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THE MEDIATOR ROLE OF EMOTION REGULATION DIFFICULTIES IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARENTAL ACCEPTANCE-REJECTION AND TEST ANXIETY

MASTER THESIS

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PREFACE

The current study was prepared as a master's dissertation, and examined the mediating role of emotion regulation difficulties in the relationship between parental acceptance-rejection and test anxiety. A total of 284 11th and 12th grade high school students participated in this study, and they were asked specific questions about their demographics and applied specific measurements through the aim of the study.

There are many psychological theories examining the child-parent relationship during childhood. One of these is Parental Acceptance-Rejection Theory, seeking to determine the effects of the parent-child relationship and parents' behaviour towards their child. This socialization and lifelong development theory examines the reasons for parental acceptance and rejection and in what way such acceptance or rejection influences an individual's emotional, behavioural, and socio-cognitive development. This study aims to examine the relationship between perceived parental acceptance or rejection and test anxiety, and the mediating role of difficulties in emotion regulation in this relationship. Understanding this mediatory role could provide researchers and practitioners with valuable knowledge for treatment of test anxiety.

I would like to express my sincere thanks to my supervisor, Assist. Prof. Dr. Gaye Zeynep ÇENESİZ, for providing me with her unsparing knowledge, experience, and patience throughout my study. Her empathetic and compassionate approach was what motivated me to get up and complete my study each time I tended to deviate from my targets. It is my greatest honour and chance to have had the opportunity to work with her.

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ABSTRACT

THE MEDIATOR ROLE OF EMOTION REGULATION DIFFICULTIES IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARENTAL ACCEPTANCE-REJECTION AND TEST ANXIETY

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This study aims to examine how dimensions of perceived parental acceptancerejection correlates with test anxiety, and what mediating role emotion regulation difficulties (awareness, clarity, non-acceptance, strategies, goals, and impulse) play in this relationship. The study sample was composed of a total of 284 high school students from two basic high schools in the province of Kocaeli. Participants were applied Demographical Information Form, Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire Child Short Form Mother and Father Version, Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale and Test Anxiety Inventory. Correlation analyses, independent samples t-tests, One-Way analysis of variances (ANOVA), Multivariate analysis of variances (MANOVA) and mediation analyses were performed through the aim of the present study. The findings of the present study revealed that both perceived parental rejection and test anxiety positively correlated with emotion regulation difficulties in addition to positive correlations between some subdimensions of parental rejection, test anxiety, and emotion regulation difficulties. Furthermore, gender, participants' father and mother education level differences were detected in the same measures. Lastly, the mediation analyses carried out showed that the relationship between maternal and paternal acceptance-rejection and test anxiety were mediated by clarity, nonacceptance, goals

subdimensions of emotion regulation difficulties, but not awareness, strategies and impulse subdimension. The results of the study were evaluated in the light of the related literature, implications of the study were discussed and limitations of the study and recommendations for future research were explained.

Key words: Perceived Parental Acceptance-Rejection, Emotion Regulation Difficulties, Test Anxiety.

ÖZET

ALGILANAN EBEVEYN KABUL-REDDİNİN SINAV KAYGISI İLE İLİŞKİSİNDE DUYGU DÜZENLEME GÜÇLÜKLERİNİN ARACI ROLÜ

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Bu çalışmanın amacı, lise öğrencilerinin algıladıkları ebeveyn kabul ve red boyutlarının sınav kaygısıyla ilişkisini araştırmanın yanı sıra bu ilişkide duygu düzenleme güçlüklerinin (farkındalık, açıklık, kabul etmeme, stratejiler, amaçlar ve dürtü) aracı rolünü incelemektedir. Araştırmanın örneklemini, Kocaeli ili temel liselerinde öğrenim gören 284 lise öğrencisi oluşturmaktadır. Katılımcılara Demografik Bilgi Formu, Ebeveyn Kabul-Red Ölçeği Çocuk/Ergen Kısa Formu, Duygu Düzenleme Güçlüğü Ölçeği ve Sınav Kaygısı Envanteri uygulanmıştır. Çalışmanın amacı doğrultusunda korelasyon analizleri, bağımsız gruplar t-testleri, tek yönlü ANOVA, Çok Değişkenli Varyans Analizi (MANOVA) ve aracı değişken analizleri gerçekleştirilmiştir. Çalışmanın sonuçları değerlendirildiğinde, hem algılanan ebeveyn reddi ile hem de sınav kaygısı ile duygu düzenleme güçlükleri arasında pozitif bir ilişki bulunmuştur. Ayrıca ebeveyn reddinin, sınav kaygısının ve duygu düzenleme güçlüklerinin bazı alt boyutları arasında pozitif ilişkiler bulunmuştur. Bunun yanı sıra, bazı değişkenlerin cinsiyet, baba ve anne eğitim düzeyi açısından farklılaştığı belirlenmiştir. Son olarak yapılan aracı değişken analizleri; duygu düzenleme güçlüğünün açıklık, kabul etmeme ve amaçlar alt boyutları anne ve baba kabul-reddi ile sınav kaygısı arasındaki ilişkide aracı rol üstlenirken farkındalık, stratejiler ve dürtü alt boyutlarının aracı etkisi bulunmadığı tespit edilmiştir. Çalışmanın sonuçları, önemi ve sınırlılıkları ilgili literatür dahilinde tartışılmış, gelecek çalışmalar için öneriler açıklanmıştır.

Anahtar kelimeler: Algılanan Ebeveyn Kabul-Reddi, Duygu Düzenleme Güçlükleri, Sınav Kaygısı.

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ABBREVIATION LIST

ANOVA : Analysis of Variance

CI : Confidence Interval

DERS : Difficulties in Emotion Regulation

M : Mean

MANOVA : Multivariate Analysis of Variances

Max : Maximum

Min : Minimum

PARTheory: Parental Acceptance and Rejection Theory

PARQ : Parental Acceptance and Rejection Questionnaire

SD : Standard Deviation

TAI : Test Anxiety Inventory

INTRODUCTION

Childhood is certainly one of the most important periods of one's life. Family atmosphere during childhood is a significant indicator of physical and mental health throughout one's life. That's why many psychological theories have focused on this important period and shown its profound effects on one's psychological and social development (Berne 1972; Bowlby 1951; Erikson 1963; Freud 1949; Rohner 1980; Watson 1928).

Sigmund Freud was the first to develop a holistic theory of child-parent relationships during childhood. Focusing on how childhood experiences were reflected on life as an adult, he emphasized the importance of mother-child relationship, and suggested that foundations of personality were formed as a result of parental behaviour. Even though some aspects of this view have changed over time, it is still fairly commonly accepted among clinicians (Eryavuz 2006: 3).

Parental Acceptance and Rejection Theory (PARTheory), developed by Ronald P. Rohner, is one of the psychological theories about the effects of parent-child relationship and of parental behaviour towards the child. Beginning in the 1960s, the PARTheory focused on the consequences of perceived parental acceptance and rejection in early childhood on adulthood. From 2000s onwards, however, it has undergone a transformation so as to include all other important interpersonal relationships throughout the life span and was revised as Interpersonal Acceptance and Rejection Theory in 2004. In spite of the theory having a novel name and a broader focus, variables related to parental acceptance and rejection have maintained their dominance over others (Rohner 2016: 1). It has been reported that many psychopathological problems such as depression, eating disorders, behavioural problems, and borderline personality disorder may arise as a result of parental rejection (Rohner 1980: 4). For adolescents/students, test-taking is a stressful and worrisome experience in its own

right. Therefore, it is important to ensure that adolescents/students feel accepted by their parents and have no problems of emotion regulation in this process.

In spite of the fact that there have been many studies investigating the relationship between parental acceptance-rejection and test anxiety, and difficulty of emotion regulation separately, none of these has focused on these three factors together in high school students. Therefore, this study aimed to examine the relationship between parental acceptance-rejection as perceived by high school students and test anxiety, as well as the mediator role of emotion regulation difficulties in this relationship. The study sample was composed of 284 high school students from two basic high schools in the province of Kocaeli. They were asked specific questions about their demographics and research variables.

Data was analyzed by using correlation analysis, independent samples t-tests, One-Way analysis of variances, multivariate analysis of variances (MANOVA) and mediation analyses. The results of the current study were satisfactory. This study had limitations due to the fact that self-report measurements were used, it was carried out only on 11th and 12th grade high school students, data were collected only from basic high school students, and the number of specific variables included in the study was limited.

CHAPTER I

1. LITERATURE REVIEW

This study aims to examine how dimensions of perceived parental acceptance-rejection correlates with test anxiety, and what mediating role emotion regulation difficulties (awareness, clarity, non-acceptance, strategies, goals, and impulse) play in this relationship.

Theories and research pertaining to Parental Acceptance and Rejection, Difficulties in Emotion Regulation, and Test Anxiety, respectively, shall be explained in this chapter.

1.1. Parental Acceptance and Rejection Theory (PARTheory)

PARTheory is a theory about socialization and lifelong development that analyzes the reasons for parental acceptance and rejection, and their effects on one's emotional, behavioural, and socio-cognitive development (Rohner 1980: 1; Rohner 2004: 831). It is based on the assumption that all humans have emotional needs for acceptance by their significant others. It emphasizes that this need is independent of characteristics such as culture, race, physical attributes, social status, or language. In other words, PARTheory aims to describe the intercultural and generalizable principles of needs from parents by adopting a universal approach. The theory asserts that perceived rejection leads to similar results in terms of an individual's self-esteem in different communities. Another important hypothesis is that parental behaviours resulting in acceptance or rejection may vary across cultures (Rohner 1980: 17).

1.1.1. Warmth Dimension of Parenting

The concept of "warmth", which is an important dimension of parent-child relationship, is a determinant of acceptance and rejection. The warmth dimension focuses on the nature of the emotional attachment between parents and their child and how parents physically and verbally communicate their feelings to the child (Rohner 1980: 2).

Parental acceptance and the presence of warmth, affection, care, support, or love in the parent-child relationship are at the positive end of the warmth dimension, whereas on the negative end are parental rejection are the presence of little or no warmth, affection, or love, and of physically and psychologically abusive behaviour and feelings (Rohner, Khaleque & Cournoyer 2005: 305). In addition, a mother's rejecting attitude towards housework and marriage-related problems have been found to cause the child to feel rejected (Macias, Saylor, Rowe & Bell 2003, Cited: Aydın & Yamaç 2014: 90). As all individuals receive more or less love from their caregivers during their childhood, they can be placed in this spectrum of warmth dimension according to their perceived acceptance or rejection (Rohner 1980: 2).

In the acceptance end of the warmth dimension, parents can express their warmth, love, and care for their children in two ways, namely physically and verbally. Physical expression of acceptance can be done by hugs, caress, kisses, smiles, or other ways of showing approval or support, while it can be expressed verbally through praises, compliments, saying nice things about the child, and singing or telling stories to the child, and so on (Rohner, Khaleque & Cournoyer 2012: 1).

On the other hand, in the negative end of warmth dimension, i.e. rejection, parents display rejecting behaviour towards their children in four ways and their combinations. These four ways can be summarized as follows as noted in Figure 1.1: (Rohner, Khaleque & Cournoyer 2005: 305-307; Rohner, Khaleque & Cournoyer 2012: 1-2; Rohner & Rohner 1981: 249-251).

- Coldness and Lack of Affection: Parents may display cold behaviour towards their children and there may be little or no physical (hugs, kisses, and so on) or verbal (i.e. praises, compliments, and so on) expression of emotional warmth.
- 2) Hostility and Aggression: Parents may bear enmity towards their children and express their aggression physically (i.e. hitting, kicking, pinching, and so on) and verbally (i.e. mocking, swearing, shouting, and so on).
- 3) Indifference and Neglect: Indifference is lack of parental concern for the child, even when they are physically with the child. On the other hand, neglect is referred to parents' failure to meet the child's physical, medical, educational, social, or emotional needs.
- 4) Undifferentiated Rejection: In this case, the child feels unloved by his/her parents, even though his/her parents do not display any neglecting, cold, disaffectionate, indifferent, or aggressive behaviour.

Rohner, Khaleque & Cournoyer (2012: 6) analyzed these four ways of rejection in terms of emotion and behaviour. Therefore, they primarily focused on the relationship between hostility and aggression, and between indifference and neglect. Even though hostility and indifference are internal dynamic emotions which are reflected as aggressive and neglecting behaviour, the correlation between indifference and neglect was not found to be as direct as the one between hostility and aggression in the aforementioned study. This may be because parents may actually neglect or seem to neglect their children due to several reasons other than their indifference. For instance, parents may neglect their children in order to cope with their anger towards their children.

The terms and behaviours that refer to the concepts used to define the dimensions of rejection are shaped by culture and ethnicity (Rohner 2004: 1). For example, while teenagers living in the USA perceive parental control as negatively affecting their autonomy, their Eastern Asian counterparts feel cared by their parents as a result of parental control (Kyoung-Sook 2008: 191). In spite of the lack of a certain

body of universal terminology used to name rejecting behaviour across cultures, studies have revealed the four common ways of displaying rejection (Rohner 2004: 1).

Parental acceptance and rejection can be studied according to two perspectives, namely phenomenological and behavioural. The phenomenological method is based on the individual's own perception of his/her experiences, whereas in the behavioural perspective, the individual's experiences are dealt with based on the reports of a second person. Generally, the same results are obtained from either of these methods. However, in the event that the results of the two methods differ, then phenomenological perspective should be prioritized (Rohner, Khaleque & Cournoyer 2005: 307).

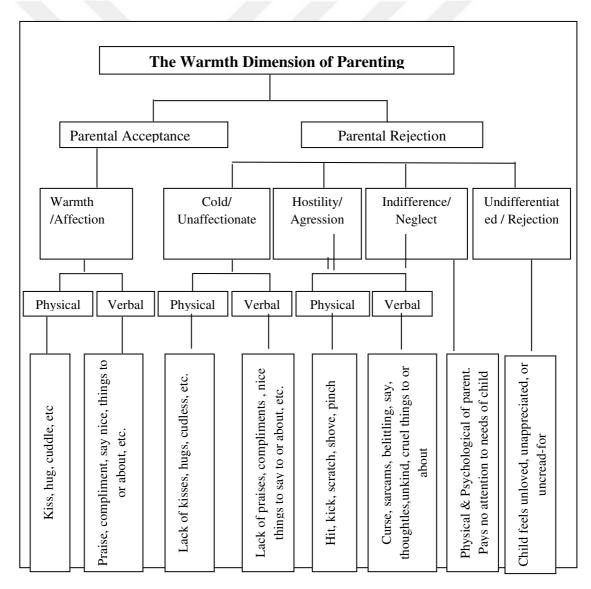


Figure 1.1: The Warmth Dimension of Parenting (Rohner, Khaleque & Cournoyer 2005: 306).

1.1.2. The Control Dimension of Parenting

Control is the other dimension of parenting in PARTheory. The control dimension of parenting is related to the extent to which parents restrict and limit the child's behaviour, how this control is perceived by the child, and the effects of such restrictions on the child's life. Permissiveness and strictness lie at the two end of the continuum of parental control. Permissive parents are those that rarely control their child's behaviour, whereas parents who continuously control their child's behaviour can be defined as restrictive (Rohner & Pettengill, 1985: 524; Rohner & Rohner, 1981: 241-245).

In strict parenting, parents set too many rules and place too many restrictions on their child in a variety of situations and demand the child's compliance to these. They always follow the child's behaviour and therefore prevent the child from gaining some skills and autonomy without parent supervision. Parental control manifests itself mainly in areas such as sexuality, toilet training, moral values, household chores, tidiness, and aggression (Rohner & Pettengill 1985, Cited: Yakın 2011: 6-7).

At the other end of the continuum, i.e. permissiveness, parents either set no rules for their child or lay down rules that are only aimed at ensuring the child's security or physical health. Such parents allow their children to behave the way they want and make their own decisions, as they provide children with no behavioural directions (Rohner & Pettengill 1985, Cited: Yakın 2011: 6-7).

1.1.3. Subtheories of Parental Acceptance and Rejection Theory

PARTheory consists of three subtheories, namely personality, coping, and sociocultural systems, which will be explained below in that order.

1.1.3.1. Personality Subtheory

The personality subtheory of PARTheory aims to predict and explain the effects of parental acceptance or rejection as perceived in childhood on individuals' personality

traits and general mental state. This is the most developed subtheory of PARTheory, with support from a great many cross-cultural studies (Rohner & Khaleque 2002: 3).

According to PARTheory, humans have an emotional need for positive response from their significant others (i.e. their mothers, fathers, and so on.). This need is believed to have emerged in the evolutionary course of humans and to have biological basis. This need may arise as an expectation for care, support, and affection from the parent in childhood, whereas in adulthood it becomes so complex as to include a recognized or unrecognized wish for having positive regard of other people whose thoughts are deemed important by the individual. Whereas it is only the parents that can fulfil this need in infants and children, other significant figures may also be added for adolescents and adults. From the point of view of the PARTheory, the term "significant others" refers to individuals with whom the child or adult forms an emotional attachment and who are not interchangeable with anyone else. Parent, on the other hand, is defined as any person who has undertaken the caregiving responsibility of the child over a short or long period of time. Therefore, parents may include the mother, father, grandmother, grandfather, or relatives of the child (Rohner 2004: 831). However, the fact that a child's emotional security and comfort depends on his/her relationship with the father and mother means that parents' role is unique among significant others. That is why the PARTheory suggests that parental acceptance and rejection influences the child's personality development more than any other factor (Rohner, Khaleque & Cournoyer 2009: 8).

The PARTheory suggests that parental rejection has a definitive impact on individuals' psychological adjustment and influences their personality traits across a constellation of seven dispositions. Rohner (1986) states that these personality dispositions form a spectrum from the positive to the negative end and all people on Earth can be placed in this constellation according to their personality traits (Eryavuz 2006; Khalaque & Rohner 2002). These dispositions are interrelated and it is essential to note that negativity in one part of the spectrum may influence other areas. These dispositions are: Dependence or defensive independence, emotional unresponsiveness,

hostility/aggression, negative self-esteem, negative self-adequacy, negative worldview and emotional instability (Khalaque & Rohner 2002: 55; Rohner 1975).

1.1.3.1.1. Dependence and Defensive Independence

In the personality subtheory of PARTheory, dependence and defensive independence are considered to be defining the two ends of the same personality constellation. As in all personality constellations dealt with in PARTheory, it is possible to place each person at any point on the continuum of dependence-defensive independence. The dependence end refers to a yearning for positive response from other people, while "dependent behaviour" consists of bids individuals make for earning positive responses from significant others (Rohner 1986).

The emotional need for positive response may manifest itself in different forms in the growing process from childhood to adulthood. While clinging to parents, conducting behaviours that aim to draw parents' attention, and whining and showing signs of anxiety and insecurity in the absence of parents may signal dependence in children, adults may display a yearning for reassurance, encouragement, care, or approval, or may request immediate help in times of distress from significant others (Rohner 1986; Rohner, Khaleque & Cournoyer 2009: 9). Emotionally healthy people may exhibit such behaviours from time to time, but what defines dependence is the frequency and severity of the need for positive response. According to PARTheory, what distinguishes one person from another in terms of dependence is perceived parental acceptance and rejection. In other words, a child who feels rejected by his/her parents makes frequent attempts for gaining parents' approval, receiving emotional support, and clinging to parents. However, it is believed that, if a child cannot obtain enough acceptance for all his/her efforts, s/he begins to manifest fewer behaviours aimed at gaining positive response. In this case, this passive reaction by the child is defensive independence rather than healthy independence. In other words, being severely rejected by his/her parents causes the child to develop defensive independence in order to cope with the perceived rejection. As a result of the feelings of anger and insecurity arising from being rejected, such a person would express that s/he does not

need anybody, and thus reject the person having rejected them in a sense (Rohner & Khaleque 2002: 4; Rohner, Khaleque & Cournoyer 2009: 10).

1.1.3.1.2. Hostility/Aggression

Hostility is an internal feeling of anger and resentment, and an underlying factor for aggression. Aggression, on the other hand, can be defined as a behavioural expression of anger and resentment, and essentially involves acts of physical/psychological damage to people or objects. One's avoidance of expressing anger explicitly, pouting in order to irritate or to get even with someone, stubbornness, or intentional procrastination can be considered passive aggression (Rohner 2005: 379-385). Rohner (1986) states that passive aggressive people may not always be consciously aware of their intentions.

In cases where parents manifest rejection through aggression/hostility, the rejected child may display hostility, aggression, or passive aggression. In addition, when parents do not allow their children to openly express their anger, these children may experience difficulty in managing their anger (Rohner 1986). However, these may be observed in children and adults even under the most favourable conditions. Humans across the world may experience anger and display acts of hostility/aggression independently of feeling rejected. Furthermore, there is the chance that people who are not hostile or aggressive may experience a great variety of psychological problems, though these may be different from those of overaggressive ones (Rohner, Khaleque & Cournoyer 2005).

1.1.3.1.3. Emotional Unresponsiveness

For a better explanation of emotional unresponsiveness, it is necessary to define its exact opposite, emotional responsiveness. It is one's ability to explicitly express his/her emotions for someone else. In other words, such individual would display comfortable and clear emotional responses and be able to form relationships that are not insecure or defensive but sincere and lasting (Rohner 2005: 382).

According to PARTheory, rejected children do not learn the feeling of affection and how to be affectionate due to the lack of a model of parental warmth. In spite of yearning for warmth and affection, these people have difficulty in displaying and perceiving these. These children grow up to be emotionally unresponsive, cold, isolated, and unable to form intimate and warm relationships with others. In some extreme cases, emotional unresponsiveness may arise in the form of blunted affect or apathy (Rohner & Brothers 1999; Rohner, Khaleque & Cournoyer 2005, Rohner, Khaleque & Cournoyer 2012).

1.1.3.1.4. Emotional Instability

In PARTheory, emotional stability refers to one's ability to control his/her feelings in the face of difficulties confronted. Emotionally stable individuals are able to tolerate minor setbacks and failures without experiencing anxiety, nervousness, or frustration. They can remain calm when they are under emotional stress and there is little fluctuation in their emotional state during the day unless they are provoked. Even though they may experience emotional shifts when faced with distress, they have no difficulty reverting back to their emotional state prior to that situation (Rohner 2005: 384).

Emotionally unstable individuals, on the other hand, may experience frequent mood swings during the day. In other words, their emotional states may swing from one extreme to another frequently and unpredictably, changing from calm to nervous or from cheerful to depressed and pessimistic in an instant. They become unhappy under stress and when things happen contrary to their expectations they may get angry or stressed (Rohner 2005: 384).

Psychological damage as a result of parental rejection lowers children's tolerance for stress and lowers their ego strength. Therefore, rejected children tend to behave less consistently when compared to accepted ones, that is to say, they have difficulty in regulating their emotions and act emotionally less coherently. Children who get parental acceptance may, like rejected children, experience difficulty in emotion regulation in

the face of some stresses. The difference between these two groups, however, can be explained in terms of quantity rather than quality (Arslan 2010: 32-33; Eryavuz 2006: 6).

1.1.3.1.5. Negative Self-Esteem

Self-esteem refers to the extent to which one likes oneself, and approves of, accepts, and considers oneself as an individual of worth and worthy of others' respect. Negative self-esteem, by contrast, may be one's dislike, disapproval, or devaluation of oneself, and one's feeling of inferiority, worhlessness, or deserving condemnation (Rohner 1986; Rohner 2005: 391).

As in other subdimensions of the PARTheory, it is universally possible to place individuals somewhere along the continuum of self-esteem, ranging from positive to negative self-esteem. People at the positive end of the continuum like, approve of, and accept themselves, and consider themselves to be worthy of others' respect. On the other hand, individuals with negative self-esteem do not like or approve of themselves, perceive themselves as worthless and feel that they deserve to be blamed. PARTheory suggests that rejected children form such patterns of thought as "My mother does not like me, so I am not worth being loved". Hence, when such children feel rejected and not loved by their significant others, they tend to view themselves as not worthy of being loved, worthless, and incapable (Rohner 1986).

1.1.3.1.6. Negative Self-Adequacy

Self-adequacy means judgments one makes about how well one can deal with the demands of daily life. Positive self-adequacy implies that the individual considers himself/herself to be able to cope with problems and, believes that s/he is - or can be - successful, is self-confident and socially adept. In contrast, negative self-adequacy leads one to consider himself/herself to be inadequate in meeting day-to-day demands. These people tend to have emotions and thoughts such as feeling unable to struggle to get the things they want (Eryavuz 2006; Rohner 1986).

According to PARTheory, parentally rejected individuals feel worthless and incapable, and think of themselves as deserving of negative criticism. They perceive these feelings as incompetence and inability. Unfortunately, people with negative self-adequacy judgments mistakenly tend to generalize those feelings to other areas. The more they see themselves as incompetent and unable, the more they begin to act as if they really are so. Hence, other people make more severe criticism of them, and such criticism is reflected upon their already hurt perception of self-adequacy (Eryavuz 2006; Rohner 1986).

1.1.3.1.7. Negative Worldview

Within the framework of PARTheory, worldview is defined as one's judgments on issues such as life, the universe, or the essence of existence. People with a positive worldview perceive life to be good, friendly, happy, and secure. On the contrary, for those who have a negative worldview, life is bad, insecure, hostile, and full of dangers and uncertainty (Rohner 2016: 11).

According to Rohner (1980), individuals' view of life and of the world is shaped according to parental acceptance or rejection. Rejected children tend to be insecure, dependent, defensively independent, aggressive, and emotionally unresponsive, and to trivialize their judgments of self-esteem and self-adequacy. As a result, these individuals attribute their experiences of rejection and resulting emotions to the very essence of life and the universe, forming a negative worldview (Rohner 1980: 6-7).

As described above, the PARTheory states that parental rejection has a determining effect on seven personality traits and on one's psychological adjustment. In addition, each individual responds differently to the effects on his/her psychological adjustment. These responses are explained through the coping subtheory of PARTheory described below.

1.1.3.2. Coping Theory

PARTheory focuses on individual differences in its approach to the relationship between parental rejection and one's psychological adjustment. According to coping subtheory, the extent to which one's mental health deteriorates is related to the frequency, severity, and duration of the experience of rejection. Studies within the framework of PARTheory have shown that nearly 80 % of children and adults are negatively affected by parental rejection, while the remaining 20 % respond differently than what the theory assumes. Individuals in this latter group are those who have experienced severe parental rejection yet have remained psychologically and emotionally well-adjusted (Rohner 2000; Rohner, Khaleque & Cournoyer 2012).

The coping subtheory examines why some individuals are resilient in spite of having been raised by rejecting parents or feeling rejected (Rohner et al., 2012: 1). Coping subtheory is the least developed part of PARTheory, both theoretically and empirically. Little is known about the mechanisms and processes that could help find answers this subtheory seeks (Rohner, Khaleque & Cournoyer 2005: 315).

This subtheory consists of three components: Self, others, and context. It suggests that an individual's behaviour related to rejection arises as a result of the interactions between self, context, and others. "Self" characteristics include the child's biological and personality traits as well as mental representations. "Others" include the personality characteristics of the rejecting parent or significant others, and their interpersonal relationships. The "context" is the child's and significant others' environment. The subtheory assumes that, under equal conditions, it is through emotional support and warmth of non-rejecting significant others that the child is able to cope with perceived rejection and that negative effects as a result of rejection can be diminished (Rohner & Khaleque 2002: 13-14).

PARTheory maintains that social-cognitive capabilities enable some children and adults to cope with rejection more effectively. These social cognitive capabilities are differentiated sense of self, self-determination, and depersonalization (Rohner,

Khaleque & Cournoyer 2012: 9). It is thought that individuals with a differentiated sense of self-take their own emotions and thoughts as basis. People with a positive sense of self-determination acknowledge that they have influence over life events and try to control them. Therefore, these individuals are expected to cope with these events efficiently rather than become helpless. Individuals who are able to depersonalize are believed to cope with rejection by not taking it personally rather than forming self-blaming attitude towards rejection (Rohner 2000: 9). These social-cognitive capabilities are believed to provide psychological protection against perceived rejection. Nevertheless, these traits may tend to be affected by childhood experiences of rejection, which makes it difficult to evaluate characteristics that aid coping independently (Rohner 2016: 15).

1.1.3.3. Sociocultural Systems Subtheory

Sociocultural systems subtheory of PARTheory attempts to explain why some parents are warm and affectionate (accepting) and others are cold, aggressive, or neglecting (rejecting) (Rohner 2004: 831). It evaluates parental acceptance and rejection in terms of its individual and societal antecedents, outcomes, and other correlations. Sociocultural systems model demonstrates the association between parental acceptance and rejection and family structure, household organization, economic organization, political organization, system of defence, and other social institutions. In addition, the child's individual traits such as temperament and behavioural tendencies are thought to influence parents' patterns and nature of behaviour towards the child (Rohner, Khaleque & Cournoyer 2005; Rohner 2016).

The inquiries of the sociocultural systems subtheory defy mere and simple answers. Rather, this subtheory states that some factors are related to social and intrasocietal diversities. For instance, socially isolated single parents (especially mothers) with no social or emotional support pose a risk in terms of showing affection and warmth to their children, particularly if they are young and economically troubled (Rohner, Khaleque & Cournoyer 2005: 319).

In addition to parents' warmth, affection or cold, aggressive behaviour, the way they respond to their children's emotional expressions also influences children's awareness, emotion regulation, and emotion coping attributes significantly, which will be dealt with in the following chapter on emotion regulation (Gross & Thompson 2007).

1.2. Difficulties in Emotion Regulation

Emotions play a significant role in the everyday functionality of humans and therefore constitute an important research area of psychology. Gross and Thompson (2007) state that emotions predicate behavioural, physiological, and psychological responses by influencing decision-making, memory, interpersonal relationships at several levels and functions. However, emotions may lose their functionality when they do not arise in the right context or are intense and last for a long time (Cited: Werner & Gross 2010: 17). Emotion regulation is of great importance at this stage.

Placing emotion regulation in the individual, Gross (1998: 275) refers to it as processes of individuals' influencing the type of emotions they feel, their timing, and their way of experiencing and manifesting them. Gross and Thompson (2007) distinguish between conscious and unconscious, and automatic and controlled processes of emotion regulation. The ability of individuals to increase or decrease positive and negative emotions, as well as an emphasis on what part different neural circuits have on emotion regulation are included in this definition, which considers it to be an adaptive process, rather than being good or bad. Thompson (1994: 25-29) defines emotion regulation as "involving extrinsic and intrinsic processes involved in the monitoring, evaluation, and modification of emotional reactions, particularly their intensive and temporal features, aimed at achieving goals". Thompson's definition includes how neurobiological patterns influence emotional arousal and management of affects, how cognitive processes influence modulating affects, encryption of internal indicators of emotional arousal, the capacities of coping mechanisms, and planning how emotions can be displayed in keeping with personal aims (Cicchetti, Ackerman & Izard 1995: 2; Fonagy, Gergely, Jurist & Target 2004; Thompson 1994: 25-29).

According to Gross' (1998: 1275) emotion regulation model, individuals are able to decide what emotions to feel, and in cases where they are aware of how they are experiencing these emotions and how to express them, they can formulate an efficient strategy for emotion regulation. This widely accepted model defines the five stages of emotion regulation process (Gross 1998: 283-285; Werner & Gross 2010: 18-19). These stages are:

- 1. Situation Selection includes the decision whether to become involved in a situation that causes the arousal of certain emotions or not.
- 2. Situation Modification involves making direct changes in the situation in order to modify its emotional effects.
- 3. Attentional Deployment is people's directing their attention in a way that affects their emotions in response to a situation.
- 4. Cognitive Change stage includes the arousal of an emotion, the meaning assigned to what is perceived, and one's evaluation of his/her capacity to deal with the situation.
- 5. Response Modulation stage involves influencing physiological, experiential, and behavioural responses following emotional arousal.

Gross' process model provides an integral framework for emotion regulation. The first four stages of emotion regulation occur prior to the emotional response and thus they are among antecedent-focused strategies. As a response-focused strategy, the last stage aims to influence the emotional responses (Werner & Gross 2010: 17-18). Each of these five stages may be employed individually and simultaneously, becoming suitable or not according to the situation (Gross 1998: 281).

Difficulties in emotion regulation is associated with individuals' lack of awareness of their emotions, understanding emotions, controlling impulses while experiencing negative emotions, experiencing difficulty while orienting toward target/situation focused behaviour, and inability to carry out suitable emotion regulation strategies (Gratz & Roemer 2004: 42).

Shields and Cicchetti (1997) define the distinction between emotion dysregulation and positive emotion regulation as problems arising in the expression of negative emotions in terms of reactance, severity, and rate of change. Leahy, Tirch and Napolitano (2011: 2) have defined emotion dysregulation as difficulty or lack in coping with the experience or emotion processing. Emotion dysregulation can manifest itself as overfocusing on, or over-neutralization of the emotions.

1.2.1. The Relation between Difficulties in Emotion Regulation and Parental Acceptance-Rejection

The strategies that are essential for emotion regulation develop in a social setting. Parent-child relationship and other important social attachments influence the efficacy of emotion regulation strategies children gain in the context of these close relationships (Thompson 1994: 37).

Studies have indicated that the quality of an infant's attachment to caregiver plays an essential role in the child's emotion regulation (Cassidy 1994: 209; Field 1994: 230). Throughout a child's developmental process, parents set a model to the child with the types of relationship they employ with the child, their attitude towards the child, and their ways of addressing the child's needs (Huberty 2012: 17-18). Some studies have reported that parental emotional rejection is associated with social-emotional problems and difficulties in regulation of emotional arousal (Adrian, Zeman, Erdley, Lisa & Sim 2011: 398-399). Some other studies have shown that when parental support, verbal direction, warmth and affection are present, individuals tend to employ more functional emotion regulation strategies, such as problem solving and distraction (Calkins, Smith, Gill & Johnson, 1998: 3; Morris, Silk, Steinberg, Myers & Robinson 2007: 361; Shipman & Zeman 1999: 407). On the other hand, it has also been shown that when parental attitudes tend to be aggressive, over disciplinary and controlling, this may lead to emotion dysregulation (Bell & Calkins 2000: 3; Calkins et al. 1998; Fox & Calkins, 2003: 11; Morris et al., 2007: 371; Shipman & Zeman 1999: 413-414). Furthermore, mothers' higher levels of supportive acts in response to their children's negative emotions have been linked with better emotion regulation skills in children, whereas

fathers' non-supporting attitudes have been shown to raise problems of negative emotion dysregulation (Hurrell, Hudson & Schniering 2015: 3). Marganska, Gallagher and Miranda's (2013: 131) study with an adult sample shows that secure attachment has a significant negative correlation with all subdimensions of difficulties in emotion. Vandewalle, Moens & Braet (2014: 525) state that while there is no correlation between perceived rejection by the father in teenagers with obesity and their eating behaviour, difficulties in emotion regulation play an intermediary role in the relation between perceived rejection by the mother and eating behaviour. In another study, dysregulation of anger is suggested to play an intermediary role in the relation between perceived parental control and depression levels both in females and males (Cui, Morris, Criss, Houltberg & Silk 2014: 47). Variables such as exposure to interpersonal anger, interparental conflict, or abusive parents influence the development of emotion regulation (Cole, Michel & Teti 1994: 96). Studies with small children have revealed lower levels of understanding emotions in abused or mistreated children or children of families with high levels of anger or stress (Camras et al. 1988: 776; Dunn & Brown 1994: 120). A study investigating the relation between emotion regulation skills and abuse has shown that physically abused children show poorer adaptive emotion regulation skills than children with no history of such abuse (Shipman et al. 2007: 268). Another study comparing physically abused and/or neglected children with those with no history of abuse or neglect has found emotion dysregulation in 80 % of mistreated children, as opposed to 37.2 % in the latter group (Maughan & Cicchetti 2002: 1525).

Studies conducted in Turkey have also shown the association between perceived parental rejection and over-protection and emotion dysregulation (Sarıtaş & Gençöz 2012: 117). The findings of another study have revealed that the relationship between perceived parenting style of both of the parents and psychological indications can be explained by autonomous self-control and autonomous relational self-control, early non-adaptive schemes, difficulties in emotion regulation and separation-individuation problems (Akhun 2012: 178; Yüksel 2014: 91) suggests that a high level of secure attachment predicts the enhancement of positive emotions, reduction of negative emotions, and an increased positive rumination level, whereas a high level of insecure attachment predicts an increase in the reduction of positive feelings. Another study

reports a significant negative correlation between the emotional availability of both parents and difficulties emotion regulation and general psychological symptoms. In addition, the clarity, strategies, impulse control, and goals subdimensions of Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale have been found to function as full mediators in the relationship between the emotional availability of both parents and general psychological health (Gökçe 2013: 151-152). Pektaş's (2015: 109-112) study has revealed the correlation between perceived parental rejection and symptoms of depression, trait anxiety, and difficulties in emotion regulation in university students. Difficulties in emotion regulation have been found to play an mediatory role for both sexes in the relation between perceived parental rejection and symptoms of depression and trait anxiety. Abacı's (2018: 82-83) study on the role of emotion regulation difficulties and interpersonal problems in the correlation between perceived parental rejection and psychological symptoms has shown that all indirect effects of parental acceptance-rejection, namely (i) emotion regulation difficulties, (ii) interpersonal problems, and (iii) the serial mediation of emotional dysregulation and interpersonal problems, on psychological symptoms are significant in female participants.

1.3. Test Anxiety

Richard Alpert was the first to scientifically examine test anxiety in the 1960's. Alpert realized that the pressure he felt during tests caused him to underperform while his colleague, Ralph Haber, got better scores thanks to the same pressure. As a result, the findings of Alpert and Haber revealed two kinds of anxious students, one that is less successful due to anxiety, and other that is motivated by anxiety and is therefore more successful. This showed that test anxiety experienced during tests can be considered to influence each individual differently. As situations in which individuals' academic success is evaluated, tests involve a bit of uncertainty for almost everyone, and may lead to nervousness in some individuals (Goleman 1999, Cited: Alyaprak 2006: 17).

According to Spielberger (1972), test anxiety is the state of severe anxiety that arises during a test or examination that prevents one from performing up to his/her real

potential and causes nervousness (Cited: Civil 2008: 36). Öner regards test anxiety as a "special" kind of anxiety. It arises as a result of one's feeling of being under threat or danger in any test situation. An individual's way of perception is an important factor for the emergence of test anxiety. Individuals may react differently in the face of similar situations due to personal differences. The type and severity of emotional responses are influenced not only by external events but also internal events such as considerations about external events or meaning assigned to them. According to Öner (1986), this is due to the fact that test and examination situations do not cause excitement in individuals by themselves. In fact, even though tests actually function as complementary to learning, when different meanings are assigned to test situations, one's responses may vary as well. For instance, one's perception of an examination as measuring one's value in others' favour may evolve into a personality test. In other words, the meaning that it is a personality test assigned to the exam could lead to test anxiety (Cited: Alyaprak 2006: 18).

Several models have been proposed to examine the causes of test anxiety. The first of these is the Cognitive Attention Model, which focuses on variables that affect performance and aggravate anxiety. In this model, one's negative cognitive appraisals and affective behaviours including psychological reactions in the form of pressure or tension are evaluated. Another model, the Learning Deficit Model, proposes that low performance is the result of the lack of test-taking skills. Higher levels of test anxiety lead to a lack of test-taking and preparation skills. The Dual Deficit Model, on the other hand, states that the perceived pressure is as important a factor in test anxiety as inadequate study skills. The pioneers of this model, Miechenborm and Butler, saw test anxiety as a structure that involves such various interactions as inadequate study skills, inner speech that is not aimed at a certain end, irrational thoughts or beliefs, and unrealistic appraisals. Lastly, the Social Learning Model focuses on the reasons for test anxiety and students' self-appraisals, thoughts on their own self, behaviour, expectations of competency, and test-taking motivation (Ergene 1994, Cited: Alyaprak 2006: 19-20).

Liebert and Morris (1967) state that test anxiety has two essential components, which are worry and emotionality. The worry component of test anxiety includes one's

self-perception, negative appraisals, expectations of performance, thoughts on consequences of failure, and evaluation of one's ability compared to others. Worry explains the cognitive dimension of test anxiety. Emotionality, on the other hand, refers to physiological reactions such as racing heart, nausea, over-aggressiveness, state of panic, or uneasiness that arise during the exam (Cited: Aslan 2005: 3).

People experiencing test anxiety manifest some cognitive, intellectual, physiological, and behavioural symptoms. The negative effects of test anxiety on individuals' memory and attention processes are due to its cognitive impacts. People may experience difficulties in reading-comprehension, focusing, or organizing information. Severe test anxiety may cause problems with information storing or retrieval. Cognitive appraisals such as assigning too much meaning to an test, generalization of previous failures, or the thought that it is one's personality that is under examination are also among the reasons of these negative effects (Elçin-Boyacıoğlu & Küçük 2011: 43). Physiological responses in the form of increased heartbeat, shortness of breath, tense muscles, various kinds of aches, dry mouth, nausea, diarrhea, and various bodily dysfunctions may occur in response to test anxiety. These physiological responses come about as a result of intellectual ones, with intellectual and physiological effects aggravating each other in the form of a vicious circle (Öner 1990). There is growing emphasis on the fact that behavioural responses are equivalent to those observed under stress. Escape-avoidance behaviour may arise in response to test anxiety. Unwillingness to study, difficulty in starting to study, and not wanting to take the test can be given as examples to behavioural responses to test anxiety. Besides, emotional distress, irritability, pessimism and fear, and state of panic may be observed (Şahin 1995).

The test itself and the process of testing may become crucial for parents of individuals with test anxiety. The family may frequently influence, and be influenced by this difficult experience as much as the child (Alyaprak 2006: 9). Due to this fact, there have been significant studies into how parental attitudes and perceived parental acceptance-rejection influence test anxiety. These studies are reviewed in detail below.

1.3.1. The Relation between Test Anxiety and Parental Acceptance-Rejection

Theoretical studies on test anxiety have focused on its relation with parental attitudes. These studies have shown that authoritarian family attitudes lead to an increase in test anxiety, whereas supporting family attitudes contribute to a decrease in test anxiety (Popko, Klingman & Nahhas 2003: 525). Thergeonkar and Wadkar's (2007: 10) study on the relationship between parental attitudes and test anxiety has shown negative correlations between test anxiety and democratic parental attitudes and between the emotionality dimension of test anxiety and parental acceptance.

Similar studies carried out in Turkey have found that, irrespective of the socioeconomic level of the family, there exists a weak negative correlation between the anxiety level of students and the democratic attitudes of the family. These studies have found a significant effect of parental attitudes on test anxiety experienced by students (Kozacioğlu 1982, Cited: Alyaprak 2006: 58). Furthermore, it is thought that parental pressure is associated with higher levels of anxiety. Similar studies have reported that higher levels of text anxiety cause perceived parental democratic attitude levels to decrease and perceived protective and authoritarian attitude levels to rise (Biçkur 2015: 92; Özcan 2017).

Güler's (2012: 53) study on the relationship between the gender, irrational beliefs, and parental attitudes of final-year high school students and their levels of test anxiety has shown that it is only the perceived strict control attitude by the mother that significantly predicts total test anxiety, worry, and emotionality scores. Another study aiming to determine whether perfectionist personality traits and parental attitudes predict test anxiety suggests that increased levels of positive perfectionism and perceived acceptance by the mother cause total scores of test anxiety to drop, while higher scores in negative perfectionism lead to an increase in the total scores of test anxiety. In line with these findings, it has been found that positive perfectionism, negative perfectionism and perceived maternal acceptance and interest serve as significant predictors of worry subdimension scores obtained from text anxiety scale (Hanımoğlu 2010: 74-75).

Besides parental attitudes, there have also been studies investigating the relationship between test anxiety and attachment styles. Findings suggest that a significant correlation exists between test anxiety levels and attachment styles, with a statistically significant negative correlation between test anxiety and secure attachment, and a positive correlation between test anxiety and fearful, dismissive, and preoccupied attachment (Aydın 2018: 81-82). A study on high school students has found that individuals lacking healthy attachment patterns may be vulnerable to test anxiety. There have been no significant findings showing that students who have developed a secure attachment style with their parents develop test anxiety (Ürgüp 2017: 92-96).

1.3.2. The Relation between Test Anxiety and Difficulties in Emotion Regulation

There are few studies investigating the correlation between test anxiety and emotion dysregulation in the literature. Gumora and Arsenio (2002: 404-411), underline that both negative emotions triggered during the academic tasks such as homework, quiz, and tests, emotion regulation difficulties and high emotionality have negative effects on academic performance regardless of students' cognitive abilities. In addition, 'academic affect', emotions arousing during academic tests, has been found to be a stronger predictor of academic success beyond emotionality and emotion regulation difficulties. Lastly, the correlative association between emotionality, emotion regulation and academic affect predict that cognitively incompetent students might experience negative emotions during academic tests and beside cognitive abilities, negative academic affect decreases those students' academic success. Gumora and Arsenio (2002: 404-411) emphasize that the effects of relational factors such as parenting styles, teachers' socialization practices, the quality of teacher-student relationship on academic effect should be examined. Within this perspective, in our study, parental rejection and acceptance has been included to understand test anxiety from a broad picture.

Another study carried out in Turkey investigating the relationship between test anxiety and the variables of gender, self-control, emotion management, and rumination has suggested that gender, self-control, cognitive reappraisal and suppression aimed at emotion management, and brooding as a ruminative reaction significantly predict test anxiety in university students. Moreover, self-control and cognitive reappraisal have been found to correlate more significantly with test anxiety compared to other variables (Dora 2012: 89).

Güçlü (2009: 67-68) examined the role of cognitive appraisal techniques, academic self-efficacy, test anxiety, and gender in eight grade students' emotion regulation strategies during tests. To determine the effect of gender, cognitive appraisal techniques (goal congruence, agency, and testing problem efficacy), academic self-efficacy, and test anxiety on the emotion regulation strategies during tests (task-focusing, tension reduction, self-blame, and wishful thinking), four separate hierarchical multiple regression analyses were carried out. Most of the variables have been shown to be statistically significant in all the strategies employed, with test anxiety producing the most significant effect. Females have been found to use emotion regulation strategies more frequently than males.

1.4. Aim of the Study

It has already been reported by many researchers that there exists a relationship between perceived parental acceptance-rejection and anxiety. This study contributes to the relevant literature in that it aims to analyze the mediating role of difficulties in emotion regulation in the relationship between parental acceptance-rejection and test anxiety.

A review of the literature shows that even though the relationship of difficulties in emotion regulations and of test anxiety with parental acceptance-rejection have been studied separately, these variables have never been analyzed together to the best of our knowledge. Furthermore, it has been observed that previous studies based in our country have mainly tended to examine the correlation of the variables of difficulties in emotion regulation and test anxiety separately with parental attitudes/styles. However, these variables have not been examined together in relation to parental acceptance-

rejection. Moreover, the examination of factors mediating the relationship between parental acceptance-rejection and text anxiety could prove beneficial in the treatment of test anxiety as well as in the development of programmes aimed at preventing it. Hence, it is aimed to investigate the mediator role of emotion regulation difficulties in the correlation between perceived parental acceptance-rejection and test anxiety.

1.5. Research Qestions and Hypotheses of the Present Study

In the light of the literature given above, the present study was conducted to answer the following research questions:

- 1) What are the effects of gender on perceived parental acceptance-rejection, emotion regulation difficulties and test anxiety?
- 2) What are the differences in perceived maternal acceptance-rejection in terms of education levels of the participants' mothers?
- 3) Is there any significant relationship between parental acceptance-rejection and emotion regulation difficulties? Also, is there any significant relationship between test anxiety and emotion regulation difficulties?
- 4) Is there a mediator role of emotion regulation difficulties and its subdimensions on the effect of subdimensions of perceived maternal and paternal acceptance-rejection and test anxiety?

Regarding the research questions given above, the following hypotheses were tested in an exploratory way.

When gender variable is taken into consideration, females have been found to have higher test anxiety (Hanımoğlu 2010: 72; Güler & Çakır, 2013: 90; Güler, 2012: 50), both cognitively and physiologically (Cassady & Johnson 2002: 290). When it comes to emotion regulation, females have been reported to experience more difficulty in manifesting goal-directed behaviour while experiencing negative emotions (Else, Hyde, Goldsmith & Van Hulle 2006). Therefore, females can be expected score higher than males both in the subdimensions of emotion regulation difficulties and in test

anxiety and its subdimensions. In terms of parental rejection, however, males are expected to have greater paternal rejection than females due to sociocultural factors. Sociologically, mothers tend to get involved more closely with their children compared to fathers, who tend to secure their authority by maintaining their relationship with their children at arm's length (Erkman & Rohner, 2006). Children's taking their same-sex parent as a model enhances their emotional attachment with that parent (Bussey & Bandura, 1984). Thus, such attitude of fathers trying to ensure their authority may influence their sons more significantly. A review of the relevant literature shows no significant difference in terms of gender in some studies, while in others male participants have greater paternal rejection than females (Abacı 2018: 68; Deniz 2014; Geyik 2018; Hussain, Alvi, Zeeshan & Nadeem 2013). In a study investigating parental acceptance-rejection in participants from three generations, perceived maternal rejection showed no significant difference across the three groups, whereas perceived paternal rejection was found to be higher in the adult group than other male groups (Ünübol, 2011).

Hypothesis 1. There will be gender differences in study variables.

- 1a. Males will have higher scores than females on warmth/affection dimesion of paternal acceptance-rejection
- 1b. Females will have higher scores than males in emotion regulation difficulties and its subscales.
- 1c. Females will have higher scores than males on text anxiety, its dimension of worry and emotionality.

The reports in the current literature on whether parental acceptance-rejection, difficulties of emotion regulation, and test anxiety differ in accordance with level of education of parents are contradictory. Some studies suggested that mothers with high school or higher degree were more accepting, whereas less-educated mothers were more rejecting (Erkan & Toran 2004; Kaytez & Durual, 2016). On the other hand, Gelgör (2016: 36) found that the father's level of education did not correlate with emotion regulation skills of the child or perceived parental acceptance-rejection. Another study suggested that the subdimensions of difficulties of emotion regulation did not differ

according to level of education of parents (Atalay, 2018). Some studies investigating how the variable of test anxiety differed with the level of education of parents reported that there was no significant difference between the two (Kısa, 1996), whereas others, such as that of Ün (2018), reported higher test anxiety scores of individuals with well-educated parents. Due to these contradictory findings, it was found necessary to investigate whether parents' level of education influenced the variables of parental acceptance-rejection, emotion regulation difficulties, and test anxiety.

Hypothesis 2. The maternal and paternal acceptance and rejection, dilfficulties in emotion regulation and test anxiety will differ according to the education level of mother and father.

The current literature on the subject reveals lower levels of anxiety in individuals with democratic parents compared to those with authoritarian parents (Gökçedağ, 2001; Güneysu & Bilir, 1988; Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg & Durnbysch, 1991). Test anxiety has been found to increase along with parents' level of indifference (Ün, 2018: 103). Also, it is known that anxious people have difficulty in understanding their feelings and accepting negative emotions (Mennin, Turk, Heimberg & Fresco 2005). Difficulties of emotion regulation and perceived parental rejection have been shown to be associated (Pektaş, 2015). Parentally rejected individuals tend to behave less coherently emotionally (Arslan, 2010: 32-33). These findings can be interpreted in a way that there could be positive and significant correlations between the variables of parental acceptance-rejection, emotion regulation difficulties, and test anxiety.

Hypothesis 3. There will be a significant relation among the variables parental acceptance rejection, emotion regulation difficulties and test anxiety.

- 3a. There will be positive correlations between parental rejection and emotion regulation difficulties, and its subscales.
- 3b. There will be positive correlations between test anxiety and emotion regulation difficulties, and its subscales.
- 3c. There will be positive correlations between parental acceptance rejection and test anxiety and its subscales.

A review of the literature reveals a significant relationship between higher or lower levels of test anxiety in senior year high school students and their perceived democratic or authoritarian parental attitudes (Kısa 1996). Variations of the style of parental responsiveness, such as acceptance, support and sympathy, have also been linked with the development of emotion regulation in children (Morris et al. 2007: 370). Similarly, Pektaş's study on undergraduate students suggests that perceived parental rejection is associated with difficulties of emotion regulation (Pektaş, 2015). Based on these findings, difficulties of emotion regulation are expected to play a mediator role in the relationship between parental acceptance-rejection and test anxiety.

Hypothesis 4. Emotion regulation difficulties and its subscales will mediate the relationships between parental acceptance rejection and test anxiety.

CHAPTER II

2. METHOD

This study aims to examine how dimensions of perceived parental acceptance-rejection correlates with test anxiety, and what mediating role emotion regulation difficulties (awareness, clarity, non-acceptance, strategies, goals, and impulse) play in this relationship. To this end, information about the participants, measurements that were used, and procedure of the present study will be provided in this chapter.

2.1. Participants

After data cleaning, a total of 284 high school students from two basic high schools in Kocaeli participated in this study. Of the study participants, 52.5% were female (n = 149), and 47.5% were male (n = 135). Participants' ages ranged from 16 to 19 years, with the mean age of 17.29 (SD = .64). In terms of the classroom of the participants, 25.7% (n = 73) were in 11^{th} grade, 74.3% (n = 211) were in 12^{th} grade. The vast majority of the participants (n = 263) lived in the city for most of their lives

The findings on the education levels of the participants' mothers showed that revealed that 3 mothers (1.1%) were literate, 73 mothers (25.7%) were primary school graduates, 67 mothers (23.6%) were secondary school graduates, 103 (36.3%) were high school graduates, 33 mothers (11.6%) were university graduates and 3 mothers (1.1%) were postgraduates, and 2 respondents (0.7%) had not provided any information. Whereas 41 (n = 14.4%) of the fathers were primary school graduates, 44 (n = 15.5%) were secondary school graduates, 117 (41.2%) were high school

graduates, 70 (24.6 %) were university graduates, 10 (3.5 %) were postgraduates and information from 2 participants (0.7 %) were missing.

The vast majority of the participants' mothers were housewives (n = 183). On the other hand, the vast majority of the participants' fathers were self-employed (n = 83). The socio-demographic information about the sample is presented in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Demographic variables of the participants

| Variables | F | % | Variables F | % |
|------------------------|-----|------|----------------------------------|-----|
| Gender | | | Birth Order | |
| Girls | 149 | 52.5 | An Only Child 36 1 | 2.7 |
| Boys | 135 | 47.5 | First-Born Child 94 3 | 3.1 |
| Age | | | Second-Born Child 88 | 3.1 |
| 16 | 21 | 7.4 | Third-Born Child 36 1 | 2.7 |
| 17 | 169 | 59.5 | Youngest Child 11 | 3.9 |
| 18 | 86 | 30.3 | Missing 19 | 6.7 |
| 19 | 8 | 2.8 | Education Level of Mother | |
| Classroom | | | Literate 3 | 1.1 |
| 11 th grade | 73 | 25.7 | Primary School 73 2 | 5.7 |
| 12 th grade | 211 | 74.3 | Secondary School 6 2 | 3.6 |
| Residence | | | High School 103 3 | 6.3 |
| Village | 7 | 2.5 | University 33 1 | 1.6 |
| Town | 14 | 4.9 | Post-Graduate 3 | 1.1 |
| City | 263 | 92.6 | Missing 2 | .7 |
| Number of Sibling | | | Education Level of Father | |
| 1 | 36 | 12.7 | Primary School 41 1 | 4.4 |
| 2 | 128 | 45.1 | Secondary School 44 1 | 5.6 |
| 3 | 80 | 28.2 | High School 117 4 | 1.5 |
| 4 | 23 | 8.1 | University 70 2 | 4.6 |
| 5 and more | 5 | 1.8 | Post-Graduate 10 | 3.5 |
| Missing | 12 | 4.2 | Missing 2 | .7 |

2.2. Measurements

Demographical Information Form, Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire Child Short Form Mother and Father Version, Test Anxiety Inventory, Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale were utilized as the measures of the present study.

2.2.1. Demographical Information Form

In order to identify certain characteristics of the sample, a demographic information form was prepared consisting of questions related to the participants' ages, classrooms, gender, education level of parents, and so on (See Appendix A).

2.2.2. Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire (PARQ): Child Version Short Form

The Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire (PARQ) was developed by Rohner, Saavedra, and Granum (1978) to assess perceived parental acceptance and rejection. There are two versions of PARQ, namely Child PARQ and Adult PARQ. Child PARQ evaluates acceptance and rejection as perceived by children aged 9-17 in their relationship with their parents, while Adult PARQ focuses on parental acceptance and rejection experienced by individuals aged 17 or older in their childhood. The two versions are the same in their content, with the exception of the use of verb tenses. The items in Child PARQ are written in the present tenses, whereas Adult PARQ uses the same items expressed in the past tenses. PARQ is conducted separately for the mother and the father. PARQ assessing the perceived acceptance-rejection in the relationship with the father and the mother are called PARQ Father Version, and PARQ Mother Version, respectively.

In addition, the Child and Adult PARQ versions have long forms consisting of 60 items each, and short forms of 24 items selected from the long versions. Child PARQ Short Form is composed of four sub-scales, namely warmth/affection, hostility/aggression, indifference/neglect, and undifferentiated rejection. These four subscales include 8, 6, 6 and 4 items, respectively. All items are scored in a 4-point Likert type scale ranging from "almost always true" (4 points) to "almost never true" (1 point). The following items can be given as examples of the items in the aforementioned subscales: "Said nice things about me" (warmth/affection), "Hit me, even when I did not deserve it" (hostility/aggression), "Paid no attention to me" (indifference/neglect) and "Seemed to dislike me" (undifferentiated rejection). Higher scores indicate a more

severe experience of rejection. The lowest score that can be obtained from the scale is 24, indicating maximum love and acceptance. The highest score of 96, on the other hand, shows maximum rejection. A score of 60 or higher indicates more rejection than acceptance.

Rohner (2005) found the reliability coefficient of the mother version of Child PARQ to be .87. The reliability coefficients of the warmth/affection, hostility/aggression, indifference/neglect, and undifferentiated rejection sub-scales of this version were found to be .74, .67, .67, and .59, respectively. The reliability coefficient of the father version of Child PARQ was .87. The reliability coefficients of the warmth/affection, hostility/aggression, indifference/neglect, and undifferentiated rejection sub-scales of the father version were found to be .78, .58, .68, and .60, respectively.

The reliability of the Child PARQ Short Form was examined by Yılmaz (2007), who found Cronbach's Alpha values of the subscales of warmth/affection, hostility/aggression, indifference/neglect, and undifferentiated rejection to be .88, .69, .66, and .53, respectively for the mother version, and .88, .66, .70, and .65, respectively for father version. The range of total item correlations for Child PARQ Mother Version was between .20 (11 items) and .72 (22 items). The mean value was found to be .57, and Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was .89. The range of total item correlations for Child PARQ Father Version was found to range between .24 (4 items) and .71 (24 items). The mean value was .59, and Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was .90. The mother and father versions were significantly correlated (r = .53, p < .01). Child Version Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire (Short Form) is given in Appendix B.

When the Cronbach's alpha coefficients were examined for the present study, it was found that the reliability coefficient of the mother version of Child PARQ was .88. The reliability coefficients of the warmth/affection, hostility/aggression, indifference/neglect, and undifferentiated rejection sub-scales of this version were found to be .86, .66, .66, and .68, respectively. The reliability coefficient of the father version of Child PARQ was .86. The reliability coefficients of the warmth/affection,

hostility/aggression, indifference/neglect, and undifferentiated rejection sub-scales of the father version were found to be .88, .50, .67, and .62, respectively.

2.2.3. Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale (DERS)

This 36-item scale was developed by Gratz and Roemer (2004) in order to measure difficulties in emotion regulation. The Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale (DERS) consists of 6 subdimensions, namely lack of "awareness", lack of "clarity", and "non acceptance" of affective responses, as well as decreased ability to use emotional "strategies", and difficulty in the use of "impulses" and difficulty to keep behaviour directed at "goals" during negative emotional state. The following items can be given as examples of the items in the aforementioned subdimensions: "I pay attention to how I feel" (awareness), "I am clear about my feelings" (clarity), "When I'm upset, I become embarrassed for feeling that way" (non-acceptance), "When I'm upset, I believe that I will remain that way for a long time" (strategies), "I experience my emotions as overwhelming and out of control" (impulse), and "When I'm upset, I have difficulty getting work done" (goals). This scale is based on individual self-evaluation on a 5-point Likert type scale in which a point of 1 indicates "almost never" and 5 points indicate "almost always", with higher scores showing increased difficulties in emotion regulation (Ruganci 2008).

Gratz and Roemer (2004) found the internal consistency coefficient of the original form of the scale to be .93. The internal consistency coefficients for the subdimensions of the scale ranged between .88 and .89, and test-retest reliability was .88. Rugancı (2008) was the first to adapt this scale to Turkish as well as to study its validity and reliability. The item 10 in the original form was removed as a result of its low correlation with the total scale (r = .06) and replaced with an item with the same contents. Therefore, it was possible to ensure validity by obtaining the same number and structure of factors as the original form. The psychometric properties of the Turkish version were first studied by Rugancı and Gençöz (2010), and it took its final form following the suggestions by Kavcıoğlu and Gençöz (2011) for changes to be made in the Turkish expressions of some of the items. The internal consistency coefficient of the

Turkish version of the scale was computed to be .94, and internal consistency coefficients of the subdimensions of the scale ranged between .90 and .75. Test-retest reliability value, the split-half reliability coefficient, and Guttman split-half reliability values of the Turkish version were .83, .95, and .95, respectively. DERS was found to be adequately associated with Brief Symptom Inventory, which showed that the scale had good convergent validity.

For the present study, total scale Cronbach Alpha coefficient was found to be .94; for the subdimensions of awareness, clarity, non acceptance, strategies, impulses, and goal, Cronbach Alpha coefficients were .61, .82, .86, .89, .89, and .87 respectively. Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale is given in Appendix C.

2.2.4. Test Anxiety Inventory (TAI)

The Test Anxiety Inventory was developed between 1974 and 1979 by Spielberger and a group of doctoral students, and it was adapted to Turkish by Öner (1990). Based on self-evaluation on a 4-point Likert type scale, the Test Anxiety Inventory includes a total of 20 items in two different dimensions, namely "worry", and "emotionality". The worry dimension points to the cognitive aspects of test anxiety. It includes an individual's negative evaluations usually pertaining to the self, and negative inner speech about one's failure and incompetence. Emotionality, on the other hand, is the arousal of the autonomic nervous system, which leads to the physiological aspects of test anxiety. Bodily experiences such as rapid heartbeat, chills, sweating, yellowish discoloration of the skin, blushing, nausea, nervousness, and tension are indicative in emotionality. The following items can be given as examples of the items in the aforementioned subdimensions: "Thinking about my grade in a course interferes with my work on tests" (worry), and "I feel confident and relaxed while taking tests" (emotionality). The total score obtained from the 20 items in TAI measures general test anxiety while scores of worry and emotionality measure these subdimensions separately. The scores of the scale range between 20 and 80, with higher scores indicating a higher level of test anxiety. The original form of TAI was found to be reliable and valid, with internal consistency and homogeneity of the items calculated to

be .92, and item total correlation of .60. The consistency over time of the scores obtained from the inventory was calculated through test-retest method conducted in periods of two weeks and six months in addition to Pearson Moment Product Correlation coefficient. Correlation coefficients were between .62 and .81 (Spielberger 1980). To determine internal consistency and item homogeneity of the Turkish version of the Test Anxiety Inventory, Kuder Richardson 20 (KR-20) formula was used, revealing values ranging from .73 to .89. Cronbach's alpha value was .94 (Öner 1990).

For the present study, total scale Cronbach Alpha coefficient for the scale and subscales worry and emotionality were .95, .87, and .93 respectively. Test Anxiety Inventory is given in Appendix D.

2.3. Procedure

The ethical approval for the questionnaires used in the current study were obtained from the Human Researches Ethics Committee of Bolu Abant Izzet Baysal University. After the necessary permissions were taken, the researcher explained the aim of the present study and asked the participants whether they would like to be volunteers in the study. The participants were free to end the questionnaire whenever they wanted, and they had already been informed about it. Parental permissions for the participants who were under 18 years old were taken via parental consent forms (see Appendix E). After brief explanation about the survey, informed consents were obtained and the volunteers answered the questions by themselves. The questionnaires were administered in one session. After they signed the consent form (see Appendix F), participants were asked to fill out a questionnaire packet that consisted of the Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire Child Short Form Mother and Father Version, Test Anxiety Inventory, Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale. The administration of questionnaire took approximately 20-30 minutes.

CHAPTER III

3. RESULTS

Findings of statistical analyses of the data obtained for the purposes of this study are provided in the current chapter. In the present study, the analyses were explained under two different sections. First, data cleaning, descriptive statistics of the variables and correlation among the variables are presented. Then, the results of independent samples t-tests, MANOVA, One-Way ANOVAs, and mediation analyses were reported.

3.1. Data Screening and Cleaning

Data analysis was carried out by using IBM Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 20 programme for Windows. Prior to analyses, the data was examined for the accuracy of data entry, missing values, normality assumptions, and the assumptions of multivariate analysis. Among a total of 302 cases, 18 cases were deleted because they were identified as both univariate and multivariate outliers through Mahalonobis distance (39.25, p < .001). Afterwards the analyses were conducted with the remaining 284 cases that acceptably satisfy the assumptions of multivariate analysis.

3.2. Descriptive Statistics

In order to examine descriptive characteristics of the measures used in the study, means, standard deviations, minimum and maximum scores were computed for Warmth/Affection, Indifference/Neglect, Hostility/Aggression and Undifferentiated Rejection subscales of Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire Mother and Father

Forms; Clarity, Awareness, Impulse, Non-Acceptance, Goals and Strategies subscales of Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale; Worry and Emotionality subscales of Test Anxiety Inventory. Descriptive statistics are demonstrated in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Descriptive information for the measures of the study

| Measures | Mean | Std. | Min. | Max. |
|--------------------------------------|-------|-----------|------|------|
| | | Deviation | | |
| Paternal Acceptance-Rejection | 36.68 | 8.32 | 26 | 71 |
| Warmth/Affection | 13.65 | 5.02 | 6 | 31 |
| Hostility/Aggression | 7.59 | 1.95 | 5 | 15 |
| Indifference/Neglect | 10.74 | 2.16 | 6 | 19 |
| Undifferentiated Rejection | 4.70 | 1.47 | 3 | 12 |
| Maternal Acceptance-Rejection | 34.22 | 8.64 | 25 | 71 |
| Warmth/Affection | 11.88 | 4.62 | 7 | 29 |
| Hostility/Aggression | 7.64 | 2.44 | 4 | 19 |
| Indifference/Neglect | 9.95 | 1.88 | 6 | 18 |
| Undifferentiated Rejection | 4.75 | 1.68 | 3 | 13 |
| Difficulties in Emotional Regulation | 57.79 | 25.73 | 0 | 128 |
| Clarity | 8.66 | 4.63 | 0 | 20 |
| Awareness | 8.21 | 3.94 | 0 | 20 |
| Impulse | 10.17 | 6.49 | 0 | 24 |
| Non-Acceptance | 6.92 | 5.95 | 0 | 24 |
| Goals | 12.07 | 5.31 | 0 | 20 |
| Strategies | 11.76 | 8.33 | 0 | 32 |
| Test Anxiety | 44.06 | 14.61 | 15 | 80 |
| Worry | 16.90 | 5.90 | 8 | 32 |
| Emotionality | 27.15 | 9.30 | 6 | 48 |

3.3. Correlations among the Variables

The examination of the PARQ Mother and Father dimensions and other variables of interest provided significant relationships in Pearson's Correlation Analyses. Results are presented in Table 3.2.

Firstly, analyses of the correlation between perceived paternal acceptance-rejection and difficulties in emotion regulation showed that perceived paternal warmth/affection was significantly and positively related to subscales of the DERS including clarity (r = .16, $p \le .01$), awareness (r = .13, $p \le .05$), impulse (r = .22, $p \le .001$), non-acceptance (r = .16, $p \le .01$), goals (r = .19, $p \le .01$), strategies (r = .16, $p \le .01$). That is, as the perceived paternal warmth/affection increased, these variables

mentioned increased as well. Also, perceived paternal hostility/aggression was significantly and positively correlated with impulse $(r = .21, p \le .001)$, non-acceptance $(r = .25, p \le .001)$, goals $(r = .20, p \le .001)$, and strategies $(r = .20, p \le .001)$. Moreover, perceived paternal hostility/aggression was positively related to worry $(r = .14, p \le .05)$ and emotionality $(r = .12, p \le .05)$. That is, as perceived paternal hostility/aggression increased, these variables mentioned increased as well. Besides, perceived paternal indifference/neglect was significantly and positively correlated with clarity (r = .12, p \le .05), non-acceptance (r = .21, p $\le .001$). That is, as the frequency of perceived paternal indifference/neglect dimension increased, clarity and non-acceptance increased as well. In addition, Secondly, analyses of the correlation between perceived paternal test anxiety showed that acceptance-rejection and perceived indifference/neglect was positively related to worry $(r = .13, p \le .05)$ and emotionality $(r = .12, p \le .05)$. That is, as the frequency of perceived paternal indifference/neglect increased, worry and emotionality increased as well. Lastly, perceived paternal undifferentiated rejection was significantly and positively correlated with impulse (r =.23, p \leq .001), non-acceptance (r = .24, p \leq .001), goals (r = .22, p \leq .001), strategies (r = .24, p \leq .001) = .24, $p \le .001$). That is, as the higher perceived paternal undifferentiated rejection was found to be related to higher impulse, non-acceptance, goals and strategies increase as well.

When the correlations between perceived maternal acceptance-rejection and difficulties in emotion regulation were considered, the results showed that perceived maternal warmth/affection was significantly and positively correlated with clarity (r = .12, $p \le .05$), impulse (r = .15, $p \le .05$), goals (r = .13, $p \le .05$). That is, as the degree of perceived maternal warmth/affection increased, clarity, impulse and goals increased as well. Secondly, perceived maternal hostility/aggression was significantly and positively correlated with clarity (r = .18, $p \le .01$), impulse (r = .23, $p \le .001$), non-acceptance (r = .20, $p \le .01$), goals (r = .21, $p \le .001$), and strategies (r = .15, $p \le .05$), That is, as perceived maternal hostility/aggression increased, these variables mentioned increased as well. In addition, in the correlation between perceived maternal acceptance-rejection and test anxiety, perceived maternal hostility/aggression was positively related to worry (r = .12, $p \le .05$) and emotionality (r = .12, $p \le .05$). On the other hand, perceived

maternal indifference/neglect was significantly and positively correlated with impulse (r = .14, $p \le .05$), non-acceptance (r = .13, $p \le .05$), goals (r = .14, $p \le .05$), and strategies (r = .14, $p \le .05$). That is, as the frequency of perceived maternal indifference/neglect increased, impulse, non-acceptance, goals and strategies increased as well. In addition, perceived maternal indifference/neglect was positively related to worry (r = .15, $p \le .05$) and emotionality (r = .17, $p \le .01$). That is, as the frequency of perceived maternal indifference/neglect increased, worry and emotionality increased as well. Lastly, perceived maternal undifferentiated rejection was significantly and positively correlated with impulse (r = .23, $p \le .001$), non-acceptance (r = .17, $p \le .01$), goals (r = .17, $p \le .01$), and strategies (r = .14, $p \le .05$). That is, as the frequency of perceived maternal undifferentiated rejection increased, these variables mentioned increased as well. In addition, perceived maternal undifferentiated rejection was positively related to worry (r = .13, $p \le .05$) and emotionality (r = .12, $p \le .05$).

 Table 3.2: Correlation analyses of the variables

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
|------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| 1. Father W/A | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Father H/A | .40*** | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Father I/N | .41*** | .32*** | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. Father Undif. | .54*** | .54*** | .49*** | | | | | | | | |
| 5. Mother W/A | .32*** | .18** | .24*** | .29*** | | | | | | | |
| 6. Mother H/A | .20** | .46*** | .24*** | .32*** | .59*** | | | | | | |
| 7. Mother I/N | .12 | .18** | .40*** | .27*** | .36*** | .41*** | | | | | |
| 8. Mother Undif. | .18** | .23*** | .32*** | .35*** | .64*** | .58*** | .45*** | | | | |
| 9. Clarity | .16** | .06 | .12* | .06 | .12* | .18** | .11 | .08 | | | |
| 10. Awareness | .13* | 04 | .04 | 04 | .10 | .03 | 01 | 01 | .31*** | | |
| 11. Impulse | .22*** | .21*** | .11 | .23*** | .15* | .23*** | .14* | .23*** | .45*** | .08 | |
| 12. Non-Accep. | .16** | .25*** | .21*** | .24*** | .07 | .20** | .13* | .17** | .37*** | 01 | .52*** |
| 13. Goals | .19** | .20** | .09 | .22*** | .13* | .21*** | .14* | .17** | .42*** | .02 | .67*** |
| 14. Strategies | .16** | .20** | .10 | .24*** | .05 | .15* | .14* | .14* | .54*** | .07 | .74*** |
| 15. Worry | .02 | .14* | .13* | .11 | .01 | .12* | .15* | .13* | .34*** | .06 | .38*** |
| 16. Emotianality | .02 | .12* | .12* | .09 | .01 | .12* | .17** | .12* | .39*** | .06 | .32*** |
| 17. Father PARQ | .90*** | .66*** | .67*** | .76*** | .35*** | .35*** | .26*** | .31*** | .15* | .07 | .25*** |
| 18. Mother PARQ | .29*** | .31*** | .35*** | .37*** | .91*** | .80*** | .61*** | .80*** | .15** | .06 | .22*** |
| 19. DERS | .23*** | .22*** | .15* | .24*** | .13* | .23*** | .16** | .19** | .69*** | .26*** | .84*** |
| 20. TAI | .02 | .13* | .13* | .10 | .01 | .12* | .17** | .13* | .39*** | .06 | .35*** |

 $^{***}p \le .001, **p \le .01, *p \le .05$

Table 3.2 (Continue): Correlation analyses of the variables

| | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | : |
|------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|---|
| 12. Non-Accep. | | | | | | | | | |
| 13. Goals | .49*** | | | | | | | | |
| 14. Strategies | .62*** | .69*** | | | | | | | |
| 15. Worry | .39*** | .40*** | .43*** | | | | | | |
| 16. Emotianality | .35*** | .39*** | .42*** | .84*** | | | | | |
| 17. Father PARQ | .25*** | .23*** | .25*** | .10 | .09 | | | | |
| 18. Mother PARQ | .15* | .19** | .13* | .10 | .10 | .40*** | | | |
| 19. DERS | .73*** | .79*** | .90*** | .48*** | .46*** | .28*** | .21*** | | |
| 20. TAI | .39*** | .41*** | .44*** | .94*** | .98*** | .09 | .10 | .48*** | |

*** $p \le .001$, ** $p \le .01$, * $p \le .05$

Note: Father W/A= Father Warmth/Affection, 2. Father H/A = Father Hostility/Aggression, 3. Father I/N = Father Indifference/Neglect, 4. Father Undif. = Father Undifferentiated Rejection, 5. Mother W/A = Mother Warmth/Affection, 6. Mother H/A = Mother Hostility/Aggression, 7. Mother I/N = Mother Indifference/Neglect, 8. Mother Undif. = Mother Undifferentiated Rejection, 9. Clarity, 10. Awareness, 11. Impulse, 12. Non-Acceptance, 13. Goals, 14. Strategies, 15. Worry, 16. Emotionality, 17. Father PARQ = Father Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire, 18. Mother PARQ = Mother Acceptance Rejection Questionnaire, 19. DERS = Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale, 20. TAI = Test Anxiety Inventory.

The Pearson's Product Moment Correlation analyses were carried out in order to determine the relationship between the TAI dimensions and DERS dimension in the study. The results showed that worry was significantly and positively correlated with clarity (r = .34, p $\le .001$), impulse (r = .38, p $\le .001$), non-acceptance (r = .39, p $\le .001$), goals (r = .40, p $\le .001$), strategies (r = .43, p $\le .001$), That is, as the frequency of worry increased, these variables mentioned increased as well. On the other hand, emotionality was significantly and positively correlated with clarity (r = .39, p $\le .001$), impulse (r = .32, p $\le .001$), non-acceptance (r = .35, p $\le .001$), goals (r = .39, p $\le .001$), strategies (r = .42, p $\le .001$). That is, as the frequency of worry increased, difficulties in clarity, impulse, non-acceptance, goals and strategies increased as well.

3.4. Differences of Demographic Variables on the Measures of the Study

In order to analyze the differences of demographic variables on the measures of the present study, Univariate Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), t-test and Multivariate Analysis of Variances (MANOVA) were conducted. For the analyses of the total scores of the Maternal and Paternal Acceptance-Rejection, Difficulties of Emotion Regulation, and Test Anxiety scales, t-test and ANOVA were used for dichotomous and multichotomous variables, respectively. Subscales were examined through MANOVA.

3.4.1. Influence of Gender on Total Scores

To see the differences of gender on total score of maternal and paternal acceptance-rejection, independent samples t-tests were conducted. The results showed that there was no significant difference between gender in terms of maternal acceptance-rejection [t (282) = .60, p > .05] and paternal acceptance-rejection [t (282) = 1.43, p > .05].

To examine the differences of gender on total score of difficulties in emotion regulation independent samples t-tests were conducted. The results showed that there was a significant difference between gender in terms of difficulties in emotion regulation [t (282) = 4.20, $p \le .001$, d = .50]. Females (M = 63.72) tended to have higher difficulties in emotion regulation than males (M = 51.24).

To determine the influence of differences of gender on total score of test anxiety independent samples t-tests were conducted. The results showed that there was a significant gender difference on test anxiety [t (282) = 6.38, $p \le .001$, d = .76]. Females (M = 48.98) had higher test anxiety score compared to males (M = 38.62).

3.4.2. Influence of Gender on Subscales

MANOVA was conducted with subscales of maternal and paternal acceptance-rejection separately as the dependent variables to see the influence of gender. The results showed that there was no significant differences between male and female participants in terms of maternal acceptance-rejection [Multivariate F(4, 279) = .55, p > .05; Wilks' Lambda = .99; partial $\eta^2 = .008$] and paternal acceptance-rejection [Multivariate F(4, 279) = 2.64, p > .05; Wilks' Lambda = .96; partial $\eta^2 = .04$]. Thus, univariate analyses were not examined.

MANOVA was conducted with clarity, awareness, non-acceptance, goals, strategies and impulse subscales of difficulties in emotion regulation as the dependent variables to see the influence of gender. According to the results, emotion regulation subscales have a significant main effect of gender [Multivariate F(6, 274) = .77, p < .001; Wilks' Lambda = .97; partial $\eta^2 = .016$]

Following the multivariate analyses, univariate analyses were examined for the gender main effects with the application of the Bonferroni correction. Thus, for the analyses, the alpha values that were lower than .008 (i.e., .05/6) were considered to be significant with this correction. After the correction, gender was found to be significant for clarity $[F(1, 282) = 24.77, p < .001, partial <math>\eta^2 = .08]$. That is, females (M = 9.91) perceived significantly more clarity than males (M = 7.28). In addition, gender was found to be significant for goals $[F(1, 282) = 13.75, p < .001, partial <math>\eta^2 = .05]$. That is, females (M = 13.15) perceived significantly more goals than males (M = 10.87).

Lastly, gender was found to be significant for strategies [F(1, 282) = 25.4, p < .001, partial $\eta^2 = .08$]. That is, females (M = 14.04) perceived significantly more strategies than males (M = 9.25). However, univariate analyses did not reveal gender main effect for awareness, impulse, non-acceptance (see Table 3.3).

Table 3.3: MANOVA for difficulties emotion regulation and gender

| Variables | Multivariate F | df | Multivariate η² | Wilks' Lambda | Univariate F | Univariate η² |
|------------|-------------------|--------|--------------------|------------------|--------------------|------------------|
| Gender | 8.04*** | 6, 277 | .15 | .85 | - | - |
| Clarity | - | 2, 282 | - | - | 24.77+ | .08 |
| Awareness | - | 2, 282 | - | - | 1.31 | .01 |
| Non- | - | 2, 282 | | - | 4.20 | .02 |
| Acceptance | | | | | | |
| Goals | - | 2, 282 | - | // - / | 13.75 ⁺ | .05 |
| Strategies | - | 2, 282 | - | - / | 25.40 ⁺ | .08 |
| Impulse | | 2, 282 | | _ | 5.94 | .02 |

^{***} p < .001, *p < .008

MANOVA was conducted with worry and emotionality subscales of test anxiety as the dependent variables to see the influence of gender. The result showed that there was a significant main effect of gender [Multivariate F(2, 281) = 34.63, p < .001; Wilks' Lambda = .80; partial $\eta^2 = .20$].

After the multivariate analyses, univariate analyses were conducted with Bonferroni correction to find out significant effects. Thus, for the analyses, the alpha values that were lower than .025 (i.e., .05/2) were considered to be significant with this correction. After the correction, gender was found to be significant for worry [F (1, 282) = 17.28, p < .001, partial η^2 = .06]. That is, female participants (M = 18.25) perceived more worry than the male participants (M = 15.41). In addition, gender was found to be significant for emotionality [F(1, 282) = 55.26, p < .001, partial η^2 = .16]. That is, female participants (M = 30.73) perceived more emotionality than the male participants (M = 23.21) (see Table 3.4).

| Variables | Multivariate F | df | Multivariate η² | Wilks' Lambda | Univariate F | Univariate η^2 |
|--------------|-------------------|--------|--------------------|------------------|--------------------|---------------------|
| Gender | 34.63*** | 2, 281 | .20 | .80 | - | - |
| Worry | - | 1, 282 | - | - | 17.28+ | .06 |
| Emotionality | - | 1, 282 | - | - | 55.26 ⁺ | .16 |

Table 3.4: MANOVA for test anxiety and gender

3.4.3. Influence of Education Level on Total Scores

Education levels of the participants' father and mother was measured via one 5-point Likert item (literate/ primary school/ secondary school/ high school/ university/ post-graduate). Three groups were formed for the comparisons: Participants whose father and mother education level is "secondary school or lower", participants whose father and mother education level is "high school" and participants whose father and mother education level is "undergraduate or higher degrees". These three groups were compared on Maternal and Paternal Acceptance-Rejection, Difficulties in Emotion Regulation and Test Anxiety with one-way ANOVA.

In order to find out the effect of father education level on total score of maternal and paternal acceptance-rejection, One-way ANOVA was run. The result showed that there was no significant difference between father education level in terms of maternal acceptance-rejection [F(2, 279) = .21, p > .05] and paternal acceptance-rejection [F(2, 279) = 1.38, p > .05]. On the other hand, in order to find out the effect of mother education level on maternal and paternal acceptance-rejection, One-way ANOVA was run. The result showed that there was no significant difference between mother education level in terms of on paternal acceptance-rejection [F(2, 279) = 1.29, p > .05]. However, based on these results, mother education level was different in terms of paternal acceptance-rejection [F(2, 279) = 5.39, p < .05]. Post-hoc analyzes showed that, participants whose mother education level was secondary school or lower (M = 35.79) had significantly higher maternal acceptance-rejection compared to participants' whose mother education level was high school (M = 32.18). On the other hand, in terms of the level of maternal acceptance-rejection, participants' whose mother education

^{***} p < .001, *p < .025

level was undergraduate or higher (M = 33.81) did not differ from participants' whose father education level was high school and secondary school or lower.

In order to find out the effect of mother education level on total score of difficulties in emotion regulation, One-way ANOVA was run. The result showed that there was no significant difference between mother education level in terms of difficulties in emotion regulation [F(2, 279) = .01, p > .05]. Also, in order to find out the effect of father education level on difficulties in emotion regulation, One-way ANOVA was run. The result showed that there was significant difference between father education level in terms of difficulties in emotion regulation [F(2, 279) = 2.77, p < .05]. Post-hoc analyzes showed that, participants whose father education level was high school (M = 61.27) had significantly higher difficulties in emotion regulation compared to participants whose father education level was undergraduate or higher (M = 52.54). On the other hand, in terms of the level of difficulties in emotion regulation, participants whose father education level was secondary school or lower (M = 57.44) did not differ from participants whose father education level was high school and undergraduate or higher.

In order to find out the effect of father education level on total score of test anxiety, One-way ANOVA was run. The result showed that there was no significant difference between father education level in terms of test anxiety [F(2, 279) = 1.50, p > .05]. Also, in order to find out the effect of mother education level on test anxiety, One-way ANOVA was run. The result showed that there was no significant difference between mother education level in terms of test anxiety [F(2, 279) = .07, p > .05].

3.4.4. Influence of Education Level on Subscales

One-way MANOVA was performed on Warmth/Affection, Hostility/ Aggression, Indifference/Neglect and Undifferentiated Rejection subscales of Maternal Acceptance-Rejection as the dependent variables to see the effect of participants' father and mother education level. However, the results indicated that there was no main effect of participants' father education level [Multivariate F(4, 276) = .70, p > .05; Wilks'

Lambda = .98; partial η^2 = .01] and mother education level [Multivariate F(4, 276) = 1.75, p > .05; Wilks' Lambda = .95; partial η^2 = .03] for subscales of Maternal Acceptance-Rejection. Thus, univariate analyses were not examined. Also, One-way MANOVA was performed on Warmth/Affection, Hostility/Aggression, Indifference/ Neglect and Undifferentiated Rejection subscales of Paternal Acceptance-Rejection as the dependent variables to see the effect of participants' father and mother education level. However, the result indicated that there was no main effect of participants' father education level [Multivariate F(4, 276) = .43, p > .05; Wilks' Lambda = .99; partial η^2 = .006] and mother education level [Multivariate F(4, 276) = 1.26, p > .05; Wilks' Lambda = .97; partial η^2 = .018] for subscales of Paternal Acceptance-Rejection. Thus, univariate analyses were not examined.

One-way MANOVA was performed on clarity, awareness, non-acceptance, goals, strategies and impulse subscales of Difficulties in Emotion Regulation as the dependent variables to see the effect of participants' father education level and mother education level. However, the result indicated that there was no main effect of participants' father education level [Multivariate F(6, 274) = 1.34, p > .05; Wilks' Lambda = .94; partial $\eta^2 = .03$] and mother education level [Multivariate F(6, 274) = .77, p > .05; Wilks' Lambda = .97; partial $\eta^2 = .016$] for subscales of Difficulties in Emotion Regulation. Thus, univariate analyses were not examined.

One-way MANOVA was performed on worry and emotionality subscales of Test Anxiety as the dependent variables to see the effect of participants' father and mother education. However, the result indicated that there was no main effect of participants' father education level [Multivariate F(2, 278) = .79, p > .05; Wilks' Lambda = .99; partial $\eta^2 = .006$] and mother education level [Multivariate F(2, 278) = .995, p > .05; Wilks' Lambda = .38; partial $\eta^2 = .03$] for subscales of Test Anxiety. Thus, univariate analyses were not examined.

3.5. The Mediation Analyses

For examining the mediational role of difficulties in emotion regulation (clarity, awareness, non-acceptance, goals, strategies, and impulse) in the relationship between parental acceptance/rejection and test anxiety, two parallel mediations were proposed. In a parallel multiple mediator model, the indirect variable is assumed to influence the outcome variable directly and also indirectly through mediators (Hayes, 2013). Two models were proposed for maternal and paternal acceptance rejection as independent variables on test anxiety through difficulties in emotion regulation subscales (Figure 3.1). Regression analyses were performed to estimate the total, direct, and indirect effects of the independent variable (maternal/paternal PARQ) on the outcome variable (test anxiety) through the proposed mediators (DERS subscales: clarity, awareness, nonacceptance, goals, strategies, and impulse). To test the mediations, PROCESS (model 4) a computational tool available for SPSS developed by developed by Hayes (2013) was used. In order to examine whether the indirect effects were significant, a bootstrapping analysis was performed using 5000 re-samples to calculate 95 % confidence interval (CI). Preacher and Hayes (2008) stated that if the 95 % CI does not include the value of 0, the indirect effect is accepted as significantly different from zero at p < .05 (twotailed). That is, the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable is through the effect of the proposed mediator.

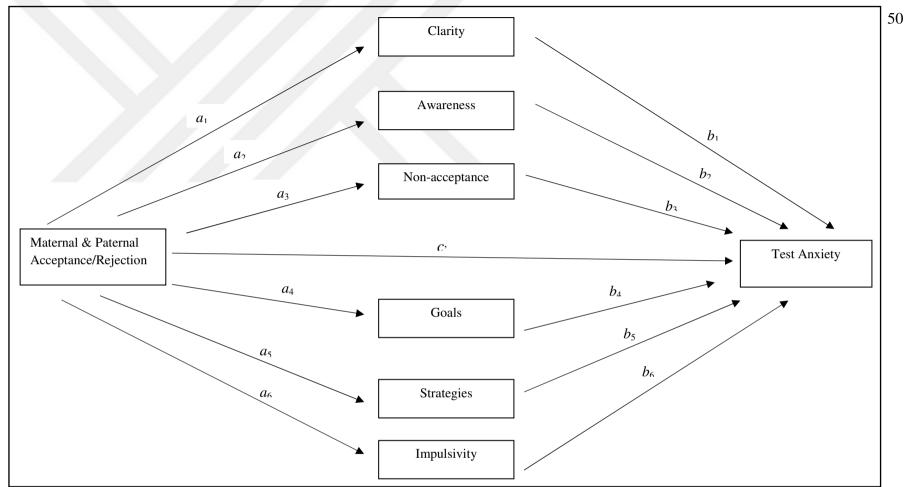


Figure 3.1: Conceptualized Model of Parallel Multiple Mediator for the effect of PARQ on test anxiety through difficulties in emotion regulation subscales.

3.5.1. Parallel Multiple Mediator Model for the Relationship between Maternal Acceptance-Rejection and Test Anxiety

In the first parallel multiple mediator model (Figure 3.1) the mediational role of difficulties in emotion regulation subscales in the relationship between maternal acceptance rejection and test anxiety was examined. The direct effect of maternal PARQ (X), c', indicates the effect of maternal PARQ (X) on test anxiety (Y) when holding all proposed mediators [i.e. clarity (M1), awareness (M2), non-acceptance (M3), goals (M4), strategies (M5), and impulse (M6)] constant. The total effect, c, of maternal PARQ on test anxiety is divided into direct and indirect components. The total effect contains seven effects – a direct effect (c') and six indirect effects (Hayes, 2013). Table 3.5 shows estimates of total effect, direct effect, indirect effects, and confidence intervals for all effects. The codes of the paths are taken from Hayes (2013; Model 4 with 6 mediators) and are shown in Figure 3.1. This model has six indirect effects and one direct effect.

The results indicated that the direct effect of maternal PARQ on test anxiety was positive but not statically significant (c' = 0.006, t(276) = 0.069, p = .944, 95%CI -0.173 to 0.186). The non-significant direct effect of maternal PARQ on test anxiety indicated that students' maternal PARQ was unrelated to test anxiety when the effects of difficulties of emotion regulations were hold constant. As can be seen in Figure 3.1 there are six indirect paths of getting from X to Y through each $M(X \to M1 \to Y; X$ $\rightarrow M2 \rightarrow Y; X \rightarrow M3 \rightarrow Y; X \rightarrow M4 \rightarrow Y; X \rightarrow M5 \rightarrow Y; X \rightarrow M6 \rightarrow Y).$ The examination of each indirect effects revealed that only three indirect effects were significant. The first significant indirect effect is the effect of maternal PARQ on test anxiety through clarity ($a_1b_1 = 0.051$, 95% CI 0.012 to 0.114). That is two participants that differed by one unit on maternal PARQ were estimated to differ by 0.051 units in their test anxiety through difficulties in clarity, with those having higher maternal PARQ having higher test anxiety. A second significant indirect effect of maternal PARQ on test anxiety was modeled through nonacceptance, estimated as $a_3b_3 = 0.039$ (95% CI 0.003 to 0.105). Those who had higher maternal PARQ had higher test anxiety (by 0.039 units) as a result of their non-acceptance. Finally, the third significant indirect effect was the effect of maternal PARQ on test anxiety through goals ($a_4b_4 = 0.057$, 95% CI 0.007 to 0.135). That is, two participants that differed by one unit on maternal PARQ were estimated to differ by 0.057 units in their test anxiety through difficulties in goals, with those having higher maternal PARQ having higher test anxiety. Finally, the total indirect effect was calculated by summing the indirect effect of maternal PARQ on test anxiety through all mediators. The total indirect effect was 0.163 (95% CI 0.71 to 0.268) and showed a significant total indirect effect.

Table 3.5: Path coefficients, indirect effects and 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals of the model for the relationship between maternal acceptance rejection and test anxiety

| Path | Estimate | Maternal F %95 | |
|------------------------------|----------|-------------------|-------|
| | Estimate | Lower | Upper |
| Total effect (c) | 0.169 | -0.028 | 0.367 |
| Direct effect (c_0) | 0.006 | -0.173 | 0.186 |
| a_1 | 0.083 | 0.021 | 0.145 |
| a_2 | 0.026 | -0.027 | 0.079 |
| a_3 | 0.104 | 0.024 | 0.184 |
| a_4 | 0.117 | 0.046 | 0.188 |
| a_5 | 0.124 | 0.012 | 0.236 |
| a_6 | 0.166 | 0.079 | 0.251 |
| b_1 | 0.614 | 0.205 | 1.024 |
| b_2 | -0.028 | -0.432 | 0.376 |
| b_3 | 0.373 | 0.049 | 0.697 |
| b_4 | 0.487 | 0.069 | 0.904 |
| b_5 | 0.256 | -0.069 | 0.580 |
| b_6 | -0.087 | -0.454 | 0.280 |
| Indirect effects | | | |
| a_1b_1 | 0.051 | 0.012 | 0.114 |
| a_2b_2 | -0.001 | -0.025 | 0.014 |
| a_3b_3 | 0.039 | 0.003 | 0.105 |
| a_4b_4 | 0.057 | 0.007 | 0.135 |
| a_5b_5 | 0.032 | -0.002 | 0.115 |
| a_6b_6 | -0.014 | -0.087 | 0.051 |
| Total indirect effect | 0.163 | 0.071 | 0.268 |

Note: Significant paths are shown as bold.

3.5.2. Parallel Multiple Mediator Model for the Relationship between Paternal Acceptance-Rejection and Test Anxiety

In the second parallel multiple mediator model (Figure 3.1) the mediational role of difficulties in emotion regulation subscales in the relationship between paternal

acceptance rejection and test anxiety was examined. The direct effect of paternal PARQ (X), c', indicates the effect of paternal PARQ (X) on test anxiety (Y) when holding all proposed mediators [i.e. clarity (M1), awareness (M2), non-acceptance (M3), goals (M4), strategies (M5), and impulse (M6)] constant. The total effect, c, of paternal PARQ on test anxiety is divided into direct and indirect components. The total effect contains seven effects – a direct effect (c') and six indirect effects (Hayes, 2013). Table 3.6 shows estimates of total effect, direct effect, indirect effects, and confidence intervals for all effects. The codes of the paths are taken from Hayes (2013; Model 4 with 6 mediators) and are shown in Figure 3.1. This model has six indirect effects and one direct effect.

The results indicated that the direct effect of paternal PARQ on test anxiety was negative but not statically significant (c' = -0.065, t(276) = -0.684, p = .495, 95%CI -0.253 to 0.123). The non-significant direct effect of paternal PARQ on test anxiety indicated that students' paternal PARQ was unrelated to test anxiety when the effects of difficulties of emotion regulations were hold constant. As can be seen in Figure 3.1 there are six indirect paths of getting from X to Y through each $M(X \to M1 \to Y; X$ $\rightarrow M2 \rightarrow Y; X \rightarrow M3 \rightarrow Y; X \rightarrow M4 \rightarrow Y; X \rightarrow M5 \rightarrow Y; X \rightarrow M6 \rightarrow Y).$ The examination of each indirect effects revealed that only three indirect effects were significant. The first significant indirect effect was the effect of paternal PARQ on test anxiety through Clarity ($a_1b_1 = 0.051$, 95% CI 0.011 to 0.121). That is, two participants that differed by one unit on paternal PARQ were estimated to differ by 0.051 units in their test anxiety through difficulties in clarity, with those having higher paternal PARQ having higher test anxiety. A second significant indirect effect of paternal PARQ on test anxiety was modeled through nonacceptance, estimated as $a_3b_3 = 0.069$ (95% CI 0.006 to 0.168). Those who had higher paternal PARQ had higher test anxiety (by 0.069 units) as a result of their non-acceptance. Finally, the third significant indirect effect was the effect of paternal PARQ on test anxiety through goals ($a_4b_4 = 0.071$, 95% CI 0.012 to 0.166). That is, two participants that differed by one unit on paternal PARQ were estimated to differ by 0.071 units in their test anxiety through difficulties in goals, with those having higher paternal PARQ having higher test anxiety. Finally, the total indirect effect was calculated by summing the indirect effect of paternal PARQ on test anxiety through all mediators. The total indirect effect was 0.229 (95% CI 0.122 to 0.359) and showed a significant total indirect effect.

Table 3.6: Path coefficients, indirect effects and 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals of the model for the relationship between paternal acceptance rejection and test anxiety

| Path | Pate | ernal PARQ | |
|-----------------------|----------|------------|-------|
| | Estimate | %95 CI | |
| | | Lower | Upper |
| Total effect (c) | 0.164 | -0.041 | 0.369 |
| Direct effect (c_0) | -0.065 | -0.253 | 0.123 |
| a_1 | 0.083 | 0.019 | 0.148 |
| a_2 | 0.034 | -0.021 | 0.090 |
| a_3 | 0.177 | 0.096 | 0.259 |
| a_4 | 0.144 | 0.071 | 0.216 |
| a_5 | 0.209 | 0.095 | 0.324 |
| a_6 | 0.195 | 0.107 | 0.283 |
| b_1 | 0.616 | 0.208 | 1.024 |
| b_2 | -0.019 | -0.423 | 0.387 |
| b_3 | 0.390 | 0.064 | 0.716 |
| b_4 | 0.497 | 0.081 | 0.914 |
| b_5 | 0.249 | -0.073 | 0.572 |
| b_6 | -0.072 | -0.437 | 0.295 |
| Indirect effects | | | |
| a_1b_1 | 0.051 | 0.011 | 0.121 |
| a_2b_2 | -0.001 | -0.025 | 0.018 |
| a_3b_3 | 0.069 | 0.006 | 0.168 |
| a_4b_4 | 0.071 | 0.012 | 0.166 |
| a_5b_5 | 0.052 | -0.009 | 0.158 |
| a_6b_6 | -0.014 | -0.095 | 0.061 |
| Total indirect effect | 0.229 | 0.122 | 0.359 |

Note: Significant paths are shown as bold.

CHAPTER IV

4. DISCUSSION

The present study targeted to investigate the link between parental acceptance-rejection and test anxiety as well as the role of emotion regulation difficulties. As a first step, Pearson Correlation Analysis was carried out in order to examine the correlations between the variables (perceived maternal acceptance-rejection, perceived paternal acceptance-rejection, difficulties in emotion regulation, test anxiety). In addition, t-tests, ANOVAs and MANOVAs were conducted to find out whether the variables differed in terms of demographic variables. Gender, participants' father and mother education level differences were detected in the study measures. Furthermore, the mediation analyses carried out showed that the relationship between maternal and paternal acceptance-rejection and test anxiety were mediated by clarity, nonacceptance, goals subdimensions of emotion regulation difficulties, but not awareness, strategies and impulse subdimension. In this section, the given findings are discussed in the light of the relevant literature. Lastly, the general findings as well as the limitations of the present study, and suggestions for future studies and clinical implications are discussed.

4.1. Correlations among Variables

The findings revealed significant positive correlations between perceived paternal and maternal acceptance-rejection and difficulty of emotion regulation and its subdimensions (clarity, impulse, non-acceptance, goals, and strategies). The increased frequency of perceived paternal and maternal rejection was associated with increased difficulties in emotion regulation and its subdimensions. The only correlations that were

not significant were the ones between the awareness subdimension and the paternal and maternal acceptance-rejection. These findings are in line with previous reports.

Another finding of the study was that test anxiety and its worry and emotionality subdimensions correlated positively and significantly with indifference/neglect and undifferentiated rejection dimensions of parental acceptance-rejection father and mother versions. These findings are in line with the current literature on the subject.

Lastly, the correlation between test anxiety and its subdimensions and emotion regulation difficulties and its subdimensions was examined. Test anxiety and the worry and emotionality subdimensions of test anxiety were found to have a positive significant correlation with both emotion regulation difficulties and its clarity, impulse, non-acceptance, goals, and strategies subdimensions. In other words, students experienced more difficulty in regulating their emotions as their levels of test anxiety increased. Even though there have been few studies specifically analyzing the relationship between test anxiety and emotion regulation difficulties, the findings of the present study are in accord with the literature.

Correlation analyses indicated significant relationships between these factors, which were also supported by the findings of mediator analyses. Hence, these correlations were discussed in detail in the mediation analyses section.

4.2. Differences of Demographic Variables on the Measures of the Study

In order to analyze the differences of demographic variables on the measures of the present study, Univariate Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), t-test and Multivariate Analysis of Variances (MANOVA) were conducted. For the analyses of the total scores of the Maternal and Paternal Acceptance-Rejection, Difficulties of Emotion Regulation and Test Anxiety scales, t-test and ANOVA were used for dichotomous and multichotomous variables, respectively. Subscales were examined through MANOVA. These results can be interpreted as follows.

4.2.1. Influence of Gender

To see the differences of gender on total score of maternal and paternal acceptance-rejection independent samples t-tests were conducted. Based on the results, total score of maternal acceptance-rejection and paternal acceptance-rejection did not differ in terms of gender. A review of the current literature on the effects of gender on parental acceptance-rejection reveals contradictory findings. In line with the findings of the present study, some studies reported no gender differences in perceived maternal and paternal acceptance-rejection (Ansari 2002; Cakır-Aksu 2014; Erkan & Toran, 2004; Yıldız 2009). In their investigation into the warmth and control dimensions of parenting, Rohner ve Rohner (1981) found that the child's gender did not serve as a determining factor in parental behaviours. Eryavuz (2006) found no statistically significant difference between female and male participants in terms of maternal and paternal acceptance/rejection. Salahur's (2010) study investigating undergraduate students' perceived parental acceptance/rejection using both the mother and the father forms found that gender did not have a significant effect on the mother form. Similarly, Eryavuz (2006), Cournoyer, Sethi & Cordero (2005), Salahur (2010) and Varan's (2005) reports suggested that parental acceptance-rejection did not differ according to gender. These reports are in accord with the findings of the present study, according to which it could be suggested that children's gender does not influence their perceived parental acceptance-rejection. However, it has also been reported that different-sex parents may influence boys or girls differently (Booth & Amato, 1994). Dural and Yalçın (2014) found that female participants perceived their mothers as less hostile and less indifferent compared to males. The study by Deniz (2014) reported greater paternal rejection in males than females. Recent research based both in Turkey and abroad has investigated the view that mothers play a more definitive role in children's lives than fathers and reported contrary findings (Rohner, 1998; Varan, 2005). In the study on both male and female participants, Varan (2005) found fathers to be almost as important as mothers in their children's lives. This might be the reason for the finding in the present study that parenting did not differ according to gender.

To examine the differences of gender on total score of difficulties in emotion regulation independent samples t-tests were conducted. The results showed that there was a significant difference of gender in terms of difficulties in emotion regulation. Findings suggest that females tend to experience more difficulty in emotion regulation than males. MANOVA was conducted with clarity, awareness, non-acceptance, goals, strategies and impulse subscales of difficulties in emotion regulation as the dependent variables to see the influence of gender. According to the results, gender was found to be significant for clarity, goals, and strategies subdimensions of difficulties in emotion regulation. There are various reports in the current literature on difficulties in emotion regulation. In line with the findings of the present study, gender differences are frequently reported. Previous studies report that females have more difficulty in controlling their emotional state and even though they may have negative emotions, they are able to remain goal oriented (Gratz & Roemer 2004; Gross & John 2003). Pektaş (2015) found that female undergraduate students experience more difficulty than their male counterparts in the subdimensions of clarity, strategies, and goals. Neumann, Van Lier, Gratz & Koot (2010) reported that females find it more difficult to use effective strategies that are suited to the situation and to understand affective responses and have more difficulty in terms of clarity of affective responses than males. In addition to these, females find it more difficult to manifest goal-directed behaviour while experiencing negative emotions. Similarly, in their study into difficulties in emotion regulation of adolescents, Else et al. (2006) found that females have more difficulty in exhibiting goal-directed behaviour under the influence of negative emotions; for example, they have difficulty focusing when they feel bad. Gündüz's (2016: 37) study on adults showed that the awareness, clarity, strategies, and impulse subdimensions of difficulties in emotion regulation differed significantly with gender. The study by Çalışkan (2017) revealed that gender influenced the clarity subdimension of difficulties in emotion regulation, with males getting lower scores of clarity than females, indicating males' being better able to clearly express negative emotions. Some studies, by contrast, do not support these findings. Saruhan (2018: 72) found that gender does not have a significant effect on difficulty of emotion regulation in young adults. In a study on university students, Akhun (2012) showed that students' difficulty of emotion regulation scores did not significantly differ with gender. Aydın (2018: 49) showed that

the subdimensions of awareness, clarity, non-acceptance, strategies, impulses, and goals were not significantly influenced by gender.

Cultural expectations are thought to cause the gender differences in difficulties in emotion regulation. From birth, males are encouraged to act effectively and rationally. Females, on the other hand, are expected to be affective as part of their gender roles. The society expects females to act in a relationship-focused way, thus reinforcing their affective socialization process, while males are expected to handle problematic situations promptly and carefully, and to act in a success-oriented way. Hence, negative emotions are perceived by males as obstacles to be overcome in order to proceed to the next step. Females, by contrast, are more inclined to suppress their emotions and to exert less goal-oriented behaviour as a result of negative emotions. Also, the fact that females' emotions of anger and aggression are much less frequently discussed and allowed to be expressed by parents may cause females to become less able to understand these emotions and to have difficulty distinguishing them from other emotions.

To see the differences of gender on total score of test anxiety independent samples t-tests were conducted. The results showed that there was a significant gender difference on test anxiety. Females had higher test anxiety score compared to males. MANOVA was conducted with worry and emotionality subscales of test anxiety as the dependent variables to see the influence of gender. Based on the result, gender was found to be significant for worry and emotionality. In other words, it was observed that the level of test anxiety along with its cognitive and physiological aspects were higher in females compared to males. The findings of the present study mostly revealed consistent results with the literature. For instance, the results indicate that females have significantly higher scores in test anxiety total, worry subdimension, and emotionality subdimension scales (Güler 2012: 50; Güler & Çakır 2013:90; Hanımoğlu 2010: 72). Similarly, there are several studies reporting higher test anxiety in females than males (Alyaprak 2006; Başoğlu 2007; Erzen 2013: 73; Yılmaz 2018: 80). The findings of Bacanlı and Sürücü's (2006) study on eighth grade students showed that females had higher emotionality scores than males, but there was no significant difference in worry

scores of test anxiety. In their study, Cassady and Johnson (2002: 290) suggested that females had higher levels of test anxiety in both emotionality and cognitive test anxiety than males. Another study showed that females had higher levels of test anxiety as well as better academic performance both at undergraduate and at postgraduate levels (Chapell et al. 2005: 271). One of the reasons for the gender differences in test anxiety may be the fact that affective traits and emotions such as anxiety or fear are attributed to women in our culture. It can therefore be seen that females tend to be more affective and are better able to express their emotions more easily than males. On the other hand, because men's expression of emotions like fear or anxiety is not deemed appropriate by the society, males are more inclined to suppress such emotions (Güler 2012: 51). From another point of view, many women in our society owe their social identity to their occupations and economic independence. As university admission exam is one of the most important steps for people to have an occupation, this may play a role in higher anxiety levels in females (Hanımoğlu 2010: 72). Also, female students' thought that their possibilities for economic and social independence might be reduced in the event that they are not eligible to attend university may play a role in their higher scores of test anxiety (Erzen 2013: 74). Furthermore, it is known that females are more susceptible to experiencing certain psychological disorders such as depression or anxiety disorder compared to males due to physiological differences, which can also explain why females have higher test anxiety levels than males (Scott 2000, Cited: Güler & Çakır 2013: 90).

4.2.2. Influence of Education Level

In order to find out the effect of father and mother education level on total score of maternal and paternal acceptance-rejection, One-way ANOVA was run. The result showed that total score of maternal and paternal acceptance-rejection did not differ in terms of participants' father education level. Also, subscales of maternal and paternal acceptance-rejection did not differ in terms of participants' father education level. On the other hand, the results showed that the total score of paternal acceptance-rejection did not differ in terms of the level of education of participants' mothers, while total score of maternal acceptance-rejection revealed a difference due to the level of

education of participants' mothers. That is, participants whose mother education level was secondary school or lower had significantly higher maternal acceptance-rejection compared to participants whose mother education level was high school. The results of the present study are in line with the current literature on the subject. In their study, Erkan and Toran (2004) showed that mothers that were high school graduates or higher were more accepting, while less-educated mothers were more rejecting. Another study reported that primary school graduate mothers adopt a more rejecting attitude towards their children (Kaytez & Durual 2016). Mothers of lesser educational status were shown to form less healthy relationships compared to those of higher educational status (Cakıcı 2006: 128). In a study investigating the relationship between maternal attitudes and children's self care ability, Demirtaş (2001) found that mothers' levels of democratic attitudes tended to increase with their educational status. Similarly, according to Kaya (2010: 93), primary school graduate parents' democratic attitudes towards child raising are significantly lower than those with undergraduate degrees. In general, the rate of democratic behaviour rises as the level of education increases. The better educated mothers are, the more they tend to deviate from traditional attitudes to raising a child, to spend time efficiently, and to form healthy relationships with their children (Köse 2003). It could therefore be said that the higher level of education of mothers has a direct positive influence on their efforts to actively listen to their children and understand them, as well as their ability to realize their problems and needs and meet such needs sufficiently on time. Mothers with higher educational status are more adept in their relationship with their children, which has positive implications in mother-child relationship (Çakıcı 2006: 128). Hence, it is believed that a mother's lower educational status could increase individuals' perceived maternal rejection, whereas the opposite may influence perceived maternal acceptance positively.

In order to find out the effect of mother education level on total score of difficulties in emotion regulation, One-way ANOVA was run. The result showed that there was no significant difference between mother education level in terms of on difficulties in emotion regulation. On the other hand, the results showed that the total score of difficulties in emotion regulation revealed a difference due to the level of education of participants' fathers. Post-hoc analyzes showed that participants whose

father education level was high school had significantly higher difficulties in emotion regulation compared to participants' whose father education level was undergraduate or higher. One-way MANOVA was performed on subscales of Difficulties in Emotion Regulation as the dependent variables to see the effect of participants' father education level and mother education level. However, the result indicated that there was no main effect of participants' father education level and mother education level for subscales of Difficulties in Emotion Regulation. The current body of literature on whether difficulties of emotion regulation differ according to the education level of the father is inconclusive, with contradictory findings. In line with the findings of the present study, it was shown that difficulties of emotion regulation in young adults differed significantly with the aforementioned variable, with difficulties of emotion regulation decreasing at higher levels of education of the father (Saruhan 2018). On the other hand, there are many studies reporting no significant difference in difficulties of emotion regulation according to the educational levels of the father and the mother (Abacı 2018; Akhun 2012; Atalay 2018), which is inconsistent with the findings of this study. Moreover, no significant relationship was found between parental education and difficulties of emotion regulatory processes, namely Goals, Strategies, Non-Acceptance, Impulse, Clarity, and Awareness (Calışkan 2017; Aydın 2018: 51).

Attachment styles are reported to imfluence difficulties of emotion regulation significantly (Marganska, Gallagher and Miranda 2013). The current literature on the subject mainly focuses on the mother-baby relationship due to the fact that it is mother taking care of the baby and spending most of her time with the baby in the first years of life. However, it is also known that fathers experience attachment with their babies, and have an important role in their development. A study on 492 fathers found that fathers with higher levels of education were more sensitive towards and showed more interest in their children (Goodman, Crouter, Lanza, Cox and Vernon-Feagans, 2011). Hence, it is thought that difficulties of emotion regulation could decrease as the educational level of the father increases.

In order to find out the effect of father and mother education level on test anxiety, One-way ANOVA was run. The result showed that total score of test anxiety

did not differ in terms of participants' father and mother education level. A One-way MANOVA was performed on worry and emotionality subscales of test anxiety as the dependent variables to see the effect of participants' father and mother education. However, the result indicated that there was no main effect of participants' father education level and mother education level for subscales of test anxiety.

4.3. The Mediation Analyses

For examining the mediational role of difficulties in emotion regulation (clarity, awareness, non-acceptance, goals, strategies, and impulse) in the relationship between parental acceptance/rejection and test anxiety, two parallel mediations were proposed. Two models proposed for maternal and paternal acceptance rejection as independent variables on test anxiety through difficulties in emotion regulation subscales.

In the first parallel multiple mediator model, the mediational role of difficulties in emotion regulation subscales in the relationship between maternal acceptance rejection and test anxiety was examined. There was significant indirect effect of maternal PARQ on test anxiety through clarity, nonacceptance and goals. The total indirect effect of maternal PARQ on test anxiety through all mediators. The total indirect effect shows a significant total indirect effect. In the second parallel multiple mediator model, the mediational role of difficulties in emotion regulation subscales in the relationship between paternal acceptance rejection and test anxiety was examined. There was significant indirect effect of paternal PARQ on test anxiety through clarity, nonacceptance and goals.

There have been various studies related to the mentioned variables. Some studies have shown the importance of children's relationship with their parents in their emotional development, as well as their understanding, expression, and regulation of emotions (Cassidy 2008: 247; Eisenberg et al. 1996; Field 2008: 226). Infants almost entirely rely on their parents for emotion regulation; however, over time, children learn from their interactions with their parents in emotion-laden contexts that some strategies

may prove more useful in reducing emotional arousal compared to others (Bell & Calkins 2000: 161). In addition, some strategies mothers employ to inhibit impulses as well as conformity to external bids serve as potential regulators for children to internalize in toddlerhood (Kopp 1989). Baumrind, Larzelere & Owens (2010) reported that hostile punishment by parents may lead children to be unable to control their impulsive behaviour. Similarly, it has been shown that children may have difficulties in emotion regulation as a result of hostile, aggressive, over controlling or over disciplinary parental attitudes (Calkin et al. 1998; Morris et al. 2007; Shipman & Zeman, 1999). Pektas's (2015) study on university students showed that there is a correlation between perceived parental rejection and difficulties in emotion regulation. Children's development of emotion regulation is also associated with variations of parents' responsiveness styles such as acceptance, support, and sympathy. It has also been reported that maternal support is linked with a greater range, and more appropriate use, of strategies for emotion regulation in children. On the other hand, negative parenting in the form of hostility, psychological control, negative control, or lack of sensitivity has been shown to cause poor emotion regulation (Morris et al. 2007: 370). A study employing the adult attachment interview on adolescents indicated that adolescents with a perception of more secure attachment relationship with their parents have better emotion regulation and less anxiety and hostility than those who perceived their attachment relationship with their parents as more insecure (Kobak & Sceery 1988). Also, Marganska, Gallagher and Miranda (2013: 134) found secure attachment to have a significant negative correlation with all six emotion dysregulation scales. As opposed to secure attachment style, fearful avoidant and preoccupied attachment styles have been found to bear significant positive correlations not only with all measures of emotion dysregulation excluding awareness but also with depression and general anxiety disorder symptoms.

On the other hand, some studies have emphasized the relationship between parental acceptance-rejection and test anxiety. Ün (2018:103) found increased levels of anxiety of preparing for a test with parents' indifferent attitudes. Hanımoğlu (2010: 64) showed that increased levels of maternal acceptance/care led to decreased test anxiety. Teetsel, Ginsburg and Drake's (2014) study on anxious mother and fathers revealed the

mediating role of punishing and exertive attitudes by the mother in the development of anxiety disorders in children. Güler (2012) found that perceived control/supervision attitude by the mother served as a significant predictor of total test anxiety, worry, and emotionality scores in senior year high school students. Several studies have reported that young individuals whose parents are more democratic have less anxiety than those with authoritarian parents (Gökçedağ 2001; Güneysu & Bilir 1988; Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg & Durnbysch 1991). Kısa (1996) found that a significant correlation exists between higher or lower levels of test anxiety and students' perception of their parental attitudes as authoritarian or democratic. Another study has shown that secure and insecure attachment styles significantly correlate with anxiety, negatively and positively, respectively (Yüksel 2014: 84). In addition, it has been reported that individuals with secure attachment styles have lower levels of both vulnerability to anxiety and levels of anxiety compared with those with insecure attachment styles (Watt, McWilliams & Campbell 2005).

Even though the number of studies examining specifically the variables of text anxiety and difficulties of emotion regulation is small, their findings suggest a significant relationship between the two variables. Yüksel (2014) found that augmenting positive emotions, decreasing negative emotions, and positive rumination correlates negatively with anxiety, whereas there is a significant positive correlation between decreasing positive emotions and anxiety. Dora (2012: 89) found gender, self-control, cognitive reappraisal and suppression aimed at emotion management, and brooding as a ruminative reaction to be significant predictors of test anxiety in university students. It is also reported that self-control and cognitive reappraisal correlate more significantly with test anxiety compared to other independent variables. Güçlü (2009: 67-68) conducted four separate hierarchical multiple regression analyses in order to determine how the variables of sex, cognitive appraisal techniques (goal congruence, agency, and testing problem efficacy), academic self-efficacy, and test anxiety influence emotion regulation strategies of eight-grade students during tests (task-focusing, tension reduction, self-blame, and wishful thinking). There were statistically significant correlations between the variables and all the strategies used, with test anxiety producing the most significant effect of all the precursor variables. Mennin et al. (2005)

suggested that anxious individuals find it difficult to understand what they feel and to accept negative feelings, indicating their difficulty in the clarity and awareness subdimensions of emotion regulation. There are several studies showing the close association between the use of ineffective strategies, suppressing emotions, and insufficient cognitive reappraisal and anxiety disorder (Gross & John 2003; Haga, Kraft & Corby 2009)

Some of these findings can be explained according to PARTheory. Psychological damage occurs in parentally rejected individuals, which diminishes their tolerance for stress, i.e. their ego strength. Therefore, these children tend to behave less consistently emotionally than parentally accepted children. Furthermore, children with perceived parental rejection have lower stress tolerance and "ego strength", so they are emotionally less consistent and have difficulty in regulating their emotions. These more hot-tempered children can easily become put off by minor setbacks and difficulties. When things are not the way they expected, they get frustrated easily and feel bad. These children experience frequent mood swings during the day; they can shift from cheerful to pessimistic or unhappy, from nervous to calm, or from warm to hostile in an instant (Arslan 2010: 32-33; Eryavuz 2006: 6). Again, according to the theory, individuals who perceive themselves as parentally rejected feel worthless, incapable, and deserving of negative criticism, which gives way to their belief of personal incompetence and inability. Unfortunately, these feelings tend to become generalized to other areas. The more they see themselves as incompetent and unable, the more they begin to act as though they really are so (Eryavuz 2006; Rohner 1986). People who consider themselves incompetent, unsuccessful, and unable may fail to make functional evaluation of their performance or test results. Hence, they may experience greater anxiety. On the other hand, parental acceptance and parents' encouragement of a warm, supporting relationship as well as independence and autonomy could increase emotional hardiness, aiding a child's efforts to cope with stressful situations such as tests. Besides, children encouraged to experience independence and autonomy could internalize a sense of trust shown by the parents, which improves their coping skills and may reduce test anxiety (Peleg-Popko et al, 2003: 537). Also, anxious children tend to direct their attention primarily on threat, as a result of which they are likely to draw negative

conclusions from their appraisal. This causes fear to become activated, along with various individual or external attempts to regulate it. In cases where effective strategies are employed, the attentional bias is less likely to be focused on threat, with children making less negative appraisals. The use of ineffective strategies, on the other hand, might result in a similarly repeated process. Students with test anxiety may be going through a similar process, which serves to explain their experience of difficulties in emotion regulation (Huberty 2012: 93).

4.4. Limitations of the Study and Recommendations for Future Research

As in many studies, the findings of the present study have some limitations in several respects. The study sample is composed of high school students at 11th and 12th grades in order to examine the relationship between the variables and test anxiety more thoroughly. This places a limitation on the generalization of the findings into other stages of development. Hence, it is suggested that future studies may benefit from examining different age groups. Another limitation of the present study is that data were collected only from basic high school students, which limits external validity of the findings. For this reason, it is recommended that the variables analyzed in this study be examined in other types of high schools.

Data were collected by means of self-explanatory scales, which presuppose that participants will answer the questions in an honest, sincere, and self-reflecting way. Participants' attitudes towards the scales used in the research may have influenced the findings. Lastly, even though the variables of gender and parents' educational level were included in this study, level of income of the family was not included, though it could also have an effect on the dependent variable. It is recommended that specific variables should be included in future research in order to obtain more in-depth findings.

The present study examined the relationship between maternal and paternal acceptance-rejection and the said variables one by one through mediator analysis.

Future studies may investigate the moderating role of the father in the relationship between maternal acceptance-rejection and child, or of the mother in the relationship between paternal acceptance-rejection and child.

4.5. Clinical Implications

The present study found correlations between perceived parental acceptancerejection, test anxiety, and difficulties in emotion regulation. When examined in detail, the findings of the present study may lead to the conclusion that test anxiety may be associated with perceived parental rejection and difficulties in emotion regulation. Moreover, the relationship between the perceived maternal and paternal acceptancerejection and test anxiety were mediated by clarity, non-acceptance, goals subdimensions of emotion regulation difficulties. Therefore, it can be suggested that levels of parental acceptance and rejection as well as emotion regulation skills need to be analyzed in detail for individuals who are referred to clinics with complaints of test anxiety. It is important that sessions be planned and carried out in accordance with the findings of such analyses. In addition, another finding of the present study was that gender differences had significant effects on difficulties of emotional regulation and test anxiety. Females were detected to have higher scores not only in test anxiety and its subdimensions bit also in difficulties of emotional regulation and some of their subdimensions compared to males. Therefore, one should bear in mind that females who apply to clinicians with complaints of test anxiety may have more difficulty in regulating their emotions, and experience the negative cognitive and physiological aspects of the test more severely.

The importance of parental attitudes comes to the foreground once again in this study. In therapeutic sessions, parental attitudes towards the child should not only be handled in terms of test anxiety, but the behaviour and attitudes of the parents in daily life need to be analyzed as well. It is of utmost importance that interviews aiming to increase parental behaviour revealing warmth and affection (acceptance) and to decrease critical or cold (rejecting) behaviour. The organization of culture-specific

programmes of perceived parental acceptance may prove particularly beneficial in overcoming test anxiety, which has been shown to be associated with parental attitudes.

Another finding of the study that is consistent with previous reports is a possible correlation between perceived parental rejection and difficulties in emotion regulation. For this reason, culture-specific programmes directed at parents need to be organized for perceived parental acceptance. Also, preventive training programmes aimed at both parents and children to develop emotion regulation skills could be set up.

4.6. Conclusion

Present study, aimed to investigate the mediator role of emotion regulation difficulties in the relationship between parental acceptance-rejection and test anxiety. In a general sense, test anxiety shows a significant increase along with increased parental rejection and emotion regulation difficulties. At the same time, some of the subdimensions of these variables were found to be correlated and to differ according to gender and education level of the mother. Clarity, non-acceptance and goals subdimensions of emotion regulation difficulties were shown to mediate the relationship between the maternal and paternal acceptance-rejection and test anxiety. Clinicians' awareness of these relationships may be beneficial in the treatment of test anxiety. It can be suggested that clinicians can benefit from carrying out more in-depth analysis of parental acceptance-rejection and emotion regulation skills when investigating reasons for test anxiety. Activities aimed at improving emotion regulation skills could prove to be particularly beneficial in the treatment process.

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 Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü.



| 1) Cinsiyetiniz: | 2) Yaşınız: | | |
|--|--|--|--|
| 3) Sınıfınız: | 4) Siz dahil kaç kardeşsiniz: | | |
| 5) Kaçıncı çocuksunuz: | | | |
| 6) Anne ve Babanızın şu anki du | rumu aşağıdakilerden hangisidir? | | |
| □Evliler ve birlikte yaşıyor | rlar. | | |
| □Evliler ve ayrı yaşıyorlar | | | |
| □Boşandılar. | | | |
| □Annem vefat etti. | | | |
| ☐ Babam vefat etti. | | | |
| 7)Annenizin Eğitim Durumu: □ | Okuryazar değil 🗆 Okuryazar 🗅 İlkokul mezun | | |
| ☐ Ortaokul mezunu ☐ Lis | se mezunu 🔲 Üniversite mezunu 🗖 Lisansüstü | | |
| 8)Babanızın Eğitim Durumu: 🗆 | Okuryazar değil □ Okuryazar □ İlkokul mezunu | | |
| ☐ Ortaokul mezunu ☐ Lise | mezunu □ Üniversite mezunu □ Lisansüstü | | |
| 9)Annenizin Mesleği: | | | |
| | | | |
| 10) Babanızın Mesleği: | | | |
| | 12) Rugiine kadar psikolojik | | |
| 11) Yaşadığınız yer | 12) Bugüne kadar psikolojik sorunlarınız oldu mu? | | |
| 11) Yaşadığınız yer □Köy | sorunlarınız oldu mu? | | |
| 11) Yaşadığınız yer | | | |
| 11) Yaşadığınız yer □Köy □Kasaba | sorunlarınız oldu mu? □Hayır □Evet | | |
| 11) Yaşadığınız yer □Köy □Kasaba | sorunlarınız oldu mu? | | |
| 11) Yaşadığınız yer □Köy □Kasaba | sorunlarınız oldu mu? Hayır Evet (Belirtiniz) | | |

Appendix B: Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire (PARQ): Child Version Short Form

Bu sayfada **baba-çocuk** ilişkisini içeren ifadeler bulunmaktadır. Bu ifadelerin babanızın size olan davranışlarına uygun olup olmadığını düşünün. Her ifadeyi okuduktan sonra o ifade, babanızın size karşı davranışları konusunda ne kadar doğruysa, "Hemen hemen her zaman doğru", "Bazen doğru", "Nadiren doğru" veya "Hiçbir zaman doğru değil" şeklinde işaretleyiniz.

Examples of items:

| | | DOĞ | RU | DOĞRU DEĞİL | |
|-----|---|-----------------------------|----------------|------------------|-----------------------------------|
| BAI | BAM | Hemen Her Zaman Doğru | Bazen Doğru | Nadiren Doğru | Hiçbir Zaman Doğru Değil |
| 11. | Ondan yardım istediğimde beni duymazlıktan gelir. | | | | |
| 14. | Beni kırmak için elinden geleni yapar. | | | | |
| 17. | Bana yaptığım şeylerin önemli olduğunu hissettirir. | | | | |
| 22. | Beni sevdiğini belli eder. | | | | |

Appendix C: Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale

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

Examples of items:

| 2. Ne hissettiğimi dikkate alırım. | | | | | | |
|---|--------|---------------------------|--------------|--------------------------|--|--|
| O Neredeyse Hiçbir zaman | OBazen | O Yaklaşık Yarı yarıya | O Çoğu zaman | O Neredeyse Her zaman | | |
| | | | | | | |
| 5. Duygularıma bir anlam vermekte zorlanırım. | | | | | | |
| O Neredeyse Hiçbir zaman | OBazen | O Yaklaşık Yarı yarıya | O Çoğu zaman | O Neredeyse Her zaman | | |
| | | | | | | |
| 11. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, böyle hissettiğim için kendime kızarım. | | | | | | |
| O Neredeyse Hiçbir zaman | OBazen | O Yaklaşık Yarı yarıya | O Çoğu zaman | O Neredeyse Her zaman | | |
| | | | | | | |
| 21. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde, bu duygumdan dolayı kendimden utanırım. | | | | | | |
| O Neredeyse Hiçbir zaman | OBazen | O Yaklaşık Yarı yarıya | O Çoğu zaman | O Neredeyse Her zaman | | |

Appendix D: Test Anxiety Inventory

Aşağıda, insanların kendilerini tanımlamak için kullandıkları bir dizi ifade sıralanmıştır. Bunların her birini okuyun ve genel olarak nasıl hissettiğinizi anlatan ifadenin sağındaki boşluklardan uygun olanın içini karalayın. Burada doğru yada yanlış yanıt yoktur. İfadelerin hiç biri üzerinde fazla zaman harcamadan yazılı ve sözlü sınavlarda genel olarak nasıl hissettiğinizi gösteren yanıtı işaretleyin.

Examples of items:

| | Hiçbir | Bazen | Sık | Her |
|--|--------|-------|-----|-------|
| | zaman | | sık | Zaman |
| 1. Sınav sırasında kendimi güvenli ve rahat | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| hissederim. | | | | |
| 8. Başarısız olma düşünceleri, dikkatimi sınav | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| üzerinde toplamama engel olur. | | | | |
| 11. Bir sınav kağıdını geri almadan hemen | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| önce çok huzursuz olurum. | | | | |
| 14. Önemli bir sınav sırasında paniğe kapılırım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| | | | | |
| 17. Sınavlar sırasında başarısız olmanın | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| sonuçlarını düşünmekten kendimi alamam. | | | | |

Appendix E: Parental Consent Forms

Bolu Abant İzzet Baysal Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Klinik Psikoloji Yüksek Lisans Tezi olarak Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Gaye Zeynep ÇENESİZ danışmanlığında yürütülmekte olan, Psikolog Neşe SOYSAL'ın "Ebeveyn Kabul-Reddinin Sınav Kaygısı İle İlişkisinde Duygu Düzenleme Güçlüklerinin Aracı Rolü (The Mediator Role of Emotion Regulation Difficulties in the Relationship Between Perceived Parental Acceptance-Rejection and Text Anxiety)" isimli tez çalışmasının amacını ve nasıl yapılacağını anladım. Bu çalışmaya katılan çocuğumun hiçbir fiziksel, psikolojik, sosyal, duygusal, ekonomik vb. risk ya da rahatsızlık yaşamayacağı bilgisi verildi. Araştırmacı tarafından araştırma projesi bana sözlü olarak anlatıldı ve çalışmaya çocuğumun katılmasıyla ilgili olarak sormak istediğim soruları araştırmacının kendisine veya görevli olan kişiye sorarak öğrenme fırsatım oldu. Çocuğumun çalışmadan herhangi bir neden belirtmeksizin çalışmanın her aşamada çekilebileceğini biliyorum. Çalışmanın Bolu Abant İzzet Baysal Üniversitesi Etik Komitesi tarafından onaylandığı bilgisi benimle paylaşılmış olup, Neşe Soysal tarafından yapılan bu tez çalışmasına çocuğumun katılmasını kabul ediyorum.

| - | | \sim | | • | /1 C | | |
|---|---------|--------|-------|----|----------|----------|----|
| | cim | ~ C | 171 C | ım | (liittan | vazınız | ١. |
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İmza:

Tarih:

Appendix F: Informed Consent Form

Bolu Abant İzzet Baysal Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Klinik Psikoloji Yüksek Lisans Tezi olarak Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Gaye Zeynep ÇENESİZ danışmanlığında yürütülmekte olan, Psikolog Neşe SOYSAL'ın "Algılanan Ebeveyn Kabul-Reddinin Sınav Kaygısı İle İlişkisinde Duygu Düzenleme Güçlüklerinin Aracı Rolü" isimli tez çalışmasına davet edilmektesiniz.

Çalışmaya katılmaya karar vermeden önce çalışmanın neden ve nasıl yapılacağını anlamanız oldukça önemlidir. Bu nedenle lütfen biraz zaman ayırın ve aşağıdaki bilgileri dikkatlice okuyun, isterseniz başkalarıyla tartışın. Açık olmayan bir bölüm varsa ya da daha ayrıntılı bilgiye ihtiyaç duyuyorsanız lütfen bize ulaşın.

Sınav kaygısı; öncesinde öğrenilen bilginin sınav sırasında etkili bir biçimde kullanılmasına engel olan ve kişinin kendi potansiyelini/bilgi birikimini gösterememesine yol açan kaygı durumudur. Bu kaygıyı yordayan pek çok faktör bulunmaktadır. Bu araştırmanın sonunda, lise öğrencilerinde algılanan ebeveyn kabulreddinin sınav kaygısı ile ilişkisini incelerken, bu ilişkide duygu düzenleme güçlüklerinin de aracı rolünü belirlemek hedeflenmektedir. Araştırmaya katılmanın size hemen dönecek bir faydası bulunmamakla beraber, araştırmaya vereceğiniz bilgilerle, gelecekte sağlık alanına, topluma veya bilime ayrıca bu rahatsızlığa sahip kişilere yönelik müdahaleleri belirlemek adına çok değerli bir katkınızın olacağı düşünülmektedir.

Bu çalışmaya toplam 300 (11. ve 12. sınıf) lise öğrencisinin katılması planlanmaktadır. Bu çalışmada sizden istenilen tek şey, size verilmiş olan ölçekleri doğru ve samimi bir şekilde doldurmanızdır. Ölçekleri nasıl dolduracağınızın bilgisi her ölçeğin başlangıcında yer almaktadır. Ayrıca anlaşılmayan veya takıldığınız herhangi bir şey olursa, ilgili kişiye soru sorabilirsiniz.

Araştırmaya katılım tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Çalışmaya katılmama veya herhangi bir zamanda herhangi bir nedenle ya da neden göstermeksizin araştırmadan çekilme durumunda size yönelik olumsuz hiçbir sonuç bulunmamaktadır. Araştırma kapsamı gereğince size sınav kaygısı ile ilişkili olduğu düşünülen anketler

yöneltilecektir. Çalışmanın tamamı yaklaşık 20-30 dakika sürmektedir. Bu çalışmada vermiş olduğunuz tüm cevaplar tamamen gizli kalacak ve sadece bu araştırmanın kapsamı içinde kullanılacaktır. Tüm veriler, size verilecek bir katılımcı kodu ile saklanacak, hiçbir yerde kimliğinize ilişkin herhangi bir bilgi kullanılmayacaktır. Ayrıca, isminizi veya imza gibi kimliğinizi belirtecek herhangi bir bilgiyi bu onam formu dışındaki hiçbir yazılı forma yazmamalısınız. Onam formları sadece araştırmanın yürütücüsü tarafından ulaşılabilen kapalı bir yerde muhafaza edilecektir. Katılımınızı gönüllü bir şekilde kabul ettiğinizi belirten belgeniz doldurduğunuz anketlerden ayrı tutularak saklanacaktır.

Bu çalışmaya katılımınızdan dolayı hiçbir fiziksel, psikolojik, sosyal, duygusal, ekonomik vb. risk ya da rahatsızlık yaşamayacağınız öngörülmektedir. Ancak, katılım sırasında sorulardan veya başka bir nedenden dolayı kendinizi kötü hissederseniz çalışmayı yarıda bırakma hakkına sahipsiniz. Bunun yanı sıra, bu çalışmanın size verdiği rahatsızlığı gidermekle ve duygu durumunuzu düzeltmekle yükümlüyüm. Bu çalışmaya katılımınızdan dolayı size veya eğitim görmekte olduğunuz kuruma herhangi bir ücret verilmeyecek ya da sizden veya eğitim gördüğünüz kurumdan herhangi bir ücret talep edilmeyecektir.

Doldurmuş olduğunuz ölçekler üzerinde herhangi bir kişisel iletişim bilgisi bulunmaması nedeniyle, tarafınıza sonuçlar ile ilgili herhangi bir bilgilendirme yapılmayacaktır. Çalışma hakkında her türlü bilgi ve sorularınızı Bolu Abant İzzet Baysal Üniversitesi Klinik Psikoloji Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi Neşe SOYSAL'a (nesedurgun87@hotmail.com) iletebilirsiniz.

Bu araştırma "Bolu Abant İzzet Baysal Üniversitesi İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu" tarafından onaylanmıştır (Karar no: 2019/03). Araştırmaya katılımınızla ilgili herhangi bir şikâyetiniz varsa bunu Etik Kurul Başkanı Prof. Dr. Hamit COŞKUN'a (Tel: 03742541310) bildirebilirsiniz. Her tür şikayetiniz gizlilikle değerlendirilecek, araştırılacak ve sonuç hakkında tarafınıza bilgi verilecektir. Bu yüksek lisans tez araştırmasına vermiş olduğunuz destek ve yardım için teşekkür ederiz.

Bilgi – onam formunu okudum ve araştırma projesi bana sözlü olarak anlatıldı ve bu çalışmaya katılmakla ilgili olarak sormak istediğim soruları araştırmacının

kendisine veya görevli olan kişiye sorarak öğrenme fırsatım olduğunu, çalışmadan herhangi bir neden belirtmeksizin istediğim her aşamada çekilebileceğimi biliyorum. Çalışmanın Bolu Abant İzzet Baysal Üniversitesi Etik Komitesi tarafından onaylandığı bilgisi benimle paylaşılmış olup, Neşe SOYSAL tarafından yapılan bu tez çalışmasına gönüllü olarak katılmayı kabul ediyorum.

Katılımcının İmzası:

Tarih: