EXAMINING ANTECEDENTS OF PERCEIVED PARENTING IN DAILY LIFE AND DURING THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC: A PROCESS OF PARENTING MODEL PERSPECTIVE

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ABSTRACT

EXAMINING ANTECEDENTS OF PERCEIVED PARENTING
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This thesis examined the antecedents of parental rejection in everyday life and stressful conditions. Study 1 examined the role of parents' education, depression, and socialization goals; marital conflict, and social support along with child age, for both parents, by considering the moderating role of child gender and negative affect for parental rejection. Moreover, the dyadic link among parents in terms of socialization goals, authoritative parenting beliefs were tested for parental rejection. Study 2 examined the differences in perceived rejection before and amid the Corona Virus Disease- 2019 (COVID-19) Pandemic by considering the role of pandemic-related risk and protective factors through the mediating role of mothers' psychological distress.

Study 1 showed that education level and social support was associated with less maternal rejection, whereas hierarchical relatedness goals was associated with increased maternal rejection. Moreover, social support for mothers was associated with less rejection, especially for girls with high negative affect. For fathers, depressive symptoms and children's negative affect were associated with paternal rejection. Autonomy supporting goals was associated with less perceived rejection

by their sons. In cases of high marital conflict, fathers were perceived as less rejecting parents by their daughters and children who have less negative affect. Dyadic analysis showed that fathers' authoritative parenting beliefs mediated the link between autonomy supporting goals and parental rejection for both parents. Study 2 showed the mediating role of maternal psychological distress for pandemic-related anxiety, chaos in the family environment but not for decrease in income in predicting maternal rejection. Neither marital satisfaction nor social support had a protective role for mothers.

Keywords: Parental Rejection, Socialization Goals, Negative Affect, COVID-19 Pandemic, Parental Psychological Distress.

ÖZ

ALGILANAN EBEVEYNLİĞİN ÖNCÜLLERİNİN GÜNLÜK HAYATTA VE COVID-19 PANDEMİSİNDE İNCELENMESİ: AİLE SÜREÇLERİ MODELİ PERSPEKTİFİ

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Bu tez, günlük yaşamda ve stresli koşullarda ebeveyn reddinin öncüllerini incelemektedir. Birinci çalışmada, ebeveynlerin eğitim seviyesi, depresyonu ve sosyalleştirme hedefleri; evlilik çatışması, algılanan sosyal destek ve çocuğun yaşı öncülleri ile ebeveyn reddi arasındaki ilişkiyi çocuğun olumsuz duygulanımı ve cinsiyetinin düzenleyici rolü göz önünde bulundurularak her iki ebeveyn için de incelemiştir. Ayrıca, ebeveynlerin sosyalleştirme hedefleri ve ebeveyn reddi arasındaki ilişki, yetkili ebeveynlik inanışların aracı rolü ve ebeveynler arasındaki karşılıklı etki göz önüne alınarak incelenmiştir. İkinci çalışma ise COVID-19 pandemisi ve öncesi dönemde algılanan ebeveyn reddi için annenin psikolojik stresinin aracı rolünü pandemi ile ilişkili risk ve koruyucu faktörleri göz önünde bulundurarak incelemektedir.

Birinci çalışmada, eğitim düzeyi ve sosyal desteğin daha az anne reddi ile ilişkili olduğunu, fakat hiyerarşik ilişki hedeflerinin daha yüksek anne reddi ile ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur. Ayrıca, annelere algıladığı sosyal destek, özellikle olumsuz duygulanımı yüksek kız çocuklarında daha az reddedilme ile ilişkili olduğu

bulunmuştur. Babalar için ise depresif belirtiler ve çocukların olumsuz duygulanımının baba reddi ile ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur. Özerkliği destekleyen sosyalleştirme hedefleri yüksek olan babaların, oğlan çocuklarının daha az ebeveyn reddi algıladığı bulunmuştur. Evlilik çatışmasının yüksek olduğu durumlarda, özellikle kız çocukları ve daha az olumsuz duygulanım gösteren çocuklar daha az baba reddi rapor etmişlerdir. İkili analiz sonuçlarına göre, babaların yetkeli ebeveynlik inanışları, her iki ebeveyn için de özerkliği destekleyen sosyalleştirme hedefleri ile ebeveyn reddi arasındaki bağlantıya aracılık etmektedir. İkinci çalışmada ise annenin psikolojik stresinin, annenin pandemi ile ilgili kaygısı, aile ortamındaki kargaşa ve ebeveyn reddi arasındaki ilişkide aracı rolü bulunurken, ekonomik gelirdeki düşüş için bu ilişki bulunamamıştır. Ayrıca, annenin algıladığı sosyal destek ve evlilik doyumu için koruyucu bir etki bulunamamıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Ebeveyn Reddi, Sosyalleştirme Hedefleri, Olumsuz Duygulanım, COVID-19 Pandemisi, Ebeveynin Psikolojik Stresi

To all parents who raise a child in their hearts

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURES

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. General Overview

Parenting in modern societies has been a demanding task with many requirements for the parents, which is very likely to engender negative parenting practices in daily life. When it comes to difficult times, such as parenting during a pandemic (nowadays, it sounds perfectly normal to state "pandemic" as an example!), parenting could get more complicated that triggers more negative parenting practices. Indeed, a significant amount of research to date has shown the associations of negative parenting with many adverse outcomes for various aspects of children's development. However, research contributing to an understanding of antecedents of parenting -not only in everyday life but also in so-called new normal life- is both limited and of need. Therefore, the main purpose of this dissertation was to examine antecedents of parenting in two conditions; everyday life and amid the Corona Virus Disease-19 (COVID-19) Pandemic. For this purpose, two consecutive studies, which were aimed to explain perceived parenting by focusing on the roles of contextual factors, along with parents' and children's characteristics, were conducted.

Research focusing on Western families has shown that the ecological context has a crucial role in shaping parenting practices, family functioning, and child development. However, there is relatively less information about how parenting in non-Western societies shaped by the cultural setting. Parenting encompasses various dimensions and patterns, and these differences in parenting practices are likely to stem from the cultural context. Therefore, the current dissertation is focused on maternal and paternal parenting in the Turkish cultural context with

particular emphasis on the parental socialization goals, aspects of the family context, and children's characteristics. Precisely, the first study (Study 1) aimed to test predictors of parenting separately for mothers and fathers by testing **parent characteristics** of education level, depression, and socialization goals; **family context variables**, namely, marital conflict and social support; and **child characteristics**, namely, negative affectivity, child gender, and age, which were built on an updated version of Belsky's parenting model. While examining these links, the moderating roles of children's negative affectivity and gender were also tested. Lastly, Study 1 also explored the interrelational links between mothers and fathers by examining the mediating role of authoritative parental beliefs on the link between socialization goals and parenting. The second study (Study 2) aimed to extend the previous research by testing a model for predicting the differences in perceived parenting from the pre-pandemic period to amid the Covid-19 pandemic, thereby addressing both family-wide and parent-specific predictors across time for mothers. Specifically, the roles of mothers' pandemic-related anxiety, chaos in the family environment, and decrease in income on maternal rejection were tested through the change in maternal psychological distress. While examining these links, the protective role of marital satisfaction and social support were also tested.

For Study 1, which examined antecedents of parenting in everyday life, the theoretical base of the study relied on two fundamental theories; the Parental Acceptance-Rejection Theory and the Process of Parenting Model. A detailed review of the Parental Acceptance-Rejection Theory and Process of Parenting Model was presented in the introduction section of Study I. For further understanding, findings from Turkey were also provided. In Study II, parenting in a stressful situation was examined within the context of the Covid-19 pandemic. In this part, examples from the literature of disaster psychology and up-to-date findings of parenting during the pandemic were provided to explain the basis of the study.

The two studies were presented as two consecutive studies, which each of them had its own introduction, method, result, and discussion chapters. In the end, a general discussion was presented to synthesize the results of the two studies.

CHAPTER 2

STUDY 1 INTRODUCTION

2.1. Overview

Parenting is one of the challenging tasks in adult life, and it is one of the most robust predictor of child development. As it has a crucial role in humans' lives, a considerable amount of developmental studies focus on how parenting influences child development; yet, relatively few studies focus on the antecedents of parenting. Existing literature on parenting has been mainly focused on the parenting of mothers in the early years of life and with less emphasis on the importance of parenting in later years as well as fathers' parenting. However, the findings of the parenting studies confirm that fathers, as caregivers, affect children in much the same way that mothers do (Cabrera et al., 2000; Crnic, 2009). Although there is increasing recognition that fathers' involvement in parenting has a significant contribution, research studying the interrelational associations of mothers and fathers parenting on each other is limited.

Considering the relatively limited information in literature on determinants of parenting in non-clinical samples, this study had two aims to explain antecedents of parenting in detail. First, it aimed to examine individual and contextual predictors of parenting for mothers and fathers and possible mechanisms explaining these relationships. Second, it investigated interrelations between mothers and fathers in predicting their parenting to provide a within-family framework. The theoretical bases and study variables were explained in the following sections.

2.2. Definition and Scope of Parental Acceptance-Rejection Theory

In the present study, the notion of "parenting" was measured and investigated in the scope of the Parental Acceptance Rejection Theory, which is a "socialization" theory that investigates the outcomes of parental acceptance or rejection on the child's general adaptation (Rohner, 1980). Broadly, the theory focuses on the reasons and consequences of rejection or acceptance by the parents. In the scope of the current study, the determinants of parental rejection were examined for mothers and fathers.

Parenting is a broad term that could be defined and measured in various ways. It can be conceptualized as an umbrella term that consists of two dimensions; positive and negative parenting. Positive parenting includes parental warmth and sensitivity, whereas negative parenting includes harsh, inconsistent, and controlling parenting practices. According to the *Parental Acceptance-Rejection Theory* (PARTheory; Rohner, 1986; 2004), recently started to be called as *Interpersonal Acceptance-Rejection Theory* (IPARTheory; Ali et al. 2015), if parenting is considered as a continuum, on the one end, there is positive parenting which is related to the quality of the bond between parents and their children. Those parents do show their positive feelings towards their children, understand the needs of their children, and respond to them accordingly. Children can feel the warmth, support, and love of their parents. However, there is negative parenting on the other end of the continuum, referred to as parental rejection. It is defined as "the absence or significant withdrawal of warmth and affection on the part of the parents toward the child" (Rohner, 1970; Rohner, 1975). These parents are either late to show or they lack showing these positive feelings towards their children, or they might show negative behaviors such as punishment, spanking, or teasing.

This theory mainly focused on parent-child interaction referred as the "warmth dimension of parenthood" (Rohner, 1986) that the need for warmth is found in all humans at some level. Warmth is related to the quality of the emotional bond between parents and children, and the physical and verbal behaviors parents use

4

to show positive feelings. As evidenced by a comprehensive meta-analysis, parental warmth is above and beyond any cultural differences (Khaleque & Rohner, 2002; Rohner, 1986) since everyone can be placed somewhere on the warmth dimension, as they receive more or less affection from their parents or caregivers in their childhood (Rohner, 1986). In other words, each child receives some amount of warmth from their parents, but low levels of warmth are referred to as rejection. The perception of rejection can occur in any combination of four basic ways of expression (Rohner, 1986): a) *cold and unemotional* (the reversed version of warm and sensitive), b) *hostile and aggressive*, c) *indifferent and negligent*, d) *undifferentiated rejection.* Parents may behave aloofly and insensitively or with hostility, anger, or intolerance towards their children. For example, neglecting parents usually do not respond to the needs of their children. All these behaviors (individually or together) can cause children to feel unloved or rejected.

Regardless of the actual behavior, children's perception is not exactly a replication of parents' behavior. For example, in undifferentiated rejection, even though parents do not clearly represent rejection behaviors, children choose to believe that their parents do not like them or care for them (Rohner, 1986; Rohner, 2006). Therefore, parenting in the current study was examined by children's perspective. There were two additional reasons to focus on child perspective of parenting in the current study. First, from a methodological perspective, children might provide more reliable answers especially for negative parenting practices, as previous studies emphasized (Hoeve et al., 2009). Second, even though measuring parenting consists various methods such as observational methods or parents' self-reports, the target participants of the current study were in middle childhood and adolescence period, so they were mature enough to understand questions clearly.

2.2.1. Parental Rejection within the Family Context

Even though literature mostly focuses on parenting in the early years, importance of parenting carries over into later years of children's lives. It has been well-

documented that parental rejection has long-term adverse consequences such as negative self-perception, behavioral and academic problems at school, difficulties in friendship, and future relationship problems (Ali et al., 2019; Deveci-Şirin, 2019; Dodge et al., 2003; Khaleque & Rohner, 1970; 2002; 2011; Rohner, 2004; Stimpson et al., 2005). Recent literature even emphasized the intergenerational transmission of parental rejection that children of rejecting parents tend to be rejecting parents, as well. (Türkdoğan, 2021). Even though the Parental Acceptance-Rejection Theory aims to focus on both antecedents and consequences of rejection, the answer to "What makes parents to be rejecting ones?" remains less clear. In addition, research examining parental rejection in low-risk groups is limited and hinged on mostly individualistic cultures (Rohner et al., 2012). Hence, more research is needed to explore parental rejection in low-risk samples and non-individualistic cultures. In this regard, the current study aimed to examine parental rejection in a non-clinical sample within the Turkish cultural context.

Most of the parenting studies analyzed the relationship between parents and children without differentiating fathers from mothers. A meta-analytic study examining the role of parental rejection on children's psychological adjustment showed no difference in the effect sizes of maternal and paternal rejection for children's psychological adjustment (Khaleque & Rohner, 2002). Even though the effect sizes have been similar, there has been limited research testing how parents' characteristics or family social environment were associated with maternal and paternal rejection. Therefore, the current study aimed to explore the differential contribution of various factors for parental rejection separately for mothers and fathers in a non-risk sample and examines the interrelations between parents within the familial dynamics. While examining these relationships, the Process of Parenting Model (Belsky, 1984; Taraban & Shaw, 2018) provided a basis for the proposed antecedent factors of parental rejection. In the next part, the Process of Parenting Model and recent updates to the model were explained by considering the current study variables.

2.3. The Process of Parenting Model

Belsky's (1984) Process of Parenting Model, which theorizes parent and child characteristics and social context factors as main domains of parenting processes, is one of the fundamental models within the parenting literature. According to this model, parents' developmental history is a predictor of parents' personality, parents' work, and marital quality which in turn affect parenting practices. Besides, parents' social support and children's characteristics are also significant predictors of parenting (see Figure 1). Recently, Taraban and Shaw (2018) suggested an updated version of this model by reviewing the findings from the growing parenting literature. This theoretical model comprised three main components to explain parenting a) parent characteristics, b) family social environment, and c) child characteristics, in addition to accounting for socio-economic status as a contextual factor (See Figure 2). In the scope of this model, similarly, parent and child characteristics and family social context domains were explained in detail with an emphasis on the study variables. In the next sections, first parent characteristics, namely, gender of parents, depression, socialization goals, and education level of parents, were discussed in light of the findings from the literature. Then, as second domain, family social context variables, namely social support, and marital conflict, and their association to parental rejection were presented. Lastly, for the third domain, child characteristics, negative affect, gender, and age were expounded.
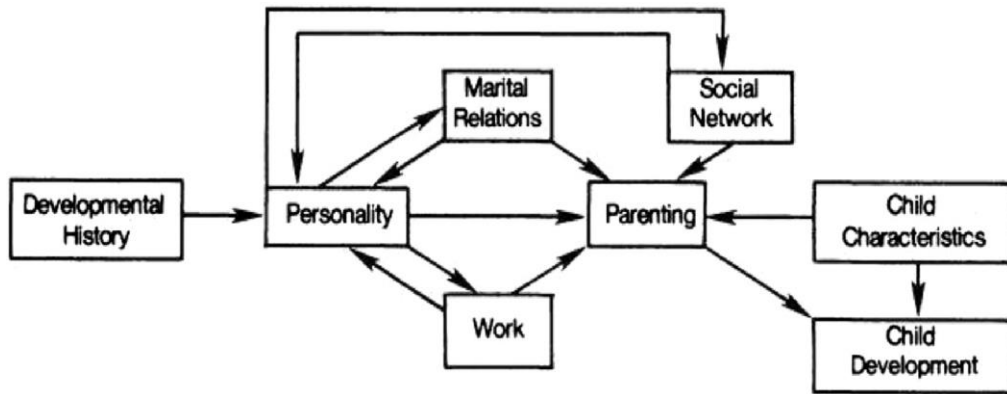
Figure 1 *Belsky's Process of Parenting Model*
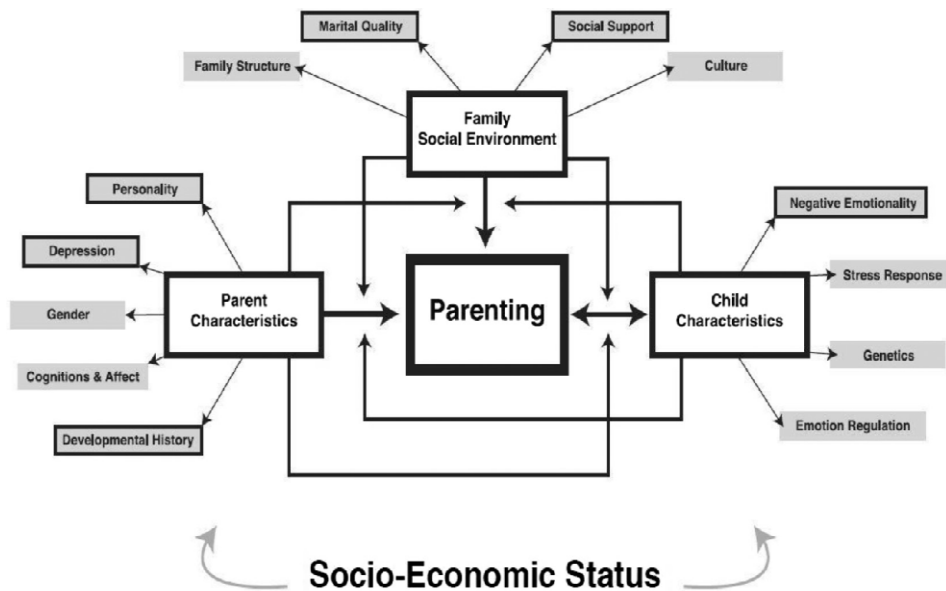
Figure 2 *The Updated Version of the Process of Parenting Model (Taraban &*
Shaw, 2018)

2.3.1. Parent Characteristics

The parent characteristics domain has been considered as the main predictor of
parenting, and a tremendous amount of studies examined its links with parenting.
In the scope of the current study, depression, socialization goals, and education
levels of parents were examined as parent characteristics.

2.3.1.1. Gender of Parents

Even though the focus in Belsky's model at first was the developmental history of parents and their personality characteristics, recent findings highlighted the role of gender of the parents in explaining differences for parenting (Taraban & Shaw, 2018). As emphasized above, most research focused on mothers' parenting and stated that mothers' parenting has a more crucial role in child development (Taraban & Shaw, 2018). Prior research examined the role of fathers by only focusing on the physical availability of fathers without focusing on their involvement in parenting (Lamb et al., 1987; Rohner & Veneziano, 2001). However, in time, research has developed a more in-depth perspective for fathers' role in parenting by examining the parental warmth and caregiving behaviors just as it is examined as mothers (Veneziano, 2003) and highlighted the importance of fathers' parenting. Based on up-to-date findings, it is concluded that fathers do also have a positive impact on child development such as positive contribution to academic achievement or friendships (Cabrera et al., 2000; Cabrera et al., 2018; McDowell & Parke, 2009); whereas, paternal rejection is associated with negative outcomes for children, such as low psychological adjustment and increased anxiety (Hussain & Munaf, 2012; Hussain et al., 2013). In regard to perceived rejection, a comprehensive cross-cultural study examining parental rejection differences for parents' gender also concluded that fathers were perceived as more rejecting compared to mothers (Dwairy, 2009). Notably, it was found that mothers and fathers report similar levels of acceptance or rejection in their self-reports, even though there was a tendency for mothers to be perceived as more accepting in child reports (Miranda et al., 2015, Putnick et al., 2015). Even though there is a growing interest in research of fathers, the amount of research examining father roles is relatively limited, and results for paternal rejection are conflicting. Thus, there is still a need for examining fathers' involvement in parenting, especially in the later years of childhood.

Along with the cross-cultural literature, research on Turkish fathers' parenting is limited. One extensive report by AÇEV (Anne Çocuk Eğitim Vakfı – Mother Child Education Foundation) examining fathers' parenting in Turkey concluded

that fathers are not the primary caregiver, and usually, they are not involved in the psychical caregiving processes in the early years of children's lives (Akçınar, 2017). In line with the patriarchal structure of the Turkish cultural context, a significant number of fathers are engaged in roles such as teaching the society's rules and explain the results of the behaviors. More importantly, fathers' are mostly considered as the authority figure and this attitude of fathers is related to physical punishment methods such as scolding and spanking. As fathers patriarchal values increased, they also engage in negative parenting behaviors, which are likely to increase children's perception of paternal rejection. Studies focusing on fathers' parenting in non-western cultures are even more needed because the difference of fathers' role in the family might reflect on differences in parenting behaviors as well. Thus, in order to identify analogous and distinctive paths for parental rejection, the current study examined antecedents of parental rejection both for mothers and fathers. Along with parents' gender, parents' mental health is an essential determinant of parental rejection. The next section explains the details of parental depression links with parental rejection.

2.3.1.2. Parental Depression

Regardless of parents' gender, Belsky hypothesizes that the personal background of parents and their characteristics influence their parenting (1984). Even though several qualities are discussed in parents' characteristics, Taraban and Shaw suggested that up-to-date research consistently found the significant role of parents' mental well-being as a predictor of parenting (2018). When Belsky (1984) used the term "personality" to represent parent factors in the model, it was referred to all parent characteristics related to psychological functioning that could be related to parenting, such as a certain level of psychological health and ability to understand the needs of children and provide positive parenting that is attuned to each child's needs, parental warmth (Belsky, 1984; Belsky & Vondra, 1989). Evidently, even though recent literature focusing on the link between personality dimensions and parenting reported a significant but small correlation, parents' psychological distress was more strongly associated with negative parenting (Taraban & Shaw, 2018). Specifically, depression is found to be

associated with mothers' cognition, behavior, and emotions, and poor experiences in all of these might result in neglecting parenting practices (England & Sim, 2009). Research on depression of parents and its associations with parenting during middle childhood and adolescence suggests that having depressed mothers is likely to create a more stressful environment for children since those parents are frequently engaged in behaviors such as withdrawal or avoidance. In addition, those mothers are likely to perform inconsistent parental behaviors and their relationship with their children become more disengaged, which result in rejecting parenting (England & Sim, 2009; Lovejoy et al., 2007). Extensive literature examining the effects of mothers' depression on parenting concluded that depression is related to negative interactions and less responsiveness to children (Beardslee et al., 1998; Goodman & Gotlib, 1999; Lovejoy et al., 2000). The link between depression and parenting has been studied relatively less in Turkey. Existing results showed that even though universally depression is found to be anticipating less sensitive and negative parenting, results from Turkey confirmed this association only for mothers in high socio-economic status (SES). Whereas, in low SES conditions, this link was not found (Baydar et al., 2014).

Studies supported similar findings for fathers (Cummings et al., 2005; Franck & Buehler, 2007; Wilson & Durbin, 2010). A recent meta-analysis examining the role of paternal depression in a wide age range - infancy to middle childhood - concluded that paternal depression is linked with less positive parenting and high negative parenting (Wilson & Durbin, 2010). However, compared to the extensive literature for maternal depression, there is scant research examining the association between paternal rejection and paternal depression. Therefore, the current study focuses on depressive symptoms of both mothers and fathers to identify the contributions of each parental rejection. The following section explains another characteristic of parents, socialization goals.

2.3.1.3. Socialization Goals of Parents

Another addition to Belsky's theory was parents' cognition. It is suggested that parents' cognitions related to parenting are associated with their parenting practices. How parents think and feel is a stronger predictor of parenting than personality (Taraban & Shaw, 2018). For example, research showed that mothers' beliefs about their self-efficacy in parenting or parental knowledge are associated with their parenting (Damas et al., 1996; Teti & Candelaria, 2002). In this regard, in the current study, parents' socialization goals - preferred qualities or characteristics and behaviors that parents try to develop in their children - were examined as possible predictors of parental rejection. There are two rationales for choosing parents' socialization goals. First, as suggested above, parents' cognition is a more robust predictor of parenting than their personality. Second, and more importantly, socialization goals reflect the cultural values through which parents' expectations of behaviors or qualities that their children develop (Cheah & Rubin, 2004; Wang & Tamis-LeMonda, 2003). Moreover, parental socialization beliefs vary according to the requirements of particular cultures, but not everyone reflects the cultural requirements at the same amount (Harkness & Super, 1995; LeVine, 1974). Therefore, it is very likely for parents to show within cultural differences in terms of socialization goals.

Socialization goals have been conceptualized as two main themes: autonomy supporting beliefs and hierarchical relatedness (Keller, 2016). The former refers to more independent cultural orientation values such as developing autonomy, whereas the latter refers to cultural orientation involving relatedness, acceptance of norms and values, and relational harmony (Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Triandis, 1995). Previous findings examining socialization goals and parenting found that parents valued more autonomy supporting goals in predominantly individualistic cultures. For example, they expect their children to develop more autonomy, make their own decisions, and become self-standing independent individuals. In collectivistic cultures, parents emphasized the importance of hierarchical relatedness goals such as respecting elders, having strong family ties, or obeying social norms and rules (Cheah & Chirkov, 2008). Further,

parents who hold more autonomy supporting goals are engaged in more positive parenting practices and are mostly perceived as less rejecting by their children. In contrast, parents with more hierarchical relatedness goals are associated with more negative parenting and perceived as more rejecting. Regarding cultural variations in terms of socialization goals, it is concluded that not everyone within the same culture internalizes cultural values to the same degree (Cheah & Chirkov, 2008; Lightfoot & Valsiner, 1992). Therefore, it is expected that there would be a variation of socialization goals of parents even in the same culture. Moreover, autonomy and relatedness are theorized as distinct but complementary constructs (İmamoğlu, 2003). When the cultural context of Turkey is considered, it is predominantly named as an interdependent culture in which both autonomy supporting goals and hierarchical goals are expected to be valued. Previous studies concluded that even though mothers have higher autonomy supporting goals, they also value relatedness goals that align with the expectations of interdependent culture (Durgel et al., 2009; Yağmurlu et al., 2009). In the light of the literature, first, socializations goals are examined within the scope of the process of parenting model both for mothers and fathers.

Second, to provide a more complementary framework for parenting within families, the interrelations between mothers and fathers are also examined. Support for this aim comes from the literature showing that fathers' involvement in parenting has positive consequences for mothers, children, and marital quality. Even though it is theoretically expected that father-related factors such as their reflection of culture may reduce or heighten the risk of mothers' negative parenting or vice versa, no study focused on the dyadic link for socialization goals and perceived parenting (Lee & Guterman, 2010). Therefore, this study also aimed to focus on this link.

As stated above, socialization goals are defined as the reflection of parents' expectations about their children's behaviors, and it is concluded that it is essential to understand how these goals relate to children's perceptions of parenting practices. While examining this link, a possible underlying mechanism is also tested: parents' own beliefs about parenting. Belsky stated that cultural

values and norms could also be linked to the attitudes and perceptions about raising children, affecting parenting beliefs (Belsky, 1980, Belsky, 1993). Previously the link between parents' socialization goals and parenting beliefs was examined by Keller and collegues (2006) and found positive associations for autonomy supporting goals and authoritative parenting beliefs. The current study aimed to take a further step and examine that link by also considering the possible within family dynamics. Therefore, the current study explored the extent to which each parent's perception of the socialization goals may be associated with mothers' and fathers' authoritative parenting beliefs and perceived parenting (See Figure 3). This investigation aimed to identify family systems with considerable interdependency of parents' cognition and negative parenting.
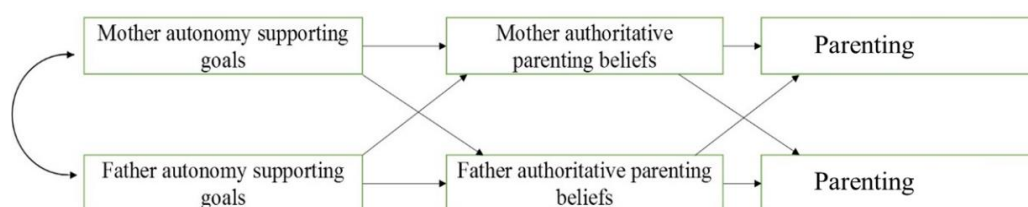
Figure 3 *Dyadic Links for Autonomy Supporting Socialization Goals, Authoritative Parenting Beliefs, and Perceived Rejection.*

2.3.1.4. Education Level of Parents

One of the parts considered in the updated model as a predictor of parenting is socio-economic status (SES). As an indicator of SES, evidence from previous studies shows that parent education level predicts the quality of family interactions and child behavior (Guerra & Huesmann, 2004; Huesmann, 1998; Huesmann et al., 1987). Education levels of the parents have been consistently found as a determinant of positive parenting since it positively influences their beliefs, values, and parental behaviors (Bornstein et al., 2003; Duncan & Brooks-Gunn, 1997), and low levels of education might lead to less responsive parenting. Specifically, parent education level was negatively associated with parenting stress and negative parenting; whereas, more educated parents usually show more warmth to their children (Davis-Kean et al., 2021; Guerra & Huesmann,

2004; Huesmann, 1998). However, it does not mean that less-educated parents do not show enough care towards their children; instead, what differs is that more educated parents tend to give more space to their children to gain more autonomy, where less-educated parents could be more strict about parenting. A similar association was found for fathers in Western cultures and Turkey, as well (Nacak et al., 2011; Paulson, 2009; Keshavarz & Baharudin, 2013; Wilson & Durbin, 2010). In the scope of the current study, parents' education level was tested for both mothers and fathers as an indicator of SES. In the subsequent section, indicators of the family social environment were given in detail.

2.3.2. Family Social Environment

In the Process of Parenting Model, Belsky (1984) also emphasized the role of social networks and the context in which the parent-child relationship is embedded (Belsky et al., 1986; Hipke, 2002). Studies showed that having adequate support networks can buffer negative parenting (Cloninger, 1987; Pianta et al., 1989). The research concluded that poor psychological well-being of parents predicts more marital problems, and if they have low social support, that, in turn, predicts later maladaptive parenting behaviors (Belsky et al., 1986; Hipke, 2002; Pianta et al., 1989). In the original model, the focus was on the social network of parents and their marital relations. Similarly, in the present study marital conflict, and social support were examined as components of family social environment predicting parenting.

2.3.2.1. Marital Conflict of Parents

Marital conflict, which is basically defined as the tension between couples, is considered one of the contextual predictors of negative parenting (Fincham, 2003); however, findings for the link between marital conflict and parenting are bifurcated (Pu & Rodriguez, 2021). On one side, there is the compensatory hypothesis, suggesting that parents who have more marital conflict often try to compensate for this negative environment by giving more care and attention to the relationship with their children (Erel & Burman, 1995). On the other side, there is the spillover hypothesis, which suggests that a higher level of marital

conflict is linked with negative parenting (Ahmadi & Saadat, 2014; Ato et al., 2015; DeVito & Hopkins, 2001; Erel & Burman 1995; Krishnakumar & Buehler, 2000; Ulbricht et al. 2013). Findings from the literature confirm more evidence for the spillover hypothesis that parents' having conflicts in their marital relationships are likely to reflect their negativity toward their children by psychological or behavioral control (Conger et al.,1994; Holden & Ritchie, 1991). Similar findings have also been replicated in children of older ages. For instance, Ha et al. (2009), in a longitudinal assessment of Dutch families, demonstrated that low marital quality significantly predicted negative parenting practices.

Regarding the parent gender, there have been some differences, as well. The research found that marital conflict has resulted in problems in parenting for both parents. However, based on the literature, mothers are better able to prevent family-level stressors (such as the conflicts in marriage) from adversely affecting their parenting compared to fathers (Cummings et al., 2004). In other words, fathers are more susceptible to negativities within the family context (Parke, 2002). Even though literature links marital conflict to negative parenting, most studies discussed so far are from North American and European cultures—leaving a gap for the investigation of this link in non-western cultures (Stroud et al., 2011). Thus, one of the aims of the current study was to examine the link of marital conflict with parenting for both parents. Besides marital conflict, perceived social support, another indicator of family social context, was explained in the next section.

2.3.2.2. Perceived Social Support of Parents

Having a supportive environment and strong social bonds are essential to personal wellbeing (Turner & Brown, 2010). Broadly, social support referred to supportive behaviors of individuals' immediate environment aimed to contribute to their wellbeing. There are two ways of measuring social support: received social support and perceived social support (Lahey & Cohen, 2000). The former refers to the amount and frequency of social support provided by others; whereas,

the latter refers to one's perception of the available social support. Research on social support emphasized the protective role of perceived social support for individual's well-being compared to received support. Therefore, in the current study, the focus was on perceived social support.

Perceiving support of others and having a caring network were found to be helping parents to better cope with stressful conditions and stress of parenting (Burchinal et al., 1996; Thompson et al., 2006). For example, when they felt more supported, parents were likely to engage in more understanding and nurturing parenting behaviors toward their children even in difficult times (Marshall et al., 2001; McConnell et al., 2011). While there was more research examining the role of social support for parenting, their focus was mainly on mothers but not fathers. In terms of seeking support from others, there might be some barriers for fathers to seek support due to traditional gender roles compared to mothers. Previous studies discussed that women were more likely to seek social support compared to males (Taylor et al., 2000; Turner & Brown, 2010). Existing literature on the role of social support for fathers primarily focused on the role of social support in high-risk groups such as teenage fathers (Angley et al., 2015) or divorced fathers (Demargo et al., 2008); or minority groups (Yoon, 2013). Even though these studies also emphasized the role of social support for fathers, there has been less evidence for fathers in non-risk groups. Thus, one of the aims of the current study was to investigate the social support for parents and its link to parental rejection. In the next section, the details of the third domain, child characteristics, were provided.

2.3.3. Child Characteristics

In the scope of the Process of Parenting Model, the most widely studied domain is child characteristics (Taraban & Shaw, 2018). According to Rothbaum and Weisz (1994), children's contribution to the relationship between parental rejection is at least as substantial as the parents' contribution (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2012; Rohner & Britner, 2002). As emphasized by Kağıtçıbaşı (2012), "children are not just a material that is shaped by others; instead, they are the ones that

construct the parent-child dynamic to some extent.". In the light of the Process of Parenting model, in the current study, negative affect as temperamental characteristic, gender, and age of children were examined; which were discussed respectively in the following sections.

2.3.3.1. Child Negative Affect

Belsky (1984) explained that children's characteristics, mostly negative affect component of temperament, are among the most influencing factors for parenting. Negative affect or emotionality of children refers to their tendency to react to environmental stressors with high levels of emotionality, irritability, anger, sadness, and fear (Paulussen-Hoogeboom et al., 2008). The association between parenting and child negative affect has been considered as bidirectional. In one direction, studies focused on the predictive role of parenting on child negative affect. On the other direction, negative affect predicts parenting because those children with difficult temperament are not easy to manage, and their irritable and defiant behaviors might result in harsh or neglecting parenting (Garstein & Fagot 2003; Karreman et al. 2008; Lerner, 1993; Rhoades et al. 2011). Findings of the former studies showed that when children exhibit negative emotionality (Kochanska et al., 2004), the parent-child relationship is less warm, more hostile, and more inconsistent (Lengua, 2006). Those mothers usually struggle in their interactions with their children and have less responsiveness which might result in harsh parenting practices. Similarly, in middle childhood, children's negative emotionality was found to be related to negative parenting practices such as punitive parenting (Eisenberg et al., 1999). What is more, children with negative emotionality tend to perceive their parents as more rejecting (Mestre et al., 2004). Thus, in the current study, the role of negative emotionality and parental rejection will be tested. Moreover, the link between parenting and childrens' negative affect is also found to depend on other variables such as socio-economic background of the family (Bornstein et al., 2003), child's gender (Putnam et al., 2002), or the perceived social support of parents (Garstein & Fagot 2003). Thus, in the current study, the moderator role

of child negative affect was also examined for parent and child characteristics, and family social context variables.

2.3.3.2. Child Gender

Even though it is not specified in the updated Model of the Process of Parenting, the gender of the children could constitute differences in examining perceived rejection for two reasons. First, despite previous studies examining parental rejection and its links with psychological outcomes for children concluded that there were no gender differences for child outcomes of perceived rejection (results pointed out that regardless of gender when they perceive rejection, children have negative psychological outcomes, Khaleque & Rohner 2012), what actually differed by gender is the amount of perceived rejection. Studies showed that children's perception of parental rejection differs as a function of child gender that girls perceive less rejection than boys (Dwairy, 2010; Mendo-Lázaro, 2019), which could be explained by girls being more relational thereby they have more positive connection with their parents (Feinberg et al., 2000). However, there were conflicting findings, as well. Bhatti and Khoso (2013) argued that parents value their sons more in more patriarchal societies since they see them as old age security, thereby showing more warmth towards them than their daughters. Especially in cases of difficulties or economic hardships, they tend to be harsher to their daughters. Thus, these conflicting results open up a space for further examination of child gender in parental rejection.

Second, the match of gender between parent-child dyads seems to matter for parental rejection. Results consistently found that mothers were less rejecting and more accepting towards their children. They also spend more time with their children, and usually, children tend to perceive more acceptance and warmth from their mothers (Craig, 2006). On the other hand, studies found that in line with Social Learning and Gender Socialization Theories, which emphasize children's learning of gender roles through the role modeling of parents, fathers tend to be more involved with their sons than their daughters (Ali, 2011; Borke et al., 2007; Dubeau et al., 2013; Tucker et al., 2003) due both to motivation to

19

teach gender-related behaviors (Harris & Morgan 1991) and to societal expectations (Morgan et al. 1988). Confirmingly, in the report of AÇEV (Akçınar, 2017), fathers reported more involvement in the parenting of their sons, and they mentioned that they usually take the role of teaching cultural norms such as respecting elders. However, this involvement does not necessarily result in more paternal acceptance. Instead, most of the studies found that fathers were perceived as more rejecting than mothers and when the gender of the child was compared, fathers were found to be more rejecting to their sons (Dwairy, 2010). Therefore, child gender was examined in the current study as a determinant of both maternal and paternal rejection.

Studies also show that in addition to direct relations between child's gender and parental rejection, child's gender could play moderator role for other determinants of parental rejection. For example, child's gender played a moderating role in the association between marital conflict and parenting that is, fathers tend to perform more negative parenting towards their sons in times of increased marital conflict (Fincham & Hall, 2005). Moreover, as explained in the socialization goals part, parents might have different socialization goals based on their children's gender. For example, in the Turkish cultural context, parents likely to support autonomy of their sons more than their daughters, whereas they support relatedness of their daughters compared to sons. These findings suggest that gender of the child could be a moderator in predicting parental rejection, but as mentioned earlier, there is no consensus for the findings (Holland & McElwain, 2013; Miranda et al., 2016). Therefore, child gender was examined as a moderator for parent characteristics and family context variables in a exploratory way.

2.3.3.3. Child Age

Both Belsky's model and its updated version predominantly focus on parenting in the early childhood period by explaining that early childhood years are the most significant years of parenting. Nevertheless, parenting is a broader concept that includes a more extended period than early childhood. The literature examining

perceived parental rejection points out that younger children perceive more warmth from parents, while older children tend to perceive more rejection from their parents (Mendo-Lazaro, 2019; Ramirez, 2018; Steinberg, 2001). Young children receive more care and supervision from their mothers and fathers (Rodriguez et al., 2009). During this period, parents provide a warm and accepting environment for children. Fathers usually start to have the authority figure role in the family; who intervene mainly severe problems. Therefore, during middle childhood, it is expected that both parents are perceived as less rejecting, with a tendency for fathers to be more rejecting (Gežová, 2015). However, as children grow up, parental control starts to conflict with children's autonomy needs. In the adolescence period, conflicts with parents increase, resulting in a more hostile environment for parent-child relationships and tendency to perceive parents as more rejecting (Laursen et al., 1998; Ramirez et al., 2018). Thus, adolescents perceive less warmth but more rejection due to the changes in their needs and in their relationship with their parents (Rodríguez et al., 2009; Rosa et al., 2014). These data are consistent with the literature on the existence of closer parent-child relationships in younger children that grow more distant as the children approach adolescence, especially between 12 and 17 years of age (Steinberg 2001). In the scope of the current study, parental rejection was examined in a wide age range from primary school to high school, and the age of children was added as a control variable.

2.4. Aim of the Present Research

It is also worth mentioning that even though there is a universal consensus that parental rejection has negative consequences for children, the interpretation of rejection might differ by the cultural orientation (Putnick et al., 2012). For example, Kağıtçıbaşı (2007; 2012) suggested that children from Western cultures tend to perceive parental control and authoritarian parenting practices as more rejecting, in non-Western cultures, children could perceive their authoritarian parents still as accepting and warm parents. Kağıtçıbaşı also discussed that these strict parenting practices, such controlling behaviors are not perceived as rejection due to common practices of parents in non-Western cultures, and

children perceive this commonness as so usual that the absence of these behaviors might be perceived as rejecting parenting. For example, Trommsdorff (1985) found that when parents have less control in Japan, children perceive that as rejection. Similarly, Sümer (2009) discussed that what is referred to as overprotection in literature is perceived as just protection in the Turkish cultural context. Moreover, Turkey could be defined as a culture where both parents and children have more emotional relatedness and less perceived rejection. However, with changes in World as well as cultural context, parenting in Turkey moves from traditional practices to more modern practices, where parents and children are more conscious of the results of negative practices and value more positive parenting practices such as valuing autonomy of the children or avoiding harsh parenting practices (Onur, 2012). Therefore, examining parental rejection in Turkey might produce different findings than universal findings. With this aim, the present research aimed to examine a theoretical model of parenting by exploring whether a) parent characteristics, b) family social environment, c) child characteristics anticipated perceived parenting in the Turkish cultural context.

Considering the issues above, this is an important question given the roles of the individual characteristics and contextual factors on parenting (See Figure 4). Specifically, the current study aims to investigate the following research questions;

1. How mothers' and fathers' characteristics, namely parent education level, depression, socialization goals, are linked to perceived parental rejection by their children?

2. How families' social environment, namely social support and marital conflict, is linked to perceived parenting by their children?

3. What kind of role do children's characteristics, negative affect, gender, and age, play in predicting parental rejection?

4. Is there a moderator role of child negative affect and gender in the associations between parent characteristics and parental rejection; and family social context and parental rejection?

5. Are there any interpersonal associations between parents' socialization goals and parental rejection? Whether parents' beliefs about parenting mediates these links?

2.5. Hypotheses

Regarding those research questions, the hypotheses about the main effects of the study variables were as follows:

1. The links between parental characteristics and parental rejection;
   a. Parental depression was expected to predict perceived parental rejection positively,
   b. Education level of parents was expected to predict perceived parental rejection negatively.
   c. In terms of socialization goals, hierarchical relatedness goals were expected to predict parental rejection positively, whereas autonomy supporting goals were expected to predict parental rejection negatively for both parents

2. The link between family social environment and parental rejection;
   a. Perceived social support was expected to predict parental rejection negatively,
   b. Marital conflict was expected to predict parental rejection positively, especially for fathers,

3. The links between child characteristics and parental rejection;
   a. Child negative affect is expected to predict parental rejection positively,
   b. Child age is not expected to predict parental rejection,

4. In terms of moderating role of child negative affect;

a. Parents with more depression scores were expected to be perceived as more rejecting by children with high negative affect; whereas parents who have less depression scores were expected to be perceived as less rejecting parents by children with less negative affect,

b. Parents with low education levels were expected to be perceived as more rejecting by children with high negative affect; whereas parents with higher education levels were expected to be perceived as less rejecting parents by children with less negative affect,

c. In terms of socialization goals, parents with high hierarchical relatedness goals were expected to be perceived as more rejecting by children with high negative affect; whereas, parents with high autonomy supporting goals were expected to be perceived as less rejecting parents by children with less negative affect,

d. In terms of marital conflict, parents with high marital conflict were expected to be perceived as more rejecting by children with high negative affect. This link was specifically expected for fathers.

e. In terms of social support, parents who perceived more support in cases of child negative affect were expected to be perceived as less rejecting compared to parents who perceive less support.

No specific hypothesis was stated for the moderator role of child gender due to inconsistent findings in the literature. Comparisons between boys and girls were conducted in order to investigate possible differences between them. No specific difference in the model is expected for mothers and fathers – except the marital conflict. Similarly, dyadic links for socialization goals, authoritative parenting beliefs, and rejection were tested as exploratory.
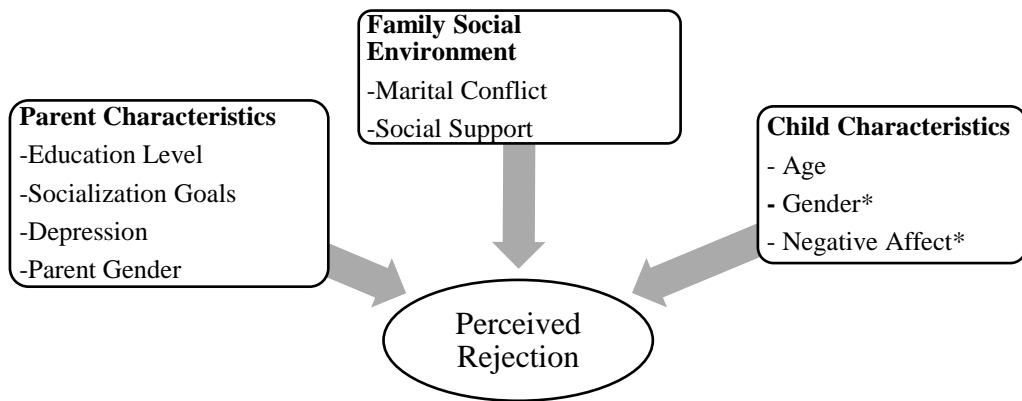
Figure 4 *Examined Variables for the Current Study*

*The moderator role of Child Gender and Negative Affect was also tested.

CHAPTER 3

STUDY 1 METHOD

3.1. Participants

This study was a part of a larger project that aimed to investigate antecedents of parenting and child and adolescent outcomes from a nationally representative sample from Turkey. The current study was based on the data collected in February and March 2020 just before the COVID-19 Pandemic started. Participants were 756 children and adolescents ($N_{male} = 251$, 41.8 %; N_{fe}male $= 34$, 58.2 %) from first grade to 11th grade. There were 72 (9.5%) first-grade, 86 (11.3%) second-grade, 82 (10.8%) third-grade, 66 (8.7 %) fourth-grade, 77 (10.2 %) fifth-grade, 60 (7.9%) sixth-grade, 60 (7.9 %) seventh-grade, 65 (8.6%) eighth-grade, 76 (10.0%) ninth-grade, 57 (7.5%) tenth-grade, and 57 (7.5%) eleventh-grade children and adolescents in the study. Children and adolescents were from 19 cities in Turkey. Seventy-eight were (10.3%) from Amasya, 7 (.9%) from Ankara, 39 (5.1%) from Antalya, 28 (3.7%) from Burdur, 37 (4.9%) from Çorum, 31 (4.1%) from Eskişehir, 39 (5.1%) from Isparta, 9 (1.2%) from İstanbul, 138 (18.2 %) from İzmir, 22 (2.9%) from Karaman, 39 (5.1 %) from Kastamonu, 57 (7.5%) from Kayseri, 21 (2.8%) from Kırklareli, 38 (5.0%) from Kırşehir, 88 (11.6%) from Konya, 7 (.9%) from Manisa, 11 (1.5%) from Trabzon, and 69 (9.1%) from Yozgat.

Sample consisted of 779 mothers ($M_{age} = 37.40$, $SD = 5.88$). According to the education levels of the mothers, 12 (1.5%) mothers were illiterate, 11 (1.4%) literate but had no formal education, 284 (36.5%) had a primary school degree, 163 (20.9%) had elementary school degree, 228 (29.3%) had high school degree, and 74 (9. %) were university graduates. Lastly, seven mothers (.9%) had a graduate degree.

Regarding marital status, the vast majority of mothers were married 732 (94.3%). Twenty-five (3.2%) mothers were separated, seven (.8%) mothers had a second marriage, and 13 mothers (1.5%) had lost their husbands, and one (.1%) of them married again. Regarding working status, the majority of mothers are homemakers ($n = 571$, 76.1%), and the rest of them are working ($n = 179$, 23.9%). The perceived socio-economic status (SES) of mothers is measured on a ten-point scale ($M = 4.25$, *Median* $= 5.00$, *SD* $= 1.98$).

Fathers were invited to the study to fill out a relatively shorter questionnaire package compared to mothers. The total sample size of fathers was 235 ($M_{age} = 40.74$, *SD* $= 5.55$). According to the education levels of the fathers, 1(.1%) father was illiterate, 2 (.2%) were literate but had no formal education, 58 (22.3%) were primary school, 59 (22.7%) were elementary school, 99 (38.1%) were high school, and 36 (13.8%) were university graduates. Lastly, five fathers (1.9%) had a postgraduate degree. Regarding marital status, the vast majority of fathers were married, 254 (98.9%). One father (.4%) was divorced, and two (.8%) fathers had a second marriage. Regarding working status, the majority of fathers were working ($n = 239$, 94.1%), and 15 fathers were not working ($n = 15$, 5.9%). The perceived socio-economic status (SES) of fathers was asked on a ten-point scale, and the distribution of fathers' perceived mean SES was low-to-middle income ($M = 4.32$, *Median* $= 5.00$ *SD* $= 1.66$).

3.2. Instruments

3.2.1. Parent Measures

3.2.1.1. Demographic Form

In the scope of the study, a demographic form, which included questions about family structure, SES, and residence, was given to mothers. Mothers' forms included general health questions about family members and economic hardship. (See Appendix A). Fathers were given a less detailed demographic form. Their form included questions about SES, job situation, and general health.

3.2.1.2. Perceived Social Support

To measure the perceived social support of parents, the Multidimensional Scale of Social Support was used (Zimet et al., 1988; Eker et al., 2001). It consisted of 12 items with a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 0 = very strongly disagree to 3 = very strongly agree. There were three subscales measuring family, friends, and significant others, and each of these subscales consists of four items. An example item for family support was "*My family really tries to help me."* and social support was *"I have friends with whom I can share my joys and sorrows."* and significant other support was "*There is a special person who is around when I am in need."* The internal consistency of all scale was high both for mothers, Cronbach's α =.92 (significant other α =.92, family α =.91, friends α =.90) and for fathers, Cronbach's α =.90 (significant other α =.87, family α =.84, friends α =.90). There were no reversed items for this scale, and in the scope of the current study overall score of social support was used, calculated by the average of 12 items. Higher scores indicated more perceived social support (See Appendix C).

3.2.1.3. Marital Conflict

In order to measure perceived marital conflict for partners, Marital Conflict Scale was used (Braiker, & Kelley, 1979; Sumer et al., 2016). It consisted of five items with a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1= definitely disagree to 5 = definitely agree. The internal consistency of the five items was low (for mothers, Cronbach's α =.61; for fathers Cronbach α =.54). Thus, due to low item-total correlation, the third item was excluded from the study (*"I share my negative feelings about my partner with him/her"),* which resulted in higher consistency both for mothers, Cronbach's α =.69; and for fathers, Cronbach's α =.64. There was no reversed item for this scale, and the marital satisfaction score was calculated by taking the mean of the four items. Higher scores indicated more satisfaction in marriage. This questionnaire was not given to parents who did not have a partner (See Appendix E).

3.2.1.4. Parent Depression

Parent depression was measured with Depression Anxiety Stress Scale-21 (DASS-21; Lovibond & Lovibond, 1995; Yılmaz et al., 2017; Sarıçam, 2018). This questionnaire was a short form of DASS-42, which was designed to assess individuals' psychological distress. It consisted of 21 items with a 3-point Likert scale ranging from 0 = never to 3 = always. There were three subscales: depression, anxiety and stress subscales. For Study 1, only the depression scale was used (An example item is *I felt so unhappy and sad*). There were no reverse items, and the depression score was calculated by taking the mean of the seven items. Higher scores indicated more depressive symptoms for parents. The internal consistency of the depression subscale was high both for mothers, Cronbach's α =.86, and fathers, Cronbach's α =.82 (See Appendix H).

3.2.1.5. Authoritative Parental Beliefs

Chinese Child-Rearing Beliefs Questionnaire scale consisted of three subscales, training, shaming, and authoritative parenting, aiming to measure parents' beliefs about parenting (Lieber et al., 2006). In the scope of the present study, only the nine-item authoritative parenting beliefs subscale was used (an example item is *Mothers should care and respect the opinions of their children*). Items were translated to Turkish by using the translation-back translation method. The scale items were asked on a five-point Likert type scale, 1 = definitely disagree, 5 = definitely agree. There are no reverse items, and the authoritative parenting beliefs score was calculated by taking the mean average of nine items. Higher scores indicate more positive authoritative parenting beliefs. The internal consistency of the scale was high both for mothers, Cronbach's α =.84, and fathers, Cronbach's α =.86 (See Appendix O).

3.2.1.6. Socialization Goals

The eight-item Socialization Goals Questionnaire was used to measure parents' socialization goals for autonomy and relatedness (Döge & Keller, 2014) to explore parents' socialization goals for autonomy and relatedness. This scale had two

subscales, individual psychological autonomy (four items) and hierarchical relatedness (four items), where the former aims to measure autonomy supporting beliefs of parents, the latter aims to measure relatedness beliefs (i.e., autonomy-supportive item: "*Beginning from their childhood, children should develop self-esteem*", hierarchical relatedness item; "*Beginning from their childhood, children should learn to obey parents*"). The reliability and validity of Turkish translation were also tested by Döge and Keller (2014). Thus, only some wording modifications were made in scale items for the current study. The original scale items start as "during the first year of children's lives," yet items started as "beginning from their childhood" in the current study". It is rated on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree) and had high consistency for hierarchical relatedness subscale, for mothers Cronbach's α =.90; and fathers, Cronbach's α =.82. However, there was one problematic item for the individual psychological autonomy scale *"Children should learn to be independent"*. At first, internal consistency was low both for mothers, Cronbach's α =.77, for fathers Cronbach's α =.55. When the problematic item was omitted, the consistency scores increased both for mothers, Cronbach's α =.90, and fathers, Cronbach's α =.70. Thus, the latter version of the variable was used in the analyses. Higher scores of the mean averages indicated higher support for psychological autonomy or hierarchical relatedness. (See Appendix M)

3.2.2. Child and Adolescent Measures

3.2.2.1. Demographic Form

Children also filled out a demographic form that consisted of questions about their age, grade, number of siblings, and SES levels of their families. Only first and second graders were not given a demographic form, and their information was taken from mothers. (See Appendix B)

3.2.2.2. Negative Affect

A mother-reported temperament scale, Early Adolescent Temperament Questionnaire-Revised (EATQ-R; Ellis & Rothbart, 2001; Muris & Meesters,

2009, Demirpençe & Putham, 2019), was used to measure negative affectivity of children. This scale is designed to measure reactive and regulative temperament traits in children and adolescents. In the scope of the current study, to measure negative affect of children, a composite score of aggression, frustration, and depressive mood subscales was used to assess negative affect of the children (An example of the items is "My child is sad more often than other people realize"). In total, 18 items were answered by mothers on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 0 = never to 4 = always. There was only one reversed item, yet this item excluded from the study since its corrected item-total correlation was lower than.30 (My child is hardly ever sad, even when lots of things are going wrong), the internal consistency of the scale increased from.90 to.91 after the exclusion of this item. Negative affect scores were calculated by taking mean averages of the 17 items, and higher scores indicate higher negative affect for children (See Appendix G).

3.2.2.3. Parental Rejection

A child-reported scale, Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire, was used to measure parental rejection (Rohner & Khaleque, 2005; Anjel, 1993; Varan, 2003). The scale has 24 items on a 4-point Likert scale (ranging from 0 = never to 3 = always). To make questions clearer for first and second graders, item wordings were simplified without losing the original meaning. The items focus on the children's perceptions of warmth, affection, care, nurturance, support, love, or rejection. Most of the items in the questionnaires refer to parental behavior rather than to parental attitudes. There are four subscales: warmth/affection, aggression/hostility, neglect/indifference, and undifferentiated rejection. This scale is mainly used by either reverse scoring positive parenting items and then combining all four subscales into one rejection score or reversing negative parenting items and combining all four subscales into one warmth score. Since the focus of the current study was on parental rejection, a single score for parental rejection was created by reversing warmth items and then taking the mean of all items. The scale's internal consistency was high for both maternal rejection, Cronbach's α =.88; and paternal rejection, Cronbach's α =.90. Higher scores indicated more perceived rejection from parents. (See Appendix F).

3.3. Procedure

This study was a part of a larger project named "The Effects of Parenting Attitudes and Parent-Child Interaction on Child and Adolescent Developmental Outcomes" and funded by The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey (TUBITAK). Ethical approval was taken from the Human Subjects Ethics Committee of the Middle East Technical University and from the Ministry of Education in Turkey (See Appendix N). The Turkish Statistical Institute (TÜİK) determined the cities and schools to achieve a nationally representative sample. For each grade in schools, a class was randomly selected. First, parents were sent a flyer about the project and informed consent. Then, volunteer mothers were invited to the schools for data collection in tablets, whereas; fathers who were reached through mothers or children, were sent questionnaires in the paper pen format. The data collection was conducted with a large group of graduate researchers and undergraduate interns. Before data collection, each researcher and intern trained for the data collection process to ensure standardization of data collection procedure for the study. After parent data collection was completed, data from the children was collected during school time via tablets in the following days. Data collection for the first and second-grade students had a different format than older students to ease their completion of questionnaires. An animation character was created to explain the logic of answering Likert-type questions and read the questions aloud. After the data collection was completed, families were given gifts as compensation.

3.3.1. Data Preparation

Three datasets (mothers, children, and fathers) were screened before running the analysis. Since the data from mothers and children did not have any missing value, there was no need for missing value implementation. Fathers filled out questionnaires by the paper-pen method. Thus, it was likely to have missing values in the father data. However, neither of the scales for fathers had missing values of more than 5%. There was no need for missing value implementation for fathers, as well. After data cleaning, all datasets were merged into one file to conduct the

main analyses of the study. The first part of the main analyses - descriptives, One-way Analyses of Variance (ANOVAs), Hierarchical Regression Analyses, and Moderation Analyses- was performed using IBM SPSS 26 Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (IBM, 2019) and PROCESS Macro version 3.5 (Hayes, 2013; 2020). For examining dyadic relationships between the parents, a separate dataset was created for paired mother-father data. Then, LISREL software (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1996) was used to test dyadic associations for both parents.

CHAPTER 4

STUDY 1 RESULTS

This section starts with data screening and descriptive statistics of study variables. Then, correlations among the study variables were stated. After displaying intercorrelations among study variables, one-way ANOVA results comparing school types (primary, elementary, and high school) and child gender were provided. Later, results of the hierarchical regression analyses and moderation analyses were presented in line with the study aims. For the second part of the study, the descriptive statistics and intercorrelations among variables tested in dyadic analyses were followed by the results of the dyadic analyses for comparing actor-partner effects of parents were reported.

4.1. Data Screening

Before conducting analyses of the study, data were screened for the missing cases and outliers. Since data from mothers and children were collected through tablet computers, there were no missing values. Thus, missing data analysis was only done for fathers' data, and there were no participants who had more than 5% missing data across the data. Thus, there was no need for missing value replacement. Then, univariate and multivariate outliers were controlled. According to their Mahalanobis distances, four cases were excluded from the data set (Mahalanobis, 1930). Normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity of variables were controlled by histograms and scatterplot graphs. The univariate distribution of each variable was close to the normal distribution. The assumptions of normality of sampling distributions were checked based on the skewness and kurtosis, and it showed that socialization goals variables and authoritative parenting beliefs variables were not between +1 and -1. However, since this

negative skewness was due to the nature of these variables, no transformation was needed.

4.2. Descriptives and Correlations of Study Variables

The Pearson correlations for the study variables were presented in Table 1.

Table 1 *Pearson Correlations for the Study Variables*

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Rejection	-	$-.10^{**}$	$.09^{**}$	-.03	-.02	$.08^{*}$	$-.12^{**}$	.04	.05	.02	-.03
2. Education	-.11	-	$-.16^{**}$	-.02	$.14^{**}$	$-.12^{**}$	$.06^{\,m}$	$-.11^{**}$	$-.10^{**}$	.05	$-.12^{**}$
3. Depression	$.17^{*}$	$-.17^{**}$	-	-.01	-.05	-.00	$-.31^{**}$	$.31^{**}$	$.33^{**}$	-.04	$.11^{**}$
4. Authoritat.	-.10	-.07	$-.13^{\,m}$	-	$.72^{**}$	$.62^{**}$	$.21^{**}$	.03	.00	-.02	-.01
5. AS_SG	-.10	-.07	$-.24^{**}$	$.38^{**}$	-	$.64^{**}$	$.23^{**}$	.02	-.03	.01	.05
6. HR_SG	-.11	$-.23^{**}$	$-.12^{\,m}$	.09	$.31^{**}$	-	$.22^{**}$	$.06^{m}$	.02	.01	-.01
7. Social sup.	-.61	.09	$-.38^{**}$	$.13^{*}$	$.28^{**}$	.06	-	$.22^{**}$	$.35^{**}$	.05	$.17^{**}$
8. Marital co.	.07	-.00	$.12^{\,m}$	-.01	-.01	.08	$-.16^{*}$	-	$.32^{**}$	-.02	.05
9. Child NA	$.11^{**}$	-.04	$.19^{**}$	-.07	$-.16^{*}$	-.03	$-.17^{*}$	$.23^{**}$	-	-.05	$.22^{**}$
10. Gender	$.07^{*}$	-.03	.01	.01	-.05	-.05	-.06	$.12^{\,m}$	-.05	-	$-.10^{**}$
11. Child Age	.01	-.05	$.12^{\,m}$	.08	-.05	.03	-.09	-.04	$.22^{**}$	$.10^{**}$	-

Note. Correlations for the mothers (fathers) are above (below) the diagonal. $^{m}p <.10$, $^{*} p <.05$, $^{**} p <.001$. 1. Rejection = Total rejection scores for related parent, 2. Education level of parents 1 = Illiterate, 8 = Ph.D., 5. AS_SG = Autonomy supporting socialization goals, 6. HR_SG = Hierarchical relatedness socialization goals, 7. Social sup = total social support scores for parents, 8. Marital co = total marital conflict scores for parents, 9. Child NA = negative affect of children.

4.3. Preliminary Analyses: One-way ANOVAs

Before the main analyses, in order to provide more detailed descriptives for the study variables, separate One-way Analyses of Variance Analyses (ANOVA) were conducted to analyze the differences of demographic variables according to child gender and school type on the measures of the present study. There was no

significant difference for child gender among mother-related study variables (*p*s >.05).

Table 2 *Comparison of School Levels for Mother and Child Variables*

	Primary School			Elementary School			High School			
	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	Range
1. Maternal rejection	301	1.55$_a$	.46	257	1.46$_b$	.41	179	1.61$_{a,b}$	.45	1-4
2. Maternal depression	339	.47$_a$	.40	272	.54$_{a,b}$	.47	152	.61$_b$	.62	0-3
3. Social support	339	2.28$_a$	.74	276	2.08$_b$	.84	158	1.88$_c$	.75	1-5
4. Marital conflict	327	2.47$_a$	1.02	257	2.48$_a$	.98	151	2.06$_a$	1.06	1-5
5. Negative affect	339	.76$_a$	.59	275	1.02$_{a,b}$	.71	157	1.14$_b$	.74	1-5
6. Mother education	339	4.22$_a$	1.01	276	4.00$_b$	1.21	179	3.94$_b$	1.26	1-8
7. Authoritative parent	339	4.21$_a$	.71	276	4.24$_a$	.63	161	4.21$_a$	.67	1-5
8. Autonomy sup.	339	4.69$_a$	.79	276	4.73$_a$	.68	160	4.75$_a$	.68	1-5
9. Hierarchical related	339	4.50$_a$	.86	276	4.53$_a$	.80	160	4.44$_a$	.88	1-5

Note. For each variable, the column means are compared by using One-way ANOVAs. If there is a significant difference among the columns, the values have different subscript letters, *p* <.05.

Table 3 *Comparison of Child Gender for Mother and Child Variables*

	Girls			Boys			
	N	M	SD.	N	M	SD.	Range
1. Maternal rejection	427	1.51$_a$	.45	320	1.52$_a$	.43	1-4
2. Maternal depression	441	.54$_a$	.53	335	.48$_a$	.47	0-3
3. Social support	439	2.09$_a$	.82	334	2.18$_a$	.79	1-5
4. Marital conflict	429	2.52$_a$	1.00	319	2.48$_a$	1.04	1-5
6. Mother education level	441	4.03$_a$	1.16	335	4.13$_a$	1.28	1-8
7. Authoritative parent	441	4.22$_a$	.67	335	4.19$_a$	.68	1-5
8. Autonomy supporting	441	4.81$_a$	.42	335	4.75$_a$	.60	1-5
9. Hierarchical related	441	4.88$_a$	.86	335	4.51$_a$	.86	1-5
10. Child negative affect	437	.95$_a$	.71	334	.89$_a$	.66	0-4

In terms of school-level differences, primary school students reported significantly higher rejection scores than elementary school students for maternal rejection (M_{diff} = -.09, *p* =.04). However, high school students did not differ from the other two school levels (primary school, M_{diff} = -.01, *p* =.94; elementary M_{diff} =.08, *p* =.17). There were no significant differences in mothers' reports of authoritative parenting beliefs, socialization goals, and marital conflict variables (*p*s >.05). However, there were significant differences in mothers' education level, mothers' reports of social support, and depression.

Table 4 *Comparison of School Levels for Father Variables*

	Primary School			Elementary School			High School		
	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	Range
1. Paternal rejection	136	1.59a	.52	85	1.47 b	.41	29	1.64 a	.53	1-4
2. Paternal depression	136	1.42 a	.42	85	1.50 a	.47	29	1.54a	.48	0-3
3. Social support	136	4.31a	.77	85	4.13 a	.91	32	3.99 a	1.26	1-5
4. Marital conflict	132	2.27 a	.99	85	2.02 a	.77	30	2.44 a	.72	1-5
6. Father education	139	4.89 a	1.01	89	4.47 a	1.21	32	4.38a	.98	1-8
7. Authoritative p.	136	4.20 a	.71	88	4.24 a	.62	32	4.44 a	.37	1-5
8. Autonomy support	135	4.80 a	.49	87	4.73 a	.68	32	4.73 a	.62	1-5
9. Hierarchical related	133	4.66 a	.64	87	4.65 a	.65	32	4.72 a	.43	1-5

Note. For each variable, the column means are compared by using One-way ANOVAs. If there is a significant difference among the columns, the values have different subscript letters, *p* <.05.

Mothers of primary school students have higher education level than other participants (elementary school, M_{diff} = -.26, *p* =.01; high school, M_{diff} =.28, *p* =.03). Mothers of primary school students perceived more support than others (elementary school, M_{diff} =.20, *p* =.01; high school, M_{diff} =.40, *p* <.001) while

mothers of elementary school students perceived more support than high school students (high school, M_{diff} =.20, p =.03). In addition, mothers of high school students reported more depression than mothers of primary school students (M_{diff} =.16, p <.001). Results of the analyses were shown in Tables 2 and 3.

Same analyses were also run for father-related variables. Results showed that elementary school students reported significantly lower rejection of fathers than others (primary school, M_{diff} = -.12, p =.01; high school, M_{diff} = -.17, p <.001). There were no significant differences among other father-related variables (ps >.05) (See Table 4). For the gender differences, girls reported less paternal rejection. There were no significant gender differences among other father-related variables (ps >.05) (See Table 5).

Table 5 *Comparison of Child Gender for Father Variables*

	Girls			Boys			
	N	M	SD.	N	M	SD.	Range
1. Paternal rejection	137	1.53$_a$	.49	103	1.60$_b$	.49	1-4
2. Paternal depression	137	1.46$_a$	.42	103	1.47$_a$	.48	0-3
3. Social support	137	4.31$_a$	.79	113	4.26$_a$	.97	1-5
4. Marital conflict	132	2.10$_a$	.85	85	2.32$_a$	.94	1-5
6. Father education level	138	4.53$_a$	1.07	116	4.44$_a$	1.28	1-8
7. Authoritative parent	136	4.23$_a$	.66	88	4.25$_a$	.65	1-5
8. Autonomy support	135	4.81$_a$	.42	87	4.75$_a$	.60	1-5
9. Hierarchical related	133	4.69$_a$	.56	87	4.63$_a$	.69	1-5

Note. For each variable, the column means are compared by using One-way ANOVAs. If there is a significant difference among the columns, the values have different subscript letters, p <.05.

Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses

Under this section, two hierarchical regression analyses were conducted in order to test research questions 1, 2, and 3, which were about the role of parent and child characteristics along with family social context variables on perceived maternal and paternal rejection. These regression analyses were conducted for mothers and fathers separately. In the first step, parents' characteristics; namely, parents' education level, depression scores of parents, and two components of the parental socialization goals; in the second step, social environment-related variables,

namely, marital conflict and perceived social support, and in the third step, child-related variables; namely, age, gender, and negative affect of children were entered into the model. The summary of the results was presented in Table 6.

4.3.1. Results for Mothers

In the first step, parent characteristics variables were entered into the model, and the model was significant, $F(4, 617) = 4.81$, $p < .001$, $R^2_{Ad} = .04$. Then, in the next step, variables related to the family social environment were entered into the model. Yet, these variables did not explain any additional variance for the model, $\Delta F(2, 615) = 2.29$, $p = .10$, $\Delta R^2 = .01$. In the third step, child characteristics variables were entered into the model, and this step also did not explain any additional variance, $\Delta F(3, 612) = .908$, $p = .437$, $\Delta R^2 = .004$. According to main effects in the last step, mother education level negatively predicted perceived maternal rejection, $\beta = -.04$, $SE = .02$, $p = .04$. More educated mothers were perceived as less rejecting by their children. Moreover, hierarchical relatedness goals were found to be positively predicting maternal rejection, $\beta = .08$, $SE = .03$, $p = .01$. Mothers who had more hierarchical relatedness goals were perceived as more rejecting. For family social environment, perceived social support negatively predicted perceived maternal rejection, $\beta = -.06$, $SE = .03$, $p = .02$. Perceived social support for mothers was associated with lower levels of perceived maternal rejection.

4.3.2. Results for Fathers

Results for perceived paternal rejection showed that the first step was significant, $F(5, 201) = 3.52$, $p = .01$, $R^2_{Adj} = .06$. The second step for family social environment variables did not explain any additional variance, $\Delta F(2, 199) = .21$, $p = .81$, $R^2_{Adj} = .05$. In the third step child characteristics variables were entered into the equation, and they explained additional variance for the model, $\Delta F(3, 196) = 3.63$, $p = .01$, $R^2_{Adj} = .09$.

Results of the main effects of the variables in the last step showed that depression levels of fathers, $\beta = .19$, $SE = .08$, $p = .01$, and negative affect of child, $\beta = .13$,

SE=.06, *p* =.02, were positively predicting perceived paternal rejection. More depressed fathers were perceived as more rejecting. Similarly, children with more negative affectivity perceived their fathers as more rejecting (See Table 6).

Table 6 *Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses for Parental Rejection*

	Mother Rejection				Father Rejection			
Model	B	SE	β	Sig	B	SE	β	Sig
Step 1. Parent characteristics	$F_{(4,617)} = 4.81$, $p < .001$, $R^2_{Ad} = .04$				$F_{(5, 201)} = 3.52$, $p = .01$, $R^2_{Adj} = .06$			
Constant	1.64	.17		.00	1.81	.50		.00
Education level	-.04	.02	-.09	**.04**	-.02	.03	-.04	.56
Depression	.06	.04	.07	.13	.19	.08	.19	**.01**
Autonomy supporting SG	-.03	.04	-.04	.48	-.09	.07	-.09	.22
Hierarchical relatedness SG	.08	.03	.15	**.01**	-.03	.05	-.05	.52
Step 2. Family social environment	$\Delta F_{(2, 615)} = 2.29$, $p = .102$, $\Delta R^2 = .01$				$\Delta F_{(2, 199)} = .21$, $p = .81$, $\Delta R^2 = .05$			
Social support	-.06	.03	-.11	**.02**	.03	.04	.05	.52
Marital conflict	-.00	.02	-.01	.83	-.02	.03	-.04	.59
Step 3. Child characteristics	$\Delta F_{(3, 612)} = .91$, $p = .44$, $\Delta R^2 = .00$				$\Delta F_{(3, 196)} = 3.63$, $p = .01$, $\Delta R^2 = .09$			
Child negative affect	-.01	.03	-.01	.78	.13	.06	.16	**.02**
Child age	-.01	.01	-.07	.12	-.01	.01	-.06	.44
Child gender	.00	.04	.00	.94	.10	.06	.11	.10

Note. The results represented here are the main effects at the last steps of the analyses. However, explained variances for each step are shown in step rows.

4.4. Moderator Role of Negative Affect and Child Gender

In this part, in order to test research questions 4 and 5, which aimed to examine the moderating role of child negative affectivity and child gender, separate sets of analyses were run for mothers and fathers. In these analyses, the first three steps were identical to the hierarchical regression analyses above. In the fourth and fifth steps, two-way interactions and three-way interactions were introduced to the model. While examining the interactions at the fourth and fifth steps, three different analyses were conducted to examine the interaction of child gender and negative affect with each domain.

Table 7 *Results for the Moderator Role of Child Negative Affect and Gender for Maternal and Paternal Rejection*

	Maternal Rejection				Paternal Rejection			
Model	B	SE	β	Sig	B	SE	β	Sig
Step 1. Parent characteristics								
Step 2. Family social environment								
Step 3. Child characteristics								
Step 4.a. Interaction for child negative affect and gender with parent characteristics								
NA X Parent education	-.02	.03	-.10	.40	.07	.04	.32	.13
NA X Respecting elders	.04	.05	.06	.43	-.07	.09	-.06	. 46
NA X Supporting autonomy	-.01	.05	-.01	.92	.11	.12	.08	. 38
NA X Depression	-.04	.05	-.03	.44	.04	.13	.03	.76
Gender X Parent education	-.01	.04	-.05	.71	-.03	.06	-.11	.67
Gender X Depression	-.04	.08	-.03	.62	-.15	.15	-.10	.31
Gender X Respecting elders	.02	.06	.03	.72	.17	.11	.18	.13
Gender X Supporting autonomy	-.04	.07	-.04	.60	-.27	.14	-.19	**.06**
Step 5.a. Interaction for child gender, child negative affect, and parent characteristics								
Gender X NA X Parent education	-.01	.02	-.02	.68	.02	.03	.08	.46
Gender X NA X Depression	-.14	.11	-.07	.20	.33	.27	.14	.22
Gender X NA X Respecting elders	.09	.10	.10	.36	.32	.20	.25	.11
Gender X NA X Supporting autonomy	-.14	.11	-.15	.21	.06	.25	.04	.81
Step 4.b. Interaction for child negative affect and child gender with family social environment								
NA X Social support	-.01	.03	-.02	.69	-.06	.06	-.16	.34
NA X Marital conflict	-.01	.02	-.01	.76	.12	.06	.14	**.06**
Gender X Social support	.05	.05	.06	.26	-.02	.08	-.05	.80
Gender X Marital conflict	-.01	.04	-.02	.76	.16	.08	.19	**.04**
Step 5.b. Interaction for child gender, child negative affect, and family social environment								
Gender X NA X Marital conflict	.00	.05	.00	.95	.02	.05	.05	.63
Gender X NA X Social support	.10	.05	.11	**.09**	-.17	.13	-.14	.20
Step 4.c. Interaction for child negative affect and gender								
NA X Age	.01	.01	.05	.18	.03	.02	.11	.15
NA X Gender	-.01	.05	-.01	.79	.05	.11	.04	.67
Gender X Age	-.01	.01	-.04	.48	-.02	.02	-.07	.46
Step 5.c. Interaction for child gender, child negative affect and child age								
Gender X NA X Age	-.02	.02	-.05	.39	-.00	.04	-.01	.94

Note. All continuous variables are mean-centered, and categorical variables have meaningful zero. Hierarchical Regression Analyses for interaction steps are conducted separately for parent characteristics, social environment, and child characteristics.

Results for the moderating role of negative affect and gender in the association between parent characteristics and parental rejection were shown in Table 7. Results of the moderation analyses showed that neither gender nor negative affect of the child moderated the associations of parent characteristics (Step 4.a., 5.a.) or child age (Step 4.c, 5.c) with maternal rejection. For family social environment, there was a trend for three-way interaction of child gender, negative affect, and social support for maternal rejection, $\beta = .10$, $SE = .05$, $p = .09$. When tested by using bootstrapping method with 10000 replications, this three-way interaction was significant, bootstrapping *interaction effect* $= .12$, $SE = .07$, $p = .08$, 95% *CI* [-.003, -.112]. Results of simple slope tests based on ±1 SD above and below the mean of the moderator showed that for low levels of negative affect, there was no gender difference in the association between social support and maternal rejection, for boys, *effect* = -.07, $SE = .05$, $p = .21$, 95% *CI* [-.167,.034]; for girls, *effect* = -.04, $SE = .04$, $p = .41$, 95% *CI* [-.124,.051]. However, for moderate and high levels of negative affect, as social support mothers perceived increased, girls perceived less rejection, for moderate negative affect *effect* = -.08, $SE = .03$, $p = .01$, 95% *CI* [-.145, -.020]; for high negative affect, *effect* = -.13, $SE = .05$, $p < .001$, 95% *CI* [-.216, -.041].
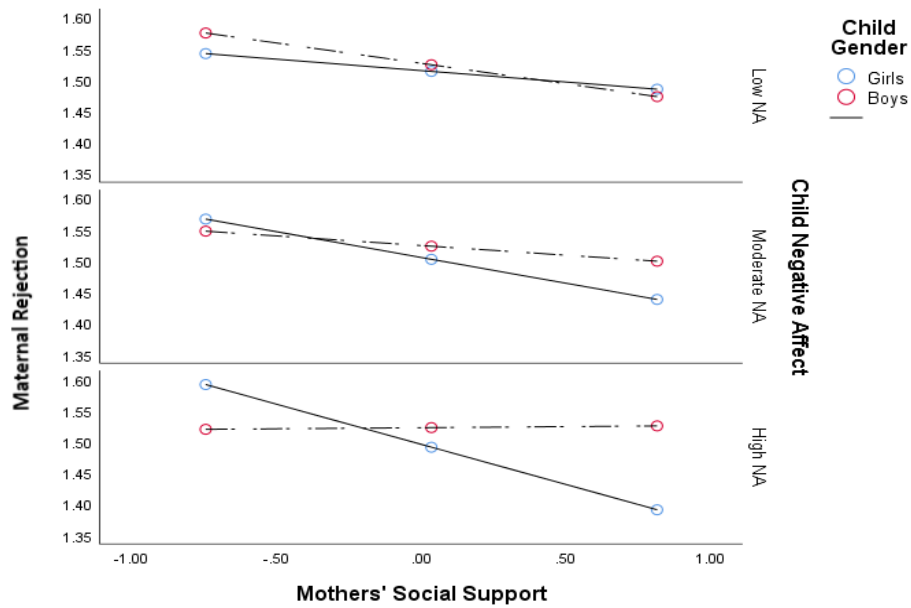
Figure 5 *Interaction Figure for Child Gender, Negative Affect and Mother's Social Support*

For fathers, identical regression analyses were run. The analyses showed that there was a trend for interaction of child gender and supporting autonomy goals of fathers, $\beta = -.27$, $SE = .14$, $p = .06$. When tested by using bootstrapping method with 10000 replications, this interaction was again showing a trend, bootstrapping *effect* $= -.27$, *SE* $= .14$, *p* $= .06$, 95% *CI* [-.546, .015]. Results of the simple slope test showed that as fathers' autonomy supporting goals increased, boys perceived less rejection compared to ones who have fathers with low autonomy supporting goals, *effect* $= -.21$, *SE* $= .10$, *p* $= .04$, *95% CI* [-.414, -.010]; whereas, there was no significant effect for girls, *effect* $= .05$, *SE* $= .10$, *p* $= .61$, *95% CI* [-.153, .259].
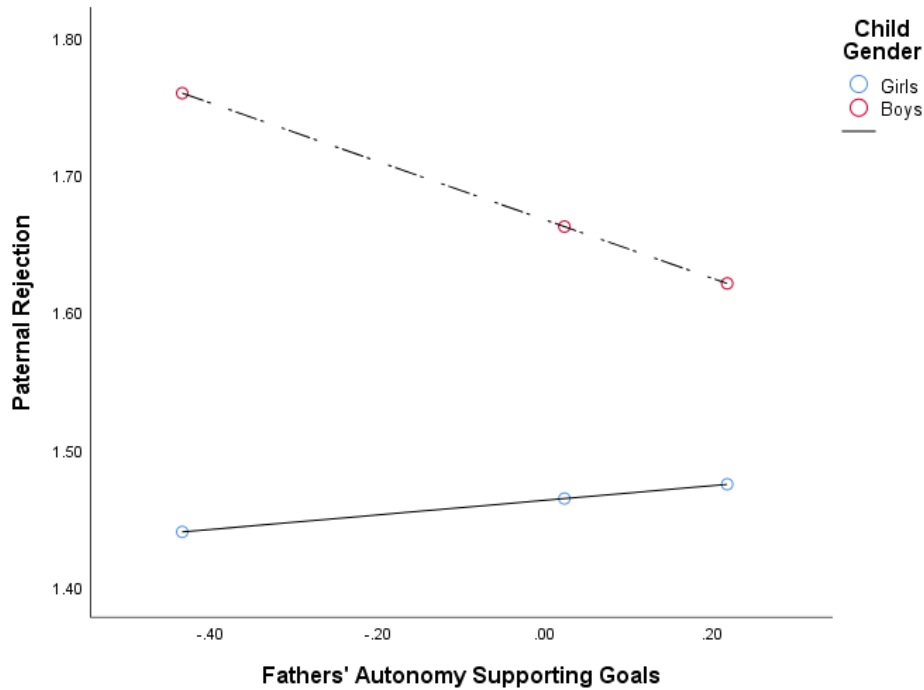
Figure 6 *Interaction Figure for Child Gender and Father's Autonomy Supporting Goals*

There was a significant interaction of child gender and marital conflict for paternal rejection, β =.16, *SE* =.08, *p* =.04. When tested by using bootstrapping method with 10000 replications, this interaction was significant, bootstrapping coefficient for interaction =.15, *SE* =.08, 95% *CI* [.001,.315]. Even though the interaction effect was significant, results for the simple slope test yielded no significant results for girls, *effect* = -.07, *SE* =.05, *p* =.13, 95% *CI* [-.172,.022], and boys, β =.08, *SE* =.06, *p* =.18, 95% *CI* [-.036,.197].
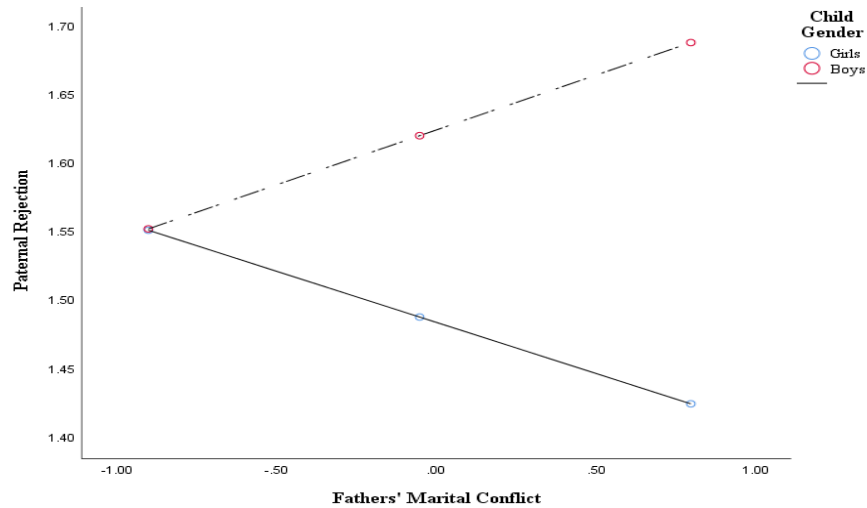
Figure 7 *Interaction Figure for Child Gender and Father's Marital Conflict*

Even though both of the slopes were nonsignificant, to further investigate the interaction effect, the interaction effect was tested through the values of marital conflict by using Johnson-Neyman Technique (Johnson & Neyman, 1936). Results showed that the gender effect on marital conflict was significant for higher levels of marital conflict, which refers to scores higher than 1.83 SD from the mean. According to both analyses, it was concluded that even though there was no gender difference for lower levels of marital conflict, in higher levels of marital conflict, boys perceive more paternal rejection than girls.
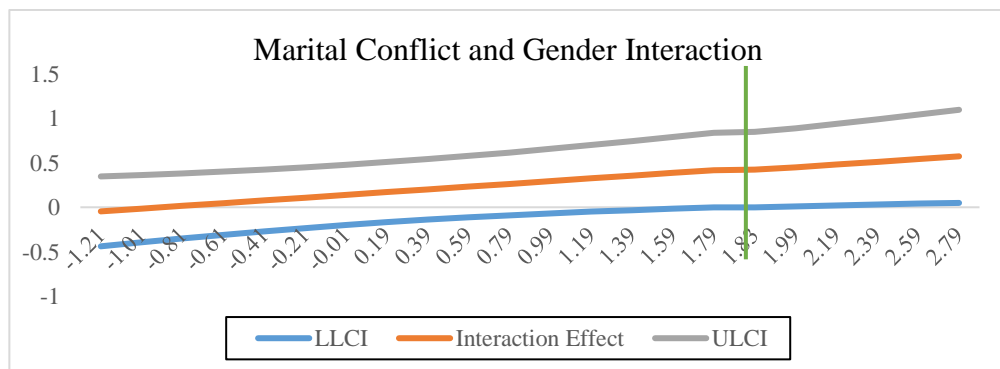
Figure 8 *Johnson-Neyman Technique for the Interaction of Child Gender and Father's Marital Conflict*

45

Lastly, there was a trend for the interaction of child negative affect and marital conflict for paternal rejection, $\beta = .12$, $SE = .06$, $p = .06$. When tested by using bootstrapping method with 10000 replications, this interaction was significant, bootstrapping $effect = .12$, $SE = .06$, 95% CI [.002, .238]. Results of the simple slope tests showed that for low levels of the negative affect of children, there was a negative association for fathers' marital conflict and paternal rejection, low NA, $effect = -.16$, $SE = .06$, $p = .02$, 95% CI [-.288, -.025]. When children had lower levels of negative affect, fathers' increased marital conflict resulted in less paternal rejection. But this association was not significant for higher levels of negative affect, $effect = -.02$, $SE = .06$, $p = .76$, 95% CI [-.130, -.096].
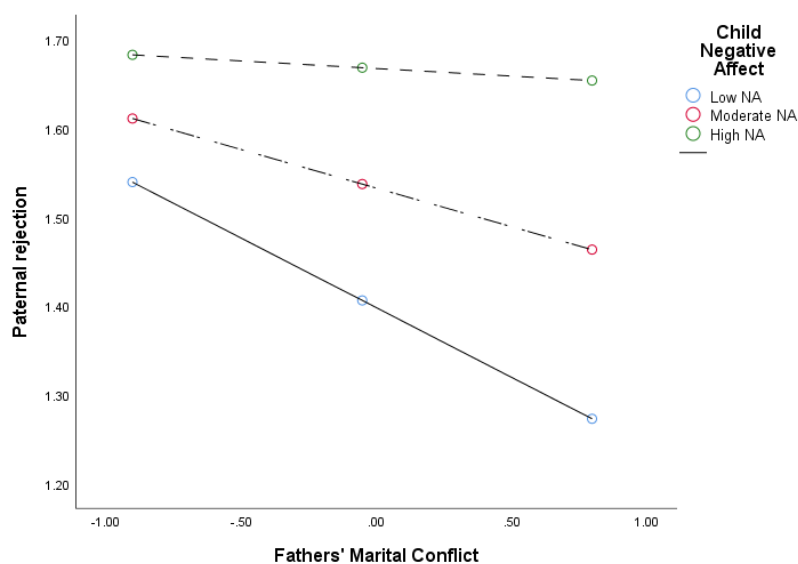
Figure 9 *Interaction Figure for Child Negative Affect and Father's Marital Conflict*

4.5. Results for the Dyadic Analyses

Lastly, in order to examine the research question 5, which aimed to explore the interpersonal associations between parents' socialization goals and parental rejection and the mediating role of parents' beliefs about parenting, were conducted. In order to test the mediating effects of authoritative parenting beliefs in the relationship between parent socialization goals and parental rejection, a series of path analyses using Actor-Partner Interdependence Model (APIM)

analysis was conducted (Kenny, 1996). Since only the matched data for mothers and fathers have been used, the sample for this analysis was smaller. Thus, before the main analyses, sample characteristics, descriptives, and bivariate correlations among mother and father variables were provided. Then, the results of the dyadic analysis were presented.

4.6.1. Sample for Dyadic Analysis

For this analysis, only the matched pairs of mother-father dyads in the sample were used ($n = 221$). Mean age for mothers was $M = 35.55$, $SD = 5.01$, and for fathers $M = 40.24$, $SD = 5.10$.

4.6.2. Bivariate Correlations for Dyadic Analysis

The descriptives and intercorrelations of the study variables for the dyadic analysis were given in Table 8 and 9.

Table 8 *Descriptive Statistics for the Dyadic Analysis Variables*

	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
1. Maternal rejection	1.51	.39	1.00	2.79
2. Paternal rejection	1.55	.45	1.00	2.88
3. Mother autonomy supporting g.	4.53	.63	1.00	5.00
4. Father autonomy supporting g.	4.76	.55	1.00	5.00
5. Father authoritative pb.	4.42	.67	1.00	5.00
6. Mother authoritative pb.	4.50	.54	1.00	5.00

Table 9 *Pearson Correlations for the Dyadic Analysis Variables*

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.
1. Maternal rejection	1					
2. Paternal rejection	.73**	1				
3. Mother autonomy supporting	-.12	-.11	1			
4. Father autonomy supporting	-.14*	-.14*	.03	1		
5. Mother authoritative pb.	-.08	-.09	.68**	-.01	1	
6. Father authoritative pb.	-.18**	-.15*	.17*	.44**	.14**	1

4.6.3. Dyadic Analysis and Mediation Analyses

This analysis investigated the predictor role of mothers' and fathers' socialization goals on parental rejection, where the dyad members were treated as distinguishable partners. In these analyses, parents' socialization goals were used as predictor variables, authoritative parenting beliefs of parents were mediating variables, and parental rejection variables were entered as the outcome variables to the model. Second, actor and partner effects were set equal to each other in predicting all dependent variables to see whether these effects differ significantly. A chi-square difference test was used to compare the magnitude of differences. First, a fully saturated model, where all paths were introduced to the model, was examined. Then, nonsignificant paths were taken out from the model until only the significant paths remained (Kenny et al., 2006). The final model showed an excellent fit for data, $\chi 2$ $(7, N = 221) = 6.82$, $p =.45$, $GFI =.99$, $AGFI =.97$, $NNFI = 1.00$, $CFI = 1.00$, $RMSEA =.00$.

The result of the APIM analysis showed significant effects of both actor and partner autonomy supporting socialization goals on parental rejection. Specifically, mothers who were high in autonomy supporting socialization goals had higher authoritative parenting beliefs, $\beta =.62$, $p <.05$, and their husbands also had higher authoritative parenting beliefs, $\beta =.22$, $p <.05$. For fathers, autonomy supporting socialization goals only predicted their own authoritative parenting beliefs, $\beta =.31$, $p <.05$. There was no significant relationship between mothers' authoritative parenting beliefs and maternal rejection, however, fathers' authoritative parenting beliefs predicted both maternal and paternal rejection negatively, $\beta = -.21$, $p <.05$, $\beta = -.19$, $p <.05$, respectively. Moreover, the indirect associations for maternal rejection were significant both for maternal and paternal autonomy supporting goals, indirect *effect* $= -2.35$, $p =.01$, indirect *effect* $= -2.69$, $p =.02$, respectively. Similarly, the indirect associations for paternal rejection were significant both for maternal and paternal autonomy supporting goals, indirect *effect* $= -2.23$, $p =.01$, indirect *effect* $= -2.52$ $p =.02$, respectively.

Both maternal and paternal autonomy supporting goals were positively related to only fathers' authoritative parenting beliefs, which in turn resulted in less maternal and paternal rejection. All results were presented in Figure 10.
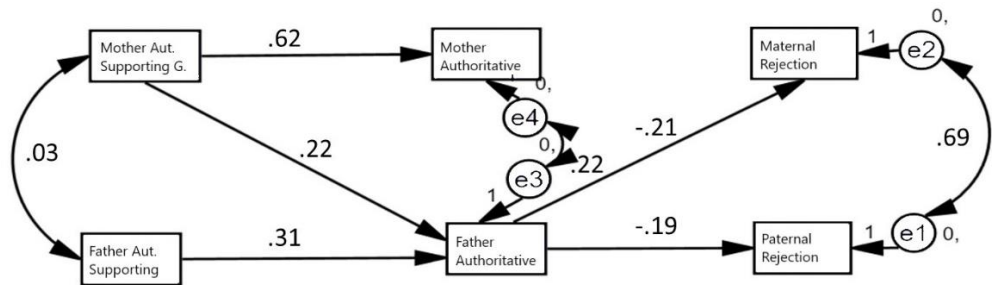
Figure 10 *Results of the Dyadic Analysis*

CHAPTER 5

STUDY I DISCUSSION

In the present study, in order to contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of the links between parent and child characteristics and family social context on parental rejection - in the cultural context of Turkey - a sample consisting of a broad age group of children and their parents were tested. The present study not only did utilize the moderator role of child negative affect and gender on parental rejection but also examined parental rejection comparatively for mothers and fathers. Furthermore, roles of socialization goals – namely autonomy supporting goals- and authoritative parenting beliefs for rejection were tested via dyadic analysis, enhancing a further understanding of the interparental influences. Previous studies emphasized the consequences of parental rejection – while paying more attention to maternal rejection - and underestimating the role of cultural context for rejecting parenting, especially for paternal rejection. To the best of the knowledge, this was the first study that examined antecedents of parental rejection by a) constructing a model based on the Process of Parenting Model, b) focusing on the moderating role of child negative affect and gender, c) examining children and adolescents from primary to high school within the cultural context of Turkey, d) by taking parenting of mothers and fathers into consideration. In addition, dyadic links between parents' socialization goals and parenting beliefs shed light on family mechanisms for understanding parental rejection. Results of the study were discussed separately, under the related headline.

5.1. Parent Characteristics

As one of the main domains in determining perceived parental rejection, parent characteristics were examined. Even though the majority of studies were focusing

on mothers as primary caregivers, as the changing environment modern world and shifts within the family roles, recent studies emphasized the importance of father involvement in child care and parenting. In this vein, the current study examined parenting for both parents by examining the role of parents' education levels, depressive symptoms, and socialization goals as characteristics of parents. The findings for parent characteristics were discussed in the following sections in order of parent education level, depression, and socialization goals.

5.1.1. Parent Education Level

Education levels of the parents have been consistently found as a determinant of positive parenting since it positively influences their beliefs, values, and parental behaviors (Bornstein et al., 2003; Duncan & Brooks-Gunn, 1997), and low levels of education are usually expected to lead to less responsive parenting. Studies from Turkey concluded that mothers' education levels were also associated with less negative parenting, such as being less punitive or less neglecting (Corapcı et al., 2012; Yagmurlu et al., 2009). Those mothers with higher education levels present more supportive behaviors and spent more time with their children. In a similar vein, in the current study, it was expected that parents' education level would predict parental rejection negatively for both parents. Even though the direction of the relationships was as expected for both parents, it was only significant for maternal rejection. These results might be stemmed from the traditional parenting roles in families. According to the Role Theory, mothers are expected to be the primary caregiver in the family responsible for household maintenance, whereas fathers are the breadwinners who are usually at work. Because of these expected roles within the family, parents might end up with different interactions with their children (Hallers-Haalboom et al., 2014). Since fathers spent more time outside to home, they are more likely to have limited time interacting with their children. For example, for a regular family in Turkey, fathers are seen as the authority figure who are consulted only in negative conditions. Whereas, most of the time, children at any age interact more with their mothers. Even though these roles have been changing in recent years, traditional gender roles for parents were still adopted more in low SES families. The current study sample was considered a low-middle

to low SES sample since the data collected from predominantly low SES regions of Turkey. Thus, it could be plausible to state that fathers were more likely to follow traditional gender roles in parenting. Therefore, fathers could be less involved in parenting, and due to limited interaction with their children, regardless of the education level of fathers, they could be perceived similarly rejecting.

5.1.2. Depression

In addition, the depression levels of parents were examined as a determinant of parental rejection. The previous studies (England & Sim, 2009; Lovejoy et al., 2000) and the review study of Taraban and Shaw (2018) concluded that parents' history of psychopathology - especially depression - was found to be strongly related to negative parenting practices. In the current study, similarly, it was hypothesized that the depression levels of both parents would predict perceived rejection. Results showed that even though the direction of the relationships was as expected for both parents, it was only significant for paternal rejection. This difference could be explained by the differences in children's perceptions of mother-child versus father-child relationships. Mothers could be more emphatic and better at emotional attunement in their relationship with children, which led them to be perceived as less rejecting. Children tend to seek emotional support from mothers most of the time compared to seeking support from fathers (Crouter & Crowley, 1990). Moreover, as mentioned earlier, predominantly mothers are the ones who are responsible for the responsibilities of child care, and fathers usually have the breadwinning role in traditional Turkish families. Similarly, in the present study majority of the participants were stay home mothers. Therefore, mothers might show their love and affection regardless of their depressive symptoms. Moreover, as explained earlier, previous studies in Turkey concluded that the negative role of depression was only significant for high SES mothers; yet, there was no evidence for this association in low SES samples (Baydar et al., 2014). In line with this, the sample in the current study was considered to be predominantly a low-to-middle SES sample. This result might also reflect some cultural reflections that mothers in Turkey –as primary caregivers for the majority of the time- tend to show their love and warmth regardless of depression levels. It could

52

also be speculated that rather than solely maternal depression, it could be the stress of mothers that predicts rejection. England and Sim (2009) discussed that mothers who had higher depressive symptoms were mainly exposed to higher stress from environmental conditions. To test this idea, we rerun the analyses by mothers replacing the depression variable with psychological distress, which was a composite score of depression, anxiety, and stress of mothers, and psychological distress was significantly predicted maternal rejection ($B = .10$, $SD = .04$, $p = .01$). Therefore, we could conclude that rather than depression, mothers' psychological distress could be more strongly associated with maternal rejection. For fathers, it was previously suggested that compared to mothers, fathers could be assumed to be in the position of greater power in the family who could more easily influence other family members, as well (Tannen, 1990). For example, fathers' moods predicted adolescents' subsequent moods more often than did mothers' moods (Larson & Richards, 1994). Therefore, having a father with depressive symptoms could be more easily perceived as rejection compared mother with more depressive symptoms.

Regarding the interaction of child negative affectivity and parental depression, we expected to find significant interaction where children with high negative affectivity and parent with higher depression scores would report the highest rejection for parents. However, neither maternal nor paternal rejection had significant interaction. Especially for fathers, there were significant main effects of both father depression and child negative affect; yet, the interaction was not significant. Therefore, it could be concluded that regardless of child negative affect, father depression levels were associated with increased rejection. Future studies might focus on other child characteristics or examine the same association with psychological distress for fathers to reveal a more comprehensive relationship. As a last parent characteristics examined in the current study, findings of parents' socialization were discussed in the light of the previous literature.

5.1.3. Socialization Goals

In order to test parents' cognition of culture, in the current study autonomy supporting and hierarchical relatedness socialization goals of parents were examined. As previously explained in the literature, these goals are shaped by culture and reflect parents' expectations of their children. While autonomy supporting goals were expected to be negatively associated with rejection, hierarchical relatedness goals were expected to be positively associated. According to the results of the current study, there was no significant relationship between autonomy supporting goals and rejection for both parents. These non-significant results might have different explanations for mothers and fathers. First, for mothers, research in Turkey concluded that regardless of education level or goals, mothers tend to show higher levels of warmth to their children (Sen et al., 2015). Therefore, the level of mothers' autonomy supporting goals might not add up to perceived parenting by their children. The reason for fathers might be different from mothers, but still, it could explain the nonsignificant relationship for autonomy supporting goals and perceived rejection. According to the results of the Fathering Report in Turkey (Akçınar, 2017), most of the fathers emphasized the importance of their children being autonomous individuals, especially for boys. Therefore rather than the direct association, there could be an interaction for the gender of the child. Evidently, in the subsequent moderation analysis, the interaction of child gender with fathers' autonomy supporting goals was significant for paternal rejection. In line with the previous findings, fathers' autonomy supporting goals, negatively associated with the perceived rejection of boys, but the same association was not found for girls. As a reflection of cultural values, these findings also supported the fathers' traditional roles of parenting.

For mothers' socialization goals, there was only a positive association between hierarchical relatedness and maternal rejection, which was in line with the previous findings. Mothers who have expectations of obeying rules and respecting elders, are likely to perform more authoritarian parenting, consisting of stricter parenting or punishments. Similarly, mothers with higher hierarchical relatedness goals were perceived as more rejecting. While similar results were expected for

paternal rejection, no significant association was found for hierarchical relatedness and paternal rejection. According to the report of AÇEV (Akçınar, 2017) most fathers in Turkey were characterized by their being more authoritarian and distant towards children. Fathers being an authority figure in families might be the reason why there was no association of hierarchical relatedness goals and paternal rejection. Since fathers' put more emphasis on obeying rules or respecting elders, these behaviors might be perceived as a part of their authority, which children expect from their fathers (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2012). Similarly, studies from Turkey on parenting concluded that fathers see themselves as educators and role models and being the one who is responsible for teaching authorities and respect (AÇEV, Akçınar, 2017; Metindoğan, 2015). In regard to hierarchical relatedness goals interaction with child negative affectivity, it was expected that parents with higher hierarchical relatedness goals and children with high negative affectivity would have the highest rejection. However, there was a significant association for neither mothers nor fathers, which could be concluded that negative child affect did not add any variance for the association between parents' hierarchical relatedness goals and their parenting. Nevertheless, there could be other mechanisms to explain the associations between socialization goals and parenting.

In the current study, the link between parents' socialization goals and perceived rejection was examined through the authoritative parenting beliefs of parents. While examining this relation, the dyadic link between mothers and fathers was also tested since previous studies emphasized the possible intercorrelations between parents (Akçınar, 2017). Results showed that even though there was no direct association for autonomy supporting goals and rejection, fathers' (but not mothers) authoritative parenting beliefs mediated this link for both parents. Previous studies examined the link of parental beliefs for socialization goals and parenting and found similar results that socialization goals were determining parental beliefs about positive parenting (Keller et al., 2006); yet, to the best of the knowledge, this was the first study that examined the link between socialization goals and parental rejection through parental beliefs in a dyadic way. What addition did this dyadic perspective bring to parenting? The results suggested that

fathers' beliefs about parenting had a more influencing role for perceived parenting within families. Both mothers' and fathers' autonomy supporting goals were positively associated with their authoritative parenting beliefs. More importantly, fathers' positive attitudes for authoritative parenting, which is characterized by high responsiveness to children's needs while having high demands for children, was related to less rejection for both parents. These results provided support for the dominant role of fathers within the family that their having more positive attitudes toward positive parenting was decreasing the negative perception within the family. These results also emphasized the importance of both the need for further studies examining fathers' parenting and the possible intervention programs for fathers. In the following parts, results for family social context variables were discussed.

5.2. Family Social Context

Previous studies also highlighted the importance of cultural context as one of the component of family social context since their beliefs, attitudes, and norms of culture produce different behaviors of parents. In the current study, the focus was the cultural context of Turkey. Specifically, the family social context domain was examined by social support and the marital conflict that parents reported.

5.2.1. Social Support

Perceived social support of parents has been primarily studied in the context of various situations such as parenting to a child with developmental problems, immigrant families, or single parents (Drogomyretska, 2020; Jackson, 1998; Taylor et al., 2015). However, parenting adds many tasks and responsibilities to daily life, which could increase parents' stress even in a non-risk population. In a traditional Turkish family, mothers are the ones who are responsible for most of these tasks. Therefore, it was hypothesized that social support would be a protective factor for parental rejection for both parents, yet there were limited results for fathers. Results of the current study pointed out a significant association only for maternal rejection. That is, as mothers perceive more support from their immediate environment, their children perceive less rejection from them, which

was supporting the idea that social support has a protective role for mothers. Results could be interpreted as since mothers were the ones responsible for the daily needs of children, and they might need more support from the environment. In cases, where they had less support, they might experience more stress which leads to less responsive parenting. Similar results were also provided by Baydar and colleagues (2012) for mothers of preschool children. Their results also concluded that perceiving support from immediate environment plays a protective role, especially for mothers from low SES. For fathers, on the other hand, the association was not significant. Contrary to mothers, fathers might not be much involved in daily child care responsibilities; therefore, they might not perceive that much burden for parenting, and having the support of others might not make any difference for them.

5.2.2. Marital Conflict

The marital conflict that parents reported was also tested as one of the predictors of parental rejection. There were two different hypotheses for the association between marital problems and parenting. Even though previous findings predominantly support the Spillover Hypothesis, which proposes that parents tend to reflect their problems to their parenting, the Compensation Hypothesis suggests that parents try to compensate that negativity in their marriage with a more positive relationship with their children. In the current study, it was expected that marital conflict would be associated with more rejection for both parents; yet, there was no significant association for both parents. However, when tested the moderator role of child negative affectivity and gender, there were significant interactions only for paternal rejection. Results of marital conflict and child negative affect interaction showed partial support for the compensatory hypothesis. When fathers reported more marital conflict, only children with low negative affectivity reported less rejection, yet, there was no difference for children with higher levels of negative affect. Supporting that, fathers try to be more positive toward their children, especially those with more easy temperament. I might be speculated that in cases of marital conflicts, fathers try to find an alliance in the family with either their daughters or easy children. Moreover, results of child gender and marital

conflict supported both hypotheses on marital problems and parenting. When fathers reported higher marital conflict girls tend to perceive less rejection but boys tend to perceive more rejection. Whereas, when fathers reported low marital conflict, there were no gender differences. Again, it could be speculated that fathers could try to compensate for their marital problems by caring for their daughters. On the other hand, in cases of marital conflict, fathers could be more negative toward their sons. As mentioned earlier, mothers might be better at not reflecting marital problems to children by keeping their feelings and problems about marriage from negatively affecting their parenting with their child (Belsky, 1984). Similarly, there was no significant association or interaction for mothers' reports of marital conflict and rejection in the current study. These findings also highlight the importance of examining both parents rather than just mothers since the contributing factors to their parenting could differ according to the contextual factors, as well. In the next section, results for the child characteristics variables were discussed.

5.3. Child Characteristics

Previous studies on parenting highlighted the importance of child characteristics since usually there is an interdependent relationship between children's and parents' behaviors and attitudes. Therefore, one of the tested domains in the current study was child characteristics by focusing on child age, gender, and negative affectivity. Since the specific characteristics of children might shape both parents' behaviors and children's perceptions of their parents, their moderator roles were also tested. The age range for children was wide in the current study; therefore, the age of children was controlled across all analyses. There was no specific hypothesis about child gender, and as expected, there was no significant association for the age of children. The role of child gender was also investigated as an exploratory part of the study to determine the differentiating results for girls and boys. Previous findings were conflicting on gender differences, and they were mostly focusing on parent-child gender match differences. Examining the possible differences for children's gender was important, especially in cultures where there is strong gender discrimination. In those cultures, parents could show different

levels of warmth or hostility towards their daughters or sons (Baydar et al., 2012). Even though the results of the current study yielded no significant direct association of child gender in terms of perceived rejection, there were interaction effects for child gender. Results highlighted that child gender is important especially for paternal rejection when marital conflict is high; and for maternal rejection when mothers have low social support but their children have high negative affect. On the contrary to the more patriarchal societies, parents in Turkey do not necessarily favor their sons over daughters; yet, fathers support the autonomy of their sons more, which still could be a reflection of patriarchal values for fathers.

Lastly, child negative affect as one of the aspects of the child characteristics domain was examined in the current study. Along with its direct link with paternal rejection, the result also highlighted the role of child temperament on the links of family social environment variables with parental rejection. As Kağıtçıbaşı (2012) highlighted, children do not have passive roles in parenting, rather they are also an active role in the process of parenting.

CHAPTER 6

STUDY 2 INTRODUCTION

6.1. Overview

The COVID-19 pandemic has changed family life all over the world. As a result, different psychological concerns over parenting have arisen (Stamu-O'brien et al., 2020). Parents with school-age children are one of the examples who experienced the impacts of the pandemic within their family routines and relationships (Prime et al., 2020). The burden of mothers has increased due to remote working, engaging in housework, and caring for their younger children as well as their older children who do not attend the school because of the school lockdown. Mothers also had to follow their kids' school routines, which are more likely to have increased parents' psychological distress (Neubauer et al., 2020). Moreover, the pandemic experiences (i.e., fear of being infected, loss of life or a family member) of the mothers, economic difficulties based on loss of a job, and stressors at home are potential adverse effects on parental psychological distress (Jackson & Choi, 2018). Thus, mothers' increased stress may result in difficulties in providing support to their children; on the other hand it may lead to an increase in hostile parenting practices (Chung et al., 2020). Despite the increased risk of negative parenting, some protective factors such as perceived marital satisfaction and social support may decrease the adverse outcomes of pandemic-related difficulties for mothers and, indirectly, for children and adolescents. Thus, the present study aimed to investigate differences in perceived rejection before and amid the COVID-19 Pandemic by considering the role of pandemic-related risk and protective factors through the mediating role of mothers' psychological distress.

In the following sections, first, the link between disasters and parenting was explained. Second, the case of the COVID-19 pandemic all over the world and Turkey and conditions of families were described to portray the significant changes during the pandemic. Then, changes in maternal psychological distress and its link to parenting and possible stressors related to the pandemic were explained. Lastly, protective roles of social support and marital satisfaction were expounded.

6.2. Negative Outcomes of Disasters on Families and Parenting

Throughout history, humankind has experienced various types of disasters, wars, earthquakes, hurricanes, pandemics, which all had some levels of traumatic or negative consequences for lives and social orders. When it comes to children and families, theories and previous studies examining the possible negative consequences concluded that the immediate environment has a crucial role for children (i.e., family or community). It is well documented that disasters impact children's perception and experiences through parents' experiences and symptoms (Cobnam et al., 2016; Pfefferbaum & North, 2008). After a disaster, parents are susceptible to experience increased psychological distress compared to nonparents due to the responsibilities of caring for children (Pfefferbaum & North, 2008; Solomon et al., 1993).

Moreover, the increased psychological distress of mothers is associated with more adverse parenting practices such as not being available to meet the children's demands or having more negative interactions with children (Norris et al., 2002). For instance, research examining the post-traumatic experiences of hurricane survivors concluded that parental distress was associated with negative parenting practices and child outcomes (Costa et al., 2009; Spell et al., 2008). Similarly, previous research in Turkey examining the parenting after Van Earthquake concluded that along with contextual risk factors such as economic loss or emotional difficulties such as losing loved ones, exposure to an earthquake had a negative influence on mothers' ability to cope with distress and, in turn, resulted in poor parenting (Yumbul et al., 2018).

Unlike the previous disasters, the COVID-19 pandemic differentiates from other traumatic experiences (Bridgland et al., 2021). It is not just one incidence traumatic event like natural disasters such as fires or earthquakes. Instead, it is an ongoing process that resulted in all people around the world are experiencing some level of stress due to the global pandemic threatening their well-being. Researchers suggested that it is likely to have long-term adverse consequences for families and children like other disasters (Brown et al. 2020). Therefore, it is of utmost importance to understand risk and protective factors for parents' perceptions of stress in preventing the possibility of negative parenting during the COVID-19 pandemic. In the next part, the course of pandemic and conditions of daily life are described to portray the pandemic context.

6.3. The COVID-19 Pandemic

At the end of 2019, a novel type of coronavirus, called SARS-CoV-2, has been identified, and a severe acute respiratory syndrome disease (COVID-19) caused by this virus has started to spread across many countries. On March 11, 2020, the World Health Organization (WHO) announced an international pandemic without precedents in terms of consequences on individuals' lives (WHO, 2020). Governments around the world applied various restrictions such as lockdowns, stay-home orders, and quarantine procedures to prevent the spread of the disease. With these restrictions and regulations, there has been a massive disruption to the social order. However, by June 2021, around 170 million cases have been identified, and despite the vaccination efforts, new cases are still reported every day.

In Turkey, the first case of COVID-19 was confirmed on March 11, 2020, and cases have increased rapidly. There have been various regulations and restrictions to prevent the spread of the virus. Within the week of the first case, schools were closed on March 16, 2020, and since then, a nationwide distance education system has been applied. Even though there have been trials to reopen for face-to-face education, schools predominantly continued through online classes. Thus, students from first grade to 11th grade continued their education at home. Moreover, there have been strict restrictions on social life. Along with schools, restaurants, bars, and many shops have been closed, and public gatherings were

limited, there have been lockdowns during weekends, children under the age of 20 have not been allowed to go outside except the pre-settled 4 hours a day, which dramatically increased the time spent at home.

Even though these restrictions were necessary to prevent the disease, there have been negative consequences for families' economic situation, family, and social lives (Brown, 2020). Thus, in the following section, the changes that mothers and children have been through were explained to portray the context during the pandemic.

6.3.1. Families Amid the COVID-19 Pandemic

The COVID-19 pandemic threatens societies worldwide; it is inevitable to have negative impacts on children and families. Since this pandemic led to many changes regarding personal, familial, and social life, family members had to spend more time together; they have encountered different challenges during this crisis. It also had a profound impact on the financial situation of many families. Some people lost their jobs and struggled to afford their basic needs, such as accommodation or food (Karpman et al., 2020). With the changing norms of social life, mothers also had to adapt to the new routines and parenting roles (Gregus et al., 2021). Most of the time, mothers have ended up undertaking much more home-based responsibilities such as cooking, cleaning, and taking care of the kids. In addition, mothers also had to take care of children's school tasks due to the distant online education. Moreover, some mothers started to work remotely, which also created another challenge for them to balance their work and home responsibilities at the same time.

Children have also come across several difficulties as they spend more time at home. At first, they had to adapt to the distant education system. According to the OECD report, only one-third of children in Turkey had access to computers or tablets before the pandemic (OECD, 2020), which pictures how unprepared the families were for adapting to the online education system. Moreover, even though most of the children had a quiet place to study at home before the pandemic

(OECD, 2020), since all family members started to spend more time at home, children had difficulties finding a separate quiet place during the pandemic.

Moreover, adolescents and their families may be affected by this enforced staying at home (Janssen et al., 2020). Adolescence is a developmental period during which children prefer to spend more time with friends rather than with families (Rubin et al., 2006). Due to restrictions and school closings, they had limited chances to socialize with their peers during the pandemic. A qualitative study examining adolescents' experiences of the COVID-19 pandemic concluded that adolescents mostly suffered from academic and mental health problems. In addition, they mentioned family problems that they had more conflict with parents during the pandemic (Rodriguez et al., 2020). Given the changing family dynamics amid the COVID-19 pandemic, the possible stressors for mothers and the family environment were explained in the next section in accordance with the study aims.

6.3.2. Psychological Distress of Mothers and Parenting

It is well-established that stress plays an essential role in negative parenting practices of parents (Rodriguez-Jenkins & Marcenko, 2014; Whipple & Webster-Stratton, 1991). As parental stress levels rise, they are more likely to engage in harsh parenting (Abidin, 1992). A crisis like a pandemic leads to an increased stress response among individuals (Humphreys et al., 2020; Wu & Xu, 2020). Given the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on family life and the increased burden for parents, it is expected to have consequences for parenting behaviors regarding negative parenting practices such as yelling, spanking, or neglecting (Wu & Xu, 2020). Parents who experience psychological distress are more likely to be critical and irritated, and they might struggle to respond to the needs of the children in a sensitive way (Wu & Xu, 2020). The latest research examining parenting during the COVID-19 pandemic found that mothers' perceived impact of the COVID-19 pandemic experiences was associated with parenting-related exhaustion (Marchetti et al., 2020) and harmful parenting practices such as harsh and neglecting parenting (Connell & Strambler, 2021; Lee et al., 2021).

According to the results from Italy, which was one of the most affected countries by the pandemic, mothers who experienced more psychological distress during the early phases of the pandemic were more likely to struggle with the demands of parenting (Spinelli et al., 2020). Moreover, according to the American Psychological Association reports (2020), most parents had increased stress levels due to the pandemic compared to nonparents. Especially mothers were considered in a more risky position for negative practices since mothers experience more burnout than fathers (Aguiar et al., 2021). In line with these studies, another finding from Singapore confirmed that pandemic experiences of mothers increased their parenting stress and, in turn, increased risk of harsh parenting, involving aggressive or coercive acts (Chung et al., 2020). According to the preliminary findings from Turkey, parents had increased psychological distress and difficulties in parenting during the early phases of the pandemic (Göl-Güven et al., 2020). However, a study comparing Chinese and Turkish parents' reports of negative parenting for preschool children concluded that Turkish parents were engaged in less negative parenting practices during the early phases of the pandemic (Toran et al., 2021).

In line with these findings, the aim of the current study based on the questions of "What characterized mothers who experienced higher levels of psychological distress during the pandemic compared to their pre-pandemic levels?" and "Do mothers who experienced increase in their psychological distress levels due to pandemic have more problems in parenting?". The current study aimed to find answers to these questions by focusing on the changes of mothers' psychological distress levels as well as their negative parenting from pre-pandemic to 8th to 9th months into the pandemic. This longitudinal design of the study ensured that not only mothers' experiences during the pandemic and but also the change in maternal psychological distress and changes in their parenting through this global crisis could be examined. In the following sections, each pandemic-related stressor and protective factors were explained in relation to maternal psychological distress and negative parenting.

6.4. Stressors of the COVID-19 Pandemic

COVID-19 pandemic brought new challenges to almost every aspect of mothers and children's lives. The present study examined risk and protective factors associated with maternal psychological distress and negative parenting during the pandemic by focusing on financial, environmental, and psychological challenges for mothers. While examining this link, COVID-19 related stressors, namely, decrease in income, chaos in the home environment, and mothers' pandemic-related anxiety, were tested as antecedents of increased maternal psychological distress and perceived rejection by children. In addition, social support and marital satisfaction were examined as protective factors for psychological distress and parenting.

6.4.1. Decrease in Income

Environmental stressors such as financial problems have well-documented negative consequences for parenting practices (Cogner et al., 1992; Cogner & Cogner, 2002; Landers-Potts et al., 2015; Neppl et al., 2016). Previous research showed that financial problems of families likely to result in increased stress for parents. In turn, this stress deteriorates interparental relationships and parent-child relationships in families (Conger & Donellan, 2007; Çakmak & Güre, 2020). Family Stress Model provided a theoretical explanation for the direct and indirect pathways for the link between financial problems and parenting (Cogner et al., 1992; Cogner & Cogner, 2002). According to this model, financial problems are related to the decreased quality of interparental relationships, parenting practices, and child outcomes (See Figure 11). In addition, it is theorized that economic problems that families go through are linked to increased psychological distress for parents and decreased quality of the marital relationship of parents by increasing the possible conflicts and problems between partners. Then, similar to the spillover hypothesis mentioned in Study I, marital problems are likely to have more negative consequences (and marital satisfaction has positive consequences) for parenting practices such as hostile or neglecting parenting which in turn predicts adverse outcomes for children. Previous studies consistently found

66

evidence to support the model in various cultural contexts across the world (Benner & Yeoung Kim, 2010; Cogner & Cogner, 2002; Gershoff et al., 2007).

In the context of the COVID-19 pandemic, the whole world has gone through financial problems due to increased rates of job losses or extreme decreases in some sectors. According to the International Labour Organization (2021) report, there had been around 114 million employment losses around the world in 2020. Similarly, in Turkey, there had been around 15% job losses (OECD, 2020). Families who experienced some levels of economic insecurities, such as losing jobs or having a decrease in family income, experienced more psychological distress, which led to less warm parenting (Prime et al., 2020). Research up-to-date has conflicting results. Some studies reported that parents who experienced job losses during the pandemic engaged in more emotional neglect and physical punishment (Lee et al., 2021). Even though it has been strongly foreseen that economic difficulties would result in increased psychological distress for mothers and their parenting practices, some studies failed to find a significant association between economic difficulties and parenting (Roos et al., 2021). Thus, one of the main aims of the current study was to examine whether decreased income was linked to psychological distress and perceived maternal rejection. Along with financial issues, another stressor for mothers could be the problems in the family environment. The subsequent section mentioned the role of the home environment.
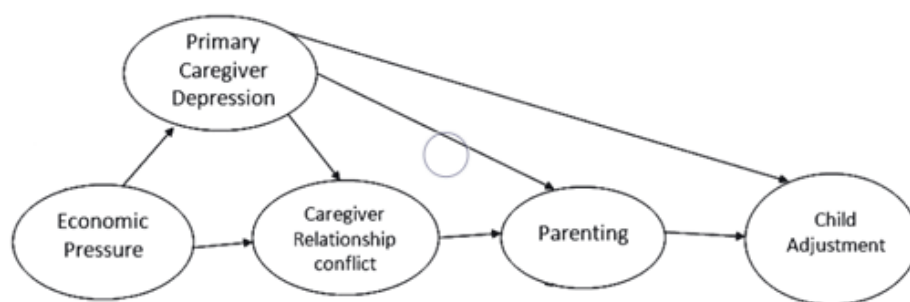
Figure 11 *Family Stress Model (Cognar et al. 1992)*

Note. Originally the model includes the secondary caregiver. However, the focus of the current study is only on mothers; therefore, that part is excluded from the figure.

6.4.2. Chaos in Home Environment

The significant role of the home environment on child development has been consistently emphasized (Crespo et al., 2013). A cognitively stimulating, positive, and warm home environment is associated with positive parenting and the healthy development of children. In contrast, a less stimulating and disorganized home environment has been related to adverse parenting and poor child outcomes. Specifically, chaos in the home environment is described as a high level of disorganization and lack of stimulation and order. It also refers to a lack of routine organizations, such as family routines, absence of predictability and structure in daily activities, and an overly fast pace of family life (Matheny et al., 1995). On the positive side, having less chaos and having routines and order at home are associated with more positive consequences for family members (Glynn et al., 2021; Fiese et al., 2002).

During the COVID-19 pandemic, families spent most of their time at home due to stay-at-home orders that it was likely to increase household chaos, problems, and conflicts (Evans et al., 2020). For instance, one study examining family chaos explained that many families were categorized as moderate to high chaos during the pandemic (Kracht et al., 2021). Moreover, a study in Turkey that examined the family problems during the COVID-19 pandemic with qualitative methods showed that the most encountered problems during the pandemic were related to disorganization and disruptions within family responsibilities (Barış & Taylan, 2020). The disrupted family routines at home while mothers were trying to adapt to the new conditions and deal with the pandemic's uncertainty also led to an increase in psychological distress and indirectly adverse effects on parenting behaviors (Humphreys et al., 2020; The Alliance for Child Protection in Humanitarian Action, 2020; Wu & Xu, 2020). However, to the best of the knowledge, no study examined the link between chaos in the family environment and parenting through maternal psychological distress. Therefore, one of the aims of the current study was to examine the role of chaos in the family environment. It was expected that the chaos in the house would increase the psychological stress of mothers, which in turn may lead to an increase in perceived parental rejection.

In addition to familial stressors explained so far, an additional stressor related to mothers' own worries about the pandemic was examined in the scope of the present study. The following section explained the pandemic-related anxiety of mothers in detail.

6.4.3. Pandemic-related Anxiety of Mothers

When faced with stressful and overwhelming conditions, which requires readjustments in one's daily life, people are likely to experience strong emotions such as worry, fear, or anxiety. In cases of pandemics, it was expected that people go through increased anxiety and fear when a critical infectious disease outbreak occurs (Taylor et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2020), which were the case in previous disease outbreaks such as Severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) (Reynolds et al., 2008; Su et al., 2007) or Middle East respiratory syndrome (MERS) (Bukhari et al., 2016). Similarly, for the COVID-19 pandemic, there has been a drastic increase in anxiety due to the uncertainty of the situation, fear of getting infected, losing life, or losing beloved ones (Huang & Zhao, 2020; Mertens et al., 2020; Salari et al., 2020). A recent investigation also showed that the fear of COVID-19 influences parents' stress levels and has negative consequences for children's well-being (Spinelli et al., 2020). Thus, in the current study, mothers' pandemic-related anxiety, which refers to their concerns about getting infected or losing beloved ones, was examined. It was expected that their pandemic-related anxiety would be associated with increased psychological distress, leading to less effective parenting practices. The following parts explained two possible protective factors; social support and marital satisfaction.

6.5. Perceived Social Support and Marital Satisfaction as Protective Factors for Mothers

Not all parents experiencing stressors are at risk of higher psychological distress or poor parenting, suggesting that some factors may buffer the impact of stressors. Specifically, a supportive family environment and marital satisfaction might serve as protective factors for mothers' psychological distress and consequently adverse parenting practices.

While going through difficult times, it helps to have someone who shares the burden. In everyday life, parents who receive social support from their immediate and extended environment cope better (Thompson et al., 2006) and it plays a protective role for parenting in terms of reducing stress (Koeske & Koeske, 1990). When it comes to parenting under challenging times where parents experience high distress, parents' external resources, such as families or friends, could play a vital role in preventing or lessening the adverse consequences (Koeske & Koeske, 1990). For example, one study examining social support perceptions of mothers before Hurricane Katrina found that pre-disaster social support decreased the chances of the negative psychological impact on mothers (Rhodes et al., 2010). In regard to the pandemic, due to social distancing, lockdowns, and stay-home-orders, parents might have been felt apart from their social environment, and their social lives deteriorated. However, during the pandemic, parents may have a chance to maintain a virtual connection with others through telephone or video calls to restore their resources for support (Weaver & Swank, 2021).

In cases of community disasters, external social support is often disrupted, and partners must rely on one another (Cohan, 2010). Even though there is a risk for marital conflict due to pandemic-related stressors, only some are likely to experience significant marital problems. For instance, recent studies concluded that fathers started to involve more in child care during the pandemic, and if the mothers were working, fathers were also more involved in housework (Carlson et al., 2020). Considering the recent findings in the literature, it was expected that mothers who received social support from their immediate environment or were satisfied with their marital relationships would be less likely to experience negative consequences of pandemic-related stressors. In the subsequent part, the aim and the hypothesis of the current study would be explained.

6.6. The Current Study

In line with the above-noted issues and latest findings, the current study aimed to examine the role of maternal psychological distress on the relationship between pandemic-related stressors; a) decrease in income, b) chaos at home, and c)

maternal pandemic anxiety, and perceived maternal rejection. Also, social support and marital satisfaction were considered as protective factors. Specifically, the current study aimed to investigate the following research questions and hypotheses;

1) Does mothers' psychological distress during the pandemic mediates the link between pandemic-related stressors, a) decrease in income, b) chaos at home, and c) maternal pandemic anxiety during the COVID-19 pandemic and perceived rejection by children while controlling for psychological distress and perceived rejection in pre-pandemic period?

It is hypothesized that pandemic-related anxiety, decrease in income, and chaos at home would increase maternal psychological distress across time, which would result in an increase of negative parenting for children during the pandemic.

2) Do marital satisfaction and perceived social support of mothers during the pandemic have a role in predicting these mediational links?

It is hypothesized that marital satisfaction and perceived social support of mothers would be protective factors that would lessen the increase in maternal psychological distress depending on the pandemic-related anxiety, decrease in income, and chaos at home, which in turn would result in less rejection (See Figure 12).
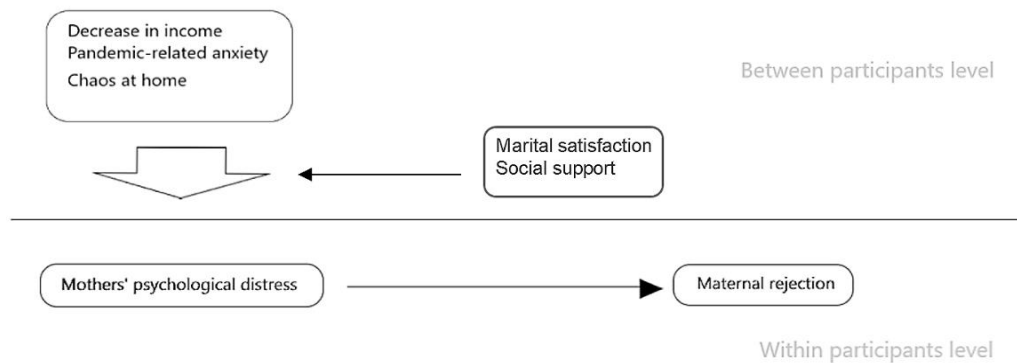
Figure 12 *Proposed Links for the Study 2*

CHAPTER 7

STUDY 2 METHOD

7.1. Participants

The participants of Study 1 were contacted and invited to take part in this study. Since a year passed after Study 1, data were collected from 3rd and 4th grades for primary school, 6th to 8th grades for elementary school, and 10th to 12th grade for high school. Fifth and 9th grade students were excluded from the study due to the school transition of participants (from primary to elementary school and from elementary school to high school). Second-grade participants were also not included in the study since, in Study 1, a different type of data collection method was applied to second graders, and they might have difficulties following questionnaires online. Besides, fathers were not included in the study.

For Study 2, 340 mothers and 337 children participated. There were 126 (37%) primary, 125 (37%) elementary, and 86 (26%) high school students who participated in the study. The average age of the mothers was 37.55 ($SD = 5.73$); 127 (38%) mothers either had no formal education or were primary school graduates, 73 (22%) mothers were elementary school graduates, 105 (31%) mothers were high school graduates, and 32 (9%) mothers were university graduates.

7.2. Instruments

7.2.1. Child Measures

7.2.1.1. Parental Rejection

 (*Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire- Child Form*, Rohner & Khaleque, 2005; Anjel, 1993; Varan, 2003). In Study 2, the same scale as in Study 1 was used by creating a single score for maternal rejection. The scale's internal consistency was high at Time 2, Cronbach's α =.92.

7.2.2. Parent Measures

7.2.2.1. Decrease in Income

To measure household income change, a single item question, *"Has there been a change in monthly household income due to the pandemic?"* was asked to mothers and coded as 1 = income decreased 0 = no change or income increased. Among the participants, 143 (42.1%) reported a decrease in their income, whereas the rest of them ($n = 197$, 57.9%) reported no change or increase in their income compared to first-time assessment the Study 1.

7.2.2.2. Maternal COVID-19 Pandemic Anxiety

To measure mothers' pandemic-related anxiety, 11 four-point Likert questions (1 = never, 4 = always) were prepared by the project team for the current study (An example item was *"Have you worried that you will be infected by Coronovirus?"* (See Appendix J). The exploratory factor analyses showed that all items had loadings over.25, which all loaded to one factor. Thus, all items remained on the scale, and the internal consistency of the scale was high, Cronbach's α =.87. The score for mothers' COVID-19 Pandemic-related anxiety was calculated by the mean of all items. Higher scores indicated higher pandemic-related anxiety for mothers.

7.2.2.3. Chaos at the Family Environment

(*Confusion, Hubbub, and Order Scale Chaos,* Matheny et al., 1995; Sümer et al., 2013). The 15-item Family Environment Chaos Scale was given to mothers to measure chaos in the home environment during the pandemic (an example item is *"There is often a fuss going on at our home"*). The questions were in six-point Likert-type items (1 = not true at all, 5 = totally true), and the scale had a one-factor structure. The internal consistency was high for the current study, Cronbach's α =.84. The composite score of chaos was calculated by the sum of all items.

7.2.2.4. Psychological Distress

(*Depression Anxiety Stress Scale-21,* Lovibond & Lovibond, 1995; Yılmaz et al., 2017, Sarıçam, 2018). This questionnaire is a short form of DASS-42, which is designed to assess individuals' psychological distress. It consists of 21 items with a 3-point Likert scale ranging from 0 = never to 3 = always. There are three subscales; depression, anxiety, and stress. For Study 1, only the depression scale was used. However, for Study 2, a composite score of all items in the scale was used. The scale's internal consistency was high for both time points, Time 1 Cronbach's α =.87, Time 2 Cronbach's α =.90. Additionally, this study focuses on the change of the psychological distress before and during the pandemic; thus, both time points' scores were used.

7.2.2.5. Social Support

(*Multidimensional Scale of Social Support,* Zimet et al., 1988; Eker et al., 2001). To measure the perceived social support of parents at Time 2, the Multidimensional Scale of Social Support Scale was used. The internal consistency of the scale was high for Time 2, T2 Cronbach's α =.93. In line with the research question of Study 2, only the scores from Time 2 were used in the analyses.

7.2.2.6. Marital Satisfaction

(*Relationship Happiness Scale,* Fletcher et al., 1990; Tuterel-Kışlak, 1997). This six-item scale is designed to measure the marital satisfaction of parents (An example item of marital satisfaction is *"I have a good relationship with my wife.".* Each question is measured on a five-point Likert type scale, which ranges between 1 = definitely disagree to 5 = definitely agree. There are no reversed items for this scale. The internal consistency of the scale was high (Cronbach's α =.85), yet when the item-total correlations were checked, one of the items, "*We have an on again and off again relationship with my partner*" was decreasing the consistency. When this item was omitted, Cronbach's α increased to.94. Thus, the marital satisfaction score was calculated by the mean of the five items. (See Appendix D). This questionnaire was not given to parents who did not have a partner (i.e., divorced, widowed).

7.3. Procedure

The data from 750 mothers and children in Study 1 had been collected a month before the COVID-19 precautions were implemented in Turkey. After necessary permissions were taken from the Institutional Review Board at the Middle East Technical University and Research Department in the Ministry of Education in Turkey, 417 mothers and children were contacted again between November 2020 - January 2021. Both mothers and children were asked to fill out an online questionnaire package distributed via an online survey platform (www.qualtrics.com). In cases where families had no internet access, telephone interviews were conducted (n = 18). Mothers were asked several single-item questions about their experiences during the COVID-19 Pandemic, which were later factor analyzed to create variables for mothers' pandemic experiences. Besides, mothers completed the Multidimensional Scale of Social Support, Relationship Happiness Scale, Depression, Anxiety, Stress Scale and Chaos at Family Environment Scale. Children were asked to fill out the Parental Acceptance Rejection Scale.

7.4. Data Analytic Plan

Two datasets (mothers and children) were screened before conducting the analyses of Study 2. Since the data from mothers and children did not have any missing value, there was no need for missing value implementation. First, Exploratory Factor Analyses for maternal pandemic-related anxiety items were conducted via IBM SPSS 26. Second, for the variables which were measured at two time points, Repeated Measures t-tests were conducted.

Given that children and parents were nested within time; Multilevel Modeling for repeated measures was used to conduct the main analyses. Multilevel modeling has several advantages compared to other longitudinal methods since it allows for within-subject dependence and adjusts for missing data (Singer & Willett, 2003). In these analyses, repeated measures were considered as Level 1 variables which refer to within participants' effects. The other variables measured in a single time point were considered Level 2 variables, which refers to between participants' effects. All model equations were constructed and estimated using the HLM Software v7 (Raudenbush et al., 2011) and MLMED Macro (Hayes, & Rockwood, 2020). Before running the analyses, the data was restructured to a univariate format, in which each participant had two rows representing two-time points, for the analyses. The maternal rejection variable was entered as the outcome variable, and a time variable (Time 1= 0, Time 2 = 1) was added to the model as a Level 1 predictor variable. Since the psychological distress of mothers was measured in two time points, this variable was introduced as a Level 1 variable, as well. The COVID-19 pandemic experiences of mothers; the COVID-19 related anxiety, economic change, and chaos in the family environment were entered as Level 2 variables. Lastly, to test for potential direct and indirect effects, a series of multilevel models were estimated using MLMED Macro (Hayes & Rockwood, 2020) for mediation and moderated mediation analyses in multilevel analyses following the instructions outlined by Bauer et al. (2006). Mediation and moderated mediation models were estimated by employing the COVID-19 Pandemic experiences of mothers as the predictors, psychological distress as the mediator, and social support and marital satisfaction as moderators. Since some

mothers were divorced, the sample size for marital satisfaction was smaller ($n = 298$). Thus, a separate analysis was conducted to test the role of marital satisfaction as a moderator.

CHAPTER 8

STUDY 2 RESULTS

In this section, first, exploratory factor analysis for the COVID-19 related anxiety scale and descriptive statistics of study variables were presented. Following, bivariate correlations among the study variables and repeated measures t-test results were presented to provide descriptives of the study variables in detail. Finally, results for the Multilevel Modeling for repeated measures were provided.

8.1. Factor Analysis for the COVID-19 Related Anxiety

A series of exploratory factor analyses were conducted to obtain the factor structure of the scale. The results of the Principal Axis Factoring Analyses and the scree plot yielded a single factor structure. In the subsequent step, the factor number was set to 1, and the factor load was determined as.25. The single factor structure obtained had explained a variance of 45.02%. The internal consistency coefficient of the COVID-19 Anxiety Scale was found to be.87. Factor loadings were presented in Table 10.

Table 10 *The COVID-19 Anxiety of Mothers Scale Factor Loadings*

	Factor	Item-Total r
1. Have you thought that someone in your family might get infected from the Coronavirus and be hospitalized?	.82	.74
2. Have you thought that you could lose a member of your family due to the Coronavirus?	.77	.70
3. Have you worried that someone in your family might get infected from the Coronavirus?	.76	.70
4. Have you worried that you might get infected from the Coronovirus?	.71	.67
5. Have you thought that you could get sick from the coronavirus and be hospitalized?	.71	.61
6. Have you thought that you could lose your life due to the Coronavirus?	.66	.46
7. Have you been generally worried during the Coronavirus period?	.64	.60
8. Have you worried about infecting someone else during the Coronavirus period?	.61	.55
9. Have you worried about not being able to receive health care during the Coronavirus period??	.41	.39
10. Have you followed up-to-date information and news during the Coronavirus period?	.37	.36
11. Has the coronavirus process affected important events in your life (i.e. birth, funeral)?	.25	.25

8.2. Correlations among the Study Variables

The descriptive statistics and correlations for the study variables are presented in Table 11.

Table 11 *Pearson Correlations among the Study Variables*

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.
1. T1 Rejection	1								
2. T2 Rejection	.58**	1							
3. T1 Psych. Distress	**.14***	**.20***	1						
4. T2 Psych. Distress	**.12***	**.21***	**.55***	1					
5. Decrease in income	.01	.02	.08	.05	1				
6. COVID Anxiety	-.04	-.03	.06	**.15***	**.11***	1			
7. Chaos	.10^m	**.11***	.07	**.16***	-.04	.01	1		
8. T2 M.Sat.	-.12	-.16	-.41	-.39	-.05	.09	-.14	1	
9. T2 Social Support	**-.13***	**-.21***	**-.37***	**-.30***	.03	**.11***	-.07	**.60***	1

Note. $^m p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .001$. T1= Time 1, T2 = Time 2; Psych. Distress = Mothers' psychological distress; M.Sat.= Marital satisfaction.

8.3. Comparing Pre-pandemic and During the Pandemic

Before testing the main hypotheses, the difference between time points for the study variables was tested to provide a detailed perspective for descriptives and the changes across two timepoints. Results of the dependent sample t-test analysis showed that psychological distress of the mothers during the pandemic ($M = 1.43$, $SD = .54$) was higher than before the pandemic ($M = .57$, $SD = .56$, $t(327) = -28.98$, $p < .001$). Perceived maternal rejection did not differ between two time points, before ($M = 1.50$, $SD = .44$) and during the pandemic ($M = 1.48$, $SD = .45$; $t(290) = -.46$, $p = .66$).

8.4. Results of the Multilevel Mediation Analyses

In order to test the hypotheses of the study, data analyses proceeded in several steps. First, intercept-only models for the repeated measures were estimated to calculate the intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) in order to examine how much of the variance in maternal rejection accounted for Level 2 (Hox, 2010; Snijders & Bosker, 2012). The ICC was .57 for the current study, indicating that the proportion of variance in maternal rejection was explained by between-participants level (Level 2). Second, the rate of average linear change in maternal rejection over time was examined by entering the time variable as the study's metric of time. Results showed that there was a time-varying difference in means of maternal rejection, $\beta_{10} = -.13$, $SE = .03$, $p < .001$. In this step, psychological distress was also entered as a Level 1 variable. For the link between maternal psychological distress and rejection, there was a positive association, $\beta_{20} = .11$, $SE = .04$, $p = .001$, which indicated that increase in psychological distress resulted in a .11 point increase in maternal rejection. Since the data was suitable for Multilevel Modelling, in the subsequent analyses, the research questions of the study were tested by Mediation and Moderated Mediation analyses.

Table 12 *Results for Level 1 Variables*

Fixed Effect	Coefficient	SE	Sig.
For Intercept, π_0			
Intercept1, β_{00}	1.55	.04	<.001
For Time slope, π_1			
Intercept2, β_{10}	-.13	.03	<.001
For Psychological Distress slope, π_2			
Intercept3, β_{20}	.11	.04	.001
Random Effect	*SD*	*Variance Component*	
Intercept4 r_0	.31	.10	<.001
Level-1,$_e$	.29	.08	

In order to assess the indirect effects of COVID-19 pandemic experiences on maternal rejection and the possibility that significant indirect (mediating) effects of mothers' psychological distress and moderated mediation analyses for social support and marital quality, a series of multilevel models were estimated using MLMED (Hayes & Rockwood, 2020), a SPSS macro that tests for mediation and moderated mediation in multilevel data based on procedures outlined by Bauer et al. (2006). To test the first research question, which was focusing on the mediating role of psychological distress on the link between pandemic experiences of mothers and parental rejection, three mediation analyses were conducted separately for the decrease in income, COVID-19 related anxiety of mothers, and chaos in the family environment. While, in each analysis, the remaining two predictors were entered in the model as Level 2 covariates and time variable as Level 1.

First, the indirect link between the decrease in income and parental rejection through maternal psychological distress was tested. Results showed no significant indirect effect for this link, *INDeffect* =.01, *SE* =.01, *p* =.14, 95% CI [-.002,.031] while direct link was also nonsignificant, *effect* =.01, *SE* =.01, 95% CI [-.079,.090]. Second, the same model was tested by only changing the focal

predictor with COVID-19 related anxiety of mothers. The indirect link was significant, *INDeffect* =.02, *SE* =.01, *p* =.02, 95% CI [.005,.035], while the direct link was not significant, *effect* = -.04, *SE* =.04, *p* =.31, 95% CI [-.106.033], which evidenced full mediation. Higher COVID-19 pandemic-related anxiety was associated with psychological distress of mothers at T2, which in turn resulted in more maternal rejection after controlling for maternal psychological distress and rejection at T1.

Table 13 *Results for Mediation and Moderated Mediation Analyses*

	a path	b path	Direct effect [95% CI]	Indirect effect [95% CI]	Moderation for a path	Moderated Med. [95% CI]
Decrease in income	.07 (.05)	**.20** (.05)**	.01 [-.079,.090]	.01[-.002,.031]		
COVID-19 anxiety	**.10*(.04)**	**.20** (.05)**	-.04[-.106,.033]	**.02*[.003,.035]**		
MS* cov. anx.			-.03[-.103,.036]	.07 [.010,.148]	-.05(.04)	-.09 [-.025,.005]
SS* cov. anx.			-.03[-.024,.042]	.01[-.061,.083]	.02(.04)	-.00 [-.015,.010]
Chaos	**.01* (.00)**	**.19** (.05)**	.01 [-.001.012]	**.00*[.001,.004]**		
MS* Chaos			.01[-.001,.012]	-.00[-.005,.003]	.00(.00)	.00 [-.001,.002]
SS* Chaos			-.00 [-.001,.012]	-.00 [-.001,.001]	.01 (.00)	.00 [-.001,.017]

Note. Standard errors were shown in parentheses. Path a refers to the link of predictor to mediator, while path b refers to the link of mediator to outcome. CI = Confidence Interval, MS = Marital satisfaction at T2, SS = Social support at T2, * *p* <.05, ** *p* <.001. Moderated mediation path was not tested for Decrease in income since the mediation link was not significant.

Third, chaos in the family environment was taken as the predictor variable for the same model. This indirect effect was also significant, *INDeffect* =.00, *SE* =.00, *p* =.02, 95% CI [.001,.004]. The direct effect was not significant, *effect* =.01, *SE* =.00, *p* =.09, 95% CI [-.001,.012], which was again evidenced full mediation. High chaos in the family environment was associated with more psychological distress of mothers, resulting in more maternal rejection at T2 after controlling for maternal psychological distress and rejection at T1. Results are summarized in Table 13.

8.5. Results of the Multilevel Moderated Mediation Analyses

In this part, the hypothesized moderated mediation models were tested in instances where a significant indirect effect was found, with marital satisfaction and social

support were employed as moderators of the relationship between the COVID-19 experiences and mothers' psychological distress. In these analyses, the presence of a significant moderated indirect effect was analyzed by using MLMED macro, and the effect was determined by using the index of moderated mediation in the output. This inferential statistical test formally assesses the probability that an indirect effect was linearly dependent on a moderator. As was the case in testing for main indirect effects, the presence of a significant conditional indirect effect (moderated mediation) was indicated by a 95% Monte Carlo confidence interval which did not include zero.

8.5.1. Results of Moderated Mediation Analyses for Social Support

The moderated mediation models were tested for social support at T2. To run these analyses, the identical model in the mediation analyses was used by only introducing social support to the model as a moderator between predictor variables and mothers' psychological distress. When the COVID-19 pandemic-related anxiety of the mother was the focal predictor, and social support at Time 2 was moderator, the effect of moderated mediation was not significant, *effect* = -.002, 95% CI [-.015.010]. Similarly, for the model, where chaos in the family environment was the predictor and social support as moderator, the moderated mediation effect was not significant, *effect* =.001, 95% CI [-.001.017].

8.5.2. Results of Moderated Mediation Analyses for Marital Satisfaction

Marital satisfaction at T2 was entered as the moderator variable between predictor variables and mothers' psychological distress. There was no significant result for the moderated mediation analyses of pandemic-related anxiety of the mother X marital satisfaction at Time 2, *effect* = -.009, 95% CI [-.022,.001]; and chaos in the family environment X marital satisfaction at Time, *effect* =.001, 95% CI [-.001,.002].

CHAPTER 9

STUDY 2 DISCUSSION

The pandemic has been profoundly affecting the lives of families around the world, which proposed many unprecedented challenges to daily life and parenting responsibilities. The school closures, spending more time at home with increased household chores, or having financial difficulties were all contributed to the mothers' psychological distress during this period. Therefore, it is of utmost importance to define possible psychosocial risk factors for parenting during pandemic while also focusing on protective roles of family social context variables. In this regard, this study aimed to provide an insightful understanding of the experiences of mothers, namely, decrease in income, chaos in the family environment, and mothers' pandemic-related anxiety on the maternal rejection during the COVID-19 pandemic. In addition, the mediating role of maternal psychological distress for these links was tested while controlling for maternal psychological distress and parental rejection in the pre-pandemic period. Furthermore, perceived social support and marital satisfaction during the pandemic were examined as protective factors for the mediational link of pandemic experiences of mothers and maternal rejection through maternal psychological distress.

As hypothesized, the results of the current study confirmed that psychosocial stressors such as mothers' pandemic related anxiety or chaos in the family environment, were related to increased levels of psychological distress of mothers, which in turn resulted in increased maternal rejection during the pandemic when controlling for pre-pandemic rejection and psychological distress. As expected, these findings provided support for the main hypotheses of the current study that

mothers' experiences of a pandemic would be significantly associated with psychological distress, and indirectly mothers' parenting practices.

Prior research on parenting has been shown that maternal psychological well-being is linked to more positive parenting (Lee et al., 2001), as also emphasized by Taraban and Shaw (2018) in the updated version of the Process of Parenting Model. However, in high-risk conditions, such as natural disasters, parents are at more risk of engaging in negative parenting practices (Seddighi et al., 2020). Especially in the case of the COVID-19 pandemic, mothers were more likely to suffer from increased psychological distress (APA, 2020) which was associated with parental burnout or low parental resilience (Marchetti et al., 2020). As parents have more elevated stress during the pandemic, children become more vulnerable to experience negative parenting (The Alliance for Child Protection in Humanitarian Action, 2020; Wu & Xu, 2020). Evidently, recent work found that approximately one in every five mothers reported increased practices of hostile parenting such as spanking or yelling, and psychological distress of mothers had been one of the most consistent correlates of negative parenting during the pandemic (Marchetti et al., 2020; Spinelli et al., 2020). Given the findings of this link during the COVID-19 pandemic, it is particularly concerning to examine a similar association between psychological distress and negative parenting while considering their association in the pre-pandemic period. Although these recent studies have crucial contributions to identifying negative and positive correlates of parenting during the COVID-19 pandemic, they lack providing baseline information about the pre-pandemic period. Thus, one of the significant contributions of the current study was the availability of the pre-pandemic baseline data, thereby comparing the pre-pandemic psychological distress of mothers and perceived parenting during the pandemic. The current study showed that mothers had increased levels of psychological distress during the pandemic compared to the pre-pandemic period. In this vein, a moderate association between maternal psychological distress and negative parenting was found during the pandemic. More importantly, this association was still significant even after controlling for the pre-pandemic psychological distress and rejection.

A positive family environment and having family routines have been considered as protective factors for the positive child development and emotional well-being of family members (Fiese, 2002). Whereas having a disorganized family environment was found to be a risk factor for parents and children, especially in high-risk environments. As mentioned earlier, during the pandemic, families have higher chaos in the family environment compared to the pre-pandemic period, which potentiates a possible risk factor for parenting practices (Adams et al., 2020; Kracht et al., 2021). Specifically, mothers had more difficulties when there was more chaos at home (Adams et al., 2020). Similarly, in the current study, high chaos at home was related to high psychological distress for mothers, which lead to more negative parenting. As the pandemic changes all routines at social order and home environment, it might be difficult for parents to follow a routine at home and become overwhelmed by increased responsibilities. While this finding confirmed the previous literature on the risk of chaos in the family environment for parenting, it also highlights a take-home message for parents and families that adapting a daily routine or planning family routines can provide a better adaptation for family members during the pandemic.

When faced with an infectious disease outbreak, it is common for people to have elevated levels of worry or fear due to the unpredictability or negativity of the conditions (Taylor et al., 2008). Similarly, in the COVID-19 pandemic, there has been an increased worry of people for adverse consequences such as getting infected or losing lives, which might result in substantial impacts on the psychological distress of people (Adams et al., 2020). Recent studies showed that increased fear and anxiety of parents have negative consequences for children's well-being, as well (Spinelli et al., 2020). In a similar vein, the current study confirmed similar associations for negative parenting. That is, increased pandemic-related anxiety of mothers was associated with higher psychological distress and negative parenting. Due to the unpredictability of the pandemic or the possibility of death or serious illnesses, mothers could understandably have elevated levels of worry, which lead to more negative parenting. Additionally, it could be speculated that mothers who have less efficient emotion regulation

strategies could be suffering more from the adverse consequences of the pandemic for psychological well-being. Thus, examining parents' emotion regulation strategies and determining parents who are more susceptible to dysfunctional parenting could be a further step to identify high-risk groups.

In addition, enhancing more adaptive emotion regulation strategies might lessen the negative impact of the pandemic on mothers' elevated distress. For example, an online intervention project focusing on the emotion regulation strategies of parents concluded that cognitive reappraisal strategies – broadly refer to reshaping thoughts before the emotional response - help parents lessen the stress related to the pandemic (Preuss et al., 2021). Another possible solution to this elevated worry of mothers could be limiting the exposure to misleading information. Since the onset of the pandemic, there has been a surge of misleading information on social media, which could contribute to the increased anxiety of mothers. Therefore, limiting exposure to social media could be an efficient strategy for mothers. In addition to limiting media exposure, parents could use strategies to lessen their anxiety, such as having breaks from household responsibilities and engaging in hobbies or exercising such as short walks.

Recent studies also provided a basis for the negative consequences of income loss for parenting during the pandemic. It was found that employment loss were associated with more indices of physical and emotional maltreatment (Lee et al., 2021). On the contrary to the expectations, there was no significant direct or indirect link between the income loss due to pandemic and parenting. Although previous literature reported that economic difficulties result in less responsive parenting, studies focusing on the COVID-19 pandemic reported inconsistent results. For example, Kalil and colleagues (2020) pointed out that even though there have been income or job losses due to pandemic, if families have been able to maintain theirselves (i.e. by using savings), they reported having more positive time spent with family as well as positive interactions with children. Similarly, in the current study, almost half of the sample reported household income loss due to the pandemic. However, a decrease in income variable was not found to be correlated with the study variables. It could be speculated that spending time with

family might compensate for the adverse effects of the income loss during the pandemic. Note that the sample of the current study was considered as low-to-middle income families, in which most of the mothers were either primary or high school graduates, and a majority of them were homemakers. Therefore, even though there was a loss in household income, mothers might not be negatively affected by this situation since they were already stay-at-home mothers.

As the second aim of the current study, the buffering roles of perceived social support and marital conflict for the mediational links of maternal psychological distress were examined. Previous literature has evidenced social support and marital satisfaction as protective factors in stressful times (Thompson et al., 2006). For social support, recent studies examining the role of social support during the COVID-19 pandemic found evidence for the protective role of social support for psychological resilience (Li et al, 2021) and parenting (Brown et al., 2020; Gambin et al., 2020). In the current study, even though social support during the pandemic was negatively associated with psychological distress and parental rejection, the results for moderated mediation was not significant. Thus, it might be speculated that nonsignificant results might be due to low power to find a significant result for moderated mediation. Another explanation might be due to the use of composite social support score as the mean of support from partners, family, and friends. However, during the pandemic, mothers might have been more isolated from their sources of social support; they might have limited or no chance to meet their friends or relatives, thereby perceive less support from them. Still, studies also reported that people tried to compensate for this lack of social support by frequent video or telephone calls (Gabbiadini et al., 2020). Moreover, it is found that family members and partners provided more support during the pandemic (Carlson et al., 2020). Therefore, examining the sources of social support and considering the changes in social support before the pandemic might help better understand the role of social support.

Moreover, results for examining the protective role of marital satisfaction during the pandemic were not significant. The above-mentioned power problems could also be applied to the results for marital satisfaction. In addition, rather than marital

satisfaction, fathers' involvement in household chores might have a protective role in the psychological distress of mothers and parenting. In line with this speculation, studies found that partner support in household chores has a buffering factor for especially in stressful conditions (Gayathri & Karthikeyan, 2016), and parents were likely to better deal with parental responsibilities (Chung et al., 2021).

In the last chapter of the dissertation, limitations, contributions, and implications were discussed in light of the findings of the two studies.

CHAPTER 10

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This thesis aimed to examine the antecedents of parental rejection in everyday life and stressful conditions in two studies. The first study examined the roles of parent characteristics, namely, parents' education, depression, and socialization goals; family social environment including marital conflict, and social support and child age for maternal and paternal rejection by considering the moderating role of child gender and negative affect. In addition, dyadic links in terms of socialization goals and authoritative parenting beliefs were tested in the prediction of parental rejection. Moreover, families have continued to experience the COVID-19 pandemic for more than one a half years, which is expected to solicit some extend of negative consequences for families and parenting. Thus, the second study aimed to find answers to the role of pandemic-related risk and protective factors for maternal rejection through the mediating role of mothers' psychological distress while controlling for pre-pandemic maternal psychological distress and rejection.

Parenting is a crucial factor for the healthy development of children (Chen et al., 2017). Research commonly associated parental depression with negative parenting, such as less responsive and warm parenting (Lovejoy et al., 2000). However, the consequences of depression might change due to socioeconomic factors. For example, Vreeland and colleagues (2019) found that negative consequences of depression for parenting especially detrimental in low socio-economic contexts. However, the opposite relationship has been found in Turkey. Baydar (2012) reported that depression of mothers was associated with negative parenting for only families of higher socioeconomic status while there was no association in lower socioeconomic status. In a similar vein, the current study found evidence for parental depression only for fathers, but not mothers. That

could be interpreted as the sign of mothers being more resilient to reflect negativities to their relationship with children, while fathers are more susceptible to the spillover effect that they have a higher chance to reflect their negative symptoms to parenting. However, on the contrary to the depression of mothers, psychological distress of mothers was linked to negative parenting in stressful conditions. Psychological distress broadly defined as a reaction to external stress. In the scope of the current study psychological distress was measured as a composite score of depression, anxiety, and stress of mothers. The difference in findings of depression and psychological distress confirms the speculations of Taraban and Shaw (2018). They emphasized that rather than only psychopathologic conditions such as depression, the general psychological well-being of mothers matters more for positive parent-child relationships and parenting.

Secondly, education levels of parents were tested as one of the parent characteristics. Education of parents is vital since more educated parents were expected to give more space and time to children's development, while less-educated parents usually tend to interfere children's behaviors or explorations processes of children. While this link was confirmed for mothers, there was no significant association for fathers. This difference was explained by differentiating the role of parents within the family. While mothers were more involved in child-rearing practices, fathers were usually outside of the home and less involved in parenting. Thus, mothers' education level might play a more critical role in parenting.

As the last component of parent characteristics, parents' socialization goals were examined in detail in the scope of the current study. As Bornstein (2010) emphasized, parenting attitudes and behaviors shaped by the culture and cultural values are transmitted through the parents' own cognitions and behaviors. In Turkey, a majority of parents have a higher level of hierarchical relatedness values, which emphasize respect for elders and comply with society's norms. In a similar vein, in the scope of the larger project of the current study, parents were asked about what characteristics and behaviors they would like to see in their children in

the future. The most mentioned themes by parents were their children's being well-behaving people, respectful to elders, and valuing patriotism (Berument, 2020). However, as Kağıtçıbaşı (2007) discussed, Turkey is considered as an interdependent culture that also values the autonomy of children. Results of the current study showed that mothers hierarchical relatedness goals – but not autonomy supporting – were associated with more negative parenting. On the other hand, fathers having more autonomy supporting goals were especially associated with less negative parenting for their son. Both findings are highlighting how the degree of socialization goals was associated with parenting. Lastly, the dyadic analysis showed that fathers' authoritative parenting beliefs mediated the link between autonomy supporting goals and parental rejection for both parents. This novel finding is crucial to understand within family dynamics that - rather than mothers - more egalitarian attitudes of fathers positively influence the climate in the family for both parents. This, once again, highlights the importance of the parenting intervention for fathers since their attitudes have a positive influence on the within family dynamics.

In terms of family social context variables, social support was associated with less maternal rejection. Moreover, social support for mothers was associated with less rejection, especially for girls with high negative affect. Findings for mothers were critical for showing that having the support of partners, friends or families has a significant contribution to mothers' parenting. Even though most of the parenting interventions were focusing on mothers' parenting practices, the involvement of fathers is also essential. Regarding the results for marital conflict, it was a risk factor for fathers. In cases of marital conflict, fathers were more rejecting to their sons compared to daughters and the children with high negative affect. Again, these results supported the idea that fathers are more susceptible to spillover of family conflict to parenting. In conclusion, for the family social context, mothers benefited from social support in regard to parenting, but fathers might need more intervention studies in regard to reflecting life negativities in parenting.

In terms of child characteristics, child negative affect was a risk factor for negative parenting, especially for fathers. However, it was also a risk factor for mothers

when they have limited social support. Moreover, as a more exploratory part of the study, the role of child gender was examined for all tested variables. The most important result was, in the case of negativities or risk factors such as having low social support or marital conflict, parents tend to be perceived as more negative by their same-sex child. For example, when mothers have less social support, they were more negative towards their daughters, while fathers have more marital conflict; they were more negative towards their sons. Similarly on the positive side, in the case of more positivity such as having more social support same-sex child has reported more positive parenting. For example, when mothers have high social support, daughters reported the least negative parenting, and when fathers have more autonomy supporting goals, boys reported less negative parenting compared to children of less autonomy supporting fathers. One plausible explanation for these results was also that parents choose to interact more with their same-sex children; thereby, those children are more influenced by both positivities and negativities in parents' life. However, further investigations focusing on parents' preferences and the amount of time they spent with their children are necessary.

Lastly, as a stressful life event, the possible risk and protective factors for parenting were examined during the COVID-19 pandemic. Results highlighted the importance of mothers' psychological stress –as abovementioned. Moreover, the role of family context factor that chaos in the family environment was a risk factor for parenting. These novel and up-to-date findings were especially crucial for intervention projects for parenting since after one and half years with drastic changes in the social order and changes in family routines; it could be very likely for families to have negative consequences for parenting. Therefore, determining the risk factors, designing intervention projects, or preparing social policy acts are of utmost importance.

10.1. Limitations

There were some limitations of the current thesis. In the first study, there were methodological differences in the procedure of data collection and sample size of

mothers and fathers. While mothers were invited to the school to fill out the questionnaires through tablets, the questionnaire for fathers was sent to homes by mothers or children. For this reason, the sample size for fathers was small compared to mothers. Thus, larger samples might be needed in further studies to generalize the findings. Still, results shed light on the crucial points in terms of interpreting differences between mothers and fathers.

Moreover, in the second study, there were differences in data collection methodology between two-time points. In the first time, data were collected by school visits, while in the second time, participants were reached out through online platforms. Thus, there might be some differences in their answers. However, at the first time, both mothers and children have filled out the questionnaires through tablet computers. Thus, it is believed that they would be familiar with filling out questionnaires on a screen.

In addition, fathers' experiences during the pandemic were not examined, and their involvement in parenting was only examined through mothers' reports of marital satisfaction and social support. However, as emphasized earlier, the role of fathers within the family is more than just being bystanders or family providers. Therefore, it is also quite essential to examine their experiences as parents during the pandemic. For example, there was no association between income loss for maternal psychological distress and maternal rejection. However, there might be more detrimental associations for fathers in regard to income loss and parenting since fathers were the breadwinners for the majority of the sample. Moreover, examining fathers would also provide a more comprehensive perspective on parenting and potential negative consequences for children.

Lastly, in both of the studies, there were more measures than the scope of the current thesis both for mothers and children. Especially for mothers completion of all questionnaires took an hour for the first study, and 40 minutes for the second study. Therefore, mothers could be exhausted due to length of the questionnaires. Yet, in order to compensate this limitation, questionnaires were presented in a random order to mothers.

10.2. Strengths, Implications, and Conclusion

This thesis also have some unique contributions to the literature. First, the first study contributed to the literature by examining parenting in middle childhood and adolescence. Specifically, determinants of negative parenting were examined in the scope of the updated version of the Process of Parenting Model (Taraban & Shaw, 2018). The findings of the study enhanced a change to figure out the differences in parenting of mothers and fathers. This comparison was reliable since all the questionnaires were same for both parents and specifically the parental rejection measure relied on children's reports, which provided a control mechanism for between-person variation. Moreover, the findings of the study also contributed to the literature by examining the dyadic link between parents in regard to their socialization goals, parenting beliefs, and children's reports of parenting. To the best of the knowledge, this is the first study examining this link in a dyadic way.

Moreover, as a part of the current thesis, determinants of negative parenting were examined during the pandemic by controlling for pre-pandemic measures. As stated in disaster psychology literature, it is impossible to guess how and when of a traumatic event. Therefore, most of the studies examining the consequences of the negative life events have pitfalls that there were no pretest measures. However, in the current study, the measures of psychological distress and maternal rejection were examined just before the outbreak in Turkey. Thus, the results explained here are more robust in explaining the actual consequences of the pandemic in parenting.

Overall, the results of these two studies highlighted the risk and protective factors for parenting, and findings could be helpful for educators, social service agencies, and families. Future implications of the findings could be summarized in two items, first designing and implementing intervention studies focusing on fathers' involvement and their parenting are needed. More importantly, due to the pandemic, a large segment of parents could be at risk of child maltreatment and more hostile parenting. Therefore, preparing social and public health policies

intended to inform parents about the negative consequences of the pandemic on parenting and designing potential interventions or public education programs for parents should be given priority to prevent or mitigate the negative consequences for children.

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A. DEMOGRAPHIC FORM- PARENT

1. **Doğum tarihiniz (Gün/Ay/Yıl)……………………………………….**
   Kaç yaşındasınız?.............................

2. **Hangisi ömrünüzün büyük bir çoğunluğunu geçirdiğiniz yeri en iyi şekilde yansıtır?**

   1) Büyükşehir merkezi   2) Şehir merkezi 3)Kasaba 4)Köy 5)Yurtdışı

3. **En son <u>tamamladığınız</u> eğitim seviyesi?**

   1. Tamamlamadım; okuryazar değilim.
   2. Tamamlamadım; fakat okuryazarım.
   3. İlkokul
   4. Ortaokul
   5. Lise
   6. Üniversite
   7. Yüksek Lisans
   8. Doktora

4. **Medeni haliniz?**

   1. Bu araştırmaya katılan çocuğumun babasıyla **evliyim**, **(resmi nikahlı)**
   2. Bu araştırmaya katılan çocuğumun babasıyla **evliyim**, **(dini nikahlı)**
   3. Bu araştırmaya katılan çocuğumun babasıyla **evliyim ama eşimden ayrı yaşıyorum**
   4. Bu araştırmaya katılan çocuğumun babasından **boşandım ve tekrar evlenmedim. (Soru 6'ya geçiniz.)**
   5. Bu araştırmaya katılan çocuğumun babasından **boşandım ve farklı birisiyle evlendim. (Soru 6'ya geçiniz.)**
   6. Bu araştırmaya katılan çocuğumun babası **vefat etti ve tekrar evlenmedim**. **(Soru 7'ye geçiniz.)**
   7. Bu araştırmaya katılan çocuğumun babası **vefat etti ve tekrar evlendim. (Soru 7'ye geçiniz)**
   8. **Bekarım, hiç evlenmedim.**

5. **Evli iseniz kaç yıldır evlisiniz? …………………………….……**

1. Boşanmışsanız kaç yıl boyunca evli kaldınız? ………………………
2. Eşinizi kaybetmişseniz kaç yıl boyunca evli kaldınız?....…………….…

6. Evli iseniz şimdiki eşinizle nasıl evlendiniz?

1. Görücü usulü, kendi kararım sorulmadan ailemin kararıyla
2. Görücü usulü, kendi rızamla
3. Kendi kararım, ailemin rızası dışında
4. Kendi kararım, ailemin rızasıyla
5. Kaçırılma
6. Berdel (Ailenin kız ve erkek çocuğunun diğer ailenin kız ve erkek çocuğuyla karşılıklı olarak aynı zamanda evlendirilmesi)
7. Diğer………….(Belirtiniz.)

7. Şimdiki eşinizle aranızda akrabalık bağı var mı?

1. Evet   2. Hayır (**Soru 11'e geçiniz.**)

8. Evinizde tüm çocuklar dahil kaç kişi yaşıyorsunuz? (Belirtiniz.) …

9. Toplam kaç çocuğunuz var? (Belirtiniz.) …………………….…..

10. Aile bireylerine dair gerekli bilgileri uygun boşluklara yazınız.

Yakınlık durumu	Cinsiyet	Yaş	En son bitirdiği sınıf	Meslek
Eş				
Bu araştırmaya katılan çocuğunuzun				
Lütfen aşağıdaki kutucuklara diğer çocuklarınızın bilgilerini giriniz.				
1. Çocuk				
2. Çocuk				
3. Çocuk				
4. Çocuk				

11. Aile yapınız:

1) Çekirdek (**Soru 16'ya geçiniz.**)

2) Geniş

3) Tek ebeveynli aile (**Soru 16'ya geçiniz**.)

12. Kimler ile birlikte yaşıyorsunuz belirtiniz.

Akrabalık ilişkisi	Cinsiyet	Yaş	Eğitim durumu, en son bitirdiği sınıf nedir?	Meslek
1.				
2.				
3.				

124

B. DEMOGRAPHIC FORM- CHILD (5TH GRADE AND HIGHER GRADES)

1. **Cinsiyetin:**
2. **Doğum tarihin (Gün/Ay/Yıl):**
3. **Yaşın:**
4. **Kaçıncı sınıfa devam ediyorsun, lütfen yaz:**
5. **Annen hayatta mı?**
   1. Evet
   2. Hayır **(Bu şıkkı işaretleyen çocuklar anneyle ilgili olan diğer soruları/ölçümleri görmeyecek.)**
6. **Baban hayatta mı?**
   1. Evet
   2. Hayır **(Bu şıkkı işaretleyen çocuklar babayla ilgili olan diğer soruları/ölçümleri görmeyecek.)**

1. **Anneninzin eğitim durumu:**
   1) Okuryazar

   2) İlkokul

   3) Ortaokul

   4) Lise

   5) Üniversite

   6) Yüksek lisans

   7) Doktora

1. **Babanın eğitim durumu:**
   1) Okuryazar

   2) İlkokul

   3) Ortaokul

   4) Lise

   5) Üniversite

   6) Yüksek Lisans

   7) Doktora

1. **Kardeşin var mı?**
   1. Evet (**Soru 10'a geçiniz.**)
   2. Hayır
1. **Kaç kardeşin var? (Abla, ağabey, küçük kardeş)**
11. **İçinde yaşadığın topluma kıyasla, ailenin ekonomik seviyesini nerede görüyorsun? (Lütfen işaretle.)**

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

125

C. MULTIDIMENSIONAL SCALE OF PERCEIVED SOCIAL SUPPORT

Kişiler zaman zaman çevrelerindeki farklı kişilerden destek alabilir. Aşağıda verilen her ifade için size en uygun seçeneği işaretleyiniz.

1. İhtiyacım olduğunda yanımda olan özel bir kişi var.

Kesinlikle hayır	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Kesinlikle evet

2. Sevinç ve kederimi paylaşabileceğim özel bir kişi var.

Kesinlikle hayır	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Kesinlikle evet

3. Ailem bana gerçekten yardımcı olmaya çalışır.

Kesinlikle hayır	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Kesinlikle evet

4. İhtiyacım olan duygusal yardımı ve desteği ailemden alırım.

Kesinlikle hayır	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Kesinlikle evet

5. Beni gerçekten rahatlatan bir kişi var.

Kesinlikle hayır	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Kesinlikle evet

6. Arkadaşlarım bana gerçekten yardımcı olmaya çalışırlar.

Kesinlikle hayır	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Kesinlikle evet

7. İsler kötü gittiğinde arkadaşlarıma güvenebilirim.

Kesinlikle hayır	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Kesinlikle evet

8. Sorunlarımı ailemle konuşabilirim.

Kesinlikle hayır	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Kesinlikle evet

9. Sevinç ve kederlerimi paylaşabileceğim arkadaşlarım var.

Kesinlikle hayır	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Kesinlikle evet

10. Yaşamımda duygularıma önem veren özel bir kişi kişivar.

Kesinlikle hayır	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Kesinlikle evet

11. Kararlarımı vermede ailem bana yardımcı olmaya isteklidir.

Kesinlikle hayır	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Kesinlikle evet

12. Sorunlarımı arkadaşlarımla konuşabilirim.

Kesinlikle hayır	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Kesinlikle evet

D. RELATIONSHIP HAPPINESS SCALE

Eşinizle olan ilişkinizi göz önünde bulundurarak aşağıda yer alan ifadelerden sizin için en uygun olanını işaretleyiniz.	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum				Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1. Eşimle iyi bir ilişkim var.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Eşimle ilişkim beni mutlu ediyor.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Eşimle ilişkim çok güçlü.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Eşimle bir küser bir barışırız.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Eşimle kendimi gerçekten bir bütünün parçası gibi hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Genel olarak evliliğimdeki her şeyden çok minimum.	1	2	3	4	5

E. MARITAL CONFLICT SCALE

Madde	Maddeler	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum				Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1.	Eşimin beni rahatsız eden özelliklerini değiştirmeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Eşimle tartışmalarımız/sorunlarımız ciddidir.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Eşimle ilgili olumsuz duygularımı (öfke, memnuniyetsizliklerim, hayal kırıklıklarım) onunla paylaşırım.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Eşimle tartışırız.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Eşime karşı kızgın ya da dargın hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5

F. PARENTAL ACCEPTANCE-REJECTION QUESTIONAIRE

- *First and second grades*

	ANNEM	Hiçbir zaman	Bazen	Çoğu zaman	Her zaman
1.	Annem benim hakkımda güzel şeyler söyler				
2.	Annem bana hiç ilgi göstermez				
3.	Annem benim için önemli olan şeyleri ona anlatmamı kolaylaştırır				
4.	Annem yanlış yapmasam bile bana vurur				
5.	Annem beni sevmiyor gibi				
6.	Annem bana çok ilgi gösterir				
7.	Annem beni bir baş belası olarak görür				
8.	Annem yaptığım şeylere ilgi gösterir				
9.	Annem kızdığı zaman beni cezalandırır				
10.	Annem soru sorduğumda cevap vermez, hep işi vardır				
11.	Annem bana istenilen ve ihtiyaç duyulan biri olduğumu hissettirir				
12.	Annem bana bir sürü kırıcı şey söyler				
13.	Annem hatırlaması gereken önemli şeyleri unutur				
14.	Annem ondan yardım istediğimde benimle ilgilenmez				
15.	Annem benim ne düşündüğüme önem verir ve düşüncelerimi söylememden hoşlanır				
16.	Annem beni üzmek için elinden geleni yapar				
17.	Eğer kötü davranırsam, annem beni artık sevmez.				
18.	Annem benim yaptığım şeylere önem verir				
19.	Yanlış bir şey yaptığımda annem beni korkutur veya tehdit eder				
20.	Annem diğer çocukların benden daha iyi olduğunu düşünür				
21.	Annem beni istemediğini belli eder				
22.	Annem sadece yaramazlık yaptığımda benimle ilgilenir				
23.	Annem beni sevdiğini belli eder				
24.	Annem bana karşı yumuşak ve iyi kalplidir				

	Annem	Hiçbir zaman	Bazen	Çoğu zaman	Her zaman
1	Benim hakkımda güzel şeyler söyler.	1	2	3	4
2	Bana hiç ilgi göstermez.	1	2	3	4
3	Benim için önemli olan şeyleri ona anlatabilmemi kolaylaştırır.	1	2	3	4
4	Hak etmediğim zaman bile bana vurur.	1	2	3	4
5	Beni bir baş belası olarak görür.	1	2	3	4
6	Kızdığı zaman beni cezalandırır.	1	2	3	4
7	Sorularımı cevaplayamayacak kadar meşguldür.	1	2	3	4
8	Benden hoşlanmıyor gibi.	1	2	3	4
9	Yaptığım şeylerle gerçekten ilgilenir.	1	2	3	4
10	Bana bir sürü kırıcı şey söyler.	1	2	3	4
11	Ondan yardım istediğimde beni duymazlıktan gelir.	1	2	3	4
12	Bana istenilen ve ihtiyaç duyulan biri olduğumu hissettirir.	1	2	3	4
13	Bana çok ilgi gösterir.	1	2	3	4
14	Beni kırmak için elinden geleni yapar.	1	2	3	4
15	Hatırlaması gerekir diye düşündüğüm önemli şeyleri unutur.	1	2	3	4
16	Eğer kötü davranırsam, beni artık sevmediğini hissettirir.	1	2	3	4
17	Bana yaptığım şeylerin önemli olduğunu hissettirir.	1	2	3	4
18	Yanlış bir şey yaptığımda beni korkutur veya tehdit eder.	1	2	3	4
19	Benim ne düşündüğüme önem verir ve düşündüklerim hakkında konuşmamdan hoşlanır.	1	2	3	4
20	Ne yaparsam yapayım, diğer çocukların benden daha iyi olduğunu düşünür.	1	2	3	4
21	Bana istenmediğimi belli eder.	1	2	3	4
22	Beni sevdiğini belli eder.	1	2	3	4
23	Onu rahatsız etmediğim sürece benimle ilgilenmez.	1	2	3	4
24	Bana karşı yumuşak ve iyi kalplidir.	1	2	3	4

G. NEGATIVE AFFECT- MOTHER FORM

Lütfen aşağıda yer alan cümleleri araştırmaya katılan çocuğunuzu düşünerek okuyunuz. Her bir ifade için çocuğunuza en uygun olan seçeneği işaretleyiniz.

1	Çocuğum çok hoşuna giden bir şeyi yaparken, onu bırakmak zorunda kalırsam gerilir, sinirlenir.	0	1	2	3	4
2	Ödev veya faaliyetlerinde bir hata yaptığı zaman çok engellenmiş hisseder ve sinirlenir.	0	1	2	3	4
3	Başka öğrencilerin (çocukların) – "yaşıtlarının" yaptığı küçük şeylere bile sinir olur.	0	1	2	3	4
4	Çocuğum, biri onu eleştirdiğinde çok gerilir, sinirlenir.	0	1	2	3	4
5	Onu gitmek istediği bir yere götürmezsem, ya da onun bir yer gitmesine izin vermezsem, gerilir, sinirlenir.	0	1	2	3	4
6	İnsanların onunla aynı fikirde olmamasından nefret eder.	0	1	2	3	4
7	Arkadaşları çocuğumdan daha keyifli ve mutlu gibidirler.	0	1	2	3	4
8	Bazı günler en ufak şeyler için bile ağlayacak gibi olur.	0	1	2	3	4
9	Aslında başkalarının fark ettiğinden daha çok üzülür.	0	1	2	3	4
10	Aksilikler üst üste geldiğinde bile, çocuğum üzülmez.	0	1	2	3	4
11	Eğlenmesi / keyif alması beklendiği zamanlarda bile (örneğin gezide ya da yılbaşı partisinde) kendisini üzgün hisseder.	0	1	2	3	4
12	Birisine kızdığı zaman, onun duygularını inciteceğini bildiği halde, onu incitecek şeyler söyleyebilir.	0	1	2	3	4
13	Çok kızgın olduğunda birine vurabilir.	0	1	2	3	4
14	Çocuğum sevmediği / hoşlanmadığı insanlara karşı kaba davranabilir.	0	1	2	3	4
15	Kızgın olduğunda, kapıları çarpar.	0	1	2	3	4
16	Çocuğum başkalarını eleştirir.	0	1	2	3	4
17	Başka insanların görünüşleriyle alay eder.	0	1	2	3	4
18	Bir hata ya da yanlış yapıldığında, çocuğum başkalarını suçlamaya çalışır.	0	1	2	3	4

H. DEPRESSION, ANXIETY AND STRESS SCALE

Aşağıda verilen her bir ifadeyi lütfen <u>bugün dahil son bir haftanızı</u> düşünerek sizin için en uygun olan seçeneği işaretleyiniz.

		Hiçbir zaman	Bazen	Çoğu zaman	Her zaman
1	Yatışıp sakinleşmekte zorlandım.	0	1	2	3
2	Ağız kuruluğu yaşadım.	0	1	2	3
3	**Hiçbir olumlu his deneyimleyemedim.**	0	1	2	3
4	Soluk alıp vermekte zorluk çektim. (Örneğin; fiziksel egzersiz yapmadığım halde aşırı hızlı nefes alıp verme, nefessiz kalma gibi.).	0	1	2	3
5	**Bir şeye başlayabilecek gücü kendimde bulmakta zorlandım.**	0	1	2	3
6	Olaylara aşırı tepki vermeye meyilliydim.	0	1	2	3
7	Titremeler yaşadım. (Örneğin; ellerim titredi.).	0	1	2	3
8	Daha çok, endişe ve kaygılarımdan doğan enerji ile hareket ettiğimi hissettim.	0	1	2	3
9	Bana panik atak yaşatıp kendimi aptal gibi hissettirecek durumlar hakkında endişelendim.	0	1	2	3
10	**Hayata dair hiçbir beklentim olmadığını hissettim.**	0	1	2	3
11	Gerildiğimi ve sinirlendiğimi hissettim.	0	1	2	3
12	Rahatlamakta zorlandım.	0	1	2	3
13	**Kendimi çok mutsuz ve üzgün hissettim**.	0	1	2	3
14	Bir şey yaparken engellenmeye tahammülüm yoktu.	0	1	2	3
15	Neredeyse panik atak yaşayacak gibi hissettim.	0	1	2	3
16	**Hiçbir şey için kendimi istekli hissedemedim.**	0	1	2	3
17	**Kendimi değersiz bir kişi olarak hissettim**.	0	1	2	3
18	Oldukça alıngan hissettim.	0	1	2	3
19	Fiziksel egzersiz yapmadığım halde kalp atışlarımı fark ettim. (Örneğin; kalbimin hızlı veya düzensiz çarptığını fark ettim).	0	1	2	3
20	Hiçbir neden olmadan korkmuş hissettim.	0	1	2	3
21	**Hayatın hiçbir anlamı olmadığını düşündüm.**	0	1	2	3

I. STUDY 2 DEMOGRAPHIC FORM FOR MOTHERS

Sizinle koronavirüs salgını başlamadan hemen önce görüşmüştük. Umarız ki bu süreçte siz ve aileniz çok zorlanmamıştır. Bu görüşmemizde, size koronavirüs salgını başladığından beri neler yaptığınız, neler hissettiğiniz, çocuğunuz, varsa eşiniz ve çevrenizle olan ilişkileriniz hakkında bazı sorularımız var.

Çalışmaya katılan çocuğunuz hangi okula devam ediyor?
Çalışmaya katılan çocuğunuz kaçıncı sınıfa gidiyor?
Çalışmaya katılan çocuğunuzun devam ettiği şube nedir?
Çalışmaya katılan çocuğunuzun okul numarası nedir?

Koronavirüs salgını genel sorular
Şimdi, sizin bu süreci nasıl geçirdiğinizi anlayabilmek için bazı sorular sormak istiyoruz.
1. Son görüşmemizden beri medeni halinizde bir değişiklik oldu mu?
   1. Evet   b. Hayır

1a. Medeni halinizde nasıl bir değişiklik oldu?
   a. Eşim vefat etti.
   b. Eşimden boşandım.
   c. Evliyim ama eşimden ayrı yaşamaya başladım.
   d. Diğer _____

2. Koronavirüs sürecinde çalışma düzeniniz nasıldı?
   a. Çalışmadım, öncesinde de çalışmıyordum.
   b. Çalışmadım, işten kendi isteğimle ayrıldım.
   c. Çalışmadım, işten çıkarıldığım için çalışmaya devam edemedim.
   d. Çalıştım, çalışma düzenimde bir değişiklik olmadı (işe eskisi gibi gitmeye devam ettim).
   e. Çalıştım, iş yüküm/çalışma saatlerim arttı
   f. Çalıştım, uzaktan/evden çalışma düzenine geçtim.
   g. Çalıştım, iş yerinde dönüşümlü olarak çalışıldı (Örneğin; haftada bir gün çalışma).
   h. Belli bir dönem çalıştım.
   i. İdari izin kullandım.
   j. Yıllık izin kullandım.

3. Koronavirüs sürecinde eşinizin çalışma düzeni nasıldı?
   a. Çalışmadı, öncesinde de çalışmıyordu.
   b. Çalışmadı, işten kendi isteğiyle ayrıldı.
   c. Çalışmadı, işten çıkarıldığı için çalışmaya devam edemedi.
   d. Çalıştı, çalışma düzeninde bir değişiklik olmadı
   e. Çalıştı, iş yükü/çalışma saatleri arttı
   f. Çalıştı, uzaktan/evden çalışma düzenine geçti.
   g. Çalıştı, iş yerinde dönüşümlü olarak çalıştı (Örneğin; haftada bir gün çalışma).
   h. Belli bir dönem çalıştı.
   i. İdari izin kullandı.
   j. Yıllık izin kullandı.

4.Koronavirüs süreci nedeniyle aylık haneye giren gelirle ilgili bir değişiklik oldu mu?
   a. Gelirimizde bir değişiklik olmadı.
   b. Gelirimiz azaldı.
   c. Gelirimiz arttı.

J. MOTHERS COVID-19 RELATED ANXIETY

Aşağıdaki soruları size en uygun olan seçeneği düşünerek cevaplayınız

	0 Hayır hiç	1 Evet, bazen	2 Evet, çoğunlukla	3 Evet her zaman
1. Koronavirüs süreci hayatınızdaki önemli olayları (örneğin, doğum, cenaze) etkiledi mi?				
2. Koronavirüs sürecinde güncel bilgi ve haberleri takip ettiniz mi?				
3. Kendinize Koronavirüs bulaşacak diye endişelendiniz mi?				
4. Koronavirüsten hasta olup hastanede yatabileceğinizi düşündünüz mü?				
5. Koronavirüs nedeniyle hayatınızı kaybedebileceğinizi düşündünüz mü?				
6. Ailenizden birine Koronavirüs bulaşacak diye endişelendiniz mi?				
7. Ailenizden birinin Koronavirüsten hasta olup hastanede yatabileceğini düşündünüz mü?				
8. Ailenizden birini Koronavirüs nedeniyle kaybedebileceğinizi düşündünüz mü?				
9. Koronavirüs süreci boyunca başkasına Koronavirüs bulaştırma konusunda endişelendiniz mi?				
10. Koronavirüs süreci boyunca sağlık hizmeti alamayacağınız konusunda endişelendiniz mi?				
11. Koronavirüs süreci boyunca genel olarak endişelendiniz mi?				

K. CHAOS SCALE

Koronavirüs salgını süreci başladığından beri, evinizle ilgili görüş, duygu ve düşüncenize en uygun olan seçeneği işaretleyiniz.

	1 Hiç doğru değil	2 Doğru değil	3 Pek doğru değil	4 Biraz doğru	5 Doğru	6 Çok doğru
1. Evimizde kargaşa ve dağınıklık çok az olur.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Bir şeye ihtiyacımız olduğunda genellikle bulabiliriz.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Neredeyse her zaman bir telaş içindeyizdir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Evimizde genellikle her şey yerli yerindedir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Ne kadar uğraşırsak uğraşalım, genellikle hep geç kalırız.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Evimizde her zaman her şey altüst olur.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Evde birbirimizin sözünü kesmeden konuşabiliriz.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Evimizde gürültü patırtı eksik olmaz.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Ailecek ne planlarsak planlayalım, genelde gerçekleştiremeyiz.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. Bizim evde gürültüden kendi sesini bile duyamazsın.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. Sıklıkla, evde başkalarının yaptığı tartışmalar içine ben de çekilirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. Evimiz kafa dinlemek için iyi bir yerdir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. Evimizde telefon konuşması bitmek tükenmek bilmez.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. Evimizde ortam sakindir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. Evimizde düzenli bir rutin vardır. Güne başlarken ne olacağı bellidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6

L. INFORMED CONSENTS FOR PARENTS

STUDY 1
Veli Onam Formu

Sevgili Anneler,

Boğaziçi, Ege, Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversiteleri ve Millî Eğitim Bakanlığı iş birliğiyle **"Türkiye Aile, Çocuk ve Ergen Projesi'ni (TAÇEP)"** yürütmekteyiz. Hedefimiz Türkiye'deki 62 il ve 180 okulda toplam 6600 çocuk ve ailesine ulaşmaktır. Bu proje **TÜBİTAK** tarafından desteklenmektedir.

Bu çalışmanın amacı nedir? Türkiye'de aile yapısını ve anne-baba tutum ve davranışlarını derinlemesine incelemek ve bu faktörlerin çocukların gelişimi üzerindeki etkilerini değerlendirmektir. Proje sonuçlarına göre aileler ve çocukları desteklemeye yönelik programlar geliştirilecektir.

Biz araştırmacıların gerçekten ihtiyaç duyulan noktaları tespit edebilmemiz ve doğru destek programlarını geliştirebilmemiz için, çocuk ve ergenlerin gelişiminde en önemli role sahip olan sizlerin, çocuk yetiştirme konusundaki görüşlerini öğrenmemiz çok önemlidir.

Sizin ve çocuğunuzun katılımcı olarak ne yapmasını istiyoruz? Projeye katılmayı kabul eden anneler, katılım listesine eklenecek ve bu listeden rastgele seçilen belirli sayıda anne çalışmaya dâhil edilecektir. Bu çalışmada sizden, çocuğunuzdan ve mümkünse çocuğunuzun babasından, bazı anketleri doldurmanız istenecektir. Anneler anketleri okula gelerek tablet üzerinden dolduracaktır. Okula gelmesi mümkün olmayan anneler de anketleri verilen link ile internet üzerinden doldurabilecektir.

Çocuğunuz anketleri okul müdürü ve öğretmenlerinin izin verdiği uygun bir saatte bu çalışmaya katılan diğer sınıf arkadaşlarıyla beraber sınıfta dolduracaktır. Çocuğunuzdan da sözlü olarak katılımıyla ilgili rızası mutlaka alınacaktır. Babaların da bu çalışmaya katılımları bizim için çok önemlidir. Bu nedenle, çalışmaya katılmak isteyen babalar için basılı bilgi formu ve anketler eve gönderilecektir. Ayrıca tercih eden babalar anketleri verilen link ile internet üzerinden doldurabilecektir. Gelecek sene aynı dönemde çok daha kısa bir anketi de doldurmanız rica edilecektir.

Anketler ne amaçla ve nasıl kullanılacak? Cevaplarınız kesinlikle gizli tutulacak ve sadece bilimsel araştırma amacıyla kullanılacaktır. *__Çocuğunuz ve size ait bilgiler, kesinlikle hiç kimseyle paylaşılmayacaktır.__*

Çocuğunuz veya siz çalışmayı yarıda kesmek isterseniz ne yapmalısınız? Anket sorularının, herhangi bir şekilde olumsuz etkisi yoktur. Ancak, çalışmaya katılmayı kabul ettikten sonra istediğiniz zaman yarıda bırakabilirsiniz.

Bu çalışmayla ilgili daha fazla bilgi almak isterseniz: Araştırmayla ilgili sorularınız olursa tacepodtu@gmail.com e-posta adresinden bize ulaşabilirsiniz. Yukarıdaki bilgileri okudum ve kendimin (Adı-Soyadı) ……ve çocuğumun (Adı-Soyadı)..... bu araştırmaya gönüllü olarak katılmasına

izin veriyorum.   **izin vermiyorum.**

STUDY 2
Veli Onam Formu

Sevgili Anneler,
Boğaziçi, Ege, Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversiteleri ve Millî Eğitim Bakanlığı iş birliğiyle **"Türkiye Aile, Çocuk ve Ergen Projesi'ni (TAÇEP)"** yürütmekte olduğumuz projenin ilk aşamasına geçtiğimiz eğitim-öğretim döneminde katkıda bulunduğunuz için çok teşekkür ederiz. İlk aşamadan bir yıl sonra tekrar sizlerle görüşeceğimizi bildirmiştik. Ancak korona salgını sebebiyle sizlere planlanan tarihten daha erken bir vakitte ulaşmamız gerekti. Çalışmanın bu ikinci aşamasında sizlerden anne-baba tutum ve davranışlarının yanı sıra korona (COVİD 19) sürecini ailelerin nasıl geçirdiğini anlayabilmek için bu süreçle ile ilgili bazı soruları cevaplamanız istenecektir.

Sizin ve çocuğunuzun katılımcı olarak ne yapmasını istiyoruz?

İlk aşamaya katılan annelerimiz tekrardan okula davet edilecektir. İlk aşamada olduğu gibi tablet üzerinden bazı anketleri cevaplamaları istenecektir. Anketleri cevaplama süresi ilk aşamaya göre daha kısa sürecektir. Okula gelmesi mümkün olmayan anneler de anketleri verilen link ile internet üzerinden doldurabilecektir.

İlk aşamada olduğu gibi çocuğunuz anketleri okul müdürü ve öğretmenlerinin izin verdiği uygun bir saatte bu çalışmaya katılan diğer sınıf arkadaşlarıyla beraber sınıfta dolduracaktır. Çocuğunuzdan da sözlü olarak katılımıyla ilgili rızası mutlaka alınacaktır.

Çalışmanın ikinci aşamasına da katılmak isteyen babalar için basılı bilgi formu ve anketler eve gönderilecektir. Ayrıca tercih eden babalar anketleri verilen link ile internet üzerinden doldurabilecektir.

Anketler ne amaçla ve nasıl kullanılacak? Cevaplarınız kesinlikle gizli tutulacak ve sadece bilimsel araştırma amacıyla kullanılacaktır. *__Çocuğunuz ve size ait bilgiler, kesinlikle hiç kimseyle paylaşılmayacaktır.__*

Çocuğunuz veya siz çalışmayı yarıda kesmek isterseniz ne yapmalısınız?
Anket sorularının, herhangi bir şekilde olumsuz etkisi yoktur. Ancak, çalışmaya katılmayı kabul ettikten sonra istediğiniz zaman yarıda bırakabilirsiniz.
Bu çalışmayla ilgili daha fazla bilgi almak isterseniz: Araştırmayla ilgili sorularınız olursa tacepodtu@gmail.com e-posta adresinden bize ulaşabilirsiniz.

_____
____

Yukarıdaki bilgileri okudum ve kendimin (Adı-Soyadı) ………… ve
çocuğumun (Adı-Soyadı)...........bu araştırmaya gönüllü olarak katılmasına

izin veriyorum.
izin vermiyorum.

M. SOCIALIZATION GOALS

	Maddeler	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum				Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1.	Çocuklar küçüklüklerinden itibaren, bağımsız bir birey olmayı öğrenmelidir.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Çocuklar küçüklüklerinden itibaren, kendilerine güven (özgüven) kazanmalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Çocuklar küçüklüklerinden itibaren, anne-babanın sözünü dinlemeyi öğrenmelidir.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Çocuklar küçüklüklerinden itibaren, büyük sözü dinlemeyi öğrenmelidir.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Çocuklar küçüklüklerinden itibaren, haklarını korumayı öğrenmelidir.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Çocuklar küçüklüklerinden itibaren, kendilerine saygı (özsaygı) duymayı öğrenmelidir.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Çocuklar küçüklüklerinden itibaren, büyüklere saygı göstermeyi öğrenmelidir.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Çocuklar küçüklüklerinden itibaren, anne-babanın söylediklerini yapmayı öğrenmelidir.	1	2	3	4	5

N. APPROVALS OF THE METU HUMAN SUBJECTS ETHICS COMMITTEE

STUDY 1

UYGULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ
APPLIED ETHICS RESEARCH CENTER

ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
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Sayı: 28620816 / 16

02 OCAK 2018

Konu: Değerlendirme Sonucu

Gönderen: ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu (İAEK)

İlgi: İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu Başvurusu

Sayın Prof.Dr. Sibel KAZAK BERUMENT ve Yrd.Doç.Dr. Başak ŞAHİN ACAR;

"**Ebeveynlik Tutumlarının ve Ebeveyn-Çocuk İletişim Özelliklerinin Çocuk ve Ergen Gelişimine Etkisi**" başlıklı araştırmanız İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu tarafından uygun görülerek gerekli onay **2017-SOS-213** protokol numarası ile **01.09.2018-01.10.2021** tarihleri arasında geçerli olmak üzere verilmiştir.

Bilgilerinize saygılarımla sunarım.

Prof. Dr. Ş. Halil TURAN
Başkan V

Prof. Dr. Ayhan SOL
Üye

Prof. Dr. Ayhan Gürbüz DEMİR
Üye

Doç. Dr. Yaşar KONDAKÇI
Üye

Doç. Dr. Zana ÇITAK
Üye

Yrd. Doç. Dr. Pınar KAYGAN
Üye

Yrd. Doç. Dr. Emre SELÇUK
Üye

139

STUDY 2

Sayı: 28620816 /

16 HAZİRAN 2020

Konu: Değerlendirme Sonucu

Gönderen: ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu (İAEK)

İlgi: İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu Başvurusu

Sayın Sibel Kazak BERUMENT ve Başak Şahin ACAR

"Covid-19'un Çocuk ve Ergenlerin Bilişsel ve Psikososyal Gelişimi ile Akademik Hayatına Etkileri" başlıklı araştırmanız İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu tarafından uygun görülmüş ve **157 ODTU 2020** protokol numarası ile onaylanmıştır.

Saygılarımızla bilgilerinize sunarız.

Prof.Dr. Mine MISIRLISOY

Başkan

Prof. Dr. Tolga CAN
Üye

Doç.Dr. Pınar KAYGAN
Üye

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Ali Emre TURGUT
Üye

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Şerife SEVİNÇ
Üye

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Müge GÜNDÜZ
Üye

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Süreyya Özcan KABASAKAL
Üye

O. CHINESE PARENTING BELIEFS QUESTIONNAIRE AUTHORITATIVE PARENTING BELIEFS

	`Maddeler	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum				Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
18.	Anneler, çocuklarını her fırsatta övmelidir.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	Anneler, tutarsız bile olsa çocuklarının duygu ya da fikirlerine saygı göstermelidir.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	Anneler, çocuklarının fikirlerini önemsemeli ve saygı göstermelidir.	1	2	3	4	5
21.	Anneler çocuklarına, makul olduğu her durumda, kendilerine eşit bir birey gibi davranmalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
22.	Anneler, çocuklarının duygularını ifade etmesini destekleyip teşvik etmelidir.	1	2	3	4	5
23.	Anneler, çocuklarının duygularını anlamaları için onlara destek olmalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
24.	Anneleri onlarla zaman geçiren çocuklar, annelerinin sözlerini daha çok dinler.	1	2	3	4	5
25.	Anneler, çocuklarını düşünce ve duygularını ifade etmeye teşvik etmelidir.	1	2	3	4	5
26.	Anneler, çocuklarından bir şey istediklerinde neden istediklerini açıklamalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5

P. CURRICULUM VITAE

AYSE BUSRA IPLIKCI (previously KARAGOBEK)

Middle East Technical University

Department of Psychology

ANKARA-TURKEY

EDUCATION

July - September 2021	University of Ruhr, Bochum, Germany
	Visiting Student Researcher
	Supervisor: Prof.Dr. Birgit Leyendecker & Dr. Julian Busch
2018-2019	University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, USA
	Visiting Student Researcher
	Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Eva Pomerantz
2014- present	Middle East Technical University, Ankara, Turkey
	Ph. D. in Developmental Psychology
	Supervisor: Prof.Dr. Sibel Kazak Berument
	CGPA: 4.00/4.00
2012- 2014	Middle East Technical University, Ankara, Turkey
	M.S. in Developmental Psychology
	CGPA: 3.50/4.00
	Supervisor Asst. Prof. Dr. Başak Şahin-Acar
2007-2012	Middle East Technical University, Ankara, Turkey
	B.S in Psychology
	CGPA: 3.16/4.00
03-08/ 2011	Leuphana University, Lüneburg, Germany
	Department of Psychology,
	Exchange Student in scope of the Erasmus Exchange Program

WORK EXPERIENCE

02/2018-present	Akdeniz University
	Department of Psychology, Research Assistant,

02/2015- 02/2018	Middle East Technical University, Ankara, Turkey
	Department of Psychology, Research Assistant,
04/2014-01/2015	Akdeniz University
	Department of Psychology, Research Assistant

RESEARCH EXPERIENCE

Volunteer Research Assistant in The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey (TÜBİTAK: 1001 Project: Project Code 120K385): The effects of Covid-19 on the psycho-social development and academic life of children and youth. Supervised by Prof. Dr. Sibel Kazak Berument. 2020

Volunteer Research Assistant in The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey (TÜBİTAK) 1003 Project (Project Code: 113K035): The Effects of Parenting Attitudes and Parent Child Interaction On Child and Adolescent Developmental Outcomes - Supervised by Prof. Dr. Sibel Kazak Berument. 2018 – Current

Volunteer Research Assistant at NormSo! - Cultural influences on the socialization of norms project. Ruhr Universitat Bochum. Supervised by Dr. Julian Busch.

Volunteer Research Assistant at Middle School Motivation Project. University of Illinois Urbana-Champaign, PI: Prof.Dr. Eva Pomerantz

Volunteer Research Assistant in The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey (TÜBİTAK). 1507 Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises Research and Development Program, Developing a Game Engine for Mobile Devices to Facilitate Social Interaction. TÜBİTAK. Supervised by Yavuz Eren

Volunteer Research Assistant at The Role of Maternal Responsiveness in Children's Self-regulation in the First Year of Life project. Middle East Technical University. Supervised byAssoc. Prof.Dr. Emre Selçuk

VOLUNTEER WORK

03-06/ 2012	Ankara Ataturk Orphanage, Turkey
	Field practice course

03-06/ 2012	Association for Schizophrenia Patients' Solidarity, Ankara, Turkey
	Field practice course
12/ 2011	Turkish Red Crescent, Van, Turkey
	Association of Psychosocial Services to Disaster
	Volunteer in psychosocial support unit in the earthquake area
09-10/ 2011	Koç University, Psychology Department, Istanbul, Turkey
	The Study of Early Childhood Developmental Ecologies in Turkey (TECGE) Project
	Summer intern, field assistant
08–09/ 2011	Hacettepe University, Faculty of Medicine, Ankara, Turkey
	Department of Psychiatry
	Intern psychologist
27-28/01/2011	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
	2-Day-long Training Program on Violence in Family
	Assistant trainer of Prof. Dr. Leyla Welkin

PUBLICATIONS (SSCI INDEXED)

Aran, O., **Iplikçi, A.B**., Salman-Ergin, S., & Sümer, N. (2021). Caregiving profiles ofmothers in an economically disadvantaged sample from Turkey: An observationalstudy. *Journal of Reproductive and Infant Psychology,* doi:10.1080/02646838.2020.1722803

Aran, O., **Iplikci, A.B**., Selcuk, E., & Gunaydin, G. (2020). Türkiye'de anne bakım verme davranışlarındaki farklılıklar ve bu farklılıkların psikolojik stresle ilişkisi: bir doğal gözlem çalışması [Naturally Occurring Variations in Maternal Caregiving in Turkey and Associations with Psychological Distress: An Observational Study], *Türk Psikoloji Dergisi, 35*(86), 95-98. doi: 10.31828/tpd1300443320190729m000023

Karagobek, A.B. & Sahin-Acar, B. (2019). Kim ebeveyn? 12-Yaş çocuklarının ebeveynleşme davranışlarını yordayan etkenler [Who is the parent?

Predictors of 12 year-olds parentification behaviors], *Türk Psikoloji Dergisi.*

ARTICLES IN PREPARATION

Kanngiesser, P., Köster, M., Busch, J., & **İplikci, A.B.** (in preparation). A cross cultural comparison of norm enforcement strategies in Turkish, Turkish German and German mothers-child dyads.

Ozdemir, F., Imamoglu, O., Imamoglu, S., Ceviker, G., & **İplikci, A.B.** (submitted).How are presence of and search for meaning in life associated with well-being in the turkish context? Profiles of meaning in life in relation to personal characteristics, life satisfaction, and psychological well-being. *European Journal of Social Psychology*

İplikçi, A. B., Krasniqi, L., Gunaydin, G, Selcuk, E. &. Eren, Y.(submitted). Do Cooperative Mobile Games Facilitate Social Interaction and Positive Affect in Children? *Computers in Human Behavior*

BOOK CHAPTERS

İplikçi, A.B. (2020). Annelikte Temel bir Kavram: Anne Duyarlığı. In E. Tathan Bekaroğlu (Ed), Anne Babalığa Psikolojik Bakış. Nobel Press.

Selcuk, E., **Karagobek, A. B.,** & Gunaydin, G. (2018). Responsiveness as a key predictor of happiness: Mechanisms and unanswered questions. In M. Demir & N. Sümer (Eds.), *Close relationships and happiness*. Springer

PRESENTATIONS IN PEER-REVIEWED INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCES

Iplikci, A.B., Duruk, Z.C., Cakir, E., & Ozdemir, F. (2021). Comparison of attributions towards Syrian Refugees and Kurdish People in Turkey: A qualitative study. The 32nd Oral Presentation, International Congress of Psychology, Prague on 18-21 July-2021.

Iplikci, A.B., Sumer, N., Cemalcilar, Z., Sumer, H.C. (2021). Psychometric properties of Turkish adaptation of the Big Five Inventory-2. The 32nd Oral Presentation, International Congress of Psychology, Prague on 18-21 July-2021.

Ozdemir, F., Imamoglu, O., Imamoglu, S., Ceviker, G., & **Iplikci, A.B**. (2021). Balanced self construal and well-being: Roles of motivational and

affective variables. Oral Presentation, 32nd International Congress of Psychology, Prag, Çekya.

Ozdemir, F., Yardım, S., Bugur, O., & **Iplikci, A. B.** (2021). Problems, coping strategies, and psychological distress of Turkish women during the COVID 19 pandemic. The 32nd Oral Presentation, International Congress of Psychology, Prague on 18-21 July-2021.

Çeviker, G., Çetin, K.N., Canpolat, A., **Iplikçi, A.B.,** & Şahin-Acar, B. (2021, Temmuz). Emotional Residue after the Covid-19 Pandemic: The link between early maladaptive schemas and emotional memory. The 32nd Oral Presentation, International Congress of Psychology, Prague on 18-21 July 2021.

Iplikci, A.B., Selcuk, E., Gunaydin, G., Yardım, S., & Eren, Y. A (2021). A mobile game to increase positive affect and social interaction in children. The Individual Poster Presentation, the Virtual Biennial Meeting of Society for Research in Child Development (SRCD) on April 7-9, 2020.

Iplikci, B., Memişoğlu-Sanlı, A., Anaçali, E., Ilgun, Y., Aydoğdu, E., Berument, S. K., Sahin-Acar, B., Tahiroğlu, D. & Doğan, A. (2021). Parenting during the Pandemic: Antecedents and Consequences of change in Parental Psychological Distress. The Individual Poster Presentation, the Virtual Biennial Meeting of Society for Research in Child Development (SRCD) on April 7-9, 2020.

Iplikci, A.B., Oztekin, H., Selcuk, E., Gunaydın, G., & Eren, Y. (2019). Increasing Social Interaction in Mobile Games: A Field Experiment, Oral Presentation 9th European Conference on Developmental Psychology (ECDP), Athens, Greece

Memişoğlu-Sanlı, A., **Iplikci, A.B**., Sümer, N., Altınöz, Z.S., Canoğlu, B., Göksu, Z., Güvenç, B., Kıyak, B., Tezci, B., Tireli, G., Yörük, H. (2018, November). Anne duyarlığı ile çocuğun bağlanma profilleri arasındaki ilişki [The relationship between maternal sensitivity and children's attachment profiles], Poster presented at 20th National Congress of Psychology, Ankara, Turkey.

Salman-Engin, S., Aran, O., **Karagobek, A.B.,** & Sumer, N. (2017, June). Caregiving behavior profiles among Turkish mothers. Poster presented at the International Attachment Congress (IAC), London, UK.

Karagobek, A.B., Aran, O., Selcuk, E. ve Gunaydin, G. (2017, April). Maternal Caregiving Profiles in Turkey. Poster presented at the Society for

Research in Child Development (SRCD) Biennal Meeting, Austin, Texas, USA.

Mebert, C., Sahin-Acar, B., **Karagobek, A.B.** & Ture, D. (2016, May). Differential responses of US and Turkish students to requests for memories vs. events. Poster presented at the 28th Association for Psychological Science (APS) Annual Convention, Chicago, IL, USA.

Karagobek, A.B., & Sahin-Acar, B. (2015, July). Moderator role of child's gender in predicting parentification behaviors. Oral presentation at the 14th European Congress of Psychology (ECP), Milan, Italy.

Karagobek, A. B., & Berument- Kazak, S. (2014, July). A controlled trial of social and emotional competency intervention program for Turkish Children. Poster presented at the 36th Annual Conference of International School Psychology Association (ISPA), Kaunas, Lithuania

SCHOLARSHIPS & AWARDS

2021 Ruhr Universitat, Bochum, Germany, Researcher Exchange Scholarship

2019 FULBRIGHT PhD Dissertation Research Fellowship

2019 19th European Conference on Developmental Psychology, Travel Award

2015 TUBITAK (The Scientific and Technological Council of Turkey) travel grant for European Congress of Psychology

2014- 2018 TUBITAK Science Scholarship for Ph.D. programs

2012- 2014 TUBITAK Science Scholarship for Master Programs

2007- 2012 TUBITAK Science Scholarship for Undergraduate Programs

TEACHING ASSISTANCE

Fall, 2017   Psy 500 Advanced Statistics for Psychology I, graduate course,

Psy 455 Psychology of Self and Attachment, undergraduate

Spring 2017   Psy 427 Human Bonding, undergraduate course

Fall 2016   Psy 500 Advanced Statistics for Psychology I, graduate course

Spring 2016   Psy 621 Multilevel Modelling, graduate course

Fall 2015   Psy 500 Advanced Statistics for Psychology I, graduate course

Spring 2015   Psy 510 Advanced Statistics for Psychology II, graduate course

PROFESSIONAL MEMBERSHIPS & OTHER ACTIVITIES

Fechner Day 35th Annual Meeting of the International Society for

Psychophysics, Akdeniz University,   Organization Committee Member,
Turkey, 2019

Society for Research in Child Development (SRCD)

European Association of Developmental Psychology

Q. TURKISH SUMMARY / TÜRKÇE ÖZET

GİRİŞ

Modern toplumlarda ebeveynlik, ebeveynler için birçok gereksinimi olan ve günlük yaşamda olumsuz ebeveynlik uygulamalarına yol açması muhtemel olan zorlu bir görev olmuştur. Zor zamanlar söz konusu olduğunda ebeveynlik daha karmaşık hale gelebilir ve bu da daha olumsuz ebeveynlik uygulamalarını tetikler. Araştırmalar, olumsuz ebeveynliğin, çocuk gelişiminin için olumsuz çıktılarıyla ilişkisini göstermiştir. Bu nedenle, bu tezin temel amacı, ebeveynliğin öncüllerini hem günlük yaşamda ve Corona Virüs Hastalığı-19 (COVID-19) pandemisi zamanında incelemektir. Bu amaçla, bağlamsal faktörlerin rolleri ile ebeveyn ve çocukların özellikleri üzerinde durularak algılanan ebeveynliği açıklamayı hedefleyen iki araştırma yapılmıştır.

Mevcut tez, ana babanın sosyalleşme hedeflerine, aile bağlamının boyutlarına ve çocukların özelliklerine özellikle vurgu yaparak, Türk kültürel bağlamında anne ve baba ebeveynliğine odaklanmaktadır. İlk çalışma, ebeveynlerin eğitim seviyesi, depresyonu ve sosyalleştirme hedefleri ile evlilik çatışması, algılanan sosyal destek ve çocuğun yaşı öncülleri ile ebeveyn reddi arasındaki ilişkiyi çocuğun olumsuz duygulanımı ve cinsiyetinin düzenleyici rolü göz önünde bulundurularak her iki ebeveyn için de incelemektedir. Ayrıca, ebeveynlerin sosyalleştirme hedefleri ve ebeveyn reddi arasındaki ilişki, yetkili ebeveynlik inanışların aracı rolü ve ebeveynler arasındaki karşılıklı etki göz önüne alınarak incelemektedir. İkinci çalışma ise COVID-19 pandemisi ve öncesi dönemde algılanan ebeveyn reddi için annenin psikolojik stresinin aracı rolünü pandemi ile ilişkili risk ve koruyucu faktörleri göz önünde bulundurarak incelemektedir. Spesifik olarak, annelerin pandemi ile ilgili kaygısı, aile ortamındaki kaos ve gelir azalmasının anne reddi üzerindeki rolleri, annenin psikolojik sıkıntısındaki değişim üzerinden test edilmiştir. Bunlara ek olarak, evlilik doyumu ve sosyal desteğin koruyucu rolü de test edilmiştir.

ÇALIŞMA 1 GİRİŞ

Ebeveynlik araştırmalarının bulguları, bakımveren olarak babaların da anneler kadar etkili olabildiğini doğrulamaktadır (Cabrera ve diğerleri, 2000; Crnic, 2009). Babaların ebeveynliğe katılımının önemli bir katkısı olduğu giderek daha fazla kabul görse de, ebeveynlik yapan anne ve babaların birbirleri üzerindeki karşılıklı ilişkilerini inceleyen araştırmalar sınırlıdır. Bu çalışmanın ebeveynliğin öncüllerini ayrıntılı olarak açıklamak için iki temel amacı vardır. İlki, anne ve babalar için ebeveynliğin bireysel ve bağlamsal yordayıcılarını ve bu ilişkileri açıklayan olası mekanizmaları incelemeyi amaçlamıştır. İkincisi, anne ve babalar arasındaki karşılıklı ilişkilerin de araştırılması amaçlanmıştır.

Bu çalışmada ebeveynlik kavramı, ebeveyn kabul veya reddinin çocuğun genel uyumu üzerindeki sonuçlarını araştıran bir "sosyalleşme" teorisi olan Ebeveyn Kabul-Red Kuramı kapsamında incelenmiştir (Rohner, 1980). Bu kurama göre (PARTheory; Rohner, 1986; 2004), ebeveynlik bir süreklilik olarak düşünülürse, ebeveynler ve çocukları arasındaki bağın kalitesi ebeveynlik sıcaklığı olarak adlandırılabilir. Sıcak/pozitif ebeveynler çocuklarına karşı olumlu duygularını gösterirler, çocuklarının ihtiyaçlarını anlarlar ve onlara göre karşılık verirler. Çocuklar, ebeveynlerinin sıcaklığını, desteğini ve sevgisini hissedebilirler. Bununla birlikte, sürekliliğin diğer ucunda ebeveyn reddi olarak adlandırılan olumsuz ebeveynlik vardır. Bu ebeveynler çocuklarına karşı bu olumlu duyguları ya geç gösterirler ya göstermezler ya da cezalandırma, şaplak atma, alay etme gibi olumsuz davranışlar sergileyebilirler. Sıcaklık, ebeveynler ve çocuklar arasındaki duygusal bağın kalitesi ve ebeveynlerin olumlu duygular göstermek için kullandıkları fiziksel ve sözlü davranışlarla ilgilidir fakat ebeveynin gerçek davranışından bağımsız olarak, çocukların algısı tam olarak ebeveynlerin davranışlarının bir kopyası değildir. Bu nedenle, mevcut çalışmada ebeveynlik, çocukların bakış açısıyla incelenmiştir.

Ebeveynlerin özelliklerinin veya aile sosyal çevresinin anne ve baba reddi ile nasıl ilişkili olduğunu test eden az sayıda araştırma vardır. Bu nedenle, bu

çalışma, düşük riskli bir örneklemde anne ve babalar için ayrı ayrı ebeveyn reddi için çeşitli faktörlerin katkısını araştırmayı amaçlamıştır. Bu ilişkileri incelerken, Ebeveynlik Süreci Modeli (Belsky, 1984; Taraban ve Shaw, 2018), önerilen ebeveyn reddinin öncül faktörleri için bir temel sağlamıştır. Belsky'nin (1984) Ebeveynlik Süreci Modeline göre, ebeveynlerin gelişimsel geçmişi, ebeveynlik uygulamalarını etkileyen ebeveynlerin kişiliğinin, ebeveynlerinin çalışmalarının ve evlilik kalitesinin bir göstergesidir. Ayrıca, ebeveynlerin sosyal desteği ve çocukların özellikleri de ebeveynliğin önemli yordayıcılarıdır. Son zamanlarda Taraban ve Shaw (2018), büyüyen ebeveynlik literatüründen elde edilen bulguları gözden geçirerek bu modelin güncellenmiş bir versiyonunu sunmuşlardır. Bu teorik model, bağlamsal bir faktör olarak sosyo-ekonomik durumu hesaba katmanın yanı sıra ebeveynliği ebeveyn özellikleri, aile sosyal çevresi ve çocuk özelliklerini açıklamak için üç ana bileşenden oluşmaktadır.

Ebeveyn reddinin çocuklar için olumsuz sonuçları olduğuna dair evrensel bir fikir birliği olmasına rağmen, reddedilmenin yorumlanmasının kültürel yönelime göre farklılık gösterebileceğini de belirtmekte fayda vardır (Putnick ve diğerleri, 2012). Örneğin Kağıtçıbaşı (2007; 2012), Batı kültürlerindeki çocukların, ebeveyn kontrolü ve otoriter ebeveynlik uygulamalarını daha reddedici olarak algılama eğiliminde olduklarını, Batılı olmayan kültürlerde ise çocukların otoriter ebeveynlerini hala kabul edici ve sıcak ebeveynler olarak algılayabildiklerini ileri sürmüştür. Kağıtçıbaşı, bu katı ebeveynlik uygulamalarının, bu tür kontrol edici davranışların Batılı olmayan kültürlerde anne babaların yaygın uygulamaları nedeniyle reddedilme olarak algılanmadığını aksine bu davranışların yokluğunun ebeveynliği reddetme olarak algılanabileceğini de tartışmaktadır. Türkiye, hem ebeveynlerin hem de çocukların daha fazla duygusal yakınlığa ve daha az reddedilme algısına sahip olduğu bir kültür olarak tanımlanabilir. Bu nedenle Türkiye'de ebeveyn reddinin incelenmesi evrensel bulgulardan farklı bulgular üretebilir. Bu amaçla, bu araştırma, ebeveynliği Türk kültürel bağlamında incelemeyi amaçlamıştır.

Araştırma Soruları

Yukarıdaki hususlar dikkate alındığında, bireysel özelliklerin ve bağlamsal faktörlerin ebeveynlik üzerindeki rolleri önemli bir sorudur. Spesifik olarak, mevcut çalışma aşağıdaki araştırma sorularını araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır;

1. Anne 've baba' özellikleri, yani ebeveyn eğitim düzeyi, depresyon, sosyalleşme hedefleri, çocuklar tarafından algılanan ebeveyn reddi ile nasıl bağlantılıdır?

2. Ailelerin sosyal çevresi, yani sosyal destek ve evlilik çatışması, çocuklar tarafından algılanan ebeveynlik ile nasıl bağlantılıdır?

3. Ebeveyn reddini yordamada çocukların özellikleri, olumsuz duygulanımı, cinsiyeti ve yaşı ne tür bir rol oynamaktadır?

4. Ebeveyn özellikleri ile aile sosyal bağlamı ve ebeveyn reddi arasındaki ilişkilerde çocuğun olumsuz duygulanımı ve cinsiyetin düzenleyici rolü var mıdır?

5. Ebeveynlerin sosyalleşme hedefleri ile ebeveyn reddi arasında ebeveynler arası ilişkiler var mıdır? Ebeveynlerin ebeveynlikle ilgili inançları bu bağlantılara aracılık eder mi?

Hipotezler

Bu araştırma sorularına ilişkin olarak, çalışma değişkenlerinin temel etkilerine ilişkin hipotezler aşağıdaki gibidir:

1. Ebeveyn özellikleri ve ebeveyn reddi arasındaki bağlantılar;

a. Ebeveyn depresyonunun, algılanan ebeveyn reddini pozitif olarak yordaması beklenmektedir.

b. Ebeveynlerin eğitim düzeyinin, algılanan ebeveyn reddini olumsuz yönde yordaması beklenmektedir.

c. Sosyalleşme hedefleri açısından, hiyerarşik ilişkisellik hedeflerinin ebeveyn reddini olumlu yordaması beklenirken, özerkliği destekleyen hedeflerin her iki ebeveyn için ebeveyn reddini olumsuz yönde yordaması beklenmektedir.

2. Ailenin sosyal çevresi ile ebeveyn reddi arasındaki bağlantı;

a. Algılanan sosyal desteğin ebeveyn reddini olumsuz yordaması beklenirken,

b. Evlilik çatışmasının, özellikle babalar için, ebeveyn reddini olumlu yordaması beklenmektedir.

3. Çocuk özellikleri ile ebeveyn reddi arasındaki bağlantılar;

a. Çocuğun olumsuz duygulanımının ebeveyn reddini olumlu yönde yordaması beklenmektedir.

b. Çocuk yaşının ebeveyn reddini öngörmesi beklenmemektedir,

4. Çocuğun olumsuz duygularının düzenleyici rolü açısından;

a. Depresyon puanı yüksek olan anne babaların, olumsuz duygulanımı yüksek çocuklar tarafından daha reddedici olarak algılanması beklenirken; daha az depresyon puanına sahip olan ebeveynlerin, daha az olumsuz duyguya sahip çocuklar tarafından daha az reddedici ebeveynler olarak algılanması beklenmektedir.

b. Düşük eğitim düzeyine sahip anne babaların, olumsuz duygulanımı yüksek çocuklar tarafından daha fazla reddedici olarak algılanmaları beklenirken; eğitim düzeyi yüksek olan ebeveynlerin daha az olumsuz duyguya sahip çocuklar tarafından daha az reddedici ebeveynler olarak algılanması beklenmektedir.

c. Sosyalleşme hedefleri açısından, hiyerarşik ilişki hedefleri yüksek olan ebeveynlerin, olumsuz duygulanımları yüksek olan çocuklar tarafından daha reddedici olarak algılanması beklenirken özerkliği destekleme hedefleri yüksek olan ebeveynlerin, olumsuz duygulanımı daha az olan çocuklar tarafından daha az reddedici ebeveynler olarak algılanması beklenmektedir.

d. Evlilik çatışması açısından, evlilik çatışması yüksek olan ebeveynlerin, olumsuz duygulanımı yüksek olan çocuklar tarafından daha reddedici olarak algılanmaları beklenmiştir. Bu bağlantı özellikle babalar için beklenmektedir.

e. Sosyal destek açısından, çocuğun olumsuz etkilendiği durumlarda daha fazla destek algılayan ebeveynlerin, daha az destek algılayan ebeveynlere göre daha az reddedici olarak algılanmaları beklenmektedir.

Literatürdeki bulgular nedeniyle, çocuk cinsiyetinin düzenleyici rolü için spesifik bir hipotez belirtilmemiştir. Anneler ve babalar için - evlilik çatışması dışında - modelde belirli bir farklılık beklenmemektedir. Benzer şekilde, sosyalleşme hedefleri, yetkili ebeveynlik inançları ve reddedilme için ikili bağlantılar keşif amaçlı olarak test edilmiştir.

ÇALIŞMA 1 YÖNTEM

Katılımcılar

Katılımcılar, birinci sınıftan 11. sınıfa kadar 756 çocuk ve ergendir (Oğlan = 251, %41.8; Kız = 34, %58.2). Anneler için örneklem 779 anneden oluşmaktadır (Ort. = 37.40, SS= 5.88). Çalışma durumuna bakıldığında, annelerin çoğunluğu ev hanımıdır (n = 571, %76,1) ve geri kalanı çalışmaktadır (n = 179, %23,9). Babaların toplam örneklem büyüklüğü 235'tir (Ort. = 40,74, SS = 5,55). Çalışma durumuna bakıldığında ise babaların büyük çoğunluğu (n = 239, %94.1) çalışmaktadır ve 15 baba çalışmamaktadır (n = 15, %5.9).

Veri Toplama Araçları

Ebeveynlerin algıladıkları sosyal desteği ölçmek için Çok Boyutlu Sosyal Destek Ölçeği kullanılmıştır (Zimet ve diğerleri, 1988; Eker ve diğerleri, 2001). Bu ölçekte aile, arkadaşlar ve önemli kişileri ölçen üç alt ölçek bulunmakta ve bu alt ölçeklerin her biri dört maddeden oluşmaktadır. Tüm ölçeğin iç tutarlılığı hem anneler için Cronbach's α = .92 hem de babalar için Cronbach's α = .90 için yüksek olarak bulunmuştur. Eşler için algılanan evlilik çatışmasını ölçmek için Evlilik Çatışması Ölçeği kullanılmıştır (Braiker ve Kelley, 1979; Sumer ve diğerleri, 2016). 1= kesinlikle katılmıyorum ile 5 = kesinlikle katılıyorum arasında değişen dörtlü Likert tipi beş maddeden oluşmaktadır. Bir madde, madde-toplam korelasyonunun düşük olması nedeniyle çalışmadan çıkarılmıştır, bu da hem anneler için, Cronbach's α = .69; hem de babalar için, Cronbach's α = .64, saha yüksek tutarlılık sağlamıştır. Ebeveyn depresyonu, Depresyon Anksiyete Stres Ölçeği-21 ile ölçülmüştür (Lovibond ve Lovibond, 1995; Yılmaz ve ark., 2017; Sarıçam, 2018). Bu çalışma için sadece depresyon alt ölçeği kullanılmıştır. Depresyon alt ölçeğinin iç tutarlılığı hem anneler için, Cronbach's α = .86, hem de babalar için, Cronbach's α = .82, için yüksektir. Çin Çocuk Yetiştirme İnançları Anketi, ebeveynlerin ebeveynlik hakkındaki inançlarını ölçmeyi amaçlayan bir ölçektir (Lieber ve diğerleri, 2006). Bu araştırma kapsamında sadece dokuz maddelik yetkili ebeveynlik inançları alt ölçeği kullanılmıştır. Ölçeğin iç tutarlılığı hem anneler için Cronbach's α = .84, hem de babalar için Cronbach's α = .86 için yüksek olarak bulunmuştur. Sosyalleşme Hedefleri Anketi, ebeveynlerin özerklik ve ilişkililik için sosyalleşme hedeflerini araştırmak için kullanılmıştır (Döge & Keller, 2014). Bu ölçeğin, bireysel psikolojik özerklik ve hiyerarşik ilişkililik olmak üzere iki alt ölçeği vardır; birincisi ebeveynlerin özerkliği destekleyici inançlarını ölçmeyi, ikincisi ise ilişkili olma inançlarını ölçmeyi amaçlamaktadır, hem anneler, Cronbach's α = .90, hem de babalar, Cronbach's α = .70, için tutarlılık puanları yüksektir.

Çocukların olumsuz duygulanımlarını ölçmek için anne tarafından bildirilen bir mizaç ölçeği, Erken Ergen Mizaç Anketi (EATQ-R; Ellis ve Rothbart, 2001;

155

Muris ve Meesters, 2009, Demirpençe ve Putham, 2019) kullanılmıştır. Bu araştırma kapsamında çocukların olumsuz etkilerini ölçmek için çocukların olumsuz etkilerini değerlendirmek için saldırganlık, hayal kırıklığı ve depresif duygudurum alt ölçeklerinden oluşan bileşik bir puan kullanılmıştır. Ölçeğin iç tutarlığı Cronbach's α = .91 olarak bulunmuştur. Ebeveyn reddini ölçmek için çocuk tarafından doldurulan bir ölçek olan Ebeveyn Kabul-Red Anketi kullanılmıştır (Rohner ve Khaleque, 2005). Sıcaklık/şefkat, saldırganlık/düşmanlık, ihmal/kayıtsızlık ve farklılaşmamış reddetmeden oluşan dört adet ölçek vardır. Mevcut çalışmanın odak noktası ebeveyn reddi olduğu için, sıcaklık maddeleri tersine çevrilerek ve ardından tüm maddelerin ortalaması alınarak ebeveyn reddi için tek bir puan oluşturulmuştur. Ölçeğin iç tutarlılığı hem anne reddi için yüksek olarak bulunmuştur, Cronbach's α = .88; baba reddi, Cronbach's α = .90.

Prosedür

Bu çalışma, Türkiye Bilimsel ve Teknolojik Araştırma Kurumu (TÜBİTAK) tarafından finanse edilen "Ebeveynlik Tutumları ve Ebeveyn-Çocuk Etkileşiminin Çocuk ve Ergen Gelişim Sonuçları Üzerindeki Etkileri" adlı daha büyük bir projenin parçasıdır. Türkiye İstatistik Kurumu (TÜİK), ülke çapında temsili bir örneklem elde etmek için şehirleri ve okulları belirlemiştir. İlk olarak, ebeveynlere proje hakkında bir broşür gönderilmiş ve bilgilendirilmiş onam formu alınmıştır. Kabul eden anneler okullara davet edilmiş, ayrıca anneler veya çocuklar aracılığıyla ulaşılan babalara da anketler gönderilmiştir. Veri toplama, geniş bir lisansüstü araştırmacı ve lisans stajyeri grubu ile gerçekleştirilmiştir. Veli verilerinin toplanması tamamlandıktan sonra, takip eden günlerde çocuklardan okul saatleri içinde tabletler aracılığıyla veriler toplanmıştır.

<div align="center">

ÇALIŞMA 1 BULGULAR

</div>

Araştırma soruları 1, 2 ve 3'ü test etmek için iki hiyerarşik regresyon analizi yapılmıştır. Bu regresyon analizleri anne ve babalar için ayrı ayrı yapılmıştır. İlk

adımda anne babanın özellikleri; anne-baba eğitim düzeyi, anne-baba depresyon puanları ve anne-babanın sosyalleşme hedeflerinin iki bileşeni; ikinci adımda sosyal çevre ile ilgili değişkenler, yani evlilik çatışması ve algılanan sosyal destek, üçüncü adımda ise çocukla ilgili değişkenler; yani yaş, cinsiyet ve çocukların olumsuz etkileri modele girilmiştir.

Anneler için sonuçlar

İlk adımda ana özellik değişkenleri modele girilmiş ve model anlamlı olarak bulunmuştur, $F(4,617) = 4.81$, $p < .001$, $R^2_{Adj} = .04$. Bir sonraki adımda aile sosyal çevresi ile ilgili değişkenler modele girilmiştir. Ancak, bu değişkenler model için herhangi bir ek varyans açıklamamıştır, $\Delta F(2, 615) = 2.29$, $p = .10$, $\Delta R^2 = .01$. Üçüncü adımda modele çocuk özellikleri değişkenleri girilmiş ve bu adımda ayrıca bir ek varyans açıklanmamıştır, $\Delta F(3, 612) = .908$, $p = .437$, $\Delta R^2 = .004$. Son adımdaki temel etkilere göre anne eğitim düzeyi algılanan anne reddini olumsuz yordamaktadır, $\beta = -.04$, $SE = .02$, $p = .04$. Daha eğitimli anneler çocukları tarafından daha az reddedici olarak algılanmıştır. Ayrıca hiyerarşik ilişkilik hedeflerinin anne reddini pozitif olarak yordadığı bulunmuştur, $\beta = .08$, $SE = .03$, $p = .01$. Daha hiyerarşik ilişki hedeflerine sahip anneler çocukları tarafından daha reddeden anneler olarak algılanmıştır. Aile sosyal çevresi için algılanan sosyal destek, algılanan anne reddini olumsuz yönde yordamaktadır, $\beta = -.06$, $SE = .03$, $p = .02$. Anneler için algılanan sosyal destek, anne reddinin daha düşük seviyeleri ile ilişkilendirilmiştir.

Babalar için sonuçlar

Algılanan baba reddi sonuçları, ilk adımın anlamlı olduğunu göstermiştir, $F(5, 201) = 3.52$, $p = .01$, $R^2_{Adj} = .06$. Aile sosyal çevre değişkenleri için ikinci adım, herhangi bir ek varyansı açıklamamıştır, $\Delta F(2, 199) = .21$, $p = .81$, $R^2_{Adj} = .05$. Üçüncü adımda çocuk özellikleri değişkenleri denkleme girilmiş ve model için ek varyansı açıklanmıştır, $\Delta F(3, 196) = 3.63$, $p = .01$, $R^2_{Adj} = .09$. Değişkenlerin son adımdaki temel etkilerinin sonuçları, babaların depresyon düzeylerinin, $\beta =$

.19, *SE* = .08, *p* = .01 ve çocuğun olumsuz duygulanımı, *β* = .13, *SE* = .06, *p* = .02, algılanan baba reddini pozitif olarak yordamaktadır. Daha depresif babalar daha reddedici olarak algılanmıştır. Benzer şekilde, olumsuz duygulanımı daha fazla olan çocuklar, babalarını daha reddedici olarak algılamışlardır.

Düzenleyici değişken analizleri sonuçları

Çocuğun olumsuz duygulanımı ve çocuk cinsiyetinin düzenleyici rolünü incelemeyi amaçlayan araştırma soruları 4 ve 5'i test etmek için anne ve babalar için ayrı analizler yapılmıştır. Bu analizlerde, ilk üç adım, yukarıdaki hiyerarşik regresyon analizleriyle aynı olup, dördüncü ve beşinci adımlarda, modele iki yönlü etkileşimler ve üç yönlü etkileşimler tanıtılmıştır.

Düzenleyici değişken analizlerinin sonuçlarına göre anne reddi için çocuk cinsiyeti, olumsuz duygulanım ve sosyal destek değişkenleri arasında üç yönlü bir etkileşim bulunmuştur, *β* = .10, *SE* = .05, *p* = .09; bootstrapt = .12, *SE* = .07, *p* = .08, %95*GA* [-.003, -.112]. Basit eğim testlerinin sonuçları, düşük düzeyde olumsuz duygulanım için, sosyal destek ile anne reddi arasındaki ilişkide cinsiyet farkı olmadığını, oğlanlar için *etki* = -.07, *SE* = .05, *p* = .21, %95 *CI* [-.167, .034]; kızlar için *etki* = -.04, *SE* = .04, *p* = .41, %95*GA* [-.124, .051]. Ancak orta ve yüksek düzeyde olumsuz duygulanım için, sosyal destek anneleri arttıkça algılanan sosyal destek arttıkça, kızlar çocuklar daha az reddedilme algılamışlardır, orta düzeyde olumsuz duygulanım *etki* = -.08, *SE* = .03, *p* = .01, %95*GA* [-.145] , -.020]; yüksek olumsuz, *etki* = -.13, *SE* = .05, *p* <.001, %95*GA* [-.216, -.041].

Babalar için aynı regresyon analizleri yapılmıştır. Analizler, çocuk cinsiyeti ile babaların özerklik hedeflerini destekleme etkileşimi için bir eğilim olduğunu göstermiştir, *β* = -.27, *SE* = .14, *p* = .06; bootstrap = -.27, *SE* = .14, *p* = .06, %95*GA* [-.546, .015]. Basit eğim testinin sonuçları, babaların özerkliği destekleme hedefleri arttıkça, oğlanların özerkliği destekleme hedefleri düşük olan babalara sahip olanlara oğlanlara göre daha az red algıladıklarını

göstermiştir, *etki* = -.21, *SE* = .10, *p* = .04, %95*GA* [-.414, -.010]; kızlar için anlamlı bir etki bulunmamıştır, *etki* = .05, *SE* = .10, *p* = .61, %95*GA* [-.153, .259]. Baba reddi için çocuğun cinsiyeti ve evlilik çatışması arasında anlamlı bir etkileşim bulunmuştur, *β* = .16, *SE* = .08, *p* = .04; bootstrap = .15, *SE* = .08, %95*GA* [.001, .315]. Etkileşim etkisi anlamlı olmasına rağmen, basit eğim testi sonuçları anlamlı farklılık göstermemektedir, kızlar için *etki* = -.07, *SE* = .05, *p* = .13, %95*GA* [-.172, .022] ve oğlanlar, *β* = .08, *SE* = .06, *p* = .18, %95*GA* [-.036, .197]. Her iki eğim de anlamsız olsa da, etkileşim etkisini daha ayrıntılı incelemek için, Johnson-Neyman Tekniği (Johnson ve Neyman, 1936) kullanılarak evlilik çatışması değerleri üzerinden etkileşim etkisi test edilmiştir. Sonuçlar, evlilik çatışması üzerindeki cinsiyet etkisinin, ortalamadan 1.83'den daha yüksek puanları ifade eden evlilik çatışması seviyeleri için anlamlı olduğunu göstermiştir. Her iki analize göre de evlilik çatışmasının alt düzeylerinde cinsiyet farkı olmamasına rağmen, evlilik çatışmasının yüksek düzeylerinde erkeklerin kızlara göre daha fazla baba reddi algıladıkları sonucuna varılmıştır.

Son olarak, baba reddi için çocuk olumsuz duygulanımı ve evlilik çatışması etkileşimi için bir eğilim bulunmuştur, *β* = .12, *SE* = .06, *p* = .06; bootstrap = .12, *SE* = .06, %95*GA* [.002, .238]. Basit eğim testlerinin sonuçları, çocukların olumsuz duygulanımının düşük seviyeleri için, babaların evlilik çatışması ve baba reddi için olumsuz bir ilişki olduğunu göstermiştir., düşük olumsuz duygulanım, *etki* = -.16, *SE* = .06, *p* = .02, %95*GA* [-.288, -.025]. Çocuklarda daha düşük düzeyde olumsuz duygulanım olduğunda, babaların artan evlilik çatışması, bu çocuklar babalarını daha az reddeden babalar olarak algılamışlardır. Ancak bu ilişki, daha yüksek olumsuz etki seviyeleri için anlamlı değildir, *etki* = -.02, *SE* = .06, *p* = .76, %95*GA* [-.130, .096].

Son olarak, beşinci araştırma sorusu için ebeveynlerin sosyalleşme hedefleri ile ebeveyn reddi arasındaki ebeveynler arası ilişkiler ikili analiz kullanılarak test edilmiştir. Ebeveynlerin sosyalleşme hedefleri yordayıcı değişkenler olarak kullanılmış, ebeveynlerin yetkili ebeveynlik inançları aracı değişkenler olarak kullanılmış ve ebeveyn reddi değişkenleri sonuç değişkenleri olarak modele

girilmiştir. Analiz sonuçları, özerkliği destekleyen sosyalleşme hedefleri yüksek olan annelerin daha yüksek yetkili ebeveynlik inançları olduğunu göstermiştir, β = .62, p < .05, ve babaların da yüksek yetkili ebeveynlik inançları olduğu bulunmuştur, β = .22, p <.05. Babalar için, sosyalleşme hedeflerini destekleyen özerklik, yalnızca kendi yetkili ebeveynlik inançlarını öngörmüştür, β = .31, p <.05. Annelerin yetkili ebeveynlik inançları ile anne reddi arasında anlamlı bir ilişki bulunmazken, babaların yetkili ebeveynlik inançları hem anne hem de baba reddini negatif yönde yordamaktadır, β = -.21, p <.05, β = -.19, p <. 05, sırasıyla.

Ayrıca, anne reddi için dolaylı ilişkiler, hem anne hem de baba özerkliğini destekleyen hedefler için anlamlı olarak bulunmuştur, sırasıyla dolaylı *etki* = - 2.35, p = .01, *dolaylı etki* = -2.69, p = .02. Benzer şekilde, baba tarafından reddedilme için dolaylı ilişkiler, hem annelik hem de baba özerkliğini destekleyen hedefler için anlamlı olarak bulunmuştur, sırasıyla *dolaylı etki* = - 2.23, p = .01, *dolaylı etki* = -2.52, p = .02. Hem anne hem de baba özerkliğini destekleyen hedefler, yalnızca babaların yetkili ebeveynlik inançlarıyla pozitif ilişkiliydi ve bu da daha az anne ve baba reddi ile sonuçlanmıştır.

ÇALIŞMA 1 TARTIŞMA

Ebeveyn Özellikleri

Mevcut çalışma, ebeveynlerin özellikleri olarak ebeveynlerin eğitim düzeyleri, depresif belirtiler ve sosyalleşme hedeflerinin her iki ebeveyn için rolünü incelemektedir. Ebeveynlerin eğitim düzeyleri, ebeveynliğin bir belirleyicisi olarak düşünülmektedir. Eğitim düzeyi yüksek olan anneler daha destekleyici davranışlar sergilemekte ve çocuklarıyla daha fazla zaman geçirmektedir. Benzer şekilde mevcut çalışmada da anne-babanın eğitim düzeyinin anne-baba reddini olumsuz yordaması beklenmiştir. İlişkilerin yönü her iki ebeveyn için de beklendiği gibi olsa da, sadece anne reddi için anlamlı olarak bulunmuştur. Bu sonuçlar, ailelerdeki geleneksel ebeveynlik rolleriyle açıklanabilir. Babalar ev dışında daha fazla zaman geçirdikleri için çocuklarıyla daha az etkileşim şansı

160

olabilir. Ayrıca, ebeveynlerin depresyon düzeyleri incelenmiştir. Önceki çalışmalar depresyonun olumsuz ebeveynlikle güçlü bir şekilde ilişkili olduğu sonucuna varmıştır. Mevcut çalışmada da benzer şekilde, her iki ebeveynin de depresyon düzeylerinin algılanan reddedilmeyi yordayacağı varsayılmıştır. Sonuçlar, yalnızca baba reddi için anlamlı olduğunu göstermiştir. Bu farklılık, çocukların anne-çocuk ve baba-çocuk ilişkilerine ilişkin algılarındaki farklılıklarla açıklanabilir. Anneler, çocuklarıyla ilişkilerinde daha iyi duygusal uyum sağlayabilirler, bu da onların daha az reddedici olarak algılanmasına neden olabilmektedir. Ayrıca, Türkiye'de daha önce yapılan araştırmalar, depresyonun olumsuz rolünün yalnızca yüksek SES'li anneler için önemli olduğu sonucuna varmıştır; fakat düşük SES örneklerinde bu ilişkiye dair bir kanıt yoktur (Baydar ve diğerleri, 2014). Buna paralel olarak, mevcut çalışmadaki örneklemin ağırlıklı olarak düşük-orta SES örneği olduğu düşünülmüştür. Bu sonuç, Türkiye'deki annelerin çoğunluğu için birincil bakımveren olarak sahip oldukları bazı kültürel yansımaları da yansıtıyor olabilir. Burada mevcut örneklemin klinik olmayan bir popülasyon olduğunun ve depresyon ölçümünün patolojik bir ölçüm olmadığının da altını çizmek önemlidir. Ebeveynlerin sosyalleştirme hedeflerini test etmek için mevcut çalışmada ebeveynlerin özerkliği destekleme ve hiyerarşik ilişkisellik sosyalleşme hedefleri incelenmiştir. Özerkliği destekleyen hedeflerin reddedilme ile negatif ilişkili olması beklenirken, hiyerarşik ilişkilik hedeflerinin pozitif olarak ilişkili olması beklenmektedir. Mevcut çalışmanın sonuçlarına göre, her iki ebeveyn için de özerkliği destekleme hedefleri ile reddedilme arasında anlamlı bir ilişki bulunmamıştır. Türkiye'deki araştırmalar, eğitim düzeyi veya hedefleri ne olursa olsun, annelerin çocuklarına daha yüksek düzeyde sıcaklık gösterme eğiliminde olduğu sonucuna varmıştır (Şen ve diğerleri, 2015). Bu nedenle, annelerin özerkliği destekleyen hedeflerinin düzeyi, çocukları tarafından algılanan ebeveynlik düzeyine eşit olmayabilir. Babaların için ise Türkiye'de Babalık Raporu'nun (Akçınar, 2017) sonuçlarına göre, babaların çoğu - özellikle oğlan çocuklar için - çocuklarının özerk bireyler olmasının önemini vurgulamıştır. Bu nedenle doğrudan ilişkiden ziyade çocuğun cinsiyetine yönelik bir etkileşim söz konusu olabilir. Mevcut araştırmanın sonuçlarına göre babaların özerkliği destekleme hedefleri, oğlanların algıladığı

reddedilmeleriyle olumsuz yönde ilişkiliyken, aynı ilişki kız çocukları için bulunmamıştır. Kültürel değerlerin bir yansıması olarak bu bulgular, babaların geleneksel ebeveynlik rollerini de desteklemektedir. Annelerin sosyalleşme hedefleri için, önceki bulgularla uyumlu olarak, hiyerarşik ilişkisellik hedefleri ile sadece anne reddi arasında pozitif bir ilişki bulunmuştur. Kurallara uyma ve yaşlılara saygı duyma beklentileri olan annelerin, daha otoriter bir ebeveynlik yapmaları muhtemeldir. Baba reddi için benzer sonuçlar beklenirken, hiyerarşik ilişki ve baba reddi için anlamlı bir ilişki bulunamamıştır. Babaların ailelerde otorite figürü olması, hiyerarşik ilişki hedefleri ile baba reddi arasında bir ilişki olmamasının nedeni olabilir (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2012).

Bu çalışmada, ebeveynlerin sosyalleşme hedefleri ile algılanan reddedilme arasındaki bağlantı, ebeveynlerin yetkili ebeveynlik inançları üzerinden incelenmiştir. Bu ilişki incelenirken, daha önce yapılan araştırmalar ebeveynler arasındaki olası karşılıklı ilişkileri vurguladığı için anne ve baba arasındaki ikili bağ da test edilmiştir (Akçınar, 2017). Sonuçlar, özerkliği destekleyen hedefler ve reddedilme arasında doğrudan bir ilişki olmamasına rağmen, babaların (annelerin değil) yetkili ebeveynlik inançlarının her iki ebeveyn için bu bağlantıya aracılık ettiğini göstermiştir. Sonuçlar, babaların ebeveynlik hakkındaki inançlarının, aileler içinde algılanan ebeveynlik üzerinde daha etkili bir role sahip olduğunu göstermiştir. Hem annelerin hem de babaların özerkliği destekleyen hedefleri, otoriter ebeveynlik inançlarıyla pozitif olarak ilişkilidir. Bu sonuçlar daha olumlu tutumlara sahip olan babaların aile içindeki olumsuz algıyı azalttığını desteklemektedir. Sonuçlar aynı zamanda hem babaların ebeveynliğini inceleyen daha ileri çalışmalara duyulan ihtiyacın hem de babalara yönelik olası müdahale programlarının önemini vurgulamıştır.

Mevcut çalışmada, aile sosyal bağlamı, sosyal destek ve ebeveynlerin bildirdiği evlilik çatışması olarak incelenmiştir. Algılanan sosyal desteğin her iki ebeveyn için de koruyucu bir faktör olacağı varsayılmış fakat sadece anne reddi için anlamlı bir ilişki bulunmuştur. Anneler yakın çevresinden daha fazla destek algıladıkça çocukları da annelerinden daha az reddedilme algılamaktadır.

Sonuçlar, çocukların günlük ihtiyaçlarından annelerin sorumlu olduğu ve çevreden daha fazla desteğe ihtiyaç duyabilecekleri şeklinde yorumlanabilir. Babalar için ise bu ilişki anlamlı değildir. Annelerin aksine, babalar günlük çocuk bakım sorumluluklarına pek dahil olmayabilirler. Bu nedenle, ebeveynlik için algılanan destek babalar için pozitif bir etki yaratmayabilir. Ebeveynlerin bildirdiği evlilik çatışması da ebeveyn reddinin yordayıcılarından biri olarak test edilmiştir. Mevcut çalışmada, evlilik çatışmasının her iki ebeveyn için daha fazla reddedilme ile ilişkili olması beklenmektedir. Fakat, bu bağlamda herhangi anlamlı bir ilişki bulunamamıştır. Bununla birlikte, çocuğun olumsuz duygulanımı ve cinsiyetin düzenleyici rolü test edildiğinde, yalnızca baba reddi için anlamlı etkileşim bulunmuştur. Evlilik çatışması ve çocuk olumsuz etki etkileşiminin sonuçları, Telafi Hipotezini desteklemektedir. Babalar daha fazla evlilik çatışması bildirdiklerinde, sadece olumsuz duygulanımı düşük olan çocuklar daha az reddetme algılamışlardır ancak olumsuz duygulanımı daha yüksek olan çocuklar için bir fark bulunamamıştır. Evlilik çatışmalarında babaların ya kızlarıyla ya da kolay çocukları ile aile içinde bir ittifak bulmaya çalıştıkları tahmin edilebilir. Destekler şekilde, babalar daha yüksek evlilik çatışması bildirdiğinde, kızlar daha az reddedilme algılama eğilimindeyken, erkeklerin daha fazla reddedilme algılama eğiliminde olduğu bulunmuştur. Oysa babalar düşük evlilik çatışması bildirdiğinde, kız ve oğlan çocukları için bir farklılık bulunamamıştır. Mevcut çalışmada annelerin evlilik çatışması ve reddedilme için anlamlı bir ilişki bulunmamıştır.

Test edilen alanlardan biri de çocuk özellikleridir. Çocukların kendine has özellikleri hem ebeveynlerin davranışlarını hem de çocukların ebeveynlerine yönelik algılarını şekillendirebileceğinden, çocuk özellikleri olarak test edilen çocuğun cinsiyeti ve olumsuz duygulanımın aracı rolleri de test edilmiştir. Mevcut çalışmada çocuklar için yaş aralığı geniştir. Bu nedenle tüm analizlerde çocukların yaşı kontrol edilmiştir. Çocuğun cinsiyeti hakkında belirli bir hipotez yoktur ve beklendiği gibi çocukların yaşı için anlamlı bir ilişki yoktur. Kız ve oğlan çocuklar için farklılaşan sonuçları belirlemek için çocuk cinsiyetinin rolü de çalışma kapsamında test edilmiştir. Mevcut çalışmanın sonuçları, algılanan

reddedilme açısından çocuk cinsiyeti ile doğrudan anlamlı bir ilişki ortaya koymamış olsa da, çocuk cinsiyeti için etkileşim etkileri bulunmuştur. Sonuçlar, evlilik çatışmalarının yüksek olduğu durumlarda özellikle baba reddi için çocuk cinsiyetinin önemli olduğunu ve annelerin sosyal desteğinin düşük olduğu durumlarda olumsuz duygulanımı yüksek kız çocuklarının daha çok ebeveyn reddi algıladığını göstermiştir. Son olarak, bu çalışmada çocuğun olumsuz duygulanımı incelenmiştir. Baba tarafından reddedilme ile doğrudan bağlantısının yanı sıra sonuçlar, aynı zamanda çocuk mizacının ebeveyn reddi ile aile sosyal çevre değişkenlerinin bağlantıları üzerindeki rolünü de vurgulamıştır.

ÇALIŞMA 2 GİRİŞ

Pandemi döneminde sosyal hayat düzeninde birçok değişiklik ve kısıtlamalar olmuştur ve kısıtlamalar ailelerin ekonomik durumu, aile ve sosyal yaşamları için birtakım olumsuz sonuçlar doğurmuştur (Brown, 2020). COVID-19 pandemisinin aile hayatı üzerindeki etkisi ve ebeveynler için artan yük göz önüne alındığında, olumsuz ebeveynlik uygulamalarında bir artış beklenmektedir (Wu ve Xu, 2020). Amerikan Psikoloji Derneği raporlarına (2020) göre, çoğu ebeveynin, ebeveyn olmayanlara kıyasla pandemi nedeniyle artan stres seviyelerine sahip olduğu belirtilmiştir. Türkiye'de de, pandeminin erken evrelerinde ebeveynler psikolojik sıkıntı ve ebeveynlikte zorluklar yaşadıkları bulunmuştur (Göl-Güven ve ark., 2020). Mevcut çalışmanın amacı pandemi öncesi ve pandeminin 8. ve 9. aylarında annelerin psikolojik sıkıntı düzeylerindeki ve olumsuz ebeveynliklerindeki değişiklikleri incelemektir.

Bu çalışma, anneler için finansal, çevresel ve psikolojik zorluklara odaklanarak pandemi sırasında annenin psikolojik sıkıntısı ve olumsuz ebeveynlik ilişkisini incelemiştir. Bu bağlantı incelenirken, gelirdeki azalma, ev ortamındaki kaos ve annelerin pandemi ile ilgili kaygıları, annenin psikolojik sıkıntılarının ve çocuklar tarafından algılanan reddedilmenin öncülleri olarak test edilmiştir. Ayrıca psikolojik sıkıntı ve ebeveynlik için koruyucu faktörler olarak sosyal destek ve evlilik doyumu incelenmiştir. Önceki araştırmalar, ailelerin azalan gelirinin

ebeveynler için artan strese neden olabileceğini göstermiştir. Bu stres ise ailelerde ebeveyn-çocuk ilişkilerini bozmaktadır (Conger ve Donellan, 2007; Çakmak ve Güre, 2020). Ailelerin yaşadığı ekonomik sorunların, eşler arasındaki olası çatışmaları ve sorunları artırmakta ve ebeveynlerin yaşadığı psikolojik sıkıntı, ebeveynlerin evlilik ilişkisinin kalitesinin düşmesiyle sonuçlanmaktadır. Bu nedenle, mevcut çalışmanın ana amaçlarından biri, azalan gelirin psikolojik sıkıntı ve algılanan anne reddi ile bağlantılı olup olmadığını incelemektir. Maddi sorunların yanı sıra anneler için bir başka stres kaynağı da aile ortamındaki sorunlar olabilir. Ev ortamının çocuk gelişimi üzerindeki önemli rolü sürekli olarak vurgulanmıştır (Crespo ve diğerleri, 2013). Bilişsel olarak uyarıcı, olumlu ve sıcak bir ev ortamı, olumlu ebeveynlik ve çocukların sağlıklı gelişimi ile ilişkilidir. Buna karşılık, daha az uyarıcı ve düzensiz bir ev ortamı, olumsuz ebeveynlik ve çocuklar açısından olumsuz gelişimsel çıkarla ilişkili bulunmuştur. Özellikle, ev ortamındaki kaos, yüksek düzeyde düzensizlik ve uyarı olarak tanımlanmaktadır (Matheny ve diğerleri, 1995). COVID-19 salgını sırasında, hane halkı kaosu, sorunları ve çatışmaları artırması muhtemel olan evde kalma emirleri nedeniyle aileler zamanlarının çoğunu evde geçirmişlerdir (Evans ve diğerleri, 2020). Örneğin, aile kaosunu inceleyen bir çalışma, birçok ailenin pandemi sırasında orta ila yüksek kaos olarak kategorize edildiğini açıklamaktadır (Kracht ve diğerleri, 2021). Ayrıca Türkiye'de COVID-19 pandemisi sırasındaki aile problemlerini nitel yöntemlerle inceleyen bir araştırma, pandemi sırasında en çok karşılaşılan sorunların aile sorumluluklarındaki düzensizlik ve aksamalarla ilgili olduğunu göstermiştir (Barış ve Taylan, 2020). Anneler yeni koşullara uyum sağlamaya ve pandeminin belirsizliği ile başa çıkmaya çalışırken evde bozulan aile rutinleri de psikolojik sıkıntıların artmasına ve dolaylı olarak ebeveynlik davranışları üzerinde olumsuz etkilere neden olduğu söylenebilir (Humphreys ve diğerleri, 2020). Mevcut çalışmada, evdeki kargaşanın annelerin psikolojik stresini artıracağı ve bunun da algılanan ebeveyn reddinde artışa yol açabileceği beklenmiştir. COVID-19 pandemisinde durumun belirsizliği, enfekte olma, hayatını kaybetme veya sevdiklerini kaybetme korkusu nedeniyle kişilerin kaygı seviyelerinde ciddi bir artış olmuştur (Huang & Zhao, 2020; Mertens ve ark., 2020). Yakın zamanda

165

yapılan bir araştırma, COVID-19 korkusunun ebeveynlerin stres düzeylerini etkilediğini ve çocuklar için olumsuz sonuçları olduğunu da göstermiştir (Spinelli ve diğerleri, 2020). Bu nedenle bu çalışmada annelerin enfeksiyon kapma ya da sevdiklerini kaybetme kaygılarını ifade eden pandemi kaygısı incelenmiştir. Pandemi ile ilgili kaygılarının artan psikolojik sıkıntı ile ilişkilendirilmesi ve daha az etkili ebeveynlik uygulamalarına yol açması beklenmektedir.

Stres altında kalan bütün ebeveynler daha çok psikolojik sıkıntı veya daha olumsuz ebeveynlik riski altında değildir. Birtakım faktörlerin stresörlerin etkisini tamponlayabileceğini düşünülmektedir. Özellikle destekleyici bir aile ortamı ve evlilik doyumu, annelerin psikolojik sıkıntıları ve dolayısıyla olumsuz ebeveynlik uygulamaları için koruyucu faktörler olarak hizmet edebilir. Ebeveynlerin yüksek stres yaşadığı zorlu zamanlarda ebeveynlerin yakın çevrelerinden aldığı sosyal destek koruyucu bir rol oynayabilir (Koeske, 1990). Örneğin, Katrina Kasırgası öncesinde annelerin sosyal destek algılarını inceleyen bir araştırma, afet öncesi sosyal desteğin anneler üzerindeki olumsuz psikolojik etki olasılığını azalttığını bulmuştur (Rhodes ve ark., 2010). Pandemi ile ilgili olarak sosyal mesafe, sokağa çıkma yasağı ve evde kalma kararları nedeniyle ebeveynler sosyal çevrelerinden ayrı kaldığını ve sosyal hayatları bozulmuş olduğunu hissetmiş olabilir. Fakat pandemi sırasında ebeveynler, telefon veya video görüşmeleri yoluyla yakınlarıyla sanal bir bağlantı kurarak sosyal destek kaynaklarını sürdürmeye çalışmışlardır (Weaver & Swank, 2021). Benzer şekilde, pandemi ile ilgili stresörler nedeniyle evlilik çatışması riski olsa da, yalnızca bazılarının önemli evlilik sorunları yaşaması muhtemeldir. Örneğin, son araştırmalar pandemi sırasında babaların çocuk bakımına daha fazla dahil olmaya başladığı ve anneler çalışıyorsa babaların da ev işlerine daha fazla dahil olduğu sonucuna varmıştır (Carlson ve ark., 2020). Literatürdeki son bulgular göz önüne alındığında, yakın çevresinden sosyal destek alan veya evlilik doyumu yüksek olan annelerin pandemiye bağlı stresörlerin olumsuz sonuçlarını daha az aşamaları beklenmektedir. Yukarıda belirtilen konular ve en son bulgular doğrultusunda, mevcut çalışma aşağıdaki araştırma sorularını ve hipotezleri araştırmayı amaçlamıştır;

1) Annelerin psikolojik sıkıntısı, pandemi ile ilişkili stresörler, gelirde azalma, evde kaos ve COVID-19 pandemisi sırasında annenin pandemi kaygısı ile çocuklar tarafından algılanan reddedilme arasındaki bağlantıya aracılık ediyor mu?

Pandemi ile ilgili kaygı, gelirdeki azalma ve evdeki kaosun zaman içinde annenin psikolojik sıkıntısını artıracağı ve bunun da anne babalık döneminde çocuklar için olumsuz ebeveynliğin artmasına neden olacağını varsayılmaktadır.

2) Pandemi döneminde annelerin evlilik doyumu ve algıladıkları sosyal desteğin bu aracılık bağlantılarını yordamada rolü var mı?

Annelerin evlilik doyumu ve algılanan sosyal desteğinin, annenin psikolojik sıkıntısını azaltacak koruyucu faktörler olacağı ve dolayısıyla daha az reddedilme ile sonuçlanacağı varsayılmaktadır.

ÇALIŞMA 2 YÖNTEM

Örneklem

Bu çalışma için, Çalışma 1'in katılımcıları ile tekrar temasa geçilmiş ve bu çalışmaya katılmaları için davet edilmişlerdir. Çalışma 2'ye 340 anne ve 337 çocuk katılmıştır. Araştırmaya 126 (%37) ilkokul, 125 (%37) ortaokul ve 86 (%26) lise öğrencisi katılmıştır. Annelerin yaş ortalaması 37,55 (SS = 5,73)' tir. Annelerin 127'si (%38) örgün eğitim görmemiş veya ilkokul mezunu, 73'ü (%22) ortaokul mezunu, 105'i (%31) lise mezunu ve 32'si (%9) üniversite mezunudur.

Ebeveyn reddi için Çalışma 1'deki ölçek kullanılmıştır. Ölçeğin iç tutarlılığı 2. çalışmada da yüksektir, Cronbach's α = .92. Hane geliri değişimini ölçmek için annelere tek bir soru sorulmuştur: "Pandemi nedeniyle aylık hane gelirinde bir değişiklik oldu mu?" Cevaplara göre 1 = gelir azaldı 0 = değişiklik yok veya gelir arttı şeklinde kodlanmıştır. Katılımcılardan 143'ü (%42,1) gelirlerinde bir düşüş bildirirken, geri kalanı (n = 197, %57,9) Çalışma 1'deki ilk değerlendirmeye

kıyasla gelirlerinde herhangi bir değişiklik veya artış olmadığını bildirmiştir. Annelerin pandemi kaygılarını ölçmek için proje ekibi tarafından mevcut çalışma için 11 adet dörtlü Likert soru (1 = hiçbir zaman, 4 = her zaman) hazırlanmıştır. Açımlayıcı faktör analizleri, tüm maddelerin 0.25'in üzerinde bir yüke sahip olduğunu ve bunların hepsinin bir faktöre yüklendiğini göstermiştir. Ölçeğin iç tutarlılığı yüksektir, Cronbach's α = .87 (Confusion, Hubbub ve Order Scale Chaos, Matheny ve diğerleri, 1995; Sümer ve diğerleri, 2013). Pandemi sırasında ev ortamındaki kaosu ölçmek için annelere 15 maddelik Aile Ortamı Kaos Ölçeği verilmiştir. Sorular altılı Likert tipinde (1=hiç doğru değil, 5=tamamen doğru) olup ölçek tek faktörlü bir yapıya sahiptir. Mevcut çalışma için iç tutarlılık yüksektir, Cronbach's α = .84. Annelerin psikolojik sıkıntılarını değerlendirmek için Depresyon Anksiyete Stress Ölçeği verilmiştir. Ölçek üçlü Likert tipi, 0=hiçbir zaman ile 3=her zaman arasında değişen 21 maddeden oluşmaktadır. Çalışma 2 için ölçekteki tüm maddelerin bileşik puanı kullanılmıştır. Ölçeğin iç tutarlılığı her iki zaman noktasında da yüksektir, Zaman 1 Cronbach's α = .87, Zaman 2 Cronbach's α = .90. Ebeveynlerin 2. zamandaki algıladıkları sosyal desteği ölçmek için Çok Boyutlu Sosyal Destek Ölçeği kullanılmıştır (Zimet ve diğerleri, 1988; Eker ve diğerleri, 2001). Ölçeğin iç tutarlılığı Zaman 2 için yüksektir, Zaman 2 Cronbach's α = .93. Çalışma 2'nin araştırma sorusu doğrultusunda, analizlerde sadece Zaman 2'den alınan puanlar kullanılmıştır. Annelerin evlilik doyumunu ölçmek için altı maddelik İlişki Mutluluğu Ölçeği kullanılmıştır (Fletcher ve diğerleri, 1990; Tuterel-Kışlak, 1997). Ölçek, beşli Likert tipi, 1= kesinlikle katılmıyorum ile 5=kesinlikle katılıyorum arasında değişen altı maddeden oluşmaktadır. Ölçeğin iç tutarlılığı yüksektir (Cronbach's α=.85).

Prosedür

Çalışma 1'deki 750 anne ve çocuktan alınan veriler, Türkiye'de COVID-19 önlemleri uygulanmadan bir ay önce toplanmıştır. Kasım 2020 - Ocak 2021 tarihleri arasında 417 anne ve çocukla tekrar iletişime geçilmiştir. Çevrimiçi bir platformu aracılığıyla hazırlanan anketleri hem annelerin hem de çocukların

doldurmaları istenmiştir. Ailelerin internet erişiminin olmadığı durumlarda telefon görüşmesi yapılmıştır ($n = 18$).

ÇALIŞMA 2 BULGULAR

İlk olarak, anne reddindeki varyansın ne kadarının Düzey 2'yi açıkladığını incelemek için zaman içinde tekrarlanan ölçümler için yalnızca kesişim modelleri analiz edilmiştir (Hox, 2010; Snijders & Bosker, 2012). Mevcut çalışma için ICC.57'dir, bu da anne reddindeki varyans oranının katılımcılar arası seviye ile açıklandığını göstermektedir (Düzey 2). İkinci olarak, anne reddinde zaman içinde ortalama doğrusal değişim oranı, çalışmanın zaman ölçütü olarak zaman değişkeni girilerek incelenmiştir. Sonuçlar, anne reddi ortalamalarında zamanla değişen bir fark olduğunu göstermektedir, $\beta = -.13$, $SE = .03$, $p < .001$. Bu adımda psikolojik sıkıntı da Düzey 1 değişkeni olarak girilmiştir. Annenin psikolojik sıkıntısı ile reddedilme arasındaki bağlantı için, pozitif bir ilişki bulunmuştur, $\beta = .11$, $SE = .04$, $p = .001$. Veriler çok düzeyli modellemeye uygun olduğundan sonraki analizlerde araştırmanın araştırma soruları Aracılık ve Kontrollü Aracılık analizleri ile test edilmiştir.

İlk araştırma sorusunu test etmek için gelirdeki azalma, evdeki kaos ve annelerin COVID-19 ile ilgili kaygıları için ayrı ayrı üç aracılık analizi yapılmıştır. Her analizde kalan iki yordayıcı Düzey 2 değişkeni olarak ve zaman ise Düzey 1 değişkeni olarak modele girilmiştir. İlk olarak, annenin psikolojik sıkıntısının, gelirdeki düşüş ile ebeveyn reddi arasındaki aracı rolü test edilmiştir ve fakat anlamlı bir etki bulunamamıştır, $\beta = .01$, $SE = .01$, $p = .14$, %95 GA [-.002, .031]. İkinci olarak, aynı model sadece annelerin COVID-19 ile ilgili kaygısı ile test edilmiştir. Dolaylı bağlantı anlamlıdır, $\beta = .02$, SE $= .01$, p $= .02$, %95GA [.005, .035]. COVID-19 pandemisine bağlı yüksek kaygı, annelerin psikolojik sıkıntısı ile ilişkili ve annenin psikolojik sıkıntısı da pandemide daha fazla anne reddi algısı ile ilişkili olarak bulunmuştur. Üçüncüsü, aynı model için aile ortamındaki kaos yordayıcı değişken olarak alınmıştır. Bu dolaylı etki de anlamlı olarak bulunmuştur, $\beta = .00$, $SE = .00$, $p = .02$, %95GA [.001, .004]. Aile ortamındaki

yüksek kaos, annelerin daha fazla psikolojik sıkıntısı ile ilişkili, bu da pandemide daha fazla anne reddi algısı ile ilişkili olarak bulunmuştur.

COVID-19 deneyimleri ile annelerin psikolojik sıkıntıları arasındaki ilişkinin moderatörleri olarak evlilik doyumu ve sosyal destek ilişkileri koşullu aracı analizi ile test edilmiştir. Annenin COVID-19 pandemisine bağlı kaygısı yordayıcı değişken ve pandemide sosyal destek moderatör olduğunda, koşullu aracı etkisi anlamlı bulunmamıştır, β = -.002, %95GA [-.015,.010]. Benzer şekilde, aile ortamındaki kaosun yordayıcı, sosyal desteğin moderatör olduğu model için, koşullu aracı etkisi anlamlı bulunmamıştır, β = .001, %95GA [-.001 .017]. İkinci olarak, pandemide evlilik doyumu, yordayıcı değişkenler ile annelerin psikolojik sıkıntıları arasındaki moderatör değişken olarak girilmiştir. Annenin pandemi ile ilgili kaygısının koşullu aracı analizleri için pandemide evlilik doyumu etkileşimi anlamlı bulunmamıştır, β = -.009, %95GA [-.022, .001]. Benzer şekilde, aile ortamında kaos ve pandemide evlilik doyumu etkileşimi anlamlı bulunmamıştır, β = .001, %95GA [-.001, .002].

ÇALIŞMA 2 TARTIŞMA

Beklendiği gibi, mevcut çalışmanın sonuçları annelerin pandemi ile ilgili kaygısı veya aile ortamındaki kaos gibi psikososyal stresörlerin, annelerin artan psikolojik sıkıntı düzeyleriyle ilişkili olduğu ve bunun da pandemi sırasında algılanan anne reddinin artmasına neden olduğu bulunmuştur. Mevcut çalışmada evdeki yüksek kaosun, anneler için daha fazla psikolojik sıkıntı yarattığı ve olumsuz ebeveynlik ile ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur. Bu bulgu, ebeveynlik için aile ortamında kaos riskine ilişkin önceki literatürü doğrularken, aynı zamanda, ebeveynler ve aileler için, pandemide aile rutinlerini planlamanın, ebeveynlik için olumlu sonuçlar çıkarabileceği mesajını da vurgulamaktadır. Ek olarak, annelerin pandemi ile ilgili kaygısı, daha yüksek psikolojik sıkıntı ve olumsuz ebeveynlik ile ilişkili olarak bulunmuştur. Bu duruma öneri olarak anneler için duygu düzenleme stratejilerinin geliştirilmesi, pandeminin annelerin üzerindeki olumsuz etkisini azaltabilir. Örneğin, ebeveynlerin duygu düzenleme

stratejilerine odaklanan bir çevrimiçi müdahale projesi, bilişsel yeniden değerlendirme stratejilerinin - duygusal tepkiden önce düşünceleri yeniden şekillendirme -ebeveynlerin pandemi ile ilgili stresle başa çıkmalarında yardımcı olduğu sonucuna varmıştır (Preuss ve diğerleri, 2021). Annelerin artan endişesine olası çözüm önerileri yanıltıcı bilgilere maruz kalmayı sınırlamak, ev sorumluluklarına ara vermek veya kısa yürüyüşler gibi egzersizler yaparak kaygılarını azaltmak olabilir. Son araştırmalar, pandemi sırasında ebeveynlik için gelir kaybının olumsuz sonuçlarına da bir temel sağlamaktadır fakat beklenin aksine, bu çalışmada pandemiden kaynaklanan gelir kaybı ile ebeveynlik arasında doğrudan veya dolaylı bir bağlantı bulunamamıştır. Mevcut çalışmanın örnekleminin çoğunluğunun ev hanımı olması sebebiyle hane gelirindeki kaybının negatif etkilerini daha az etkilemiş olabilecekleri düşünülmektedir.

Bu çalışmanın ikinci amacı olarak, algılanan sosyal desteğin ve evlilik çatışmasının annenin psikolojik sıkıntılarının aracılık bağları için koruyucu rolleri incelenmiştir. Mevcut çalışmada, pandemi sırasında sosyal destek, psikolojik sıkıntı ve ebeveyn reddi ile negatif ilişkili olsa da, sosyal desteğin diğer değişkenlerle etkileşimi bulunmamıştır. Fakat gelecek çalışmalarda sosyal desteğin kaynaklarının incelenmesi ve pandemi öncesi sosyal destekteki değişikliklerin dikkate alınması, sosyal desteğin rolünün daha iyi anlaşılmasına yardımcı olabilir. Ayrıca, mevcut çalışmada pandemi sırasında evlilik doyumunun bir rolü bulunmamıştır. Bu durumda genel evlilik doyumundan ziyade eşlerin ev işleriyle ilgilenmesi ve işlere katkı sağlaması annelerin psikolojik sıkıntılarına karşı ebeveynlikte koruyucu bir role sahip olabilir.

TARTIŞMA VE SONUÇ

Ebeveynliği yordayan değişkenlerden bir tanesi ebeveyn depresyonunudur (Lovejoy ve diğerleri, 2000). Mevcut çalışma, yalnızca babalar için ebeveyn depresyonunun ebeveynlikle ilişkisi için kanıt bulmuştur. Bu bulgular, annelerin çocuklarıyla olan ilişkilerine olumsuzları yansıtma konusunda daha dirençli olup, babaların ise olumsuz belirtilerini ebeveynliğe yansıtma ihtimalinin daha fazla

olduğu şeklinde yorumlanabilir. Bununla birlikte - annelerin depresyonunun aksine- ikinci çalışmada annelerin psikolojik sıkıntıları, stresli koşullarda olumsuz ebeveynlik ile bağlantılı olarak bulunmuştur. Depresyon ve psikolojik sıkıntı bulgularındaki farklılık, Taraban ve Shaw'un (2018) tahminlerini doğrulamaktadır. Olumlu ebeveyn-çocuk ilişkileri ve ebeveynlik için sadece depresyon gibi psikopatolojik durumlardan ziyade annelerin genel psikolojik iyilik halinin daha önemli olduğunu vurgulamışlardır.

Türkiye'de, ebeveynlerin çoğunluğu, yaşlılara saygıyı vurgulayan ve toplumun normlarına uygun olan hiyerarşik ilişkilik değerlerine daha yüksek düzeyde sahiptir. Ancak Kağıtçıbaşı'nın (2007) vurguladığı gibi Türkiye, çocukların özerkliğine de değer veren, birbirine bağımlı bir kültür olarak görülmektedir. Mevcut çalışmanın sonuçları, annelerin hiyerarşik ilişki hedeflerinin daha olumsuz ebeveynlik ile ilişkili olduğunu göstermiştir. Öte yandan, daha fazla özerkliği destekleyici hedeflere sahip babalar, özellikle oğulları için daha az reddeden babalar olarak algılanmışlardır. Her iki bulgu da sosyalleşme hedeflerinin derecesinin ebeveynlikle nasıl ilişkili olduğunu vurgulamaktadır. Son olarak ikili analiz sonuçlarına göre annelerden ziyade babaların eşitlikçi tutumları ailedeki iklimi her iki ebeveyn için de olumlu etkiler ve aile dinamiklerini anlamak için çok önemlidir. Bu, tutumlarının aile içi dinamikler üzerinde olumlu bir etkisi olduğundan, babalar için ebeveynlik müdahalesinin önemini bir kez daha vurgulamaktadır.

Aile sosyal bağlam değişkenleri açısından, sosyal desteğin anneler için koruyucu bir faktör olduğu bulunmuştur. Evlilik içi çatışma sonuçlarına bakıldığında, evlilikteki problemlerin özellikle babalar için bir risk faktörü olduğu görülmektedir. Sonuç olarak, annelerin ebeveynlikte sosyal destekten fayda sağladığı ve babaların evlilikteki problemleri aile içinde daha çok yansıttığı bulguları göz önüne alındığında babalar için geliştirilecek ebeveynlik eğitim programlarının ihtiyacı görülmektedir.

172

Çalışmanın daha açıklayıcı bir parçası olarak, çocuk cinsiyetinin düzenleyici rolü incelenmiştir. Sonuçlar yorumlandığında, düşük sosyal desteğe sahip olma veya evlilik çatışması gibi olumsuzluklar gibi daha riskli olabilecek durumlarda, ebeveynlerin aynı cinsiyetteki çocukları tarafından daha olumsuz algılandığı görülmüştür. Diğer taraftan, daha fazla sosyal desteğe sahip olmak gibi daha pozitif bir durumunda, kız çocukları daha az ebeveyn reddi algılamışlardır veya babalar daha fazla özerklik destekleyici hedeflere sahip olduğunda, oğlan çocuklar daha az ebeveyn reddi algılamışlardır. Bu sonuçlar ebeveynlerin aynı cinsiyetten çocuklarıyla daha fazla etkileşim kurmayı seçtiği şeklinde yorumlanabilir. Ancak, ebeveynlerin tercihlerine ve çocuklarıyla geçirdikleri süreye odaklanan daha ileri araştırmalara ihtiyaç vardır.

Son olarak, COVID-19 pandemisi sırasında ebeveynlik için olası risk ve koruyucu faktörler incelenmiştir. Sonuçlar, annelerin psikolojik stresinin önemini vurgulamıştır. Ayrıca pandemi döneminde aile ortamındaki düzensizliğin ebeveynlik için bir risk faktörü olduğu bulunmuştur. Bu güncel bulgular, pandemi sebebiyle yaşanan aile rutinleri değişiklikleri için geliştirilebilecek müdahale çalışmaları için özellikle önemlidir. Bu nedenle risk faktörlerinin belirlenmesi, müdahale projelerinin tasarlanması veya sosyal politika eylemlerinin hazırlanması büyük önem taşımaktadır.

Mevcut tezin bazı sınırlılıkları da bulunmaktadır. İlk çalışmada, anne ve babaların veri toplama prosedürü ve örneklem büyüklüğünde metodolojik farklılıklar bulunmaktadır. Anneler tablet aracılığıyla anketleri doldurmaları için okula davet edilirken, babalara yönelik anket formları anneler veya çocuklar tarafından evlere gönderilmiştir. Bu nedenle babaların örneklem büyüklüğü annelere göre daha küçüktür. Bulguların genelleştirilmesi için ileriki çalışmalarda babalar için daha büyük örneklemlere ihtiyaç duyulabilir. Ayrıca, ikinci çalışmada, iki zaman noktası arasında veri toplama metodolojisinde farklılıklar vardır. İlk çalışmada veriler, okul ziyaretleri aracılığı ile ikinci çalışmada ise çevrimiçi platformlar üzerinden toplanmıştır. Bu nedenle, katılımcıların cevaplarında bazı farklılıklar olabilir. Ancak ilk zamanda hem anneler hem de çocuklar anketleri tablet

bilgisayarlar aracılığıyla doldurmuştur. Bu nedenle, ekranda anket doldurmaya aşina oldukları varsayılmıştır. Ayrıca, babaların pandemi sırasındaki deneyimleri incelenmemiştir ve ebeveynliğe katılımları sadece annelerin evlilik doyumu ve sosyal destek raporları üzerinden incelenmiştir. Babaların deneyimleri ile ilgili çalışmaların da ebeveynlik literatürüne önemli katkılar sağlayacağı düşünülmektedir. Son olarak, her iki çalışmada da hem anneler hem de çocuklar için mevcut tez kapsamından burada rapor edilenlerden daha fazla ölçüm yapılmıştır. Özellikle anneler için tüm anketlerin doldurulması ilk çalışma için ortalama olarak bir saat, ikinci çalışma için 40 dakika sürmüştür. Ancak bu sınırlılığı telafi etmek için anketler annelere rastgele sırayla sunulmuştur.

Bu tezin literatüre özgün katkıları da olmuştur. İlk olarak, ilk çalışma orta çocukluk ve ergenlik döneminde ebeveynliği inceleyerek literatüre katkıda bulunmuştur. Araştırmanın bulguları, anne ve babaların ebeveynliklerindeki farklılıklarını ortaya koymuştur. Ayrıca, çalışmanın bulguları, ebeveynler arasındaki sosyalleşme hedefleri, ebeveynlik inançları ve çocukların ebeveynlik raporları açısından ikili ilişkiyi inceleyerek literatüre katkıda bulunmuştur. Ayrıca, mevcut tezin bir parçası olarak, pandemi sırasında pandemi öncesi önlemler kontrol edilerek olumsuz ebeveynliğin belirleyicileri incelenmiştir. Afet psikolojisi literatüründe belirtildiği gibi travmatik bir olayın nasıl ve ne zaman yaşanacağını tahmin etmek imkansızdır. Bu nedenle, olumsuz yaşam olaylarının sonuçlarını inceleyen çalışmaların çoğunda sadece afet sonrası veriler bulunmaktadır. Ancak bu çalışmada, Türkiye'de salgından hemen önce psikolojik sıkıntı ve anne reddi ölçütleri için veri toplanmıştır. Bu nedenle, burada açıklanan sonuçlar, pandeminin ebeveynle ilişkisini pandemi öncesiyle karşılaştırmalı olarak sunabilmektedir.

Genel olarak, bu iki çalışmanın sonuçları ebeveynlik için risk ve koruyucu faktörleri vurgulamıştır. Bulguların eğitimciler, sosyal hizmet kurumları ve aileler için yardımcı olması beklenmektedir. Bulguların gelecekteki etkileri iki maddede özetlenebilir. İlk olarak babaların katılımına ve ebeveynliklerine odaklanan müdahale çalışmalarının tasarlanması ve uygulanması gerekmektedir.

İkinci olarak, pandemi nedeniyle, ebeveynlerin büyük bir bölümü ihmal, istismar gibi olumsuz ebeveynlik riski altında olabilir. Bu nedenle, pandeminin ebeveynlik üzerindeki olumsuz sonuçları hakkında ebeveynleri bilgilendirmeye yönelik sosyal ve halk sağlığı politikalarının hazırlanmasına ve ebeveynlere yönelik potansiyel müdahalelerin veya halk eğitim programlarının tasarlanmasına, çocuklar için olumsuz sonuçların önlenmesi veya hafifletilmesine öncelik verilmelidir.

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