

The Relationship between Parental Control and Prosocial  
Behavior toward Parents



by

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Ozyegin University  
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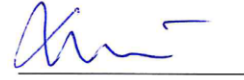
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# PARENTAL CONTROL AND PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR

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**ABSTRACT**

Parental psychological control including negative discipline exercises such as humiliating, coercion, love withdrawal, and emotional manipulation has been negatively related to prosocial behavior in previous studies (Clark, Dahlen, & Nicholson, 2015; Kuppens, Grietens, Onghena, & Michiens, 2009). On the other hand, the relation between parental behavioral control including supervision, monitoring, and parental knowledge regarding whereabouts and emotional needs of children and prosocial behavior seems to be mixed. That is, in some studies this relation has been positive (Hong, Hwang, Tai, & Kuo, 2016; Kerr, Beck, Downs-Shattuck, Kattar, & Uriburu, 2003) while in another study there was no relation between behavioral control and prosocial behavior et al (Yoo et al., 2013). Furthermore, empirical investigations on both parental psychological and behavioral controls and prosocial behaviors are very scarce in non-Western populations. Thus, in the present study, the relations of prosocial behavior toward mothers and fathers with perceived maternal behavioral control and maternal and paternal psychological control were examined with Turkish school aged children from Bolu, Ankara, and Istanbul (mean age = 11.8, 182 girls and 173 boys). Also, the moderator role of gender on the relation between parental control and prosocial behavior was investigated. The findings revealed that there was a positive link between perceived maternal behavioral control and prosocial behaviors toward parents (both mothers and fathers), while the negative link between perceived paternal and maternal

## PARENTAL CONTROL AND PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR

psychological control and prosocial behaviors toward mothers and fathers.

Additionally, girls reported more maternal behavioral control and prosocial behavior toward mothers and fathers than boys while boys reported more maternal and paternal psychological control. Moreover, the results of hierarchical regression analyses showed that gender had no moderator role on the relations of prosocial behavior with parental behavioral control and psychological control.

**Keywords:** prosocial behavior toward parents, psychological control, behavioral control, gender differences



**ÖZET**

Ebeveynlerin çocuklarının davranışlarını duygusal manipülasyon, sevginin esirgenmesi, alay etme ve baskı yoluyla kontrol etmesini içeren psikolojik kontrol uygulamalarının çocukların olumlu sosyal davranışı ile negatif ilişkili olduğu daha önce literatürde gösterilmiştir (Clark, Dahlen, & Nicholson, 2015; Kuppens, Grietens, Onghena, & Michiens, 2009). Diğer taraftan, ebeveynlerin çocuklarının nerede olduğu ve deneyimleri hakkında bilgi sahibi olması, çocuklarını süpervize etmesi ve izlemesi yoluyla çocukların davranışlarını kontrol etmesi olarak tanımlanan davranışsal kontrol ile olumlu sosyal davranışlar arasındaki ilişki karmaşık görünmektedir. Bir grup çalışma ebeveynin davranışsal kontrolü ile çocukların olumlu sosyal davranışları arasında pozitif (Hong, Hwang, Tai, & Kuo, 2016; Kerr, Beck, Downs-Shattuck, Kattar, & Uriburu, 2003) bazı çalışmalarda ise anlamlı ilişki bulunamamıştır (Yoo ve ark., 2013). Bu karışık bulgulara ek olarak, bu ilişkilere yönelik görgül araştırmalar Batı dışı popülasyonlarda oldukça azdır. Bu çalışmada, davranışsal kontrol, psikolojik kontrol ve ebeveynlere yönelik prososyal davranış Bolu, Ankara ve İstanbul'da yaşayan okul çağı dönemindeki çocuklar ve annelerinin katılımı ile incelenmiştir (ort. yaş = 11.8, 182 kız ve 173 erkek). Ayrıca, çalışmada prososyal davranış ve ebeveyn kontrolü ilişkisi için cinsiyetin moderatör rolü ve hem olumlu sosyal davranış hem de ebeveyn kontrolü için cinsiyet farklılıkları incelenmiştir. Sonuçlar literatürle uyumlu olarak psikolojik kontrol ve olumlu sosyal davranış arasında negatif, davranışsal kontrol ve olumlu sosyal davranış arasında ise pozitif ilişki olduğunu göstermiştir. Öte yandan, beklentimizin

## PARENTAL CONTROL AND PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR

aksine, ebeveyn kontrolünün prososyal davranışla ilişkisinde cinsiyetin moderatör etkisi bulunmamıştır. Ancak beklendiği gibi, kızlar daha fazla davranışsal kontrol algıladığını rapor ederken erkekler daha fazla psikolojik kontrol algıladığını rapor etmişlerdir. Ayrıca, yine beklentilerimize paralel olarak, kızlar daha fazla hem anneye hem babaya yönelik olumlu sosyal davranış rapor etmiştir.

***Anahtar kelimeler:*** ebeveyne yönelik prososyal davranış, psikolojik kontrol, davranışsal kontrol, cinsiyet farklılıkları

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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT .....	iv
ÖZET .....	vi
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS .....	viii
INTRODUCTION .....	1
LITERATURE REVIEW .....	5
2.1 Definition of Prosocial Behavior .....	5
2.2 Theories of Prosocial Behavior.....	7
2.3 Late Childhood Period .....	10
2.4 Psychological Control and Behavioral Control .....	12
2.4.1 Psychological Control and Prosocial Behavior.....	15
2.4.2 Behavioral Control and Prosocial Behavior.....	17
2.5 Gender Differences in Prosocial Behavior and Parental Control .....	19
2.6 The Present Study .....	23
METHOD .....	26
3.1 Participants.....	26
3.2 Measures .....	27
3.2.1 Adolescent Prosocial Behavior Measure .....	27
3.2.2 Psychological Control Measure .....	28
3.2.3 Behavioral Control Measure.....	29

3.3 Procedure .....	29
RESULTS .....	31
4.1 Preliminary Analyses .....	31
4.2 Correlational Analyses .....	33
4.3 Moderating Role of Gender in the Relation Between Prosocial Behavior and Behavioral and Psychological Control.....	36
4.3.1 Child Reports of Prosocial Behavior and Parental Behavioral and Psychological Control .....	36
4.3.2 Mothers' Reports of Behavioral and Psychological Control .....	40
DISCUSSION.....	43
5.1 The Relationship between Parental Control and Prosocial Behavior .....	44
5.2 Moderator Effect of Gender on the Relation between Parental Control and Prosocial Behavior .....	46
5.3 Gender Differences in Parental Control.....	48
5.4 Gender Differences in Prosocial Behavior .....	49
5.5 Implications.....	50
5.6 Limitations and Future Directions .....	52
5.7 Conclusion .....	53
APPENDICES .....	55
APPENDIX A. Prosocial Behavior toward Parents .....	55

APPENDIX B. Behavioral Control (Mother Report) .....	56
APPENDIX C. Behavioral Control (Child Report).....	57
APPENDIX D. Psychological Control (Mother Report).....	58
APPENDIX E. Psychological Control (Child Report) .....	59
REFERENCES .....	60



**LIST OF TABLES**

Table 1 .....	27
Table 2 .....	31
Table 3 .....	32
Table 4 .....	34
Table 5 .....	36
Table 6 .....	38
Table 7 .....	39
Table 8 .....	41
Table 9 .....	42

## Chapter 1

### INTRODUCTION

Late childhood is a period where children improve both their social and cognitive capacities, which in turn lead them to gain new experiences due to interaction with the environment (Bee & Boyd, 2009; Lilienfeld, Lynn, Namy, & Woolf, 2011). With increasing cognitive and social skills, children are able to respond better to the needs of others via helping and sharing, which are the main components of prosocial behavior (Eisenberg, Shell, Pasternack, Lennon, Beller, & Mathy, 1987). In other words, school-aged children display more voluntary behavior intended to benefit others than younger children (Bee & Boyd, 2009).

Even if the majority of studies specifically investigated prosocial behavior toward others, the family environment including initial socialization experiences of children also needed to be investigated (see Eisenberg, 1983). In parallel, it was shown that prosocial behaviors toward parents were displayed more than siblings, teachers, and peers (Bigelow, Tesson, & Lewko, 1992). Additionally, Padilla-Walker and Christensen (2011) showed that early adolescents displayed more frequent prosocial behavior toward parents than toward strangers. Besides, dispositional characteristics of children were found important for displaying prosocial behavior toward strangers but not toward parents. Thus, it could be expected that prosocial behavior within family environment might be motivated by warm relations of family members while dispositional characteristics of children might be a motivator for prosociality toward strangers. This assumption is also in

## PARENTAL CONTROL AND PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR

line with the relational approach which elaborated the essential roles of parent child relations for displaying prosocial behavior (Amato, 1990).

A growing body of research suggests that parental factors are essential for prosocial behavior as in the case of all socialization exercises of school-aged children (see Bugental & Grusec, 2006). Parental practices containing inductive reasoning, parental warmth, and support for the autonomy of children were found positively related to prosocial behavior while coercive, manipulative and punitive techniques were found negatively related to healthy social behavior (Grusec & Goodnow, 1994; Hastings, Utendale, & Sullivan, 2007; Kumru & Yagmurlu, 2014).

Moreover, since out-of-home activities of children increase in the late childhood period, some parental effort is necessary for protecting children from risky situations through controlling their behavior (see Dishion & McMahon, 1998). In parallel, foregoing studies elaborated the differences between behavioral and psychological control which are important components of the parent-child relationship (Barber, 1996; Kuppens, Grietens, Onghena, & Michiels, 2009). Psychological control, referring to control of children using emotional manipulation, love withdrawal, and coercion, negatively associated with autonomy development and prosocial behavior (Clark, Dahlen & Nicholson, 2015) as well as positively related to behavioral problems and delinquency behaviors (Barber, 1996; Pettit, Laird, Dodge, Bates, & Criss, 2001). On the other hand, behavioral control, referring to parental exercises including parental knowledge, monitoring, and supervision regarding the daily activities of children related to less problem

behavior (Barber, 1996; Dishion & McMahon, 1998) while enhanced healthy social development (Hong, Hwang, Tai, & Kuo, 2016; Houlberg, Morris, Cui, Henry, & Criss, 2016). To sum up, psychological control is negatively associated with healthy social behavior, in general, and negatively related to prosocial behavior in particular (Clark, Dahlen & Nicholson, 2015). On the contrary, behavioral control, which is an essential need for healthy socialization, is positively linked to prosocial behavior (Kuppens, Grietens, Onghena, & Michiels, 2009; Day & Padilla-Walker, 2009). Unfortunately, there is a dearth of empirical investigations examining both psychological and behavioral control and their relations with prosocial behavior (but see Kuppens, Grietens, Onghena, & Michiels, 2009; Yoo, Feng, & Day, 2013 for some exceptions).

In the present study, we specifically investigated the association between parental psychological control, parental behavioral control and prosocial behavior toward parents in a sample of school-aged children in Turkey. Additionally, we examined the moderator role of gender in the relation between prosocial behavior and psychological and behavioral control. Besides, in the current study, we argued that boys and girls were influenced differently by parental control techniques. The previous literature offers mixed findings on this relation. In other words, some studies found some gender differences in psychological control —favoring boys— (Sayil & Kindap, 2010) and behavioral control —favoring girls— (Kindap, Sayil, & Kumru, 2008), whereas some of them failed to find any significant differences (Rogers, Buchanan, & Winchell, 2003; Shek, 2007). When we think of the context

## PARENTAL CONTROL AND PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR

of the current research (Turkey), it can be argued that parents mostly expect their daughters to be more passive and caregiving, while boys are expected to be more active and leader in non-Western societies (Sakallı-Ugurlu & Akbas, 2013). More clearly, girls are mostly controlled in terms of their behavior, while boys perceived coercion to be emotionally strong in Turkish society (Sakallı-Ugurlu & Akbas, 2013; Sunar & Fisek, 2005). Thus, we anticipate that these differences regarding child rearing techniques might lead to a differentiation in parental controls for girls and boys. More specifically, we argued that the positive link between prosocial behavior and behavioral control would be stronger for girls while the negative link between prosocial behavior and psychological control would be stronger for boys. In addition to this, we predicted that girls perceive more behavioral control while boys perceive more psychological control. Also, we explored gender differences in prosocial behavior. Since girls were expected more helpful in household chores and caring behaviors within the family, we assume that girls would report more prosocial behavior than boys toward their parents (Carlo, 2006; Goodnow, 1988; Whiting & Edwards, 1988).

In the next section, we will describe the definition of prosocial behavior and theoretical approaches in prosocial development. Then, the importance of late childhood period regarding parental control exercises will be explained. Additionally, we will discuss the relationship between parental control and prosocial behavior toward parents. Finally, we will explicate the aims of present study in more detail with our hypotheses.



## Chapter 2

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.1 Definition of Prosocial Behavior

Prosocial behavior is defined as the actions of a person to benefit others (Eisenberg, Fabes, & Spinrad, 2006). This general definition refers to many different prosocial acts like cooperating, sharing, caring, and so on. However, specifying the definition of prosocial behavior can lead us to understand the underlying motives since motivational reasons might depend on the context of prosocial behavior (Reis, Collins, & Berscheid, 2000). Thus, prosocial behavior involves multidimensional motives and target (e.g., family member or stranger) of the prosocial behavior is also needed to be considered to understand these underlying motives (Kumru & Yagmurlu, 2014). These underlying motives might be related to selfish reasons, receiving an award or fear of punishment. For instance, one might avoid negative consequences of failing by complying social norms and/or one might take account of universal norms of reciprocity with suggesting that the helping behavior would be in return. Additionally, it is possible that one might display helping behavior for maintaining his/her own positive mood with reducing the distress of another person and/or for his/her own moral reasons and values which are referring to promote the welfare of others (see Kumru & Yagmurlu, 2014).

The motivational reasons for displaying prosocial behavior might also vary for different contexts. Prosocial behavior in family context might include

## PARENTAL CONTROL AND PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR

motivations which are related to duties, responsibilities, and more close relationships including more commitment and resource allocation (see Kumru & Yagmurlu, 2014). In close relationships, motivations of displaying prosocial behavior are based on less self-centered desires rather than strangers (Haslam-Fiske; 1999). For instance, it was found that when self-centered motivations were controlled, empathic concerns were linked to willingness to help a family member while not toward a stranger (Maner & Gailliot, 2006). This study focuses on prosocial behavior toward parents in terms of showing affection, helping, respect, and sharing.

Affection is a type of prosocial behavior within the family context defined as the “volunteered anticipation of family members’ feelings and desires” (Kumru & Yagmurlu, 2014, pp. 330). Thus, helpfulness and affection –which were related but also separate dimensions– might be supportive for establishing a warm relation within the family in regard to cohesiveness and rapport (Eberly & Montemayor, 1998). In parallel to this assumption, Lawton, Silverstein, and Bengtson (1994) investigated the role of affection in the family context and showed that social contact and affection between family members were causally related. Besides, another one (Schrodt, Ledbetter, & Ohrt, 2007) found that supportive affection, verbal affection and nonverbal affection of parents were positively linked to the self-esteem of children while negatively linked to perceived stress of children.

Helping can be defined as the exhibition of emotional support, physical assistance, supervision, and general benevolence toward others (Kumru &

Yagmurlu, 2014). Helping behavior, which is an important factor for maintaining warm relations within the family context, was found appearing in 18-30 months of age (Rheingold, 1982). Besides, there are mixed findings of helping behavior and age relation. Eberly et al., (1993) demonstrated that parents reported less helpfulness of children in late childhood and middle adolescence periods except in the mother-daughter dyad. Another study (Eberly et al., 1998) showed that children who were sixth graders had more affectionate than eighth and tenth graders toward their parents. Additionally, early adolescents were found less affectionate toward mothers.

Sharing, which is another type of prosocial behavior, includes the removing inequality between the resources of others and oneself. It is needed to overcome the desire of keeping the resources for oneself to display sharing behavior (Kumru & Yagmurlu, 2014). When children grow older they displayed more egalitarian behaviors and also the context of the sharing behavior became an important factor (Benenson, Markovits, Roy & Denko, 2003). In parallel to this, Markovitz, Benenson, and Kramer (2003) showed that children displayed more sharing behavior toward their siblings and classmates than strangers. Additionally, they showed more sharing behavior toward their relatives than non-relatives (Ma & Leung, 1993). To sum up, previous studies suggest that future research is needed to understand the differences of sharing, affectionate, and helping behavior within the family and other contexts (see Kumru & Yagmurlu, 2014).

### **2.2 Theories of Prosocial Behavior**

## PARENTAL CONTROL AND PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR

Over the years, different perspectives were proposed to understand prosocial behavior. Dispositional model —one of the most famous perspectives— suggested that prosocial behavior is linked to personality traits such as empathy, higher moral reasoning, and sympathy. In this model, prosocial behavior is considered as dependent on the personality functions of children (Eberly & Montemayor, 1998). Another well-known model —the socialization approach— on the other hand, focuses on the relationship between prosocial behavior and family context. According to the socialization approach, parental attitudes such as inductive reasoning and parental modeling are important factors for the development of prosocial behavior (Lewis, 2014).

Moreover, the relational approach handled the prosocial behavior within the family context and also defined it as a communal relationship which included the frequent helping of others without repaying expectation of the helper (Amato, 1990). However, dispositional and socialization approaches had not yet been elaborated the importance of recipient of the prosocial behavior (Lewis, 2014). On the other hand, according to relational approach, investigating the network of the helper and the recipient is more important (Amato, 1990). In other words, prosocial behavior is considered as the combination of both the characteristics of helpers and the characteristics of the environment. Besides, Hinde and Stevenson-Hinde (1987) suggested that the relationship among the family members is related to individual characteristics and the quality of the interactions. For instance, if we consider the family context as a network while studying prosocial behavior toward parents, we

## PARENTAL CONTROL AND PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR

need to deal with individual characteristics (such as gender and age) of both helper and recipient and the characteristics of their relationships (such as what are their past experiences and expectations for future; Lewis, 2014).

Previous research mostly focused on the strangers as recipients of prosocial behavior. Actually, family environment is an important context for understanding prosocial behavior in childhood and adolescence since most of the social acts were experienced initially in the family context. Rather than focusing only prosocial behavior toward others, studies which explored the targets of prosociality showed that there were some differences based on the closeness of helpers and recipients. In these studies, children were shown more prosocial behavior in close relations than distant relations (Eisenberg, 1983; Padilla-Walker & Chritensen, 2011; Staub & Sherk, 1970). Additionally, it was shown that children differentiated the prosocial behavior considering the targets of the acts (relatives, strangers, and criminals) while these differences decreasing with age (Eisenberg, 1983). Differentiation of prosocial behavior between close relatives, friends, and strangers might be related to desires of children for maintaining intimate relations with their parents and best friends rather than others. Thus, prosocial behavior in family context might be seen as an important contribution to maintaining the warm relations between children and parents. In line with this prediction, Padilla-Walker and Chritensen (2011) showed that dispositional characters of children were important for displaying prosocial behavior toward others but not toward parents.

In sum, since the social ties within the family members such as helping and affection increase reciprocal helping behavior, parental factors can be seen as being one of the most important issues for establishing this relationship (Eberly & Montemayor, 1998). Since psychological and behavioral controls are examples of parental practices, and since these parental practices are important parts of the family context, we might think that both strategies can be related to prosocial behavior (Lewis, 2014). Additionally, it might be expected that there would be gender differences in displaying prosocial behavior toward parents (Eberly & Montemayor, 1998).

### **2.3 Late Childhood Period**

Late childhood is a period in which cognitive and emotional capacities of the children flourish. This period including 9-11 years of age is also called school-aged children. In this period, children passed from childhood to adolescence. During this period, children encounter many social stimuli in their environments for the first time. They learn new habits, make new friends, comprehend hierarchical relationships with their parents and teachers, and in short, they take a new step in social development (Denham, Warren, von Salisch, Benga, Chin, & Geangu, 2011). However, this period has not been studied much to date, probably due to the fact that it is defined as a more stable period than the other developmental stages in the literature. In other words, this period did not arouse the researchers' interest in developmental psychology literature in comparison with other developmental periods.

## PARENTAL CONTROL AND PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR

Concordantly, Freud called this period in his psychosexual developmental stages as the “latency period” and characterized it as the transfer of skills acquired in early childhood period to the next period (Bee & Boyd, 2009). Piaget called 7-12 years of age as the concrete operational stage. According to Piaget, children gain new mental tools and acquire new abilities such as reversibility, relational complexity, transitivity, and class inclusion in this period. By means of these new skills, children gain important cognitive and social developmental abilities (Lilienfeld, Lynn, Namy, & Woolf, 2011). In this period, children are also involved in new environments —such as school and extracurricular activities— (Bee & Boyd, 2009; Lilienfeld, Lynn, Namy, & Woolf, 2011).

Furthermore, children begin to understand hierarchical relationships better and the power relations become more evident with their surroundings in this period. School-aged children have a better understanding of what kind of roles they have in their social relationships (e.g., student, child, friend, etc.) and behave in accordance with these social roles (Bugental & Grusec, 2006). In fact, since children join new social settings with all of these developmental changes during this period, parents have more duties and responsibilities such as monitoring and supervising their children outside the home environment (Rathus, 2003). A critical question at this point is which parental techniques should be applied by the parents in this period since control methods used by parents can affect children in both positive and negative ways (Hastings, Utendale, & Sullivan, 2007). For this reason, parental control during late childhood is so important for the healthy development of

children. In the next section, we will talk about the importance of parental control of school-aged children, and we will summarize the research findings examining the relationship between behavioral and psychological control and children's prosocial behavior.

### **2.4 Psychological Control and Behavioral Control**

Psychological control was first studied by Becker (1964) and Schaefer (1965) in the 1960s. In these studies, psychological control factors were defined as guilt induction, love withdrawal, and excessive parental control. Additionally, in these years, Baumrind (1965, 1966, 1968, 1978)—one of the first researchers who studied the psychological control in detail—stated that parental psychological control might prevent the child from expressing his/her ideas. That is to say, she states that psychological control has a negative influence on the autonomy development of children.

In the past literature (see Barber, 1996), psychological control has generally been addressed without elaboration. The first studies in this area have examined psychological control as parents' inductive, coercive, and undifferentiated control attempts (Barber, 1996). According to this view, psychological control is an intrusive approach to the emotional and psychological development of the child. In other words, parental psychological control manipulates children in terms of their self-expression and expression of feelings. Schaefer's (1959, 1965) Child Report of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI), which is generally used to separate psychological control from other parental factors, revealed that psychological



## PARENTAL CONTROL AND PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR

control and autonomy were negatively related with each other. The results of Schaefer's (1965) study also suggest that factors associated with parental psychological control were intrusiveness, parental direction, and control through guilt. In addition to this, other factors related to psychological control were possessiveness, protectiveness, nagging, negative evaluation, strictness, and punishment.

Nevertheless, despite CRPBI (Schludermann & Schludermann, 1970) studies, psychological control had not aroused researchers' interest in the field after the studies of Becker (1964) and Schaefer (1965). In the upcoming years, psychological control was understudied until the study of Gray and Steinberg (1999). Gray and Steinberg (1999) made a significant contribution to the literature by differentiating psychological control from behavioral control. By means of this, psychological control has begun to be studied separately from other control variants (see also Barber, 1996; Barber et al., 1994). Subsequently, psychological control was classified as a kind of parental style by Baumrind (1965, 1966, 1968, 1978) and she described psychological control as parental guilt induction, love withdrawal, and emotional manipulation exercises on children.

In the typological definition of parenting, there were shortcomings in the sense of differentiating psychological control from other types of control. The reason was that both psychological and non-psychological control exercises were included in the authoritarian parenting definition. Fortunately, Baumrind (1991) showed that intrusiveness was the distinctive factor for authoritarian parenting in

## PARENTAL CONTROL AND PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR

psychological control. Then, psychological control began to be examined in a different way from assertive control. By this means, psychological control was separated from other control forms and the differences became more apparent.

To sum up, it is important to distinguish between psychological control and non-psychological control in order to understand the nature of control mechanisms. As stated previously, parents who exercise psychological control manipulate and negotiate their children's feelings and ideas to exert their own rules. In parallel with this assumption, it was supported by findings that psychological control correlated with negative developmental outcomes (Barber, 1996; Barber, Maughan, & Olsen, 2005, Pettit, Laird, Dodge, Bates, & Criss, 2001; Smetana & Daddis, 2002).

Unlike psychological control, there is another type of parental control mechanisms which do not have such negative consequences. In fact, parental control at a certain level is necessary for positive social development in childhood. It is essential for parents to be aware of the child's feelings and experiences in order to understand and meet the needs of the children. All of these supportive parental exercises including parental knowledge, monitoring, and supervising are defined as behavioral control (Hastings, Utendale, & Sullivan, 2007).

Behavioral control was initially investigated in order to understand the safety needs of children. The safety-injury factor was presented by Peterson, Ewigman, and Kivlahan (1993) in a study of different age groups (from infancy to 10 years of age) which showed that behavioral control is necessary for the safety of children. Additionally, the studies (Brayden, MacLean, Bonfiglio, & Altemeier 1993; Garling

& Garling, 1993) supported that parental monitoring was negatively related to the anticipated injuries of children, sudden poisonings and home accidents (Dishion & McMahon, 1998). Besides, behavioral control has also gained importance in the clinical psychology literature with the studies which revealed that antisocial behavior and delinquent behavior was closely and negatively related to parental supervision (Patterson; 1982; Patterson & Dishion, 1985; Patterson & Stouthamer-Loeber, 1984). Unlike previous research (see Dishion & McMahon, 1998), studies have begun to investigate the importance of parental monitoring for positive dimensions of child development. Studies have shown the importance of parental behavioral control in terms of self-esteem and academic achievement in childhood (Crouter, MacDermid, McHale, & Perry-Jenkins, 1990; Kurdek, Fine, & Sinclair, 1995; Patterson, Reid, & Dishion, 1992).

In general, we see that both parental behavioral control and psychological control are mostly focused on risky situations, behavioral problems, and delinquency behaviors (see Barber, 1996; Bean, Barber & Crane, 2006; Dishion & McMahon, 1998). However, there are also studies that relate behavioral control and psychological control to positive social behavior (Hong, Hwang, Tai, & Kuo, 2016; Kuppens, Grietens, Onghena, & Michiels, 2009). In the next section, we will provide research findings of the relationship between parental psychological and behavioral control and prosocial behavior from middle childhood to late adolescence in light of the previous literature.

### **2.4.1 Psychological Control and Prosocial Behavior**

## PARENTAL CONTROL AND PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR

As is known, children need to learn moral values through inductive reasoning instead of coercion (Grusec & Goodnow, 1994). This is because inductive reasoning not only improves empathy ability but also allows understanding the perspective of other people and the needs of others. On the other hand, punitive techniques are negatively related to positive social development because it hampers the moral internalization of children. Since psychological control is a kind of coercion, it might prevent the internalization of moral values, which is necessary for prosocial behavior (see Hastings, Utendale, & Sullivan, 2007).

Compatible with this argument, in a recent study, Clark, Dahlen, and Nicholson (2015) examined the relationship between psychological control and prosocial behavior. Clark et al. (2015) found a negative link between prosocial behavior and psychological control with a sample of college students who were 19 years of age. Besides, they investigated whether the relationship between psychological control and prosocial behavior differ for African American and White participants. Unlike their initial predictions, the findings showed that race moderated the relation between prosocial behavior and psychological control and only African American students, who had more psychological control, showed less prosocial behavior. In addition, there is another study revealing that psychological control was negatively related to prosocial behavior in a sample of European children who were 8-10 years old (Kuppens, Grietens, Onghena, & Michiels, 2009). On the other hand, a longitudinal study (Yoo, Feng, & Day, 2013) showed that there was no direct link between prosocial behavior and psychological control, but there

was an indirect relationship between them. In other words, the findings revealed that perceived balanced connectedness of adolescents, who were 13-17 years of age, mediates the negative relation between psychological control and prosocial behavior.

In addition to mixed findings summarized above, empirical findings specifically examining psychological control and prosocial behavior outside of Western cultures are also rather scarce (see for a European sample: Kuppens, et al., 2009; see for both White and African Americans: Clark et al., 2015). Thus, it is clear that there is a need for further investigations in non-Western samples regarding this relationship.

### **2.4.2 Behavioral Control and Prosocial Behavior**

Unlike psychological control, school-aged children need parental behavioral control since they need a reliable guide to their new environment. For this reason, parental attitudes, such as being indulgent like a friend or giving few guidelines, do not satisfy the needs of children (Hastings, Utendale, & Sullivan, 2007). Thus, behavioral control exercises including parental monitoring, supervising, more attention, and care to children's activities are essential for positive social development (Barber, 1996). Thus, most of the studies consistently shown that parental behavioral control practices are positively associated with prosocial behavior both in middle childhood (Hong, Hwang, Tai, & Kuo, 2016; Kuppens, Grietens, Onghena, & Michiels, 2009) and adolescence (Houltberg, Morris, Cui, Henry, & Criss, 2016; Day & Padilla-Walker, 2009; but see Yoo et al., 2013). For

## PARENTAL CONTROL AND PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR

instance, one of these studies had been done by Kuppens, et al. (2009) with children aged 8-to-10 years old. The findings revealed that prosocial behavior was positively related to parental behavioral control. In addition, a more recent study (Hong, et al., 2016) investigated the relationship between parental monitoring and prosocial behavior with fifth-grade students. In line with Kuppens et al.'s (2009) study, the results of Hong et al. (2016) showed that parental monitoring was positively correlated with the prosocial behavior tendencies of the children. Another recent research (Houltberg, et al., 2016) examined the relationship between parental support and prosocial behavior of children in a disadvantaged neighborhood. Expectedly, the prosocial behavior of youths who were 7-15 years old was positively related to the parental support. Besides, the investigation, including Latino adolescents at the age of 14-19, suggested that high-level family involvement including parental monitoring was positively related to prosocial behavior (Kerr, Beck, Downs, Shattuck, Kattar, & Uriburu, 2003). In addition to this, a research investigating early adolescents at the age of 11 showed that maternal involvement (but not paternal involvement) and prosocial behavior was positively correlated (Day & Padilla-Walker, 2009). A recent study (Profe & Wild, 2015) investigated the link between the prosocial behavior of adolescents and involvement of grandparents, mothers, and fathers on the South African sample. The findings revealed that mothers and grandparents' involvements were positively correlated with prosocial behavior but there was no correlation between fathers' involvement and prosocial behavior. A large-scale longitudinal research investigating students

(8<sup>th</sup> grade to young adulthood) also examined the link between parental monitoring and parental school involvement and volunteering (similar to prosocial behavior; Zaff, Moore, Papillo, & Williams, 2003). It was found that parental monitoring was positively correlated with volunteering in a community work. On the other hand, a recent longitudinal study conducted by Yoo et al. (2013) suggested that there is not any significant relationship between the impact of parental knowledge and prosocial behavior.

To sum up, the positive relation between prosocial behavior and behavioral control was consistently evident in different cultures (see for European samples: Attarschwartz, et al., 2009; Day & Padilla-Walker, 2009; Kuppens et al., 2009; see for a Chinese sample: Hong, et al., 2016; see for a Latino sample; Kerr, et al., 2003; see for a South African sample: Profe & Wild, 2015; see for both White and African samples: Houlberg, et al., 2016; Zaff, et al., 2003; but see for a contrary evident in European sample: Yoo et al., 2013). In addition, there is a dearth of empirical investigation on this relation especially in the late childhood period (but see: Day & Padilla-Walker, 2009). Thus, this relation should be further empirically investigated on children in late childhood period and in non-Western contexts.

Late childhood is also the period where gender differences become apparent. Therefore, in the next session, we will discuss gender differences regarding the relationship between parental control and prosocial behavior in the late childhood period.

### **2.5 Gender Differences in Prosocial Behavior and Parental Control**

## PARENTAL CONTROL AND PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR

Girls and boys might display different types of prosocial behavior (Carlo, et al., 2003). More specifically, boys generally adopt instrumental roles in prosocial behavior (such as task-oriented behaviors) whereas girls generally adopt expressive roles in prosocial behavior (such as emotional support; Parsons & Bales, 1955). For instance, Carlo et al. (2003) revealed that adolescent girls reported more emotional prosociality while boys reported more public prosociality. However, there is a meta-analysis (Fabes & Eisenberg, 1998) showing that there were no gender differences in instrumental helping. Besides, the findings showed that although girls showed more prosocial behavior than boys, the effect size is small according to Cohen's criteria. Moreover, the larger effects were present for being kind and considerate.

However, it must be noted that these findings on prosocial behavior might depend on the types of the measurement method (Fabes & Eisenberg, 1998). For instance, it has been found that gender differences in empathy were higher when self-report and observational methods were used (Eisenberg & Lennon, 1983). On the other hand, gender differences were not evident when the measures were non-obstructive and physiological (Eisenberg & Lennon, 1983). Additionally, Eagly and Crowley (1986) conducted a meta-analysis about the differences of prosocial behavior among women and men. The findings showed that there were no gender differences in overall but there are some differences among specific behavioral patterns. For instance, men, who believed that they were monitored by someone, were displaying more helping behavior than women, but there were no gender differences in prosocial behavior when participants had no belief about being



## PARENTAL CONTROL AND PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR

observed by someone. The gender differences in prosocial behavior might also be explained by the stereotypic expectations in the society. For instance, women are generally viewed as more proper for service oriented roles (such as nursing, housewife, secretary) while men are generally involved in the occupations which including heroic and risky situations more than women (such as firefighter, police; Eagly & Crowley, 1986).

Since characteristics of both helpers and recipients are important according to relational approach, the gender of parents also needed to be considered in the relations between parents and children (Lewis, 2014). In parallel to this, Eberly and Montemayor (1998) found that fathers received less helpfulness and affection from children than mothers. Children also reported more affection and spending more time with mothers. Additionally, another one also showed that helpfulness and affection of adolescents were more received by mothers than fathers (Eberly & Montemayor, 1999). Besides, it was found that children perceived more closeness from their mothers than fathers (Paulson, Hill, & Holmbeck, 1991). In line, in a recent study, mothers also reported more prosocial behavior of children toward themselves than fathers (Padilla-Walker, Carlo, Christensen, & Yorgason, 2012; see also: Hastings, McShane, Parker, & Ladha, 2007). These findings might be related to different roles of mothers and fathers in their relations with their children. For instance, we might assume that mothers more involved in the relational concepts within family context while fathers more involved the issues in norm compliance (see Lamb, 2004). Especially, in the cultures including a considerable amount of

collectivistic values, fathers had more dominant roles such as family disciplinarian and they are seen as the head of household (Kagitcibasi, Sunar, & Bekman, 2001; Sunar & Fişek, 2005). For instance, in Turkish traditional families, fathers had less communication and emotionally close with their children than mothers (Sunar, 2002). These emotional and communicative distance between fathers and children might be interpreted as the way of fathers to preserve the hierarchically ordered roles in the family context (Sunar, 2002).

Since girls and boys are considered as having differential gender role expectations in society, we might assume that parents display different child rearing practices for girls and boys as well (see Bee & Boyd, 2009; Carlo, 2006; Maccoby, 1990). For instance, parental expectations for girls are mostly being sensitive, caring, dependent, and nurturing while parental expectations for boys are being mostly assertive, competitive, and independent in societies based on a certain level of collectivistic cultural values in Turkey (Sakallı-Ugurlu & Akbas, 2013; Sunar & Fişek, 2005). Besides, in general, parents punish boys for their expression of emotionality but girls had limitations on behavioral criteria (see Carlo, 2006).

In line with this assumption, a recent study showed that perceived paternal psychological control was different for girls and boys on a Turkish adolescent sample (Sayil & Kindap, 2010). The findings revealed that boys perceived more psychological control from their fathers than girls but perceived maternal psychological control were not different for girls and boys. Another study using a different Turkish sample showed that adolescent girls had more maternal behavioral

control than adolescent boys (Kindap, Sayil, & Kumru, 2008). Similarly, in another study, findings revealed that European adolescent boys perceived more psychological control from their fathers but there were no gender differences for perceived maternal psychological control (Rogers, Buchanan, & Winchell, 2003). On the other hand, there is a study showing that there are no gender differences for perceived psychological control on Chinese adolescents (Shek, 2007). Additionally, Yoo et al.'s (2013) study did not find any gender differences regarding parental knowledge and psychological control. Moreover, there is only a study examining the moderator role of gender in the relationship between mothers' involvement and prosocial behavior in a European sample (Day & Padilla-Walker, 2009). The results showed that boys were more prosocial when their fathers' involvements were higher but there was not any interaction for mothers' involvement. In the present study, we also assumed that there would be gender differences in the relations between prosocial behavior and parental control regarding different social role expectations of parents through girls and boys in Turkish society. Since boys had more restrictions in emotional criteria we assumed that psychological control and prosocial behavior relation would be stronger in boys while since girls had more behavioral restrictions, we predicted that behavioral control and prosocial behavior relation would be stronger in girls. In summary, the literature offers mixed findings on gender differences in parental control. For this reason, there is a need for further investigations on this topic.

### **2.6 The Present Study**

## PARENTAL CONTROL AND PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR

As stated above, there is a need to investigate the impacts of parental psychological and behavioral control on the prosocial behavior of children toward parents in late childhood. In the present study, our principal aim was examining the relationship between prosocial behavior toward mothers and fathers and perceived maternal behavioral control, maternal and paternal psychological control. Moreover, we aimed to explore the moderator effect of gender on the relationship between parental control (both psychological and behavioral control) and prosocial behavior toward mothers and fathers. In addition to this, we exploratorily investigated the moderator role of one of the parental control exercises (behavioral control/psychological control) on the relation between another parental control exercise and prosocial behavior toward parents.

This study is one of the few studies investigating the parental control and prosocial behavior relation within the family context in a non-Western and predominantly Muslim population (Turkey). Besides, we examined this relation in late childhood period which had not been much investigated in previous studies. Additionally, we had both mother-reports and child-reports regarding parental control (both psychological and behavioral control) which in turn strengthen the present results.

Specifically, our hypotheses are as follows:

1. Prosocial behavior toward mothers and fathers would be negatively related to perceived psychological control of both fathers and mothers while positively related to perceived behavioral control of mothers.

## PARENTAL CONTROL AND PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR

2. There would be a moderating effect of gender on the relationship between prosocial behavior toward mothers/fathers and parental control (both perceived maternal behavioral control and maternal and paternal psychological control).
3. Boys would report more perceived maternal and paternal psychological control than girls while girls would report more perceived maternal behavioral control than boys.
4. Girls would report more prosocial behavior toward both fathers and mothers than boys.

## Chapter 3

### METHOD

#### 3.1 Participants

In the present investigation, the data were a part of “Longitudinal Study of Children’s Cognitive, Emotional & Prosocial Development” project. This project was funded by The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey to Asiye Kumru (Grant No: 104K068). Three hundred fifty-four children (mean age = 11.8, min. = 11.16, max. = 12.91,  $SD = 3.81$ , 182 girls and 172 boys) who were students in different public elementary schools in Bolu, İstanbul, and Ankara and their mothers ( $N= 354$ ) participated in the study. We used multiple reporters (both mothers and children) to be enriched the current study. All students and their mothers were native Turkish speakers. Besides, mean of the education years of mothers were 9.13 (min. = 0, max. = 25) while mean of the education years of fathers were 10.54 (min. = 2, max. = 30; see Table 1 for the demographic characteristics of participants).

**Table 1. Demographic characteristics of participants**

Variables	%
<b>Gender</b>	
Male	48.6
Female	51.4
<b>City</b>	
İstanbul	39.3
Ankara	17.5
Bolu	43.2
<b>Income</b>	
Under 1500 TL per month	60.6
1500-3000 TL per month	22.4
Above 3000 TL per month	17
<b>Education Level of Mothers</b>	
Under Highschool Graduate	49.2
High School Graduate	26
College Graduate	7.6
University Graduate	10.5
Postgraduate	2
<b>Education Level of Fathers</b>	
Under Highschool Graduate	39.6
High School Graduate	28.8
College Graduate	5.6
University Graduate	14.7
Postgraduate	5.6

### 3.2 Measures

#### 3.2.1 Adolescent Prosocial Behavior Measure

Eberly and Montemayor (1998) developed the adolescent prosocial behavior scale and Kumru (2002) adapted to Turkish. Cronbach alpha of the subscales for mothers was .89 and for fathers was .88. Participants responded to 27 items on the 5-point Likert-type scale from 1 (never) to 5 (mostly) and higher score represented more prosocial behavior toward their parents. Participants were asked to respond to all items for prosocial behavior toward both fathers and mothers differently (e.g., “I share my feelings with my mother/father”; “I give encourage and relief when my mother/father need it”). The Cronbach’s alphas were .87 for mothers and .88 for fathers in this study.

### **3.2.2 Psychological Control Measure**

The psychological control scale was developed from the revised CRPBI (Schaefer, 1965; Schludermann & Schludermann, 1988). Psychological control scale was adapted to Turkish by Kumru et al. (2014) and they found that Cronbach’s alphas were .79 for mother reports and .84 for child reports. Mothers obtained psychological control questionnaire which has 16 items on the 4-point Likert-type scale from 1 (never) to 4 (mostly) and higher score represented more parental psychological control. Children also obtained the same questionnaire with different wording which included 32 items (half of them for fathers, half of them for mothers). The questionnaire had items which were linked to parental love withdrawal, constraining, accusation, and humiliation (e.g. “Sometimes I humiliate my child in front of others/Sometimes my mother/father humiliates me in front of others”; “Sometimes I get into my child’s room without his/her permission and



scramble her bag and go through her things/Sometimes my mother/father gets into my room without my permission and scrambles my bag and go through my things”). The Cronbach’s alphas for the scale were .76 in this study for mother-reports while .89 for child-reports for psychological control of mothers and .90 for psychological control of fathers in this study.

### **3.2.4 Behavioral Control Measure**

Kerr and Stattin (2000) developed the scale adapted to Turkish by Kumru et al. (2014). They found Cronbach’s alphas .81 for mother-reports and .83 for child reports. Both mothers and children filled the behavioral control scale which had eight items, using a 5-point Likert-type scale from 1 (I do not know/ my mother does not know) to 5 (mostly I know/mostly my mother knows) in order to assess behavioral control of mothers (e.g., “Do you know when your child’s exams/Does your mother know when your exams”; “Do you know what does your child in extracurricular activities/ Does your mother know what do you in extracurricular activities”). Higher scores reflected more behavioral control while lower scores represented less behavioral control. The Cronbach’s alphas of the scale were .84 for mother-reports and .79 for child-reports in this study.

### **3.3 Procedure**

The legal permission was obtained from Turkish Ministry of Education for collecting data in much different public and private schools in Turkey. First of all, students in different public and private elementary schools in İstanbul, Bolu, and Ankara received the information about the current investigation. Additionally,

## PARENTAL CONTROL AND PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR

parental permission was obtained from mothers via children and teachers. Then, mothers received the measurements via their children and also they sent the measurements back to teachers via children. Lastly, teachers and parents were thanked for their participation.



## Chapter 4

### RESULTS

#### 4.1 Preliminary Analyses

All analyses were conducted using SPSS 21 Packaged Program. Before any data analysis, a multivariate outlier analysis (Cook's distance plot) was performed and one outlier was detected, which was also excluded from the sample.

Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics for the main variables in this study (behavioral control, psychological control, and prosocial behavior).

**Table 2: Means, Standard Deviations, and Ranges of the Main Variables for Children's Reports**

	N	Min.	Max.	M	SD
PB toward Mothers	238	2.44	5.00	4.39	.46
PB toward Fathers	224	2.07	5.00	4.26	.50
PC of Mothers	273	1.00	3.75	1.72	.56
PC of Fathers	283	1.00	3.75	1.66	.57
BC	281	2.25	5.00	4.36	.55

PB= Prosocial Behavior, PC=Psychological Control, BC= Behavioral Control

\* $p < 0.05$ , \*\* $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\* $p < 0.001$

These descriptive statistics were also conducted separately for girls and boys in Table 3.

PARENTAL CONTROL AND PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR

**Table 3: Means, Standard Deviations, and Ranges of the Main Variables by Gender for Children’s Reports separately**

	Girls					Boys				
	N	Min.	Max.	M	SD	N	Min.	Max.	M	SD
BC of Mothers	148	3.00	5.00	4.50	.46	133	2.25	5.00	4.20	.60
PC of Fathers	139	1.00	3.56	1.51	.45	124	1	3.75	1.83	.64
PC of Mothers	145	1.00	3.63	1.61	.50	128	1	3.75	1.85	.60
PB toward Mothers	132	3.41	5.00	4.55	.34	106	2.44	5.00	4.18	.51
PB toward Fathers	124	3.26	5.00	4.39	.43	100	2.07	5.00	4.11	.54

PB= Prosocial Behavior, PC=Psychological Control, BC= Behavioral Control

\* $p < 0.05$ , \*\* $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\* $p < 0.001$

In order to understand whether there are significant gender differences in maternal and paternal psychological and maternal behavioral control and prosocial behavior toward mothers and fathers, several independent samples t-tests were conducted. Girls ( $M = 4.59$ ,  $SD = 0.60$ ) reported more maternal behavioral control than boys ( $M = 4.20$ ,  $SD = 0.46$ ,  $t(279) = 4.58$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Boys ( $M = 1.85$ ,  $SD = 0.59$ ) reported more maternal psychological control than girls ( $M = 1.61$ ,  $SD = 0.50$ ,  $t(271) = 3.63$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Moreover, boys ( $M = 1.83$ ,  $SD = 0.63$ ) reported more paternal psychological control than girls ( $M = 1.51$ ,  $SD = 0.45$ ,  $t(261) = 4.68$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Besides, girls ( $M = 4.55$ ,  $SD = 0.34$ ) reported more prosocial behavior toward

mothers than boys ( $M = 4.17$ ,  $SD = 0.51$ ,  $t(236) = -6.77$ ,  $p < .001$ ). In addition to this, girls ( $M = 4.38$ ,  $SD = 0.43$ ) also reported more prosocial behavior toward fathers than boys ( $M = 4.11$ ,  $SD = 0.54$ ,  $t(222) = -4.33$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

### **4.2 Correlational Analyses**

Table 4 shows the correlations among variables in this study. Bivariate correlation analyses showed that there is a positive correlation between children's perceived maternal behavioral control and prosocial behavior towards mothers and fathers. Moreover, there was a negative correlation between perceived maternal psychological control and children's prosocial behavior toward their mothers and toward their fathers. There was also a negative correlation between perceived paternal psychological control and children's prosocial behavior toward their mothers and fathers. There was also a positive correlation between prosocial behavior toward mothers and fathers. Additionally, there was no correlation between mother-report psychological control and prosocial behavior toward mothers and toward fathers while mother-report behavioral control was positively correlated with prosocial behavior toward mothers and fathers. Additionally, there were positive correlations between reports of mothers and children about maternal behavioral control and maternal psychological control.

**Table 4: Correlations among main variables for mothers and children’s reports**

	Mother Reports - BC	Mother Reports - PC	Child Reports - PC of Mothers	Child Reports - PC of Fathers	Child Reports - BC of Mothers	PB toward Mothers	PB toward Fathers
Mother Reports - BC	1	-.315***	-.247***	-.295***	.398***	.299***	.314***
Mother Reports - PC		1	.381***	.332***	-.129	-.041	-.075
Child Reports - PC of Mothers			1	.895***	-.285***	-.257***	-.235**
Child Reports - PC of Fathers				1	-.291***	-.233***	-.205**
Child Reports - BC of Mothers					1	.568***	.590***
PB toward Mothers						1	.860***
PB toward Fathers							1

PB= Prosocial Behavior, PC=Psychological Control, BC= Behavioral Control

\* $p < 0.05$ , \*\* $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\* $p < 0.001$

When we look at the correlations separately for boys and girls (Table 5), the results revealed that there are positive and significant correlations between prosocial behavior toward mothers and perceived maternal behavioral control for both girls and boys. Additionally, there was also a positive correlation between prosocial behavior toward fathers and perceived maternal behavioral control of boys and girls. However, there is a negative correlation between prosocial behavior toward mothers and perceived maternal psychological control for girls while there is not a significant correlation between prosocial behavior toward mothers and perceived maternal psychological control for boys. Additionally, perceived maternal psychological control were negatively correlated to prosocial behavior toward fathers for girls but there was no correlation for boys. Moreover, perceived paternal psychological control was negatively correlated to prosocial behavior toward mothers and fathers for girls. However, there was no correlation between perceived paternal psychological control and prosocial behavior toward mothers and fathers for boys.

**Table 5: Correlations of children reports about main variables for girls and boys**

	Girls		Boys	
	PB toward mothers	PB toward fathers	PB toward mothers	PB toward fathers
BC of mothers	.617***	.554***	.486***	.568***
PC of mothers	-.318***	-.336***	-.119	-.078
PC of fathers	-.244**	-.222*	-.075	-.099

PB= Prosocial Behavior, PC= Psychological Control, BC= Behavioral Control

\* $p < 0.05$ , \*\* $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\* $p < 0.001$

### 4.3 Moderating Role of Gender in the Relation Between Prosocial Behavior and Behavioral and Psychological Control

#### 4.3.1 Child Reports of Prosocial Behavior and Parental Behavioral and Psychological Control

To test the moderating role of gender on the relation between prosocial behavior and behavioral and psychological control, two hierarchical (moderated) regression analyses were carried out. First of all, all the variables (except gender) in question were centered in order to reduce the possibility of non-essential collinearity (Aiken & West, 1991). In both analyses, prosocial behavior toward either mother or father was treated as the outcome variable. In step 1, gender, behavioral control of mothers and psychological control of mothers and fathers were entered, followed by their interaction terms in step 2. In other words, two pieces of two-steps hierarchical regression analyses were performed to test the gender X behavioral control or psychological control of mothers and fathers' interaction effects on prosocial behavior toward mother and father.



## PARENTAL CONTROL AND PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR

Table 6 demonstrates the results of the first hierarchical regression analysis. The results of this analysis showed that gender ( $\beta = -.30, p < .001$ ), and behavioral control of mothers ( $\beta = .47, p < .001$ ) significantly predicted prosocial behavior toward mothers in the first step ( $R^2 = .39, F(4, 205) = 32.98, p < .001$ ). In the second step, gender ( $\beta = -.31, p < .001$ ) and behavioral control of mothers ( $\beta = .44, p < .001$ ) remained significant, while none of the other variables (interaction terms) independently predicted prosocial behavior toward mothers ( $R^2 = .39, F(9, 200) = 14.38, p < .001$ ).

PARENTAL CONTROL AND PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR

**Table 6: Hierarchical regression for child-reports: Standardized regression coefficients predicting prosocial behavior toward mothers**

Prosocial Behavior toward Mothers			
	Step 1	Step 2	R <sup>2</sup>
Gender	-.304***	-.305***	.392***
Psychological Control of Mothers	-.169	-.187	
Psychological Control of Fathers	.124	.107	
Behavioral Control of Mothers	.465***	.440***	
Gender x Behavioral Control of Mothers		.030	.393***
Gender x Psychological Control of Mothers		.006	
Gender x Psychological Control of Fathers		.039	
Behavioral Control of Mothers x Psychological Control of Mothers		-.030	
Behavioral Control of Mothers x Psychological Control of Fathers		.034	

\* $p < 0.05$ , \*\* $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\* $p < 0.001$

Table 7 demonstrates the results of the second hierarchical regression analysis. The results of this analysis showed that gender ( $\beta = -.16, p = .008$ ), and behavioral control of mothers ( $\beta = .49, p < .001$ ) significantly predicted prosocial behavior toward fathers in the first step ( $R^2 = .32, F(4, 196) = 32.98, p < .001$ ). In

## PARENTAL CONTROL AND PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR

the second step, gender ( $\beta = -.16, p = .010$ ) and behavioral control of mothers ( $\beta = .46, p < .001$ ) remained significant, and in addition to these psychological control of mothers ( $\beta = .48, p < .001$ ) became significant in step 2. However, none of the other variables (interaction terms) independently predicted prosocial behavior toward fathers ( $R^2 = .35, F(9, 191) = 11.34, p < .001$ ).

**Table 7: Hierarchical regression for child-reports: Standardized regression coefficients predicting prosocial behavior toward fathers**

	Prosocial Behavior toward Fathers		R <sup>2</sup>
	Step 1	Step 2	
Gender	-.163**	-.161*	.324***
Psychological Control of Mothers	-.192	-.483*	
Psychological Control of Fathers	.146	.334	
Behavioral Control of Mothers	.492***	.457***	
Gender x Behavioral Control of Mothers		.018	.348***
Gender x Psychological Control of Mothers		.335	
Gender x Psychological Control of Fathers		-.184	
Behavioral Control of Mothers x Psychological Control of Mothers		-.138	
Behavioral Control of Mothers x Psychological Control of Fathers		.202	

\* $p < 0.05$ , \*\* $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\* $p < 0.001$

#### 4.3.2 Mothers' Reports of Behavioral and Psychological Control

Besides, to test the moderating role of the gender on the link between mother's own reports about behavioral and psychological control and prosocial behavior toward mothers and fathers (children's reports), two hierarchical (moderated) regression analyses were performed. Prosocial behavior, psychological control, and behavioral control variables were centered for reducing the possibility of non-essential collinearity (Aiken & West, 1991). Prosocial behavior toward either mother and father was dependent variables for both analyses. All the steps are identical to the analyses reported above. In other words, the gender of the children, mother reports for psychological control and behavioral control were entered in step 1, followed by their interaction terms in step 2.

Table 8 demonstrates the results of the first hierarchical regression analysis regarding mother's reports on prosocial behavior toward mothers. The results of this analysis showed that gender ( $\beta = -.37, p = .008$ ), and mother reports for behavioral control ( $\beta = .26, p < .001$ ) significantly predicted prosocial behavior toward mothers in the first step ( $R^2 = .22, F(3, 185) = 17.19, p < .001$ ). In the second step, both gender ( $\beta = -.37, p < .001$ ) and mother reports for behavioral control ( $\beta = .39, p < .001$ ) remained significant, but none of the other variables (interaction terms) independently predicted prosocial behavior toward mothers ( $R^2 = .23, F(6, 182) = 9.11, p < .001$ ).

PARENTAL CONTROL AND PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR

**Table 8: Hierarchical regression for mother-reports: Standardized regression coefficients predicting prosocial behavior toward mothers**

Prosocial Behavior toward Mothers			
	Step 1	Step 2	R <sup>2</sup>
Gender	-.369***	-.369***	.218***
Mother Reports for Psychological Control	.074	.085	
Mother Reports for Behavioral Control	.260***	.394***	
Gender x Mother Reports for Psychological Control		-.014	.231***
Gender x Mother Reports for Behavioral Control		-.167	
Mother Reports for Behavioral Control x Mother Reports for Psychological Control		-.056	

\* $p < 0.05$ , \*\* $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\* $p < 0.001$

Table 9 demonstrates the results of the second hierarchical regression analysis regarding mother's reports on prosocial behavior toward fathers. The results of this analysis showed that gender ( $\beta = -.26, p < .001$ ), and mother reports for behavioral control ( $\beta = .29, p < .001$ ) significantly predicted prosocial behavior toward fathers in the first step ( $R^2 = .16, F(3, 176) = 11.23, p < .001$ ). In the second step, both gender ( $\beta = -.24, p < .001$ ) and mother reports for behavioral control ( $\beta =$

PARENTAL CONTROL AND PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR

.37,  $p < .001$ ) remained significant, but none of the other variables (interaction terms) independently predicted prosocial behavior toward mothers ( $R^2 = .18$ ,  $F(6, 173) = 6.41$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

**Table 9: Hierarchical regression for mother-reports: Standardized regression coefficients predicting prosocial behavior toward fathers**

Prosocial Behavior toward Fathers			
	Step 1	Step 2	R <sup>2</sup>
Gender	-.259***	-.243**	.161***
Mother Reports for Psychological Control	.029	-.069	
Mother Reports for Behavioral Control	.285***	.369**	
Gender x Mother Reports for Psychological Control		.106	.182***
Gender x Mother Reports for Behavioral Control		-.104	
Mother Reports for Behavioral Control x Mother Reports for Psychological Control		-.131	

\* $p < 0.05$ , \*\* $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\* $p < 0.001$

## Chapter 5

### DISCUSSION

The main aim of the present study was to examine whether prosocial behavior toward mothers and fathers of school-aged children was positively related to maternal behavioral control but negatively related to perceived paternal and maternal psychological control in a non-Western and predominantly Muslim culture or not (Hypothesis 1). In addition to this, the second aim of the present study was to reveal whether there are any gender differences on the relation between parental control dimensions (paternal and maternal psychological control and maternal behavioral control) and prosocial behavior toward fathers and mothers (Hypothesis 2). Besides, our third hypothesis aimed to show that girls reported more maternal behavioral control than boys while boys reported more paternal and maternal psychological control than girls (Hypothesis 3). In our last hypothesis, we aimed to show the higher scores of girls in prosocial behavior toward both fathers and mothers than boys (Hypothesis 4).

Consistent with the previous literature, the findings supported our first hypothesis that there was a positive link between maternal behavioral control and prosocial behavior toward mothers and fathers (Day & Padilla-Walker, 2009; Hong et al., 2016; Kerr, et al., 2003; Profe & Wild, 2015) and negative link between maternal and paternal psychological control and prosocial behavior toward both mothers and fathers (Clark et al. 2015; Kuppens, et al., 2009). Unlike our initial expectations about our second hypothesis, the findings did not reveal any gender differences neither on the relation between maternal and paternal psychological

control and prosocial behavior toward mothers and fathers nor on the relation between behavioral control and prosocial behavior toward mothers and fathers. Concordantly with our third hypothesis, we found that girls had more perceived maternal behavioral control while boys had more perceived both maternal and paternal psychological control. Lastly, in line with our fourth hypothesis, the findings showed that girls reported more prosocial behavior toward their parents (both mothers and fathers) than boys. Furthermore, we also looked at the maternal reports of psychological and behavioral control which enabled us to show the perspectives of parents and their children regarding parental control were positively correlated.

### **5.1 The Relationship between Parental Control and Prosocial Behavior**

Consistent with previous research, the findings supported the positive relation between prosocial behavior toward mothers and fathers and maternal behavioral control (Day & Padilla-Walker, 2009; Hong, Hwang, Tai, & Kuo, 2016; Kuppens, Grietens, Onghena, & Michiels, 2009) and negative relation between prosocial behavior toward mothers and fathers and both maternal and paternal psychological control (Clark et al., 2015; Kuppens, et al., 2009). These findings, together with the previous literature on this relation, suggests that parental practices including having knowledge about daily activities and emotional experiences of children, monitoring and supervision are positively related with the prosocial behavior of the children (e.g., Bugental & Grusec, 2006; Hastings, et al., 2007). One of the reasonable explanations for this positive link between prosocial behavior and behavioral control might be the satisfaction of the protection needs of children via



## PARENTAL CONTROL AND PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR

behavioral control which in turn might lead them to show more prosocial behavior toward parents (Barber, 1996; Bugental & Grusec, 2006). In other words, children might feel more secure with behavioral control exercises of parents (e.g., Kerns, Aspelmeier, Gentzler & Grabill, 2001) and might establish more warm relations and specifically lead children to display more positive social behavior (see Laible, 2007).

On the contrary, the psychological control includes emotional manipulation, love withdrawal and coercion to control the behaviors of children and lead to discouraging the individuality of children (Barber, 1996). Since psychological control interferes the positive development of sense of identity (with using love withdrawal, derogation, and humiliating), it might be negatively related to positive emotional and psychological needs (see Bugental & Grusec, 2006; Kerr & Stattin, 2000) and especially to prosocial behavior (Clark et al., 2015; Kuppens et al., 2009). Thus, we might assume that behavioral control might be an essential need for children and perhaps one of the determinants of higher levels of prosocial behaviors of the children, but intrusive types of parental control (i.e., psychological control) might lead to negative outcomes for healthy social behavior in general (Barber, 1996, Bugental & Grusec, 2006; Stattin & Kerr, 2000) and prosocial behavior in particular (Clark, et al., 2015; Kuppens et al., 2009).

Lastly, we also exploratorily investigated whether there was a moderator role of one of the parental control exercises (psychological control/behavioral control) on the relation between another parental control exercise and prosocial behavior

(toward mothers and fathers) or not. The results did not show any interaction for these relations.

### **5.2 Moderator Effect of Gender on the Relation between Parental Control and Prosocial Behavior**

In the second hypothesis of this study, we investigated whether there were any gender differences in the relationship between paternal and maternal psychological control, maternal behavioral control and prosocial behavior toward mothers and fathers in a non-Western population. In contrast to our initial expectations, we did not find a moderator effect of gender on the relation between prosocial behavior and parental control. That is to say, the findings revealed that gender type does not differentiate the relationship between prosocial behavior toward both mothers and fathers and parental control (neither paternal and maternal psychological nor maternal behavioral control).

Besides, to the best of our knowledge, this is the first study specifically examining the moderator role of gender in the relationship between psychological control and prosocial behavior. Thus, it seems that there is still a scarcity of empirical investigations on this topic and this moderation hypothesis should be further investigated in different studies with larger and more representative sample sizes.

Furthermore, Day and Padilla-Walker (2009) found that there is a moderator effect of gender on the relationship between parental involvement and prosocial behavior in a European sample. This study concluded that only boys were more prosocial when fathers' involvement was higher whereas mothers' involvement did

not moderate with the gender of the children. In the behavioral control assessment, we did not differentially ask the mothers and fathers' control. Thus, we were not able to compare the behavioral control of mothers and fathers as in Day and Padilla-Walker's (2009) study. Yet still, the lack of a moderating effect of gender regarding mothers' involvement was in line with the present findings of this study since our findings also suggest that there was no moderation.

Our hypothesis regarding the moderator role of gender in the relation between prosocial behavior and parental control was due to the different expectations of parents toward girls and boys in the Turkish traditional family structure which are patriarchal, traditional, and authoritarian (see Sunar & Fişek, 2005). In line with gender socialization theories (Fagot, Rodgers, & Leinbach, 2000), we predicted that girls and boys might have different perceptions regarding parental control exercises. Then, we expected that the relation between parental control and prosocial behavior might be different for girls and boys. According to gender socialization theories (Fagot, Rodgers, & Leinbach, 2000) in traditional families, parents might display sex typical responses to their children, which in turn lead children to learn and display different behavioral roles. However, the family structure of Turkish culture is somewhat complicated when considering the classical models in the literature. For example, Kagitcibasi (1996) introduced the transformation of traditional Turkish family to "autonomous-relational" structure which is a combination of both traditional and individualistic values. Since there is a rapid change in the Turkish families in the sense of cultural values which are related to the change of economic structure (e.g., maternal employment, academic

achievements of women, etc.), the gender expectations might be less traditional over the years. Thus, participants in this study might not have traditional values in their families which in turn lead them to display fewer gender differences in child-rearing practices and they may have fewer expectancies about gender appropriate behaviors of girls and boys. The traditional values of the family should be controlled in the future studies to understand whether it interacts with the above-mentioned relation. For this reason, we might say that the question regarding gender differences in child-rearing is still open and we need more investigation about this issue.

### **5.3 Gender Differences in Parental Control**

In line with our predictions, the results showed that girls had more perceived maternal behavioral control while boys had more perceived maternal and paternal psychological control. Concordantly, previous studies showed that behavioral control was more perceived by girls (Kindap, et al., 2008) while psychological control was more perceived by boys (Sayil, & Kindap, 2010) on Turkish adolescents. Rogers, Buchanan, and Winchell (2003) also found gender differences for paternal psychological control on European adolescents. In the study of Rogers et al. (2003), it was showed that boys perceived more paternal psychological control from fathers while there were not any gender differences for maternal psychological control. On the other hand, Shek (2007) revealed that psychological control and gender are not related to each other in Chinese adolescents. Another study also did not find any gender differences about neither psychological control nor parental knowledge on European adolescents (Yoo, et al., 2013). Thus, it seems there are mixed findings on the relation between gender and parental control.

A possible explanation of the present findings might be the traditional gender roles in Turkish society as we mentioned before (Sakalli-Ugurlu, Akbaş, 2013; Sunar & Fişek, 2005). For instance, girls are generally restricted by their behaviors mostly in the society (e.g., coercion to behave accordingly to honor, social norms about the clothing rules and not allowing girls go out in late hours) might lead parents to control girls for their behavior. Although boys are generally exposed to coercions for their emotions (e.g., had a negative impression when they express sadness; Carlo, 2006), it might lead parents to control boys psychologically.

### **5.4 Gender Differences in Prosocial Behavior**

The current findings confirmed our last hypothesis and showed that girls reported more prosocial behavior toward both mothers and fathers than boys. Besides, previous studies found that girls are more prosocial toward parents (see for a Turkish sample: Kumru, 2002; and a Western sample: Padilla-Walker & Christensen, 2011). This might be related to having more helping expectations of parents from girls rather than boys in the family (Ataca, 1992; Whiting & Edwards, 1988). For this reason, the parental expectations in family contexts might play a role for higher scores of girls in prosocial behavior.

Moreover, since gender differences in prosocial behavior were found more salient in the school-aged children, age might be another variable that accounts for a certain amount of variance in this relation (see Fabes et al., 1999). Besides, the present results might be also related to the self-representations of girls in society. That is to say, girls are generally expected to be more caregiving, nurturing and dependent (Carlo, 2006) which in turn might lead them to show more caring and

prosocial behavior. To sum up, in accordance with the views of theories regarding gender socialization in prosocial behavior (Whiting & Edwards, 1988), our last hypothesis was confirmed and girls would report more prosocial behavior toward their parents than boys probably due to the parental expectations in the family context and/or self-representations of girls in society.

### **5.5 Implications**

The current study consistently showed that prosocial behavior was positively related to maternal behavioral control (Day & Padilla-Walker, 2009; Kuppens, et al., 2009; Hong, Hwang, Tai, & Kuo, 2016) while negatively related to paternal and maternal psychological control (Clark, Dahlen & Nicholson, 2015; Kuppens, et al., 2009). Additionally, in this study, we considered the gender differences about parental control and prosocial behavior and showed that girls reported more prosocial behavior toward their mothers and fathers and more perceived maternal behavioral control while boys reported more perceived psychological control. These findings might imply the essential roles of both parents (recipients) and children (helpers) for displaying prosocial behavior within the family in accordance with the relational approach (Amato, 1990; Lewis, 2014). To sum up, this study suggests that having knowledge of whereabouts and emotional situations of children (e.g. behavioral control) are necessary for healthy social behavior within the family. On the other hand, if parents control behaviors of children with humiliating and manipulating their emotions and feelings (e.g., psychological control), children might display less prosocial behavior toward parents. Overall, it should be noted that the content of the control and manner of parental control exercises were

important for establishing warm relations within the family. For this reason, parents should have information for daily activities of children, monitor their experiences both emotionally and physically but they should not control behaviors of children with using offending techniques such as doing humiliation and coercion.

In the present study, we also specifically studied on the late childhood period which was an underworked period on the relation between parental control and prosocial behavior (but see for an exception: Day & Padilla-Walker, 2009). Actually, in the school-aged period, children spend more time in out of home contexts (Rathus, 2013). Thus, studying with school-aged children might be an important contribution to showing the similar directions as in other developmental periods (Hastings, et al., 2007). Therefore, both the positive link between prosocial behavior and behavioral control and the negative link between prosocial behavior and psychological control were shown in the late childhood period in addition to the findings previously shown in middle childhood (Kuppens et al., 2009), adolescence (AttarSchwartz, et al., 2009; Kerr et al., 2003; Profe & Wild, 2015), and even young adulthood (Zaff et al., 2003). Thus, one of the contributions of this study is to extend previous findings obtained in other developmental periods to the late-childhood period.

This study also contributes to the literature on being based on multiple reporters. In other words, both children and their mothers were asked to respond our parental control measures, which in turn gave us a chance to compare the perspectives of both parties. Thus, looking at whether children's and mothers' perspectives differ from each other is another contribution of the current research.

The compatible reports of mothers and children might be explained as children had a clear understanding about parental messages regarding parental control. This is important since it is known that perspectives and reactions of children to the parental practices are also essential for moral internalization of children (see Grusec & Goodnow, 1994).

This study also contributes to the literature with sample diversity. That is to say, we obtained data from a non-Western population (Turkey) and showed similar results with Western populations (see AttarSchwartz, et al., 2009; Hong, et al., 2016; Kuppens, et al., 2009 for European samples). Moreover, particularly, only Clark et al. (2015) extensively looked at the impact of culture on parental control and prosocial behavior relation. Unlike to their initial expectations, only African Americans reported the negative relation of prosocial behavior and psychological control, but White participants did not reveal the same relationship. Thus, culture itself can be a moderating variable that within-culture variation should be taken into consideration in future investigations.

Overall, both our study and most of the previous studies consistently showed the negative relation with prosocial behavior and psychological control while positive relation with prosocial behavior and behavioral control in different samples (Day & Padilla-Walker, 2009; Kuppens, et al., 2009; Hong, Hwang, Tai, & Kuo, 2016).

### **5.6 Limitations and Future Directions**

In this study, the self-report technique was used just as in most of the previous literature (e.g., AttarSchwartz, et al., 2009; Kerr et al., 2003; Zaff et al.,



2003) investigating similar relations. However, participants are more prone to show a social-desirability when self-report measures were used (Mortel, 2008), which in turn might influence the main results. For this reason, future studies should use alternative methods (such as using observational and physiological measurements).

Moreover, it must be noted that the present research was based on a correlational design which prevents us from claiming a cause-effect relation.

Additionally, this study is also based on a cross-sectional design, thus we are unable to compare the different developmental trajectories for the relations in question.

Furthermore, in this investigation, we did not obtain any data from mothers and fathers about prosocial behaviors of their children, which is another limitation of this study. The present study also did not include the fathers' own reports regarding their parental control exercises which in turn prevent us from understanding their perceptions regarding this issue. In addition, although we obtained information from both mothers and children about parental control and investigated the consistency among them, a correlation analysis of this relationship might not directly test this consistency argument. Thus, future studies should further investigate this consistency argument with alternative methodologies. Moreover, from past to now, since Turkey is a fruitful country in order to study the roles of extended families in childrearing practices (Sunar & Fişek, 2005), obtaining data from grandparents might also be important to empower the future studies (see for the studies including grandparents: AttarSchwartz, et al., 2009; Profe & Wild, 2015).

### **5.7 Conclusion**

## PARENTAL CONTROL AND PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR

All in all, the present investigation is important to show the relation between parental control and prosocial behavior with considering gender differences in a non-Western culture. The findings suggest that the negative relation of psychological control and the positive relation of behavioral control with prosocial behavior were consistently similar (e.g., AttarSchwartz, et al., 2009; Hong, et al., 2016; Kuppens et al., 2009 but see: Clark et al., 2015). Furthermore, as in previous literature, girls were found to be more prosocial toward both mothers and fathers than boys (e.g., Kumru, 2002) as well as they perceived more behavioral control (see also Kindap, Sayil, & Kumru, 2008) while boys perceived more psychological control (see also Sayil & Kindap, 2010). Additionally, we explored the moderator effect of gender on the relationship between psychological control, behavioral control, and the prosocial behavior, but in contrast to our initial expectation, we did not find any interaction neither on reports of mothers nor on reports of children. In conclusion, this research might contribute to the literature by explicating the parental control and prosocial behavior relation and paving the way for conducting future investigations in this question.

## APPENDICES

## APPENDIX A. Prosocial Behavior Toward Parents

Bu ölçekte bir çocuğun ANNE ve BABASINA yönelik sergileyebileceği olumlu davranışlar yer almaktadır. Lütfen her bir madde için cevap ölçeğinden size uygun olan sayıyı anneniz için ANNE yazan babanız için BABA yazan sütunların altındaki sayıları yuvarlak içine alarak gösteriniz.

Hiç 1	Az 2	Biraz 3	Oldukça 4	Çok 5										
<b>ANNEM / BABAM</b>					<b>ANNEME</b>					<b>BABAMA</b>				
1- eve geldiğinde hoşgeldin derim (eğer ben ondan önce gelmişsem)					1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
2- hasta olduğunda ilacını ya da yemeğini getiririm					1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3- önemli bir şeyler anlattığında saygılı bir şekilde dinlerim					1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
4. sebze-meyve taşıırken ya da yiyecek dolabına yerleştirirken yardım ederim					1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
5- problemlerini ya da duygularını anlattığında dinlerim					1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
6- eve geldiğinde gününün nasıl geçtiğini sorarım					1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
7- öneri ve uyarılarda bulunduğu dinlerim					1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
8- ihtiyaç duyduğunda cesaret verir ve rahatlatırım					1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
<b>ANNEME / BABAMA</b>														
9- evden ayrılırken hoşçakal derim					1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
10- okulda olanları ya da yaptıklarını anlatırım					1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
11- yemek masasını kurma ve toplamada yardım ederim					1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
12. çayını ya da içeceğini getiririm					1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
13. iltifat eder ya da onu beğendiğimi söylerim					1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
14. “seni seviyorum” derim					1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
15. konserve kutusu açmak, çivi çakmak ve duvara resim asmak gibi işlerde yardım ederim					1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
16. unuttuğu ayrıntıları hatırlatırım					1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
17. bir şeyler taşımasında yardım ederim					1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
18. özel günlerde hediye alırım					1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
<b>ANNEM İÇİN / BABAM İÇİN</b>														
19. odamı temizler, düzenli tutmaya çalışırım					1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
20. bulaşıkları yıkarım					1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
21. evde misafir varken sofra kurallarına uyarım					1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
22. evin tozunu alırım					1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
<b>ANNEMLE / BABAMLA</b>														
23. eğlenceli birşeyler yapar ya da oyun oynarım					1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
24. sırlarımı paylaşıyorum					1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
25. şakalaşırım					1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
26. gündelik konularla ilgili sohbet ederim					1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
27. duygularımı paylaşıyorum					1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

**APPENDIX B. Behavioral Control / Mother Report**

Aşağıda çocuğunuzla ilgili bazı durumlar yer almaktadır. Bu durumlardan ne kadar sıklıkla haberiniz olup olmadığını size uyan seçeneği daire içine alarak belirtiniz.

<b>ÇOCUĞUMUN,</b>	Hiçbir zaman haberim olmaz	Çok seyrek haberim olur	Bazen haberim olur	Sık sık haberim olur	Her zaman haberim olur
1. boş zamanlarında ne yaptığından	1	2	3	4	5
2. boş zamanlarında kiminle arkadaşlık ettiğinden	1	2	3	4	5
3. hangi ev ödevleri olduğundan	1	2	3	4	5
4. parasını nereye harcadığından	1	2	3	4	5
5. sınavlarının ne zaman olduğundan	1	2	3	4	5
6. okulda ders dışında ne yaptığından	1	2	3	4	5
7. arkadaşlarıyla dışarı çıktığında nereye gittiğinden	1	2	3	4	5
8. okuldan sonra nereye gittiğinden ve ne yaptığından	1	2	3	4	5

## APPENDIX C. Behavioral Control / Child Report

ANNEMİN,	Hiçbir zaman haberi olmaz	Çok seyrek haberi olur	Bazen haberi olur	Sık sık haberi olur	Her zaman haberi olur
1. boş zamanlarımda ne yaptığımdan	1	2	3	4	5
2. boş zamanlarımda kiminle arkadaşlık ettiğimden	1	2	3	4	5
3. hangi ev ödevlerim olduğundan	1	2	3	4	5
4. paramı nereye harcadığımdan	1	2	3	4	5
5. sınavlarımın ne zaman olduğundan	1	2	3	4	5
6. okulda ders dışında ne yaptığımdan	1	2	3	4	5
7. arkadaşlarımla dışarı çıktığımda nereye gittiğimden	1	2	3	4	5
8. okuldan sonra nereye gittiğimden ve ne yaptığımdan	1	2	3	4	5

## APPENDIX D. Psychological Control / Child Report

ANNEM				Aşağıda anne ya da babanızın sizinle ilişkisinde söz konusu olabilecek bazı davranışları yer almaktadır. Lütfen bu davranışların anne ya da babanız için ne oranda geçerli olduğunu size uyan sayıyı daire içine alarak belirtiniz. Önce her bir ifadeyi anneniz için düşünün ve solda yer alan sütunlarda size uyan seçeneği işaretleyin, daha sonra her bir ifadeyi babanız için düşünün ve aynı şekilde sağ tarafta size uyan seçeneği işaretleyin.	BABAM			
Hiç yapmaz	Bazen yapar	Sıklıkla yapar	Her zaman yapar		Hiç yapmaz	Bazen yapar	Sıklıkla yapar	Her zaman yapar
1	2	3	4	1. Eğer onu utandıracak bir şey yaparsam, beni görmezden gelmeye çalıştığı olur.	1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4	2. Eğer bazı şeyleri onun gibi düşünmezsem bana soğuk davrandığı olur.	1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4	3. Yapmamam gerektiğini düşündüğü bir şeyi yaptığımda bana kendimi suçlu hissettirdiği olur.	1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4	4. Beni başkalarının (arkadaşlarının) önünde utandırdığı olur.	1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4	5. Ailedeki problemler yüzünden beni suçladığı olur.	1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4	6. Eğer onu kıracak bir şey yaparsam, gönülünü alıncaya kadar benimle konuşmadığı olur.	1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4	7. Beni aşağılayıp, küçük düşürdüğü olur (aptal, işe yaramaz vb. olduğumu söylediği zamanlar).	1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4	8. Beni bir başkasıyla haksız yere karşılaştırdığı olur (kardeşimle ya da kendi çocukluğuyla).	1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4	9. Beni eleştirirken geçmişte yaptığım hataları dile getirdiği olur.	1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4	10. Bir birey olarak bana saygı duymadığı olur (konuşmama izin vermediği, diğerlerini bana tercih ettiği zamanlar).	1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4	11. Ben konuşurken sözümü kestiği olur.	1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4	12. Bazen odama izinsiz girip, çantamı ve eşyalarımı karıştırdığı olur.	1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4	13. Benden çok fazla şey beklediği olur (okulda başarılı olma, iyi insan olma vb.).	1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4	14. Ne zaman bir şey anlatmaya çalışsam konuyu değiştirdiği olur.	1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4	15. Beni yok saydığı olur (beni bırakıp yürüyüp gittiği, beni dikkate almadığı zamanlar).	1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4	16. Herhangi bir şey hakkındaki hislerimi ve düşüncelerimi değiştirmeye çalıştığı olur.	1	2	3	4

## APPENDIX E. Psychological Control / Mother Report

	Hiç yapmam	Bazen yaparım	Sıklıkla yaparım	Her zaman yaparım
1. Eğer beni utandıracak bir şey yaparsa, onu görmezden gelmeye çalıştığım olur.	1	2	3	4
2. Eğer bazı şeyleri benim gibi düşünmezse ona soğuk davrandığım olur.	1	2	3	4
3. Yapmaması gerektiğini düşündüğüm bir şeyi yaptığında ona kendini suçlu hissettirdiğim olur.	1	2	3	4
4. Onu başkalarının (arkadaşlarının) önünde utandırdığım olur.	1	2	3	4
5. Ailedeki problemler yüzünden onu suçladığım olur.	1	2	3	4
6. Eğer beni kıracak bir şey yaparsa, gönlümü alıncaya kadar onunla konuşmadığım olur.	1	2	3	4
7. Onu aşağılayıp, küçük düşürdüğüm olur (aptal, işe yaramaz vb. olduğunu söylediğim zamanlar).	1	2	3	4
8. Onu bir başkasıyla haksız yere karşılaştırdığım olur (kardeşiyle ya da kendi çocukluğumla).	1	2	3	4
9. Onu eleştirirken geçmişte yaptığı hataları dile getirdiğim olur.	1	2	3	4
10. Bir birey olarak ona saygı duymadığım olur (konuşmasına izin vermediğim, diğerlerini ona tercih ettiğim zamanlar).	1	2	3	4
11. O konuşurken sözünü kestiğim olur.	1	2	3	4
12. Bazen odasına izinsiz girip, çantasını ve eşyalarını karıştırdığım olur.	1	2	3	4
13. Ondan çok fazla şey beklediğim olur (okulda başarılı olma, iyi insan olma vb.).	1	2	3	4
14. Ne zaman bir şey anlatmaya çalışsa konuyu değiştirdiğim olur.	1	2	3	4
15. Onu yok saydığım olur (onu bırakıp yürüyüp gittiğim, onu dikkate almadığım zamanlar).	1	2	3	4
16. Herhangi bir şey hakkındaki hislerini ve düşüncelerini değiştirmeye çalıştığım olur.	1	2	3	4

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