ns, Wilk's Lamba = 1.00, $\eta^2 = .00$] on emotion regulation. Since the Multivariate F was not significant, univariate analyses were not examined.

Table 43. MANOVA for Gender and Emotion Regulation

Source	Multivariate				Univariate		
	Lambda	Wilk's'	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	η^2	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>
GENDER	1.00	0.82	2,541	.00	-	-	-
Cognitive Reappraisal	-	-	-	-	0.48	1, 542	.00
Suppression	-	-	-	-	0.06	1, 542	.00

3.3.7.2 The Effect of Employment Status on Emotion Regulation

In order to examine the effect of employment status (i.e., student and employed) on subscales of emotion regulation (i.e., cognitive reappraisal and suppression) MANOVA was carried out. The results yielded that there was no significant main effect of employment status, [Multivariate $F(2, 538) = 1.66$, ns, Wilk's Lambda = 0.99, $\eta^2 = .01$] on emotion regulation. Since the Multivariate F was not significant, univariate analyses were not examined.

Table 44. MANOVA for Employment Status and Emotion Regulation

Source	Multivariate				Univariate		
	Lambda	Wilk's'	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	η^2	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>
EMPLOYMENT STATUS	0.99	1.66	2,538	.01	-	-	-
Cognitive Reappraisal	-	-	-	-	1.54	1, 539	.00
Suppression	-	-	-	-	0.00	1, 539	.00

3.3.7.3 The Effect of Living Style on Emotion Regulation

In order to examine the effect of living style (i.e., living with parents or living with friends, with relatives, or alone) on subscales of emotion regulation (i.e. cognitive reappraisal and suppression) MANOVA was conducted. The results yielded that there was no significant main effect of living style, [Multivariate $F(2, 541) = 0.94$, ns, Wilk's Lambda = 1.00, $\eta^2 = .00$] on emotion regulation. Since the Multivariate F was not significant, univariate analyses were not examined.

Table 45. MANOVA for Living Style and Emotion Regulation

Source	Multivariate					Univariate		
	Lambda	Wilk's	F	df	η^2	F	df	η^2
LIVING STYLE	1.00	0.94	2,541	.00	-	-	-	
Cognitive Reappraisal	-	-	-	-	1.68	1, 542	.00	
Suppression	-	-	-	-	1.57	1, 542	.00	

3.3.7.4 The Effect of Mother's Education on Emotion Regulation

In order to examine the effect of mother's education (i.e., low, moderate, and high) on subscales of emotion regulation (i.e., cognitive reappraisal and suppression) MANOVA was carried out. The results yielded a significant main effect of mother's education for emotion regulation, [Multivariate $F(4, 1080) = 2.43$, $p < .05$, Wilk's Lambda = .98, $\eta^2 = .01$]

Following Multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were performed for the main effect of mother's education with the Bonferroni correction. According to this correction, for the univariate analyses, the alpha values that were lower than .025 (division of alpha level by the number of subscales, i.e., $.05/2 = .025$) were considered to be significant. The results of univariate analyses based on this

correction did not point out any significant main effect on emotion regulation strategies.

Table 46. MANOVA for Mother’s Education and Emotion Regulation

Source	Multivariate					Univariate		
	Lambda	Wilks’	F	df	η^2	F	df	η^2
MOTHER’S EDUCATION	.98	2.43*	4,1080	.01	-	-	-	-
Cognitive Reappraisal	-	-	-	-	2.82	2, 541	.01	
Suppression	-	-	-	-	1.35	2, 541	.01	

* $p < .05$

3.3.7.5 The Effect of Father’s Education on Emotion Regulation

In order to examine the effect of father’s education (i.e., low, moderate, and high) on subscales of emotion regulation (i.e., cognitive reappraisal and suppression) MANOVA was carried out. The results did not reveal significant main effect of father’s education [Multivariate $F(4, 1078) = 2.31$, ns, Wilk’s Lambda = .98, $\eta^2 = .01$] on emotion regulation strategies. Since the Multivariate F was not significant, univariate analyses were not investigated.

Table 47. MANOVA for Father's Education and Emotion Regulation

Source	Multivariate					Univariate		
	Lambda	Wilks'	F	df	η^2	F	df	η^2
FATHER'S EDUCATION	.98	2.31	4,1078	.01	-	-	-	-
Cognitive Reappraisal	-	-	-	-	3.46	2, 540	.01	
Suppression	-	-	-	-	2.37	2, 540	.01	

3.3.8. Differences of Demographic Variables on Difficulties in Emotion Regulation

Differences of gender, employment status, living style, mother's education, and father's education on difficulties of emotion regulation were investigated.

3.3.8.1 The Effect of Gender on Difficulties in Emotion Regulation

In order to investigate the effect of gender (i.e., female and male) on subscales of difficulty of emotion regulation (i.e., lack of emotional awareness, lack of emotional clarity, non-acceptance of emotional responses, limited access to effective ER strategies, inability in engaging goal directed behavior, and impulse control difficulties) MANOVA was performed. The results yielded a significant main effect of gender [Multivariate $F(6, 537) = 7.82, p < .001$, Wilk's Lambda = .92, $\eta^2 = .08$] on difficulty of emotion regulation.

Following to Multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were examined for the main effects of gender with the Bonferroni correction. According to this correction, for the univariate analyses, the alpha values that were lower than .008 (calculated by dividing alpha level by the number of subscales, i.e., $.05/6 = .008$) were considered to be significant. Based on this correction, the results yielded a significant main effect for lack of emotional awareness, $F(1, 542) = 26.06, p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .05$, indicating that females ($M = 22.17$) reported higher level of difficulty in

emotional awareness than males ($M = 20.18$). Secondly, there was a significant main effect of gender for non-acceptance of emotional responses, $F(1, 542) = 7.51$, $p < .008$, $\eta^2 = .01$. Accordingly, females ($M = 12.40$) indicated higher level of non-acceptance of emotional responses than males ($M = 11.00$). Finally, the results revealed a significant main effect for inability in engaging goal directed behavior, $F(1, 542) = 7.12$, $p \leq .008$, $\eta^2 = .01$. According to these results, females ($M = 14.93$) reported more difficulty in engaging goal directed behavior than males ($M = 13.66$).

Table 48. MANOVA for Gender and Difficulties in Emotion Regulation

Source	Multivariate					Univariate		
	Lambda	Wilks's λ	F	df	η^2	F	df	η^2
GENDER	.92	7.82**	6,537		.08	-	-	-
Lack of Emotional Awareness	-	-	-	-	-	26.06**	1, 542	.05
Lack of Emotional Clarity	-	-	-	-	-	0.48	1, 542	.00
Non-acceptance of Emotional Response	-	-	-	-	-	7.51*	1, 542	.01
Limited Access to Effective ER strategies	-	-	-	-	-	6.02	1, 542	.01
Inability to Engage in Goal Directed behavior	-	-	-	-	-	7.12*	1, 542	.01
Impulse Control difficulties	-	-	-	-	-	1.14	1, 542	.00

* $p < .008$, ** $p < .001$

Table 49. Mean Scores of Gender on Difficulties in Emotion Regulation

	Female	Male
Lack of Emotional Awareness	22.17	20.18
Non-acceptance of Emotional Response	12.40	11.00
Inability to Engage in Goal Directed behavior	14.93	13.66

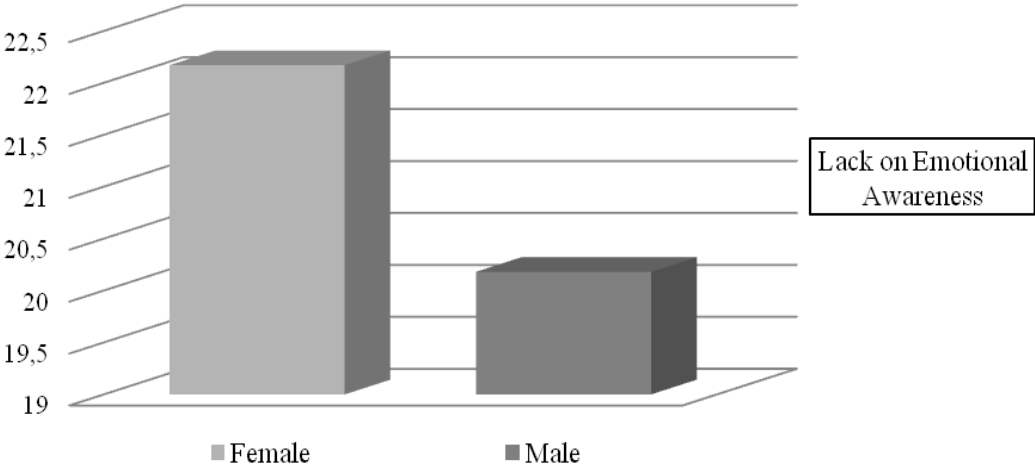


Figure 26. Mean Scores of Gender on Lack of Emotional Awareness

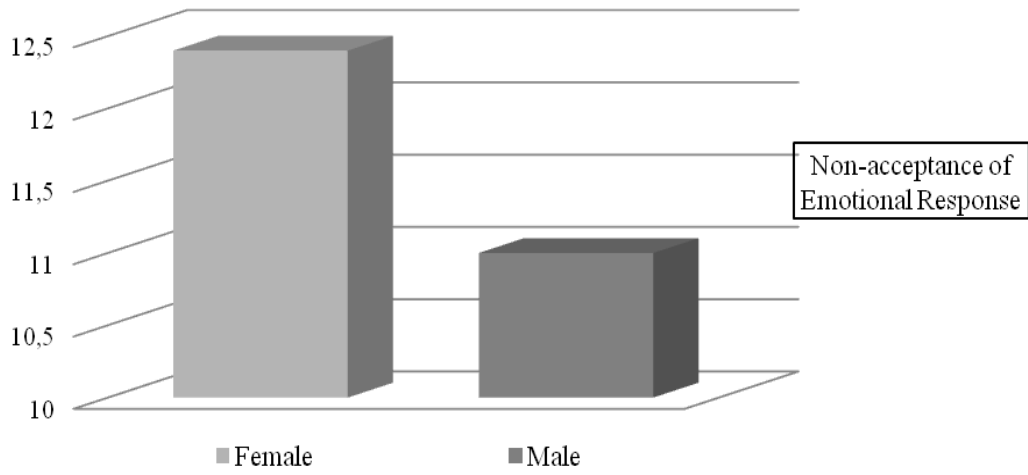


Figure 27. Mean Scores of Gender on Non-acceptance of Emotional Response

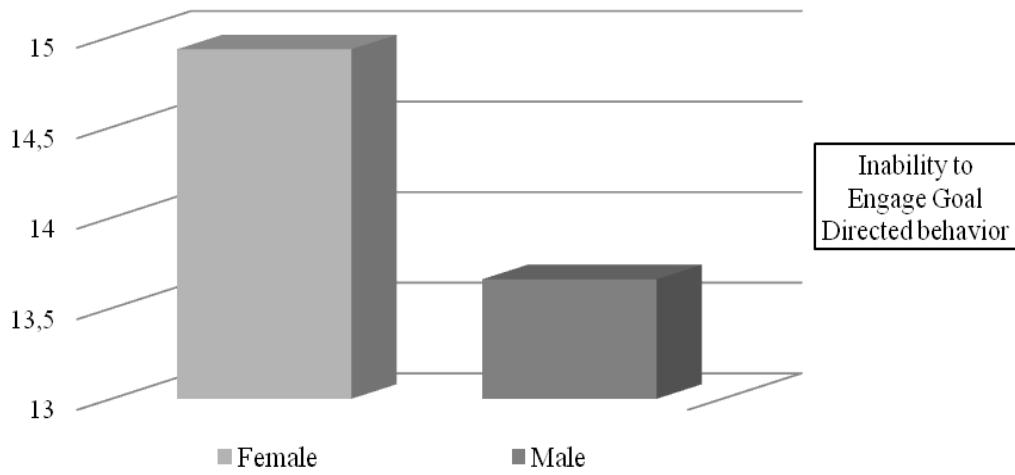


Figure 28. Mean Scores of Gender on Inability to Engage in Goal Directed Behavior

3.3.8.2 The Effect of Employment Status on Difficulties in Emotion Regulation

In order to examine the effect of employment status (i.e., student and employed) on difficulties of emotion regulation (i.e., lack of emotional awareness, lack of emotional clarity, non-acceptance of emotional responses, limited access to effective ER strategies, inability in engaging goal directed behavior, and impulse control difficulties) MANOVA was conducted. The results revealed a significant main effect of employment status [Multivariate $F(6, 534) = 4.25, p < .001$, Wilk's $\Lambda = .95, \eta^2 = .05$].

Following the Multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were performed for the main effect of employment status with the Bonferroni correction. According to this correction, for the univariate analyses, the alpha values that were lower than .008 (calculated by dividing alpha level by the number of subscales, i.e., $.05/6 = .008$) were accepted as significant. Based on this correction, the results revealed a significant main effect for limited access to effective ER strategies, $F(1, 539) = 9.42, p < .008, \eta^2 = .02$, indicating that students ($M = 18.64$) had more limitations in accessing effective ER strategies than employed participants ($M = 16.83$). Secondly, the results yielded a significant main effect of employment status for inability in engaging in goal directed behavior, $F(1, 539) = 21.63, p < .001, \eta^2 = .04$. Accordingly, students ($M = 15.56$) reported more difficulty in engaging goal directed behavior than employed individuals ($M = 13.66$). Finally, the results of the univariate analyses revealed that there was a significant main effect of employment status for impulse control difficulty, $F(1, 539) = 11.85, p \leq .001, \eta^2 = .02$. Accordingly, students ($M = 13.24$) had more difficulty in impulse control than employed individuals ($M = 11.73$).

Table 50. MANOVA for Employment Status and Difficulties in Emotion Regulation

Source	Multivariate					Univariate		
	Lambda	Wilks'	F	df	η^2	F	df	η^2
EMPLOYMENT STATUS	.95	4.25**	6,534		.05	-	-	-
Lack of Emotional Awareness	-	-	-	-	-	1.00	1, 539	.00
Lack of Emotional Clarity	-	-	-	-	-	4.63	1, 539	.01
Non-acceptance of Emotion Response	-	-	-	-	-	4.82	1, 539	.01
Limited Access to Effective ER strategies	-	-	-	-	-	9.42*	1, 539	.02
Inability to Engage in Goal Directed behavior						21.63**	1, 539	.04
Impulse Control Difficulties						11.85**	1, 539	.02

* $p < .008$, ** $p < .001$

Table 51. Mean Scores of Employment Status on Difficulties in Emotion Regulation

	Students	Employed
Limited Access to Effective ER strategies	18.64	16.83
Inability to Engage in Goal Directed behavior	15.56	13.66
Impulse Control Difficulties	13.24	11.73

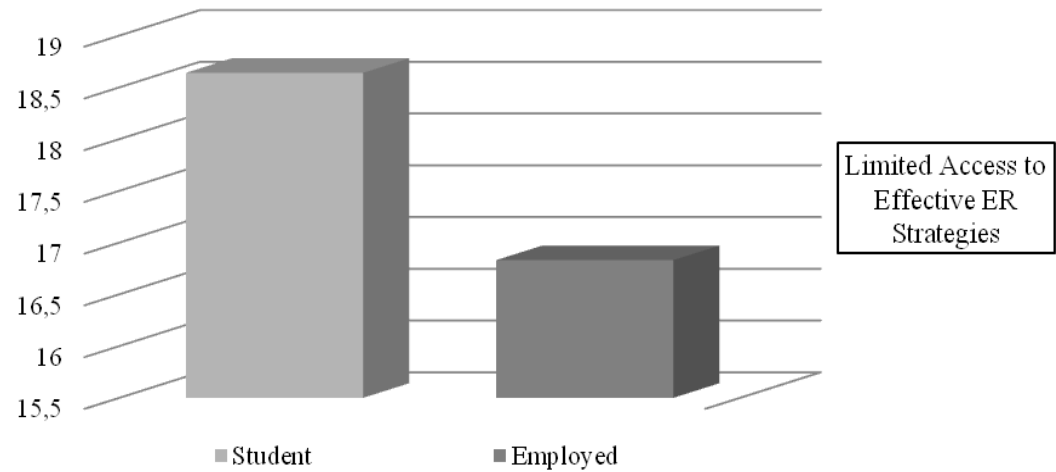


Figure 29. Mean Scores of Employment Status on Limited Access to Effective ER Strategies

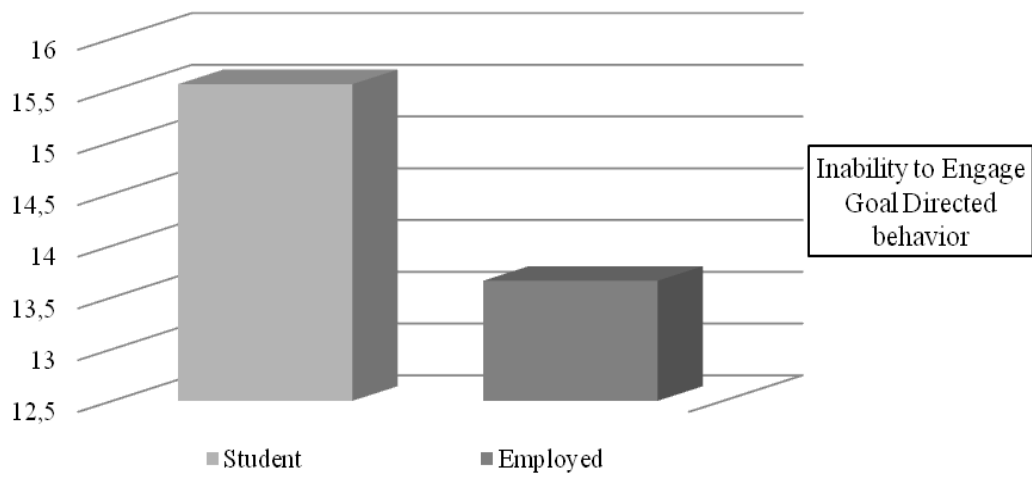


Figure 30. Mean Scores of Employment Status on Inability to Engage in Goal Directed Behavior



Figure 31. Mean Scores of Employment Status on Impulse Control Difficulties

3.3.8.3 The Effect of Living Style on Difficulties in Emotion Regulation

In order to examine the effect of living style (i.e., living with parents or living with friends, with relatives, and alone) on difficulties of emotion regulation (i.e., lack of emotional awareness, lack of emotional clarity, non-acceptance of emotional responses, limited access to effective ER strategies, inability in engaging goal directed behavior, and impulse control difficulties) MANOVA was conducted. The results yielded a significant main effect of living style [Multivariate $F(6, 537) = 4.17, p < .001, \text{Wilk's Lambda} = .96, \eta^2 = .05$] on difficulty of emotion regulation.

After Multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were performed for the main effect of living style with the Bonferroni correction. According to this correction, for the univariate analyses, the alpha values that were lower than .008 (division of alpha level by the number of subscales, i.e., $.05/6 = .008$) were considered to be significant. Based on this correction, the results revealed a significant main effect for lack of emotional clarity, $F(1, 542) = 8.08, p < .008, \eta^2 = .02$. Accordingly, participants who were currently living with their parents ($M = 19.25$) had more difficulty than participants who were not currently living with parents ($M = 18.33$) in terms of emotional clarity. In addition, the results yielded a significant main effect for limited access to effective ER strategies, $F(1, 542) = 12.67, p < .001, \eta^2 = .02$. Accordingly, individuals who were not currently living with their parents ($M = 18.99$) had more difficulty in engaging in effective ER strategies than individuals who were living with their parents ($M = 16.86$). Finally, there was a main effect for inability engaging in goal directed behavior, $F(1, 542) = 20.32, p < .001, \eta^2 = .04$, indicating that participants who were living with their parents ($M = 13.86$) reported less inability to engage in goal directed behavior than participants who were not living with their parents ($M = 15.73$).

Table 52. MANOVA for Living Style and Difficulties in Emotion Regulation

Source	Multivariate					Univariate		
	Lambda	Wilks'	F	df	η^2	F	df	η^2
LIVING STYLE	.96	4.17**	6,537		.05	-	-	-
Lack of Emotional Awareness	-	-	-	-	-	0.06	1, 542	.00
Lack of Emotional Clarity	-	-	-	-	-	8.08*	1, 542	.02
Non-acceptance of Emotion Response	-	-	-	-	-	5.58	1, 542	.01
Limited Access to Effective ER strategies	-	-	-	-	-	12.67**	1, 542	.02
Inability to Engage in Goal Directed behavior	-	-	-	-	-	20.32**	1, 542	.04
Impulse Control Difficulties	-	-	-	-	-	6.32	1, 542	.01

* $p < .008$, ** $p < .001$

Table 53. Mean Scores of Living Style on Difficulties in Emotion Regulation

	with Parents	Other
Lack of Emotional Clarity	19.25	18.33
Limited Access to Effective ER strategies	16.86	18.99
Inability to Engage in Goal Directed behavior	13.86	15.73

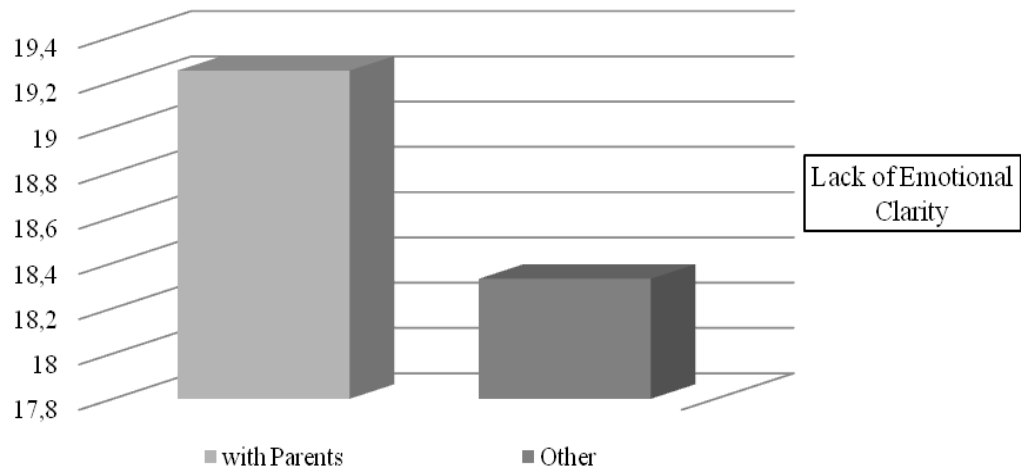


Figure 32. Mean Scores of Living Style on Lack of Emotional Clarity

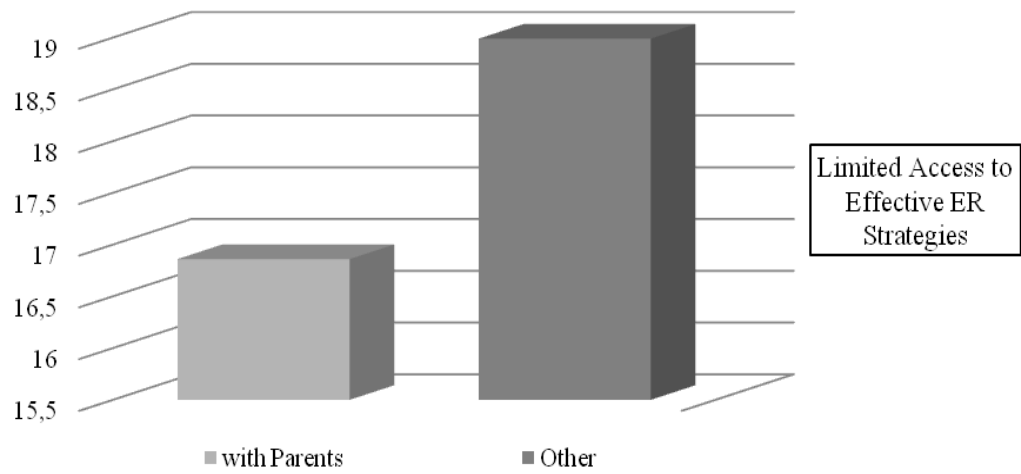


Figure 33. Mean Scores of Living Style on Limited Access to Effective ER Strategies

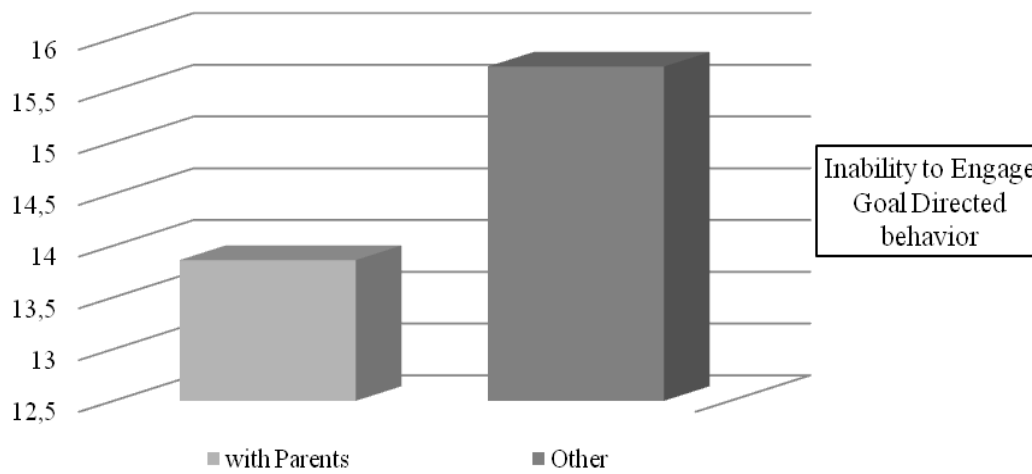


Figure 34. Mean Scores of Living Style on Inability to Engage in Goal Directed Behavior

3.3.8.4 The Effect of Mother’s Education on Difficulties in Emotion Regulation

In order to examine the effect of mother’s education (i.e., low, moderate, and high) on difficulties of emotion regulation (i.e., lack of emotional awareness, lack of emotional clarity, non-acceptance of emotional responses, limited access to effective ER strategies, inability in engaging goal directed behavior, and impulse control difficulties) MANOVA was carried out. The results revealed that there was no significant main effect of mother’s education [Multivariate $F(12, 1072) = 1.59$, ns, Wilk’s Lambda = .97, $\eta^2 = .02$] on difficulty of emotion regulation. Since the Multivariate F was not significant, univariate analyses were not examined.

Table 54. MANOVA for Mother's Education and Difficulties of Emotion Regulation

Source	Multivariate					Univariate		
	Lambda	Wilks'	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	η^2	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	η^2
MOTHER'S EDUCATION	.97		1.59	12,1072	.02	-	-	-
Lack of Emotional Awareness	-	-	-	-	-	0.88	1, 541	.00
Lack of Emotional Clarity	-	-	-	-	-	0.79	1, 541	.00
Non-acceptance of Emotion Response	-	-	-	-	-	0.61	1, 541	.00
Limited Access to Effective ER strategies	-	-	-	-	-	0.64	1, 541	.00
Inability to Engage in Goal Directed behavior	-	-	-	-	-	0.10	1, 541	.00
Impulse Control Difficulties	-	-	-	-	-	0.55	1, 541	.00

3.3.8.5 The Effect of Father's Education on Difficulties in Emotion Regulation

In order to examine the effect of father's education (i.e., low, moderate, and high) on difficulties of emotion regulation (i.e., lack of emotional awareness, lack of emotional clarity, non-acceptance of emotional responses, limited access to effective ER strategies, inability in engaging goal directed behavior and impulse control difficulties) MANOVA was conducted. The results revealed that there was no significant main effect of father's education [Multivariate $F(12, 1070) = 0.97$, ns, Wilk's Lambda = .97, $\eta^2 = .02$] on difficulty of emotion regulation. Since the Multivariate F was not significant, univariate analyses were not examined.

Table 55. MANOVA for Father’s Education and Difficulties of Emotion Regulation

Source	Multivariate					Univariate		
	Lambda	Wilks’ λ	F	df	η^2	F	df	η^2
FATHER’S EDUCATION	.97	0.97	12,1070	.02	-	-	-	-
Lack of Emotional Awareness	-	-	-	-	0.25	1, 540	.00	
Lack of Emotional Clarity	-	-	-	-	0.44	1, 540	.00	
Non-acceptance of Emotion Response	-	-	-	-	0.38	1, 540	.00	
Limited Access to Effective ER strategies	-	-	-	-	0.57	1, 540	.00	
Inability to Engage in Goal Directed behavior	-	-	-	-	0.99	1, 540	.00	
Impulse Control Difficulties	-	-	-	-	1.21	1, 540	.00	

3.4 Correlation Coefficients between Variables Examined in the Present Study

In order to investigate the relationship between subscales of Short- Egna Minnen Beträffande Uppfostran (EMBU-Own Memories of Upbringing) including Emotional Warmth, Overprotection and Rejection for both mother and father, subscales of Test of Self-Conscious Affect-3 (TOSCA-3) [i.e., Shame Proneness, Externalization, Detachment, Dutifulness and Situational guilt]; the subscales of Trait Anger and Anger Expression Scale (TAXI) [i.e., Trait Anger, Anger In, Anger Out and Anger Control]; the subscales of Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (ERQ) [i.e., Cognitive Reappraisal and Suppression]; six subscales of Difficulties in

Emotion Regulation Scale (DERS) [i.e., Lack of Emotional Awareness, Lack of Emotional Clarity, Non-Acceptance of Emotional Responses, Limited Access to Effective ER Strategies, Inability in Engaging Goal Directed Behavior and Impulse Control Difficulties], State-Trait Anxiety Inventory-Trait Form (STAI-T); Penn State Worry Questionnaire (PSWQ); Beck Depression Inventory (BDI), Pearson correlation analyses were performed. Considering the large sample size, among significant correlations only those having a correlation coefficient equal or larger than .25 were interpreted. (see Table 51)

According to the results for perceived maternal parenting styles, Maternal Emotional Warmth revealed negative correlations with Maternal Rejection ($r = -.50, p < .01$) and Paternal Rejection ($r = -.30, p < .01$), whereas positive correlations with Paternal Emotional Warmth ($r = .65, p < .01$). Secondly, Maternal Overprotection was positively associated with Maternal Rejection ($r = .38, p < .01$), Paternal Overprotection ($r = .69, p < .01$) and Paternal Rejection ($r = .28, p < .01$). Perceived emotional warmth and overprotection related to mother did not reveal interpretative association with emotional experience or psychological symptoms. Finally, Maternal Rejection was negatively correlated with Paternal Emotional Warmth ($r = -.34, p < .01$), and positively correlated with Paternal Rejection ($r = .57, p < .01$) and Depression ($r = .33, p < .01$).

The results for the perceived paternal parenting styles, Paternal Emotional Warmth was negatively associated with Paternal Rejection ($r = -.52, p < .01$). Paternal Overprotection was positively correlated with Paternal Rejection ($r = .34, p < .01$). For these two subscales, there were no interpretative correlations with emotional experience or psychological symptoms. On the other hand, the results for Paternal Rejection yielded positive association for Anger In ($r = .25, p < .01$) and Depression ($r = .38, p < .01$).

For the first group of self-conscious emotions, namely Shame Proneness, there was positive correlation with Externalization ($r = .31, p < .01$), Dutifulness ($r = .38, p < .01$) and also Anger In ($r = .32, p < .01$). For the subscales related to difficulty of emotion regulation, shame was positively correlated with Non-Acceptance of Emotional Response ($r = .39, p < .01$), Limited Access to Effective

ER Strategies ($r = .39, p < .01$), Inability to Engage in Goal Directed Behavior ($r = .34, p < .01$), Impulse Control Difficulties ($r = .28, p < .01$); and negatively correlated with Lack of Emotional Clarity ($r = -.26, p < .01$). Moreover, the results yielded significant and positive association of shame for Trait Anxiety ($r = .39, p < .01$), Worry ($r = .41, p < .01$), and Depression ($r = .29, p < .01$).

For Externalization as the second group of self-conscious emotions, there was positive correlation with Trait Anger ($r = .28, p < .01$); Non-Acceptance of Emotional Response ($r = .29, p < .01$), Limited Access to Effective ER Strategies ($r = .29, p < .01$), and Impulse Control Difficulties ($r = .29, p < .01$). On the other hand, Externalization did not reveal any strong association with any type of psychological symptoms.

The results indicated that Detachment was strongly and positively correlated only with Dutifulness ($r = .31, p < .01$). However, Detachment, Dutifulness, and Situational Guilt were not interpretatively associated with anger related experiences, types of emotion regulation or psychological symptoms.

Trait Anger was significantly correlated with all styles of anger experience. Accordingly, there were positive associations with Anger In ($r = .37, p < .01$); Anger Out ($r = .69, p < .01$); and negative association for Anger Control ($r = -.56, p < .01$). In addition, Trait Anger was negatively correlated with Lack of Emotional Clarity ($r = -.33, p < .01$); but positively correlated with Non-Acceptance of Emotional Response ($r = .42, p < .01$), Limited Access to Effective ER Strategies ($r = .43, p < .01$), Inability to Engage in Goal Directed Behavior ($r = .36, p < .01$), and Impulse Control Difficulties ($r = .52, p < .01$). Finally, trait anger had positive associations with Trait Anxiety ($r = .47, p < .01$), Worry ($r = .38, p < .01$), and Depression ($r = .36, p < .01$).

For the first group of anger expression, namely Anger In, there was a negative correlation with Lack of Emotional Clarity ($r = -.31, p < .01$); but it was positively correlated with Non-Acceptance of Emotional Response ($r = .37, p < .01$), Limited Access to Effective ER Strategies ($r = .42, p < .01$), Inability to Engage in Goal Directed Behavior ($r = .32, p < .01$), and Impulse Control Difficulties ($r = .30, p < .01$). In addition, internalizing anger had positive

associations with Trait Anxiety ($r = .44, p < .01$), Worry ($r = .40, p < .01$), and Depression ($r = .38, p < .01$).

For Anger Out, as a second group of anger expression, the results yielded a negative correlation with anger control ($r = -.52, p < .01$). Moreover, externalizing anger had a negative association with Suppression ($r = -.28, p < .01$), and positive associations with Limited Access to Effective ER Strategies ($r = .26, p < .01$), Inability to Engage in Goal Directed Behavior ($r = .25, p < .01$), and Impulse Control Difficulties ($r = .36, p < .01$). Finally, externalizing anger was positively correlated with Trait Anxiety ($r = .25, p < .01$).

For Anger Control, there was positive correlations with Suppression ($r = .36, p < .01$) and Lack of Emotional Clarity ($r = .28, p < .01$), and negative correlation with Non-Acceptance of Emotional Response ($r = -.28, p < .01$), Limited Access to Effective ER Strategies ($r = -.37, p < .01$), Inability to Engage in Goal Directed Behavior ($r = -.31, p < .01$), and Impulse Control Difficulties ($r = -.49, p < .01$). In addition, controlling anger was negatively associated with Trait Anxiety ($r = -.37, p < .01$) and Worry ($r = -.32, p < .01$).

Among the emotion regulation strategies, Cognitive Reappraisal was positively correlated with Suppression ($r = .72, p < .01$); whereas, Suppression was correlated with Limited Access to Effective ER Strategies ($r = -.25, p < .01$).

Among the first group of difficulty in emotion regulation, specifically, Lack of Emotional Awareness was only and positively correlated with Lack of Emotional Clarity ($r = .45, p < .01$). On the other hand, there was no interpretive association between lack of emotional awareness and psychological symptoms.

Lack of Emotional Awareness was negatively correlated with Non-Acceptance of Emotional Response ($r = -.44, p < .01$), Limited Access to Effective ER Strategies ($r = -.43, p < .01$), Inability to Engage in Goal Directed Behavior ($r = -.30, p < .01$), and Impulse Control Difficulties ($r = -.48, p < .01$). In addition, there were negative associations between Lack of Emotional Awareness and Trait Anxiety ($r = -.48, p < .01$), Worry ($r = -.33, p < .01$), as well as Depression ($r = -.42, p < .01$).

For the Non-Acceptance of Emotional Response, the results yielded positive relations with Limited Access to Effective ER Strategies ($r = .68, p < .01$), Inability to Engage in Goal Directed Behavior ($r = .48, p < .01$), and Impulse Control Difficulties ($r = .61, p < .01$). Furthermore, difficulty in accepting emotional response was positively associated with psychological symptoms, namely, Trait Anxiety ($r = .58, p < .01$), Worry ($r = .54, p < .01$), as well as Depression ($r = .48, p < .01$).

For Limited Access to Effective ER Strategies, there were positive correlations with Inability to Engage in Goal Directed Behavior ($r = .69, p < .01$), and Impulse Control Difficulties ($r = .73, p < .01$). Additionally, this limitation was positively associated with Trait Anxiety ($r = .72, p < .01$), Worry ($r = .67, p < .01$), and also Depression ($r = .56, p < .01$).

According to the results of Inability to Engage in Goal Directed Behavior, there were positive relations with Impulse Control Difficulties ($r = .64, p < .01$), as well as with Trait Anxiety ($r = .57, p < .01$), Worry ($r = .54, p < .01$), and Depression ($r = .43, p < .01$).

For the Impulse Control Difficulties, the results indicated positive correlations with all psychological measures, namely, Trait Anxiety ($r = .61, p < .01$), Worry ($r = .52, p < .01$), as well as Depression ($r = .47, p < .01$).

For the group of psychological symptoms, Trait Anxiety was positively associated with Worry ($r = .75, p < .01$) and Depression ($r = .63, p < .01$). In addition, worry was positively related with Depression ($r = .47, p < .01$).

Table 56a. Pearson Correlations between Measures of the Study

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13													
1	1	-.08	-.50**	.65**	-.02	-.30**	.01	-.02	.09*	.22**	-.07	-.03	-.02													
2		1	.38**	-.09*	.69**	.28**	.17**	.11*	-.02	.06	-.04	.15**	.14**													
3			1	-.34**	.18**	.57**	.14**	.16**	-.00	-.05	-.04	.13**	.17**													
4				1	-.02	-.52**	-.03	-.01	.06	.20**	-.06	-.06	-.12**													
5					1	.34**	.13**	.14**	.03	.13**	-.00	.16**	.12**													
6						1	.16**	.16**	.01	-.02	.01	.18**	.25**													
7							1	.31**	-.15**	.38**	.18**	.19**	.32**													
8								1	.19**	.11*	-.12**	.28**	.21**													
9									1	.31**	-.18**	-.06	-.01													
10										1	.15**	.07	.05													
11											1	-.19**	-.14**													
12												1	.37**													
13													1													
14														1												
15															1											
16																1										
17																	1									
18																		1								
19																			1							
20																				1						
21																					1					
22																						1				
23																							1			
24																								1		
25																									1	
26																										1

Note 1. * p <.05, ** p <.01, Note 2. 1.Mother Emotional Warmth, 2. Mother Overprotection, 3. Mother Rejection, 4. Father Emotional Warmth, 5. Father Overprotection, 6. Father Rejection, 7.Shame Proneness, 8. Externalization, 9. Detachment, 10. Dutifulness, 11. Situational Guilt, 12. Trait Anger, 13. Anger In, 14. Anger Out, 15. Anger Control, 16. Cognitive Reappraisal, 17. Suppression, 18. Lack of Emotional Awareness, 19. Lack of Emotional Clarity, 20. Non-acceptance of Emotional Response, 21. Limited Access to Effective ER strategies, 22. Inability to Engage in Goal Directed Behavior, 23. Impulse Control Difficulties, 24. Trait Anxiety, 25. Worry, 26. Depression

Table 56b. Pearson Correlations between Measures of the Study (continued)

	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26
1	-.01	.16**	.02	.13**	.11**	.04	-.06	-.06	-.00	-.03	-.11**	-.06	-.13**
2	.13**	-.10*	.05	-.02	.05	-.06	.18**	.18**	.19**	.18**	.23**	.21**	.24**
3	.13**	-.13**	-.03	-.12**	-.07	-.14**	.21**	.20**	.13**	.18**	.22**	.18**	.33**
4	-.02	.12**	.03	.08	.15**	.09*	-.05	-.09*	-.04	-.06	-.17**	-.10*	-.20**
5	.12**	-.11**	.11**	.03	.06	-.03	.15***	.15***	.19**	.19**	.20**	.15**	.21**
6	.16**	-.11**	-.06	-.09*	-.03	-.13**	.21**	.24**	.14**	.22**	.26**	.21**	.38**
7	.04	-.07	.02	-.01	-.04	-.26**	.39**	.39**	.34**	.28**	.39**	.41**	.29**
8	.24**	-.19**	.09*	-.03	-.14**	-.24**	.29**	.29**	.20**	.29**	.22**	.17**	.21**
9	.07	.20**	.14**	.19**	.14**	.05	-.13**	-.13**	-.06	.10*	-.14**	-.18**	-.05
10	.02	.09*	.13**	.21**	.23**	.00	.10*	.08	.17**	.05	.10*	.10*	.05
11	-.18**	.11**	.03	.07	.11**	.09*	-.03	-.05	-.04	-.07	-.02	-.06	-.04
12	.69**	-.56**	-.07	-.20**	-.14**	-.33**	.42**	.43**	.36**	.52**	.47**	.38**	.36**
13	.18**	-.03	.17**	.04	-.13**	-.31**	.37**	.42**	.32**	.30**	.44**	.40**	.38**
14	1	-.52**	-.19**	-.28**	-.05	-.18**	.23**	.26**	.25**	.36**	.25**	.17**	.23**
15		1	.24**	.36**	.17**	.28**	-.28**	-.37**	-.31**	-.49**	-.37**	-.32**	-.24**
16			1	.72**	-.02	-.03	.03	-.10*	-.04	-.07	-.06	-.09*	-.03
17				1	.14**	.10**	-.08	-.25**	-.12**	-.23**	-.20**	-.19**	-.12**
18					1	.45**	-.14**	-.10*	.00	-.16**	-.14**	-.02	-.18**
19						1	-.44**	-.43**	-.30**	-.48**	-.48**	-.33**	-.42**
20							1	.68**	.48**	.61**	.58**	.54**	.48**
21								1	.69**	.73**	.72**	.67**	.56**
22									1	.64**	.57**	.54**	.43**
23										1	.61**	.52**	.47**
24											1	.75**	.63**
25												1	.47**
26													1

Note 1. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, **Note 2.** 1. Mother Emotional Warmth, 2. Mother Overprotection, 3. Mother Rejection, 4. Father Emotional Warmth, 5. Father Overprotection, 6. Father Rejection, 7. Shame Proneness, 8. Externalization, 9. Detachment, 10. Dutifulness, 11. Situational Guilt, 12. Trait Anger, 13. Anger In, 14. Anger Out, 15. Anger Control, 16. Cognitive Reappraisal, 17. Suppression, 18. Lack of Emotional Awareness, 19. Lack of Emotional Clarity, 20. Non-acceptance of Emotional Response, 21. Limited Access to Effective ER strategies, 22. Inability to Engage in Goal Directed Behavior, 23. Impulse Control Difficulties, 24. Trait Anxiety, 25. Worry, 26. Depression.

3.5 The Factors Associated with Difficulties in Emotion Regulation

In order to examine the associated factors of difficulties in emotion regulation 6 separate hierarchical regression analyses were carried out. For this regression analyses, the dependent variables were Lack of Emotional Awareness, Lack of Emotional Clarity, Non-acceptance of Emotional Response, Limited Access to Effective ER strategies, Inability to Engage in Goal Directed Behavior, and Impulse Control Difficulties. Independent variables entered into the equation via two steps. For all analyses, in the first step, 6 different parental styles, namely; Mother's Emotional Warmth, Mother's Rejection, Mother's Overprotection, Father's Emotional Warmth, Father's Rejection and Father's Overprotection, were entered via stepwise method, in order to control possible effects of perceived parental styles. After controlling different parenting styles that were significantly associated with the dependent variable, in the second step 9 different types of emotions (i.e. Trait Anger, Anger In, Anger Out, Anger Control, Shame, Dutifulness, Detachment, Externalization, and Guilt) were again entered to the regression analyses via stepwise method.

3.5.1 The Factors Associated with Lack of Emotional Awareness

The first regression analysis examined the factors associated with lack of emotional awareness. In terms of the effects of parenting styles, only father's emotional warmth entered into the regression equation ($\beta = .15$, $t(540) = 3.44$, $p \leq .001$, $pr = .15$) and explained 2% of the variance by itself, $F_{\text{change}}(1,540) = 11.82$, $p \leq .001$.

After controlling for parenting styles, among different emotions as the second step, initially dutifulness was significantly associated with the lack of emotional awareness ($\beta = .21$, $t(539) = 4.97$, $p < .001$, $pr = .21$) and increased explained the variance to 20%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,539) = 24.71$, $p < .001$. Following that, externalization entered into the equation ($\beta = -.16$, $t(538) = -3.84$, $p < .001$, $pr = -.16$) and the explained variance increased to 28%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,538) = 14.75$, $p < .001$. Thirdly, trait anger was significantly associated with the lack of emotional awareness ($\beta = -.12$, $t(537) = -2.73$, $p < .01$, $pr = -.12$) and increased explained the

variance to 31%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,537) = 7.47, p < .01$. Finally, detachment entered into the equation ($\beta = .09, t(536) = 2.12, p < .05, pr = .09$) and the explained variance increased slightly to 35%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,536) = 4.49, p < .5$.

Consequently, the results of the regression analysis revealed that higher level of perceived paternal emotional warmth was significantly associated with increased difficulty in emotional awareness. In addition, higher level of dutifulness and detachment, as well as lower level of externalization and trait anger were significantly associated with more difficulty in emotional awareness.

Table 57. Associates of Lack of Emotional Awareness

	<i>F</i> _{change}	<i>df</i>	β	<i>t</i> (within set)	<i>pr</i>	R ²
Step I: Perceived Parenting Style						
1) Father's Emotional Warmth	11.82 ^{***}	1,540	.15	3.44 ^{***}	.15	.02
Step II: Emotions						
2) Dutifulness	24.71 ^{***}	1,539	.21	4.97 ^{***}	.21	.20
3) Externalization	14.75 ^{***}	1,538	-.16	-3.84 ^{***}	-.16	.28
4) Trait Anger	7.47 ^{**}	1,537	-.12	-2.73 ^{**}	-.12	.31
5) Detachment	4.49 [*]	1,536	.09	2.12 [*]	.09	.35

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

3.5.2 The Factors Associated with Lack of Emotional Clarity

The second regression analysis was carried out in order to examine the factors associated with difficulty in emotional clarity. In terms of the effects of perceived parenting styles, only mother's rejection entered into the regression equation ($\beta = -.13$, $t(540) = -3.17$, $p < .01$, $pr = -.13$) and explained 2% of the variance by itself, $F_{\text{change}}(1,540) = 10.03$, $p < .01$.

After controlling for parenting styles, among different emotions as the second step, initially trait anger was significantly associated with lack of emotional clarity ($\beta = -.32$, $t(539) = -7.83$, $p < .001$, $pr = -.32$) and the explained variance increased to 12%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,539) = 61.37$, $p < .001$. Secondly, internalizing anger entered into the regression equation ($\beta = -.21$, $t(538) = -4.97$, $p < .001$, $pr = -.21$) and increased explained variance to 16%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,538) = 24.75$, $p < .001$. Thirdly, anger control was significantly associated with difficulty in emotional clarity ($\beta = .20$, $t(537) = 4.11$, $p < .001$, $pr = .17$) and the explained variance increased to 18%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,537) = 16.87$, $p < .001$. After that, shame entered into the regression equation ($\beta = -.15$, $t(536) = -3.63$, $p < .001$, $pr = -.15$) and increased explained variance to 20%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,536) = 13.22$, $p < .001$. Finally, externalization had a significant association on the lack of emotional clarity ($\beta = -.09$, $t(535) = -2.12$, $p < .05$, $pr = -.09$) and slightly increased the explained variance to 21%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,535) = 4.50$, $p < .05$.

According to these results, in terms of parenting styles, maternal rejection was significantly and negatively associated with difficulty in emotional clarity. Following that, increased trait anger, internalizing anger, shame, externalization, and decreased anger control were significantly associated with experiencing less difficulty in emotional clarity.

Table 58. Associates of Lack of Emotional Clarity

	<i>F</i> change	<i>df</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>pr</i>	R^2
	(within set)					
Step I: Perceived Parenting						
Style						
1) Mother's Rejection	10.03**	1,540	-.13	-3.17**	-.13	.02
Step II: Emotions						
2) Trait Anger	61.37***	1,539	-.32	-7.83***	.32	.12
3) Anger In	24.75***	1,538	-.21	-4.97***	-.21	.16
4) Anger Control	16.87***	1,537	.20	4.11***	.17	.18
5) Shame	13.22***	1,536	-.15	-3.63***	-.15	.20
6) Externalization	4.50*	1,535	-.09	-2.12*	-.09	.21

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

3.5.3 The Factors Associated with the Non-acceptance of Emotional Response

The third regression analysis was carried out in order to investigate the factors associated with the non-acceptance of emotional response. In terms of the effects of perceived parenting styles, initially mother's rejection entered into the regression equation ($\beta = .21$, $t(540) = 5.01$, $p < .001$, $pr = .21$) and explained 4% of the variance by itself, $F_{\text{change}}(1,540) = 25.15$, $p < .001$. Secondly, mother's overprotection was significantly associated with difficulty in accepting emotional response ($\beta = .12$, $t(539) = 2.64$, $p < .01$, $pr = .11$); and increased the explained variance 6%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,539) = 6.97$, $p < .01$. Following that, father's rejection

entered into the equation ($\beta = .12$, $t(538) = 2.28$, $p < .05$, $pr = .10$); and the explained variance increased slightly to 7%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,538) = 5.20$, $p < .05$.

After controlling for parenting styles, which explained 7% of variance, among different emotions as the second step, initially trait anger was significantly associated with the non-acceptance of emotional response ($\beta = .38$, $t(537) = 9.78$, $p < .001$, $pr = .39$) and increased the explained variance to 21%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,537) = 95.60$, $p < .001$. After that, shame entered into the equation ($\beta = .30$, $t(536) = 7.98$, $p < .001$, $pr = .39$) and the explained variance increased to 29%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,536) = 63.62$, $p < .001$. Thirdly, internalizing anger had significant association with difficulty in accepting emotional response ($\beta = .16$, $t(535) = 3.94$, $p < .001$, $pr = .17$) and increased the explained variance to 31%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,535) = 15.51$, $p < .001$. Fourthly, anger control entered into the equation ($\beta = -.12$, $t(534) = -2.64$, $p < .01$, $pr = -.11$) and the explained variance slightly increased to 32%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,534) = 6.98$, $p < .01$. After that, externalization entered into the equation ($\beta = .08$, $t(533) = 2.17$, $p < .05$, $pr = .09$) and the explained variance increased to 33%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,533) = 4.73$, $p < .05$. Finally, detachment was significantly associated with non-acceptance of emotional response ($\beta = -.08$, $t(532) = -2.22$, $p < .05$, $pr = .10$) and the explained variance remained at 33%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,532) = 4.95$, $p < .05$.

To sum up, among perceived parenting styles, higher maternal rejection, maternal overprotection and paternal rejection were significantly associated with more difficulty in accepting emotional response. Following that, trait anger, shame, internalizing anger and externalization were positively, whereas, anger control and detachment were negatively associated with non-acceptance of emotional response.

Table 59. Associates of Non-acceptance of Emotional Response

	<i>F</i> change	<i>df</i>	β	<i>t</i> (within set)	<i>pr</i>	<i>R</i> ²
Step I: Perceived Parenting Style						
1) Mother's Rejection	25.15 ^{***}	1,540	.21	5.01 ^{***}	.21	.04
2) Mother's Overprotection	6.97 ^{**}	1,539	.12	2.64 ^{**}	.11	.06
3) Father's Rejection	5.20 [*]	1,538	.12	2.28 [*]	.10	.07
Step II: Emotions						
4) Trait Anger	95.60 ^{***}	1,537	.38	9.78 ^{***}	.39	.21
5) Shame	63.62 ^{***}	1,536	.30	7.98 ^{***}	.33	.29
6) Anger In	15.51 ^{***}	1,535	.16	3.94 ^{***}	.17	.31
7) Anger Control	6.98 ^{**}	1,534	-.12	-2.64 ^{**}	-.11	.32
8) Externalization	4.73 [*]	1,533	.08	2.17 [*]	.09	.33
9) Detachment	4.95 [*]	1,532	-.08	-2.22 [*]	-.10	.33

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

3.5.4 The Factors Associated with the Limited Access to Effective ER strategies

The fourth regression analysis was conducted in order to examine the factors associated with the limited access to effective ER strategies. In terms of the effects of perceived parenting styles, initially father's rejection entered into the regression equation ($\beta = .24$, $t(540) = 5.68$, $p < .001$, $pr = .24$) and explained 6% of the variance by itself, $F_{\text{change}}(1,540) = 32.26$, $p < .001$. After that, mother's

overprotection was significantly associated with difficulty of engaging in effective strategies for emotion regulation ($\beta = .12$, $t(539) = 2.77$, $p < .01$, $pr = .12$) and the explained variance slightly increased to 7%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,539) = 7.67$, $p < .01$.

After controlling for parenting styles, which explained 7% of variance, among different emotions as the second step, initially trait anger was significantly associated with limited access to effective ER strategies ($\beta = .40$, $t(538) = 10.34$, $p < .001$, $pr = .41$) and increased the explained variance to 22%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,538) = 107.00$, $p < .001$. Secondly, shame entered into the equation ($\beta = .30$, $t(537) = 8.07$, $p < .001$, $pr = .33$) and the explained variance increased to 31%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,537) = 65.20$, $p < .001$. Following that, internalizing anger entered into the equation ($\beta = .21$, $t(536) = 5.32$, $p < .001$, $pr = .22$) and increased the explained variance to 34%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,536) = 28.30$, $p < .001$. Finally, anger control was significantly associated with difficulty of engaging in effective ER strategies ($\beta = -.24$, $t(535) = -5.73$, $p < .001$, $pr = -.24$) and the explained variance increased to 38%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,535) = 32.79$, $p < .001$.

Consequently, the results of the regression analysis revealed among perceived parenting styles, father's rejection and mother's overprotection were significantly and positively associated with limited access to effective ER strategies. In addition, higher levels of trait anger, shame, internalizing anger and lower level of anger control were significantly associated with increase in difficulty in engaging effective strategies for emotion regulation.

Table 60. Associates of Limited Access to Effective ER Strategies

	<i>F</i> _{change}	<i>df</i>	β	<i>t</i> (within set)	<i>pr</i>	<i>R</i> ²
Step I: Perceived Parenting						
Style						
1) Father's Rejection	32.26**	1,540	.24	5.68**	.24	.06
2) Mother's Overprotection	7.67*	1,539	.12	2.77*	.12	.07
Step II: Emotions						
3) Trait Anger	107.00**	1,538	.40	10.34**	.41	.22
4) Shame	65.20**	1,537	.30	8.07**	.33	.31
5) Anger In	28.30**	1,536	.21	5.32**	.22	.34
6) Anger Control	32.79**	1,535	-.24	-5.73**	-.24	.38

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

3.5.5 The Factors Associated with Inability to Engage in Goal Directed Behavior

The fifth regression analysis was performed in order to examine the factors associated with the inability to engage in goal directed behavior. In terms of the effects of perceived parenting styles, initially mother's overprotection entered into the regression equation ($\beta = .19$, $t(540) = 4.46$, $p < .001$, $pr = .19$) and explained 4% of the variance by itself, $F_{\text{change}}(1,540) = 19.89$, $p < .001$. Following that, father's rejection was significantly associated with difficulty in engaging goal directed behavior ($\beta = .09$, $t(539) = 2.12$, $p < .05$, $pr = .09$) and explained variance remained at 4%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,539) = 4.50$, $p < .05$.

After controlling for parenting styles, which explained 4% of variance, among different emotions as the second step, initially trait anger entered into the

equation ($\beta = .34$, $t(538) = 8.38$, $p < .001$, $pr = .34$) and increased the explained variance to 15%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,538) = 70.29$, $p < .001$. Secondly, shame entered into the equation ($\beta = .27$, $t(537) = 6.76$, $p < .001$, $pr = .28$) and the explained variance increased to 22%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,537) = 45.68$, $p < .001$. Thirdly, anger control was significantly associated with inability to engage in goal directing behavior ($\beta = -.16$, $t(536) = -3.49$, $p < .001$, $pr = -.15$) and the explained variance increased slightly to 24%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,536) = 12.19$, $p < .001$. After that, anger in entered into the equation ($\beta = .19$, $t(535) = 4.43$, $p < .001$, $pr = .19$) and increased the explained variance to 26%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,535) = 19.63$, $p < .001$. Finally, dutifulness entered into the equation ($\beta = .09$, $t(534) = 2.34$, $p < .05$, $pr = .10$) and the explained variance slightly increased to 27%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,534) = 5.47$, $p < .05$.

According to these results, among perceived parenting styles, mother's overprotection and father's rejection were significantly and positively associated with inability to engage in goal directed behavior. Following these factors, increase in trait anger, internalizing anger, shame, and dutifulness, as well as decrease in anger control were significantly associated with more difficulty in adopting goal directed behavior.

Table 61. Associates of Inability to Engage in Goal Directed Behavior

	<i>F</i> _{change}	<i>df</i>	β	<i>t</i> (within set)	<i>pr</i>	<i>R</i> ²
Step I: Perceived Parenting						
Style						
1) Mother's Overprotection	19.89**	1,540	.19	4.46**	.19	.04
2) Father's Rejection	4.50*	1,539	.09	2.12*	.09	.04
Step II: Emotions						
3) Trait Anger	70.29**	1,538	.34	8.38**	.34	.15
4) Shame	65.68**	1,537	.27	6.76**	.28	.22
5) Anger Control	12.19**	1,536	-.16	-3.49**	-.15	.24
6) Anger In	19.63**	1,535	.19	4.43**	.19	.26
7) Dutifulness	5.47*	1,534	.09	2.34*	.10	.27

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

3.5.6 The Factors Associated with Impulse Control Difficulties

The sixth regression analysis was carried out in order to investigate the factors associated with the impulse control difficulties. In terms of the effects of perceived parenting styles, initially father's rejection entered into the regression equation ($\beta = .22$, $t(540) = 5.20$, $p < .001$, $pr = .22$) and explained 5% of the variance by itself, $F_{\text{change}}(1,540) = 27.08$, $p < .001$. Following that, mother's overprotection was significantly associated with difficulty in impulse control ($\beta = .13$, $t(539) = 3.03$, $p < .01$, $pr = .13$) and increased the explained variance to 6%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,539) = 9.18$, $p < .01$.

After controlling for parenting styles, which explained 6% of the variance, among different emotions as the second step, initially trait anger entered into the

equation ($\beta = .50$, $t(538) = 13.50$, $p < .001$, $pr = .50$) and increased the explained variance to 30%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,538) = 182.35$, $p < .001$. Secondly, anger control entered into the equation ($\beta = -.27$, $t(537) = -6.41$, $p < .001$, $pr = -.27$) and the explained variance increased to 35%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,537) = 41.07$, $p < .001$. Thirdly, shame was significantly associated with impulse control difficulties ($\beta = .17$, $t(536) = 4.84$, $p < .001$, $pr = .20$) and increased the explained variance to 38%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,536) = 23.45$, $p < .001$. Following that, internalizing anger entered into the equation ($\beta = .12$, $t(535) = 3.14$, $p < .01$, $pr = .13$) and the explained variance increased to 39%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,535) = 9.86$, $p < .01$. Finally, externalization was significantly associated with difficulty in impulse control ($\beta = .08$, $t(534) = 2.33$, $p < .05$, $pr = .10$) and increased the explained variance slightly to 40%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,534) = 5.42$, $p < .05$.

Consequently, the results of the regression analysis revealed that among perceived parenting styles, father's rejection and mother's overprotection were significantly and positively associated with difficulty in impulse control. In addition, higher level of trait anger, shame, internalizing anger, externalization and lower level of anger control were significantly associated with increase in impulse control difficulty.

Table 62. Associates of Impulse Control Difficulties

	<i>F</i> change	<i>df</i>	β	<i>t</i> (within set)	<i>pr</i>	R^2
Step I: Perceived Parenting Style						
1) Father's Rejection	27.08***	1,540	.22	5.20**	.22	.05
2) Mother's Overprotection	9.18**	1,539	.13	3.03**	.13	.06
Step II: Emotions						
3) Trait Anger	182.35***	1,538	.50	13.50***	.50	.30
4) Anger Control	41.07***	1,537	-.27	-6.41***	-.27	.35
5) Shame	23.45***	1,536	.17	4.84***	.20	.38
6) Anger In	9.86**	1,535	.12	3.14**	.13	.39
7) Externalization	5.42*	1,534	.08	2.33*	.10	.40

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

3.6 The Factors Associated with Psychological Symptoms

In order to examine the factors associated with psychological symptoms focusing on trait anxiety, proneness to worry, and depression, 3 separate hierarchical regression analyses were carried out. For this regression analyses, the dependent variables were Trait Anxiety, Depression, and Worry, respectively. Independent variables entered into the equation via three steps. For all analyses, in the first step, 6 different parental styles, namely; Mother's Emotional Warmth, Mother's Rejection, Mother's Overprotection, Father's Emotional Warmth, Father's Rejection and Father's Overprotection, were entered via stepwise method, in order to control possible effects of perceived parental styles. After controlling different

parenting styles that were significantly associated with dependent variable, in the second step 9 different types of emotions (i.e. Trait Anger, Anger In, Anger Out, Anger Control, Shame, Dutifulness, Detachment, Externalization, and Guilt) were entered into the regression analyses via stepwise method. After controlling for these emotions that were significantly associated with dependent variable, in the third step 5 different types of difficulties in emotion regulation (Lack of Emotional Awareness, Lack of Emotional Clarity, Non-acceptance of Emotional Response, Limited Access to Effective ER strategies, Inability to Engage in Goal Directed Behavior, and Impulse Control Difficulties) were lastly entered into the regression analyses via stepwise method.

3.6.1 The Factors Associated with Trait Anxiety

The first regression analysis examined the associated factors of trait anxiety. In terms of the effects of parenting styles, initially father's rejection entered into the regression equation ($\beta = .26, t(540) = 6.35, p < .001, pr = .26$) and explained 7% of the variance by itself, $F_{\text{change}}(1,540) = 40.36, p < .001$. After that, mother's overprotection entered into the equation ($\beta = .16, t(539) = 3.83, p < .001, pr = .16$) and explained variance increased to 9%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,539) = 14.65, p < .001$.

After controlling for parenting styles, which explained 9% of the variance, among different emotions as the second step, initially trait anger was found to be significantly associated with the trait anxiety ($\beta = .43, t(538) = 11.44, p < .001, pr = .44$) and the explained variance increased to 27%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,538) = 130.87, p < .001$. Secondly, shame entered into the equation ($\beta = .28, t(537) = 7.81, p < .001, pr = .32$) and the explained variance increased to 35%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,537) = 61.05, p < .001$. Thirdly, internalized anger was significantly associated with the trait anxiety ($\beta = .21, t(536) = 5.59, p < .001, pr = .23$) and the explained variance increased to 38%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,536) = 31.31, p < .001$. After that, anger control entered into the equation ($\beta = -.23, t(535) = -5.54, p < .001, pr = .23$) and the explained variance increased to 42%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,535) = 30.71, p < .001$. Fifthly, externalized anger was found to be significantly associated with the trait anxiety ($\beta = -.15, t(534) = -3.10,$

$p < .01$, $pr = .13$) and the explained variance slightly increased to 43%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,534) = 9.62$, $p < .01$.

Following the effects of these emotions in trait anxiety, among difficulties in emotion regulation as the third step variables, limited access to effective ER strategies entered into the equation ($\beta = .51$, $t(533) = 14.47$, $p < .001$, $pr = .53$) and the explained variance increased to 59%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,533) = 209.40$, $p < .001$. Secondly, lack of emotional clarity entered into the equation ($\beta = -.14$, $t(532) = -4.55$, $p < .001$, $pr = -.19$) and the explained variance slightly increased to 60%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,532) = 20.69$, $p < .001$. Lastly, inability to engage in goal directed behavior was significantly associated with the trait anxiety ($\beta = .11$, $t(531) = 2.84$, $p < .01$, $pr = .12$) and the explained variance slightly increased to 61%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,531) = 8.07$, $p < .01$.

To sum up, among perceived parenting styles, father's rejection and mother's overprotection were found to be significantly and positively associated with trait anxiety. Following that, trait anger, internalized anger, and shame were positively; whereas anger control and externalized anger were negatively associated with trait anxiety. Finally, the results also revealed that increase in limited access to effective ER strategies, inability to engage in goal directed behavior; and lack of emotional clarity was positively associated with trait anxiety.

Table 63. Associates of Trait Anxiety

	<i>F</i> change	<i>df</i>	β	<i>T</i> (within set)	<i>pr</i>	<i>R</i> ²
Step I: Perceived Parenting Style						
1) Father's Rejection	40.36**	1,540	.26	6.35**	.26	.07
2) Mother's Overprotection	14.65**	1,539	.16	3.83**	.16	.09
Step II: Emotions						
3) Trait Anger	130.87**	1,538	.43	11.44**	.44	.27
4) Shame	61.05**	1,537	.28	7.81**	.32	.35
5) Anger In	31.31**	1,536	.21	5.59**	.23	.38
6) Anger Control	30.71**	1,535	-.23	-5.54**	-.23	.41
7) Anger Out	9.62*	1,534	-.15	-3.10*	-.13	.43
Step III: Difficulties of ER						
8) Limited Access to Effective ER strategies	209.40**	1,533	.51	14.47**	.53	.59
9) Lack of Emotional Clarity	20.69**	1,532	-.14	-4.55**	-.19	.60
10) Inability to Engage in Goal Directed Behavior	8.07*	1,531	.11	2.84*	.12	.61

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

3.6.2 The Factors Associated with Depression

The second regression analysis was carried out in order to examine associated factors of depression. In terms of the effects of perceived parenting styles, initially father's rejection entered into the regression equation ($\beta = .38$, $t(540) = 9.60$, $p < .001$, $pr = .38$) and explained 15% of the variance by itself, $F_{\text{change}}(1,540) = 92.14$, $p < .001$. Secondly, mother's rejection was significantly associated with depression ($\beta = .17$, $t(539) = 3.63$, $p < .001$, $pr = .15$) and the explained variance slightly increased to 17%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,539) = 13.19$, $p < .001$. After that, mother's overprotection entered into the regression equation ($\beta = .11$, $t(538) = 2.65$, $p < .01$, $pr = .11$) and the explained variance slightly increased to 18%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,538) = 7.03$, $p < .01$.

After controlling for parenting styles, which explained 18% of the variance, among different emotions as the second step, initially internalizing anger was significantly associated with the depression ($\beta = .30$, $t(537) = 7.80$, $p < .001$, $pr = .32$) and the explained variance increased to 26%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,537) = 60.80$, $p < .001$. Following that, trait anger entered into the regression equation ($\beta = .22$, $t(536) = 5.61$, $p < .001$, $pr = .23$) and the explained variance increased to 30%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,536) = 31.42$, $p < .001$. Finally, shame was significantly associated with the depression ($\beta = .13$, $t(535) = 3.40$, $p \leq .001$, $pr = .15$) and the explained variance slightly increased to 32%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,535) = 11.58$, $p \leq .001$.

Following the significant associations of these emotions in depression, among difficulties in emotion regulation as the third step variables, limited access to effective ER strategies entered into the equation ($\beta = .38$, $t(534) = 9.23$, $p < .001$, $pr = .37$) and the explained variance increased to 41%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,534) = 85.19$, $p < .001$. After that, lack of emotional clarity entered into the equation ($\beta = -.18$, $t(533) = -4.98$, $p < .001$, $pr = -.21$) and the explained variance slightly increased to 44%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,533) = 24.80$, $p < .001$.

According to these results, in terms of parenting styles, father's rejection, mother's rejection and mother's overprotection were found to be significantly and positively associated with depression. Following that, internalizing anger, trait anger, and shame had also significant and positive association with depression. In

addition to these factors, the results also pointed that higher level of limited access to effective ER strategies, but lower level of lack of emotional clarity was significant associated with higher depressive symptoms.

Table 64. Associates of Depression

	<i>F</i> change	<i>df</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>pr</i>	R^2
	(with n set)					
Step I: Perceived Parenting Style						
1) Father's Rejection	92.14**	1,540	.38	9.60**	.38	.15
2) Mother's Rejection	13.19**	1,539	.17	3.63**	.15	.17
3) Mother's Overprotection	7.03*	1,538	.11	2.65*	.11	.18
Step II: Emotions						
4) Anger In	60.80**	1,537	.30	7.80**	.32	.26
5) Trait Anger	31.42**	1,536	.22	5.61**	.23	.30
6) Shame	11.58**	1,535	.13	3.40**	.15	.32
Step III: Difficulties of ER						
7) Limited Access to Effective ER strategies	85.19**	1,534	.38	9.23**	.37	.41
8) Lack of Emotional Clarity	24.80**	1,533	-.18	-4.98**	-.21	.44

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

3.6.3 The Factors Associated with Worry

In the third regression analysis, associated factors of worry were examined. In terms of the effects of perceived parenting styles, initially mother's overprotection entered into the regression equation ($\beta = .21$, $t(540) = 5.08$, $p < .001$, $pr = .21$) and explained 5% of the variance by itself, $F_{\text{change}}(1,540) = 25.86$, $p < .001$. Following that, father's rejection was significantly associated with proneness to worry ($\beta = .16$, $t(539) = 3.82$, $p < .001$, $pr = .16$) and the explained variance slightly increased to 7%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,539) = 14.58$, $p < .001$.

After controlling for parenting styles, which explained 7% of the variance, among different emotions as the second step, initially shame was significantly associated with the worry ($\beta = .37$, $t(538) = 9.47$, $p < .001$, $pr = .38$) and the explained variance increased to 20%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,538) = 89.72$, $p < .001$. Secondly, trait anger entered into the equation ($\beta = .29$, $t(537) = 7.55$, $p < .001$, $pr = .31$) and the explained variance increased to 28%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,537) = 57.00$, $p < .001$. Thirdly, internalizing anger was significantly associated with worry ($\beta = .20$, $t(536) = 4.97$, $p < .001$, $pr = .21$) and the explained variance slightly increased to 31%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,536) = 24.75$, $p < .001$. After that, anger control entered into the equation ($\beta = -.23$, $t(535) = -5.25$, $p < .001$, $pr = -.22$) and increased the explained variance to 35%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,535) = 27.52$, $p < .001$. As the last factor in this set of variables, externalizing anger was significantly associated with worry ($\beta = -.17$, $t(534) = -3.47$, $p < .001$, $pr = -.15$) and slightly increased the explained variance to 36%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,534) = 12.08$, $p < .001$.

Following the significant effects of these emotions related to proneness to worry, among difficulties in emotion regulation as the third step variables, limited access to effective ER strategies entered into the equation ($\beta = .49$, $t(533) = 12.64$, $p < .001$, $pr = .48$) and the explained variance increased to 51%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,533) = 159.89$, $p < .001$. Following that, inability to engage in goal directed behavior was significantly associated with worry ($\beta = .11$, $t(532) = 2.54$, $p < .05$, $pr = .11$) and the explained variance remained at 51%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,532) = 2.54$, $p < .05$. Then, non-acceptance of emotional response entered into the equation ($\beta = .10$, $t(531) = 2.32$,

$p < .05$, $pr = .10$) and increased explained variance to 52%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,531) = 5.36$, $p < .05$. Finally, lack of emotional awareness was significantly associated with worry, ($\beta = .07$, $t(530) = 2.21$, $p < .05$, $pr = .10$) and the explained variance remained at 52%, $F_{\text{change}}(1,530) = 4.91$, $p < .05$.

Consequently, among perceived parenting styles, mother's overprotection and father's rejection were found to be significantly and positively associated with proneness to worry. Following that, shame, trait anger, and internalizing anger were positively, whereas, anger control and externalizing anger were negatively associated with worry. In addition to these factors, the results also revealed that higher level of limited access to effective ER strategies, inability to engage in goal directed behavior, non-acceptance of emotional response and lack of emotional awareness were significantly associated with higher level of worry.

Table 65. Associates of Worry

	<i>F</i> change	<i>df</i>	β	<i>t</i> (with in set)	<i>pr</i>	<i>R</i> ²
Step I: Perceived Parenting Style						
1) Mother's Overprotection	25.86**	1,540	.21	5.08**	.21	.05
2) Father's Rejection	14.58**	1,539	.16	3.82**	.16	.07
Step II: Emotions						
3) Shame	89.72**	1,538	.37	9.47**	.38	.20
4) Trait Anger	57.00**	1,537	.29	7.55**	.31	.28
5) Anger In	24.75**	1,536	.20	4.97**	.21	.31
6) Anger Control	27.52**	1,535	-.23	-5.25**	-.22	.35
7) Anger Out	12.08**	1,534	-.17	-3.47*	-.15	.36
Step III: Difficulties of ER						
8) Limited Access to Effective ER strategies	159.89**	1,533	.49	12.64**	.48	.51
9) Inability to Engage in Goal Directed behavior	6.46*	1,532	.11	2.54*	.11	.51
10) Non-acceptance of Emotional response	5.36*	1,531	.10	2.31*	.10	.52
11) Lack of Emotional Awareness	4.91*	1,530	.07	2.21*	.10	.52

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

Table 66. Summary of the Hierarchical Regression Analyses

		Predictors	Dependent Variables					Psychological Symptoms			
			Lack of Emotional Awareness	Lack of Emotional Clarity	Non-Acceptance Emotional Response	Limited Access to ER Strategies	Inability to Engage in Goal Directed Behavior	Impulse Control Difficulties	Trait Anxiety	Depression	Worry
Parenting Styles	Maternal	Emotional Warmth									
		Rejection		-.13**	.21***				.17***		
		Overprotection			.12**	.12**	.19***	.13**	.16***	.11**	.21***
	Paternal	Emotional Warmth	.15***								
		Rejection			.12*	.24***	.09*	.22***	.26***	.38***	.16***
		Overprotection									
Emotional Experience	Shame Proneness		-.15***	.30***	.30***	.27***	.17***	.28***	.13***	.37***	
	Dutifulness	.21***				.09*					
	Detachment	.09*		-.08*							
	Externalization	-.16***	-.09*	.08*			.08*				
	Situational Guilt										
	Trait Anger	-.12**	-.32***	.38***	.40***	.34***	.50***	.43***	.22**	.29***	
	Anger In		-.21***	.16***	.21***	.19***	.12**	.21***	.30***	.20***	
	Anger out							-.15**		-.17***	
	Anger Control		.20***	-.12**	-.24***	-.16***	-.27***	-.23***		-.23***	
Difficulties in Emotion Regulation	Lack of Emotional Awareness									.07*	
	Lack of Emotional Clarity							-.14***	-.18***		
	Non-Acceptance Emotional Response									.10*	
	Limited Access to ER Strategies							.51***	.38***	.49***	
	Inability to Engage in Goal Directed Behavior							.11**		.11*	
	Impulse Control Difficulties										

Note: significant beta scores at: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p \leq .001$

3.7 Moderation Analyses

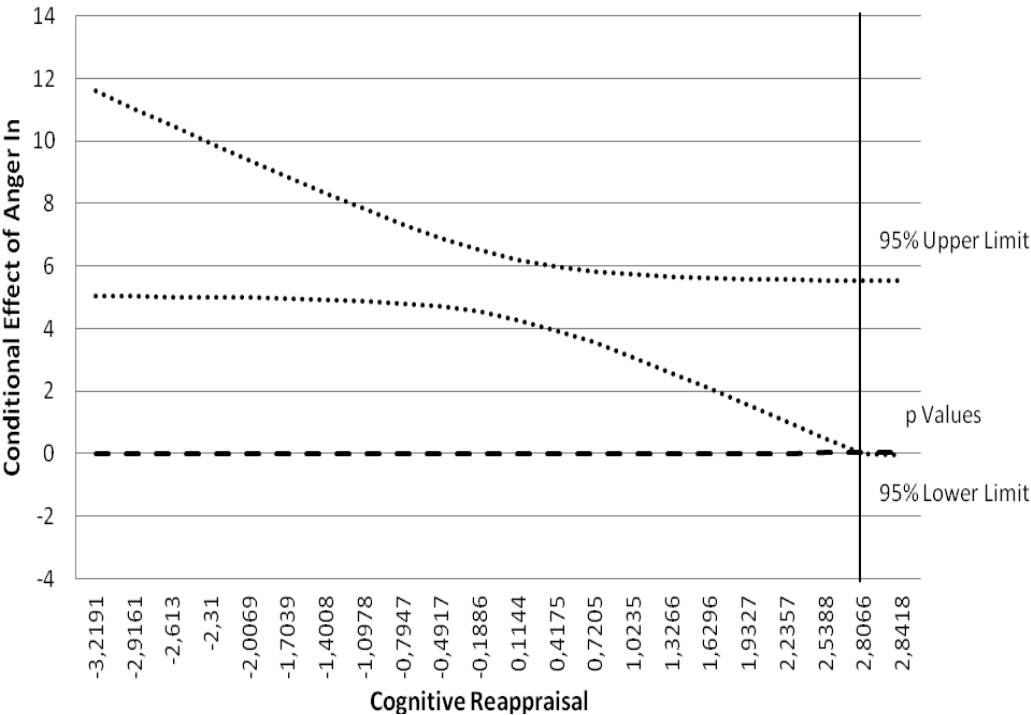
The moderator role of emotion regulation strategies in the relationship between different emotions and psychological symptoms were examined by conducting series of moderation analyses. Firstly, all possible interactions between emotion regulation strategies (i.e. Cognitive Reappraisal and Suppression) and different emotions (i.e. Trait Anger, Anger In, Anger Out, Anger Control, Shame, Dutifulness, Detachment, Externalization, and Guilt) to predict psychological symptoms were examined. In order to test moderation analyses the macro which was written by Hayes and Matthes (2009) were conducted. Prior to these analyses, Z-scores for independent variables (i.e., types of emotions) and moderators (i.e. emotion regulation strategies) were computed. For those analyses, dependent variables were Depression, Trait Anxiety and Proneness to Worry. Among those analyses, only 4 moderation models revealed significant outcomes. Then regression lines were plotted by using obtained values for these significant models.

3.7.1. Moderator Role of Cognitive Reappraisal between Internalizing Anger and Worry

The model examining the moderator role of cognitive reappraisal in the relationship between internalizing anger and proneness to worry yielded significant results, ($R^2 = .19$, $F(3, 540) = 41.8541$, $p < .001$). The interaction was also significant ($B = -0.9192$, $SE = 0.4846$, $p \leq .05$). Johnson and Neyman (1936) method was used in order to explain relationship between internalizing anger (IV) and worry (DV) for different scores of cognitive reappraisal (the moderator). The results indicated that as the scores of cognitive reappraisal got higher than the critical value (2.8066), the relationship between internalizing anger and worry was not significant; whereas when the scores of cognitive reappraisal were lower than the critical value (2.8066), the relationship between internalizing anger and worry got significant ($B = 2.77$, $SE = 1.4101$, $p = .05$, 95% CI [0, 5.5399]). The results were given in Figure 30.

Consequently, for the higher values of cognitive reappraisal, the relation between internalizing anger and proneness to worry was not significant, for the

lower values of cognitive reappraisal, this relationship become significant. This result indicated that higher levels of cognitive reappraisal served as a buffering factor between internalizing anger and worry.



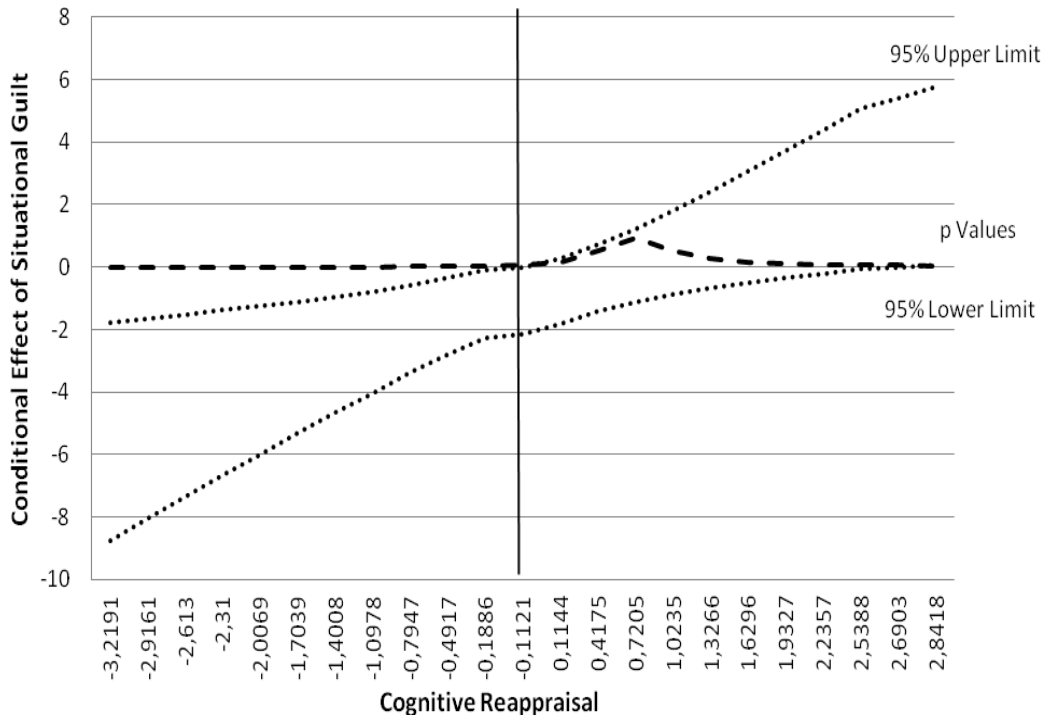
Note: Critical Value is 2.8066.

Figure 35. Relationship between Internalizing Anger and Worry for Different Scores of Cognitive Reappraisal with Confidence Interval

3.7.2. Moderator Role of Cognitive Reappraisal between Situational Guilt and Worry

The model examining the moderator role of cognitive reappraisal in the relationship between situational guilt and proneness to worry revealed significant results, ($R^2 = .02$, $F(3, 540) = 4.4428$, $p < .01$). The interaction was also significant ($B = 1.3476$, $SE = 0.5022$, $p < .01$). Johnson and Neyman (1936) method was used in order to explain association between guilt (IV) and worry (DV) for different scores of cognitive reappraisal (the moderator). The results revealed that as the scores of cognitive reappraisal got higher than the critical value (-0.1121), the relationship between situational guilt and worry was not significant; whereas when the scores of cognitive reappraisal were lower than the critical value (-0.1121), the relationship between guilt and worry got significant ($B = -1.0725$, $SE = 0.546$, $p = .05$, 95% CI [-2.1451, 0]). The results were given in Figure 31.

Thus, for the higher values of cognitive reappraisal, the relation between guilt and proneness to worry was not significant, for the lower values of cognitive reappraisal, this relationship become significant. This result indicated that higher levels of cognitive reappraisal served as a buffering factor between situational guilt and worry.



Note: Critical Value is -0.1121

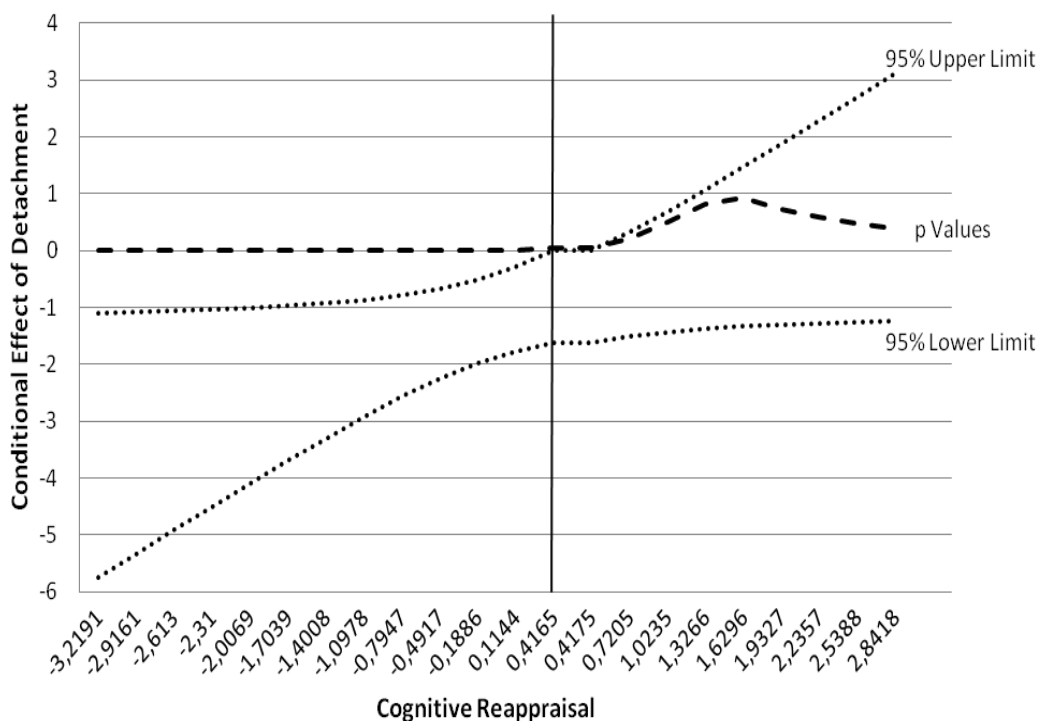
Figure 36. Relationship between Situational Guilt and Worry for Different Scores of Cognitive Reappraisal with Confidence Interval

3.7.3. Moderator Role of Cognitive Reappraisal between Detachment and Trait Anxiety

The model examining the moderator role of cognitive reappraisal in the relationship between detachment and trait anxiety yielded significant results, ($R^2 = .03$, $F(3, 540) = 5.3269$, $p < .01$). The interaction was also significant ($B = 0.7198$, $SE = 0.3567$, $p < .05$). Johnson and Neyman (1936) method was used in order to explain association between detachment (IV) and trait anxiety (DV) for different scores of cognitive reappraisal (the moderator). The results indicated that as the scores of cognitive reappraisal got higher than the critical value (0.4165), the relationship between detachment and trait anxiety was not significant; whereas when the scores of cognitive reappraisal were lower than the critical value (0.4165),

the relationship between detachment and trait anxiety got significant ($B = -0.8091$, $SE = 0.4119$, $p = .05$, 95% CI [-1.6183, 0]). The results were given in Figure 32.

Thus, for the higher values of cognitive reappraisal, the relation between detachment and trait anxiety was not significant, for the lower values of cognitive reappraisal, this relationship turned out to be significant. This result specified that higher levels of cognitive reappraisal served as a buffering factor between detachment and trait anxiety.



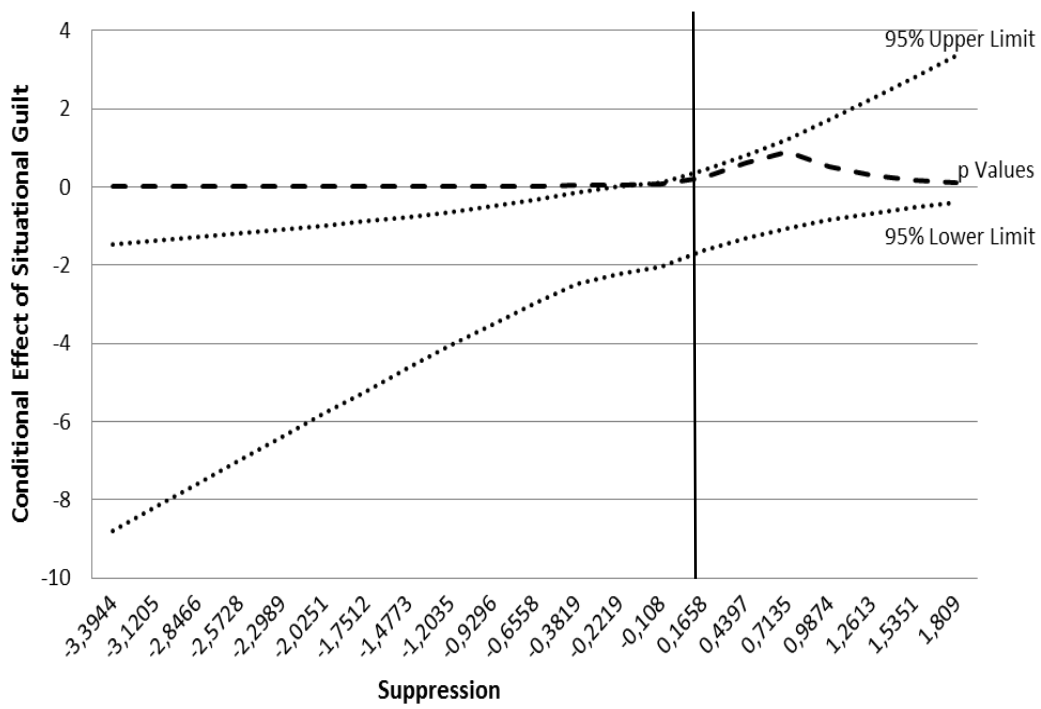
Note: Critical Value is 0.4165

Figure 37. Relationship between Detachment and Trait Anxiety for Different Scores of Cognitive Reappraisal with Confidence Interval

3.7.4. Moderator Role of Suppression between Situational Guilt and Worry

The model examining the moderator role of suppression in the relationship between situational guilt and proneness to worry revealed significant results, ($R^2 = .05$, $F(3, 540) = 9.4222$, $p < .001$). The interaction was also significant ($B = 1.2726$, $SE = 0.4977$, $p < .05$). Johnson and Neyman (1936) method was used in order to explain association between guilt (IV) and worry (DV) for different scores of suppression (the moderator). The results revealed that as the scores of suppression got higher than the critical value (-0.2219), the relationship between situational guilt and worry was not significant; whereas when the scores of suppression were lower than the critical value (-0.2219), the relationship between guilt and worry got significant ($B = -1.1073$, $SE = 0.5637$, $p = .05$, 95% CI [-2.2146, 0]). The results were given in Figure 33.

Subsequently, for the higher values of suppression, the relation between guilt and proneness to worry was not significant, for the lower values of suppression, this relationship become significant. This result indicated that higher levels of suppression served as a buffering factor between situational guilt and worry.



Note: Critical Value is -0.2219

Figure 38. Relationship between Situational Guilt and Worry for Different Scores of Suppression with Confidence Interval

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

The primary aim of the study was to investigate the possible effects of perceived parenting styles (i.e. rejection, overprotection, and emotional warmth for both mother and father), emotional experiences (i.e. self-conscious emotions including shame proneness, externalization, detachment, dutifulness, and situational guilt; anger proneness and also the styles of anger expression) on difficulties in emotion regulation (i.e. lack of emotional awareness, lack of emotional clarity, non-acceptance of emotional responses, limited access to effective ER strategies, inability in engaging goal directed behavior, and impulse control difficulty), also on psychological symptoms (i.e. trait anxiety, worry, and depression). Secondly, it was aimed to explore the moderator role of emotion regulation strategies (i.e. cognitive reappraisal and suppression) in the relationship between these emotional experiences and psychological symptoms. Based on these objectives, initially, psychometric properties of the scales used in the study, possible differences of demographic variables on the measures, and correlations among the variables were also examined. Following these analyses, main hypotheses of the study were examined via separate hierarchical regression analyses.

In this section, the results of these analyses will be discussed in the light of the relevant literature. In addition, contributions of the study and clinical implications will be addressed. At the end of this chapter, the strengths and

limitations of the present study, as well as suggestions for future research will be stated.

4.1 Review of the Hypotheses

In the current study, firstly it was hypothesized that certain parenting styles would be more significant for some difficulties in emotion regulation than others. This hypothesis was confirmed for all difficulties. Specifically, father's rejection was found to be positively correlated with non-acceptance of emotional response, limited access to effective ER strategies, inability to engage in goal directed behavior, and impulse control difficulties. In addition, mother's overprotection was found to be positively associated with non-acceptance of emotional response, limited access to effective ER strategies, inability to engage in goal directed behavior, and impulse control difficulties. Besides, mother's rejection was negatively correlated with lack of emotional clarity and positively correlated with non-acceptance of emotional response. Finally and unexpectedly, there was positive association between father's emotional warmth and lack of emotional awareness (details and discussion of these findings were provided in subsection 4.4).

In this part, it was also predicted that certain emotions and specific anger expressions would reveal more significant relationships with some difficulties in regulating emotions than others. This assumption was confirmed for all groups of difficulty. Among self-conscious emotions, shame was significantly associated with all groups of difficulties except lack of emotional awareness. Externalization was significantly associated with the lack of emotional awareness and clarity, non-acceptance of emotional response, and also impulse control difficulty. Dutifulness was positively associated with lack of emotional clarity and inability to engage in goal directed behavior. Finally, detachment was significant for the lack of emotional awareness and non-acceptance of emotional response. In terms of anger experience, trait anger was negatively associated with lack of emotional awareness and clarity, but positively associated with all other difficulties. Among the ways of anger expression, anger control and internalizing anger were significant with all

groups of difficulties except lack of emotional awareness (details and discussion of these findings were provided in subsection 4.4).

The second set of analyses was focused on the factors associated with psychological symptoms. Initially it was expected that certain parenting styles would be more significant for some psychological problems than others. This hypothesis was confirmed for all psychological symptoms including depression, trait anxiety, and worry. Accordingly, father's rejection and mother's overprotection were significantly associated with all symptoms. In addition, mother's rejection was significant in depression (details and discussion of these findings were provided in subsection 4.5).

After controlling for the effects of parenting styles, it was predicted that specific emotions and specific styles of anger expression would be more significant for some psychological symptoms than others. This hypothesis was confirmed for all groups of symptoms. As expected, shame, trait anger, and internalizing anger were positively associated with depression, trait anxiety and worry. In addition, externalizing anger and anger control was found to be significant in decreasing trait anxiety and worry (details and discussion of these findings were provided in subsection 4.5).

As the final part of this set, for the relationship between difficulties in emotion regulation and psychological symptoms, it was hypothesized that certain difficulties would be more significant for some symptoms than others. The results also supported this hypothesis for all groups of psychological symptoms, including trait anger, depression, and worry (details and discussion of these findings were provided in subsection 4.5).

Lastly, for the moderation model, it was hypothesized that the associations between emotional experiences and psychological symptoms would vary with different emotion regulation strategies. The results confirmed this model of worry and trait anxiety (details and discussion of these findings were provided in subsection 4.6).

4.2 Psychometric Qualities of the Assessment Materials

In order to test the hypotheses of the study, a group of measures were administered to assess perceived parenting styles, emotional experiences, emotion dysregulation, and psychological symptoms. The measurement scales consist of Short - Eegna Minnen Beträffande Uppföstran -Own Memories of Upbringing, Test of Self-Conscious Affect-3, Trait Anger- Anger Expression Inventory, Emotion Regulation Questionnaire, Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale, State-Trait Anxiety Inventory-Trait Form, Beck Depression Inventory, and Penn State Worry Questionnaire. Expectedly, these scales established reasonably high internal consistency coefficients and correlations with conceptually related measures.

4.3 Findings Related to Differences of Demographic Variables on the Measures of the Study

In the current study, the role of demographic variables including gender, employment status, living style, father's education, mother's education on the measures of the study were examined. Categorization of the demographic variables was formed considering relatively equal distribution between the categories, except gender. Although gender ratio was quite unbalanced; the effect of gender was still examined since it was one of the basic demographic features. In addition, the age was not taken into account as a separate demographic variable, but it was represented by employment status. Accordingly, the participants who were either undergraduate or graduate students were between the ages of 18 and 25. On the other hand, the participants who were employed were between the ages of 26 and 50. In regard of this, the student category presented the younger age group, while employed category presented the older age group. Findings have been discussed in the light of the relevant literature.

4.3.1 Findings Related to Differences of Demographic Variables on Psychological Symptoms

As for the examination of the differences of demographic variables on psychological problems, it was expected that gender, employment status, living

style, and parental education would have significant roles on depression, trait anxiety, and worry. This assumption was confirmed for both anxiety and worry.

For depressive symptoms, none of the demographic features were found to be significant. In literature, there is a consistency in establishing gender difference among individuals having major depressive disorder. For instance, an empirical research pointed out that women were more likely to have clinical depression and additional comorbid problems (Angst, Gamma, Gastpar, Lépine, Mendlewicz & Tylee, 2002; Nolen- Hoeksama, 2001). The results of the current study did not reveal significant effect of gender on depression. This inconsistency might be stemmed from unequal distribution of gender ratio. Regarding the other demographic variables, there is a contradiction in literature in terms of the relation of clinical depression to marital and employment status, the level of education and income, as well as other familial and environmental conditions (Hölzel, Härter, Reese & Kriston, 2011). This inconsistency persists in previous studies even when conducted with nonclinical sample. For instance, the results of the WHO World Health Survey revealed that although demographic features had significant effects on the overall health state; depression as a separate or as a comorbid condition is not significantly differentiated based on demographic characteristics such as age, marital and employment status, income and education level (Moussavi, Chatterji, Verdes, Tandon, Patel & Ustun, 2007). Another study carried out with Turkish nonclinical university students also yielded similar findings except the significant role of economic status. Accordingly, students with poorer economic status reported higher depressive symptoms (Bayram & Bilgel, 2008). Future studies investigating additional demographic features such as socio economic and marital status; and comparing findings from clinical and nonclinical populations may provide more extensive knowledge in the prevalence of depression among different demographic characteristics.

In terms of trait anxiety, gender had significant role indicating that female participants had higher anxiety level than males. Trait anxiety is considered as anxiety sensitivity or proneness to anxiety. Regarding this view, this finding is

consistent with the empirical studies from wide range of age groups which have reported that women are more likely to develop anxiety and fear related disorders except social phobia (McLean, Asnaai, Litz, & Hofmann, 2011). It is important to note that gender difference in trait anxiety is greater in self-report measures that focus on cognitive and emotional aspects of anxiety sensitivity. On the other hand, this difference tends to decrease when the assessment is based on physiological domain of anxiety (Bander & Betz, 1981). Therefore, gender difference on trait anxiety is more likely to be attributed to differences in cognitive processing such as threat perception, controllability, and coping styles, rather than biological or hormonal mechanisms (McLean & Anderson, 2009).

Besides gender, differential role living style was significant, establishing that participants who were currently living with their parents reported less anxiety than those who were not living with their parents. Another significant demographic variable on trait anxiety was the employment status. Accordingly, students reported higher anxiety than employed participants. Trait anxiety among university students have been empirically established and mostly explained with academic stress. Accordingly, students with higher trait anxiety tended to experience more academic pressure, report more subjective distress rather than external stressors, and indicate more cognitive and emotional reactions rather than behavioral responses (Ranjita & Michelle, 2000). Related studies conducted with Turkish university students also indicated the negative effects of socio economic problems, future anxiety, academic pressure, and lack of leisure time on the experience of anxiety and depressive symptoms (Aktekin, Karaman, Senol, Erdem, Erengin, & Akaydın, 2001; Gündoğar, Sallan Gül, Uskun, Demirci & Keçeci, 2007). Supporting the evidence of external factors in trait anxiety, participants living with their parents reported less anxiety related symptoms than those who were not currently living with their parents. Therefore, it is not reasonable to conclude that employed individuals are neither exposed to stressors or experience subjective distress as much as students. Further explanations are needed in order to understand all aspects of this difference. In this attempt, it may be beneficial to bear in mind that, categorization of employment status in this study corresponded to age distribution of the sample,

thus, it can be also referred that younger participants had higher trait anxiety than older participants. This finding is supported by the evidence of reduction in anxiety and depression from younger to older age groups. This change is ascribed to maturation in which older individuals acquire more adaptive and mature emotional and cognitive abilities such as increased emotional control, decreased emotional responsiveness, and resiliency to negative life events (Jorm, 2000).

Regarding the role of demographic variables on worry, gender had significant effect indicating that women reported higher level of worry than men. The distribution of gender ratio in the current sample is not suitable to adequately interpret this finding. Nevertheless, this result is consistent with the previous studies stating that women tended to have more worry tendency, and this difference is enlightened with two significant cognitive mechanisms which are higher efforts of thought suppression and more negative problem orientation. Accordingly, these mechanisms have paradoxical effect in dealing with worry and women are more likely to use them (Robichaud, Dugas, & Conway, 2003).

In addition to gender, the results yielded significant effect of living style on worry addressing that participants living with their parents experienced less worry related symptoms than those who were not currently living with their parents. Proximity to parents seems to decreased individuals' worry proneness and anxiety sensitivity; however possible mediating factors such as perceived support, increased in sense of control or efficacy, need to be investigated in understanding this difference. Moreover, age differences among those who were or were not living with parents might have a role on this difference.

4.3.2 Findings Related to Differences of Demographic Variables on Perceived Parenting Styles

As for the examination of the roles of demographic variables on perceived parenting styles, it was expected that gender, employment status, living style, and parental education would have significant effects in maternal and paternal

emotional warmth, overprotection, and rejection. This assumption was confirmed for both groups of parenting styles.

For the first demographic feature which was gender, the results yielded significant effect for only father's emotional warmth. Accordingly, female participants perceived higher emotional warmth from their fathers than male participants. However, interpretation of this result may not be reliable because of the fact that majority of the current sample were composed of female participants.

As the second demographic characteristic, employment status had significant effect on both maternal and paternal parenting styles. That is, students perceived more emotional warmth from their mothers and fathers. On the other hand, employed individuals tended to perceive more mothers' rejection. In addition to that, participants who were not currently living with their parents perceived more maternal emotional warmth than those were living with their parents. Since the difference in employment status corresponded to age difference, it is plausible to interpret that younger individuals experienced more maternal and paternal emotional warmth, whereas older individuals perceived higher maternal rejection. It is important to note that, living style did not have similar effect, in other word; perceiving paternal emotional warmth and rejection were not differentiated based on living or not living with parents. Parental emotional warmth refers to parent's responsiveness, love and affection toward their child all of which have been very important sources of support in dealing with life stressors and enhancing psychological resiliency across life span (Wolfradt, Hempel, & Miles, 2003). From this perspective, it is reasonable to propose that older individuals who get employed have more autonomy in their preferences related to their life style including the choice of occupation and spouse. If these preferences do not conform to parent's expectations, rules, or norms; this autonomy do not seem to be supported by parents who are more likely to withdraw their love and acceptance. Consistently, younger group in the study composed of students corresponds to those being in life episode characterized with more financially dependent, not fully development of identity achievement. Therefore, these individuals are more likely to follow family norms

and obey family rules which in turn they obtain more responsiveness, acceptance and care from their parents. This assumption is consistent with Turkish cultural context valuing financial independency but emotional dependency in family environment across life span (Kagitcibasi, 2002).

Final groups of demographic category were mother's and father's education level (categorized as low, middle and high). For maternal education level, the results pointed out significant difference in perceived father's overprotection and perceived mother's emotional warmth. That is, as mother's education level decreased, perceived maternal emotional warmth also decreased and paternal overprotection increased. Father's education level was also significant indicating that participant having low educated fathers perceived less maternal and paternal emotional warmth. These findings are supported by previous studies stating that poor parental education has negative effect in the quality of parenting and child rearing practices which in turn lead to influence on child's psychological well-being (Kochanska, Aksan, Penney, & Boldt, 2007). Another study reported that, family structure's resources such as parental education level, occupational status, family income interacts with family process resources referring to parent's responsiveness, care and love; all of which are important predictors for adolescents' academic and social skills, as well as self-esteem (Amato & Ochiltree, 1986).

4.3.3 Findings Related to Differences of Demographic Variables on Emotion Regulation

The differentiating role of demographic variables on emotion regulation was examined in two aspects, including difficulties in emotion regulation and basic emotion regulation strategies.

For emotion regulation strategies, cognitive reappraisal and suppression were not significantly differentiated based on gender, employment status, living style, and parental education.

In the regard of emotion dysregulation, it was presumed that there would be significant influence of demographic characteristics (i.e. gender, employment status,

living style, and parental education) on difficulties in emotion regulation, specifically, lack of emotional awareness, lack of emotional clarity, non-acceptance of emotional responses, limited access to effective ER strategies, inability in engaging goal directed behavior and impulse control difficulties. This assumption was confirmed for gender difference and different levels of employment status and living style.

First of all, the results revealed significant effect of gender indicating that females experienced more difficulty in emotional awareness, accepting own emotional responses, and engaging goal directed behavior than males. For gender difference in emotional awareness, the findings contradicts the previous studies pointing out that women were better in awareness and differentiating own emotional experiences as compared to men (Barrett, Lane, Sechrest, & Schwartz, 2000; Ciarrochi, Hynes, & Crittenden, 2005). Furthermore, although this result provided valuable information about underlying mechanisms for women proneness to anxiety and worry that was indicated previously, further interpretation of gender difference should be based on homogenous samples in terms of gender distribution by examining the possible influences of other characteristics such as personality traits and coping mechanisms in the future studies.

Secondly, employment status has differential role addressing that students reported more difficulty in impulse control, pursuing goal directed behaviors, and accessing effective regulatory strategies than employed participants. It is also possible to make such as assumption from this finding that younger individuals experienced more difficulty in regulating emotions than older individuals. One of the possible explanations of this difference is that younger individuals are more likely to have emotional sensitivity associated with high emotional arousal, more frequent and intense emotional experiences. This emotional reactivity is associated to difficulty in managing and controlling emotions and emotional responses, as well as psychological problems (Silk, Steinberg, & Morris, 2003). Secondly, neurocognitive and physiological studies revealed that hormonal and cognitive

systems that are involved in emotion regulation tend to mature with age (Spear, 2000).

Finally, participants who were not living with their parents reported better emotional differentiation, but more problems in using effective regulatory strategies and engaging in goal directed behaviors than those living with parents. These differences may provide an important explanation for the higher levels of anxiety and worry among people who were not currently living with their parents. In the association between living style and difficulties in emotion regulation, physical proximity to parents seems to be an important factor. Therefore, additional research examining the marital status and perceived social support are encouraged in order to understand the role of interpersonal factors in promoting regulatory strategies.

4.3.4 Findings Related to Differences of Demographic Variables on Emotional Experiences

To investigate the roles of the demographic characteristics on emotional experience, significant roles of gender, employment status, living style, and parental education level on self-conscious emotions (i.e. shame, externalization, detachment, dutifulness and guilt), trait anger and anger expressions (i.e. anger in, anger out and anger control) were examined.

As for the first demographic variable, gender was significant in differentiating self-conscious emotions. To illustrate, females reported higher proneness to shame and dutifulness than males, whereas men reported higher detachment than women. In the literature, there is a common view assuming that women experienced higher self-conscious emotions, especially shame, than men (Lewis, 1992; Tangney, 1995); and this shame proneness is recognized as an underlying factor for women proneness to internalizing disorders (Lewis, 1978). However, contemporary studies asserted that gender difference in shame may be rather artificial, stemming from gender stereotypes promoting women's display of emotions (Ferguson, Eyre, & Ashbaker, 2000). Consistently, gender difference in

emotional experience tends to be reduced after controlling for the social roles and expectations (Else-Quest, Higgins, Allison & Morton, 2012).

Regarding the result for the role of living style, individuals living alone or with their friends indicated higher shame proneness and more anger inhibition than participants living with their parents. From this result, it is possible to suggest that living in a supporting family environment has a buffering role in negative self-evaluation and promotes anger expression. Future examination for the possible role of living with their spouse is also encouraged.

Finally, mother's education had significant influence on guilt experience, pointing out that participants having mothers with lowest education level reported higher situational guilt than those having higher education level. Family environment characterized by controlling, coercive discipline, anger promoting is very crucial in the development of guilt (Tangney, 2004). Therefore, it can be interpreted that maternal education level is related to maternal parenting practices inducing childhood guilt experience. Further research may be useful to examine this mediation model by considering additional factors such as maternal personality traits and maternal own emotional experiences.

4.4. Findings Related to Factors Associated with Difficulties in Emotion Regulation

For the examination of the factors associated with difficulties in emotion regulation, multiple hierarchical regression analyses were carried out. In these analyses, the associations of perceived parenting styles (i.e., rejection, overprotection, and emotional warmth for both mother and father), and emotional experiences (i.e., self-conscious emotions including shame proneness, externalization, detachment, dutifulness, and situational guilt; anger proneness, and also the styles of anger expression) with various difficulties in regulating emotions (i.e., lack of emotional awareness, lack of emotional clarity, non-acceptance of emotional responses, limited access to effective ER strategies, inability in engaging goal directed behavior, and impulse control difficulty) were explored.

In terms of perceived parenting styles, father's rejection and mother's overprotection had significant roles in the increase of most of the difficulties including non-acceptance of emotional response, lack of strategies, lack of goals, and impulse control problem. These findings supported the general assumption that responsive family environment has been very important in promoting the development of child's ability to accept, tolerate, and manage their negative emotions (Morris, et al., 2007). In this study, two specific parenting styles that were paternal rejection and maternal overprotection had significant roles in defining negative family environment in terms of emotion regulation difficulty. In general, there is a tendency to describe fathers as emotionally distant and authoritarian, whereas mothers as having a profile as being emotionally available, responsive and authoritative (Tein, Roosa, & Micheals, 1994). This is relatively similar in Turkish family context in which mothers tend to be perceived as more/over protective, while fathers tend to be perceived as more controlling but emotionally distant (Kapçı & Küçüker, 2006). In this regard, parental rejection characterized by punitive, critical, and dismissive attitudes; and harsh behaviors lead child to have intense negative emotions that are very difficult to manage (Thompson & Meyer, 2007). Consistently, there were significant positive correlations between perceived paternal rejection and shame proneness, externalization, as well as trait anger. In the opposite extreme, maternal overprotection is represented by parenting practices including over-involvement and controlling child's behaviors with an aim to protect the child from possible danger and harm. This parenting style is accepted as maladaptive since it may sacrifice child's independence and autonomy all of which are essential for the development of effective coping skills, strategies and long-term goals as well as self-efficacy in dealing with internal and external states (Rubin & Burgess, 2002).

In addition, the findings also indicated that as perceived mother's rejection increased, difficulty in accepting emotional responses also increased, but emotional clarity decreased. In addition, there was also positive correlation between paternal emotional warmth and lack of emotional awareness. These findings may seem to be contradictory with previous studies revealing that parental warmth has positive, but

parental rejection has negative effect in child's emotional awareness and understanding (Alegre, 2011; Bennet, Bendersky, & Lewis, 2005). Therefore, further examination including the role of parental own emotional awareness and clarity as well as own emotional experiences may provide more information in understanding the influences of parenting on child's emotional system. To illustrate, Sarıtaş and Gençöz (2011) established that mother's own emotional regulation difficulties have significant influence on adolescent's ability to regulate emotions. On the other hand, it should be noted that since the participants of the study was composed of young and middle age adults, other additional factors such as personality traits, cognitive processes and external conditions may have roles in difficulty of emotional awareness and clarity.

After controlling for the effects of parenting styles, the results yielded significant associations of emotional experience with various difficulties in regulating emotions. Among self-conscious emotions, shame proneness was found to be significant in all groups of difficulties except emotional awareness. Although shame had an increasing role for most of the regulation problems, there was negative association between shame and lack of emotion clarity. Similarly, trait anger was also significant in difficulties of emotion regulation, except emotional awareness and clarity. To conclude, shame and trait anger lead to impairment in all regulation aspects including acceptance, controlling, and management. However, they do not lead to impairment in emotional differentiation. This may be resulted from their potency, in other words, they are such strong emotions that they cannot be clouded by other emotional experiences. In this respect, externalization was another intense emotion that was positively associated with non-acceptance of emotional response and impulse control difficulty, but negatively associated with lack of emotional awareness and clarity. This finding is consistent with the previous studies pointing out that shame and externalizing are operated together in which individuals with high shame proneness are more likely to blame others and less likely to take responsibility of their actions (Tangney, 1994). The correlations between externalizing, shame and trait anger were also significant and positive, in the current study. Thus, it is reasonable to propose that externalization and anger

may be the masks of shame that operate to direct the targets of the shame relevant attribution from self to others. Consistently, internalizing anger had also positive correlation with externalization and shame; and was found to be related with all groups of emotion regulation difficulties except emotional awareness. Additional research focusing underlying mechanism of this relationship may provide valuable insight in dealing with emotion dysregulation.

In addition to strength of shame and trait anger, detachment was also significant in increasing the difficulty of emotional awareness and decreasing non-acceptance of an emotional response. It is possible to assume that being detached from negative emotions may be a kind of defensive response that facilitates undermining unpleasant emotion and to accept its negative consequences. Finally, dutifulness was associated with lack of goals and awareness. Accordingly, individuals feeling responsible for situations had more difficulty in emotional awareness and engaging in goal directed behaviors, as sort of narrowing their scope to deal with problems. In this consideration, dutifulness was also positively correlated with situational guilt and shame in this study. Therefore, it may be interpreted that sense of responsibility for negative or unpleasant situations may activate different self-conscious emotions such as shame and guilt; and this interference makes it difficult to realize and accept unpleasant internal state which in turn leads to ineffective regulation strategies.

4.5 Findings Related to Factors Associated with Psychological Symptoms

For the examination of the factors associated with psychological symptoms, multiple hierarchical regression analyses were carried out. According to the research hypothesis, significant associations of perceived parenting styles (i.e., rejection, overprotection, and emotional warmth for both mother and father), and emotional experiences (i.e., self-conscious emotions including shame proneness, externalization, detachment, dutifulness, and situational guilt; anger proneness and also the styles of anger expression) and difficulties in emotion regulation (i.e. lack of emotional awareness, lack of emotional clarity, non-acceptance of emotional responses, limited access to effective ER strategies, inability in engaging goal

directed behavior, and impulse control difficulty) with psychological symptoms, specifically, depression, trait anxiety and worry were expected. The results supported this prediction for all groups of symptoms.

According to the results, perceived paternal rejection and maternal overprotection were significant predictors for all psychological problems. In other words, individuals who perceived their fathers as unresponsive and emotionally distant and mothers as overprotective and controlling were more likely to experience depression, trait anxiety, and worry. These findings were consistent with the current literature that has widely established the negative influences of parental rejection and overprotection in the vulnerability of various psychological problems (Amato, 1994; Rapee, 1997). In addition, maternal rejection was found to be related with increasing depressive symptoms. Numerous studies demonstrated that parental attitudes and behaviors described as unresponsive, affectionless were closely related to adulthood depression (Chambers, Power, Loucks, & Swanson, 2000, Rapee, 1997).

After controlling for the effects of parenting styles, among various emotional experiences, shame and trait anger were found to be significant on all types of psychological symptoms. This is consistent with the relevant literature addressing the negative consequences of proneness to shame and anger as dispositional factors. Based on the significant and positive correlation between anger and shame, it may be proposed that they have similar mechanisms in the development of psychopathology. Lewis (1992) proposed an implicit connection between these two emotions. Accordingly, shame is too painful and devastating emotion accompanied with intense self-blame that is not possible to live with. Therefore, shameful person tends to direct the source of shame toward others rather than self. This direction also leads to shift the source of anger from self to others. This assumption was consistent with the results of the current study indicating that shame and trait anger had positive correlations with externalization and negative correlation with detachment.

The ways of expressing anger had also differing role in the psychological symptoms. The findings indicated that individuals who tended to hold anger inside without expressing, reported higher depression, anxiety and worry; whereas, participants who tended to excessively express anger toward others, were less likely to experience anxious and worry related symptoms. In addition, individuals who were able to manage their anger, stated lower level of anxiety and worry. Since trait anxiety and worry are two emotional states that contribute most of the anxiety disorders such as phobias, panic disorders and obsessive-compulsive disorders (American Psychiatric Association, 2013), the role shame and suppressed or hidden anger provide important knowledge in the development of anxiety disorders, as well as depressive symptoms. Consistently, Gilbert and Miles (2002) conducted a study in order to explore the effect of criticism on emotional responses. As the result of that study, blaming self but not others were found to be related to social anxiety, depression and shame in the encounter of criticism. Another research revealed that shame and anger were two important predictors of post-traumatic stress disorder among victims of violent-crime (Andrews, Brewin, Rose, & Kirk, 2000).

In the present study, maternal overprotection and paternal rejection were significantly and positively correlated with shame, trait anger, and internalizing anger; and all were found to be related with adulthood psychopathology. These findings are consistent with literature stating that adult's emotional system is mostly stemmed from childhood interactions with parents (Lewis, 2008). In this regard, this study specified two counterproductive parenting styles that are particular to our cultural context and determined two significant emotional outcomes of this parental environment. Based on this finding, it may be proposed that negative parenting styles are associated proneness to shame and anger, which in turn lead to increase in adult' depressive and anxiety symptoms. The mediating roles of shame and anger in the relation between negative parenting and psychopathology need further examination.

In addition to this, considering the detrimental effects of shame and anger that are rooted during childhood and continue across life span, it may be valuable to

examine for their roles in personality related disorders. For instance, shame and anger were found to be significant among women with borderline disorders rather than healthy women or those with social phobia (Rüsch, Klaus, Göttler, Hermann, Schramm, Richter, Jacob, Corrigan, & Bohus, 2007). Future research focusing on the relationship between personality traits and these emotions may provide valuable knowledge in understanding the nature personality disorders.

After controlling for the roles of parenting practices and emotional experience, the effects of difficulties of emotion regulation on psychopathology were examined. The results indicated that limited access to effective ER strategies was the most significant difficulty in all groups of psychological problems. In other words, inability to use adaptive regulatory strategies tend to dramatically increase the level of depression, anxiety, and worry. As mentioned before, some of the strategies are adaptive in managing negative emotions, whereas some others are maladaptive since they lead to intensification of distress and persistence of psychological problems (Aldao, Nolen-Hoeksema, & Schweizer, 2010).

For trait anxiety, two types of difficulty, namely lack of emotional clarity and inability in engaging goal directed behavior were also found to be significant. Unexpectedly the findings indicated that increased in emotional clarity was associated with the increased in trait anxiety. This unexpected result was also detected in depression in which depressive symptoms tended to be increased with better emotional clarity. It may be proposed that lack of emotional differentiation may have a buffering effect in the experience of anxiety and depression. Reasonably, there was positive correlation between suppression and lack of emotional clarity which both were negatively associated with trait anxiety and depression. Regarding the significant effects of shame and anger on these psychological symptoms as mentioned before, it is possible to assume that recognition of these aversive emotions may lead to boost in depression and anxiety. Additional research focusing on emotional differentiation in implicit level will be more informative in this process.

As the second difficulty, the findings revealed positive relationship between lack of goals and trait anxiety. The finding for the lack of goal pursuit is consistent with the common problem in anxiety disorders which is that people's excessive and ineffective efforts to prevent unwanted situation or consequences may actually prevent them to achieve desired outcomes. In other words, individuals focus on short-term goals with an attempt to be safe and to avoid aversive emotions or negative situations; and they drift apart from promoting motives associated with long-term positive goals and desired outcomes (Rodebaugh & Heimberg, 2008). On the other hand, further investigation to address whether the relationship between goal dysregulation and anxiety is unidirectional or bidirectional may provide broader framework.

As for the worry, in addition to lack of effective strategies; inability in engaging goal directed behavior, non-acceptance of emotional response and lack of emotional awareness were found to be effective. The role of these difficulties in the intensification of worry can be illustrated in generalized anxiety disorder (GAD). Individuals with GAD indicate intense emotional sensitivity, but experience problems in emotional clarity and awareness (Turk, Heimberg, Luterek, Mennin, & Fresco, 2005). Avoidance theory of worry in GAD conceptualized that regulatory strategies seem to be ineffective in dealing with this intense and ambiguous emotional state, so that individuals tend to avoid aversive emotional experiences without sufficiently attending to implicit or explicit goals to deal with it. Consequently, this avoidance either paradoxically intensifies negative emotional experiences or prevents individuals to generate regulatory strategies (Borkovec, Alcaine, & Behar, 2004).

4.6 Findings Related to Moderation Analyses

The moderation analyses were performed in order to examine the moderator role of emotion regulation strategies (i.e. cognitive reappraisal and suppression) between the emotional experiences (i.e., self-conscious emotions including shame proneness, externalization, detachment, dutifulness, and situational guilt; as well as

anger proneness, controlled anger, externalized, anger and internalized anger), and psychological symptoms (i.e., depression, trait anxiety, and worry).

4.6.1 Findings Related to Moderator Role of Cognitive Reappraisal in the Relationship between Internalized Anger and Worry

According to the findings, when individuals were less likely to use cognitive reappraisal, worry tended to be increased at higher levels of internalized anger. However, internalized anger did not significantly affect worry related symptoms, when individuals were more likely to use cognitive reappraisal. The association between internalized anger and worry has been conceptualized in generalized anxiety disorder (GAD). Relevant studies addressed that anger has positively associated with GAD severity, particularly, internalized anger expression has been found to be significant in the intensification of worry (Deschênes, Dugas, Fracalanza, & Koerner, 2012; Erdem, Çelik, Yetkin, & Özgen, 2008). As an attempt to explore the nature of this link, a study examined the possible mediator roles of cognitions and demonstrated that individuals having more negative beliefs about uncertainty tend to internalize their anger, which in turn leads to greater GAD symptoms (Fracalanza & Koerner, Deschênes, & Dugas, 2014).

On the other hand, the adaptive role of cognitive reappraisal referring to produce positive interpretations on emotion eliciting situations has been widely emphasized in reducing distress (Gross, 1998a; b). Besides, cognitive restructuring is accepted as one of the key components in the treatment of affective and anxiety disorders, as well as anger management (Denson, Moulds & Grisham, 2012; DiGiuseppe & Tafrate, 2003; Beck, 2011). Consistently, the findings of the study revealed that increase in cognitive reappraisal can preclude the negative impact of internalized anger on worry. This result is important in formulating the impact of anger on worry related symptoms that has not been given much attention. This finding established that re-structuring cognitions associated with internalized anger seems to be effective in decreasing these symptoms. Therefore, additional research centering on the examination of maladaptive cognitions related to anger will provide important knowledge to work with this link in therapeutic settings.

4.6.2 Findings Related to Moderator Role of Cognitive Reappraisal in the Relationship between Situational Guilt and Worry

The finding of the moderation analysis revealed that when participants were less likely to engage in cognitive reappraisal, worry tended to be decreased at higher levels of situational guilt. However, situational guilt did not have significant influence on worry symptoms, when participants were more likely to use cognitive reappraisal. The relation of guilt to psychological well-being is very controversial in literature. This discrepancy is mostly attributed to ongoing diversity in definition and assessment of guilt (Averill, Diefenbach, Stanley, Breckenridge, & Lusby, 2002; Elison, 2005; Tilghman-Osborne, Cole, & Felton, 2010). For some studies, whether it is experienced in global or situational level; guilt is recognized as negative self-evaluation that causes subjective distress. Consistent to this regard, there is mounting empirical evidence for the positive association between guilt and various psychological problems (Burney & Irwin, 2000; Ghatavi, Nicolson, MacDonald, Osher, & Lewitt, 2002; Shafran, Watkins, & Charman, 1996). On the other hand, recent perspectives focused on the nature of guilt that differentiated as situational based and trait based. It is claimed that even tough situational guilt experience generates unpleasant feelings; it has a motivating feature with an attempt to repair or correct that results in positive outcomes in terms of psychological, relational and occupational functioning (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). Related empirical evidence proposed negative association between guilt and psychopathology including depression (Orth, Berking, & Burkhardt, 2006), anxiety disorders (Fergus, Valentiner, McGrath, & Jencius, 2010) and eating disorders (Sanftner, Barlow, Marschall, & Tangney, 1995). Findings of the present study supported second perspective by demonstrating the tendency of worry to be decreased in the case of contextual guilt. For the moderator role of cognitive reappraisal in this relationship, it may be interpreted that efficient cognitive re-evaluation may be more dominant than reparation motive proceeded by situational guilt in reducing worry level.

4.6.3 Findings Related to Moderator Role of Cognitive Reappraisal in the Relationship between Detachment and Trait Anxiety

The result of the moderation analysis established that when individuals used less cognitive reappraisal, trait anxiety tended to be decreased at high levels of detachment. Nevertheless, detachment did not have significant influence on anxiety level, when individuals used more cognitive reappraisal. This finding is consistent with Motan's study (2007) that conceptualized detachment as the lack of emotional involvement or unconcern, and established negative association between detachment and trait anxiety. Regarding the positive correlation between detachment and cognitive re-appraisal, for this moderation model, it is reasonable to assume that lower level of cognitive re-evaluation of situation may promote the decomposition of emotional aspect of the situation. However, greater cognitive reappraisal may be prevailing and may mask the impact of detachment in regulating anxiety related symptoms. On the other hand, it is important to note that the direction of this link cannot be specified from this result. For instance, it is also possible to expect that estrangement of self from situation may diminish the activation of additional unpleasant emotions as well as anxiety. This de-activation facilitates individuals to re-evaluate this situation. Another possible explanation to this model is that detachment may be a defensive strategy rather than personality tendency that improves resiliency in dealing with negative situations. In that case, it may be expected that when people use effective cognitive-restructure, they no longer need to use detachment as a defense mechanism in dealing with anxiety. Additional research to investigate the functioning of detachment will be helpful in achieving broader picture for these possible explanations.

4.6.4 Findings Related to Moderator Role of Suppression in the Relationship between Situational Guilt and Worry

The finding of the moderation analysis revealed that when participants were less likely to engage in suppression, worry tended to be decreased at higher levels of situational guilt. However, situational guilt did not have significant impact on worry symptoms, when participants used higher level of suppression. In literature,

suppression is recognized as a maladaptive regulatory strategy that is associated with decrease in life satisfaction and relational functioning, increase in depression mood and negative effect (Gross & John, 2003; Haga, Kraft, & Corby, 2009). On the other hand, Schuette, Manes, and Malouff (2009) studied wide group of emotion regulation strategies and reported that suppression as response modulation strategy was not associated with negative psychological outcomes. In a consistent manner, Eftekhari, Zoellner, and Vigil (2009) established that individuals use both cognitive reappraisal and suppression in different degrees; and any of them can be adaptive when used flexibly on necessary time and context (Bonanno, Papa, Lalande, Westphal, & Coifman, 2004). In the present study, suppression had negative correlation with worry, trait anxiety, and depression. Therefore, it may be plausible to assume that nonclinical participants in this study are able to use suppression efficiently in dealing with negative emotions. Based on the positive correlation between situational guilt and suppression, for the moderation model it may be interpreted that efficient suppression may press down the motivation for compensation induced by guilt in reducing worry level.

4.7 Importance of the Study and Clinical Implications

The current study explored an extensive model for the associates of psychological symptoms by focusing on parenting (as developmental origins), emotions (vulnerability) and emotion dysregulation (as maintaining factors). Findings related to such a comprehensive model provided important practical and theoretical implications.

The results of the current study confirmed previous research pointing that adult psychopathology is strongly influenced by the quality of relationship with parents. In addition to prior research, this study has drawn attention to specific negative emotions and emotion regulation difficulties in understanding this influence. Importantly, paternal rejection and maternal overprotection were found to be elevating factors of several psychological symptoms. This result provides information about the importance of promoting father's emotional involvement and mother's support for child's autonomy for healthy psychological functioning. Since

maladaptive parenting has serious threats for adult psychopathology, it is important to detect and straighten these maladaptive family patterns as early as possible. Therefore, risky families need to be encouraged for education programs or family interventions based on the assessments of children's or adolescents' perceived parenting behaviors.

In the connection between negative parenting styles and psychological impairments, two emotions were found to be associated, namely shame and trait anger. These emotions were established to be significant in depression, anxiety, and worry symptoms. Emotions can be overshadowed by maladaptive cognitions, schemas or coping ways in intervention programs. However, these findings enlighten the importance to work with these two specific emotions for effective and long-term change. Furthermore, based on the findings addressing the significant emotion regulation difficulties for these emotions, it is possible to conclude that facing with these emotions and relevant responses may be quite aversive and painful. Therefore, in clinical settings, it may be very challenging for the therapist to uncover patients' emotional experiences and work with them. To illustrate uncovering emotions of individuals who tended to direct their anger toward themselves or hold it rather than expressing to others might be quite puzzling. For that reason, therapists should be very cautious to follow the signs of anger such as jokes or somatic complaints if these emotions are intensely embedded at outside of awareness. Similarly, shame experience seemed to be related with defensive styles, particularly, externalization and detachment. The findings indicated that these styles might be effective in decreasing psychological symptoms, but they were also associated with some difficulties in emotion regulation strategies. Based on these findings, it is possible to propose that these defensive styles may be efficient in decreasing symptoms for short-term, but probably they prevent individuals to look for the source of shame experience and deal with it effectively and permanently. Therapeutic relationship providing acceptance and support may help patients to leave these defensive styles and confront with primary shameful experiences.

Although emotion regulation difficulties in relation to psychological symptoms have been examined in previous studies, this study has a contribution to available literature by identifying specific difficulties for particular psychological problems. This differentiation is essential in order to develop effective interventions while working with maladaptive regulatory strategies associated with affective disorders or anxiety disorders. In addition to that, integrating regulation strategies in the association between emotions and psychological symptoms is important to achieve comprehensive case conceptualizations.

4.8 Strengths and Limitations of the Study; and Directions for Future Research

In the present study, the findings demonstrating the effects of negative parenting styles and emotional systems on emotion dysregulation and psychopathology have important contributions to literature from both theoretical and practical perspectives. However, these results should be discussed within the framework of various strengths and limitations.

Current study was carried out with a large sample size ($N = 544$) to safely conduct statistical analyses and examine the differences based on various demographic features of the participants. Nevertheless, some features of the present sample brought limitations in terms of the representativeness. First of all, there is an unbalance gender ratio in which female participants were almost three times more than male participants. Although gender was not taken into account in the main hypotheses, initial analyses yielded significant gender difference for self-conscious emotions, emotion regulation difficulties, and perceived father's parenting style. Therefore, additional research including balanced gender ratio may provide more valid knowledge in understanding this difference.

Secondly, majority of the participants were highly educated (university graduates $N = 388$) and recruited from two big cities (Ankara and Istanbul). Even though education level was not included in the analyses; future studies carried out with a sample in equal ratio of education level; and participants recruited from

different regions (both rural and urban areas) of Turkey may be more adequate to represent Turkish population.

Despite the remarkable associations established between the variables in the present study; cross-sectional nature of this design restricts to infer a direction or causality in these relationships. Since conducting an experimental procedure may not be suitable for some variables such as perceived parenting styles, longitudinal designs may offer more detailed information about the development of emotional system and the maturation of emotion regulation across ages. This information may also be useful in determining a critical period for an individual to lose his/her flexibility and adaptability, and establish a relatively permanent pattern.

In addition, the results of the current study are based on data taken from voluntary and nonclinical sample. The variables tested in the present study such as perceived parenting, self-conscious emotions, and emotion regulation are not specific to psychopathology. Nevertheless, additional studies conducted with clinical samples and the comparisons of those findings with control groups are encouraged to extend the knowledge about this mechanism.

Finally, findings should be carefully evaluated considering the data collection method. Data of the present study is based on the self-report measurements. Since majority of the participants filled the questionnaires on their own using website without recording any personal information, anonymity was believed to decrease respondents' tendency for social desirability. On the other hand, this self-report measurement provided information about participants' emotional system and regulation at only explicit level. However, there is growing evidence in literature indicating that most of the emotional experiences and regulation processes are operated automatically or outside of the awareness (Bargh & Williams, 2007; Moors & DeHouwer, 2006). Moreover, it is stated that individual's explicit intentions may be different from implicit goals and strategies; and implicit regulations tend to be pervasive in daily functioning rather than conscious decisions and evaluations (Koole & Rothermund, 2011). Therefore, future studies investigating which emotions or situations activate implicit

regulation, how explicit emotion regulation strategies or emotional experiences are handled by implicit interventions; and how implicit experiences and regulation change at conscious level will implement valuable theoretical and practical knowledge.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Informed Consent

GÖNÜLLÜ KATILIM FORMU

Değerli Katılımcı;

Bu çalışma, Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Psikoloji Bölümü doktora öğrencisi Başak Safrancı tarafından, klinik psikoloji doktora programı bitirme tezi kapsamında yürütülmektedir. Bu çalışmanın amacı, ebeveyn tutumları ile olumsuz duygularımızın, duygu düzenleme stratejileri ve psikolojik şikâyetlerle ilişkisini araştırmaktır. Çalışmaya katılım tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Çalışmadaki sorularda kesinlikle kimlik belirleyici bilgiler istenmemektedir ve rahatsızlık verecek sorular bulunmamaktadır. Çalışmayı istediğiniz zaman bırakmakta serbestsiniz. Bununla birlikte, sorulara samimi cevaplar vermeniz araştırmada elde edilen sonuçların geçerli ve güvenilir olmasını sağlayacaktır. Verdiğiniz tüm cevaplar gizli tutulacak ve elde edilen bilgiler sadece araştırma amaçları doğrultusunda kullanılacaktır. Ayrıca çalışmayla ilgili her türlü sorularınız cevaplandırılacaktır.

Çalışma hakkında bilgi almak için ODTÜ Klinik Psikoloji doktora öğrencisi Başak Safrancı (Tel: 0536 4995617; e-posta: e137239@metu.edu.tr) ile iletişim kurabilirsiniz.

Katılımınız için 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).

Adı Soyadı

Tarih

İmza

----/----/-----

APPENDIX B: Demographic Information Form

DEMOGRAFİK BİLGİ FORMU

Yaş : _____

Cinsiyet: Kadın () Erkek ()

Doğum Yeri:

Eğitim Durumu:

Mesleğiniz:

Şu anda bir işte çalışıyor musunuz? :

Nerede Kalıyorsunuz? a) Kendi evimde

b) Kirada

c) Yurtta

d) Özel yurтта

Kiminle yaşıyorsunuz? a) Ailemle

b) Arkadaşlarımla

c) Akrabalarımla

d) Yalnız

En uzun süre yaşadığınız şehir/ kasaba:

Ailenizin eğitim durumu:

Anne: a) Okur-yazar değil

b) Okur-yazar veya ilkökul terk

c) İlkokul mezunu

d) Ortaokul mezunu

e) Lise mezunu

f) Üniversite

g) Master/ doktora

Baba: a) Okur-yazar değil

b) Okur-yazar veya ilkökul terk

c) İlkokul mezunu

d) Ortaokul mezunu

e) Lise mezunu

f) Üniversite

g) Master/ doktora

Şimdi ya da geçmişte psikolojik/psikiyatrik yardım aldınız mı? :

Evet, ise, şikâyetiniz/koyulan tanı ne(idi)? :

Ne tür bir tedavi aldınız? :

APPENDIX C: State - Trait Anxiety Inventory Trait Form (STAI – T)

Aşağıda kişilerin kendilerine ait duygularını anlatmada kullandıkları bir takım ifadeler verilmiştir. Her ifadeyi dikkatlice okuyun, sonra da **genel olarak** nasıl hissettiğinizi, ifadelerin sağ tarafındaki rakamlardan uygun olanını işaretlemek suretiyle belirtin. Doğru ya da yanlış cevap yoktur. Herhangi bir ifadenin üzerinde fazla zaman sarf etmeksizin, **genel olarak** nasıl hissettiğinizi gösteren cevabı işaretleyin.

	Hemen hiç bir zaman	Bazen	Çok zaman	Hemen her zaman
1. Genellikle keyfim yerindedir.	1	2	3	4
2. Genellikle çabuk yorulurum.	1	2	3	4
3. Genellikle kolay ağlarım.	1	2	3	4
4. Başkaları kadar mutlu olmak isterim.	1	2	3	4
5. Çabuk karar veremediğim için fırsatları kaçıırım.	1	2	3	4
6. Kendimi dinlenmiş hissedirim.	1	2	3	4
7. Genellikle sakin, kendime hakim ve soğukkanlıyım.	1	2	3	4
8. Güçlülerin yenemeyeceğim kadar biriktiğini hissedirim.	1	2	3	4
9.Önemsiz şeyler hakkında endişelenirim.	1	2	3	4
10. Genellikle mutluyum.	1	2	3	4
11. Her şeyi ciddiye alır ve etkilenirim.	1	2	3	4
12. Genellikle kendime güvenim yoktur.	1	2	3	4
13. Genellikle kendimi emniyette hissedirim.	1	2	3	4
14. Sıkıntılı ve güç durumlarla karşılaşmaktan kaçınırım.	1	2	3	4
15. Genellikle kendimi hüzünlü hissedirim.	1	2	3	4
16. Genellikle hayatımdan memnunum.	1	2	3	4
17. Olur olmaz düşünceler beni rahatsız eder.	1	2	3	4
18. Hayal kırıklıklarını öylesine ciddiye alırım ki hiç unutmam.	1	2	3	4
19. Akli başında ve kararlı bir insanım.	1	2	3	4
20. Son zamanlarda kafama takılan konular beni tedirgin eder.	1	2	3	4

APPENDIX D: Penn State Worry Questionnaire

Her bir ifadenin sizi ne ölçüde tanımladığını, aşağıda verilen ölçekten yararlanarak değerlendiriniz ve uygun olan numarayı ilgili maddenin yanındaki boşluğa yazınız.

1	2	3	4	5
Beni hiç tanımlamıyor		Beni biraz tanımlıyor		Beni çok iyi tanımlıyor

- ___ 1. Her şeyi yapmaya yeterli zamanım yoksa bunun için endişelenmem.
- ___ 2. Endişelerim beni bunaltır.
- ___ 3. Yaşamakta olduğum şeyler hakkında endişelenme eğiliminde değilimdir.
- ___ 4. Birçok durum beni endişelendirir.
- ___ 5. Yaşamakta olduğum şeyler hakkında endişelenmem gerektiğini biliyorum ama kendime engel olamıyorum.
- ___ 6. Baskı altında olduğumda çok endişelenirim.
- ___ 7. Her zaman bir şeyler hakkında endişeleniyorum.
- ___ 8. Endişe verici düşünceleri aklımdan kolaylıkla atarım.
- ___ 9. Bir işi bitirir bitirmez, yapmak zorunda olduğum tüm diğer şeyler hakkında endişelenmeye başlarım.
- ___ 10. Asla herhangi bir şey için endişelenmem.
- ___ 11. Bir konu ile ilgili olarak yapabileceğim daha fazla bir şey olmadığında, artık o konu hakkında endişelenmem.
- ___ 12. Tüm yaşamım boyunca endişeli biri olmuşumdur.
- ___ 13. Yaşamakta olduğum şeyler hakkında endişeleniyor olduğumu fark ederim.
- ___ 14. Bir kez endişelenmeye başladığımda, bunu durduramam.
- ___ 15. Sürekli olarak endişeliyimdir.
- ___ 16. Tamamen yapıp bitirene kadar tasarladığım işler hakkında endişelenirim.

APPENDIX E: Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale (DERS)

Aşağıda insanların duygularını kontrol etmekte kullandıkları bazı yöntemler verilmiştir. Lütfen her durumu dikkatlice okuyunuz ve her birinin sizin için ne kadar doğru olduğunu içtenlikle değerlendiriniz. Değerlendirmenizi uygun cevap önündeki yuvarlak üzerine çarpı (X) koyarak işaretleyiniz

1. Ne hissettiğim konusunda netimdir.

- Neredeyse Hiçbir zaman Bazen Yaklaşık Yarı yarıya Çoğu zaman Neredeyse Her zaman

2. Ne hissettiğimi dikkate alırım.

- Neredeyse Hiçbir zaman Bazen Yaklaşık Yarı yarıya Çoğu zaman Neredeyse Her zaman

3. Duygularım bana dayanılmaz ve kontrolsüz gelir.

- Neredeyse Hiçbir zaman Bazen Yaklaşık Yarı yarıya Çoğu zaman Neredeyse Her zaman

4. Ne hissettiğim konusunda net bir fikrim vardır.

- Neredeyse Hiçbir zaman Bazen Yaklaşık Yarı yarıya Çoğu zaman Neredeyse Her zaman

5. Duygularıma bir anlam vermekte zorlanırım.

- Neredeyse Hiçbir zaman Bazen Yaklaşık Yarı yarıya Çoğu zaman Neredeyse Her zaman

6. Ne hissettiğime dikkat ederim.

- Neredeyse Hiçbir zaman Bazen Yaklaşık Yarı yarıya Çoğu zaman Neredeyse Her zaman

7. Ne hissettiğimi tam olarak bilirim.

- Neredeyse Bazen Yaklaşık Çoğu zaman Neredeyse
Hiçbir zaman Yarı yarıya Her zaman

8. Ne hissettiğimi önemserim.

- Neredeyse Bazen Yaklaşık Çoğu zaman Neredeyse
Hiçbir zaman Yarı yarıya Her zaman

9. Ne hissettiğim konusunda karmaşa yaşarım.

- Neredeyse Bazen Yaklaşık Çoğu zaman Neredeyse
Hiçbir zaman Yarı yarıya Her zaman

10. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, bu duygularımı kabul ederim.

- Neredeyse Bazen Yaklaşık Çoğu zaman Neredeyse
Hiçbir zaman Yarı yarıya Her zaman

11. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, böyle hissettiğim için kendime kızarım.

- Neredeyse Bazen Yaklaşık Çoğu zaman Neredeyse
Hiçbir zaman Yarı yarıya Her zaman

12. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, böyle hissettiğim için utanırım.

- Neredeyse Bazen Yaklaşık Çoğu zaman Neredeyse
Hiçbir zaman Yarı yarıya Her zaman

13. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, işlerimi yapmakta zorlanırım.

- Neredeyse Bazen Yaklaşık Çoğu zaman Neredeyse
Hiçbir zaman Yarı yarıya Her zaman

14. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, kontrolümü kaybederim.

- Neredeyse Bazen Yaklaşık Çoğu zaman Neredeyse
Hiçbir zaman Yarı yarıya Her zaman

15. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, uzun süre böyle kalacağıma inanırım.

- Neredeyse Bazen Yaklaşık Çoğu zaman Neredeyse
Hiçbir zaman Yarı yarıya Her zaman

16. Kendimi Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, sonuç olarak yoğun depresif duygular içinde olacağıma inanırım.

- Neredeyse Hiçbir zaman Bazen Yaklaşık Yarı yarıya Çoğu zaman Neredeyse Her zaman

17. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, duygularımın yerinde ve önemli olduğuna inanırım.

- Neredeyse Hiçbir zaman Bazen Yaklaşık Yarı yarıya Çoğu zaman Neredeyse Her zaman

18. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, başka şeylere odaklanmakta zorlanırım.

- Neredeyse Hiçbir zaman Bazen Yaklaşık Yarı yarıya Çoğu zaman Neredeyse Her zaman

19. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, kendimi kontrolden çıkmış hissederim.

- Neredeyse Hiçbir zaman Bazen Yaklaşık Yarı yarıya Çoğu zaman Neredeyse Her zaman

20. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, halen işlerimi sürdürebilirim.

- Neredeyse Hiçbir zaman Bazen Yaklaşık Yarı yarıya Çoğu zaman Neredeyse Her zaman

21. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, bu duygumdan dolayı kendimden utanırım.

- Neredeyse Hiçbir zaman Bazen Yaklaşık Yarı yarıya Çoğu zaman Neredeyse Her zaman

22. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, eninde sonunda kendimi daha iyi hissetmenin bir yolunu bulacağımı bilirim.

- Neredeyse Hiçbir zaman Bazen Yaklaşık Yarı yarıya Çoğu zaman Neredeyse Her zaman

23. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, zayıf biri olduğum duygusuna kapılırım.

- Neredeyse Hiçbir zaman Bazen Yaklaşık Yarı yarıya Çoğu zaman Neredeyse Her zaman

24. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, davranışlarımı kontrol altında tutabileceğimi hissederim.

- Neredeyse Bazen Yaklaşık Çoğu zaman Neredeyse
Hiçbir zaman Yarı yarıya Her zaman

25. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, böyle hissettiğim için suçluluk duyarım.

- Neredeyse Bazen Yaklaşık Çoğu zaman Neredeyse
Hiçbir zaman Yarı yarıya Her zaman

26. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, konsantre olmakta zorlanırım.

- Neredeyse Bazen Yaklaşık Çoğu zaman Neredeyse
Hiçbir zaman Yarı yarıya Her zaman

27. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, davranışlarımı kontrol etmekte zorlanırım.

- Neredeyse Bazen Yaklaşık Çoğu zaman Neredeyse
Hiçbir zaman Yarı yarıya Her zaman

28. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, daha iyi hissetmem için yapacağım hiç bir şey olmadığına inanırım.

- Neredeyse Bazen Yaklaşık Çoğu zaman Neredeyse
Hiçbir zaman Yarı yarıya Her zaman

29. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, böyle hissettiğim için kendimden rahatsız olurum.

- Neredeyse Bazen Yaklaşık Çoğu zaman Neredeyse
Hiçbir zaman Yarı yarıya Her zaman

30. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, kendim için çok fazla endişelenmeye başlarım.

- Neredeyse Bazen Yaklaşık Çoğu zaman Neredeyse
Hiçbir zaman Yarı yarıya Her zaman

31. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, kendimi bu duyguya bırakmaktan başka yapabileceğim birşey olmadığına inanırım.

- Neredeyse Bazen Yaklaşık Çoğu zaman Neredeyse
Hiçbir zaman Yarı yarıya Her zaman

32. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, davranışlarım üzerindeki kontrolümü kaybederim.

- Neredeyse Hiçbir zaman Bazen Yaklaşık Yarı yarıya Çoğu zaman Neredeyse Her zaman

33. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, başka bir şey düşünmekte zorlanırım.

- Neredeyse Hiçbir zaman Bazen Yaklaşık Yarı yarıya Çoğu zaman Neredeyse Her zaman

34. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, duygumun gerçekte ne olduğunu anlamak için zaman ayırırım.

- Neredeyse Hiçbir zaman Bazen Yaklaşık Yarı yarıya Çoğu zaman Neredeyse Her zaman

35. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, kendimi daha iyi hissetmem uzun zaman alır.

- Neredeyse Hiçbir zaman Bazen Yaklaşık Yarı yarıya Çoğu zaman Neredeyse Her zaman

36. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, duygularım dayanılmaz olur.

- Neredeyse Hiçbir zaman Bazen Yaklaşık Yarı yarıya Çoğu zaman Neredeyse Her zaman

APPENDIX F: Trait Anger/ Anger Expression Inventory (TAXI)

YÖNERGE:

Aşağıda kişilerin kendilerine ait duygularını anlatırken kullandıkları bir takım ifadeler verilmiştir. Her ifadeyi okuyun. Sonra genel olarak nasıl hissettiğinizi düşünün ve ifadelerin sağ tarafındaki sayılar arasında sizi en iyi tanımlayan seçerek üzerine (x) işareti koyun. Doğru ya da yanlış cevap yoktur. Herhangi bir ifadenin üzerinde fazla zaman sarf etmeksizin, genel olarak nasıl hissettiğinizi gösteren cevabı işaretleyin.

Aşağıdaki ifadeler sizi ne kadar tanımlıyor?

	İFADELER	Hiç (1)	Biraz (2)	Oldukça (3)	Tümüyle (4)
1	Çabuk parlarım.	()	()	()	()
2	Kızgın mizaçlıyım.	()	()	()	()
3	Öfkesi burnunda birisiyim.	()	()	()	()
4	Başkalarının hataları, yaptığım işi yavaşlatınca kızarım.	()	()	()	()
5	Yaptığım iyi bir işten sonra takdir edilmemek canımı sıkır.	()	()	()	()
6	Öfkelenince kontrolümü kaybederim.	()	()	()	()
7	Öfkelenirken ağzıma geleni söylerim.	()	()	()	()
8	Başkalarının önünde eleştirilmek beni çok hiddetlendirir.	()	()	()	()
9	Engellediğimde içimden birilerine vurmak gelir.	()	()	()	()
10	Yaptığım iyi bir iş kötü değerlendirildiğinde çılına dönerim.	()	()	()	()
11	Öfkemi kontrol ederim.	()	()	()	()
12	Kızgınlığımı gösteririm.	()	()	()	()
13	Öfkemi içime atarım.	()	()	()	()
14	Başkalarına karşı sabırlıyım.	()	()	()	()
15	Somurturum ya da surat asarım.	()	()	()	()
16	İnsanlardan uzak dururum.	()	()	()	()
17	Başkalarına iğneli sözler söylerim.	()	()	()	()
18	Soğukkanlılığımı korurum.	()	()	()	()
19	Kapıları çarpmak gibi şeyler yaparım.	()	()	()	()

20	İçin için köpürürüm ama göstermem .	()	()	()	()
21	Davranışlarımı kontrol ederim.	()	()	()	()
22	Başkalarıyla tartışırım.	()	()	()	()
23	İçimde kimseye söylemediğim kinler beslerim.	()	()	()	()
24	Beni çileden çıkaran her neyse saldırırım.	()	()	()	()
25	Öfkem kontrolden çıkmadan kendimi durdurabilirim.	()	()	()	()
26	Gizliden gizliye insanları epeyce eleştiririm.	()	()	()	()
27	Belli ettiğimden daha öfkeliyimdir.	()	()	()	()
28	Çoğu kimseye kıyasla daha çabuk sakinleşirim.	()	()	()	()
29	Kötü şeyler söylerim.	()	()	()	()
30	Hoş görülme ve anlayışlı olamaya çalışırım .	()	()	()	()
31	İçimden insanların fark ettiğinden daha fazla sinirlenirim.	()	()	()	()
32	Sinirlerime hâkim olamam.	()	()	()	()
33	Beni sinirlendirene ne hissettiğimi söyleyemem.	()	()	()	()
34	Kızgınlık duygularımı kontrol ederim.	()	()	()	()

APPENDIX G: Test of Self-Conscious Affect – 3 (TOSCA – 3)

Aşağıda insanların günlük yaşamlarında karşılaşmaları mümkün olan olaylar ve bu olaylara verilen yaygın bazı tepkiler yer almaktadır.

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.

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

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 zaman varsa neredeyse 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 hissedirdim, bazen etmezdim; bu planladığım şeye bağlı olurdu. (d) cevabı içinde “4”ü yuvarlak içine aldım, çünkü büyük olasılıkla neden bu kadar erken kalktığımı merak ederdim.

Lütfen siz de hiçbir maddeyi atlamayın, bütün cevapları değerlendirin.

1) Bir arkadaşınızla öğle yemeğinde buluşmak plan yapıyorsunuz. Saat 5'te, onu beklettiğiniz fark ediyorsunuz.	Mümkün Değil			Çok Mümkün	
	1	2	3	4	5
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

2) İş yerinde bir şey kırılıyorsunuz ve sonra onu saklıyorsunuz.	Mümkün Değil			Çok Mümkün	
	1	2	3	4	5
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)"Bugünlerde birçok şey iyi yapılmıyor" diye düşünürdünüz.	1	2	3	4	5
d) "Bu sadece bir kazaydı" diye düşünürdünüz.	1	2	3	4	5

3) Bir akşam arkadaşlarınızla dışarıdasınız ve kendinizi özellikle esprili ve çekici hissediyorsunuz. En iyi arkadaşınızın eşi, bilhassa sizin olmanızdan çok hoşlanıyor gibi görünüyor.	Mümkün Değil			Çok Mümkün	
	1	2	3	4	5
a)"En iyi arkadaşımın ne hissettiğinin farkında olmalıyım" diye düşünürdünüz.	1	2	3	4	5
b) Görünümünüz ve kişiliğiniz ile ilgili kendinizi mutlu hissederdiniz.	1	2	3	4	5
c)Böyle iyi bir izlenim bıraktığınızdan dolayı memnuniyet hissederdiniz.	1	2	3	4	5
d) En iyi arkadaşınızın eşine dikkat etmesi gerektiğini düşünürdünüz.	1	2	3	4	5
e) Muhtemelen uzun süre göz temasından kaçınırdınız	1	2	3	4	5

4) (İş yerinde) bir projesi planlamak için son dakikaya kadar bekliyorsunuz ve kötü sonuçlanıyor.					
	Mümkün Değil			Çok Mümkün	
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

5) (İş yerinde) bir hata yapıyorsunuz ve bu hatadan dolayı bir (iş) arkadaşınızın suçlandığını öğreniyorsunuz.					
	Mümkün Değil			Çok Mümkün	
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

6) Birkaç gündür zor bir telefon görüşmesini erteliyorsunuz. Son dakikada, görüşmeyi yapıyorsunuz ve konuşmayı yönlendirebildiğiniz için her şey iyi gidiyor.					
	Mümkün Değil			Çok Mümkün	
a) “Sanırım düşündüğümde daha ikna ediciyim” diye düşünürdünüz.	1	2	3	4	5
b) Bu konuşmayı ertelediğinize pişman olurdunuz.	1	2	3	4	5
c) Kendinizi bir korkak gibi hissederdiniz.	1	2	3	4	5
d) “İyi iş çıkardım” diye düşünürdünüz.	1	2	3	4	5
e) Baskı hissettiğiniz telefon konuşmalarını yapmamanız gerektiğini düşünürdünüz.	1	2	3	4	5

7) Oyun oynarken, bir top atıyorsunuz ve arkadaşınızı suratına çarpıyor.					
	Mümkün Değil			Çok Mümkün	
a) Bir toplu bile atamadığınız için kendinizi yetersiz hissedersiniz.	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

8) Ailenizin yanından yeni taşındınız ve herkes çok yardımcı oldu. Birkaç kere borç para almaya ihtiyacınız oldu, fakat en kısa sürede geri ödediniz.					
	Mümkün Değil			Çok Mümkün	
a) Olgunlaşmamış hissedersiniz.	1	2	3	4	5
b) “Kesinlikle şansım kötü gitti” diye düşünürdünüz.	1	2	3	4	5
c) Olabildiğince çabuk iyiliğin karşılığını verirdiniz.	1	2	3	4	5
d)“Ben güvenilir biri miyim” diye düşünürdünüz.	1	2	3	4	5
e) Borçlarınızı geri ödediğiniz için gurur duyardınız.	1	2	3	4	5

9) Yolda araba sürerken küçük bir hayvana çarpıyorsunuz					
	Mümkün Değil			Çok Mümkün	
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 hissedersiniz.	1	2	3	4	5
d)Arabayı daha dikkatli sürmediğiniz için kötü hissedersiniz.	1	2	3	4	5

10) Bir sınavdan son derece iyi yaptığınızı düşünerek çıkıyorsunuz. Sonra, daha kötü yaptığınızı anlıyorsunuz					
	Mümkün Değil			Çok Mümkün	
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

11) Siz ve bir grup (iş) arkadaşınız bir proje üzerinde çok sıkı çalıştınız. Patronunuz proje bu kadar başarılı olduğu için sadece sizi ödüllendiriyor.					
	Mümkün Değil			Çok Mümkün	
a) Patronun oldukça dar görüşlü olduğunu düşünürdünüz.	1	2	3	4	5
b) Kendinizi yalnız ve meslektaşlarınızdan ayrı hissederdiniz.	1	2	3	4	5
c) Çok çalışmanın karşılığını aldığınızı düşünürdünüz.	1	2	3	4	5
d) Kendinizi yeterli hissederdiniz ve kendinizle gurur duyardınız.	1	2	3	4	5
e)Bunu kabul etmemeniz gerektiğini hissederdiniz.	1	2	3	4	5

12) Bir grup arkadaşınızla dışarıdayken, orada olmayan bir arkadaşınızla dalga geçiyorsunuz.					
	Mümkün Değil			Çok Mümkün	
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 savunması için orada olması gerektiğini düşünürdünüz.	1	2	3	4	5
d) Özür dilerdiniz ve o kişinin iyi yönleri hakkında konuşurdunuz.	1	2	3	4	5

13) İşyerinde, önemli bir projede büyük bir hata yapıyorsunuz. Projede çalışanlar size bağlıydı ve patronunuz sizi eleştiriyor.					
	Mümkün Değil			Çok Mümkün	
a) Patronunuzun sizden ne beklediğiyle 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” diye düşünürdünüz.	1	2	3	4	5

14) Özürlü çocuklar için düzenlenen yerel yarışmalara yardım etmek için gönüllü oluyorsunuz. Bu iş sizi engelleyici ve çok zamanınızı alan bir işe dönüşüyor. Ciddi olarak bırakmayı düşünüyorsunuz ama sonra çocukların nasıl mutlu olduklarını görüyorsunuz.					
	Mümkün Değil			Çok Mümkün	
a) Bencil olduğunuzu hissederdiniz ve tembel olduğunuzu düşünürdünüz.	1	2	3	4	5
b) Yapmak istemediğiniz bir şeye zorlandığınızı hissederdiniz.	1	2	3	4	5
c) “Daha az şanslı insanlarla daha ilgili olmalıyım” diye düşünürdünüz.	1	2	3	4	5
d)Başkalarına yardım ettiğiniz için çok iyi hissederdiniz.	1	2	3	4	5
e)Kendinizden çok hoşnut olmuş hissederdiniz.	1	2	3	4	5

15) Onlar tatildeyken, arkadaşınızın köpeğine bakıyorsunuz ve köpek kaçıyor.					
	Mümkün Değil			Çok Mümkün	
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

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

APPENDIX H: Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (ERQ)

Lütfen her maddeyi okuduktan sonra, o maddede belirtilen fikre katılma derecenizi 7 (*Tamamen Katılıyorum*) ve 1 (*Hiç Katılmıyorum*) arasında değişen rakamlardan size uygun olanını işaretleyerek belirtiniz. (1 - Hiç Katılmıyorum, 2 - Katılmıyorum, 3 – Biraz katılmıyorum, 4 - Kararsızım, 5 - Biraz katılıyorum, 6 - Katılıyorum, 7 – Tamamen Katılıyorum).

	Hiç Katılmıyorum						Tamamen Katılıyorum
1) İçinde bulunduğum duruma göre düşünme seklini değiştirerek duygularımı kontrol ederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2) Olumsuz duygularımın az olmasını istersem, durumla ilgili düşünme seklimi değiştiririm.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3) Olumlu duygularımın fazla olmasını istediğim zaman duruma ilgili düşünme seklimi değiştiririm.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4) Olumlu duygularımın fazla olmasını istersem (mutluluk veya eğlence) düşündüğüm şeyi değiştiririm.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5) Olumsuz duygularımın az olmasını istersem (kötü hissetme veya kızgınlık gibi) düşündüğüm şeyi değiştiririm.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6) Stresli bir durumla karşılaştığımda, bu durumu sakin kalmamı sağlayacak şekilde düşünmeye çalışırım	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7) Duygularımı ifade etmeyerek kontrol ederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8) Olumsuz duygular hissettiğimde onları ifade etmediğimden emin olmak isterim	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9) Duygularımı kendime saklarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10) Olumlu duygular hissettiğimde onları ifade etmemeye dikkat ederim	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**APPENDIX I: Egna Minnen Beträffande Uppfostran – My Memories of
Upbringing (Short – EMBU)**

Aşağıda çocukluğunuz ile ilgili bazı ifadeler yer almaktadır.

Anketi doldurmadan önce aşağıdaki yönergeyi lütfen dikkatle okuyunuz:

1. Anketi doldururken, anne ve babanızın size karşı olan davranışlarını nasıl algıladığınızı hatırlamaya çalışmanız gerekmektedir. Anne ve babanızın çocukken size karşı davranışlarını tam olarak hatırlamak bazen zor olsa da, her birimizin çocukluğumuzda anne ve babamızın kullandıkları prensiplere ilişkin bazı anılarımız vardır.
2. Her bir soru için anne ve babanızın size karşı davranışlarına uygun seçeneği yuvarlak içine alın. Her soruyu dikkatlice okuyun ve muhtemel cevaplardan hangisinin sizin için uygun cevap olduğuna karar verin. Soruları anne ve babanız için ayrı ayrı cevaplayın.

Örneğin;

Annem ve babam bana iyi davranırlardı.				
	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

1. Anne ve babam, nedenini söylemeden bana kızarlardı ya da ters davranırlardı

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

2. Anne ve babam beni överlerdi.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

3. Anne ve babamın yaptıklarım konusunda daha az endişeli olmasını isterdim.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

4. Anne ve babam bana hak ettiğimden daha çok fiziksel ceza verirlerdi.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

5. Eve geldiğimde, anne ve babama ne yaptığımın hesabını vermek zorundaydım.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

6. Anne ve babam ergenliğimin uyarıcı, ilginç ve eğitici olması için çalışırlardı.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

7. Anne ve babam, beni başkalarının önünde eleştirirlerdi.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

8. Anne ve babam, bana birşey olur korkusuyla başka çocukların yapmasına izin verilen şeyleri yapmamı yasaklardı.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

9. Anne ve babam, her şeyde en iyi olmam için beni teşvik ederlerdi.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

10. Anne ve babam davranışları ile örneğin üzgün görünerek, onlara kötü davrandığım için kendimi suçlu hissetmeme neden olurlardı.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

11. Anne ve babamın bana birşey olacağına ilişkin endişeleri abartılıydı.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

12. Benim için bir şeyler kötü gittiğinde, anne ve babamın beni rahatlatmaya ve yüreklendirmeye çalıştığını hissettim.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

13. Bana ailenin “yüz karası” ya da “günah keçisi” gibi davranılırdı.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

14. Anne ve babam, sözleri ve hareketleriyle beni sevdiklerini gösterirlerdi.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

15. Anne ve babamın, erkek ya da kız kardeşimi(lerimi) beni sevdiklerinden daha çok sevdiklerini hissedirdim.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

16. Anne ve babam, kendimden utanmama neden olurlardı.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

17. Anne ve babam, pek fazla umursamadan, istediğim yere gitmeme izin verirlerdi.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

18. Anne ve babamın, yaptığım herşeye karıştıklarını hissedirdim.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

19. Anne ve babamla, aramda sıcaklık ve sevecenlik olduğunu hissedirdim.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

20. Anne ve babam, yapabileceklerim ve yapamayacaklarımla ilgili kesin sınırlar koyar ve bunlara titizlikle uyarlardı.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

21. Anne ve babam, küçük kabahatlerim için bile beni cezalandırırlardı.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

22. Anne ve babam, nasıl giyinmem ve görünmem gerektiği konusunda karar vermek isterlerdi.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

23. Yaptığım bir şeyde başarılı olduğumda, anne ve babamın benimle gurur duyduklarını hissedirdim.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

APPENDIX J: Beck Depression Inventory

Aşağıda kişilerin ruh durumlarını ifade ederken kullandıkları bazı cümleler verilmiştir. Her madde, bir çeşit ruh durumunu anlatmaktadır. Her maddeye o ruh durumunun derecesini belirleyen 4 seçenek vardır. Lütfen bu seçenekleri dikkatle okuyunuz. Son iki hafta içindeki (şu an dâhil) kendi ruh durumunuzu göz önünde bulundurarak, size en uygun olan ifadeyi bulunuz. Daha sonra, o maddenin yanındaki harfi işaretleyiniz.

1. (a) Kendimi üzgün hissetmiyorum.
(b) Kendimi üzgün hissediyorum.
(c) Her zaman için üzgünüm ve kendimi bu duygudan kurtaramıyorum.
(d) Öylesine üzgün ve mutsuzum ki dayanamıyorum.
2. (a) Gelecekte umutsuz değilim.
(b) Geleceğe biraz umutsuz bakıyorum.
(c) Gelecekte beklediğim hiçbir şey yok.
(d) Benim için bir gelecek yok ve bu durum düzelmeyecek.
3. (a) Kendimi başarısız görmüyorum.
(b) Çevremdeki birçok kişiden daha fazla başarısızlıklarım oldu sayılır.
(c) Geriye dönüp baktığımda, çok fazla başarısızlığımın olduğunu görüyorum.
(d) Kendimi tümüyle başarısız bir insan olarak görüyorum.
4. (a) Her şeyden eskisi kadar zevk alabiliyorum.
(b) Her şeyden eskisi kadar zevk alamıyorum.
(c) Artık hiçbir şeyden gerçek bir zevk alamıyorum.
(d) Bana zevk veren hiçbir şey yok. Her şey çok sıkıcı.
5. (a) Kendimi suçlu hissetmiyorum.
(b) Arada bir kendimi suçlu hissettiğim oluyor.
(c) Kendimi çoğunlukla suçlu hissediyorum.
(d) Kendimi her an için suçlu hissediyorum.

6. (a) Cezalandırıldığımı düşünmüyorum.
(b) Bazı şeyler için cezalandırılabileceğimi hissediyorum.
(c) Cezalandırılmayı bekliyorum.
(d) Cezalandırıldığımı hissediyorum.
7. (a) Kendimden hoşnutum.
(b) Kendimden pek hoşnut değilim.
(c) Kendimden hiç hoşlanmıyorum.
(d) Kendimden nefret ediyorum.
8. (a) Kendimi diğer insanlardan daha kötü görmüyorum.
(b) Kendimi zayıflıklarım ve hatalarım için eleştiriyorum.
(c) Kendimi hatalarım için çoğu zaman suçluyorum.
(d) Her kötü olayda kendimi suçluyorum.
9. (a) Kendimi öldürmek gibi düşüncelerim yok.
(b) Bazen kendimi öldürmeyi düşünüyorum, fakat bunu yapamam.
(c) Kendimi öldürebilmeyi isterdim.
(d) Bir fırsatını bulsam kendimi öldürürdüm.
10. (a) Her zamankinden daha fazla ağladığımı sanmıyorum.
(b) Eskisine göre şu sıralarda daha fazla ağlıyorum.
(c) Şu sıralarda her an ağlıyorum.
(d) Eskiden ağlayabilirdim, ama şu sıralarda istesem de ağlayamıyorum.
11. (a) Her zamankinden daha sinirli değilim.
(b) Her zamankinden daha kolayca sinirleniyor ve kızıyorum.
(c) Çoğu zaman sinirliyim.
(d) Eskiden sinirlendiğim şeylere bile artık sinirlenemiyorum.
12. (a) Diğer insanlara karşı ilgimi kaybetmedim.
(b) Eskisine göre insanlarla daha az ilgiliyim.
(c) Diğer insanlara karşı ilgimin çoğunu kaybettim.
(d) Diğer insanlara karşı hiç ilgim kalmadı.
13. (a) Kararlarımı eskisi kadar kolay ve rahat verebiliyorum.
(b) Şu sıralarda kararlarımı vermeyi erteliyorum.
(c) Kararlarımı vermekte oldukça güçlük çekiyorum.
(d) Artık hiç karar veremiyorum.

14. (a) Dış görünüşümün eskisinden daha kötü olduğunu sanmıyorum.
(b) Yaşlandığımı ve çekiciliğimi kaybettiğimi düşünüyorum ve üzülüyorum.
(c) Dış görünüşümde artık değiştirilmesi mümkün olmayan olumsuz değişiklikler olduğunu hissediyorum.
(d) Çok çirkin olduğumu düşünüyorum.
15. (a) Eskisi kadar iyi çalışabiliyorum.
(b) Bir işe başlayabilmek için eskisine göre kendimi daha fazla zorlamam gerekiyor.
(c) Hangi iş olursa olsun, yapabilmek için kendimi çok zorluyorum.
(d) Hiçbir iş yapamıyorum.
16. (a) Eskisi kadar rahat uyuyabiliyorum.
(b) Şu sıralarda eskisi kadar rahat uyuyamıyorum.
(c) Eskisine göre 1 veya 2 saat erken uyanıyor ve tekrar uyumakta zorluk çekiyorum.
(d) Eskisine göre çok erken uyanıyor ve tekrar uyuyamıyorum.
17. (a) Eskisine kıyasla daha çabuk yorulduğumu sanmıyorum.
(b) Eskisinden daha çabuk yoruluyorum.
(c) Şu sıralarda neredeyse her şey beni yoruyor.
(d) Öyle yorgunum ki hiçbir şey yapamıyorum.
18. (a) İştahım eskisinden pek farklı değil.
(b) İştahım eskisi kadar iyi değil.
(c) Şu sıralarda iştahım epey kötü.
(d) Artık hiç iştahım yok.
19. (a) Son zamanlarda pek fazla kilo kaybettiğimi sanmıyorum.
(b) Son zamanlarda istemediğim halde üç kilodan fazla kaybettim.
(c) Son zamanlarda istemediğim halde beş kilodan fazla kaybettim.
(d) Son zamanlarda istemediğim halde yedi kilodan fazla kaybettim.
- Daha az yemeye çalışarak kilo kaybetmeye çalışıyor musunuz?
EVET () HAYIR ()
20. (a) Sağlığım beni pek endişelendirmiyor.
(b) Son zamanlarda ağrı, sızı, mide bozukluğu, kabızlık gibi sorunlarım var.
(c) Ağrı, sızı gibi bu sıkıntılarım beni epey endişelendirdiği için başka şeyleri düşünmek zor geliyor.
(d) Bu tür sıkıntılar beni öylesine endişelendiriyor ki, artık başka hiçbir şey düşünemiyorum.

21. (a) Son zamanlarda cinsel yařantımda dikkatimi eken bir Őey yok.
(b) Eskisine oranla cinsel konularda daha az ilgiliyim.
(c) Őu sıralarda cinsellikle pek ilgili deęilim.
(d) Artık, cinsellikle hibir ilgim kalmadı.

APPENDIX K: Turkish Summary

PSİKOLOJİK SEMPTOMLARIN DUYGUSAL BOYUTU: ALGILANAN EBEVEYN TUTUMLARI VE DUYGU DÜZENLEME PROBLEMLERİNİN ROLÜ

1. GİRİŞ

Duygular insan yaşamı için hayati bir role sahip olmakla birlikte, insanların ruhsal ve fizyolojik iyi olma hallerini olumsuz etkileyebilme potansiyeline de sahiptir (Tooby ve Cosmides, 1990). Bununla birlikte ruhsal sıkıntıların incelenmesinde, duyguların rolü yıllar boyunca arka planda kalmıştır. Güncel ölçme ve değerlendirme yöntemlerinin gelişmesiyle birlikte duyguların tanımlanması, sınıflandırılması, gelişimi ve ruhsal sağaltım için rolü bilimsel çalışmalarda tanınmaya başlanmaktadır (Mennin ve Farach, 2007). Bu çalışmalarda ağırlıklı olarak korku, öfke gibi temel duygular incelenmiş de, son zamanlarda çeşitli ruhsal sorunlarla ilişki olan utanç, suçluluk, gurur gibi moral duyguların önemi oldukça artmaktadır (Tangney ve Dearing, 2002). Duyguların ruh sağlığı ile ilişkisinde, duygu düzenleme süreçleri öne çıkmaktadır (Rottenberg ve Gross, 2007). Duygu düzenleme hangi duygunun ne zaman açığa çıkacağı, ne şiddetle yaşanacağı ve nasıl ifade edileceğinin kontrolü ile ilgilidir; ve bu basamaklardan herhangi birinde olan zorlanma duygu düzenleme sorunlarına işaret etmektedir (Gross, 1998; Sloan ve Kring, 2007).

Duyguların ruh sağlığına etkilerinin geniş çerçevede ele alınabilmesi için, duygusal gelişim süreci gözardı edilmemelidir. Özellikle yetişkinlerin moral duygulanım yapılanmaları, çocukluk dönemindeki aile ilişkilerine dayanmaktadır (Magai, 2008). Bu bilgiler doğrultusunda, bu çalışmada, depresyon, kaygı ve endişe gibi yaygın ruhsal problemlerin, moral duygularla ilişkisini inceleyen bütünleciyi bir model çalışılmıştır.

1.1 Duygular

Duygusal süreçlerin ruhsal iyi olma hali ile yakından ilişkili olduğu konusunda ortak görüş sağlanmakla birlikte, duyguların tanımlanması, ayrıştırılması hala devam eden tartışmalardan biridir (Frijda, 2008). Günümüzde duygusal yapılanma, temel duygular ve moral duygular olarak iki kategoride ele alınmakta. Ruhsal iyi olma halinde moral duyguların rolü önem kazanmaktadır (Tangney ve Dearing, 2002).

Temel duygulardan farklı olarak moral duyguların insan ırkına özgü olduğu ve doğuştan var olmak yerine çocukluk döneminden itibaren geliştiği öne sürülmektedir (Lewis, 1992). Bu duyguların ruhsal iyi olma haline olan yakın etkisi, insanların düşüncelerini, davranışlarını ve duygu durumlarını güçlü olarak etiklemeleriyle açıklanmaktadır (Ficher ve Tangney, 1995). Ayrıca bu gruptaki duyguların temel amacı, bireyin çevresiyle ve diğer insanlarla işlevsel olarak sosyalleşmesine rehberlik etmektir (Tracy ve Robins, 2007). Moral duygulanım kaynağı, bireyin olaylar karşısında kendine yönelik yaptığı değerlendirmelerdir. Bu değerlendirme, erken dönem çocukluktan itibaren çevreden maruz kaldığı ya da içselleştirdiği standartlar, amaçlar, kurallar çerçevesinde yapılır (Lewis, 2008).

Moral duygular, bireyin bilişsel atflarına göre birbirinden ayırmakta ve temelde gurur, kibir, utanç, ve suçluluktan oluşmaktadır (Tracy ve Robins, 2007). Buna göre gurur, bireyin eylemlerine yönelik yaptığı olumlu atflardan kaynaklanır; ve yüksek özgüven, yeterlilik hissi, cömertlik ve içtenlik gibi olumlu duygulanım ve davranışlarla ilişkilidir (Tracy ve Robins, 2003a). Bununla birlikte, eğer birey olumlu atfları somut eylemleri üzerine değil de katı bir şekilde kendi benliğine yöneltirse kibir duygusu açığa çıkmaktadır. Kibir ise kırılabilir özgüven, saldırganlık, narsisistik örüntüler ve benmerkezci tutumla bağlantılıdır (Tracy ve Robins, 2006). Olumsuz duygulanımda utanç, bireyin başarısızlık karşısında kendi bütünlüğüne yaptığı atflarla ilişkili olup kendine yönelik tikslenme, suçlama, geri çekilme örüntülerini tetiklemektedir (Lewis, 1992). Çalışmalar utanç duygusunun insan ilişkisindeki, ruhsal ve fiziksel iyi olma hali üzerindeki olumsuz etkilerini göstermekte, birçok ruhsal problemler utanç duygusuyla ilişkilendirilmektedir (Tangney ve Ficher, 1995; Tangney, Stuewig, Mashek, ve Hastek, 2011).

Başarısızlık karşısında, bireyin eylemlerine yönelik yaptığı olumsuz değerlendirmeler ise suçluluk duygusuyla ilişkilidir (Lewis, 2008). Suçluluk olumsuz bir duygulanıma neden olmasına rağmen sorumluluk alarak özür dileme, telafi ve düzeltme odaklı davranışları tetiklediği için ilişkisel ve davranışsal bağlamda olumlu sonuçlara neden olduğu savunulmaktadır (Tangney, 2011).

Suçluluk ve utanç gibi bireyin kendine yönelik değerlendirmesiyle ilişkili olan bu duygular, temel duygu grubundan biri olan öfke ile yakından ilişkilidir (Tangney ve Dearing, 2002). Moral duygulardan farklı olarak, öfke duygusunun kaynağı engellenme, haksızlık, tehdit algısını tektikleyen dışsal faktörlerdir (Spielberger, 1999). Bununla birlikte, moral duyguların dinamiği de öfke ile yakından ilişkili bulunmuştur. Örneğin kibiri tehdit eden ya da utancı tetikleyen olumsuz eleştiri ve başarısızlık durumlarında öfke duygusunda oldukça yoğun deneyimlendiği, öfke ifadesinin ise ya kontrolsüzce ortaya çıktığı ya da işlevsiz bir şekilde bastırıldığı belirtilmiştir (Hejdenberg ve Andrews, 2011). Gurur ve suçluluk ise öfke duygusunun başarılı bir şekilde kontrol edilebilmesi ya da işlevsel olarak ifade edilebilmesiyle ilişkilendirilmiştir (Potegal ve Stemmler, 2010).

Öfkenin ruhsal iyi olma hali ile ilişkisinde, sürekli öfke denilen kişinin yaşadığı olaylar karşısında öfke eşliğinin düşük olması ve öfkeye olan eğiliminin yüksek olması vurgulanmıştır. Sürekli öfkenin yanı sıra, öfke ifade tarzlarının da ruhsal sıkıntılarla alakalı olduğu vurgulanmıştır (Spielberger, 1996; 1999). Buna göre aşırı derecede bastırılan ya da ifade etmek yerine bireyin kendisine yönelttiği öfke duygudurum bozuklukları ve kaygı bozuklukları ile yakın ilişkidir (Biaggio, 2005). Bunun yanı sıra, dışarı yansılan öfkenin faydalı olduğu gözlenmekle birlikte, bu dışavurumun kontrolsüz ve aşırı şiddetli olması öfke kontrol sorunlarına ve ilişkisel sorunlara neden olmaktadır (Kroner ve Reddon, 1994).

1.2 Duygu Düzenleme

Duyguların insanın ruhsal ve fiziksel sağlığına etkisinin olumsuz olup olmadığı, duyguların uygun bağlamda ve şiddette yaşanıp yaşanmadığı ve nasıl ifade edildiği çerçevesinde değerlendirilmektedir. Bahsedilen bu süreçler duygu düzenleme altında tanımlanmaktadır (Levenson, 1994). Etkili duygu düzenleme insanların işlevselliğini ve ruhsal iyi olma halini pekiştirirken, duygu düzenleme ile

ilgili güçlükler ruhsal ve ilişkisel sorunlara neden olmaktadır (Gross ve Johnson, 2003).

Olumlu ya da olumsuz duyguların yaşanması ve ifade edilmesine yönelik en temel teorilerden biri Gross (1998a) tarafından modellendirilmiştir. Bu modele göre, duygu düzenlemesinde iki aşama ön plandadır. İlk aşama öncül- odaklı düzenlemedir (antecedent-focused regulation) (Gross, 1998b). Bu aşama, bir duygu ve duygusal tepkiler tam olarak oluşmadan önce, o duyguyla ilişkili çevresel ve bilişsel yöntemlerle, açığa çıkacak olan duygunun kontrol edilmesidir. İkinci aşama ise, tepki-odaklı düzenlemedir (response-focused regulation). Bu düzenleme, duyguların tam olarak deneyimlenmesinin ardından gelen, duygusal tepkilerin kontrol edildiği aşamadır (Gross, 1998a).

Yaşanılan duygunun türüne, şiddetine ve içinde bulunduğu duruma göre bireyler her aşamada duygu düzenleme stratejilerine başvururlardır. Bir stratejinin işlevselliğinde bu faktörlerin her birinin ayrı etkisi olmasına rağmen, iki aşamalı modelde özellikle insanların günlük hayatlarında sıkça kullandıkları iki duygu düzenleme stratejisi ön plana çıkmıştır (John ve Gross, 2004). Bunlardan ilki, öncül-odaklı düzenleme aşamasında kullanılan bilişsel yeniden değerlendirmedir (Gross, 1998a;b). Bilişsel yeniden değerlendirme, ortaya çıkması muhtemel bir duyguyu kontrol etmek için, o duyguyla ilişkili durumun, bilişsel olarak yeniden yorumlanmasıdır (Lazarus, 1991). Diğer yöntem ise, tepki odaklı düzenleme aşamasında kullanılan duygusal tepkinin bastırılmasıdır (Gross ve Levenson, 1993). Bu yöntemlerden bilişsel yeniden değerlendirme, duyguların başarılı bir şekilde kontrol edilmesini ve ruhsal iyi olma halini pekiştirirken; bastırma duyguların başarısız bir şekilde bastırılmasına ve bireyin ruhsal olarak sıkıntı yaşamasına neden olmaktadır. (John ve Gross, 2004).

Bu modelden farklı olarak, başarılı duygu düzenleme için bireyin duyguların farkında olması ve onları kabul etmesi, bireyin yaşamına yönelik uzun süreli hedeflerini engellememesi için duygusal tepkilerin kontrol altına alabilmesi, ve çeşitli duygu düzenleme yöntemlerini yeri ve zamanına göre esnek bir şekilde kullanabilmesinin önemi vurgulanmaktadır (Gratz ve Roemer, 2002). Her iki bakış açısına göre duygu düzenleme, bireyin olumlu duygularını en işlevsel şekilde

yaşarken, olumsuz duygularını en başarılı şekilde kontrol edebilmesini sağlamaktadır. Tam tersi şekilde, duygu düzenleme sorunu, özellikle olumsuz duygular üzerinde hiçbir kontrol sağlayamama; duygusal tepkilere karşı aşırı hassasiyet ya da dürtüsellik gibi sıkıntılar nedeniyle birçok ruhsal problem için yatkınlık oluşturmaktadır (Neacsiu, Bohus, ve Linehan, 2013).

1.3 Ebeveyn Tutumları

Duygu ve duygu düzenleme güçlüklerinin, ruhsal problemlerle olan ilişkisini kapsamlı olarak anlama çabasında, bu mekanizmaların şekillendiği erken dönem aile ilişkileri göz ardı edilmemelidir. Yetişkin psikopatolojisinde erken dönem aile ilişkilerinin rolü gitgide önem kazanmaktadır. Bu ilişkiler temel olarak birbiriyle ilişkili üç boyutta kavramsallaşmaktadır. İlk boyut, ailenin çocuğa yönelik belirlik tepkiler ve davranışlarını kapsar. Bu tepki ve davranışlar, içsel ve dışsal birçok faktöre göre değişiklik gösterebilir (Darling ve Steinberg, 1993). İkinci boyut, anne ve babanın çocuğa yönelik tutumları, atıfları, değerleri ve duygularını temsil eden ebeveyn tutumlarını temsil eder (Berg-Nielsen, Vikan, ve Dahl, 2002). Son boyut aile içi iletişimi, sınırları ve çatışmaları içeren aile ortamıdır (Morris, Silk, Myers, ve Robinson, 2007). Sağlıklı ruhsal gelişim için, duygusal ilgi ve sıcaklığın sağlandığı, özerkliğin desteklendiği, aşırı kontrol ve eleştiriden kaçınılan aile ortamları oldukça önem taşımaktadır (Berg-Nielsen, Vikan, ve Dahl, 2002). Bu ortamı sağlayan ebeveyn tutumları oldukça faydalı olurken, aşırı kontrolcü, korumacı ya da eleştirel ebeveyn tutumları yetişkin psikopatolojisinde risk faktörü olarak yer almaktadır (Rapee, 1997; Rommel, ve ark., 2012).

Erken dönem aile ilişkileri ve yetişkin psikopatolojisi arasındaki ilişki incelendiğinde, olumsuz duyguların ve duygu düzenleme güçlüklerinin aracı rolü olduğu vurgulanmıştır (Baker ve Hoerger). Duygular ve duygu düzenleme sistemi doğumdan itibaren, çocuğun çevresiyle kurduğu ilişkiyle birlikte şekillendiği; ve çocuklukta şekillenen duygu sisteminin yetişkinlikte de büyük oranda devam ettiği gözlenmiştir (Sroufe, 2000). Morris, ve ark., (2007) duygusal sistemin gelişiminde aile örüntüsünün etkisini açıklamak için üçlü bir model öne sürmüştür. Bu modele göre bireyin duygusal gelişimi, aile bireylerinin duygusal tepkilerini gözlemleyip model alma, ailenin çocuğa yönelik davranış ve tutumlarına yönelik tepki

geliştirme, ve aile içi iletişim kalitesi, bağlanma biçimi ve ebeveynlerinin çocuğa yönelik sürekli tutumları çerçevesinde şekillenmektedir (Morris, et al., 2007). Buna göre, ailede duygusal tepkilerin kabul edildiği, ilgi ve özerklik temelli tutumlar sağlıklı duygu düzenleme ve ruhsal gelişime neden olurken; aşırı korumacı ya da reddedici tutumlar duygu düzenleme güçlükleri ve ruhsal sıkıntıları tetiklemektedir (Coggins ve Fox, 2009; Meesters ve Muris, 2004).

1.4 Çalışmanın Amacı

Ebeveyn tutumları ve duygu düzenleme ile yetişkin ruh sağlığı arasındaki ilişkiye ayrı ayrı geniş yer verilmiş olmasına rağmen; bu sistemlerin moral duygular ve öfke odağında nasıl şekillendiği günümüzde hala yeterince aydınlatılmamıştır. Bu eksiklikten yola çıkarak, bu çalışma temel olarak bireyin duygu sisteminin anlaşılmasına yardımcı olacak bütünlüycü bir model elde etmeyi amaçlamaktadır. Bu modelde öncelikli olarak depresyon, endişe ve sürekli kaygı gibi ruhsal sıkıntılara temel olabilecek semptomların duygularla ilişkisi araştırılmaktadır. Bu ilişki, gelişimsel faktör olarak algılanan ebeveyn tutumlarının etkisi (hem anneden hem de babadan algılanan duygusal sıcaklık, reddetme ve aşırı koruma), yatkınlık faktörü olarak moral duygular (utanç, suçluluk, başkalarını suçlama, sorumluluk ve kayıtsızlık), sürekli öfke ve öfke ifade tarzları (öfke kontrol, içeri öfke ve dışarı öfke); ve sürdürücü etken olarak duygu düzenleme güçlükleri (duygu farkındalığı eksikliği, duygu netliği eksikliği, etkili duygu düzenleme yöntemlerine erişim kısıtlılığı, amaç odaklı davranışı sürdürme zorluğu, duygusal tepkilerin kabulünün zorluğu, ve dürtü kontrol güçlüğü) çerçevesinde incelenmektedir. Buna göre, aşırı korumacı ve/ya da reddedici gibi olumsuz ebeveyn tutumları, olumsuz moral duygular ve sürekli öfke ile, duygu düzenleme güçlükleri ve ruhsal sıkıntılar arasında anlamlı bir ilişki beklenmektedir.

Ayrıca iki temel duygu düzenleme yönteminin (bilişsel yeniden değerlendirme ve bastırma) olumsuz duygularla ruhsal semptomlar arasındaki ilişkide düzenleyici rolünün de araştırılması amaçlanmıştır. Buna göre, moral duygular, sürekli öfke ve öfke ifadeleri ile ruhsal sıkıntılar arasındaki ilişkinin, bilişsel yeniden yapılanma ve bastırmanın farklı seviyelerine göre değişmesi beklenmektedir.

2. YÖNTEM

2.1 Örneklem

Bu çalışma, yaşları 18 ile 50 arasında olan (Ortalama = 26.52, Standart Sapma = 7.30) toplam 544 gönüllük katılımcı ile yürütülmüştür. Katılımcıların 408'i kadın (%75), 136'sı erkektir (25%). Çalışmadaki veriler, İstanbul ve Ankara'da yaşayan gönüllü katılımcılardan toplanmıştır. Çalışan ve öğrenci dağılımı yarıyarıya olan katılımcıların büyük bir çoğunluğunun eğitim düzeyi lisanstır ve hayatında herhangi psikolojik ve psikiyatrik bir yardıma başvurmamıştır. Katılımcıların %59.6'sı aileleri ile birlikte yaşamakta, geri kalanı %40.4'ü arkadaşları, akrabaları ile birlikte ya da yalnız yaşamaktadır. Katılımcıların annelerinin eğitim seviyesi dağılımı şu şekildedir: %49.6'sı düşük (ortaokul mezunu ya da ortaokul terk), %23.9'u orta (lise mezunu), %26.5'i yüksek (üniversite lisans mezunu ya da lisansüstü). Katılımcıların babalarının eğitim seviyesi dağılımı ise, %32.2'si düşük (ortaokul mezunu ya da ortaokul terk), %29.1'i orta (lise mezunu), %38.7'si yüksek (üniversite lisans mezunu ya da lisansüstü) şeklindedir.

2.2 Ölçüm Araçları

Katılımcılara doldurmaları için verilen anket bataryası Demografik Bilgi Formunun yanı sıra, Algılanan Ebeveyn Tutumları – Kısa Formu, Moral Duygulanım Testi, Durumluk- Sürekli Öfke Ölçeği, Duygu Düzenleme Ölçeği, Duygu Düzenlemede Güçlükler Ölçeği, Durumluk-Sürekli Kaygı Ölçeği – Sürekli Formu, Beck Depresyon Envanteri ve Penn Eyalet Endişe Ölçeği'nden oluşmaktadır.

2.3 İşlem

Katılımcılara ölçüm araçları verilmeden önce, Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurul'unun değerlendirmesine başvurulmuştur. Etik Onay'ın ardından, hazırlanan anket bataryası gönüllü katılımcılara kalem-kağıt yöntemi ile ya da internet sitesi üzerinden uygulanmıştır. Katılımcıların ölçüm araçlarını doldurması yaklaşık 40-50 dakika sürmüştür.

3. SONUÇ

3.1 Demografik Özelliklere Göre Temel Ölçümlerde Farklılıklar

Çalışmadaki temel ölçümlerin demografik özelliklerden cinsiyet, çalışma durumu, yaşam tarzı, anne ve baba eğitim durumuna göre nasıl farklılaştığı incelenmiştir. Buna göre ilk olarak cinsiyete bağlı anlamlı farklılıklar bulunmuştur. Kadınlar erkeklere göre daha fazla babanın duygusal sıcaklığını algılamışlardır. Bununla birlikte, duygusal yaşantıda kadınlar daha fazla sorumluluk ve utanç hissederken, erkekler daha fazla kayıtsızlık belirtmişlerdir. Duygu düzenleme güçlüklerinden, duygusal farkındalık eksikliği, duygusal tepkinin kabulünün güçlüğü ve amaç odaklı davranışı sürdürme zorluğu kadınlarda daha yüksek çıkmıştır. Bununla tutarlı olarak, kadınlarda sürekli kaygı ve endişe yatkınlığının da erkeklere göre daha yüksek olduğu bulunmuştur.

İkinci olarak çalışma durumuna bağlı anlamlı farklılıklar bulunmuştur. Çalışma durumu aynı zamanda yaş dağılımını da temsil etmektedir. Buna göre, öğrenciler daha genç katılımcıları temsil ederken, çalışan grup orta yaşlı katılımcıları temsil etmiştir. Analiz sonuçlarına göre, öğrenciler/gençler anne ve baba sıcaklığını daha fazla algılamakta, çalışan/orta yaşlı katılımcıların algıladıkları anne reddi daha yüksek çıkmıştır. Ayrıca öğrenciler/gençler duygu daha fazla etkili duygu düzenleme yöntemlerine erişim kısıtlılığı, amaç odaklı davranışı sürdürme zorluğu ve dürtü kontrol güçlüğü belirtmişlerdir. Bununla tutarlı olarak da sürekli kaygı ölçeğinden daha yüksek değer almışlardır.

Üçüncü olarak yaşam tarzına bağlı anlamlı farklılıklar bulunmuştur. Arkadaşları, akrabaları ile birlikte ya da yalnız yaşayan katılımcıların anneden algıladıkları duygusal sıcaklık daha yüksektir. Aileleri ile birlikte yaşayan katılımcılar ise daha az utanç, içe atılan öfke ile daha fazla duygusal netlik eksikliği belirtmişlerdir. Ailelerinin yanında yaşamayan katılımcılar daha fazla etkili duygu düzenleme yöntemlerine erişim kısıtlılığı ve amaç odaklı davranışı sürdürme zorluğu ile sürekli kaygı ve endişe yatkınlığı ifade etmişlerdir.

Anne-baba eğitim seviyesine bağlı farklılıklara bakkıldığında, anne eğitim seviyesinin yüksek olduğu grup daha fazla anne sıcaklığı ve daha az babanın aşırı korumacılığı algılamış, daha az suçluluk belirtmişlerdir. Baba eğitim seviyesinin

yüksek olduğu grup ise algılanan anne ve babanın duygusal sıcaklığından daha yüksek değerler kaydetmişlerdir.

3.2 Duygu Düzenleme Güçlüklerini Yordayan Faktörler

Duygu düzenleme güçlüklerini yordayan faktörlerin incelenmesi için 6 farklı hiyerarşik regresyon analizi yapılmıştır. Bu analizlerde bağımlı değişkenler duygusal farkındalık eksikliği, duygusal netlik eksikliği, duygusal tepkinin kabulünün güçlüğü, etkili duygu düzenleme yöntemlerine erişim kısıtlılığı, amaç odaklı davranışı sürdürme zorluğu ve dürtü kontrol güçlüğüdür. Bağımsız değişkenlerden anneden ve babadan algılanan ebeveyn tutumları (duygusal sıcaklık, aşırı koruma ve reddetme) ilk basamakta, öfke (sürekli öfke, içeri öfke, dışarı öfke ve öfke kontrol) ile moral duygular (utanç, suçluluk, sorumluluk, başkalarını suçlama, kayıtsızlık) ikinci basamakta girilmiştir.

Analiz sonuçlarına göre, duygusal farkındalık eksikliği, babanın sıcaklığı, sorumluluk ve kayıtsızlıkla birlikte artarken; başkalarını suçlama ve sürekli öfke ile azalmıştır. Bu değişkenler duygusal farkındalık eksikliğinin varyansının %35'ini açıklamıştır.

Duygusal netlik eksikliği ile ilişkili olan değişkenlere bakıldığında, annenin reddedici tutumu, sürekli öfke, içe atılan öfke, suçluluk ve başkalarını suçlama arttıkça duygusal net artarken, öfkenin kontrolü arttıkça duygusal netlik azalmıştır. Bu değişkenler duygusal netlik eksikliğinin varyansının %21'ni açıklamıştır.

Duygusal tepkinin kabulünün güçlüğü ile ilgili analiz sonuçlarına göre, anne ve babanın reddedici tutumu ve annenin aşırı koruması, bireyin duygusal tepkilerin kabul edilmesiyle ilgili güçlüğü arttırmıştır. Algılanan ebeveyn tutumlarının etkisi kontrol edildikten sonra, sürekli öfke, utanç, içe atılan öfke, ve başkalarını suçlama ile duygusal tepkilerin kabulü azalırken; öfke kontrolü ve kayıtsızlıkla birlikte artmıştır. Bu değişkenler duygusal tepkinin kabulünün güçlüğü'nün varyansının %33'ünü açıklamıştır.

Etkili duygu düzenleme yöntemlerine erişim kısıtlılığı ile ilişkili değişkenlere bakıldığında, ebeveyn tutumlarından babanın reddedici ve annenin aşırı korumacı tarzının anlamlı bir etkisinin olduğu görülmüştür. Ebeveyn tutumlarının etkisi kontrol edildikten sonra, sürekli öfke, utanç ve içe atılan öfke bu

kısıtlılığı arttırırken; öfke kontrolünün söz konusu kısıtlılığı azaltmada etkili olduğu bulunmuştur. Bu değişkenler, etkili duygu düzenleme yöntemlerine erişim kısıtlılığının varyansının %38'ini açıklamıştır.

Diğer bir duygu düzenleme güçlüğü olan amaç odaklı davranışı sürdürme zorluğu için yapılan regresyon analizi sonucuna göre, annenin aşırı korumacı ve babanın reddedici tutumunun bu güçlüğü anlamlı olarak attırdığı bulunmuştur. Ebeveyn tutumlarının etkisi kontrol edildikten sonra sürekli öfke, utanç, içe atılan öfke ve sorumluluk duygusunun amaç odaklı davranışı sürdürme güçlüğünü arttırırken, etkili öfke kontrolünün amaç odaklı davranışı sürdürmeye yardımcı etkisinin olduğu bulunmuştur. Bu değişkenler, amaç odaklı davranışı sürdürme güçlüğünün varyansının %27'sini açıklamıştır.

Son olarak dürtü kontrol güçlüğü ile ilişkili olarak, babanın reddedici ve annenin aşırı koruyucu tutumunun dürtü kontrolünü zorlaştırdığı gözlenmiştir. Ebeveyn tutumlarının etkisi kontrol edildikten sonra sürekli öfke, utanç, içe atılan öfke ve başkalarını suçlamanın da duygusal tepkilerin kontrolünü zorlaştıracı etkisi vardır. Etkili öfke kontrolünün ise dürtü kontrolünü pekiştirdiği bulunmuştur. Bu değişkenler, dürtü kontrol zorluğunun varyansının %40'ını açıklamaktadır.

3.3 Psikolojik Semptomları Yordayan Faktörler

Psikolojik semptomları yordayan faktörlerin incelenmesi için 3 farklı hiyerarşik regresyon analizi yapılmıştır. Bu analizlerde anneden ve babadan algılanan ebeveyn tutumları (duygusal sıcaklık, aşırı koruma ve reddetme) ilk basamakta, öfke (sürekli öfke, içeri öfke, dışarı öfke ve öfke kontrol) ile moral duygular (utanç, suçluluk, sorumluluk, başkalarını suçlama, kayıtsızlık) ikinci basamakta, duygu düzenleme güçlükleri ise (duygusal farkındalık eksikliği, duygusal netlik eksikliği, duygusal tepkinin kabulünün güçlüğü, etkili duygu düzenleme yöntemlerine erişim kısıtlılığı, amaç odaklı davranışı sürdürme zorluğu ve dürtü kontrol güçlüğü) üçüncü basamakta girilmiştir.

Analiz sonuçlarına göre sürekli kaygı, babanın reddedici ve annenin aşırı korumacı tutumu ile artış göstermiştir. Ebeveyn tutumlarının etkisi kontrol edildikten sonra duygusal faktörlerden sürekli öfke, utanç ve içe atılan öfkenin sürekli kaygıyı arttırıcı; kontrol edilen ya da dışarı yansıtılan öfkenin ise sürekli

kaygıyı azaltıcı bir etkisinin olduğu bulunmuştur. Duygusal faktörlerin etkisi de kontrol edildikten sonra son olarak sürekli kaygının, duygusal netlik eksikliği ile azalma eğilimi gösterirken; etkili duygu düzenleme yöntemlerine erişim kısıtlılığı ve amaç odaklı davranışı sürdürme zorluğu ile arttığı bulunmuştur. Anlamli etkisi olan bu değişkenler, sürekli kaygının varyansının %61'i açıklamıştır.

Depresif belirtilerle ilişkili değişkenleri inceleyen analiz sonucuna göre, ilk olarak anne ve babanın reddedici tutumu ile annenin aşırı korumacı tavrı depresif belirtileri arttırıcı yönde ilişkilidir. Ebeveyn tutumlarının etkisi kontrol edildikten sonra duygusal faktörlerden sürekli öfke, öfkenin bastırılması ya da içeri atılması, ve utanç depresif belirtilerin artmasında etkili olmuştur. Duygusal faktörlerin etkisi de kontrol edildikten sonra son olarak duygu düzenleme güçlüklerinden etkili duygu düzenleme yöntemlerine erişim kısıtlılığı depresif yakınmaları arttırırken, duygusal netlik eksikliğin depresif yakınmaları azaltmada etkili bulunmuştur. Depresif belirtilerle anlamli olarak ilişkili bu değişkenler, depresyonun varyansının %44'ünü açıklamıştır.

Üçüncü regresyon analizinde endişe yatkınlığını yordayıcı değişkenler incelenmiştir. Analiz sonucuna göre, annenin aşırı korumacı ve babanın reddedici tutumu endişe yatkınlığını arttırıcı yönde etkili olmuştur. Ebeveyn tutumlarının etkisi kontrol edildikten sonra duygusal faktörlerden utanç, sürekli öfke ve bastırılan ya da içe atılan öfke tarzının da sürekli olarak endişe etmeyi pekiştirdiği bulunmuştur. Duygusal faktörlerin etkisi de kontrol edildikten sonra son olarak, etkili duygu düzenleme yöntemlerine erişim kısıtlılığı, amaç odaklı davranışı sürdürme zorluğu, duygusal tepkilerin kabulünün zorluğu, ve duygusal farkındalık eksikliği endişe yatkınlığı ile olumlu yönde ilişkili bulunmuştur. Sürekli endişe ile anlamli olarak ilişkili bu değişkenler, endişe varyansının %52'sini açıklamıştır.

3.4 Duygu Düzenleme Yöntemlerinin Düzenleyici Rolü

İki temel duygu düzenleme yönteminin (bilişsel yeniden değerlendirme ve bastırma) duygular (moral duygular, sürekli öfke ve öfke ifade tarzları) ile psikolojik semptomlar (depresyon, sürekli kaygı ve endişe) arasındaki düzenleyici rolü incelenmiştir.

Analizler sonucunda ilk olarak, ie atılan fke ile srekli endiŐe arasındaki iliŐkide biliŐsel yeniden deęerlendirmenin dzenleyici rol anlamlı bulunmuŐtur. Buna gre biliŐsel yeniden deęerlendirme dŐk olduęu zaman, bastırılan ya da ie atılan fkenin endiŐeyi arttırıcı etkisi vardır. BiliŐsel yeniden deęerlendirme yksek olduęunda ise, ie atılan fkenin endiŐe üzerindeki etkisi anlamsızlaŐmaktadır. Bu sonuca gre, biliŐsel yeniden deęerlendirme yeterince yksek olduęunda, ie atılan fkenin endiŐeye neden olan olumsuz etkisini engelleyebilmektedir.

Ayrıca bastırma ve biliŐsel yeniden deęerlendirmenin, sululuk ve endiŐe arasındaki iliŐkide ayrı ayrı dzenleyici rol olduęu bulunmuŐtur. Buna gre, bastırma ve biliŐsel yeniden deęerlendirme dŐk olduęu zaman, sululuk ve endiŐe arasında anlamlı ve olumsuz ynde bir iliŐki vardır. Bastırma ve yeniden deęerlendirme yksek olduęu zaman, bu iliŐki anlamsızlaŐmaktadır. Bir dięer ifadeyle, bu iki duygu dzenleme yntemin yeterince yksek olması, sululuęun endiŐe yatkınlıęı üzerindeki etkisini anlamsızlaŐtırmaktadır.

Son olarak, biliŐsel yeniden deęerlendirme kayıtsızlık ve srekli kaygı arasında anlamlı bir dzenleyici etkisi olduęu bulunmuŐtur. Buna gre, biliŐsel yeniden deęerlendirme dŐk olduęu zaman, kayıtsızlık arttıka srekli kaygı anlamlı olarak azalmaktadır. Fakat bu iliŐki, biliŐsel yeniden deęerlendirme yksek olduęu zaman anlamsızlaŐmaktadır. Bu sonuca gre, biliŐsel yeniden deęerlendirmenin yeterince yksek olması, kayıtsızlıęın kaygı yatkınlıęı üzerindeki etkisini azaltmaktadır.

4. TARTIŐMA

Bu alıŐma ncelikli olarak algılanan ebeveyn tutumlarının, duyguların ve duygu dzenleme zorluklarının psikolojik semptomlar üzerindeki yordayıcı etkisi incelenmiŐtir. Ayrıca iki temel duygu dzenleme ynteminin (biliŐsel yeniden deęerlendirme ve bastırma) duygular ve psikolojik semptomlarla arasındaki iliŐkide dzenleyici rol test edilmiŐtir. Bu amaların ncesinde temel deęiŐkenlere iliŐkin lmlerin, katılımcıların demografik zelliklerine gre farklılaŐması da incelenmiŐtir. Bu blmde, bu alıŐmalara ynelik bulgular ilgili literatr erevesinde deęerlendirilmiŐ; ayrıca alıŐmanın nemi, klinik alana katkıları ve bundan sonraki alıŐmalar iin nerilere yer verilmiŐtir.

4.1 Demografik Özelliklere Göre Temel Ölçümlerde Farklılıklarla İlgili Bulgular

Demografik özelliklerden ilk olarak cinsiyete bağlı farklılıklar incelenmiştir. Çalışmadaki kadın-erkek oranının dengeli olmaması elde edilen bulguların değerlendirilmesinde göz önünde bulundurulmalıdır. Bununla birlikte sonuçlar ilgili literatürle oldukça tutarlıdır. Öncelikli olarak kaygı ve endişe yönünden anlamlı bir farklılaşma görülmüştür. Bu farklılaşma, depresyon, kaygı ve endişe ile ilişkili problemlerin kadınlarda daha yaygın olduğu bilgisiyle tutarlıdır (McLean, Asnaai, Litz, ve Hofmann, 2011). Bu yaygınlığın olası nedenlerine bakıldığında, cinsiyetler arasında biyolojik ya da fizyolojik bir farklılık bulunmazken, bilişsel faktörlerin etkisi ön plana çıkmaktadır (Bander ve Betz, 1981). Bilisel perspektife göre, kadınlar erkeklere göre daha olumsuz düşüncelere, daha hassas tehdit algısına ve kontrol ihtiyacına yönelik düşünce sistemine sahiptirler (McLean ve Anderson, 2009). Duyguların bu farklılaşmadaki rolüne bakıldığında kadınların daha fazla utanç duygusuna yatkınlığı da, daha önce yapılan ilgili çalışmalarla tutarlı bir bulgudur. Sosyal açıdan bu utanç yatkınlığının, toplum beklentileri ve cinsiyet rollerinden kaynaklanan yüzeysel bir fark olduğu öne sürülmüştür (Else-Quest, Higgins, Allison, ve Morton, 2012). Bununla birlikte, bu çalışmadaki diğer bulgulardan, kadınların olaylar karşısında sorumluluk hissederken erkeklerin daha fazla kayıtsızlık ifade etmesi, utanç duygusuna yönelik bu farka ışık tutar niteliktedir. Ayrıca elde edilen sonuçlara göre kadınlardaki daha yüksek olan duygusal farkındalık eksikliği, amaç odaklı davranışı sürdürme zorluğu, duygusal tepkilerin kabulünün zorluğu da genel çerçeveye ile uyumludur.

İkinci demografik değişken olarak çalışma durumuna bakıldığında, daha yüksek kaygıya sahip olduğu bulunmuştur. Çalışmadaki öğrenci grubunun lisans ve yüksek lisansa devam eden katılımcılar olduğu göz önünde bulundurulduğunda, bu sonuç Türkiye'deki üniversite öğrencilerinin kaygı düzeylerinin yüksek olduğu bulgusunu desteklemektedir. Bu kaygıda içsel faktörlerden ziyade ekonomik zorluk, boş zamanın olmaması, iş kaygısı gibi dışsal faktörler ön plana çıkmıştır (Aktekin, ve ark., 2001, Gündoğar, ve ark., 2007). Bu çalışmanın sonucu yaş dağılımına göre değerlendirildiğinde, yetişkinlik evrelerinde, yaş ile birlikte kaygı ile ilişkili

problemlerdeki azalma eğilimini desteklemektedir. Bu azalma eğilimi olgunlaşan bilişsel ve duygusal faktörlerle birlikte baş etme yöntemlerinin daha etkili kullanılması ile açıklanmaktadır (Jorm, 2000). Bununla tutarlı olarak, genç katılımcıların, orta yaşlı gruba göre daha fazla duygu düzenleme güçlüğü yaşadıkları bulunmuştur. Ayrıca algılanan anne-baba sıcaklığındaki farklılaşma da, ekonomik olarak bağımsızlaşan aile bireylerinin, duygusal olarak bağımlılıklarının devam etmesi yönündeki beklenti ile açıklanabilmektedir (Kagıtcıbası, 2002).

Üçüncü demografik değişken olarak yaşam tarzına bakıldığında, aileye fiziksel olarak yakın olmanın utanç ve içe atılan öfke duygusunu azaltmada, bununla tutarlı olarak da kaygı ve endişe semptomlarının azalmasında ve daha etkili duygu düzenleme yöntemlerinin kullanılmasına etkili olduğu bulunmuştur. Bu sonuç, yetişkinlerin daha ebeveyn sıcaklığı ve duygusal desteğinden yararlanmaya ihtiyaç duyabileceklerini göstermektedir. Bununla birlikte, katılımcıların evli ya da uzun süreli romantik bir ilişkide olup olmadıkları ile eşlerinden/partnerlerinden algıladıkları desteğin bu sonuçlar üzerindeki olası etkisi de bu çalışmadan incelenmeyen önemli konulardan biridir.

Son olarak, anne-baba eğitim seviyesi ile ilişkili sonuçlara bakıldığında, eğitim seviyesi yükseldikçe olumlu bir ebeveyn tutumu olan duygusal sıcaklığın artması ve olumsuz bir tutum olan aşırı korumacı tavrın azalması da, kaliteli ebeveynlikle ilgili çalışmaları desteklemektedir. Anne ve babanın eğitim seviyesinin düşmesiyle, aile-çocuk ilişkilerindeki kalitenin azaldığı, bu ortamda büyüyen çocukların yetişkinlikte düşük özgüven, işlevsiz baş etme yolları ile ruhsal ve ilişkisel sıkıntıların daha fazla olduğu vurgulanmaktadır (Amato ve Ochiltree, 1986; Kochanska, ve ark., 2007).

4.2 Duygu Düzenleme Güçlüklerini Yordayan Faktörlerle İlgili Bulgular

Duygu düzenleme güçlükleri ile ilişkili değişkenler için yapılan regresyon analizleri sonucunda ilk olarak ebeveyn tutumlarından babanın reddedici ve annenin aşırı korumacı tavrının birçok güçlüğü arttırıcı yönde etkisinin olduğu bulunmuştur. Bu bulgu yetişkin duygu düzenleme sisteminin, çocukluk dönemin aile ortamından oldukça etkilendiğini gösteren çalışmaları desteklemekte, önceki çalışmalara ek olarak duygu düzenleme güçlüğünü pekiştiren iki belirgin ebeveyn tutumunu

göstermektedir (Morris, ve ark., 2007). Bu ebeveyn tarzları ve duygu güçlüğü arasındaki ilişkiye bakıldığında, aşırı korumacı tavır çok yüksek derecede çocuğu tehditlere karşı koruma endişesiyle, çocuğun karar ve davranışlarında sürekli bir müdahale ve kontrol yönlendirmesidir. Bu yoğun müdahale ve kontrol çocuğa yaşam boyu gerekli olacak baş etme mekanizmalarının ve yeterlilik hissinin gelişmemesine neden olmaktadır (Rubin ve Burgess, 2002). Reddedici tutum ise çocuğa yönelik duygusal olarak mesafeli, eleştirel ve cezalandırıcı eylem ve tavırları içermektedir. Bu tavırlarında, çocukta yaşam boyu sürecek baş edilemez yoğunlukta olumsuz duygulara neden olduğu savunulmaktadır (Thompson ve Meyer, 2007). Bu çerçeveyi destekleyen şekilde, sürekli öfke ve utanç reddedici ve aşırı korumacı tutumlarla olumlu ve anlamlı olarak ilişkili çıkmıştır. Türk kültüründeki aile yapılarında genellikle anneler çocukları tarafından ilgili ve korumacı olarak tanımlanırken, babalar duygusal olarak mesafeli ve kuralcı olarak nitelendirilmektedir (Kapçı ve Küçüker, 2006). Bu çalışma sonuçlarına göre, ‘kültüre özgü’ denebilecek aile yapısındaki olumsuz örüntülerin artması, yetişkinlerin duygularıyla baş etmelerinde sıkıntılara neden olması yönünde bir risk taşımaktadır. Bununla birlikte, ebeveyn tutumları ile yetişkinlerin duygu düzenlemesi arasındaki anlamlı olabilecek kişilik örüntüleri, baş etme becerileri gibi aracı değişkenlerin rolünün anlaşılması da oldukça önemlidir.

Ebeveyn tutumları kontrol edildikten sonra, duygusal faktörlerden utanç ve sürekli öfke, duygusal netlik eksikliği hariç bütün duygu düzenleme güçlükleri ile anlamlı olarak ilişkili bulunmuştur. Bu sonuç, utanç ve öfkenin göz ardı edilemeyecek kadar yoğun ve fark edildiğinde duygu düzenleme yöntemlerini paralize edecek kadar güçlü duygular olduğu şeklinde yorumlanabilir. Bu iki duygunun yanı sıra, başkalarını suçlama eğiliminin de duygusal farkındalık ve netliği arttırırken aynı zamanda dürtü kontrol güçlüğü ve duygusal tepkilerin kabulünün güçlüğü de arttırdığı bulunmuştur. Bu sonuçtan yola çıkılarak başkalarını suçlama eğiliminin, kendi başına duygusal bir tepki olmak yerine; utanç duygusuyla tetiklenen, utancın kendine dönük yıkıcı tepkisini dışarıdaki bir kaynağa yönlendirmeyi amaçlayan savunucu bir tutum olduğu düşünülebilir. Bu değerlendirme, öfke, utanç ve başkalarını suçlama eğilimi arasındaki anlamlı ve

olumlu yöndeki ilişkilerle de desteklenmiştir. Aynı şekilde kayıtsızlıkla ilgili sonuçlar, kişinin bir olay karşısında ilgisiz ya da kayıtsız kalmasının, o olayla ilgili olumsuz duygularının farkındalığının azalmasına ve tepkilerinin daha kabul edilebilir olmasına yardım eden savunmacı bir tutum işlevi görmektedir. Ayrıca sorumluluk duygusunun duygu düzenleme güçlükleri üzerindeki anlamlı etkisi göz önünde bulundurulduğunda da, bir durum için kişinin kendisini sorumlu hissetmesinin baş edilmesi güç olan utanç ve içe dönük öfkeyi tetiklediği şeklinde bir değerlendirme yapmak mümkündür.

4.3 Psikolojik Semptomları Yordayan Faktörlerle İlgili Bulgular

Psikolojik semptomlar ile ilişkili değişkenler için yapılan regresyon analizleri sonucunda, bir önceki analiz setiyle tutarlı olarak ebeveyn tutumlarından babanın reddi ve annenin aşırı korumacı tavrı, depresyon, kaygı ve endişe yatkınlığı için anlamlı olarak etkili bulunmuştur. Bu sonuç genel olarak ailenin çocuğa yönelik reddedici ve aşırı koruyucu tutumunun yetişkin ruh sağlığı için olumsuz etkilerini gösteren çalışmalarla tutarlıdır (Amato, 1994; Rappee, 1997). Ayrıca bu çalışmada bulunan annenin reddedici tutumunun depresif semptomların artmasındaki anlamlı rolü de, ailenin duygusal olarak mesafeli, eleştirel ve ilgisiz tavırların yetişkinlerdeki depresyon için bir risk faktörü olduğu bulgusunu desteklemektedir (Chambers, ve ark., 2000).

Ebeveyn tutumlarının etkisi kontrol edildikten sonra, literatürdeki çalışmalarla tutarlı olarak duygusal faktörlerden utanç ve sürekli öfkenin tüm semptom gruplarında anlamlı etkisi olduğu bulunmuştur. Bu sonuçlar iki duygu arasındaki mekanizmanın anlaşılmasının önemini göstermektedir. Lewis (1992) öfke ve utanç arasında örtük bir ilişki olduğunu öne sürmüştür. Bu önermeye göre, kişinin kendi bütünlüğüne yönelik yaptığı olumsuz değerlendirmelerden kaynaklanan utanç, tahammül edilmesi çok zor olan kendini suçlamayı da beraberinde getirmektedir. Bu yoğun ve yıkıcı örüntünün daha tahammül edilebilir olması için, birey örtük olarak olumsuz değerlendirme kaynağını kendinden başka bir yere yönlendirerek, yani başkalarını suçlayarak kendi utancından saklanmaya çalışmaktadır (Lewis, 1992). Bu önermeyi destekleyen şekilde, çalışmada sürekli öfke ve utancın, başkalarını suçlama ve olumlu yönde, kayıtsızlıkla olumsuz yönde

ilişkili olduğunu bulunmuştur. Yoğun utanç ve öfke klinik literatürde özellikle travma sonrası stres bozukluğunda kendini göstermektedir (Andrews, ve ark., 2000). Ayrıca literatüre katkı olarak, bu çalışmada utançla beslenen öfkenin içe atılma, bastırılma ya da kendine yöneltme tarzını pekiştirdiği bulunmuştur. Kontrol edilen ya da ifade edilen öfkenin semptomları azaltmadaki olumlu etkisinin tersine, utançla ilişki olan içe dönük öfkenin yıkıcı etkileri oldukça belirgindir. İçe dönük öfkenin kaygı ve depresif semptomlarla ilişkisinin anlaşılması oldukça önemlidir. Ayrıca babanın reddedici ve annenin aşırı korumacı tutumunun utanç, sürekli ve içe atılan öfke ile olumlu yönde ilişkili olması, ebeveyn tutumlarının yetişkin psikopatoloji ile ilişkisine ışık tutmaktadır.

Ebeveyn tutumlarının ve duygusal faktörlerin etkisi kontrol edildikten sonra, son olarak duygu düzenleme güçlüklerinin yordayıcı etkilerine bakılmış ve özellikle etkili duygu düzenleme yöntemlerine erişim kısıtlılığının tüm semptom gruplarının artmasında etkili olduğu bulunmuştur. Bu bulgu, olumsuz duyguların etkili bir şekilde kontrol edilememesinden kaynaklanan ruhsal problemlere yönelik çalışmalarla tutarlıdır (Aldao, ve ark., 2010). Ayrıca beklenmedik şekilde, duygusal netlik eksikliğinin kaygı ve depresif belirtileri azaltmada etkili olduğu bulunmuştur. Utanç ve içe atılan öfkenin yıkıcı etkisi göz önünde bulundurulduğunda, özellikle bu iki duygunun ayrımsanmaması bireyin, bu duyguların olumsuz etkilerinden korunmak için örtük olarak kullandığı bir savunma biçimi olarak düşünülebilir.

Kaygı yatkınlığı için amaç odaklı davranışı sürdürme zorluğu da yordayıcı bir faktör olarak bulunmuştur. Birçok kaygı bozukluğunun sürekliliğindeki en önemli nedenlerden biri, bireyin kısa vadede kaygıdan kaçmak için uzun vadedeki işlevsiz olabilecek davranışlara başvurmasıdır (Rodebaugh ve Heimberg, 2008). Çalışmadaki sonuç, bu etkiyi destekler nitelikte olmakla birlikte, amaç dışı davranışlar kaygıyı arttırırken, aynı zamanda yüksek kaygının mı amaç dışı davranışları attırması gibi iki yönlü bir ilişkinin beklenmesi oldukça mümkündür.

Endişe yatkınlığı için yapılan analiz sonuçlarına göre, etkili duygu düzenleme yöntemlerine erişim kısıtlılığının yanı sıra, amaç odaklı davranışı sürdürme zorluğu, duygusal farkındalık eksikliği ve duygusal tepkilerin kabulünün zorluğu da anlamlı bulunmuştur. Bu sonuç, sürekli endişenin temel olarak rol

oynadığı yaygın anksiyete bozukluğuna sahip bireylerdeki duygusal farkındalığa ilişkin ve etkili baş etme becerilerine ilişkin sorunlarla tutarlı bulunmuştur (Türk, ve ark.). Ayrıca bu güçlükleri anlamlı olarak yordayan utanç ve öfkenin rolü dikkate alındığında, endişenin sürekliliğinde etkili olan duygusal faktörlerin önemi açığa çıkmaktadır.

4.4. Duygu Düzenleme Yöntemlerinin Düzenleyici Rolü ile İlgili Bulgular

Çalışmanın sonuçlarına göre ilk olarak, içe atılan öfkenin endişe yatkinliğini arttıran anlamlı bir etkisi vardır ve bu etki bilişsel yeniden değerlendirme tarafından düzenlenebilmektedir. Bir başka ifade ile, bilişsel yeniden değerlendirme yeterince yüksek olduğunda, öfkenin endişe üzerindeki etkisinde tampon görevi görmektedir. İçe atılan öfkenin yaygın anksiyete bozukluğu gibi endişe odaklı problemlerle ilişkisi güncel çalışmalarda yer almaya başlamıştır (Deschênes, ve ark., 2012; Erdem, ve ark., 2008). Bu çalışmadaki bulgular da, bu ilişkinin varlığını desteklemektedir. Ayrıca katkı olarak, tehdit ve kontrol algısına yönelik bilişsel yeniden değerlendirmenin yanı sıra öfkeyi tetikleyen durumlara yönelik de işlevsel değerlendirmelerin bu problemlerde etkili bir tedavi yöntemi olabileceğini göstermektedir.

Diğer analiz sonuçlarına göre, bastırma ve bilişsel yeniden değerlendirmenin, suçluluk ve endişe yatkinliği arasındaki ilişkide ayrı ayrı düzenleyici rolü olduğu bulunmuştur. Utançtan farklı olarak suçluluk, bireyin belirli bir davranışı için yaptığı olumsuz değerlendirmedir. Bu değerlendirme her ne kadar bireyde hoş olmayan duygulara neden olsa da, hatayı giderme ve onarma motivasyonu tetiklemesi nedeniyle sonunda ruhsal iyi olma ve ilişkisel anlamda olumlu sonuçlarla ilişkilendirilmektedir (Tangney ve Dearing, 2002). Bu çalışmada tutarlı olarak, suçluluk ile endişe arasında olumsuz yönde bir ilişki bulunmuştur. Bilişsel yeniden değerlendirme ve bastırmanın düzenleyici rolü için, aşırı derecede ya da kronik olmayan suçluluğun bastırma ile kontrol edilebildiği öne sürülebilir. Ayrıca bilişsel yeniden değerlendirmenin düzenleyici rolü de, olaylara yönelik işlevsel bakış açılarının bireydeki suçluluk tetikleyen inançları düzeltmede etkili olabileceğini göstermektedir.

Son olarak, bilişsel yeniden değerlendirilmenin kayıtsız kalma ve sürekli kaygı arasındaki düzenleyici rolü bulunmuştur. Motan (2007) kayıtsızlığı bir durum karşısında bireyin kendisini durumla ilişkili ya da duruma yönelik herhangi bir duygu hissetmemesi olarak tanımlamış ve bu durumun kaygıyı azaltıcı yönde bir etkisinin olduğunu belirtmiştir. Bu çalışma da bu bulguyu desteklemektedir. Bununla birlikte bilişsel yeniden değerlendirilmenin düzenleyici rolüne bakıldığında, değişkenler arasında olası çok yönlü ilişkinin varlığı dikkati çekmektedir. Buna göre, bireyin bilişsel yeniden değerlendirmeye başvurması artık kayıtsız kalmasına engel olacağı için, kayıtsızlığın kaygı giderici etkisini de geçersizleştirebilmektedir. Diğer taraftan kayıtsızlık yani bireyin olayla kendisi arasında mesafe koyması kaygı azaltarak, bireyin daha etkili bir şekilde değerlendirme yapabilmesine olanak sağlaması da mümkündür. Her iki durumda da kayıtsızlık, kendi başına bir duygulanımdan çok bir savunma biçimi olarak kendini göstermektedir.

4.5 Çalışmanın Önemi ve Öneriler

Moral duyguların ruhsal iyi olma hali ile ilişkisi hem dünyada hem de ülkemizde hala anlaşılmaya çalışılmaktadır. Bu çalışma, devam eden çabaya bir katkı sağlama amacıyla kapsamlı bir model sunmayı amaçlamıştır. Elde edilen bulgular ise teori ve uygulama alanında oldukça önemli noktalara değinmektedir.

Erken dönem aile ilişkilerinin, yetişkin duygu sistemindeki ve ruhsal iyi olma halindeki rolü bu çalışmadaki bulgularla da desteklenmiştir. Özellikle babanın reddedici ve annenin aşırı korumacı tutumu, Türk aile sistemindeki genel örüntüye yakın olarak karşımıza çıksa da, bireyin duygu sistemi, duygu düzenleme becerileri ve ruh sağlığı için oldukça zararlı etkileri olduğunu göstermektedir. Bu sonuçlar, zararlı ebeveyn tutumlarının kültüre özgü olarak kabul edilip, normalleştirilmesinin bireysel ve toplumsal ruh sağlığı için oldukça riskli olduğu vurgulamaktadır. İşlevsiz aile örüntüsünün mümkün olan en erken dönemde iyileştirilmesi yetişkin ruh sağlığı için oldukça önem taşımaktadır.

Olumsuz ebeveyn tutumları ile yetişkin psikolojik problem arasındaki bağlantı da utanç ve içe atılan sürekli öfkenin önemi bulgular arasında sıklıkla yer almıştır. Özellikle kaygı ve endişe ile ilişkili problemlerde, duygu odaklı terapiler dışında utanç ve öfke arka planda kalabilmektedir. Bu bulgular ise, terapi ortamında

utanç ve öfkenin anlaşılmasının ve çalışılmasının önemini göstermektedir. Bununla birlikte utanç ve öfkenin, kayıtsızlık, başkalarını suçlama ve duygularını ayırımsamama gibi savunmacı tutumların ardına gizlenmesi, terapistin bu duygulara ulaşmasını zorlaştırabilir. Terapistin bu duygulara ulaşabilmesi için danışanla güvenli bir ilişki kurması gerekir. Bu ilişki, danışanın bastırıldığı duyguları fark ve kabul etmesini, savunmalarını esnetmesini desteklerden, aileden gelen olumsuz tutumların etkilerini çalışmaya da elverişli bir alan yaratabilir. Klinik ortamda bu ilerlemenin sağlanmasının bir diğer koşulu da, terapistin özellikle öfke ve utançla ilişkili duygularının farkındalığı ve netliğidir.

Duygu düzenleme güçlüklerinin anlamlı etkileri de bu modelin anlaşılmasına katkı sağlamaktadır. Buna göre, etkili duygu düzenleme yöntemlerine erişim kısıtlılığı ile bulgular, yoğun olarak utanç ve öfke sahip bireylerin, bu duygularıyla baş etmek için yardıma ihtiyaç duyabildiklerini göstermektedir. Ayrıca kaygı, endişe ve depresif belirtilere özgü güçlüklerin anlaşılması terapi yöntemlerinin etkinliği açısından önem taşımaktadır.

Bu modelin anlaşılmasına katkı sağlayan çalışmaların devam etmesi, duygu sisteminin anlaşılmasına faydalı olacaktır. İleriki çalışmaların daha geniş coğrafi bölgelerde yaşan, farklı eğitim düzeylerinde, yaş aralığındaki hatta klinik grupları da içeren katılımcılarla yürütülmesi sonuçların geçerliğini destekleyecektir. Ayrıca savunmacı tutumları tetikleyen utanç ve öfke gibi yoğun duyguların bireyin farkındalığı dışında yaşanabileceği ve ifade edilebileceği göz önünde bulundurularak, duyguların ve duygu düzenleme mekanizmaların anlaşılmasında örtük ölçüm araçlarının kullanılması da önerilmektedir.

APPENDIX L: Curriculum Vitae

PERSONAL INFORMATION

Surname, Name: Safrancı (Bahtiyar), Başak

Nationality: Turkish (TC)

Date and Place of Birth: 30 November 1984, Ankara

Marital Status: Married

Phone: +90 5065492395

email: basaksafranci@gmail.com

EDUCATION

Degree	Institution	Year of Graduation
PhD	METU Clinical Psychology	2015
MS	METU Clinical Psychology	2010
BS	METU Psychology	2008

EXPERIENCE

Year	Place	Enrollment
2013 – Present	Maltepe University Department of Psychology (English)	Lecturer
2012 – 2014	“Turkish Norm Study of Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale -IV (WAIS-IV)” (supported by TÜBİTAK-The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey)	Supporting Researcher

2012 – 2013	Middle East Technical University AYNA, Clinical Psychology Unit	Clinical Psychologist- Supervisor
2011 – 2013	Middle East Technical University AYNA, Clinical Psychology Unit	Clinical Psychologist - Psychotherapist
2010 – 2011	“The Factors Associated with Stress-Related Growth in a Sample of Patients Suffering Diabetes Mellitus” (supported by TÜBİTAK- The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey)	Supporting Researcher
2010	Ankara Numune Education and Research Hospital Department of Psychiatry	Internship
2009 September – 2009 December	Hacettepe University Department of Child Psychiatry	Internship
2009 February – 2009 May	Ankara Dışkapı Education and Research Hospital Department of Psychiatry	Internship
2007 July	Bakırköy Psychiatric Hospital	Internship

FOREIGN LANGUAGE

Advanced English, Intermediate French

COMPUTER SKILLS

Microsoft Office Applications

LISREL (Linear structural relations)

SPSS (Statistical package for Social Sciences)

PUBLICATIONS & CONFERENCE PRESENTATIONS

Safrancı, B. (2014). Bipolar bozuklukta etkin olan psikolojik mekanizmaların anlaşılması: Bilişsel ve duygusal süreçler üzerine bir vaka örneği. *Ayna Klinik Psikoloji Dergisi*, 1(3), 1-16.

Bahtiyar, B. & Gençöz, T. Associated factors of social anxiety: metacognition and coping strategies. International Psychological Applications Conference and Trends (INPACT), Ljubljana, Slovenia, May, 2015 (oral presentation).

AWARDS

2008-2009 Academic Year METU Graduate Courses Performance Award (for the most successful student in the M.S. Program of the Department of Psychology, METU)

TEACHING

Institution: Maltepe University Department of Psychology

2013-2014

Spring PSY 204 Research Methods II
PSY 305 Theories of Personality
PSİ 424 Travma Psikolojisi
PSİ 594 Klinik Uygulama ve Süpervizyon

2014-2015

Fall PSY 101 Introduction to Psychology
PSY 203 Research Methods I
PSY 309 Psychopathology I
PSİ 582 Klinik Uygulama ve Süpervizyon

Spring PSY 204 Research Methods II
PSY 305 Theories of Personality
PSY 310 Psychopathology II
PSY 405 Graduation Project
PSİ 594 Klinik Uygulama ve Süpervizyon
PSİ 576 Klinik Psikolojide Seminer

Appendix M: Tez Fotokopisi İzin Formu

TEZ FOTOKOPİSİ İZİN FORMU

ENSTİTÜ

Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Uygulamalı Matematik Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>
Enformatik Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>
Deniz Bilimleri Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>

YAZARIN

Soyadı : Safrancı
Adı : Başak
Bölümü : Psikoloji

TEZİN ADI (İngilizce) : EMOTIONAL ASPECTS OF
PSYCHOLOGICAL SYMPTOMS: THE ROLES OF PARENTING
ATTITUDES AND EMOTION DYSREGULATION

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: