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PERCEIVED PARENTAL RELATIONSHIP, SELF-DISCREPANCY, AND
PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS IN RELATION TO PSYCHOLOGICAL
WELL-BEING

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PERCEIVED PARENTAL RELATIONSHIP, SELF-DISCREPANCY, AND
PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS IN RELATION TO PSYCHOLOGICAL
WELL-BEING

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ABSTRACT

PERCEIVED PARENTAL RELATIONSHIP, SELF-DISCREPANCY, AND PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS IN RELATION TO PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING

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The purpose of the current study was to examine the relations among perceived parental relationship, self-discrepancy, personality characteristics (i.e., difficulties in emotion regulation, basic personality traits, resilience), and psychological well-being in terms of depression and anxiety. The study included 729 participants (456 females and 273 males) whose age ranged between 18 and 39 ($M = 22.03$, $SD = 2.58$). The data were collected by a questionnaire package which included Demographic Information Form, The Barrett Lennard Relationship Inventory, Integrated Self-Discrepancy Index, Resilience Scale, Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale, Basic Personality Traits Inventory, Egna Minnen Beträffande Uppfostran-Memories of Upbringing (s-EMBU), Beck Depression Inventory, and Beck Anxiety Inventory. Initially, The Barrett Lennard Relationship Inventory and Integrated Self-Discrepancy Index were adapted to Turkish, and psychometric properties were conducted, which revealed good reliability and validity for the two measures. For the

main analyses, three sets of hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to investigate the paths between the variables of the study. Additionally, moderation analyses were conducted to investigate the roles of personality characteristics on the relationship of self-discrepancy and psychological well-being. In line with the expectations, perceived parental relationship, self-dicrepancy, and personality characteristics significantly associated with psychological well-being. In addition, moderation effect of several personality characteristics were found on the relationship of self-discrepancy and psychological well-being. The findings of the study and their clinical implications were discussed in the light of current literature.

Keywords: Perceived Parental Relationship, Self-Discrepancy, Personality Characteristics, Psychological Well-Being

ÖZ

ALGILANAN EBEVEYN İLİŞKİSİ, BENLİK FARKLILIKLARI, VE KİŞİLİK YAPILARI İLE PSİKOLOJİK İYİ OLMA HALİ ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİ

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Bu çalışmanın amacı algılanan ebeveyn ilişkisi, benlik farklılıkları kişilik yapıları (duygu düzenlemede güçlükler, temel kişilik özellikleri, psikolojik sağlamlık) ile psikolojik iyi olma hali arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemektir. Çalışmaya 729 katılımcı (456 kadın, 273 erkek) katılmıştır. Katılımcıların yaşları 18 ile 39 arasında değişmektedir ($O = 22.03$, $SS = 2.58$). Çalışma kapsamında katılımcılara Demografik Bilgi Formu, Barrett Lennard İlişki Envanteri, Bütünleşmiş Benlik Farklılıkları Endeksi, Kendini Toparlama Gücü Ölçeği, Duygu Düzenlemede Güçlükler Ölçeği, Temel Kişilik Özellikleri Ölçeği, Algılanan Ebeveyn Tutumları-Kısa Formu, Beck Depresyon Envanteri ve Beck Anksiyete Envanteri uygulanmıştır. Verinin toplanmasının ardından ilk olarak Barrett Lennard İlişki Envanteri ve Bütünleşmiş Benlik Farklılıkları Endeksi'nin psikometrik analizleri yapılmış ve iki ölçeğin geçerlik ve güvenilirliği yeterli bulunmuştur. Ardından, çalışmanın değişkenleri arasındaki anlamlı ilişkileri belirleyebilmek amacıyla üç set hiyerarşik regresyon analizi yapılmıştır. Ayrıca, kişilik yapılarının, benlik farklılıkları ve psikolojik iyi

olma hali arasındaki ilişkideki rolünü belirlemek amacıyla moderasyon (düzenleyici) analizi uygulanmıştır. Çalışmanın sonuçları, beklenildiği üzere, algılanan ebeveyn ilişkisi, benlik farklılıkları, ve kişilik yapılarının psikolojik iyi olma hali ile anlamlı olarak ilişkili olduğunu ortaya çıkarmıştır. Bununla birlikte, bazı kişilik yapılarının benlik farklılıkları ve psikolojik iyi olma hali arasındaki ilişkide düzenleyici rolünün olduğu bulunmuştur. Çalışmanın sonuçları güncel literatür ışığında tartışılmış ve sonuçların klinik uygulamalar açısından önemi ele alınmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Algılanan Ebeveyn İlişkisi, Benlik Farklılıkları, Kişilik Yapıları, Psikolojik İyi Olma Hali

To My Lovely Parents
Sevgi & Hayri Gürcan

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Philosophers and psychologists have been trying to understand and explain the inner world of human being for many years. The self has been one of the mostly discussed and researched topics within this understanding attempt. Philosophical roots of the discussion of self traces back to 600 B.C. However, in psychology the first discussion about self showed up in 1890 by William James in a book named as “The Principles of Psychology” (Leary & Tangney, 2012). In that period, self had the attention of all branches of psychology and in literature thousands of articles and books had been devoted to the issue of self. Although it has been a very popular construct in psychology, psychologists could not reach a consensus on its definition (Hunt, 2014). Leary and Tangney (2012), identified five distinct categories which were used to describe self by social and behavioral scientists. The first one is “self as the total person”, which corresponds to everyday usage of self as “herself” and “himself”. Second category is describing self as total personality. Leary and Tangney claimed that, although using self as “total person” or “personality” can be true in everyday language, it should be avoided in scientific writings (2012). Third description of self is conceptualized as “self as experiencing subject”. According to this description, self is a process which is responsible for awareness and knowledge, and a subject of experience. This description labels self as “knower” (I-self) rather than “known” (Me-self), which experiences, thinks, and feels (Olson, 2007; Leary & Tangney, 2012). Another conceptualization of self is as “beliefs about oneself” which refers to self as “known”. In this definition, self corresponds to perceptions, thoughts and feelings about oneself and the answer to the question of “Who am I?” (Leary & Tangney, 2012). The last usage of self is “executive agent”, which means self is a personality structure that is decision maker and doer which regulates

person's behaviors. When these five conceptualizations taken into account, it can be said that self is related to the person's experiences of themselves, perceptions, thoughts, and feelings about themselves and their efforts to regulate their behaviors (Leary & Tangney, 2012). Although behavior scientists make efforts to make a definition which involves all the possible meanings of self, still it could not have been achieved. Olson (2007) proposed in his article that there is no single concept of the self, so it must be specified which meaning of self is being referred to when speaking or writing about self. In line with these arguments, Baumeister (1998) concluded that "self is not really a single topic at all, but rather an aggregate of loosely related subtopics" (as cited in Leary & Tangney, 2012). Under the topic of self a great deal of subtopics have been studied such as self-esteem, self-awareness, self-control, self-efficacy, self-confidence, self-image, self-monitoring, self-criticism, self actualization and so on. One of the widely known and studied subtopics of self is self-discrepancy and the scope of the present thesis will be on self-discrepancy.

1.1. Self-Discrepancy

The association and inconsistency or conflict between different types of self-concepts and emotional distress had been depicted by many theorists from William James to Freud, Rogers, Horney, Higgins and so on. William James was the first theoretician who proposed that different self-concepts exist. One of his discriminations was between ideal and actual selves and he suggested that self esteem was related to the gap between ideal self and real self image. James also noted that when achievements do not match the aspirations, disappointment would be experienced (James, 1890). Freud introduced his term of ego ideal in 1914 on his book of *On narcissism: An Introduction*. Freud proposed that superego had the functions of self-observation, conscience, and ego ideal (Freud, 1933/1964). He claimed that ego ideal develops from experiences of positive outcomes of approved behaviors by parents or other authority figures. These experiences become rules and standards by which ego measures itself and assess its worthiness. As ego ideal tells a person what he or she should do, behaving according to ego ideal leads to the feelings of accomplishment and pride. However, behaving contrary to ego ideal brings guilt and inferiority (Freud, 1914/1957). Freud noted that the sense of guilt was originated from fear of punishment from parents, or fear of losing their love. In

later life, parents are replaced by the intimate relationships. According to Freud, highest difference between ego ideal and instincts is found among neurotics, as ego ideal of healthier people is more realistic and congruent with their instincts (Freud, 1914/1957). Adler, who was in collaboration with Freud but later conflicted with the ideas of Freud, proposed the notion of guided self ideal. Adler believed that people born with inferiority feelings and these feelings motivate the individual for striving for success, superiority or totality (Ansbacher & Ansbacher, 1956). That is, people start from a felt minus situation to reach a plus situation. The direction of striving is towards a personally constituted unique goal or guided self ideal. Guided self ideal is influenced by biological and environmental factors. Contrary to ego ideal of Freud, which is fed by past experiences, guided self ideal is goal of a forward movement, and it is related with future (Ansbacher & Ansbacher, 1956). Guided self ideal is a genuine and healthy creation of the individual which is posited for everyone and based on meanings and values they create in life. Adler proposed that normal individuals are flexible with their self ideal; they can modify it if revision is necessary, however, neurotics get stuck to unalterable self ideals at all costs (Ansbacher & Ansbacher, 1956). Adler theorized self ideal as a positive healthy concept, while Karen Horney's concept of idealized self image was a neurotic motivation (Horney, 1950). Horney proposed that individuals who experience warm and nurturing family environment will develop a real self with clarity of own feelings, thoughts, wishes, interests; the strength of will power, and values and aims in life. With these strengths the individual will live according to his/her real self and towards self-realization. However, if an individual experiences adverse conditions during childhood like overprotection, overindulgence, domination, intimidation, irritability, and indifference; inferiority and isolation will emerge. In this case it will be concluded that real self is not acceptable and the individual will alienate from real self. To fulfill the needs, the individual will create an idealized self image in which he or she has unlimited powers like "becoming a hero, a genius, a saint or a god" (Horney, 1950, p. 22). The person will built the idealized self image according to own special unmet needs. To achieve the standards of idealized image, the individual will live according to "shoulds" and "should nots", which Horney called "tyranny of the should". Neurotics will strive towards perfection with no alterations, by saying to

themselves "Forget about the disgraceful creature you actually *are*; this is how you *should* be; and to be this idealized self is all that matters." (Horney, 1950, p. 64).

Different aspects of selves and incongruence between them were fundamental parts of Carl Rogers' Client Centered Theory. Rogers proposed that self concept is related to person's point of view and perceptions of own self. In addition, ideal self corresponds to the self how a person ideally would like to be and would most likely to possess. It is a model for an individual to strive towards (Rogers, 1959; 1961). According to Rogers, if a person experiences discrepancy between experiences and self concept, or self concept and ideal self, then he or she will experience incongruence, vulnerability, anxiety and low self esteem. Gross difference between self and ideal self may inhibit the person's development (Rogers, 1961). If experiences and self concept, and self concept and ideal self are in congruence, then the person will be adjusted and healthy (Rogers, 1959). Rogers noted that, individuals have actualizing tendency and it is only fulfilled under certain conditions. A significant other's congruence, empathy and unconditional positive regard must be present, so the person can actualize the innate tendency towards self-fulfillment (Rogers, 1957; 1961). If these conditions are met in childhood, then the individual will be healthy and adapted. On the other hand, if these conditions are not met, in other words if the child experiences conditions of worth, then the individual will experience incongruence between experience and self, and self and ideal self, which will lead to psychological discomfort. As self and ideal self are in liquid form and changeable according to Rogers, in later life a therapist or another significant other who is congruent, empathic, and providing unconditional positive regard can help individual to become healthier (Rogers, 1961).

In 1980s, Tory Higgins further developed Roger's theory and named it as self-discrepancy theory. In Higgins's theory (1987) there are three basic domains of the self, which are actual self, ideal self, and ought self. According to Higgins, the actual self corresponds to attributes that someone believes he or she actually owns, the ideal self represents the attributes that someone ideally would like to own (i.e., hopes and wishes), and lastly ought self is the attributes that someone believes he or she should and ought to possess (i.e., duty and responsibilities). Higgins believed that it is not

enough to distinguish the domains of self, it is necessary to consider whose perspective is involved on self. Higgins proposed that there are two different standpoints on the self; a person's own, and that of some significant others' (e.g., mother, father, siblings, spouse). With the addition of standpoints on self, the theory yielded six basic types of self-state representations: actual/own, actual/other, ideal/own, ideal/other, ought/own, and ought/other (Higgins, 1989). The first two self representations build up the self-concept; the other four are postulated as self-guides (Strauman & Higgins, 1988). Self-discrepancy theory tells that people are motivated to reach an equilibrium where their self concept matches their self guides (Strauman & Higgins, 1988). Another argument self-discrepancy theory proposed is that different kinds of discrepancies cause different kinds of vulnerabilities to specific emotions. Discrepancy between actual and ideal self possess dejection related emotions like dissatisfaction, disappointment, and sadness; whereas discrepancy between actual and ought selves possess agitation related emotions like fear, threat, and edginess (Strauman & Higgins, 1988). If a person possesses discrepancy between actual/own self and ideal/own self, his or her beliefs about actual self does not match his or her own ideals. According to the theory, as a result of this discrepancy a person is expected to experience non-fulfillment of wishes and hopes, which will lead to disappointment, dissatisfaction, and frustration. If the dominant discrepancy in a person's life is between actual/own self and ideal/other self, the person will believe that he or she has failed to meet significant other's hopes and wishes about him or her, and this failure will lead to shame or embarrassment (Higgins, 1987; 1989). The third discrepancy is between actual/own self and ought/other self. If a person experiences this discrepancy, the person will feel mismatch between his or her own belief about his or herself and beliefs about significant other's consideration of duty and obligations. Because of not meeting the duties and obligations of others, the person will experience fear, threat and resentment (Higgins, 1987; 1989). The last discrepancy is between actual/own self and ought/own self. In this discrepancy the person is expected to feel guilt, self-contempt, uneasiness, moral worthlessness and weakness, as he or she believes that the belief about self does not match the own beliefs about his or her duty and obligations (Higgins, 1987; 1989). The theory proposed that the greater the

difference between the self representations and the number of mismatches, the greater will be the magnitude of self-discrepancy. In addition, the greater the magnitude of discrepancy, the greater will be the intensity of the discomfort related to the discrepancy (Higgins, 1987).

Ogilvie (1987) came up with the term of undesired self in 1984. He claimed that undesired self is a more important concept in self evaluation. Ogilvie proposed that undesired self is consistent with the Sullivan's theory (1953) about the good me, the bad me, and the not me, as undesired self corresponds to the not me. According to Ogilvie, ideal self is more related to a imagined picture of self ideal, whereas undesired self is more experience based and less conceptual compared to ideal self, so undesired self is more embedded and more fixed structure within self and it is more related to well being (Heppen & Ogilvie, 2003; Ogilvie, 1987). The first manuscript (1984), in which undesired self notion was developed by Ogilvie and Lutz, included a case example. They found that the case used her undesired self to pursue her everyday life (as cited in Ogilvie, 1987). In line with this, Ogilvie noted that people try to live in contrast to their undesired selves, which means that ideal self is reproduced from undesired self, however reverse is not true. Ogilvie proposed that in a therapy setting, focusing on "tyranny of should nots" equally with "tyranny of shoulds" will be more effective than only focusing on "tyranny of shoulds" (Ogilvie, 1987). In addition, Markus and Nurius (1986), proposed feared self which can be conceptualized as "set of qualities the person wants not to become but is concerned about possibly becoming" (Carver, Lawrence, & Scheier, 1999, p. 785). However, Ogilvie (1987) defined undesired self as "the self at its worst". The similarity between the two concepts is apparent, although slight difference exists.

First empirical studies about discrepancy or congruency between different self-concepts came from Carl Rogers' studies. In his first study for examining the effectiveness of Client Centered Psychotherapy, as congruence is the indicator of psychological well being, ideal-actual self scores of a client was examined using the Q-sort technique. Results showed that the client's, who was thought to be neurotic, ideal self and actual self-discrepancy was high at initial measurement, and with five measurements at different times, with the progress of psychotherapy, the correlations

between ideal and actual self steadily increased. Results implied that, congruency is related to psychological well being and discrepancy is related to psychological discomfort, and discrepancy can be lowered throughout psychotherapy (Rogers, 1954). These initial findings were replicated by many studies, where actual-ideal self-discrepancy is higher at the beginning of the therapy and with successful therapy the discrepancy decreases. In addition, congruency is related to adjustment (Butler & Haigh, 1954; Butler, 1968; Hanlon, Hofstaetter & O'Connor, 1954). Similar results came from Chodorkoff's study (1954), but the relationship was curvilinear, which implied that participants with medium adjustment scores had lowest congruence, participants with highest adjustment scores had highest congruence, and participants who had lowest adjustment scores had medium congruence scores. Chodorkoff explained these findings according to motivation to change as participants with medium adjustment scores can be motivated to change in a direction that will be more satisfying, where as participants in the lowest adjustment group may not have any motivation to change (Chodorkoff, 1954). As psychological adjustment and actual-ideal self-discrepancy relationship was largely investigated, and with the Higgins's new self-discrepancy theory, the scope changed to investigating relationships between different self discrepancies and vulnerability to different emotions. One of the first researches of Higgins, Klein, and Strauman (1985), was conducted with undergraduate students and four types of self-discrepancy scores were obtained, which were actual/own-ideal/own; actual/own-ideal/other; actual/own-ought/own; and actual/own-ought/other. Results were in line with the expectations as actual/own-ideal/own self-discrepancy was associated with "dejection from perceived lack of effectiveness or self fulfillment", actual/own-ideal/other discrepancy was related to "dejection from perceived or anticipated loss of social affection or esteem", and actual/own-ought/other was found to be associated with agitation from fear and threat (Higgins, Klein, & Strauman, 1985). In addition, actual/own-ought/own was found to be significantly associated with guilt, but the relationship was found as negative and Higgins in a later study added that, actual/own-ought/own was found to be uniquely but negatively related to anxiety. Higgins justified these negative relationships with Karen Horney's proposition that if people feel genuine guilt, they will be likely to deny their feelings of guilt and

instead express worthlessness (Higgins, 1987). After Higgins' preliminary findings, in time a series of researches were held to examine the relationship between different self-discrepancies and specific emotions. Some of them found strong evidence for the theory's assumptions (Higgins, Klein, & Strauman, 1985; Strauman, 1989, 1992; Strauman & Higgins, 1988), while others found general relationships but failed to find evidence for specific emotions' relation to specific self-discrepancies (Heppen & Ogilvie, 2003; Ozgul, Heubeck, Ward & Wilkinson, 2003; Phillips & Silvia, 2005; Tangney, Neidenthal, Covert, & Barlow, 1998). Higgins noted that sometimes the theorized relationships can not be obtained, so he proposed that "second generation" questions should be investigated to find when and how theorized relationships occur or do not occur (Higgins, 1999). In line with this, Boldero and Francis (1999) argued that the theorized relationships do not occur in every circumstance, as moderators play important roles. So they proposed that when relationship occurs, actual-ideal self-discrepancy will be related to dejection related emotions.

To illustrate the findings that found evidence for the theory, actual/own and ideal/own self-discrepancy was found to be related to dejection, frustration, and anger at self; while actual/own and ought/other discrepancy was found to be uniquely related to agitation and anger at others. Also it has been found that social anxiety and social phobia was related with actual/own and ought/other discrepancy and actual/own and ideal/own discrepancy was found to be related to depressive symptoms (Strauman, 1989; Strauman & Higgins, 1998). With clinically depressed or anxious participants, results were found as that depressive participants had higher scores on ideal self-discrepancy than nondepressive participants and anxious participants had higher scores on ought self-discrepancy compared to nonanxious participants (Scott & O'Hara, 1993).

After substantial number of studies that investigated the relationship of self-discrepancy with affect, researchers started to investigate the effects of self-discrepancy on various psychological disorders and psychological constructs. Bentall, Kinderman, and Manson (2005) investigated self discrepancies of bipolar depression patients and found that patients who were in depressive episode had higher levels of actual-ideal self and actual-ought self-discrepancy compared to non-

patient controls and patients who were in manic episode, hypomanic or in remission. In addition, manic and hypomanic patients had higher actual-ideal self-discrepancy compared to non-patient controls. Findings showed that accessibility of self discrepancies differentiated according to episodes of bipolar disorder, and they are highly accessible during depressive episode, while in manic episode they are highly inaccessible (Bentall, Kinderman, & Manson, 2005). Barnett and Womack investigated self-discrepancy of narcissists and found that undesired self-discrepancy predicted narcissism, but ideal, and ought self discrepancies did not predicted narcissism. It was also found that after controlling for positive and negative affect, ideal and undesired self discrepancies predicted self esteem but ought self-discrepancy did not (Barnett & Womack, 2015).

Self esteem studies showed that, dysphoric participants had more positive ideal self esteem, and lower actual self esteem, while non-dysphoric participants had higher actual self esteem (Remue, De Houwer, Barnes-Holmes, Vanderhasselt, & De Raedt, 2013). Another research showed that participants who had lower self esteem had greater actual-ideal self-discrepancy compared to participants who had higher self esteem (Renaud & McConnell, 2007). Beattie, Hardy, and Woodman's study (2009) which was conducted to investigate the effects of self-discrepancies on self-confidence, found that self-discrepancy scores were stronger predictor of performance compared to self confidence scores alone. Also they found that, ideal and feared self discrepancies significantly predicted cognitive anxiety, while ought self-discrepancy was found not to be related with cognitive anxiety.

Studies that found weak evidence for the theory claimed that negative emotions were obviously associated with self-discrepancies regardless of different self guides and standpoints of the self (Ozgul, Heubeck, Ward, & Wilkinson, 2003; Tangney, Neidenthal, Covert, & Barlow, 1998). Tangney et al. found that shame was related to all types of discrepancies, and ideal self and ought self discrepancies were related to anxiety and depression in a general way (Tangney, Neidenthal, Covert, & Barlow, 1998). Similarly, Ozgul et al. found that certain kinds of self-discrepancies were not associated with certain kinds of emotions, rather they found that self-discrepancies were related to negative emotions without specific relationships (Ozgul, Heubeck,

Ward & Wilkinson, 2003). Ozgul et al. (2003) explained these undifferentiated results as that individuals could not make the distinction between ideal and ought selves as “internalization and introjection of parental, cultural, and societal norms, values, rules” (p. 60) make it difficult to differentiate between ideal and ought standards, however it is robust that self discrepancies are related to negative emotions. This argument can be supported with high correlations between ideal and ought selves found in the studies (Ozgul, Heubeck, Ward, & Wilkinson, 2003; Tangney, Neidenthal, Covert, & Barlow, 1998).

Self-discrepancy studies that concentrated on undesired self mostly found that undesired self-discrepancy was a better indicator of psychological well being. In addition they revealed that compared to high correlations between ideal and ought self discrepancies, undesired self-discrepancy was found to be not correlated with ideal and ought self discrepancies, which implies that undesired self is a unique construct (Ogilvie, 1987). Ogilvie (1987) found that the correlation between undesired self-discrepancy and life satisfaction was higher than the correlation between ideal self-discrepancy and life satisfaction. Carver, Lawrence and Scheier (1999) investigated ideal, ought, and feared self-discrepancy relationships with dejection and agitation related emotions, and they found that feared self-discrepancy predicted anxiety and guilt, and ideal, and feared self discrepancies both predicted depression. In addition they found an interaction effect that ought self-discrepancy was found to be related to agitation related emotions only when participants were far from their feared selves. Heppen and Ogilvie (2003) replicated the findings of Carver et al., they included undesired self-discrepancy instead of feared self-discrepancy and they found similar results. According to the results, ought self-discrepancy was found to be related to agitation related emotions only when people were far away from their worst (i.e., undesired self). In line with these, in the study of Cheung (1989), which was held with student population in Hong Kong, undesired self-discrepancy was found to be a better predictor of depression compared to ideal self discrepancy. In addition, it was found that depression scores were found to be higher when self was evaluated from a significant other’s point of view rather than one’s own point of view. Cheung concluded that being away from the undesired self was more related to

psychological wellbeing, compared to reaching to ideal self in a collectivistic culture (Cheung, 1989). To investigate whether these findings were specific to collectivistic cultures, Hardin and Leong (2005) compared the self-discrepancies of Asian Americans and European Americans, and they found that undesired self-discrepancy equally predicted depressive symptoms for both Asian and European Americans, however undesired self-discrepancy better predicted anxiety for Asian Americans than for European Americans.

Research on self-discrepancy in Turkish culture is very limited. Hortaçsu (1989) investigated the relationship of ideal self with self-concepts of Turkish adolescents and found that ideal self was a significant predictor of self concept for males but not for females, also she found that ideal self-perceived self-discrepancy was increased by age (Hortaçsu, 1989). Kapıkıran (2011) investigated the relationship between ideal self-discrepancy and anxiety relationship, regardless of self-discrepancy theory's assumptions and found that ideal self-discrepancy was correlated with both trait and state anxiety. Tan (2010) studied self-discrepancy theory with clinical population and found that participants who were depressed had higher ideal self-discrepancy scores compared to non-depressed participants, however participants with anxiety diagnosis did not have higher scores on ought self-discrepancy compared to non-anxious participants.

1.2. Perceived Parental Relationship

Effect of early parental experiences on psychological well being has been the focus of many personality theories and today most of the studies showed that parental rearing behaviors and attitudes have been closely related to psychological well being of the child and in line with this, negative parental experiences during childhood has been related to psychopathological problems in adulthood.

From the Rogers' point of view after a child recognizes some sort of regard from another person, he or she starts to value positive regard and devalue negative regard. After that, the child develops the need to be loved, accepted, and respected, which is referred as positive regard by Rogers. The child's need of love, affection, and protection from parents or a significant other must be provided unconditionally,

which is named as *unconditional positive regard* (Rogers, 1961). The need for positive regard is central to the self development of the child. However, if parents show their children their love only in certain conditions but not in others, the child will feel worthy only in this conditions, which Rogers called conditions of worth (Rogers, 1959). According to Rogers, unconditional positive regard does not mean allowing all behaviors, instead some behaviors may be inhibited, but accepting the emotions of the child genuinely is the key for unconditional positive regard. If the child feels worthy only in certain conditions, he or she starts to ignore own valuations; assimilate the conditions that are approved by the significant other, and evaluate own experiences on this basis. If the child starts to assimilate others' values, that means he or she will behave according to these conditions of worth, thus will rely on external evaluations which will prevent him or her from relying on own experiences. Conditions of worth that are encountered and assimilated during infancy may lead to the formation of false self concept which is inconsistent with the organismic self. As a result of these negative conditions, child will experience incongruence between self and experience, and self and ideal self. Moreover, incongruence will lead to vulnerability and psychological discomfort. A wide gap between ideal self and self concept indicates unhealthy personality, while little discrepancy is related to psychological health (Rogers, 1959; 1961). Rogers believed that development of self is not limited to childhood years, and if a person experiences a relationship that includes empathy, congruence, and unconditional positive regard, with this corrective experience the individual can experience psychological health and self-fulfillment (Rogers, 1957). Consistent with the Rogers' theory, in a very recent study (Lopes, Putten, & Moormann, 2015), conditional regard found to lead to more psychological symptoms compared to the preventive role of unconditional positive regard, considering the agoraphobia, depression, insufficiency, sensitivity, sleep problems, and neuroticism of the participants. In addition, conditional negative regard was found to be related to feelings of resentment towards parents, dysregulation of negative emotions, and academic disengagement, while conditional positive regard predicted internal compulsion, suppressive regulation of emotions, and grade focused academic engagement (Roth, Assor, Niemiec, Ryan, & Deci, 2009). Another research which was conducted to assess the effect of mothers'

permissiveness and empathy on child's antisocial behavior revealed that children of mothers who had low empathy showed the greatest decrease in antisocial behavior after their mothers' participation to intervention programme (Christopher, Saunders, Jacobvitz, Burton, & Hazen, 2013). Also, parental empathy was found to be positively related with child's attachment security, emotional openness, and to child's perceiving his/her parents as warm, which supported Rogers' ideas about the importance of empathy in a relationship (Stern, Borelli, & Smiley, 2015). When difference of four relationship constructs were investigated comparing disturbed children, normal siblings, and normal controls, it was revealed that, disturbed children reported their fathers as lower on positive regard, empathy, and genuineness, and their mothers as lower on positive regard compared to their normal siblings and normal controls. However, unconditionality of regard did not differentiate between these three groups (Van Der Veen & Novak, 1971).

Self-discrepancy theory, which is a more systematic theory that differentiates the discrepancy types and specific emotions, proposes that discrepancies emerge from temperament and environmental factors like parenting (Manian, Strauman, & Denney, 1998). According to Higgins (1989; 1997), people use different self-guides (i.e., ideal self and ought self) as self regulatory standards and their formation lies within the early child-caretaker interactions. Similar with the Hedonic Principle, and also Rogers' proposition of positive and negative regard, Higgins proposed that children experience parental relationship as presence or absence of positive outcomes (i.e., promotion focus), and presence and absence of negative outcomes (i.e., prevention focus). With repeated experiences, child internalizes the conditions when positive and negative outcomes occur and do not occur. Higgins proposed that if parents show affection to their child when he/she behaves according to parents' desires, or when parents withdraw love and affection if the child fails to fulfill the desires of parents, the child will learn that fulfilling hopes, wishes, and desires is important. This will lead child to focus on promotion (i.e., presence or absence of positive outcomes) and to form the ideal self (Higgins, 1989; 1997). On the other hand, if parents approve the child when child obeys the rules, duties and obligations like teaching the child to be alert to danger and to be careful about manners, child

will learn that behaving according to the rules will keep him/her away from negative outcomes, and behaving contrary to rules will bring negative outcomes. These experiences will build the prevention focus and ought self of the child. Besides the psychological experiences of the child in the relationship with caretaker, Higgins also highlighted the importance of the strength of the contingency knowledge child experiences. Frequency, consistency, clarity, and significance of self-other contingency acquired in the relationship is important for the formation of ideal and ought self guides (Higgins, 1989). With these two parameters, Higgins proposed that children whose parents are highly involved, responsive, sensitive, and democratic will develop stronger self guides compared to the children whose parents are ignorant, neglectful, unresponsive, insensitive, and highly permissive in the form of inattention and indifference. Higgins' classification of child and caretaker interaction can be seen in Table 1.1. (Higgins, 1989). According to the mode of the interaction with caretaker, child will develop strength in ideal and/or ought self guides, thus the self guide will be chronically accessible and used in later life (Higgins, 1990). All self guides can be possessed by individuals but with different temperament and early social experiences, dominant self guide can change from person to person (Higgins, Roney, Crowe & Hymes, 1994).

Table 1.1. *A classification Scheme for Modes of Caretaker-Child Interaction*

	Child's psychological situation			
	Positive types		Negative types	
Acquisition strength of self-other contingency knowledge	Presence of positive outcomes	Absence of negative outcomes	Absence of positive outcomes	Presence of negative outcomes
Strong	Managing modes Bolstering Prudent		Disciplining modes Love Punitive/Critical withdrawing	
Weak	Smothering modes Spoiling Overprotective		Rejecting modes Neglectful Abusive	

Manian, Strauman, and Danney (1998), investigated the theoretical assumptions of Higgins and they revealed that warm and affectionate parenting style was associated with actual-ideal self congruency after controlling for depression and anxiety symptoms. Moreover, actual-ought self-discrepancy were found to be related to

parental rejection after controlling for depression and anxiety. Besides parental socialization, temperament is an important factor in the development of self, so effect of temperament on self-regulation was investigated and temperamental positive activity was discriminantly associated with actual-ideal self congruency, and temperamental negative activity was discriminantly associated with actual-ought self-discrepancy (Manian, Strauman, & Danney, 1998). In a later study, nurturance and ideal strength was found to be associated, and maternal control was found to be associated with decreased ought strength only in presence of maternal punishment. In addition, child's positive affectivity was found to moderate the maternal nurturance and strength of ideal guide relationship, while child's negative affectivity moderated the relationship between maternal punishment and strength of ought guide only among high negative affectivity group (Manian, Papadakis, Strauman, & Essex, 2006). In line with these, Keller (2008), found significant associations between critical and punitive parenting style and prevention focused self regulation (i.e., ought self), and significant associations between bolstering parenting style and promotion focused self regulation (i.e., ideal self).

1.3. Emotion Regulation

In modern theories of emotion, emotion is regarded as an essential construct that organizes human functioning, and compromises individual needs with environment (Cole, Michel, & Teti, 1994). However, besides undoubted benefits of emotions, they can harm if they are in wrong type, intensity, or duration (Gross, 2014). So, among these circumstances, people try to regulate their emotions.

The construct of emotion regulation emerged in early 1980s, and through this time it has attracted the attention of developmental and adult literature. Within this time the number of publications increased to thousands (Gross, 1999; 2014). As it is widely researched, there are many definitions and conceptualizations of emotion regulation. One of the widely accepted definitions of emotion regulation is that "Emotion regulation consists of the extrinsic and intrinsic processes responsible for monitoring, evaluating, and modifying emotional reactions, especially their intensive and temporal features, to accomplish one's goals" (Thomson, 1994, pp. 27-28). Another

widely accepted definition is Gross's definition which defines emotion regulation as "processes by which individuals influence which emotions they have, when they have them, and how they experience and express these emotions" (Gross, 1998b, p. 275).

As emotions are related to the behaviors, thoughts, and physiological components, emotion regulation process involves change in all of these components (Gross, 1999). Besides modifying the emotional experience, emotion regulation also includes monitoring and evaluating. In addition, it includes change in "emotion dynamics" which are latency, rise time, magnitude, duration and offset (Thompson, 1994).

An emotion often occurs when people assess a situation, an event, or an experience comparing their real or imagined standards and goals (Frijda, 1986). If a person evaluates a progress towards a goal as lower than his or her standards, result will be negative affect, while evaluated progress is higher than the standards than positive affect will arise (Johnson, Carver, & Fulford, 2009). In self-discrepancy theory terms, if a person can not reach ought standarts, he or she will experience agitation related emotions, and if one can not reach to ideal standards than he or she will experience dejection related emotions (Higgins, 1989). Besides generation of emotions, regulation of emotions is also associated with goals as people behave in accordance to their goals while regulating their emotions (Thompson & Calkins, 1996).

Researchers mentioned many important features of emotion regulation. One of them is that emotion regulation can be extrinsic or intrinsic (Thomson & Calkins, 1996). When an individual tries to regulate his/her own emotions, it would be referred as intrinsic emotion regulation, where as if an individual's emotions are regulated by others it would be referred as extrinsic emotion regulation (Gross, 2014; Thomson & Calkins, 1996). Extrinsic emotion regulation is mostly encountered in early life as children need help of their parents to regulate their emotions. If parents fail to demand emotional regulation that is congruent with the developmental level of their child, then the child will experience psychological discomfort (Thomson & Calkins,

1996). In addition, extrinsic emotion regulation continues in later life with social support, induction of guilt and like. Intrinsic emotion regulation is usually in the scope of adult psychology literature, whereas extrinsic emotion regulation is in the scope of developmental psychology literature (Gross, 2014; Thomson & Calkins, 1996). Another feature is that emotion regulation can be conscious or nonconscious (Gross, 1999; Masters, 1991). Changing an upset topic can be an example for conscious emotion regulation, while lighting a cigarette automatically can be an example for unconscious emotion regulation (Gross, 1999). Usually routines that are well practiced become automatised and unconscious. Additionally, one might assume that only negative emotions are regulated, however, both positive and negative emotions are subjected to emotion regulation. To illustrate, as it is not appropriate to laugh at a funeral, or when a friend is talking about a sad event, positive emotions should be regulated (Cole et al., 1994; Gross, 1998a; Parrot, 1993). Although most emphasis is on down regulation of emotions (i.e., decreasing the experience or expression of positive or negative emotions), people also may up regulate their emotions (i.e., increasing the experience or expression of positive or negative emotions) (Gross, 2014).

Gross (1998a) implemented a process model of emotion regulation by integrating the key points of many emotion theories. According to Gross, emotion generation starts with evaluating the external and internal cues, and these evaluations trigger emotion responses, which are subjected to modulation. Gross, explained this as a simple input-output model, as cues correspond to input, and responses correspond to output. Gross proposed that emotion regulation processes occur either by manipulating the input (i.e., before the emotion occurs), or by manipulating the output (i.e., after the emotion occurs). The process is called antecedent-focused emotion regulation when regulation occurs before the emotion has been generated, and it is called response-focused emotion regulation when regulation occurs after the emotion has been generated (Gross, 1995; 1998a; 1998b). Gross elaborated this two categorization, with five distinct emotion regulation processes as situation selection, situation modification, attention deployment, and cognitive change are grouped under antecedent focused emotion regulation, and response modulation as a response

focused emotion regulation (Gross, 1998a; 1999; 2014). In situation selection, individuals can approach or avoid certain people or situations considering the emotional impact. If they are in an emotion eliciting situation, they can modify the situation to change the emotional impact of the situation. People can also regulate their emotions by engaging in the process of attention deployment as they can distract themselves or focus on a non-emotional constructs. In cognitive change, people can regulate their emotions by reevaluating the situation's significance and his/her own capacity to manage the situation (Gross, 1998a; 1999; 2014). The fifth emotion regulation process is response modulation which occurs after the emotion is generated. In response modulation, emotional experience, expression or physiological responding can be regulated. Breathing relaxation techniques, alcohol consumption or smoking, and regulating expression of emotion can be examples of response modulation (Gross, 1998a; 2014).

Researchers identified many different emotion regulation strategies. All emotion regulation processes and strategies aim to modify the well being of the individual, and can have positive outcomes in short term, however, in long term some of them may have detrimental effects. Broadly, emotion regulation strategies can be grouped under adaptive and maladaptive strategies. Reappraisal is one of the adaptive emotion regulation strategies, which can be an example of cognitive change emotion regulation process according to Gross's model. In reappraisal people try to think in a way that changes the emotional response in a specific situation (Gross, 2014; Werner & Gross, 2009) and maladaptive reappraisal is thought to be an important factor in depression and anxiety according to several models (Beck, 1976; Clark, 1988; Salkovskis, 1998 as cited in Aldao, Nolen-Hoeksema & Schweizer, 2010). Another adaptive emotion regulation strategy is problem solving, which is consciously changing a situation or containing its consequences. In problem solving, people modify the environment to regulate their emotions (Aldao et al., 2010). Acceptance of emotions is another component which is highly related to adaptive emotion regulation, since when individuals accept and value their emotions they will be less likely to experience difficulties in emotion regulation and psychological problems (Cole et al., 1994; Linehan, 1993). In line with this, non-acceptance and avoidance

are maladaptive strategies to regulate emotions (Cole et al., 1994; Linehan, 1993). People can avoid their emotions, thoughts, or memories; however, it paradoxically increases negativity and prevents people from taking necessary actions (Hayes et al., 2004). Suppression of emotions is another widely studied maladaptive emotion regulation strategy. Gross defined suppression as conscious inhibition of expression of emotions. Although suppression leads to decrease in behavioral components of emotion, it increases the physiological activation and has no effect on subjective experience of emotions (Gross, 1998; Gross & Levenson, 1993). Also researchers interested in the suppression of thoughts and found that suppression of thoughts leads to increase in the accessibility of negative thoughts (Szasz, 2009; Wenzlaff & Luxton, 2003). Lastly, rumination is accepted as a maladaptive emotion regulation strategy, which is extensively thinking about a stressful subject which leads to increased negative emotions (Aldao et al., 2010).

Reviewing the important aspects of emotion regulation, Gratz and Roemer (2004) proposed a comprehensive conceptualization of core elements of emotion regulation as: “(a) awareness and understanding of emotions, (b) acceptance of emotions, (c) ability to control impulsive behaviors and behave in accordance with desired goals when experiencing negative emotions, and (d) ability to use situationally appropriate emotion regulation strategies flexibly to modulate emotional responses as desired in order to meet individual goals and situational demands” (pp. 42-43). According to model of Gratz and Roemer (2004), absence of any or all of these abilities is related to difficulties in emotion regulation.

Development of emotion regulation is affected by both temperament and environment of the child, and development continues over the life span (Cole et al., 1994). As children rely on their parents to regulate their emotions, they internalize the emotion regulation strategies of their parents (Diamond & Aspinwall, 2003). So if parents fail to regulate infant’s emotions because of their own emotion dysregulation, than the child will not be able to develop adaptive emotion regulation strategies (Cole et al., 1994). Thomson and Calkins (1996) highlighted the importance of domestic conflict and violence, and depressive mother in the socialization of emotion regulation of children. They argued that these diverse

conditions can lead to vulnerability or resilience of the children for emotion regulation. Morris, Silk, Steinberg, Myers, and Robinson (2007), reviewed the literature and offered a tripartite model for socialization of emotion regulation. They offered that observation (e.g., modeling, social referencing), parental practices (e.g., emotional coaching, reactions to emotions), emotional climate (e.g., attachment/parenting style, marital relations), parent characteristics (e.g., reactivity, regulation, mental health) and child characteristics (e.g., reactivity) all play significant role in socialization of emotion regulation.

Strategies that the child learn from their parents, or from conditions he or she experiences, blends into the personality as a trait-like aspect (Cole et al., 1994; Diamond & Aspinwall, 2003). If successful development of emotion regulation can not be achieved, people experience emotional dysregulation or in other terms difficulties in emotion regulation. Emotion regulation and dysregulation is closely related psychological distress (Beath, Jones, & Fitness, 2015) and almost to all psychopathologies (Gross, 1998b; Gross & Levenson, 1997). Researchers found associations of difficulties in emotion regulation with depression (Gross & Munoz, 1995; Szasz, 2009; Wenzlaff, & Luxton, 2003), anxiety (Tull & Roemer, 2007), bipolar disorder (Johnson, 2005), post traumatic stress disorder (Michopoulos et al., 2015), borderline personality disorder (Linehan, 1993), eating disorders (Michopoulos et al., 2015), alcohol related disorders (Sher & Grekin, 2007), and psychosis (Lincoln, Hartmann, Köther, & Moritz, 2015). As emotion regulation and dysregulation is closely related to psychological well being, many therapy approaches (e.g., dialectical behavior therapy, emotion focused therapy, acceptance and mindfulness based therapy, emotion regulation therapy) deal with understanding the emotional patterns and historical roots of emotion regulation of the clients, teaching them to understand, accept, and express their emotions appropriately, and modifying the problematic patterns of emotion (Cole et al., 1994; Aldao et al., 2010).

1.4. Personality Traits

The construct of personality is based on the assumption that people have distinctive qualities and these qualities are relatively stable across situations and over time

(Mischel & Shoda, 1995). Throughout the years, many models of personality had been proposed and within the last two decades there has been a consensus on a fundamental taxonomy of personality traits which is the five factor model (Costa, 1991). Five factor model of personality is a trait model and McCrea and Costa (1995, p.25) described traits as “dimensions of individual differences in tendencies to show consistent patterns of thoughts, feelings, and actions.” These traits were emerged from native language, as lexical hypothesis suggests that personality traits are encoded in natural language, and analyses of the adjectives of personality in the language will result in a comprehensive model of personality (Goldberg, 1990). Starting with the Sir Francis Galton’s studies, and Allport and Odbert, Norman, Cattell, Thurstone, Guildford, Tupes and Christal, and McCrea and Costa’s influential works on personality related terms, robustness of five orthogonal factors of personality was revealed (Goldberg, 1990; 1993). With later studies, support for five-factor model has been found in child and adult populations, in self reports and ratings, and in different languages (Costa, 1991; Fruyt, McCrae, Szirmak, & Nagy, 2004; Gençöz & Öncül, 2012; Szirmak & Nagy, 2004). These five factors are labeled as Extraversion or Surgency, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Emotional Stability or Neuroticism, and Culture/Intellect (Openness to Experience) (McCrae & John, 1992).

Extraversion is an interpersonal dimension and characterized mostly by positive emotionality and interest in social interaction (McCrae & John, 1992). Facets of extraversion are warmth, gregariousness, assertiveness, activity, excitement seeking, and positive emotions (McCrae & Costa, 2003). Having low scores on extraversion is labeled as introversion and characterized by being quiet, shy, and withdrawn (McCrae & John, 1992). Individuals who are high on extraversion are prone to be experiencing and reporting positive emotions in their everyday life compared to individuals who are low on extraversion (Costa & McCrae, 1980).

The most highlighted feature of neuroticism is its association with negative affectivity (Costa & McCrae, 1980). Facets of neuroticism are anxiety, angry hostility, depression, self-consciousness, impulsiveness, and vulnerability (McCrae & Costa, 2003). Neuroticism refers to proneness to experience unpleasant emotions,

thoughts, and actions (Vestre, 1984). People high on neuroticism are prone to psychological distress and as they experience difficulty in tolerating frustration (Costa & Widiger, 2002) they show heightened negative emotional reactivity to stress (Bolger & Zuckerman, 1995; Suls & Martin, 2005). Also, they engage in maladaptive ways of coping with ineffective efforts (Bolger & Zuckerman, 1995; Costa & Widiger, 2002). All of these negative processes make neurotics vulnerable to psychological disorders like depression (Weber et al., 2013), anxiety (Bourgeois & Brown, 2015), borderline personality disorder (McCrae & Costa, 2003), post traumatic stress symptoms (Gil, 2015), and eating disorders (Cervera et al., 2003).

Openness to experience refers to active seeking and appreciation of new ideas, approaches and experiences (McCrae & Costa, 2003). Openness to experience includes facets of openness to fantasy, aesthetics, feelings, actions, ideas, and values (McCrae & John, 1992). People who are open to experience are in the need for variety, interested in imagination, creativity and intellectuality, and have sensitivity to art and beauty (McCrae & John, 1992). They are interested in trying new experiences like travelling to new countries, or trying new dishes (McCrae & Costa, 2003). In addition, people who are open, experience their feelings, value them, and see them as source of meaning in life (McCrae & Costa, 2003). On the contrary people who are low in openness to experience tend to be more conventional, dogmatic, and rigid in their beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors (Costa & Widiger, 2002). They prefer familiar, practical, and concrete experiences (McCrae & Costa, 2003). Openness to experience is found to be a contributor of psychological well being with the use of problem focused coping strategies (Bouchard, 2003). This can be explained by their ability to find novel solutions and their interest in new approaches (McCrae & Sutin, 2009). In another study, individuals with high scores on openness to experience were found to experience higher scores of well being in the context of transitional uncertainty (Weiss, Freund, & Wiese, 2012). Also, people with openness to experience were found to be more resilient towards stress compared to people who were low in openness (Williams, Rau, Cribbet, & Gunn, 2009).

Agreeableness is another interpersonal dimension and it refers to the interactions of an individual which can range from altruism to antagonism (Costa & Widiger, 2002).

Facets of agreeableness are trust, straightforwardness, altruism, compliance, modesty, and tender-mindedness (McCrae & John, 1992). People who are high on agreeableness tend to be trusting, helpful, soft hearted, and good natured, responsive, and empathic. In addition, they are in selfless concern for others which is called altruism. On the contrary people who are low in agreeableness tend to be tough minded, hardheaded, hostile, indifferent to others, self centered, and uncooperative (Costa & Widiger, 2002; McCrae & John, 1992; McCrae & Costa, 2003). Although it seems that being agreeable is more favorable than being antagonistic, being antagonistic has some advantages too, as it is preferable that a surgeon is ruthless in cutting, or a lawyer is aggressive in defense (McCrae & Costa, 2003). Researchers proposed that having low scores on modesty facet of agreeableness might be related to narcissism and having high scores on agreeableness might be related to dependent disorders (McCrae & Costa, 2003). In line with these, researchers found that low agreeableness was related to narcissism (Egan & Lewis, 2011; Miller, Gaughan, Maples, & Price, 2011), psychopathy (Mezquita et al., 2015; Miller, Gaughan, Maples, & Price, 2011), and externalizing syndromes (Mezquita et al., 2015). Stead and Fekken (2014) studied the relationship of facets of agreeableness with machiavellianism, psychopathy, and narcissism and they found that lacking modesty and straightforwardness were related to psychopathy and narcissism, whereas lacking trust, altruism, compliance, straightforwardness, and tendermindedness were related to machiavellianism. On the contrary, studies revealed that high agreeableness was related to higher levels of well being (Soto, 2015), and presense of meaning in life (Işık & Üzbe, 2015).

Conscientiousness is the last factor of personality traits which is characterized by organization, achievement and goal directed behavior (McCrae & Costa, 2003). Facets of conscientiousness are competence, order, dutifulness, achievement striving, self-discipline, and deliberation (McCrae & John, 1992). People who are high in conscientiousness are self-disciplined, hardworking, and responsible. These features can lead them to be workaholics (McCrae & Costa, 2003). In addition, people who are conscientious can be inhibited and stuck to moral rules. On the contrary, people who are low in conscientiousness can be aimless, unreliable, lazy and hedonistic

(Costa & Widiger, 2002). A recent study found that conscientiousness was strongly related to order dimension of perfectionism (Chen, MacCann, Karlov, & Kleitman, 2015). Considering the psychological disorders it was found that self discipline facet of conscientiousness was related to social phobia, major depressive disorder, and generalized anxiety disorders, whereas low competence and achievement striving facets of conscientiousness were related to social phobia (Bienvenu et al., 2004).

Self-discrepancy and personality traits relationship was inadequately studied in literature and the ones that exist mostly focused on the relationship of self-discrepancy and neuroticism. Pavot, Fujita, and Diener (1997) found that actual-ought self congruency was negatively related with neuroticism and positively related with agreeableness. For the actual-ideal self congruency, they found that congruency was correlated with extraversion, neuroticism, conscientiousness, and agreeableness. In addition to that, when neuroticism was controlled ideal self congruence did not predict subjective well being. Later, researchers found that people who have high scores on neuroticism have larger self discrepancies. In addition, it was found that neuroticism moderated the relationship between ideal self-discrepancy and depression (Wasyliw, Fabrigar, Rainboth, Reid, & Steen, 2010) as self-discrepancy became a stronger predictor for depression when people have higher scores on neuroticism. Wasyliw and colleagues failed to find moderation effect of neuroticism for ought self-discrepancy and anxiety relationship, however, Hong, Triyono and Ong (2013) revealed significant results for the moderation role of neuroticism between the relationship of ought self-discrepancy and anxiety.

The development of personality traits within family environment has been the scope of many researchers. McCrea and Costa (1988), in one of their early researches, found that individuals who perceived their parents as loving were lower in neuroticism and higher in extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness. Also, they found parental attention to be associated with extraversion and low agreeableness. In a later study, it was found that parental over-protection was related with low openness and parental rejection was related with neuroticism (Spinath & O'Connor, 2003). Similar to these findings, lack of paternal

emotional warmth and maternal harsh discipline was found to be the predictors of neuroticism (Rocha Lopes, Putten, & Moormann, 2015).

1.5. Resilience

With the trend of moving to positive sides of people, the construct of resilience has been emerged. Although being a relatively new concept, resilience has been researched by many disciplines like psychology, psychiatry, sociology, and biology (Herrman et al., 2011). Resilience was defined by researchers in time by various ways but mostly it was referred as the ability to maintain or regain mental health despite experiencing adverse life events (Agaibi & Wilson, 2005; Herrman et al., 2011). Also, Connor and Davidson (2003) described resilience as a collection of personal attributes that makes an individual qualified to grow and thrive when they face negative life events.

Research on resilience started with the study of children who were maltreated and lived in high risk neighborhoods. Researchers interested in that why and how some children developed psychological problems, but some children preserved their mental health (Herman et al., 2011; Wald, Taylor, Asmundson, Jang, & Stapleton, 2006). Over time the scope of resilience research broadened to negative life events across the lifespan (Herman et al., 2011). These negative events included poor parenting, poverty, traumatic events, natural disasters, violence, war, and physical illness and like (Herrman et al., 2011; Masten, 2009).

Resilience has multiple sources and pathways. Wald et al. (2006) argued that the factors that are listed as sources of resilience can be just simple correlates of resilience rather than being the sources of resilience. However in literature researchers identified many predictors of resilience. Factors of resilience grouped under three broad categories as characteristics of the child, characteristics of home environment, and characteristics of the environment outside the home (Garmezy, 1985; Werner, 1995). Resilience develops by the interaction of these multiple factors. Characteristics of the child include both the biological and psychological attributes. Werner (1996), who was a pioneer researcher in resilience, found that children with temperamental characteristics like being active, affectionate, cuddly,

good-natured, and easy to deal with developed fewer mental health problems and considered as resilient. These characteristics helped them to receive positive responses from their caregivers which also can be a factor increasing their resiliency (Werner, 1996). Personal characteristics like IQ, optimism, attachment to parents, and to other caregivers, hardiness, mastery, self-esteem, internal locus of control, coping strategies, positive self-concept, self-regulation skills, emotion regulation, and personality traits like flexibility, agreeableness, extraversion, and openness to experience were also observed as the contributors to resilience (Herrman et al., 2011; Masten, 2009; Tiet, Huizinga, & Byrnes, 2010; Wald et al., 2006; Werner, 1996). Second category is characteristics of home environment. Warm and secure family environment is related to resilience. Stability, secure relationships within the family, good parenting skills, absence of parental psychological disorders, supportive siblings, low levels of parental conflict, and social support are the characteristics of the family environment which fosters resilience (Armstrong, Lefcovitch, & Ungar, 2005; Herrman et al., 2011; Masten, 2009; Wald et al., 2006; Werner, 1996). Last category is the characteristics of the environment outside home. Researchers interested in environment like neighborhood, peers, and teachers as narrower environment, and community system as broader environment. Within the narrower environment, bonding to effective school, and teachers, involvement in extracurricular activities, avoiding delinquent peers, living in lower risk neighborhood, having supportive friends or romantic partners were all found to be related to resilience (Herrman et al., 2011; Masten, 2009; Tiet et al., 2010; Werner, 1996). Within broader environment, communities with positive standards and supports, with concern for human rights, safety, and freedom from discrimination contribute to resilience of individuals. Also, religion is another factor within the community which is related to resilience as it is an attachment relationship (Masten, 2009). Other than these factors, Rutter (2013) proposed that exposure to brief and manageable risks and challenges can increase the resilience as individuals will experience to cope with these challenges rather than avoiding all possible stresses. Rutter (2013) associated his proposition with immune system, as people avoid all pathogens, their immune system will not be able to get stronger. Although research on resilience considered childhood as the period of resilience development, it is

apparent that resilience can develop also in adulthood, which is labeled as turning points effect (Rutter, 2013; Werner, 2005). Discontinuity from past's negative experiences, marriage, education, vocation, commitment to religion, and psychotherapy can lead to resilience during adulthood (Rutter, 2013; Werner, 2005). Empirical studies showed that resilience was proved to moderate the effect of early childhood adversities (Campell-Sills, Cohan, & Stein, 2006) and daily hassles (Lai & Mak, 2009) on current psychiatric symptoms. Specifically, it was found that resilience was significantly related to alleviated depression and anxiety (Tan-Kristanto & Kiropoulos, 2015). Considering the PTSD symptoms, resilience was found to buffer the relationship between exposure severity and PTSD symptoms (Besser, Zeigler-Hill, Weinberg, Pincus, & Neria, 2015).

1.6. Aim of the Study

On the basis of the reviewed literature, the aim of the present study is to investigate the relations among different personality characteristics (i.e., personality traits, resilience, and emotional regulation), perceived parental relationship, self discrepancy, and psychological well being (see Figure 1.1).

Before the main analyses, two scales which were The Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory and Integrated Self-discrepancy Index were adapted to Turkish, and reliability and validity analyses were performed. Considering the main analyses, first of all, differences displayed by the demographic variables (i.e., gender and age) were investigated to see the influence of the nature of the sample on the measures of the current study. Afterwards three sets of hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted to investigate the associations between perceived parental relationship, self-discrepancy, personality characteristics (i.e., emotion regulation, personality traits, resilience), and psychological well-being. Finally, moderator roles of personality characteristics (i.e., difficulties in emotion regulation, basic personality traits, resilience) between the relationship of self-discrepancy (i.e., ideal, ought, undesired) and psychological well-being (i.e., depression and anxiety) were investigated.

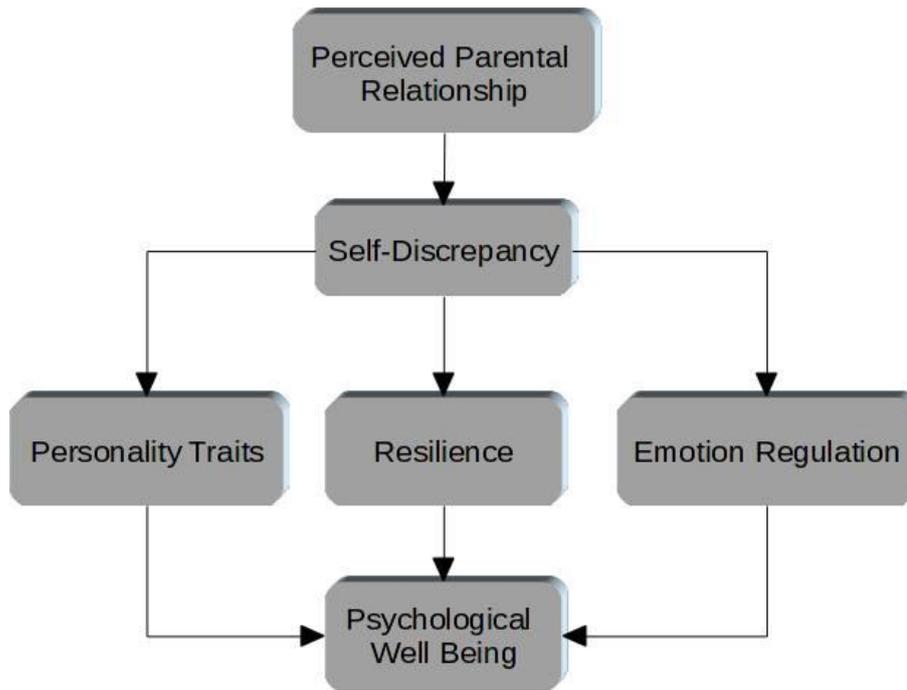


Figure 1.1. Proposed Model of the Study

Therefore, the hypotheses of the current study are:

1. Perceived parental relationship will be associated with self-discrepancies (i.e., ideal, ought, undesired) of the participants.
2. Self-discrepancy will be associated with personality characteristics which are emotion regulation, personality traits, and resilience, after controlling for perceived parental relationship.
3. Depression symptoms will be associated with personality characteristics, after controlling for perceived parental relationship and self-discrepancy.
4. Anxiety symptoms will be associated with personality characteristics, after controlling for perceived parental relationship and self-discrepancy.
5. Personality characteristics (i.e., difficulties in emotion regulation, basic personality traits, resilience) will moderate the relationship between self-discrepancies and psychological well-being.

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

2.1. Participants

This study was conducted with 729 participants. 456 of the participants were females (62.6 %), and 273 of them were males (37.4 %). The age of the participants ranged between 18 and 39 ($M = 22.03$, $SD = 2.58$). Among these participants 641 were undergraduate students or alumni (87.9), 47 were graduate students or graduate alumni (6.4 %), and 40 were high-school graduates (5.5 %). As for the income, 586 of the participants reported middle level of income (80.4 %), 85 of them reported low level of income (11.7 %), and 57 of them reported high level of income (7.8 %). Of the participants, 705 were single (96.7 %), 23 were married (3.2 %), and 1 participant was divorced (see Table 2.1.).

Table 2.1. *Demographic Characteristics of the Sample*

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Age	22.03	2.58
	<i>N</i>	%
Gender		
Female	456	62.6
Male	273	37.4
Education		
Undergraduate	641	87.9
Graduate	47	6.4
High-School	40	5.5
Income		
Low	85	11.7
Middle	586	80.4
High	57	7.8
Marital Status		
Single	705	96.7
Married	23	3.2
Divorced	1	0.1

2.2. Measures

In this study, a demographic form, Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory, Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale, Basic Personality Traits Inventory, Resilience Scale, Integrated Self-discrepancy Index, Beck Depression Inventory, Beck Anxiety Inventory, and Egena Minnen Beträffande Uppfostran-Memories of Upbringing (s-EMBU) were used.

2.2.1. The Barrett Lennard Relationship Inventory

The Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory was developed by Godfrey Barrett-Lennard. The inventory was originally developed to measure therapist-patient relationship from the perspective of Rogerian theory. However, Barrett-Lennard proposed that as it is an instrument that measures relationship quality, it can be used for any interpersonal relationship (Barrett-Lennard, 2015). So, besides therapist-patient relationship, BLRI has been used to measure relationship of couples, supervisory relationship, relationship of friends, and teacher-student relationship (Barrett-Lennard, 2015). First version of BLRI included 85 items and five factors, however in 1964, Barrett-Lennard revised the inventory by dropping Willingness to be Known factor, and revised version included 64 items and four factors (Wampler & Powell, 1982), which are level of regard, empathy, unconditionality, and congruence. Level of regard dimension corresponds to the degree to which a person experiences being valued in a relationship. Warmth, liking, and caring are all in the context of level of regard (Van Der Veen & Novak, 1971; Barrett-Lennard, 2015). Empathy refers to understanding and being aware of other's feelings, and meaning through behaviors or other signs. Unconditionality refers to the consistency or variability of regard that is perceived in a relationship. In addition, congruence dimension corresponds to genuineness and openness of the person in the relationship. That is, absence of conflict between felt experiences and overt communication in the relationship (Van Der Veen & Novak, 1971; Wampler & Powell, 1982; Barrett-Lennard, 2015). Each of the four factors of BLRI include sixteen items, while half of the items have positive meanings and the other half has negative meanings (Walker & Little, 1969). For BLRI, items are scored from strongly untrue, to strongly true, with three grades of 'yes' and three grades of 'no'. Strongly untrue answer choice is

scored as -3, and strongly true is scored as +3, while the score of zero does not correspond to any direction. Barrett-Lennard advocated that excluding zero from answer choices prevents reluctant answers (Barrett-Lennard, 2015). In light of this information, total scores range from -48 to +48 for each subscale.

Internal reliability coefficients for subscales of BLRI was found as .84 for empathy, .91 for level of regard, .74 for unconditionality, and .88 for congruence. Furthermore, test-retest reliability was found as .83 for empathy, .83 for level of regard, .80 for unconditionality, and .85 for congruence (Gurman, 1977). For the initial validation of BLRI, similarity of BLRI scores and psychotherapy outcomes supported the validity of the scale and it was mentioned that substantial support was achieved in therapeutic context (Barrett-Lennard, 2015). First use of BLRI for marital relationship was initiated by Thornton in 1960, and BLRI results were significantly correlated with measure of marital adjustment (as cited in, Barrett-Lennard, 2015). In addition, BLRI satisfactorily differentiated disturbed adolescents from normal controls according to perceived parental relationship (Van Der Veen & Novak, 1971).

For this study, BLRI was adapted to Turkish. Firstly, the items of the inventory were translated to Turkish by three different clinical psychologists who were all bilingual. By working on three different translations, one final version was formed. This version of the inventory was back translated to English by another bilingual clinical psychologist. Back translated inventory and original inventory was compared, and with the revision of dissimilarities, final version of BLRI was obtained for Turkish language.

Internal reliability coefficients of the subscales were examined for mother and father forms separately (see Results section for detailed information). For the mother form internal reliability coefficients were found as .93 for level of regard, .90 for empathy, .77 for unconditionality, and .88 for congruence. For the father form internal reliability coefficients were found as .94 for level of regard, .90 for empathy, .75 for unconditionality, and .87 for congruence. Total scale's Cronbach's Alpha coefficients were found as .96 for both mother and father forms. Validity of BLRI was established by examining the correlations with Parental Rearing Behaviors

Questionnaire (EMBU), Beck Depression Inventory, and Beck Anxiety Inventory. Correlation coefficients of BLRI and EMBU, ranged between $-.22$ and $.74$, which were all moderate to high correlations. That is, two inventories were used to assess perceived parental relationship and their results were highly similar, which indicated that BLRI satisfactorily measured parental relationship. Furthermore, correlation coefficients of BLRI and its subscales, with BDI ranged between $-.20$ and $-.31$, which were all significant and moderate correlations. For BAI, correlation coefficients ranged between $-.22$ and $-.30$, which were again significant and moderate correlations. These results constituted substantial evidence for the validity of BLRI.

2.2.2. Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale

Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale (DERS), was originally developed by Gratz and Roemer (2004) and it is adapted to Turkish by Rugancı and Gençöz (2010). DERS has six subscales which are (a) difficulties engaging in goal directed behavior (goals), (b) limited access to emotion regulation strategies (strategy), (c) non-acceptance of emotional responses (non-acceptance), (d) difficulty to control impulsive behaviors under negative emotions (impulse), (e) lack of emotional clarity (clarity), and (f) lack of emotional awareness (awareness) (Rugancı & Gençöz, 2010). DERS has 36 items which are scored on a five-point Likert type scale, with responses ranging from almost never (1) to almost always (5) (Gratz & Roemer, 2004). Internal consistency of total scale was found as $.93$ and Cronbach's Alpha coefficients ranged between $.80$ and $.89$ for subscales of DERS. Test-retest reliability was found as $.88$ for total scale, and ranging between $.57$ and $.89$ for subscales (Gratz & Roemer, 2004). For the validity of DERS, correlations with clinically relevant constructs were examined and results revealed adequate construct and predictive validity (Gratz & Roemer, 2004).

For the Turkish adaptation of the scale internal consistency was found to have a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of $.94$, which was a high and similar internal consistency of the original version of the scale. For subscales, internal consistency was found as $.82$ for the clarity, $.90$ for the goals, $.90$ for the impulse, $.83$ for the non-acceptance, $.89$ for the strategy, and $.75$ for the awareness subscales (Rugancı &

Gençöz, 2010). In addition, test-retest reliability of the scale was found as .83, and ranging between .60 and .85 for subscales. To establish the validity of the scale in Turkish sample, concurrent and criterion validity analyses were conducted. For the concurrent validity, analyses revealed strong correlations between total scores of DERS and Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI), and between the subscales of the DERS and BSI; however awareness factor revealed relatively weaker correlations. For the concurrent validity, all measures of DERS significantly differentiated participants with high and low psychological distress (Rugancı & Gençöz, 2010).

In the current study, internal consistency was found as .90 for total scale. For the subscales Cronbach's Alpha coefficients were found as .87 for clarity, .67 for awareness, .89 for impulse, .90 for non-acceptance, .89 for goals, and .91 for strategies.

2.2.3. Basic Personality Traits Inventory

Basic Personality Traits Inventory is developed particularly for Turkish culture by Gençöz and Öncül (2012). The scale was based on the five factor model of personality. To develop the inventory a series of studies were conducted and finally BPTI included 45 adjectives to measure six personality types which are extraversion, openness to experience, conscientiousness, agreeableness, neuroticism, and negative valence. The inventory is scored on a five point scale and answers range from does not apply to me at all (1) to definitely applies to me (5).

Internal consistency coefficients of personality traits were found as follows: .89 for extraversion, .85 for conscientiousness, .85 for agreeableness, .83 for neuroticism, .80 for openness to experience, and .71 for negative valence. In addition test-retest reliability scores of personality traits were ranged between .71 and .84 (Gençöz & Öncül, 2012). Convergent, divergent, and discriminant validity analyses provided support for the psychometric strength of the BPTI (Gençöz & Öncül, 2012).

In the present study, internal consistency coefficients of personality traits were found as .87 for extraversion, .84 for conscientiousness, .87 for agreeableness, .84 for neuroticism, .76 for openness to experience, and .77 for negative valence.

2.2.4. Resilience Scale

Resilience scale was developed by Wagnild and Young in 1993. The items of the scale were selected from generally accepted definitions of resilience. The scale has two factors as personal competence and acceptance of self and life. The scale includes 25 items which are scored on a 7 point scale, ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Higher scores on the scale indicate higher resilience (Wagnild & Young, 1993).

Internal consistency of Resilience scale was found as .91 in the study of Wagnild and Young (1993). The validity of the scale was analyzed with theoretically relevant constructs and found to be satisfactory (Wagnild & Young, 1993).

Turkish translation and adaptation of the scale was made by Terzi in 2006. Factorial analysis of the scale revealed one item to be loaded highly to two factors and excluded from the study, so Turkish version of the scale includes 24 items. In Turkish population, the scale found to have .82 Cronbach's Alpha coefficient, and test-retest reliability was found as .84. For the validity of the scale, correlation between Resilience Scale and Generalized Self-Efficacy Scale was analyzed. Results revealed a significant relationship ($r = .83$). That is, Resilience Scale can be used as a reliable and valid measure of resilience (Terzi, 2006).

In the current study, internal consistency of the scale was found as .92 which is similar to original scale.

2.2.5. Integrated Self-discrepancy Index

Integrated Self-discrepancy Index was developed by Hardin and Lakin in 2009. ISDI is designed to measure the ideal, ought, and undesired self discrepancies.

Researchers are free to choose the ones which are relevant to the aim of their study.

Self-Discrepancy measures that are used in literature are either nomothetic or idiographic. The idiographic methods ask participants to list a number of attributes, each for the actual, ideal, ought, and undesired selves. To determine self-discrepancies, matches and mismatches should be computed by the researcher. The

idiographic method has been criticized for being too difficult for participants to generate too many attributes and for being too difficult for researchers to score (Tangney, Niedenthal, Covert, & Barlow, 1998). On the other hand, nomothetic measures give participants a list of attributes and ask participants to rate them according to their actual, ideal, ought, and undesired selves. Nomothetic method has been criticized for not being able to capture participants' unique attributes and self discrepancies as they rate a standard list (Higgins, 1999). Because of these weaknesses of these two methods, ISDI integrates nomothetic and idiographic methods to measure self-discrepancy (Hardin & Lakin, 2009). In ISDI, participants are firstly asked to list five attributes for ideal, ought, and undesired selves for themselves. Then, participants are shown a list of adjectives (approximately 100 adjectives). If participants could not write five attributes on the former lists, they are allowed to use these adjectives or if participants encounter an adjective in the list which is more suitable for them, they can change the previously written adjectives. After fully completing the list, the participants are asked to rate the adjectives from 1 (does not describe me at all) to 5 (completely describes me) by considering how much the adjective describes or applies to them at this time. Higher scores indicate lower self discrepancy, while lower scores indicate higher self-discrepancy (Hardin & Lakin, 2009).

ISDI is developed mostly according to Self-Discrepancy theory, so basic aim was to reveal the associations between ideal self and depression, as well as between ought self and anxiety. Hierarchical analyses were conducted to reveal validity of the scale, and the results revealed strong validity. In addition, Cronbach's Alpha was found as .71 for ideal self-discrepancy and .65 for ought self-discrepancy (Hardin & Lakin, 2009). So ISDI was concluded to be a reliable and valid instrument to measure self discrepancy.

Turkish translation and adaptation of the scale was established within the scope of this study. For adaptation, firstly the translation was made by the researcher with the help of several dictionaries, and thesaurus for the translation of the attributes. After that, the translation was controlled by the supervisor of this study. After necessary revisions, the instrument was applied to 729 participants. Reliability analyses

revealed .78, .81 and .86 Cronbach's Alpha coefficients for ideal, ought, and undesired self-discrepancies, respectively. For validity of the instrument, hierarchical analyses were conducted as recommended by Hardin and Lakin (2009). Results revealed good validity for ideal and undesired self discrepancies, however ought self failed to be uniquely related to anxiety (Results section can be seen for more information) which was in line with the findings of the literature. For further analyses, correlations of self discrepancies with basic personality traits were computed and results revealed significant correlations as theoretically expected. Lastly, in another analysis, it was revealed that self-discrepancy scores could differentiate 'low difficulties in emotion regulation' group from 'high difficulties in emotion regulation' group. In the light of these results, it was concluded that, ISDI can be used to measure self-discrepancy as a reliable and valid measure.

2.2.6. Beck Depression Inventory

Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) was developed by Beck, Rush, Shaw, and Emery (1979). BDI measures cognitive, behavioral, motivational, and somatic aspects of depression. The scale includes 21 items, which are scored from 0 to 3. Higher scores indicate higher levels of depression. Internal consistency of BDI was found to have coefficient alphas ranging from .76 to .95 for psychiatric population, with the mean coefficient of .86. In addition, for nonpsychiatric population coefficient alphas ranged between .73 and .92, with the mean coefficient of .81. Validity of the scale was found to be considerably good (Beck, Steer, & Garbin, 1988).

First Turkish adaptation study of BDI, made by Tegin (1980), and Hisli conducted further psychometric studies (1988, 1989). Split half reliability of the scale was found as .74 and the scale was found to be highly correlated with the depression subscale of MMPI.

In the current study, internal consistency of the scale was found as .89.

2.2.7. Beck Anxiety Inventory

Beck Anxiety Inventory was developed by Beck, Epstein, Brown, and Steer (1988). BAI measures the frequency of anxiety symptoms. It includes 21 self report items which are scored from 0 to 3. Higher scores on BAI reflect the severity of anxiety symptoms. Internal consistency of the scale was found as .92. For the validity of the scale, correlations with State-Trait Anxiety Inventory were examined, and correlations were found as .48 for trait and .50 with state anxiety. Also, BAI was found to be able to discriminate anxious patients from nonanxious patients (Beck, Epstein, Brown & Steer, 1988).

The scale was adapted to Turkish by Ulusoy, Şahin, and Erkmen (1998). Internal consistency of the scale was found as .93, and test-retest reliability was found as .57. BAI was found to be significantly correlated with clinically relevant scales, and could satisfactorily differentiate patients who were diagnosed with anxiety, from patients who were diagnosed with disorders other than anxiety (Ulusoy, Şahin & Erkmen, 1998).

In the current study, internal consistency of the scale was found as .93.

2.2.8. Egna Minnen Beträffande Uppfostran-Memories of Upbringing (s-EMBU)

s-EMBU was developed for measuring adults' perceptions of their parents' rearing behaviors. The scale has 23 items and it is the shortened version of 81 item (Perris, Jacobsson, Lindstrom, von Knorring, & Perris, 1980). s-EMBU, includes three subscales which are rejection, emotional warmth, and overprotection. Items are scored on a 4 point-Likert scale, and the scale is scored for mothers and fathers separately (Arrindell et al., 1999).

The scale was adapted to Turkish by Karancı et. al. (2006) and same three dimensions were revealed. The alpha coefficients for mother's rejection, emotional warmth, and overprotection were found as .80, .76 and .76, respectively, and .82, .79 and .79 for fathers, respectively.

In this study, s-EMBU was used for the validity analysis of BLRI, and results revealed significant correlations. In addition, internal consistency coefficients were found as follows; for mothers, .84 for rejection, .80 for emotional warmth, and .80 for over protection; for fathers, .84 for rejection, .83 for emotional warmth, and .82 for over protection.

2.3. Procedures

Initially, necessary permission was taken from Middle East Technical University ethical committee. After the translation processes of two scales which are adapted in the current study, questionnaire booklet was prepared, including a demographic form and all the instruments that were mentioned. In addition, questionnaires were entered to Qualtrics program, which is a data gathering online program. After taking permissions from the instructors of the courses, students were asked to complete questionnaires via Qualtrics program. Before answering the questions, all of the participants were presented a consent form, which included necessary information about the study. It took participants 30-45 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

2.4. Statistical Analyses

In the present study statistical analyses were conducted by using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Program. First of all, accuracy of data was checked and, participants who did not complete most of the instruments were excluded from the study. After that, reliability and validity analyses were held for BLRI and ISDI, which were adapted in the current study. Following these psychometric studies, first of all to investigate differences revealed by the demographic variables on the measures of the study, a series of univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA) and multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) analyses were conducted.

Furthermore, a series of hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted. First set of hierarchical regressions included analyses to reveal associated variables of self-discrepancy. Second set of analyses were conducted to reveal associated variables of personality characteristics, which were difficulties in emotion regulation, basic personality traits, and resilience. Third set of analyses were conducted to reveal associated variables of wellbeing in terms of depression symptoms and anxiety

symptoms. Finally, moderation analyses were conducted to reveal the roles of personality characteristics between the relationship of self-discrepancy and psychological well-being.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

3.1. Psychometric Analyses

3.1.1. Psychometric Properties of Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory

In order to establish the reliability and validity of the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory (BLRI) internal consistency and concurrent validity analyses were conducted.

3.1.1.1. Reliability Analysis of BLRI

To examine the reliability of BLRI, internal consistency coefficients were computed with the scale's original four factors which were level of regard, empathy, unconditionality, and congruence. Analyses were held separately for mother and father ratings. As can be seen from Table 3.1., level of regard subscale was found to have .93 and .94 Cronbach's Alpha coefficients for mother and father forms, respectively. Item total correlations ranged between .45 and .78 for the mother form and .42 and .78 for the father form. Internal consistency coefficients for the empathy subscale were found as .87 for mother and .88 for mother forms. However, analyses revealed that one item (i.e., My mother/father thinks that *I* feel a certain way, because that's the way *he/she* feels, item 26) had positive item total correlation (i.e. .30) for this factor. Although, originally the item is a negative one, when the content of the item was considered, it was thought that the parallelism between one's parents' and own feelings might have indicated the empathy shared between parent and child. Thus, this item was decided to be kept as a positive item in this study. This change increased the subscale's Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficients to .90 for both mother and father forms. Item total correlations ranged between .03 and .76 for

the mother form and .03 and .80 for the father form, for the empathy subscale. Although one item had relatively low item total coefficient (i.e. .03), the item was decided to be kept. The next lowest item total correlation was .30 for this factor. For the third subscale, which is unconditionality, Cronbach's Alpha coefficients were found as .68 and .66 for mother and father forms, respectively. In this subscale, one item (i.e., My mother/father's attitude toward me stays the same: he/she is not pleased with me sometimes and critical or disappointed at other times, item 31) which was a positive one in the original scale, loaded as a negative item, considering the negative connotation of the item, the item was kept as a negative item. This change increased the Cronbach's Alpha coefficients of unconditionality subscale to .77 for mother and .75 for father forms. Item total correlations ranged between .08 and .55 for mothers' unconditionality, .05 and .57 for fathers' unconditionality. Though quite acceptable, the reliability score was found as relatively low for unconditionality subscale compared to other subscales, which is in line with the findings in literature (Ganley, 1989). Congruence subscale's Cronbach's Alpha coefficients were found as .88 and .87 for mother and father forms, respectively. Item total correlations ranged between .19 and .68 for mothers' and .11 and .68 for fathers' congruence. Finally, overall scale's Cronbach's Alpha coefficients were found as .96 for both mother and father forms, which indicated considerably good reliability.

Table 3.1. *Cronbach's Alpha Values for BLRI and its subscales*

	Mother	Father
Level of Regard	.93	.94
Empathy	.90	.90
Unconditionality	.77	.75
Congruence	.88	.87
Total	.96	.96

3.1.1.2. Validity Analysis of BLRI

In order to establish concurrent validity of BLRI, its subscales' and total scales' correlations with Eгна Minnen Beträffande Uppfostran-Memories of Upbringing

(EMBU) subscales (i.e., rejection, emotional warmth and over protection), Beck Depression Inventory (BDI), and Beck Anxiety Inventory (BAI) were examined. BLRI's all subscales and total scale significantly correlated with the subscales of EMBU. As expected, BLRI total's mother form negatively correlated with mother's rejection ($r = -.66, p < .001$) and overprotection ($r = .40, p < .001$) subscales of EMBU, and positively correlated with mother's emotional warmth ($r = -.70, p < .001$). In line with this, BLRI's total score of fathers negatively correlated with father's rejection ($r = -.62, p < .001$) and over protection ($r = -.36, p < .001$), while the correlation with emotional warmth was found to be positive ($r = .73, p < .001$). As can be seen from Table 3.2., BLRI's subscales correlations with EMBU's subscale's for mother and father forms ranged between $r = -.22, p < .001$ and $r = .74, p < .001$, which constituted moderate to high correlations.

Table 3.2. Correlations between BLRI total, subscales and EMBU subscales

	Rejection (M)	Emotional Warmth (M)	Over Protection (M)	Rejection (F)	Emotional Warmth (F)	Over Protection (F)
Reg (M)	-.67*	.67*	-.31*	-.51*	.43*	-.22*
Emp (M)	-.55*	.67*	-.37*	-.37*	.42*	-.24*
Unc (M)	-.51*	.46*	-.39*	-.41*	.30*	-.28*
Cong (M)	-.61*	.65*	-.37*	-.49*	.41*	-.29*
Total (M)	-.66*	.70*	-.40*	-.50*	.45*	-.29*
Reg (F)	-.46*	.46*	-.24*	-.64*	.74*	-.26*
Emp (F)	-.34*	.42*	-.30*	-.49*	.69*	-.33*
Unc (F)	-.36*	.35*	-.32*	-.49*	.44*	-.38*
Cong (F)	-.42*	.44*	-.29*	-.57*	.68*	-.33*
Total (F)	-.45*	.48*	-.32*	-.62*	.73*	-.36*

Note1. M: Mother, F: Father, Reg: Level of regard, Emp: Empathy, Unc: Unconditionality, Cong: Congruence

Note2. * $p < .001$

Correlations between BLRI and its subscales and, BDI and BAI were also computed. All of the subscales of BLRI were found to be negatively correlated with BDI and BAI scores. BLRI's total score of mother form's correlations with BDI and BAI were found as $r = -.30, p < .001$ and $r = -.27, p < .001$, respectively. For the father form, correlations with BDI and BAI were found as $r = -.29, p < .001$ and $r = -.30, p < .001$. Subscales of BLRI revealed correlation with BDI, ranging between $r = -.21,$

$p < .001$ and $r = -.31$, $p < .001$, and with BAI, ranging between $r = -.22$, $p < .001$ and $r = -.30$, $p < .001$, all of which were moderate correlations (see Table 3.3.).

Table 3.3. *Correlations between BLRI total, subscales and BDI and BAI*

	BDI	BAI
Reg (M)	-.23*	-.23*
Emp (M)	-.31*	-.24*
Unc (M)	-.21*	-.22*
Cong (M)	-.31*	-.27*
Total (M)	-.30*	-.27*
Reg (F)	-.25*	-.27*
Emp (F)	-.30*	-.26*
Unc (F)	-.20*	-.22*
Cong (F)	-.29*	-.28*
Total (F)	-.29*	-.30*

Note1. M: Mother, F: Father, Reg: Level of regard, Emp: Empathy, Unc: Unconditionality, Cong: Congruence

Note2. * $p < .001$

3.1.2. Psychometric Properties of Integrated Self-discrepancy Index

In order to investigate psychometric characteristics of Integrated Self-discrepancy Index (ISDI), reliability and validity analyses were held.

3.1.2.1. Reliability Analysis of ISDI

Internal consistency analyses were conducted to examine the reliability of ISDI. In the current study ideal, ought, and undesired self subscales were used to measure self-discrepancy of the participants. Internal consistency reliability analyses revealed .78, .81 and .86 Cronbach's Alpha coefficients for ideal, ought, and undesired self-discrepancies, respectively.

3.1.2.2. Validity Analysis of ISDI

3.1.2.2.1. Construct Validity of ISDI

In order to examine the construct validity of ISDI, several hierarchical regression analyses were performed in line with the recommendations of Hardin and Lakin (2009). ISDI is a measure mostly built on the assumptions of Self-Discrepancy

Theory, so to examine the validity of the measure, analyzing the associations between ideal self-discrepancy and depression, and ought self-discrepancy and anxiety were the aim of the analyses. Besides ideal and ought self discrepancies, in this study undesired self-discrepancy was also included, thus regression analyses with undesired self-discrepancy were also examined. Furthermore, as negative valence being the dependent variable, hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted with the same method.

In order to see the unique relationship between ideal self-discrepancy and depressive symptoms, a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted. Firstly, at Step 1, anxiety, ought self and undesired self-discrepancy scores were entered, and after controlling for these variables, Step 2 included ideal self-discrepancy scores. It was aimed to reveal the unique contribution of ideal self-discrepancy to depression after controlling for the related variables. Hierarchical regression analysis revealed that control variables significantly associated with depression scores ($F[3, 725] = 114.87, p < .001$) and explained 32 % of the total variance. After controlling for the variance of the first step, ideal self-discrepancy ($\beta = .13, t[724] = 3.97, p < .001$) had significant contribution to depression and increased the explained variance explained to 34 % ($F_{change} [1, 724] = 15.77, p < .001$). This meant that, after controlling for anxiety, and, ought and undesired self-discrepancy scores, ideal self-discrepancy still had unique contribution to depression. As expected, results revealed that having higher ideal self-discrepancy scores was related to higher depression scores.

Same method was followed for ought self discrepancy. Considering the expected association between ought self-discrepancy and anxiety, at Step 1 depression, ideal self and undesired self-discrepancy scores were controlled and at Step 2 ought self-discrepancy was entered to the equation. According to the results step 1 variables significantly predicted the anxiety scores ($F[3, 725] = 72.50, p < .001$) and explained 23 % of the variance of anxiety. After controlling for step 1 variables, ought self-discrepancy ($\beta = -.08, t[724] = -2.38, p < .05$) increased the explained variance to 24 %, which was a statistically significant change ($F_{change} [1, 724] = 5.66, p < .05$). So, according to the results, after controlling for depression, and ideal self and undesired self-discrepancy scores, ought self-discrepancy had unique contribution to

anxiety scores (see Table 3.4.). However, it was seen that the relationship between ought self-discrepancy and anxiety scores was found negative, which meant that having less ought self-discrepancy was related to high anxiety and having more ought-self-discrepancy scores was related to low anxiety. This result was in line with the Higgins' findings (Higgins, 1987). Higgins argued that this result was related to denial of negative emotions (This result will be further discussed in the discussion section).

Finally, since Self-Discrepancy Theory does not include specific relations for undesired self-discrepancy and psychological discomfort, for undesired discrepancy scores same method was followed for both depression and anxiety scores. Firstly, analysis was held with depression being the dependent variable. In the hierarchical analysis, step 1 included anxiety, ideal self and ought self-discrepancy scores, while the second step included undesired self-discrepancy scores. Results revealed that first step with control variables significantly predicted depression ($F[3, 725] = 107.15, p < .001$) with the explained variance of 31 %. When the results with undesired self-discrepancy was checked on the second step, it was seen that undesired self significantly predicted depression ($\beta = -.18, t[724] = -5.67, p < .001$) and increased explained variance to 34 % ($Fchange [1, 724] = 32.13, p < .001$). When the dependent variable was anxiety, hierarchical analysis results revealed that step 1, which included depression, ideal self and ought self-discrepancy scores, significantly predicted anxiety ($F[3, 725] = 72.27, p < .001$), and explained variance was 23 %. Furthermore, inclusion of undesired self-discrepancy increased the explained variance on anxiety to 24 % ($Fchange [1, 724] = 6.24, p < .05$). These results implied that undesired self-discrepancy had unique contribution to both depression and anxiety scores.

Results of hierarchical analyses implied that, ideal self-discrepancy had unique contribution to depression scores. Ought self-discrepancy had unique contribution to anxiety scores, however the relationship was found as negative. In addition, when the analyses were held with undesired self-discrepancy scores, results revealed that undesired self-discrepancy predicted both depression and anxiety scores.

Table 3.4. Results for Hierarchical Regression Analyses of ISDI validity

	β	df	t	F_{change}	R^2
Dependent Variable					
Depression					
Step 1: Control Variables		3, 725		114.87**	.32
Anxiety	.41	725	13.17**		
Ought Self-Discrepancy	.21	725	6.66**		
Undesired Self- Discrepancy	-.21	725	-6.54**		
Step 2:		1,724		15.77**	.34
Ideal Self- Discrepancy	.13	724	3.97**		
Dependent Variable					
Anxiety					
Step 1: Control Variables		3, 725		72.52**	.23
Depression	.45	725	12.73**		
Ideal Self- Discrepancy	-.02	725	-0.66		
Undesired Self- Discrepancy	-.08	725	-2.40*		
Step 2:		1,724		5.66*	.24
Ought Self- Discrepancy	-.08	724	-2.38*		
Dependent Variable					
Depression					
Step 1: Control Variables		3, 725		107.15**	.31
Anxiety	.44	725	14.17**		
Ideal Self- Discrepancy	.17	725	5.11**		
Ought Self- Discrepancy	.18	725	5.60**		
Step 2:		1,724		32.13**	.34
Undesired Self- Discrepancy	-.18	724	-5.67**		
Dependent Variable					
Anxiety					
Step 1: Control Variables		3, 725		72.27**	.23
Depression	.49	725	14.17**		
Ideal Self- Discrepancy	.02	725	.43		
Ought Self- Discrepancy	-.08	725	-2.27*		
Step 2:		1,724		6.24*	.24
Undesired Self- Discrepancy	-.09	724	-2.50*		

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

As unique contribution of ought self-discrepancy on anxiety was not found in line with the expectation, additional analyses were held with negative valence to investigate unique contributions of different self-discrepancies. It was thought that, people might deny their intense anxiety, but might reveal their personality traits. As negative valence might be related to unmet social standards, it was expected that negative valence will be uniquely related to ought self-discrepancy, but will not be related to ideal self-discrepancy. Thus, in the first hierarchical regression analysis, step 1 included depression, ought, and undesired self discrepancy. After controlling the effects of step 1 variables, step 2 included ideal self-discrepancy. Results revealed that control variables significantly associated with negative valence ($F[3,$

725] = 21.01, $p < .001$) and explained 28 % of total variance. After controlling for the first step, ideal self-discrepancy was not found to be significantly associated with negative valence ($F_{change} [1, 724] = 1.56, p > .05$). Second analysis was conducted to reveal the unique contribution of ought self-discrepancy on negative valence. First step of hierarchical analysis included depression, ideal, and undesired self-discrepancies, and second step included ought self-discrepancy. According to the results, step 1 variables significantly associated with negative valence ($F[3, 725] = 19.99, p < .001$) and explained 28 % of the total variance. After controlling for step 1 variables, ought self-discrepancy ($\beta = .08, t[724] = 2.09, p < .05$) was found to be significantly associated with negative valence ($F_{change} [1, 724] = 4.36, p < .05$) and increased explained variance to 29 %. Finally, a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to examine the contribution of undesired self-discrepancy on negative valence. First step of the analysis included, depression, ideal, and ought self-discrepancies, and second step included undesired self-discrepancy. Result revealed that control variables were significantly related to negative valence ($F[3, 725] = 13.19, p < .001$) and explained 23 % of the total variance. After controlling for step 1 variables, undesired self-discrepancy ($\beta = -.19, t[724] = -4.88, p < .001$) had unique contribution on negative valence ($F_{change} [1, 724] = 23.81, p < .001$) and increased explained variance to 29 % (see Table 3.5.).

Table 3.5. Results for Hierarchical Regression Analyses of ISDI validity (2)

	β	df	t	F_{change}	R^2
Dependent Variable					
Negative Valence					
Step 1: Control Variables		3, 725		21.01***	.28
Depression	.13	725	3.42**		
Ought Self-Discrepancy	.07	725	1.82		
Undesired Self-Discrepancy	-.18	725	-4.74***		
Step 2:		1,724		1.56	.29
Ideal Self-Discrepancy	-.05	724	-1.25		
Dependent Variable					
Negative Valence					
Step 1: Control Variables		3, 725		19.99***	.28
Depression	.16	725	3.98***		
Ideal Self-Discrepancy	-.03	725	-.70		
Undesired Self- Discrepancy	-.19	725	-4.96***		
Step 2:		1,724		4.36*	.29
Ought Self-Discrepancy	.08	724	2.09*		
Dependent Variable					
Negative Valence					
Step 1: Control Variables		3, 725		13.19***	.23
Depression	.19	725	2.25***		
Ideal Self-Discrepancy	-.02	725	-.44		
Ought Self-Discrepancy	.09	725	2.25*		
Step 2:		1,724		23.81***	.29
Undesired Self-Discrepancy	-.19	724	-4.88***		

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .005$, *** $p < .001$

To sum up, several hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to examine unique contributions of ideal, ought, and undesired self-discrepancies on related constructs. As expected, ideal self-discrepancy had significant unique contribution on depression. Ought self-discrepancy had significant unique contribution on anxiety, but the relationship was negative. To investigate unique contributions of ideal and ought self-discrepancies, additional regression analyses were held with negative valence, as it was expected to be a construct which is more related to ought-self discrepancy. Results were in line with the expectation and revealed that ought-self-discrepancy had unique contribution on negative valence, while ideal-self-discrepancy did not have significant unique contribution on negative valence. Considering undesired self-discrepancy, results revealed that undesired self-discrepancy had unique contributions on all dependent variables namely, depression, anxiety, and negative valence.

3.1.2.2.2. Concurrent Validity of ISDI

To investigate the concurrent validity of ISDI, correlations between ideal, ought, and undesired self-discrepancy scores and basic personality traits scores were analyzed. According to results, as can be seen from Table 3.6., ideal self-discrepancy negatively correlated with extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness, and openness to experience, and positively correlated with neuroticism. However, results revealed no significant correlation between ideal self-discrepancy and negative valence. Ought self-discrepancy significantly correlated with all types of personality traits, while the correlations were negative for extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness and openness to experience and positive for neuroticism and negative valence. Similarly, undesired self-discrepancy scores were positively correlated with extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness and openness to experience, and negatively correlated with neuroticism and negative valence.

Table 3.6. *Correlations between ISDI and Basic Personality Traits*

	Ideal self disc.	Ought self disc.	Undesired self disc.
Extraversion	-.29*	-.23*	.26*
Conscientiousness	-.28*	-.35*	.17*
Agreeableness	-.17*	-.26*	.20*
Neuroticism	.25*	.19*	-.37*
Openness to Experience	-.41*	-.29*	.27*
Negative Valence	.07	.13*	-.24*

* $p < .001$

3.1.2.2.3. Criterion Validity of ISDI

In order to examine criterion validity of ISDI analysis with Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale (DERS) was conducted. Before the analysis three groups were formed in terms of their DERS scores, via the cut off points of 33% and 66%. Group with lowest scores labeled as “low difficulties in emotion regulation”, the group with medium scores was labeled as “medium difficulties in emotion regulation” and the group with highest scores was labeled as “high difficulties in emotion regulation”. Groups included 247, 232, and 249 participants respectively. Mean scores were for three groups were as follows: 85.30 ($SD = 6.54$) for “low difficulties in emotion regulation” group, 103.09 ($SD = 5.05$) for “medium difficulties in emotion

regulation” group and 126.69 ($SD = 11.09$) for “high difficulties in emotion regulation” group.

3 (DERS [low, medium, high]) X 3 (ISDI [ideal, ought, undesired]) mixed design ANOVA with repeated measures on the last factor was performed. Results revealed that (see Table 3.7.), there was a significant main effect of self-discrepancy ($F[2, 1450] = 444.56, p < .001, \eta^2 = .38$). However, the main effect of difficulties in emotion regulation was not statistically significant ($F[2, 725] = 1.78, p > .05, \eta^2 = .01$). Furthermore, a significant interaction effect was obtained ($F[4, 1450] = 21.23, p < .001, \eta^2 = .06$).

Table 3.7. *Emotion Regulation differences on Self-Discrepancies*

Source	<i>df</i>	SS	MS	<i>F</i>
DERSGroups	2	68.91	34.45	1.78
Error	725	14010.40	19.33	
Self-Discrepancy	2	19332.83	9666.42	444.56*
Self-Discrepancy X DERS	4	1846.69	461.67	21.23*
Error	1450	31528.426	21.74	

* $p < .001$

Pairwise comparisons for the interaction effect revealed that, according to all self-discrepancy types (i.e., ideal, ought, undesired), “low difficulties in emotion regulation” group members had significantly lower self-discrepancy scores compared to “medium difficulties in emotion regulation” group and “high difficulties in emotion regulation” group (see Figure 3.1.). However, there was no significant difference on self-discrepancy scores of “medium difficulties in emotion regulation” group and “high difficulties in emotion regulation” group. In terms of DERS groups, for low and high difficulties in emotion regulation groups, ideal, ought, and undesired self discrepancies were all found as significantly different from each other. Participants in these two groups had lowest self-discrepancy on ought self, while they had significantly less scores on ideal self compared to undesired self. However, for medium difficulties in emotion regulation group, there was no significant difference between ideal and ought self-discrepancy scores, while undesired self-

discrepancy scores were significantly higher from ideal and ought self-discrepancy scores. These obtained differences were in line with the expectation confirming the validity of ISDI (see Table 3.8.).

Table 3.8. Means scores of Difficulties in Emotion Regulation and Self-Discrepancy

	Ideal Self Discrepancy	Ought Self Discrepancy	Undesired Self Discrepancy
Low Difficulties in Emotion Regulation	12.30 _{a1}	11.17 _{a2}	20.61 _{a3}
Medium Difficulties in Emotion Regulation	13.50 _{b1}	12.87 _{b1}	18.63 _{b2}
High Difficulties in Emotion Regulation	13.88 _{b1}	12.33 _{b2}	17.52 _{b3}

Note1. The mean scores that do not share the same subscript are significantly different from each other.

Note2. Coloumns: letter subscript, Rows: number subscript

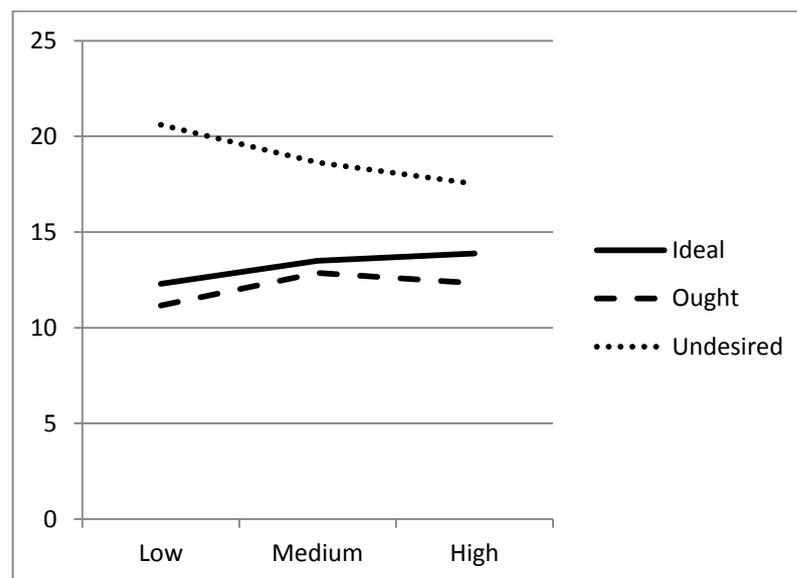


Figure 3.1. Interaction Effect of DERS groups and ISDI

3.2. Main Analyses

3.2.1. Descriptive Information for Measures

For the measures that were used in this study, descriptive statistics (i.e., means, standard deviations, minimum and maximum values) were given for the scales and

subscales in Table 3.9. The measures and their subscales were as follows: Barret-Lennard Relationship Inventory (BLRI) with subscales of Level of Regard, Empathy, Unconditionality, Congruence for both mother and father forms; Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale (DERS) with subscales of Clarity, Awareness, Impulse, Non-Acceptance, (Lack of) Goals, and (Lack of) Strategies; Basic Personality Traits Inventory (BPTI) with the subscales of Extraversion, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, Negative Valence; Resilience Scale; The Integrated Self-discrepancy Index with the subscales of Ideal Self, Ought Self, and Undesired Self; Beck Depression Inventory; and Beck Anxiety Inventory.

Table 3.9. Descriptive Statistics of the Measures

Measures	<i>N</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Minimum	Maximum	Possible Range
BLRI						
Mother	729	68.70	59.52	-140	175	-192 - 192
Level of Regard	729	32.02	17.54	-44	48	-48 - 48
Empathy	729	10.67	18.29	-46	44	-48 - 48
Unconditionality	729	5.25	14.41	-42	47	-48 - 48
Congruence	729	20.75	16.91	-40	48	-48 - 48
Father	729	47.13	64.83	-155	186	-192 - 192
Level of Regard	729	25.85	20.50	-47	48	-48 - 48
Empathy	729	3.44	19.75	-48	46	-48 - 48
Unconditionality	729	3.47	14.44	-38	47	-48 - 48
Congruence	729	14.38	18.44	-39	48	-48 - 48
DERS	729	105.14	18.93	61	165	36 - 180
Clarity	729	17.48	4.03	5	25	5 - 25
Awareness	729	22.15	3.39	7	30	6 - 30
Impulse	729	14.98	5.72	6	30	6 - 30
Non-Acceptance	729	13.85	5.84	6	30	6 - 30
Goals	729	16.53	4.70	5	25	5 - 25
Strategies	729	20.14	7.74	8	40	8 - 40
BPTI						
Extraversion	729	27.46	6.46	8	40	8 - 40
Conscientiousness	729	27.95	5.68	8	40	8 - 40
Agreeableness	729	32.85	4.52	11	40	8 - 40
Neuroticism	729	24.64	6.84	9	45	9 - 45
Openness to Experience	729	21.59	3.90	6	30	6 - 30
Negative Valence	729	10.31	3.65	6	26	6 - 30
RESILIENCE	729	128.18	18.74	43	168	24 - 168
ISDI						
Ideal	729	13.21	4.25	5	25	5 - 25
Ought	729	12.10	4.39	5	25	5 - 25
Undesired	729	18.92	5.29	5	25	5 - 25
BDI	729	10.75	8.77	.00	50	0 - 63
BAI	729	16.25	12.92	.00	59	0 - 63

3.2.2. Differences on the Measures of the Study in terms of Demographic Variables

In order to investigate how demographic variables displayed differences on the measures of the study, a series of univariate and multivariate analyses were conducted. Demographic variables used as independent variables for the analyses were age and gender. Firstly, age was categorized into two groups according to percentages. The age of participants had ranged between 18 and 39, and this age range was divided into two groups. Ages 18 through 21 were set as younger group,

and 22 through 39 were set as older group. Younger group included 351 participants which corresponded to 48.3% of the participants and older group included 376 participants with a percentage of 51.7. Mean age for younger group was $M = 20.31$ ($SD = 0.79$), and it was $M = 23.64$ for older group ($SD = 2.64$). 456 of the participants were female and 273 of the participants were male in this study, with the percentages of 62.6 and 37.4, respectively (see Table 3.10. for the male and female distribution on age groups).

Table 3.10. *Categorization of Demographic Variables*

Variables	<i>N</i>
Younger (18 to 21)	
Female	251
Male	100
Total	351
Older (22 to 39)	
Female	204
Male	172
Total	376

3.2.2.1. Differences of Age and Gender on Perceived Parental Relationship

In order to examine possible age and gender differences on perceived parental relationship two sets of ANOVA and MANOVA were conducted. Firstly, 2 (age) X 2 (gender) between subjects ANOVAs were conducted separately for mother's and father's total scores on BLRI. ANOVA results with mother total scores revealed no significant main effect for age ($F[1, 723] = 2.79, p > .05$) and gender ($F[1, 723] = 2.86, p > .05$), interaction effect was found to be insignificant either ($F[1, 723] = 0.09, p > .05$) (see Table 3.11.).

Table 3.11. *Age and Gender Differences on Perceived Relationship with Mother*

Source	<i>df</i>	SS	MS	<i>F</i>
Age	1	9874.68	9874.68	2.79
Gender	1	10143.21	10143.21	2.86
Age X Gender	1	312.68	312.68	0.09
Error	723	2560400.19	3541.36	

As can be seen from Table 3.12., when the dependent variable was relationship with father (total score), ANOVA results revealed that age ($F[1, 723] = 4.75, p < .05$) and gender ($F[1, 723] = 6.33, p < .05$) had significant main effects. But, the interaction effect was found as insignificant ($F[1, 723] = 0.59, p > .05$). When mean scores of age was checked (see Figure 3.2.), it was found that younger group ($M = 54.29$) had higher scores on perceived relationship with father than older group ($M = 43.26$). For gender variable, males ($M = 55.14$) had significantly higher scores than females ($M = 42.41$) on relationship with their fathers (see Figure 3.3.).

Table 3.12. Age and Gender Differences on Perceived Relationship with Father

Source	<i>df</i>	SS	MS	<i>F</i>
Age	1	19708.21	19708.21	4.75*
Gender	1	26251.36	26251.36	6.33*
Age X Gender	1	2440.32	2440.32	0.59
Error	723	2998623.27	4147.47	

* $p < .05$

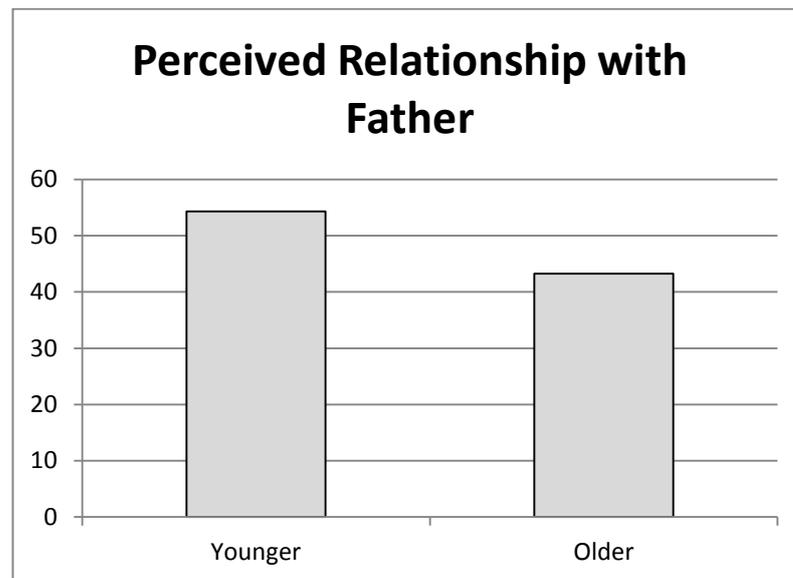


Figure 3.2. Mean Scores of Age on Perceived Relationship with Father

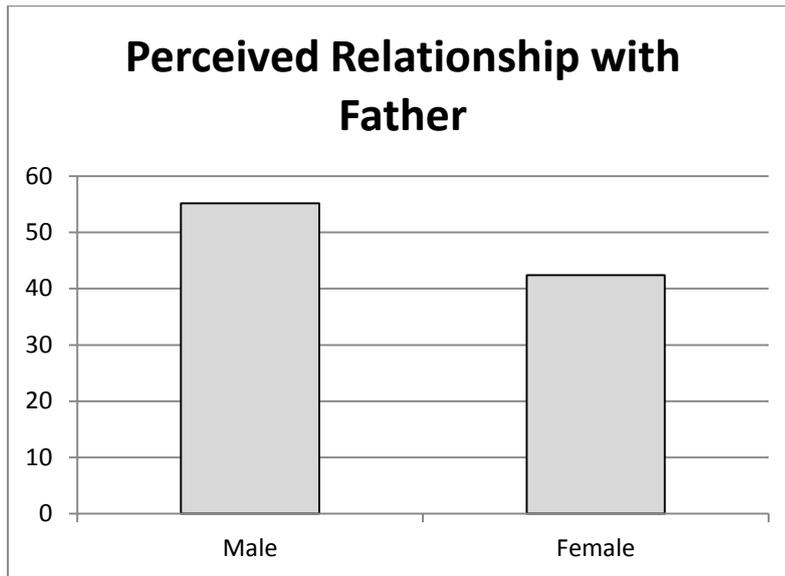


Figure 3.3. Mean Scores of Gender on Perceived Relationship with Father

After the univariate analyses with the total scores, two separate MANOVAs were conducted with the subscales of BLRI for mother and father scores, separately. To examine the age and gender differences on the subscales of BLRI, 2 (age) X 2 (gender) between subjects MANOVAs were conducted. First analysis was conducted with the dependent variable of perceived relationship with mother, and the results revealed no significant effects for age (Multivariate $F[4, 720] = 0.97, p > .05$, Wilks' $\Lambda = 0.99, \eta^2 = .01$) and gender (Multivariate $F[4, 720] = 1.50, p > .05$, Wilks' $\Lambda = 0.99, \eta^2 = .01$). Also, the interaction effect was found as insignificant (Multivariate $F[4, 720] = 2.19, p > .05$, Wilks' $\Lambda = 0.99, \eta^2 = .01$) (see Table 3.13.).

Table 3.13. *Age and Gender Differences on subscales of BLRI for Mother Form*

Variables	Wilk's Lambda	Multivariate <i>df</i>	Multi. <i>F</i>	Multi. η^2	Univariate <i>df</i>	Uni. <i>F</i>	Uni. η^2
Age	.99	4, 720	0.97	.01			
Level of Regard					1, 723	1.38	.00
Empathy					1, 723	1.65	.00
Unconditionality					1, 723	3.39	.01
Congruence					1, 723	2.86	.00
Gender	.99	4, 720	1.50	.01			
Level of Regard					1, 723	2.05	.00
Empathy					1, 723	4.52	.01
Unconditionality					1, 723	1.80	.00
Congruence					1, 723	0.31	.00
Age X Gender	.99	4, 720	2.19	.01			
Level of Regard					1, 723	0.02	.00
Empathy					1, 723	0.76	.00
Unconditionality					1, 723	0.81	.00
Congruence					1, 723	0.19	.00

2 (age) X 2 (gender) between subjects MANOVA, with BLRI subscales for fathers revealed significant gender effect (Multivariate $F[4, 720] = 2.55, p < .05$, Wilks' $\Lambda = 0.99, \eta^2 = .01$), but not significant age effect (Multivariate $F[4, 720] = 1.69, p > .05$, Wilks' $\Lambda = 0.99, \eta^2 = .01$). In addition, a significant interaction effect was revealed (Multivariate $F[4, 720] = 3.15, p < .05$, Wilks' $\Lambda = 0.98, \eta^2 = .02$). However, as can be seen from Table 3.14., following the Bonferroni correction, univariate analysis revealed insignificant results on the subscales.

Table 3.14. Age and Gender Differences on subscales of BLRI for Father Form

Variables	Wilk's Lambda	Multivariate <i>df</i>	Multi. <i>F</i>	Multi. η^2	Univariate <i>df</i>	Uni. <i>F</i>	Uni. η^2
Age	.99	4, 720	1.69	.01			
Level of Regard					1, 723	4.05	.01
Empathy					1, 723	2.31	.00
Unconditionality					1, 723	2.75	.00
Congruence					1, 723	6.17	.01
Gender	.99	4, 720	2.55*	.01			
Level of Regard					1, 723	4.79	.01
Empathy					1, 723	9.62**	.01
Unconditionality					1, 723	1.87	.00
Congruence					1, 723	4.05	.01
Age X Gender	.98	4, 720	3.15*	.02			
Level of Regard					1, 723	0.65	.00
Empathy					1, 723	3.59	.01
Unconditionality					1, 723	0.01	.00
Congruence					1, 723	0.08	.00

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .0125$

After multivariate analysis, univariate analysis was checked in order to see which variables were responsible for significant results. Firstly, Bonferroni correction was established and as there were four dependent variables, alpha was set as 0.0125 (.05/4). According to univariate analysis, gender effect was found significant only for the empathy subscale ($F[1, 723] = 9.62, p < .0125$). According to mean scores, males ($M = 6.25$) had higher scores than females ($M = 1.49$) on perceived empathy from their fathers (see Figure 3.4.).

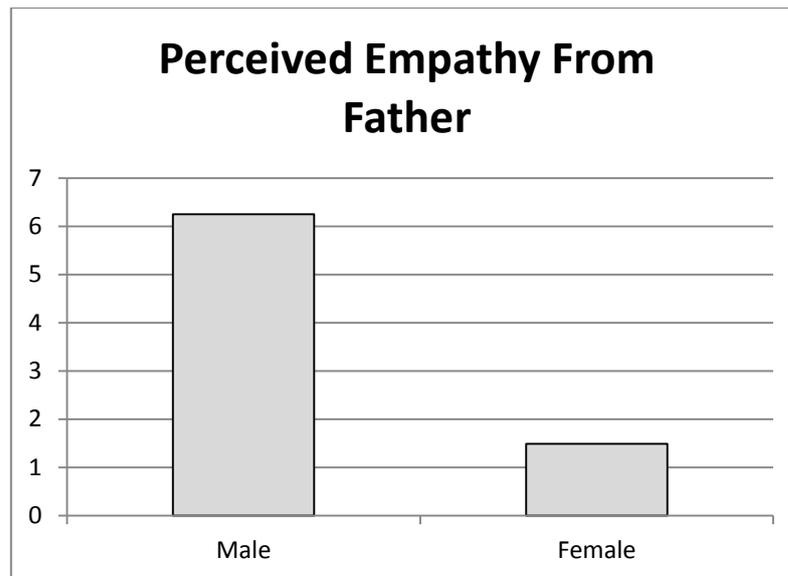


Figure 3.4. Mean Scores of Gender on Perceived Empathy from Father

3.2.2.2. Differences of Age and Gender on Difficulties in Emotion Regulation

To investigate age and gender differences on Difficulties in Emotion Regulation, 2 (age) X 2 (gender) between subjects ANOVA was conducted. Results revealed no significant effect for age on total score of difficulties in emotion regulation ($F[1, 723] = 1.22, p > .05$). Also, gender main effect was not significant in terms of difficulties in emotion regulation ($F[1, 723] = 2.33, p > .05$). In line with these, interaction effect turned out to be insignificant ($F[1, 723] = 0.02, p > .05$). According to results, difficulties in emotion regulation did not differ significantly according to age and gender (see Table 3.15.).

Table 3.15. Age and Gender Differences on Difficulties in Emotion Regulation

Source	<i>df</i>	SS	MS	<i>F</i>
Age	1	436.49	436.49	1.22
Gender	1	830.82	830.82	2.33
Age X Gender	1	8.10	8.10	0.23
Error	723	258132.58	357.03	

In order to investigate the possible age and gender differences on the subscales of DERS (i.e., clarity, awareness, impulse, non-acceptance, goals, and strategies), 2

(age) X 2 (gender) between subjects MANOVA was conducted. Results revealed significant main effect for gender (Multivariate $F[6, 718] = 4.18, p < .001, \text{Wilks}'\Lambda = 0.97, \eta^2 = .03$). However insignificant results were obtained for age (Multivariate $F[6, 718] = 1.29, p > .05, \text{Wilks}'\Lambda = 0.99, \eta^2 = .01$) and interaction effect (Multivariate $F[6, 718] = 1.07, p > .05, \text{Wilks}'\Lambda = 0.99, \eta^2 = .01$). To investigate which type of difficulties in emotion regulation differs according to gender, univariate analysis were conducted, but firstly Bonferroni correction was established. According to Bonferroni correction (i.e., $.05/6$) variables that have alpha values lower than $.008$ were considered as significant. Following this correction, gender main effect was found as statistically significant only for the awareness subscale ($F[1, 723] = 10.98, p < .001, \eta^2 = .02$) (see Table 3.16.). As can be seen from Figure 3.5., mean scores showed that women ($M = 22.51$) had more difficulties in emotion regulation compared to men ($M = 21.64$) in terms of awareness of emotions.

Table 3.16. Age and Gender Differences on Subscales of DERS

Variables	Wilk's Lambda	Multivariate <i>df</i>	Multi. <i>F</i>	Multi. η^2	Univariate <i>df</i>	Uni. <i>F</i>	Uni. η^2
Age	.99	6, 718	1.29	.01			
Clarity					1, 723	.74	.00
Awareness					1, 723	.88	.00
Impulse					1, 723	4.31	.01
Non-accept					1, 723	.00	.00
Goals					1, 723	1.78	.00
Strategies					1, 723	1.57	.00
Gender	.97	6, 718	4.18**	.03			
Clarity					1, 723	1.92	.00
Awareness					1, 723	10.98*	.02
Impulse					1, 723	.00	.00
Non-accept					1, 723	.39	.00
Goals					1, 723	2.15	.00
Strategies					1, 723	2.67	.00
Age X Gender	.99	6, 718	1.07	.01			
Clarity					1, 723	.05	.01
Awareness					1, 723	.06	.01
Impulse					1, 723	.51	.00
Non-accept					1, 723	.40	.00
Goals					1, 723	.70	.00
Strategies					1, 723	.58	.00

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

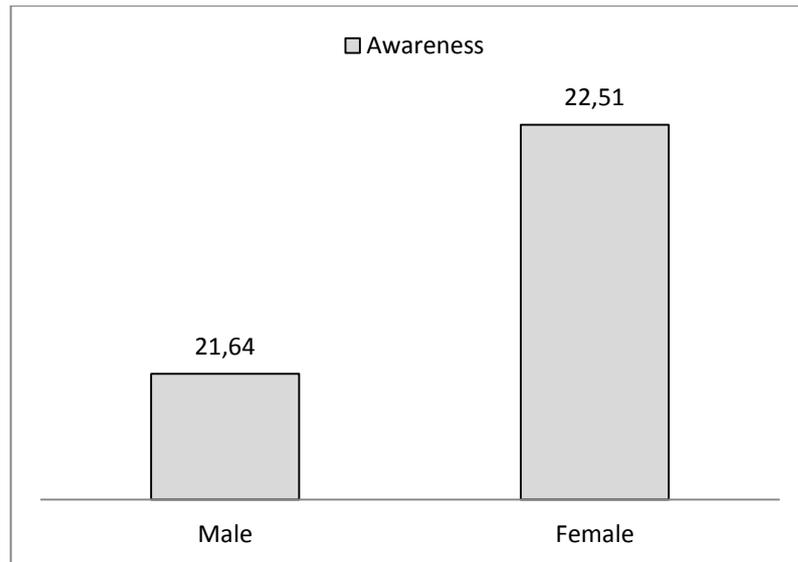


Figure 3.5. Mean Scores of Gender on Awareness

3.2.2.3. Differences of Age and Gender on Basic Personality Traits

In order to examine the effects of age and gender on Basic Personality Traits, 2 (age) X 2 (gender) between subjects MANOVA was conducted with six personality traits (i.e., extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness, neuroticism, openness to experience, and negative valence) being the dependent variables. According to the results, gender (Multivariate $F[6, 718] = 13.25, p < .001, \text{Wilks}'\Lambda = 0.90, \eta^2 = .10$) had a significant main effect on personality traits, while age main effect (Multivariate $F[6, 718] = 1.05, p > .05, \text{Wilks}'\Lambda = 0.99, \eta^2 = .01$) and interaction effect (Multivariate $F[6, 718] = 0.55, p > .05, \text{Wilks}'\Lambda = 0.99, \eta^2 = .01$) were not found to be significant. To see on which personality traits gender had difference, univariate analyses were checked by considering Bonferroni correction, which was set as .008. According to univariate analyses, gender main effect was significant for conscientiousness ($F[1, 723] = 7.43, p < .008, \eta^2 = .01$), agreeableness ($F[1, 723] = 10.45, p < .001, \eta^2 = .01$), openness to experience ($F[1, 723] = 22.61, p < .001, \eta^2 = .03$), and negative valence ($F[1, 723] = 10.65, p < .001, \eta^2 = .02$). However, following Bonferroni correction, gender revealed no significant effect on extraversion ($F[1, 723] = 0.60, p > .008, \eta^2 = .00$), and neuroticism ($F[1, 723] = 4.36, p > .008, \eta^2 = .00$) (see Table 3.17.).

Table 3.17. Age and Gender Differences on Basic Personality Traits

Variables	Wilk's Lambda	Multivariate <i>df</i>	Multi. <i>F</i>	Multi. η^2	Univariate <i>df</i>	Uni. <i>F</i>	Uni. η^2
Age	.99	6, 718	1.05	.01			
Extra					1, 723	0.60	.00
Consc					1, 723	3.59	.01
Agree					1, 723	1.07	.00
Neuro					1, 723	3.10	.00
Open					1, 723	0.30	.00
Neg					1, 723	2.99	.00
Gender	.90	6, 718	13.25**	.10			
Extra					1, 723	.60	.00
Consc					1, 723	7.43*	.01
Agree					1, 723	10.45**	.01
Neuro					1, 723	4.36	.00
Open					1, 723	22.61**	.03
Neg					1, 723	10.65**	.02
Age X Gender	.99	6, 718	.55	.01			
Extra					1, 723	0.80	.00
Consc					1, 723	0.00	.00
Agree					1, 723	0.01	.00
Neuro					1, 723	1.20	.00
Open					1, 723	0.00	.00
Neg					1, 723	0.29	.00

Note1. Extra: Extraversion, Consc: Conscientiousness, Agree: Agreeableness, Neuro: Neuroticism, Open: Openness to Experience, Neg: Negative Valence

Note2. * $p < .008$, ** $p < .001$

According to the mean scores of the participants, on conscientiousness, females ($M = 28.36$) had significantly higher scores than males ($M = 27.15$). Similarly, on agreeableness females ($M = 33.25$) had significantly higher scores than males ($M = 32.11$). On the other hand, on openness to experience, males ($M = 22.48$) had higher scores compared to females ($M = 21.05$). Also, on negative valence, males ($M = 10.92$) had significantly higher scores than females ($M = 9.99$) (see Figure 3.6.).

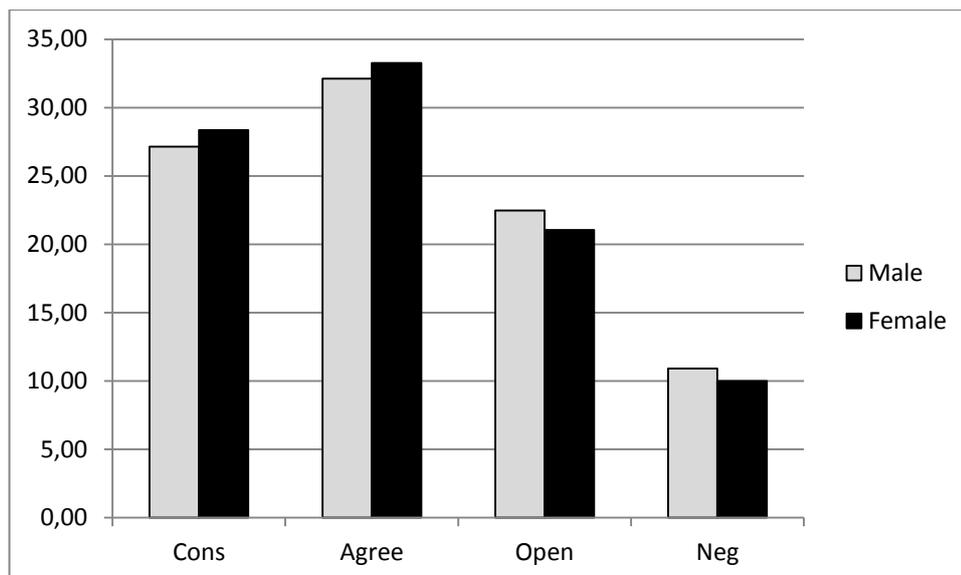


Figure 3.6. Mean Scores of Gender on Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Openness to Experience, Negative Valence

3.2.2.4. Differences of Age and Gender on Resilience

2 (age) X 2 (gender) between subjects ANOVA was conducted to explore age and gender differences on resilience scores of the participants. As can be seen from Table 3.18., results revealed no significant effect for age ($F[1, 723] = 0.10, p > .05$) and gender ($F[1, 723] = 0.11, p > .05$). Also, interaction effect ($F[1, 723] = 0.22, p > .05$) was found to be insignificant. The results indicated that resilience of the participants did not differ according to their age or gender.

Table 3.18. Age and Gender Differences on Resilience

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Age	1	33.26	33.26	0.10
Gender	1	39.47	39.47	0.74
Age X Gender	1	75.39	75.39	0.22
Error	723	253774,04	351,00	

3.2.2.5. Differences of Age and Gender on Self-Discrepancy

In order to examine how age and gender differentiate on different types of self-discrepancies, 2 (age) X 2 (gender) between subjects MANOVA was conducted with

different self-discrepancies, which are ideal, ought and undesired self-discrepancy, as being dependent variables. Results revealed that self-discrepancy differentiates according to gender (Multivariate $F[3, 721] = 3.39, p < .05$, Wilks' $\Lambda = 0.99, \eta^2 = .01$), but not according to age (Multivariate $F[3, 721] = 2.59, p > .05$, Wilks' $\Lambda = 0.99, \eta^2 = .01$). In addition, there was no significant interaction effect on self-discrepancy (Multivariate $F[3, 721] = 0.76, p > .05$, Wilks' $\Lambda = 0.99, \eta^2 = .00$). After the multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were checked with the application of Bonferroni correction. As there were three dependent variables, alpha was set as .016 (.05/3). According to univariate analysis, gender had significant effect only on undesired self-discrepancy ($F[1, 723] = 8.60, p < .005, \eta^2 = .01$) (see Table 3.19.). According to mean scores (see Figure 3.7.), females ($M = 18.46$) reported lower undesired self-discrepancy scores, compared to males ($M = 19.67$).

Table 3.19. Age and Gender Differences on Self-Discrepancy

Variables	Wilk's Lambda	Multivariate <i>df</i>	Multi. <i>F</i>	Multi. η^2	Univariate <i>df</i>	Uni. <i>F</i>	Uni. η^2
Age	.99	3, 721	2.59	.01			
Ideal					1, 723	0.00	.00
Ought					1, 723	5.16	.01
Undesired					1, 723	1.34	.00
Gender	.99	3, 721	3.39*	.01			
Ideal					1, 723	3.83	.01
Ought					1, 723	1.09	.00
Undesired					1, 723	8.60**	.01
Age X Gender	.99	3, 721	0.76	.00			
Ideal					1, 723	0.00	.00
Ought					1, 723	2.00	.00
Undesired					1, 723	0.20	.00

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .005$

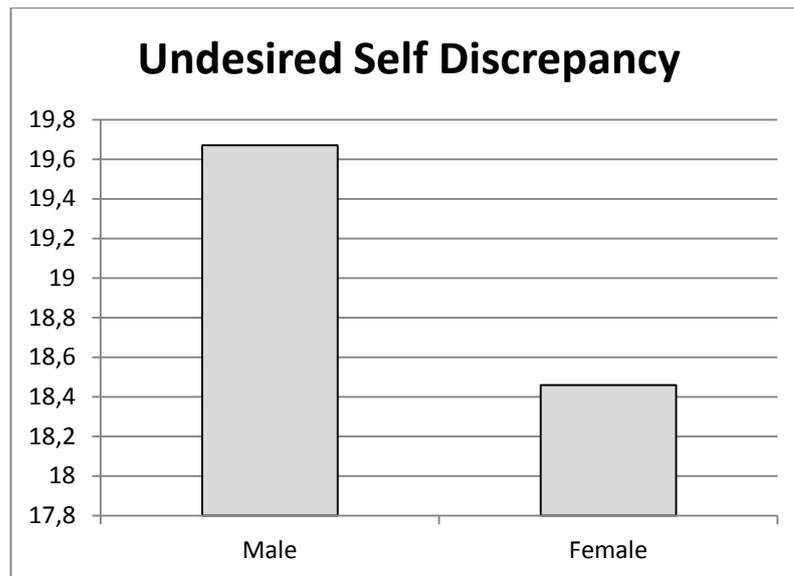


Figure 3.7. Mean Scores of Gender on Undesired Self Discrepancy

3.2.2.6. Differences of Age and Gender on Well-Being

In order to see how age and gender affects well-being, a 2 X 2 between subjects MANOVA was conducted, where depression and anxiety scores were the dependent variables. Similar with the trend throughout the study, age (Multivariate $F[2, 722] = 1.54, p > .05, \text{Wilks' } \Lambda = 0.99, \eta^2 = .00$) had no significant main effect on well-being, while gender main effect (Multivariate $F[2, 722] = 6.52, p < .005, \text{Wilks' } \Lambda = 0.98, \eta^2 = .02$) was found to be significant. Additionally, interaction effect was found to be insignificant (Multivariate $F[3, 721] = 0.11, p < .05, \text{Wilks' } \Lambda = 1.00, \eta^2 = .00$) (see Table 3.20.). Univariate analysis, with the consideration of Bonferroni correction, revealed that gender had significant effect only on anxiety scores of the participants ($F[1, 723] = 13.00, p < .001, \eta^2 = .02$). As can be seen form Figure 3.8., according to mean scores, female participants ($M = 17.60$) had significantly higher anxiety scores than male participants ($M = 13.99$).

Table 3.20. Age and Gender Differences on Well-Being

Variables	Wilk's Lambda	Multivariate <i>df</i>	Multi. <i>F</i>	Multi. η^2	Univariate <i>df</i>	Uni. <i>F</i>	Uni. η^2
Age	.99	2, 722	1.54	.00			
Depression					1, 723	0.57	.00
Anxiety					1, 723	3.08	.00
Gender	.98	2, 722	6.52*	.02			
Depression					1, 723	1.97	.00
Anxiety					1, 723	12.96**	.02
Age X Gender	1.00	2, 722	0.11	.00			
Depression					1, 723	0.02	.00
Anxiety					1, 723	0.22	.00

* $p < .005$, ** $p < .001$

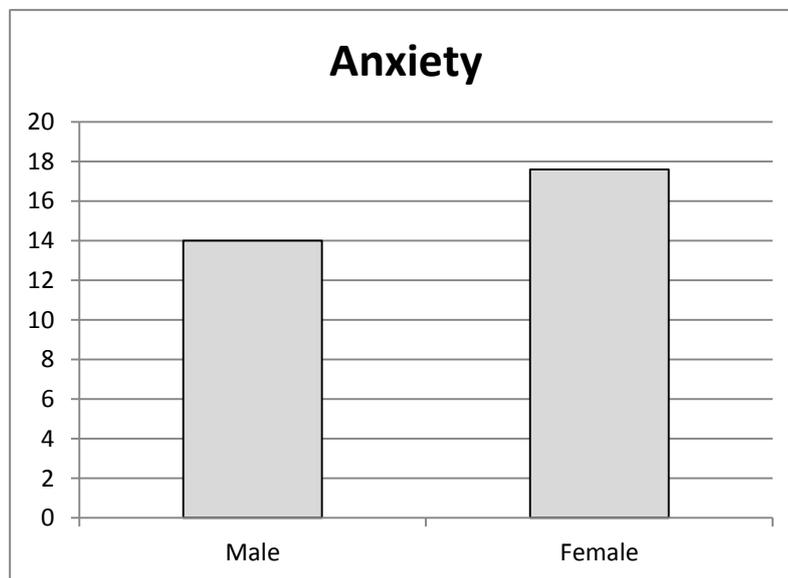


Figure 3.8. Mean Scores of Gender on Anxiety

3.2.3. Hierarchical Multiple Regressions

In order to reveal the associations among the variables of the study a series of hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted. Following the model which was presented in the Introduction section, firstly, regression analyses were held for self discrepancy. Secondly, regression analyses were held for personality characteristics which were difficulties in emotion regulation, basic personality traits,

and resilience. Finally, analyses were conducted for well being, in terms of depression symptoms and anxiety symptoms.

3.2.3.1. Hierarchical Multiple Regressions with Self-Discrepancy

In order to see the associations between perceived parental relationship variables and self-discrepancy, three separate regression analyses were conducted as ideal, ought, and undesired self discrepancies were the dependent variables. Variables entered into the equation via two steps hierarchically (i.e., stepwise method). Age and gender were entered into the equation at the first step to be controlled. After controlling for age and gender, step 2 included perceived parental relationship variables for mothers and fathers.

3.2.3.1.1. Variables Associated with Ideal Self-Discrepancy

Hierarchical regression analysis which was conducted with ideal self-discrepancy revealed that among control variables gender ($\beta = -.08$, $t[725] = -2.03$, $p < .05$) was significantly associated with ideal self-discrepancy indicating that females had higher ideal self-discrepancy scores. As can be seen from Table 3.21., gender explained 0.6 % of the total variance ($F[1, 725] = 4.11$, $p < .05$). After controlling for age and gender, paternal empathy ($\beta = -.28$, $t[724] = -7.93$, $p < .001$), maternal empathy ($\beta = -.10$, $t[723] = -2.39$, $p < .05$), and maternal unconditionality ($\beta = .12$, $t[722] = 2.69$, $p < .01$) were significantly related with ideal self-discrepancy. Paternal empathy increased explained variance to 8.5 % ($F_{change} [1, 724] = 62.93$, $p < .001$). With the inclusion of maternal empathy explained variance increased to 9 % ($F_{change} [1, 723] = 5.72$, $p < .05$) and maternal unconditionality increased explained variance to 10% ($F_{change} [1, 722] = 7.22$, $p < .01$).

Table 3.21. *Variables Associated with Difficulties in Ideal Self-Discrepancy*

	β	<i>df</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>F</i> _{change}	<i>R</i> ²
Dependent Variable					
Ideal Self-Discrepancy					
Step 1: Control Variables					
Gender	-.08	725	-2.03	4.11*	.006
Step 2: Perceived Parental Relationship					
Paternal Empathy	-.28	724	-7.93	62.93***	.085
Maternal Empathy	-.10	723	-2.39	5.72*	.092
Maternal Unconditionality	.12	722	2.69	7.22**	.101

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

Totally, gender, paternal empathy, maternal empathy, and maternal unconditionality had significant associations with ideal self-discrepancy. That is, females were likely to have more ideal self-discrepancy compared to males. In addition, participants who perceived their fathers and mothers as more empathic, and who perceived their mothers as less unconditional were more likely to have less ideal self-discrepancy scores compared to participants who perceived their fathers and mothers as less empathic and their mothers as more unconditional.

3.2.3.1.2. Variables Associated with Ought Self-Discrepancy

According to the hierarchical multiple regression analysis results, gender and age had no significant associations with ought self-discrepancy. Among perceived parental relationship variables paternal empathy ($\beta = -.21$, $t[725] = -5.83$, $p < .001$) and paternal unconditionality ($\beta = .12$, $t[724] = 2.61$, $p < .01$) were found to be significantly associated with ought-self-discrepancy (see Table 3.22.). Paternal empathy explained 4.5 % of the total variance ($F[1, 725] = 33.97$, $p < .001$) and paternal unconditionality increased explained variance to 5.4% ($F_{change} [1, 724] = 6.82$, $p < .01$).

Regression analysis signified that participants who perceived their fathers as more empathic and less unconditional were more likely to have lower ought self-discrepancy scores compared to participants who perceived their fathers as less empathic and more unconditional.

Table 3.22. Variables Associated with Difficulties in Ought Self-Discrepancy

	β	df	t	F_{change}	R^2
Dependent Variable					
Ought Self-Discrepancy					
Step 1: Control Variables					
-					
Step 2: Perceived Parental Relationship					
Paternal Empathy	-.21	725	-5.83	33.97**	.045
Paternal Unconditionality	.12	724	2.61	6.82*	.054

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

3.2.3.1.3. Variables Associated with Undesired Self-Discrepancy

Hierarchical regression analysis revealed that gender ($\beta = .10$, $t[725] = 2.83$, $p < .01$) was related to undesired self-discrepancy and explained 1 % of the total variance ($F[1, 725] = 7.99$, $p < .01$). Among perceived parental relationship variables only paternal empathy ($\beta = .19$, $t[724] = 5.16$, $p < .001$) was found to be significantly associated with undesired self-discrepancy and increased explained variance to 5 % ($F_{change} [1, 724] = 26.65$, $p < .001$). Results implied that males and participants who perceived their fathers as more empathic had higher undesired self-discrepancy scores (i.e., more discrepant from their undesired selves) compared to females and participants who perceived their fathers as less empathic (see Table 3.23.).

Table 3.23. Variables Associated with Difficulties in Undesired Self-Discrepancy

	β	df	t	F_{change}	R^2
Dependent Variable					
Undesired Self-Discrepancy					
Step 1: Control Variables					
Gender	.10	725	2.83	7.99*	.01
Step 2: Perceived Parental Relationship					
Paternal Empathy	.19	724	5.16	26.65**	.05

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

3.2.3.2. Hierarchical Multiple Regressions with Personality Characteristics

Difficulties in emotion regulation, basic personality traits, and resilience variables were labeled as the personality characteristics, and they were the dependent variables of the separate hierarchical multiple regression analyses.

Variables were entered into the equation via three steps hierarchically (i.e., stepwise method). Age and gender were entered into the first step to be controlled. After controlling for the significant demographic variables, perceived parental relationship variables for mothers and fathers were entered into the equation on the second step. Third step included the self-discrepancy variables which were ideal self, ought self, and undesired self discrepancies (For the ease of comprehension, obtained results related to personality characteristics are summarized in Table 3.32.).

3.2.3.2.1. Variables Associated with Difficulties in Emotion Regulation

Hierarchical Analysis results revealed that age and gender had no significant association with difficulties in emotion regulation. From perceived parental relationship variables, paternal congruence ($\beta = -.30$, $t[725] = -8.32$, $p < .001$), maternal unconditionality ($\beta = -.15$, $t[724] = -3.77$, $p < .001$) and paternal empathy ($\beta = -.13$, $t[723] = -2.22$, $p < .001$) were found to be significantly related to difficulties in emotion regulation. Paternal congruence explained 9 % of the variance ($F[1, 725] = 69.19$, $p < .001$). Maternal unconditionality increased the explained variance to 11 % ($Fchange [1, 724] = 14.19$, $p < .001$) and paternal empathy made a slight increase in explained variance ($Fchange [1, 723] = 4.93$, $p < .05$, $\Delta R^2 = .01$). From the self-discrepancy variables, only undesired self-discrepancy ($\beta = -.23$, $t[722] = -6.63$, $p < .001$) found to be significantly associated with difficulties in emotion regulation, and increased explained variance to 16 % ($Fchange [1, 722] = 43.92$, $p < .001$) (see Table 3.24.).

In sum, paternal congruence, maternal unconditionality, parental empathy, and undesired self-discrepancy were found to be significantly related to difficulties in emotion regulation. That is, participants who perceived their fathers as more congruent, and empathic, and those who perceived their mothers as more

unconditional in their relationship, and participants who had higher undesired self-discrepancy were more likely to have lower difficulties in emotion regulation, compared to participants who perceived their fathers as less congruent, and empathic, and their mothers as less unconditional in their relationship, and participants who had lower undesired self discrepancy.

Table 3.24. Variables Associated with Difficulties in Emotion Regulation

	β	<i>df</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>F</i> _{change}	<i>R</i> ²
Dependent Variable					
Difficulties in Emotion Regulation					
Step 1: Control Variables					
-					
Step 2: Perceived Parental Relationship					
Paternal Congruence	-.30	725	-8.32	69.19**	.09
Maternal Unconditionality	-.15	724	-3.77	14.19**	.11
Paternal Empathy	-.13	723	-2.22	4.93*	.11
Step 3: Self-Discrepancy					
Undesired Self	-.23	722	-6.63	43.92**	.16

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

3.2.3.2.2. Variables Associated with Personality Traits

Hierarchical Regression Analyses were held separately for extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness, neuroticism openness to experience, and negative valence.

3.2.3.2.2.1. Variables Associated with Extraversion

Hierarchical regression analysis that was run for extraversion revealed that age ($\beta = .09$, $t[725] = 2.29$, $p < .05$) was significantly associated with extraversion and explained 0.7 % of the total variance ($F[1, 725] = 5.23$, $p < .05$). As can be seen from Table 3.25., from perceived parental relationship variables, paternal congruence ($\beta = .24$, $t[724] = 6.60$, $p < .001$), maternal empathy ($\beta = .11$, $t[723] = 2.76$, $p < .01$) and unconditionality ($\beta = -.11$, $t[722] = -2.36$, $p < .05$) were significantly related to extraversion. Paternal congruence increased explained variance to 6 % ($F_{change} [1, 724] = 43.62$, $p < .001$). Maternal empathy increased explained variance to 7 %

($F_{change} [1, 723] = 7.63, p < .01$), and with the inclusion of maternal unconditionality, explained variance increased up to 8 % ($F_{change} [1, 722] = 5.59, p < .05$). After controlling for parental relationship variables, all self-discrepancy variables were found to be significantly related to extraversion, which were undesired self-discrepancy ($\beta = .22, t[721] = 6.35, p < .001$), ideal self-discrepancy ($\beta = -.19, t[720] = -5.10, p < .001$), and ought self-discrepancy ($\beta = -.10, t[719] = -2.84, p < .01$). Undesired self-discrepancy increased explained variance in extraversion to 13 % ($F_{change} [1, 721] = 40.32, p < .001$). Ideal self-discrepancy, increased explained variance to 16 % ($F_{change} [1, 720] = 25.96, p < .001$), and ought self-discrepancy increased explained variance to 17 % ($F_{change} [1, 719] = 8.04, p < .01$).

Table 3.25. Variables Associated with Extraversion

	β	df	t	F_{change}	R^2
Dependent Variable					
Extraversion					
Step 1: Control Variables	.09	725	2.29	5.23*	.007
Age					
Step 2: Perceived Parental Relationship					
Paternal Congruence	.24	724	6.60	43.62***	.06
Maternal Empathy	.11	723	2.76	7.63**	.07
Maternal Unconditionality	-.11	722	-2.36	5.59*	.08
Step 3: Self-Discrepancy					
Undesired Self	.22	721	6.35	40.32***	.13
Ideal Self	-.19	720	-5.10	25.96***	.16
Ought Self	-.10	719	-2.84	8.04**	.17

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

Totally, seven variables were found to be significantly associated with extraversion, namely, age, parental congruence, maternal empathy, and unconditionality, and undesired, ideal, and ought self discrepancies. Results indicated that participants who were older, participants who perceived their fathers as more congruent and who perceived their mothers as more empathic were more likely to be extroverted compared to participants who were younger, and participants who perceived their fathers as less congruent and who perceived their mothers as less empathic. For maternal unconditionality, although the relationship was weak, results meant that participants who perceived their mothers as less unconditional were more likely to be

extroverted compared to participants who perceived their mothers as more unconditional. For self-discrepancy scores, results showed that, participants who had higher undesired self-discrepancy scores, and lower ideal and ought self-discrepancy scores were more likely to be extroverted compared to participants who had lower undesired self-discrepancy scores and higher ideal and ought self-discrepancy scores.

3.2.3.2.2.2. Variables Associated with Conscientiousness

Hierarchical regression analysis which was conducted with conscientiousness revealed that among control variables gender ($\beta = -.09$, $t[725] = -2.43$, $p < .05$) was significantly related to conscientiousness and it explained 1 % of the total variance ($F[1, 725] = 5.90$, $p < .05$). Among parental relationship variables, maternal empathy ($\beta = .24$, $t[724] = 6.79$, $p < .001$), maternal unconditionality ($\beta = -.16$, $t[723] = -3.56$, $p < .001$) and paternal empathy ($\beta = .13$, $t[722] = 2.92$, $p < .005$) were found to be significantly related to conscientiousness. Maternal empathy increased explained variance to 7 % ($F_{change} [1, 724] = 46.15$, $p < .001$). With the inclusion of maternal unconditionality explained variance increased up to 8 % ($F_{change} [1, 723] = 12.67$, $p < .001$) and addition of paternal empathy increased explained variance to 9 % ($F_{change} [1, 722] = 8.50$, $p < .005$). Last step variables, which were ought self-discrepancy ($\beta = -.31$, $t[721] = -9.01$, $p < .001$), ideal self-discrepancy ($\beta = -.14$, $t[720] = -3.94$, $p < .001$), and undesired self-discrepancy ($\beta = .07$, $t[719] = 2.06$, $p < .05$), all significantly associated with conscientiousness. Ought self-discrepancy increased explained variance to 19 % ($F_{change} [1, 721] = 81.09$, $p < .001$). Contribution of ideal self-discrepancy increased explained variance to 20 % ($F_{change} [1, 720] = 15.52$, $p < .001$). Undesired self-discrepancy increased explained variance to 21 % ($F_{change} [1, 719] = 4.23$, $p < .05$) (see Table 3.26.)

Totally, gender, maternal empathy, maternal unconditionality, paternal empathy, ought, ideal, and undesired self-discrepancies had significant associations with conscientiousness. Results signified that, females were more likely to be conscientious compared to males. In addition, participants perceiving more maternal and paternal empathy were more likely to be conscientious compared to participants perceiving less maternal and paternal empathy. However, participants perceiving

more maternal unconditionality were less likely to be conscientious compared to participants perceiving less maternal unconditionality. For self-discrepancy, results showed that, participants, who had higher ought and ideal self-discrepancies, and lower undesired self-discrepancy were less likely to be conscientious compared to participants who had lower ought and ideal self-discrepancies and higher undesired self-discrepancy.

Table 3.26. Variables Associated with Conscientiousness

	β	<i>df</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>F</i> _{change}	<i>R</i> ²
Dependent Variable					
Conscientiousness					
Step 1: Control Variables					
Gender	-.09	725	-2.43	5.90*	.01
Step 2: Perceived Parental Relationship					
Maternal Empathy	.24	724	6.79	46.15***	.07
Maternal Unconditionality	-.16	723	-3.56	12.67***	.08
Paternal Empathy	.13	722	2.92	8.50**	.09
Step 3: Self-Discrepancy					
Ought self	-.31	721	-9.01	81.09***	.19
Ideal Self	-.14	720	-3.94	15.52***	.20
Undesired Self	.07	719	2.06	4.23*	.21

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .005$, *** $p < .001$

3.2.3.2.2.3. Variables Associated with Agreeableness

Hierarchical regression analysis run for agreeableness revealed that gender ($\beta = -.12$, $t[725] = -3.11$, $p < .005$) was significantly associated with agreeableness and explained 1 % of the variance ($F[1, 725] = 9.68$, $p < .005$). After controlling for gender, among perceived parental relationship variables, maternal regard ($\beta = .29$, $t[724] = 8.33$, $p < .001$) was found to be significantly related to agreeableness and increased explained variance to 10 % ($F_{change} [1, 724] = 69.35$, $p < .001$). Paternal regard was also found to be significantly associated with agreeableness ($\beta = .16$, $t[723] = 3.65$, $p < .001$) and it increased explained variance to 11 % ($F_{change} [1, 723] = 13.33$, $p < .001$). Among parental relationship variables, maternal unconditionality was the last variable which had significant association with agreeableness ($\beta = -.10$, $t[722] = -2.29$, $p < .05$) and it increased explained variance to 12 % ($F_{change} [1, 722] = 5.25$, $p < .05$). After controlling for parental

relationship, among self-discrepancy variables ought self-discrepancy ($\beta = -.23$, $t[721] = -6.60$, $p < .001$) and undesired self-discrepancy ($\beta = .14$, $t[720] = 4.07$, $p < .001$) had significant relationship with agreeableness. Ought self increased explained variance to 17 % ($F_{change} [1, 721] = 43.50$, $p < .001$) and undesired self increased explained variance to 19 % ($F_{change} [1, 720] = 16.53$, $p < .001$) (see Table 3.27.).

In sum, gender, maternal and paternal regard, maternal unconditionality, ought self-discrepancy and undesired self-discrepancy had significant associations with agreeableness. That is, female participants were more likely to be agreeable compared to male participants. Participants who perceived higher level of regard from their mothers and fathers were more likely to be agreeable compared to participants who perceived lower level of regard from their mothers and fathers. However, participants who perceived their mothers as more unconditional were less likely to be agreeable compared to participants who perceived their mothers as less unconditional. In addition, participants who had lower ought self-discrepancy and participants who had higher undesired self-discrepancy were more likely to be agreeable compared to participants who had higher ought self-discrepancy and lower undesired self-discrepancy scores.

Table 3.27. Variables Associated with Agreeableness

	β	df	t	F_{change}	R^2
Dependent Variable					
Agreeableness					
Step 1: Control Variables					
Gender	-.12	725	-3.11	9.68**	.01
Step 2: Perceived Parental Relationship					
Maternal Regard	.29	724	8.33	69.35***	.10
Paternal Regard	.16	723	3.65	13.33***	.11
Maternal Unconditionality	-.10	722	-2.29	5.25*	.12
Step 3: Self-Discrepancy					
Ought self	-.23	721	-6.60	43.50***	.17
Undesired Self	.14	720	4.07	16.53***	.18

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .005$, *** $p < .001$

3.2.3.2.2.4. Variables Associated with Neuroticism

Hierarchical regression analysis conducted with neuroticism revealed that gender had significant association with neuroticism ($\beta = -.10$, $t[725] = -2.56$, $p < .05$), and explained 1 % of the total variance ($F[1, 725] = 6.56$, $p < .05$). After controlling for that variable, among parental relationship variables paternal empathy ($\beta = -.33$, $t[724] = -9.48$, $p < .001$) and maternal congruence ($\beta = -.17$, $t[723] = -4.52$, $p < .001$) found to be significantly related to neuroticism. Paternal empathy increased explained variance to 12 % ($F_{change} [1, 724] = 89.77$, $p < .001$), and the inclusion of maternal congruence increased explained variance to 14 % ($F_{change} [1, 723] = 20.39$, $p < .001$). After controlling for parental relationship, among self-discrepancy variables undesired self-discrepancy ($\beta = -.31$, $t[722] = -9.24$, $p < .001$) and ideal self-discrepancy ($\beta = .10$, $t[721] = 2.60$, $p < .01$) were found to be significantly related to neuroticism. Undesired self-discrepancy, increased explained variance to 23 % ($F_{change} [1, 722] = 85.29$, $p < .001$), and contribution of ideal self-discrepancy increased explained variance to 24 % ($F_{change} [1, 721] = 6.78$, $p < .01$) (can be seen from Table 3.28.).

Table 3.28. Variables Associated with Neuroticism

	β	<i>df</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>F</i> _{change}	<i>R</i> ²
Dependent Variable					
Neuroticism					
Step 1: Control Variables					
Gender	-.10	725	-2.56	6.56*	.01
Step 2: Perceived Parental Relationship					
Paternal Empathy	-.33	724	-9.48	89.77***	.12
Maternal Congruence	-.17	723	-4.52	20.39***	.14
Step 3: Self-Discrepancy					
Undesired Self	-.31	722	-9.24	85.29***	.23
Ideal Self	.09	721	2.60	6.78**	.24

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

In total, five variables, namely, gender, paternal empathy, maternal congruence, undesired self-discrepancy, and ideal self-discrepancy were significantly associated with neuroticism. Results implied that, females were more likely to be high in neuroticism compared to males. For parental relationship, participants who perceived their fathers as less empathic and their mothers as less congruent were more likely to be high in

neuroticism compared to participants who perceived their fathers as more empathic and their mothers as more congruent. In addition, participants who had lower undesired self-discrepancy and participants who had higher ideal self-discrepancy were more likely to be high in neuroticism compared to participants who had higher undesired self-discrepancy and lower ideal self-discrepancy.

3.2.3.2.2.5. Variables Associated with Openness to Experience

Hierarchical regression analysis revealed that gender was significantly associated with openness to experience ($\beta = .18$, $t[725] = 4.99$, $p < .001$) and explained 3 % of the variance in openness to experience ($F[1, 725] = 24.90$, $p < .001$). As can be seen from Table 3.29., from parental relationship variables, paternal ($\beta = .24$, $t[724] = 6.85$, $p < .001$) and maternal ($\beta = .10$, $t[723] = 2.42$, $p < .05$) empathy were significantly related to openness to experience. Paternal empathy increased explained variance to 9 % ($Fchange [1, 724] = 46.97$, $p < .001$), while addition of maternal empathy increased explained variance to 10 % ($Fchange [1, 723] = 5.85$, $p < .05$). After controlling for parental relationship, all self-discrepancy variables were significantly associated with openness to experience. Ideal self-discrepancy ($\beta = -.35$, $t[722] = -10.23$, $p < .001$) had a significant negative association with openness to experience and increased explained variance to 21 % ($Fchange [1, 722] = 104.55$, $p < .001$). Undesired self-discrepancy ($\beta = .15$, $t[721] = 4.34$, $p < .001$) had a significant and positive relationship with openness to experience with increasing explained variance to 23 % ($Fchange [1, 721] = 18.84$, $p < .001$) and lastly ought self-discrepancy ($\beta = -.14$, $t[720] = -3.91$, $p < .001$) had a negative association with increasing explained variance to 25 % ($Fchange [1, 720] = 15.29$, $p < .001$).

To sum up, gender, paternal and maternal empathy, ideal, undesired, and ought self discrepancies had significant associations with openness to experience. That is, males were more likely to be open to experience compared to females. Participants who perceived their fathers and mothers as more empathic were more likely to be open to experience compared to participants who perceived their fathers and mothers less empathic. Furthermore, who had lower ideal, and ought self discrepancies and higher undesired self-discrepancy were more open to experience compared to

participants who had higher ideal, and ought self discrepancies and lower undesired self discrepancy.

Table 3.29. Variables Associated with Openness to Experience

	β	<i>df</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>F</i> _{change}	<i>R</i> ²
Dependent Variable					
Openness to Experience					
Step 1: Control Variables					
Gender	.18	725	4.99	24.90**	.03
Step 2: Perceived Parental Relationship					
Paternal Empathy	.24	724	6.85	46.97**	.09
Maternal Empathy	.10	723	2.42	5.85*	.10
Step 3: Self-Discrepancy					
Ideal Self	-.35	722	-10.23	104.55**	.21
Undesired Self	.15	721	4.34	18.84**	.23
Ought Self	-.14	720	-3.91	15.29**	.25

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

3.2.3.2.2.6. Variables Associated with Negative Valence

Hierarchical regression analysis run for negative valence, revealed significant associations for both gender ($\beta = .11$, $t[725] = 2.97$, $p < .005$) and age ($\beta = -.09$, $t[724] = -2.24$, $p < .05$) among control variables. Gender explained 1 % ($F[1, 725] = 8.84$, $p < .005$) of the variance and age increased explained variance to 2 % ($F_{change} [1, 724] = 5.83$, $p < .05$). After controlling for control variables, among parental relationship variables, maternal regard ($\beta = -.33$, $t[723] = -9.40$, $p < .001$), paternal congruence ($\beta = -.21$, $t[722] = -5.21$, $p < .001$), paternal empathy ($\beta = .15$, $t[721] = 2.72$, $p < .01$) and paternal regard ($\beta = -.16$, $t[720] = -2.27$, $p < .05$) were found to be significantly associated with negative valence. Maternal regard increased explained variance to 13 % ($F_{change} [1, 723] = 88.35$, $p < .001$) and paternal congruence increased explained variance to 16 % ($F_{change} [1, 722] = 27.15$, $p < .001$). With the inclusion of paternal empathy, explained variance increased to 17 % ($F_{change} [1, 721] = 7.37$, $p < .01$) and paternal regard made a slight but statistically significant change in explained variance ($F_{change} [1, 720] = 5.15$, $p < .05$, $\Delta R^2 = .01$). After controlling for parental relationship variables, undesired self-discrepancy ($\beta = -.22$, $t[719] = -6.61$, $p < .001$) had a significant relationship with negative valence.

Contribution of undesired self increased explained variance to 22 % (F_{change} [1, 719] = 43.72, $p < .001$) (see Table 3.30.).

Table 3.30. Variables Associated with Negative Valence

	β	df	t	F_{change}	R^2
Dependent Variable					
Negative Valence					
Step 1: Control Variables					
Gender	.11	725	2.97	8.84***	.01
Age	-.09	724	-2.24	5.83*	.02
Step 2: Perceived Parental Relationship					
Maternal Regard	-.33	723	-9.40	88.35****	.13
Paternal Congruence	-.21	722	-5.21	27.15****	.16
Paternal Empathy	.15	721	2.72	7.37**	.17
Paternal Regard	-.16	720	-2.27	5.15*	.17
Step 3: Self-Discrepancy					
Undesired Self	-.22	719	-6.61	43.90****	.22

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .005$, **** $p < .001$

Totally, seven variables had significant associations with negative valence, which were gender, age, maternal regard, paternal congruence, paternal empathy, paternal regard, and undesired self discrepancy. Results implied that, participants who were male and younger were more likely to be high in negative valence compared to participants who were female and older. In addition, participants who perceived lower level of maternal regard, lower paternal congruence and lower paternal regard were more likely to be high in negative valence compared to participants who perceived higher level of maternal regard, higher paternal congruence and higher paternal regard. However, those who perceived their fathers more empathic were more likely to be high in negative valence, compared to participants who perceived less paternal empathy. Finally, participants who had lower undesired self-discrepancy were more likely to be high in negative valence compared to participants who had higher undesired self-discrepancy.

3.2.3.2.3. Variables Associated with Resilience

Hierarchical regression analysis run for resilience revealed no significant gender and age association. Among parental relationship variables, maternal empathy ($\beta = .29$, $t[725] = 8.20$, $p < .001$) and paternal empathy ($\beta = .16$, $t[724] = 3.67$, $p < .001$) were

significantly associated with resilience. Maternal empathy explained 9 % ($F[1, 725] = 67.21, p < .001$) of the variance in resilience and paternal empathy increased explained variance to 10 % ($F_{change} [1, 724] = 13.46, p < .001$). After controlling for parental relationship variables, self-discrepancy variables were all found to be significantly associated with resilience. Ought self-discrepancy ($\beta = -.27, t[723] = -7.69, p < .001$) had positive relationship with resilience and increased explained variance to 17 % ($F_{change} [1, 723] = 59.07, p < .001$). Also, ideal self-discrepancy ($\beta = -.21, t[722] = -5.63, p < .001$) had a positive relationship with resilience and increased explained variance to 20 % ($F_{change} [1, 722] = 31.74, p < .001$). Undesired self-discrepancy ($\beta = .10, t[721] = 2.99, p < .005$) had a negative relationship with resilience and it increased explained variance to 21 % ($F_{change} [1, 721] = 8.92, p < .005$) (see Table 3.31.).

In total, five factors had significant relationship with resilience, which were maternal empathy, paternal empathy, ought, ideal, and undesired self-discrepancies. Results implied that, participants who perceived their mothers and fathers more empathic, tend to be more resilient compared to participants who perceived their mothers and fathers less empathic. In addition, participants who had lower ought and ideal self-discrepancies and participants who had higher undesired self-discrepancy were more likely to be resilient compared to participants who had higher ought and ideal self-discrepancies and lower undesired self-discrepancy.

Table 3.31. *Variables Associated with Resilience*

	β	df	t	F_{change}	R^2
Dependent Variable					
Resilience					
Step 1: Control Variables					
-					
Step 2: Perceived Parental Relationship					
Maternal Empathy	.29	725	8.20	67.21**	.09
Paternal Empathy	.16	724	3.67	13.46**	.10
Step 3: Self-Discrepancy					
Ought Self	-.27	723	-7.69	59.07**	.17
Ideal Self	-.21	722	-5.63	31.74**	.20
Undesired self	.10	721	2.99	8.92*	.21

* $p < .005$, ** $p < .001$

Table 3.32. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analyses for Personality Characteristics

	Extra.	Cons.	Agree.	Neuro.	Open.	N.V.	DERS	Resilience
Gender		F	F	F	M	M		
Age						↓		
M.Emathy		↑			↑			↑
M.Regard	↑		↑			↓		
M.Cong.				↓				
M.Uncond.	↓	↓	↓				↓	
F.Emathy		↑		↓	↑	↑	↓	↑
F.Regard			↑			↓		
F.Cong.	↑					↓	↓	
F.Uncond.								
Ideal S.D.	↓	↓		↑	↓			↓
Ought S.D.	↓	↓	↓		↓			↓
Undesired S.D.	↑	↑	↑	↓	↑	↓	↓	↑

Note1. M: Mother, F: Father, Regard: Level of regard, Uncond: Unconditionality, Cong: Congruence

Note2. Arrows show the direction of the relationship. Bold arrows show the variables with the strongest relationship.

3.2.3.3. Hierarchical Multiple Regressions with Psychological Well-Being

Separate hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted to reveal possible significant relationships with psychological well-being variables which were depression and anxiety.

3.2.3.3.1. Variables Associated with Depression Symptoms

Three separate hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted for depression symptoms. Variables entered into the equations via four steps. For all of the analyses the first three steps were identical. In order to control for demographic variables, gender and age were included into first step hierarchically (i.e., stepwise method). After controlling for the significant demographic variables, perceived parental relationship variables (i.e., level of regard, empathy, unconditionality, and congruence) constituted step two. After controlling for the parental relationship variables, self-discrepancy variables, which were ideal, ought, and undesired self discrepancies, were included in step three. For the first analysis, fourth step included difficulties in emotion regulation, for the second analysis basic personality traits was included in fourth step, and for the final analysis the fourth step was resilience.

As the first three steps were identical, results related to these steps were common. According to the obtained results, gender and age had no significant association with depression symptoms. Among perceived parental relationship variables, maternal empathy ($\beta = -.31$, $t[725] = -8.74$, $p < .001$) and paternal congruence ($\beta = -.19$, $t[724] = -4.76$, $p < .001$) had significant relationship with depression. Maternal empathy explained 10 % ($F[1, 725] = 76.42$, $p < .001$) of the variance in depression, while inclusion of paternal congruence increased explained variance to 12 % ($Fchange [1, 724] = 22.67$, $p < .001$). After controlling for parental relationship, undesired self-discrepancy ($\beta = -.29$, $t[723] = -8.55$, $p < .001$), ought self-discrepancy ($\beta = .17$, $t[722] = 5.04$, $p < .001$) and ideal self-discrepancy ($\beta = .11$, $t[721] = 2.99$, $p < .005$) had significant relationship with depression. Undesired self-discrepancy increased explained variance to 20 % ($Fchange [1, 723] = 73.04$, $p < .001$). With the inclusion of ought self-discrepancy, explained variance increased to 23 % ($Fchange [1, 722] = 25.43$, $p < .001$), and the contribution of ideal self-discrepancy increased explained variance to 24 % ($Fchange [1, 721] = 8.91$, $p < .005$).

For the first analysis, fourth step was difficulties in emotion regulation. Results revealed that, as can be seen from Table 3.33., difficulties in emotion regulation was significantly related with depression ($\beta = .34$, $t[720] = 10.25$, $p < .001$) and it increased explained variance to 34 % for depression symptoms ($Fchange [1, 720] = 104.98$, $p < .001$).

Table 3.33. Variables Associated with Depression Symptoms (1)

	β	<i>df</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>F</i> _{change}	<i>R</i> ²
Dependent Variable					
Depression Symptoms					
Step 1: Control Variables					
-					
Step 2: Perceived Parental Relationship					
Maternal Empathy	-.31	725	-8.74	76.42**	.10
Paternal Congruence	-.19	724	4.76	22.67**	.12
Step 3: Self-Discrepancy					
Undesired self	-.29	723	-8.55	73.04**	.20
Ought Self	.17	722	5.04	25.43**	.23
Ideal Self	.11	721	2.99	8.91*	.24
Step 4: Difficulties in Emotion Regulation	.34	720	10.25	104.98**	.34

* $p < .005$, ** $p < .001$

For the second analysis, fourth step was basic personality traits. Results revealed that neuroticism ($\beta = .23$, $t[720] = 6.24$, $p < .001$), openness to experience ($\beta = -.19$, $t[719] = -5.46$, $p < .001$), extraversion ($\beta = -.13$, $t[718] = -3.47$, $p < .005$), and conscientiousness ($\beta = -.08$, $t[717] = -2.38$, $p < .05$) were significantly related to depression. After controlling for first three steps, neuroticism increased explained variance to 28 % ($F_{change} [1, 720] = 38.94$, $p < .001$). Openness to experience increased explained variance to 31 % ($F_{change} [1, 719] = 29.85$, $p < .001$), and inclusion of extraversion increased explained variance to 32 % ($F_{change} [1, 718] = 12.06$, $p < .005$). Finally, conscientiousness made a slight but statistically significant contribution to explained variance ($F_{change} [1, 717] = 5.68$, $p < .05$, $\Delta R^2 = .01$) (see Table 3.34.).

Table 3.34. Variables Associated with Depression Symptoms (2)

	β	df	t	F_{change}	R^2
Dependent Variable					
Depression Symptoms					
Step 1: Control Variables					
-					
Step 2: Perceived Parental Relationship					
Maternal Empathy	-.31	725	-8.74	76.42***	.10
Paternal Congruence	-.19	724	4.76	22.67***	.12
Step 3: Self-Discrepancy					
Undesired self	-.29	723	-8.55	73.04***	.20
Ought Self	.17	722	5.04	25.43***	.23
Ideal Self	.11	721	2.99	8.91**	.24
Step 4: Basic Personality Traits					
Neuroticism	.23	720	6.24	38.94***	.28
Openness to Experience	-.19	719	-5.46	29.85***	.31
Extraversion	-.13	718	-3.47	12.06**	.32
Conscientiousness	-.08	717	-2.38	5.68*	.32

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .005$, *** $p < .001$

For depression symptoms, final analysis was conducted with resilience as the last step variable. Results revealed that resilience ($\beta = -.29$, $t[720] = -8.41$, $p < .001$) was significantly related to depression and it increased explained variance to 31 % ($F_{change} [1, 720] = 70.64$, $p < .001$) (see Table 3.35).

Table 3.35. Variables Associated with Depression Symptoms (3)

	β	df	t	F_{change}	R^2
Dependent Variable					
Depression Symptoms					
Step 1: Control Variables					
-					
Step 2: Perceived Parental Relationship					
Maternal Empathy	-.31	725	-8.74	76.42**	.10
Paternal Congruence	-.19	724	4.76	22.67**	.12
Step 3: Self-Discrepancy					
Undesired self	-.29	723	-8.55	73.04**	.20
Ought Self	.17	722	5.04	25.43**	.23
Ideal Self	.11	721	2.99	8.91*	.24
Step 4: Resilience	-.29	720	-8.41	70.64**	.31

* $p < .005$, ** $p < .001$

In total, maternal empathy, paternal congruence, undesired, ought, and ideal self-discrepancies, difficulties in emotion regulation, neuroticism, openness to

experience, extraversion, conscientiousness, and resilience were significantly associated with depression symptoms. That is, participants who perceived their mothers as more empathic, and fathers as more congruent, those who had less ought, and ideal self-discrepancy and higher undesired self-discrepancy were less likely to be depressive compared to participants who perceived their mothers as less empathic, and fathers as less congruent, and those who had more ought, and ideal self discrepancies and those who had less undesired self-discrepancy. Results for difficulties in emotion regulation meant that participants who had lower difficulties in emotion regulation were less likely to be depressive compared to participants who had higher difficulties in emotion regulation. For basic personality traits, participants who were low in neuroticism and high in openness to experience, extraversion, and conscientiousness were less likely to be depressive compared to participants who were high in neuroticism, and low in openness to experience, extraversion, and conscientiousness. Finally for resilience, results indicated that participants who were high in resilience were less likely to be depressive compared to participants who were low in resilience.

3.2.3.3.2. Variables Associated with Anxiety Symptoms

Three separate hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted for anxiety symptoms. Variables entered into the equation via four steps. For all three analyses, the first three steps were identical. To control for demographic variables, gender and age were entered to first step hierarchically (i.e., via stepwise method). After controlling for the demographic variables, perceived parental relationship variables entered to second step hierarchically. After controlling for parental relationship variables, self-discrepancy variables, which were ideal, ought, and undesired self - discrepancies, were entered to step three hierarchically. For the first analysis, difficulties in emotion regulation was included in the fourth step, for the second analysis basic personality traits were included in the fourth step, and for the final analysis resilience was entered in the fourth step.

As the first three steps of the analyses were identical, revealed results were also identical (see Tables 3.36., 3.37., and 3.38.). According to the results, gender ($\beta = -$

.15, $t[725] = -3.98, p < .001$) and age ($\beta = -.09, t[724] = -2.39, p < .05$) found to be significantly associated with anxiety. Gender explained 2 % of the variance ($F[1, 725] = 15.82, p < .001$) and age increased explained variance to 3 % ($Fchange [1, 724] = 5.73, p < .05$). After controlling for gender and age, from perceived parental relationship variables, paternal congruence ($\beta = -.29, t[723] = -8.28, p < .001$) and maternal congruence ($\beta = -.16, t[722] = -3.5, p < .001$) were found to be significantly associated with anxiety. Paternal congruence increased explained variance to 11 % ($Fchange [1, 723] = 68.57, p < .001$), while the contribution of maternal congruence increased explained variance to 13 % ($Fchange [1, 722] = 12.26, p < .001$). After controlling for parental relationship, from self-discrepancy variables only undesired self-discrepancy ($\beta = -.18, t[721] = -5.23, p < .001$) had significant association with anxiety and it increased explained variance to 16 % ($Fchange [1, 721] = 27.36, p < .001$).

For the first analysis, fourth step was difficulties in emotion regulation. After controlling for the first three steps, difficulties in emotion regulation ($\beta = .35, t[720] = 10.10, p < .001$) was significantly associated with anxiety symptoms, and increased explained variance to 26 % ($Fchange [1, 720] = 101.99, p < .001$) (see Table 3.36.).

Table 3.36. Variables Associated with Anxiety Symptoms (1)

	β	df	t	F_{change}	R^2
Dependent Variable					
Anxiety Symptoms					
Step 1: Control Variables					
Gender	-.15	725	-3.98	15.82**	.02
Age	-.09	724	-2.39	5.73*	.03
Step 2: Perceived Parental Relationship					
Paternal Congruence	-.29	723	-8.28	68.57**	.11
Maternal Congruence	-.16	722	-3.5	12.26**	.13
Step 3: Self-Discrepancy					
Undesired self	-.18	721	-5.23	27.36**	.16
Step 4: Difficulties in Emotion Regulation	.35	720	10.10	101.99**	.26

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

For the second analysis, fourth step was basic personality traits. After controlling for first three steps, only neuroticism ($\beta = .30$, $t[720] = 7.98$, $p < .001$) had significant association with anxiety symptoms and it increased explained variance to 23 % ($F_{change} [1, 720] = 63.71$, $p < .001$) (see Table 3.37.).

Table 3.37. Variables Associated with Anxiety Symptoms (2)

	β	df	t	F_{change}	R^2
Dependent Variable					
Anxiety Symptoms					
Step 1: Control Variables					
Gender	-.15	725	-3.98	15.82**	.02
Age	-.09	724	-2.39	5.73*	.03
Step 2: Perceived Parental Relationship					
Paternal Congruence	-.29	723	-8.28	68.57**	.11
Maternal Congruence	-.16	722	-3.5	12.26**	.13
Step 3: Self-Discrepancy					
Undesired self	-.18	721	-5.23	27.36**	.16
Step 4: Basic Personality Traits					
Neuroticism	.30	720	8.02	64.38**	.23

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

For anxiety symptoms, final analysis was conducted with resilience. After controlling for previous steps, resilience ($\beta = -.15$, $t[720] = -4.26$, $p < .001$) had significant association with anxiety symptoms and increased explained variance to 18 % ($F_{change} [1, 720] = 18.10$, $p < .001$) (see Table 3.38.).

Table 3.38. Variables Associated with Anxiety Symptoms (3)

	β	df	t	F_{change}	R^2
Dependent Variable					
Anxiety Symptoms					
Step 1: Control Variables					
Gender	-.15	725	-3.98	15.82**	.02
Age	-.09	724	-2.39	5.73*	.03
Step 2: Perceived Parental Relationship					
Paternal Congruence	-.29	723	-8.28	68.57**	.11
Maternal Congruence	-.16	722	-3.5	12.26**	.13
Step 3: Self-Discrepancy					
Undesired self	-.18	721	-5.23	27.36**	.16
Step 4: Resilience					
	-.15	720	-4.26	18.10**	.18

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

Totally, gender, age, paternal congruence, maternal congruence, undesired self-discrepancy, difficulties in emotion regulation, neuroticism and resilience had significant associations with anxiety symptoms. That is, male and older participants tend to have less anxiety symptoms compared to female and younger participants. Those who perceived their fathers and mothers more congruent were less likely to have anxiety symptoms compared to those who perceived their fathers and mothers less congruent. In addition, participants who had higher undesired self-discrepancy were less likely to have anxiety symptoms compared to participants who had lower undesired self discrepancy. Furthermore, participants who had less difficulties in emotion regulation, who were low in neuroticism and higher in resilience were less likely to have anxiety symptoms compared to participants who had more difficulties in emotion regulation, who were high in neuroticism and lower in resilience.

3.2.4. Moderation Analyses

In order to assess the moderator roles of personality characteristics (i.e., difficulties in emotion regulation, basic personality traits, resilience) on the relationship between self-discrepancy (i.e., ideal, ought, undesired) and psychological well-being (i.e., depression and anxiety symptoms), 48 moderation analyses were held. Among 48 moderations, the ones that were either not significant or had significant values only at the very extreme level of the variable were not reported in this part of the study. Moderation analyses were conducted by using Process tool for SPSS, which was developed by Hayes and Matthes (2009). In addition, significant interactions were interpreted according to Johnson-Neyman (J-N) technique as suggested by Hayes and Matthes (2009).

3.2.4.1. Moderator Role of Resilience between Ideal Self-Discrepancy and Depression

Moderator role of resilience on the relationship of ideal self-discrepancy and depression was examined. According to the results, whole model was found to be significant ($R^2 = .23$, $F(3, 725) = 70.66$, $p < .001$). The interaction was also found as statistically significant ($B = -0.007$, $SE = 0.0033$, $p < .05$), and critical value was found as 18.3688 ($B = .1871$, $SE = 0.0953$, $p = .05$, 95% CI [0, 0.3743]). Results

showed that when resilience scores were higher than the critical value, the relationship between ideal self-discrepancy and depression was not significant, however when resilience scores were lower than the critical value, the relationship between ideal self-discrepancy and depression was significant and positive (see figure 3.9.). That is, participants, who had lower resilience scores, had higher scores on depression when they had higher levels of ideal self-discrepancy.

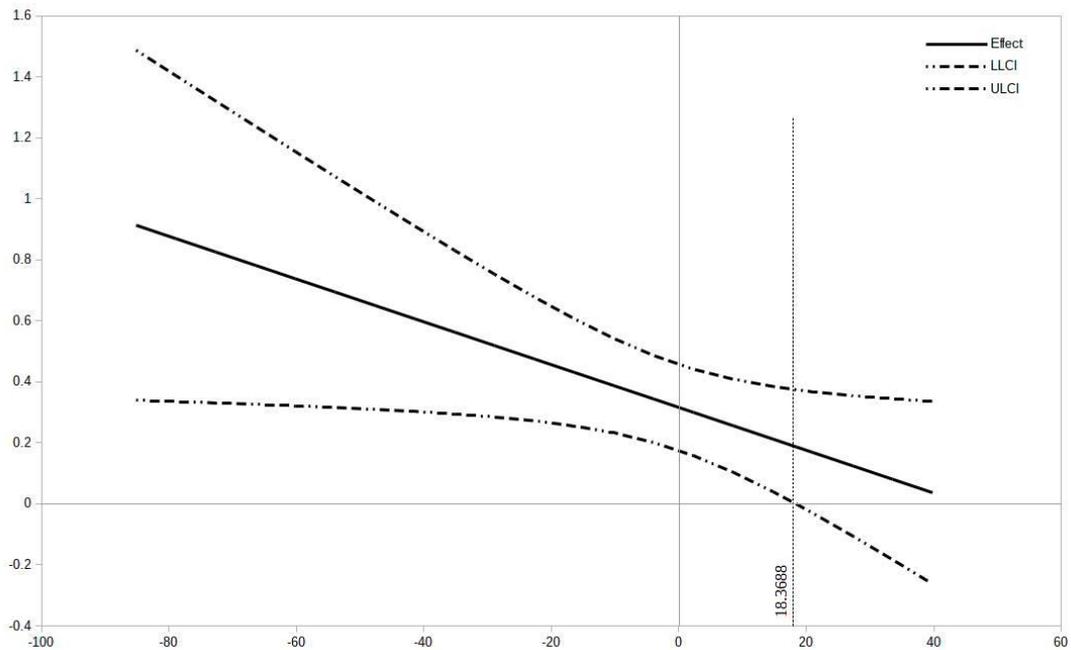


Figure 3.9. Relationship between Ideal Self-Discrepancy and Depression for Different Values of Resilience

3.2.4.2. Moderator Role of Openness to Experience between Ought Self-Discrepancy and Anxiety

The model was found to be significant for the moderator role of openness to experience between the relationship of ought self-discrepancy and anxiety ($R^2 = .06$, $F(3, 725) = 14.93$, $p < .001$). Accordingly, interaction was found to be significant ($B = 0.0694$, $SE = 0.0235$, $p < .005$). The conditional effect of ought self-discrepancy on anxiety transitioned in significance at two critical points as -3.7712 ($B = -.2752$, $SE = .1402$, $p = .050$, 95% CI $[-.5503, 0]$) and 4.6490 ($B = .3094$, $SE = .1576$, $p = .050$, 95% CI $[0, 0.6188]$). Ought self-discrepancy and anxiety relationship was significant and negative when openness to experience was at critical value of -3.7712 and less.

In addition, the relationship was significant and positive at critical value of 4.6490 and up to the maximum value observed. That is, when participants had openness to experience scores lower than the critical value of -3.7712, they had lower scores of anxiety when they had higher scores on ought self-discrepancy. In addition, when participants had openness to experience scores higher than the critical value of 4.6490, they had higher scores of anxiety when they had higher scores on ought self-discrepancy. Lastly, when participants had openness to experience score between two critical values, ought self-discrepancy and anxiety relationship was not significant (see figure 3.10.).

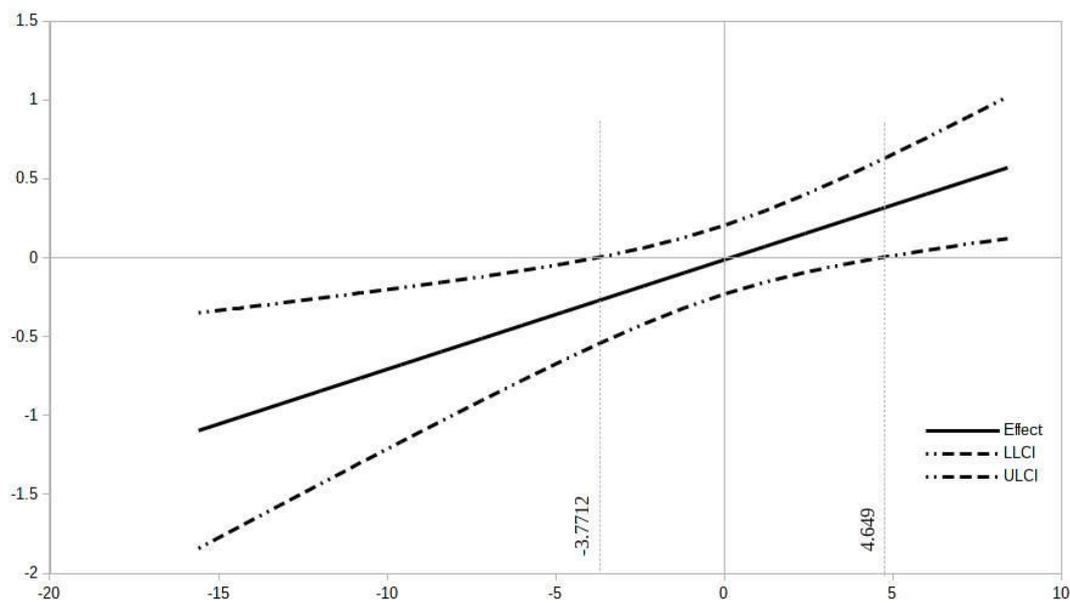


Figure 3.10. Relationship between Ought Self-Discrepancy and Anxiety for Different Values of Openness to Experience

3.2.4.3. Moderator Role of Difficulties in Emotion Regulation between Ought Self-Discrepancy and Anxiety

Moderation analysis results revealed that the model was significant ($R^2 = .21$, $F(3, 725) = 62.47$, $p < .001$). Also, the interaction effect was found as significant ($B = -0.0121$, $SE = 0.005$, $p < .05$). Two critical values were obtained as -23.5153 ($B = .3317$, $SE = .1690$, $p = .050$, 95% CI [0, 0.6634]) and 31.0867 ($B = -.3308$, $SE = .1685$, $p = .050$, 95% CI [-0.6616, 0]). Ought self-discrepancy and anxiety relationship was significant and positive when the critical value was -23.5153 and lower; and the

relationship was significant and negative when the critical value was 31.0867 and higher for difficulties in emotion regulation. That is, if participants had difficulties in emotion regulation scores lower than critical value of -23.5153 (i.e. better at regulating emotions), they had higher anxiety scores when they had higher ought self-discrepancy scores. In addition, if participants had difficulties in emotion regulation scores higher than critical value of 31.0867 (i.e. worse at regulating emotions), they had lower scores of anxiety when they had higher scores on ought-self-discrepancy (see Figure 3.11.).

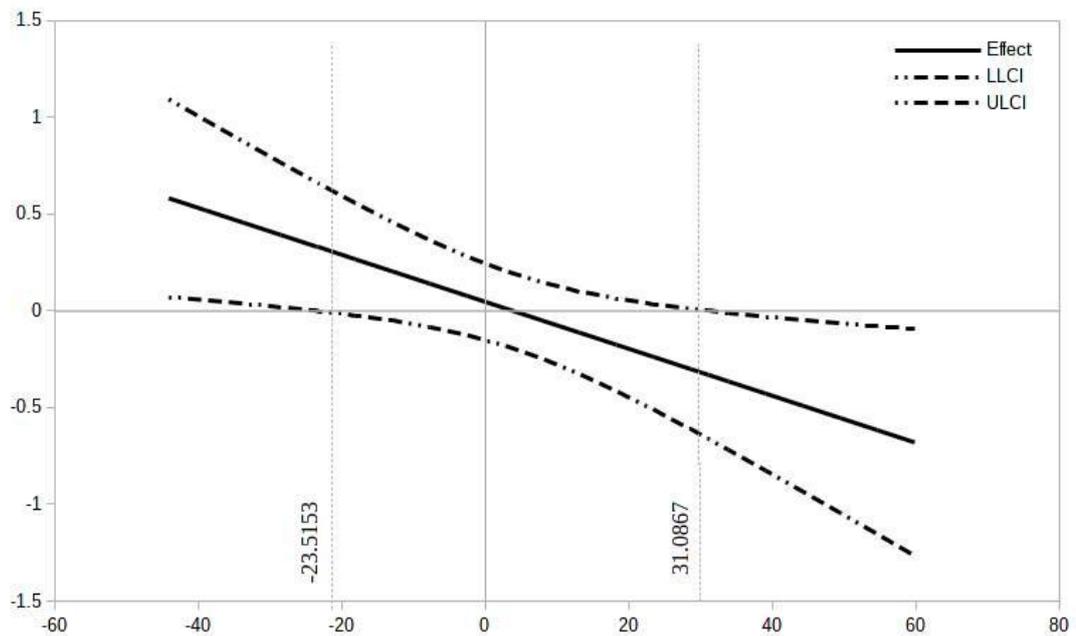


Figure 3.11. Relationship between Ought Self-Discrepancy and Anxiety for Different Values of Difficulties in Emotion Regulation

3.2.4.4. Moderator Role of Resilience between Ought Self-Discrepancy and Anxiety

Moderation analysis results revealed that the whole model was significant ($R^2=.08$, $F(3, 725) = 21.86$, $p < .001$). Interaction was also found to be significant ($B = 0.0172$, $SE = 0.052$, $p < .001$). Results revealed two critical values for the transition of significance as -10.0798 ($B = -.2325$, $SE = .1184$, $p = .050$, 95% CI [-.4650, 0]) and 22.6122 ($B = .3300$, $SE = .1681$, $p = .050$, 95% CI [0, 0.6599]). Ought self-discrepancy and anxiety relationship was significant and negative when the critical

value was -10.0798 and lower, and the relationship was significant and positive when the critical value was 22.6122 and higher. Results meant that if participants had resilience scores that were lower than the critical value of -10.0798, they had lower levels of anxiety when they had higher scores on ought self-discrepancy. In addition, if the participants had higher scores on resilience (i.e., higher than the critical value of 22.6122) they had higher levels of anxiety when they had higher levels of ought self-discrepancy. The relationship between ought self-discrepancy and anxiety was not significant when the participants had resilience scores between these two critical values (see figure 3.12.).

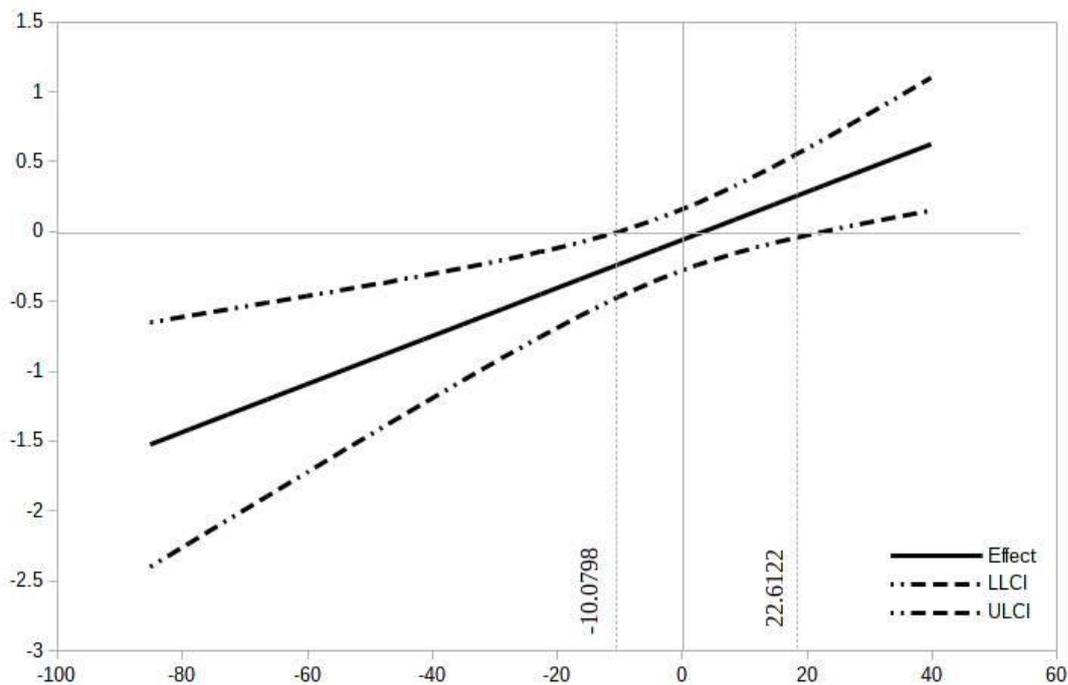


Figure 3.12. Relationship between Ought Self-Discrepancy and Anxiety for Different Values of Resilience

3.2.4.5. Moderator Role of Resilience between Undesired Self-Discrepancy and Depression

According to the results moderation model was significant ($R^2=.28$, $F(3, 725) = 91.97$, $p < .001$). Interaction was also found to be significant ($B = 0.0099$, $SE = 0.0026$, $p < .001$). Results revealed that 23.4571 was the critical value for the transition of significance ($B = -1670$, $SE = .0851$, $p = .050$, 95% CI [-0.3340, 0]).

Relationship between undesired self-discrepancy and depression was significant and negative when participants had resilience scores at the critical value or lower, and the relationship got insignificant when the participants had higher scores on resilience than the critical value. That is to say, when participants had resilience scores lower than the critical value, they had higher scores on depression when they had lower undesired self-discrepancy, but when participants had higher resilience scores than the critical value the relationship was insignificant for undesired self-discrepancy and depression (see figure 3.13.).

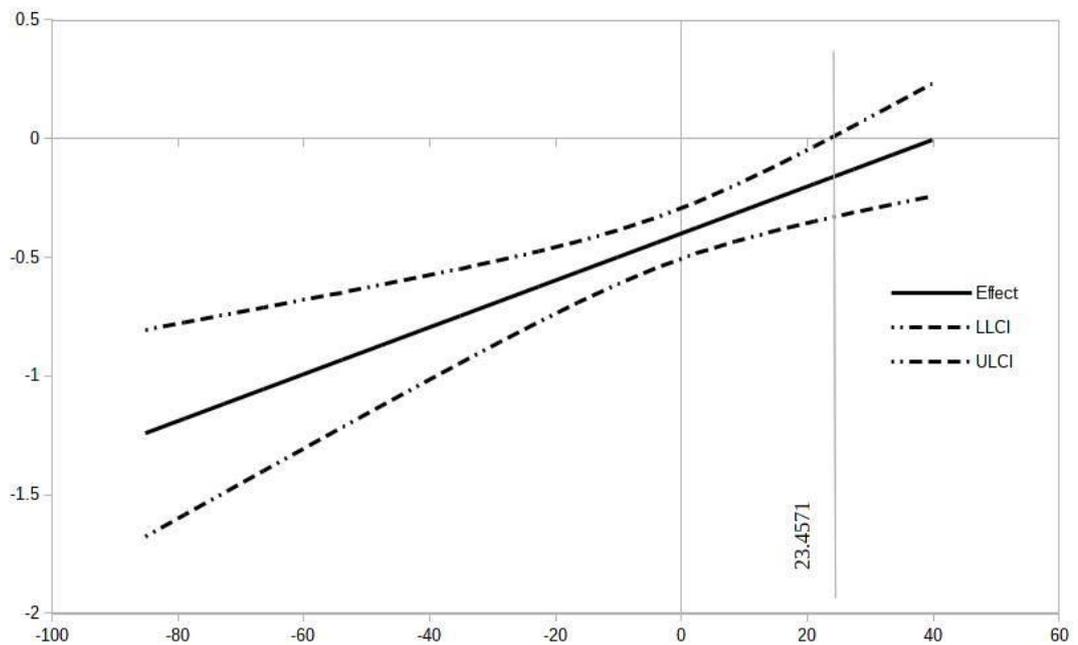


Figure 3.13. Relationship between Undesired Self-Discrepancy and Depression for Different Values of Resilience

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

The main aim of the current study was to investigate the relationships among perceived parental relationship (i.e., level of regard, empathy, unconditionality, congruence), self-discrepancy (i.e., ideal, ought, undesired), emotion regulation, personality traits (i.e., extraversion, neuroticism, openness to experience, agreeableness, conscientiousness, negative valence), resilience, and psychological well being (i.e., depression and anxiety). Firstly, two measures were adapted to Turkish, which were Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory and Integrated Self-Discrepancy Index. The reliability and validity analyses of these measures were conducted. Afterwards, differences displayed by the demographic variables (i.e., age and gender) were investigated in order to understand the influence of the nature of the sample on the measures of the study. In addition, hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to investigate the associations among the variables of the study. Furthermore, moderation analyses were conducted to reveal the roles of personality characteristics (i.e., difficulties in emotion regulation, basic personality traits, resilience) between the self-discrepancy and psychological well-being relationship. In this chapter, findings of the current study will be discussed in the light of the current literature. In addition, clinical implications of the study will be presented. Finally, limitations of the present study and future suggestions will be indicated.

4.1. Findings Related to Psychometric Analyses

Psychometric properties of Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory and Integrated Self-Discrepancy Index were found to be reliable and valid measures. Details were discussed below.

4.1.1. Findings Related to Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory

Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory (BLRI) measures the quality of relationship from the Rogerian perspective. The scale was originally developed to measure therapist-patient relationship but Barrett-Lennard proposed that it can be used for any interpersonal relationships (Barrett-Lennard, 2015). As Rogerian theory is one of the fundamental theories of personality, and with the lack of a parent-child relationship inventory from Rogerian perspective, it was adapted to Turkish within the aim of current study. Therefore, reliability and validity analyses of the measure were held in this part of the study. As BLRI was used to measure perceived parental relationship in the current study, participants completed the questionnaire for both their fathers and mothers. Reliability analyses were conducted for subscales and total scale scores for mother and father forms separately and revealed slightly higher Cronbach's Alpha coefficients compared to previous findings of the English form (Gurman, 1977). Considering the item total correlations of the measure, two items loaded opposite to the original factor loadings. First item was "My mother/father thinks that *I* feel a certain way, because that's the way *he/she* feels", which was an empathy subscale item. Originally the item is a negative one, but loaded positively to empathy subscale in the current study. Considering the Turkish translation of the item ("Benim kendisiyle aynı hissettiğimi düşünürdü"), it was thought that the participants might have understood the item as indicating parallelism between their parents' and their own feelings which is a sign of shared empathy. So the item was decided to be kept as a positive item in this study, but also it was thought that the translation of the item should be improved for future studies (e.g., "Sırf kendisi öyle hissediyor diye, benim de öyle hissettiğimi düşünürdü."). Second item was "My mother/father's attitude toward me stays the same: he/she is not pleased with me sometimes and critical or disappointed at other times", which is an item of unconditionality. Originally the item is a positive one, but Turkish translation ("Bana karşı tutumu değişmezdi: Ya benden hoşlanmaz, ya da eleştirel olur ve benden dolayı hayal kırıklığı yaşardı.") loaded negatively to unconditionality in the current study. Although the item implies unconditionality, it is indeed unconditional negative regard; however other positive items in this subscale all have the meaning of unconditional positive regard. So it was thought that, the problem with the loading of

this item arose from the original item content. Thus, considering the negative connotation of the item, it was decided to be kept as a negative one.

Considering the validity of BLRI, concurrent validity was examined. BLRI and its subscales' correlations with Egna Minnen Beträffande Uppfostran (EMBU), Beck Depression Inventory (BDI), and Beck Anxiety Inventory (BAI) were investigated. EMBU is an inventory which measures perceived parenting behaviours, so it was hypothesized that BLRI and EMBU would be significantly correlated. As expected BLRI and its subscales (i.e., level of regard, empathy, unconditionality, congruence) positively correlated with emotional warmth subscale of EMBU, and negatively correlated with rejection and over protection subscales of EMBU, with correlation coefficients that were mostly high. In addition, BLRI and its subscales all significantly and negatively correlated with depression and anxiety scores, which were in line with the expectations.

In sum, BLRI was accepted to have a good internal consistency reliability and concurrent validity.

4.1.2. Findings Related to Integrated Self-Discrepancy Index

Integrated Self-Discrepancy Index (ISDI) was designed to measure self-discrepancy by integrating the idiographic and nomothetic approaches. In self-discrepancy literature there is an increasing interest in using ISDI to measure self-discrepancy. Thus, within the aim of the current study, ISDI was adapted to Turkish, and reliability and validity analyses were conducted.

To establish the reliability of ISDI, internal consistency coefficients were examined and satisfactory correlations were found that were even slightly higher than original reliability analyses of ISDI (Hardin & Lakin, 2009).

Considering the validity of ISDI, construct, concurrent, and criterion validity of the measure were examined. As ISDI developed mostly on the assumptions of the Self-Discrepancy Theory, construct validity was based on its assumptions as ideal self-discrepancy is uniquely related to depression, and ought self-discrepancy is related to

anxiety (Higgins, 1987). In addition, undesired self-discrepancy was included in this study, which is not specifically in the scope of self-discrepancy theory, but included in many self-discrepancy researches. To reveal the unique relations of self-discrepancies, a series of hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted in line with the Hardin and Lakin's (2009) suggestions. First hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to reveal the unique contribution of ideal self-discrepancy on depression, by controlling all the other related variables (i.e., anxiety, ought self-discrepancy, and undesired self-discrepancy). Results revealed significant unique contribution of ideal self-discrepancy on depression, which was the expected result (Hardin & Lakin, 2009; Higgins, 1987). Afterwards, to reveal the unique contribution of ought self-discrepancy on anxiety, another hierarchical regression analysis was conducted. Results revealed relatively weak significant and negative relationship, after controlling for the related variables (i.e., depression, ideal self-discrepancy, and undesired self-discrepancy). Results implied that people who had higher ought-self discrepancy, had lower anxiety scores. This result can be approached with two different explanations. Firstly, the result is identical with one of Higgins' (1987) first findings. Higgins argued that, this result showed the unique relationship of ought self-discrepancy with anxiety by the explanation of denial. That is, people who had higher ought self-discrepancy had higher anxiety, but as the emotion is so intense they deny their emotions, so they express lower levels of anxiety. However, as second explanation, in literature there are many researchers who found insignificant results for ought self-discrepancy and anxiety relationship (Heppen & Ogilvie, 2003; Ozgul et al., 2003). They proposed that all self-discrepancies are related to negative emotions without specific relationships. Thus, the finding of the current study can be considered as an insignificant result, which is in line with the literature. In addition, there is an increasing consensus regarding the effect of undesired self-discrepancy on both depression and anxiety (Hardin & Leong, 2005; Ogilvie, 1987). In the current study, hierarchical regression analyses conducted with undesired self-discrepancy revealed that undesired self-discrepancy was uniquely associated with both depression and anxiety. That is, findings supported the view that undesired self-discrepancy is a construct which is more

strongly related to negative emotions (Carver et al., 1999; Heppen & Ogilvie, 2003; Ogilvie, 1987).

Since the results of ought self-discrepancy was debatable, additional hierarchical multiple regression analyses conducted with the personality trait of negative valence. It was thought that people might deny their intense anxiety, but might be less resistant to accept their personality traits. With this argument negative valence might have unfold people's unmet social standards, indirectly indicating ought self-discrepancy, though the intense emotion has been denied. Thus, it was expected that ought-self-discrepancy will be uniquely related to negative valence, but ideal self-discrepancy will not. Results were in line with the expectation as ideal self-discrepancy did not have an unique contribution to negative valence, but ought self-discrepancy had unique contribution after controlling for the ideal self-discrepancy and undesired self-discrepancy. In addition, undesired self-discrepancy was also uniquely related to negative valence. Considering the items of negative valence (i.e., pretentious, rude, backstabbing, greedy, hidebound), it is apparent that they are the traits which people would not like to have (i.e., undesired self) and morally try to be distant from (i.e., ought self). So, with the support of these results it can be concluded that ought self-discrepancy is a distinct construct.

To establish the concurrent validity of ISDI, correlations between ideal, ought, and undesired self-discrepancies and basic personality traits were examined. According to the results ideal self-discrepancy was found to be positively correlated with neuroticism and negatively correlated with extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness, and openness to experience. In line with the regression analyses, ideal self-discrepancy was not found to be correlated with negative valence. The highest association of ideal self-discrepancy was found with openness to experience. As people with high openness to experience are known to use problem focused coping strategies (Bouchard, 2003), and tend to find novel solutions to their problems (Weiss, Freund, & Wiese, 2012), and as they are open to their feelings, and thoughts (McCrae & John, 1992) they most probably could identify their ideal self-discrepancies and effectively cope with them. Ought self-discrepancy was found to be significantly correlated with all of the personality traits; correlations were

negative for extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness, and openness to experience, and positive for negative valence and neuroticism. Ought self-discrepancy was most strongly correlated with conscientiousness. As people with high conscientiousness are self-disciplined, responsible, and stuck to moral rules (McCrae & Costa, 2003), and as ought self-discrepancy is related to duty, responsibilities and moral rules (Higgins, 1987), the result is highly meaningful. Lastly, undesired self-discrepancy was found to be positively correlated with extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness, and openness to experience, and negatively correlated with negative valence and neuroticism. The highest correlation was found between undesired self-discrepancy and neuroticism. Neuroticism is known to be the personality factor which is mostly related to negative affectivity and psychological distress (McCrae & Costa, 2003). As mentioned earlier, undesired self-discrepancy is proposed by some researchers to be the most strongly related construct to negative emotions among different self-discrepancies (Carver et al., 1999; Heppen & Ogilvie, 2003; Ogilvie, 1987).

Finally, for criterion validity, analysis was conducted to see if self-discrepancies could differentiate participants in terms of difficulties in emotion regulation groups. All types of self-discrepancies discriminated participants with low difficulties in emotion regulation from participants with medium and high difficulties in emotion regulation. Participants who had lowest self-discrepancies, had lowest difficulties in emotion regulation, indicating that experiencing any level of emotion regulation difficulty is associated with self-discrepancy.

In summary, in this part of the study good internal consistency reliability, and good construct, concurrent, and criterion validity coefficients were established for ISDI. That is, it can be used as a reliable and valid instrument.

4.2. Findings Related to Differences of Age and Gender on Perceived Parental Relationship, Difficulties in Emotion Regulation, Basic Personality Traits, Resilience, Self-Discrepancy, and Psychological Well-Being

In this part of the study, differences of demographic variables (i.e., age and gender), on perceived parental relationship, difficulties in emotion regulation, basic

personality traits, resilience, self-discrepancy, and psychological well-being were presented.

First demographic variable examined was age. In the current study age was categorized into two groups as younger and older. Age of younger group had ranged between 18 and 21, and age of older group had ranged between 22 and 39. The effect of age was found significant only for overall perceived parental relationship with fathers. Younger participants remembered their relationship with their fathers in childhood more positively compared to older participants. As participants in younger group were mostly university students, most of them separated from their families for their education. After the detrimental effects of adolescence on the relationship with their parents, being away from them might have positive effects because of missing their parents, or because of fathers' more positive approach to their children as they miss them. Also, it is widely known that Turkey is a country which is in the transition period from traditionalism to modernism (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1973; 2001). In the traditional culture, fathers are generally distant from their children emotionally. So the participants in younger group might have fathers who are more can more easily show their affection and warmth to their children.

Second demographic variable that was examined was gender. Gender was found to be differentiating total score of perceived relationship with fathers, empathy from fathers, difficulties in emotion regulation in terms of awareness, basic personality traits, undesired self-discrepancy, and anxiety. However, gender failed to differentiate difficulties in emotion regulation, resilience, ideal and ought self-discrepancies, and depression.

Considering perceived parental relationship, gender did not have any effect on differentiating relationship with mothers, but on total score of perceived relationship with fathers and on perceived parental empathy, males had significantly higher scores than females. These findings can be explained as that mothers usually show their nurturance equally to their daughters and sons. However, fathers are much more involved in the relationship with their sons (Starrels, 1994). Especially in traditional Turkish families, sons tend to be more valued than daughters (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1981) and

they are not exposed to strict rules, but, fathers try to overprotect their daughters with some strict rules. In addition, in general communication with fathers was found to be more difficult for females than males (Wallenius, Rimpela, Punamaki, & Lintonen, 2009).

On total score of difficulties in emotion regulation gender effect was not found, but on awareness subscale females were found to have greater difficulties compared to males. In terms of emotion regulation, studies have contradictory findings on the differences of gender. Some studies (e.g., Haga, Kraft, & Corby, 2009) found that females were better at emotion regulation, whereas some of them (e.g., Bender, Reinholdt-Dunne, Esbjorn, & Pons, 2012; Conway, 2005) found females to have greater difficulties in emotion regulation. Females generally are known to use greater emotion expression and verbalizations, and they are usually more in touch with their emotions, so these results actually might be related to that difficulties in emotion regulation may have a greater impact on females because of their greater attention to emotions (Bender et al., 2012). Ironically, to say that “I experience difficulty in awareness of emotions” requires actually some extent of awareness. In addition, difficulties in emotion regulation of females might be related to gender roles as females are generally expected not to express their negative emotions, especially anger. It was found that expression of anger was not hostile or impulsive among girls, but was more withdrawn, which implies that girls put more effort to control their negative emotions, which could turn to overregulation and even suppression of negative emotions (Conway, 2005).

Regarding basic personality traits, females had significantly higher scores on conscientiousness and agreeableness, whereas males had significantly higher scores on openness to experience and negative valence. In the literature, findings regarding the conscientiousness were in line with the findings of the present study. In terms of order, self-discipline, and achievement striving facets of conscientiousness females had higher scores compared to men (McCrae, Terracciano, & 78 Members of the Personality Profiles of Cultures Project, 2005). However, it was also found that achievement striving was higher for women who were in college than men who were in college. But, in later years male adults had higher scores on achievement striving

compared to female adults. This result might be related to traditional gender roles as men are more interested in vocational aspirations, whereas women are supposed to be interested in familial issues. In terms of agreeableness, females were found to have higher scores, especially on compliance (McCrae et al., 2005), trust and tender-mindedness (Feingold, 1994). Agreeableness of women can be explained from evolutionary perspective, women are more agreeable and nurturing because they have been the caregivers of their children, and these attributes favored the survival of their children (Vianello, Schnabel, Sriram, & Nosek, 2013). Also, it might be considered in traditional gender roles as being agreeable and obedient are expected from females. In literature, gender effect was not found on total score of openness to experience, however considering the facets, men were found to have higher scores on ideas facet (Costa, Terracciano, & McCrae, 2001; Feingold, 1994), whereas women had higher scores on esthetics and feelings (Costa et al., 2001). Although there is a lack of direct evidence in literature about the effect of gender on negative valence, male's higher scores on negative valence can be related to socially desirable answers as negative valence items are more gender appropriate for males, moreover being socially accepted might be more important for females.

Resilience was not differentiated according to gender in the current study. As resilience is conceptualized as accumulation of protective factors, studies interested in different protective factors in resilience literature. So within the wide range of these factors gender differences were found different for these different factors and it can be concluded that those who are resilient accumulate a great number of different protective factors regardless of gender (Hartman, Turner, Daigle, Exum, & Cullen, 2009).

Considering self-discrepancy, males had significantly higher undesired self-discrepancy scores compared to females, that is to say males had attributes that are far from their undesired selves, while females had attributes that are closer to their undesired selves. On ideal and ought self-discrepancies gender effect was not found. Undesired self-discrepancy is the representation of one's self at worst. Females' lower undesired self-discrepancy might be due to their current negative evaluation of their self attributes in terms of low self-acceptance and role performances (Harris,

2007). In line with this, lower self-esteem of women might be the cause of lower undesired self-discrepancy scores, however this relationship can also be bilateral, that is to say lower undesired self-discrepancy scores might be the cause of lower self esteem.

Finally, in terms of psychological well-being, females had higher anxiety scores compared to males; however, gender revealed no difference on depression. The finding about anxiety is in line with literature as females generally report higher frequency and intensity of anxiety symptoms compared to males (Bender, 2012; Feingold, 1994). However, it is widely known that females also show higher rates of depression, which was not shown in the findings of the current study. Nolen-Hoeksema (1987) reported in her study that some studies failed to show gender difference in depression especially in more traditional countries. Although she argued that these studies might have serious flaws, Costa and his colleagues (2001) proposed that gender differentiation might vary with culture issues, for example in traditional cultures men and women may not differ in neuroticism, which would lead to undifferentiated results in depression. This proposition of Costa and his colleagues (2001) fits completely to the findings of the current study. However the sample of the current study consists of mostly university students and graduates who might be less traditional, so this inference must be deduced cautiously, but should be kept in mind.

4.3. Findings Related to Hierarchical Regression Analyses

A series of hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted to examine the main hypotheses of the present study. Three sets of regression analyses were conducted to reveal the associates of self-discrepancy, personality characteristics (i.e., difficulties in emotion regulation, basic personality traits, resilience), and psychological well-being in terms of depression and anxiety.

4.3.1. Findings Related to Self-Discrepancy

To examine the associates of self-discrepancy (i.e., ideal, ought, undesired) three separate hierarchical regression analyses were conducted. Variables entered into the equation via two steps. First step included gender and age, and second step included

perceived parental relationship variables. For ideal self-discrepancy results revealed that gender, paternal and maternal empathy, and maternal unconditionality were significantly associated variables. Considering ought self-discrepancy, paternal empathy and paternal unconditionality were found to be significantly related. Finally for undesired self-discrepancy, gender and paternal empathy were significant associates. Females had higher ideal self-discrepancy scores compared to males. This gender difference was not seen in the previous analysis of gender on ideal self-discrepancy, and in this analysis it was seen that the relationship was relatively weak. Similar with the previous result of undesired self-discrepancy, the result can be related to negative self evaluation of females' current attributes or can be related to establishment of high standards. Considering the perceived parental relationship variables, paternal and maternal empathy, and unconditionality were the factors related with self-discrepancies, while parental empathy was the most robust variable. Results revealed that both maternal and paternal relationship variables were related to ideal self-discrepancy of the participants, however only paternal relationship variables were related to ought and undesired self-discrepancies. Ought self guide is considered as a prevention focused strategy with the main aim of security needs. Also undesired self guide can be considered as a prevention focus strategy, as it includes the attributes of people at worst, and people try to avoid. Socialization of prevention focused strategies is mostly related to rules, duties, and obligations within the family (Higgins, 1989). In families, generally the rules are set by the fathers, so the significant relationship between paternal relationship variables and ought and undesired self-discrepancy might be related to fathers' role in the family. In addition, the studies that found stronger relationship between fathers' role in child development and psychological well-being, than mothers' role, is increasing (Lopes, Putten & Moormann, 2015; Van Der Veen & Novak, 1971). So the result of the current study can be an example for the studies that found strong association between paternal relationship and psychological well-being. According to the results, participants who perceived their fathers as more empathic had lower scores on ideal and ought self-discrepancies, and higher scores on undesired self-discrepancy, compared to participants who perceived their fathers as less empathic towards them. Also, participants who perceived their mothers as more empathic had lower ideal

self-discrepancy scores compared to participants who perceived their mothers as less empathic. So, it can be inferred that receiving empathy is an important factor in developing self guide strengths and having lower levels of self-discrepancy, which is in line with the ideas of Higgins (1989), as he proposed that children whose parents are sensitive and responsive will develop stronger self-guides.

Finally, it was found that participants who perceived their mothers as more unconditional, had higher ideal self-discrepancy and participants who perceived their fathers as more unconditional had higher ought-self-discrepancy scores. These findings were inconsistent with the theory of Rogers (1961), as he proposed that unconditional positive regard would lead to lower levels of self-discrepancy. However, studies that used The Barrett Lennard Relationship Inventory for measuring parental relationship found similar results for unconditionality (Van Der Veen & Novak, 1971) and Barrett Lennard himself said that the unconditionality subscale of BLRI had the lowest averages among all subscales (Barrett-Lennard, 2015). Van Der Veen and Novak (1971) argued that parental relationship and relationship with therapist differs in terms of rules as parental control is important for child's socialization, but not an essential factor in the relationship with a therapist. So, these results might be related to the definition of unconditionality, or might be related to BLRI's failure of measuring unconditionality within family relationship. On the contrary, Higgins (1989) proposed that unconditional style of parenting would fail to provide clear information for the child, like which features are valued and which are not valued. Thus, unconditionality in parental relationship might act as highly permissive parental relationship or lack of parental control, which would lead to weak self guides (Higgins, 1989).

4.3.2. Findings Related to Personality Characteristics

Second set of hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to examine the associates of difficulties in emotion regulation, basic personality traits, and resilience. Variables were entered into the equation via three steps. First step included gender and age as control variables. Second step included perceived parental relationship variables, and final step included self-discrepancy variables.

Analysis conducted for difficulties in emotion regulation revealed no significant gender and age effect. From perceived parental relationship variables paternal congruence, maternal unconditionality, and paternal empathy had influences on difficulties in emotion regulation. Congruence is defined as genuineness and openness of the person in the relationship, which leads to lack of conflict between experiences and overt behaviors in the relationship (Barrett-Lennard, 2015). A congruent father most probably will express his emotions and thoughts openly, which would be a healthy model for the child. In addition, with a congruent father child will not be exposed to negative emotions, compared to an incongruent father who would impose the child uncertainty and negative emotions. In Turkish culture, hiding emotions is praised especially for men, so incongruence may be very common in traditional Turkish family. Thus, having a congruent father might lead to successful emotion regulation by being at peace with emotions. Another parental relationship variable that was associated with difficulties in emotion regulation was maternal unconditionality. In literature, unconditional positive regard found to be related to psychological well-being (Lopes et al., 2015) and conditional negative regard found to be related to suppressive regulation of emotions (Roth et al., 2009). If mothers give their regard to their children only in the conditions of desired behaviors, child would most probably learn to hide their negative emotions, which might lead to difficulties in emotion regulation in adulthood. Last parental relationship variable associated with difficulties in emotion regulation was paternal empathy. Previously, research demonstrated that parental empathy has been related to attachment security and emotional openness (Stern et al., 2015). With the help of parental empathy child learns to recognize, label, and describe emotions. In addition, child learns to accept and value his/her emotions (Paivio & Laurent, 2001). In terms of self-discrepancy, only undesired self-discrepancy was found to be related to difficulties in emotion regulation. Previous research suggested that being proximate to undesired self is the most related factor to negative emotions and psychological well-being compared to ideal and ought self-discrepancies (Carver et al., 1999; Heppen & Ogilvie, 2003). People may choose to avoid or suppress these intense emotions, which are indeed unsuccessful emotion regulation strategies.

For basic personality traits six separate hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to reveal significantly associated variables (For the ease of comprehension, summary of results can be seen in Table 3.32.).

Results of regression analyses with basic personality traits revealed that perceived relationship with father was most strongly related to extraversion, openness to experience, and neuroticism, while perceived relationship with mother was most strongly related to conscientiousness, agreeableness, and negative valence. In literature, previous research demonstrated that masculinity had the strongest positive relationship with openness to experience and extraversion, and strongest negative relationship with neuroticism. In addition, femininity had the strongest positive relationships with agreeableness and conscientiousness (Lippa & Connelly, 1990; Zheng & Zheng, 2011). It can be seen that, personality traits which are related to masculinity were all found to be most strongly related with relationship with father, while femininity related personality traits were all found to be most strongly related with relationship with mother. Furthermore, Digman (1997) proposed that personality traits can be grouped under two higher order factor structures as agreeableness, conscientiousness, and neuroticism are involved in stability factor, and openness to experience and extraversion are involved in plasticity factor. Digman (1997) stated that stability factor is related to ability to maintain stable relationships, motivation, and emotional stability, whereas plasticity factor is related to cognitive flexibility and personal growth. Except for neuroticism, it can be seen that personality traits grouped as stability factor were most strongly related to relationship with mother and personality traits grouped as plasticity were most strongly related to relationship with father. In line with these information, findings of the current study implies that personality traits which are related to relationships, emotions, and femininity were socialized with the relationship with mothers, and personality traits which are related to cognitive flexibility, personal growth, and masculinity were socialized within the relationship with father. Moreover, results revealed that personality traits were most strongly influenced from parental empathy and parental level of regard. Level of regard in general corresponds to the notion which is known as parental warmth. From the results of the current study it can be

inferred that level of regard is more important than unconditionality of regard considering the socialization of personality traits. In terms of the influence of self-discrepancies on personality traits, results revealed that undesired self-discrepancy was most strongly associated with extraversion, neuroticism, and negative valence. These three traits are well known to be strongly associated with emotions, as extraversion is related to positive affectivity, neuroticism is related to negative affectivity (McCrea & Costa, 2003), and negative valence is related to self-worth (Gençöz & Öncül, 2012). So, results can be considered to be in line with literature as undesired self-discrepancy was proposed to be highly related with emotions and psychological well being (Ogilvie, 1987). Among personality traits, ideal self-discrepancy was most strongly related to openness to experience. People who are high in openness to experience are in need for variety, they actively seek new ideas, approaches, and experiences. Considering these characteristics of open people, it can be concluded that they are most probably promotion focused, and far away from being prevention focused. As being promotion focused is the main feature of ideal self-guide, it is apparent that people who are high in openness to experience use their ideal self-guides for self-regulation. Finally, ought self-discrepancy was found to be mostly related to conscientiousness and agreeableness. People who mostly use their ought self guides place importance to duties and responsibilities in their life, which is related to other people's evaluations about them. Considering the characteristics of agreeableness (e.g., altruism, responsiveness) and conscientiousness (e.g., dutifulness, sticking to moral rules), people who use their ought self guides might have developed these personality traits to achieve their ought standards.

Final personality characteristic was resilience. Results revealed that maternal and paternal empathy were associated with resilience. In literature it was previously found that parental empathy was positively associated with child's attachment security, and with child's perception of parental warmth (Stern et al. 2015), which in turn leads to prosocial behavior (Richaud, Mesurado, & Lemos, 2013) and increased empathy in child (Sharafat & Zubair, 2013). It can be stated that these positive acquisitions during childhood most probably lead to accumulation of protective factors of the child which ends up with resilience. All self-discrepancy types found to

be significantly related with resilience, while ought self-discrepancy had the strongest relationship. To make it clear, people who had lower ought and ideal self discrepancies, and higher undesired self-discrepancy were found to be more resilient. It can be proposed that, considering the positive influence of parental empathy, accumulation of protective factors may positively affect both self-discrepancy and resilience, while via vicious circle self-discrepancy becomes another protective factor for resilience. People, who accumulated protective factors, may set reasonable goals for themselves, or they can notice the self-discrepancies and engage in relevant behaviors to decrease these discrepancies. It is apparent that all self-discrepancies were related to resilience, but why ought self-discrepancy had the strongest relationship can be answered by the Turkish culture's collectivism as well. As ought self-discrepancy is related to missed duties and responsibilities, people who have low ought self-discrepancy may be the ones who obey the rules, duties, and obligations, which is praised by other people and can lead to increased social support.

4.3.3. Findings Related to Psychological Well-Being

At the final set of hierarchical regression analyses, two separate analyses were conducted to examine significant associates of depression and anxiety. Variables were entered into the equation via four steps. For all analyses, first step included age and gender as control variables. Second step included parental relationship variables and in the third step self-discrepancies were included. In the last step of analyses, personality characteristics (i.e., difficulties in emotion regulation, basic personality traits, resilience) were included into the equation.

For depression, gender and age did not have any significant associations. Insignificant result related to gender was explained in the 4.2. section of the study. Considering the result about age, although literature generally mentioned that depression symptoms declined with aging (e.g., Jorm et al., 2005), in the current study age gap was not that high, which can be the reason for insignificance. However, for anxiety symptoms, both gender and age were found to be significantly related to anxiety as females and younger participants had more anxiety symptoms

than male and older participants which is in line with the literature (Jorm et al., 2005).

From perceived parental relationship variables, maternal empathy and paternal congruence was found to be significantly related to depression symptoms. In addition, paternal and maternal congruence were significantly related with anxiety symptoms. As previously mentioned, parental empathy is associated with attachment (Stern et al. 2015) and adaptive self functioning (Trumpeter, Watson, O'Leary, & Weathington, 2008). Although there is no study that investigated the effect of parental congruence on psychological well-being, Trumpeter and colleagues (2008) found significant effect of parental inconsistency on psychological maladjustment. Parental congruence is referred to as genuineness and openness, and absence of conflict between experiences and overt communication in the relationship with the child (Barrett-Lennard, 2015). It can be stated that if parents are congruent, child will not experience inconsistency between his/her feelings and father's behaviors, and this could lead the perception of father as a more reliable and secure attachment figure. It can be stated that parental congruence was more strongly related to anxiety symptoms in the current study, as both paternal and maternal congruence was significantly related to anxiety. It can be interpreted as that parental incongruence may result in ambivalence in children which will be related to anxiety.

All self-discrepancy types were found to be related with depression, while undesired self-discrepancy had the strongest relationship. Self-discrepancy theory proposed that ideal self-discrepancy is uniquely related to depression (Higgins, 1987), however later researchers demonstrated that undesired self-discrepancy is more important in the relationship with depression as it is more related to experience and less abstract (Ogilvie, 1987). Strong relationship of undesired self-discrepancy with depression was established among both western cultures (Carver et al., 1999; Ogilvie, 1987) and eastern cultures (Cheung, 1997). In terms of anxiety, it was found that only undesired self-discrepancy was associated. Although self-discrepancy theory proposed that ought self-discrepancy is more related to anxiety, it neglected a more powerful variable (i.e., undesired self-discrepancy), and later research demonstrated that undesired self-discrepancy was a better predictor for anxiety compared to ought-self

discrepancy. In addition, it was found that ought-self-discrepancy predicted anxiety only if people were far from their undesired selves (Carver et al., 1999). In line with these findings, in the current study ought self-discrepancy did not relate to anxiety in the presence of undesired self-discrepancy, and undesired self-discrepancy strongly associated with anxiety.

In the current study, difficulties in emotion regulation was found to be significantly related with both depression and anxiety, after controlling for perceived parental relationship and self-discrepancy. In literature it was widely demonstrated that difficulties in emotion regulation is related to almost all psychopathologies, while the relationship is stronger for mood disorders. In addition, it was found that emotion regulation is associated with both the etiology and maintenance of psychopathology (Aldao et al., 2010).

Moreover, current study investigated the relationship between personality traits and psychological well-being. It was revealed that neuroticism, openness to experience, extraversion, and conscientiousness were significantly related to depression, while only neuroticism was found to be related to anxiety. In literature, openness to experience was found to be related to well-being (Weiss et al., 2012) and resilience towards stress (Williams et al., 2009), as people who are high in openness to experience are practical and have ability find novel solutions to their daily problems (McCrea & Sutin, 2009). In addition, it was demonstrated that low extraversion was found to be related to depression (Bienvenu et al. 2004; Hakulinen et al., 2015), as people who are high on extraversion are more likely to be experiencing positive emotions in their everyday life compared to individuals who are low in extraversion (Costa & McCrae, 1980). Considering conscientiousness, it was previously established that lower levels of conscientiousness is related to higher levels of depression (Hakulinen et al., 2015), also considering the facets of conscientiousness self-discipline was found to be significantly related with major depressive disorder (Bienvenu et al. 2004). As mentioned, neuroticism was found to be related with both depression and anxiety. This finding is also in line with literature as neuroticism was the most highlighted personality trait which was found to be highly related to

negative affectivity, depression, and anxiety (Costa & Widiger, 2002; McCrea & Costa, 2003, Vestre, 1984).

Last personality characteristic that was examined was resilience and it was found to be significantly related to depression and anxiety. Resilience was proved to moderate the effect of adversities on psychopathology (Lai & Mak, 2009). In addition, resilience found to be significantly related to depression and anxiety, as resilient people were less likely to have depression and anxiety symptoms (Tan-Kristanto & Kiropoulos, 2015), which is in line with the findings of the current study.

4.4. Findings Related to Moderation Analyses

In this part of the current study, 48 moderation analyses were conducted to reveal moderator roles of different personality characteristics between the relationship of self-discrepancy (i.e., ideal, ought, undesired) and psychological well-being (i.e. depression and anxiety). Only significant results were reported.

For depression, it was found that resilience moderated the ideal self-discrepancy and depression, and undesired self-discrepancy and depression relationships. According to the results when participants had higher scores of resilience ideal and undesired self discrepancies were not related with depression. However, when participants had lower levels of resilience, self-discrepancy in terms of ideal and undesired selves were related to depression, and participants had higher scores of depression when they had higher levels of ideal self-discrepancy, and lower levels of undesired self-discrepancy. As mentioned earlier, resilience was proved to moderate the effect of early childhood adversities (Campell-Sills, Cohan & Stein, 2006) and daily hassles (Lai & Mak, 2009) on current psychiatric symptoms. So, in the current study the positive effect of resilience on well-being has been demonstrated when the vulnerability factors were ideal and undesired self-discrepancies. It may be possible that, resilient people set reachable goals to themselves, or presence of ideal or undesired self discrepancies do not lead to depression, as they know they have the strength to reach their goals.

For ought self-discrepancy and anxiety relationship, openness to experience, difficulties in emotion regulation, and resilience were found to be significant moderators. The pattern of the models were identical with three moderators, as when participants had low or high levels of openness to experience, difficulties in emotion regulation, and resilience, relationship between ought self-discrepancy and anxiety was significant, but when participants had medium scores on these three variables the relationship was found as nonsignificant. Closer look at the results revealed that, when participants had lower levels of openness to experience and resilience, and higher levels of difficulties in emotion regulation, they had lower levels of anxiety when they had higher levels of ought self-discrepancy. In addition, when they had higher levels of openness to experience and resilience, and lower levels of difficulties in emotion regulation, they had higher levels of anxiety, when they had higher levels of ought self-discrepancy. As it is known that high openness to experience, high resilience, and low difficulties in emotion regulation are related to better mental health, results can be summarized as when participants had better mental health they had higher levels of anxiety in the presence of ought self-discrepancy, but when participants had worse mental health they had lower levels of anxiety in the presence of ought self-discrepancy, which were all striking results. Lower levels of anxiety in the participants who had lower mental health may be explained as that, they might have engaged in denial of anxiety in the presence of higher levels of ought-self-discrepancy (Higgins, 1987), but participants who had better mental health might have been aware of their discrepancies and currently striving hard to solve their discrepancies which could explain higher levels of anxiety in the presence of ought-self discrepancy. In addition, Chodorkoff (1954) found similar results with the current study, participants with medium adjustment scores had lowest congruence, participants with highest adjustment scores had highest congruence, and participants who had lowest adjustment scores had medium congruence scores. Except the finding related to highest adjustment group's highest congruence, results were parallel, and Chodorkoff (1954) argued that motivation to change can play a key role in explaining these findings as participants with medium adjustment scores can be motivated to change in a direction that will be more satisfying, where as participants in the lowest adjustment group may not have any motivation to change. These

explanations may fit to the current study as participants who had worse mental health might not have any motivation to change, so the discrepancy they experienced did not provoke anxiety among them. Also, it might be related to their acceptance of their conditions as they do not have faith in themselves for change. Furthermore, as results revealed that among the participants with worse mental health, the ones with the lowest ought self-discrepancy had the highest anxiety scores, it might be speculated that they might had low self-discrepancy because of the fact that they might be highly considering the rules, obligations, and other people's evaluations with the fear of rejection, and they might live according to these rules, which might be all related to their anxious personality.

Finally, it is worth to mention that none of the personality characteristics moderated the relationship between undesired self-discrepancy and anxiety. It can be inferred that the relationship was so robust that none of the variables that were examined in the current study could change the significant relationship.

4.5. Limitations and Strengths of the Study

First of all, results of the current study do not imply causality considering the cross-sectional nature of the study. In addition, parental relationship data was obtained retrospectively, as it is widely known that retrospective measures can be subjected to bias of the participants and can be affected from emotional states of the participants. Solution to this problem can be handled with longitudinal research. Also, results of the current study must be approached considering the sample type. Sample of the current study mostly included university students, university graduates, and graduate students; participants were mostly from middle income group; and they were mostly single. In addition, as participants were mostly university students, current study did not include clinical sample. So, in the future it would be informative to include participants from different age, income, and marital status, and also from clinical population.

Considering the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory, the results related to unconditionality subscale were contradictory. In literature, some studies preferred not

to include the subscale of unconditionality in their research. So, to investigate the role of unconditionality additional research must be held.

Lastly, results considering the moderator roles of openness to experience, difficulties in emotion regulation, and resilience between the relationship of ought self-discrepancy and anxiety were striking, unexpected, and to our knowledge previously not mentioned in the literature. So, results must be approached cautiously and replication of the analyses can be beneficial.

Despite these limitations, current study introduced a comprehensive model by examining the relationships among parental relationship, self-discrepancy, personality characteristics, and psychological well-being. Considering the number of participants ($N = 729$), it was large enough to represent the characteristics of university students sample.

4.6. Clinical Implications

The main aim of the current study was to accumulate information on the associations among perceived parental relationship, self-discrepancy, personality characteristics (i.e., difficulties in emotion regulation, basic personality traits, resilience), and psychological well-being in terms of depression and anxiety symptoms. First of all, Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory (BLRI) and Integrated Self-Discrepancy Index was adapted to Turkish in the current study. BLRI measures the quality of relationship in accordance with Rogerian theory, and this study is one of the very few studies that investigated the relationship of this measure with psychological well-being, personality characteristics, self-discrepancy, and parental relationship from Rogerian perspective. In addition, to our knowledge, this is the first study that examined the moderator roles of resilience and difficulties in emotion regulation between the relationship of self-discrepancy and psychological well-being. Moreover, in Turkish literature self-discrepancy rarely, if ever, has been studied, current study investigated self-discrepancy extensively.

Considering the results of the current study, it can be concluded that parental relationship is highly important in the development of self-discrepancy, personality

characteristics, and psychological well-being. Especially for self-discrepancy it was revealed that the relationship with father was very important. From the relationship types, especially parental empathy and congruence had strongest relationships with psychological well-being. Furthermore, current study demonstrated the effect of self-discrepancies on personality characteristics and psychological well-being, where undesired self-discrepancy had remarkable results. One of the most striking paths was as follows: paternal empathy was the only predictor of undesired self-discrepancy; undesired self-discrepancy was strongly related to personality characteristics; it was the strongest associate of depression among self-discrepancies, and in terms of anxiety undesired self-discrepancy was the one and only predictor among self-discrepancies. In addition, effects of personality traits, difficulties in emotion regulation, and resilience on psychological well-being were well established in literature, and this study replicated the previous findings. Finally, as expected resilience had a protective role between the relationships between ideal self-discrepancy and depression, and undesired self-discrepancy and depression.

Findings of the current study can be an important guide for parental relationship interventions. Highlighting the role of fathers in development of self in terms of goals, and emphasizing the importance of empathy and congruence within the relationship with child can be very crucial. For therapeutic applications, being congruent, empathic, and providing unconditional positive regard is important. Rogers proposed that these relationship variables should be included in all types of helping relationship, as it can provide corrective experience for the client and decrease the deleterious effects of early parental relationship. As current study demonstrated the effects of ideal and ought self-discrepancies, and highly influential effect of undesired self-discrepancy, in psychotherapy processes, modifying self-discrepancies can be an important goal, which in turn would be related to difficulties in emotion regulation, personality traits, resilience, and psychological well-being. Also, considering the moderator role of resilience between the ideal self-discrepancy and depression, and undesired self-discrepancy and depression relationships, interventions focusing on increasing resilience can be beneficial.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Bu çalışma, Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Psikoloji Bölümü, Klinik Psikoloji doktora öğrencisi Derya Gürcan tarafından, Prof. Dr. Tülin Gençöz danışmanlığında yürütülmektedir. Çalışmanın amacı, kişilerin aileleri ile olan ilişkilerinin, yaşadıkları benlik farklılıklarına etkisi ile ilgili bilgi edinmektir. Katılım gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Araştırmada sizden kimlik belirleyici hiç bir bilgi istenmeyecek olup, edinilen bilgiler sadece araştırmacılar tarafından değerlendirildikten sonra bilimsel yayımlarda kullanılacaktır.

Araştırma sonuçlarının sağlıklı sonuç verebilmesi için, yanıtları samimi olarak cevaplandırmanız son derece önemlidir. Doğru ya da yanlış seçenek yoktur. Kendinize en yakın hissettiğiniz veya düşündüğünüz cevabı işaretlemeniz yeterli olacaktır. Ankette genel olarak rahatsızlık verecek sorular bulunmamaktadır. Ancak, herhangi bir rahatsızlık hissetmeniz durumunda anketi doldurmayı yarım bırakmakta serbestsiniz. Araştırma hakkında daha fazla bilgi edinmek istemeniz durumunda Psikoloji Bölümü öğretim üyelerinden Prof. Dr. Tülin Gençöz (Oda: B214; Tel: 210 3131- 5114; e-posta: tgencoz@metu.edu.tr) ya da Derya Gürcan (e-posta: e142481@metu.edu.tr) ile iletişime geçebilirsiniz. Çalışmaya olan katkılarınızdan dolayı teşekkür ederiz.

Bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum ve istediğim zaman yardıma kesip çıkabileceğimi biliyorum. Verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı yayımlarda kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum.

Tarih

İmza

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APPENDIX B: DEMOGRAPHIC FORM

1. Yaşınız:
2. Cinsiyetiniz: Kadın () Erkek ()
3. Eğitim Durumunuz:
 - Okur yazar ()
 - İlköğretim ()
 - Lise ()
 - Üniversite ()
 - Lisansüstü ()
4. Gelir Durumunuz / Ailenizin Gelir Durumu:
 - Düşük ()
 - Orta ()
 - Yüksek ()
5. Medeni Durumunuz:
 - Bekar ()
 - Evli ()
 - Boşanmış ()
 - Dul ()
6. Yaşamınızın çoğunluğu nerede geçti?
 - Köy ()
 - Kasaba ()
 - İlçe ()
 - İl ()
 - Metropol (Ankara, İstanbul, vb.) ()

APPENDIX C: BARRETT-LENNARD RELATIONSHIP INVENTORY

Aşağıda kişilerin diğer bir kişi ile ilişkisinde hissedebileceği duygular ya da karşılaşılabileceği davranış çeşitleri listelenmiştir. Lütfen her maddeyi anne ve babanızla ile olan ilişkinizi ayrı ayrı düşünerek cevaplandırınız.

Her bir maddeyi, aşağıdaki puanlandırmayı dikkate alarak ilişkinizde size ne kadar uygun ya da uygun olmadığına göre cevaplandırınız. Puanları cümlelerin yanında verilen boşluklara yazınız. Tüm maddeleri cevaplandırmaya dikkat ediniz. Puanların anlamları şu şekildedir:

+3: Evet, tamamen doğru olduğunu hissediyorum/düşünüyorum.

+2: Evet, doğru olduğunu hissediyorum/düşünüyorum.

+1: Evet, muhtemelen doğru/yanlıştan ziyade doğru.

-1: Hayır, muhtemelen yanlış/doğrudan ziyade yanlış.

-2: Hayır, yanlış olduğunu hissediyorum/düşünüyorum.

-3: Hayır, tamamen yanlış olduğunu hissediyorum/düşünüyorum.

Anne Baba

1. ____ ____ Birey olarak bana saygı duydu.
2. ____ ____ Benim olayları nasıl gördüğümü anlamak isterdi.
3. ____ ____ Bana olan ilgisi yaptığım ya da söylediğim şeylere bağlıydı.
4. ____ ____ Benimle olan ilişkisinde rahat ve sakindi.
5. ____ ____ Bana karşı gerçek sevgi hissedirdi.
6. ____ ____ Söylediklerimi anlayabilirdi belki ama nasıl hissettiğimi anlayamazdı.
7. ____ ____ Kendimle ilgili mutlu ya da mutsuz hissetmem onun bana karşı olan hislerini etkilemezdi.
8. ____ ____ Benimle olan ilişkisinde belirli bir role girer ya da aramıza engel koyardı.
9. ____ ____ Bana karşı sabırsızdı.
10. ____ ____ Neredeyse her zaman ne demek istediğimi bilirdi.
11. ____ ____ Bazen, davranışlarıma bağlı olarak benimle ilgili normalde olduğundan daha olumlu fikirlere sahip olurdu.
12. ____ ____ Bana karşı gerçek ve içten olduğunu hissedirdim.
13. ____ ____ Onun tarafından takdir edildiğimi hissedirdim.
14. ____ ____ Yaptıklarımı kendi bakış açısından bakardı.
15. ____ ____ Benim ile ilgili hisleri, benim kendimi nasıl yargıladığım ya da kendimle ilgili nasıl hissettiğime bağlı değildi. (Kendiniz ile ilgili hislerinizin anne/babanızın hislerini değiştirdiğini düşünüyorsanız 'hayır' (-1, -2, -3) işaretleyiniz.)
16. ____ ____ Bazı şeylerle ilgili soru sormam ya da konuşmam onu rahatsız ederdi.
17. ____ ____ Bana karşı umursamazdı.
18. ____ ____ Genellikle ne hissettiğimi farkeder ya da sezerdi.

19. ____ ____ Belirli bir şahsiyette bir insan olmamı isterdi.
20. ____ ____ O an söylediklerinin gerçekten hissettiği ve düşündüğü şeyler olduğunu hissedirdim.
21. ____ ____ Beni sıkıcı, ilginç olmayan biri olarak gördü.
22. ____ ____ Yaptığım ya da söylediğim şeylere karşı kendi tutumu, beni anlamasına engel olurdu.
23. ____ ____ Bana karşı farklı hissetmesine sebep olmadan, onu eleştirebilir veya takdir edebilirdim.
24. ____ ____ Beni gerçekte anladığından ve sevdiğinden daha fazla anladığımı ve sevdiğini düşünmemi isterdi.
25. ____ ____ Benimle ilgilenirdi.
26. ____ ____ Benim kendisiyle aynı hissettiğimi düşünürdü.
27. ____ ____ Benimle ilgili bazı şeyleri sever ya da kabul ederdi, bazı şeylerdense hoşlanmazdı.
28. ____ ____ İlişkimize için önemli olan şeylerden kaçınmaz ve bunları görmezden gelmezdi.
29. ____ ____ Beni onaylamadığımı hissedirdim.
30. ____ ____ Söylemekte zorlansam da ne demek istediğimi anlardı.
31. ____ ____ Bana karşı tutumu değişmezdi: Ya benden hoşlanmaz, ya da eleştirel olur ve benden dolayı hayal kırıklığı yaşardı.
32. ____ ____ Bazen ilişkimizde hiç rahat olmazdı ancak bunu görmezden gelerek ilişkimize devam ederdik.
33. ____ ____ Bana sadece katlanırdı.
34. ____ ____ Genellikle, ne demek istediğimi tamamen anlardı.
35. ____ ____ Eğer ona öfkelendiğimi gösterirsem, ya kırılırdı ya da o da bana öfkelenirdi.
36. ____ ____ Benimle ilgili gerçek izlenim ve duygularımı ifade ederdi.
37. ____ ____ Bana karşı arkadaşça ve sıcaktı.
38. ____ ____ Benim düşündüğüm ya da hissettiğim bazı şeyleri dikkate almazdı.
39. ____ ____ Beni ne kadar sevdiği ya da sevmediği, kendimle ilgili ona söylediğim herhangi bir şey ile değişmezdi.
40. ____ ____ Bazen, benimle ilgili gerçekte ne hissettiğinin farkında olmadığını sezerdim.
41. ____ ____ Bana gerçekten değer verdiğini hissedirdim.
42. ____ ____ Tecrübelerimin bende yarattığı hislere değer verirdi.
43. ____ ____ Bazı zaman ya da durumlarda beni onaylardı, diğer zamanlarda ve durumlarda ise açıkça reddederdi.
44. ____ ____ Kendisi ya da benimle ilgili kişisel hisleri de dahil olmak üzere, aklındakileri bana ifade etmeye istekliydi.
45. ____ ____ Beni olduğum gibi sevmezdi.
46. ____ ____ Bazen, belirli bir konuyu aslında önemseydiğimden daha fazla önemseydiğimi düşünürdü.
47. ____ ____ Benim neşeli olmam ya da üzgün olmam beni daha fazla ya da daha az takdir etmesine sebep olmazdı.
48. ____ ____ İlişkimize tamamıyla kendisi gibi olurdu.
49. ____ ____ Onun için onu rahatsız eden, canını sıkan biriydim.
50. ____ ____ Tartıştığımız bazı konularda ne kadar hassas olduğumu farketmezdi.
51. ____ ____ İfade ettiğim duygu ve düşüncelerin iyi ya da kötü olması bana karşı olan hislerini değiştirmezdi.
52. ____ ____ Bazen dışı vurduğu tepkinin gerçekte hissettiğinden çok farklı olduğunu hissedirdim.

53. ___ ___ Beni küçümserdi.
54. ___ ___ Beni anlardı.
55. ___ ___ Onun gözünde bazen, diğer zamanlara göre daha değerli olurdu.
56. ___ ___ Benimle ilgili hislerinden kaçınmazdı.
57. ___ ___ Bana karşı gerçekten ilgiliydi.
58. ___ ___ Bana karşı tepkisi genellikle o kadar sabit ve otomatik olurdu ki, onunla Bağlantı kuramadığımı hissedirdim.
59. ___ ___ Söylediğim ya da yaptığım bir şeyin bana karşı hislerini değiştirdiğini düşünmezdim.
60. ___ ___ Genellikle söylediği şeyler o an düşündüklerine ya da hissettiklerine dair yanlış izlenim verirdi.
61. ___ ___ Bana karşı şefkatliydi.
62. ___ ___ Kırgın ya da üzgün olduğumda, kendisini üzgün hissetmeden, duygularımı anlayabilirdi.
63. ___ ___ Diğer insanların benimle ilgili ne düşündükleri (ya da düşünecekleri) bana karşı hislerini etkilerdi.
64. ___ ___ Bana söylemediği, ilişkimizde zorluk yaratan duyguları olduğuna inanırdım.

APPENDIX D: DIFFICULTIES IN EMOTION REGULATION SCALE

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. <input type="radio"/> Neredeyse hiçbir zaman <input type="radio"/> Bazen <input type="radio"/> Yaklaşık yarı yarıya <input type="radio"/> Çoğu zaman <input type="radio"/> Her zaman
2. Ne hissettiğimi dikkate alırım. <input type="radio"/> Neredeyse hiçbir zaman <input type="radio"/> Bazen <input type="radio"/> Yaklaşık yarı yarıya <input type="radio"/> Çoğu zaman <input type="radio"/> Her zaman
3. Duygularım bana dayanılmaz ve kontrolsüz gelir. <input type="radio"/> Neredeyse hiçbir zaman <input type="radio"/> Bazen <input type="radio"/> Yaklaşık yarı yarıya <input type="radio"/> Çoğu zaman <input type="radio"/> Her zaman
4. Ne hissettiğim konusunda net bir fikrim vardır. <input type="radio"/> Neredeyse hiçbir zaman <input type="radio"/> Bazen <input type="radio"/> Yaklaşık yarı yarıya <input type="radio"/> Çoğu zaman <input type="radio"/> Her zaman
5. Duygularıma bir anlam vermekte zorlanırım. <input type="radio"/> Neredeyse hiçbir zaman <input type="radio"/> Bazen <input type="radio"/> Yaklaşık yarı yarıya <input type="radio"/> Çoğu zaman <input type="radio"/> Her zaman
6. Ne hissettiğime dikkat ederim. <input type="radio"/> Neredeyse hiçbir zaman <input type="radio"/> Bazen <input type="radio"/> Yaklaşık yarı yarıya <input type="radio"/> Çoğu zaman <input type="radio"/> Her zaman
7. Ne hissettiğimi tam olarak bilirim. <input type="radio"/> Neredeyse hiçbir zaman <input type="radio"/> Bazen <input type="radio"/> Yaklaşık yarı yarıya <input type="radio"/> Çoğu zaman <input type="radio"/> Her zaman
8. Ne hissettiğimi önemserim. <input type="radio"/> Neredeyse hiçbir zaman <input type="radio"/> Bazen <input type="radio"/> Yaklaşık yarı yarıya <input type="radio"/> Çoğu zaman <input type="radio"/> Her zaman
9. Ne hissettiğim konusunda karmaşa yaşarım. <input type="radio"/> Neredeyse hiçbir zaman <input type="radio"/> Bazen <input type="radio"/> Yaklaşık yarı yarıya <input type="radio"/> Çoğu zaman <input type="radio"/> Her zaman

10. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, bu duygularımı kabul ederim.				
<input type="radio"/> Neredeyse hiçbir zaman	<input type="radio"/> Bazen	<input type="radio"/> Yaklaşık yarı yarıya	<input type="radio"/> Çoğu zaman	<input type="radio"/> Her zaman
11. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, böyle hissettiğim için kendime kızırım.				
<input type="radio"/> Neredeyse hiçbir zaman	<input type="radio"/> Bazen	<input type="radio"/> Yaklaşık yarı yarıya	<input type="radio"/> Çoğu zaman	<input type="radio"/> Her zaman
12. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, böyle hissettiğim için utanırım.				
<input type="radio"/> Neredeyse hiçbir zaman	<input type="radio"/> Bazen	<input type="radio"/> Yaklaşık yarı yarıya	<input type="radio"/> Çoğu zaman	<input type="radio"/> Her zaman
13. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, işlerimi yapmakta zorlanırım.				
<input type="radio"/> Neredeyse hiçbir zaman	<input type="radio"/> Bazen	<input type="radio"/> Yaklaşık yarı yarıya	<input type="radio"/> Çoğu zaman	<input type="radio"/> Her zaman
14. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, kontrolümü kaybederim.				
<input type="radio"/> Neredeyse hiçbir zaman	<input type="radio"/> Bazen	<input type="radio"/> Yaklaşık yarı yarıya	<input type="radio"/> Çoğu zaman	<input type="radio"/> Her zaman
15. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, uzun süre böyle kalacağıma inanırım.				
<input type="radio"/> Neredeyse hiçbir zaman	<input type="radio"/> Bazen	<input type="radio"/> Yaklaşık yarı yarıya	<input type="radio"/> Çoğu zaman	<input type="radio"/> Her zaman
16. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, sonuç olarak yoğun depresif duygular içinde olacağıma inanırım.				
<input type="radio"/> Neredeyse hiçbir zaman	<input type="radio"/> Bazen	<input type="radio"/> Yaklaşık yarı yarıya	<input type="radio"/> Çoğu zaman	<input type="radio"/> Her zaman
17. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, duygularımın yerinde ve önemli olduğuna inanırım.				
<input type="radio"/> Neredeyse hiçbir zaman	<input type="radio"/> Bazen	<input type="radio"/> Yaklaşık yarı yarıya	<input type="radio"/> Çoğu zaman	<input type="radio"/> Her zaman
18. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, başka şeylere odaklanmakta zorlanırım.				
<input type="radio"/> Neredeyse hiçbir zaman	<input type="radio"/> Bazen	<input type="radio"/> Yaklaşık yarı yarıya	<input type="radio"/> Çoğu zaman	<input type="radio"/> Her zaman
19. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, kendimi kontrolden çıkmış hissederim.				
<input type="radio"/> Neredeyse hiçbir zaman	<input type="radio"/> Bazen	<input type="radio"/> Yaklaşık yarı yarıya	<input type="radio"/> Çoğu zaman	<input type="radio"/> Her zaman
20. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, halen işlerimi sürdürebilirim.				
<input type="radio"/> Neredeyse hiçbir zaman	<input type="radio"/> Bazen	<input type="radio"/> Yaklaşık yarı yarıya	<input type="radio"/> Çoğu zaman	<input type="radio"/> Her zaman
21. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, bu duygumdan dolayı kendimden utanırım.				
<input type="radio"/> Neredeyse hiçbir zaman	<input type="radio"/> Bazen	<input type="radio"/> Yaklaşık yarı yarıya	<input type="radio"/> Çoğu zaman	<input type="radio"/> Her zaman

22. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, eninde sonunda kendimi daha iyi hissetmenin bir yolunu bulacağımı bilirim.	<input type="radio"/> Neredeyse hiçbir zaman	<input type="radio"/> Bazen	<input type="radio"/> Yaklaşık yarı yarıya	<input type="radio"/> Çoğu zaman	<input type="radio"/> Her zaman
23. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, zayıf biri olduğum duygusuna kapılıyorum.	<input type="radio"/> Neredeyse hiçbir zaman	<input type="radio"/> Bazen	<input type="radio"/> Yaklaşık yarı yarıya	<input type="radio"/> Çoğu zaman	<input type="radio"/> Her zaman
24. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, davranışlarımı kontrol altında tutabileceğimi hissederim.	<input type="radio"/> Neredeyse hiçbir zaman	<input type="radio"/> Bazen	<input type="radio"/> Yaklaşık yarı yarıya	<input type="radio"/> Çoğu zaman	<input type="radio"/> Her zaman
25. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, böyle hissettiğim için suçluluk duyarım.	<input type="radio"/> Neredeyse hiçbir zaman	<input type="radio"/> Bazen	<input type="radio"/> Yaklaşık yarı yarıya	<input type="radio"/> Çoğu zaman	<input type="radio"/> Her zaman
26. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, konsantre olmakta zorlanırım.	<input type="radio"/> Neredeyse hiçbir zaman	<input type="radio"/> Bazen	<input type="radio"/> Yaklaşık yarı yarıya	<input type="radio"/> Çoğu zaman	<input type="radio"/> Her zaman
27. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, davranışlarımı kontrol etmekte zorlanırım.	<input type="radio"/> Neredeyse hiçbir zaman	<input type="radio"/> Bazen	<input type="radio"/> Yaklaşık yarı yarıya	<input type="radio"/> Çoğu zaman	<input type="radio"/> Her zaman
28. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, daha iyi hissetmem için yapacağım hiç bir şey olmadığına inanırım.	<input type="radio"/> Neredeyse hiçbir zaman	<input type="radio"/> Bazen	<input type="radio"/> Yaklaşık yarı yarıya	<input type="radio"/> Çoğu zaman	<input type="radio"/> Her zaman
29. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, böyle hissettiğim için kendimden rahatsız olurum.	<input type="radio"/> Neredeyse hiçbir zaman	<input type="radio"/> Bazen	<input type="radio"/> Yaklaşık yarı yarıya	<input type="radio"/> Çoğu zaman	<input type="radio"/> Her zaman
30. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, kendim için çok fazla endişelenmeye başlarım.	<input type="radio"/> Neredeyse hiçbir zaman	<input type="radio"/> Bazen	<input type="radio"/> Yaklaşık yarı yarıya	<input type="radio"/> Çoğu zaman	<input type="radio"/> Her zaman
31. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, kendimi bu duyguya bırakmaktan başka yapabileceğim birşey olmadığına inanırım.	<input type="radio"/> Neredeyse hiçbir zaman	<input type="radio"/> Bazen	<input type="radio"/> Yaklaşık yarı yarıya	<input type="radio"/> Çoğu zaman	<input type="radio"/> Her zaman
32. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, davranışlarım üzerindeki kontrolümü kaybederim.	<input type="radio"/> Neredeyse hiçbir zaman	<input type="radio"/> Bazen	<input type="radio"/> Yaklaşık yarı yarıya	<input type="radio"/> Çoğu zaman	<input type="radio"/> Her zaman

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

- Neredeyse hiçbir zaman Bazen Yaklaşık yarı yarıya Çoğu zaman Her zaman

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

- Neredeyse hiçbir zaman Bazen Yaklaşık yarı yarıya Çoğu zaman Her zaman

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

- Neredeyse hiçbir zaman Bazen Yaklaşık yarı yarıya Çoğu zaman Her zaman

36. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, duygularım dayanılmaz olur.

- Neredeyse hiçbir zaman Bazen Yaklaşık yarı yarıya Çoğu zaman Her zaman

**APPENDIX E: EGNA MINNEN BETRAFFANDE UPPFOSTRAN- MY
MEMORIES OF UPBRINGING (S-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.

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

	Hiç bir zaman	Arada sırada	Sık sık	Her zaman
Anne	1	2	3	4
Baba	1	2	3	4

2. Anne ve babam beni överlerdi.

	Hiç bir zaman	Arada sırada	Sık sık	Her zaman
Anne	1	2	3	4
Baba	1	2	3	4

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

	Hiç bir zaman	Arada sırada	Sık sık	Her zaman
Anne	1	2	3	4
Baba	1	2	3	4

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

	Hiç bir zaman	Arada sırada	Sık sık	Her zaman
Anne	1	2	3	4
Baba	1	2	3	4

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

	Hiç bir zaman	Arada sırada	Sık sık	Her zaman
Anne	1	2	3	4
Baba	1	2	3	4

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

	Hiç bir zaman	Arada sırada	Sık sık	Her zaman
Anne	1	2	3	4
Baba	1	2	3	4

7. Anne ve babam, beni başkalarının önünde eleştirirlerdi.

	Hiç bir zaman	Arada sırada	Sık sık	Her zaman
Anne	1	2	3	4
Baba	1	2	3	4

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

	Hiç bir zaman	Arada sırada	Sık sık	Her zaman
Anne	1	2	3	4
Baba	1	2	3	4

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

	Hiç bir zaman	Arada sırada	Sık sık	Her zaman
Anne	1	2	3	4
Baba	1	2	3	4

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

	Hiç bir zaman	Arada sırada	Sık sık	Her zaman
Anne	1	2	3	4
Baba	1	2	3	4

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

	Hiç bir zaman	Arada sırada	Sık sık	Her zaman
Anne	1	2	3	4
Baba	1	2	3	4

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

	Hiç bir zaman	Arada sırada	Sık sık	Her zaman
Anne	1	2	3	4
Baba	1	2	3	4

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

	Hiç bir zaman	Arada sırada	Sık sık	Her zaman
Anne	1	2	3	4
Baba	1	2	3	4

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

	Hiç bir zaman	Arada sırada	Sık sık	Her zaman
Anne	1	2	3	4
Baba	1	2	3	4

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

	Hiç bir zaman	Arada sırada	Sık sık	Her zaman
Anne	1	2	3	4
Baba	1	2	3	4

16. Anne ve babam, kendimden utanmama neden olurlardı.

	Hiç bir zaman	Arada sırada	Sık sık	Her zaman
Anne	1	2	3	4
Baba	1	2	3	4

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

	Hiç bir zaman	Arada sırada	Sık sık	Her zaman
Anne	1	2	3	4
Baba	1	2	3	4

18. Anne ve babamın, yaptığım herşeye karıştıklarını hissedirdim.

	Hiç bir zaman	Arada sırada	Sık sık	Her zaman
Anne	1	2	3	4
Baba	1	2	3	4

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

	Hiç bir zaman	Arada sırada	Sık sık	Her zaman
Anne	1	2	3	4
Baba	1	2	3	4

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

	Hiç bir zaman	Arada sırada	Sık sık	Her zaman
Anne	1	2	3	4
Baba	1	2	3	4

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

	Hiç bir zaman	Arada sırada	Sık sık	Her zaman
Anne	1	2	3	4
Baba	1	2	3	4

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

	Hiç bir zaman	Arada sırada	Sık sık	Her zaman
Anne	1	2	3	4
Baba	1	2	3	4

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

	Hiç bir zaman	Arada sırada	Sık sık	Her zaman
Anne	1	2	3	4
Baba	1	2	3	4

APPENDIX F: RESILIENCE SCALE

Yönerge: Aşağıdaki ifadeleri dikkatlice okuyunuz. Ölçek her bir ifade için “HİÇ KATILMIYORUM”dan-“TAMAMEN KATILIYORUM”a kadar yayılan YEDİ dereceli bir değerlendirme yapmanızı gerektirmektedir. Her ifadenin sizin için ne kadar uygun olduğunu yan tarafta verilen derecelendirme kısmında, uygun ifade doğrultusunda işaretleyiniz. İşaretlerin gerçek durumu yansıtması şartı ile uygun rakamın üstüne çarpı konması, yuvarlak içine alınması ya da üzeri çizilmesi gibi tarz farklılıklarının hiçbir önemi yoktur.

No	Madde	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kısmen Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Kısmen Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1	Yaptığım planlara uyarım	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	İşlerin bir şekilde üstesinden gelirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Bir başkasından çok kendime güvenirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Birşeylerle ilgili olmak benim için önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Gerektiğinde kendi başıma ayakta kalabilirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Hayatta başardıklarımla gurur duyarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Genellikle ileriye dönük düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Kendimle barışık biriyim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Zaman içinde birçok şeyi yapabileceğimi düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Kararlı biriyim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	Olayların ayrıntılarını genellikle merak etmem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	İşleri zamanında yaparım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	Disiplinli biriyim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	Birçok şeyle ilgili biriyim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	Çoğu zaman gülecek bir şey bulurum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

16	Zor durumlarda kendime olan güvenim bana güç verir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	Zor durumlarda insanların genellikle güvenebileceği biriyim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	Genellikle bir duruma değişik açılardan bakabilirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	İstesem de istemesem de bazen yapmak istediğim/istemediğim şeylere kendimi ayarlarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	Hayatımın bir anlamı vardır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21	Hakkında bir şey yapamayacağım konulara takılıp kalmam.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22	Zor bir durumdaysam genellikle bir çıkış yolu bulabilirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23	Yapmak zorunda olduklarım için yeterli enerjiye sahibimdir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24	Beni istemeyen insanların olması benim için problem değildir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX G: INTEGRATED SELF-DISCREPANCY INDEX

Bir sonraki sayfada size uygun olduğunu düşündüğünüz bazı özellikleri sıralamanız istenecektir. Üç farklı benlik için ayrı listeler yapmanız gerekmektedir.

- İdeal benlik: İdeal olarak sahip olmak istediğiniz özelliklerdir. Sahip olmak istediğiniz, dilediğiniz, umut ettiğiniz kişilik özellikleri ideal benliğinizi oluşturur.
- Zaruri benlik: Sahip olmanız gerektiğini düşündüğünüz özelliklerdir. Görev, zorunluluk, sorumluluk ya da ahlaki olarak sahip olmanız gerektiğini düşündüğünüz özellikler zaruri benliğinizi oluşturur.
- İstenmeyen benlik: Sahip olmak istemediğiniz özellikler istenmeyen benliğinizi oluşturur.

İdeal benlik ve Zaruri benlik arasındaki fark: Örneğin, bir kişi bir gün zengin olmayı arzuluyor, umut ediyorsa, bu kendisi için ulaşmak istediği bir hedeftir. Yani zengin olmak bu kişinin 'İdeal benliği'ne ait bir özelliktir. Fakat kişi kendisini görev ve sorumluluk olarak zengin olmak zorunda hissediyorsa, zengin olmak 'Zaruri benliği'ne ait bir özelliktir denebilir.

Her bir liste için, sıralamanız gereken özellikleri dikkatlice düşününüz. Özellikleri sıralarken, dilediğiniz kelimeleri kullanabilirsiniz.

Lütfen İdeal olarak sahip olmak istediğiniz, sahip olmayı dilediğiniz, umut ettiğiniz özellikleri sıralayınız.

Daha sonra bu	<input type="checkbox"/>	İdeal benlik 1: _____
kutucukları	<input type="checkbox"/>	İdeal benlik 2: _____
doldurmanız	<input type="checkbox"/>	İdeal benlik 3: _____
istenecektir. O	<input type="checkbox"/>	İdeal benlik 4: _____
zamana kadar	<input type="checkbox"/>	İdeal benlik 5: _____
lütfen	<input type="checkbox"/>	
önemsemeyini	<input type="checkbox"/>	
z.	<input type="checkbox"/>	

Lütfen görev, zorunluluk, sorumluluk ya da ahlaki olarak sahip olmanız gerektiğini (zorunlu olduğunu) düşündüğünüz özellikleri sıralayınız.

<input type="checkbox"/>	Zaruri benlik 1: _____
<input type="checkbox"/>	Zaruri benlik 2: _____
<input type="checkbox"/>	Zaruri benlik 3: _____
<input type="checkbox"/>	Zaruri benlik 4: _____
<input type="checkbox"/>	Zaruri benlik 5: _____

Lütfen sahip olmak istemediğiniz ya da sahip olmaktan korktuğunuz özellikleri sıralayınız.

<input type="checkbox"/>	İstenmeyen benlik 1: _____
<input type="checkbox"/>	İstenmeyen benlik 2: _____
<input type="checkbox"/>	İstenmeyen benlik 3: _____
<input type="checkbox"/>	İstenmeyen benlik 4: _____
<input type="checkbox"/>	İstenmeyen benlik 5: _____

Yönerge: Şimdiye dek üç farklı benlik türünde beşer adet kişilik özelliği listelemiş olmanız gerekmektedir. Eğer bir önceki sayfadaki her bir benlik türünde beşer adet (toplamda 15 adet) özellik yazamadıysanız lütfen aşağıda listelenmiş kelimelere bakınız ve size uygun olabilecek özellikleri seçerek listenizi tamamlayınız. Ayrıca, eğer kendi yazmış olduğunuz özelliklerdence aşağıda listelenmiş olanlardan herhangi birinin size daha uygun olduğunu düşünüyorsanız, daha önce yazmış olduğunuz özelliğin üzerini çizerek yeni seçtiğiniz kelimeyi yazarak değiştirebilirsiniz. Kendinizi bu listede yer alan özelliklerle sınırlandırmanız gerekmemektedir. Eğer liste aklınıza başka özellikler getirdiyse, onları yazmakta serbestsiniz. Listenizi tamamladıktan sonra, anketi doldurmaya devam edebilirsiniz.

Agresif	Huysuz	Yardımsız	Ahlaklı	Duyarlı
Hırslı	Sağduyulu	Komik	Evhamlı	Duyusal
Canayakın	Ayrımcı	Taklitçi	Kayıtsız	Gözü açık
Kadirşinas	Saygısız	Kusurlu	Kendine güveni olmayan	Utangaç
Artistik	Otoriter	Özgür	Normal	Enerjik
Çekingen	Hevesli	Marifetli	İtaatkar	Kindar
Patronluk taslayan	Ağırbaşlı	Yaratıcı	Nazik	Hassas
Dahi	Yeterli	İyi kalpli	İnatçı	Hoşgörülü
Tedbirli	Egoist	Tembel	Açık görüşlü	Zorlu
Çocuksu	Eğlenceli	Mantıklı	Kendine aşırı güvenen	Baş belası
Aklı başında	Kıskanç	Dengeli	Sezgileri kuvvetli	Güvenilir
Budala	Etik	Yalnız	Karamsar	Kültürsüz
Takıntılı	Hayat dolu	Geveze	Önemsiz	Kaba
Kibirli	Modaya uyan	Cimri	Felsefi	Nezaketsiz
Uyumlu	Gözükara	İşgüzar	Sevimli	Öngörülemez
Soğukkanlı	Etkileyici	Uysal	Atik	Güvenilmez
İçten	Aklı havada	Dağınık	Radikal	Fedakar
Kültürlü	Hassas	Sistemli	Akıllı	Sıradan
Kurnaz	Dedikoducu	İlimli	Saf	Yalancı
Meraklı	Kolay aldanan	Modern	Entrikacı	Bilge
Hilekar	Duyarsız	Mütevazı	Küçümseyen	Zeki

Toplamda 15 adet özelliği tamamladıysanız, bir sonraki sayfaya geçiniz.

Yönerge: Şimdi ise sayfa 13'teki doldurmuş olduğunuz özelliklerin yanındaki kutucukları doldurmanız istenecektir. Şu an, gerçekte sahip olduğunuz özellikler ile listelemiş olduğunuz özelliklerin ne kadar uyumlu olduğunu puanlamanız istenmektedir. Puanlamayı yaparken aşağıdaki ölçeği göz önünde bulundurunuz ve her bir özelliğin size ne kadar uygun olduğunu düşünerek yanına uygun rakamı yazınız.

Bana hiç uymuyor	Bana çok az uyuyor	Bana bir miktar uyuyor	Bana oldukça uyuyor	Bana tamamen uyuyor
1	2	3	4	5

- Bu sayfada hiç bir işaretleme yapmayınız. Cevaplandırmanızı sayfa 13'te yapınız.

APPENDIX H: BASIC PERSONALITY TRAITS INVENTORY

YÖNERGE:

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

Örneğin;

Kendimi biri olarak görüyorum.

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

APPENDIX I: BECK DEPRESSION INVENTORY

Aşağıda, kişilerin ruh durumlarını ifade ederken kullandıkları bazı cümleler verilmiştir. Her madde, bir çeşit ruh durumunu anlatmaktadır. Her maddede o duygu durumunun derecesini belirleyen 4 seçenek vardır. Lütfen bu seçenekleri dikkatlice okuyunuz. Son bir hafta içindeki (şu an dahil) kendi duygu durumunuzu göz önünde bulundurarak, size uygun olan ifadeyi bulunuz. Daha sonra, o madde numarasının karşısında, size uygun ifadeye karşılık gelen seçeneği bulup 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 başarısızlığım olduğunu görüyorum.
d) Kendimi tümüyle başarısız bir insan olarak görüyorum.
4. a) Herşeyden eskisi kadar zevk alabiliyorum.
b) Herşeyden eskisi kadar zevk alamıyorum.
c) Artık hiçbirşeyden gerçek bir zevk alamıyorum.
d) Bana zevk veren hiçbir şey yok. Herşey 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 cezalandırılabilceğimi 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 her 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 bulursam kendimi öldürürdüm.
10. a) Her zamankinden daha fazla ağladığımı sanmıyorum.
b) Eskisine göre şu sıralarda daha fazla ağlıyorum.
c) Şu sıralar 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 sıralar 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 herşey beni yoruyor.
d) Öyle yorgunum ki hiçbirşey 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 beş kilodan fazla kaybettim.
d) Son zamanlarda yedi kilodan fazla kaybettim.
- Daha az yiyerek kilo kaybetmeye çalışıyorum. 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 birşey düşünemiyorum.
21. a) Son zamanlarda cinsel yaşantımda dikkatimi çeken bişey yok.
b) Eskisine göre cinsel konularla daha az ilgileniyorum.
c) Şu sıralarda cinsellikle pek ilgili değilim.
d) Artık, cinsellikle hiçbir ilgim kalmadı.

APPENDIX J: BECK ANXIETY INVENTORY

Aşağıda insanların kaygılı ya da endişeli oldukları zamanlarda yaşadıkları bazı belirtiler verilmiştir. Lütfen her maddeyi dikkatle okuyunuz. Daha sonra, her maddedeki belirtinin (bugün dâhil) son bir haftadır sizi ne kadar rahatsız ettiğini aşağıdaki ölçekten yararlanarak maddelerin yanındaki cevabı yuvarlak içine alarak belirleyiniz.

0.Hiç 1.Hafif derecede 2. Orta derecede 3. Ciddi derecede
Sizi ne kadar rahatsız etti?

- | | |
|--|---------------------|
| 1) Bedeninizin herhangi bir yerinde uyuşma veya karıncalanma | 0.....1.....2.....3 |
| 2) Sıcak / ateş basmaları | 0.....1.....2.....3 |
| 3) Bacaklarda halsizlik, titreme | 0.....1.....2.....3 |
| 4) Gevşeyememe | 0.....1.....2.....3 |
| 5) Çok kötü şeyler olacak korkusu | 0.....1.....2.....3 |
| 6) Baş dönmesi veya sersemlik | 0.....1.....2.....3 |
| 7) Kalp çarpıntısı | 0.....1.....2.....3 |
| 8) Dengeyi kaybetme duygusu | 0.....1.....2.....3 |
| 9) Dehşete kapılma | 0.....1.....2.....3 |
| 10) Sinirlilik | 0.....1.....2.....3 |
| 11) Boğuluyormuş gibi olma duygusu | 0.....1.....2.....3 |
| 12) Ellerde titreme | 0.....1.....2.....3 |
| 13) Titreklik | 0.....1.....2.....3 |
| 14) Kontrolü kaybetme korkusu | 0.....1.....2.....3 |
| 15) Nefes almada güçlük | 0.....1.....2.....3 |
| 16) Ölüm korkusu | 0.....1.....2.....3 |
| 17) Korkuya kapılma | 0.....1.....2.....3 |
| 18) Midede hazımsızlık ya da rahatsızlık hissi | 0.....1.....2.....3 |
| 19) Baygınlık | 0.....1.....2.....3 |
| 20) Yüzün kızarması | 0.....1.....2.....3 |
| 21) Terleme (sıcağa bağlı olmayan) | 0.....1.....2.....3 |

APPENDIX K: TURKISH SUMMARY

GİRİŞ

Benlik Farklılıkları

Benlik kavramı, yüzyıllardır psikologlar ve filozofların gündeminde olmuştur. Psikoloji literatüründe benlik ile ilgili tartışmalara ilk olarak William James'in kitabında rastlanmaktadır. 1890 yılında yayımlanan bu ilk kitaptan itibaren benlik kavramı psikoloji biliminin birçok alanının ilgisini çekmiş, binlerce makalenin konusu olmuştur. Birçok araştırmacının gündeminde olması ile birlikte benliğin tanımlanması konusunda fikir birliğine varılamamıştır. Baumeister (1998), benlik kavramının tek bir kavram olmadığını, onun yerine birbiri ile ilgili birçok kavramın üst başlığı olabileceğini iddia etmiştir (akt. Leary ve Tangney, 2012). Benlik kavramı başlığı altında benlik saygısı, öz farkındalık, benlik kontrolü, kendini gerçekleştirme ve bunun gibi birçok konu çalışılmıştır. Bunlardan bir tanesi de benlik farklılıklarıdır.

Bireylerin farklı benlik temsilleri arasında yaşadığı uyumsuzluk ya da farklılık William James, Freud, Rogers, Horney, Adler ve Higgins gibi bir çok teorisyenin odağında olmuştur. Farklı benlik temsilleri ve aralarındaki farklılıklar özellikle Carl Rogers'in teorisinde önemli bir yere sahiptir. Rogers'a göre benlik bireyin kendi bakış açısı ile kendisini algılaması ile ilgilidir. İdeal benlik ise bireyin kendisini ideal olarak nasıl görmek istediği ile ilgilidir. Rogers ideal benliğin bireyin ulaşmak için çabalayacağı bir model olduğunu ileri sürmüştür (Rogers, 1959). Rogers, ideal benlik ile gerçek benlik birbiri ile uyumlu ise bireyin sağlıklı ve uyumlu olduğunu, ancak aralarında çok fazla farklılık var ise bireyin anksiyete, depresyon ve özgüven eksikliği yaşayacağını belirtmiştir (Rogers, 1961).

1980'lerde Tory Higgins ise Rogers'ın benlik hakkında söylediklerini, benlik farklılıkları teorisi adı altında geliştirmiştir. Higgins'in teorisinde Rogers'ın

teorisinden farklı olarak üç farklı benlik temsili vardır. Bunlar gerçek benlik, ideal benlik ve zaruri benliktir (ought self). Higgins'e göre gerçek benlik bireyin gerçekte sahip olduğuna inandığı özelliklerdir. İdeal benlik kişinin ideal olarak sahip olmayı istediği özellikleri temsil ederken (ör. Umut ve istekler), zaruri benlik ise bireyin sahip olmasının zorunlu ya da gerekli olduğuna inandığı özellikleri temsil etmektedir (ör. Görev ve sorumluluklar) (1987).

Higgins sadece benlik temsillerini ayırt etmenin yeterli olmadığına inanmıştır. Benlik temsillerinin oluşmasında kimin bakış açısının etkili olduğunun da teoriye eklenmesi gerektiğini düşünmüştür. Higgins benlik üzerinde etkili iki bakış açısı olabileceğini ileri sürmüştür. Bunlar kişinin kendisi ya da hayatındaki önemli birinin (ör. Anne, baba, eş gibi) bakış açılarıdır. Benliğe bakış açılarının eklenmesi ile birlikte teori altı farklı benlik temsili ortaya koymuştur: gerçek/kendisi, gerçek/başkası, ideal/kendisi, ideal/başkası, zaruri/kendisi, zaruri/başkası. Bu benlik temsillerinden ilk ikisi benlik kavramını, diğer dördü ise benlik rehberini (self-guide) oluşturmaktadır (Higgins, 1987). Teori bireylerin farklı benlik temsilleri kullanıyor olabileceğini, bir bireyin tüm temsilleri kullanmasının ise beklenmediğini önermektedir. Örneğin, bir bireyin hayatında zaruri/başkası benlik temsili en çok etkiye sahip iken, bir diğerinin hayatında ideal/kendisi benlik temsili en çok etkili olabilir (Strauman & Higgins, 1988). Benlik farklılıkları teorisi, bireylerin benlik kavramı ile benlik rehberleri arasında bir dengeye ulaşma motivasyonuna sahip olduklarını önermektedir (Strauman & Higgins, 1988). Benlik farklılıkları teorisinin daha önceki teorilerden farklı olarak öne sürdüğü bir diğer argüman ise, farklı temsiller arasındaki farkların, değişik hassasiyet ve duygulara sebep olacağıdır. Teori, gerçek benlik ve ideal benlik arasındaki farkların depresyon, hoşnutsuzluk, mutsuzluk, hayal kırıklığı gibi üzüntü ile ilgili duygular yaratacağını, gerçek benlik ile zaruri benlik arasındaki farklılıkların ise korku, tehdit, sinirlilik gibi ajitasyon ile ilgili duygular yaratacağını öne sürmektedir (Strauman & Higgins, 1988). Daha spesifik olarak bakılacak olursa, birey gerçek/kendisi benlik temsili ile ideal/kendisi benlik temsili arasında farklılık yaşadığında kişinin kendisi ile ilgili gerçek inançları, ideal benliği ile uyumsuzluk gösterecektir. Teoriye göre, bu farklılığı yaşayan bireyin umut ve isteklerini gerçekleştirememiş olması, dolayısıyla hayal kırıklığı, hüsrana ve mutsuzluk yaşaması

beklenmektedir. Eđer gerek/kendisi benlik temsili ile ideal/başkası benlik temsili arasındaki fark kişinin yaşantısında dominant ise birey kendisi için önemli olan birinin kendisi ile ilgili umut ve isteklerini yerine getirmede başarısızlık yaşamış olacak ve bu başarısızlık bireyde utanç ve mahcubiyet duygularına sebep olacaktır (Higgins, 1987). Bir diđer farklılık gerek/kendisi ile zaruri/başkası benlik temsilleri arasındadır. Eđer kişi bu farklılığı yaşarsa, kendi benliği ile ilgili inançları ile kendisi için önemli olan birinin kendisinden, görev ve sorumluluk olarak beklentileri arasında uyumsuzluk yaşayacaktır. Bu uyumsuzluk, yani kendisi için önemli olan kişi tarafından kendisine görev adledilen durumları gerçekleştirmemiş olması sebebiyle kişi korku, tehdit edilmişlik hissi ve kızgınlık yaşayacaktır (Higgins, 1987). Bahsedilecek son farklılık gerek/kendisi kendilik temsili ile zaruri/kendisi temsili arasındadır. Kişi bu farklılığı yaşadığında kendisi ile ilgili sahip olduğu inanç ile kendisinden beklediği sorumluluklar arasında farklılık deneyimleyecektir. Bu farklılık sebebi ile kişi suçluluk, kendinden nefret etme, tedirginlik, ahlaki değersizlik gibi hisler yaşayacaktır (Higgins, 1987).

Ogilvie (1987) ise istenmeyen benlik (undesired self) kavramını ortaya atmıştır ve bireyin kendisini değerlendirmesinde diđer benlik temsillerine göre istenmeyen benliğin çok daha önemli bir yere sahip olduğunu vurgulamıştır. Ogilvie'e göre ideal benlik daha çok hayal edilen özelliklerden oluşurken, istenmeyen benlik daha çok geçmiş yaşantılara dayanan, daha somut bir temsildir, bu sebeple de istenmeyen benliğin psikolojik sağlık ile çok daha ilişkili olduğunu öne sürmüştür (Heppen ve Ogilvie, 2003).

Benlik farklılıkları ile ilgili ilk araştırmalar Carl Rogers tarafından yapılmıştır ve nevrotik danışanlarda ideal benlik ile gerek benlik arasındaki farkın, sağlıklı danışanlara göre daha fazla olduğu bulunmuştur. Ayrıca terapi süreci ile birlikte ideal benlik ile gerek benlik arasındaki farkın azaldığı görülmüştür (Rogers, 1954). Higgins'in teorisi ile birlikte araştırmalar farklı benlik temsilleri arasındaki farklılıkları ve bunlarla ilgili duyguları araştırmaya odaklanmıştır. Yapılan araştırmaların bazılarında benlik farklılıkları teorisinin varsayımlarına uygun sonuçlar bulunurken, bazı araştırmalarda benlik farklılıkları teorisinin varsayımları kanıtlanamamıştır. Teorinin varsayımları ile uygun sonuç bulunamayan araştırmalarda, benlik

farklılıklarının kesinlikle negatif duygularla ilişkili olduğu bulunmuş ancak, ayrı benlik farklılıklarının ayrı duygularla ilgili olduğuna dair ilişkiler istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bulunmamıştır. Yani, olumsuz duyguların tüm benlik farklılıkları tipleri ile ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur (Ozgul, Heubeck, Ward ve Wilkinson, 2003). Yanı sıra, istenmeyen benlik ile psikolojik iyi olma hali arasındaki ilişki, yapılan çalışmalarda anlamlı bulunmuştur (Ogilvie, 1987). Ayrıca, Carver, Lawrence ve Scheier (1999) yaptıkları çalışmada zaruri benliğin sadece bireylerin istenmeyen benliklerinden uzak oldukları durumlarda anksiyete ile ilişkili olduğunu ortaya koymuşlardır.

Algılanan Ebeveyn İlişkisi

Erken dönem çocukluk yaşantılarının psikolojik iyi olma hali üzerindeki etkisi birçok kişilik teorisinin odağında olmuştur ve günümüzde çalışmalar anne ve babaların çocuk yetiştirme yaklaşımlarının, çocuklarının psikolojik sağlığı ile yakından ilişkili olduğunu göstermektedir. Bununla birlikte çocuklukta yaşanan olumsuz yaşantıların ise yetişkinlik dönemindeki psikolojik problemlerle yakından ilişkili olduğu bilinmektedir.

Carl Rogers'ın bakış açısından bakıldığında, çocuk başka bir bireyden kabul algıladıktan sonra, olumlu kabule değer vermeye, olumsuz kabulü ise değersizleştirmeye başlamaktadır. Bunun ardından çocuk sevilme, kabul edilme, saygı duyulma ihtiyaçlarını geliştirmeye başlamaktadır. Rogers bunu olumlu kabul olarak adlandırmıştır. Çocuğun sevilme, korunma, kabul edilme ihtiyaçlarının ailesi ya da bakım veren kişi tarafından koşulsuz olarak verilmesi gerektiğine inanmış, bu kavramı ise koşulsuz olumlu kabul olarak adlandırmıştır (Rogers, 1961). Eğer aileler çocuklarına onları sevdiklerini sadece belli şartlar oluştuğunda, örneğin çocuk birşeyde başarılı olduğunda gösterirlerse, bu durumda çocuk sadece bu koşullarda sevilmeye değer olduğunu hissedecektir. Rogers, bunu değer koşulları (conditions of worth) olarak adlandırmıştır (Rogers, 1959). Eğer çocuk sadece belirli durumlarda değerli olduğunu hissederse, kendi değerlendirmelerini bırakacak ve sadece ailesi tarafından kabul gören durumları kendi kişiliğine asimile edecek, bundan sonra bu kriterlere göre davranmaya başlayacaktır. Çocuk diğerlerinin değerlerini asimile etmeye başladığında, değer koşullarını kabul etmiş olacak, başkalarının

değerlendirmelerine göre yaşamaya başlayacak ve kendi deneyimlerine göre davranmayı bırakacaktır. Çocuklukta karşılaşılan ve asimile edilen değer koşulları, bireyin kendi benliği ile uyumlu olmayan bir sahte benlik (false self) geliştirmesine neden olacaktır. Sonuç olarak çocuk uyuşmazlık yaşayacaktır. Benlik ile deneyim arasındaki bu uyuşmazlık ise davranışların uyumsuz ve tutarsız olması ile ortaya çıkacaktır. Rogers'a göre benlik ile deneyim arasındaki fark ne kadar büyük ise kişi o kadar hassas ve zayıf olacaktır (Rogers, 1959; 1961). Rogers benlik gelişiminin sadece çocukluk yılları ile sınırlı olmadığına inanmıştır ve eğer birey herhangi bir ilişkisinde empati, koşulsuz olumlu kabul, içtenlik (congruence) yaşarsa bunun düzeltici bir deneyim olacağını, böylelikle de bireyin psikolojik olarak daha sağlıklı olacağını vurgulamıştır (Rogers, 1957). Rogers'ın teorisi ile ilgili yapılan araştırmalarda ise koşullu olumsuz kabulün, ebeveynlere karşı negatif duygular, duygu düzenlemede bozukluklar ve akademik problemler ile ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur. Bununla birlikte koşullu olumlu kabulün ise bastırma ve takıntılarla ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur (Roth, Assor, Niemic, Ryan ve Deci, 2009). Aileden algılanan empati ile ilgili yapılan çalışmalarda ise ailenin çocuğuna empati göstermesinin çocuğun güvenli bağlanması, duygusal açıdan açık olması ve ailesini sıcak olarak algılaması ile yakından ilişkili olduğu ortaya konmuştur (Stern, Borelli ve Smiley, 2015).

Rogers'ın benlik farklılıkları ile ilgili söylediklerine göre daha kapsamlı ve sistematik bir teori olan benlik farklılıkları teorisine göre ise benlik farklılıkları mizaç ve çevre etkisi ile oluşmaktadır (Manian, Strauman ve Denney, 1998). Higgins, çocukların aileleri ile ilişkilerini olumlu sonuçların varlığı ya da yokluğu (ilerleme odaklı) ve olumsuz sonuçların varlığı ya da yokluğu (koruma odaklı) doğrultusunda algıladıklarını öne sürmüştür. Bununla birlikte, Higgins, ailesinin isteklerine uygun davrandığı zaman onların ilgi ve sıcaklığını hissettiğinde, çocuğun istek ve dilekleri karşılamanın önemli olduğunu öğreneceğini ve bunun ideal benliğini oluşturmasına yardımcı olacağını iddia etmiştir. Ayrıca, aile çocuğu kurallara ve görevlere uygun davrandığı zaman onayladığında, çocuğun kurallara uygun davranmanın önemli olduğunu ve tehlikeden uzak durmak için gerekli olduğunu öğreneceğini, bunun da zaruri benliğinin kökenlerini oluşturacağını öne

sürmüştür (Higgins, 1989). Higgins, ailelerin verdiği mesajların sıklığının, netliğinin ve tutarlılığının çocukların benlik temsillerinin gelişmesinde önemli olduğunu söylemiştir. Bu bilgiler ışığında Higgins, aileler çocukları ile ilgili olduklarında, hassas ve demokratik olduklarında, çocukların benlik temsillerinin güçlü olacağını, ancak ilgisiz, ihmalkar, ya da fazla serbest olduklarında çocuğun güçlü benlik temsilleri geliştiremeyeceğini belirtmiştir (Higgins, 1989). Aile ile ilişkiler doğrultusunda çocuğun ideal benlik ya da zaruri benlik temsillerini geliştireceğini ve bunun ömür boyu kronik olarak erişilebilir ve kullanılabilir olacağını ileri sürmüştür.

Duygu Düzenleme

Duygu ile ilgili modern teoriler duygunun bireyin işlevselliğini düzenleyen ve bireyin ihtiyaçları ile çevreyi uyumlu hale getiren temel yapı olduğunu öne sürmektedirler (Cole, Michel ve Teti, 1994). Ancak, tartışmasız faydalarının yanı sıra eğer duygu yoğunluk ve süre açısından aşırı olursa zararlı hale de gelebilmektedir. Bu gibi durumlarda bireyler duygularını düzenlemeye çalışmaktadırlar.

Duygu düzenleme kavramı 1980'lerin başlarında ortaya atılmış ve kısa sürede birçok araştırmacının gündeminde olmuştur (Gross, 1999; 2014). Duygu düzenleme, bireyin amaçları doğrultusunda, özellikle duyguların yoğunluğunun ve dışarı vurum şekillerinin gözlemleyerek, değerlendirerek ve değiştirerek düzenlenmesi olarak tanımlanabilir (Thompson, 1994). Duygular, davranışsal, düşünsel ve fiziksel bileşenlerden oluştuğu için duygu düzenleme de bu bileşenleri içermektedir. Bireyler duygularını düzenlerken duygunun başlangıcını, yükselmesini, şiddetini, süresini ve bitişini düzenleyebilirler (Thompson, 1994).

Araştırmacılar duygu düzenlemenin birçok önemli özelliğini vurgulamışlardır. İlk olarak duygu düzenlemenin içsel ya da dışsal olabileceğini belirtmişlerdir. Eğer kişi kendi duygularını düzenliyorsa bunun içsel duygu düzenleme olacağını, eğer kişinin duyguları bir başkası tarafından düzenleniyorsa bunun dışsal duygu düzenlemesi olacağını ifade etmişlerdir. Örneğin, erken dönem yaşantı sırasında çocuk duygularını düzenleyebilmek için ebeveynlerine ihtiyaç duyacaktır ve bu dışsal duygu düzenlemeye örnek olacaktır. Bunun dışında dışsal duygu düzenleme yetişkin

yaşantısında da sosyal destek aracılığıyla görülebilmektedir. Duygu düzenlemenin vurgulanan bir diğer özelliği ise bilinçli ya da bilinçdışı olabileceği ile ilgilidir (Gross, 1999; Masters,1991). Üzücü bir konuyu bilerek değiştirmek bilinçli duygu düzenlemeye örnek olurken, üzücü bir konu sırasında otomatik olarak sigara yakmak ise bilinçdışı duygu düzenlemeye örnek teşkil edebilir. Bunun dışında, sadece olumsuz duyguların değil hem olumlu hem olumsuz duyguların düzenlendiği araştırmacılar tarafından vurgulanmıştır (Gross, 1998a; Parrot, 1993). Örneğin bir cenazede gülmek uygun olmayacağı için, bireyin olumlu duygusu bu örnekte düzenlenmelidir.

Bireyler günlük yaşantılarında duygularını sürekli düzenlemektedirler ve amaç o an yaşanan negatif duygunun etkisinin azaltılmasına yöneliktir. Ancak, bazı duygu düzenleme stratejileri o an için duygunun daha az hissedilmesine neden olsa da bu stratejilerin uzun vadede daha olumsuz sonuçlara yol açabildiği görülmüştür. Bu nedenle literatürde duygu düzenleme stratejileri sağlıklı ve sağlıksız olmak üzere ikiye ayrılmıştır. Yeniden değerlendirme, problem çözme ve duyguyu kabullenme sağlıklı duygu düzenleme stratejileri olarak belirtilmiştir. Bununla birlikte, duyguyu kabullenmeme, kaçınma ve bastırma ise sağlıksız duygu düzenleme stratejileri olarak belirtilmiştir (Gross, 1998; Linehan, 1993).

Duygu düzenleme becerileri mizaçtan ve çocuğun çevresinden etkilenecek şekilde gelişmektedir. Eğer bu beceriler başarılı bir şekilde edinilemezse bireyler duygu düzenlemede güçlükler yaşamaktadırlar. Araştırmalar, duygu düzenlemede yaşanan güçlüklerin psikolojik iyi olma hali ile yakından ilişkili olduğunu ve depresyon, kaygı bozuklukları, sınır kişilik bozukluğu ve yeme bozuklukları gibi birçok psikolojik problemin başlangıcında ve sürdürülmesinde etkin bir rolünün olduğunu ortaya koymuşlardır (Gross ve Munoz, 1995; Linehan, 1993; Tull ve Roemer, 2007).

Temel Kişilik Özellikleri

Kişilik kavramı bireylerin ayırt edici özelliklerinin olduğu ve bu özelliklerin çoğunlukla farklı koşullarda ya da zaman içinde sabit olduğu varsayımına dayanmaktadır (Mischel ve Shoda, 1995). Yıllar boyunca birçok kişilik kuramı

ortaya atılmıştır, ancak yaklaşık son 20 yıldır beş faktör modeli üzerinde anlaşmaya varılmıştır ve araştırmaların çoğu bu model ile yürütülmektedir (Costa, 1991). Bu beş faktör dışı dönüklük, uyumluluk, sorumluluk, nörotisizm (duygusal tutarlık) ve açıklık olarak belirlenmiştir (McCrae ve John, 1992). Türk örnekleminde yapılan çalışmalarda ise olumsuz değerlik altıncı faktör olarak bulunmuştur. Literatürde yapılan birçok çalışmada kişilik faktörlerinin psikolojik iyi olma hali ya da psikopatoloji ile yakından ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur (Bienvenu ve ark., 2004; McCrae ve Sutin, 2009; Soto, 2015).

Benlik farklılıkları ve temel kişilik özellikleri arasındaki ilişkiyi araştıran çalışmalarda daha çok nörotisizm ve benlik farklılıkları ilişkisinin araştırıldığı görülmektedir. Pavot, Fujita ve Diener (1997), gerçek benlik ile zaruri benlik arasındaki farkın nörotisizm ve uyumluluk ile ilişkili olduğunu bulmuştur. Ayrıca, nörotisizm kişilik özelliği yüksek olan kişilerin daha fazla benlik farklılığına sahip olduğu ve nörotisizmin benlik farklılığı ve depresyon ilişkisinde düzenleyici rolünün olduğu görülmüştür (Wasylikiw, Fabrigar, Rainboth, Reid ve Steen, 2010).

Psikolojik Sağlamlık

Psikolojik sağlamlık, olumsuz yaşam olaylarına rağmen psikolojik sağlığı koruyabilme ya da geri kazanabilme becerisi olarak tanımlanmaktadır (Agaibi ve Wilson, 2005). Ayrıca, Connor ve Davidson (2003) psikolojik sağlamlığı olumsuz olaylar yaşadıklarında bireylerin kendilerini geliştirebilecek ve ilerletebilecek kişilik özelliklerinin toplamı olarak tanımlamıştır. Psikolojik sağlamlık ile ilgili araştırmalar kötü davranılan ve kötü şartlar altında yaşayan çocukların bazılarının psikolojik problemler geliştirdiğinin ancak bazılarının psikolojik sağlığını koruduğunun görülmesi ile başlamıştır. Böylece araştırmacılar bazı çocukların psikolojik sağlıklarını nasıl koruduklarını araştırmaya başlamışlardır (Herman ve ark., 2011; Wald, Taylor, Asmundson, Jang ve Stapleton, 2006). Zamanla araştırmalar yetişkinlik dönemindeki psikolojik sağlamlığa sebep olan etmenleri araştırmaya da odaklanmıştır. Psikolojik sağlamlıkla yapılan araştırmalarda kötü ebeveynlik, fakirlik, travmatik yaşantılar, doğal afetler, şiddet, savaş, fiziksel hastalıklar gibi negatif olaylar incelenmiştir (Herrman ve ark., 2011; Masten, 2009).

Yapılan alıřmalarla psikolojik saęlamlıęı oluřturabilecek birok etmenin olduęu grlmüřtr. Bunlar ocuęun zellikleri, ev ortamının zellikleri ve ev ortamının dıřında kalan evrenin zellikleri olarak gruplandırılabilir (Garnezy, 1985; Werner, 1995). Psikolojik saęlamlık bu etmenlerin etkileřimi ile oluřmaktadır. ocuęun ya da bireyin zelliklerine bakıldıęında zeka, iyimserlik, aileye baęlanma, zgven, isel kontrol odaęı, bařetme stratejileri, benlik dzenlemesi, duygu dzenleme ve temel kiřilik zellikleri gibi psikolojik faktrlerin psikolojik saęlamlıęa etki eden faktrler olduęu bulunmuřtur (Herman ve ark., 2011; Masten, 2009; Tiet, Huizinga ve Byrnes, 2010). Ev ortamının zelliklerine bakıldıęında ise sıcak ve gvenli aile ortamının, dengeli aile iliřkilerinin, destekleyici kardeřlerin, ebeveynlerin psikolojik problemlerinin olmamasının, ebeveynler arasında problemlerin olmamasının ve aile ii sosyal desteęin psikolojik saęlamlıkla iliřkili olduęu bulunmuřtur (Armstrong, Lefcovitch ve Ungar, 2005; Hermann ve ark., 2011). Son olarak aile ortamı dıřarısındaki ortamın zelliklerinden ise okula ve ęretmene baęlanmanın, boř zaman aktivitelerinin, kt arkadař evresinden uzak durmanın, destekleyici arkadařlık iliřkilerine sahip olmanın, daha geniř evrede ise insan haklarına nem veren, ayrımcılıęın olmadıęı, gvenli bir toplumda yařamanın bireyin psikolojik saęlamlıęına etkisinin olduęu bulunmuřtur (Masten, 2009; Tiet ve ark., 2010; Werner, 1996). Genel olarak psikolojik saęlamlıęın geliřtięi dnem ocukluk dnemi olarak belirtilse de yetiřkinlikte dnm noktası olarak tanımlanabilecek faktrlerle de psikolojik saęlamlık geliřebilmektedir (Rutter, 2013). Evlilik, eęitim, meslek, dine baęlılık ya da psikoterapi bu dnm noktalarına rnek olabilir.

Yapılan arařtırmalar erken ocukluk dnemi olumsuz yařantılarının ya da gnlk zorlukların psikolojik semptomlar üzerindeki etkisinde psikolojik saęlamlıęın dzenleyici rolnn olduęunu ortaya koymuřtur (Campell-Sills, Cohan ve Stein, 2006; Lai ve Mak, 2009). Ayrıca, psikolojik saęlamlıęa sahip olan bireylerin daha dřk seviyelerde depresyon, anksiyete, travma sonrası stres bozukluęu gibi psikolojik semptomlara sahip oldukları grlmüřtr (Besser, Zeigler-Hill, Weinberg, Pincus ve Neria, 2015; Tan-Kristianto ve Kiropoulos, 2015).

Çalışmanın Amacı

Yapılan literatür taraması ışığında, bu çalışma kişilik yapıları (duygu düzenleme, psikolojik sağlık, temel kişilik özellikleri), algılanan ebeveyn ilişkisi, benlik farklılıkları ve psikolojik iyi olma hali arasındaki ilişkileri araştırmayı hedeflemektedir.

Bu araştırmanın hipotezleri şu şekildedir:

1. Algılanan ebeveyn ilişkisinin benlik farklılıkları ile ilişkili olması beklenmektedir.
2. Benlik farklılıklarının temel kişilik özellikleri, psikolojik sağlık, duygu düzenlemede zorluklar ve psikolojik iyi olma hali ile ilişkili olması beklenmektedir.
3. Depresyon belirtilerinin kişilik yapıları ile ilişkili olması beklenmektedir.
4. Anksiyete belirtilerinin kişilik yapıları ile ilişkili olması beklenmektedir.
5. Kişilik yapılarının, benlik farklılıkları ve psikolojik iyi olma hali arasındaki ilişkide düzenleyici rol oynaması beklenmektedir.

YÖNTEM

Örnekleme

Çalışma 729 katılımcı ile tamamlanmıştır. Katılımcıların 456 tanesi kadın, 273 tanesi ise erkektir. Katılımcıların yaşları 18 ile 39 arasında değişmektedir (Ort = 22.03, S = 2.58). Katılımcılardan 641 kişi üniversite öğrencisi ya da mezunu, 47 kişi yüksek lisans ya da doktora öğrencisi ya da mezunu, 40 kişi ise lise mezunudur.

Ölçme Araçları

Çalışmanın verisi araştırmacılar tarafından hazırlanan Demografik Form, Barrett Lennard İlişki Envanteri, Duygu Düzenlemede Güçlükler Ölçeği, Temel Kişilik Özellikleri Ölçeği, Kendini Toparlama Gücü Ölçeği, Bütünleşik Benlik Farklılıkları

Endeksi, Algılanan Ebeveyn Tutumları-Kısa Formu, Beck Depresyon Envanteri ve Beck Anksiyete Envanteri ile toplanmıştır. Bu ölçeklerden Barrett Lennard İlişki Envanteri ve Bütünleşik Benlik Farklılıkları Endeksi araştırmanın amaçları doğrultusunda Türkçe'ye adapte edilmiştir. Tüm ölçeklerin geçerlik ve güvenilirlikleri yeterli bulunmuştur.

İşlem

İlk olarak Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu'ndan Etik kurul onayı alınmıştır. Çalışmada adapte edilen iki ölçeğin Türkçe çeviri çalışmalarının tamamlanmasının ardından, araştırma bataryası hazırlanmıştır. Katılımcılar ölçekleri doldurmadan önce Bilgilendirilmiş Onam Formu'nu okumuşlar, ardından ölçekleri tamamlamışlardır. Katılımcıların anketi tamamlaması 30-45 dakika arası sürmüştür.

İstatistiksel Analizler

Araştırmanın analizleri SPSS programı ile yapılmıştır. İlk olarak Türkçe'ye adapte edilen Barrett Lennard İlişki Ölçeği ve Bütünleşik Benlik Farklılıkları endeksinin geçerlik ve güvenilirlik analizleri yapılmıştır. Psikometrik analizlerin ardından, ilk olarak demografik değişkenlerin araştırmanın ölçekleri üzerindeki etkisini görebilmek amacıyla bir dizi varyans analizi uygulanmıştır. Ardından çalışmanın değişkenlerinin arasındaki ilişkileri görebilmek amacıyla üç set hiyerarşik çoklu regresyon analizi yapılmıştır. Son olarak ise, kişilik yapılarının benlik farklılıkları ve psikolojik iyi olma hali arasındaki ilişkideki düzenleyici rolünü görmek amacıyla moderasyon analizleri yapılmıştır.

BULGULAR ve TARTIŞMA

Psikometrik Analizler

Bu çalışmada ilk olarak Türkçe'ye çevirilen iki ölçeğin psikometrik analizleri yapılmıştır. Bunlardan ilki Barrett Lennard İlişki Envanteri'dir. Barrett Lennard İlişki Envanteri (BLİE) ilişki kalitesini Carl Rogers'ın teorisine göre ölçmektedir ve dört

alt ölçeği vardır. Bunlar, kabulun derecesi (level of regard), empati, koşulsuz kabul (unconditionality of regard) ve içtenliktir (congruence). Ölçeğin ilk olarak iç tutarlığı hesaplanmış ve başarılı bulunmuştur. Ardından geçerlik analizi için bir başka aile ilişkisi ölçeği olan Embu ile, ve depresyon ve anksiyete ölçekleri ile korelasyonları hesaplanmış, sonuçlar beklentiler doğrultusunda bulunmuştur. Bu sonuçlar göz önünde bulundurulduğunda, BLİE'nin algılanan aile ilişkisini geçerli ve güvenilir bir şekilde ölçtüğü sonucuna varılmıştır.

İkinci olarak ise, Bütünleşik Benlik Farklılıkları Endeksi'nin psikometrik analizleri yapılmıştır. Bütünleşik Benlik Farklılıkları Endeksi (BBFE), ideal, zaruri ve istenmeyen benlik farklılıklarını ölçmek için tasarlanmış bir ölçektir ve bu çalışmada iç tutarlılık katsayıları ideal benlik farklılığı için .78, zaruri benlik farklılığı için .81, ve istenmeyen benlik farklılığı için .86 olarak bulunmuştur. Ölçeğin yapı geçerliği analizleri için, ölçeğin geliştiricisi olan Hardin ve Lakin'in (2009) önerileri doğrultusunda bir dizi hiyerarşik regresyon analizi yapılmıştır. İlk olarak ideal benlik farklılığının depresyon ile ilişkisini görmek amacıyla yapılan regresyon analizinde, tüm diğer ilişkili değişkenler kontrol edilmiş ve ideal benlik farklılığının depresyon ile anlamlı olarak ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur. Ardından zaruri benlik ile anksiyete arasındaki ilişki için aynı analiz yapılmış ve ilişkinin anlamlı olduğu bulunmuştur, ancak ilişkinin negatif yönde olduğu görülmüştür. Yani zaruri benlik farklılığı yüksek olan katılımcıların daha az anksiyete sahip olduğu bulunmuştur. Bu sonuç beklenen sonuçlar ile çelişmekle birlikte, Higgins'in (1987) ilk çalışmalarından birinde bulunduğu sonuçlarla tamamıyla aynıdır. Higgins bu sonuçların bireylerin inkar mekanizmalarıyla ilgili olduğunu öne sürmüştür. Yani Higgins'e göre bu sonuçlar, zaruri benliğin anksiyete ile ilişkili olduğunu göstermekte, ancak duygunun zorluğu sebebiyle bireylerin bu duyguyu inkar ettiklerini göstermiştir. Aynı analizler, istenmeyen benlik için de yapılmış ve istenmeyen benliğin hem depresyon hem de anksiyete ile anlamlı olarak ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur. İstenmeyen benlik literatürde olumsuz duygularla en ilişkili olan benlik farklılığı olarak savunulmaktadır ve bu doğrultuda çalışmanın sonuçları literatür ile uygun görünmektedir. Her ne kadar hiyerarşik regresyon analiz sonuçları literatür ile uyumlu olsa da, zaruri benlik ile ilgili çelişkili sonuçlar sebebiyle temel kişilik

özellikleri faktörlerinden olumsuz değerlik'in bağımlı değişken olduğu ek regresyon analizleri yapılmıştır. Bağımlı değişken olarak olumsuz değerliğin seçilmesinin sebebi olumsuz değerliğin karşılanamamış sosyal standartlarla ilişkili olabileceği, bu sebeple de zaruri benlik ile ilişkili çıkacağı, ancak ideal benlik ile ilişkili çıkmayacağı düşünülmüştür. Ayrıca, duygularını inkar etseler de bireylerin kişilik özelliklerini ortaya koymakta o kadar da zorlanmayabilecekleri düşünülmüştür. Bu doğrultuda yapılan hiyerarşik regresyon analiz sonuçları beklenen şekilde bulunmuştur. Yani zaruri benlik tüm diğer değişkenler kontrol edildikten sonra olumsuz değerlik ile anlamlı olarak ilişkili bulunurken, ideal benlik ilişkisiz bulunmuştur. Ayrıca istenmeyen benlik de olumsuz değerlik ile anlamlı olarak ilişkili bulunmuştur. Yapı geçerliğinin ardından, BBFE için eşzamanlı geçerliği incelemek amacıyla benlik farklılıkları ve temel kişilik özellikleri arasındaki korelasyonlar analiz edilmiştir ve ideal benlik ve olumsuz değerlik arasındaki ilişki dışındaki tüm ilişkilerin anlamlı olduğu bulunmuştur ve tüm bu sonuçlar beklenen doğrultudadır. Son olarak, ölçüt geçerliğini incelemek için, benlik farklılıklarının katılımcıları duygu düzenleme grupları açısından ayırıştırabilme özelliğine sahip olup olmadığını görebilmek amacıyla varyans analizi yürütülmüştür. Sonuçlara göre, tüm benlik farklılıklarının duygu düzenleme zorluğu açısından en düşük puana sahip olan katılımcıları, orta düzeyde ve yüksek düzeyde duygu düzenleme güçlüğü yaşayan katılımcılardan ayırıştırabildiği görülmüştür. Katılımcılardan en düşük benlik farklılığına sahip olanların en az duygu düzenleme güçlüğü olduğu bulunmuştur. Tüm bu analizler göz önünde bulundurulduğunda BBFE'nin benlik farklılıklarını ölçmek için geçerli ve güvenilir bir ölçek olarak kullanılabileceği sonucuna varılmıştır.

Hiyerarşik Regresyon Analizleri

Çalışmanın değişkenleri arasındaki ilişkileri görebilmek için üç set hiyerarşik regresyon analizi yürütülmüştür. İlk set analizde benlik farklılıkları ile anlamlı olarak ilişkisi olan değişkenleri bulmak amaçlanmıştır. Sonuçlara göre, anneden algılanan empati ve koşulsüz kabulün ve babadan algılanan empatinin ideal benlik ile anlamlı olarak ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur. Babadan algılanan empati ve koşulsüz kabulün zaruri benlik ile ilişkili olduğu bulunurken, istenmeyen benlik ile sadece babadan

algılanan empatinin anlamlı olarak ilişkili olduğu görülmüştür. Analiz sonuçlarına göre aileden algılanan empatinin, düşük benlik farklılığına sahip olmada önemli bir faktör olduğu görülmektedir. Bu sonuç Higgins'in (1989) fikirleri ile örtüşmektedir. Higgins, çocuklarının duygularına karşı hassas olan ve karşılık veren ailelerin çocuklarının daha güçlü benlik rehberlerine (self-guide) sahip olacaklarını öne sürmüştür. Bunun dışında koşulsuz kabul ile ilgili sonuçlara bakıldığında, annelerinden daha çok koşulsuz kabul algılayan katılımcıların daha fazla ideal benlik farklılığına sahip olduğu, ve babalarından daha fazla koşulsuz kabul algılayan katılımcıların ise daha fazla zaruri benlik farklılığına sahip olduğu görülmüştür. Bu sonuçların Rogers'ın teorisi ile çatıştığı görülmektedir. Çünkü Rogers, ailesinden koşulsuz kabul algılayan bireylerin daha az benlik farklılığı olacağını iddia etmiştir (Rogers, 1961). Ancak Higgins ise, koşulsuz kabulün benlik rehberi gelişiminde olumsuz rol oynayabileceğini, çünkü çocukların aile içerisinde kontrol algılaması gerektiğini, ancak aileler koşulsuz kabul verdiğinde çocuğun hangi davranışlarının olumlu hangilerinin olumsuz olduğunu anlayamayabileceğini, böylece de aile içerisinde koşulsuz kabulün çocuk tarafından kontrol eksikliği, ya da aşırı derece izin veren aile olarak algılanabileceğini belirtmiştir (Higgins, 1989). Çalışmanın koşulsuz kabul ile ilgili sonuçlarının Higgins'in önerileri ile aynı doğrultuda olduğu görülmektedir. Ancak, BLİE'nin koşulsuz kabulü Rogers'ın önerdiği şekilde ölçememiş olabileceği de göz önünde bulundurulmalıdır.

İkinci set regresyon analizleri, bu çalışmada kişilik yapıları başlığı altında toplanan duygu düzenlemede güçlük, temel kişilik özellikleri ve psikolojik sağlamlık değişkenlerinin anlamlı olarak ilişkili olduğu değişkenleri bulmak amacı ile yürütülmüştür. Duygu düzenlemede güçlük ile en ilişkili bulunan değişkenin babadan algılanan içtenlik (congruence) olduğu görülmektedir. Onun dışında babadan algılanan empati ve anneden algılanan koşulsuz kabulün duygu düzenlemede güçlük ile anlamlı olarak ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur. İçtenlik, ilişkide samimi ve gerçek olmak olarak tanımlanmaktadır (Barrett Lennard, 2015). İçten bir babanın duygularını içten olarak ifade eden bir baba olacağı tahmin edilebilir ve bunun çocuk için sağlıklı bir model oluşturmuş olabileceği düşünülebilir. Ayrıca babadan algılanan empatinin de duygu düzenlemede güçlük ile ilişkili olduğu

görülmüştür. Aileden algılanan empatinin, çocuğun duygusal olarak açık olmasına ve algıladığı empati yardımı ile duyguları tanıyabilen, kabul edebilen ve duygulara değer veren bir birey olmasına katkı sağladığı daha önce literatürde bulunan sonuçlardandır (Stern ve ark., 2015). Türkiye kültüründe duyguları gizlemenin özellikle erkekler için olumlu görülen bir özellik olduğu bilinmektedir. Bu durumda, Türkiye kültürü içerisinde, duygularını içtenlikle ifade edebilen ve çocuğu ile empati kurabilen bir babanın çocuğunun duygu düzenlemede daha az güçlük yaşaması beklenilebilir ve araştırmanın sonuçları buna işaret etmektedir. Duygu düzenlemede güçlük ile ilişkili çıkan diğer değişken anneden algılanan koşulsuz kabuldür. Literatürde daha önce annesinden koşullu kabul algılayan çocukların daha çok bastırma duygu düzenleme stratejisini kullandığı bulunmuştur (Roth ve ark., 2009). Bu bulgu ışığında, çalışmada bulunan sonucun literatür ile paralel olduğu görülmüştür. Benlik farklılıklarından sadece istenmeyen benliğin duygu düzenlemede güçlük ile ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur. İstenmeyen benlik literatürde sıkça olumsuz duygularla en çok ilişkili olan benlik farklılığı olarak bulunmuştur (Carver ve ark., 1999). İstenmeyen benliğe yakın özelliklere sahip olmanın getirdiği olumsuz duyguların yoğunluğu sebebiyle bireylerin sağlıksız duygu düzenleme stratejileri olan kaçınma ve bastırmayı tercih ettikleri söylenebilir.

Temel kişilik özellikleri ile yapılan regresyon analizleri sonuçlarına bakıldığında baba ile ilişkinin en çok dışa dönüklük, açıklık ve nörotisizm (duygusal tutarlık) ile ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur. Anne ile olan ilişkinin ise en çok sorumluluk, uyumluluk ve olumsuz değerlik ile ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur. Literatürde temel kişilik özellikleri ile daha önce yapılan araştırmalar göz önünde bulundurulduğunda, ilişkiler, duygular, feminenlik ile ilgili olan temel kişilik özelliklerinin anne ile olan ilişki ile yakından bağlantılı olduğu, bilişsel esneklik, kişisel gelişim ve masküinite ile ilgili olan temel kişilik özelliklerinin ise baba ile olan ilişki ile yakından ilişkili olduğu görülmektedir (Digman, 1997; Lippa ve Connelly, 1990; Zheng ve Zheng, 2011). Temel kişilik özellikleri ile benlik farklılıkları ilişkilerine bakıldığında ise, istenmeyen benliğin en kuvvetli olarak dışa dönüklük, nörotisizm ve olumsuz değerlik ile ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur. Bu üç kişilik özelliğinin duygularla en çok ilişkili olan kişilik özellikleri olduğu bilinmektedir. Dışa dönüklük olumlu

duygulanım ile, nörotisizm olumsuz duygulanım ile, olumsuz değerlik ise kendilik değeri ile ilişkili kişilik özellikleri olarak öne çıkmaktadır. İstenmeyen benlik farklılığının olumsuz duygularla oldukça ilişkili olduğu göz önünde bulundurulduğunda sonuçların literatür ile uyumlu olduğu görülmektedir. İdeal benlik farklılığının en kuvvetli olarak açıklık ile ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur. Açıklık kişilik özelliği yüksek bir bireyin çeşitlilik arayışında olduğu, aktif olarak yeni fikirler, yaklaşımlar ve deneyimler aradığı bilinmektedir. Bu özellikler göz önünde bulundurulduğunda açıklık kişilik özelliğine sahip bireylerin benlik rehberi olarak ilerleme odaklı stratejilerini kullandıkları ve koruma odaklı stratejileri kullanmadıkları düşünülebilir. İlerleme odaklı olmanın da ideal benlik temsilinin önemli özelliklerinden olduğu düşünüldüğünde açıklık kişilik özelliğine sahip bireylerin ideal benliklerini rehber olarak kullanıyor oldukları sonucuna varılabilir. Zaruri benliğin ise en kuvvetli olarak sorumluluk ve uyumluluk ile ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur. Uyumluluk kişilik özelliğine sahip bireylerin fedakarlık ve duyarlılık gibi özellikleri, sorumluluk kişilik özelliğine sahip bireylerin ise sorumluluğunu bilme, ahlak kurallarına bağlı olma gibi özellikleri düşünüldüğünde bu bireylerin belirtilen kişilik özellikleri sebebiyle zaruri benlik temsillerini hayatlarında baskın olarak kullanıyor olmaları muhtemeldir.

Psikolojik sağlamlıkla yapılan regresyon analizi sonucuna göre anneden ve babadan algılanan empatinin psikolojik sağlamlıkla ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur. Aileden algılanan empatinin birçok olumlu psikolojik yapı ile ilişkili olduğu kanıtlanmıştır. Aileden algılanan empati yardımıyla edinilen birçok olumlu özelliğin psikolojik sağlamlığa neden olabileceği düşünülmüştür. Ayrıca tüm benlik farklılıklarının psikolojik sağlamlık ile anlamlı olarak ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur. Aileden algılanan empatinin pozitif etkisi ile koruyucu faktörlerin birikmesinin hem psikolojik sağlamlığı, hem de benlik faktörlerini olumlu olarak etkilemiş olabileceği düşünülebilir. Ayrıca benlik farklılıklarının döngüsel olarak tekrar psikolojik sağlamlığa pozitif etki etmiş olabileceği söylenebilir.

Son set regresyon analizleri depresyon ve anksiyete ile anlamlı olarak ilişkili olan değişkenleri ortaya çıkarmak amacı ile yürütülmüştür. Algılanan aile ilişkisi değişkenlerinden anneden algılanan empati ve babadan algılanan içtenliğin

depresyon semptomları ile, babadan ve anneden algılanan içtenliğin ise anksiyete semptomları ile ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur. Yani psikolojik iyi olma hali ile en çok ilgili olan aileden algılanan ilişki değişkeninin içtenlik olduğu görülmüştür. Literatürde aileden algılanan içtenlik (congruence) ile psikolojik semptomlar arasında daha önce herhangi bir araştırma yapılmamış olsa da aileden algılanan tutarsızlık ile yapılan çalışmalar, aile tutarsız olduğunda çocuğun psikolojik sağlığının olumsuz etkilendiğini ortaya koymuştur (Trumpeter ve ark., 2008). Aile içten olduğunda çocuğun tutarsızlık hissetmeyeceği, böylelikle ebeveynlerini güvenli bağlanma figürleri olarak algılayacağı söylenebilir. Ailesine güvenli olarak bağlanan bir çocuğun ise yetişkinlikte daha iyi bir psikolojik sağlığa sahip olacağı bilinmektedir. Yani, aile içten ve samimi olduğunda bireyin daha olumlu psikoloji sağlığa sahip olacağı bu çalışmada ortaya konmuştur. Benlik farklılıkları değişkenlerinin tümünün depresyonla ilişkili olduğu, ancak sadece istenmeyen benliğin anksiyete ile ilişkili olduğu araştırmanın sonuçlarında ortaya çıkmıştır. Literatürde benlik farklılıklarının olumsuz duygularla ilişkisi açısından çelişkili sonuçlar bulunmaktadır. Bu çalışmada ise istenmeyen benlik farklılığının depresyon ve anksiyete ile son derece ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur ve bu sonuç istenmeyen benlik farklılığının psikolojik iyi olma hali için en önemli benlik farklılığı olduğunu savunan çalışmalara bir örnek teşkil etmektedir (Carver ve ark., 1999; Cheung, 1997; Ogilvie, 1987). Ayrıca, duygu düzenlemede güçlük ve psikolojik sağlamlık değişkenlerinin ikisi de depresyon ve anksiyete ile anlamlı olarak ilişkili bulunmuştur. Literatürde bu iki değişkenin de psikopatoloji ve psikolojik sağlık ile ilişkili olduğu ve duygu düzenlemede güçlük yaşamayan ve psikolojik sağlamlığı yüksek olan bireylerin daha az psikolojik semptom gösterdikleri bilinmektedir. Sonuçların literatür ile uyumlu olduğu görülmektedir. Son olarak temel kişilik özelliklerinden nörotisizm, açıklık, dışa dönüklük ve sorumluluğun depresyon ile anlamlı olarak ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur. Ayrıca temel kişilik özelliklerinden sadece nörotisizmin anksiyete ile ilişkili olduğu görülmüştür. Tüm bu sonuçlar literatür ile uyumlu olmakla birlikte, nörotisizmin psikolojik iyi olma hali üzerindeki oldukça anlamlı etkisinin önemi ortaya konmuştur.

Düzenleyici Analizler

Bu çalışmada son olarak kişilik yapılarının, benlik farklılıkları ve psikolojik iyi olma hali arasındaki ilişkideki rolünü belirlemek amacıyla düzenleyici (moderation) analizler yürütülmüştür. Yapılan 48 analizden yalnızca anlamlı olanlar rapor edilmiştir.

Yapılan analizler sonucunda psikolojik sağlamlığın, ideal benlik farklılığı ve depresyon arasındaki ilişkide ve istenmeyen benlik farklılığı ve depresyon arasındaki ilişkide düzenleyici rolünün olduğu bulunmuştur. Katılımcıların psikolojik sağlamlığı yüksek olduğunda benlik farklılıkları ve depresyon arasındaki ilişkinin istatistiksel olarak anlamlı olmadığı görülmüştür. Ancak katılımcıların psikolojik sağlamlığı düşük olduğunda benlik farklılıkları ve depresyon arasındaki ilişkinin istatistiksel olarak anlamlı olduğu bulunmuştur. Katılımcılar düşük psikolojik sağlamlığa sahip olduklarında, ideal benlik farklılığı arttıkça ve istenmeyen benlik farklılığı azaldıkça depresyon düzeylerinin arttığı görülmüştür. Psikolojik sağlamlığın olumsuz yaşantılar ve psikolojik semptomlar arasındaki düzenleyici rolü literatürde daha önce defalarca ortaya konmuştur (Campell-Sills, Cohan ve Stein, 2006; Lai ve Mak, 2009). Bu çalışmada da yatkinlik faktörü ideal benlik ve istenmeyen benlik farklılıkları olduğunda psikolojik sağlamlığın düzenleyici rol aldığı ortaya konmuştur. Psikolojik sağlamlığı yüksek olan bireylerin kendilerine ulaşılabilir hedefler koydukları, ya da ideal ve istenmeyen benlik farklılıkları olsa da hedeflerine ulaşabilecekleri yönünde kendilerine inançları olduğu için depresif hissetmiyor olabilecekleri söylenebilir.

Zaruri benlik ve anksiyete arasındaki ilişki için yürütülen düzenleyici analiz sonuçları temel kişilik özelliklerinden açıklığın, psikolojik sağlamlığın ve duygu düzenlemede güçlüğü bu ilişkide düzenleyici rolünün olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Yapılan analizlerin sonuçlarına göre katılımcılar yüksek veya düşük açıklık, psikolojik sağlamlık ve duygu düzenlemede güçlük puanları aldıklarında zaruri benlik ve anksiyete arasındaki ilişki istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bulunmuştur. Ancak, katılımcılar bu üç değişkenden orta düzeyde puan aldıklarında zaruri benlik ile anksiyete arasındaki ilişkinin istatistiksel olarak anlamlı olmadığı görülmüştür.

Katılımcılar daha fazla açıklık ve psikolojik sağlamlık ve daha düşük duygu düzenlemede güçlük gösterdiklerinde, zaruri benlik farklılıkları arttıkça daha çok anksiyete yaşadıkları görülmüştür. Ancak daha düşük açıklık ve psikolojik sağlamlık ve daha fazla duygu düzenlemede güçlük gösterdiklerinde ise zaruri benlik farklılıkları arttıkça daha az anksiyete yaşadıkları bulunmuştur. Yani özet olarak denilebilir ki; psikolojik sağlığı daha iyi durumda olan katılımcıların zaruri benlik farklılıkları arttıkça anksiyetelerinin de arttığı görülmüştür, fakat daha olumsuz psikolojik sağlığa sahip bireylerin zaruri benlik farklılıkları arttıkça daha düşük anksiyeteye sahip oldukları görülmüştür. Psikolojik sağlığı daha olumsuz olan bireylerin zaruri benlik farklılığı yaşadıklarında daha az anksiyete yaşıyor olmalarının, anksiyetenin inkar edilmesinden kaynaklanıyor olabileceği düşünülmektedir (Higgins, 1987). Fakat daha olumlu psikolojik sağlık durumunda olanların benlik farklılıklarının farkında oldukları ve halihazırda farklılıklarını çözmek için uğraşıyor olabilecekleri, bu sebeple de anksiyetelerinin daha fazla olabileceği söylenebilir. Ayrıca, değişime dair motivasyon da bu sonuçları açıklamada önemli bir rol oynayabilir. Daha olumsuz psikolojik sağlığa sahip bireyler değişime dair herhangi bir motivasyona sahip olmayabilir, ya da değişim için kendilerindeki güce inanmıyor olabilirler, bu sebeplerle de yaşadıkları benlik farklılığı kendilerinde herhangi bir olumsuz duyguya neden olmayabilir. Bunların dışında, sonuçlara bakıldığında görülmüştür ki en az zaruri benlik farklılığına sahip bireyler en fazla anksiyeteye sahip bireylerdir. Bu bireylerin düşük benlik farklılığına sahip olmasının nedeninin kaygılı kişilik yapılarının olabileceği düşünülmüştür. Reddedilmekten korkan ve kaçınan bireyler olabilecekleri, bu sebeple de sürekli kurallara uygun olarak yaşıyor olabilecekleri düşünülebilir. Son olarak, düzenleyici analizler sonucunda görülmüştür ki hiçbir değişken istenmeyen benlik ve anksiyete arasındaki ilişkide istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir düzenleyici rol oynayamamıştır. İstenmeyen benlik ve anksiyete arasındaki ilişkinin son derece kuvvetli bir ilişki olduğu yorumu bu sonuçlara dayanarak yapılabilir.

Çalışmanın Sınırlılıkları ve Güçlü Yanları

İlk olarak enlemesine kesitsel bir çalışma olduğu için bu çalışmanın sonuçlarından nedensellik çıkarılamaz. Algılanan ebeveyn ilişkisi verisi görüşe dayalı olarak

toplantır ve bu yöntem bireyin řu anki duygu durumundan etkilenmesiyle bilinmektedir. Bu sebeple bu problem boylamsal bir alıřma yrtlerek giderilebilir. Bu alıřmanın rnekleme oęunlukla bekar ve orta gelir seviyesine sahip niversite ęrencilerinden ya da mezunlarından oluřmaktadır. Yani klinik rnekleme alıřma kapsamında deęildir. Gelecekte farklı yař, gelir ve medeni durum gruplarından ve ayrıca klinik gruptan toplanacak verilerle alıřma yrtlmesi olduka bilgilendirici olacaktır. Aıklık, duygu dzenlemede glk ve psikolojik saęlamlıęın, zaruri benlik ve anksiyete iliřkisindeki dzenleyici rollerine iliřkin sonular literatrde ilk kez bulunmuřtur. Bu sebeple sonulara dikkatle yaklařılması ve analizlerin bařka rneklemlerle de tekrarı nemli olacaktır. Kısıtlılıklara raęmen bu alıřmanın olduka kapsamlı ve rneklemin sayısı aısından ğrenci rneklemini temsil edebilecek bir alıřma olduęu sylenebilir.

alıřmanın Bařlıca Katkıları

İlk olarak bu alıřmanın kapsamında Barrett Lennard İliřki Envanteri ve Btnleřik Benlik Farklılıkları Endeksi Trke'ye evirilmiş ve literatre kazandırılmıştır. Barrett Lennard İliřki Envanteri aile ile olan iliřki kalitesini Rogers'ın teorisi doęrultusunda lmektedir ve bu alıřma aile iliřkilerini Rogers odaklı inceleyen az sayıda alıřmaya katkıda bulunmuřtur. Psikolojik saęlamlık ve duygu dzenlemede zorluk deęiřkenlerinin benlik farklılıkları ve psikolojik iyi olma hali arasındaki iliřkideki dzenleyici rol ilk kez bu alıřmada arařtırılmıştır. Trkiye psikoloji literatrnde benlik farklılıkları arařtırmaları yok denecek kadar azdır ve bu alıřmada kapsamlı olarak arařtırılması ile literatre katkıda bulunulmuřtur.

alıřmanın sonuları gznnde bulundurulduęunda aile iliřkisinin ok nemli olduęu bulunmakla birlikte baba ile iliřkinin zellikle benlik farklılıkları iin son derece nemli olduęu bulunmuřtur. Aile iliřkisi tiplerinden ise aileden algılanan empatinin ve ailenin itenlięinin ok nemli olduęu arařtırmanın sonularında grlmřtr. Bu bilgiler gz nnde bulundurulduęunda, baba ile iliřkinin nemini ve iliřkideki empati ve itenlięin nemini aileler ile yapılan eęitim ve mdahale gruplarında ya da terapide vurgulamak olduka faydalı olacaktır. Bunun dıřında benlik farklılıkları ile ilgili edinilen sonulara bakıldıęında benlik farklılıklarının

psikolojik sađlık aısından oldukça nemli olduđu grlmekle beraber istenmeyen benlik farklılıđı oldukça gze arpan sonular ortaya koymuřtur. alıřmanın ortaya koyduđu en nemli iliřkiler zinciri řu řekilde olmuřtur; babadan algılanan empati istenmeyen benlik farklılıđının anlamlı tek yordayıcısı olarak bulunmuřtur. İstenmeyen benlik farklılıđı ise tm psikolojik yapılar iin etkili olurken, depresyon semptomlarının en kuvvetli ve anksiyete semptomlarının tek yordayıcısı olmuřtur. Bu bulguların ıřıđında, terapide istenmeyen benlik farklılıđı bařta olmak zere, benlik farklılıkları ile alıřmanın nemli bir hedef olacađı grlmektedir. Ayrıca, benlik farklılıkları ile psikolojik iyi olma hali arasındaki iliřkiyi dzenlediđi bulunan psikolojik sađlamlıđın terapide artırılmaya abalanmasının danıřanların ilerlemesi aısından faydalı olacađı dřnlmektedir.

APPENDIX L: CURRICULUM VITAE

Personal Information

Surname, Name: Gürcan, Derya

Nationality: Turkey (TC)

Date and Place of Birth: 5 June 1986, Eskişehir

Marital Status: Single

Phone: 05533065583

Email: gurcan.derya@gmail.com

Education

2010 - 2015 Ph.D in Clinical Psychology, Middle East Technical
University, Ankara

2004 - 2009 B.S. in Department of Psychology, Middle East Technical
University, Ankara

Languages

Advanced English

Basic Level French and Italian

Computer Skills

Microsoft Office Applications

SPSS

EQS

Internships & Experiences

September, 2013 – February, 2015 Giving Supervision (approximately 200
hours)
Ayna Clinical Psychology Unit, Middle East
Technical University, Ankara, Turkey

March, 2012 – Present Psychotherapy under supervision

(approximately 400 hours)

	Ayna Clinical Psychology Unit, Middle East Technical University, Ankara, Turkey
October, 2011– January, 2012	Internship in Child Psychiatry Department of Hacettepe University, Ankara, Turkey
February, 2011 – June, 2011	Internship in Psychiatry Department of GATA, Ankara, Turkey
March, 2009 – October, 2010	Psychologist at Special Education Center, Ankara, Turkey
January, 2009 – February, 2009	Internship in Psychiatry Department of Osmangazi University, Eskişehir, Turkey
July, 2008 – August, 2008	Internship in Balıklı Rum Hospital, Anatolia Clinics, İstanbul, Turkey

APPENDIX M: 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 : Gürcan
Adı : Derya
Bölümü : Psikoloji

TEZİN ADI (İngilizce) : PERCEIVED PARENTAL RELATIONSHIP,
SELF-DISCREPANCY, AND PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS IN
RELATION TO PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING

TEZİN TÜRÜ : Yüksek Lisans Doktora

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2. Tezimin içindekiler sayfası, özet, indeks sayfalarından ve/veya bir bölümünden kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir.
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