

A CLOSER LOOK AT RUMINATION IN ADOLESCENCE: INVESTIGATION
OF POSSIBLE RISK FACTORS AND MODERATORS

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ABSTRACT

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Rumination is defined as excessive thinking about causes or consequences of negative event or dwelling on negative mood experienced. In the literature, two types of rumination (anger and depressive rumination) have been identified. Ruminative style thinking increases through adolescence and predicts several internalizing and externalizing problems. However, despite the evidence on consequences, the studies focusing on their developmental antecedents are limited. Therefore, the current study aims to investigate the role of parenting (maternal psychological control and overprotection), co-rumination with mother and adolescent's perfectionism as possible risk factors for anger and depressive rumination. Also, adolescent's temperament (negative affectivity, perceptual sensitivity and effortful control) and gender is examined as potential moderators in the link between predictors and rumination. To this end, a total of 252 adolescents ($M_{age}= 13.19$ years) were recruited from 5 secondary schools in Çankaya and Mamak, Ankara. Unique and interaction effects were examined through four sets of hierarchical regressions for each type of rumination. The results showed that gender, maternal psychological control,

adolescent's self-oriented perfectionism, and negative affectivity uniquely predicted anger and depressive rumination. Besides, co-rumination on mother's problems predicted depressive rumination, while perceptual sensitivity predicted anger rumination. In addition to these unique effects, effortful control interacted with co-rumination on adolescent's problems and overprotection in relation to both type of rumination. Also, negative affect-overprotection, perceptual sensitivity-co-rumination on adolescent's problems and gender-maternal psychological control interactions were found significant in relation to anger rumination. The findings, contributions and limitations of the study were discussed.

Keywords: rumination, co-rumination, perfectionism, parenting

ÖZ

ERGENLİK DÖNEMİ RUMİNASYONUNA YAKIN BİR BAKIŞ: MUHTEMEL RİSK FAKTÖRLERİ VE DÜZENLEYİCİ DEĞİŞKENLERİNİN İNCELENMESİ

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Ruminasyon, olumsuz bir olayın nedenleri, sonuçları veya yaşanan olumsuz duygu durumunun kendisi üzerine yoğun ve sık düşünme olarak tanımlanır. Alan yazında, öfke ruminasyonu ve depresif ruminasyon olmak üzere iki tipi tanımlanmıştır.

Ruminatif düşüncenin ergenlik döneminde artış gösterdiği ve içselleştirme/dışsallaştırma problemleri ile ilişkili olduğu bilinmektedir. Ancak, bu tip düşüncenin gelişimsel öncüllerini inceleyen çalışmalar sınırlıdır. Bu nedenle, mevcut çalışma, anneden algılanan ebeveynlik (psikolojik kontrol ve aşırı korumacılık), anne ile ortak yapılan ruminasyon ve ergenin mükemmeliyetçiliği gibi faktörlerin ruminatif düşünce üzerindeki etkilerini incelemeyi amaçlamaktadır.

Ayrıca, ergenin mizacı (negatif duygulanım, algısal hassasiyet ve özdenetim) ve cinsiyeti gibi faktörlerin muhtemel risk faktörleri ve ruminasyon arasındaki ilişkideki düzenleyici rollerini incelemektir. Bu amaç doğrultusunda, Ankara'daki 5 farklı okuldan yaş ortalaması 13.19 olan toplam 252 kişi çalışmaya dâhil edilmiştir. Ana ve etkileşim sonuçları, her iki ruminasyon tipi için dörder set hiyerarşik regresyon analizi yapılarak elde edilmiştir. Buna göre, cinsiyet, anneden algılanan psikolojik

kontrol, ergenin öz-odaklı mükemmeliyetçiliği ve negatif duygulanım mizaç özelliği gibi faktörlerin her iki tip ruminasyon ile de pozitif yönlü ilişkisi bulunmuştur. Ayrıca, annenin problemleri üzerine yapılan ortak ruminasyonun depresif ruminasyonu; algısal hassasiyetin ise öfke ruminasyonunu pozitif yönde yordadığı bulunmuştur. Etkileşim sonuçlarına göre ise, özdenetim mizaç özelliğinin, öfke ve depresif ruminasyonlarını yordamada ergen problemleri üzerine ortak ruminasyon ve aşırı korumacılık değişkenleri ile anlamlı etkileşimi bulunmuştur. Ayrıca, negatif duygulanım x aşırı korumacılık, algısal hassasiyet x ergenin problemleri üzerine ortak ruminasyon ve cinsiyet x psikolojik kontrol etkileşimleri öfke ruminasyonu yordamada anlamlı bulunmuştur. Çalışmanın bulguları, alan yazınına katkıları ve sınırlılıkları tartışılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: ruminasyon, ortak ruminasyon, mükemmeliyetçilik, ebeveynlik

To All Ruminators

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AR	Adolescent Report
CAPS	Child and Adolescent Perfectionism Scale
CARS	Children's Anger Rumination Scale
CRSQ	Child's Response Style Questionnaire
CQ	Co-Rumination Scale
EATQ	Early Adolescent Temperament Questionnaire
MR	Mother Report
PCS-YSR	Psychological Control Scale-Youth Self Report
SOP	Self-Oriented Perfectionism
SPP	Socially Prescribed Perfectionism

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. General Introduction

Adolescence is a critical period in terms of neurobiological maturation. Specifically, adolescent's cognitive functioning as well as socio-emotional behaviors improves with rapid developmental changes in the brain, especially in prefrontal cortex, (Yurgelun-Todd, 2007). As a result, their attention on social relations and themselves increases and their experiences in social context become more complex (Choudhury, Blakemore, & Charman, 2006). However, at the same time, numerous longitudinal studies revealed that psychopathologies such as internalizing and externalizing symptoms also tend to increase through adolescence (Wolff & Ollendick, 2006). As a possible explanation for this, individuals probably encounter more complex problems in their lives or evaluate internal or external experiences in more complex way. Thus, this may make them more prone to such psychopathologies. Consistent with this perspective, rumination which is conceptualized as abstract and evaluative reasoning regarding the self and social interactions remarkably increases in early adolescence (Hampel & Petermann, 2005; Watkins & Moulds, 2005). A number of longitudinal as well as cross-sectional studies yielded that ruminative style thinking is highly associated with specific psychopathologies like internalizing and externalizing problems (Abela & Hankin, 2011; Peled & Moretti, 2007). For this reason, adolescence is crucial period in order to investigate these vulnerability factors such as rumination (Borelli, Hilt, West, Weekes, & Gonzales, 2014).

According to diathesis-stress model perspective, not only individual vulnerabilities or environmental factors but their interactions are important to reveal risk factors for psychopathology (Gazelle & Ladd, 2003). Therefore, based on this viewpoint, the

current study aims to investigate effects of possible diatheses- stressor interactions on development of rumination which is a maladaptive coping style underlying several psychopathologies. To this end, in the following sections, firstly, rumination construct and its types were introduced. Secondly, in the light of the literature review, potential predictors of rumination including parenting, adolescent perfectionism and co-rumination between mother and adolescent were established. Finally, individual vulnerability factors including child's temperament and gender were discussed as potential moderators of association between predictors and rumination.

1.2. Rumination

Rumination is defined as a maladaptive coping style with distress by focusing on own negative feelings, causes and consequences of negative mood in a repetitive way (Nolen-Hoeksema, 1991). Although individuals typically ruminate over their negative moods in order to understand and find solutions, thereby to reveal negative mood (Papageorgiou & Wells, 2003), the findings of several studies have shown that rumination prolongs and intensify the negative mood and symptoms (Nolen-Hoeksema, Wisco, & Lyubomirsky, 2008). This is because ruminators do not use active problem solving strategies in order to reveal their negative mood instead they just passively persevere on their feelings (Nolen-Hoeksema et al., 2008). For this reason, some of the researchers identified the rumination as maladaptive way of emotion regulation and predictor for several psychopathologies (Nolen-Hoeksema et al., 2008; Beckman, & Kellman, 2004 and Garnefski, Kraaij, & Spinhoven, 2001). In the literature, there are two types of rumination which differ in content and related psychopathologies (Peled et al., 2007). These are depressive (sadness) rumination and anger rumination.

1.2.1 Depressive (Sadness) Rumination

Sadness is identified as a negative feeling occurred after the individual get aware of her/his loss (Freed & Mann, 2007). As a dysfunctional thinking style, rumination on

sadness or depressive mood is defined as excessive attention on depressive mood and passively dwelling on causes and consequences of depressive event (Nolen-Hoeksema, 1991). In the literature, rumination concept was initially conceptualized based on the “sadness” emotion. For this reason, up to now, depressive rumination has been attracted attention in adolescent and adult literature. However, majority of these studies on depressive rumination focused on its consequences rather than its developmental antecedents (Ruijten, Roelofs, & Rood, 2011). According to these studies, depressive rumination is highly associated with internalizing problems such as *depression* (Nolen-Hoeksema et al., 2008) and *anxiety* (Michl, McLaughlin, Shepherd, & Nolen-Hoeksema, 2013) and *substance use* (Willem, Bijttebier, Claes, & Raes, 2011) among adults and adolescents. In the literature about rumination, both ‘sadness’ and ‘depressive’ has been used to refer this kind of rumination. Therefore, in the following chapters, depressive rumination term was used interchangeably with sadness rumination.

1.2.2. Anger Rumination

Anger is one of the basic emotions and identified as “physiological and psychological response to a perceived threat to self or important others at present, or in the future” (Clausen, 2007, p.vii). Anger rumination is regarded as a cognitive response to anger and refers to maladaptive and repetitive thinking style on ‘anger’ emotion (Sukhodolsky, Golub, & Cromwell, 2001). Because of repetitive and passive nature of the rumination, people who ruminate on anger tend to maintain their negative mood for a longer time. In fact, several studies showed that anger rumination prolongs feeling of anger in terms of duration and intensity. Moreover, these results were consistent across the studies when anger was measured based on either self-reports or physiological symptoms (i.e. blood pressure) or when it was operationalized as either trait or state nature (Bushman, 2002; Denson, Moulds, & Grisham, 2012; Gerin, Davidson, Christenfeld, Goval, & Schwartz, 2006; Ray, Wilhelm, & Gross, 2008). It was also reported that anger rumination predict externalizing symptoms. Anestis, Anestis, Selby and Joiner (2009) found that even if the baseline anger, gender, depressive and anxiety symptoms were controlled,

participants who ruminate on anger reported greater level of verbal and physical aggression as well as hostility. The significant relationship between anger rumination and aggression was also replicated in sport contexts as well as across different cultures (Maxwell, 2004; Maxwell, Moores, & Chow, 2007).

1.3. Predictors of Rumination

There are a number of studies about consequences of rumination, especially sadness rumination. As mentioned before, almost all showed that both depressive and anger rumination are associated with several psychopathologies which are significant burden on not only individual but also society. In fact, specifically, the economic burden of only major depressive disorders which is highly associated with depressive rumination was reported as \$210.5 billion in the United States (Greenberg, Fournier, Sisitsky, Pike, & Kessler, 2015). For this reason, knowing etiology of ruminative thinking is essential to determine individuals at risk and develop early intervention programs and thereby to decrease incidence and costs of related psychopathologies. In the literature, in terms of genetic risk factors, Moore et al. (2013) found that heritability accounted only small part of variance in ruminative brooding. Therefore, it appears necessary to focus on other environmental and individual risk factors, in addition to genetics to gain insight on rumination. However, in existing literature, there are only few studies which explored risk factors of anger and depressive rumination. These limited studies investigated effects of environmental factors such as *parental overprotection* (for depressive rumination: Manfredi et al., 2011; Williams, Rick, Ingram, Hagan, & Kramer, 2015; for anger rumination: Chiung et al., 2015), *parental control* (for depressive rumination: Hilt, Armstrong, & Essex, 2012; Spasoyevic & Alloy, 2002), *maternal positive and aggressive behaviors* (for depressive rumination: Gate et al., 2013), *maternal feedback to child's stress* (for depressive rumination: Cox, Mezulis, & Hyde, 2010), *quality of attachment relations with peers and parents* (for depressive rumination: Ruijten et al., 2011). Also, few studies examined the roles of individual risk factors such as *individual's negative affectivity* (for depressive rumination: Mezulis, Priess, & Hyde, 2010; Mezulis,

Simonson, McCauley, & Stoep, 2011; Verstraeten, Vasey, Raes, & Bijttebier; Hilt et al., 2012) and *perfectionism* (for depressive rumination: Blankstein & Lumbey, et al.o, 2008; Flett, Coulter, Hewitt, & Nepon, 2011; Flett, Madorsky, Hewitt, & Heisel, 2002; O'Connor, O'Connor, & Marshall, 2007; Randles, Flett, Nash, Mcgregora, & Hewitt, 2010; for anger rumination: Besharat & Shahidi, 2010). However most of these studies explored the antecedents of depressive rumination but not anger rumination. Therefore, the main aim of the current study is to extend the existing literature regarding depressive as well as anger rumination by examining environmental factors such as parenting practices of maternal overprotection and psychological control and co-rumination between mother and adolescent as well as individual factors such as adolescent's perfectionism

As mentioned above, familial factors are one of the most studies risk factors for ruminative thinking. This is reasonable because that family environment and functioning is important source of modeling and coaching of adaptive and maladaptive coping styles (Rodriguez et al., 2014). Especially, as main caregiver in most family, roles of maternal behaviors deserves special attention. For this reason, the roles of maternal parenting practices and co-ruminative style of communication between mother and adolescents will be discussed in relation to anger and depressive rumination.

1.3.1 Parenting

In the literature, several dimensions of parenting have been reported and widely studied in relation to adolescent's adjustment. However, because of its association with coping or emotion regulation style of children, in the scope of current study maternal overprotection and psychological control were investigated in relation to ruminative thinking.

1.3.1.1 Parental Psychological Control

Parental psychological control includes specific intrusive behaviors of the parents to manipulate the attitudes, behaviors or feelings of the child in order to enable

conformity with parental standards. These controlling behaviors comprise of three tactics that are guilt- and shame- induction as well as withdrawal of the parental love (Barber, 1996; Soenens, Park, Vansteenkiste, & Mouratidis, 2012). In this regard, the main mechanism of psychological control works on child's emotion regulation skills (Rogers, Buchanan, & Winchell, 2003). Besides, it predicts child's psychological problems. To illustrate, Rogers and his associates (2003) found that paternal psychological control during early adolescence predicted internalizing symptoms for both gender as long as maternal psychological control is high. Also, this path was valid for girls' externalizing symptoms. Although the association between parental psychological control and externalizing/internalizing problems were widely established (e.g. Conger, Conger, & Scaramella, 1997; Lansford, Laird, Pettit, Bates, & Dodge, 2014; Mabbe, Soenens, Vansteenkiste, & Van Leeuwen, 2015), there are few studies about association between psychological control and ruminative thinking styles which are highly correlated with these psychopathologies. As an emotion regulation strategy and important predictor of depression and aggression, depressive/anger rumination may be mediator in this association. In other words, psychologically controlling parents, especially mothers, may lead these children to develop maladaptive coping strategies such as rumination, thereby it may result in several psychopathologies. In fact, Nolen-Hoeksema, Wolfson, Mumme and Guskin (1995) found that children whose mothers were intrusive, hostile and critical during a structured puzzle play scored higher on learned helplessness and lower on active-problem solving based on both teacher and mother reports. Similarly, Hilt et al. (2012) revealed that children whose mothers report their mothering as over-controlling tend to engage in ruminative brooding in adolescence. However, this study did not focus on specifically psychological dimensions of parental control. Only one study focused on effects of parental psychological control on depressive rumination. In this study, Spasojevic et al. (2002) found that college students who perceived their parents as psychologically over-controlling reported higher levels of depressive rumination. However, age range of participants included in that study was 16 – 29 ($M_{age} = 19$) years, so their reported parenting retrospectively which may be influenced from several confounding factors over time. Moreover, although the

psychological control is related to externalizing problems, its possible association with anger rumination has not been studied yet. For this reason, the first aim of this study is to explore maternal psychological control as the antecedents of both anger and depressive rumination in early adolescence.

1.3.1.2 Parental Overprotection

Parental overprotection refers to behaviors such as exaggerated physical or social contact, prevention of autonomy development, indulgence and inappropriate infantile care to the offspring (Levy, 1970). Kiel and Maack (2012) argued that overprotective parents limit their children to explore the environment and preventing their autonomy development. Therefore, adolescents may see themselves as incompetent over challenges and adapt maladaptive, immature coping styles in order to deal with them. Based on this view, adolescents with overprotective parents may be more likely to engage in rumination when they feel distress because it is known as one of the maladaptive coping styles in the literature. For example, Manfredi et al. (2011) found that participants with highly overprotective parents reported higher level of ruminative brooding. However, there were two crucial limitations in this study. Firstly, the participants ($M_{age} = 39.9$ years) reported parenting style retrospectively so participants' perceptions might be influenced by their current beliefs and, secondly, researchers used combined scores for mothers and fathers so this makes it impossible to tease out unique effect of maternal overprotection. Examining unique effect of maternal and paternal dimensions is important because Kelly et al. (2005) revealed that paternal and maternal bonding has different contribution to rumination. Williams and his associates (2015) replicated this study by involving maternal and paternal overprotection separately among undergraduate students. Although they found positive correlation with overprotection perceived from both parents, neither paternal nor maternal overprotection predicted ruminative brooding.

Another important issue in the literature regarding parenting appears to be cultures since they form specific behaviors of parenting and meanings of specific behaviors vary between different cultural contexts (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2007; Aytac, Pike, & Bond,

2016). For example, in American culture, overprotection is mainly conceptualized as affectionless control in which parents scored high on protection but low on maternal care. However, in Mediterranean societies, parents were evaluated by their offspring as high on maternal care and protectiveness (Thomasgard, & Metz, 1993). Therefore, reports of positive relationship between rumination and overprotection in Western literature may be misleading for Eastern literature. Therefore, the relationship between overprotection and rumination should be tested in different cultural contexts.

All the studies mentioned in this section until now focused on depressive rumination. However, the effects of overprotective parenting may be seen as aggression rather than internalizing for some children and therefore, it may be also associated with anger rumination. There is only one study which focused on the association between parental overprotection and anger rumination. Chiung and his associates (2015) found that anger rumination was predicted by low levels of maternal overprotection. This finding seems opposite to the findings about depressive rumination. However, the results should be interpreted carefully by considering the cultural reasons mentioned above because Chiung and his associations included Italian adolescents in their studies. For this reason, the further studies are needed to capture whether effects of maternal overprotection change between types of rumination or the results are affected by cultural perceptions regarding maternal overprotection. Thus, the present study aimed to investigate maternal overprotection and both aggressive and depressive rumination relation on young adolescent sample.

1.3.2. Co-Rumination between Mother and Adolescent

Co-rumination is conceptualized as excessive and repetitive discussion of a problem with a significant other. It includes mutual rumination over causes and consequences of problem as well as focusing on negative emotions (Rose, 2002). Although co-rumination have common characteristics with the self-disclosure which has a buffer role against the depressive symptoms (see Horesh, & Apter, 2006; Kahn, & Garrison, 2009) co-rumination differs from self-disclosure in terms of repetitive, passive and

negative nature and it has negative effects on psychological well-being such as internalizing and externalizing symptoms (see Calmes, & Roberts, 2008; Rose, 2002; Waller, & Rose, 2010; Stone, Hankin, Gibb, & Abela, 2011; Tompkins, Hockett, Abraibesh, & Witt, 2011). Although co-rumination between mother and child may lead children to adopt maladaptive coping strategies through several socialization and modeling processes, the relationship between co-rumination and child's rumination has not been studied. The findings about early mother-child talks seem to indicate possible links between them. For instance, in the study of Kulkofsky and Bee Kim Koh (2009), mothers reported emotion regulation as the most frequent function of child-mother reminiscing. For this reason, children may learn to ruminate on their negative feelings through modeling their mother's coping style during mother-child reminiscing in early ages. Leyva and Nolivós (2015) found that the mothers' scaffolding and elaborative style during the reminiscing about negative feelings positively predicted self-regulation skills at the kindergarten. This finding highlights the importance of handling of negative emotions in mother-child relationship. Furthermore, Fivush, Berlin, Sales, Mennuti-Washburn and Cassidy (2003) stated that mothers and their children were more repetitive when mother-child talks focused on anger and sadness rather than fear and they found that mothers focused less on problem solving during anger talks than sadness and fear. In this sense, such repetitive and non-scaffolding mothers (ruminative style) may lead offspring to adapt ruminative style of thinking to cope with negative emotions. Thus, as the developmental continuum, co-rumination with parent, especially mother, may positively predict child's rumination, as well. The studies of Calmes et al. (2008) and Waller and Rose (2013), found that co-rumination between mother and child was positively associated with co-rumination with friends which seems promising for this hypothesis. It might be possible that ruminative type of communication is strengthened during co-rumination with mother. Thus, adolescent may be more likely to use ruminative thinking not only in social dyads as co-rumination but also by oneself as rumination when s/he experiences a problem. Therefore in the current study mother- adolescent co-rumination was tested as one of the predictors of adolescent's rumination.

Co-rumination is conceptualized as mutual dwelling on one's problems but this focus may be on mother or child's problems. This difference in agency may result in different consequences. For example, Waller et al. (2010) found that co-rumination on mother's problems but not on adolescent's predicted adolescent's depression. Although this has not been studied up to now, the similar consequences may be seen in inducing especially ruminative thinking. Therefore, second aim, of the current study is to investigate the roles of co-rumination between mother and adolescent in ruminative thinking by examining contribution of mother and adolescent's problems separately. Additionally, in the scope of this study, which topics are discussed during co-rumination were explored only for descriptive purposes.

In addition to maternal related familial factors, adolescent-related factors such as personality traits may put the adolescents at greater risk for anger and depressive rumination. One of these personality factors reported in adult research on rumination is perfectionism. For this reason, in the next section perfectionism will be discussed as possible risk factor for anger and depressive rumination in adolescence.

1.3.3. Perfectionism

Although perfectionism was known and studied as unidimensional construct, in the literature, it is accepted as a multidimensional construct including both personal and interpersonal components. According to perfectionism model of Hewitt and Flett (1991), there are three main dimensions included in perfectionism construct which are self-oriented, socially-prescribed and other-oriented perfectionism. Basically, the first dimension which is self-oriented perfectionism refers to individual's unrealistic expectations and motivations for the self to be perfect. Socially-prescribed perfectionism is perception of the individual that others have unrealistically high expectations from her/him to be perfect (Flett, Hewitt, & De Rosa, 1996). The last one, other-oriented perfectionism is defined as high standards and expectations of individual for other people to be perfect. Other-oriented perfectionism differs from two other due to lack of self-criticism component. Self-criticism is stated as the most crucial component of perfectionism in terms of prediction of maladjustment

(Dunkley, Zuroff, & Blankstein, 2006). As a support for this view, numerous studies found evidence that self-oriented and social-prescribed perfectionism are related to etiology and treatment outcomes of several psychopathologies like anxiety disorders and depression among adults and adolescents (Egan, Wade, & Shafran, 2011; Erözkan, 2009; Gül, Yılmaz, Berksun, 2009). However, other-oriented perfectionism was found unrelated or weakly related with distress (Blankstein et al., 2008).

In addition to other environmental predictors in the current study, perfectionism as trait factor may also undermine the psychological well-being of individual by triggering ruminative thinking (see O'Connor et al., 2007). In fact, perfectionist individuals may prone to develop ruminative style coping because of self-focused and self-critical nature of perfectionism. Specifically, perfectionism as trait factor encourages the individuals to frequently evaluate and criticize themselves over their mistakes as well as actions. In other words, those individuals tend to frequently dwelling on discrepancy between their ideal and actual self (Flett, Hewitt, Blankstein, & Gray, 1998). From this view, perfectionism has similar characteristics with rumination (Schiena, Luminet, Philippot, & Douilliez, 2012). The relationship between perfectionism and ruminative thinking were reported in few studies (Besharat et al., 2010; Blankstein et al., 2008; Flett et al., 2002; O'Connor et al., 2007 and Randles et al., 2010). While other-oriented perfectionism was unrelated to rumination, socially-prescribed perfectionism was positively correlated with depressive rumination. Although self-oriented perfectionism was also positively correlated with depressive rumination (Flett et al., 2002), some studies found this association changes depending on gender (Blankstein et al., 2008; O'Connor et al., 2007). The link between perfectionism and anger rumination was investigated only in study of Besharat et al. (2010) which found positive correlation between anger rumination and negative perfectionism that is thought to be related to socially-prescribed perfectionism because of shared items in both scales (Fedewa, Burns, & Gomez, 2005). In early adolescence, the relationship between perfectionism and rumination has been studied only in one study. Unlike the findings in undergraduate

population, this study showed that self-oriented perfectionism was positively correlated but socially-prescribed perfectionism was uncorrelated with depressive rumination (Flett et al., 2011). In sum, the existing literature regarding perfectionism supports significant roles of different dimensions of perfectionism in ruminative thinking. However, most of the studies rely on correlational analysis and adult sample. Therefore, as the third aim, the current study investigated the effects of socially-prescribed and self-oriented perfectionism on anger and depressive rumination in early adolescence.

So far, the existing literature about parenting practices of maternal overprotection and psychological control, co-rumination between mother and adolescent as well as adolescent's perfectionism were discussed in relation to ruminative thinking. However, adolescent related characteristics such as temperament and gender may moderate the links between these predictors and rumination. For this reason, in the following sections, adolescent's temperamental characteristics including negative affectivity, effortful control and perceptual sensitivity as well as adolescent's gender were introduced as potential moderators.

Temperament is known as innate and relatively persistent emotional, cognitive and behavioral individual differences in responses and regulations toward the environment (Rothbart & Bates, 1998). That's why; the individuals with different temperamental characteristics are affected from specific risk factors in different degree. In order to gain insight about the antecedents of rumination, it is crucial to take account of individual differences in temperament. Therefore, in the next three section, possible moderator role of three temperamental characteristics in relation to rumination.

1.4. Negative Affectivity as Moderator

Rothbart et al. (1998) define negative affectivity as a temperamental proneness to show frequently and intensively negative emotions and increase reactivity to negative stimulus around of the individual. Nolen-Hoeksema (2004) argued that as

temperamental vulnerability characteristic, negative affect may put children or adolescents at greater risk of adapting ruminative response style. This path has been widely studied in several studies (Iqbal & Dar, 2015; Mezulis et al., 2011; Mezulis, Priess, & Hyde, 2010; Stoia-Caraballo et al., 2008; Sukhodolsky et al., 2000; Tortella-Feliu et al., 2012 and Verstraeten et al., 2009). The results of these studies consistently yielded that the individuals with higher negative affect tend to ruminate more over their angry or depressive moods. However, negative or positive outcomes do not rely on only individual's temperament. Rather, the interaction between individual's temperament and environment predicts developmental outcomes (Thomas & Chess, 1977, p.16). Therefore, in addition to direct role of negative affect in rumination, its interaction effects with environmental or other individual factors may account a considerable amount of variance in ruminative thinking. Negative affect has been tested as moderator in the link between predictors and rumination only in study of Hilt et al. (2012). The results showed that negative affectivity significantly moderated the relationship between maternal over-controlling and depressive rumination in adolescence. Specifically, they found that over-controlling parenting predicted higher level of depressive rumination of adolescents only in the case of high negative affectivity in childhood. Conversely, negative-submissive family expressivity predicted higher depressive rumination of adolescents only in the case of low negative affectivity in childhood. Based on this aforementioned finding, therefore; the current study aims to test moderator role of negative affect in association between hypothesized predictors and ruminative thinking.

1.5 Effortful Control as Moderator

Rothbart (1989) conceptualized effortful control as a behavioral component of self-regulation. In this regard, it enables children to control dominant emotional impulses and behavioral reactions. It has three components which are inhibitory, activation and attention control. As their names suggest, effortful control plays role in activation or inhibition of behavior as well as modulation of attention depending on demands of the environment (as cited in Verstraeten et al., 2009). In the literature, it

has been shown that individuals who use ruminative response style showed poor cognitive inflexibility such as switching and inhibition problems (Davis & Nolen-Hoeksema, 2000; Whitmer & Banich, 2007). Based on this, as temperamental characteristics, effortful control may enable individual to suppress or switch attention from negative feeling and so protect him or her from perseveration on these feelings. This argument was supported by a few correlational analyses (Tortella-Feliu et al., 2012; Verstraeten et al., 2009; White & Turner, 2013 and but see Mezulis et al. 2011). However, as mentioned before, the interaction between temperamental vulnerabilities and other risk factors are more informative in terms of developmental outcomes (Thomas et al., 1977). Only one study has been explored the effects of this interaction. Similar to negative affect, Hilt et al. (2012) examined longitudinally moderator role of effortful control in relationship between over-controlling parenting, negative affect and depressive rumination and found significant results for both interactions. Specifically, negative affectivity predicted greater depressive rumination only among adolescents with low in effortful control. Besides, adolescents with high in effortful control ruminated less on depressive mood in the case of low level of parental control. However, as parental control increased, depressive rumination also sharply increased only among those with high in effortful control. This study underpinned that the link between individual or environmental risk factors and rumination may change depending on adolescent's effortful control. Although this finding is unique in the literature, because of its limited focus on controlling parenting and negative affect, it is essential to extend the literature by exploring moderator role of effortful control in other risk factors- depressive rumination relationships. Moreover, moderator role of effortful control in the link between anger rumination and its antecedents has not been studied yet. For this reason, in the scope of current study, effortful control was investigated as potential moderator in relationship between ruminative thinking and antecedents of it in order to fill this gap in the literature.

1.6 Perceptual Sensitivity as Moderator

Perceptual sensitivity is identified as perceptual awareness of even low intensity stimuli around of the individual (Capaldi & Rothbart, 1992). The growing body of studies tested the relationship between perceptual sensitivity and internalizing/externalizing problems (Atchley et al., 2012; Becker and Rinck, 2004; Leppanen, 2006; Wexler, Levenson, Warrenburg, & Price, 1994 and Wilkowski & Robinson, 2012). In fact, most of them showed that depressed/anxious/ angry individuals showed perceptually greater sensitivity to negative emotions (but see Becker et al., 2004). However, as temperamental characteristics rather than a consequence of these psychopathologies, perceptual sensitivity may be a vulnerability factor for negative outcomes such as internalizing problems (Scheper et al., 2017 and Visser, Huizinga, Hoekstra, Van der Graaf, & Hoekstra-Weebers, 2007). Similarly, perceptually sensitive adolescents may be more prone to ruminate over their negative feelings because of two possible reasons. Firstly, by the definition, those individuals are more aware of not only positive but also negative stimulus around them. Thus, the effects of risk factors may be stronger for them. Secondly, perceptually more sensitive adolescents may have increased awareness for not only external stimuli but also internal stimuli. Therefore, sensitivity to one's own negative feelings may exaggerate or prolong negative mood and make difficult distraction from these feelings when he or she experience distress. Unique or interaction effects of perceptual sensitivity on rumination have not been studied yet. Nevertheless, the study of Muris et al. (2007) seems relevant. They investigated the relationship between perceptual sensitivity and pain catastrophizing which is dwelling on the pain and feeling of powerless to deal with it. In this sense, concept of catastrophizing is similar to ruminative thinking. The findings of this study showed that the adolescents with high sensitivity reported higher catastrophizing scores. Similar to this, in high risk condition, the adolescents with high perceptual sensitivity may have tendency to ruminate over negative feelings. Therefore, the current study examined the roles of perceptual sensitivity in the link between hypothesized risk factors and both kind of rumination.

Gender differences in ruminative thinking are highly reported in the literature (Broderick & Korteland, 2002). For this reason, apart from temperamental characteristics, adolescents may be influenced differently from environmental or individual risks depending on gender. In the next section, gender will be introduced as possible moderator in the link between rumination and its risk factors.

1.7 Gender as Moderator

Gender differences in depressive rumination were highly reported in adolescents (Rood, Reolofs, Bögels, Nolen-Hoeksema, & Schouten, 2009). That is, the girls ruminate more on depressive mood after the age of 12 (Jose et al., 2008). On the other hand, unlike the depressive rumination, numerous findings support level of anger rumination does not change depending on gender (Barber, Maltby, & Macaskill, 2005 and White et al., 2014). Although gender differences in depressive rumination have been established in most studies (for review, Rood et al., 2009), why this difference emerges is still unknown. It is possible that girls and boys may tend to be affected from different risk factors differently after age of 12-13. For example, in the literature, a few studies showed that girls are more vulnerable to exposure to or be affected from negative parenting (Gate et al., 2013; Leatbeater, Kuperminc, & Hertzog, 1999), co-rumination (Waller et al., 2010) and self-oriented perfectionism (Blankstein et al., 2008). However, number of these studies is very limited and mostly relies on descriptive results. Besides, moderator role of gender in relationship between risk factors and anger rumination has not been studied until now. Therefore, in order to fill the gap in the literature, the current study investigated adolescent's gender as possible moderator in the association between hypothesized predictors and ruminative thinking.

1.8 Current Study

It has been reported that ruminastion shows remarkable inceare in early adolescence (Watkins et al., 2005). However, in the existing literature, most of the studies on rumination focused on its consequences rather than its developmental antecedents

(Ruijten et al, 2011). For this reason, the current study aims to fill this gap in the literature. Basically, the purpose of the current study is to investigate the effects of maternal psychological control, maternal overprotection, co-rumination between mother and adolescent as well as adolescent's perfectionism on anger and depressive rumination of adolescents. In addition to these main effects, the study aims to examine whether adolescent's temperamental characteristics including negative affect, effortful control and perceptual sensitivity would moderate the relationship between parenting practices, co-rumination with mother, adolescent's perfectionism and adolescent's ruminative thinking. Finally, the main topics of co-rumination between mothers and adolescents would be explored for descriptive purposes.

Based on the existing literature, the main hypotheses were summarized below:

1. It is hypothesized that maternal psychological control and overprotection would positively predict anger and depressive rumination.
2. It is hypothesized that co-rumination between mother and adolescent would positively predict adolescent's anger rumination and depressive rumination. In this scope, it is expected that co-rumination especially on mother's problems would be associated with depressive rumination based on findings of Waller et al. (2010).
3. It is hypothesized that adolescent's perfectionism (self-oriented and socially-prescribed), would be associated with adolescent's anger rumination and depressive rumination. Specifically, it is expected that self-oriented perfectionism would predict depressive rumination, whereas socially-prescribed perfectionism would predict anger rumination based on the findings of Besharat et al. (2010) and Fedewa et al. (2005).
4. It is hypothesized that adolescent's gender and temperamental characteristics including effortful control, negative affect and perceptual sensitivity would play moderator role in hypothesized relationships. It is expected that adolescent with high in negative affect or perceptual sensitivity or low in effortful control or girls would be in high risk group, while boys with low in negative affectivity and perceptual

sensitivity but high in effortful control would be in low risk group in relation to hypothesized associations. Besides, moderator role of perceptual sensitivity is expected especially in the links between depressive rather than anger rumination and its antecedents because perceptual sensitivity was found associated with internalizing but not externalizing problems among children and adolescents (Scheper et al., 2017 and Visser et al., 2007).

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

2.1. Participants

The participants of the current study were recruited from 7th and 8th grades of five different secondary schools in Çankaya and Mamak, Ankara. In this scope, initially, a total of 276 mother –adolescent pairs ($n = 209$ for 7th grade, $n = 67$ for 8th grade) agreed to be participants. Adolescent's age varied from 12 to 15 ($M_{age} = 13.19$, $SD = .53$, $n = 273$). Gender was not equally distributed in the sample since 181 females (65.6%) and 95 (34.4%) males attended in total. In the sample, mean age were 40.74 ($SD = 5.17$, $n = 174$) for mothers and 44.19 ($SD = 5.75$, $n = 160$) for fathers. In terms of education status, there were 3 (1.1%) illiterate, 3 (1.1%) literate, 48 (17.4%) primary school graduate, 40 (14.5%) secondary school graduate, 68 (24.6%) high school graduate, 90 (32.6%) college graduate, 6 (2.2%) post-graduate mothers and 5 (1.8%) literate, 33 (12%) primary school graduate, 32 (11.6%) secondary school graduate, 80 (29%) high school graduate, 80 (29%) college graduate and 20 (7.2%) post-graduate fathers in the sample. Information of education status was missing for 18 (6.5%) mothers and 26 (9.4%) fathers. However, after data cleaning final sample included 252 adolescents in total. Demographic characteristics of final sample can be seen in table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Demographic characteristics of the sample

	Adolescents	Mothers	Fathers
Age	$M = 13.20, SD = .55$	$M = 40.76, SD = 5.15$	$M = 44.26, SD = 5.70$
Missing	n = 2	n = 80	n = 93
Educational Status			
Illiterate		1.2 % (n = 3)	0 % (n = 0)
Literate		1.2 % (n = 3)	2 % (n = 5)
Primary School		18.7 % (n = 47)	12.7 % (n = 32)
Secondary School		15.5 % (n = 39)	12.7 % (n = 32)
High School		26.2 % (n = 62)	31 % (n = 78)
College		34.5 % (n = 87)	31.3 % (n = 79)
Postgrad		2.4 % (n = 6)	6.7 % (n = 17)
Missing		0.4 % (n = 1)	3.6 % (n = 9)
Income (per month)			
0-500 TL		37.7 % (n = 95)	2.4 % (n = 6)
501-1000 TL		3.2 % (n = 8)	2 % (n = 5)
1001-1500 TL		11.9 % (n = 30)	19.4 % (n = 49)
1501-2500 TL		12.7 % (n = 32)	22.6 % (n = 57)
2501-3500 TL		18.3 % (n = 46)	17.9 % (n = 45)
3501-5000 TL		6.4 % (n = 16)	14.7 % (n = 37)
5001-6000 TL		0.8 % (n = 2)	4.8 % (n = 12)
> 6000 TL		0.4 % (n = 1)	6.7 % (n = 17)
Missing		8.7 % (n = 22)	9.5 % (n = 24)
Marital Status			
Married		85.7 % (n = 216)	
Divorced		9.9 % (n = 25)	
Widow		2 % (n = 5)	
Number of Children	$M = 2.26, SD = .99$		
Birth order	$M = 1.6, SD = .81$		
Gender			
Female	67.5 % (n = 170)		
Male	32.5 % (n = 82)		

Note. Mothers' age range = 35-55 years; Fathers' age range = 32-61 years; Number of children = number of children at home

2.2. Procedure

First of all, the ethical permission was taken from ethical board of METU (Appendix A) and additional permission was taken from Ministry of Education. Then, five secondary schools were chosen based on convenience sampling in Çankaya and Mamak, Ankara. After a school administration approved, the study was introduced to 7th and 8th graders of that school and informed consent forms (see Appendix B) were sent to mothers by adolescents. Mothers, who agreed to participate in the study, filled in the questionnaires regarding demographics, temperament of adolescent and co-rumination habits and the topics they discuss during co-rumination. Then, they returned them to the schools in closed envelopes through their children. In addition to their mothers' assents, written assents were taken from adolescents who agreed to participate. Finally, during a school time, children filled the questionnaires about their anger and depressive rumination, perceived maternal (psychological control and overprotection), their perfectionism as well as co-rumination habits and contents of their co-ruminations with their mothers.

2.3. Measures

2.3.1 Demographic Information Form

Demographic information form including family related variables which were age, education level, work and marital status of parent as well as total income of the family and number of the children at home, as well as adolescent's age and gender developed for the current study (Appendix C).

2.3.2 The Early Adolescent Temperament Questionnaire-Revised Form (EATQ-R):

The EATQ was initially developed by Capaldi et al. (1992) to assess temperament of 9 to 15 year olds, then was revised by Ellis and Rothbart (2001). The EATQ-R has both self-report and parent-report versions. In the current study, two subscales (effortful control and negative affect) from the parent-report and perceptual sensitivity subscale from self-report of the revised version was used. Effortful control

subscale (18-item) includes three dimensions: attention, inhibitory and activation control. *Attention control* (6-item) identifies the capacity of the child to sustain and swift his/her attention if needed. *Inhibitory control* (5-item) refers to the capacity of the child to inhibit irrelevant stimulus or impulses. *Activation control* (7-item) is the capacity to keep on a task or act despite unwillingness to do it. Negative affect subscale (17 items) includes three dimensions: frustration, aggression and depressive mood. *Frustration* (6-item) refers to the degree of negative affect when ongoing activity of the child is interrupted. *Aggression* (7-item) identifies hostile and aggressive acts or comments of the child toward somebody or something. *Depressive mood* (5-item) refers to loss in interest and enjoyment. Perceptual sensitivity (4-item) explains the capacity to be aware of even light stimulus in the environment. The EATQ- parent form did not include perceptual sensitivity subscale. For this reason, in the scope of the current study, the items from self-form about perceptual sensitivity dimension were reworded to obtain the responses from the mother (Appendix D). All items were asked on five point Likert type scale (from “never” to “always”). In the original study Cronbach’s alphas for each dimension ranged from .65 to .86 with the sample of 10-15 year olds (Ellis et al., 2001). In the current study, two reverse items from negative affect (item 16 = “Is hardly ever sad, even when lots of things are going wrong”; item 24 = “Doesn't criticize others”) and one item from perceptual sensitivity subscales (item 2 = “Can tell if another person is angry by their expression”) were deleted because of insufficient squared multiple correlation values. Therefore, in the final, the internal reliability α scores were yielded to be .82, .84, .71 for effortful control, negative affect and perceptual sensitivity subscales, respectively.

2.3.3. Psychological Control Scale- Youth Self- Report (PCS-YSR)

The initial version of PCS-YSR was developed by Barber (1996). This version included eight items loaded onto single factor to assess perceived parental psychological control by the youth. However, Barber, Olsen, Hunter, Mcneely and Bose (2007) reported that this version had a main limitation. That is, the items were developed based on theories in Western cultures and the opinions of the adolescents

were ignored while the item pool was generated. Therefore, Barber et al. (2007) accounted of these concerns and included new eight cross-cultural items. The factor analysis revealed that with some exceptions, new items were emerged as a separate cross-cultural subscale. Exceptionally, item five (“Blames me for other family member’s problems”) and seven (“Changes the subject whenever I have something to say”) was loaded into previous psychological control subscale in the analysis. On the other hand, new cross-cultural item 13 (“He/She expects a lot from me”) was loaded into psychological control subscale (as cited in Sayıl, & Kındap, 2012). PCS-YSR was adapted to Turkish by Sayıl et al. (2012). They reported very similar results with Barber et al (2007). For this reason, eight items significantly loaded in psychological control subscale in Turkish version was included to assess perceived maternal psychological control in the current study (Appendix E). Items were asked on five-point Likert type scale. Each answer gets a value from one (“never”) to five (“always”). Higher scores refer to greater parental psychological control. Sayıl et al. (2012) reported that Cronbach’s alpha was .77 for maternal psychological control subscale. For current study, item 1 (“yapmamam gerektiğini düşündüğü bir şeyi yaptığımda kendimi suçlu hissettirir” – “makes me feel guilty when I do something that she thinks I should not do”) had insufficient squared multiple correlation ($r = .08$). Therefore, it was excluded from analysis and Cronbach alpha improved from .73 to .75.

2.3.4 Parental Overprotection Scale

Overprotection scale of Doğruyol (2008) was used in the current study. This scale includes seven items developed to measure perceived maternal overprotectiveness. In the current version of the scale, three of the items were taken from overprotection subscale of EMBU-Short Form, which was developed by Arrindell and his associates in 1999. The rest of the items were developed to capture culture specific dimensions of the construct in Turkish sample (Doğruyol, 2008). The participants could respond the seven items based on five Likert type scale (from “never” to “always”) (Appendix F). Higher scores refer to higher perceived maternal overprotection.

Güneş (2015) used this scale with the adolescent population and found Cronbach's alpha was .85. In the current study, the results yielded internal consistency to be .79.

2.3.5 Child and Adolescent Perfectionism Scale (CAPS)

The CAPS was developed by Flett, Hewitt, Boucher, Davidson and Munro (2001) to assess perfectionism in children and adolescents. The items of CAPS were adapted from Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (MPS), which was developed by Hewitt and Flett (1991). Although the original MPS includes three subscales, the CAPS has two subscales (self-oriented and socially-prescribed perfectionism). Other-oriented was not included in CAPS because of limited information in the literature regarding expectations of younger age groups from the others. As the first dimension, “*self-oriented perfectionism (SOP)*” is defined as having extremely high personal standards and motivation to achieve them. There are 12 items in CAPS to assess this dimension. Moreover, Cronbach's alpha was reported as .85 for this subscale. The second dimension is “*socially-prescribed perfectionism (SPP)*” which was conceptualized as others' expectations from individual to be perfect. CAPS measures degree of perceived SPP through ten items and the Cronbach's alpha was founded as .81 (Flett, & Hewitt, 2016). The scale is appropriate for individuals having at least 3rd grade reading level. The answers are evaluated on five-point Likert type scale. Specifically, one-point means “false, not true for me” and five-point means “very true for me”. Higher scores represent the higher perfectionism scores for each subscale. CAPS was translated in Turkish for current study by using translation and back translation method and the results yielded good internal consistency alphas for SOP and SPP, which were .84 and .88, respectively (Appendix G).

2.3.6 Co-rumination Questionnaire (CQ)

Rose (2002) developed Co-rumination Questionnaire (CQ) to assess shared rumination in social contexts such as rumination with a same-sex peer. CQ includes 27-items and nine subscales. These are “*frequency of discussing problems (1), discussing problems instead of engaging in other activities (2), consistent encouragement by the focal child of the friend's discussing problems (3), consistent*

encouragement by the friend of the focal child's discussing problems (4), discussing the same problem repeatedly (5), speculation about causes of problems (6), speculation about consequences of problems (7), speculation about other aspects of the problem that are not understood (8), and focusing on negative feelings (9)''.

There are three items for each subscale. Waller et al. (2010) adapted the Co-rumination Questionnaire (CQ) from the original version to capture extent to which pre- and middle adolescents co-ruminate with mothers and so this revised version was used in the current study. Revised version differs from the original scale in two ways. Firstly, unlike the original scale, revised version has separated items to capture agency of the co-rumination. In other words, the response styles are investigated separately for adolescent and mother's problems. This caused that number of dimensions or subscales was reduced to eight rather than nine because subscale 3 and 4 comprehend both agency. Secondly, the revised version is shorter not to be boring for participants. That is, the items with highest factor loading in the original questionnaire were chosen for each dimension. Thus, there are eight items for each agency (16 items in total) and the items are evaluated on five point Likert type scale (1 = "not at all true" to 5 = "really true"). Co-rumination scores are computed separately for mother's problems and adolescent's problems and higher scores indicate greater co-rumination. In terms of internal consistency, alpha values were reported as .91 and .94 for co-rumination about adolescent's problems and mother's problems respectively (Waller et al., 2010). In the scope of the current study, the scale was translated by two independent researchers in Turkish through back translation method. Different from the original scale, one open ended question was asked for each agency to determine the content of the rumination between them (Appendix H - I). In the current study, Cronbach's alpha values of mother report form were obtained to be .90 for mother's problems and .91 for adolescent's problems. Similarly, Cronbach's alpha values of adolescent report form were .91 for adolescent's problems and .92 for mother's problems.

2.3.7 Child Response Style Questionnaire (CRSQ)

Response Style Questionnaire (RSQ) was developed by Nolen-Hoeksema and Morrow (1991) in order to assess which ways individuals respond to sadness. Abela, Rochon and Vanderbilt (2000) revised this scale for children and developed the CRSQ. There are three subscales (rumination, distraction and problem solving) and 25-item in total. However, in the scope of the current study, only rumination subscale was used in order to assess depressive rumination (Appendix J). Depressive rumination was briefly conceptualized as passive and repetitive self-focused responses to sad mood. Participants rated specific responses to sadness on 13 items and five-point Likert type scale (1 = “never” to 5 = “always”). Higher scores refer to greater tendency for depressive rumination. Although age limits for CRSQ usage was not reported in the literature, the results showed that it has acceptable reliability for 3rd and 7th graders ($\alpha = .76$ and $\alpha = .84$, respectively) (Abela, Brozina, & Haigh, 2002). Özgülük, Erdur-Baker and Bugay (2012) adapted CRSQ in Turkish and reported Cronbach’s alphas for fourth and seventh graders were .78 and .80, respectively. In the current study, Cronbach’s alpha was .86.

2.3.8 Children’s Anger Rumination Scale (CARS)

Anger Rumination Scale (ARS) was developed by Sukhodolsky et al., (2001) in order to measure degree of rumination on anger among adults. ARS has 19-items and four subscales: angry afterthoughts, thoughts of revenge, angry memories, and understanding of causes. Smith, Stephens, Repper and Kistner (2016) adapted ARS to be used for children and developed CARS. The number of items and content remained the same with the original version but the wording was revised for younger population. Similar to ARS, participants evaluate their responses on five-point Likert type scale in CARS (from “1= never” to “5= always”). Higher scores represent the higher anger rumination. Smith and his associates (2016) used children and adolescents from 4th to 9th grades as participants and established good reliability and validity scores for this population. Specifically, internal consistency reliability was found .91 for total scale. For the current study, CARS was translated into Turkish by

using translation and back-translation method (Appendix K). Total score was used in the analysis and Cronbach's alpha was revealed to be .91 for this study.

2. 4. Data Analytic Plan

The hypotheses of this study were tested by using two basic statistical analyses. Firstly, hierarchical regression on child's anger and depressive rumination were conducted to examine first-order (main) effects and moderator effects in the association. In this scope, perceived parenting (maternal overprotection and psychological control), co-rumination with mother on adolescent's and mother's problems (from both report agencies), and adolescent's perfectionism (self- oriented and socially-prescribed) were included as potential predictors. Besides, three temperamental characteristics (negative affect, effortful control, perceptual sensitivity) and gender were tested as potential moderators. To test questions of interests, separate 6- step hierarchical regression analyses were run for each potential moderator and outcome variables. In total, eight regression analyses were conducted. Moreover, while a particular moderator was tested, if moderator was continuous, it was put in the analysis as centered at mean but if it was categorical, it was entered as dummy coded. Secondly, content analysis was carried out in order to identify main topics of co-rumination between mothers and adolescents.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

3.1. Preliminary Analyses

3.1.1. Dealing with Missing Data & Outliers

Before running the main analyses, firstly, dataset was controlled for missing data. Analysis of missing data for primary variables in the study showed Little's MCAR test was non-significant (χ^2 (13727, N= 276) = 13854,119, $p = .22$). This means that missing data were completely random. There were 23 cases with more than 50% of missing data in any scales or subscales were deleted from the dataset. Then, the rest of the missing data points (range = 0% - 4%) were estimated by using Multiple Imputation Technique. After dealing with missing values, univariate and multivariate outliers were examined through z-score (> 3.29 , $p < .001$) and Mahalanobis distance (MD $\chi_{21}^2 = 46.797$) respectively. No univariate outliers and only one multivariate outlier (MD = 53.368) was emerged. This outlier was deleted from the dataset. Thirdly, normality assumption was checked and primary variables of the study showed acceptable Skewness and Kurtosis values. That is, none of the variables did exceed -1 and +1 Skewness and Kurtosis values. Besides, the analysis revealed normally distributed histogram for each study variables. Next, multicollinearity assumption was also met based on criteria of $r < .90$ (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). After all, the main analyses were run with 252 participants in total.

3.1.2 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics for and bivariate correlations among perceived parenting (maternal psychological control and maternal overprotection), adolescent's perfectionism (self-oriented perfectionism and socially-prescribed perfectionism),

co-rumination with mother on adolescent's problems (self- and mother- report), co-rumination with mother on mother's problems (self- and mother- report) and rumination (depressive and anger) were summarized in table 3.1.2.

Table 3.1.2 Descriptive statistics for and correlations among study variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Child's gender	1													
2. Depressive rumination	-.23**	1												
3. Anger rumination	-.17**	.72**	1											
4. Psychological control	.05	.33**	.33**	1										
5. Overprotection	-.01	.17**	.20**	.36**	1									
6. SOP	-.06	.35**	.41**	.26**	.32**	1								
7. SPP	-.05	.30**	.29**	.50**	.40**	.55**	1							
8. C_CoRum_C	-.09	.29**	.23**	-.09	.16*	.30**	.20**	1						
9. C_CoRum_M	-.06	.32**	.22**	.01	.24**	.28**	.20**	.77**	1					
10. M_CoRum_M	-.11	.17**	.11	-.03	.08	.17**	.10	.51**	.53**	1				
11. M_CoRum_C	-.11	.18**	.15*	-.11	.03	.19**	.07	.51**	.43**	.51**	1			
12. Effortful control	-.08	-.10	-.11	-.24**	-.12	.07	-.07	.09	.09	.27**	.16*	1		
13. Negative affect	-.09	.38**	.42**	.37**	.24**	.27**	.21**	.11	.13*	-.05	-.01	-.54**	1	
14. Perceptual sensitivity	-.16	.08	.12	.00	-.05	-.01	-.04	.00	-.01	.09	.05	.22**	.02	1
<i>M</i>		36.54	53.87	16.20	20.68	38.62	28.87	26.72	24.20	24.19	30.29	62.06	40.71	10.16
<i>SD</i>		10.44	14.53	5.32	6.09	9.29	8.92	7.56	7.62	7.29	6.56	10.96	10.71	2.84

Note. SOP = self-oriented perfectionism; SPP = socially-prescribed perfectionism; C_CoRum_C = child report co-rumination on child's problem; C_CoRum_M = child report co-rumination on mother's problem; M_CoRum_M = mother report co-rumination on mother's problem; M_CoRum_C = mother report co-rumination on child's problem; Psychological control and overprotection = measured as perceived from mothers. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

3.2. Hypothesis Testing

Hierarchical regression analyses were conducted in order to investigate the relations between perceived parenting (maternal psychological control and overprotection), co-rumination with mother, adolescent's perfectionism (self-oriented and socially-prescribed), adolescent's temperament (effortful control, negative affect and perceptual sensitivity), gender and adolescent's rumination (depressive and anger). Furthermore, moderator role of adolescent's temperaments were also investigated. The analyses were performed separately for each outcome variable and moderator variable. Thus, in total, eight set of hierarchical regression analyses were run in order to test the hypotheses. In all analyses, adolescent's gender was entered as control variable in the first step of the regression. Then, hypothesized parenting dimensions (maternal psychological control and overprotection) were put in the second step. In the third step, adolescent's perfectionism including self-oriented and socially-prescribed perfectionism was entered individually into regression. In the fourth step, all co-rumination variables were entered. After that, centered moderator variable and other two temperamental characteristics were put into analysis. Finally, interaction between moderator variable and predictors were entered in the sixth step. These steps were repeated separately eight times for each moderator (effortful control, negative affect, perceptual sensitivity and adolescent's gender) and outcome variable (depressive and anger rumination).

3.2.1. Hierarchical Regression Analyses for Predicting Depressive Rumination

Results were shown in Table 3.2.1, the first five steps were identical for all moderator variables and each step made significant contribution to adolescent's depressive rumination. Specifically, adolescent's gender in the first step accounted 5 % of the variance in depressive rumination (adjusted $R^2 = .05$, $F(1, 250) = 14.17$, $p < .001$). In the second step, 12 % of the variance in outcome was accounted by perceived parenting dimensions in the model (adjusted $R^2 = .16$, $\Delta R^2 = .12$, $\Delta F(2, 248) = 17.81$, $p < .001$). In the third step, co-rumination variables for both of agencies and reporters were entered and explained 10 % of the variance (adjusted R^2

= .26, $\Delta R^2 = .10$, $\Delta F(4, 244) = 8,86$, $p < .001$). In the next step, adolescent's perfectionism was put into the model and accounted for 3 % of the explained variance (adjusted $R^2 = .28$, $\Delta R^2 = .03$, $\Delta F(2, 242) = 5,07$, $p < .01$). In fifth step, hypothesized temperament dimensions were entered and accounted 4 % of the variance in the model (adjusted $R^2 = .31$, $\Delta R^2 = .04$, $\Delta F(3, 239) = 4,36$, $p < .01$).

Table 3.2.1 Hierarchical Regression Analysis in Predicting Depressive Rumination: Effortful Control as Moderator

	Predictors	R^2	ΔR	F	ΔF	B	SE	β
1	Gender	.05		14.17***		-4.18	1.22	-.18**
2	Parenting	.17	.12	17.23***	17.81***			
	Overprotection					-.11	.10	-.07
	Psy control					.50	.14	.25***
3	Co-rumination	.28	.10	13.38***	8.86***			
	A_CoRum_A					.08	.12	.06
	A_CoRum_M					.26	.12	.19*
	M_CoRum_M					-.04	.10	-.03
	M_CoRum_M					.11	.11	.07
4	Perfectionism	.31	.03	11.88***	5.07**			
	Self-oriented					.16	.08	.14**
	Socially prescribed					-.01	.08	-.01
5	Temperament	.34	.04	10.37***	4.36**			
	Effortful control (a)					-.01	.07	-.01
	Negative affect					.21	.07	.22**
	Perceptual sensitivity					.26	.21	.07
6	Interactions	.38	.04	7.05***	1.69			
	Overprotection *a					.02	.01	.13⁺⁺
	Psychological control *a					.00	.01	.02
	A_CoRum_A *a					.00	.01	.00

Table 3.2.1 (continued)

Predictors	R^2	ΔR	F	ΔF	B	SE	β
A_CoRum_M *a					-.02	.01	-.13
M_CoRum_A *a					.00	.01	.04
M_CoRum_A *a					.02	.01	.17*
Self-oriented perfect *a					.00	.01	.05
Socially pres. perfect *a					-.01	.01	-.11 ⁺

Note. Standard Error (SE), B and β values in the final steps were reported. A_CoRum_A = adolescent-report co-rumination on adolescent's problems; A_CoRum_M = adolescent-report co-rumination on mother's problems; M_CoRum_M = mother-report co-rumination on mother's problems; M_CoRum_A = mother-report co-rumination on adolescent's problems. ⁺ $p < .10$; ⁺⁺ $p < .06$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

In the last step of the regression, unique and interaction effects were interpreted. In terms of unique effects, gender (girls = 1, boys = 2, $\beta = -.18$, $p < .001$), perceived maternal psychological control ($\beta = .25$, $p < .001$), adolescent report co-rumination on mother's problems ($\beta = .19$, $p < .05$), adolescent's self-oriented perfectionism ($\beta = .14$, $p < .05$) and adolescent's negative affect ($\beta = .22$, $p < .01$) predicted adolescent's depressive rumination.

When the moderator role of effortful control was tested, in the last step, interaction between effortful control and each independent variable were individually entered into regression. In spite of non-significant F_{change} ($\Delta F(8, 231) = 8,23$, $p = .10$), the model was still significant (adjusted $R^2 = .32$, $\Delta R^2 = .04$, $F(20, 231) = 7,05$, $p < .001$). For moderator role of effortful control, one significant and two marginally significant interactions were found and simple slopes plots were drawn in order to see direction of each interaction. Firstly, the analysis yielded that effortful control x mother report co-rumination on adolescent's problem ($\beta = .17$, $p < .01$) significantly predicted adolescent's depressive rumination. According to the plot (see Figure 3.2.1.a), if adolescent's effortful control was low, there was not a significant

difference between low and high co-rumination scores on adolescent's problems in terms of adolescent's depressive rumination ($b = -.16$, $SE = .10$, $p = .13$). However, if adolescent's effortful control was high, higher co-rumination on adolescent's problems predicted higher depressive rumination ($b = .39$, $SE = .10$, $p < .001$).

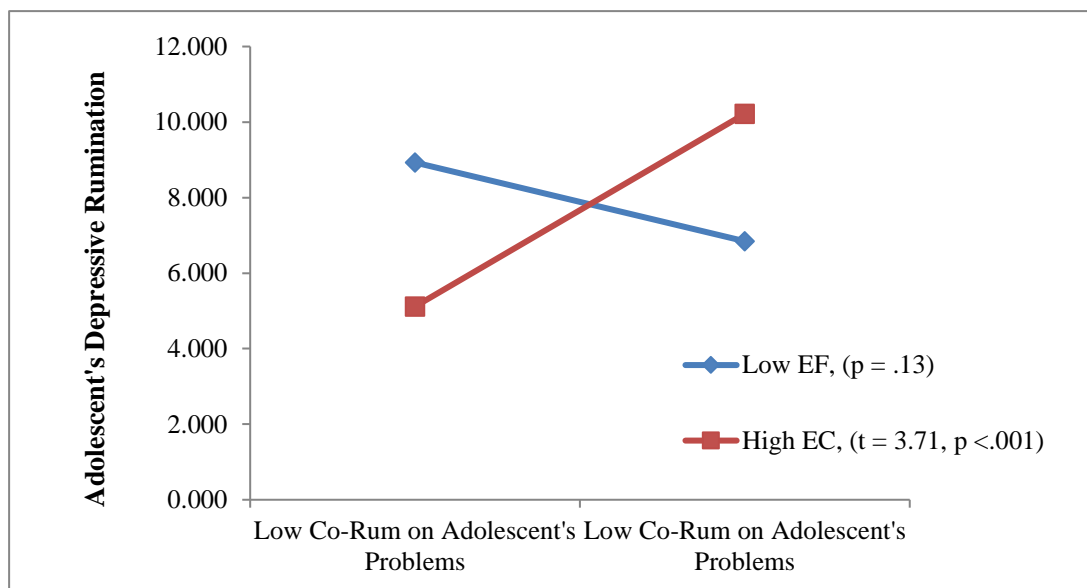


Figure 3.2.1.a. Co-rumination on adolescent's problem (MR) interaction with effortful control on adolescent's depressive rumination. Co-Rum = co-rumination; EC = effortful control (high = +1 SD; low = -1 SD).

Secondly, interaction between effortful control and perceived maternal overprotection on depressive rumination found marginally significant ($\beta = .13$, $p = .056$). According to its plot (see Figure 3.2.1.b), for adolescents with high effortful control, maternal overprotection was not associated with adolescent's depressive rumination ($b = .12$, $SE = .11$, $p = .30$), whereas for adolescents with low effortful control, maternal overprotection predicted adolescent's depressive rumination. In

fact, children with low effortful control engaged in less depressive rumination if their perceived maternal overprotection was high ($b = -.33$, $SE = .10$, $p < .001$).

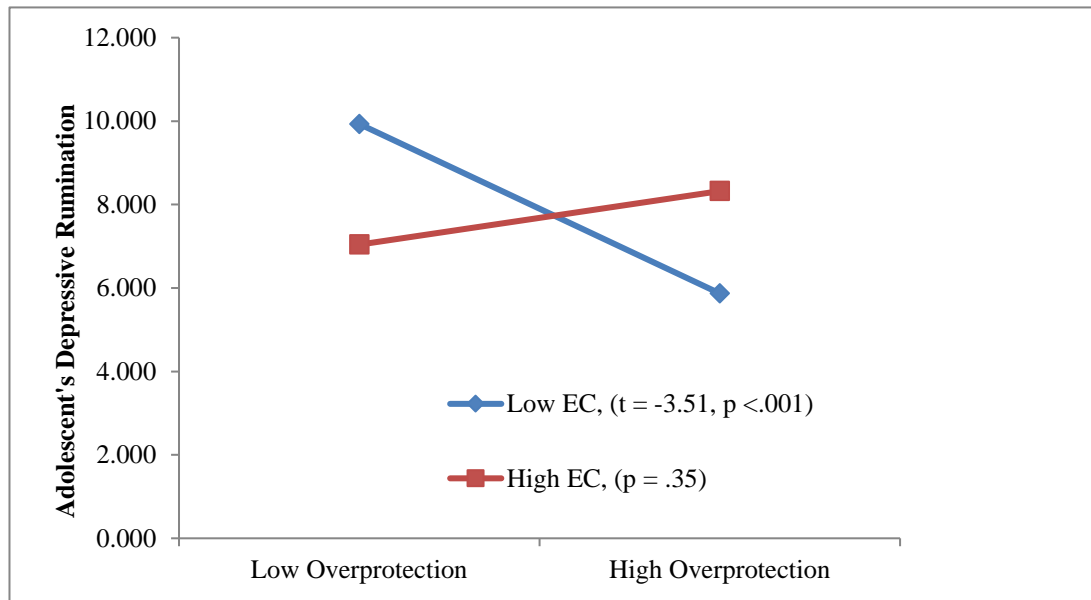


Figure 3.2.1.b Perceived maternal overprotection interaction with effortful control on adolescent's depressive rumination. EC = effortful control (high = +1 SD; low = -1 SD)

Finally, interaction between effortful control and adolescent's socially prescribed perfectionism yielded marginally significant result ($\beta = -.11$, $p = .08$) but plot drawn for this interaction did not revealed significant slope for two levels of the moderator (for high effortful control, $p = .23$; for low effortful control, $p = .27$).

After the effortful control, moderator role of perceptual sensitivity (adjusted $R^2 = .30$, $\Delta R^2 = .01$, $\Delta F(8, 231) = .51$, $p = .85$), negative affect (adjusted $R^2 = .30$, $\Delta R^2 = .02$, $\Delta F(8, 231) = .70$, $p = .69$) and gender model (adjusted $R^2 = .31$, $\Delta R^2 = .02$, $\Delta F(8, 231) = .88$, $p = .54$) on adolescent's depressive rumination was examined; however, the results did not yield any significant interaction effect.

3.2.2. Hierarchical Regression Analyses for Predicting Anger Rumination

In the analyses for predicting anger rumination, six-step multiple regressions were conducted separately for each moderator and adolescent's gender, perceived parenting, co-rumination, adolescent's perfectionism, temperament and two-way interactions with specific moderator were added respectively into analyses. Specifically, adolescent's gender in the first step accounted 3 % of the variance in anger rumination (adjusted $R^2 = .03$, $F(1, 250) = 7,62$, $p < .01$). In the second step, 12 % of the variance in outcome was accounted by perceived parenting dimensions in the model (adjusted $R^2 = .14$, $\Delta R^2 = .12$, $\Delta F(2, 248) = 17,86$, $p < .001$). In the third step, co-rumination variables for both of agencies and reporters were entered and explained 6 % of the variance (adjusted $R^2 = .19$, $\Delta R^2 = .06$, $\Delta F(4, 244) = 4,49$, $p < .01$). In the next step, adolescent's perfectionism was put into the model and accounted for 7 % of the explained variance (adjusted $R^2 = .25$, $\Delta R^2 = .07$, $\Delta F(2, 242) = 11,82$, $p < .001$). In fifth step, hypothesized temperament dimensions were entered and accounted 6 % of explained variance in the model (adjusted $R^2 = .31$, $\Delta R^2 = .06$, $\Delta F(3, 239) = 7,197$, $p < .001$).

Unique and interaction effects were investigated in the last step of each regression. According to results (see Table 3.2.2a), gender (girls = 1, boys = 2, $\beta = -.12$, $p < .05$), perceived maternal psychological control ($\beta = .22$, $p < .01$), adolescent's self-oriented perfectionism ($\beta = .26$, $p < .001$), adolescent's negative affect ($\beta = .27$, $p < .001$) and perceptual sensitivity ($\beta = .13$, $p < .05$) significantly predicted adolescent's anger rumination. In other words, female gender, high level of self-oriented perfectionism, perceptual sensitivity and negative affect but low level of effortful control was found as risk factor for rumination on anger.

Table 3.2.2a Hierarchical Regression Analysis in Predicting Anger Rumination:
Effortful Control as Moderator

	Predictors	R^2	ΔR^2	F	ΔF	B	SE	β
1	Gender	.03		7.62**	7.62**	-3.80	1.71	-.12*
2	Parenting	.15	.12	14.79***	17.86***			
	Overprotection					-.02	.14	-.10
	Psychological control					.60	.19	.22**
3	Co-rumination	.21	.06	9.26***	4.49**			
	A_CoRum_A					.21	.17	.11
	A_CoRum_M					.01	.17	.00
	M_CoRum_M					-.08	.14	-.04
	M_CoRum_A					.18	.15	.08
4	Perfectionism	.28	.07	10.47***	11.82***			
	Self-oriented					.40	.11	.26***
	Socially prescribed					-.08	.12	-.05
5	Temperament	.34	.06	10.25***	7.20***			
	Effortful control (a)					.00	.09	.00
	Negative affect					.36	.10	.27***
	Perceptual sensitivity					.64	.29	.13*
6	Interactions	.37	.03	6.93***	1.62			
	Overprotection *a					.04	.01	.20**
	Psychological control *a					-.01	.02	-.05
	A_CoRum_A *a					.00	.01	.02
	A_CoRum_M *a					-.02	.01	-.13
	M_CoRum_M *a					.00	.01	-.00
	M_CoRum_A *a					.03	.01	.15*
	Self-oriented perfect *a					.00	.01	.04
	Socially pres. perfect *a					-.01	.01	-.10

Note. Standard Error (SE), B and β values in the final steps were reported. A_CoRum_A = adolescent-report co-rumination on adolescent's problems; A_CoRum_M = adolescent-report co-rumination on mother's problems; M_CoRum_M = mother-report co-rumination on mother's problems;

M_CoRum_A = mother-report co-rumination on adolescent's problems. $^+p < .10$; $^{++}p < .06$; $^*p < .05$; $^{**}p < .01$; $^{***}p < .001$

In addition to these unique effects, several significant interaction effects were also found. First of all, interactions with effortful control were entered into regression (adjusted $R^2 = .32$, $\Delta R^2 = .03$, $\Delta F(8, 231) = 1,16$, $p = .12$) and results showed that effortful control x perceived maternal overprotection ($\beta = .20$, $p < .01$), and effortful control x mother report co-rumination on adolescent's problems ($\beta = .15$, $p < .05$), significantly associated with anger rumination. According to plot for effortful control x overprotection, for adolescents with low effortful control ($-1 SD$) perceived higher level of maternal overprotection predicted less anger rumination compared to lower level of maternal overprotection ($b = -.49$, $SE = .14$, $p < .001$). However, for adolescents with high effortful control ($+1 SD$), higher level of maternal overprotection was associated with more anger rumination ($b = .45$, $SE = .14$, $p < .01$) (see Figure 3.2.2a).

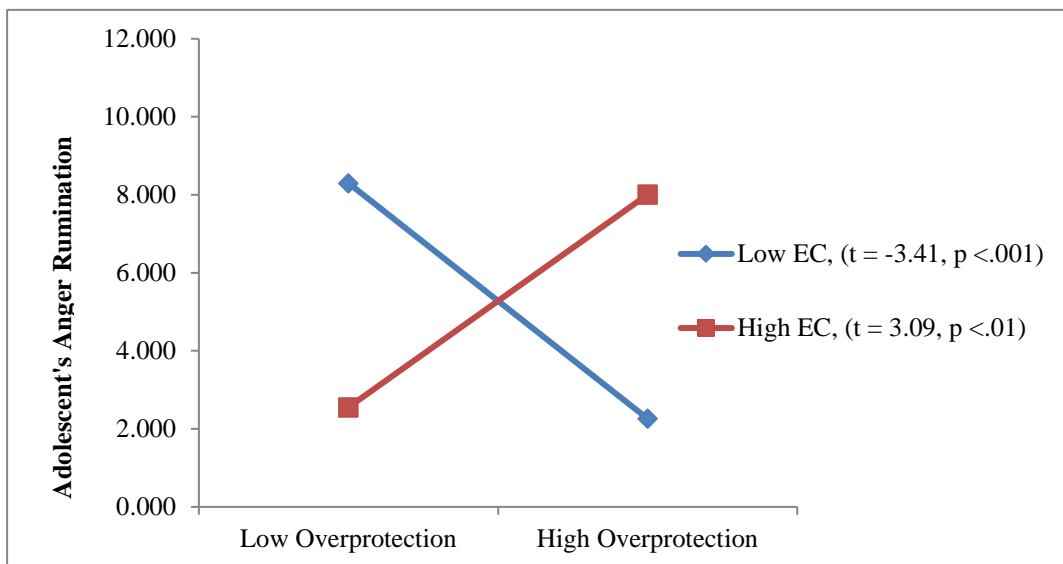


Figure 3.2.2a. Perceived maternal overprotection with effortful control on adolescent's anger rumination. EC = Effortful Control (high = $+1 SD$; low = $-1 SD$).

According to plot for effortful control x co-rumination on adolescent's problems (MR), co-rumination on adolescent's problems did not predict adolescent's anger rumination among those with low effortful control ($-1 SD$, $p = .25$). However, higher level of co-rumination on adolescent's problems predicted higher anger rumination among their peers with high effortful control ($+1 SD$, $b = .53$, $SE = .15$, $p < .001$) (see Figure 3.2.2b)

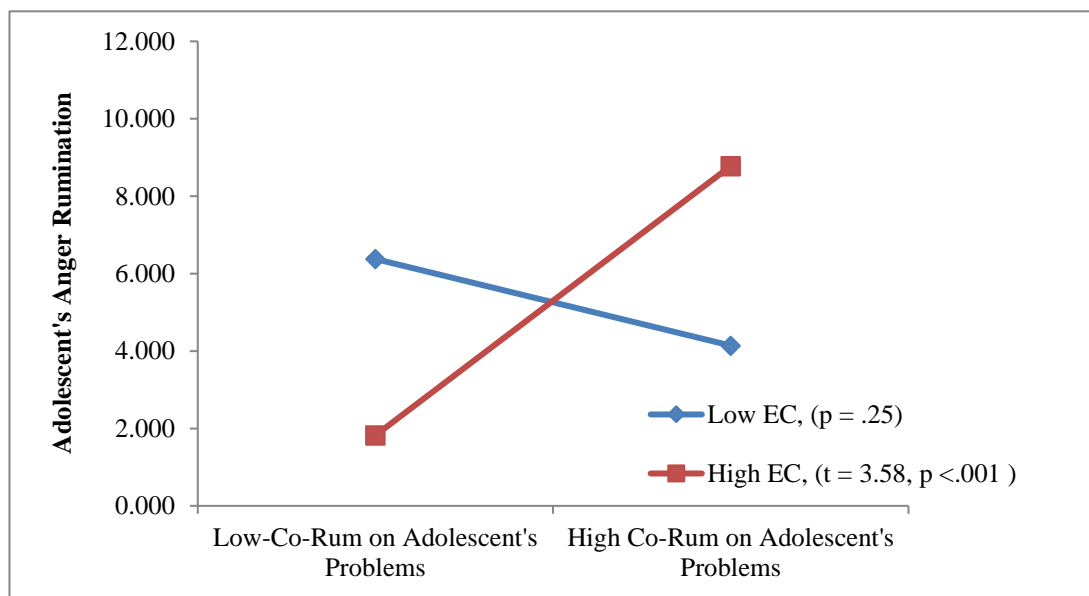


Figure 3.2.2b. Co-rumination on adolescent's problems (MR) interaction with effortful control on adolescent's anger rumination. EC = effortful control (high = $+1 SD$; low = $-1 SD$).

Secondly, moderator role of adolescent's negative affect was tested (see Table 3.2.2b). Inclusion of the interaction between negative affect and hypothesized predictors did not make significant contribution to the model (adjusted $R^2 = .31$, $\Delta R^2 = .03$, $\Delta F(8, 231) = 1.31$, $p = .24$), but the regression model was still significant ($F(20, 231) = 6.74$, $p < .01$). The only significant interaction was found between negative affect and maternal overprotection ($\beta = -.18$, $p < .01$). Simple slopes plot

showed that maternal overprotection differently influenced adolescents with negative affect in opposite direction. Specifically, for adolescents with high level of negative affect, as maternal overprotection increase, adolescent's rumination on anger decreased. ($b = -.44$, $SE = .14$, $p < .01$). However, for those with low level of negative affect, as maternal overprotection increased, adolescent's anger rumination also increased ($b = .41$, $SE = .14$, $p < .01$) (see Figure 3.2.2c).

Table 3.2.2b Hierarchical Regression Analysis in Predicting Anger Rumination: Negative Affect as Moderator

	Predictors	R²	ΔR²	F	ΔF	B	SE	β
1	Gender	.03		7.62**	7.62**	-3.74	1.71	-.12*
2	Parenting	.15	.12	14.79***	17.86***			
	Overprotection					-.01	.14	-.01
	Psychological control					.57	.19	.21**
3	Co-rumination	.21	.06	9.26***	4.49**			
	A_CoRum_A					.21	.17	.11
	A_CoRum_M					.05	.17	.03
	M_CoRum_M					-.05	.14	-.02
	M_CoRum_A					.14	.15	.06
4	Perfectionism	.28	.07	10.47***	11.82***			
	Self-oriented					.43	.11	.27***
	Socially prescribed					-.09	.12	-.05
5	Temperament	.34	.06	10.25***	7.20***			
	Effortful control					.02	.09	.01
	Negative affect (a)					.35	.10	.25***
	Perceptual sensitivity					.50	.29	.10⁺⁺
6	Interactions	.37	.03	6.74***	1.31			
	Overprotection * a					-.04	.01	-.18**
	Psychological control * a					-.00	.01	-.01
	A_CoRum_A * a					-.02	.02	-.09
	A_CoRum_M* a					.02	.02	.11
	M_CoRum_M * a					.01	.01	.04
	M_CoRum_A * a					-.00	.01	-.01

Table 3.2.2b (continued)

Predictors	R^2	ΔR^2	F	ΔF	B	SE	β
Self-oriented perfect *a					.00	.01	.02
Socially pres. perfect *a					.00	.01	.01

Note. Standard Error (SE), B and β values in the final steps were reported. A_CoRum_A = adolescent-report co-rumination on adolescent's problems; A_CoRum_M = adolescent-report co-rumination on mother's problems; M_CoRum_M = mother-report co-rumination on mother's problems; M_CoRum_A = mother-report co-rumination on adolescent's problems. $^+p < .10$; $^{++}p < .06$; $^*p < .05$; $^{**}p < .01$; $^{***}p < .001$

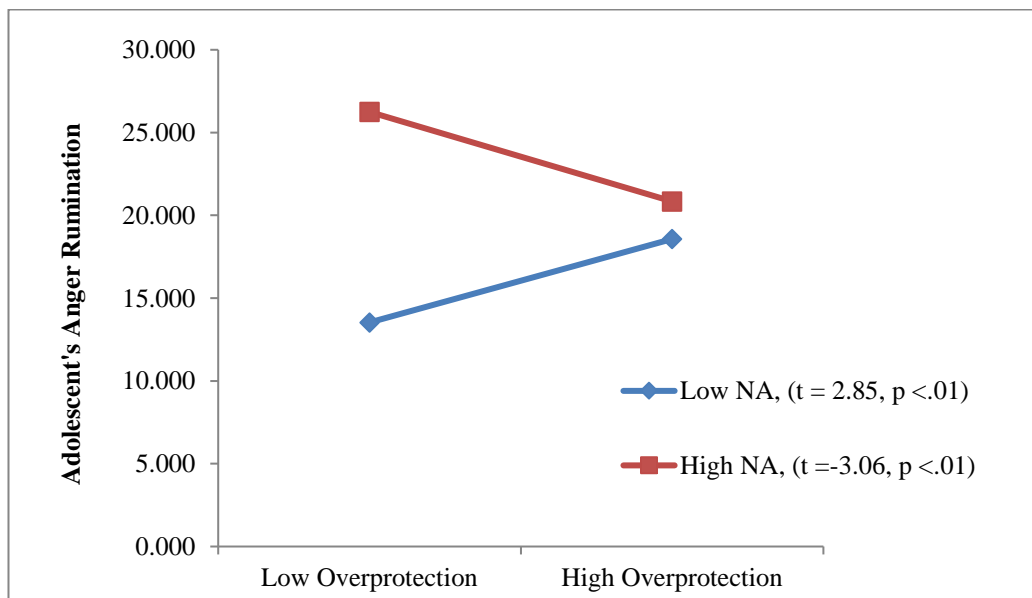


Figure 3.2.2c. Perceived maternal overprotection interaction with negative affect on anger rumination. NA= negative affect (high = +1 SD; low = -1 SD).

In the next regression, moderator role of perceptual sensitivity was tested (see Table 3.2.2c). The results yielded that contribution of perceptual sensitivity interaction to regression model was not significant ($\Delta F(8, 231) = 1.23, p = .28$). Nevertheless, in the last step, the regression model was still significant ($R_{adj}^2 = .31, \Delta R^2 = .03, F(20,$

231) = 6.69, $p < .001$). According to last step of the analysis, the only significant interaction was found between perceptual sensitivity and adolescent report co-rumination on adolescent's problems ($\beta = -.22, p < .05$). That is, for perceptually less sensitive adolescents, co-rumination with mother on adolescent's problem increased adolescent's anger rumination (+1 *SD*, $b = .59, SE = .24, p < .05$), whereas there was not significant association between co-rumination on adolescent's problem and anger rumination for perceptually more sensitive peers (-1 *SD*, $p = .28$) (see Figure 3.2.2d).

Table 3.2.2c Hierarchical Regression Analysis in Predicting Anger Rumination: Perceptual sensitivity as Moderator

	Predictors	R^2	ΔR^2	F	ΔF	B	SE	β
1	Gender	.03		7.62**	7.62**	-3.30	1.73	-.11 ⁺
2	Parenting	.15	.12	14.79***	17.86***			
	Overprotection					-.06	.14	-.03
	Psychological control					.56	.19	.20**
3	Co-rumination	.21	.06	9.26***	4.49**			
	A_CoRum_A					.20	.18	.10
	A_CoRum_M					.08	.17	.04
	M_CoRum_M					-.04	.14	-.02
	M_CoRum_A					.14	.14	.06
4	Perfectionism	.28	.07	10.47***	11.82***			
	Self-oriented					.39	.11	.25***
	Socially prescribed					-.09	.12	-.05
5	Temperament	.34	.06	10.25***	7.20***			
	Effortful control					.03	.09	.02
	Negative affect					.38	.10	.28***
	Perceptual sensitivity (a)					.43	.29	.08
6	Interactions	.37	.03	6.69***	1.23			
	Overprotection * a					.02	.05	.03
	Psychological control * a					.01	.06	.01
	A_CoRum_M * a					.08	.06	.13
	A_CoRum_A * a					-.14	.08	-.22*

Table 3.2.2c (continued)

Predictors	R^2	ΔR^2	F	ΔF	B	SE	β
M_CoRum_M *a					.00	.05	.00
M_CoRum_A *a					-.04	.05	-.06
Self-oriented perfect *a					.00	.04	.01
Socially pres. perfect *a					-.01	.04	-.02

Note. Standard Error (SE), B and β values in the final steps were reported. A_CoRum_A = adolescent-report co-rumination on adolescent's problems; A_CoRum_M = adolescent-report co-rumination on mother's problems; M_CoRum_M = mother-report co-rumination on mother's problems; M_CoRum_A = mother-report co-rumination on adolescent's problems. ⁺ $p < .10$; ⁺⁺ $p < .06$; ^{*} $p < .05$; ^{**} $p < .01$; ^{***} $p < .001$

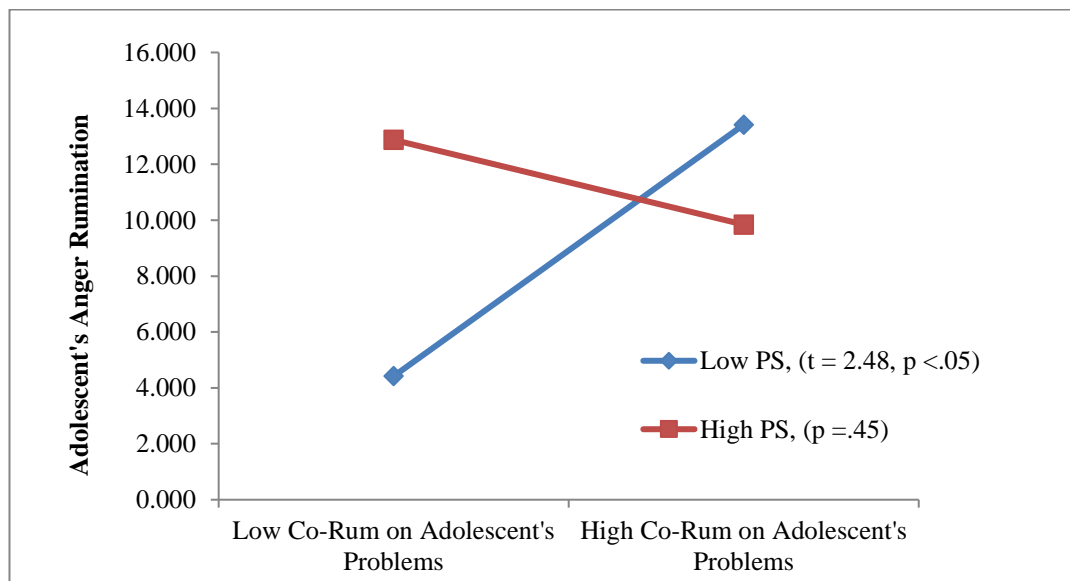


Figure 3.2.2d. Co-rumination on adolescent's problems (AR) interaction with adolescent's perceptual sensitivity on anger rumination. PS= perceptual sensitivity (high = +1 SD; low = -1 SD).

Finally, gender interactions were included in order to investigate moderator role of gender (see Table 3.2.2d). This did not make any significant contribution to the

regression model ($\Delta F(8, 231) = .89, p = .52$), but it was still significant in the last step ($R_{adj}^2 = .30, \Delta R^2 = .02, F(20, 231) = 6.49, p < .001$). Among hypothesized interactions, gender significantly moderated the association between perceived maternal psychological control and anger rumination ($\beta = -.47, p < .05$). Accordingly, for girls, as perceived maternal control increased, adolescent's anger rumination also increased ($b = .90, SE = .23, p < .001$), whereas for boys, adolescent's anger rumination did not change depending on level of maternal psychological control ($p = .81$) (see Figure 3.2.2e).

Table 3.2.2d Hierarchical Regression Analysis in Predicting Anger Rumination: Gender as Moderator

Predictors	R^2	ΔR^2	F	ΔF	B	SE	β
1 Gender (a)	.03		7.62**	7.62**	-3.31	1.70	-.11
2 Parenting	.15	.12	14.79***	17.86***			
Overprotection					-.11	.18	-.04
Psychological control					.90	.23	.33***
3 Co-rumination	.21	.06	9.26***	4.49**			
A_CoRum_A					.16	.22	.09
A_CoRum_M					-.01	.20	-.01
M_CoRum_M					-.10	.18	-.05
M_CoRum_A					.29	.19	.13
4 Perfectionism	.28	.07	10.47***	11.82***			
Self-oriented					.41	.13	.27**
Socially prescribed					-.15	.15	-.09
5 Temperament	.34	.06	10.25***	7.20***			
Effortful control					.03	.09	.02
Negative affect					.35	.10	.26***
Perceptual sensitivity					.46	.29	.09
6 Interactions	.36	.02	6.49***	.89			
Psychological control *a					-.82	.38	-.17*
Overprotection *a					.09	.31	.02
A_CoRum_A *a					.21	.36	.06

Table 3.2.2d (continued)

Predictors	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2	<i>F</i>	ΔF	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β
A_CoRum_M *a					.01	.36	.00
M_CoRum_A *a					-.35	.30	-.09
M_CoRum_M *a					.13	.28	.04
Self-oriented perfect *a					-.02	.22	-.01
Soc. pres. perfect *a					.22	.24	.08

Note. Standard Error (*SE*), *B* and β values in the final steps were reported. A_CoRum_A = adolescent-report co-rumination on adolescent's problems; A_CoRum_M = adolescent-report co-rumination on mother's problems; M_CoRum_M = mother-report co-rumination on mother's problems; M_CoRum_A = mother-report co-rumination on adolescent's problems. +*p* < .10; ++*p* < .06; **p* < .05; ** *p* < .01; *** *p* < .001

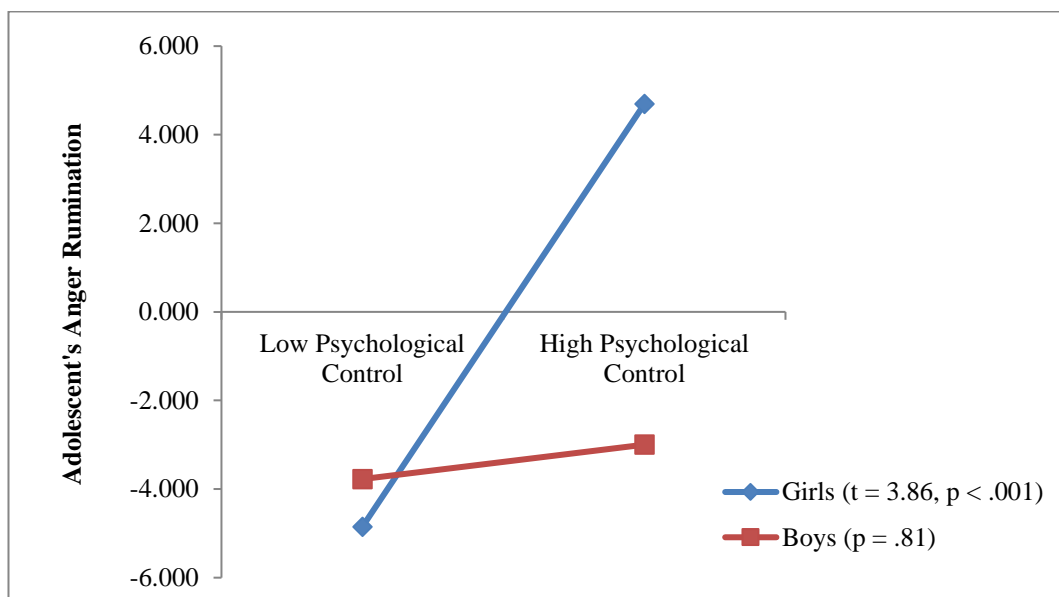


Figure 3.2.2e. Perceived maternal psychological control interaction with adolescent's gender on anger rumination. (high = +1 *SD*; low = -1 *SD*).

3.4 Content and Frequency Analysis of Co-rumination Topics

In the current study, all open ended questions about topics of co-rumination between mother and adolescent were coded by the author separately for mother and adolescent's problems. By definition, co-rumination includes excessive expression of personal problems within a close relationship and requires mutual encouragement of discussing one's problems (Rose, 2002). For this reason, the answers including mother-adolescent conflict discussions such as "spending a lot of time on the internet", "spending less time studying or doing homework" and "communication problems between mother and adolescent" were excluded from further analysis. In final, problems about the mothers were grouped under ten main topics which are *familial problems* (i.e. sentences including family problems or problems related to other child), *extended family-related problems* (i.e. issues regarding siblings, father or mother), *friendship problems*, *negative emotional state/self-adjustment* (i.e. sentences including emotional states such as disappointment, fatigue, missing, obsessions or anger) , *problems in spousal relations*, *work-related problems* (i.e. overworking or problems occurred at work), *daily hassles* (i.e. problems or concerns about housework), *financial problems*, *health problems and other problems* (i.e. problems in the past, problems regarding diet). On the other hand, problems of the adolescents were clustered under 11 main topics which are *school-related problems* (i.e. problems about courses, grades or problems with teacher), *problems with father/siblings* (i.e. conflicts with sibling or father), *extended family problems* (i.e. conflicts with cousins or loses in extended family), *problems with girlfriend/boyfriend*, *negative emotional state/self-adjustment problems* (i.e. sentences involving adolescent's feelings such as failure, anger, sadness or missing and sentences including self-adjustment problems such as adjustment to neighborhood or new city), *puberty-related problems* (e.g. acne or unwanted hair problems), *personal care-related problems* (i.e. concerns about hairs, clothes), *financial problems*, *diet/health problems*, and *daily hassles*. After the main topics were identified, frequency analyses were conducted separately for mother and adolescent's problems. The results were shown in Table 3.4a and Table 3.4b.

Table. 3.4a Frequency of mothers' problems which they discuss with their adolescents

	1st Problem	2nd Problem	3rd Problem
Mother-Report			
Daily Hassles	10.5 % (n = 29)	2.5 % (n = 7)	1.4 % (n = 4)
Work-Related Problems	10.1% (n = 28)	3.6 % (n = 10)	1.4 % (n = 4)
Familial Problems	6.9 % (n = 19)	5 % (n = 14)	1.1 % (n = 3)
Spousal Problems	4% (n = 11)	0.4 % (n = 1)	-
Financial Problems	3.3 % (n = 9)	1.4 % (n = 4)	0.4 % (n = 1)
Emotional State /Self-Adj	3.3 % (n =9)	3.3 % (n =9)	0.7 % (n = 2)
Health Problems	2.5 % (n = 7)	2.2 % (n = 6)	0.4 % (n = 1)
Friendship Problems	1.4 % (n = 4)	1.4 % (n = 4)	0.4 % (n = 1)
Extended Family Problems	0.4 % (n = 1)	-	-
other problems	0.8 % (n = 2)	-	-
Non- Respondent	56.9 % (n = 157)	80.1 % (n = 221)	94.2 % (n = 260)
Adolescent-Report			
Daily Hassles	7.2 % (n = 20)	1.4 % (n = 4)	1.4 % (n = 4)
Work-Related Problems	9.1 % (n = 25)	3.3 % (n =9)	0.8 % (n = 2)
Familial Problems	5 % (n = 14)	3.6 % (n = 10)	1.4 % (n = 4)
Spousal Problems	2.9 % (n = 8)	0.4 % (n = 1)	-
Financial Problems	1.8 % (n = 5)	2.2 % (n = 6)	0.4 % (n = 1)
Emotional State/Self-Adj	8.8 % (n = 24)	4.1 % (n = 11)	1.4 % (n = 4)
Health Problems	2.2 % (n = 6)	1.4 % (n = 4)	-
Friendship Problems	1.4 % (n = 4)	1.8 % (n = 5)	1.1 % (n = 3)
Extended Family Problems	2.2 % (n = 6)	0.4 % (n = 1)	0.8 % (n = 2)
Other Problems	0.4 % (n = 1)	0.4 % (n = 1)	0.4 % (n = 1)
Non- Respondent	59.1 % (n = 163)	81.2 % (n = 224)	92.4 % (n = 255)

Note. Self-Adj. = Self-adjustment problems

Table. 3.4b Frequency of adolescents' problems which they discuss with their mothers

	1st Problem	2nd Problem	3rd Problem
Mother-Report			
School-Related	26.1 % (n = 72)	10.5 % (n = 29)	1.1 % (n = 3)
Father/Siblings- Related	3.6 % (n = 10)	4.3 % (n = 12)	2.5 % (n = 7)
Girl/Boyfriend-Related	-	0.7 % (n = 2)	-
Emotional State/Self- Adj	6.5 % (n = 18)	2.5 % (n = 7)	1.5 % (n = 4)
Puberty-Related	1.8 % (n = 5)	0.7 % (n = 2)	-
Personal Care-Related	-	2.2 % (n = 6)	0.7 % (n = 2)
Financial Problems	-	-	0.7 % (n = 2)
Diet/Health Problems	2.5 % (n = 7)	3.6 % (n = 10)	1.5 % (n = 4)
Daily Hassles	-	0.7 % (n = 2)	-
Friendship-Related	12.7 % (n = 35)	12.7 % (n = 35)	2.5 % (n = 7)
Extended Family Problems	0.4 % (n = 1)	-	-
Non- Respondent	46.7 % (n = 129)	61.1 % (n = 170)	89.5 % (n = 247)
Adolescent-Report			
School-Related	36.6 % (n = 100)	8 % (n = 22)	1.9 % (n = 5)
Father/Siblings- Related	2.5 % (n = 7)	5.4 % (n = 15)	0.4 % (n = 1)
Girl/Boyfriend-Related	0.4 % (n = 1)	1.1 % (n = 3)	-
Emotional State/Self- Adj	6.5 % (n = 18)	4.7 % (n = 13)	0.4 % (n = 1)
Puberty-Related	1.1 % (n = 3)		1.1 % (n = 3)
Personal Care-Related	0.4 % (n = 1)	0.7 % (n = 2)	-
Financial Problems	0.7 % (n = 2)	0.7 % (n = 2)	-
Diet/Health Problems	1.5 % (n = 4)	2.2 % (n = 6)	0.7 % (n = 2)
Daily Hassles	0.4 % (n = 1)	3.3 % (n = 9)	1.5 % (n = 4)
Friendship-Related	8.7 % (n = 24)	12 % (n = 33)	2.2 % (n = 6)
Extended Family Problems	0.4 % (n = 1)	0.7 % (n = 2)	0.7 % (n = 2)
Non- Respondent	41.3 % (n = 114)	61.2 % (n = 169)	91.3 % (n = 252)

Note. Self-Adj. = Self-adjustment problems

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

The purpose of the current study was to investigate predictors of ruminative thinking in adolescence. To this end, adolescent's perfectionism, co-rumination with mother, maternal parenting (psychological control and overprotection) as well as anger and depressive rumination were obtained from the adolescents ($M_{age} = 13.19$ years). Also, their mothers reported temperamental characteristics and level of co-rumination with their adolescents. In the scope of this study, perfectionism, co-rumination and maternal parenting were examined as potential risk factors for anger and depressive rumination. In addition to these unique effects, moderator role of adolescent's temperament and gender in hypothesized associations was tested. In this chapter, the findings, contributions as well as limitations of the current study were discussed and suggestions for future studies were offered.

4.1. The Role of Parenting

In the current study, it was hypothesized that maternal psychological control would positively predict anger and depressive rumination among adolescents. This hypothesis was supported by the findings that adolescents who perceived their mother as psychologically controlling showed higher level of anger as well as depressive rumination. This result regarding depressive rumination was consistent with the findings of Spasojevic et al. (2002). They found that college students who retrospectively reported higher level of maternal psychological control ruminate on depressive mood compared to those with psychologically non-controlling mothers. Ainsworth's attachment theory stated that maternal behaviors are important to determine strategies used by infants in order to adapt to their environments (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978). According to attachment model,

supporting and accepting behaviors of mother would help the child more likely to adapt active coping strategies in the case of distress. Conversely, intrusive, hostile and critical behaviors of mothers would impede active coping style of children (Nolen-Hoeksema et al., 1995). In this case, children more likely to use maladaptive style of coping like rumination when they experience distress.

Furthermore, it was also hypothesized that overprotection would be associated with adolescent's ruminative thinking but direction of this association was not identified because of possible cultural differences in interpretation of protective behaviors. According to the findings, although maternal overprotection significantly and positively correlated with both type of rumination, it did not directly predict neither depressive nor anger rumination in adolescence. These non-significant findings contradict with the findings of Manfredi et al. (2011), Hilt et al. (2012), who found that adolescents of over-protective mothers reported higher level of depressive rumination. However, these studies differ from the current study. Firstly, participants (M = 33.9 years) were adults in Manfredi et al.'s (2011) study so information regarding parenting was based on retrospective data. Memories regarding parenting are open to effects of new information, current mood and personality of respondent and likely to be distorted or reconstructed over time (Halverson, 1988). For this reason, their validity and reliability was questionable. Furthermore, they used composite score for maternal and paternal protection. However, consequences of maternal and paternal overprotection may be different for adolescent's negative outcomes. (Gao, Raine, Chan, Venables, & Mednick, 2010). Secondly, Hilt et al. (2012) obtained mother report over-controlling parenting scores when the children were 4.5 years old and asked the mothers "how they are rising or plan to raise" their children. This also may be misleading because parenting plans may change depending on several factors like child's age or unpredictable external factors. Finally, the results may be different because of cultural differences in interpretation of protective behaviors. The participants of the current study might perceive their mothers' protective behaviors as sort of monitoring rooted in culturally childrearing practices rather than overprotection as negative attitude. This might be because in

Mediterranean cultures children are more likely report their mother as high both in care and protection (Thomasgard et al., 1993) unlike Western peers. That's why; they might be protected from negative effects of maternal overprotection. The study of Williams et al. (2015) may support this explanation because they found that lack of maternal care rather than overprotection predicted adolescent's ruminative thinking.

4.2. The Role of Co-rumination

It was hypothesized that co-rumination between mother and adolescent would predict higher level of rumination for adolescents. Furthermore, it was also expected that especially co-rumination on mother's problems would have negative outcomes due to modeling in coping socialization with mothers. In this study, this hypothesis was supported for adolescent's depressive rumination. It was found that based on adolescent report, adolescents who co-ruminate more with their mothers on mother's problems reported higher level of depressive rumination. This is in line with the findings of Waller et al. (2013) and Waller et al. (2010), who revealed that co-rumination with mother on mother's problems predicted adolescent's internalizing symptoms. Stress related to mother's problem may be more difficult for adolescents to cope because they may feel powerless to control mothers' stress (Zahn-Waxler, 2000; as cited in Waller et al., 2010). For this reason, maternal stress might increase adolescent's stress and thereby adolescents might ruminate more over uncontrollable stress. Furthermore, this result may be explained by coping socialization between mother and adolescents. That is, mother's coping with her own stress might be a model for adolescents and then adolescent might adapt mother's coping style when s/he experiences a problem (Kliewer, Fearnow, & Miller, 1996). On the other hand, non-significant unique effect of co-rumination on adolescent's problem may also be reasonable due to self- disclosure component of co-rumination. This may partially help the adolescent to relieve his/her own stress and thereby do not have additional contribution to adolescent's depressive rumination.

Furthermore, contrary to depressive rumination, neither the co-rumination about mother's nor the adolescent's problems predicted anger rumination. Tompkins et al.

(2011) argued that if co-rumination focuses on feelings of anger or frustration, it may predict externalizing problems through anger rumination. This may explain non-significant results in the current study because, in the current study, the questions of co-rumination started with phrases like “when you/your child have a problem...” That is, mothers and adolescents generally may co-ruminate over problems which elicit depressive mood rather than anger or frustration. For this reason, it might not be associated with anger rumination. Specification of co-rumination questions separately in problems eliciting anger and sadness may be more predictive of anger rumination.

4.3. The Role of Adolescent’s Perfectionism

In the scope of current study, it was expected that adolescent’s perfectionism would positively predict adolescent’s rumination. Specifically, it was assumed that self-oriented perfectionism would be associated with depressive rumination, whereas socially-prescribed perfectionism would be related to anger rumination. The results showed that self-oriented perfectionism positively related to both anger and depressive rumination. However, socially prescribed perfectionism was not related to either depressive or anger rumination.

In line with our expectation, self-oriented perfectionism predicted depressive rumination which is consistent with the correlations reported in adult and adolescent literature (Blankstein et al., 2008 (for only girls); Flett et al., 2011; Flett et al., 2002 and O’Connor et al., 2007). According to this, it seems that perfectionism provokes ruminative thinking through negative self-focused perfectionistic cognitions (Flett et al., 2011). Furthermore, Schiena et al., (2012) showed that perfectionistic individuals who concerns over their mistakes and doubts about their actions are more likely to engage in maladaptive rumination including focus on causes, consequences and meanings of their negative experiences.

In addition to this, unexpectedly, socially-prescribed perfectionism was not related to anger rumination. Hewitt et al. (1991) stated that feeling of anger is such a social

emotion that is provoked by misinterpretation of others behaviors. Therefore, it should principally be relate with socially-prescribed perfectionism than self-oriented perfectionism and they supported this viewpoint on correlational analysis in their study. Moreover, Besharat et al. (2010) found that negative perfectionism, which has common characteristics with socially-prescribed perfectionism (Fedewa et al., 2005) predicted anger rumination among college students. However, in the current study, although socially prescribed perfectionism significantly and positively correlated with anger rumination, it did not have predictive value for it. These findings may be explained in one possible way. Socially prescribed perfectionism may predict behavioral component of anger like hostility rather than cognitive aspects such as thinking on anger. In fact, Hewitt et al. (2002) found that socially prescribed perfectionism positively correlated with outward of anger but negatively correlated with inward of anger and focusing on anger to analyze anger. In other words, adolescents may experience feeling of anger due to failure in other's perfectionistic expectations but they may be more likely to reflect this feeling outward as a defense mechanism and less likely prefer to take it in the self and analyze in a ruminative way.

4.4. The Role of Moderators

In the literature, growing body of evidence suggest that adolescent's temperamental characteristics including negative affect, effortful control and perceptual sensitivity as well as gender may have unique or interaction effect in relation to ruminative thinking. In line with these suggestions, as explanatory purposes, the current study aimed to investigate the moderator role of negative affectivity, effortful control, perceptual sensitivity as well as gender in the interaction with parenting, co-rumination with mothers and adolescent's perfectionism. It is expected that adolescent with high in negative affect or perceptual sensitivity or low in effortful control or girls would be in high risk group, while boys with low in negative affectivity and perceptual sensitivity but high in effortful control would be in low risk group in relation to two way interactions. In order to be clearer for readers, only significant predictor-moderator interactions were discussed in the following sections.

Besides, the shared significant moderators for anger and depressive rumination were discussed together in order to show direction of the findings to readers.

4.4.1. Effortful Control as Moderator in the Link between Co-rumination on Adolescents' Problems (mother-report) and Anger as well as Depressive Rumination (Figure 3.2.1a and Figure 3.2.2b)

The results showed that the relationship between co-rumination with mothers about adolescent's problems and both kind of rumination was moderated by effortful control. Contrary to our expectations, adolescents with high effortful control were more likely to show depressive rumination if they co-ruminated with their mothers on their problems (maternal report). Although, these findings seem contradicting with existing literature because numerous studies found that combination of individuals with low effortful control and high maternal risk conditions predicted greatest level of externalizing and internalizing symptoms (Kiff, Lengua, Bush, 2011; Wang, Eisenberg, Valiente, Spinrad, 2016 and Steven, Bardeen, Murdock, 2015), in the current study outcome was rumination. According to results in present study, in the case of low-co-rumination on adolescent's problems, adolescents with high effortful control ruminated less over anger and depressive feelings than those with low effortful control. However, as co-ruminative communication between mother and adolescent on adolescent's problems increase, both anger and depressive rumination increased among adolescents with high effortful control. This finding is surprising but it supports opinion of Hilt et al. (2012), who argued that adolescent's confidence in ability of his/her self-control may be diminished by familial factors. In this case, as the mother encourages the adolescent to dwell on his/her problems or negative feelings, the adolescent's ability in cognitive control may be undermined and the adolescent may experience difficulty to distract negative feelings and ruminate on them. Another possible explanation is that the adolescents with high effortful control may more likely co-ruminate with their mothers on his or her problems, and so they suffer from its negative effects more than those with low effortful control. Bird, Reese and Tripp (2006) conducted a study with 5- and 7- year

old children and their mother about mother-child reminiscing. They found that children with high effortful control were engaged in more emotional past event talks with their mothers. Therefore, the similar pattern may be valid throughout adolescence.

4.4.2. Effortful Control as Moderator in the Link between Maternal Overprotection and Anger as well as Depressive Rumination (Figure 3.2.1b and Figure 3.2.2c)

The results showed that effortful control significantly moderated the association between maternal overprotection and depressive rumination as well as anger rumination. Similar to effortful control and co-rumination interaction, this is also contradictory with the hypothesis. Contrary to our expectations, adolescents with low effortful control benefited from maternal overprotection. In other words, adolescents in high risk group engaged in less anger and depressive rumination if their mother were overprotective. On the other hand, for adolescents with high effortful control, maternal overprotection increased anger rumination. Although these results are in unexpected direction, it is possible to explain them based on viewpoint of Ungar (2009), who argued that overprotective parenting should be handled by taking into consideration of child's vulnerability. Based on his clinical work and previous findings, Ungar (2009) suggested that parental protection do not seem to be harmful for children at high risk. However, its negative effects become apparent for children at low risk environment. Furthermore, protective behaviors typically include maternal well-intentioned behaviors for vulnerable child in order to comfort in or take away from stressful situation (Rubin, Burges, & Hasting, 2002). In this sense, if adolescent's vulnerability really exists (i.e. for adolescents with low effortful control) controlling behaviors might help the adolescent to use more adaptive coping styles, at least decrease ruminative thinking. However, if adolescent's vulnerability is misperceived by the mother (i.e. for adolescents with high effortful control), the mother's unnecessary protection might undermine self-initiated coping styles of children (Rubin et al., 2002). Based on this explanation, surprising results makes

sense and support ‘*goodness of fit theory*’ which stated that child’s outcome in developmental perspective can be explained by interaction or good match between child’s temperamental characteristics and needs of his or her environment (Chess & Thomas, 1999).

4.4.3. Negative Affect as Moderator in the Link between Maternal Overprotection and Anger Rumination (Figure 3.2.2c)

For negative affect as potential moderator, it was expected that adolescents with high negative affect would be affected more from the predictors and thereby engage in more rumination. Although negative affectivity was directly related to depressive and anger rumination, moderator hypothesis was only significant for the association between maternal overprotection and anger rumination. That is, for adolescents with low negative affect, higher maternal overprotection increased risk for anger rumination. However, for those with higher negative affect, maternal overprotection decreased anger rumination. Similar to findings in interaction effect of effortful control with overprotection, they support the argument of Ungar (2009), who argued that level of parental overprotection should accord with the level of risk that child have. In the current study, the same rule may be in use. That is, mother’s over-concerns about her adolescent son or daughter in low risk group may promote his/her focus on negative experiences in life. Thus, increased awareness of negative experiences may increase ruminative thinking. On the other hand, for adolescents in high risk group, mother’s protective behaviors may help the adolescent to keep away from stressful environment. Therefore, it may decrease the likelihood of anger rumination. Non-significant path for depressive rumination is also reasonable because anger generating situations such as conflict with a peer or a fight is more observable and so overprotective mother may intervene more easily in such situations. However, sadness is more internal emotion and sadness generating situations which adolescent experience may be more difficult to identify for overprotective mothers.

4.4.4. Perceptual Sensitivity as Moderator in the Link between Co-rumination on Adolescent's Problems and Anger Rumination (Figure 3.2.2d)

For perceptual sensitivity as potential moderator, it was expected that perceptually sensitive individuals would be more vulnerable to the effects of risk factors because of their sensitivity to internal and external stimulus. Moreover, it was also expected that it would significantly moderate the predictors in relation to depressive rumination than anger rumination because in existing literature perceptual sensitivity was found associated with internalizing but not externalizing symptoms (Scheper et al., 2017; Visser et al., 2007). However, it was shown that perceptual sensitivity is related with anger rumination rather than depressive rumination. In the current study, the results yielded as main effect of perceptual sensitivity that perceptually sensitive adolescents ruminate more on their anger feelings or experiences. Although the results are surprising based on literature regarding relationship between perceptual sensitivity and internalizing/externalizing symptoms, it seems reasonable when they are interpreted by taking account theory of mind insights. That is, one component of perceptual sensitivity involves by definition understanding of other's emotions from faces (Ellis et al., 2001). In this sense, perceptual sensitivity may help the individual understand other's mental states or intentions more accurately (Wellman, Lane, LaBounty, & Olson, 2011). More precisely, because of advanced theory of mind insight, perceptually sensitive adolescents might ruminate on anger that is a social emotion. Also, as interaction effect, perceptual sensitivity significantly moderated the association between co-rumination on adolescent's problems (adolescent-report) and anger rumination. Specifically, level of anger rumination did not change depending on level of co-rumination among perceptually high sensitive adolescents. However, as co-rumination with mother on adolescent's problem has increased, anger rumination sharply increased among perceptually less sensitive individuals. This finding may be due to mother's influence on adolescent's perception. That is, while mother and adolescent were dwelling on causes, meanings and consequences of adolescent's problems, mothers might provoke the adolescent in low risk group to focus on his or her problem by directing his/her perception on social conflict or

feeling of anger. Actually, this result is consistent with previous findings regarding interaction between co-rumination on adolescent's problem and effortful control. Both results support that co-ruminative communication between mother and adolescent on adolescent's problem increased anger rumination only for adolescents in low risk groups (for high effortful control and low perceptual sensitivity).

4.4.5. Gender as Moderator in the Link between Maternal Psychological Control and Anger Rumination (Figure 3.2.2e)

For moderator role of gender, it was expected that girls and boys would be affected differently from predictors in relation to ruminative thinking. It was hypothesized that girls would be more vulnerable to interpersonal risks such as parenting and co-rumination. This hypothesis was supported for only one interaction effect. Gender significantly moderated the association between maternal psychological control and anger rumination. In fact, maternal psychological control did not influence anger rumination among boys; but, among girls, anger rumination showed sharp increase as perceived maternal psychological control has increased. This support the results of Gaylord-Harden, Elmore, and Montes de Oca (2013), who reported maternal parenting behaviors predicting only girls' engagement and disengagement coping styles. This may be because of girls experiencing higher level of stress when they exposed to interpersonal conflicts (Rudolph, 2002). Moreover, this result may also support the familial influences on gender stereotyped behaviors of coping. That is, ruminative style of coping is seen as such a coping style that is typically used by girls or feminine gender roles (Broderick & Korteland, 2002). Also, in terms of normative expression of aggression, there are gender differences in the society. In fact, overt and direct aggression is used and accepted as typical forms of anger among boys (Brannon, 2005, p. 201). For this reason, in the current study, psychologically controlling mothers might be more insistent on gender stereotyping norms for their girls, so these adolescents might be more likely to show gender appropriate forms of behaviors which is ruminating on anger. However, non-significant results of maternal psychological control for boys should be interpreted carefully because of

two reasons. Firstly, in the current study, sample size was not divided equally between genders so the findings might be fluctuated because of unequal sample sizes. Secondly, maternal psychological control may affect boys in physical level rather than cognitive. For example, Loukas, Paulos, & Robinson (2005) found that maternal psychological control predicted overt aggression among boys but this path was significant only for older girls. In other words, the boys, whose mothers were psychologically over controlling, might show their anger as physical aggression rather than rumination over it.

4.5. Conclusions

The aim of this study was to investigate the predictors of anger and depressive rumination among 13-14 year-old adolescents. Firstly, being female, maternal psychological control, adolescent's self-oriented perfectionism and negative affectivity were found as risk factors for anger and depressive rumination.

Furthermore, co-rumination between mother and adolescent on mother's problems (adolescent-report) positively and adolescent's effortful control negatively predicted depressive rumination, whereas adolescent's perceptual sensitivity positively predicted anger rumination. According to main effects, it seems that specific dimensions of parenting (i.e. maternal psychological control) as well as adolescent related factors (i.e. adolescent's perfectionism and temperament) play significant role in predicting developmental antecedents of ruminative thinking.

In addition to direct effects, several interaction effects were also found in the current study. In the prediction of depressive rumination, effortful control emerged as significant moderator. Specifically, the links between depressive rumination and co-rumination on adolescent's problems as well as maternal overprotection were moderated by effortful control. In the analysis for predicting anger rumination, similar to depressive rumination, effortful control interacted with co-rumination on adolescent's problems and maternal overprotection. Besides, the association between anger rumination and maternal overprotection was moderated by adolescent's negative affectivity, whereas the association between anger rumination and co-

rumination on adolescent's problems was moderated by adolescent's perceptual sensitivity. In addition to temperament, moderator role of adolescent's gender was significant for the link between anger rumination and maternal psychological control. In sum, it can be concluded that maternal psychological control and adolescent's self-oriented perfectionism have unique risks for adaptation of ruminative coping style among adolescents (13-14 of ages).

Furthermore, adolescent's temperamental characteristics such as low negative affectivity are in low risk group for depressive rumination, whereas those with low negative affectivity or low perceptual sensitivity are in low risk group for anger rumination. However, although maternal overprotection and co-rumination between mother and adolescent on adolescent's problem are not directly related with ruminative thinking, they increase the risk for rumination among adolescents in low risk group but, in some circumstances, decrease the risk for rumination among adolescents in high risk group. In this sense, the results support *goodness of fit theory* in child development.

4.6. Contributions to Existing Literature and Strengths of the Current Study

The current study contributed to existing literature examining antecedents of anger and depressive rumination and the links between maternal and adolescent related factors in development of ruminative thinking. Prior studies have shown that parenting plays a significant role in the development of rumination in older ages (Chung et al., 2015; Hilt et al., 2012; Manfredi et al., 2011 and Spasojevic et al., 2002). However, unlike these studies, the strength of present study is that maternal parenting was identified as overprotection and psychological control separately and their individual effects on ruminative thinking were examined. Besides, adolescent related factors such as temperament and gender was tested as potential moderators in the hypothesized links. Thus, unlike the findings of Manfredi et al. (2011) and Chung et al. (2015), the present study yielded that overprotective parenting did not directly related with adolescent's rumination rather it predicted both kind of rumination through adolescent's temperament. This highlights that at least for current

sample, overprotective parenting is not always harmful in terms of child's development, rather it can be protective for adolescents at high risk group. In this sense, the results support '*the goodness of fit theory*', which emphasizes the importance of best fit between parenting and adolescent's temperament.

Furthermore, the current study contributed the existing literature also by examining effects of perfectionism on individual's functioning. It was found that, contrary to what is believed by some researchers, self-oriented dimension of perfectionism involving perfectionistic strivings was not adaptive component of perfectionism (see. Macedo, Marques, Pereira, 2014) and contrary to studies of Dunkley and Blankstein (2000), it is associated with maladaptive coping style like anger and depressive rumination. Moreover, unlike the findings of Blankstein et al. (2008), when the effects of parenting and co-rumination were controlled, socially-prescribed perfectionism did not predicted depressive rumination in the current sample of adolescents.

Finally, one of the most crucial contributions of the current study is about effects of co-rumination between mother and adolescent. Previous studies focusing on the effects of co-rumination in parent-child context interested in its effects on co-rumination with friends (Waller et al., 2013), child's internalizing symptoms and relationship satisfaction in adult (Calmes et al., 2008) or adolescents (Waller et al., 2010). The current study extended the literature on co-rumination in the parent-child context by examining its possible role as the antecedent of ruminative thinking in adolescence. Thus, the results yielded that only co-rumination on mother's problems directly predicted adolescent's depressive rumination. This was in similar direction with the findings of Waller et al. (2010), who found only co-rumination on mother's problems predicting adolescent's internalizing symptoms which supported the hypothesis of Zahn-Waxler (2000), who argued mother's problems increasing child's stress due to feeling of helplessness. Furthermore, this study revealed important individual differences in relation to effects of co-rumination on adolescent's problems. That is, although co-rumination on adolescent's problems seemed

harmless in terms of adolescent's rumination for adolescents in temperamentally high risk group, it increased ruminative thinking among adolescents in low risk group. This finding highlights potential undermining effects of co-rumination with mothers on adolescent's problems on adolescent's self-regulatory skills. In addition to these, the current study contributed the existing literature by investigating which topics are frequently discussed during co-rumination between mother and adolescents. The results showed that both mothers and adolescents reported the most frequently discussed problems of mother are mother's work related problems and problems about daily hassles. On the other hand, they reported the most frequently discussed problems of adolescents are adolescents' school related and friendship problems.

In addition to contributions, the current study has several methodological strengths. First of all, the current study focused on the antecedents of ruminative thinking among 13- and 14- year-old adolescents. This age period is important in terms of increase in depression and rumination as well as emerging gender differences in these psychopathologies (Jose et al., 2008). For this reason, investigation of risk factors especially in this period of adolescence is crucial to understand and to interfere in the development of rumination. Secondly, parenting dimensions were measured based on adolescent's perception of them. This prevents from fluctuation in the results due to social desirability on answers and potential differences between actual or ideal parenting which might be problem in the study of Hilt et al. (2012). Finally, the antecedents of rumination were investigated by taking account of the roles of multiple factors such as parenting, co-ruminative communication with mother, adolescent's perfectionism, gender and temperament. Investigation of these predictors through hierarchical multiple regressions enabled to see unique contribution of each component as controlling others' effects.

4.7. Limitations of the Current Study

Although aforementioned contributions and strengths of the current study, the important limitations also should be considered. First of all, the results are based on

cross-sectional data. Therefore, this prevents the findings from making causal inferences in the associations. Secondly, sample size is not equally divided between genders. In fact, 65.6 % of the participants were female. This is important drawback especially by testing moderator role of gender in the relations. Thirdly, although the data was obtained from different regions in Ankara in order to ensure socioeconomic diversity in sample, the generalizability of the findings to other regions in Turkey may be problematic. Finally, information of adolescent's temperament was obtained from mothers. Thus, accuracy of the findings regarding adolescent's temperament probably would change depending on observation skills and social desirability concerns of mothers.

4.8. Suggestions for Future Studies

Although the current study revealed several unique or interactive risk factors for ruminative thinking in adolescence, the hypothesized model explained only 31% of the variance in depressive and anger rumination. Therefore, future studies are still needed to improve knowledge of its antecedents for adolescents. For example, firstly, involvement of paternal as well as peer related factors may increase the explained variance in depressive and anger rumination. Especially, roles of peer related factors probably would gain importance throughout adolescence. Secondly, further studies may want to replicate the present study by using more reliable methods such as direct observations of parenting and co-rumination in lab environment by designing tasks or conversations for mother-adolescent dyads. Besides, information of temperament may be obtained directly from adolescents through tasks rather than paper-and-pencil- tests.

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APPENDICIES

APPENDIX A: Ethical Approval Form

UYGULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ
APPLIED ETHICS RESEARCH CENTER



ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
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08 MART 2017

Konu: Değerlendirme Sonucu

Gönderen: ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu (İAEK)

İlgi: İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu Başvurusu

Sayın Prof.Dr. Sibel KAZAK BERUMENT;

Danışmanlığını yaptığınız yüksek lisans öğrencisi Sevinç AKKAYA'nın "*Ruminasyona Yakın Bir Bakış: Ebeveynlik, Eşli- Ruminasyon ve Mükemmeliyetçiliğin Ruminasyon Üzerinde Yordayıcı Rolü, Mizaç ve Cinsiyet Faktörlerinin Düzenleyici Rolünün İncelenmesi*" başlıklı araştırması İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu tarafından uygun görülerek gerekli onay **2017-SOS-031** protokol numarası ile **20.03.2017 – 20.01.2018** tarihleri arasında geçerli olmak üzere verilmiştir.

Bilgilerinize saygılarımla sunarım.

Prof. Dr. Canan SÜMER

İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu Başkanı

Prof. Dr. Mehmet UTKU

İAEK Üyesi

Prof. Dr. Ayhan Gürbüz DEMİR

İAEK Üyesi

Yrd. Doç. Dr. Pınar KAYGAN

İAEK Üyesi

Prof. Dr. Ayhan SOL

İAEK Üyesi

Doç. Dr. Yaşar KONDAKÇI (4.)

İAEK Üyesi

Yrd. Doç. Dr. Emre SELÇUK

İAEK Üyesi

**BU BÖLÜM, İLGİLİ BÖLÜMLERİ TEMSİL EDEN İNSAN ARAŞTIRMALARI
ETİK ALT KURULU TARAFINDAN DOLDURULACAKTIR.**

Protokol No: 2017-SSS-031

İAEK DEĞERLENDİRME SONUCU

Sayın Hakem,

Aşağıda yer alan üç seçenektan birini işaretleyerek değerlendirmenizi tamamlayınız. Lütfen “**Revizyon Gereklidir**” ve “**Ret**” değerlendirmeleri için gerekli açıklamaları yapınız.

Değerlendirme Tarihi: 06.03.2017

Ad Soyad: Metin Girnek için tıklayın

<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Herhangi bir değişikliğe gerek yoktur. Veri toplama/uygulama başlatılabilir.
<input type="checkbox"/> Revizyon gereklidir <input type="checkbox"/> Gönüllü Katılım Formu yoktur. <input type="checkbox"/> Gönüllü Katılım Formu eksiktir. Gerekçenizi ayrıntılı olarak açıklayınız: Metin girnek için tıklayın <input type="checkbox"/> Katılım Sonrası Bilgilendirme Formu yoktur. <input type="checkbox"/> Katılım Sonrası Bilgilendirme Formu eksiktir. Gerekçenizi ayrıntılı olarak açıklayınız: Metin girnek için tıklayın <input type="checkbox"/> Rahatsızlık kaynağı olabilecek sorular/maddeler ya da prosedürler içerilmektedir. Gerekçenizi ayrıntılı olarak açıklayınız: Metin girnek için tıklayın <input type="checkbox"/> Diğer. Gerekçenizi ayrıntılı olarak açıklayınız: Metin girnek için tıklayın.
<input type="checkbox"/> Ret Ret gerekçenizi ayrıntılı olarak açıklayınız: Metin girnek için tıklayın.

APPENDIX B: Informed Consent Form

Sayın Veli,

Bu çalışma Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Psikoloji bölümü yüksek lisans öğrencisi Sevinç Akkaya tarafından Prof. Dr. Sibel Kazak Berument danışmanlığında yürütülmektedir.

Bu çalışmanın amacı nedir? Araştırmamızın amacı ergenlerdeki ruminasyon tepki (tekrarlayan olumsuz ve derin düşünce) stilini etkileyen faktörleri araştırmaktır. Ruminasyon, olumsuz bir olay yaşadktan sonra, kişinin tekrar tekrar bu olayı düşünmesi, kendince çözüm yolları aramadan sadece olayın nedenleri ve sonuçları üzerine yoğunlaşmasıdır. Bu tip düşünme özellikle ergenlik döneminde artış göstermekte ve depresyon, kaygı bozukluğu veya saldırganlık gibi şikâyetlerle ilişkilendirilmektedir. Anketleri doldurarak bize sağlayacağınız bilgiler çocukların düşünce biçimlerini olumsuz etkileyen faktörleri anlamamıza yardımcı olacaktır.

Sizin ve çocuğunuzun katılımcı olarak ne yapmasını istiyoruz?: Çalışmanın amacını gerçekleştirebilmek için çocuğunuzun ve sizin bazı anketleri doldurmanıza ihtiyaç duymaktayız. Katılmasına izin verdiğiniz takdirde çocuğunuz anketi okulda öğretmenin uygun gördüğü bir saatte dolduracaktır. Sizden çocuğunuzun katılımcı olmasıyla ilgili izin istediğimiz gibi, çalışmaya başlamadan çocuğunuzdan da sözlü ve yazılı olarak katılımıyla ilgili rızası mutlaka alınacak.

Çocuğunuzdan alınan bilgiler ne amaçla ve nasıl kullanılacak?: Sizin ve çocuğunuzun dolduracağı anketlerde cevaplarınız kesinlikle gizli tutulacak ve bu cevaplar sadece bilimsel araştırma amacıyla kullanılacaktır. Çocuğunuzun ya da sizin ismi ve kimlik bilgileriniz, hiçbir şekilde kimseyle paylaşılmayacaktır. Araştırma sonuçlarının özeti derseniz size mail yolu ile araştırmacı tarafından ulaştırılacaktır. Anketleri doldurarak bize sağlayacağınız bilgiler çocukların düşünce biçimlerini olumsuz etkileyen faktörleri anlamamıza yardımcı olacaktır.

Çocuğunuz ya da siz çalışmayı yarıda kesmek isterseniz ne yapmalısınız?: Çocuğunuzun cevaplayacağı soruların onun psikolojik gelişimine olumsuz etkisi olmayacağından emin olabilirsiniz. Yine de, bu formu imzaladıktan sonra hem siz hem de çocuğunuz katılımcılıktan ayrılma hakkına sahipsiniz. Katılım sırasında sorulan sorulardan ya da herhangi bir uygulama ile ilgili başka bir nedenden ötürü çocuğunuz kendisini rahatsız hissettiğini belirtirse, ya da kendi belirtmesi de araştırmacı çocuğun rahatsız olduğunu öngörürse, çalışmaya sorular tamamlanmadan ve derhal son verilecektir.

Bu çalışmayla ilgili daha fazla bilgi almak isterseniz: Araştırmayla ilgili sorularınızı aşağıdaki e-posta adresini kullanarak araştırmacıya yöneltebilirsiniz.

Saygılarımla,

Psk. Sevinç Akkaya (sevinc.akkaya@metu.edu.tr)

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

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

Anne Adı-Soyadı.....

İmza

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

Anne Adı-Soyadı.....

İmza

APPENDIX C: Demographic Information Form

	ANNE için	BABA için
Doğum tarihi:		
Eğitim durumu:	<input type="checkbox"/> Okuma-yazma bilmiyor <input type="checkbox"/> Okuma yazma biliyor <input type="checkbox"/> İlkokul <input type="checkbox"/> Ortaokul <input type="checkbox"/> Lise <input type="checkbox"/> Üniversite <input type="checkbox"/> Lisansüstü	<input type="checkbox"/> Okuma-yazma bilmiyor <input type="checkbox"/> Okuma yazma biliyor <input type="checkbox"/> İlkokul <input type="checkbox"/> Ortaokul <input type="checkbox"/> Lise <input type="checkbox"/> Üniversite <input type="checkbox"/> Lisansüstü
Mesleği:		
Şu an için ne iş yapıyor?		
Aylık kazancı:	<input type="checkbox"/> 0- 500 TL <input type="checkbox"/> 501- 1000 TL <input type="checkbox"/> 1001-1500 TL <input type="checkbox"/> 1501-2500 TL <input type="checkbox"/> 2501-3500 TL <input type="checkbox"/> 3501-5000 TL <input type="checkbox"/> 5001-6000 TL <input type="checkbox"/> 6000 üzeri	<input type="checkbox"/> 0- 500 TL <input type="checkbox"/> 501-1000 TL <input type="checkbox"/> 1001-1500 TL <input type="checkbox"/> 1501-2500 TL <input type="checkbox"/> 2501-3500 TL <input type="checkbox"/> 3501-5000 TL <input type="checkbox"/> 5001-6000 TL <input type="checkbox"/> 6000 üzeri
Yaşadığı semt neresidir?		
Medeni hali:	<input type="checkbox"/> Evli ve birlikte yaşıyor <input type="checkbox"/> Evli ama eşinden ayrı yaşıyor <input type="checkbox"/> Eşinden ayrılmış <input type="checkbox"/> Eşini kaybetmiş	<input type="checkbox"/> Evli ve birlikte yaşıyor <input type="checkbox"/> Evli ama eşinden ayrı yaşıyor <input type="checkbox"/> Eşinden ayrılmış <input type="checkbox"/> Eşini kaybetmiş

ÇOCUKLAR için
Toplam kaç çocuğunuz var?
Çalışmamıza katılan çocuğunuzun Yaşı : _____ Cinsiyeti: _____ Doğum Sırası: _____
Çalışmaya katılan çocuğunuzun ruhsal bir rahatsızlığı var mı? EVET _____ HAYIR _____
Cevabımız Evete ise rahatsızlığı belirtiniz? (ör. depresyon) _____

**APPENDIX D: The Early Adolescent Temperament Questionnaire-Revised
Form**

Her çocuk mizaç özellikleri bakımından birbirinden farklıdır ve mizaç özellikleri sayesinde kendi gelişimlerinde aktif rol oynarlar. Biz de bu ankette çocuğunuzun mizacı ile ilgili bazı sorular soruyoruz. Her durum için çocuğunuzu en iyi ifade eden sayıyı yuvarlak içine alabilirsiniz.

Cevap seçenekleri şu şekildedir:

Hiçbir Zaman = 1

Nadiren = 2

Bazen = 3

Çoğu Zaman = 4

Her Zaman = 5

	Hiçbir zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Çoğu zaman	Her Zaman
1. İşlerini / ödevlerini zamanında bitirmekte zorlanır.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Yüz ifadesinden diğer insanların kızgın olup olmadığını söyleyebilir.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Ödevine başlamadan önce, yapmaması gerekse bile, bir süre eğlenceli bir şey yapar.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Kendisinden bir şey istendiğinde; yapmak istemese bile, o şeyi anında yapar.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Ödevlerini genellikle son teslim tarihinden önce bitirir.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Bir işle uğraşırken elindeki bitirmeden başka bir işe başlar.	1	2	3	4	5

7. Genellikle bir projeyi/ödevi teslim tarihine kadar erteler.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Ders çalışırken, arka plandaki sesleri duymazdan gelmekte zorlanır.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Hediyeleri açmaması istendiğinde, hediyeleri açmadan beklemek onun için zordur	1	2	3	4	5
10. Etrafındaki birçok şeyi aynı anda takip etmede iyidir.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Kendini durdurmaya çalıştıkça yapmaması gereken şeyleri daha çok yapar.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Aslında eğlenmesi gereken durumlarda bile (bir kutlama/gezi sırasında) bazen üzgün görünür.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Genellikle planları ve hedeflerine sadık kalabilir.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Bazı günler en ufak şeyler için bile ağlayacak gibi olur.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Sözü kesildiğinde, söyleyeceği şeyi unuttur.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Birçok şey ters gitse bile, nadiren üzgün olur.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Bir kişiyle bir problem yaşarsa; bu sorunun anında üstesinden gelmeye çalışır.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Biri ona bir şeyin nasıl yapılacağını anlatırken, onu pür dikkat dinler.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Birisine kızdığı zaman, özellikle o kişiyi üzecek şeyler söyler.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Heyecanlandığında konuşmak için sırasını beklemekte zorlanır.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Çok kızgın olduğunda, birine	1	2	3	4	5

vurabilir.					
22. Ödev veya faaliyetlerinde bir hata yaptığı zaman çok engellenmiş hisseder ve sinirlenir.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Kızgın olduğunda, kapıları çarpar.	1	2	3	4	5
24. Başkalarını eleştirmez.	1	2	3	4	5
25. Diğer insanların fark etmedikleri küçük değişiklikleri bile fark eder. Örneğin; küçük bir kolye takan kişinin, o gün takmaması gibi.	1	2	3	4	5
26. Başka insanların görünüşleri ile alay eder	1	2	3	4	5
27. Bir problem üzerine kolayca odaklanabilir.	1	2	3	4	5
28. Yaptığı şeylerden genellikle diğer arkadaşları kadar keyif almıyormuş gibidir.	1	2	3	4	5
29. Genellikle zor ödevlere hemen başlar.	1	2	3	4	5
30. Diğer insanlar bazen anlamasa bile o sıklıkla üzgündür.	1	2	3	4	5
31. İnsanların onunla aynı fikirde olmamasından nefret eder.	1	2	3	4	5
32. Eleştirildiğinde çok rahatsız olup sinirlenir.	1	2	3	4	5
33. Uygun olmayan durumlarda gülmesini durdurup, engelleyebilir.	1	2	3	4	5
34. Keyif aldığı bir işi/aktiviteyi bırakması gerektiğinde huysuzlanır/sinirlenir.	1	2	3	4	5
35. Bir hata ya da yanlış yapıldığında başkalarını suçlamaya çalışır.	1	2	3	4	5

36. Etrafındaki en küçük deęişiklikleri bile fark eder. Örneęin; güneşin bulutun arkasına geçtiğinde odadaki ışığın deęişmesi gibi	1	2	3	4	5
37. Sevmedięi/hoşlanmadıęı insanlara karşı kaba davranabilir.	1	2	3	4	5
38. Dięer çocukların yaptıęı ufak şeylerden rahatsız olur.	1	2	3	4	5
39. Etrafındaki seslerin çok farkındadır.	1	2	3	4	5
40. Gitmek istedięi bir yere onu götürmediğimde huysuzlanıp sinirlenir.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX E: Psychological Control Scale- Youth Self- Report

Annem,

	Hiçbir Zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Sık sık	Her Zaman
1. Yapmamam gerektiğini düşündüğü bir şeyi yaptığımda kendimi suçlu hissettirir	1	2	3	4	5
2. Beni eleştirirken geçmişte yaptığım hataları dile getirir	1	2	3	4	5
3. Benden çok şey bekler (okulda başarılı olmamı, iyi insan olmamı vb.)	1	2	3	4	5
4. Eğer onu kıracak bir şey yaparsam, gönlünü alıncaya kadar benimle konuşmaz	1	2	3	4	5
5. Beni sık sık başkasıyla haksız yere karşılaştırır (kardeşimle veya kendisiyle)	1	2	3	4	5
6. Eğer bazı şeylerde onun gibi düşünmezsem bana soğuk davranır	1	2	3	4	5
7. Herhangi bir şey hakkındaki hislerimi ve düşüncelerimi değiştirmeye çalışır	1	2	3	4	5
8. Eğer onu utandıracak bir şey yaparsam, beni görmezden gelmeye çalışır	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX F: Parental Overprotection Scale

	Hiçbir Zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Sık Sık	Her Zaman
1-Annem başıma bir şey gelecek korkusuyla başka çocukların yaptığı bazı şeyleri yapmama izin vermezdi.	1	2	3	4	5
2-Annemin ne yapıp ettiğim konusunda daha az endişelenmesini isterdim	1	2	3	4	5
3-Oynarken tehlikeler konusunda en çok benim annem uyarırdı.	1	2	3	4	5
4-Sokakta oynarken annesi tarafından en çok çağırılan çocuk bendim.	1	2	3	4	5
5-Annem üşüyeceğim endişesiyle beni kalın giydirdi.	1	2	3	4	5
6-Annemin başıma bir şey gelebileceği konusundaki endişeleri çok abartılıydı.	1	2	3	4	5
7-Annem oynarken evin yakınından ayrılmama hiç izin vermezdi.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX G: Child and Adolescent Perfectionism Scale

	Hiçbir zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Çoğu zaman	Her Zaman
1. Yaptığım her şeyde mükemmel olmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Yaptığım her şeyde en iyisi olmayı isterim.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Ailem yaptığım her şeyde daima en iyisi olmamı beklemez.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Her zaman en iyisini yapmak zorundaymışım gibi hissedirim.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Hayatımdaki bazı insanlar mükemmel olmamı bekler.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Her zaman sınavlardan en yüksek puanı almaya çalışırım	1	2	3	4	5
7. Yapabileceğimin en iyisini yapmadığımda bu beni gerçekten rahatsız eder.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Ailem mükemmel olmamı bekler.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Her zaman en iyi olmaya çalışmam.	1	2	3	4	5
10. İnsanlar, benden yapabileceğimden/ verebileceğimden fazlasını bekler.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Bir hata yaptığımda kendime çok kızarım.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Daima yapabileceğimin en iyisini yapmazsam, insanlar başarısız olduğumu düşündür.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Diğer insanlar benden her zaman mükemmel olmamı bekler	1	2	3	4	5
14. Yaptığım işte tek bir hata olsa bile kendime kızar/bozulum.	1	2	3	4	5

15. Etrafımdaki insanlar her şeyde harika olmamı bekler.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Bir şey yaptığımda, o mükemmel olmalı.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Öğretmenim yaptığım ödevlerin mükemmel olmasını bekler.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Yaptığım her şeyde en iyisi olmak zorunda değilim.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Her zaman diğerlerinden daha iyi olmam beklenir.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Eğer sınıftaki en yüksek notlardan birini almamışsam, geçmiş olsam bile kendimi başarısız hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
21. İnsanların benden çok fazla şey beklediğini hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Mükemmel olmaktan daha azıyla yetinemem.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX H: Sample Items from Co-rumination Questionnaire -Child Form

Annemle Problemlerimiz Hakkında Konuşurken...

Bu anketimizde de senin veya annenin günlük hayatta bir sorun yaşadığında bunun üzerine annenle ne kadar ve nasıl konuşuyorsun onu öğrenmek istiyoruz. Aşağıda senin problemi ve annenin probleminiz olduğu durumları örnekleyen çeşitli senaryolar göreceksin. Sen de annenle konuşmalarınızı düşünerek her bir senaryo için sizi en iyi anlatan sayıyı yuvarlak içine al.

Benim Bir Problemim Olduğunda...

	Kesinlikl e doğru Değil	Doğru Değil	Biraz Doğru	Doğru	Kesinlikl e Doğru
1-Benim bir problemim olduğunda, annem ve ben problemim hakkında uzun bir süre konuşuruz.	1	2	3	4	5
5-Benim bir problemim olduğunda, nedenini anlayabilmek için annemle bu problemin üzerinde çok fazla konuşuruz.	1	2	3	4	5
7-Benim bir problemim olduğunda, annemle uzun bir süre benim ne kadar üzgün olduğum veya neler hissettiğim hakkında konuşuruz.	1	2	3	4	5

Annemin Bir Problemi Olduğunda...

	Kesinlikl e doğru	Doğru Değil	Biraz Doğru	Doğru	Kesinlikl e Doğru
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	Değil				
1. Annemin bir problemi olduğunda, annemle onun problemi hakkında uzun bir süre konuşuruz.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Annemin bir problemi olduğunda, nedenini anlayabilmek için annemle bu problemin üzerinde çok fazla konuşuruz.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Annemin bir problemi olduğunda, uzun süre annemin ne kadar üzgün olduğu veya nasıl hissettiği hakkında konuşuruz.	1	2	3	4	5

Bazen annelerimizle onun veya bizim bir takım problemlerimiz üzerine tekrar tekrar konuşur, problemin nedenlerini anlamaya çalışır veya sonuçları üzerine kafa yorarız. Senin annemle konuştuğun böyle konular olup olmadığını merak ediyoruz. Bu konuları sıklık sırasına göre aşağıda listeleyebilirsin.

- a) Annemle, en çok benim aşağıdaki problemlerim/sorunlarım hakkında konuşuruz.

En çok konuşulan 1. Problem: -----

En çok konuşulan 2. Problem: -----

En çok konuşulan 3. Problem: -----

- b) Annemle en çok annemin aşağıdaki problemleri/sorunları hakkında konuşuruz.

En çok konuşulan 1. Problem: -----

En çok konuşulan 2. Problem: -----

En çok konuşulan 3. Problem: -----

APPENDIX I: Sample Items from Co-rumination Questionnaire-Mother Form

Çocuğumla Problemlerimiz Hakkında Konuşurken...

Bu anketimizde de çocuğunuz veya siz günlük hayatta bir sorun yaşadığınızda bunun üzerine çocuğunuzla ne kadar ve nasıl konuşuyorsunuz onu öğrenmek istiyoruz. Aşağıda çocuğunuzun problemi ve sizin probleminiz olduğu durumları örnekleyen çeşitli senaryolar göreceksiniz. Siz de çalışmamıza katılan çocuğunuz ile konuşmalarınızı düşünün ve her bir senaryo için sizi en iyi anlattığını düşündüğünüz sayıyı yuvarlak içine alın.

Benim Bir Problemim Olduğunda...

	Kesinlikle Doğru Değil	Doğru Değil	Biraz Doğru	Doğru	Kesinlikl e Doğru
1.Bir problemim olduğunda, çocuğumla problemim hakkında uzun bir süre konuşuruz.	1	2	3	4	5
5.Benim bir problemim olduğunda, nedenini anlayabilmek için çocuğumla bu problemin üzerinde çok fazla konuşuruz.	1	2	3	4	5
7.Benim bir problemim olduğunda, çocuğumla uzun bir süre benim ne kadar üzgün olduğum veya neler hissettiğim hakkında konuşuruz.	1	2	3	4	5

Kızımın/Oğlumun Bir Problemi Olduğunda...

	Kesinlikle Doğru Değil	Doğru Değil	Biraz Doğru	Doğru	Kesinlikl e Doğru
1.Çocuğumun bir problemi olduğunda, onun problemi hakkında uzun bir süre konuşuruz.	1	2	3	4	5
5.Çocuğumun bir problemi olduğunda, nedenini anlayabilmek için onunla bu problemin üzerinde çok fazla konuşuruz.	1	2	3	4	5
7.Çocuğumun bir problemi olduğunda, uzun süre çocuğumun ne kadar üzgün olduğu veya nasıl hissettiği hakkında konuşuruz.	1	2	3	4	5

Bazen anneler çocuklarıyla kendisinin veya çocuğunun bir takım problemleri üzerine tekrar tekrar konuşur, problemin nedenlerini anlamaya çalışır veya sonuçları üzerine kafa yorarlar. Sizin de çocuğunuzla konuştuğunuz böyle konuların olup olmadığını merak ediyoruz. Bu konuları sıklık sırasına göre aşağıda listeleyebilirsiniz.

- c) Kızım/la/oğlumla, en çok benim aşağıdaki problemlerim/sorunlarım hakkında konuşuruz.

En çok konuşulan 1. Problem: -----

En çok konuşulan 2. Problem: -----

En çok konuşulan 3. Problem: -----

- d) Kızım/la/oğlumla en çok onun aşağıdaki problemleri/sorunları hakkında konuşuruz.

En çok konuşulan 1. Problem: -----

En çok konuşulan 2. Problem: -----

En çok konuşulan 3. Problem: -----

**APPENDIX J: Sample Items from Child Response Style Questionnaire -
Rumination Subscale**

Aşağıda, kendini nasıl hissettiğinle ilgili ifadeler yer almaktadır. Bu bir sınav değildir, bu yüzden doğru ya da yanlış yanıt yoktur. İnsanlar üzüldükleri zaman farklı şeyler yaparlar ve farklı şeyler düşünürler. Peki ya sen? Sen üzüldüğün zaman neler düşünürsün, neler yaparsın? Aşağıdaki her bir madde için, ne yapman gerektiğini değil, genellikle bu durumlarda ne yaptığını belirt lütfen.

	Hiçbir zaman	Nadiren	Ara Sıra	Sık Sık	Her zaman
1.Üzgün olduğum zaman, “Ne kadar da yalnız hissediyorum.” diye düşünürüm	1	2	3	4	5
3.Üzgün olduğum zaman, “Her şeyi mahvediyorum” diye düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
5.Üzgün olduğum zaman, yalnız kalıp düşünebileceğim bir yere giderim	1	2	3	4	5
9.Üzgün olduğum zaman, “Kendimi suçlar, benimle ilgili bir sorun olmalı yoksa bu şekilde hissetmezdim” diye düşünürüm	1	2	3	4	5
11.Üzgün olduğum zaman, tüm başarısızlıklarımı ve hatalarımı düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX K: Children's Anger Rumination Scale (CARS)

Her insan dönem dönem öfkelenebilir veya çeşitle sebeplerden engellenmiş hissedebilir; ama insanların öfkeleri üzerine düşünüş biçimleri farklılık gösterir. Aşağıda insanların öfkelendiği/kızdığı durumları hatırlamaları veya bu durumlar hakkında düşünmeleri ile ilgili çeşitli cümleler bulunmaktadır. Lütfen, hepsini oku ve seni en iyi tanımlayan sayıyı yuvarlak içine al.

	Hiçbir Zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Sık Sık	Her Zaman
1. Daha önce kızdığım/öfkelendiğim zamanları çok düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Bana yapılmasını hak etmediğim halde yaşadığım kötü olayları düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Beni sinirlendiren/öfkeliendiren olayları uzun bir süre düşünür dururum.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Birisiyle yaşadığım çatışma bittikten sonra bile uzun bir süre intikam hayalleri kurarım.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Uzun bir süre önce başıma gelen kötü olayları düşünürüm ve bu olaylar beni hala sinirlendirir/öfkeliendirir.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Beni üzen insanları affetmekte zorlanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Bir tartışma bittikten sonra, tartıştığım kişiyle kafamın içinde kavga etmeye devam ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Uykuya dalmadan önce, kızdığım/öfkelendiğim durumlar birden aklıma gelir	1	2	3	4	5
9. Ne zaman öfkelensem/sinirlensem, bir süre bunun hakkında düşünür dururum.	1	2	3	4	5

10. Yaşadığım bir çatışmayı/tartışmayı düşünmekten kendimi alamadığım zamanlarım olur.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Beni nelerin kızdırdığımı/sinirlendirdiğini bulmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
12. İnsanların neden bana kötü davrandığını düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Şiddet içerikli hayallerim vardır.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Hayatımdaki bazı şeyler beni sinirlendirir.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Birisi beni kızdırdığı zaman, bu kişiden nasıl intikam alacağımı düşünmekten kendimi alamam.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Birisi beni kızdırdığı zaman, bunun başıma neden geldiğini merak eder dururum.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Yaşadığım küçük problemleri hatırlamak bile canımı bir süre sıkır.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Bir şey beni kızdırdığında, bunu kafamın içinde döndürür dururum.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Beni kızdıran her neyse, olay bittikten sonra tekrar tekrar yeniden hatırlarım.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX L: Turkish Summary/Türkçe Özet

1. GİRİŞ

1.1. Genel Giriş

Ergenlik dönemi birçok bilişsel ve sosyo-duygusal gelişmenin görüldüğü önemli bir dönemdir (Yurgelun-Todd, 2007). Bu gelişmelere bağlı olarak, bu dönemde ruminatif düşünce de hızlı bir artış görülmektedir (Watkins & Moulds, 2005). Bu nedenle, ruminatif düşüncenin risk faktörlerini bu dönemde araştırmak önem kazanmaktadır. Mevcut çalışmanın ilerleyen bölümlerinde, anneden algılanan ebeveynlik, anne ile ortak yapılan ruminasyon ve ergenin mükemmeliyetçisi öfke ve depresif ruminasyonunun ergenlik dönemindeki muhtemel risk faktörleri olarak incelenmiştir. Ayrıca ergenin cinsiyeti ve mizaç özelliklerinin yukarıda belirtilen faktörler ve ruminasyon arasındaki ilişkideki muhtemel düzenleyici rolleri test edilmiştir.

1.2. Ruminasyon

Ruminasyon kişinin yaşadığı olumsuz durumun nedenleri, sonuçları üzerine tekrar tekrar düşünmesi ve içinde bulunduğu olumsuz duygu durumuna tekrar tekrar yoğunlaşması olarak tanımlanır (Nolen-Hoeksema, 1991). Bireyler genellikle içinde buldukları negatif duygu durumunu anlamak ve çözüm bulmak amacıyla ruminasyona başvursalar da (Papageorinou & Wells, 2003), araştırmalar ruminasyonun olumsuz duygu durumunu yoğunluğunu ve süresini arttırdığını göstermektedir (Nolen-Hoeksema, Wisco, & Lyubomirsky, 2008). Bu bağlamda ruminasyon, uyumsuz duygu düzenleme becerilerinden biri olarak kabul edilir ve çeşitli psikopatolojilerin yordayıcısı olarak görülür (Nolen-Hoeksema vd., 2008; Beckman & Kellman, 2004 ve Garnefski, Kraaij, & Spinhoven, 2001). Alanyazının da yaşanan duygu durumuna göre değişen iki tip ruminasyon çeşidi tanımlanmıştır. Bunlar depresif ruminasyon ve öfke ruminasyonudur.

1.2.1. Depresif Ruminasyon

Üzüntü, kişinin yaşadığı kaybı fark ettiği anda ortaya çıkan olumsuz bir duygu durumu olarak tanımlanır. Buna göre, kişinin yaşadığı bu üzüntü durumu üzerine tekrarlayan şekilde derin düşünmesi, pasif olarak dikkatini nedenleri ve sonuçları üzerine yoğunlaştırması da depresif ruminasyon (üzüntü ruminasyonu) olarak adlandırılır (Nolen-Hoeksema, 1991). Alan yazınındaki mevcut çalışmalar bu tip ruminasyonun özellikle depresyon (Nolen-Hoeksema vd., 2008) ve kaygı bozukluğu (Michl, McLaughlin, Shepherd, & Nolen-Hoeksema, 2013) gibi içselleştirme problemlerini yordadığını bulmuştur; ancak ruminasyonun gelişimsel öncüllerini inceleyen çalışmalar oldukça azdır (Ruijiten, Roelofs, & Rood, 2011).

1.2.2. Öfke Ruminasyonu

Öfke, kişinin kendine veya bir yakınına mevcut veya gelecek bir tehdit algısından doğan fizyolojik ve psikolojik bir tepki olarak tanımlanır (Clausen, 2007, p.vii). Öfke ruminasyonu ise öfke duygusu üzerine yapılan tekrar ve derin düşüncedir (Sukhodolsky, Golub, & Cromwell, 2001). Bu tip düşüncenin özellikle öfke, saldırganlık gibi dışsallaştırma problemlerini yordadığı bulunmuştur (Anestis, Anestis, Selby, & Joiner, 2009).

1.3. Ruminasyonun Yordayıcıları

Alanyazında iki tip ruminasyonun da sıkça çeşitli patolojilerle ilişkisi rapor edilmesine rağmen, ruminasyonun etiyojisi hakkında pek az şey bilinmektedir. Moore ve arkadaşları (2013) tarafından yapılan bir çalışmaya göre genetik faktörlerin ruminatif düşünce üzerindeki varyansın sadece küçük bir kısmını açıkladığını göstermiştir. Bu nedenle, çevresel ve bireysel risk faktörlerin tanımlanması geliştirilecek müdahale ve önleme programları açısından önem arz etmektedir. Önceki çalışmalar, ebeveyn den algılanan aşırı korumacılık (depresif ruminasyon için: Manfredi vd., 2011 ve Williams, Rick, Ingram, Hagan, & Kramer, 2015; öfke ruminasyonu için: Chiung vd., 2015), ebeveynin aşırı kontrolü (depresif ruminasyon için: Spasoyevic & Alloy, 2002 ve Hilt, Armstrong, & Essex, 2012), annenin olumlu

ve olumsuz davranışları (depresif ruminasyon için: Gate vd., 2013), annenin çocuğun stresine verdiği geri bildirim (depresif ruminasyon için: Cox, Mezulis, & Hyde, 2010), arkadaş ve ebeveyne olan bağlanma kalitesi (depresif ruminasyon için: Ruijiten vd., 2011) gibi çevresel faktörlerin yanı sıra; kişinin olumsuz duygulanım mizaç özelliği (depresif ruminasyon için: Mezulis, Pries, & Hyde, 2010; Verstraeten, Vasey, Raes, & Bijttebier; Hilt vd., 2012) ve mükemmeliyetçiliği (depresif ruminasyon için: Blankstein & Lumbey, 2008; öfke ruminasyonu için: Besharat & Shahidi, 2010) gibi bireysel faktörlerin ruminasyon tipi düşünce geliştirme üzerindeki etkilerini incelemiştir. Ancak, görüldüğü üzere bu konuda var olan kısıtlı çalışmaların büyük bir çoğunluğu da öfke ruminasyonundan ziyade depresif ruminasyonu üzerinedir. Bu nedenle, mevcut çalışmanın esas amacı ruminasyonun risk faktörleri üzerine var olan alan yazınına anneden algılanan psikolojik kontrol ve aşırı korumacılık, ergenin anne ile yaptığı ortak ruminasyon ve ergenin mükemmeliyetçiliği gibi faktörleri inceleyerek katkıda bulunmaktır. Ayrıca, bu ilişkiler üzerinde, ergenin mizacı ve cinsiyeti gibi değişkenlerin düzenleyici rolü de incelenecektir.

1.3.1. Ebeveynlik

1.3.1.1.Ebeveynin Psikolojik Kontrolü

Psikolojik kontrol, ebeveynin kendi sahip olduğu değerlerle uyumlu hale getirmek amacıyla çocuğun tutum, davranış veya hislerine yönelik gerçekleştirdiği müdahaleci davranışlar olarak tanımlanır (Barber, 1996). Bu tip kontrolcü ebeveynler sevgiyi geri çekme, suçluluk ve utanç aşılama gibi üç temel taktiği sıklıkla kullanır (Soenens, Park, Vansteenkiste, & Mouratidis., 2012). Bu bağlamda, ebeveynin psikolojik olarak kontrolcü davranışları çocuğun duygu düzenleme becerileri üzerinde önemli bir rol oynar (Rogers, Buchanan, & Winchell, 2003). Ancak, duygu düzenleme stratejilerinden biri olarak bilinen ruminatif düşünce ve ebeveynin psikolojik kontrolü arasındaki ilişkiyi inceleyen çalışmalar oldukça azdır. İlk olarak, Spasojevic ve arkadaşları (2002) anneden ve babadan algılanan psikolojik kontrolün depresif ruminasyonu pozitif yönde yordadığını bulmuştur. Ancak, bu çalışmanın örneklemini

üniversite öğrencileri oluşturmuştur ve katılımcılar ebeveynlerin davranışlarını geriye dönük olarak değerlendirmiştir. Geriye dönük bildirimli raporlar kişinin mevcut duygu durumu veya zamanla unutma gibi faktörlerden etkilenebilmektedir. Hilt ve arkadaşları (2012) ise kontrolcü ebeveynliğin ergenin depresif ruminasyonu üzerindeki etkisini gelişimsel olarak incelemiştir. Ancak, bu çalışmada kontrolcü ebeveynliğin özellikli olarak psikolojik kontrol kısmı incelenmemiştir. Ayrıca, dışsallaştırma problemleriyle de ilişkili olduğu bilinen psikolojik kontrolün (bkz. Lansford, Laird, Pettit, Bates, & Dodge, 2014), öfke ruminasyonu ile muhtemel ilişkisi daha önce çalışılmamıştır. Bu nedenle, mevcut çalışma anneden algılanan psikolojik kontrolün ergenlik dönemindeki depresif ve öfke ruminasyonları üzerindeki etkisini inceleyecektir.

1.3.1.2. Ebeveynin Aşırı Korumacılığı

Aşırı korumacılık, ebeveynin çocuğa yönelik abartılı fiziksel ve sosyal teması, yaşına uygun olmayacak bakım talepleri ve çocuğun özerklik gelişimini engelleyici davranışlarını içerir (Levy, 1970). Kiel ve Maack (2012)'e göre aşırı korumacılık çocuğun çevreyi keşfetmesini engelleyerek çocuğun otonom (özerklik) gelişimini olumsuz yönde etkiler. Buna bağlı olarak da, çocuk kendisini çevreden gelen problemlere karşı savunmasız hisseder ve problemleriyle baş edebilmek için gelişmemiş ve işlevsel olmayan stratejiler kullanır. Bu görüşe göre, ruminasyon tipi baş etme stratejisinin, aşırı korumacı ebeveyni olan ergenlerde daha sık görülmesi beklenebilir. Bu hipotez, Manfredi ve arkadaşları (2012) tarafından yetişkin bireylerde test edilmiş ve aşırı korumacı ebeveynliğin ruminatif düşüncelere dalmayı pozitif yönde yordadığı bulunmuştur.

Özellikle ebeveynlik alanyazını hakkında önemli olan bir konu da ebeveynliğin yorumlanmasında etkili olduğu bilinen çocuğun içinde bulunduğu kültürün etkileridir. (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2007). Buna göre, bir ebeveynlik davranışı farklı kültürlerde farklı yorumlanabilir dolayısıyla farklı sonuçları yordayabilir (Aytaç, Pike, & Bond, 2016). Bu nedenle, batı kültüründe bulunan aşırı korumacılık ve ruminasyonun pozitif yönlü ilişkisi doğu veya akdeniz kültürleri için geçerli olmayabilir.

1.3.2. Anne ve Ergen Arasındaki Ortak Ruminasyon

Ortak ruminasyon, bir problemin ruminatif şekilde başka biriyle tartışılması olarak tanımlanır. (Rose, 2002). Alan yazındaki çalışmalara göre ortak ruminasyon kişni özellikle içselleştirme problemleri ile yakından ilişkilidir (Calmes & Roberts, 2008; Rose, 2002; Waller & Rose, 2010). Anne ve çocuk arasında yapılan ortak ruminasyonun çocuğun bireysel ruminasyonuna olan olası katkısı daha önce hiç çalışmamış olmasına rağmen erken dönem anne-çocuk konuşmaları üzerine yapılan çalışmalar ikisi arasında pozitif bir ilişki olabileceği yönündedir. Örneğin, bir çalışmada, anne ve çocuk arasında geçmiş üzerine yapılan konuşmaların en sık rapor edilen işlevinin çocuğun duygu düzenleme beceri gelişimini desteklemek olduğu rapor edilmiştir (Kulkofsky & Bee Kim Koh, 2009). Başka bir çalışmada ise, anne ve çocuğun geçmişte yaşanan olumsuz duygular üzerine yaptıkları konuşmalarda, annenin yardım edici (scaffolding) ve detaylandırıcı (elaborative) konuşma biçimi çocuğun öz-düzenleme becerilerini olumlu yönde yordadığı bulunmuştur (Levy & Nolivos, 2015). Buna göre, tam tersi yönde, bu konuşmalar sırasında çocuğun olumsuz duygu durumundan çıkmasına yardımcı olmamak veya olumsuz duygu/durum üzerine tekrar edici konuşma yapmak (ruminatif konuşma) çocuğun öz-düzenleme becerilerini olumsuz olarak etkileyebilir ve bu çocuklar ruminasyonu baş etme stratejisi olarak daha sık kullanabilir. Bu nedenle, mevcut çalışma anne ve çocuk arasında yapılan ortak ruminasyonun ergenin öfke ve depresif ruminasyonu üzerine etkilerini incelemeyi amaçlamaktadır.

Ortak ruminasyon karşılıklı olarak bir kişinin problemleri üzerine yoğunlaşma olarak tanımlanır; ancak bu yoğunlaşma kişinin kendisinin veya karşısındakinin problemleri üzerine olabilir. Problemin aktöründeki bu farklılık da ortaya çıkabilecek sonuçları etkileyebilir. Örneğin, Waller ve arkadaşları (2010) sadece annenin problemleri üzerine yapılan ortak ruminasyonun ergenin depresyonunu pozitif yönde yordadığını; ancak ergenin problemleri üzerine yapılan ortak ruminasyonun depresyon üzerinde anlamlı bir etkisinin olmadığını rapor etmiştir. Buna göre, benzer etki özellikle depresyon ile ilişkisi bilinen depresif ruminasyon üzerinde de görülebilir. Bu nedenle, mevcut çalışmada ergenin ve annenin problemleri üzerine yapılan

ruminasyonun etkileri ayrı ayrı incelenecektir. Ayrıca, betimleyici amaç olarak, anne ve ergen arasında yapılan ortak ruminasyon konuları da araştırılacaktır.

1.3.3. Ergenin Mükemmeliyetçiliği

Hewitt ve Flett (1991)'in ortaya çıkardığı mükemmeliyetçilik modeline göre, mükemmeliyetçilik *diğer-odaklı (other-oriented)*, *öz-odaklı (self-oriented)* ve *sosyal boyutlu (socially-prescribed)* olmak üzere üç temel alt gruptan oluşmaktadır. Bunlardan, öz-odaklı (kişinin kendine koyduğu gerçek olamayacak kadar yüksek ve kusursuz standartlara sahip olması) ve sosyal boyutlu (kişinin toplumsal olarak mükemmel olmasının beklendiği algısına sahip olması) alan yazında sıklıkla duygusal stres veya içselleştirme/dışsallaştırma problemleri ile ilişkilendirilmiştir (Egan, Wade, & Shafran, 2011; Erözkan, 2009 ve Gül, Yılmaz, Berksun, 2009). Bu bağlamda, ruminasyon, mükemmeliyetçilik ve psikolojik sağlık arasındaki ilişki de arayıcı rol üstlenebilmektedir (O'Connor vd., 2007). Öyle ki, mükemmeliyetçiliğin bir kişilik faktörü olarak kişiyi sıklıkla kendi davranışlarını değerlendirmeye ve hatalarından dolayı kendini eleştirmeye teşvik ettiği düşünülmekte, bu yönüyle de ruminatif düşünceye benzetilmektedir (Schiena, Luminet, Philippot, & Doulliez, 2012). Bunu destekler nitelikteki her iki tip ruminasyon ve mükemmeliyetçilik arasındaki pozitif ilgileşim (korelasyon) yetişkin örnekleminde sıklıkla rapor edilmiştir (Besharat vd., 2010; Blankstein vd., 2008; Flett vd., 2002 ve O'Connor vd., 2007). Ancak, bu ilişkiyi erken ergenlik döneminde inceleyen çalışmalar oldukça azdır. Bildiğimiz kadarıyla, yalnızca Flett ve arkadaşları (2011) depresif ruminasyon ve mükemmeliyetçilik arasındaki ilişkiyi erken ergenlik döneminde incelemiştir. Bu çalışmanın bulgularına göre, depresif ruminasyon ve öz-odaklı mükemmeliyetçilik arasında pozitif yönlü anlamlı bir ilgileşim bulunurken; sosyal boyutlu mükemmeliyetçiliğin anlamlı bir ilgileşimi bulunmamıştır.

Tezin bu bölümüne kadar, ruminatif düşünce üzerinde etkili olabilecek ebeveynlik, ortak ruminasyon ve mükemmeliyetçilik gibi faktörlerin bireysel etkilerini inceleyen alan yazını tartışılmıştır. Ancak, ergenin doğuştan sahip olduğu mizaç ve cinsiyet gibi değişkenler de risk faktörleri ve ruminatif düşünce arasındaki ilişki de

düzenleyici bir rol oynayabilir. Bu nedenle, bir sonraki bölümlerde sırasıyla mizaç özelliklerinden negatif duygulanım, öz-denetim (effortful control) ve algısal hassasiyetin yanı sıra ergenin cinsiyetinin de muhtemel düzenleyici rolleri tartışılacaktır.

1.4. Düzenleyici Değişken olarak Negatif Duygulanım

Negatif duygulanım, kişinin sıklıkla yoğun olumsuz duygu durumu yaşaması ve/veya etrafındaki negatif uyaranlara karşı aşırı tepkisellik olarak tanımlanan bir mizaç özelliğidir (Rothbart vd., 1998). Nolen-Hoeksema (2004) negatif duygulanımı yüksek kişilerin ruminatif tipi düşünceye başvurma risklerinin daha fazla olduğunu savunmaktadır. Alan yazında da bir çok çalışma da negatif duygulanımın hem öfke hem depresif ruminasyonunu pozitif yönlü olarak yordadığını bulgulamıştır (Mezulis vd., 2011; Stoia-Caraballo vd., 2008; Sukhodolsky vd., 2000 ve Verstraeten vd., 2009). Ancak, Thomas ve Chess (1977, s.16)'e göre, mizaç özelliklerinin bireysel etkilerinden ziyade çevre veya birey kaynaklı diğer risk faktörleri ile mizaç etkileşiminin gelişimsel sonuçlar üzerinde daha etkili bir yordayıcıdır. Ruminasyon ve risk faktörleri arasındaki ilişki de negatif duygulanımın düzenleyici rolü bildiğimiz kadarıyla yalnızca Hilt ve arkadaşları (2012) tarafından çalışılmıştır. Bu çalışmaya göre, yalnızca negatif duygulanımı yüksek olan çocuklarda, ebeveynin aşırı kontrolcü olmasının ergenin depresif ruminasyonu üzerinde pozitif yönlü anlamlı ilişkisi bulunmuştur. Mevcut çalışma da bu alan yazını diğer risk faktörleri ve her iki tip ruminasyonu dâhil ederek geliştirmeyi amaçlamaktadır.

1.5. Düzenleyici Değişken Olarak Özdenetim

Özdenetim, kısaca kişinin baskın olan dürtüleri ve davranışsal tepkileri yönetebilme yeteneği olarak tanımlanır ve temel olarak kişinin engelleme denetimi, aktivasyon denetimi ve dikkat denetimi gibi üç alandaki baskın dürtüleri kontrol edebilme becerilerini içerir (Rothbart, 1989; aktaran Verstraeten vd., 2009). Alan yazında, bazı çalışmalar sıklıkla ruminasyon yapan kişilerin bilişsel esneklik becerilerinde daha kötü olduğunu bulgulamıştır (Davis & Nolen Hoeksema, 2000; Whithmer & Banich, 2007). Buna göre, bir mizaç boyutu olarak da, yüksek özdenetim kişinin olumsuz

duygular üzerindeki gelişmiş kontrol becerisi sayesinde risk faktörlere karşı koruyucu bir faktör olabilir ve kişinin olumsuz duygu ve durumlara olan perseverasyonunu azaltabilir. Hilt ve arkadaşarı (2012), özdenetimin de ruminasyon ve öncülleri arasında ilişkideki olası düzenleyici rolünü test etmiştir. Buna göre, negatif duygulanımın yalnızca özdenetimi düşük olan çocuklarda daha yüksek ruminasyonu yordadığı bulgulanmıştır. Mevcut çalışma da, özdenetimin muhtemel düzenleyici rolünün hipotez edilen risk faktörleri (anneden algılanan psikolojik kontrol ve aşırı korumacılık, ortak ruminasyon ve ergenin mükemmeliyetçiliği) ve ruminasyon tipleri arasındaki ilişkide test etmeyi amaçlamaktadır.

1.6.Düzenleyici Değişken Olarak Algısal Hassasiyet

Algısal hassasiyet, bireyin çevresindeki düşük yoğunluklu uyaranlara dahi algısal farkındalığının olması şeklinde tanımlanır (Capaldi & Rothbart, 1992). Mizaç boyutu olarak yüksek algısal hassasiyetin içselleştirme problemleri için bir risk faktörü olduğu bazı çalışmalarda bulgulanmıştır (Scheper vd., 2007 ve Visser, Huizinga, Hoekstra, Van der Graaf, & Hoekstra-Weebers, 2007). Benzer şekilde, iki muhtemel sebepten dolayı, ruminasyon üzerinde de özellikle düzenleyici değişken olarak önemli bir etkisinin olacağı öngörülebilir. İlk olarak, tanımı gereği, algısal hassasiyeti yüksek olan çocuk çevresindeki risk faktörlerin daha fazla farkında olacağı için bu faktörlerden daha fazla etkilenebilir. İkinci olarak ise, algısal hassasiyeti yüksek olan çocuk çevresel uyaranların yanı sıra kendi içsel uyaranlarına da hassasiyet geliştirebilir. Risk faktörünün olduğu bir durumda (örneğin, yüksek psikolojik kontrollü bir ebeveyn), ergenin yaşadığı olumsuz duygulara olan hassasiyeti bu duygunun yoğunluğunu arttırarak ruminasyon ihtimalini arttırabilir. Ancak daha önce algısal hassasiyetin ruminasyon üzerindeki düzenleyici rolü çalışılmamıştır. Bu nedenle mevcut çalışma bu ilişkiyi öfke ve depresif ruminasyon üzerinde araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır.

1.7.Düzenleyici Değişken Olarak Cinsiyet

Alan yazındaki bulgulara göre, 12 yaşından sonra, depresif ruminasyon kadınlar arasında daha sık görülmektedir (Jose vd., 2008; Rood vd., 2009). Diğer taraftan,

çeşitli çalışmalar öfke ruminasyonunun görülme sıklığının cinsiyetler arasında farklılık göstermediğini rapor etmiştir (Barber, Maltby, & Macaskill, 2005; White vd., 2014). Özellikle depresif ruminasyon üzerinde görülen bu farklılık kadınları ve erkeklerin muhtemel risk faktörlerinden farklılaşan şekilde etkilenebilme ihtimalini düşündürmektedir. Bu nedenle, mevcut çalışma kapsamında toplumsal cinsiyetin risk faktörleri ve rumintif düşünce üzerindeki muhtemel düzenleyici rolünü incelemek amaçlanmaktadır.

1.8. Mevcut Çalışma

Alan yazında, ruminatif düşüncenin sıklıkla olumsuz sonuçlar ile ilişkilendirilmesine rağmen bu tip düşüncenin gelişimsel olarak öncülleri pek çalışılmamıştır (Ruijiten vd., 2011). Yine de, ruminatif düşüncenin ergenlik döneminde artış göstermekte olduğu bilinmektedir (Wolf & Ollendick, 2006). Bu nedenle, mevcut çalışma ergenlik döneminde görülen öfke ve depresif ruminasyonun muhtemel risk faktörleri ve bu ilişkideki muhtemel düzenleyici değişkenleri incelemeyi hedeflemektedir.

Alan yazındaki var olan bilgiler çalışmanın hipotezleri aşağıda özetlenmiştir.

1. Anneden algılanan psikolojik kontrol ve aşırı korumacılık ebeveyn özelliklerinin öfke ve depresif ruminasyonu pozitif yönlü yordaması beklenmektedir.
2. Anne ve ergen arasındaki ortak ruminasyonun ruminatif düşünce ile pozitif yönlü ilişkisi hipotez edilmektedir. Özellikle annenin problemleri üzerine yapılan ruminasyonun depresif ruminasyon ile ilişkisi beklenmektedir.
3. Ergenin mükemmeliyetçilik özelliklerinin ergenin öfke ve depresif ruminasyon ile pozitif yönlü ilişkisi öngörülmektedir. Bu bağlamda özellikle öz-odaklı mükemmeliyetçiliğin depresif ruminasyon ile; sosyal boyutlu mükemmeliyetçiliğin ise öfke ruminasyonu ile ilişkili olacağı düşünülmektedir.
4. Ergenin cinsiyeti, özdenetim, negatif duygulanım ve algısal hassasiyet gibi mizaç özelliklerinin depresif ruminasyon ile ilişkili olacağı öngörülmektedir.

2. YÖNTEM

2.1. Örneklem

Bu çalışmaya Ankara'nın Çankaya ve Mamak ilçelerinden toplam 276 ergen ve anneleri katılmıştır. Ancak veri seti belli bir oranı eksik (missing) ve aykırı vakalardan (outliers) temizlendikten sonra, toplam 252 katılımcı ile final analizleri yürütülmüştür. Beş farklı okuldan 7. ve 8. Sınıf öğrencilere çalışmaya dâhil edilmiştir. Final örnekleminin yaş ortalaması 13.19'dur.

2.2. Ölçekler

Bu çalışma kapsamında annelerden demografik bilgi formu, Erken ergenlik Mizaç Ölçeği- Revize Formu (*negatif duygulanım, algısal hassasiyet ve özdenetim* alt boyutları) ve Ortak Ruminasyon Ölçeğini doldurmaları istenmiştir. Ergenlerden ise anneden algılanan psikolojik kontrol Ölçeği ve Aşırı Korumacılık Ölçeği, Çocuk ve Ergen Mükemmeliyetçilik Ölçeği, Ortak Ruminasyon Ölçeği, Çocuk Tepki Stilleri Ölçeği (Ruminasyon alt boyutu) ve Çocukların Öfke Ruminasyonu Ölçeğini doldurmaları istenmiştir. Katılımcılar cevaplarını 5'li likert type ölçeği üzerinde değerlendirmişlerdir. Ayrıca, anne ve ergenlerden kendi ve anne/çocuk problemleri olmak üzere en çok hangi problemler üzerine ortak ruminasyon yaptıkları açık uçlu olarak sorulmuştur.

3. SONUÇLAR

3.1. Ön Değerlendirme Analizleri

Ana hipotezler test edilmeden önce bu aşamada veri seti kontrol edilmiş. Herhangi bir test veya alt testte %50'den fazlasını boş bırakan 23 katılımcı analizlerden çıkarılmıştır. Daha sonra eksik veriler çoklu veri atama (Multiple Imputation) tekniği ile doldurulmuş; çok değişkenli aykırı veri (multivariate outlier) olarak bulunan bir

veri de veri setinden çıkarılmıştır. Gerekli varsayım testleri yapıldıktan sonra final analizler 252 katılımcı ile yürütülmüştür.

3.2. Hipotez Testleri

Hipotezleri test etmek amacıyla her bir bağımlı değişken için (öfke ve depresif ruminasyon) dörder set 6 basamaklı hiyerarşik regresyon analizi yapılmıştır. Bu analizlerin tümünde ilk basamak olarak katılımcıların cinsiyeti kontrol değişkeni olarak analize dâhil edilmiştir. Daha sonra sırasıyla ebeveynlik özellikleri, ortak ruminasyon özellikleri, ergenin mükemmeliyetçilik özellikleri, mizaç özellikleri ve belirli bir düzenleyici değişken ile etkileşim değişkenleri sırasıyla ayrı ayrı olarak her bir basamakta eklenmiştir.

3.2.1. Depresif Ruminasyonu Yordamak için Yapılan Hiyerarşik Analiz

Bulguları

Bu analizlerin son basamağında bireysel ve etkileşim sonuçları yorumlanmıştır. Buna göre, bireysel etkiler bakımında, anneden algılanan psikolojik kontrolün, ergenin negatif duygulanımının, anne ve ergen arasında annenin problemleri üzerine yapılan ortak ruminasyonun (ergen bildirimli) ve son olarak ergenin öz-odaklı mükemmeliyetçiliği depresif ruminasyonu pozitif yönlü yordadığı bulgulanmıştır. Ayrıca, kadın katılımcıların erkek katılımcılara göre daha fazla depresif ruminasyon yapıldığı sonucuna ulaşılmıştır.

Etkileşim sonuçlarına bakıldığında ise, yalnızca özdenetim x ergen problemleri üzerine yapılan ortak ruminasyon (anne bildirimli) ve özdenetim x anneden algılanan aşırı korumacılık etkileşim sonuçları anlamlı bulunmuştur. Bu sonuçlara göre, ergenin problemleri üzerine yapılan ortak ruminasyon, yalnızca özdenetim mizaç özelliği yüksek olan ergenlerde daha yüksek depresif ruminasyon skorları ile ilişkilendirilmiştir. Buna karşı, özdenetimi düşük olan ergenler için ortak ruminasyonun düşük veya yüksek olduğu durumlarda anlamlı bir farklılaşmaya rastlanmamıştır. Bulunan ikinci etkileşim sonucuna göre ise, anneden algılanan yüksek aşırı korumacılığın yalnızca özdenetimi düşük olan ergenlerde daha yüksek

depresif ruminasyon ile ilişkilendirildiği bulgulanmıştır. Ancak, özdenetimi yüksek olan çocuklarda, aşırı korumacılığın depresif ruminasyon üzerinde anlamlı bir etkisine rastlanmamıştır.

3.2.2. Öfke Ruminasyonunu Yordamak için Yapılan Hiyerarşik Analiz Bulguları

Bu analizlerin son basamağında bireysel ve etkileşim sonuçları yorumlanmıştır. Buna göre, anneden algılanan psikolojik kontrol, ergenin negatif duygulanımı ve algısal hassasiyeti ve öz-odaklı mükemmeliyetçiliği öfke ruminasyonunu pozitif yönlü olarak yordadığı bulunmuştur. Ayrıca, kadınların erkeklere göre daha fazla öfke ruminasyonu yaptığı sonucuna ulaşılmıştır.

Etkileşim sonuçlarına göre ise, öncelikle özdenetim mizaç özelliğinin düzenleyici rolü test edilmiştir. Bu regresyon sonucunda, özdenetim x ergenin problemleri üzerine yapılan ortak ruminasyon (anne bildirimli) ve özdenetim x anneden algılanan aşırı korumacılık ikili etkileşimleri anlamlı bulunmuştur. Çizilen basit eğim grafiklerine göre, ergenin problemleri üzerine yapılan ortak ruminasyon, yalnızca özdenetim mizaç özelliği yüksek olan ergenlerde daha yüksek öfke ruminasyonu ile ilişkilendirilmiştir. Buna karşı, özdenetimi düşük olan ergenler için ortak ruminasyonun düşük veya yüksek olduğu durumlarda anlamlı bir farklılaşmaya rastlanmamıştır. Diğer ikili etkileşim sonucunda ise, yüksek aşırı korumacılığın, özdenetimi düşük ergenlerde daha düşük öfke ruminasyonu skorlarını yordarken; özdenetimi yüksek ergenlerde daha yüksek öfke ruminasyonu skorlarını yordadığı bulunmuştur.

Negatif duygulanımın düzenleyici rolü test edildiğinde ise; anneden algılanan aşırı korumacılık ve öfke ruminasyonu arasındaki ilişkide negatif duygulanımın anlamlı etkisi olduğu görülmüştür. Buna göre, negatif duygulanımı yüksek olan ergenlerde aşırı korumacılık daha düşük öfke ruminasyonu skorlarını yordarken; negatif duygulanımı düşük olan ergenlerde, aşırı korumacılığın daha yüksek ruminasyon skorlarını yordadığı bulgulanmıştır.

Algısal hassasiyet mizaç değişkeninin düzenleyici rolü test edildiğinde ise; algısal hassasiyet x ergenin problemleri üzerine yapılan ortak ruminasyon (ergen bildirimli) etkileşimi anlamlı bulunmuştur. Buna göre, ergenin problemleri üzerine yapılan ortak ruminasyon arttıkça algısal hassasiyeti düşük olan ergenlerin öfkeleri üzerine yaptıkları ruminasyon da artış göstermiştir; ancak algısal hassasiyeti yüksek olan ergenlerde anlamlı bir farklılaşma görülmemiştir.

Son olarak, cinsiyetin düzenleyici rolü test edilmiştir. Bu regresyon sonucuna göre, anneden algılanan psikolojik kontrol x cinsiyet etkileşimi anlamlı bulunmuştur. Çizilen basit eğri grafiği psikolojik kontrolün öfke ruminasyonu üzerinde pozitif yönlü ilişkinin sadece kadın katılımcılar arasında anlamlı olduğunu göstermiştir.

3.3. Ortak Ruminasyon Üzerine İçerik ve Sıklık Analizi Bulguları

Mevcut çalışma kapsamında, anneler ve çocuklarına sıklıkla ve tekrarlayan şekilde en çok hangi 3 problem üzerine konuştukları anneler ve çocuklarına açık uçlu olarak sorulmuştur. Bunun üzerine, okul ve arkadaş problemleri hem anneler hem de ergenler tarafından ergenin problemleri üzerine en çok konuşulan konular olarak rapor edilmiştir. Annenin problemleri sorulduğunda ise, annenin iş sıkıntıları ve günlük stresleri hem anneler hem de ergenler tarafından en çok rapor edilen konular olarak bulunmuştur.

4. TARTIŞMA

4.1. Bulguların Değerlendirilmesi

Mevcut çalışmada anneden algılanan psikolojik kontrolün ergenlerdeki hem öfke hem de depresif ruminasyonu pozitif yönlü olarak yordadığı bulunmuştur. Bu bulgu, Ainsworth'ün bağlanma teorisini destekler niteliktedir. Buna göre, annenin destekleyici ve kabul edici davranışları çocuğun stres durumunda bu stresle başa çıkabilmek için daha aktif stratejiler kullanmasına yardım ettiğini savunur (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978). Buna karşın, annenin müdahale edici, sert ve eleştirel tavrının bu aktif baş etme stratejilerine ket vurduğunu çocukların ruminasyon gibi daha pasif baş etme stratejilerini yordadığı savunulmaktadır (Nolen-

Hoeksema vd., 1995). Anneden algılanan psikolojik kontrolün bireysel etkisi anlamlı bulunmasına rağmen, aşırı korumacılığın anlamlı bireysel etkisine ulaşılamamıştır. Bu durum, daha önce bahsedildiği gibi kültürel nedenler göz önünde bulundurularak değerlendirilebilir. Şöyle ki, aşırı korumacılık kavramı kültürler arası farklı yorumlanabilir (Thomasgard vd., 1993). Yani, aşırı korumacılık kavramı mevcut çalışmanın katılımcıları tarafından tipik çocuk yetiştirme geleneklerinden biri olarak görülmüş olabilir.

Ortak-ruminasyonun bireysel etkisine bakıldığında ise; annenin problemleri üzerine yapılan ortak ruminasyonun ergenin depresif ruminasyonunu pozitif yönlü yordadığı bulunmuştur. Buna göre, annenin problemleri ile ilişkilendirilen stres, ergenlerin bu problem üzerine kendilerini güçsüz hissedebileceğinden, katılımcılar için baş etmesi daha zor bir stres faktörü olabilir (Zahn-Waxler, 2000; aktaran Waller vd., 2010). Bu yoğun stres ve olumsuz duygu durumu da, ergenin depresif ruminasyon ihtimalini arttırmış olabilir.

Ergenin mükemmeliyetçiliğinin depresif ve öfke ruminasyonu üzerindeki etkisinde, öz-odaklı mükemmeliyetçiliğin hem öfke hem de depresif ruminasyonu pozitif yönlü yordadığı bulunmuştur. Bu bulgunun, alinyazında rapor edilen öz-odaklı mükemmeliyetçiliğin, mükemmeliyetçiliğin kişinin kendine yönelttiği mükemmeliyetçilik bilişleri aracılığı ile ruminatif düşünmeyi başlattığı bulgusunu destekler yönde olduğunu söyleyebiliriz.

Etkileşim sonuçlarına göre toplam 7 etkileşim grafiği anlamlı bulunmuştur. Bunlara göre, özdenetim x ergen problemleri üzerine ortak ruminasyon ikili etkileşimi hem öfke hem de depresif ruminasyonu üzerinde anlamlı bulunmuştur. Sonuçlar, ergen problemleri üzerine yapılan anne ve ergen arasındaki ortak ruminasyon arttı. a yalnızca özdenetimi yüksek olan ergenlerin öfke ve depresif ruminasyonlarında artış olduğunu göstermiştir. Bu bulgu, iki şekilde açıklanabilir. Öncelikle, ergenin zdenetim becerilerine güveni ailevi faktörler tarafından azaltılabilir (Hilt vd., 2012). Bu durumda, ortak ruminasyon sırasında annenin ruminatif düşünce üzerine teşvikleri çocuğun öz-denetim becerilerini engelleyerek ruminatif düşünce ihtimalini

arttırmış olabilir. Diğer yönden, Bird, Reese ve Tripp (2006), özdenetimi yüksek olan çocukların anneleriyle geçmişse yönelik konuşma yaptığını bulgulamıştır. Bu nedenle benzer şekilde, özdenetimi yüksek olan ergenler de, anneleriyle daha sık ortak ruminasyon yapmış dolayısıyla ortak-ruminasyonun olumsuz etkilerinden daha fazla etkilenmiş olabilirler.

Diğer iki anlamlı etkileşim, özdenetimin aşırı korumacılık ve her iki ruminasyon ilişkisi üzerine düzenleyici rolü olduğunu göstermektedir. Buna göre, özdenetimi düşük olan ergenlerin anneleri aşırı korumacı bir tutum gösterdiğinde ergenlerin öfke ruminasyonu skorları düşmüştür. Ancak, özdenetimi yüksek olan ergenler için bu hem öfke hem de depresif ruminasyon için tam tersi yöndedir. Bu bulgu, Ulgar (2009)'in aşırı korumacılığın etkilerini düşünürken çocuğun gerçek yatkınlığının göz önünde bulundurulması gerektiği hipotezini destekler niteliktedir. Bu görüşe göre, aşırı korumacılık yatkınlığı yüksek olan bir çocuk için koruyucu bir faktör olurken; yatkınlığı düşük (bu durumda öz denetimi yüksek) olan çocuk için onun gelişimini engellediği için zararlı gözükmektedir. Aynı açıklama, negatif duygulanım x aşırı korumacılığın öfke ruminasyonu üzerindeki anlamlı etkileşimi için de yapılabilir çünkü bu etkileşim grafiğine göre de aşırı korumacılık negatif duygulanımı yüksek olan çocuklarda düşük öfke ruminasyonu ile ilişkilendirilirlen; negatif duygulanımı düşük olan çocuklarda yüksek öfke ruminasyonu ile ilişkilendirilmektedir.

Anlamlı çıkan 6. etkileşim sonucu ise, algısal hassasiyet ve ergen problemleri üzerine yapılan ortak ruminasyonun öfke ruminasyonu yordamadaki ikili etkileşimi olarak bulunmuştur. Buna göre, ortak ruminasyonun sadece algısal hassasiyeti düşük olan ergenlerde öfke ruminasyonunu pozitif yönlü yordadığı bulgusuna ulaşılmıştır. Bu da, yine annenin ortak ruminasyon sırasında düşük risk grubundaki çocuğun çevresindeki olaylar üzerindeki algısını etkileyebildiği yönünde yorumlanabilir.

Son olarak, öfke ruminasyonunu yordamada cinsiyet ve anneden algılanan psikolojik kontrol ikili etkileşimi anlamlı bulunmuştur. Çizilen eğri grafiğine göre, yalnızca kadınlardaki öfke kontrolü psikolojik kontrole bağlı artış göstermiştir. Gaylord-Harden, Elmore and Montes de Oca (2013) çalışmalarında benzer şekilde annenin

ebeveynlik davranışlarının yalnızca kadınların baş etme stratejilerini yordadığı bulunmuştur. Bu da alan yazında, kadınların özellikle sosyal ilişkilerdeki olumsuz olayların etkilerine daha açık olduğu görüşünü destekler niteliktedir (Rudolph, 2002).

4.2. Çalışmanın Alan Yazına Katkıları ve Güçlü Yönleri

Mevcut çalışma, birçok değişkeni bireysel ve etkileşimli olarak öfke ve depresif ruminasyonun ergenlik dönemindeki risk faktörleri olarak incelemiştir. Bu bağlamda, özellikle alan yazında pek çalışılmamış öfke ruminasyonunun risk faktörleri üzerine alan yazına katkı sağlamıştır. Ayrıca, ruminasyonda önemli bir artışın görüldüğü ergenlik döneminde bu risk faktörlerin çalışılması, ebeveynlik boyutlarını ergenden algılanan ebeveynlik olarak ölçülmesi bu çalışmanın güçlü yanlarını oluşturmaktadır.

4.3. Çalışmanın Sınırlılıkları

Çalışmanın sınırlılıkları olarak çalışmanın enine kesit (cross-sectional) bir tasarım olması bulgular arasında neden sonuç yapmaya engel olmaktadır. Ayrıca çalışmanın örneklemindeki cinsiyet dağılımındaki eşitsizlik özellikle cinsiyetin düzenleyici rolünü incelerken varyansı azaltması yönünden önemli bir sınırlılıktır. Son olarak, çalışmanın sadece Ankara'da yürütülmesi bulguların genellenebilirliğini düşürmektedir.

4.4. Gelecek Çalışmalara Öneriler

Mevcut çalışma gelecekte babadan algılanan ebeveynlik ve arkadaşlar arasında gerçekleşen ortak ruminasyon gibi değişkenleri dâhil ederek bu çalışmayı geliştirebilir. Ayrıca, ebeveynlik ve ortak ruminasyon değişkenleri için görüşme gibi yöntemler kullanılarak çalışma tekrar edilebilir, böylece bulguların güvenilirliği artırılabilir.

APPENDIX M: Tez Fotokopisi İzin 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: Akkaya
Adı: Sevinç
Bölümü: Psikoloji

TEZİN ADI (İngilizce): A Closer Look at Rumination in Adolescence:
Investigation of Possible Risk Factors and Moderators

TEZİN TÜRÜ: Yüksek Lisans Doktora

1. Tezimin tamamından kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir.
2. Tezimin içindekiler sayfası, özet, indeks sayfalarından ve/veya bir bölümünden kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir.
3. Tezimden bir bir (1) yıl süreyle fotokopi alınamaz.

TEZİN KÜTÜPHANEYE TESLİM TARİHİ: